

**Gradual replacement of wild bees by honeybees  
in flowers of the Mediterranean Basin over the last 50 years**

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1 **Abstract**

2 Evidence for pollinator declines largely originates from mid-latitude regions in North  
3 America and Europe. Geographical heterogeneity in pollinator trends combined with  
4 geographical biases in pollinator studies, can produce distorted extrapolations and limit  
5 understanding of pollinator responses to environmental changes. In contrast to the declines  
6 experienced in some well-investigated European and North American regions, honeybees  
7 seem to have increased recently in some areas of the Mediterranean Basin. Since  
8 honeybees can impact negatively on wild bees, it was hypothesized that a biome-wide  
9 alteration in bee pollinator assemblages may be underway in the Mediterranean Basin  
10 involving a reduction in the importance of wild bees as pollinators. This hypothesis was  
11 tested using published quantitative data on bee pollinators of wild and cultivated plants  
12 from studies conducted between 1963-2017 in 13 circum-Mediterranean countries.  
13 Honeybee colonies increased exponentially and wild bees were gradually replaced by  
14 honeybees in flowers of wild and cultivated plants. Proportion of wild bees at flowers  
15 quadruplicated that of honeybees at the beginning of the period, the proportions of both  
16 groups becoming roughly similar fifty years later. The Mediterranean Basin is a world  
17 biodiversity hotspot for wild bees and wild bee-pollinated plants, and the ubiquitous rise  
18 of honeybees to dominance as pollinators could in the long run undermine the diversity of  
19 plants and wild bees in the region.

20 **Key words:** bee pollination, honeybees, long-term trends, Mediterranean Basin, wild  
21 bees.

22 *“El sur también existe”*

23 Joan Manuel Serrat, singer and songwriter

24

## 25 **Introduction**

26 The structure and dynamics of ecological communities can vary tremendously across  
27 biomes and continents. Critical elements of ecological knowledge will thus be closely tied  
28 to the particular location where it is attained, and attempts at extrapolations which are  
29 based on limited, spatially biased ecological data may produce distorted or erroneous  
30 inferences (Martin et al. 2012, Culumber et al. 2019). For instance, unawareness of  
31 geographical sampling biases has been pointed out as one possible weakness of  
32 generalizations on “pollinator decline” and “pollination crisis” (Ghazoul 2005, Archer  
33 2014, Herrera 2019, Jamieson et al. 2019), two topics that have recently elicited  
34 considerable academic and societal interest because of the importance of animal  
35 pollination for the reproduction of many wild and crop plants (Ollerton et al. 2014,  
36 Senapathi et al. 2015, Breeze et al. 2016, Ollerton 2017). Evidence for the view of a  
37 generalized pollinator decline is strongly biased geographically, as it mostly originates  
38 from a few mid-latitude regions in Europe and North America (Rodger et al. 2004,  
39 Ghazoul 2005, Winfree et al. 2009, Archer 2014, Hung et al. 2018, Nicholson and Egan  
40 2019). Mounting evidence indicates, however, that pollinator declines are not universal;  
41 that the sign and magnitude of temporal trends in pollinator abundance may differ among  
42 pollinator groups, continents or regions; and that taxonomic and geographical biases in  
43 pollinator studies are bound to limit a realistic understanding of the potentially diverse  
44 pollinator responses to environmental changes and the associated causal mechanisms  
45 (Aizen and Harder 2009a,b, Potts et al. 2010, vanEngelsdorp and Meixner 2010, Hofmann  
46 et al. 2018, Herrera 2019, Jamieson et al. 2019).

47 Even for well-studied bees, data supporting a general decline of these important  
48 pollinators tend to be geographically biased (Archer et al. 2014, Ollerton 2017, Hung et al.  
49 2018). For example, in thoroughly studied North America and mid-western Europe the  
50 number of honeybee (*Apis mellifera*) colonies has experienced severe declines, but the  
51 trend is apparently reversed in the less investigated areas of southern Europe, where  
52 honeybee colonies seem to have been steadily increasing over large territories in the last  
53 decades (Aizen and Harder 2009a: Fig. S1, Potts et al. 2010, vanEngelsdorp and Meixner  
54 2010, Moritz and Erler 2016). Honeybees have been repeatedly shown to have negative  
55 impacts on wild bee populations in both natural and anthropogenic scenarios (Goulson and  
56 Sparrow 2009, Shavit et al. 2009, Lindström et al. 2016, Torné-Noguera et al. 2016,  
57 Magrach et al. 2017, Ropars et al. 2019, Valido et al. 2019). I thus formulated the  
58 hypothesis that, if the abundance of managed honeybees has been actually increasing in  
59 the Mediterranean Basin over the last decades, then a profound biome-wide alteration in  
60 the proportional composition of bee pollinator assemblages could be currently underway  
61 there, involving a gradual replacement of wild bees by honeybees in flowers. This paper  
62 verifies this hypothesis using data from a large sample of published investigations on the  
63 bee pollinators of wild and cultivated plants, conducted during the last 50 years  
64 throughout the Mediterranean Basin. Results of this study stress the importance of  
65 broadening the geographical scope of current investigations on pollinator trends, while at  
66 the same time issue a warning on the perils of uncritically importing to Mediterranean  
67 ecosystems honeybee conservation actions specifically designed for the contrasting  
68 situations that prevail in temperate-climate European or North American countries.

