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# **Wild bee niche preferences and diversity changes in urban Bavaria**

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München, 18. Dezember 2019



# Preface

## Statutory declaration

### Erklärung

Diese Dissertation wurde im Sinne von §12 der Promotionsordnung von Prof. Dr. Susanne S. Renner betreut. Ich erkläre hiermit, dass die Dissertation nicht einer anderen Prüfungskommission vorgelegt worden ist und dass ich mich nicht anderweitig einer Doktorprüfung ohne Erfolg unterzogen habe.

### Eidesstattliche Erklärung

Ich versichere hiermit an Eides statt, dass die vorgelegte Dissertation von mir selbstständig und ohne unerlaubte Hilfe angefertigt wurde.

Michaela Hofmann, 18. Dezember 2019  
(Unterschrift)

1. Gutachter: Prof. Dr. Susanne S. Renner
2. Gutachter: Prof. Dr. Gerhard Haszprunar

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## Note

In this thesis, I present the results from my doctoral research, carried out in Munich from February 2017 to November 2019 under the guidance of Prof. Dr. Susanne S. Renner. My thesis resulted in eight manuscripts, presented in chapters 2-9, of which four have been published (chapters 2, 3, 7, 9), one is in print (chapter 8), one is accepted (chapter 6) and two are in review (chapters 4 and 5). I also gave five invited talks and wrote four invited articles as listed below. Writing and discussion involved collaboration with S. S. Renner (all chapters but chapter 8), with input from A. Fleischmann in chapters 3 and 5. Chapter 8 was written in collaboration with A. Fleischmann. The analyses in chapter 2 were conducted by C. M. Zohner, and for the analyses in chapter 4 I received help from the Statistical Consulting Unit (StaBLab) of the University of Munich (LMU). Matthias Schindler led the writing of chapter 9 for which I contributed all information on *Nomada flavoguttata*, including SEMs and field observations.

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Prof. Susanne S. Renner

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# List of publications

## *Peer-reviewed journal articles*

Hofmann, M. M., Fleischmann, A., and Renner, S. S. (2018). Changes in the bee fauna of a German botanical garden between 1997 and 2017, attributable to climate warming, not other parameters. *Oecologia* 187: 701-706.

Hofmann, M. M., and Renner, S. S. (2018). Bee species recorded between 1992 and 2017 from green roofs in Asia, Europe, and North America, with key characteristics and open research questions. *Apidologie* 49: 307-313.

Schindler, M., Hofmann, M. M., Wittmann, D., and Renner, S. S. (2018). Courtship behaviour in the genus *Nomada* – antennal grabbing and possible transfer of male secretions. *Journal of Hymenoptera Research* 65: 47-59.

Hofmann, M. M., Zohner, C. M., and Renner, S. S. (2019). Narrow habitat breadth and late-summer emergence increase extinction vulnerability in Central European bees. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* 286: 20190316.

Hofmann, M. M., and Fleischmann, A. (2019). A photo-based assessment of wild bees in a filled-up gravel pit in Riem, Munich – with a species list of bees found in Central European gravel pits. (*Spixiana*, in print).

Hofmann, M. M., Fleischmann, A., and Renner, S. S. Empirical foraging distances in six species of solitary bees with body lengths of 6 to 15 mm, using individual tagging. (submitted at 27 Nov. 2019, *Ecosphere*).

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### *Invited articles*

Hofmann, M. M. (2016). Dialog der Bienen – Wie Bienenvölker einen neuen Wohnort auswählen. *Fatum* 5: 80-83.

Hofmann, M. M. (2017). Hoch hinaus – Wildbienen auf Gründächern. *Gebäude-Grün* 2: 25-29.

Hofmann, M. M., and Fleischmann, A. (2019). Über das schwierige Leben der Wildbienen in Stadt und Land. *Jahrbuch des Vereins zum Schutz der Bergwelt* 84: 239-248.

Hofmann, M. M., and Renner, S. S. (2019). Bye, bye Biene – Welche ökologischen Eigenschaften machen Wildbienen zu bedrohten Arten? *Gesellschaft für Biologische Systematik Newsletter* 36: 28-31.

## Invited talks

Hofmann, M. M. Der Botanische Garten und die Blühstreifen des LBV. Vortrag für die Bayerische Botanische Gesellschaft e.V., 17 Oct. 2017

Hofmann, M. M. Wer summt denn da? Bienenvielfalt in München. Vortragsreihe des Landesbundes für Vogelschutz, 27 Jan. 2018

Hofmann, M. M. Wildbienen auf den LBV-Blühstreifen in München. Vortragsreihe des Landesbundes für Vogelschutz, 11 Mar. 2019.

Hofmann, M. M. Wildbienen auf Gründächern. bdla-Fachseminar „Artenschutz in der Stadt!“, Bund deutscher Landschaftsarchitekten, 11 Apr. 2019

Hofmann, M. M. Wildbienen in München: wo sie leben und was sie brauchen. Vortrag für Green City e.V., 16 Dez. 2019

## Posters

Hofmann, M. M., and Fleischmann, A. München sucht nummerierte Wildbienen – Wildbienenmarkierung im Botanischen Garten zur Erforschung von Flugdistanzen und Lebensdauer der Bienen. 17. Münchner Wissenschaftstage, Munich, Germany, 25-28 Nov. 2017.

Hofmann, M. M., Fleischman, A., and Renner, S. S. Tracking of 2600 individuals in an urban garden shows that small European solitary bees have mean foraging distances below 185 m. 20<sup>th</sup> annual meeting of the Society for Systematic Biology (GfBS), Munich, Germany, 24-27 Feb. 2019.



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# Summary

Numerous studies are documenting a global decrease in insect diversity and abundance, and the public is becoming more and more aware of the need to better protect biodiversity. Especially bees are now at the center of attention, as they have been promoted as a key taxon in conservation campaigns, citizen petitions, and efforts to modify nature protection laws. Reasons for the biodiversity loss are manifold, with habitat destruction and fragmentation as well as agricultural intensification being major factors. However, causation and interaction among factors are hard to disentangle, and effect sizes depend on the system one observes. This dissertation, which comprises ten chapters, deals with changes in Munich's wild bee populations as a study system in which to address insect diversity changes in an urban context. Specifically, I investigated the factors influencing wild bees (not the domesticated honey bee) in different city biotopes. For comparison, I also studied German-wide correlations between bee extinction risks, their habitats, and various intrinsic and extrinsic traits. By comparing present (2017-2019) Munich species spectra with spectra from twenty years ago as well as by using Red List Data back to 40 years ago, I investigated how bee faunas have changed over time and which factors best explain the changes.

In 2017 and 2018, I monitored bees at three protected sites of 150 and 20 ha and on nine 1000 m<sup>2</sup>-large flower strips within the city perimeter, compiled live-history parameters and habitat niche preferences of all species recorded in Munich since 1795, and analyzed correlations among these parameters and the persistence of species at the three sites for which data from 20 years ago were available. I also used Red List Data for all of Germany's bees to assess German-wide correlations of five life-history and three habitat niche parameters with bee persistence. To assess the included factors' predictive power, I used known extinctions of the past 40 years. The results show that late-season emergence and restricted habitat use strongly increase extinction risk, using Hierarchical Bayesian models that allowed me to analyze all factors simultaneously while including a phylogeny for most of Germany's bees (chapter 2).

I then tested these German-wide 'extinction predictors' in the city of Munich by comparing species spectra from the 1990ies with my own from the Munich Botanical Garden (20 ha, chapter 3 and 4), the Allacher Lohe (150 ha, chapter 4) and the Virginia Depot (20 ha, chapter 4). I found an increase not only in species numbers at two of these sites but also of warm-loving species, most likely linked to shorter winters and warmer springs and summers compared to 20 years ago. The climate change benefits thermophilic species, which have been spreading in southern Germany since the 2000s. Moreover, opposed to the German-wide trend, late-flying bees persist well in urban protected habitats probably due to the more constant availability of flowers in cities compared to agricultural landscapes.

As bees need suitably-spaced foraging resources and nesting sites, effective conservation requires data on how far these resources can be apart while still supporting healthy bee populations. Of 436 Central European species, 92% are only 4.5 to 13.5 mm long, yet few data are available for flight distances in small bees. Using apiarist's tags and color codes, and a citizen science approach, I individually marked 2689 males and females of four oligolectic and two polylectic species of *Osmiini* with body lengths of 6 to 15 mm and long-term stable populations at my botanical garden study site and then monitored their foraging

distances. Based on 1045 re-sightings, mean female flight distances ranged from 73 to 121 m and male distances from 59 to 100 m, with maximal distances being up to seven times larger. Based on these results, 150 m would appear to be a good rule-of-thumb for planning the locations of conservation measures, such as flower strips (chapter 5). Prior to my work, flower strips had been mainly studied in an agricultural context, and I therefore decided to study their effectiveness in Munich, using eight 1000 m<sup>2</sup>-large flower strips established in 2017 and one from 2015. I found out that these small and young strips already support 21% of the 324 species recorded for Munich since 1795 and 29% of the 232 species recorded between 1997 and 2017, attesting to bees' ability to detect and use new resources quickly (chapter 6).

Another way of urban biodiversity enrichment is the creation of green roofs. Although this habitat has low plant diversity, my survey of the literature (35 studies that have appeared between 1992 and 2017) showed that 236 species of wild bees have been recorded on green roofs worldwide, with high numbers of thermophilic and cavity-nesting species (chapter 7). Ground-nesting species are underrepresented in this habitat, because the substrate thickness is insufficient for them. This was in stark contrast to a gravel pit (circa 18 ha) that I studied in the East of Munich and found 48 species of bees, of which 54% were ground-nesting (chapter 8). For comparison, in Germany, Austria and Switzerland, 50% of the 745 bees known from this region are nesting in self-burrowed tunnels in the ground.

During the many hours of monitoring Munich's bees, I was able to observe and photographically document the copulation of *Nomada flavoguttata*, which to my knowledge is a first, although M. Schindler had studied mating in *Nomada fucata* and *N. lathburiana* in the lab. The bee male wrapped its antenna around the antenna of the female, possibly to transfer male antennal secretions to the female (chapter 9).

Taken together, the results of my work show that cities can sustain a high bee diversity, especially if sites are protected from human interference, albeit not from climate warming, the urban heat effect, nitrogen input, light pollution, and other factors. As long as sites provide both foraging and nesting resources, bees quickly colonize and appear able to form stable populations. Likely, urban bee conservation will become increasingly important in times of biodiversity loss, as cities could provide safe havens from the negative effects of agricultural intensification.



## Chapter 1

# **General Introduction**



# THE EFFECTS OF URBANIZATION ON BIODIVERSITY

According to United Nations (UN) data on ‘The World’s Cities in 2018,’ more than 50% of the world’s 7.7 billion people live in urban settlements ([https://www.un.org/en/events/citiesday/assets/pdf/the\\_worlds\\_cities\\_in\\_2018\\_data\\_booklet.pdf](https://www.un.org/en/events/citiesday/assets/pdf/the_worlds_cities_in_2018_data_booklet.pdf), last accessed 08 Dec. 2019). These estimates clearly depend on the definition of what constitutes a city. According to the UN’s definition (United Nations 2018), ‘city proper’ refers to a city’s administrative boundary, ‘urban agglomeration’ to the extent of the contiguous urban area, and ‘metropolitan area’ to the interlinked commerce and commuting patterns of nearby areas. Another way to define a city is by a high population density and strong constructional development (Pickett et al. 2001). If the current rate of urbanization stays unchanged, models predict an increase in urban land cover by 1.7 million km<sup>2</sup> by 2050, which would be approximately 1.4 times the area of 2012 (Zhou et al. 2019). As foraging and nesting resources of wildlife are eliminated due to surface sealing, and animals and plants become exposed to pollutants as well as light pollution, traffic, and other anthropogenic stressors, urbanization reduces both species richness and evenness for most biotic communities (Grimm et al. 2008, Hernandez et al. 2009). However, the degree of urbanization within cities varies (as is evident from the above definitions of what constitutes a city), and with this also the influence of cities on biodiversity.

Generally, the core area is densely built up and highly developed, while the suburban areas surrounding the city center are increasingly natural (Magura et al. 2013). In cities with the strongest urbanization, the species richness of most plants, vertebrates, and a few groups of invertebrates is reduced, compared to the species richness of surrounding suburban areas, which presumably provide a baseline of what might be the natural diversity in the respective region (McKinney 2008, Shochat et al. 2010). Bird species richness generally is negatively affected by urbanization, while bird abundance marginally increases at urban sites, and highest abundance occurs in suburban areas (Batáry et al. 2018, meta-analysis of 37 studies of bird species richness and 20 studies of abundance). A study of arthropods in the city of Debrecen (Hungary) showed that different trophic levels react differently to urbanization: while predatory spiders did not differ in their taxonomic or functional diversity along an urbanization gradient because of their higher recolonization capability compared to lower trophic levels, rove beetles and woodlice were taxonomically more diverse in rural, less urbanized sites (Nagy et al. 2018).

The first studies on urban ecology were conducted in Europe and Australia in the 1970’s (Davis 1978, Sukopp et al. 1979), but cities only became a main focus in biodiversity research in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, even leading to the establishment of the ‘Journal of Urban Ecology’ (Grimm et al. 2008). An important aspect in urban biodiversity research is biotic homogenization, which is considered to be higher in cities than rural areas (McKinney 2005). Biotic homogenization is defined as “the replacement of local biotas with non-indigenous species,” which “often replaces unique endemic species with already widespread species” (McKinney and Lockwood 1999: p. 450). This process happens because habitat modification through construction and the accompanying alteration of the environment cause strong disturbances, excluding native species, while sometimes helping the introduction of exotic species (Hassall 2014). Species that are well-adapted to urban environments can spread

worldwide, while many local species disappear since they are not adapted to the narrow physical environment that cities provide (McKinney 2005). Through these processes, the local biodiversity of a city can both increase or decrease, while the global biodiversity decreases.

Another reason for urban diversity increase is that cities show high small-scale heterogeneity (Baldock et al. 2019). Therefore, cities constitute a complex mosaic of different habitats suitable especially for smaller taxa with small habitat ranges, like many arthropods. For species with small home ranges, cities offer a variety of habitat niches with varying nesting opportunities, places to hide, and foraging sites.

## WORLDWIDE BIODIVERSITY DECLINE

In the last decades, arthropod abundance and species diversity are declining worldwide, both in tropical and temperate habitats (Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys 2019). For instance, dry weight biomass of arthropods in Puerto Rico's Luquillo rainforest captured in sweep samples between 1976 and 2012 has declined four- to eightfold, and for sticky traps 30 to 60 times, with severe consequences for insectivorous species of higher trophic levels, which show parallel declines (Lister and Garcia 2018). Similarly, flying insect biomass in 63 German nature protection areas on average has declined by 76%, with mid-summer declines of 82%, between 1989 and 2016 (Hallmann et al. 2017), and arthropod biomass, abundance, and species numbers in forests and grassland have decreased by 67%, 78%, and 34% respectively between 2008 and 2017 (Seibold et al. 2019). Reasons for the decline are manifold, ranging from high nitrogen levels and reduced food and nesting resources to habitat loss, exposure to agrochemicals, pathogens and parasites, and for some groups also climate change (Potts et al. 2010, Goulson et al. 2015, Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys 2019, Seibold et al. 2019).

Amongst the best studied arthropod groups are pollinators, particularly bees. There are almost 18.000 bee species known worldwide, which belong to nearly 500 genera (Michener 2007). All bees form a monophyletic group within the order of Hymenoptera. The foraging preferences of wild bees vary from being specialized on the pollen of one or a few plant species, which is called oligolecty, to being a generalist that can use many different plants as a pollen source to supply the brood cells, which is called polylecty (Cane and Sipes 2006). Not only do bees differ in their foraging specialization, but also in their nesting biology. Some species are cavity nesters, using already existing hollows to build their nest in. This can be big cavities like the nests of mice and birds, where bumblebees or honeybees can establish a new colony, or beetle grooves in dead wood or other hollow spaces like snail shells or hollow plant stems for solitary species. Cavity nesters are often found in artificial nesting aids as well (Michener 2007). Other species bite their nest tunnels into dead wood or the marrow of plant stems, and again others dig underground tunnels where they build their brood cells (Amiet and Krebs 2014). About a quarter of the wild bee species have stopped building their own brood cells, but have instead developed a parasitic lifestyle, laying their eggs in the nests of other bee species, where their offspring grows on the food that the host species has collected for its own offspring, which is killed in the stage of an egg or early larva either by the cuckoo

bee adult or its offspring (Wiesbauer 2017). In Germany, Liechtenstein, Austria, and Switzerland, for instance, 184 of 745 bee species have such a parasitic lifestyle (Zurbuchen and Müller 2012). The vast majority of wild bees in Central Europe are solitary, while relatively few species in the genera *Bombus*, *Halictus*, and *Lasioglossum* are semisocial or eusocial, where work is divided among one or a few queens and many female workers (Michener 2007).

In the last years, public awareness of wild bees has increased, and numerous activities and information brochures have been produced by nature conservation organizations to improve the conditions for this group of insects. In Bavaria, this reached a political level in 2019, when almost 1.8 million voting-age Bavarian citizens signed a referendum for anchoring the protection of nature and especially bees in the law (<https://volksbegehren-artenvielfalt.de>, last accessed 12 Jul. 2019). Bees have been seen as providing especially important ecosystem services. Ecosystem services are benefits that humans gain from the environment, including provisioning services, which involve the production of renewable resources, and regulating services, like pest or disease control (Ehrlich and Ehrlich 1981). Biodiverse communities are considered to be more productive and stable (resilient against disturbance) and thus more reliably providing such services (Cardinale et al. 2012). Where pollinators disappear, such ecosystem services are not ensured any longer, which leads to decreased fruit-set in crops and wild plants (Steffan-Dewenter et al. 2005). This is indeed an alarming perspective, as we are already facing severe losses in species abundances. Currently, about half of the bees in Germany are threatened according to the German Red List (Westrich et al. 2011) or the Red Lists of the federal states (see Table 1).

**Table 1: Proportion of threatened species in the Red Lists of Germany and its federal states**

Country/Region	Species assessed	Red List species	Reference
Germany	557	47.9 %	Westrich et al. 2011
Baden-Wuerttemberg	460	45.2 %	Westrich et al. 2000
Bavaria	506	54 %	Mandery et al. 2003a
Berlin	298	39.9 %	Saure et al. 2005
Brandenburg	383	38.4 %	Dathe and Saure 2000
Hesse	424	43 %	Tischendorf et al. 2009
Lower Saxony and Bremen	341	62.2 %	Theunert 2002
Northrhine-Westphalia	364	51.9 %	Esser et al. 2010
Saxony	407	70.5 %	Burger 2005
Saxony-Anhalt	405	64.9 %	Burger et al. 2004
Schleswig-Holstein	296	58 %	Smissen 2001
Thuringia	422	57.6 %	Burger 2010

A major factor driving bee decline is the altered land-use (Potts et al. 2010, Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys 2019). The effect of agriculture on arthropod decline in Germany is particularly pronounced at the landscape level (Seibold et al. 2019). Intensive agriculture constitutes a problem due to the uniformity of landscapes because of monocultures, leading to restricted flower availability, and due to agrochemicals, especially neonicotinoids (Goulson 2013, Goulson et al. 2015). The reproductive success of *Bombus terrestris* and *Osmia bicornis* is negatively correlated with neonicotinoid residues (Woodcock et al. 2017), the neonicotinoid clothianidin affects the visual guidance and navigational memory in *Osmia cornuta* (Jin et al. 2015), and traces of neonicotinoids are found in 75% of 198 honey samples collected throughout the world, indicating that both the honey bee and wild bees are exposed to this agrochemical worldwide (Mitchell et al. 2017). The issue of neonicotinoids not only affects arthropods but also has far-reaching consequences for higher trophic levels (Hallmann et al. 2014). For instance, higher-level consumers in a Japanese lake are affected by the zooplankton biomass decrease that correlates with neonicotinoid applications to watersheds since 1993, leading to a smelt harvest collapse from 240 to 22 tons (Yamamuro et al. 2019). With agriculture being such a strong driver in bee decline, the question arises whether urban spaces, which lack agrochemicals, crop-related mowing regimes, and show a higher heterogeneity compared to large crop monocultures could become an important wild bee habitat.

## BEE DIVERSITY IN CITIES

In body size, bees range from 3 mm (Exely 1974: *Euryglossella* and *Quashihesma*,) to 63 mm (Messer 1984: *Megachile (Chalicodoma) pluto*) worldwide and from 4.5 mm to 24 mm in Germany (Hofmann et al. 2019), and their habitat ranges vary correspondingly. Compared to larger-bodied vertebrates and many other insects, however, the bee species occurring in Germany all have small home ranges because they are central-place foragers and because most species are solitary and smaller than 15 mm. A heterogeneous urban landscape might therefore support bee populations, at least for the small-bodied species, and should therefore be targeted by urban conservation efforts (Hall et al. 2017). Diverse bee communities can be found in cities, especially cavity nesters and pollen generalists (see Hall et al. 2017 for references). For community gardens in the heavily developed neighborhoods of the Bronx and East Harlem in New York, for instance, 54 species of wild bees have been reported (Matteson et al. 2008). Westchester County, a New York suburb, even hosts 110 species of wild bees in its residential gardens (Fetridge et al. 2008). A five-year study in Berlin found 262 species of bees using the net-sampling method (Saure 1996). In Lyon, 291 species were found between 2011 and 2012 using both pan traps and insect nets along an urbanization gradient (Fortel et al. 2014). In this study, bee abundance was negatively correlated with the amount of sealed surface, but at intermediate levels of sealed surface, the diversity of parasitic species and cavity-nesting species was highest (Fortel et al. 2014). Similarly, diversity and abundance of bees and hoverflies in the UK were negatively correlated with higher levels of urbanization and presumably surface sealing, and sites with high flowering plant diversity had the most diverse pollinator assemblages (Bates et al. 2011).

Likewise, Banaszak-Cibicka and Zmihorski (2012) found 104 species in Poznan, Poland, with some species being more abundant in the city center, whilst others preferred the suburban region, indicating that urbanization can influence wild bee species composition. Urban greenspace with suitable foraging resources for flies, bees, and butterflies, the main pollinators in the temperate zone, can be manifold, ranging from allotments, gardens and balconies to parks, cemeteries and churchyards. Especially residential gardens and allotments (i.e. community gardens) have a high pollinator biodiversity (Baldock et al. 2019). Another greenspace of increasing size and importance are green roofs, which are now mandatory on flat-topped buildings in Switzerland and a few other European countries and supported by incentives in the USA (Brenneisen 2006, Stutz 2010). They can increase habitat connectivity especially in highly urbanized areas (Braaker et al. 2014), and provide additional habitat space, where a lot of surface is sealed with buildings, streets and pavements.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND STUDY APPROACHES

The focus of this dissertation is on changes in the species diversity of wild bees in the city of Munich over the past 20 years. My goal was to identify factors that influence species diversity (chapter 2) and changes in community composition (chapter 3 and chapter 4). I made use of data on the population development and degree of threat of the German wild bee fauna as stated in successive editions of relevant Red Lists for Germany and correlated these data with information of life history parameters of the species, such as the extent of pollen specialization, sociality, flight times, and a fine-grained data collection on their habitat niches, using Hierarchical Bayesian Models (chapter 2). In Hierarchical Bayesian Models the prior distribution of some model parameters depends on other parameters, which are inferred using Bayesian methods (Kruschke 2010). These are based on Bayes' theorem, which describes the probability of a parameter based on prior knowledge of factors potentially being related to the event as opposed to the frequentist approach, which is purely based on the inference of probabilities from long-term frequencies. Hierarchical Bayesian Models allowed me to include the phylogenetic relationship of bees as one of the explanatory factors that might influence the Red List status of wild bees. For most of the German wild bees barcodes of multiple specimens per species are available (Schmidt et al. 2015). Barcodes are sequences of the cytochrome oxidase subunit I, which were used to calculate a maximum-likelihood phylogeny, which was then included in the applied model. With this bee phylogeny in the background, I was able to examine the predictive power of different life-history parameters as well as habitats and their elevation of wild bees for their Red List Status and therefore the role of inherited and external factors as contributors to extinction. I could also test my models against known bee extinction rates based on data of the last 50 to 150 years (Westrich et al. 2011).

In Germany, the first wild bee Red List was published over forty years ago by Rühl (1977), followed by the Red Lists of Warncke and Westrich (1984), Westrich et al. (1998), Westrich et al. (2008), and finally Westrich et al. (2011). The Red List status of the wild bees

published in the latest publication (Westrich et al. 2011) was determined based on the data of seven bee specialists, each with a different regional focus: P. Westrich for Baden-Wuerttemberg, U. Frommer for Hesse, K. Mandery for Northern Bavaria, H. Riemann for Bremen and Lower Saxony, H. Ruhnke for Saxony-Anhalt, C. Saure for Berlin and Brandenburg, and J. Voith for Southern Bavaria and the German Alps. Assessing the Red List Status of wild bees raises several difficulties: For some species, species boundaries have changed due to new findings in the field of phylogenetics based on the analysis of DNA in addition to the classical morphological features. For instance, cryptic species have been detected within one former species, while on the other hand, names can also become synonymized when it turns out that they refer to the same species. One example is the case of *Andrena flavilabris* and *A. decipiens* described by Schenk in 1874 and 1861 respectively. Until about 2008, *A. flavilabris* was considered the spring-time generation of *A. decipiens*, but genetic research has shown that Schenk was correct in treating them as two species (Mandery et al. 2008). In other cases, it is still not clear whether two species names are synonymous or not. *Andrena alutacea*, for example, is considered a synonym of *A. proxima* by Dubitzky and Schönitzer (2001) and Gusenleitner and Schwarz (2002), but is ranked as a species by Schmid-Egger (2005). For such taxonomically difficult species it is problematic to use historic data to evaluate the development of populations, because the determination of the specimen in the past might have followed another classification than the one used for the Red List. Moreover, monitoring and mapping intensities differ strongly between areas, so that species-rich areas are simply the best-assessed areas. Although the interest in bees is increasing, there are still areas with deficits in the faunal assessment of wild bees because small bees are often difficult to determine in the field. Another problem is the low degree of digitally available records. Approaches such as the ‘Wildbienen-Kataster’ (<http://www.wildbienen-kataster.de/>, last accessed 03 Jun. 2019), a digital data base for Baden-Wuerttemberg created by the Stuttgart State Museum of Natural History, or the ‘Arbeitsatlas der Bienen und Wespen Bayerns’ (<http://www.buw-bayern.de/>, last accessed 03 Jun. 2019) for Bavaria, initiated by Mandery and colleagues, are rare attempts to make voucher information available online and thus easy to access for abundance analyses. Nevertheless, the authors of the fifth Red List of wild bees in Germany (Westrich et al. 2011) managed to assess the threat status of 557 species: 39 species are currently considered extinct, 26 almost extinct, 31 highly threatened, 78 strongly threatened, 85 threatened, 42 near-threatened, 34 threatened to an unknown extent, 207 not threatened, and for 15 species, data are deficient.

To test possible predictors of population vulnerability with field data, I carried out bee occurrence mapping in the city of Munich. I was able to re-monitor two well-studied biotopes within the city perimeter of Munich (chapter 4), the Allacher Lohe nature reserve and the Virginia Depot, where data for the last 20 or more years are available via a species and biotope monitoring program (ABSP München Stadt) funded by the Bavarian Environmental Protection Agency (Bayerisches Landesamt für Umwelt). As the species spectrum of wild bees is shifting over the year, I visited all studied sites in regular intervals (every two to three weeks). Monitoring walks were conducted between 10 am and 4 pm on sunny, warm days with little or no wind. The mapping did not follow a strict route, but instead, I searched for bees on flowers and likely nesting sites. If possible, species were identified directly in the



field and documented via macro-photography in a standardized setup: for detailed pictures, the bees were caught with an insect net and cooled down for 10 minutes in an Eppendorf cupped plastic vial stored on ice in a cooled box. When the bees became cold anesthetized, they were transferred onto scale paper (using a small box lined with millimeter paper on its bottom) and photographed from all sides. Within one to two minutes, they warmed up again and were released at the location they were caught. After determining the photos to species level, they were uploaded to the virtual research environment ‘Diversity Workbench,’ a platform operated by the IT group of the Bavarian Natural History Collections, which is located in the Botanical Institute and headed by a curator of the Munich herbarium. The platform allows researchers associated with the herbarium to store bio- and geodiversity data and will make the bee photographs generated as part of this dissertation available for other researchers.

For species that are taxonomically difficult to distinguish by morphology alone, like most members of the genera *Sphcodes*, *Lasioglossum* or *Halictus*, I collected voucher specimens, preferably males (for morphological re-identification by genitalia preparations), and identified them morphologically and via DNA barcoding. For DNA extraction, the QIAGEN DNeasy®-Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany) was used. DNA was extracted from one leg per bee. The mitochondrial gene fragment of the cytochrome c oxidase (COI) with a 658 bp target region near the 5′ terminus of COI was amplified. Polymerase chain reactions (PCR) were performed using standard conditions. Amplified products were sequenced on an ABI 3100 Avant capillary sequencer (Applied Biosystems), and forward and reverse sequences were manually edited and assembled, using Sequencher 5.1 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA) and BLAST-search in GenBank. DNA barcodes were uploaded to NCBI. The voucher specimens have been deposited in the Zoologische Staatssammlung Munich (ZSM).

Besides the Allacher Lohe and the Virginia Depot, I used the Munich Botanical Garden as my main study site. It has monitoring data for bees extending back over twenty years starting with data from 1990, with highest data availability for the years 1996-1998. This allowed me to assess changes in the species composition of a basically unchanged, ideal habitat, as the garden layout and species-rich outdoor plantings of the Munich Botanical Garden have not changed over the past 20 years (chapter 3). Additionally, this site enabled me to conduct experiments on the flight distances of cavity-nesting wild bees (chapter 5). Habitats suitable for bees need both sufficient nesting and foraging resources (Westrich 1996), and these need to be within the flight range of single females (Gathmann and Tschardt 2002, Greenleaf et al. 2007). Foraging ranges of most wild bees, however, are unknown, although such information is crucial for planning conservation measures. Therefore, I examined the flight distances of numerous males and females of six solitary bee species in the Botanical Garden, by marking them with colored number tags or colored dots using a mark-observe approach (chapter 5).

In spring 2017 and summer 2018, I also scientifically accompanied the establishment of inner-city flower strips by the Landesbund für Vogelschutz (LBV), a nature conservation organization, assessed the wild bee assemblage on the flower strips and on nearby control areas and monitored the development of these strips over the two years to understand which plants are most useful for bees and also can establish successfully in an urban context (chapter

6). Data on such habitat-enhancement measures in cities are much scarcer than in the agricultural context, where numerous studies are available (for references see Dicks et al. 2012).

The selection of the three sites described above allowed me to investigate and disentangle the effects of change in floral availability, nesting resources, and temperature changes (from anthropogenic climate warming), which are all factors influencing wild bees niche (Table 2 and first parts of the Introduction to this thesis). The sites Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, and the Munich Botanical Garden have changed differently in these aspects over the last 20 years. While the Allacher Lohe has seen a decrease in foraging and nesting resources due to heavy construction work at the site, the Virginia Depot’s flower and nesting resources have increased over time because of the efforts of nature conservation organisations, and the Munich Botanical Garden has stayed basically constant as regards these two factors. All three sites have experienced an increase in temperature in spring and summer and a shorter winter period within the last twenty years (Zohner and Renner 2014). The investigation of the newly established flower strips, on the other hand, allowed me to analyse the effect of an increase in floral and nesting resources without the factor temperature, as the long-term trend of increasing temperatures should not apply within a two-year investigation period (Table 2). Thus, my expectation was that if an increase in temperature benefits wild bees, as these are generally most species rich in Mediterranean type habitats (Michener 2007), this effect would become clear at the Munich Botanical Garden site, as all other factors were constant there, while it would be masked at the other sites because of the changes there in floral and nesting site availability. On the other hand, the 20-year-long data from the Allach and Virginia Depot sites, as well as the two-year data from the flower strips, would allow me to detect any effects of changing floral resources and changing nesting resources on wild bee diversity, with the expectation that an increase in floral and nesting resources would also lead to an increase in bee species numbers.

**Table 2.** Development of floral and nesting resources as well as spring and summer temperatures at the studied sites Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, the Botanical Garden and the flowers strips. ↗ indicates increases in the respective parameter, ↘ decreases, and = indicates no change in the parameter.

	Allacher Lohe	Virginia Depot	Munich Botanical Garden	Flower strips
<b>Floral resources</b>	↘	↗	=	↗
<b>Nesting resources</b>	↘	↗	=	↗
<b>Temperature</b>	↗	↗	↗	=

Another issue in bee conservation is the question of replacement habitats. As mentioned above, the proportion of green roofs in cities is increasing, as does the number of studies about this topic. In Munich, building owners can apply for a grant when they want to

convert their roof into a green roof with a soil layer of at least 8 cm (“Sonderprogramm zur Förderung der Begrünung der Landeshauptstadt München”, available at [https://lhm-author.muenchen.swm.de/rathaus/home/Stadtverwaltung/baureferat/foerderprogramm-priv-gruen\\_alt/dachgruen.html](https://lhm-author.muenchen.swm.de/rathaus/home/Stadtverwaltung/baureferat/foerderprogramm-priv-gruen_alt/dachgruen.html), last accessed 04 Dec. 2019). To investigate the impact of green roofs on wild bees, I compiled studies of bees on green roofs worldwide and created a species list of all wild bees reported in these studies to be found on green roofs. The studies showed that green roofs can be used by some, but not all wild bee species to a varying extent and that intensive green roofs are more species-rich than extensive roofs (chapter 7), therefore it is worth to consider this newly created habitat for conservation purpose. The second replacement habitat I investigated was a partly renatured gravel pit. Due to the gravel excavation, such pits simulate dynamic river landscapes, which have become increasingly scarce. I made a species list of the Obermayr gravel pit in Riem, Munich, and compared it with the results from other studies in Central European gravel pits (chapter 8). Thanks to the open soil spots in the gravel pits, these are an especially valuable habitat for ground-nesting species.

During my field work, I observed many species of wild bees in their natural environment. By chance, I noticed the copulation of nomad bees in Allach, where I saw the remarkable behaviour of antennal grabbing. Little has been published to this topic so far, although I found an unpublished doctoral thesis by M. Schindler (2005) in which the behavior was described for other species of *Nomada*. In collaboration with Dr. Schindler, I found gland structures on the antennae of *Nomada flavoguttata*, using SEM studies, similar to those he had found in *N. fucata* and *N. lathburiana* before (chapter 9).



## Chapter 2

# **Narrow habitat breadth and late-summer emergence increase extinction vulnerability in Central European bees**

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## Research



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# Narrow habitat breadth and late-summer emergence increases extinction vulnerability in Central European bees

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Evaluating intrinsic and extrinsic traits that predispose species to local extinction is important for targeting conservation efforts. Among the species of special concern in Europe are bees, which, along with butterflies, are the best monitored insects. Bees are most species-rich in Mediterranean-type climates with short winters, warm springs, and dry summers. In Central Europe, climate warming *per se* is, therefore, expected to benefit most bee species, while pesticides and the loss of habitats and plant diversity should constitute threats. Here, we use the bee fauna of Germany, which has been monitored for Red Lists for over 40 years, to analyse the effects of habitat breadth, pollen specialization, body size, nesting sites, sociality, duration of flight activity, and time of emergence during the season. We tested each factor's predictive power against changes in commonness and Red List status, using phylogenetically informed hierarchical Bayesian (HB) models. Extinction vulnerability is strongly increased in bees flying in late summer, with a statistical model that included flight time, habitat preference, and duration of activity correctly predicting the vulnerability status of 85% of the species. Conversely, spring emergence and occurrence in urban areas each reduce vulnerability, pointing to intensive land use especially harming summer-active bees, with the combination of these factors currently shifting Germany's bee diversity towards warm-adapted, spring-flying, city-dwelling species.

## 1. Introduction

Bee diversity in the USA and Europe appears to be declining due to intensive agriculture, habitat loss, and the increased use of herbicides and insecticides, all of which negatively affect food sources and nesting opportunities [1–4]. Climate warming *per se* should benefit, not harm, bee diversity because most bees do well in Mediterranean-type climates [5], with the exception of a few cool-adapted groups, such as bumblebees [6]. A recent study of bee diversity in a protected urban garden in Germany indeed supported an increase in warm-adapted species with climate warming, based on inventories taken 20 years apart [7]. In non-protected areas, however, reduced floral and nesting resources due to human land use negatively impact bee diversity and abundance [1,3,8,9], potentially masking the expected positive effect of shorter winters and warmer springs and summers.

The effect of reduced and temporally shifted floral resources (because of earlier flowering under climate change) on the decline of wild bees in Europe is evident from a study of population trends in 57 species (from 10 genera) in the Netherlands, which found that late-flowering pollen and nectar sources have declined more strongly than early-flowering ones, leading to stronger declines in late-flying bees [10]. Earlier studies on bumblebee decline also implicate changes in agricultural practices. Thus, in Ireland, late-nesting bumblebee

species associated with grassy habitats are declining, probably due to the agricultural trend of replacing hay with silage, leading to earlier mowing [11]. Similarly, bumblebee species in Britain, Canada, and China with late-active queens are especially susceptible to decline [12]. All this differentially affects the relative extinction risks of early- and late-flying bees. In addition, climate warming is uneven among seasons [13,14]. For instance, climate warming from 1960 to 2016 across 53 German weather stations shows strong March–May and July–August warming, while June, September, and October have hardly changed over those 56 years (inset figure 2*a*). If spring-warming and the early mass-flowering of herbaceous crops [10] benefit spring-flying bees, while agricultural activities during summer and autumn are detrimental to late-flying bees, this might lead to a shift in the relative vulnerability of spring- versus summer-active species.

Here, we use the German bee fauna as a system in which to study extinction risk predictors. Germany harbours 561 bee species in 35 genera [15], most of which have been bar-coded with multiple specimens per species [16]. In terms of both taxonomy and ecology, Germany's bees are comparatively well known, with red-listing having been carried out for at least 40 years [15,17]. We, therefore, decided to rely on Red List status and whether status assessments have changed since 1977 as a proxy for species' extinction risks. Of the 445 bees included in this study, about 23% are pollen specialists (oligolectic), 227 (51%) build their nests in the ground and flight times fall between late February (first species of *Andrena* and *Osmia*, early-emerging overwintering queens of *Bombus*) and mid-October (e.g. species of *Colletes* and freshly emerged sexuals of *Lasioglossum* and *Halictus*).