69 **Material and methods**

70 *The data*

71 The literature on floral biology, pollination ecology, plant-pollinator interactions and crop  
72 pollination was searched for field studies conducted during 1960-2019 in the  
73 Mediterranean Basin and providing quantitative data on the relative abundance of  
74 honeybees and wild bees at flowers of insect-pollinated plants, either wild-growing or  
75 cultivated. Preliminary searches had shown that studies conducted before 1960 quite  
76 rarely reported quantitative data on bee abundance at flowers. The literature screening  
77 used searches in Web of Science, Google Scholar and my personal database of plant-  
78 pollinator studies. To improve the chances of obtaining a representative, geographically  
79 comprehensive coverage of all regions surrounding the Mediterranean Sea (i.e., African,  
80 Asian and European shores), literature searches were conducted using terms in English,  
81 French, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish. For inclusion in this study I considered  
82 exclusively field investigations where (1) quantitative data were provided on numbers or  
83 relative proportions of wild bee and honeybee individuals recorded at flowering plants or  
84 flowering patches of single plant species, obtained using direct visual counts or  
85 standardized collections. Investigations at the plant community level or providing  
86 semiquantitative or subjective abundance scores of bee abundance were thus excluded;  
87 and (2) the year(s) on which bee abundance data had been originally collected in the field  
88 was unambiguously stated. In a few publications where information from two or more  
89 study years had been pooled into a single estimate of wild bee and honeybee abundances,  
90 but the data were otherwise suitable, the average year was used. A total of 336 estimates  
91 of wild bee and honeybee abundance at the flowers of 200 plant species were gathered  
92 from 136 different literature sources. Original figures of bee abundance at flowers were  
93 transformed to proportions of wild bee ( $p_{wb}$ ) and honeybee ( $p_{hb} = 1 - p_{wb}$ ) individuals

94 relative to individuals of all bees combined. Each data record corresponded to a unique  
95 combination of plant species x sampling year x sampling location. The data had been  
96 collected in the field between 1963–2017 in 13 different countries surrounding the  
97 Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 1). Information on plant type (wild-growing vs. cultivated) and  
98 taxonomic affiliation (plant family) was also incorporated into the data set.

99 The complete data set including literature sources is presented in Table S1, electronic  
100 supplementary material. Most data originated from Spain, Italy, Algeria and Egypt (159,  
101 59, 33 and 21 records, respectively; Fig. 1). The median of the distribution of study years  
102 was 1996 (interquartile range = 1986-2008). There were 106 and 230 records for  
103 cultivated and wild-growing plants, respectively. A total of 54 plant families were  
104 represented in the sample, with most species belonging to Fabaceae, Lamiaceae,  
105 Asteraceae, Rosaceae and Cistaceae; 51, 34, 32, 30 and 25 records, respectively).

106 Trends in honeybee abundance in the Mediterranean Basin over the period considered  
107 in this study were assessed using information gathered from the Food and Agriculture  
108 Organization (FAO) of the United Nations global database (FAOSTAT;  
109 <http://www.fao.org/faostat>). This data source has been used previously in historical  
110 reviews of honeybee abundance (Aizen and Harder 2009a,b, vanEngelsdorp and Meixner  
111 2010, Moritz and Erler 2016). Number of honeybee colonies per country and year for the  
112 period 1963-2017 was obtained from FAOSTAT (accessed 25 September 2019) for each  
113 of the 13 Mediterranean countries with estimates of wild bee and honeybee relative  
114 abundances in my data set (Fig. 1). Comparable abundance figures were obtained by  
115 dividing the number of honeybee colonies by the land surface of the country (obtained  
116 also from FAOSTAT), which provided estimates of honeybee colonies/km<sup>2</sup> per country  
117 and year. Data on honey production per country and year were also obtained from

118 FAOSTAT to check the reliability of colony numbers as a suitable proxy for honeybee  
119 abundance (Aizen and Harder 2009b, Moritz and Erler 2016).

120 *Statistical analyses*

121 For the purpose of statistical analyses, the log-odds that one randomly chosen bee found at  
122 flowers was a wild bee rather than a honeybee was estimated for each data record using  
123 the logit transformation,  $\text{logit}(p_{wb}) = \log(p_{wb}/p_{hb})$ . Since the logit function is undefined for  
124  $p = 0$  or  $1$ , proportions were remaped to the interval  $(0.05, 0.95)$  prior to the  
125 transformation.

126 The null hypothesis that the relative proportions of wild bees and honeybees at  
127 flowers were unrelated to year of data collection was tested by fitting a linear mixed effect  
128 model.  $\text{Logit}(p_{wb})$  was the response variable, and data collection year (treated as a  
129 continuous numerical variable), plant type (two-level factor, wild-growing *vs.* cultivated)  
130 and their interaction were included as fixed effects. Country of origin, plant family and  
131 plant species were included as random effects to statistically control for, on one side, the  
132 effects of likely taxonomic and geographical correlations in the data and, on the other, the  
133 unbalanced distribution of data across countries and plant taxonomic groups. The  
134 existence of a long-term trend in honeybee abundance in the Mediterranean Basin as a  
135 whole was tested by fitting a linear mixed model to the FAOSTAT colony density data  
136 (log-transformed). Year (as a numerical variable) was the single fixed effect, and country  
137 was included in the model as a random effect to account for the correlated data of the  
138 same country. Linear mixed models allow drawing conclusions on fixed effects with  
139 reference to a broad inference space whose scope transcends the specific samples studied  
140 (McLean et al. 1991, Bolker 2015). In the present instance, the universe of all countries  
141 and plant species in the Mediterranean Basin that could have been sampled for this study  
142 represents the broad inference space (Schabenberger and Pierce 2001). Conclusions on

143 long-term trends in honeybee abundance and  $\text{logit}(p_{wb})$ , including predicted marginal  
144 effects, will thus refer to such broad inference space.

145 All statistical analyses were carried out using the R environment (R Core Team  
146 2018). Linear mixed models were fitted with the lmer function in the lme4 package (Bates  
147 et al. 2015). Statistical significance of fixed effects was assessed using analysis of  
148 deviance-based, Type II Wald Chi-square tests using the Anova function in the car  
149 package (Fox and Weisberg 2011). The function ggpredict from the ggeffects package  
150 (Lüdtke 2018) was used to compute marginal effects of year on  $\text{logit}(p_{wb})$  separately for  
151 wild-growing and cultivated plants.

## 152 **Results**

153 Estimated density of managed honeybee colonies tended to increase steadily over the  
154 1963-2017 period in most Mediterranean countries considered in this paper (Fig. 2). The  
155 linear mixed model fitted to colony density data (log-transformed), with year as fixed  
156 effect and country as random effect, revealed a highly significant, positive linear effect of  
157 year on colony density (Chi-squared = 412.9,  $P < 10^{-16}$ ). The estimated linear trend for the  
158 whole Mediterranean Basin obtained from this model is depicted in Fig. 2. Linearity of the  
159 estimated relationship on the logarithmic scale reveals an exponential increase in the  
160 density of honeybee colonies in the region as a whole over the period considered. There  
161 was a close linear relationship across years between mean honey production and mean  
162 number of honeybee colonies per country and year (Fig. S1, electronic supplementary  
163 material), which supports the reliability of FAOSTAT colony number data as a proxy for  
164 honeybee abundance.

165 For all years, countries and plant species combined, the logarithm of the ratio between  
166 proportions of wild bees and honeybees at flowers [ $\text{logit}(p_{wb})$ ] encompassed the whole  
167 range of possible values, and there was extensive overlap between cultivated and wild-



168 growing plants (Fig. 3). Wild bees tended to be proportionally more abundant in flowers  
169 of wild-growing plants (mean  $\logit(p_{wb}) \pm SE = 0.655 \pm 0.120$ ,  $N = 230$ ) than in flowers of  
170 cultivated ones ( $-0.242 \pm 0.167$ ,  $N = 106$ ), the difference being statistically significant  
171 (Chi-squared = 18.96,  $P = 0.000013$ , Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test). For all the data  
172 combined (“naïve” least-squares regression fitted to the data; Fig. 4A), there existed a  
173 statistically significant, negative relationship between  $\logit(p_{wb})$  and year of study ( $r_s = -$   
174  $0.139$ ,  $N = 336$ ,  $P = 0.011$ , Spearman rank correlation), thus suggesting a declining trend  
175 in the importance of wild bees at flowers relative to honeybees over the period considered  
176 (Fig. 4A). The reality of this trend was corroborated and strengthened after statistically  
177 accounting for correlations underlying the data and the unbalanced distribution across  
178 plant types, countries, plant families and plant species.

179 Results of the linear mixed model testing for the effect of year of study on  $\logit(p_{wb})$   
180 are summarized in Table 1. After statistically accounting for plant type (wild-growing vs.  
181 cultivated), country, plant family and plant species, there was a highly significant negative  
182 effect of study year on  $\logit(p_{wb})$ . The effect was similar for wild-growing and cultivated  
183 species, as denoted by the statistical nonsignificance of the year x plant type interaction.  
184 The effect of plant type on  $\logit(p_{wb})$  was only marginally significant after statistically  
185 accounting for the rest of effects in the model (Table 1). Mean predicted marginal effects  
186 of year on  $\logit(p_{wb})$ , computed separately for wild-growing and cultivated plants,  
187 illustrate a linear decline in  $\logit(p_{wb})$  over the study period (Fig. 4B). The data-predicted  
188 proportion of wild bees at flowers for 1963 roughly quadruplicated that of honeybees,  
189 while the predicted proportions of both groups for 2017 were roughly similar. This long-  
190 term replacement of wild bees by honeybees at flowers occurred at similar rates in wild  
191 and cultivated plants, as shown by the parallel predicted marginal effects (Fig. 4B).

192 **Discussion**

193 Previous studies that have examined long-term trends in honeybee colony numbers from a  
194 wide geographical perspective have consistently shown that (1) there is not any hint of  
195 honeybees declining at a planetary scale, but rather considerable evidence that the total  
196 number of colonies is increasing globally and in almost every continent; (2) well-  
197 documented instances of honeybee decline are few and fairly restricted geographically,  
198 being mostly circumscribed to parts of Europe and North America; and (3) in the  
199 thoroughly-investigated European continent, honeybee declines have occurred in mid-  
200 latitude and northern countries, while increases predominate in the south (Aizen and  
201 Harder 2009a, Potts et al. 2010, vanEngelsdorp and Meixner 2010, Moritz and Erler  
202 2016). As an example, Fig. 5 depicts the opposite trajectories of honeybee colony density  
203 over the last half century in two countries representative from mid-western Europe and the  
204 Mediterranean Basin (see also vanEngelsdorp and Meixnar: Fig. 2). The analyses  
205 presented in this study show that honeybee colonies have increased exponentially over the  
206 last 50 years in the Mediterranean Basin, comprising areas of southern Europe, the Middle  
207 East and Northern Africa. The latter two regions are prominent examples of ecologically  
208 understudied areas (Martin et al. 2012) and, as far as I know, have been never considered  
209 in quantitative analyses of bee population trends. The empirical evidence available,  
210 therefore, supports the view that to the extent that extrapolations on “pollinator decline” or  
211 “pollination crisis” were at some time inspired by the decline of honeybees in a few  
212 regions (see, e.g., Ghazoul 2005, Potts et al. 2010, Ollerton 2017, for reviews), such  
213 generalizations represent prime examples of distorted ecological knowledge arising from  
214 geographically biased data (Ghazoul 2005, Martin et al. 2012, Archer et al. 2014,  
215 Culumber et al. 2019).