Specifically, we set out to investigate whether early-season and late-season species differ in their Red List status and how their abundances and long-term population trends have changed over the past 40 years. Our expectation was that bees active in the fast-warming spring might do better than those later in the year. In addition, we were interested in how bees of different habitats may have fared over the past half-century. About 51.6% of Germany's land surface consists of arable land [18], 14% of urban areas [18], and 32% of forests, percentages that have changed little over the past 20 years, except for a slight increase in the percentage of urban area [19] (see electronic supplementary material, figure S1: land use 2000–2017). If urbanization and climate warming are less of a threat to bees than is intensive agriculture, this might lead to bees in urban or forest habitats doing better than those in open, non-urban habitats. We used hierarchical Bayesian (HB) models, which allowed us to control for phylogenetic structure in the data, to analyse the simultaneous effects of the biotic and abiotic traits relevant to our questions, namely habitat breadth (using a fine-grained categorization that included all types of vegetation mentioned in the autecological literature on the bees in question, namely meadows, forests, hedgerows, urban areas, raw-soil sites, and wasteland as well as altitudinal distribution), pollen specialization, body size, nesting preference, mean flight time, and duration of flight activity.

## 2. Material and methods

### (a) Phylogeny

Cytochrome oxidase subunit I sequences of most bees that occur in Germany are available from the barcoding study of Schmidt

*et al.* [16]. Where necessary, we downloaded additional sequences from GenBank in April 2018 (electronic supplementary material, table S3), resulting in a matrix of 553 species (TreeBase accession 23291). Maximum-likelihood tree inference relied on RAxML v. 8.0 [20]. Phylogenetic signal in species-level extinction risk and habitat breadth was measured with Pagel's  $\lambda$  [21], using the 'phyloSig' function in the R package 'phytools' v. 0.2-1 [22] (figure 1).

### (b) Trait scoring

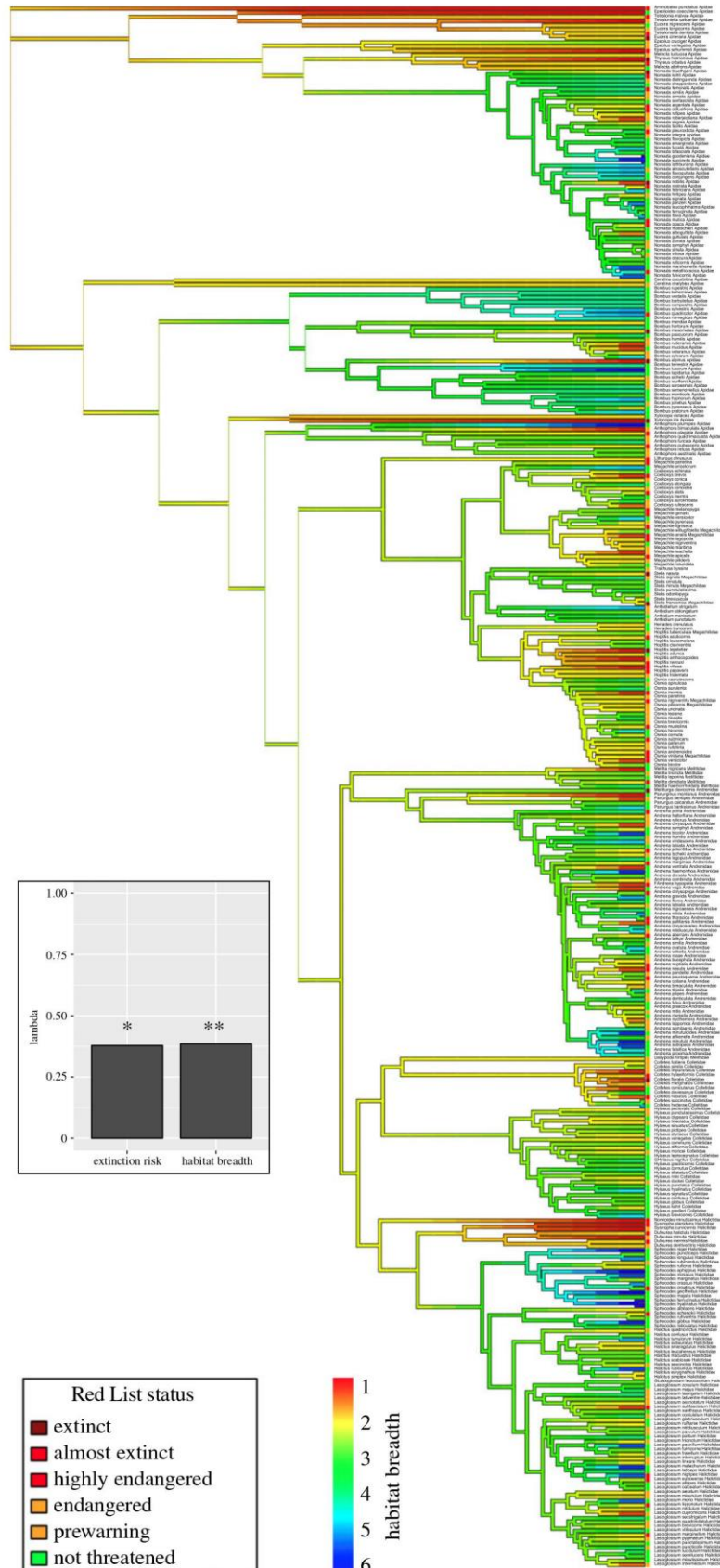
We obtained information on life-history traits and extinction vulnerability status for 445 out of 561 German bee species, thus covering 79% of the German bee fauna [15] (electronic supplementary material, table S1). For each species, we scored its current Red List status either as an ordinal vector (1, not threatened; 2, near-threatened; 3, threatened; 4, highly threatened; 5, almost extinct; 6, extinct; figure 2*a*) or as a binary character (0, not threatened; 1, threatened; electronic supplementary material, figure S2) as well as abundance and long-term population trends from Westrich *et al.* [15]. The Red List status was determined based on the data of seven bee specialists, each with a different regional focus: P. Westrich for Baden-Wuerttemberg, U. Frommer for Hesse, K. Mandery for Northern Bavaria, H. Riemann for Bremen and Lower Saxony, H. Ruhnke for Saxony-Anhalt, C. Saure for Berlin and Brandenburg, and J. Voith for Southern Bavaria and the German Alps. In terms of Red List status, 16 species are considered extinct, 26 almost extinct, 61 highly threatened, 100 threatened, 38 near-threatened, and 187 not threatened. For 17 species, the data were insufficient to assess their Red List status, leaving 428 red-listed species in our statistical models. Information on current commonness status from the Red Lists was available for all 445 species, long-term population trends, based on data of the past 50–150 years, were known for 404 species (table 1).

We scored species' pollen preferences (pollen specialization) (polylectic, oligolectic, or cuckoo) based on Westrich [23] and Scheuchl & Willner [24]. In a few cases, data were complemented with information from the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List [25]. Mesolectic species, which use pollen from a few genera of plants, were included in the category polylectic; kleptoparasitic and social parasitic species were placed in the category cuckoo. In total, 218 species were assigned the category 'polylectic', 102 'oligolectic', and 125 'cuckoo'. Species' nest location (above or below ground) was scored based on the literature [23,24], with 213 species nesting solely below ground and 232 above or below ground or in host nests. Sociality was coded as a binary trait, and all species not explicitly stated to be social in Westrich [23] or Scheuchl & Willner [24] were considered solitary, regardless of whether they are parasitic, form nest aggregations, or nest alone (268 species were social, 178 solitary).

The mean body length of females (as a proxy for body size) was recorded in millimetres based on Amiet *et al.* [26–30], von Hagen & Aichhorn [31], Schmid-Egger & Scheuchl [32], Dathe & Scheuchl [33], and Scheuchl [34,35]. For bumblebees, the size of female workers, not queens, was used for the analysis.

The average duration of flight activity per year (duration of flight activity; see electronic supplementary material, table S2) and the average month of flight activity (mean flight month) were scored based on Westrich [23] and Scheuchl & Willner [24] who have for many years monitored relative bee abundances and flight times in southwestern Germany. To calculate the duration of activity for bivoltine species, we used the cumulative span of occurrence, summing the duration of activity of the first and the second generation. To obtain the mean flight month, we calculated the mean of the first and last month of activity.





**Figure 1.** Phylogeny of 367 bee species occurring in Germany. Habitat breadth of species is indicated by colours of branches and Red List status by coloured squares next to tip labels. The inset shows the lambda estimates for Red List status and habitat breadth (\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ ).

Habitat preferences were taken from Westrich [23] and Scheuchl & Willner [24] with six categories: forests and heaths, including alluvial forests (forests); raw-soil sites with little

vegetation, such as sand dunes, heathland, steppes, and sand or gravel pits; urban areas, including gardens and parks; meadows (mown at least once a year); hedgerows; wasteland and

**Table 1.** Accuracy of predictions of species-level Red List status, abundance status, and long-term population trends. Overall classification rates from multivariate generalized linear models including 14 predictor variables (see figure 2) and pairwise interaction terms among them or without interaction terms (in parentheses). Type 1 error: species erroneously predicted endangered by the model. Type 2 error: species erroneously predicted to be not endangered.  $N$ , number of bee species included in the models.

	classification rate	type 1 error	type 2 error	$N$
Red List status	85% (77%)	9% (15%)	6% (8%)	428
abundance	84% (78%)	10% (13%)	6% (9%)	445
long-term trend	81% (75%)	11% (16%)	7% (9%)	404

nutrient-poor sites. Species occurring everywhere or with no specific habitat preferences were scored as ubiquitous. In a second step, we scored habitat breadth as the number of habitats a species is found in (thus ranging from 1 to 6). Ubiquitous were assigned a habitat breadth value of 6. Species' altitudinal distribution (altitude) was scored as lowlands from 0 to 300 m, colline from 300 to 800 m, montane from 800 to 1600 m, subalpine from 1600 to 2100 m, and alpine from 2100 to 3000 m [23,24].

### (c) Hierarchical Bayesian modelling

We applied an HB approach (following [36]) for testing effects of species-level traits on extinction risk. This allowed us to control for phylogenetic structure in the data and to simultaneously fit slope parameters of biotic and abiotic traits relevant to our questions without concerns of  $p$ -value correction or multiple testing. To test for multicollinearity of our 14 predictor variables, we used a variance inflation factor (VIF) analysis, implemented in the R function 'vif', from the package 'HH' [37]. This analysis showed high variance inflation (greater than 10) for habitat breadth, because the six habitat types (*urban areas*, *hedgerows*, *forests*, *raw-soil sites*, *meadows*, and *wasteland*) together explain a significant proportion of habitat breadth. Thus, we decided to analyse specific habitat preferences in a separate analysis. After having separated habitat breadth and habitat preferences, all VIF were smaller than 2, indicating sufficient independence among predictor variables. We also calculated a correlation dendrogram, showing that Pearson's correlation coefficients among predictor variables are less than 0.5 (electronic supplementary material, figure S3).

We applied both binary and ordinal models, treating Red List status as a binary character (see above; figure 2a). To account for phylogenetic structure in the data, genus- and family-level random effects were incorporated in the models (note that the phylogeny could not be incorporated as a distance matrix in the analysis because this is only possible for continuous, not binary or ordinal, dependent variables). Six continuous and eight binary variables were used as predictor variables (see *Trait scoring*); continuous variables: *body size*, *mean flight month*, *duration of activity*, *altitude*, *habitat breadth*; binary variables: *pollen specialization* (oligolecty versus polylecty/cuckoo), *sociality* (social versus solitary), *nest location* (belowground versus aboveground  $\pm$  belowground), *urban areas* (yes/no), *hedgerows* (yes/no), *forests* (yes/no), *raw-soil sites* (yes/no), *meadows* (yes/no), and *wasteland* (yes/no).

Regression components of the ordinal models are of the form:

Life-history traits and habitat breadth model:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{ordered logit}(\text{redlist ordinal}_i) \\ &= \beta_1 \times \text{duration of activity}_i + \beta_2 \times \text{mean flight month} \\ &+ \beta_3 \times \text{body size}_i + \beta_4 \times \text{pollen specialization}_i \\ &+ \beta_5 \times \text{sociality}_i + \beta_6 \times \text{nest location}_i \\ &+ \beta_7 \times \text{habitat breadth}_i + \text{genus}_i + \text{family}_i. \end{aligned}$$

Habitat preference model:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{ordered logit}(\text{redlist ordinal}_i) \\ &= \beta_1 \times \text{urban areas}_i + \beta_2 \times \text{hedgerows}_i + \beta_3 \times \text{wasteland}_i \\ &+ \beta_4 \times \text{meadows}_i + \beta_5 \times \text{raw-soil}_i + \beta_6 \times \text{forest}_i \\ &+ \beta_7 \times \text{altitude}_i + \text{genus}_i + \text{family}_i. \end{aligned}$$

The duration of activity, mean flight month, body size, pollen specialization, sociality, nest location, habitat breadth, urban areas, hedgerows, altitude, wasteland, meadows, raw-soil, and forest refer to species values ( $i$ ) in electronic supplementary material, table S1,  $\beta$  refers to the estimated slopes of the respective variable (figure 2) and genus and family refer to the genus- and family-level random intercept effects inserted in the model.

Regression components of the binary models are of the form: Life-history trait and habitat breadth model:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{redlist binary}_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p_i) \\ & \text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 \times \text{duration of activity}_i + \beta_2 \times \text{mean flight month} \\ &+ \beta_3 \times \text{body size}_i + \beta_4 \times \text{pollen specialization}_i \\ &+ \beta_5 \times \text{sociality}_i + \beta_6 \times \text{nest location}_i \\ &+ \beta_7 \times \text{habitat breadth}_i + \text{genus}_i + \text{family}_i. \end{aligned}$$

Habitat preference model:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{redlist binary}_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p_i) \\ & \text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 \times \text{urban areas}_i \\ &+ \beta_2 \times \text{hedgerows}_i + \beta_3 \times \text{wasteland}_i \\ &+ \beta_4 \times \text{meadows}_i + \beta_5 \times \text{raw-soil}_i \\ &+ \beta_6 \times \text{forest}_i + \beta_7 \times \text{altitude}_i + \text{genus}_i + \text{family}_i. \end{aligned}$$

The term  $\alpha$  refers to the intercept and  $\beta$  to the estimated slopes of the respective variable.

We additionally applied the same models, using current abundance status or long-term population trends instead of Red List status as response variables (electronic supplementary material, figures S1 and S2). Again, we applied both binary and ordinal models, treating abundance and population trend either as ordinal vectors or binary characters (abundance ordinal vector: 1, abundant; 2, common; 3, frequent; 4, occasional; 5, rare; 6, extremely rare; 7, extinct; abundance binary: 0, abundant to frequent; 1, rare to extinct; population trend ordinal vector: 1, increase; 2, no change; 3, small decline; 4, decline; 5, large decline; 6, extinct; population trend binary: 0, no decline; 1, decline).

To examine relative effect sizes of predictor variables, we standardized all variables by subtracting their mean and dividing by 2 s.d. before analysis [38]. The resulting posterior distributions are a direct statement of the relative effect of each tested trait on species-level extinction vulnerability. The effective posterior means for the respective relationships are shown in figure 1a; electronic supplementary material figures S2 and S3. To parametrize our models, we used the JAGS implementation [39] of Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods in the R package R2JAGS [40]. The R code for our HB models is provided in the electronic supporting material as Note S1. We ran three

parallel MCMC chains for 20 000 iterations with a 5000-iteration burn-in and evaluated model convergence with the Gelman and Rubin [41] statistic. Non-informative priors were specified for all parameter distributions, including normal priors for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  coefficients (fixed effects; mean = 0; variance = 1000), and uniform priors between 0 and 100 for the variance of the genus random intercept effect, based on De Villemereuil *et al.* [42].

In table 1, we summarize the statistical results.

#### (d) Classification rates and recursive partitioning analysis

Multivariate generalized linear models were applied to test how well the combination of scored traits explains species-level extinction risk, i.e. testing for type 1 and type 2 errors (species erroneously considered as not endangered by the model or species erroneously considered endangered by the model). The models included all 14 predictor variables and an interaction for each pair of them to account for possible interactions among traits and Red List status, abundance, and population trend as binary dependent variables (table 1). Overall, Red List status was predicted with an accuracy of 85%; false positives (type 1 error) occurred for 9% of species and false negatives (type 2 error) for 6%. For recursive partitioning analyses (figure 3) of the four best predictor variables (habitat breadth, urban areas, duration of activity, and mean flight month), we used the 'rpart' option in the R library [43], setting the minimum node size to 15 (minimum number of species contained in each terminal node).

All statistical analyses were conducted in R 3.2.2 [44].

### 3. Results

Early-emerging bees had the lowest extinction probabilities, late-emerging bees the highest (figures 2 and 3), and extinction risk was also significantly increased in species with narrow habitat breadths (figures 1 and 2) or short flight periods, irrespective of whether extinction risk was coded as an ordinal (figure 2) or a binary character (electronic supplementary material, figure S2). Large-bodied species were slightly more vulnerable to extinction (figure 2a). Pollen preference, sociality, and nest location had no statistical effect on vulnerability. When we ran the analysis again, replacing the response variable 'extinction risk' with either 'bee abundance' or 'long-term population trends', the logistic regression (table 1) and HB models (compare figure 2a with electronic supplementary material, figure S4a,b) showed similar results, with similar effect sizes of predictor variables.

The fine-grained habitat scoring possible because of the relatively well-known autecology of Germany's bees revealed that occurrence in urban habitats, for example gardens and parks, as well as hedge habitats, strongly lowers a species' extinction risk compared with occurrence in any of the other five habitat types (figure 2a). High-altitude bees (coded as a continuous trait; Material and methods) also have a reduced extinction risk (figure 2a). Occurrence in forests and nutrient-poor sites, such as raw-soils, meadows, and wastelands had no statistical effect on vulnerability.

A logistic regression model, using the predictor variables (figure 2a) and pairwise interaction terms among them, correctly predicted the extinction risk of 85% of the 428 species for which we had information on Red List status (table 1). Nine per cent (38 species) were erroneously predicted as

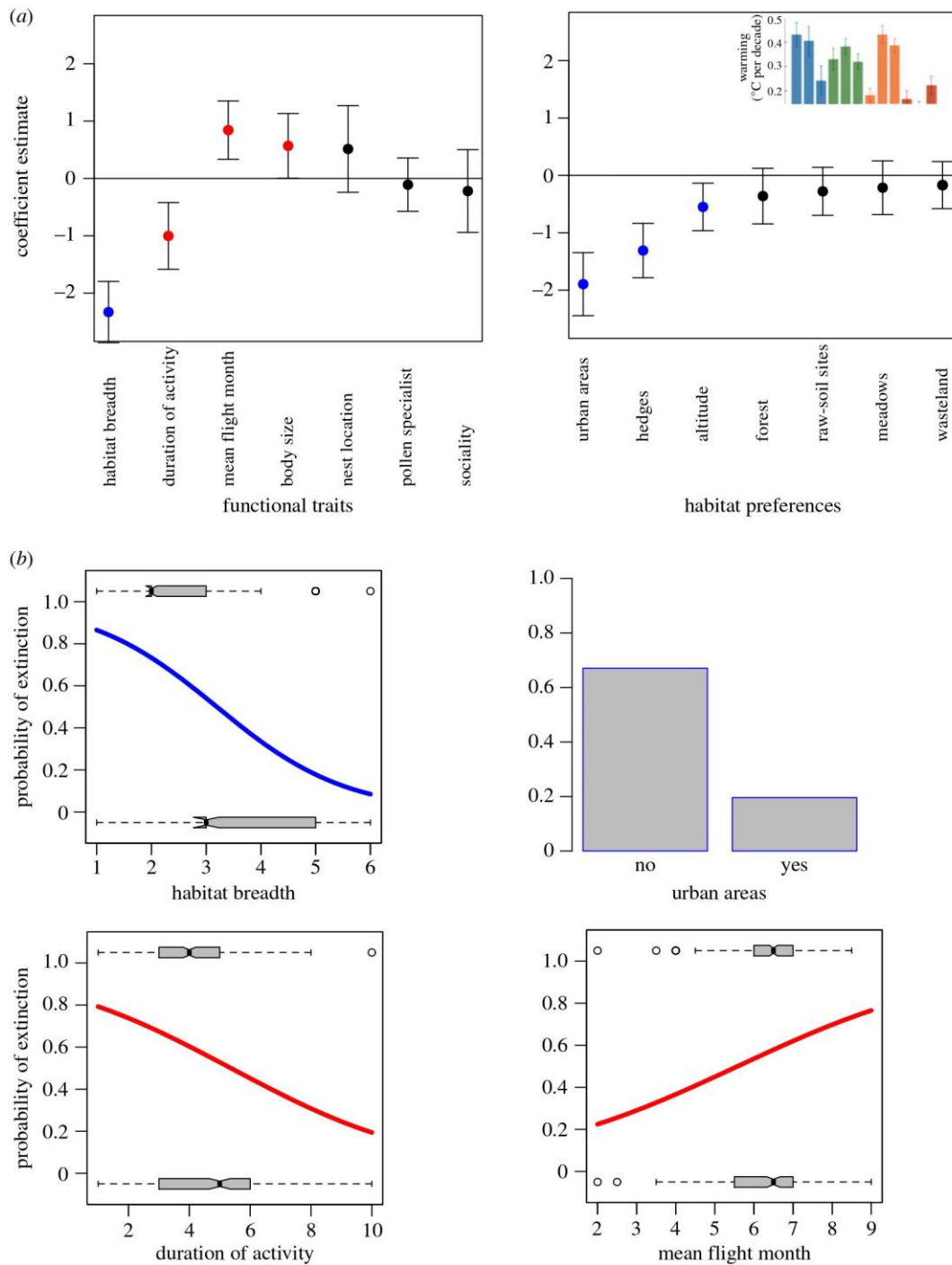
endangered (type 1 error) and 6% (26 species) were erroneously predicted as not endangered (type 2 error). Whether a species was misclassified or not did not show a phylogenetic signal (electronic supplementary material, figure S5).

### 4. Discussion

The three strongest extinction-predicting factors for the bees with data on both life-history traits and Red List status over the past 40 years (445 species or 79% of the German bee fauna) were narrow habitat preferences, a short flight time, and late-summer emergence (figures 1b and 3). By contrast, spring emergence reduced extinction risk. Shorter winters, earlier springs, and increased average monthly temperatures in Central Europe should benefit many species of bees because the superfamily Apoidea worldwide is most species-rich in Mediterranean-type climates [5]. For Germany, March–May and July–August have warmed more strongly than other months (inset figure 2a), a pattern that *per se* cannot explain why spring-active species should have a lower extinction risk than species active later in the year. The phenological mismatch between pollinators and flowers is also an unlikely explanation because current data indicate strongly buffered synchronization mechanisms between bees' flight times and the flowering time of their pollen and nectar sources, probably because mutualistic interactions depend on such buffering for their persistence [45,46]. This leaves lack of pollen and nectar sources as the most probable explanation for why late-flying bees are declining more strongly than bees that reproduce early in the year when mass-flowering crops (e.g. *Brassica napus*), flowering trees and shrubs (e.g. *Salix* spp., *Prunus* spp.), and flowering herbs in improved grasslands and field margins (e.g. *Taraxacum* spp., *Cardamine pratensis*, and *Ranunculus* spp.) still provide early-season floral resources [10]. Intensive land use (with monocultures, fertilizers, insecticides, and herbicides) and habitat fragmentation, rather than changes in the relative area of arable or built-up land and forest, thus emerge as the most probable factors driving the decline of wild bee species in Germany.

A caveat applying to this study is that local extinction may be common in rare species, including species for which the area under study (Germany) represents the edge of their distribution ranges. Rare species might be less reliably monitored than more abundant species, so that their changing Red List status over the past 40 years may be less well understood than that of common species. However, models that included abundance and population trends as separate parameters yielded the same results (see electronic supplementary material, figure S4). Occurrence in urban areas lowered a species' extinction risk, under both the ordinal and the binary model (figure 2; electronic supplementary material, S2). Between 2000 and 2017, Germany's urban areas have been increasing in surface (electronic supplementary material, figure S1), and they support numerous bees that find nest sites, pollen, and nectar in city gardens, probably benefitting from lower pesticide use there compared to arable land [47,48]. However, the monitoring of changes in land use in Germany is at a coarse-scale, and it is therefore problematic to link them to bee decline.

That high-altitude bees have low extinction risks may be due to Germany's montane and alpine regions being less impacted by modern human land use than are its lowlands.

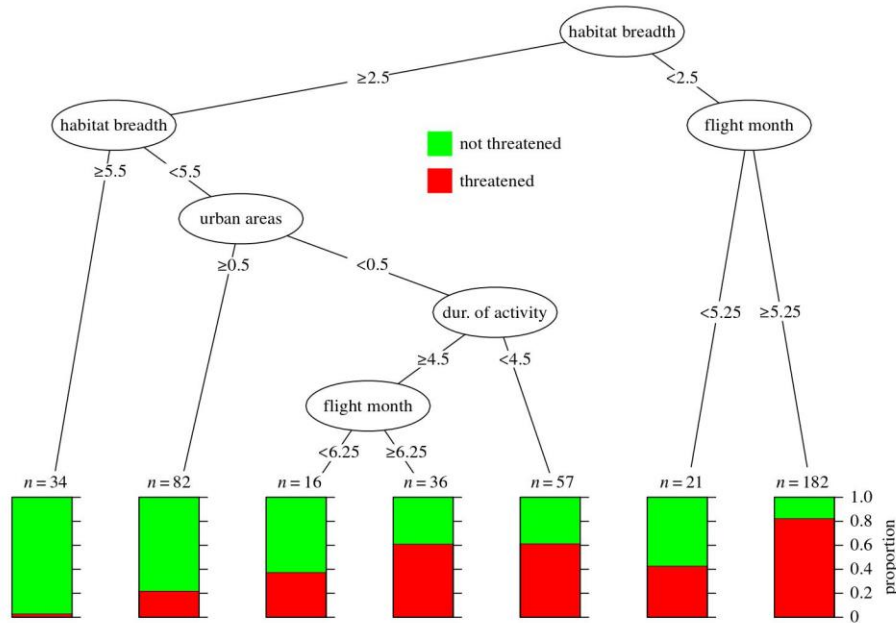


**Figure 2.** Extinction risk of 428 bee species occurring in Germany is linked to their habitat breadth, occurrence in urban habitats, and flight time. (a) Coefficient estimates (effective posterior means  $\pm$  95% credible intervals) for the effects of species-specific functional traits (duration of flight activity, mean flight month, body size, pollen specialization, sociality, nest location) and habitat breadth on species' Red List status (coded as ordinal variable). Positive estimates correspond to increasing extinction risk status. The right panel shows the effects of species-specific habitat preferences (urban areas, hedgerows, altitude, forest, raw-soil sites, meadows, and wasteland) on species' Red List status. HB linear models were applied, including genus and family random effects to account for phylogenetic signal in the data. All variables were standardized to allow for direct effect size comparisons. Red dots indicate significant functional traits and blue dots indicate significant habitat traits. Inset shows the seasonal differences in climate warming from 1960 to 2016 across 53 German weather stations ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$  increase in air temperature per decade; adapted from [14]). (b) The univariate probability of species-specific extinction risk (not threatened, 0; threatened, 1) in relation to the four best explanatory traits, habitat breadth, occurrence in urban areas, duration of activity, and mean flight month ( $p < 0.05$  in univariate generalized linear models).

The higher extinction risk of large-bodied species (figure 2a) agrees with the studies of Bartomeus *et al.* [46] and Scheper *et al.* [10] who both found that body size has a negative effect on wild bee population persistence, regardless of whether bumblebees were included or excluded in the analyses. A plausible explanation is that the larger pollen

requirements of larger species [49] result in stronger food limitations compared to smaller bees. Larger bees also have larger foraging ranges [50–52], which may increase their exposure to pesticides.

An earlier study of traits affecting bees' extinction vulnerability that also incorporated phylogenetic relationships did



**Figure 3.** Recursive partitioning tree for the effect of habitat requirements and flight time on Red List status in 428 German bee species. Habitat breadth, occurrence in urban areas, duration of activity, and mean flight month were evaluated as potential split points. The number of species ( $n$ ) contained in each terminal node shown within graphs.

not rely on Red Lists, but instead used relative abundances inferred from museum specimens (of 438 species in 47 genera) collected over 140 years in the northeastern USA [10]. The results revealed greatest declines (of collected specimens) in species with a narrow dietary breadth (pollen specialization), a short flight time (days of adult activity per year), and a large body size (intertegular distance in millimetres). Flight times were not included as a risk factor, so results cannot be compared with the present study. Meta-analyses of datasets collected either throughout the world ([8]: 19 studies) or throughout Europe ([3]: 30 studies) also did not include time of flight activity. The one study that did address a possible effect of time of flight activity on population trends—in 57 species from 10 genera in the Netherlands—found stronger declines in late-flying bees than early-flying ones [10] in agreement with our findings.

Overall, these results from a large sample of species from Central Europe that have been monitored for a comparatively

long time highlight that intensive agriculture, with its negative repercussions for summer-active bees, is currently shifting faunistic diversity (at least for bees) towards warm-adapted, early-flying, city-dwelling species.

**Data accessibility.** All DNA sequences have been submitted to NCBI (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>) under the accession numbers listed in electronic supplementary material, table S3. All trait scoring is shown in electronic supplementary material, tables S1 and S2.

**Authors' contributions.** M.M.H. gathered data and observations; C.M.Z. conducted statistical analyses; S.S.R. and M.M.H. designed the study and wrote the first draft; all authors worked on the final manuscript.

**Competing interests.** The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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Supplementary figures S1-S5

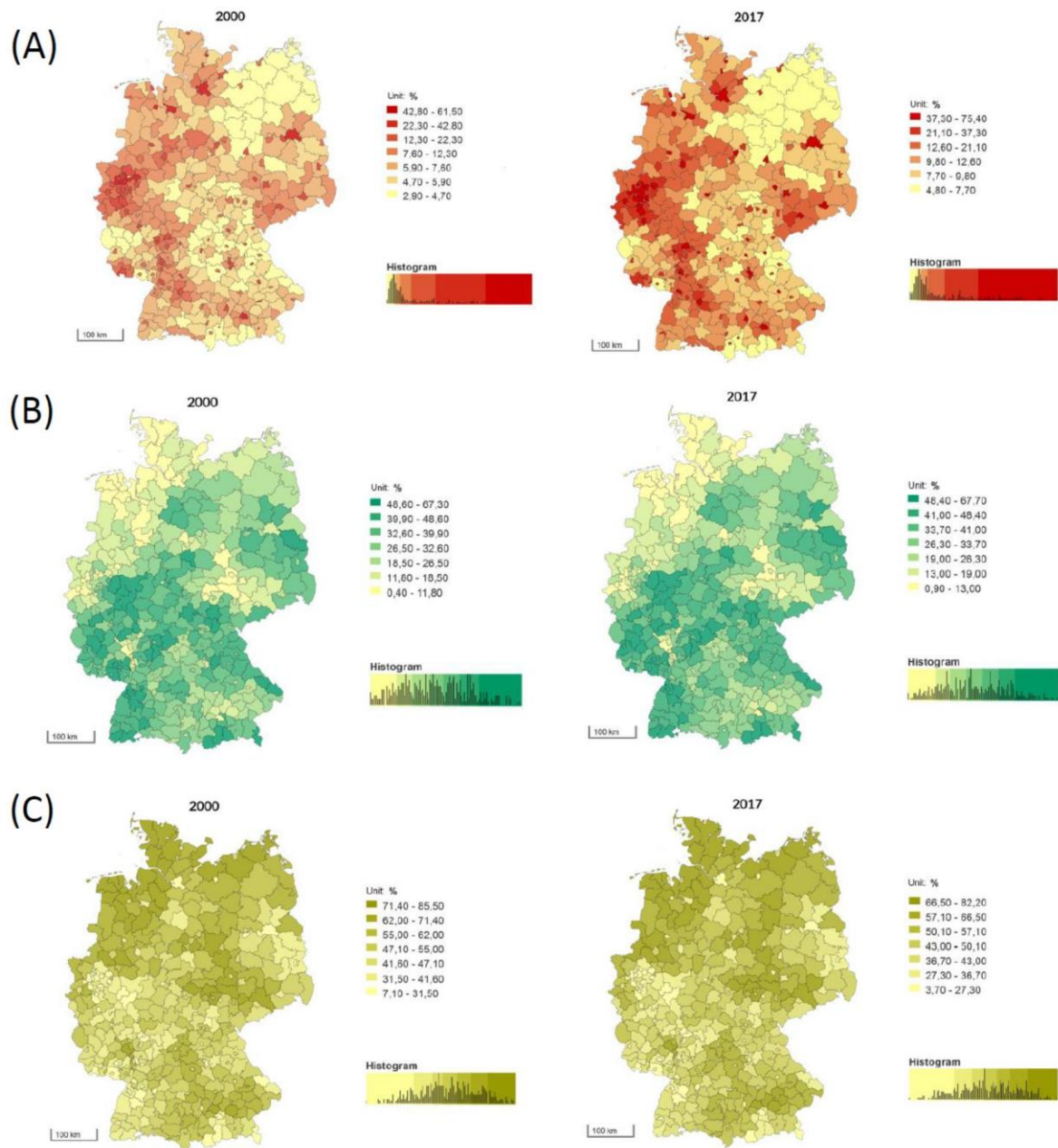
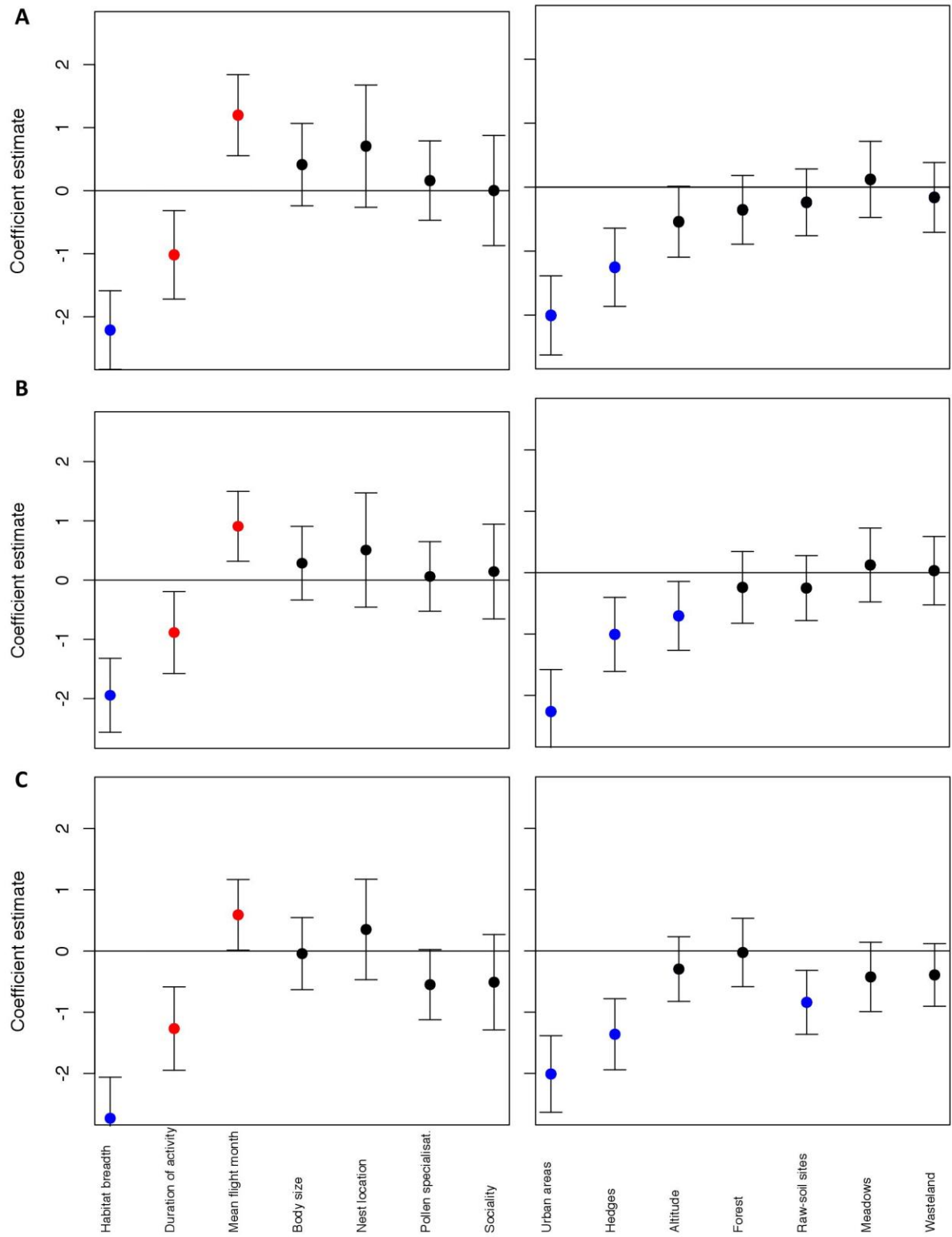
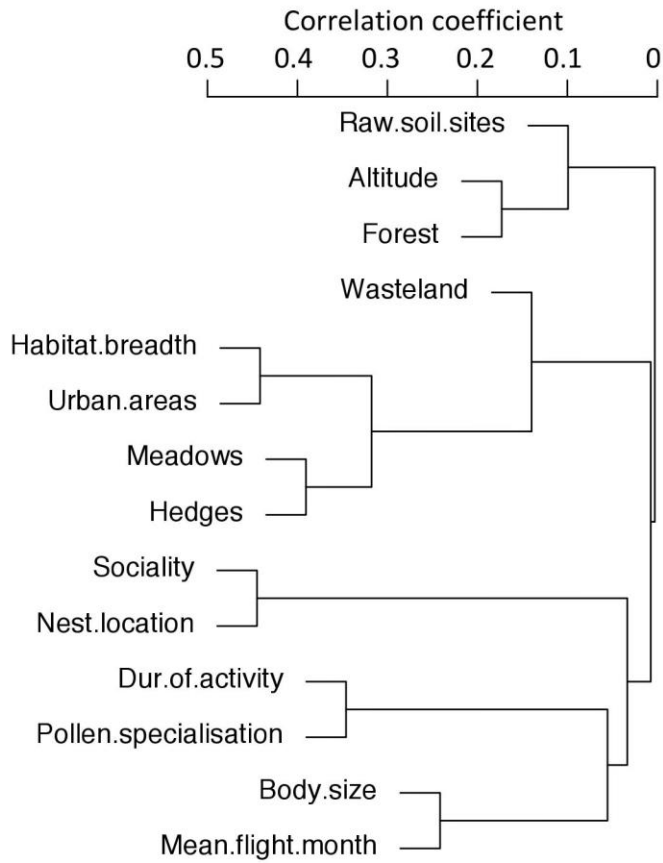


Figure S1 | Percentages of (A) human settlements and the transport infrastructure, (B) woodland, and (C) arable land in 2000 and 2017.