216 Correlative and experimental evidence alike has shown that at the local and regional

217 scales honeybees can have strong negative impacts on wild bee populations in both natural  
218 and anthropogenic scenarios (Shavit et al. 2009, Lindström et al. 2016, Torné-Noguera et  
219 al. 2016, Magrach et al. 2017, Ropars et al. 2019, Valido et al. 2019), and that the absence  
220 of honeybees in well-preserved natural areas is associated with increasing wild bee  
221 populations (Herrera 2019). Much of the direct or circumstantial evidence on the harmful  
222 effects of honeybees on wild bees originated in the Mediterranean Basin, which motivated  
223 the hypothesis formulated in this paper of a possible replacement of wild bees by  
224 honeybees in the Mediterranean in parallel to increasing honeybee abundance. This  
225 hypothesis has been tested using literature data from highly heterogeneous sources, and  
226 originally collected using an enormous variety of field procedures. The data were also  
227 imbalanced with regard to observation year, country of origin or plant taxonomic  
228 affiliation, all of which combined to produce a “messy” dataset. Despite these limitations  
229 of the data, the prediction of a gradual long-term replacement of wild bees by honeybees  
230 in flowers of the Mediterranean Basin was verified. This conclusion persisted regardless  
231 of whether the hypothesis was tested “naïvely” (i.e., simple correlation on all data pooled)  
232 or by fitting a linear mixed model where major sources of data “messiness” were  
233 appropriately handled by treating them as random effects. Estimated marginal effects  
234 predicted from the mixed model revealed that, on average, the proportion of wild bees at  
235 Mediterranean flowers roughly quadruplicated that of honeybees at the beginning of the  
236 period considered ( $\text{logit}(p_{wb}) \sim 1.5$ ) while fifty years later the proportions of the two  
237 groups had become roughly similar ( $\text{logit}(p_{wb}) \sim 0$ ).

238       On average, model-predicted importance of wild bees relative to honeybees was  
239 slightly lower in flowers of cultivated plants throughout the period considered, a finding  
240 that seems logically related to the traditional practice of placing honeybee colonies in the  
241 vicinity of orchards or cultivated land to ensure crop pollination. More difficult to

242 interpret is the close similarity between wild and cultivated plants in average replacement  
243 rate of wild bees by honeybees in flowers, denoted by parallel slopes of mean predicted  
244 marginal effects of year on  $\text{logit}(p_{wb})$  and statistical nonsignificance of the year x plant  
245 type interaction effect. A tentative interpretation of this finding is that the causal  
246 mechanism behind trends in the proportional composition of bees at flowers was one and  
247 the same for cultivated and wild plants, or in other words, that increasing honeybee colony  
248 density induced similar proportional reductions of wild bees in flowers from  
249 anthropogenous and natural habitats. Irrespective of the causal mechanism accounting for  
250 it, however, parallel trends in the proportional decline of wild bees relative to honeybees  
251 in wild and cultivated plants corroborate in a broader geographical context previous  
252 findings at a regional scale showing that natural Mediterranean habitats are not exempt  
253 from the negative impact of increasing honeybee densities in anthropogenous habitats  
254 nearby (Magrach et al. 2017).

255 Results of this study are important because the Mediterranean Basin is a world  
256 biodiversity hotspot for both wild bees and wild bee-pollinated plants (Petanidou and  
257 Vokou 1993, Dafni and O'Toole 1994, Michener 2000, Petanidou and Lamborn 2005,  
258 Harrison and Noss 2017). Predicting the global consequences for the Mediterranean flora  
259 of the proportional decline of wild bees as floral visitors documented in this paper will  
260 require extensive data, e.g., on the pollinating effectiveness of different groups of bees on  
261 different plants. Nevertheless, studies conducted so far on the effectiveness of honeybees  
262 and wild bees as pollinators of cultivated and wild species in the Mediterranean Basin  
263 have shown that wild bees generally are better pollinators than honeybees (Herrera 1987,  
264 Obeso 1992, Bosch and Blas 1994, Vicens and Bosch 2000, Potts et al. 2001, Monzón et  
265 al. 2004). If these limited findings are corroborated in the future by more extensive  
266 investigations, then the gradual replacement of wild bees by honeybees currently

267 underway in Mediterranean flowers could translate into impaired fruit and seed production  
268 and, in the case of pollen-limited wild plants, reduced population recruitment.

269       It does not seem implausible to suggest that, because of its colossal magnitude and  
270 spatial extent, the exponential flood of honeybee colonies that is silently taking over the  
271 Mediterranean Basin can pose serious threats to two hallmarks of the Mediterranean  
272 biome, namely the extraordinary diversities of wild bees and wild bee-pollinated plants  
273 (Blondel et al. 2010). The Mediterranean Basin is home to ~3300 wild bee species, or  
274 ~87% of those occurring in the whole Western Palaearctic region (data from Discover  
275 Life, <https://www.discoverlife.org/>, accessed 1 November 2019; and Kuhlmann 2019).  
276 Large as that percentage may seem, it is likely an underestimate given the imperfect  
277 knowledge of the rich bee faunas of Mediterranean Africa and Asia. From a conservation  
278 perspective, the technical, political and administrative actions launched for promoting  
279 apiculture or enhancing honeybee populations in those European regions where the  
280 species is declining (European Parliament 2008, de la Rúa et al. 2009, Cayuela et al. 2011)  
281 should not be transferred uncritically to the Mediterranean Basin. In the Mediterranean  
282 countries, such actions would not only be aiming at the wrong conservation target but,  
283 much worse, could be inadvertently threatening the unique regional diversity of wild bees,  
284 wild bee-pollinated plants and their mutualistic relationships.

## 285 **Acknowledgements**

286 This study was prompted by the troubling discrepancy between allusions to the  
287 honeybees' impending demise so often found in popular media, and my strong subjective  
288 impression in the field that managed honeybees are displacing wild bees from flowers in  
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432 Table 1. Summary of results of the linear mixed model testing for the significance of  
433 supra-annual variation in  $\text{logit}(p_{wb})$ , the log of the quotient between proportions of  
434 wild bees and honeybees, in flowers of wild-growing and cultivated plants of the  
435 Mediterranean Basin.

	Standardized parameter estimate (standard error)	Chi- squared	<i>P</i> value	Variance (95% confidence interval)
Fixed effects				
Year (Y)	-0.314 (0.137)	10.94	0.00094	
Plant type (PT)	0.566 (0.306)	3.45	0.063	
Y x PT	0.030 (0.184)	0.027	0.87	
Random effects				
Country				0.357 (0.040-1.254)
Plant family				0.389 (0.091-0.983)
Plant species				1.399 (0.896-1.997)

436

437

438 **Legends to figures**

439 Fig. 1. Distribution among 13 circum-Mediterranean countries of the  $N = 336$   
440 published estimates of wild bee and honeybee abundance in flowers of cultivated and  
441 wild-growing plants for the period 1963-2017 considered in this study (Table S1,  
442 electronic supplementary material).

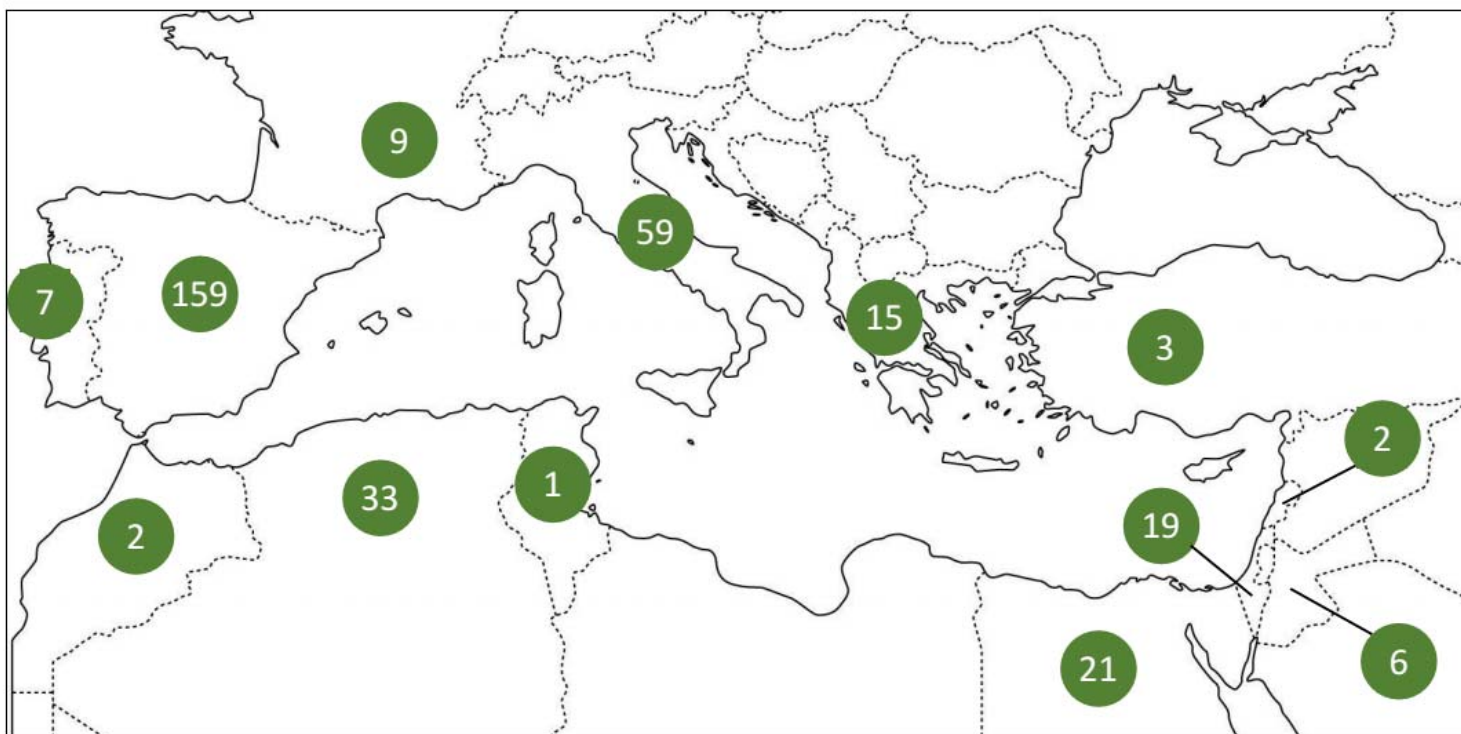
443 Fig. 2. Variation over 1963-2017 in density of honeybee colonies in the 13 circum-  
444 Mediterranean countries considered in this study (gray lines), and overall relationship  
445 for the Mediterranean Basin as a whole (blue line), as estimated from parameters of a  
446 linear mixed model fitted to the data with country as a random effect. Note the  
447 logarithmic scale on vertical axis.