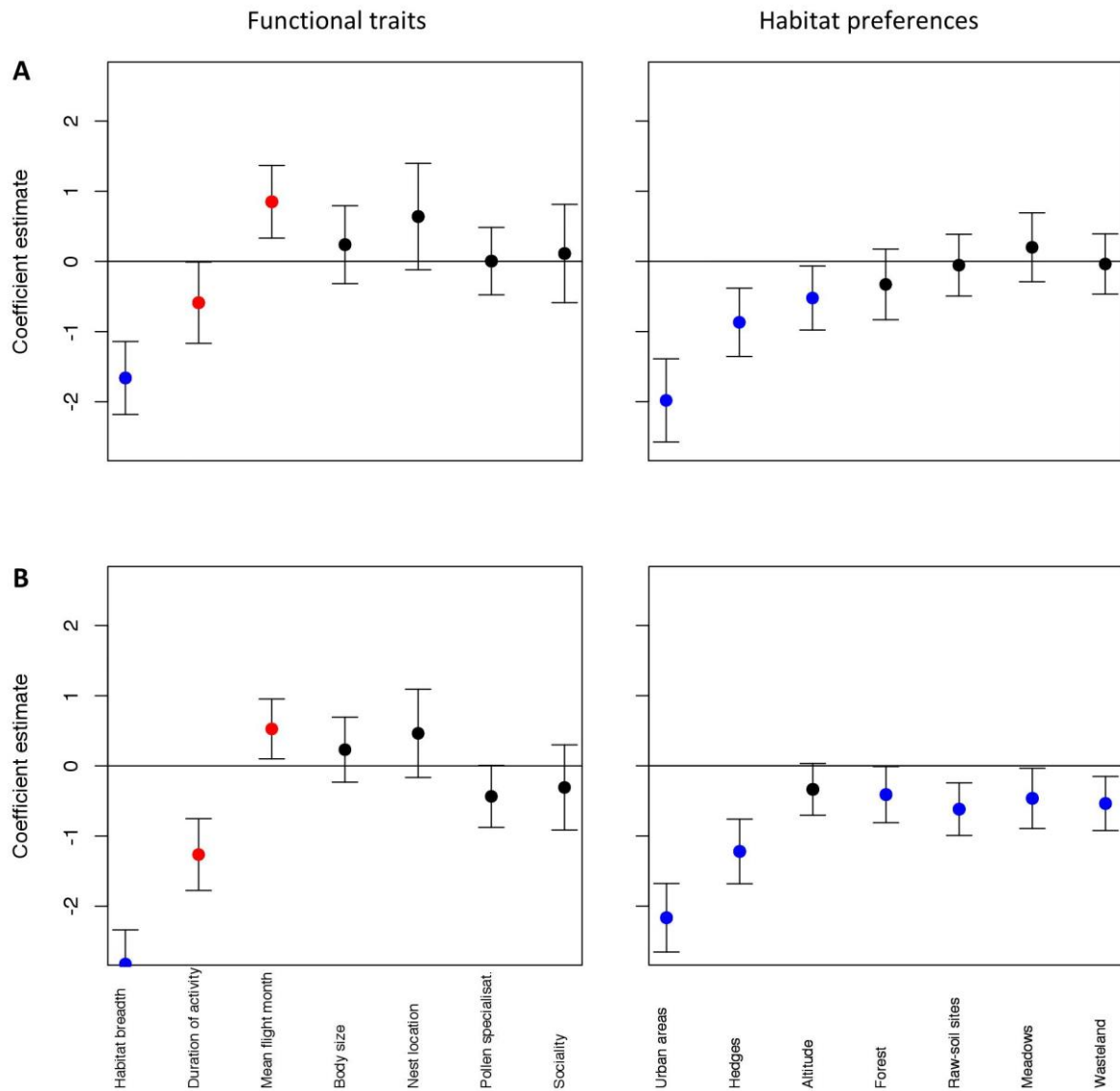


**Figure S2 | Extinction risk (A), population trends (B) and abundance (C) of bee species occurring in Germany modeled as binary characters. a, Coefficient estimates (effective**

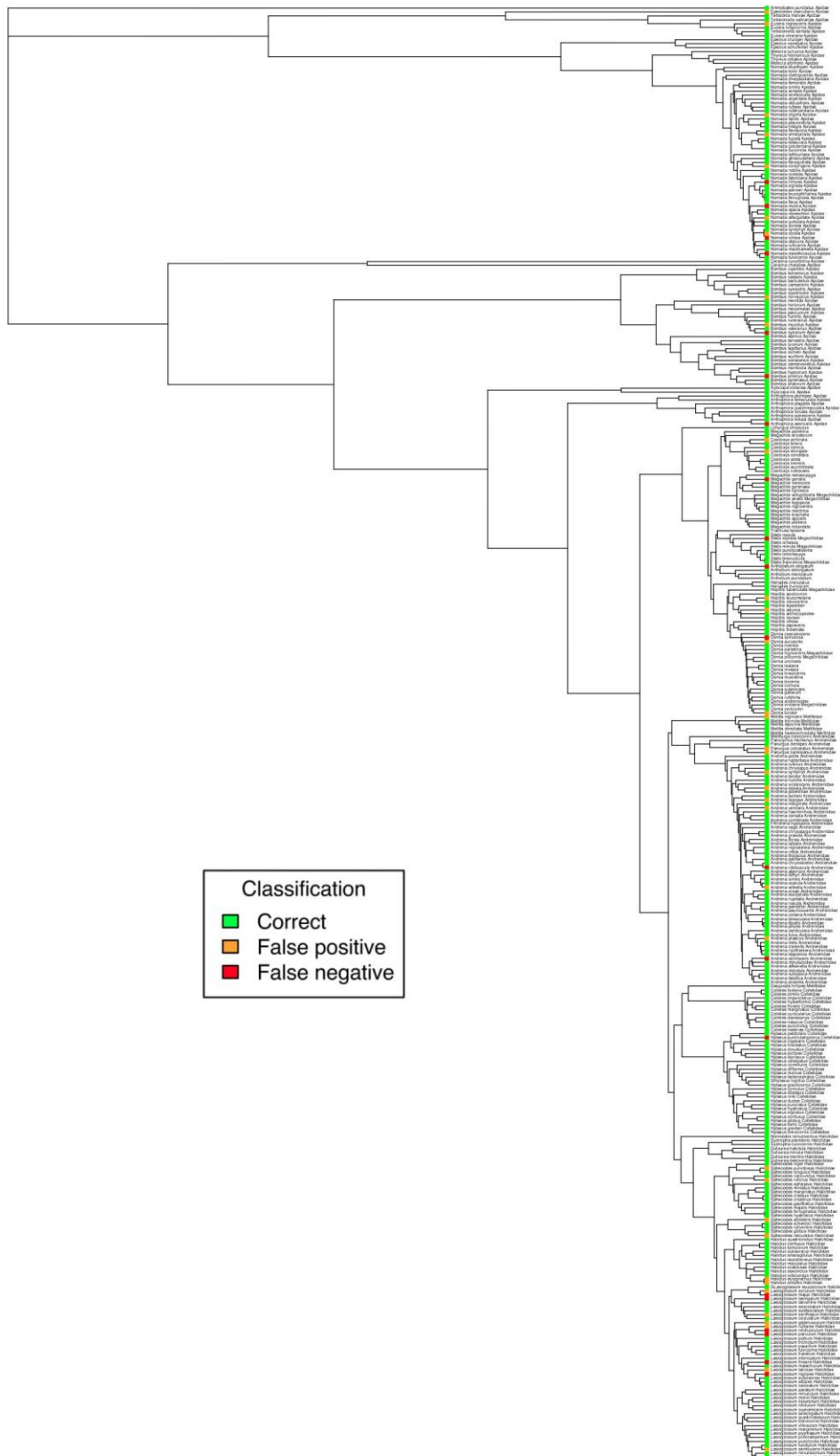
posterior means  $\pm$  95% credible intervals) for the effects of species-specific functional traits (duration of activity, mean flight month, body size, pollen specialization, sociality, nest location) and habitat requirements (habitat breadth, urban areas, hedgerows, altitude, wasteland, meadows, raw-soil sites, forest) on Red List status (A), population trends (B), and abundance (C) (coded as binary variables). Hierarchical Bayesian linear models were applied, including genus and family random effects to account for phylogenetic signal in the data. All variables were standardized to allow for direct effect size comparisons.  $N = 428$  (A), 404 (B), and 445 (C) species.



**Figure S3 | Correlation dendrogram for the 14 variables used to predict extinction risk.** Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated. All correlation coefficients are  $< 0.5$ , indicating sufficient independence among predictor variables.



**Figure S4 | Population trends (A) and abundance (B) of Germany's bee species are linked to habitat breadth, occurrence in urban areas, and flight time (duration and month of year).** a, Coefficient estimates (effective posterior means  $\pm$  95% credible intervals) for the effects of species-specific functional traits (duration of activity, mean flight month, body size, pollen specialization, sociality, nest location) and habitat requirements (habitat breadth, urban areas, hedgerows, altitude, wasteland, meadows, raw-soil sites, forest) on population trends (A) and abundance (B) (coded as ordinal variables). Hierarchical Bayesian linear models were applied, including genus and family random effects to account for phylogenetic signal in the data. All variables were standardized to allow for direct effect size comparisons.  $N = 404$  (A) and 445 (B) species.



**Figure S5 | Phylogeny of 367 bee species occurring in Germany showing for which species, Red List status was misclassified by the generalized linear model.** False positives (Type 1 error): species erroneously predicted endangered (see Table 1). False negatives (Type 2 error): species erroneously predicted to be not endangered. For both false positives and false negatives  $\Lambda < 0.01$ .









<i>Bombus mendax</i> GERSTÄCKER, 1869	1	4	2	polylectic	ground	social	7	7	15,5	2300	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Halictus quadricinctus</i> (FABRICIUS, 1775)	3	4	3	polylectic	ground	solitary	6,5	6	15,5	1950	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Bombus gerstaeckeri</i> MORAWITZ, 1882	unknown	6	2	oligolectic	ground	social	8	5	16	1900	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
<i>Megachile lagopoda</i> (LINNAEUS, 1761)	4	5	3	polylectic	ground and above	solitary	7	3	16	800	0	1	0	0	0	1	2
<i>Bombus campestris</i> (PANZER, 1801)	1	2	2	cuckoo	host nest	cuckoo	6,5	4	16,5	1050	0	0	1	1	1	1	4
<i>Xylocopa iris</i> (CHRIST, 1751)	6	7	6	polylectic	above	solitary	7	7	16,5	400	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
<i>Andrena rufata</i> GIBBALD, 1863	4	4	4	oligolectic	ground	solitary	5,5	2	17	400	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Bombus flavus</i> EVERS-MANN, 1852	3	4	insufficient data	cuckoo	host nest	cuckoo	7,5	4	17	1900	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
<i>Megachile parviflora</i> (GEOFFROY, 1785)	5	6	5	polylectic	above	solitary	5,5	6	17	800	0	1	0	0	0	1	2
<i>Bombus barbutellus</i> (KIRBY, 1802)	1	2	2	cuckoo	host nest	cuckoo	5,5	4	18	1050	0	0	1	1	1	1	4
<i>Bombus norvegicus</i> (SPÄHRE-SCHNEIDER, 1918)	1	3	3	cuckoo	host nest	cuckoo	6	5	20	1050	1	0	0	1	1	1	4
<i>Bombus rufipes</i> (FABRICIUS, 1753)	1	2	2	cuckoo	host nest	cuckoo	6	5	20	1050	0	0	1	1	1	1	4
<i>Bombus vestalis</i> (GEOFFROY, 1785)	1	3	2	cuckoo	host nest	cuckoo	6	5	21	800	0	0	1	1	1	1	4
<i>Xylocopa violacea</i> (LINNAEUS, 1758)	1	3	1	polylectic	above	solitary	6,5	8	22,5	800	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
<i>Bombus bohemicus</i> SEIDL, 1838	1	2	2	cuckoo	host nest	cuckoo	6	5	24	1050	0	0	1	1	1	1	4
<i>Bombus quadricolor</i> (LEPELETIER, 1832)	4	5	3	cuckoo	host nest	cuckoo	6,5	6	24	1050	1	1	0	1	1	1	5

Category	Variable name	Explanation
Response variables	Redlist	redlist status (extinction risk): 1=not threatened; 2=near-threatened; 3=threatened; 4=highly threatened; 5=almost extinct; 6=extinct
	Abundance	species abundance: 1=abundant; 2=common; 3=frequent; 4=occasional; 5=rare; 6=extremely rare; 7=extinct
	Population.trend	long-term population trend: 1=increase; 2=no change; 3=small decline; 4=decline; 5=large decline; 6=extinct
	Pollen.specialisation	polylectic / oligolectic / cuckoo
Functional traits	Nest.location	nesting: above ground / in ground and above ground / in ground / host nest
	Sociality	social / solitary / cuckoo
	Mean.flight.month	mean month of flight activity
	Duration.of.activity	duration of flight activity (in months)
	Size.mean	mean female body length
	Altitude.mean	mean altitudinal occurrence (in meter above sea-level)
Habitat preferences	Forest	occurrence in forests (1=yes; 0=no)
	Raw.soil	occurrence in raw-soil sites (1=yes; 0=no)
	Urban.areas	occurrence in urban areas (1=yes; 0=no)
	Meadows	occurrence in meadows (1=yes; 0=no)
	Hedgerows	occurrence in hedgerows (1=yes; 0=no)
	Wasteland	occurrence in wasteland (1=yes; 0=no)
	Habitat.breadth	number of habitats occupied by a species (1-6)









Table S3: GenBank accession numbers for all species in the CO1 phylogeny.

<b>Species</b>	<b>GenBank Accession Number</b>	<b>Reference</b>
<i>Ammobates punctatus</i>	HM401141	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Ammobatooides abdominalis</i>	KJ83805	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena aberrans</i>	KJ837129	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena agilissima</i>	KT960836	Makkar et al. 2016
<i>Andrena albofasciata</i>	KJ837459	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Andrena alfkenella</i>	HM401243	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena allosa</i>	KJ837196	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena alutacea</i>	KJ836974	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena ampla</i>	KJ836817	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena angustior</i>	JQ909640	Magnacca and Brown 2012
<i>Andrena apicata</i>	JQ909642	Magnacca and Brown 2012
<i>Andrena argentata</i>	KJ838106	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena barbareae</i>	KT164628	Tang et al. 2017
<i>Andrena barbilabris</i>	KJ836669	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena bicolor</i>	GU706056	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena bimaculata</i>	KJ837393	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena bucephala</i>	KJ839574	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena carantonica</i>	KT074022	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena chrysopus</i>	GU705927	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena chrysopyga</i>	HM376233	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena chrysoseles</i>	HQ954749	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena cineraria</i>	JQ909656	Magnacca and Brown 2012
<i>Andrena clarkella</i>	GU705928	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena coitana</i>	KJ836599	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena combinata</i>	KJ837482	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena confinis</i>	HM401263	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena congruens</i>	GU705940	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena curtula</i>	KJ837178	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena curvungula</i>	KJ837652	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena decipiens</i>	KJ837637	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena denticulata</i>	GU705953	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena distinguenda</i>	KJ839472	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena dorsata</i>	KJ837258	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena enslinella</i>	KJ838020	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena falsifica</i>	KJ838103	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena ferox</i>	KJ839323	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena flavipes</i>	KJ839275	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena florea</i>	HM376235	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena floricola</i>	KJ837140	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena florivaga</i>	KJ837219	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena fucata</i>	JQ909669	Magnacca and Brown 2012
<i>Andrena fulva</i>	GU705958	Schmidt et al. 2015

<i>Andrena fulvago</i>	KJ837292	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena fulvata</i>	HM401059	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena fulvicornis</i>	HM376237	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena fulvida</i>	HM401047	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena fuscipes</i>	HM401055	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena granulosa</i>	HQ954767	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena gravida</i>	KJ836450	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena haemorrhoa</i>	KJ839483	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena hattorfiana</i>	KJ837424	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena helvola</i>	KJ837363	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena humilis</i>	KJ838908	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena hypopolia</i>	HM376239	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena intermedia</i>	KJ836983	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena labialis</i>	HM376240	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena labiata</i>	HM401048	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena lagopus</i>	HM376241	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena lapponica</i>	KJ837558	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena lathyri</i>	KJ839310	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena limata</i>	KJ837654	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena marginata</i>	KJ837896	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena minutula</i>	KJ836685	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena minutuloides</i>	HM401044	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena mitis</i>	KJ838697	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena montana</i>	GU705960	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena morio</i>	HM376243	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena nana</i>	KJ839631	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena nasuta</i>	KJ839710	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena nigroaenea</i>	KJ836732	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena nigrospina</i>	KJ838255	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena nitida</i>	KT074020	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena nitidiuscula</i>	KJ838927	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena nitidula</i>	KJ836688	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena niveata</i>	KJ836650	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena nuptialis</i>	KJ837325	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena nycthemera</i>	KJ836417	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena ovatula</i>	KJ838397	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena pallitarsis</i>	HM401021	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena pandellei</i>	KJ839079	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena pastellensis</i>	HM401027	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena paucisquama</i>	KJ839316	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena pilipes</i>	KJ836606	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena polita</i>	HM401023	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena potentillae</i>	HM401024	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena praecox</i>	HM376224	Schmidt et al. 2015



<i>Andrena proxima</i>	HM401052	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena pusilla</i>	KJ839537	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena rhenana</i>	KJ838999	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena rogenhoferi</i>	KJ838541	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena rosae</i>	EU374644	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena ruficrus</i>	HM401042	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena rufizona</i>	KJ836804	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena rufula</i>	KJ838498	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena semilaevis</i>	KJ839157	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena sericata</i>	KJ836715	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena similis</i>	KJ839751	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena spinigera</i>	KJ837406	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena stragulata</i>	KJ839175	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena strohmella</i>	KJ839737	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena subopaca</i>	KJ836638	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena suerinensis</i>	KJ838205	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena susterai</i>	KJ838537	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena symphyti</i>	KJ837432	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena synadelpha</i>	KT074024	Tang et al. 2017
<i>Andrena taraxaci</i>	KJ839582	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena tarsata</i>	JQ909697	Magnacca and Brown 2012
<i>Andrena thoracica</i>	KJ839789	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena tibialis</i>	KJ837901	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena trimmerana</i>	KJ836680	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena tscheki</i>	KJ836443	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena vaga</i>	KJ837581	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena ventralis</i>	KJ839138	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena viridescens</i>	KJ836441	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Andrena wilkella</i>	KJ836402	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthidiellum strigatum</i>	KJ837946	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthidium florentinum</i>	KJ839553	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthidium loti</i>	KJ836898	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthidium manicatum</i>	KJ838277	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthidium montanum</i>	KJ837682	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthidium oblongatum</i>	GU706008	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthidium punctatum</i>	GU706009	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthophora aestivalis</i>	HM376217	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthophora balneorum</i>	KJ839342	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthophora bimaculata</i>	KJ837025	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthophora furcata</i>	KJ837165	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthophora plagiata</i>	KJ839757	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthophora plumipes</i>	HM376219	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthophora pubescens</i>	KJ836626	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Anthophora quadrimaculata</i>	KJ839773	Schmidt et al. 2015

<i>Anthophora retusa</i>	KJ837816	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	MG443154	Dewaard, BIOUG Archive GGBN Data Release
<i>Biastes emarginatus</i>	KJ839184	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Biastes truncatus</i>	KJ837962	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus alpinus</i>	HQ948121	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus argillaceus</i>	KJ837978	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus barbutellus</i>	GU705885	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus bohemicus</i>	GU705896	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus campestris</i>	GU705893	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus confusus</i>	KJ836795	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus cryptarum</i>	JQ843394	williams et al. 2013
<i>Bombus distinguendus</i>	KJ837828	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus flavidus</i>	AY181184	Pedersen 2002
<i>Bombus gerstaeckeri</i>	GU705902	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus hortorum</i>	KT164676	Tang et al. 2017
<i>Bombus humilis</i>	KJ836557	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus hypnorum</i>	KT074031	Tang et al. 2017
<i>Bombus jonellus</i>	KJ837105	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	GU705907	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus lucorum</i>	KT164681	Tang et al. 2017
<i>Bombus magnus</i>	GU705915	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus mendax</i>	HQ563801	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus mesomelas</i>	HQ563803	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus monticola</i>	GU705913	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus mucidus</i>	KJ839017	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus muscorum</i>	KJ838500	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus norvegicus</i>	GU705916	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>	KJ836788	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus pratorum</i>	KT164684	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus pyrenaeus</i>	KJ837876	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus quadricolor</i>	HQ563807	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus ruderarius</i>	GU705935	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus ruderatus</i>	KX821204	Packer and Ruz 2016
<i>Bombus rupestris</i>	GU705932	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus semenoviellus</i>	HQ563810	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus sichelii</i>	HQ563811	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus soroeensis</i>	GU705936	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus subterraneus</i>	KJ837619	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus sylvarum</i>	GU705942	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus sylvestris</i>	GU705886	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus terrestris</i>	JQ843625	Tang et al. 2017
<i>Bombus vestalis</i>	GU705952	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus veteranus</i>	HQ563800	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Bombus wurflenii</i>	GU705917	Schmidt et al. 2015

<i>Camptopoeum frontale</i>	KJ837986	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Ceratina chalybea</i>	KJ836933	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Ceratina cucurbitina</i>	KJ836657	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Ceratina cyanea</i>	GU705965	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Ceratina nigrolabiata</i>	KJ836469	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Chelostoma campanularum</i>	KR792705	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Chelostoma distinctum</i>	KJ837112	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Chelostoma emarginatum</i>	KJ837355	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Chelostoma grande</i>	KJ836477	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	KR783170	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys afra</i>	KJ837838	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys alata</i>	HM401246	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys argentea</i>	KJ837998	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys aurolimbata</i>	KJ838074	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys brevis</i>	KJ837761	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys conica</i>	HM401145	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys conoidea</i>	KJ839589	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys echinata</i>	HM401148	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys elongata</i>	KJ837365	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys haemorrhoea</i>	KJ839282	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys inermis</i>	KJ839147	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys mandibularis</i>	KJ839664	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Coelioxys rufescens</i>	KJ837496	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes brevigena</i>	KJ839788	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes collaris</i>	DQ085544	Kuhlmann et al. 2007
<i>Colletes cunicularius</i>	KJ837588	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes daviesanus</i>	KJ837050	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes floralis</i>	HQ948116	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes fodiens</i>	HM401156	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes graeffei</i>	KJ839614	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes halophilus</i>	DQ085542	Kuhlmann et al. 2007
<i>Colletes hederæ</i>	KJ839205	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes hylaeiformis</i>	KJ837953	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes impunctatus</i>	HM401265	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes marginatus</i>	KJ837247	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes mlokoszewiczi</i>	KJ837366	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes nasutus</i>	HM401158	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes similis</i>	KJ838772	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Colletes succinctus</i>	KJ837472	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Dasypoda argentata</i>	KJ839763	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Dasypoda hirtipes</i>	KT074042	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Dasypoda suripes</i>	KJ838502	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Dioxys cincta</i>	KJ836409	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Dioxys tridentata</i>	KJ837073	Schmidt et al. 2015

<i>Dufourea alpina</i>	KJ839615	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Dufourea dentiventris</i>	HM401151	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Dufourea halictula</i>	HM401152	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Dufourea inermis</i>	KJ837444	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Dufourea minuta</i>	KJ838873	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Dufourea paradoxa</i>	KJ839493	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Epeoloides coecutiens</i>	GU706014	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Epeolus alpinus</i>	KJ837447	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Epeolus cruciger</i>	KJ836474	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Epeolus marginatus</i>	KJ838052	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Epeolus schummeli</i>	KJ837959	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Epeolus variegatus</i>	HM401155	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Eucera chrysopyga</i>	KJ836791	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Eucera cineraria</i>	KJ836627	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Eucera interrupta</i>	KJ836504	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Eucera longicornis</i>	KJ838283	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Eucera nigrescens</i>	KJ838368	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus cochlearitarsis</i>	KJ836651	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus confusus</i>	KJ839065	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus eurygnathus</i>	KJ839238	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus gavaranicus</i>	KJ839088	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus langobardicus</i>	HM401091	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus leucaheneus</i>	KJ838382	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus maculatus</i>	KJ836478	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus pollinosus</i>	KJ838192	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus quadricinctus</i>	KJ836586	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Halictus rubicundus</i>	KJ837973	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus scabiosae</i>	KJ839219	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus sexcinctus</i>	KJ838845	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus simplex</i>	KJ836612	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Halictus smaragdulus</i>	KJ837345	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	KJ836879	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Halictus tumulorum</i>	KJ836913	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Heriades crenulatus</i>	KJ836538	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	KJ836448	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis acuticornis</i>	HM401195	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	HM401196	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis anthocopoides</i>	KJ838067	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis claviventris</i>	KJ837591	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis lepeletieri</i>	KJ837451	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis leucomelana</i>	HM401205	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis loti</i>	HM401209	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis mitis</i>	KJ838545	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis mucida</i>	KJ837173	Schmidt et al. 2015

<i>Hoplitis papaveris</i>	KJ836470	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis ravouxi</i>	KJ839378	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis tridentata</i>	GU705987	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis tuberculata</i>	HQ948088	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hoplitis villosa</i>	HM401232	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus alpinus</i>	HM401162	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus angustatus</i>	KJ836545	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus annulatus</i>	KJ839556	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus brevicornis</i>	KJ839278	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus clypearis</i>	HM401165	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus communis</i>	KJ839696	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus confusus</i>	GU705974	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Hylaeus difformis</i>	HM401166	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus dilatatus</i>	KJ839192	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus duckei</i>	HM401169	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus gibbus</i>	KJ837435	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus glacialis</i>	KJ838093	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus gracilicornis</i>	HM401171	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus gredleri</i>	KJ837308	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus hyalinatus</i>	KJ837179	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus incongruus</i>	KJ837097	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus intermedius</i>	KJ838687	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus kahri</i>	KJ838978	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus leptocephalus</i>	KJ838113	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus lineolatus</i>	HM401173	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus moricei</i>	HM401175	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus nigritus</i>	KJ838096	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus nivalis</i>	HM401179	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus paulus</i>	KJ837780	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus pectoralis</i>	KJ839242	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Hylaeus pilosulus</i>	HQ948063	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus punctatus</i>	KJ839293	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus punctulatissimus</i>	HM401185	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus rinki</i>	GU705973	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus signatus</i>	KJ836815	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus sinuatus</i>	KJ838509	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus styriacus</i>	KJ837075	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Hylaeus tyrolensis</i>	KJ836565	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Lasioglossum aeratum</i>	KJ837299	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Lasioglossum albipes</i>	KJ838990	Schmidt et al. 2018

<i>Lasioglossum albocinctum</i>	KJ838953	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Lasioglossum alpigenum</i>	KJ837857	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Lasioglossum angusticeps</i>	HQ948051	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Lasioglossum bavaricum</i>	KJ838236	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Lasioglossum bluethgeni</i>	HM401099	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Lasioglossum breviventre</i>	KJ836700	Schmidt et al. 2018
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<i>Lasioglossum convexiusculum</i>	KJ837411	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Lasioglossum limbellum</i>	KJ839645	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Lasioglossum lineare</i>	KJ837027	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Lasioglossum lissonotum</i>	KJ839702	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Lasioglossum lucidulum</i>	KJ836604	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Lasioglossum majus</i>	KJ839149	Schmidt et al. 2018
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<i>Lasioglossum zonulum</i>	KJ838322	Schmidt et al. 2018
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<i>Megachile opacifrons</i>	KJ838937	Schmidt et al. 2015

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<i>Melitta nigricans</i>	KJ839607	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Nomada furva</i>	KJ837852	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Nomada fuscicornis</i>	HM401086	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Nomada glabella</i>	KJ837655	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Nomada goodeniana</i>	KT164660	Zheng et al. 2018
<i>Nomada guttulata</i>	HQ948030	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Nomada hirtipes</i>	GU706039	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Nomada integra</i>	KJ837492	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Nomada lathburiana</i>	KJ837412	Schmidt et al. 2015



<i>Nomada leucophthalma</i>	GU706027	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Nomada melathoracica</i>	HQ948037	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Nomioides facilis</i>	KJ838426	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Nomioides minutissimus</i>	KJ839479	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia alticola</i>	KJ839450	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia andrenoides</i>	HM401197	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia aurulenta</i>	KJ837026	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia bicolor</i>	KJ839576	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	GU705983	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia brevicornis</i>	HM401200	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia caerulea</i>	KT074074	Tang et al. 2017
<i>Osmia cerinthidis</i>	KC709832	Haider et al. 2013
<i>Osmia cornuta</i>	KJ836461	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia gallarum</i>	KJ836777	Schmidt et al. 2015

<i>Osmia inermis</i>	HM401203	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Osmia melanogaster</i>	HM401210	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Osmia nigriventris</i>	KJ839628	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Osmia rufohirta</i>	KJ836740	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia saxicola</i>	KJ836508	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia spinulosa</i>	HM376215	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia submicans</i>	KJ836956	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia uncinata</i>	HM401230	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia versicolor</i>	KJ838819	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia viridana</i>	KJ837269	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Osmia xanthomelana</i>	KJ836953	Schmidt et al. 2015
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<i>Panurginus montanus</i>	HQ948095	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Panurginus sericatus</i>	KJ837895	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Panurgus banksianus</i>	KJ837192	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Panurgus calcaratus</i>	GU705956	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Panurgus dentipes</i>	KJ836713	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Pseudoanthidium melanurum</i>	KJ838568	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Pseudoanthidium scapulare</i>	KJ836523	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Rhodanthidium caturigense</i>	KJ836719	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Rhodanthidium septemdentatum</i>	KJ838285	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Rophites algirus</i>	KJ839593	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Rophites quinquespinosus</i>	KJ839028	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Sphecodes albilabris</i>	GU705920	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes alternatus</i>	KJ837938	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes crassanus</i>	KJ838632	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes crassus</i>	GU705945	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes cristatus</i>	JX256667	Habermannová et al. 2013
<i>Sphecodes croaticus</i>	KJ836647	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes ephippius</i>	KT074079	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes ferruginatus</i>	KJ837622	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes geoffrellus</i>	KJ837236	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes gibbus</i>	KJ836803	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes hyalinatus</i>	KJ837294	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes longulus</i>	KJ836681	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes majalis</i>	KJ837051	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes marginatus</i>	KJ839540	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes miniatus</i>	KJ836506	Schmidt et al. 2018

<i>Sphecodes niger</i>	KJ836693	Schmidt et al. 2018
<i>Sphecodes pellucidus</i>	KT074080	Tang et al. 2017
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<i>Thyreus orbatus</i>	HM401239	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Trachusa byssina</i>	KJ838247	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Xylocopa iris</i>	HM401103	Schmidt et al. 2015
<i>Xylocopa violacea</i>	KJ836969	Schmidt et al. 2015

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**Notes S1** R code for hierarchical Bayesian models estimating the effects of functional traits on extinction risk, fit via JAGS using the R2jags library.

```
#Inputs (all standardized) for binary and ordinal models
#specified in BUGS syntax:

#functional traits
size #(log) female body size
mean.flight.month #average month of flight activity
duration.of.activity #average duration of flight activity
pollen.specialisation #vector of 1=oligolectic 0=polylectic/mesolectic/cuckoo
nest.location #vector of 1=ground-nesting; 0=air nesting/cuckoo
sociality #vector of 1=solitary; 0=social/cuckoo

#habitat preferences
altitude #(log) mean altitudinal distribution
habitat.breadth #habitat breadth (number of occupied habitat types [1-6])
urban.areas #vector of 1=occurrence in urban areas; 0=no occurrence
hedgerows #vector of 1=occurrence in hedgerows and field edges; 0=no occurrence
wasteland #vector of 1=occurrence in wasteland and ruderal sites; 0=no occurrence
meadows #vector of 1=occurrence in meadows; 0=no occurrence
raw.soil #vector of 1=occurrence in raw-soil sites; 0=no occurrence
forest #vector of 1=occurrence in forests; 0=no occurrence

#taxonomic information
N.spp = 428 #number of species with information on Red List status
N.spp = 445 #number of species with information on abundance status
N.spp = 404 #number of species with information on population trends
N.genus = 37 #number of genera
N.family = 6 #number of families
genus #genus categories
family #family categories
```

```

#Binary model

#Additional input
response
#either extinction risk (Red List status) vector of 1=threatened; 0=not threatened
#population trend vector of 1=decrease; 0=no change or increase
#or abundance vector of 1=rare (occasional to extinct); 0=abundant to frequent

mod <- "model
{
#fixed effect components from Fig. S2, with corresponding betas (b)
for(i in 1:N.spp) { #loop over observations (species)
response[i] ~ dbern(p.binary[i])
logit(p.binary[i]) <- b0 #intercept term
+ b3*size[i] + b2*mean.flight.month[i]
+ b1*duration.of.activity[i] + b4*pollen.specialisation[i]
+ b6*nest.location[i] + b5*sociality[i] + b10*altitude[i]
+ b7*habitat.breadth[i] + b8*urban.areas[i]
+ b9*hedgerows[i] + b11*wasteland[i] + b12*meadows[i]
+ b13*raw.soil[i] + b14*forest[i] #fixed effects
+ b.genus[genus[i]] #genus random effect
+ b.family[family[i]] } #family random effect

#Genus random effect
for(i in 1:N.genus) {
b.genus[i] ~ dnorm(0, genus.tau)}

#Family random effect
for(i in 1:N.family) {
b.family[i] ~ dnorm(0, family.tau)}

##Priors

#Genus random effect priors
genus.tau <- genus.sigma^-2
genus.sigma ~ dunif(0, 100)

#Family random effect priors
family.tau <- family.sigma^-2
family.sigma ~ dunif(0, 100)

#prior for overall intercept
b0 ~ dnorm(0,0.0001)
#non-informative priors for fixed effects (mean=0, var=1000)
for(i in 1:14) {b[i] ~ dnorm(0,0.0001)}

}" #end model

```

```

#Ordinal model

#Additional input:
response
#either ordinal vector of Red List status: 1=not threatened; 2=near-threatened;
#3=threatened; 4=highly threatened; 5=almost extinct; 6=extinct
#ordinal vector of population trend: 1=increase; 2=no change; 3=small decline;
#4=decline; 5=large decline; 6=extinct
#or ordinal vector of abundance: 1=abundant; 2=common; 3=frequent;
#4=occasional; 5=rare; 6=extremely rare; 7=extinct
M=6 #maximum value of ordinal classes for extinction risk and population trend
M=7 #maximum value of ordinal classes for abundance

mod <- "model
{
#fixed effect components from Figs. 2a and S4, with corresponding betas (b)
for(i in 1:N.spp) { #loop over observations (species)
  mu[i] <- b3*size[i] + b2*mean.flight.month[i] + b1*duration.of.activity[i]
    + b4*pollen.specialisation[i] + b6*nest.location[i] + b5*sociality[i]
    + b10*altitude[i] + b7*habitat.breadth[i] + b8*urban.areas[i]
    + b9*hedgerows[i] + b11*wasteland[i] + b12*meadows[i] + b13*raw.soil[i]
    + b14*forest[i] #fixed effects
    + b.genus[genus[i]] + b.family[family[i]] #genus + family random effects

  ## cumulative logistic probabilities: ordinal logit part from Jackman 2009
  #M is the maximum value of classes (M=6)
  logit(Q[i,1]) <- tau[1]-mu[i]
  p[i,1] <- Q[i,1]
  for(j in 2:M){
    logit(Q[i,j]) <- tau[j]-mu[i]
    p[i,j] <- Q[i,j] - Q[i,j-1]
  }
  p[i,(M+1)] <- 1 - Q[i,M]
  response[i] ~ dcat(p[i,1:(M+1)]) ## p[i,] sums to 1 for each i
}

#genus random effect
for(i in 1:N.genus) {
  b.genus[i] ~ dnorm(0, genus.tau)}

#family random effect
for(i in 1:N.family) {
  b.family[i] ~ dnorm(0, family.tau)}

## ordinal logit thresholds
for(j in 1:M){
  tau0[j] ~ dnorm(0, .01)
}
tau[1:M] <- sort(tau0)

##Priors

#genus random effect priors
genus.tau <- genus.sigma^-2
genus.sigma ~ dunif(0, 100)

#family random effect priors
family.tau <- family.sigma^-2
family.sigma ~ dunif(0, 100)

#non-informative priors for fixed effects (mean=0, var=1000)
for(i in 1:14) {b[i] ~ dnorm(0,0.0001)}

}" #end model

```





## Chapter 3

# **Changes in the bee fauna of a German botanical garden between 1997 and 2017, attributable to climate warming, not other parameters**

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# Changes in the bee fauna of a German botanical garden between 1997 and 2017, attributable to climate warming, not other parameters

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## Abstract

Botanical gardens represent artificial, but stable environments. With this premise, we analyzed the Munich Botanical Garden's bee fauna in 1997/1999 and again in 2015/2017. The garden covers 20 ha, uses no bee-relevant insecticides, has a protected layout, and on three sides abuts protected areas. Outdoors, it cultivates some 10,871 species/subspecies, many suitable as pollen and nectar sources for bees. The first survey found 79 species, the second 106, or 55% of the 192 species recorded for Munich since 1990. A *Jackknife* estimate for the second survey suggests 115 expected species. Classifying bees according to their thermal preferences (warm habitats, cool habitats, broad preferences, or unknown) revealed that 15 warm-loving species were gained (newly found), two lost (no longer found), and 12 retained, but only one cool-loving species was gained, three lost, and none retained, which multinomial models show to be significant differences. Of the 62 retained species, 27 changed in abundance, with 18 less frequent and nine more frequent by 2017 than they had been in 1997/1999. Retention, gain, or loss were unconnected to pollen specialization and Red List status of bee species. Between 1997 and 2017, average temperatures in Munich have increased by 0.5 °C, and climate warming over the past century is the most plausible explanation for the directional increase in warm-loving and the decrease in cool-adapted species. These results highlight the potential of botanic gardens with their artificially diverse and near-pesticide-free floras as systems in which to investigate climate change per se as a possible factor in shifting insect diversity.

**Keywords** Botanic gardens · Bee fauna · Climate warming · Repeated monitoring · Stable habitat · Insect faunal change

## Introduction

Bee diversity in the United States and Europe appears to be declining (Potts et al. 2010), with bumblebee losses especially well documented (Williams et al. 2007; Goulson et al. 2008). Reasons for the decline are manifold and

include stress from parasites and pesticides, habitat loss and fragmentation (affecting nesting sites and food sources), a lack of suitable flowers for oligolectic bees, and climate warming (Williams et al. 2007; Potts et al. 2010; Goulson et al. 2015). Besides the causes, also the direction of faunal change remains poorly understood because few areas have been monitored with consistent methods over longer periods (Hallmann et al. 2017). Data on changes in regional bee faunas are therefore sparse, and where they exist, attribution to specific causes is difficult. Agricultural and urban habitats over the past 100 years have changed in many factors, relating to human construction projects and intensive agriculture. For some bees, urban parks and gardens are becoming refugia, but the relationships between bee diversity and parks are multifactorial, with floristic diversity playing a major role (Hall et al. 2016). By comparison to these habitats, botanic gardens, while also located in urban settings, have a persistent flora that always includes a rich mix of native and foreign species. The basic layout of many older gardens has not changed for the past 50 or even 100 years, and the use of

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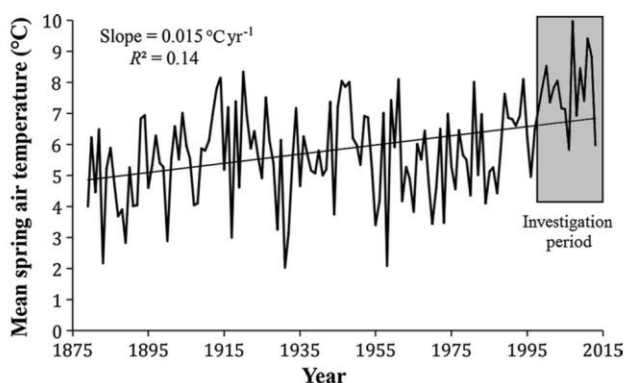
insecticides in European public gardens and parks over the past 20 years has become increasingly restricted. Botanic gardens, therefore, provide a setting for not only studying plant responses to climate change (Primack and Miller-Rushing 2009; Zohner and Renner 2014) but also systems for monitoring insect faunas in which directional changes, such as an increase or decrease in warm- or cool-loving species, can plausibly be attributed to a change in climate, rather than floristic change or other causes.

Here, we use two inventories, carried out 20 years apart, of the bees of the Munich Botanic Garden to investigate the possible impact of climate warming per se on an urban bee fauna. The garden's bees were inventoried in 1997–1999 (Bembé et al. 2001) and again in 2015–2017. The garden's paths and flower bed layout are protected; its seasonally changing flower displays over the past 20 years have not changed, hardly any pesticides have ever been used, and the flora and buildings surrounding the garden have essentially not changed, since it opened in May 1914 (details in “Methods”). Average temperatures during the vegetation season in Munich have increased by 0.5 °C over the past 20 years (compare Fig. 1), and winters have become shorter by almost 4 weeks (Zohner and Renner 2014). We, therefore, expected that bee diversity might have shifted to more warm-loving species.

## Methods

### Study area, bee monitoring and identification, and scoring of bee species traits

The Munich Botanic Garden opened in May 1914 and covers about 20 ha (Renner 2014). It is situated next to the



**Fig. 1** Average spring (March and April) temperatures in Munich, with the slope revealing a mean temperature increase of 0.015 °C per year. Data from the weather stations Munich Botanical Garden (1879–1954), Munich-Nymphenburg (1955–1998), and Munich downtown (1999–2013) modified from Zohner and Renner (2014, Fig. S1)

Nymphenburg Palace Park at 48°09'45"N, 11° 30'06"E at an altitude of ca.500 m above sea level. On three of its sides, it borders on the 210-ha-large Palace Park and the orchard of a Catholic Nunnery; on its fourth side is a heavily travelled road that separates the garden from a hospital that opened at almost the same time as the garden. The garden currently cultivates 10,871 species and subspecies outdoors (data from the garden's living plant database, accessed by SSR on 1 Nov. 2017). The only pesticides used over the past 20 years are occasionally Neudorff Spruzit against molluscs and Neudorff Loxiran against ants (<http://www.neudorff-handel.de>, last accessed 3 Sep. 2017). Both have no known negative effects on bees. The layout of the garden and its visitor paths (Online Supporting Material Figure S1) are protected, as is the layout and all paths in the Nymphenburg Palace Park. Two large and several small nesting aids, consisting of bamboo, wood, and bricks, have long been used in the garden.

Between spring and fall 1997, 1998, and 1999, Bembé et al. (2001) carried out 56 biweekly monitoring walks, mostly between 9:00 and 12:00, recording bees by hand-netting (with most netting effort in 1998). As customary in the 1990s, species identification was based on morphological features. Between spring and September 2015, 2016, and 2017, we carried out biweekly monitoring walks, resulting in 184 walks and 290 h of observation (2015: 38 walks, 59 h; 2016: 107 walks, 159 h; 2017: 72 walks, 72 h). Like Bembé et al. (2001), we did not follow a strict route, but instead focused on patches with numerous flowering plants (throughout the garden), and on the morning hours of warm and dry days rather than overcast or humid days. Depending on bee abundance and weather, our mapping walks lasted between half an hour and 4 h.

We recorded easily recognizable bee taxa, such as Megachilidae, by photography (in situ, but also close-ups of caught individuals chilled down to 4 °C for several hours and then released after photography), focusing on mandibles, coloration, hair and facial patterns, and tergite markings. For identification, we used keys by Dathe (1980), Amiet et al. (1999, 2001, 2004, 2007), Amiet and Krebs (2014), von Hagen and Aichhorn (2014), and Falk and Lewington (2015). Bees from genera that are difficult to identify were caught with a magnifying cup, chilled down to 4 °C for microscopic examination, and, in some cases, killed by storing them in a freezer at – 20 °C for later DNA isolation and barcoding, relying on the primers of Schmidt et al. (2015) who have barcoded 546 of the 571 bee species that occur in Germany; our lab procedure is described in the Online Supporting Materials, which also list GenBank accession numbers and details on vouchers deposited in the State Zoological Collection in Munich (ZSM; collecting permit StmUV Az.62 g-U8645.8-2014/1-2 v.10.11.2014). For the *Bombus lucorum* species complex, we used dead bees found below linden trees in

large numbers in July and August (Baal et al. 1994); these partly damaged specimens were not deposited in the ZSM. Our bee taxonomy and nomenclature follow Scheuchl and Willner (2016).

To compare the 1997–1999 and 2015–2017 surveys, we assigned species to one of three categories, namely “lost”, “retained”, and “gained”, with lost referring to species only found in the first survey, retained referring to species found in both surveys, and gained referring to species found only in the recent survey. Bee temperature preferences were scored based on habitat preferences in Switzerland (Amiet et al. 1999, 2001, 2004, 2007; Amiet and Krebs 2014) and Central Europe (Westrich 1989; Scheuchl and Willner 2016). Bee pollen foraging specialization was scored based on Scheuchl and Willner (2016), with oligolecty defined as pollen foraging restricted to closely related species and polylecty as pollen foraging on diverse (unrelated) species. Following Bembé et al. (2001), we scored abundance using the following categories: category 0 for species not seen; category I for species observed with fewer than 5 individuals; category II for 5–20 individuals, and category III for more than 20 individuals per year. Since the abundance estimates in the first (1997–1999) and second survey (2015–2017) were done by different people, we did not model the possible importance of abundance for ‘predicting’ extinction (Results). Red List categories follow Westrich et al. (2011), with 0 meaning extinct, 1 critically endangered, 2 endangered, 3 vulnerable, NT near threatened, G threat of unknown magnitude, and an asterisk for least concern. A list of all species and their traits can be found in the Online Supporting Materials (Table S1).

Correlations between bee species gain, loss, or retention and thermal habitat niche, pollen specialization, and Red List status were analyzed using multinomial models implemented in the R-package VGAM (Yee 2010), excluding all species with unknown thermal habitat niche. Since a first model with the independent variables “foraging preference” and “endangerment” indicated no significant influence of pollen specialization or Red List status on abundance changes, we excluded these factors and calculated a second model with only “temperature preference” as independent variable. In this model, the category “retained” was used as reference category. Due to low numbers of wild bees with preferences for cooler habitat, a third model without these species was calculated to check whether the coefficients of the other thermal preferences stay stable despite high variation for the factor “cooler habitats.”

To assess our sampling success, we used the *Jackknife* method of Haeseler and Ritzau (1998), whereby the expected number of species for an area can be calculated using the formula  $S_j = S + K \times \frac{n-1}{n}$ , with  $S$  being the number of recorded species,  $K$  being the number of singletons, and

$n$  being the number of survey walks (we used the number of walks in 2016).

## Results

### Increase in warm-loving bees over the past 20 years and correlation with species traits

The 1997–1999 survey yielded 79 species, the more recent survey 106, in both cases including the honeybee (Table S1, Online Supporting Materials). The species number expected for the garden, using *Jackknife* estimation, is 115 (“Methods”) for 2015–2017, which is close to the 106 so far found. A *Jackknife* estimation based on the 1997 monitoring efforts yields 97 expected species. The 106 species belong to 23 of the c. 45 genera of bees currently accepted for Germany (Schmidt et al. 2015; Scheuchl and Willner 2016).

Whether a species is warm-habitat preferring, cool-habitat preferring, or has broad habitat preferences significantly affected whether it was retained, lost, or newly gained: by 2017, we found 15 warm-loving species that were not present in 1997 (i.e., species that spread into the garden). The geographic ranges and habitat preferences of these 15 species are detailed in the “Discussion”. In addition, 12 warm-preferring species were retained between the two surveys, and two lost. In comparison, three cool-preferring species were lost, one cool-loving species was gained, and none retained. For the geographic ranges and habitat preferences of the cool-adapted species, see the “Discussion”.

Of the species with broad habitat preferences, 20 were gained, 7 lost, and 47 retained (Tables 1, S1; multinomial model including thermal habitat preferences, foraging specialization, and Red List status:  $p = 0.010$ ; multinomial model including only thermal habitat preferences:  $p = 0.022$ ; multinomial model excluding cool-loving species:  $p = 0.022$ ). The 16 species recorded in 1997 and no longer found by 2017 (Table S1, online supporting material) mostly belong to *Hylaeus* and *Lasioglossum*, and are small-bodied bees.

We then tested for a correlation between pollen specialization and species persistence, gain, or loss (Tables 1, S1). Two of 17 species lost by 2017 were oligolectic, 12 were polylectic, and three were cuckoo bees. Of the species gained by 2017, 10 are oligolectic, 23 polylectic, and 11 kleptoparasitic. This does not argue for pollen specialization having contributed to bee species loss. Two oligolectic species decreased in abundance, two others increased, and 11 did not change in abundance (see Table 1). Of the 62 retained species, 27 changed in abundance, with 18 less frequent and nine more frequent by 2017 than they had been in 1997. Finally, of the species no longer found by 2017, 14 had the Red List status “least concern”, two were

**Table 1** Foraging specialization, thermal habitat preferences, Red List status, and abundance categories of bee species lost, retained, or gained in faunistic surveys of the Munich Botanical Garden in 1997/1999 and 2015/2017

	Lost ( <i>n</i> = 17)	Retained ( <i>n</i> = 62)	Gained ( <i>n</i> = 44)
<b>Foraging specialization</b>			
Oligolectic	2	15	10
Polylectic	12	37	23
Parasitic	3	10	11
<b>Thermal preferences</b>			
Broad range	7	47	20
Cooler habitats	3	0	1
Thermophilic	2	12	15
Unknown	5	3	8
<b>Red List status</b>			
Least concern (*)	13	52	33
Threat of unknown magnitude (G)	0	1	1
Near threatened (NT)	2	4	3
Vulnerable (3)	0	4	5
Endangered (2)	1	1	1
N/A	1	0	1
<b>Abundance categories</b>			
I (<5 individuals)	9		29
II (5–20 individuals)	6		12
III (>20 individuals)	2		3
Increase in abundance		9	
Equal abundance		35	
Decrease in abundance		18	
	Increasing abundance ( <i>n</i> = 9)	Equal abundance ( <i>n</i> = 35)	Decreasing abundance ( <i>n</i> = 18)
<b>Foraging preferences</b>			
Oligolectic	2	11	2
Polylectic	7	21	9
Parasitic	0	3	7
<b>Thermal preferences</b>			
Broad range	6	25	16
Thermophilic	3	7	2
Unknown	0	3	0
<b>Red List status</b>			
Least concern (*)	8	28	16
Threat of unknown magnitude (G)	1	0	0
Near threatened (NT)	0	2	2
Vulnerable (3)	0	4	0
Endangered (2)	0	1	0

“near threatened”, and one was “endangered” (this species was already found only once in 1997–1999). Most of the species gained are categorized as “least concern” (*n* = 33), but, additionally, the garden gained three species that are “near threatened”, five that are “vulnerable”, and one that with the Red List status “endangered”.

The 23 genera of bees recorded from the garden are distributed throughout the phylogeny of bees known from

Germany that is shown in Appendix S6 of Schmidt et al. (2015), which includes 514 species from 45 genera. We refrained from testing for phylogenetic signal in the retention, gain, or loss of species from the Munich Botanical Garden over the past 20 years. Such a signal may well be present in a larger region, for example, southern Germany or the Alps, but is unlikely in a 21-ha garden, studied over 20 years.

## Discussion

Of 515 species of bees known from Bavaria (Scheuchl and Schwenninger 2015), 192 have been recorded for Munich since 1990 (Bräu and Nützel 2010), so that the garden's 106 species represent some 55% of the city's species. Similar-sized gardens in Southern Germany and Switzerland have between 70 and 150 recorded species (Zurbuchen and Müller 2012).

The 15 warm-loving species first recorded by 2017 include (1) *Xylocopa violacea*, which has its main distribution in southern Europe. It has been documented north of the Alps in the Danube valley and other warm regions since 1850 (Hage 2005; Schmalz 2005; Bußler 2007), perhaps arriving with imported wood from the south or foehn winds from the Inn Valley (Knoerzer 1941). From the Munich area, including the botanic garden, *X. violacea* was recorded by 1980 (Burmeister in Bembé et al. 2001), but since 2000, it is becoming more frequent in Bavaria and other states, as far north as Hesse (Schmalz 2005; Bußler, 2007). (2) *Osmia cornuta* is a Mediterranean species that nests in sun-exposed loess and clay walls (Scheuchl and Willner 2016); in the Munich Botanic Garden, sun-exposed wooden nesting aids are intensely populated by *O. cornuta* (> 100 individuals). (3) *Eucera nigrescens* is a bee of Southern and Central Europe where it occurs mostly at elevations < 500 m (Westrich 1989; Falk and Lewington 2015; Scheuchl and Willner 2016). (4) The western Palearctic species *Anthophora bimaculata* may be a new record for the Munich area (<http://www.buw-bayern.de/show.php?artid=601>, last accessed: 3 Sep. 2017); it occurs in dry, warm locations with sand or clay, where it can dig nests. (5) *Anthidiellum strigatum* is restricted to sunny, warm forest edges (Scheuchl and Willner 2016). (6 and 7) *Halictus scabiosae* and *H. subauratus* both are distinctly thermophilic (Westrich 1989; Scheuchl and Willner 2016), and the former has rapidly expanded its range since 2000, most likely linked to climate warming (Frommer and Flügel 2005; Hopfenmüller 2014). (8) Another new arrival since 1997–1999, *Hoplitis adunca*, is strictly oligolectic on a thermophilic plant (*Echium vulgare*) that has become more abundant as winters have become shorter and temperatures warmer.

The three cool-habitat-adapted species no longer found are (1) *Andrena intermedia*, which has its main area of distribution in mountain regions and occurs north to the polar circle and south to Turkey and the Peloponnese (Scheuchl and Willner 2016); (2) *Megachile ligniseca*, which, in Southern Germany, occurs in cool habitats in forests up to the subalpine area (Westrich 1989; Scheuchl and Willner 2016); and (3) *M. nigriventris*, which is distributed in Northern Europe and the Alps, usually > 500 m a.s.l. (Dorn and Weber

1988; Westrich 1989). All three of these were already rare in 1997/1999 (Table S1), however, and over its 100 years of existence, the botanical garden may never have harbored many cool-habitat-adapted species.

What best explains the disappearance of three cool-loving species and the arrival of 15 thermophilic species over the past 20 years? Since the man-made flora of the botanical garden and the protected flora of its surroundings (namely, the 210 ha-large Nymphenburg Palace Park, the orchard of a Catholic nunnery, and a street and hospital) have not changed over the past 20 years, the loss of habitat and food plants for oligolectic bees seems an unlikely explanation for bee species disappearance, and this agrees with the absences of a statistical correlation between pollen specialization and retention or loss from the garden over the 20 years between the two surveys. We also found no significant difference in Red List status between the categories gained, lost, and retained (“Results”).

Thus, over the past 20 years, plant diversity and availability of nesting sites in the garden and its adjacent areas have remained essentially identical, and the distinct increase in warm-loving species that we detected is, therefore, most likely due to climate warming (Fig. 1), with the novelty of our study being that we have used an artificial, but stable ‘ecosystem’ to link insect fauna changes to climate warming per se. No other environmental parameter in the Munich botanical garden matches the directional increase in warm-loving species documented in our study. This study thus highlights the potential of botanic gardens as systems in which to investigate the effects of climate on insect faunas, controlling for insecticides, habitat fragmentation, and other human-impact factors. Our findings also underscore the importance of urban gardens as bee habitat (Hernandez et al. 2009; Hall et al. 2016).

**Author contribution statement** MH, AF, and SSR designed the experiment, and MH and AF performed the fieldwork. MH and SSR analyzed the data, and all authors contributed to the manuscript.

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## Compliance with ethical standards

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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Supplementary material from

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between 1997 and 2017,  
attributable to climate warming,  
not other parameters**

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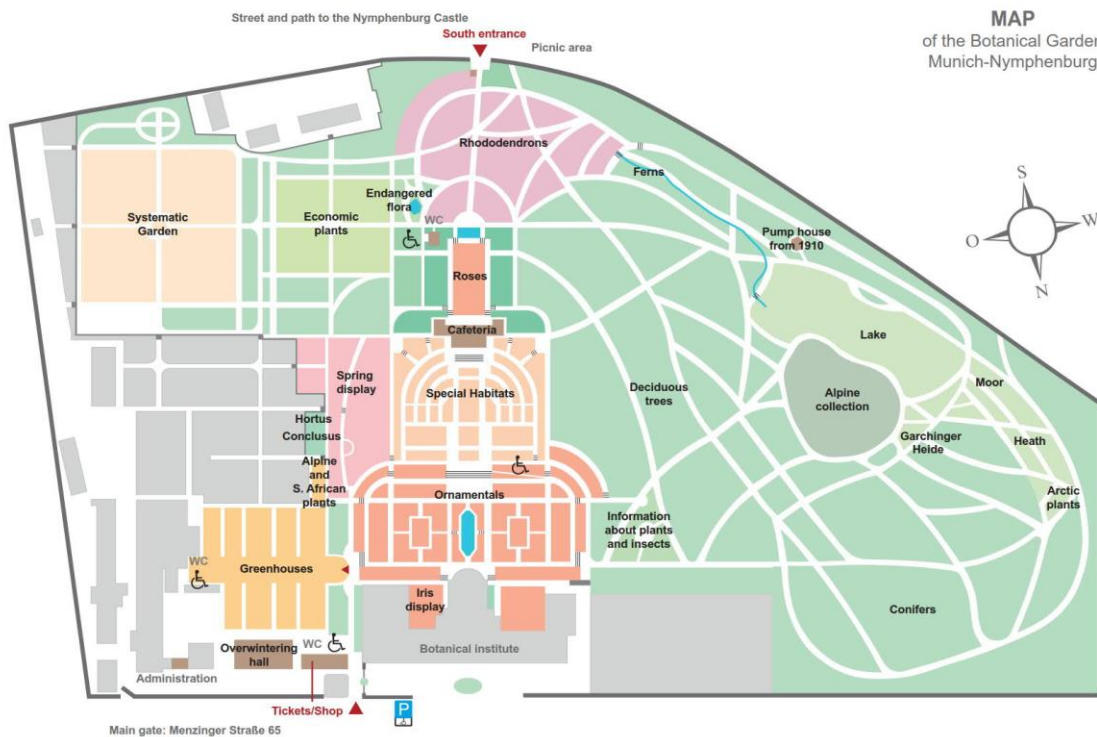
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## Map of the Botanical Garden Munich



### DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing

For DNA extraction, the QIAGEN DNeasy®-Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany) was used. DNA was extracted from one leg per bee, following the QIAGEN Quick-Start Protocol (January 2011) for tissue with two modifications: The legs were incubated in Lysis Buffer (ATL) and Proteinase K for at least 48 h at room temperature and 5 – 10 hours at 56°C. To increase DNA concentration elution was performed in 100 µL elution Buffer (PE; 5 mM Tris/HCL pH 8.5). The mitochondrial gene fragment of the cytochrome c oxidase (COI) with a 658 bp target region near the 5' terminus of COI was amplified using the primers described in Schmidt et al. (2015)<sup>1</sup>, viz. COIfor (ATT CAA CCA ATC ATA AAG ATA TTG G) and COIrev (TAA ACT TCT GGA TGT CCA AAA AAT CA). For halictid bees, including *Lasioglossum*, we used COIrev and a forward primer Hym-COI-F (TAA GAA TAA TTA TTC GWA TAG AAT TAA G provided by Hanno Schäfer, Technical University Munich). *Lasioglossum* bees often are infested with *Wolbachia*, which can affect DNA-barcoding with standard primers (Smith et al. 2012)<sup>2</sup>. Polymerase chain reactions (PCR) were performed using standard conditions. Amplified products were sequenced on an ABI 3100

<sup>1</sup> Schmidt S, Schmid-Egger C, Morinière J, Haszprunar G, Hebert PDN. 2015. DNA barcoding largely supports 250 years of classical taxonomy: identifications for Central European bees (Hymenoptera, Apoidea partim). *Molecular Ecology Resources* 15:985–1000.

<sup>2</sup> Smith MA et al. 2012. *Wolbachia* and DNA Barcoding Insects: Patterns, Potential, and Problems. *PLOS ONE* 7:e36514.

Avant capillary sequencer (Applied Biosystems), and forward and reverse sequences were manually edited and assembled, using Sequencher 5.1 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA) and BLAST-search in GenBank. All bee species sequenced for this study have been previously barcoded for the GBOL-project, thus reference sequences were available in NCBI GenBank through the following DOIs: [dx.doi.org/10.5883/DS-GBAPI](https://dx.doi.org/10.5883/DS-GBAPI) and [dx.doi.org/10.5883/DS-GBAPS](https://dx.doi.org/10.5883/DS-GBAPS). A total of 44 sequences were generated for this study. When several individuals of the same species were identified via barcoding, only a single reference sequence was deposited in GenBank (for Accession Numbers see Table S2). *Bombus* sequences were not deposited, because the bee voucher specimens were partly decayed and could not be deposited in the Munich zoological collections.

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**List of Apoidea voucher specimens with sample ID, location, date of collection, and GenBank accession number**

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Species	Sample ID	Location	Date of collection	Accession number
<i>Halictus rubicundus</i>	Hofmann BGM 10	At the lake	04.08.2016	KX904816
<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	Hofmann BGM 11	Gardeners' area	04.08.2016	KX904817
<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i>	Hofmann BGM 8	Ornamentals	08.08.2016	KX904814
<i>Lasioglossum laticeps</i>	Hofmann BGM 5	Alpine collection	31.08.2016	KX904811
<i>Lasioglossum morio</i>	Hofmann BGM 4	Alpine collection	31.08.2016	KX904810
<i>Lasioglossum villosulum</i>	Hofmann BGM 9	Ornamentals	02.08.2016	KX904815
<i>Nomada fabriciana</i>	Hofmann BGM 1	Steppe	28.03.2016	KX904807
<i>Nomada flavoguttata</i>	Hofmann BGM 2	Steppe	01.04.2016	KX904808
<i>Osmia cornuta</i>	Hofmann BGM 3	Nesting aid at the Iris display	03.04.2016	KX904809
<i>Sphecodes ephippius</i>	Hofmann BGM 12	System	04.07.2016	KX904818
<i>Sphecodes ferruginatus</i>	Hofmann BGM 7	System	20.05.2016	KX904813
<i>Sphecodes monilicornis</i>	Hofmann BGM 6	Steppe	06.05.2016	KX904812

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Chapter 4

**Bee species persistence and increase  
in urban protected sites  
between 1990 and 2018**

Hofmann, M. M., and Renner, S. S.

submitted at *Journal of Insect Conservation*  
17. November 2019



# Journal of Insect Conservation

## Bee species persistence and increase between 1990 and 2018 in urban protected sites

--Manuscript Draft--

<b>Manuscript Number:</b>	
<b>Full Title:</b>	Bee species persistence and increase between 1990 and 2018 in urban protected sites
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<b>Keywords:</b>	Apidae, bee faunas, 20-year monitoring, seasonal flight time, urban nature conservation
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<b>Abstract:</b>	<p>Previous work has shown that among 428 species of bees occurring in Germany, decline or extinction over the past 40 years have been correlated with late-season emergence and restricted habitats, while other factors, such as pollen specialization, body size, nesting sites, and sociality, played no role in models that included a phylogeny of these bees. Doing best are spring-flying, city-dwelling species. Building on these results, we here investigate changes in bee diversity from the 1990s to 2018 at three protected sites within the city perimeter of Munich, focusing on the effects of flight season (spring or summer), duration (in months), and number of habitats (one or two vs. three to six). Munich's total species pool against which the local pools were assessed is 324 species. Twenty years ago, 150 species were present at one or more of the sites, while in 2017/2018, this was true of 188 species, with the increase at two sites being of similar proportion. In all three areas, broad habitat use had a slight positive effect on persistence, while flight season or duration had no effect. These results underscore the function of urban protected sites in bee conservation and imply that food shortages, which negatively affect bees in agricultural areas, play less of a role in urbanized regions so that late-season flight is not an extinction handicap. That bee diversity has increased in similar proportion at two of the sites, with an influx of thermophilic species, implies climate warming as a likely explanation.</p>

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1 Written as an Original Paper for the *Journal of Insect Conservation*

## 2 **Bee species persistence and increase between 1990 and 2018 in urban protected sites**

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### 7 **Running head: Urban bee species persistence and increase**

#### 8 **Abstract.**

9 Previous work has shown that among 428 species of bees occurring in Germany, decline or  
10 extinction over the past 40 years have been correlated with late-season emergence and  
11 restricted habitats, while other factors, such as pollen specialization, body size, nesting sites,  
12 and sociality, played no role in models that included a phylogeny of these bees. Doing best  
13 are spring-flying, city-dwelling species. Building on these results, we here investigate changes  
14 in bee diversity from the 1990s to 2018 at three protected sites within the city perimeter of  
15 Munich, focusing on the effects of flight season (spring or summer), duration (in months), and  
16 number of habitats (one or two vs. three to six). Munich's total species pool against which the  
17 local pools were assessed is 324 species. Twenty years ago, 150 species were present at one  
18 or more of the sites, while in 2017/2018, this was true of 188 species, with the increase at two  
19 sites being of similar proportion. In all three areas, broad habitat use had a slight positive  
20 effect on persistence, while flight season or duration had no effect. These results underscore  
21 the function of urban protected sites in bee conservation and imply that food shortages, which  
22 negatively affect bees in agricultural areas, play less of a role in urbanized regions so that late-  
23 season flight is not an extinction handicap. That bee diversity has increased in similar  
24 proportion at two of the sites, with an influx of thermophilic species, implies climate warming  
25 as a likely explanation.

26 **Key words.** Apidae, bee faunas, 20-year monitoring, seasonal flight time, urban nature  
27 conservation.

#### 28 **Introduction**

29 Globally, over 40% of insect species, especially of lepidopterans, hymenopterans, and  
30 coleopterans, appear threatened with extinction (Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhys, 2019), and  
31 drastic declines in diversity and biomass have been documented in German grassland and  
32 forests (Seibold et al., 2019) and even protected areas surrounded by agricultural fields  
33 (Hallmann et al., 2017). In Germany, sites embedded in landscapes with a higher cover of  
34 agricultural land show the strongest losses (Seibold et al., 2019). To make progress in our  
35 understanding of the factors driving the decline of insects, we here focus on protected sites  
36 *not* surrounded by agricultural land for which, based on these studies (Hallmann et al., 2017;  
37 Seibold et al., 2019), one would expect lower declines. We focus on bees, which are among  
38 the best-studied insects in Central Europe and whose decline has been linked to the combined  
39 stress from parasites, pesticides, and lack of flowers (Goulson et al., 2015). In Germany, 561  
40 species of bees are red-listed, with 228 categorized threatened, and 39 already extinct  
41 (Westrich et al., 2011).

42 An analysis of the parameters that might predict the decline or extinction of those  
43 German bee species for which monitoring data have been gathered for Red Lists for 40+ years



(namely 428 species) showed that of eight analysed traits (pollen specialization, body size, nesting sites, sociality, duration of flight activity [weeks or months], flight season [spring or summer], habitat breadth, and altitudinal range), only three predicted extinction risk (Hofmann et al., 2019). These were duration of flight activity, flight season, and habitat (with the six categories forests and heaths; meadows; hedgerows; wasteland and nutrient-poor sites; raw-soil sites with little vegetation, such as sand dunes, heathland, steppes, and sand or gravel pits; and urban areas, including gardens and parks). The results showed that species flying in late summer and not occurring in urban areas are about three times more likely to go extinct than spring-flying city-dwelling species. The study used a phylogeny of the German bee species as the background for Bayesian Hierarchical modelling, so that all predictors could be analysed simultaneously and with species relationships taken into account.

These German-wide findings need to be tested with more fine-grained data to tease out the effects of intensive agriculture. For example, one might test flight season as a predictor of persistence in bee faunas of urban areas because there one would not expect spring or summer emergence to determine long-term persistence. This is because the continued seasonal availability of floral resources in urban gardens, allotments, parks, and balconies may be higher than that in non-urban sites (Grimm et al., 2008) and the planting and mowing regime in cities is not determined by agricultural production patterns. By contrast, in European agricultural land, nectar availability tends to be low in August and September (Timberlake et al., 2019).

We here use a data set of bee species that have been monitored over at least 20 years in three protected greenspaces within the perimeter of the city of Munich (Bavaria, Germany; Fig. 1). The total species pool in Munich comprises 324 species (Appendix S1) and is a subset of the species included in an earlier German-wide study (Hofmann et al., 2019). The first of the sites is a remnant forest and heath, the second is an area that was long off-limits because of military use, and the third is the Munich Botanical Garden, which since 1914 has had an unchanging, albeit man-made (horticulturally-influenced) flora. Based on our finding for all German bees, we focused on flight season, flight duration, and habitat breadth as predictors based on the hypothesis that -- if agricultural intensification, including pesticide usage, year-round tillage, increased use of fertilizers and frequency of agronomic measures (Hallmann et al., 2017; Seibold et al., 2019) are key factor in bee decline -- bees in urban protected areas should have persisted regardless of their flight season or habitat breadth.

## Material and methods

### Study sites

The Allacher Lohe heath and forest area is located in Munich's west at 48.202578°N, 11.481281°E. In 1988, the area of the Allacher Lohe was greatly reduced through the construction of the Munich marshalling yard, which has operated since 1991. On 1 April 2000, the remaining 150 ha area of the Allacher Lohe, became a nature reserve („Verordnung über das Naturschutzgebiet "Allacher Lohe" in der Landeshauptstadt München“, 28 Feb. 2000, Nr. 820-8622-13/82). The Virginia Depot lies west of the Schleißheimer Straße in the Munich-Lerchenau suburb (48.197325°N, 11.561308°E); it comprises about 20 hectares. From 1945 until 1957, the depot was owned by the US army, which used it as the *Virginia Area Storage Facility*. Between 1957 and the 1990s, the German army took it over, and since 2003, it has been managed by a regional nature conservation group and been transformed into a city biotope. Since the depot was off-limits between 1945 and 2003 due to its military use, it harbours rare plants and animals. Our third site, the Munich Botanical Garden (48°09'45"N, 11° 30'06"E), was opened in May 1914 and has a size of about 20 ha (Hofmann et al., 2018). The layout of the garden is protected (Denkmalliste für München, S. 554f.; Stand 27.05.2018; Bayerisches Landesamt für Denkmalpflege). The outdoor harbours about 10,000 species and subspecies (data from the garden's living plant database, accessed by the second author), and

103 it is flower-rich from late February to October. The location of the three study sites is shown  
1 104 in Figure 1.

### 2 105 3 106 **Historic and 2017/2018 monitoring of the three sites**

4 107 In 1980, Klaus Warncke and colleagues began inventorying the Allacher Lohe (Warncke,  
5 108 1982), and over eight days from April to September 1980, they recorded 97 bee species. In  
6 109 1997/1998, bees in the Allacher Lohe were monitored for the Upper Bavarian nature  
7 110 conservancy (<https://www.regierung.oberbayern.bayern.de/aufgaben/umwelt/>) by the  
8 111 entomologists F. Foeckler, H. Schmidt, and J. Schuberth. The first author transcribed their  
9 112 reports, which may not be copied and distributed, in the nature conservancy's office in  
10 113 Munich (all taxon names appear in our Appendix 1). In five mapping walks in 1997/1998,  
11 114 Schuberth found 44 species; he also monitored the area from 1990 to 1996, increasing the  
12 115 number to 71 species. Further observations from 1999 onwards resulted in a total of 135  
13 116 species for the Allacher Lohe and adjoining areas. Twenty years later, during the bee flight  
14 117 seasons of 2009 and 2010, A. Dubitzky and J. Schuberth recorded 106 species for the area. To  
15 118 keep data comparable among the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, and Botanical Garden, we  
16 119 focused on the assessment of J. Schuberth in the 1990s, because this allowed us to have  
17 120 similar time periods and comparable investigation efforts for the three sites. For the Virginia  
18 121 Depot, a bee inventory was conducted during the flight season of 1998 and 1999, again by J.  
19 122 Schuberth, and it, too, was studied by the first author in the Bavarian nature conservancy's  
20 123 office in Munich. The bees of the Munich Botanical Garden were surveyed in 1997/1999 by  
21 124 Bembé and colleagues (2001) and in 2015/2017 by Hofmann et al. (2018).

22 125 Between March 2017 and August 2018, the first author visited the Allacher Lohe and  
23 126 the Virginia Depot once a month (Appendix 2 shows the dates). For the Allach study site, the  
24 127 parts north and south of the marshalling yard were visited on consecutive days. Monitoring  
25 128 walks were conducted between 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. on sunny, warm days with little or no  
26 129 wind. The mapping did not follow a strict route; instead, bees were searched for on flowers  
27 130 and likely nesting sites. Where possible, species were identified directly in the field and were  
28 131 documented via macro-photography in a standardized setup: for close-up pictures, the bees  
29 132 were caught with an insect net and cooled down for 10 minutes in an Eppendorf cupped  
30 133 plastic vial stored on ice in a cooled box. When the bees fell into cold rigor, they were  
31 134 transferred onto scale paper (using a small box lined with millimetre paper on its bottom) and  
32 135 photographed from all sides (SLR camera: Pentax K-x; Lens: Sigma DG 17-70 mm, 1:2.8,  
33 136 macro). Within one to two minutes, they warmed up again and were released at the location  
34 137 where they had been caught. For species that are taxonomically difficult to distinguish by  
35 138 morphology alone, such as members of *Sphecodes*, *Lasioglossum* and *Halictus*, voucher  
36 139 specimens, preferably males (for morphological re-identification by genitalia preparations),  
37 140 were collected and identified morphologically and via DNA barcoding (methods and primers  
38 141 as described in Hofmann et al., 2018). Photo vouchers are accessible at the Diversity  
39 142 Workbench server (DWB; [https://diversityworkbench.net/Portal/Diversity\\_Workbench](https://diversityworkbench.net/Portal/Diversity_Workbench)), and  
40 143 DNA barcodes at NCBI GenBank (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>). Appendix S2  
41 144 shows all GenBank and DWB accession numbers [they will work once this ms is accepted].  
42 145 Voucher specimens were deposited in the Munich zoological collections, ZSM  
43 146 (<https://www.zsm.mwn.de/?lang=en>).

### 44 147 45 148 **Statistical analyses and data structure**

46 149 In an earlier German-wide study of predictors of changes in bee species diversity over the  
47 150 past 40 years, we relied on phylogenetically-informed models, but no phylogenetic signal in  
48 151 the prediction of species' vulnerability was detected (Hofmann et al., 2019: Fig. S5). We  
49 152 therefore here use simple logistic regression with two models applied to the 324 bee species  
50 153 ever recorded for Munich, scoring them as 0, if they were not present in one or more of the

154 study areas, or as 1 if present (Appendix S1). Model 1 included duration of flight time in  
1 155 months ('flight duration') as a linear predictor while model 2 instead included flight season  
2 156 ('seasonality') as a categorical predictor, with the categories 'early', covering the months  
3 157 February to May (found in n = 19 of the 324 species), and 'late', covering June to September  
4 158 (n = 66). Species active in both seasons were categorized as 'median' (n = 239); the latter  
5 159 either fly from February to September or have shorter flight times that overlap the early and  
6 160 late season. Presence at time zero (T0) and habitat breadth, with the categories 'narrow' and  
7 161 'broad' were included in both models. Narrow habitat breadth was defined as occurrence in  
8 162 one or two of the six habitats forests and heaths; meadows; hedgerows; wasteland and  
9 163 nutrient-poor sites; raw-soil sites with little vegetation, such as sand dunes, heathland,  
10 164 steppes, and sand or gravel pits; or urban areas, including gardens and park. Broad habitat use  
11 165 was defined as occurrence in three to six habitats. Species with unknown habitat preferences  
12 166 were excluded from further analysis.

167  
17 168 Model 1 had the form:

18 169  $Occurrence_{T1} \sim Bernoulli(p_i)$

19 170  $logit(p_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 * Occurrence_{T0} + \beta_2 * Habitat.breadth + \beta_3 * Flight.duration$

20 171  
21 172 Model 2 had the form:

22 173  $Occurrence_{T1} \sim Bernoulli(p_i)$

23 174  $logit(p_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 * Occurrence_{T0} + \beta_2 * Habitat.breadth + \beta_3 * Seasonality$

24 175  
25 176 All scorings are shown in Appendix S1, which also lists each species' foraging preferences,  
26 177 mode of pollen collection, nesting site, habitat preference, and the literature sources used.  
27 178 Predicted occurrence was defined as predicted probability >0.5. Model accuracy was  
28 179 calculated as (true positives + true negatives) / total pool. All statistical analyses were  
29 180 conducted in R 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019).

## 30 181 31 182 32 183 **Results**

33 184 Twenty years ago, 150 species were present at one or more of the sites, while in  
34 185 2017/2018, this was true of 188 species, with the species increase at two sites being of similar  
35 186 proportion (Tables 1 and 2) and mostly due to thermophilic species, such as *Anthidiellum*  
36 187 *strigatum*, *Anthophora bimaculata*, *Eucera nigrescens*, *Halictus scabiosae*, *H. subauratus*,  
37 188 *Hoplitis adunca*, *Osmia cornuta*, and *Xylocopa violacea* (Appendix S1). Of the 150 species  
38 189 present 20 years ago (T0), 122 are able to breed in three or more habitat types (broad habitat  
39 190 preference; *Materials and Methods*), while 28 breed in only one or two habitats (narrow  
40 191 habitat preference); seven fly early (February to May), 32 late (June to September), and the  
41 192 remaining 111 have 'median' flight times spanning spring and summer. Of the 136 species  
42 193 seen at one or more of the study sites recently (T1), 111 have a broad and 27 a narrow habitat  
43 194 preference; eight fly early, 24 late, and 140 have a median flight time.