448 Fig. 3. Frequency distributions of  $\text{logit}(p_{wb})$ , the logarithm of the ratio between  
449 proportions of wild bees and honeybees at flowers, in the  $N = 336$  unique combinations  
450 of plant species x sampling year x sampling location considered in this study ( $N = 106$   
451 and 230 records for cultivated and wild plants, respectively). Bars to the left and right of  
452 the vertical dashed line [ $\text{logit}(p_{wb}) = 0$ ] correspond to situations of numerical dominance  
453 at flowers of honeybees and wild bees, respectively.

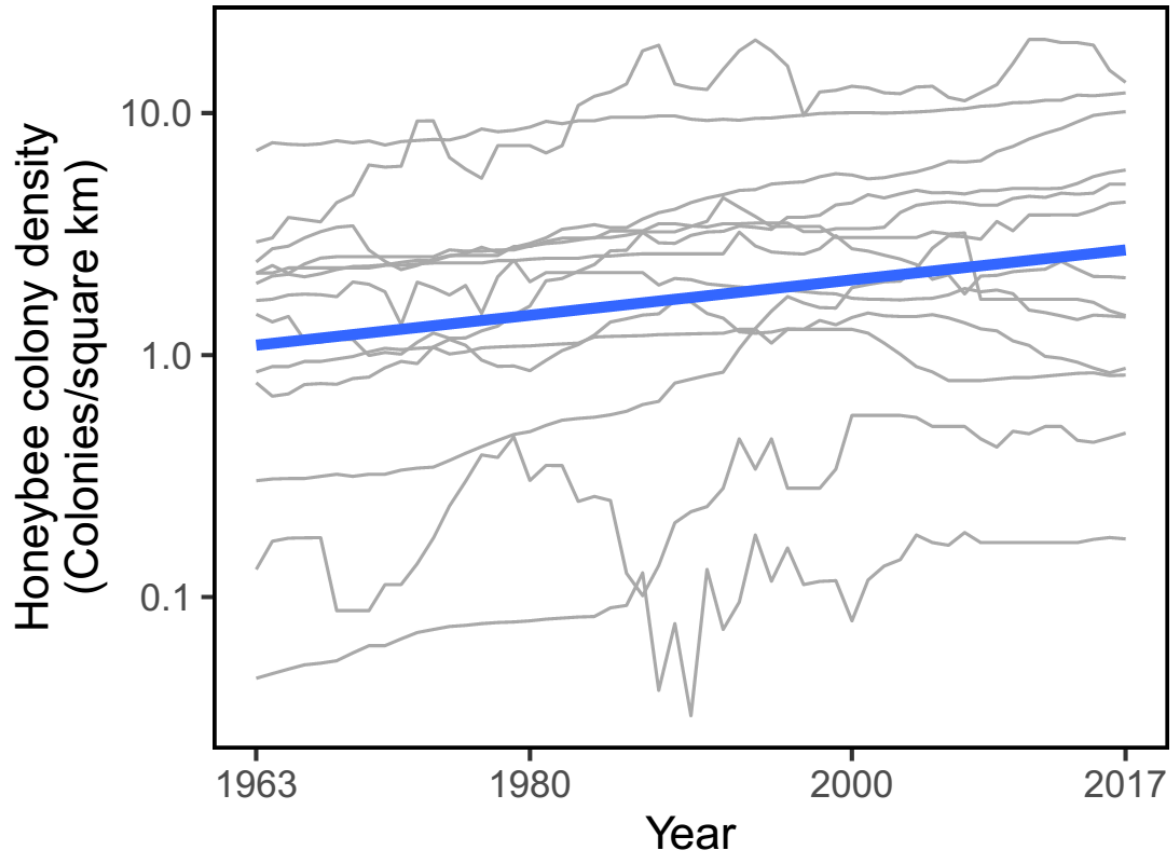
454 Fig. 4. A. Relationship between  $\text{logit}(p_{wb})$ , the logarithm of the ratio between  
455 proportions of wild bees and honeybees at flowers, and year of study. Each dot  
456 corresponds to a unique combinations of plant species x sampling year x sampling  
457 location ( $N = 336$ ). The black line is the “naïve” least-squares regression fitted to the  
458 data, all countries, plant species and plant types (cultivated and wild-growing)  
459 combined. B. Mean estimated marginal effects of year on  $\text{logit}(p_{wb})$  for cultivated and  
460 wild-growing plants, as predicted from the linear mixed model with country, plant  
461 family, and plant species as random effects (Table 1).

462 Fig. 5. Variation over 1963-2017 in density of honeybee colonies in Germany an

463 Spain (gray lines), based on FAOSTAT data (see text). These two countries were  
464 chosen as representatives, respectively, of thoroughly-studied, mid-western, temperate-  
465 climate Europe, and insufficiently-studied, southern, Mediterranean-climate Europe.  
466 Blue lines represent least-squares fitted linear regressions.