44 195 Based on these numbers, habitat breadth had a slight positive influence on species  
45 196 persistence when all three sites were taken together, while flight season never had a  
46 197 significant effect (Fig. 2a; Table S1 in Appendix 3). When the analysis was run separately for  
47 198 each site, habitat breadth no longer explained persistence of species at the Virginia Depot (Fig.  
48 199 2a). Using flight season (early, median, late), instead of flight duration (in months), yielded  
49 200 similar results (Fig. 2b; Appendix 3: Table S1). The flight duration model correctly predicted  
50 201 the occurrence of 77% of the 319 species after 20 years (T1), while the flight season model  
51 202 had an accuracy of 76% (Table S2 in Appendix 3). The best 'predictor' of presence at T1 was  
52 203 presence at T0 (Figure 2).

205 **Discussion**

1 206 The occurrence of a species at any of the three areas was better predicted by its  
2 207 occurrence there 20 years ago than by its habitat breadth, flight season, or duration of flight  
3 208 activity (Fig. 2), although broad habitat preferences had a slightly positive effect on species  
4 209 persistence. The number of species at the Virginia Depot has increased from 32 to 44 and that  
5 210 in the Munich Botanical Garden from 78 to 105 over essentially the same 20-year period  
6 211 (Table 2), while in the Allacher Lohe, the number of bee species has decreased from 135 in  
7 212 the 1990s to 80 in 2018. These differences appear too large to be due purely to sampling  
8 213 artefacts. In 1988, a marshalling yard was built in the Allacher Lohe and has been in operation  
9 214 since 1991, which may have contributed to the decline in species at this site. A case in point is  
10 215 *Andrena rufizona*, which had one of its largest known populations in Germany in Allach  
11 216 before the marshalling yard opened, but declined from about 20 breeding females to one  
12 217 female and several males by 1999. The last sighting of this species was in 2002 (J. Schubert,  
13 218 Munich, personal communication to the first author, 2019).

14 219 At the other two sites, species diversity over the past 20 years has increased in similar  
15 220 proportion (Table 2) pointing to a consistent cause for the increase. Winters in Munich have  
16 221 become shorter by four weeks over the past 100 years (Zohner and Renner, 2014), and  
17 222 warmer springs and summers have led to a significant increase in warm-loving species. In  
18 223 Munich, for example, some 15 thermophilic species are currently expanding their ranges  
19 224 (Hofmann et al., 2018; this study: Appendix S1), which is unlikely to be explained by an  
20 225 increase in the city's flower richness or bee habitat diversity. We therefore suspect that the  
21 226 increase in bee species detected at the Virginia Depot and in the Botanical Garden is due to  
22 227 climate warming.

23 228 The finding that flight season had no effect on bee persistence (at least over the past 20  
24 229 years) probably implies that bees in urban areas have access to sufficient floral pollen and  
25 230 nectar sources throughout the season (cf. Grimm et al., 2008). This absence of any seasonal  
26 231 effects, however, needs to be interpreted with care. We used flight months for each species as  
27 232 given in the literature (Appendix S1 shows all sources), but bees' flight times vary between  
28 233 years and regions, depending on local conditions. Ideally, one would therefore use flight times  
29 234 from the Munich area and the particular period covered here. Such data, however, are not  
30 235 available for most of the 324 species.

31 236 Our results highlight the importance of protected urban sites for bee conservation,  
32 237 which is perhaps helped by most Central European bees being small, with correspondingly  
33 238 small foraging ranges. Thus, 92% of 436 species occurring in Germany are 4.5 to 13.5 mm  
34 239 long with foraging ranges in flower-rich sites of around 150 m (Hofmann et al., in review).  
35 240 Studies of 104 species with different body sizes in the centre and suburbs of the city of  
36 241 Poznan, Poland, found more small-bodied late-season bees in the centre than in the suburbs  
37 242 and a diversity in city parks comparable to that in natural areas (Banaszak-Cibicka and  
38 243 Zmihorski, 2012; Banaszak-Cibicka et al., 2018). This agrees with our finding that a late-  
39 244 flight season is not a handicap for species persistence in Munich, while it is in Germany  
40 245 overall (Hofmann et al., 2019). Similarly, a study in Northampton found that the city had  
41 246 more species of bees than do meadows and nature reserves surrounding it (Sirohi et al., 2015).

42 247  
43 248 **Acknowledgements**

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47 252 University for statistical advice.

48 253  
49 254 **Conflicts of interest**

50 255 There are no conflicts of interest by any author.

256 **Supporting Information**

1 257 Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section  
2 258 at the end of the article.

3 259 **Appendix S1:** Munich bee species, their Red List status, life-history parameters, and historic  
4 260 and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

5 261 **Appendix S2:** GenBank accession numbers and Diversity Work Bench accession numbers of  
6 262 the voucher specimen.

7 263 **Appendix S3:** Tables S1 and S2.  
8 264

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### Tables and Figures

**Table 1:** Flight season (early, late, median) and habitat breadth (narrow: one or habitats vs. broad: three to six) of 319 species of bees recorded at the protected urban areas Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden within the Munich city perimeters in the 1990s (time zero, T0) or 2017/2018 (T1). For details of study sites and years see *Material and Methods*, Fig. 1, and Appendix S1.

	Present at T1			Absent at T1				
		Early	Late	Median		Early	Late	Median
Present at T0	Broad	5	12	76	Broad	0	7	22
	Narrow	1	7	4	Narrow	1	6	9
Absent at T0	Broad	2	3	11	Broad	2	9	51
	Narrow	0	2	13	Narrow	8	19	49

**Table 2:** Numbers of species recorded at the protected urban areas Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden within the Munich city perimeter in the 1990s (T0) or 2017/2018 (T1).

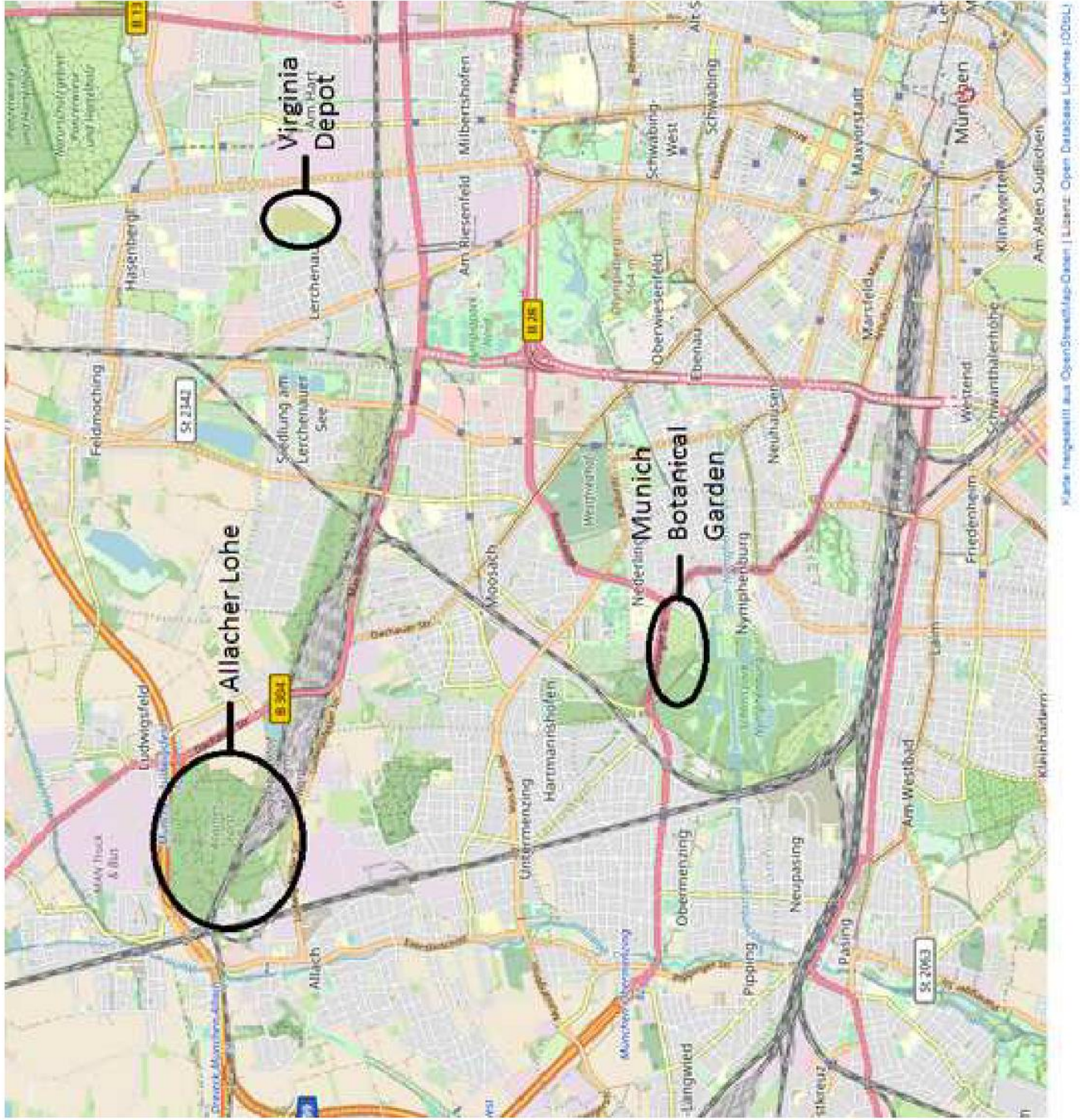
Number of species	Allacher Lohe	Virginia Depot	Munich Botanical Garden
Present at T0	135	32	78
Absent at T0	189	292	246
Present at T1	80	44	105
Absent at T1	244	280	219

**Figure 1:** The location of the three study sites within the Munich city perimeter.

**Figure 2:** Coefficient estimates (beta estimate +95% confidence intervals) for the effects of (a) occurrence at time zero (T0), habitat breadth, and flight duration (in months) or (b) occurrence at T0, habitat breadth (one or two vs. three to six), and flight season (early, late, media) on species occurrence by 2017/2018 (T1). Positive estimates correspond to an increased occurrence probability at T1.

Figure 1

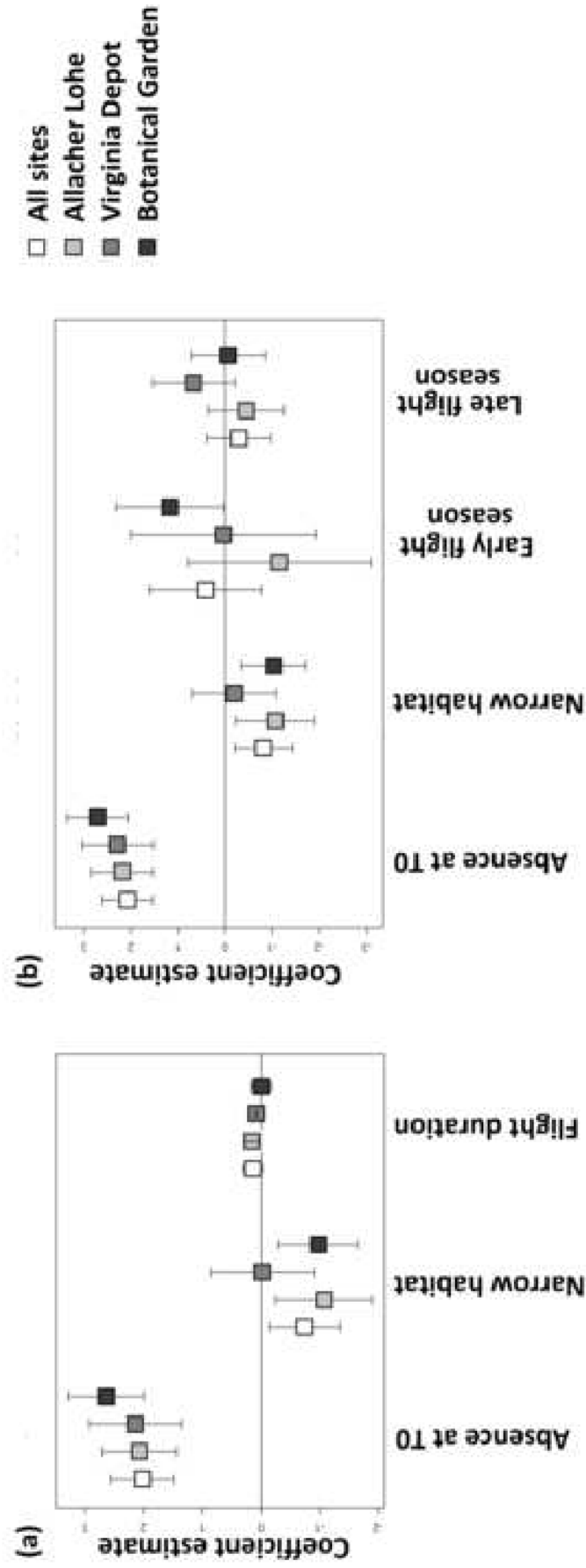
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Figure 2

[Click here to access/download;Figure;Hofmann\\_Renner\\_Bee\\_persistence\\_in\\_cities\\_Fig2.png](#)





Supplementary material from

**Bee species persistence and increase  
between 1990 and 2018 in urban  
protected sites**



Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

Species		Family	Red List Statu	Foraging spec
<i>Andrena agilissima</i>	(Scopoli, 1770)	Andrenidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Andrena alfkenella</i>	Perkins, 1914	Andrenidae	V	polylectic
<i>Andrena anthrisci</i>	Blüthgen 1925	Andrenidae	N/A	polylectic
<i>Andrena apicata</i>	Smith, 1847	Andrenidae	G	oligolectic
<i>Andrena barbilabris</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	V	polylectic
<i>Andrena bicolor</i>	Fabricius, 1775	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena bucephala</i>	Stephens, 1846	Andrenidae	3	polylectic
<i>Andrena chrysopyga</i>	Schenck, 1853	Andrenidae	2	polylectic
<i>Andrena chrysoseles</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena cineraria</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena clarkella</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Andrena coitana</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	3	polylectic
<i>Andrena combinata</i>	(Christ, 1791)	Andrenidae	3	polylectic
<i>Andrena congruens</i>	Schmiedeknecht, 1883	Andrenidae	2	polylectic
<i>Andrena curvungula</i>	Thomson, 1870	Andrenidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Andrena decipiens</i>	Schenck, 1861	Andrenidae	2	polylectic
<i>Andrena denticulata</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Andrena dorsata</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena falsifica</i>	Perkins, 1915	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena ferox</i>	Smith, 1847	Andrenidae	2	polylectic
<i>Andrena flavipes</i>	Panzer, 1799	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena florea</i>	Fabricius, 1793	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Andrena floricola</i>	Eversmann, 1852	Andrenidae	2	oligolectic
<i>Andrena fucata</i>	Smith, 1847	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena fulva</i>	(Müller, 1766)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena fulvago</i>	(Christ, 1791)	Andrenidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Andrena fulvata</i>	Stöckhert, 1930	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena fulvida</i>	Schenck, 1853	Andrenidae	3	polylectic
<i>Andrena gelriae</i>	Van Der Vecht, 1927	Andrenidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Andrena gravida</i>	Imhoff, 1832	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena haemorrhoea</i>	(Fabricius, 1781)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena hattorfiana</i>	(Fabricius, 1775)	Andrenidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Andrena helvola</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena humilis</i>	Imhoff, 1832	Andrenidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Andrena intermedia</i>	Thomson, 1870	Andrenidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Andrena labialis</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Andrena labiata</i>	Fabricius, 1781	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena lathyri</i>	Alfken, 1899	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Andrena minutula</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena minutuloides</i>	Perkins, 1914	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena mitis</i>	Schmiedeknecht, 1883	Andrenidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Andrena nigroaenea</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena nitida</i>	(Müller, 1776)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena nitidiuscula</i>	Schenck, 1853	Andrenidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Andrena nycthemera</i>	Imhoff, 1868	Andrenidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Andrena ovatula</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

Pollen collected	Nesting	Flight months	Flight season	Habitat	Habitat preference	Altitudinal range
leg	ground	V-VI	Median	4, 5, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VI, VII-VIII	Median	4, 6, 5	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VI	Median	?	unknown	0-600
leg	ground	II-V	Early	1, 5, 2	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-V, VI-VII	Median	2, 5, 6	broad	0-800
leg	ground	III-V, VI-VIII	Median		7 broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-V	Early	5, 4	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-VI	Median	2, 4	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-VI	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-800
leg	ground	III-V	Early	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	III-V	Early	1, 5	narrow	0-2100
leg	ground	VI-IX	Late	1, 5	narrow	0-2100
leg	ground	V-VI	Median	4, 6	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-V, VII-VIII	Median	?	unknown	0-800
leg	ground	V-VII	Median	4, 5, 6	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	VI-IX	Late		2 narrow	0-800
leg	ground	VII-VIII	Late	6, 2, 1, 5	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-V, VI-VIII	Median	2, 6, 5	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-V	Early	1, 5, 4, 6	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VI	Median	1, 5	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	III-VI, VII-IX	Median		7 broad	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VIII	Median	5, 6, 4, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-V, VII-VIII	Median		6 narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VII	Median		1 narrow	0-2100
leg	ground	III-V	Early	1, 5, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VII	Median	5, 4	narrow	0-2100
leg	ground	III-VI	Median	1, 4, 5	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VII	Median	1, 5	narrow	0-800
leg	ground	V-VII	Median	4, 5	narrow	0-2100
leg	ground	III-VI	Median		7 broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-VI	Median		7 broad	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VIII	Median	4, 5	narrow	0-800
leg	ground	IV-VI	Median	5, 4, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	V-VII	Median	1, 5, 4, 2	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	V-VII	Median		2 narrow	?
leg	ground	V-VII	Median	4, 5	narrow	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-VII	Median	4, 5, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-VII	Median	4, 5, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	I-VI, VI-VIII	Median		7 broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-VI, VI-IX	Median		7 broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-VI	Median	1, 2, 4	broad	0-800
leg	ground	III-VII	Median	5, 4, 2, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	III-VI	Median		7 broad	0-1600
leg	ground	VI-VIII	Late	5, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-VI	Median		2 narrow	0-800
leg	ground	III-VI, VII-VIII	Median	4, 6, 2, 5, 3	broad	0-2100

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

Allacher Lohe 1980-89 <sup>1</sup>	Allacher Lohe 1997-99 <sup>2</sup>	Allacher Lohe 2009-10 <sup>3</sup>	Allacher Lohe 2017-18	Virginia Depot 1998-99 <sup>4</sup>	Virginia Depot 2017-18	Botanical Garden 1997-99 <sup>5</sup>	Botanical Garden 2015-17 <sup>6</sup>
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

<i>Andrena pandellei</i>	Pérez, 1895	Andrenidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Andrena pilipes</i>	Fabricius, 1781	Andrenidae	3	polylectic
<i>Andrena potentillae</i>	Panzer, 1809	Andrenidae	2	oligolectic
<i>Andrena praecox</i>	(Scopoli, 1763)	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Andrena proxima</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Andrena rosae</i>	Panzer, 1801	Andrenidae	3	polylectic
<i>Andrena ruficrus</i>	Nylander, 1848	Andrenidae	G	oligolectic
<i>Andrena rufizona</i>	Imhoff, 1834	Andrenidae	1	oligolectic
<i>Andrena schencki</i>	Morawitz, 1866	Andrenidae	2	polylectic
<i>Andrena scotica</i>	Perkins, 1916	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena semilaevis</i>	Pérez, 1903	Andrenidae	G	polylectic
<i>Andrena sericata</i>	Imhoff, 1868	Andrenidae	R	oligolectic
<i>Andrena similis</i>	(Smith, 1849)	Andrenidae	G	oligolectic
<i>Andrena strombella</i>	Stöckert, 1928	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena subopaca</i>	Nylander, 1848	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena symphyti</i>	Schmiedeknecht, 1883	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Andrena synadelpha</i>	Perkins, 1914	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena tarsata</i>	Nylander, 1848	Andrenidae	2	oligolectic
<i>Andrena thoracica</i>	(Fabricius, 1775)	Andrenidae	2	polylectic
<i>Andrena tibialis</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena vaga</i>	Panzer, 1799	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Andrena varians</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	polylectic
<i>Andrena ventralis</i>	Imhoff, 1832	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Andrena viridescens</i>	Viereck, 1916	Andrenidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Andrena wilkella</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Anthidium byssinum</i>	(Panzer, 1798)	Megachilidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Anthidium manicatum</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Anthidium montanum</i>	Morawitz, 1864	Megachilidae	2	oligolectic
<i>Anthidium nanum</i>	Mocsáry, 1879	Megachilidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Anthidium oblongatum</i>	(Illiger, 1806)	Megachilidae	V	polylectic
<i>Anthidium punctatum</i>	Latreille, 1809	Megachilidae	V	polylectic
<i>Anthidium strigatum</i>	(Panzer, 1805)	Megachilidae	V	polylectic
<i>Anthophora aestivalis</i>	(Panzer, 1801)	Apidae	3	polylectic
<i>Anthophora furcata</i>	(Panzer, 1798)	Apidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Anthophora plumipes</i>	(Pallas, 1772)	Apidae	*	polylectic
<i>Anthophora bimaculata</i>	(Panzer, 1798)	Apidae	3	polylectic
<i>Anthophora quadrimaculata</i>	(Panzer, 1798)	Apidae	V	polylectic
<i>Anthophora retusa</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	V	polylectic
<i>Bombus barbutellus</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Bombus bohemicus</i>	Seidl, 1838	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Bombus campestris</i>	(Panzer, 1801)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Bombus confusus</i>	Schenck, 1861	Apidae	1	polylectic
<i>Bombus distinguendus</i>	Morawitz, 1869	Apidae	2	polylectic
<i>Bombus hortorum</i>	(Linnaeus, 1761)	Apidae	*	polylectic
<i>Bombus humilis</i>	Illiger, 1806	Apidae	3	polylectic
<i>Bombus hypnorum</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	*	polylectic
<i>Bombus jonellus</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	3	polylectic
<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	*	polylectic
<i>Bombus lucorum</i>	(Linnaeus, 1761)	Apidae	*	polylectic

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

leg	ground	V-VI	Median	4, 5, 6	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-V, VII-IX	Median	2, 6, 4	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-V	Early	6, 2	narrow	0-800
leg	ground	III-V	Early	2, 5	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-VI	Median	4, 5, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	III-V, VII-VIII	Median	4, 6, 5	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-V	Early	1, 5, 2	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	V-VIII	Median	4, 6, 2, 5	broad	300-3000
leg	ground	V-VII	Median	4, 6	narrow	0-800
leg	ground	IV-VI	Median	4, 5, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VII	Median	5, 4, 6, 2	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	III-V	Early		5 narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	III-VII	Median	4, 5, 2	broad	0-800
leg	ground	III-V	Early	2, 4, 5, 6	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-VI, VII-VIII	Median	5, 1, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-VI	Median	1, 2	narrow	0-800
leg	ground	V-VII	Median	1, 5, 6	narrow	0-800
leg	ground	VI-VIII	Late	1, 5, 2	broad	?
leg	ground	IV-VI, VII-IX	Median	2, 6	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	I-VI, VI-VIII	Median	2, 5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-VI	Median		2 narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	III-V	Early	1, 5, 6, 4, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-V	Early		2 narrow	0-800
leg	ground	IV-VI	Median	4, 5, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-VII	Median	5, 4, 6, 2	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	ground	VI-VIII	Late	5, 4, 2	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late	4, 5, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late	?	unknown	800-3000
pollen brush	above	VI-IX	Late	6, 5	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late	6, 5, 3	broad	0-1600
pollen brush	above	V-IX	Median	6, 5, 3	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	IV-VIII	Median	5, 6, 2, 4, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-VII	Median	2, 6, 5	broad	0-2100
leg	above	VI-VIII	Late	1, 5, 4, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-VI	Median		7 broad	0-1600
leg	g	V-IX	Median		2 narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VIII	Median	2, 4, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-VII	Median	2, 4, 5	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	IV	Early	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	IV-VIII	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	V	Early	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground and at	V	Early	6, 5	narrow	?
leg	ground	V-X	Median	4, 6, 5	broad	?
leg	ground and at	IV-VIII	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	above	IV-X	Median	4, 5, 6	broad	0-2100
leg	above	III-VIII	Median	5, 1, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground and at	III_IX	Median	1, 2, 5, 6	broad	0-2100
leg	ground and at	III-X	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	II-VIII	Median	1, 5, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-2100

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
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0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1



Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

<i>Bombus mesomelas</i>	Gerstäcker, 1869	Apidae	0	polylectic
<i>Bombus muscorum</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	2	polylectic
<i>Bombus norvegicus</i>	(Sparre-Schneider, 1918)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>	(Scopoli, 1763)	Apidae	*	polylectic
<i>Bombus pomorum</i>	(Panzer, 1805)	Apidae	2	polylectic
<i>Bombus pratorum</i>	(Linnaeus, 1761)	Apidae	*	polylectic
<i>Bombus quadricolor</i>	(Lepeletier, 1832)	Apidae	2	cuckoo
<i>Bombus ruderarius</i>	(Müller, 1776)	Apidae	3	polylectic
<i>Bombus ruderatus</i>	(Fabricius, 1775) <sup>^</sup>	Apidae	D	polylectic
<i>Bombus rupestris</i>	(Fabricius, 1793)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Bombus soroeensis</i>	(Fabricius, 1776)	Apidae	V	polylectic
<i>Bombus subterraneus</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	2	polylectic
<i>Bombus sylvarum</i>	(Linnaeus, 1761)	Apidae	V	polylectic
<i>Bombus sylvestris</i>	(Lepeletier, 1832)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Bombus terrestris</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	*	polylectic
<i>Bombus vestalis</i>	(Geoffroy, 1785)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Bombus veteranus</i>	(Fabricius, 1793)	Apidae	3	polylectic
<i>Bombus wurflenii</i>	Radoszkowski, 1859	Apidae	V	polylectic
<i>Ceratina cyanea</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	*	polylectic
<i>Coelioxys alata</i>	Förster, 1853	Megachilidae	1	cuckoo
<i>Coelioxys aurolimbata</i>	Förster, 1853	Megachilidae	V	cuckoo
<i>Coelioxys conica</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	V	cuckoo
<i>Coelioxys elongata</i>	Lepeletier, 1841	Megachilidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Coelioxys inermis</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Coelioxys lanceolata</i>	Nylander, 1852	Megachilidae	2	cuckoo
<i>Coelioxys mandibularis</i>	Nylander, 1848	Megachilidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Coelioxys rufescens</i>	Lepeletier & Serville 1825	Megachilidae	V	cuckoo
<i>Colletes cunicularius</i>	(Linnaeus, 1761)	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Colletes daviesanus</i>	Smith, 1846	Colletidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Colletes fodiens</i>	(Geoffroy, 1758)	Colletidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Colletes similis</i>	Schenck, 1853	Colletidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Colletes succinctus</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Colletidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Dufourea dentiventris</i>	(Nylander, 1848)	Halictidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Epeoloides coecutiens</i>	(Fabricius, 1775)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Epeolus variegatus</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	V	cuckoo
<i>Eucera longicornis</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Eucera nigrescens</i>	Pérez, 1879	Apidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Halictus confusus</i>	Smith, 1853	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Halictus eurygnathus</i>	Blüthgen, 1931	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Halictus gavarnicus</i>	Pérez, 1903	Halictidae	1	polylectic
<i>Halictus maculatus</i>	Smith, 1848	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Halictus rubicundus</i>	(Christ, 1791)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Halictus scabiosae</i>	(Rossi, 1790)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Halictus sexcinctus</i>	(Fabricius, 1775)	Halictidae	3	polylectic
<i>Halictus simplex</i>	Blüthgen, 1923	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	(Rossi, 1792)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Halictus tumulorum</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus angustatus</i>	(Schenck, 1861)	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus brevicornis</i>	Nylander, 1852	Colletidae	*	polylectic

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

leg	ground	V-X	Median	?	narrow	800-3000
leg	above	V-IX	Median	2, 4	narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-VIII	Median	5, 1, 4, 6	broad	0-2100
leg	ground and at	IV-X	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-VIII	Median	5, 4	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground and at	III-VII	Median	5, 1, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-3000
none	host nest	IV-IX	Median	2, 5, 1, 4, 6	broad	0-3000
leg	above	IV-IX	Median		4 narrow	0-3000
leg	ground	V-X	Median		4 narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-VIII	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median	2, 1, 5, 6	broad	0-3000
leg	ground	V-IX	Median	5, 4, 6	broad	?
leg	ground and at	IV-X	Median	5, 4, 2, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	III-IX	Median	5, 1, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-3000
leg	ground	II-X	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	IV-VIII	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	above	IV-IX	Median	4, 5	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground and at	IV-X	Median	2, 1, 5	broad	0-3000
crop and leg	above	I-XII	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	VI-VIII	Late	2, 5	narrow	0-800
none	host nest	VI-VIII	Late	6, 5, 4, 2	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	V-VIII	Median	5, 4	narrow	0-2100
none	host nest	V-IX	Median	5, 6, 4, 2	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	V-X	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	VI-VII	Late	5, 2	narrow	800-1600
none	host nest	VI-VIII	Late	5, 6, 4, 2, 3	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	VI-IX	Late		5 narrow	0-2100
leg	ground	III-IV	Early		2 narrow	0-800
leg	ground	VI-IX	Late	2, 6, 4, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	VII-VIII	Late	2, 6	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	VI-IX	Late	6, 5, 2	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	VIII-IX	Late	5, 2	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	VII-VIII	Late	5, 6	narrow	0-2100
none	host nest	VII-VIII	Late		2 narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	VI-VIII	Late	2, 6	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	V-VII	Median	4, 6	narrow	0-800
leg	ground	IV-VI	Median	4, 5	narrow	0-800
leg	ground	III-IX	Median	2, 6	narrow	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median	6, 2	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	V-IX	Median	2, 6	narrow	800-2100
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median	6, 5, 2	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median		7 broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median	5, 6, 2	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	V-IX	Median	2, 6	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	VI-VIII	Late	2, 6	narrow	0-2100
leg	ground	III-VIII	Median	6, 2	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median		7 broad	0-2100
crop	above	V-IX	Median	6, 2, 5	broad	?
crop	above	VI-IX	Late	5, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600

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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
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1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
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0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
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1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
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1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1
0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

<i>Hylaeus communis</i>	Nylander, 1852	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus confusus</i>	Nylander, 1852	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus cornutus</i>	Curtis, 1831	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus difformis</i>	(Eversmann, 1852)	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus dilatatus</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus gibbus</i>	Saunders, 1850	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus gracilicornis</i>	(Morawitz, 1867)	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus gredleri</i>	Förster, 1871	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus hyalinatus</i>	Smith, 1842	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus leptocephalus</i>	(Morawitz, 1870)	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus moricei</i>	(Friese, 1898)	Colletidae	G	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus nigritus</i>	(Fabricius, 1798)	Colletidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Hylaeus pectoralis</i>	Förster, 1871	Colletidae	3	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus pictipes</i>	Nylander, 1852	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus punctulatissimus</i>	Smith, 1842	Colletidae	G	oligolectic
<i>Hylaeus rinki</i>	(Gorski, 1852)	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus signatus</i>	(Panzer, 1798)	Colletidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Hylaeus sinuatus</i>	(Schenck, 1853)	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus styriacus</i>	Förster, 1871	Colletidae	*	polylectic
<i>Hylaeus variegatus</i>	(Fabricius, 1798)	Colletidae	V	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum albipes</i>	(Fabricius, 1781)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum alpigenum</i>	(Dalla Torre, 1877)	Halictidae	R	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum angusticeps</i>	(Perkins, 1895)	Halictidae	G	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum bavaricum</i>	(Blüthgen, 1930)	Halictidae	R	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i>	(Scopoli, 1763)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum costulatum</i>	(Kriechbaumer, 1873)	Halictidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Lasioglossum cupromicans</i>	(Pérez, 1903)	Halictidae	G	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum fratellum</i>	(Pérez, 1903)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum fulvicorne</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum intermedium</i>	(Schenck, 1868)	Halictidae	3	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum laeve</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	1	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum laevigatum</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	3	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum laticeps</i>	(Schenck, 1868)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum lativentre</i>	(Schenck, 1853)	Halictidae	V	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum leucopus</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum leucozonium</i>	(Schrank, 1781)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum lineare</i>	(Schenck, 1868)	Halictidae	3	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum lissonotum</i>	(Noskiewicz, 1926)	Halictidae	2	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum lucidulum</i>	(Schenck, 1861)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum majus</i>	(Nylander, 1852)	Halictidae	3	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum malachurum</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum minutulum</i>	(Schenck, 1853)	Halictidae	3	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum morio</i>	(Fabricius, 1793)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum nitidiusculum</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	V	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum nitidulum</i>	(Fabricius, 1804)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum parvulum</i>	(Schenck, 1853)	Halictidae	V	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum paxillum</i>	(Schenck, 1853)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum punctatissimum</i>	(Schenk, 1853)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum politum</i>	(Schenk, 1853)	Halictidae	*	polylectic

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

crop	above	V-X	Median	5, 2, 3	broad	0-2100
crop	above	IV-IX	Median	5, 2, 3	broad	0-2100
crop	above	VI-VIII	Late	5, 4, 6, 2	broad	0-1600
crop	above	VI-VIII	Late	1, 5	narrow	0-1600
crop	above	VI-IX	Late	2, 6, 5	narrow	0-1600
crop	above	V-IX	Median	5, 6, 2	narrow	0-2100
crop	above	VI-VIII	Late	1, 5, 2	narrow	0-800
crop	above	VI-VIII	Late	1, 5, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
crop	above	V-IX	Median	5, 4, 2, 6, 3	broad	0-1600
crop	above	V-IX	Median	5, 6, 3	broad	0-1600
crop	above	VI-VIII	Late	1, 6	narrow	0-800
crop	above	V-IX	Median	4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-2100
crop	above	V-IX	Median	1, 4	narrow	0-800
crop	above	VI-VIII	Late	5, 6, 2	broad	0-1600
crop	above	V-VIII	Median	2, 6, 3	broad	0-1600
crop	above	VI-VIII	Late	1, 5	narrow	0-1600
crop	above	IV-IX	Median	6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
crop	above	VI-VIII	Late	1, 5, 6	narrow	0-1600
crop	above	VI-VIII	Late	5, 6	narrow	0-1600
crop	ground	VI-IX	Late	2, 6	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	5, 6, 3	narrow	0-3000
leg	ground	VI-X	Median	?	unknown	1600-3000
leg	ground	IV-VIII	Median	4, 6	narrow	0-800
leg	ground	V-IX	Median	?	unknown	300-800
leg	ground	III-X	Median	1, 6, 3	broad	0-3000
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median	6, 5, 4, 2	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median		2 narrow	800-3000
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	5, 1	narrow	0-3000
leg	ground	III-X	Median	6, 1, 3	broad	0-3000
leg	ground	IV-VIII	Median		2 narrow	0-3000
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median	6, 5	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	III-X	Median	5, 4, 6, 2	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	III-X	Median	5, 4, 6, 2	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	5, 6, 4	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	5, 6, 4, 2	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	1, 3, 6	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	III-IX	Median	6, 2	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-VIII	Median	6, 2	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	2, 6, 5, 4	broad	0-800
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median	5, 6, 4, 1	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-X	Median		7 broad	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median	6, 4	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	III-X	Median		7 broad	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median	5, 6, 2	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-X	Median	2, 3	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	5, 4, 2	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	III-X	Median		7 broad	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	2, 5, 6	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-X	Median	6, 4, 2, 3	broad	0-800

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
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1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

<i>Lasioglossum quadrinotatum</i>	(Schenck, 1861)	Halictidae	3	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum quadrinotatum</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	3	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum rufitarse</i>	(Zetterstedt, 1838)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum sabulosum</i>	(Warncke, 1986)	Halictidae	D	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum semilucens</i>	(Alfken, 1914)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum sexnotatum</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	3	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum sexstrigatum</i>	(Schenck, 1868)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum villosulum</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum xanthopus</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Lasioglossum zonulum</i>	(Smith, 1848)	Halictidae	*	polylectic
<i>Macropis europaea</i>	Warncke, 1973	Melittidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Macropis fulvipes</i>	(Fabricius, 1804)	Melittidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Megachile apicalis</i>	Spinola, 1808	Megachilidae	2	polylectic
<i>Megachile centuncularis</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	V	polylectic
<i>Megachile circumcincta</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	V	polylectic
<i>Megachile ericetorum</i>	Lepeletier, 1841	Megachilidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Megachile lagopoda</i>	(Linnaeus, 1761)	Megachilidae	2	polylectic
<i>Megachile leachella</i>	Curtis, 1828	Megachilidae	3	polylectic
<i>Megachile ligniseca</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	2	polylectic
<i>Megachile maritima</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	3	polylectic
<i>Megachile nigriventris</i>	Schenck, 1868	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Megachile parietina</i>	(Geoffroy, 1785) <sup>^</sup>	Megachilidae	1	polylectic
<i>Megachile pilidens</i>	Alfken, 1924	Megachilidae	3	polylectic
<i>Megachile rotundata</i>	(Fabricius, 1787)	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Megachile versicolor</i>	Smith, 1844	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Megachile willughbiella</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Melecta albifrons</i>	(Forster, 1771)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Melecta luctuosa</i>	(Scopoli, 1770)	Apidae	3	cuckoo
<i>Melitta haemorrhoidalis</i>	(Fabricius, 1775)	Melittidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Melitta leporina</i>	(Panzer, 1799)	Melittidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Melitta nigricans</i>	Alfken, 1905	Melittidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Melitta tricincta</i>	Kirby, 1802	Melittidae	V	oligolectic
<i>Nomada alboguttata</i>	Herrich-Schäffer, 1839	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada armata</i>	Herrich-Schäffer, 1839	Apidae	3	cuckoo
<i>Nomada atroscutellaris</i>	Strand, 1921	Apidae	V	cuckoo
<i>Nomada bifasciata</i>	Olivier, 1811	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada braunsiana</i>	Schmiedeknecht, 1882	Apidae	1	cuckoo
<i>Nomada emarginata</i>	Morawitz, 1877	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada errans</i>	Lepeletier, 1841	Apidae	2	cuckoo
<i>Nomada fabriciana</i>	(Linnaeus, 1767)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada facilis</i>	Schwarz, 1967	Apidae	G	cuckoo
<i>Nomada ferruginata</i>	(Linnaeus, 1767)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada flava</i>	Panzer, 1798	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada flavoguttata</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada flavopicta</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada fucata</i>	Panzer, 1798	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada fulvicornis</i>	Fabricius, 1793	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada furva</i>	Panzer, 1798	Apidae	D	cuckoo
<i>Nomada fuscicornis</i>	Nylander, 1848	Apidae	*	cuckoo

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

leg	ground	IV-X	Median	2, 6, 4	broad	0-800
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	6, 4	narrow	0-800
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	5, 2	narrow	0-2100
leg	ground	IV-IX	Median	2, 5, 6	broad	0-800
leg	ground	IV-VIII	Median	6, 2, 4	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	2, 6	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	2, 5, 6, 3	broad	0-800
leg	ground	III-X	Median	5, 4, 6, 2	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	III-X	Median	4, 6, 5	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	IV-X	Median	4, 5, 6	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	VII-IX	Late		1 narrow	?
leg	ground	IV-VIII	Median		1 narrow	?
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late	?	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	V-X	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	?
pollen brush	above	V-VIII	Median	5, 6, 4, 2	broad	?
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late	6, 5, 4, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
pollen brush	ground and at	VI-VIII	Late	6, 2	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	ground and at	V-IX	Median		2 narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	VI-IX	Late	5, 1	narrow	0-2100
pollen brush	ground	VI-VIII	Late	2, 6	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	V-VIII	Median	5, 1	narrow	0-2100
pollen brush	above	III-VIII	Median	6, 2	narrow	0-2100
pollen brush	ground and at	V-IX	Median		2.6 narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	VI-IX	Late	6, 2, 5	broad	0-1600
pollen brush	above	V-IX	Median	5, 6, 4, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
pollen brush	above	V-IX	Median	5, 3, 4	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	III-VII	Median	2, 3	narrow	0-3000
none	host nest	IV-VII	Median	5, 2	narrow	0-1600
leg	ground	VI-IX	Late	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	VI-IX	Late	4, 6, 3	broad	0-1600
leg	ground	VII-VIII	Late		5 narrow	0-800
leg	ground	VIII-IX	Late	6, 2, 4	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	IV-V	Early		2 narrow	0-800
none	host nest	V-VIII	Median	4, 5	narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-VI	Median	4, 5, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	III-VI	Median	3, 4, 5	broad	0-800
none	host nest	V-VIII	Median	6, 4, 5	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	V-IX	Median	5, 4, 6	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	VI-VIII	Late	5, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	III-VIII	Median	1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	V-VIII	Median	5, 4, 2	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	III-V	Early	2, 5	narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	III-VI	Median	1, 5, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	III-VIII	Median	5, 6, 4, 2, 3	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	V-X	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	III-VIII	Median	5, 6, 4, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	III-VIII	Median	1, 5, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-IX	Median	5, 6, 4, 2	broad	0-800
none	host nest	VI-IX	Late	5, 6, 2	broad	0-1600



Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
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1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

<i>Nomada goodeniana</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada hirtipes</i>	Pérez, 1884	Apidae	3	cuckoo
<i>Nomada integra</i>	Brullé, 1832	Apidae	G	cuckoo
<i>Nomada kohli</i>	Schmiedeknecht, 1882	Apidae	2	cuckoo
<i>Nomada lathburiana</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada leucophthalma</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada marshamella</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada moeschleri</i>	Alfken, 1913	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada obscura</i>	Zetterstedt, 1838	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada obtusifrons</i>	Nylander, 1848	Apidae	2	cuckoo
<i>Nomada opaca</i>	Alfken, 1913	Apidae	2	cuckoo
<i>Nomada panzeri</i>	Lepeletier, 1841	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada roberjeotiana</i>	Panzer, 1799	Apidae	G	cuckoo
<i>Nomada ruficornis</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada rufipes</i>	Fabricius, 1793	Apidae	V	cuckoo
<i>Nomada sexfasciata</i>	Panzer, 1799	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada signata</i>	Jurine, 1807	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada stigma</i>	Fabricius, 1804	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada striata</i>	Fabricius, 1793	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada succincta</i>	Panzer, 1798	Apidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Nomada villosa</i>	Thomson, 1870	Apidae	G	cuckoo
<i>Nomada zonata</i>	Panzer, 1798	Apidae	V	cuckoo
<i>Osmia adunca</i>	(Panzer, 1798)	Megachilidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Osmia anthocopoides</i>	Schenck, 1853	Megachilidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Osmia aurulenta</i>	(Panzer, 1799)	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Osmia bicolor</i>	(Schrank, 1781)	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Osmia caerulescens</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Osmia campanularum</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Osmia cantabrica</i>	(Benoist, 1935)	Megachilidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Osmia cerinthidis</i>	Morawitz, 1876	Megachilidae	1	oligolectic
<i>Osmia claviventris</i>	Thomson, 1872	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Osmia cornuta</i>	(Latreille, 1805)	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Osmia florissomnis</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Osmia leaiana</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Osmia lepeletieri</i>	Pérez, 1879	Megachilidae	0	oligolectic
<i>Osmia leucomelana</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	*	polylectic
<i>Osmia mitis</i>	Nylander, 1852	Megachilidae	2	oligolectic
<i>Osmia niveata</i>	(Fabricius, 1804)	Megachilidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Osmia parietina</i>	Curtis, 1828	Megachilidae	3	polylectic
<i>Osmia pilicornis</i>	Smith, 1846	Megachilidae	G	polylectic
<i>Osmia rapunculi</i>	(Lepeletier, 1841)	Megachilidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Osmia ravouxi</i>	Pérez, 1902	Megachilidae	2	polylectic
<i>Osmia rufohirta</i>	Latreille, 1811	Megachilidae	3	polylectic
<i>Osmia spinulosa</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Osmia tridentata</i>	Dufour & Perris, 1840	Megachilidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Osmia truncorum</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Osmia uncinata</i>	Gerstäcker, 1869	Megachilidae	G	polylectic
<i>Osmia villosa</i>	(Schenck, 1853)	Megachilidae	2	oligolectic

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

none	host nest	IV-VI	Median	1, 5, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-VI	Median	5, 4	narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-VIII	Median	5, 4, 2	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	V-VIII	Median	2, 5, 6, 4	broad	0-800
none	host nest	III-VIII	Median	5, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	III-VI	Median	1, 5, 2	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	IV-VII	Median	4, 2, 1, 5, 6, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	V-VII	Median	5, 4, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	III-VI	Median	1, 5, 2	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	VII-VIII	Late	1, 5, 2	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	V-VI	Median	1, 5	narrow	0-800
none	host nest	III-VIII	Median	5, 4, 1, 2, 6, 3	broad	0-3000
none	host nest	VII-IX	Late		2 narrow	0-2100
none	host nest	III-VI	Median	5, 4, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	VII-IX	Late	5, 2	narrow	0-2100
none	host nest	IV-VI	Median	6, 4, 5	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	III-VI	Median	3, 1, 5	broad	0-800
none	host nest	IV-VIII	Median	4, 5	narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-VIII	Median	4, 5, 2	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	III-VI	Median	1, 5, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-VII	Median	4, 5, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-VIII	Median	2, 6, 5	broad	0-800
pollen brush	above	VI-IX	Late	6, 2	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	V-VIII	Median		2 narrow	0-2100
pollen brush	above	III-VI	Median	6, 4, 5, 2	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	III-VIII	Median	1, 5, 6	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	III-VIII	Median	5, 4, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
pollen brush	above	III-X	Median	5, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late	5, 6, 4, 3	broad	?
pollen brush	above	V-VIII	Median	5, 6, 4, 3	broad	?
pollen brush	above	V-VI	Median	5, 6	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late	5, 6, 2	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	II-VI	Median	3, 2	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	IV-VI	Median	5, 6, 4, 3	broad	?
pollen brush	above	IV-IX	Median	5, 4, 6	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late		2 narrow	0-2100
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late	5, 6, 2	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late	6, 5, 2	broad	?
pollen brush	above	IV-VII	Median	5, 4, 6, 3	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	IV-VIII	Median	1, 5	narrow	0-2100
pollen brush	above	III-VI	Median	1, 5	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	V-VIII	Median	5, 6, 4, 3	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	IV-VIII	Median	2, 6	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	IV-VIII	Median	6, 2	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	V-IX	Median	2, 5, 4	broad	0-2100
pollen brush	above	VI-VIII	Late	6, 5	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	VI-IX	Late	5, 4	narrow	0-1600
pollen brush	above	III-VIII	Median	1, 5	narrow	0-2100
pollen brush	above	V-VII	Median		2 narrow	0-3000

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

<i>Osmia xanthomelana</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	2	oligolectic
<i>Panurgus banksianus</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Panurgus calcaratus</i>	(Scopoli, 1763)	Andrenidae	*	oligolectic
<i>Rophites algirus</i>	Pérez, 1895	Halictidae	3	oligolectic
<i>Sphecodes albilabris</i>	(Fabricius, 1793)	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes crassus</i>	Thomson, 1870	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes ephippius</i>	(Linnaeus, 1767)	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes ferruginatus</i>	Von Hagens, 1882	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes geoffrellus</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes gibbus</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes hyalinatus</i>	Von Hagens, 1882	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes longulus</i>	Von Hagens, 1882	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes marginatus</i>	Von Hagens, 1882	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes miniatus</i>	Von Hagens, 1882	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes monilicornis</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes niger</i>	(Hagens, 1874)	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes pellucidus</i>	Smith, 1845	Halictidae	V	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes puncticeps</i>	Thomson, 1870	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes reticulatus</i>	Thomson, 1870	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes rubicundus</i>	Von Hagens, 1875	Halictidae	3	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes rufiventris</i>	(Panzer, 1798)	Halictidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes scabricollis</i>	Wesmael, 1835	Halictidae	G	cuckoo
<i>Sphecodes spinulosus</i>	Von Hagens, 1875	Halictidae	G	cuckoo
<i>Stelis minuta</i>	Lepelletier & Serville 1825	Megachilidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Stelis minima</i>	Schenck, 1859	Megachilidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Stelis breviscula</i>	(Nylander, 1848)	Megachilidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Stelis ornatula</i>	(Klug, 1807)	Megachilidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Stelis phaeoptera</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	3	cuckoo
<i>Stelis punctulatifissima</i>	(Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	*	cuckoo
<i>Stelis signata</i>	(Latreille, 1809)	Megachilidae	3	cuckoo
<i>Thyreus histrionicus</i>	(Illiger, 1806)	Apidae	0	cuckoo
<i>Thyreus orbatus</i>	(Lepelletier, 1841)	Apidae	2	cuckoo
<i>Xylocopa violacea</i>	(Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	*	polylectic

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Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

pollen brush	above	V-VI	Median	5, 6	narrow	?
leg	ground	VI-VIII	Late	1, 5, 6, 4, 2	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	VI-IX	Late	5, 6, 2	broad	0-2100
leg	ground	VI-VII	Late	6, 2	narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	III-X	Median	2, 6	narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-X	Median		7 broad	0-2100
none	host nest	III-X	Median		7 broad	0-2100
none	host nest	IV-X	Median		7 broad	0-3000
none	host nest	IV-X	Median		7 broad	0-3000
none	host nest	IV-X	Median		7 broad	0-3000
none	host nest	IV-X	Median		7 broad	0-2100
none	host nest	III-IX	Median		7 broad	0-1600
none	host nest	V-VIII	Median	?	narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-IX	Median		7 broad	0-3000
none	host nest	III-X	Median		7 broad	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-IX	Median		7 broad	0-2100
none	host nest	IV-IX	Median	2, 5, 6	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	IV-IX	Median	2, 6	narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-X	Median	2, 5, 6	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	V-VII	Median	4, 5	narrow	0-800
none	host nest	IV-IX	Median	6, 5, 2	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	V-IX	Median	4, 5, 6	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	V-VII	Median	4, 6, 5	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	VI-IX	Late	5, 6, 2	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	VI-VIII	Late	5, 6, 4, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	V-IX	Median	5, 4	narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	IV-VIII	Median	5, 6, 2	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	IV-IX	Median	5, 4, 6	broad	0-2100
none	host nest	V-IX	Median	5, 2, 6, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	V-VIII	Median	5, 6, 2, 3	broad	0-1600
none	host nest	VII-VIII	Late		2 narrow	0-1600
none	host nest	V-IX	Median	2, 4	narrow	0-2100
leg	above	III-X	Median	4, 3	narrow	0-1600

le et Meyer Verlag. Wiebelsheim, Germany.

*d Gesamtartenliste der Bienen (Hymenoptera, Apidae) Deutschlands. Naturschutz und Biologische er Lohe" im Auftrag der Regierung von Oberbayern. ÖKON GmbH, Lohhof. The first author transcribed ntweltschutz. The first author transcribed this report, which may not be copied and distributed, in the r r Landeshauptstadt München. Teil C. Teilbeitrag: Wildbienenfauna. Im Auftrag der Landeshauptstadt*

*chriftenblatt der bayerischen Entomologen 50:30–41.*

*garden between 1997 and 2017, attributable to climate warming, not other parameters. Oecologia, :*

Appendix S1: Munich bee species, their Red List status (Westrich et al., 2011), life-history parameters (Scheuchl Willner, 2016), and historic and modern (2017/2018) records in the Allacher Lohe, Virginia Depot, or Botanical Garden.

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
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1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
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0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

· Vielfalt 70: 373-416.

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187(3), 701-706.

Appendix S2: Diversity Work Bench accession numbers start with ALS or ALN; the remaining numbers are GenBank accessions of DNA barcodes. Physical vouchers were deposited in the Zoologische Staatssammlung Munich.

<b>Species</b>	<b>Accession numbers</b>	<b>Observation date (German date format)</b>
<i>Andrena chrysoceles</i>	ALS-00021	16.06.2017
<i>Andrena cineraria</i>	ALS-00060	30.04.2017
	ALN-00063	24.04.2017
	ALN-00098	24.04.2017
<i>Andrena falsifica</i>	MK268693	
<i>Andrena flavipes</i>	ALS-00140	26.07.2018
	ALS-00074	30.04.2017
<i>Andrena fulvata</i>	MG845943	
<i>Andrena gravida</i>	MG845945	
<i>Andrena haemorrhoa</i>	ALS-00073	30.04.2017
	ALS-00075	30.04.2017
	ALS-00086	21.04.2018
	MG845952	
<i>Andrena labiata</i>	ALN-00121	19.04.2018
<i>Andrena nitida</i>	ALS-00064	30.04.2017
	MG845934	
<i>Andrena scotica</i>	ALS-00062	30.04.2017
	ALN-00006	26.05.2017
<i>Andrena subopaca</i>	MG845935	
	MG845936	
	MG845940	
<i>Anthidium nanum</i>	ALS-00006	16.06.2017
<i>Anthidium punctatum</i>	ALS-00122	28.05.2018
	ALN-00163	21.05.2018
<i>Anthophora plumipes</i>	ALN-00134	19.04.2018
<i>Bombus bohemicus</i>	ALS-00148	02.07.2018
<i>Bombus hortorum</i>	ALS-00011	16.06.2017
	ALS-00024	16.06.2017
	ALN-00175	02.07.2018
	ALS-00050	01.08.2017
	ALS-00098	28.05.2018
<i>Bombus humilis</i>	ALN-00211	02.07.2018
<i>Bombus hypnorum</i>	ALN-00060	24.04.2017
<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	ALS-00018	16.06.2017
	ALN-00059	24.04.2017
	ALN-00205	02.07.2018
<i>Bombus lucorum</i>	ALS-00055	30.04.2017
	ALN-00182	02.07.2018
<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>	ALS-00066	30.04.2017
	ALS-00084	21.04.2018
	ALN-00012	26.05.2017
	ALN-00076	24.04.2017
	ALN-00097	24.04.2017
	ALN-00133	19.04.2018
<i>Bombus pratorum</i>	ALS-00067	30.04.2017
	ALN-00096	24.04.2017
<i>Bombus rupestris</i>	ALN-00077	24.04.2017
<i>Bombus sylvarum</i>	ALS-00104	28.05.2018



Appendix S2: Diversity Work Bench accession numbers start with ALS or ALN; the remaining numbers are GenBank accessions of DNA barcodes. Physical vouchers were deposited in the Zoologische Staatssammlung Munich.

	ALN-00038	31.07.2017
<i>Bombus terrestris</i>	ALS-00157	02.07.2018
	ALN-00056	13.03.2017
	ALS-00012	16.06.2017
<i>Bombus vestalis</i>	ALN-00135	19.04.2018
<i>Coelioxys elongata</i>	ALS-00116	28.05.2018
<i>Coelioxys mandibularis</i>	ALS-00129	28.05.2018
<i>Colletes daviesanus</i>	ALS-00038	01.08.2017
<i>Colletes similis</i>	ALS-00141	26.07.2018
	ALN-00108	17.08.2017
	MG845962	
<i>Halictus rubicundus</i>	ALS-00032	01.08.2017
	ALS-00040	01.08.2017
	MK442006	
	MG792000	
<i>Halictus scabiosae</i>	ALS-00142	26.07.2018
	ALN-00042	31.07.2017
	ALN-00043	31.07.2017
	ALN-00145	21.05.2018
<i>Halictus simplex</i>	Not uploaded to GenBank due to low Sequence quality	
<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	MK442007	
	MG792005	
	MG792006	
	MG792007	
	ALS-00042	01.08.2017
	ALS-00043	01.08.2017
	ALS-00099	28.05.2018
	ALS-00132	26.07.2018
	ALN-00030	31.07.2017
	ALN-00111	17.08.2017
	ALN-00156	21.05.2018
	ALN-00161	21.05.2018
	ALN-00186	02.07.2018
<i>Halictus tumulorum</i>	MG792010	
<i>Hylaeus confusus</i>	ALN-00013	26.05.2017
<i>Hylaeus communis</i>	ALS-00165	02.07.2018
	ALN-00113	17.08.2017
	ALN-00173	21.05.2018
	ALN-00216	02.08.2018
<i>Hylaeus gredleri</i>	ALS-00133	26.07.2018
<i>Hylaeus nigrinus</i>	ALS-00002	16.06.2017
	ALS-00035	01.08.2017
	ALS-00114	28.05.2018
	ALS-00139	26.07.2018
	ALN-00174	21.05.2018
<i>Hylaeus signatus</i>	ALS-00123	28.05.2018
<i>Hylaeus sinuatus</i>	MK268704	
<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i>	MG791989	
	MG791988	

Appendix S2: Diversity Work Bench accession numbers start with ALS or ALN; the remaining numbers are GenBank accessions of DNA barcodes. Physical vouchers were deposited in the Zoologische Staatssammlung Munich.

	MG791987	
<i>Lasioglossum fulvicorne</i>	MG791994	
	MG791995	
	MG791996	
	MG791997	
<i>Lasioglossum laevigatum</i>	MG791998	
<i>Lasioglossum laticeps</i>	not uploaded to GenBank due to low Sequence quality	
<i>Lasioglossum morio</i>	MG791973	
	MG791974	
	MG791975	
	MG791976	
	MG791977	
	MG791978	
	MG791979	
<i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i>	MG791983	
<i>Lasioglossum politum</i>	not uploaded to GenBank due to low Sequence quality	
<i>Megachile leachella</i>	ALS-00119	28.05.2018
<i>Megachile maritima</i>	ALN-00139	21.05.2018
<i>Megachile versicolor</i>	ALS-00025	16.06.2017
<i>Megachile willughbiella</i>	ALS-00020	16.06.2017
	ALS-00128	28.05.2018
	ALN-00138	21.05.2018
	ALN-00147	21.05.2018
	ALN-00201	02.07.2018
<i>Melecta albifrons</i>	ALN-00130	19.04.2018
<i>Nomada flavoguttata</i>	ALN-00088	24.04.2017
	ALN-00016	26.05.2017
	MK268694	
	MG845944	
	MG845937	
	MG845938	
	MG845951	
	MG845939	
<i>Nomada fabriciana</i>	ALN-00105	24.04.2017
<i>Nomada flava</i>	ALS-00053	24.04.2017
	ALN-00025	26.05.2017
	ALN-00094	24.04.2017
<i>Nomada goodeniana</i>	ALS-00057	30.04.2017
	ALS-00063	30.04.2017
	ALN-00064	24.04.2017
	ALN-00123	19.04.2018
<i>Nomada lathburiana</i>	ALN-00119	19.04.2018
<i>Nomada marshamella</i>	ALN-00066	24.04.2017
	ALN-00141	21.05.2018
<i>Nomada panzeri</i>	ALS-00090	21.04.2018
<i>Nomada ruficornis</i>	ALN-00091	24.04.2017
<i>Nomada striata</i>	ALN-00070	24.04.2017
	ALN-00075	24.04.2017
<i>Osmia adunca</i>	ALS-00017	16.06.2017

Appendix S2: Diversity Work Bench accession numbers start with ALS or ALN; the remaining numbers are GenBank accessions of DNA barcodes. Physical vouchers were deposited in the Zoologische Staatssammlung Munich.

	ALS-00023	16.06.2017
	ALS-00101	28.05.2018
	ALN-00023	26.05.2017
	ALN-00191	02.07.2018
<i>Osmia aurulenta</i>	ALS-00091	21.04.2018
	ALS-00102	28.05.2018
	ALN-00014	26.05.2017
	ALN-00018	26.05.2017
	ALN-00142	21.05.2018
	ALN-00148	21.05.2018
	ALN-00159	21.05.2018
<i>Osmia bicolor</i>	ALS-00052	24.04.2017
	ALN-00131	19.04.2018
	ALN-00175	21.05.2018
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	ALS-00070	30.04.2017
	ALN-00067	24.04.2017
<i>Osmia caerulescens</i>	ALS-00092	21.04.2018
	ALN-00157	21.05.2018
<i>Osmia campanularum</i>	observation only	
<i>Osmia florisomnis</i>	MG845942	
<i>Osmia leucomelana</i>	ALS-00014	16.06.2017
	ALS-00016	16.06.2017
	Not uploaded to GenBank due to low Sequence quality	
<i>Osmia mitis</i>	ALN-00165	21.05.2018
<i>Osmia spinulosa</i>	ALS-00037	01.08.2017
	ALS-00127	28.05.2018
	ALS-00130	28.05.2018
	ALN-00166	21.05.2018
	ALN-00194	02.07.2018
<i>Osmia truncorum</i>	ALS-00049	01.08.2017
	ALS-00109	28.05.2018
	ALN-00112	17.08.2017
<i>Sphecodes albilabris</i>	MG845950	
<i>Sphecodes ephippius</i>	MK268696	
	MG845941	
<i>Sphecodes gibbus</i>	MK268700	
<i>Sphecodes hyalinatus</i>	MK268705	
<i>Sphecodes monilicornis</i>	MK268695	
	MK268706	
<i>Stelis punctulatissima</i>	ALS-00131	28.05.2018
<i>Stelis signata</i>	ALN-00045	31.07.2017
<b>Group-level determination</b>		
<i>Andrena ovatula</i> group	ALN-00169	21.05.2018
<i>Andrena ovatula</i> group	ALS-00169	02.07.2018
<i>Andrena ovatula</i> group	ALN-00144	21.05.2018
<i>Andrena ovatula</i> group	ALN-00168	21.05.2018
<i>Andrena ovatula</i> group	ALN-00150	21.05.2018
<i>Andrena minutula/subopaca</i> group	ALN-00015	26.05.2017

Appendix S2: Diversity Work Bench accession numbers start with ALS or ALN; the remaining numbers are GenBank accessions of DNA barcodes. Physical vouchers were deposited in the Zoologische Staatssammlung Munich.

	ALN-00099	24.04.2017
	ALN-00101	24.04.2017
	ALN-00167	21.05.2018
	ALS-00088	21.04.2018
	ALN-00193	02.07.2018
<i>Halictus tumulorum</i> group	ALS-00034	01.08.2017
	ALN-00007	26.05.2017
	ALN-00164	21.05.2018
<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i> group	ALS-00136	26.07.2018
	ALS-00013	16.06.2017
	ALS-00076	30.04.2017
	ALN-00122	19.04.2018
	ALN-00009	26.05.2017
	ALN-00026	31.07.2017
	ALN-00031	31.07.2017
<i>Lasioglossum leucozonium</i> group	ALN-00149	21.05.2018
	ALS-00126	28.05.2018
<i>Lasioglossum morio</i> group	ALN-00034	31.07.2017
	ALS-00036	01.08.2017

**Table S1:** Coefficient estimates and beta estimate +95% confidence intervals for the effects of the predictor variables in the flight duration (in months) and flight season models (early, late, medium), with presence at T0 (1990s), habitat breadth (narrow: one or habitats vs. broad: three to six), and median flight duration being the reference variables. Confidence intervals were calculated using the “Confinf”-function of the package “car” (Fox and Weisberg, 2019). Intervals not overlapping 0 are printed **bold**.

Predictor variable	Flight duration	Flight season
<b>All sites</b>		
Absence at T0	<b>2.10 (1.56; 2.65)</b>	<b>2.16 (1.62; 2.72)</b>
Narrow habitat preference	<b>- 0.71 (- 0.12; - 1.31)</b>	<b>- 0.78 (- 1.38; - 0.18)</b>
Flight duration	0.14 (- 0.02; 0.30)	---
Early flight season	---	0.34 (- 0.82; 1.46)
Late flight season	---	- 0.29 (- 0.98; 0.38)
<b>Allach</b>		
Absence at T0	<b>2.13 (1.50; 2.83)</b>	<b>2.24 (1.60; 2.95)</b>
Narrow habitat preference	<b>- 1.06 (- 1.88; - 0.31)</b>	<b>- 1.04 (- 1.88; - 0.28)</b>
Flight duration	0.15 (- 0.13; 0.32)	---
Early flight season	---	- 1.17 (- 3.11; 0.29)
Late flight season	---	- 0.44 (- 1.25; - 0.32)
<b>Virginia Depot</b>		
Absence at T0	<b>2.18 (1.39; 3.00)</b>	<b>2.3 (1.55; 3.12)</b>
Narrow habitat preference	- 0.011 (- 0.89; 0.84)	- 0.20 (- 1.10; 0.66)
Flight duration	0.095 (- 0.10; 0.30)	---
Early flight season	---	0.015 (- 1.95; 1.48)
Late flight season	---	0.66 (- 0.22; 1.50)
<b>Botanical Garden</b>		
Absence at T0	<b>2.68 (2.04; 3.38)</b>	<b>2.76 (2.11; 3.45)</b>
Narrow habitat preference	<b>- 0.97 (- 1.65; - 0.32)</b>	<b>- 1.00 (- 1.67; - 0.35)</b>
Flight duration	- 0.012 (- 0.18; 0.16)	---
Early flight season	---	1.08 (-0.05; 2.14)
Late flight season	---	- 0.060 (- 0.84; 0.69)

Fox J, Weisberg S (2019). An R companion to applied regression, Third edition. Sage, Thousand Oaks CA. <https://socialsciences.mcmaster.ca/jfox/Books/Companion/>.

**Table S2:** Accuracy of predictions of the presence and absence of species (n = 319) at the investigated sites at T1 (2017/2018) using the predictors presence/absence at T0 (1990s), habitat breadth, flight duration, and flight season, and pairwise interaction terms among them. Model accuracy was calculated as (true positives + true negatives) / total pool.

Models	Classification rate	Incorrect prediction “present” (type I error)	Incorrect prediction “absent” (type II error)
<b>All sites</b>			
Flight duration	245 (77 %)	43 (13 %)	31 (10 %)
Flight season	242 (76 %)	39 (12 %)	38 (12 %)
<b>Allach</b>			
Flight duration	224 (70 %)	12 (4 %)	83 (26 %)
Flight season	229 (72 %)	21 (7 %)	69 (22 %)
<b>Virginia Depot</b>			
Flight duration	193 (61 %)	0 (0%)	126 (39 %)
Flight season	188 (59 %)	1 (0.3 %)	130 (41 %)
<b>Botanical Garden</b>			
Flight duration	243 (76 %)	9 (3 %)	67 (21 %)
Flight season	243 (76 %)	9 (3 %)	67 (21 %)

## Chapter 5

# **Empirical foraging distances in six species of solitary bees with body lengths of 6 to 15 mm, using individual tagging**

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and Renner, S. S.

submitted at *Ecosphere*  
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**Empirical foraging distances in six species of solitary bees with body lengths of 6 to 15 mm, using individual tagging**

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Abstract:	<p>Bees require suitably close foraging and nesting sites to minimize travel time and energy expenditure for brood provisioning. Knowing foraging distances in persistent ('healthy') populations is therefore crucial for assessing harmful levels of habitat fragmentation. For small bees, such distances are poorly known because of the difficulty of individual tagging and problems with mark-recapture approaches. Using apiarist's tags and color codes, we individually marked 2689 males and females of four oligolectic and two polylectic species of Osmiini (Megachilidae, genera <i>Chelostoma</i>, <i>Heriades</i>, <i>Hoplitis</i>, <i>Osmia</i>) with body lengths of 6 to 15 mm and long-term stable populations at our study site and then monitored their foraging distances in a 21 ha-large urban garden, where we relied on students and citizen scientists to detect marked bees. Based on 1045 re-sightings, including some by citizen scientists, mean female flight distances ranged from 73 to 121 m and male distances from 59 to 100 m, with maximal distances up to seven times larger. There was a strong correlation between body size and flight distance. The foraging distances observed here by individually tagging small solitary bees suggest that as a rule of thumb, flower strips for supporting such bees should be no further than 150 m apart. Our study also shows that apiarist's tags applied to wild bees work well in citizen scientists projects and help provide much-needed data on insect traveling distances.</p>

1 **Empirical foraging distances in six species of solitary bees with body lengths of 6**  
2 **to 15 mm, using individual tagging**

3

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11

12 **Author declaration:** MMH, AF, and SSR designed the experiment, and MH and AF  
13 performed the fieldwork. MMH and SSR analyzed the data; MMH and SSR co-wrote  
14 the manuscript, and all authors checked the final version.

15

16 **Abstract** Bees require suitably close foraging and nesting sites to minimize travel  
17 time and energy expenditure for brood provisioning. Knowing foraging distances in  
18 persistent (‘healthy’) populations is therefore crucial for assessing harmful levels of  
19 habitat fragmentation. For small bees, such distances are poorly known because of the  
20 difficulty of individual tagging and problems with mark-recapture approaches. Using  
21 apiarist’s tags and color codes, we individually marked 2689 males and females of  
22 four oligolectic and two polylectic species of Osmiini (Megachilidae, genera  
23 *Chelostoma*, *Heriades*, *Hoplitis*, *Osmia*) with body lengths of 6 to 15 mm and long-  
24 term stable populations at our study site and then monitored their foraging distances  
25 in a 21 ha-large urban garden, where we relied on students and citizen scientists to  
26 detect marked bees. Based on 1045 re-sightings, including some by citizen scientists,  
27 mean female flight distances ranged from 73 to 121 m and male distances from 59 to  
28 100 m, with maximal distances up to seven times larger. There was a strong  
29 correlation between body size and flight distance. The foraging distances observed  
30 here by individually tagging small solitary bees suggest that as a rule of thumb, flower  
31 strips for supporting such bees should be no further than 150 m apart. Our study also  
32 shows that apiarist’s tags applied to wild bees work well in citizen scientists projects  
33 and help provide much-needed data on insect traveling distances.

34

35 **Key-words:** Foraging distances; individual tagging; Anthophila; body size; urban  
36 garden; solitary bees; Megachilidae

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**Introduction**

40 Wild bees are pollinators of high conservation concern. One reason is the relatively  
41 small spatial and temporal scale of their life cycles, habitat ranges, and nesting  
42 behaviors (Westrich 1996, Gathmann and Tscharntke 2002, Greenleaf et al. 2007,  
43 Franzén et al. 2009, Zurbuchen et al. 2010a, Wood et al. 2016), traits that make them  
44 vulnerable to landscape fragmentation. Bees are central-place foragers, with females  
45 shuttling between foraging sites and nests to provide brood cells with pollen and  
46 nectar, and the distance between these resources largely determines bees'  
47 reproductive success (Zurbuchen et al. 2010b). The further nest and food sources are  
48 apart, the higher bees' energetic and reproductive costs (Williams and Tepedino 2003,  
49 Zurbuchen et al. 2010b). Thus, in the European solitary species *Hoplitis adumca* and  
50 *Chelostoma rapunculi* (Megachilidae), the number of brood cells provisioned per time  
51 decreased by a third to almost half (31% or 46%) when foraging flight distances were  
52 experimentally increased by 200 or 500 m (Zurbuchen et al. 2010b). In the solitary  
53 *Megachile rotundata*, 74% fewer offspring were produced when flight distances  
54 increased by 150 m (Peterson and Roithberg 2006). Increased flight requirements  
55 reduce adult lifespan (Schmid-Hempel and Wolf 1988), and absences from the nest  
56 increase brood cell parasitism, as most parasites enter the nest while the nest owner is  
57 away (Seidelmann 2006). Proximity of nesting and foraging sites is therefore crucial  
58 for the reproductive success of bees, and to predict the effects of habitat  
59 enhancements for conservation purposes (Nicholson et al. 2019), we need data on  
60 suitable distances that would help a maximum number of wild bees.

61 Bee foraging distances have been investigated with a range of methods,  
62 including microsatellite DNA markers to determine to which colony a bumblebee  
63 worker belongs (Chapman et al. 2003, Knight et al. 2005), pollen analysis to check  
64 the content of pollen loads or brood cells for plants occurring at known distances  
65 (Williams and Tepedino 2003, Beil et al. 2008), and radio tracking for species large  
66 enough for carrying a transmitter (Carreck et al. 1999). The two most widely used  
67 methods are translocation experiments (e.g., Gathmann and Tscharntke 2002) and  
68 mark-recapture studies (e.g., Osborne et al. 2008, Wolf and Moritz 2008, Franzén et  
69 al. 2009, Zurbuchen et al. 2010a). In translocation experiments, bees are removed  
70 from their nest and released at increasing distances until no more returnees are  
71 recorded at the nesting sites. Such experiments assume that bees will only be able to

72 find the way back to their nests as long as they know the foraging area. Mark-  
73 recapture studies involve marking, releasing, and recapturing bees.

74 All these approaches aim to find maximal foraging distances, which are key to  
75 inferring body size/distance relationships. A linear regression model that included  
76 body length and maximum foraging distance in 17 European solitary bees showed  
77 that distance roughly triples as body length doubles (Gathmann and Tschamntke 2002),  
78 with the smallest species studied being *Chelostoma florissomne*, the largest the  
79 European carpenter bee *Xylocopa violacea*. A non-linear regression analysis of the  
80 maximum foraging distances of 62 species worldwide instead regressed intertegular  
81 distance on distance and found that larger bees had disproportionately larger foraging  
82 distances than smaller bees (Greenleaf et al. 2007).

83 Maximum foraging distances can be treated as a species-level trait, i.e., the  
84 result of the averaged physiological and mechanical capacities of a species. In the  
85 present study, we instead focus on mean foraging distances in stable populations,  
86 using a mark-release-resighting approach on large numbers of individuals. Such data  
87 are needed to help conservation measures, such as the planting of flower strips or  
88 islands. Of 436 Central European species, 92% are between 4.5 and 13.5 mm long  
89 (Hofmann et al. 2019). We therefore selected six small species to test how their  
90 *average* foraging distances in a flower-rich setting would compare to the maximum  
91 foraging distances of 150–600 m for 5.5 to 12 mm-long bees predicted from the above  
92 regression analysis (Gathmann and Tschamntke 2002). The population sizes of the six  
93 species at our study site have either not changed since 1997–1999 or, in the case of  
94 two thermophilic species (*Hoplitis adunca*, *Osmia cornuta*), increased (Hofmann et  
95 al. 2018: Table S1). Stable or increasing populations over 20 years suggest that  
96 foraging distances required at the study site are optimal, allowing a test of the  
97 suggested 150–600 m rule.

98

## 99 **Materials and methods**

### 100 **STUDY SITE AND SPECIES**

101 The study took place in the Munich Botanic Garden during the 2017 and 2018 bee  
102 foraging seasons (March and August). The garden opened in May 1914, covers about  
103 21 ha, and borders on the 210-ha-large Nymphenburg Palace Park at 48° 09' 45" N,  
104 11° 30' 06" E and 500 m above sea level. It is home to 106 bee species whose  
105 abundances have been recorded in 1997–1999 and again in 2016/2017 by repeated

106 monitoring walks (Hofmann et al. 2018). Several cavity nest boxes for Megachilidae  
107 are located in the garden, with the larger ones harboring well-established populations.  
108 The botanical garden provides a flower-rich habitat with both flower beds and near-  
109 natural meadows blooming throughout the year.

110 We investigated six above-ground nesting species of Osmiini (Megachilidae)  
111 with different flight times (Table 1), namely *Chelostoma florissomme*, *C. rapunculi*,  
112 *Heriades truncorum*, *Hoplitis adunca*, *Osmia cornuta*, and *O. bicornis*. All  
113 Megachilidae are solitary bees, and the species we investigated are widespread in  
114 Europe, Northern Africa and Asia (Scheuchl and Willner 2016). While the two *Osmia*  
115 species are polylectic (meaning they forage on a taxonomic variety of plants; Cane  
116 and Sipes 2006), the others are oligolectic (they collect pollen at only a few plant  
117 families), with *Chelostoma florissomme* specialized on *Ranunculus* (Ranunculaceae),  
118 *C. rapunculi* on Campanulaceae, *Heriades truncorum* on Asteraceae, and *Hoplitis*  
119 *adunca* on *Echium* (Boraginaceae). *Heriades adunca* was tagged in 2017, *Chelostoma*  
120 *florissomme*, *C. rapunculi*, *Heriades truncorum*, and *Osmia bicornis* in 2018, and *O.*  
121 *cornuta* in both 2017 and 2018.

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#### BEE MARKING AND TRACKING

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124 Bees were captured with an insect net at the cavity nest boxes (shown on the garden  
125 map in Fig. S1), and the larger species *Osmia cornuta*, *O. bicornis*, and *Hoplitis*  
126 *adunca* were marked using apiarist's tags (Fig. 1). Female bees were mechanically  
127 immobilized in a queen marking tube (Fig. S2); male bees were held between the  
128 experimenter's fingers such that legs and antennae were hidden from the glue and the  
129 mesonotum was freely accessible (Fig. S3). A small amount of nontoxic shellac glue  
130 (Liebert 1986) was placed on the bee's thorax with a fine metal stylus and the  
131 colored, consecutively-numbered and slightly concave circular apiarist plastic plates  
132 (Opalith Classic from Holtermann, Brockel, Germany) were then attached. Each plate  
133 had an average weight of 1.3 mg and a diameter of 2.5 mm. For each species, several  
134 colors were used (allowing identification of sex and marking location). As the flight  
135 times of the species only partly overlap (Table 1), the same colors were used for *O.*  
136 *cornuta* and *H. adunca*, but different colors were used for the two *Osmia* species.  
137 Each individual was identifiable by its number/color combination.

138 The smaller species *Chelostoma florissomme*, *C. rapunculi* and *Heriades*  
139 *truncorum* with an intertegular distance < 2.5 mm were marked with paint, as

140 apiarists' tags were too big for them (Fig. 1). They were cold anesthetized and then  
141 marked with two dots of paint. One dot coded for the cavity nest box, one for species  
142 and sex. Bees of the same species and sex marked at the same nesting site were  
143 therefore indistinguishable in the field. Bees were released directly after being  
144 marked, which took two to three minutes per individual.