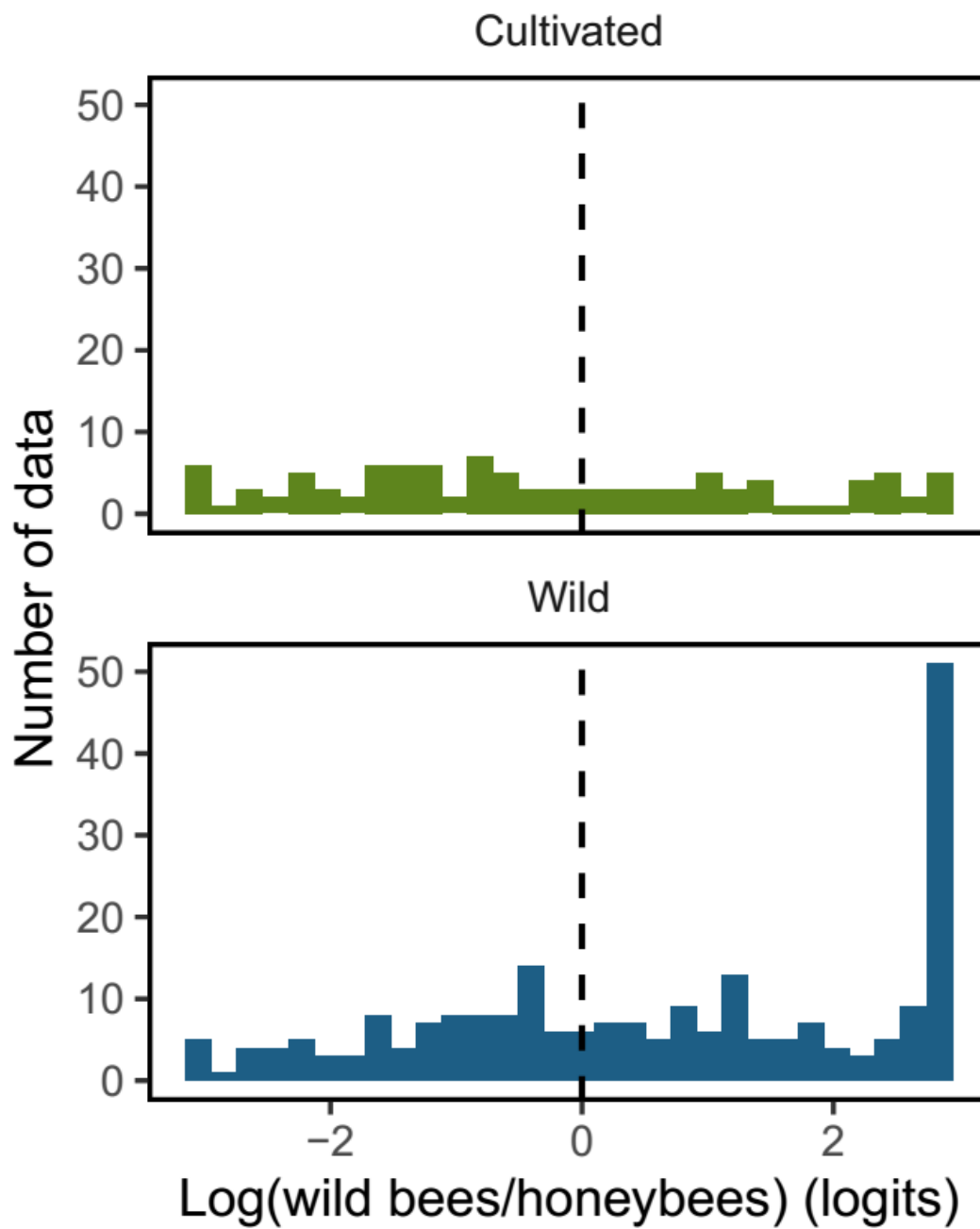


**Fig. 1**



**Fig. 2**





**Fig. 3**