145 We searched the garden for bees during two to three hours per day when the  
146 weather was warm and dry, and used photography (usually by smartphone) for  
147 documenting labeled bees during floral visits. For the oligolectic species, surveys  
148 targeted the relevant food plants. For the polylectic species, the entire garden was  
149 searched, and we used a citizen science approach involving garden visitors to increase  
150 sighting probability. During the outdoor season (April to October), the Munich  
151 Botanical Garden has about 2000 visitors/day. We used paper hand-outs, posters near  
152 the Garden's two public entrances, and the Garden's webpage to inform visitors about  
153 our project, and visitors were then given three options for informing us about bee  
154 sightings, paper forms available at the entrance, a dedicated email account  
155 (wildbienen@bio.lmu.de), and oral reports. Visitors only needed to report the color of  
156 the tag, its number and where the bee was seen; no special knowledge of bee species  
157 or the individual bee's sex was necessary for a 'successful' sighting. For the  
158 smartphone pictures, GPS tracking was usually available, for oral reports we were  
159 able to ask the visitors to show us the location directly if it was unclear, and for the  
160 reports via form we only used unambiguous location records, where the position of  
161 the bee was marked in the garden plan included on the sighting form.

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#### STATISTICAL ANALYSES

164 Since the nest locations for all individuals included in the analysis were known, we  
165 were able to measure the beeline from the respective cavity next box to the most  
166 distant site where the respective bee was sighted on a flower using the measuring tool  
167 of Google Earth. One sighting of a tagged *Osmia cornuta* female from outside the  
168 garden was an outlier, and we therefore ran analyses with and without this record.  
169 Since we could not number-tag the individuals of smallest species (*Chelostoma*  
170 *florisomme*, *C. rapunculi* and *Heriades truncorum*), we cannot exclude the repeated  
171 observation of single individuals of these species. We applied a generalized mixed  
172 effect model, using the 'glmer' function in the Package 'lme4' (Bates et al. 2015), and  
173 compared its results with a normal linear regression model ('lm'). All statistical

174 calculations were made in R 3.4.3 (R Core Team 2017). The code we used is  
175 appended to Table S1.

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## Results

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### RECOVERY RATES OF TAGGED BEES; COMPARISON OF 2017 AND 2018

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Male and female body lengths, flight periods, and foraging preferences of the six investigated species are shown in Table 1. We individually marked a total of 2689 bees, including 1808 females and 881 males, of which 1045 were re-sighted, some many times (Table 2; Table S1 shows all flight distance records). The small *Chelostoma* species were the most difficult to re-observe, with only 5.4% of *C. florisomme* females, 4% *C. rapunculi* females, and 4.8% *C. rapunculi* males sighted at flowers after marking. By contrast, we sighted 22% of the tagged *Heriades truncorum* females on flowers (Fig. 1), 56% of tagged *Hoplitis adunca* females (but only 6.5% of the males) at their *Echium* food plants, and 86.8% of the *Osmia bicornis* females and 55.2% of the males at the cavity nest boxes. In all species, recovery rates for males were lower than for females.

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Observation rates for *Osmia cornuta*, the only species investigated in both years, at nest boxes for females were 80% in 2017 and 87.2% in 2018 and for males 67.1% in 2017 and 67.3% in 2018, and at flowers for females, 23.5% in 2017 and 9.7% in 2018 and for males 14.4% in 2017 and 10.6% in 2018. For *Osmia bicornis*, 24 of 37 tagged females were observed not only on flowers but also at a sand pile at 138 m distance from the nest boxes, where they collected earth for closing their nests. The nectar-foraging distances of *O. bicornis* males, which did not collect sand, were similar to those of the females (Table 2).

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For the two *Osmia* species, we also had data from the citizen science approach. In 2017, 77 records of *O. cornuta* resulted from the citizen science approach (7 on a questionnaire, 14 sent in via emails, and 56 via personal communication), and 72 of these could be used for the distance analysis. In 2018, there were 76 records for this species by citizen scientist (35 on a questionnaire, 2 sent in emails, and 39 via personal communication), of which 70 were usable. For *O. bicornis*, 49 records were made by the garden visitors (22 on the questionnaire, 2 via email, and 25 via personal communication).

207

### FLIGHT DISTANCES AND BODY SIZE

208 Mean female flight distances were between 73 and 121 m (Fig. 2A; standard  
209 deviations and sample sizes in Table 2), and mean male flight distances between 59  
210 and 100 m (Table 2), but sample sizes for males were low (e.g.,  $n = 5$  for *Chelostoma*  
211 *rapunculi*). The maximum female flight distances found were 174 m for *Chelostoma*  
212 *florisomme* and 724 m for an *Osmia cornuta* reported from outside the Botanical  
213 Garden by a citizen scientist (Table 2). We found a positive correlation between flight  
214 distance and body length with both a generalized mixed-effects model (AIC =  
215 2326.24) and the linear regression model ( $p < 2e-16$ , AIC = 2325.13, Fig. 2B), using  
216 square-root transformed flight distance values (and with or without the *O. cornuta*  
217 724 outlier). Square-root-transformed flight distances were normally distribution (Fig.  
218 S4A), but body size was not (Fig. S4B).

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### Discussion

221 To our knowledge, this is the largest tagging study of flight distances in solitary small  
222 bees in a natural setting with stable populations. Studies of foraging distances in  
223 solitary bees have generally been motivated by interest in crop pollination, while our  
224 study focused on gathering data on foraging distances in a setting on hundreds of non-  
225 crop flowering plants. The successful tracking of individually marked bees achieved  
226 in this study -- ‘tracking’ because marked bees were not recaptured, only re-observed  
227 -- was achieved through numerous search hours put in by students and citizen  
228 scientists. In this way, we obtained foraging distances for 1808 females and 881 males  
229 from six bee species of body lengths between 6 and 15 mm in a flower-rich  
230 environment and discovered that these bees foraged at average distances from the nest  
231 between 75 and 125 m. Maximum distances were up to seven times larger than mean  
232 flight distances (Table 2), similar to findings in other studies (Gathmann and  
233 Tscharrntke 2002, Zurbuchen et al. 2010a,b). Even in the relatively large semi-social  
234 *Bombus terrestris*, 40% of the workers forage within a radius of 100 m around their  
235 nests (Wolf and Moritz 2008).

236 Bee foraging is highly context-dependent (e.g., Osborne et al. 2008, Pope and  
237 Jha 2018). For example, most of the tagged females of *Osmia bicornis* collected sand  
238 from a pile 138 m from their nesting site, and most tagged females of *Hoplitis*  
239 *adunca*, a species oligolectic on *Echium* pollen, were observed on exactly these plants  
240 in the garden. However, male flight distances in these species were similar even  
241 though males do not collect sand or pollen.



242

## IMPLICATIONS

243 Our results support the correlation between body size and flight distance found in two  
244 previous studies (Gathmann and Tschardtke 2002: 16 Central European species;  
245 Greenleaf et al. 2007: 62 species worldwide), despite the many different methods  
246 used to infer flight distances, such as translocation experiments, genetic marker  
247 studies, and mark-recapture experiments. The body size/flight distance correlation  
248 implies that females of Central European bees, most of which are between 4.5 and  
249 13.5 mm long (Hofmann et al. 2019), usually do not forage further than 125 to 150  
250 meters from the nest (Gathmann and Tschardtke 2002: 150 to 600 m; our Table 2: 125  
251 m). Despite the six or seven times larger flight distances that small bees can achieve  
252 (Gathmann and Tschardtke 2002, Zurbuchen et al. 2010a,b, this study), long flights  
253 between nests and floral resources have fitness costs in terms of lower offspring  
254 number and increased brood parasitism (Peterson and Roithberg 2006, Seidelmann  
255 2006, Zurbuchen et al. 2010b). The persistence of populations therefore requires  
256 flower patches and nesting sites at suitable distances, for which we propose a rule-of-  
257 thumb of 150 m. This rule of thumb could be used by conservation practitioners  
258 planning urban greening measures. Implementing such simple habitat enhancements  
259 as flower strips with the appropriate spatial distribution, can greatly increase the  
260 connectivity of foraging sites and help bee conservation (Hofmann and Renner, in  
261 review).

262

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267 manuscript.  
268

269

**Conflict statement**

270 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

271

**Data Accessibility Statement**

272 All data analysed in this study are shown in Table S1, namely the flight distances for  
273 males and females of the six species studied, with year of observation given for  
274 *Osmia cornuta* studied in 2017 and 2018.  
275

276

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357 **Tables and Figures**

358

359 Table 1. The six studied species (tribe Osmiini, family Megachilidae), their male and  
 360 female body sizes, flight periods, and foraging preferences (Amiet et al. 2004). The  
 361 population abundance categories of these species in the 21 ha-large Munich Botanical  
 362 Garden have either not changed since 1997-1999 or, in the case of *H. adunca* and *O.*  
 363 *cornuta*, increased (Hofmann et al. 2018: Table S1).

<b>Species</b>	<b>Body size [mm]</b>	<b>Flight period</b>	<b>Foraging preference</b>
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	♂: 7 - 9 mm ♀: 7 - 8 mm	April - June	Oligolectic on Ranunculaceae
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	♂: 8 - 10 mm ♀: 8 - 10 mm	May - September	Oligolectic on <i>Campanula</i>
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	♂: 5 - 7 mm ♀: 6 - 7 mm	May - October	Oligolectic on Asteraceae
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	♂: 11 - 13 mm ♀: 11 - 13 mm	April - September	Oligolectic on <i>Echium</i>
<i>Osmia cornuta</i>	♂: 11 - 13 mm ♀: 12 - 15 mm	February - June	Polylectic
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	♂: 8 - 12 mm ♀: 8 - 12 mm	March- July	Polylectic

364

365 Table 2. Mean and maximum foraging flight distances of individually tagged solitary bees in the Munich Botanical Garden in 2017 and 2018.  
 366 N/A, not applicable, refers to small sample sizes. The 1045 re-sightings below include sightings of the same individual on different foraging  
 367 flights; Table S1 shows maximum distances. The asterisk marks a single individual found by a citizen scientist outside the garden; we calculated  
 368 regressions with and without this outlier.  
 369

Species	Number of marked individuals	Number of sightings at nesting site	Number of sightings at flowers	Mean flight distances	Standard deviation	Maximum flight distance
<i>Chelostoma florissomme</i>	♀: 221		♀: 12	82 m	58.7	174 m
	♂: 0 total: 221	N/A		N/A	N/A	N/A
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	♀: 248		♀: 10	104 m	45.2	178 m
	♂: 103 total: 351	N/A	♂: 5	59 m	34.5	119 m
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	♀: 534		♀: 118	73 m	62.6	298 m
	♂: 0 total: 534	N/A		N/A	N/A	N/A
<i>Hoplitis adumca</i>	♀: 277		♀: 127	112 m	77.3	287 m
	♂: 92 total: 369	♀: 100		N/A	N/A	N/A
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	♀: 136		♀: 42	121 m	44.6	250 m
	♂: 38 total: 174	♀: 118 ♂: 21	♂: 6	100 m	40.3	151 m
<i>Osmia corruta</i>	2017: ♀: 170		♀: 40	106 m	107.5	724* m
	♂: 201 total: 371	♀: 136 ♂: 135	♂: 29	96 m	39.0	225 m
	2018: ♀: 320		♀: 31	107 m	67.9	226 m
	♂: 349 total: 669	♀: 279 ♂: 235	♂: 37	77 m	52.5	215 m

371 **Figure legends**

372

373 **Figure 1.** Marked individuals of (A) *Chelostoma florissomme*, (B) *C. rapunculi*, (C)  
374 *Heriades truncorum*, (D) *Hoplitis adunca*, (E) *Osmia bicornis*, and (F) *Osmia cornuta*  
375

376 **Figure 2.** (A) Mean flight distance and standard deviation for each species and body  
377 size. (B) Linear regression of flight distance on square-root transformed body sizes of  
378 (from left to right) *Heriades truncorum*, *Chelostoma florissomme*, *C. rapunculi*, *Osmia*  
379 *bicornis*, *Hoplitis adunca*, and *Osmia cornuta*.

380

381

382 **Online enhancements:**

383

384 **Table S1.** Flight distances for males and females of the six species, with year of  
385 observation given for *Osmia cornuta* studied in 2017 and 2018. Body sizes from  
386 Amiet et al. (2004) and Scheuchl and Willner (2016). The code used for analyzing the  
387 data in R is appended below the table.

388

389 **Figure S1.** Garden plan with the nesting sites of the tagged species (modified from  
390 [http://www.botmuc.de/en/garden/garden\\_map.html](http://www.botmuc.de/en/garden/garden_map.html))

391

392 **Figure S2.** Marking of an *Osmia cornuta* female (photos: J. Kirndorfer). (a-b) A  
393 female caught with an insect net is transferred to the queen-marking tube and (c-d)  
394 pushed with the plunger to immobilize it. (e-f) A stylus is used to put glue on the  
395 mesonotum. (g-h) The numbered color plate is attached and (i) the bee released.

396

397 **Figure S3.** Marking of an *Osmia cornuta* male (photos: J. Kirndorfer). (a)  
398 Application of the glue and (b, c) attaching of the apiarists' tag. (d) A labeled male  
399 ready to take off.

400

401 **Figure S4.** (A) Histogram of square-root transformed flight distances. (B) Histogram  
402 of body sizes (not normally distributed).

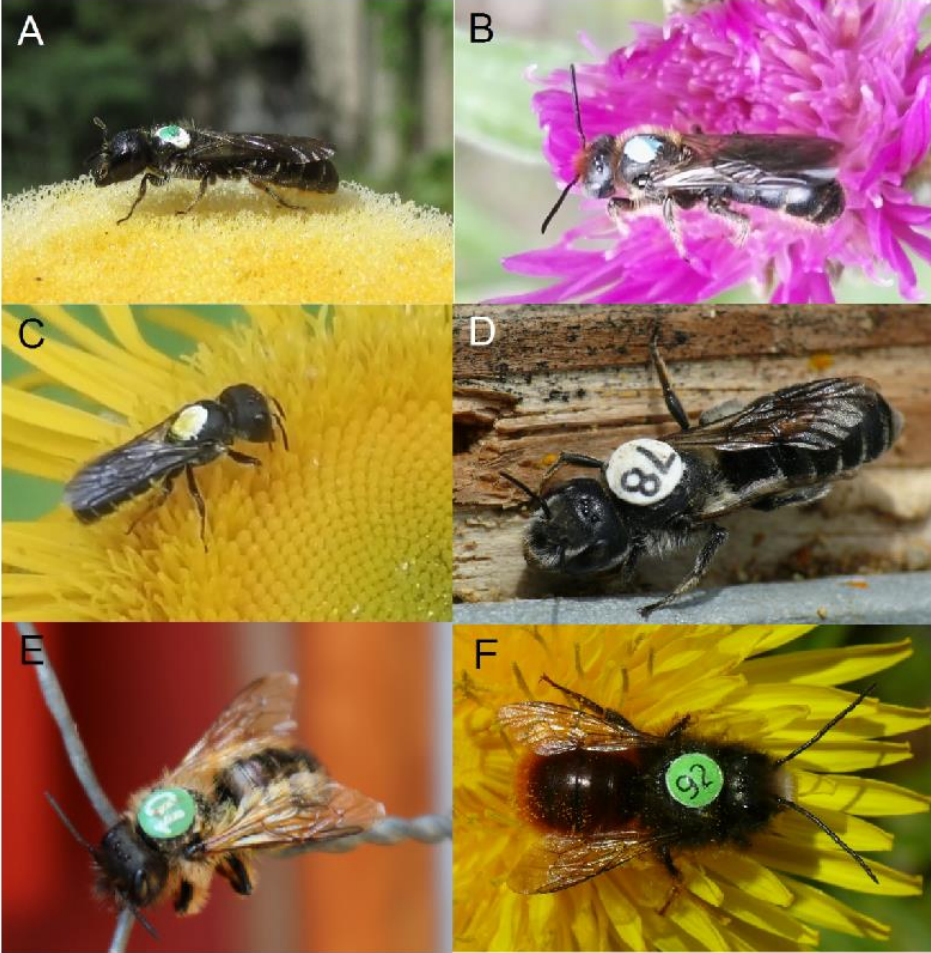


Figure 1

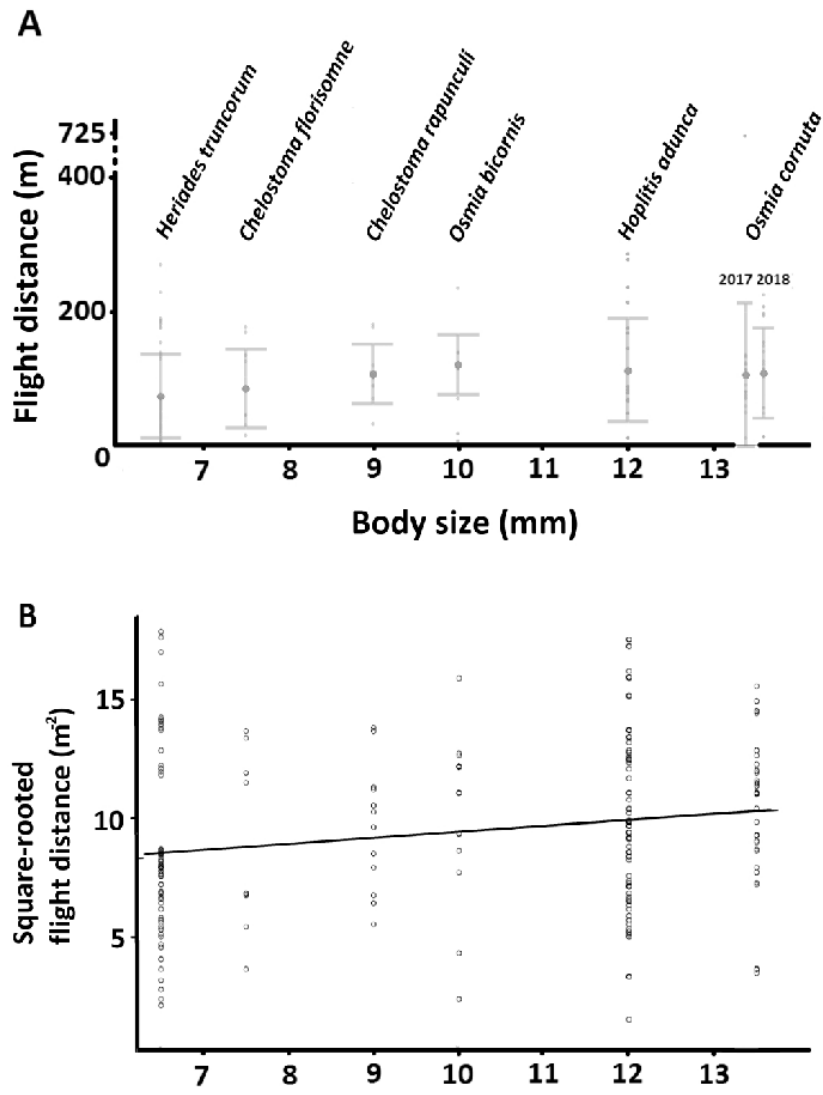


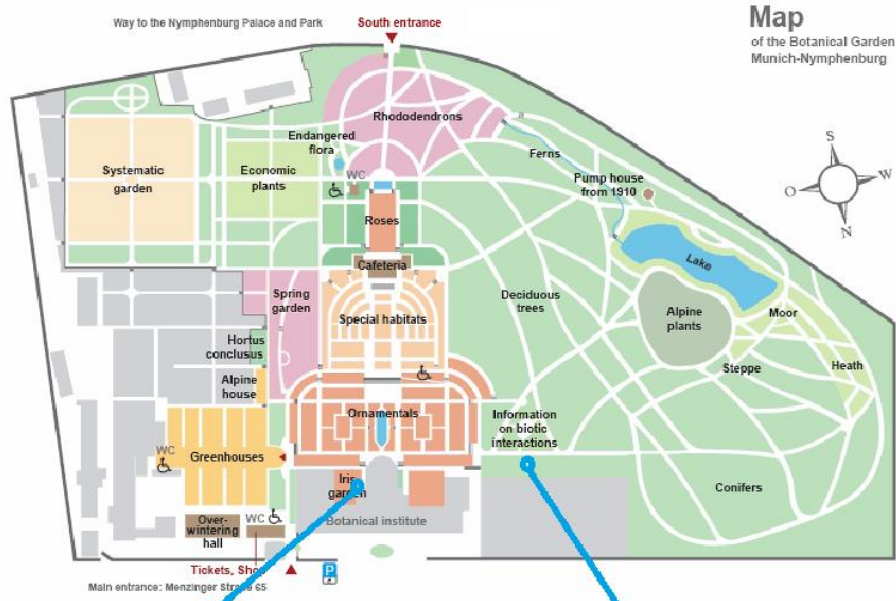
Figure 2

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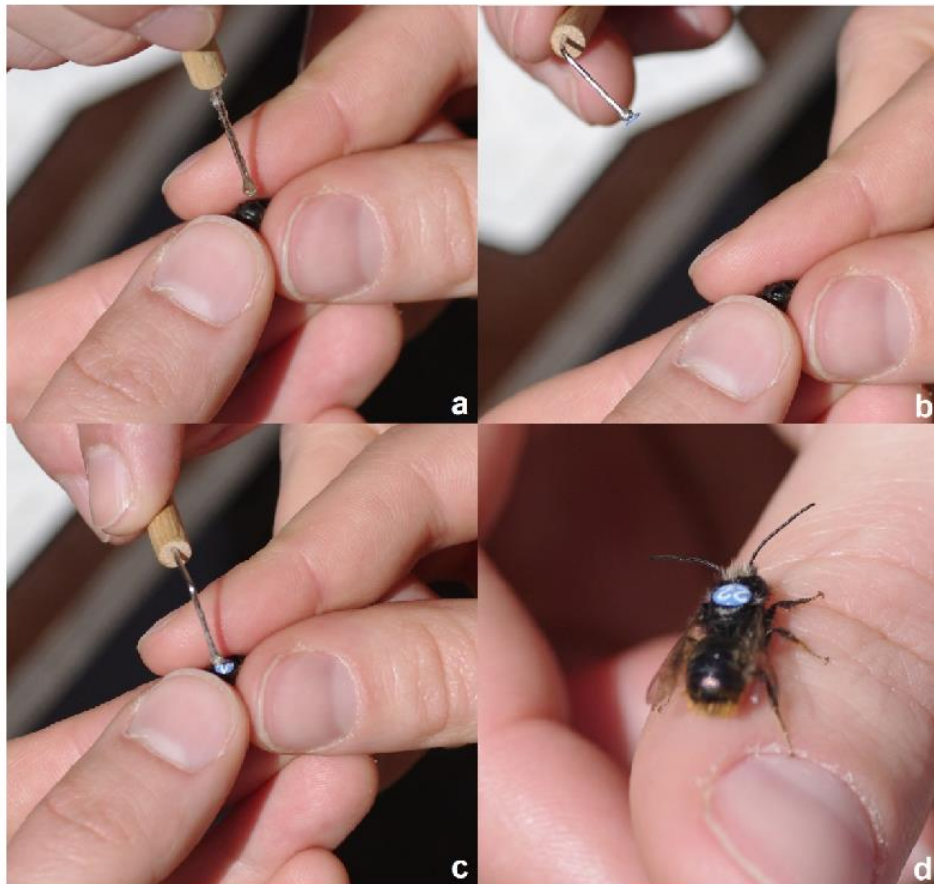


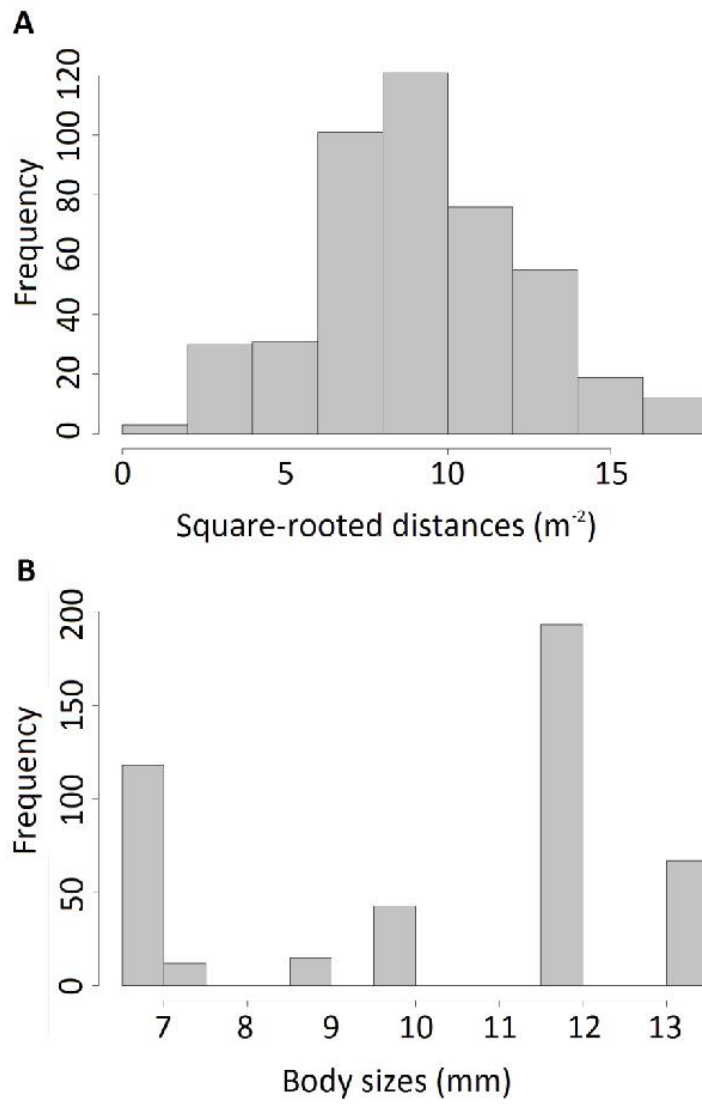
Supplementary material from  
**Empirical foraging distances in six  
species of solitary bees with body  
lengths of 6 to 15 mm,  
using individual tagging**











**Table S1:** Flight distances for males and females of the six species, with year of observation given for *Osmia cornuta* studied in 2017 and 2018. Body sizes from Amiet et al. (2004) and Scheuchl and Willner (2016). The code for analyzing these data in R is appended below the table.

<b>Species</b>	<b>Sex</b>	<b>Flight distance*</b>	<b>Size range</b>	<b>Size mean</b>
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	12	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	27	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	42	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	43	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	174	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	43	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	43	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	43	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	123	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	132	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	132	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	W	167	7.0-8.0	7.5
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	M	42	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	M	58	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	M	38	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	M	38	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	M	119	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	W	86	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	W	86	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	W	117	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	W	174	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	W	178	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	W	28	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	W	67	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	W	98	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	W	103	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	W	103	8.0-10.0	9
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	4	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	4	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	5	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	7	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	7	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	9	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	9	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	19	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	12	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	15	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	15	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	19	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	19	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	20	6.0-7.0	6.5

<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	23	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	24	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	26	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	26	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	27	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	29	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	30	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	30	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	30	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	31	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	35	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	35	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	38	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	40	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	40	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	41	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	41	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	44	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	44	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	44	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	59	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	59	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	48	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	59	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	59	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	59	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	48	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	48	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	48	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	48	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	53	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	53	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	53	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	53	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	54	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	54	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	56	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	56	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	56	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	56	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	56	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	59	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	59	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	43	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	43	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	43	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	58	6.0-7.0	6.5



<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	58	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	58	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	58	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	58	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	58	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	58	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	58	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	58	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	58	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	60	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	60	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	62	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	62	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	62	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	63	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	63	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	66	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	66	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	66	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	66	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	66	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	66	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	70	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	70	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	70	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	68	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	68	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	68	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	66	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	67	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	67	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	67	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	67	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	67	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	69	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	69	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	69	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	130	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	133	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	139	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	136	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	136	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	154	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	175	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	177	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	187	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	187	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	187	6.0-7.0	6.5

<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	185	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	189	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	181	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	182	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	187	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	229	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	270	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	290	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	298	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	W	298	6.0-7.0	6.5
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	10	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	47	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	78	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	78	11.0-13.0	12



<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	87	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	87	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	87	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	87	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	87	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	87	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	87	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	87	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	175	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	168	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	168	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	168	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	168	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	168	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	168	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	168	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	214	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	214	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	214	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	237	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	237	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	237	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	237	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	237	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	237	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	237	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	237	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	W	237	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	M	55.1	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	M	148.5	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	M	151.3	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	M	81	8.0-12.0	10

<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	M	81	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	M	81	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	114.1	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	5	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	114.1	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	113.6	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	16.5	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	16.5	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	114.1	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	5	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	114.1	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	114.1	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	114.1	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	68.5	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	236	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	W	138.4	8.0-12.0	10
<i>Osmia cornuta 2017</i>	M	142	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta 2017</i>	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta 2017</i>	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta 2017</i>	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta 2017</i>	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta 2017</i>	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta 2017</i>	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta 2017</i>	M	152	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta 2017</i>	M	90	11.0-13.0	12

<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	49	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	100	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	97	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	148	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	245	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	24	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	90	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	M	30	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	69	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	132	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	724	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	49	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	58	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	11	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	70	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	113	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	75	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	120	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	122	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	134	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	134	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	123	12.0-15.0	13.5

<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	90	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	80	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	113	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	76	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	113	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	113	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2017	W	113	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	2	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	23	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	23	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	25	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	25	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	26	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	28	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	30	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	32	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	35	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	37	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	39	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	39	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	39	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	40	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	41	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	43	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	50	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	53	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	63	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	72	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	77	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	91	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	101	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	108	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	114	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	114	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	114	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	114	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	127	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	136	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	144	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	146	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	152	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	154	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	162	11.0-13.0	12

<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	M	215	11.0-13.0	12
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	12	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	12	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	12	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	12	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	12	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	12	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	12	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	48	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	55	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	55	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	101	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	114	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	114	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	114	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	114	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	114	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	114	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	114	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	114	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	120	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	125	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	140	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	149	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	154	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	154	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	194	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	196	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	197	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	208	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	208	12.0-15.0	13.5
<i>Osmia cornuta</i> 2018	W	226	12.0-15.0	13.5

\* Since we could not mark the smaller species *Chelostoma florissonne*, *C. rapunculi* and *Heriades truncorum* to an individual level, we cannot exclude the repeated observation of an individual for several times for these species.



**R-code for a generalized mixed-effects model**

```

dat = read.table("Table_S1.csv", head=T, sep=";", dec=".")
require(lme4)

# Exclusion of the outlier
dat = dat[dat$Flightdistance<500,]

# Distribution of data
hist(sqrt(dat$Flightdistance))
hist((dat$size))

# fit the generalized mixed effects model

fl<-glmer(sqrt(Flightdistance)~size+(1|Species),data=dat)
summary(fl)
AIC(fl)

# predict the data, removing the grouping value
fix.pred<-predict(fl,re.form=NA)

# to remove the random effects term and view the original spread of the data
# with just the random noise added, add the residual error back onto the predicted values
y.adj<-fix.pred+resid(fl)

# Plot of the trend, with the random effects term removed
plot(y.adj~dat$size)
# add the trend line
lines(predict(fl,newdata=data.frame(size=seq(0,100,length(1000))),re.form=NA)~seq(0,100,1
length(1000)),col="black",lwd=2)

#get summary statistics such as P value
summary(lm(y.adj~dat$size))

# fit the linear model without random effects

plot(sqrt(Flightdistance)~size, data=dat)
abline(lm(sqrt(Flightdistance)~size, data=dat), col="black", lwd=2)
#get summary statistics such as P value
summary(lm(sqrt(Flightdistance)~size, data=dat))

```



Chapter 6

**One-year-old flower strips  
already support a quarter  
of a city's bee species**

Hofmann, M. M., and Renner, S. S.

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# 1 One year-old flower strips already support a quarter of a city's bee species

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9  
10 *Abstract.* – To combat the loss of flower-rich meadows, many cities are supporting greening  
11 measures, including the creation of flower strips. To assess the effectiveness of these  
12 measures in supporting flower-visiting insects, their faunas need to be compared to the  
13 background fauna at various distances from the flower strips. To meet this goal, we quantified  
14 the bee faunas of nine 1000 m<sup>2</sup>-large and newly established flower strips in the city of  
15 Munich, all planted with a regional seed mix, and compared them to the fauna recorded  
16 between 1997 and 2017 within 500, 1000, and 1500 m from the respective strip. The 68  
17 species recorded during the flower strips' first season represent 21% of the 324 species ever  
18 recorded for Munich and 29% of the 232 species recorded between 1997 and 2017. Non-  
19 threatened species are statistically over-represented in the strips, but pollen generalists are not.  
20 These findings illustrate the conservation value of urban flower strips for common species  
21 that apparently quickly discover this food source. To our knowledge, this is the first  
22 quantitative assessment of the speed and distance over which urban flower strips attract wild  
23 bees.

24  
25 *Key words:* Urban ecosystem; attraction effect; flower strips; wild bees

## 26 27 1. Introduction

28 Insects that rely on a mix of flowers for nectar or pollen for their survival, such as bees and  
29 many butterflies and flies, are rapidly decreasing in diversity and abundance (Mandery et al.,  
30 2003; Potts et al., 2010, Westrich et al., 2011). One reason for this is the loss of flower-rich  
31 meadows, which are becoming increasingly rare. In Germany, for example, meadows covered  
32 5.3 Million hectares (Mio. ha) in 1991, but only 4.7 Mio. ha in 2019 (Statistisches  
33 Bundesamt, [https://www.destatis.de/DE/Themen/Branchen-Unternehmen/Landwirtschaft-  
34 Forstwirtschaft-Fischerei/Feldfruechte-Gruenland/Tabellen/zeitreihe-dauergruenland-nach-  
35 nutzung.html](https://www.destatis.de/DE/Themen/Branchen-Unternehmen/Landwirtschaft-Forstwirtschaft-Fischerei/Feldfruechte-Gruenland/Tabellen/zeitreihe-dauergruenland-nach-nutzung.html)). To address the loss of flower-rich areas, the European Union is supporting  
36 'greening' measures, which include the creation of flower strips (European Commission,  
37 2011). Flower strips are man-made patches of flowering plants that provide foraging  
38 resources for flower-visiting insects, especially bees, butterflies, and flies. Monitoring and  
39 experiments have shown that such strips enhance the local plant and insect diversity in  
40 agricultural landscapes (e.g. Scheper et al., 2015; Jönsson et al., 2015; Buhk et al., 2018;  
41 Dicks et al., 2017 review 80 studies of flower strips).

42 Despite the work demonstrating the diversity-enhancing effects of flower strips near  
43 crops, it is unclear what proportion of bee diversity these usually small, young, and artificial  
44 plantings may be 'capturing' and how strongly their faunas may be biased towards common  
45 insect species. From first principles, the success of flower strips in maintaining populations of  
46 solitary bees will depend on their floristic composition, distance from suitable nesting sites,  
47 and distance from other habitats that maintain stable populations. To study the attractiveness  
48 of flower strips in an urban landscape, we took advantage of nine 1000 m<sup>2</sup>-large flower strips  
49 newly established in Munich, all with autochthonous seed mixtures selected by the Bavarian  
50 bird protection society (Landesbund für Vogelschutz, acronym LBV) and department of  
51 horticulture (Gartenbaureferat München). We identified and counted the bees visiting flowers

52 on each strip and then related these numbers to the total diversity of Munich's bee fauna and  
53 to the diversity within 500, 1000, and 1500 m radii around the strips. Our expectation was that  
54 newly planted flowers strips would attract a small subset of mostly generalist, non-threatened  
55 species and that oligolectic species (species using pollen from a taxonomically restricted set  
56 of plants) would be underrepresented compared to the city's overall species pool.

## 57 58 **2. Material and methods**

### 59 **Study sites and plant species inventories**

60 In April 2017, the Regional Society for the Protection of Birds (LBV) and the Department of  
61 Horticulture of the city of Munich created eight 1000 m<sup>2</sup>-large flower strips throughout  
62 Munich (Fig. 1). Besides these eight strips, we included one strip established in 2015. All  
63 strips were sown with regional seeds from the seed supplier Kirmer (<http://www.krimmer-naturnahes-gruen.de>), adapted either for nutrient-rich or nutrient-poor sites, and the LBV also  
64 provided man-made nesting sites for cavity-breeding bees at the sites. Flowering plant species  
65 were identified in randomly placed plots of one square-m per strip at the strips  
66 Fockensteinstraße (established in 2015), Willy-Brandt-Allee and Rathenaustraße (nutrient-  
67 poor sites established in 2017), and Pasing Stadtpark, and Werner-Seelenbinder-Weg  
68 (nutrient-rich sites established in 2017). Plant species found on each strip are listed in Table  
69 S1, along with information on herbarium voucher specimens deposited in the Munich  
70 herbarium (Botanische Staatssammlung, international acronym M).

### 71 72 73 **Bee species inventories**

74 From March to August in 2017 and 2018, each flower strip was visited four to five times.  
75 Visits were made between 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. on sunny, warm days with little or no wind.  
76 Where possible, bee species were identified directly in the field and were documented via  
77 macro-photography in a standardized setup: for close-up pictures, the bees were caught with  
78 an insect net and cooled down for 10 minutes in an Eppendorf cupped plastic vial stored on  
79 ice in a cooled box. When they fell into rigor of cold, they were transferred onto scale paper  
80 (using a small box lined with millimetre paper on its bottom) and photographed from all sides  
81 (SLR camera: Pentax K-x; Lens: Sigma DG 17-70 mm, 1:2.8, macro). Within one to two  
82 minutes, bees warmed up again and were released at the location where they had been caught.  
83 For species that are difficult to identify by morphology alone, such as species of *Sphecodes*,  
84 *Lasioglossum* or *Halictus*, voucher specimens, preferably males (for morphological re-  
85 identification by genitalia preparations), were collected and identified morphologically and  
86 via DNA barcoding (methods and primers as described in Hofmann et al., 2018). The voucher  
87 specimens are deposited in the Zoologische Staatssammlung Munich (ZSM). Photo vouchers  
88 are accessible at the Diversity Workbench server (DWB;  
89 [https://diversityworkbench.net/Portal/Diversity\\_Workbench](https://diversityworkbench.net/Portal/Diversity_Workbench)), and DNA barcodes at NCBI  
90 GenBank (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>). Table S2 in the Online Supporting  
91 Material shows all GenBank and DWB accession numbers [data will be accessible once this  
92 ms accepted]. Additionally, Table S2 shows each species' Red List status based on Westrich  
93 et al. (2011) as well as foraging and nesting preferences based on Scheuchl and Willner  
94 (2016).

95 To investigate the catchment area of each flower strip, we analysed 7589 Gauß-  
96 Krüger-referenced records, including sightings of single bees or populations made between  
97 1997 and 2017 and assessed the species and individuals within a radius of 500, 1000, and  
98 1500 m from each strip using QGIS 3.8.2. For species that were recorded on a flower strip,  
99 but not within the 1500 m radius from the strip, we measured the distance from the strip to the  
100 nearest sightings of the respective species (Table S3). For Fockensteinstraße and Willy-  
101 Brandt-Allee, we increased the radius to 1600 m, as there were too few records within the

102 1500 m radius, while a 1600 m radius yielded comparable numbers of records to those of the  
103 other sites.