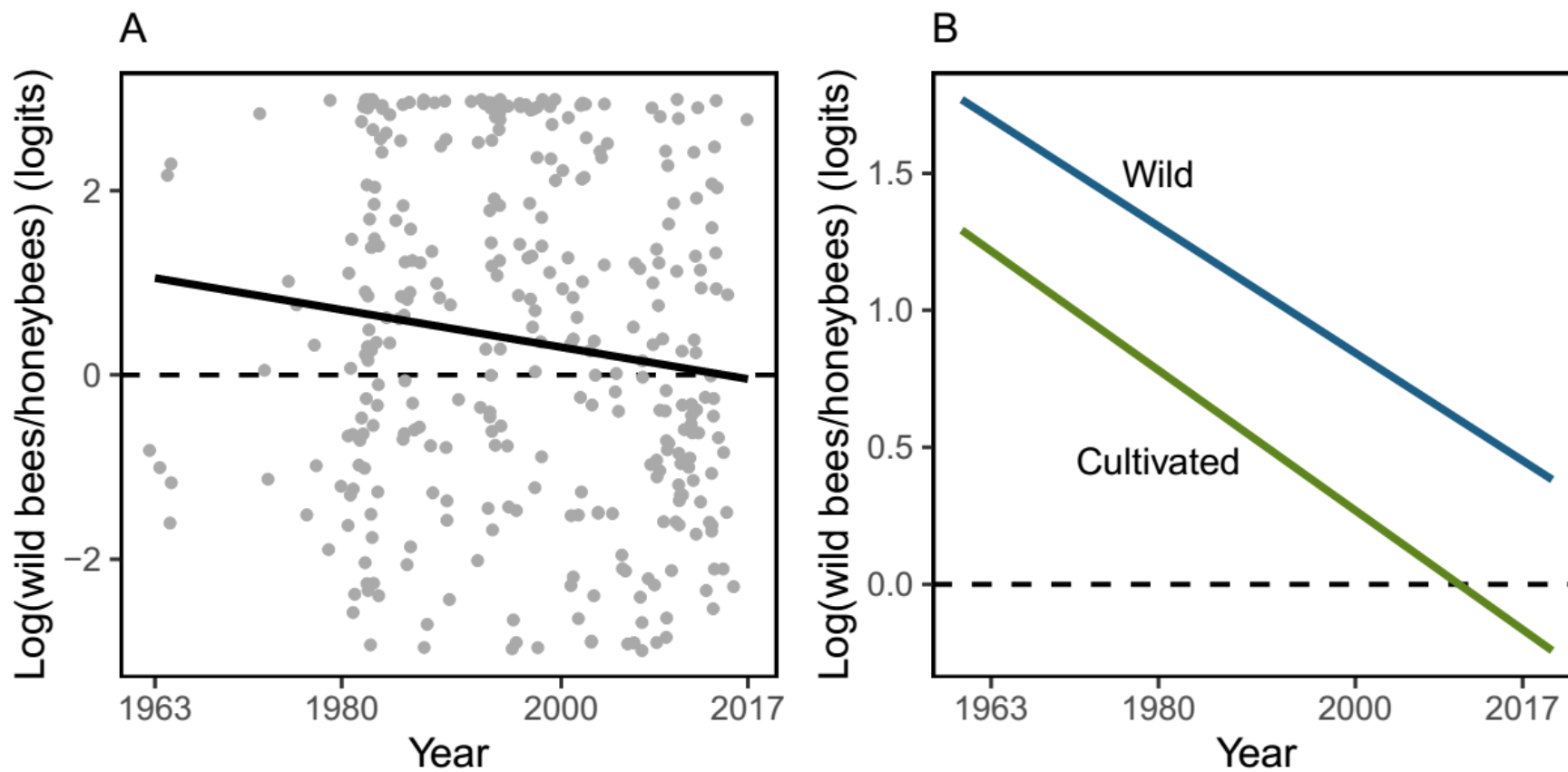
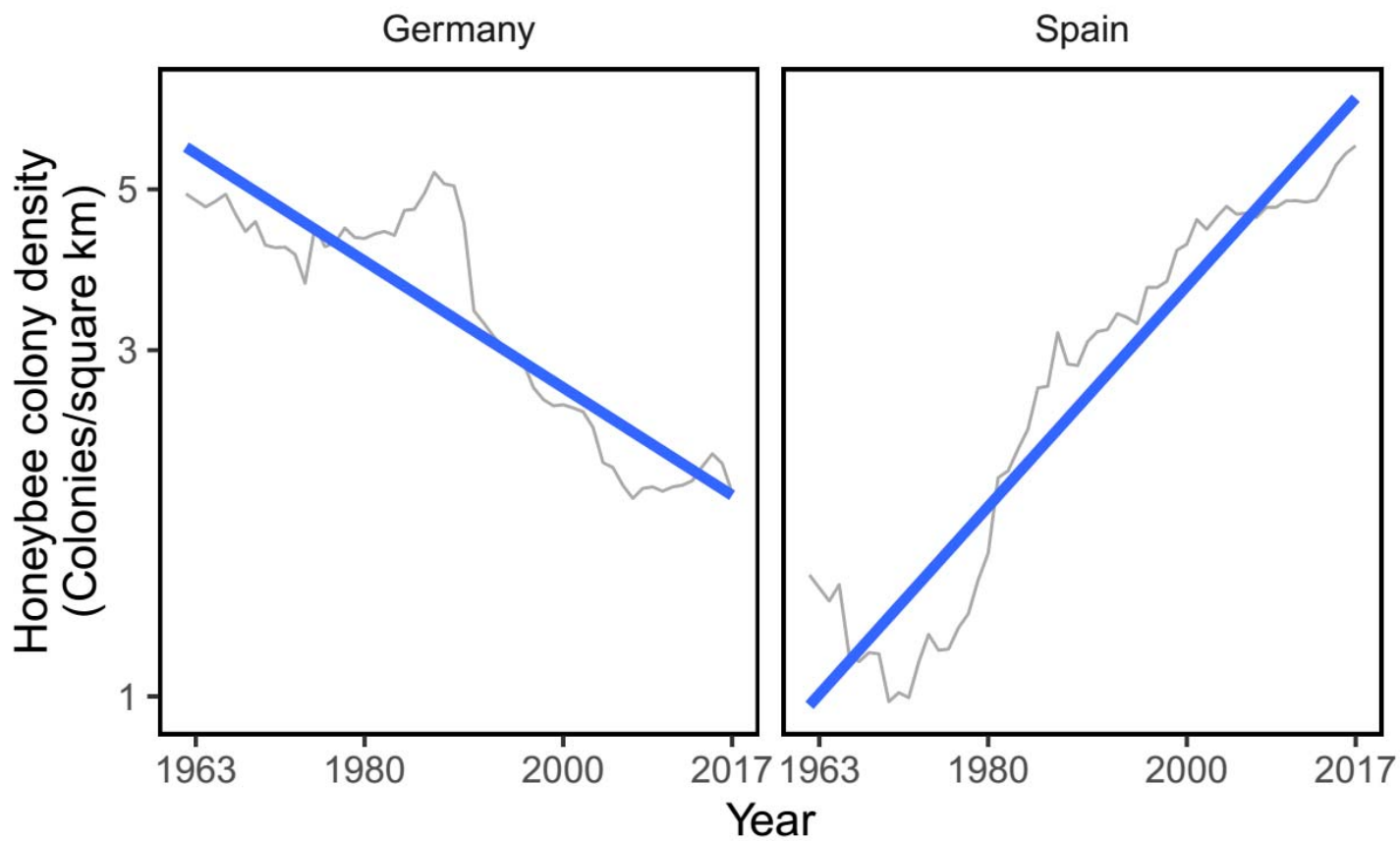


Fig. 4



**Fig. 5**