104

### 105 3. Results

#### 106 **Oligolecty and Red List status of the species on the flower strips compared to the total** 107 **Munich species pool**

108 On the nine 1000 m<sup>2</sup>-large flower strips, we found 83 species of flowering plants, 35 of them  
109 coming from the regional seed mix (*Materials and Methods*) and 17 self-sown at  
110 Fockensteinstraße (Fig. 2), 27 from the seed mix and 28 self-sown at Rathenaustraße and  
111 Willy-Brandt-Allee, and all 23 from the seed mix at Pasinger Stadtpark and Werner-  
112 Seelenbinder-Weg (see Table S1 for species lists for each site). The flowers of these plants  
113 were visited by honey bees and 68 species of wild bees, that is, 21% of the 324 species ever  
114 recorded for Munich and 29% of the 232 re-observed or newly observed species over the last  
115 twenty years (1997 – 2017).

116 Of the 68 species, 62 (91%) have the Red List category ‘not threatened,’ three (4%)  
117 are listed on the pre-warning-list, and three are ‘threatened’ (Table S2). The respective  
118 percentages for the 324-species-pool are 54% (n = 174) not threatened, 11% (n = 35) on the  
119 pre-warning list, and 27% (n = 89) threatened. Twenty-two of the 324 species are not Red-  
120 listed due to a lack of data or rareness of the species, and three are considered locally extinct.  
121 There are thus significantly more non-threatened species on the flower strips than in Munich  
122 overall (chi-square test with 2 df,  $\chi^2=26.4$ ,  $P = 1.8 \times 10^{-6}$ ). Of the 232-species-pool recorded  
123 for 1997 - 2017, 156 (67%) species are non-threatened, 29 (13%) on the pre-warning list, 38  
124 (16%) threatened, and 9 (4%) of unknown status. Also with these numbers, the flower strip  
125 fauna includes a disproportionate number of non-threatened species (chi-square test with 2 df,  
126  $\chi^2=12.5$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ).

127 Of the 68 species found on the strips, 63% (n = 43) are polylectic and 15% (n = 10)  
128 oligolectic. Some 22% (n = 15) parasitize other bee species (Table S2). The respective  
129 percentages for the 324 species pool are 51% (n = 165) polylectic, 22% (n = 72) oligolectic,  
130 and 27% (n = 87) parasitic (Hofmann and Renner, in review), while in the 232 species pool of  
131 the last 20 years, 50% (n = 118) of species are polylectic, 25% (n = 59) oligolectic, and 24%  
132 (n = 55) parasitic. Of the oligolectic flower strip visitors, seven specialized on Asteraceae,  
133 two on *Campanula*, one on *Echium*, and one on Fabaceae. There is thus no significant  
134 difference in the frequencies of polylectic, oligolectic, or parasitic species among the flower  
135 strips and the remainder of Munich either for the larger pool (chi-square test with 2 df,  
136  $\chi^2=3.62$ ,  $P = 0.164$ ) or the smaller 1997 – 2017 pool (2df,  $\chi^2=4.19$ ,  $P = 0.123$ ).

137

#### 138 **‘Catchment areas’ of the flower strips**

139 Our quantification of species recorded between 1997 and 2017 within a radius of 500, 1000,  
140 or 1500 m around each of the nine flower strips revealed that the strips at Altostraße (400  
141 records of 105 different species) and Pasinger Stadtpark (329 records of 156 species) were  
142 richest in bees within a radius of 1500 m around them, while Weitlstraße and Willy-Brandt-  
143 Allee (19 records of 15 species each) have the fewest records within 1500/1600 m around  
144 them (Fig. 3; Table S3). At a distance of 1500 m from the strip, the percentages of bees found  
145 at the different strips become almost identical (Fig. 4).

146

### 147 4. Discussion

148 Bees need time to discover newly created habitat, but Munich’s common species did so in just  
149 one year, so that the 1000 m<sup>2</sup>-small and young flower strips studied here attracted 68 (21%) of  
150 the 324 species ever recorded for Munich and 29% of the 232 species recorded during 1997 -  
151 2017. These percentages are similar to those found for much larger protected sites in Munich.  
152 Thus, 105 species (32% of the 324 species pool) were recorded in 2017/2018 in the 21 ha-

153 large Munich botanical garden and 44 species (14% of 324) in a 20 ha-large protected city  
154 biotope called ‘Virginia Depot’ (Hofmann & Renner, in review). Surprisingly, the flower  
155 strips attracted a random subset of Munich’s 324 bee species in terms of pollen specialization,  
156 although as expected, the first-year flower-strip visitors mostly belong to common, non-  
157 threatened species. To demonstrate positive effects of flower strips on pollinator populations  
158 it would be necessary to show increased abundances of pollinators at the urban landscape  
159 scale, which was not part of this study. Still, our data strongly support that flower strip  
160 planting in cities helps ensure the availability of foraging resources for pollinators and that  
161 this simple conservation measure is effective. We therefore agree with Buhk et al.’s (2018)  
162 call that flower strip networks should be implemented much more in the upcoming Common  
163 Agricultural Policy (CAP) reform in the European Union.

164

### 165 **Acknowledgements**

166 We thank the LMU biology students Pia Schumann, Nadine Dasch, and Thomas Greindl for  
167 support with field work, and Markus Bräu, Munich city Department of Health and  
168 Environment, for sharing bee occurrence data for Munich. Map data copyrighted  
169 OpenStreetMap contributors and available from <https://www.openstreetmap.org>.

170

### 171 **Authors’ contributions**

172 MMH designed the experiment, performed the fieldwork, and analyzed the data; SSR and  
173 MMH co-wrote the manuscript.

174

### 175 **Conflict statement**

176 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

177

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 218  
 219  
 220

221 **Figures**

222 **Figure 1.** The nine flower strips monitored for this study (modified from  
 223 <https://www.openstreetmap.org>, using QGIS 3.8.2, (c) OpenStreetmap Contributors) and bee  
 224 records (sightings and/or specimen) between 1997 and 2017.  
 225

226 **Figure 2:** The flower strip at Fockensteinstraße as an example of the urban context of the  
 227 flower strips studied here.  
 228

229 **Figure 3.** Numbers of species and individuals recorded between 1997 and 2017 within a  
 230 radius of 500, 1000, and 1500 m from the centre of the respective flower strip (compare Fig.  
 231 1). For details of how past recordings were made see Materials and Methods.  
 232

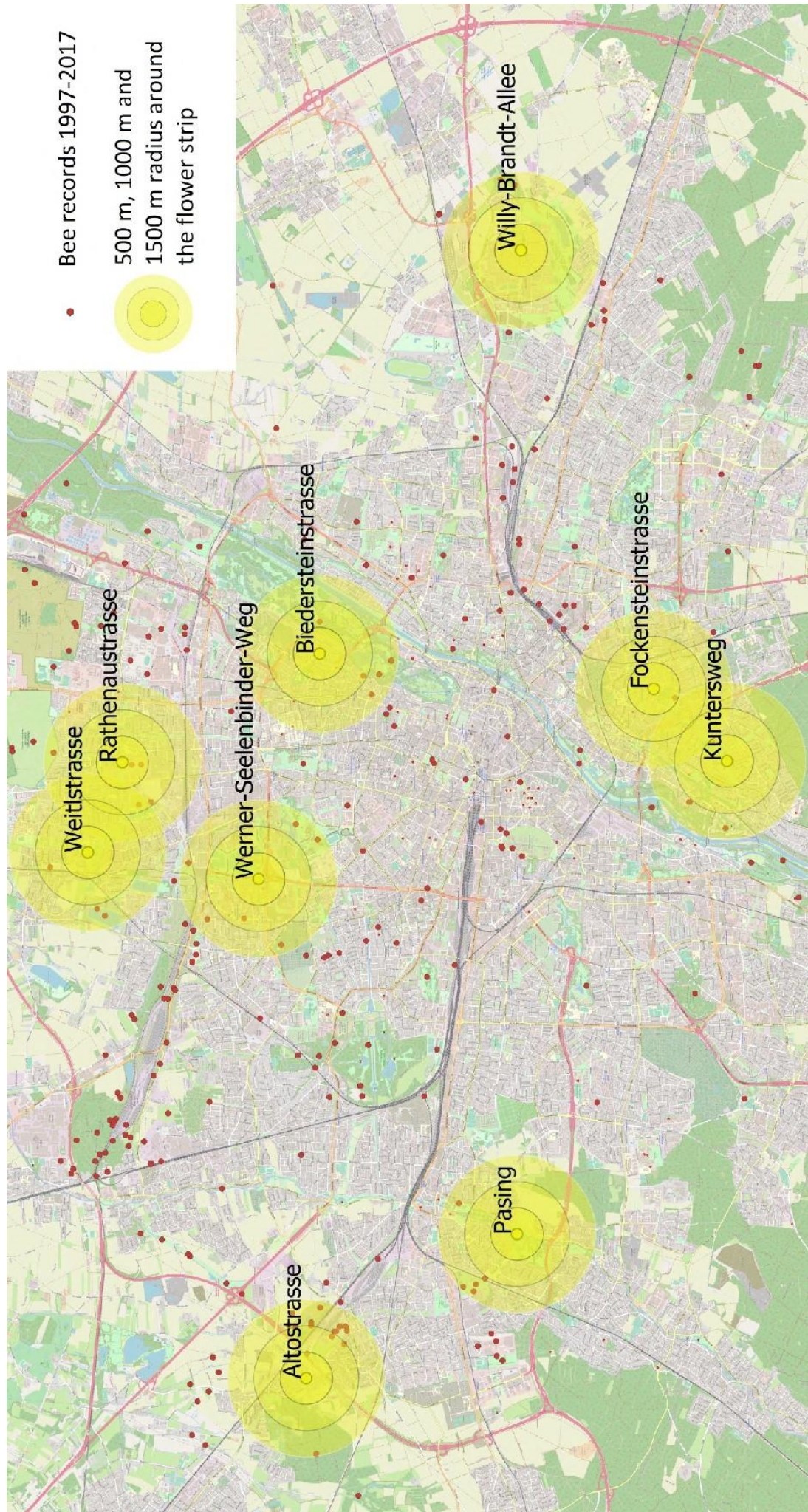
233 **Figure 4.** The percentage of bee species recorded at each flower strip that is also found in the  
 234 surrounding area at distances of 500, 1000, and 1500 m.  
 235

236 **Online Supporting Material**

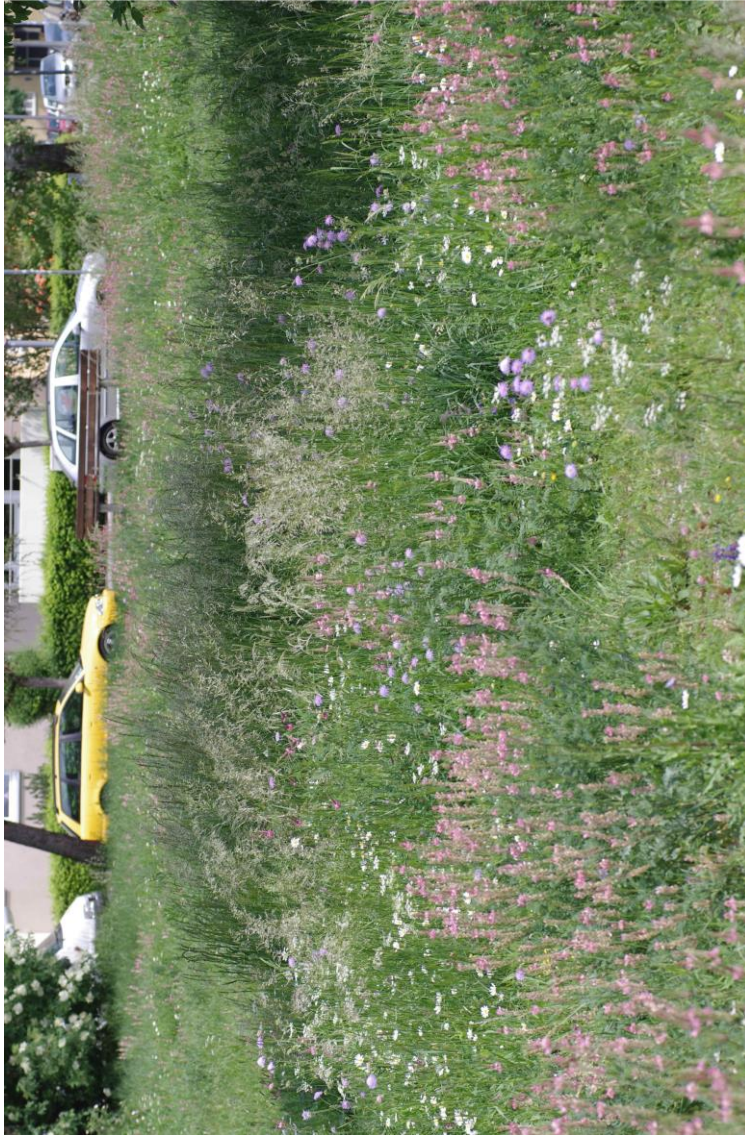
237  
 238 **Table S1:** Lists of plant species and voucher specimens for the nine flower strips.  
 239

240 **Table S2:** GenBank (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>) accession numbers and  
 241 Diversity Workbench ([https://diversityworkbench.net/Portal/Diversity\\_Workbench](https://diversityworkbench.net/Portal/Diversity_Workbench)) accession  
 242 numbers of the bee voucher specimen. Diversity Work Bench accession numbers start with  
 243 three letters referring to the respective flower strip site. The remaining numbers are GenBank  
 244 accession numbers for the DNA barcode sequences. Physical vouchers have been deposited in  
 245 the Zoologische Staatssammlung München.  
 246

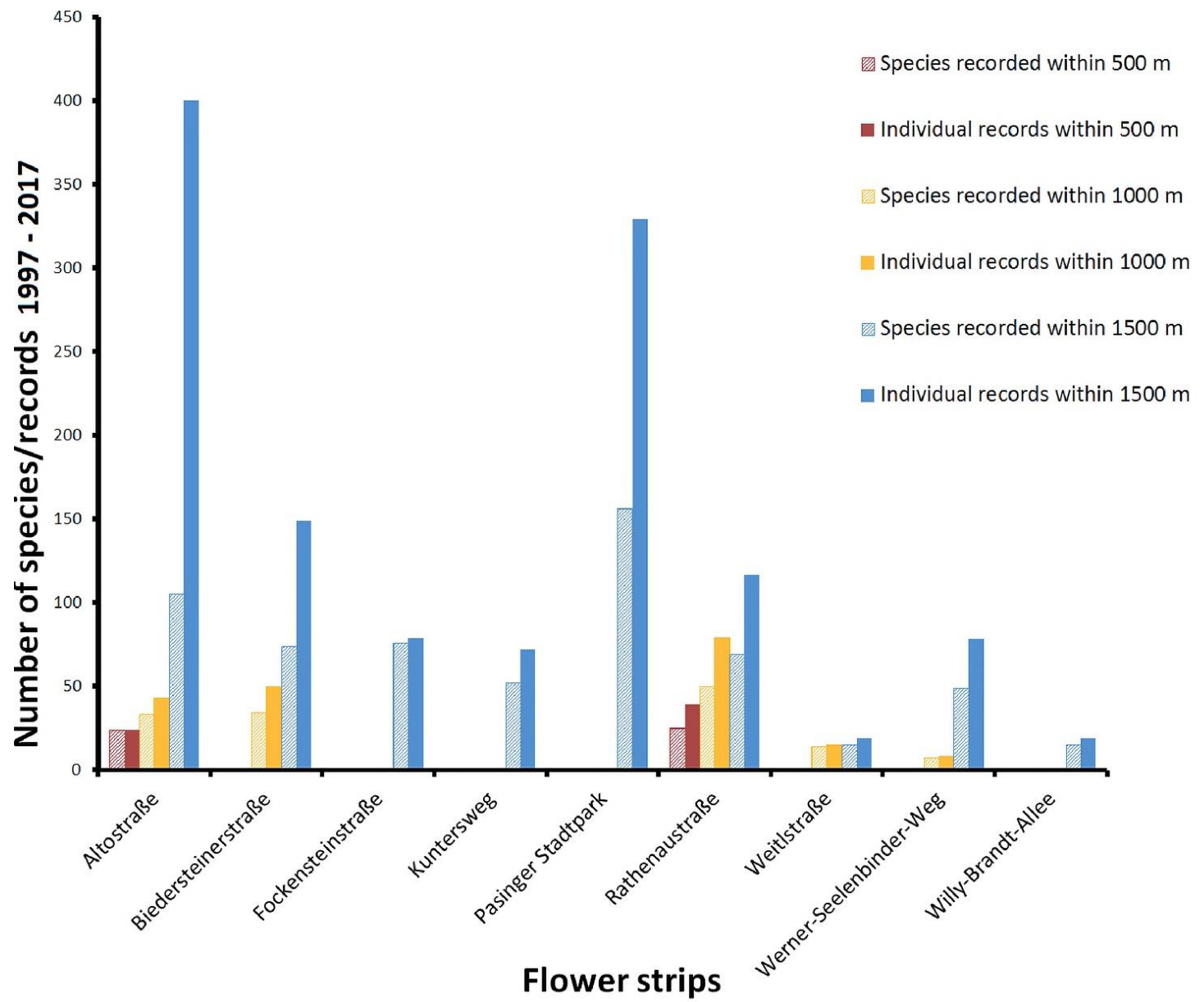
247 **Table S3:** List of bee species records at different radii around the nine flower strips (1997-  
 248 2017).



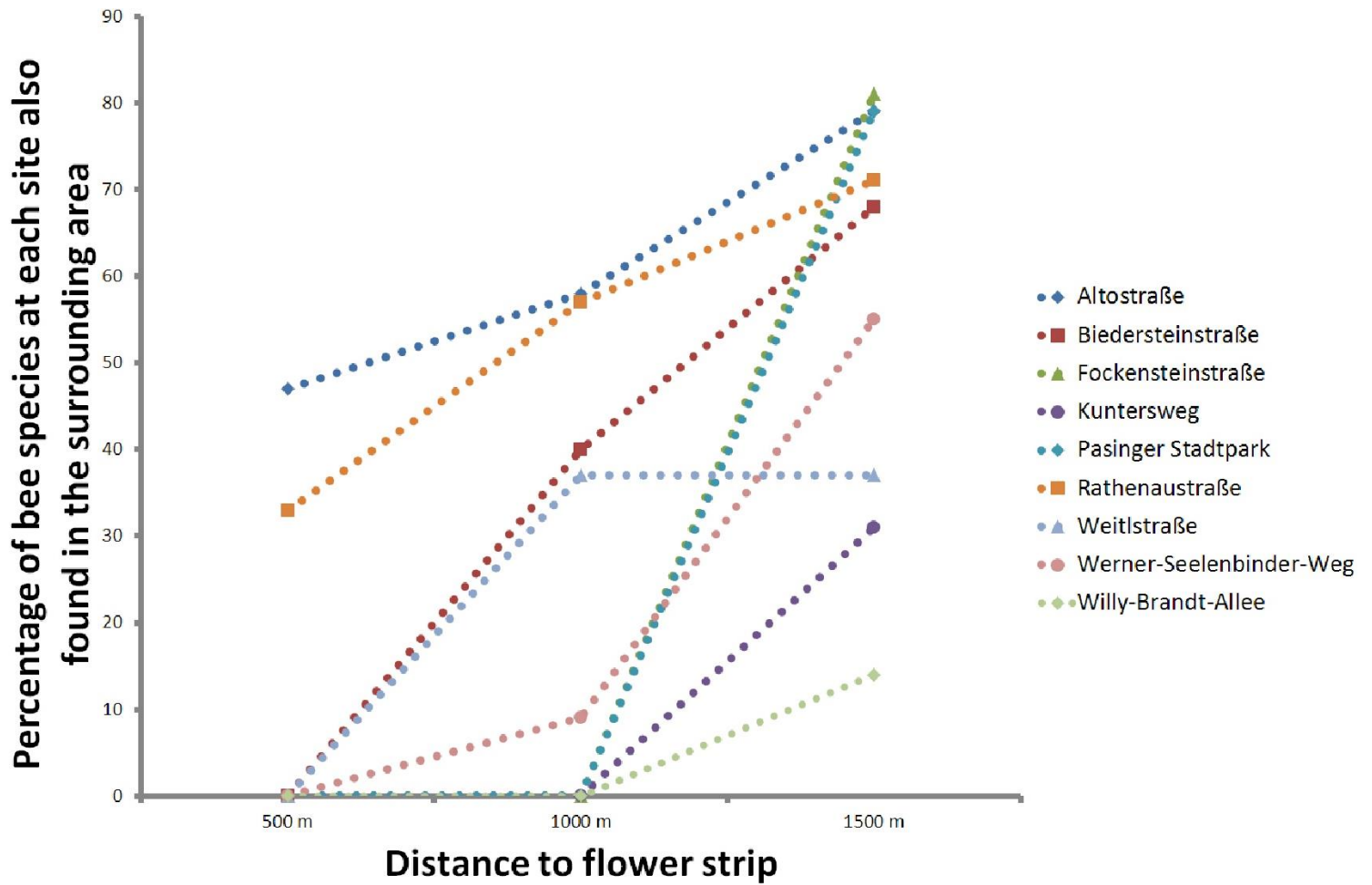
**Figure 1.** The nine flower strips monitored for this study (modified from <https://www.openstreetmap.org>, using QGIS 3.8.2, (c) OpenStreetmap Contributors) and bee records (sightings and/or specimen) between 1997 and 2017.



**Figure 2:** The flower strip at Fockensteinstraße as an example of the urban context of the flower strips studied here.



**Figure 3.** Numbers of species and individuals recorded between 1997 and 2017 within a radius of 500, 1000, and 1500 m from the centre of the respective flower strip (compare Fig. 1). For details of how past recordings were made see Materials and Methods.



**Figure 4.** The percentage of bee species recorded at each flower strip that is also found in the surrounding area at distances of 500, 1000, and 1500 m.



Supplementary material from  
**One-year-old flower strips  
already support a quarter  
of a city's bee species**





**Table S1.** Plant species lists and voucher IDs for the investigated flower strips.  
Herbarium specimens are deposited at the Botanische Staatssammlung München.

Fockensteinstraße	Voucher ID
<i>Achillea millefolium</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 1
<i>Anthemis tinctoria</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 2
<i>Bellis perennis</i> L.	
<i>Barbarea vulgaris</i> W. T. Aiton	Leg. Pia Schumann 3
<i>Camelina sativa</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 4
<i>Campanula patula</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 5
<i>Carum carvi</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 6
<i>Centaurea cyanus</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 7
<i>Centaurea jacea</i> subsp. <i>jacea</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 8
<i>Cichorium intybus</i> subsp. <i>intybus</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 9
<i>Crepis biennis</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 10
<i>Daucus carota</i> subsp. <i>carota</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 11
<i>Dianthus carthusianorum</i> L.	
<i>Echium vulgare</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 12
<i>Erigeron annuus</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 36
<i>Galium verum</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 13
<i>Geranium pyrenaicum</i> Burm.	Leg. Pia Schumann 38
<i>Hypericum perforatum</i> var. <i>perforatum</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 14
<i>Papaver rhoeas</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 15
<i>Knautia arvensis</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 16
<i>Leontodon autumnalis</i> subsp. <i>autumnalis</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 17
<i>Leucanthemum vulgare</i> Vaill.	Leg. Pia Schumann 18
<i>Lotus corniculatus</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 19
<i>Malva moschata</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 20
<i>Malva sylvestris</i> L.	
<i>Medicago lupulina</i> L.	
<i>Melilotus officinalis</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 21
<i>Onobrychis viciifolia</i> Scop.	Leg. Pia Schumann 22
<i>Origanum vulgare</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 23
<i>Pastinaca sativa</i> subsp. <i>sativa</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 24
<i>Plantago lanceolata</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 25
<i>Potentilla anserina</i> L.	
<i>Reseda lutea</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 26
<i>Rhinanthus alectorolophus</i> (Scop.) Pollich	
<i>Salvia pratensis</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 27
<i>Saponaria officinalis</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 28
<i>Securigera varia</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 37
<i>Silene dioica</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 29
<i>Silene flos-cuculi</i> L.	Leg. Pia Schumann 30
<i>Silene latifolia</i> subsp. <i>alba</i> Mill.	Leg. Pia Schumann 31
<i>Silene vulgaris</i> (Moench) Garcke	Leg. Pia Schumann 32

*Sisymbrium officinale* (L.) Scop.

*Symphytum officinale* L.

*Taraxacum officinale* F.H.Wigg.

*Tragopogon pratensis* L.

*Trifolium campestre* Schreb.

*Trifolium incarnatum* L.

*Trifolium pratense* subsp. *pratense* L.

*Trifolium repens* L.

*Verbascum nigrum* L.

*Veronica chamaedrys* L.

Leg. Pia Schumann 35

Leg. Pia Schumann 33

Leg. Pia Schumann 34

Rathenaustraße	Voucher ID
<i>Agrimonia eupatoria</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 1
<i>Achillea millefolium</i> L.	
<i>Anthemis tinctoria</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 2
<i>Bellis perennis</i> L.	
<i>Centaurea jacea</i> L.	
<i>Cerastium arvense</i> L.	
<i>Cichorium intybus</i> L.	
<i>Crepis biennis</i> L.	
<i>Dianthus carthusianorum</i> L.	
<i>Dianthus deltoides</i> L.	
<i>Echium vulgare</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 12
<i>Erigeron annuus</i> (L.) Pers.	
<i>Erysimum hieraciifolium</i> L.	
<i>Galium mollugo</i> L.	
<i>Geranium pyrenaicum</i> Burm.f.	
<i>Glechoma hederacea</i> L.	
<i>Hesperis matronalis</i> L.	
<i>Knautia arvensis</i> (L.) Coulter	
<i>Leontodon hispidus</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 29
<i>Leucanthemum vulgare</i> agg.	
<i>Lotus corniculatus</i> L.	
<i>Malva moschata</i> L.	
<i>Oenothera suaveolens</i> Pers.	
<i>Papaver rhoeas</i> L.	
<i>Plantago lanceolata</i> L.	
<i>Plantago media</i> L.	
<i>Prunella vulgaris</i> L.	
<i>Ranunculus acris</i> L.	
<i>Reseda alba</i> L.	
<i>Rhinanthus alectorolophus</i> (Scop.) Pollich	
<i>Salvia pratensis</i> L.	
<i>Salvia verticillata</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 23
<i>Securigera varia</i> (L.) Lassen	
<i>Silene dioica</i> (L.) Clairv.	
<i>Silene vulgaris</i> (Moench) Garcke	
<i>Taraxacum officinale</i> (L.) Weber ex F.H.Wigg.	
<i>Tragopogon pratensis</i> L.	
<i>Trifolium pratense</i> L.	
<i>Trifolium repens</i> L.	
<i>Verbascum densiflorum</i> Bertol.	
<i>Verbascum lychnitis</i> L.	
<i>Veronica chamaedrys</i> L.	

## Willy-Brandt-Allee

## Voucher ID

<i>Agrimonia eupatoria</i> L.	
<i>Achillea millefolium</i> L.	
<i>Anthemis tinctoria</i> L.	
<i>Barbarea vulgaris</i> W. T. Aiton	
<i>Bellis perennis</i> L.	
<i>Biscutella laevigata</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 3
<i>Campanula rotundifolia</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 4
<i>Carduus acanthoides</i> L.	
<i>Centaurea cyanus</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 5
<i>Centaurea jacea</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 6
<i>Centaurea scabiosa</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 27
<i>Cichorium intybus</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 7
<i>Cirsium arvense</i> (L.) Scop.	
<i>Crepis biennis</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 8
<i>Daucus carota</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 9
<i>Dianthus carthusianorum</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 10
<i>Dianthus deltoides</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 11
<i>Echium vulgare</i> L.	
<i>Erigeron annuus</i> (L.) Pers.	
<i>Erysimum hieraciifolium</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 13
<i>Glechoma hederacea</i> L.	
<i>Hesperis matronalis</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 14
<i>Hypericum perforatum</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 28
<i>Knautia arvensis</i> (L.) Coulter	Leg.: N. Dasch 15
<i>Leucanthemum vulgare</i> agg.	Leg.: N. Dasch 16
<i>Lychnis flos-cuculi</i> L.	
<i>Malva moschata</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 17
<i>Onobrychis viciifolia</i> Scop.	Leg.: N. Dasch 18
<i>Papaver rhoeas</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 19
<i>Plantago lanceolata</i> L.	
<i>Plantago media</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 20
<i>Prunella vulgaris</i> L.	
<i>Ranunculus acris</i> L.	
<i>Reseda alba</i> L.	
<i>Rhinanthus alectorolophus</i> (Scop.) Pollich	
<i>Rhinanthus minor</i> Personnat	Leg.: N. Dasch 21
<i>Salvia pratensis</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 22
<i>Senecio jacobaea</i> L.	
<i>Silene dioica</i> (L.) Clairv.	Leg.: N. Dasch 24
<i>Silene nutans</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 25
<i>Taraxacum officinale</i> (L.) Weber ex F.H.Wigg.	
<i>Thymus pulegioides</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 30
<i>Tragopogon pratensis</i> L.	Leg.: N. Dasch 26
<i>Trifolium pratense</i> L.	
<i>Trifolium repens</i> L.	
<i>Veronica chamaedrys</i> L.	

**Pasinger Stadtpark****Voucher ID**

<i>Achillea millefolium</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 4
<i>Barbarea vulgaris</i> W. T. Aiton	Leg. T. Greindl 7
<i>Campanula patula</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 8
<i>Carum carvi</i> L.	
<i>Centaurea jacea</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 1
<i>Crepis biennis</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 2
<i>Dianthus superbus</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 6
<i>Galium verum</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 16
<i>Geranium pratense</i> L.	
<i>Knautia arvensis</i> (L.) Coulter	
<i>Lathyrus pratensis</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 12
<i>Leontodon autumnalis</i> L.	
<i>Leontodon hispidus</i> L.	
<i>Leucanthemum vulgare</i> agg.	Leg. T. Greindl 3
<i>Lotus corniculatus</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 13
<i>Salvia pratensis</i> L.	
<i>Silene dioica</i> (L.) Clairv.	Leg. T. Greindl 9
<i>Silene flos-cuculi</i> L.	
<i>Silene vulgaris</i> (Moench) Garcke	Leg. T. Greindl 10
<i>Trifolium pratense</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 5
<i>Rhinanthus minor</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 14
<i>Papaver rhoeas</i> L.	
<i>Ranunculus acris</i> L.	Leg. T. Greindl 15
<i>Ranunculus lanuginosus</i> L.	

**Werner-Seelenbinder-Weg****Voucher ID**

<i>Barbarea vulgaris</i> W. T. Aiton	
<i>Campanula glomerata</i> L.	
<i>Campanula patula</i> L.	
<i>Carum carvi</i> L.	
<i>Centaurea jacea</i> L.	
<i>Crepis biennis</i> L.	
<i>Dianthus superbus</i> L.	
<i>Galium verum</i> L.	
<i>Knautia arvensis</i> (L.) Coulter	
<i>Lathyrus pratensis</i> L.	
<i>Leontodon autumnalis</i> L.	
<i>Leontodon hispidus</i> L.	
<i>Leucanthemum vulgare</i> agg.	
<i>Lotus corniculatus</i> L.	
<i>Papaver rhoeas</i> L.	
<i>Ranunculus acris</i> L.	
<i>Ranunculus lanuginosus</i> L.	
<i>Rhinanthus minor</i> L.	
<i>Sanguisorba officinalis</i> L.	
<i>Scabiosa columbaria</i> L.	
<i>Silene dioica</i> (L.) Clairv.	
<i>Silene flos-cuculi</i> L.	
<i>Silene vulgaris</i> (Moench) Garcke	

**Table S2.** Bee species lists at the investigated flower strips, with Red List Status (Westrich et al. 2011), foraging and nesting preferences (Scheuchl & Willner, 2016), voucher ID (either GenBank or Diverstiy Workbench Accession number), and distance of the nextclosest species records.

Site	Species	Red List Status <sup>1</sup>	Foraging preference
Altostraße	<i>Andrena chrysoceles</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Andrena gravida</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Andrena haemorrhoa</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Anthidium oblongatum</i>	V	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Bombus hortorum</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Bombus lucorum/terrestris</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Bombus sylvarum</i>	V	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Bombus vestalis</i>	*	parasitic
Altostraße	<i>Colletes similis</i>	V	oligolectic: Asteraceae
Altostraße	<i>Halictus erygnathus</i> group		
Altostraße	<i>Halictus rubicundus</i>	*	polylectic
	<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	*	oligolectic: Asteraceae
Altostraße	<i>Hylaeus communis</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Megachile willughbiella</i>	*	polylectic
Altostraße	<i>Nomada fabriciana</i>	*	parasitic
Altostraße	<i>Osmia aurentula</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Andrena bicolor</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Andrena cineraria</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Anthidium manicatum</i>	*	polylectic

<b>Nesting location</b>	<b>ID<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>100 m</b>	<b>250 m</b>	<b>500 m</b>	<b>1000 m</b>	<b>1500 m</b>	
groundnesting	ALT-00025						3762 m
groundnesting	ALT-00026						1873 m
groundnesting	ALT-00006					x	
cavities	ALT-00040			x	x	x	
above ground							
above and	ALT-00037					x	
below ground							
above and	observation only			x	x	x	
below ground							
groundnesting	ALT-00014, ALT-00033, ALT-00046			x	x	x	
above and	ALT-00015			x	x	x	
below ground							
above and	ALT-00011, ALT-00016, ALT-00035				x	x	
below ground							
host nest	ALT-00032			x	x	x	
groundnesting	ALT-00048					x	
	ALT-00029					x	
groundnesting	ALT-00030			x	x	x	
groundnesting	ALT-00009, ALT-00031				x	x	
cavities	ALT-00007, ALT-00019, ALT-00049					x	
above ground							
cavities	ALT-00028			x	x	x	
above ground							
groundnesting	MK442002, MK442003			x	x	x	
cavities	ALT-00027			x	x	x	
above ground							
host nest	ALT-00004						1857 m
cavities	ALT-00005						
above ground							3320 m
groundnesting	BST-00042				x	x	
groundnesting	BST-00003				x	x	
cavities	BST-00018				x	x	
above ground							

Biedersteinstraße	<i>Anthidium oblongatum</i>	V	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Bombus barbutellus</i>	*	parasitic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Bombus hortorum</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Bombus lucorum/terrestris</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Bombus pascurorum</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Halictus confusus</i> group		
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Halictus rubicundus</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Halictus tumulorum</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Heriades truncorum</i>		oligolectic:
		*	Asteraceae
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Hylaeus communis</i>		polylectic
		*	
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Hylaeus hyalinatus</i>		polylectic
		*	
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Hylaeus nigritus</i>		oligolectic:
		*	Asteraceae
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Hylaeus signatus</i>	*	
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Lasioglossum albipes</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Lasioglossum laticeps</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Lasioglossum morio</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Megachile ericetorum</i>		oligolectic:
		*	Fabaceae
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Megachile willughbiella</i>	*	polylectic
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Osmia bicornis</i>		polylectic
		*	
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Osmia cornuta</i>		polylectic
		*	
Biedersteinstraße	<i>Sphecodes monilicornis</i>	*	parasitic
<hr/>			
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Andrena subopaca</i> group		
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Anthidium manicatum</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Anthidium oblongatum</i>	V	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Bombus hypnorum</i>		polylectic
		*	
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	*	polylectic



cavities	BST-00019,			
above ground	BST-00064			2613 m
host nest	BST-00023		x	
above and	BST-00063			
below ground				2536 m
above and	BST-00061		x	
below ground				
groundnesting	BST-00026		x	
above and	BST-00008,	x	x	
below ground	BST-00048			
	BST-00062			
groundnesting	MK441993	x	x	
groundnesting	MG846690,	x	x	
	MG846691			
cavities	BST-00027			
above ground				3016 m
cavities	BST-00022		x	
above ground				
cavities	BST-00030		x	
above ground				
cavities	BST-00017			
above ground				2535 m
	observation only	x	x	
groundnesting	MK441994,	x	x	
	MK441994			
groundnesting	MK441992		x	
groundnesting	MK441996			2192 m
groundnesting	MK441995	x	x	
cavities	BST-00009			
above ground				2607 m
cavities	BST-00013,			
above ground	BST-00065			2607 m
cavities	BST-00044		x	
above ground				
cavities	BST-00043			
above ground				3683 m
host nest	MG845953,	x	x	
	MG845966			
	FOC-00055		x	
cavities	FOC-00027,		x	
above ground	FOC-00063,			
	FOC-00071			
cavities	FOC-00016,		x	
above ground	FOC-00019,			
	FOC-00048,			
	FOC-00072			
cavities	FOC-00003		x	
above ground				
above and	FOC-00040,		x	
below ground	FOC-00057			

Fockensteinstraße	<i>Bombus lucorum/terrestris</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Colletes daviesanus</i>	*	oligolectic: Asteraceae
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Halictus rubicundus</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Halictus scabiosae</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Halictus tumulorum</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	*	oligolectic: <i>Echium</i>
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Hylaeus brevicornis</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Hylaeus communis</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Hylaeus leptocephalus</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Hylaeus nigritus</i>	*	oligolectic: Asteraceae
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Lasioglossum nitidulum</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Megachile ericetorum</i>	*	oligolectic: Fabaceae
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Megachile pilidens</i>	3	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Megachile rotundata</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Megachile willhugbiella</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Osmia caerulea</i>	*	polylectic
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Osmia spinulosa</i>	3	oligolectic: Asteraceae
Fockensteinstraße	<i>Sphecodes monilicornis</i>	*	parasitic
Kuntersweg	<i>Andrena chrysoceles</i>	*	polylectic
Kuntersweg	<i>Andrena labiata</i>	*	polylectic
Kuntersweg	<i>Bombus hortorum</i>	*	polylectic

groundnesting	observation only	x
above and below ground	FOC-00002, FOC-00059, FOC-00074	x
groundnesting	FOC-00028, FOC-00032	2009 m
groundnesting	MG792001, MG792002, MG792003	x
groundnesting	FOC-00044, FOC-00078	x
groundnesting	FOC-00051	x
groundnesting	barcode not abloaded due to bad sequence quality	x
cavities above ground	FOC-00026, FOC-00050	x
cavities	FOC-00025	x
above ground cavities	observation only	x
above ground cavities	MG791999	1564 m
above ground cavities	FOC-00012, FOC-00020, FOC-00033	2291 m
above ground	MG791990	x
groundnesting	MG792011	x
cavities	FOC-00031, FOC-00076	x
above ground above and below ground	FOC-00017, FOC-00070	12983 m
cavities	FOC-00030	x
above ground cavities	FOC-00007, FOC-00064, FOC-00075	x
above ground cavities	FOC-00054	x
above ground cavities	FOC-00029, FOC-00060	x
avities above groun	FOC-00023	7089 m
host nest	MG845963	x
groundnesting	KUN-00032	2172 m
groundnesting	KUN-00007	9863 m
above and below ground	KUN-00037	x

Kuntersweg	<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	*	polylectic
Kuntersweg	<i>Bombus lucorum/terrestris</i>	*	polylectic
Kuntersweg	<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>	*	polylectic
Kuntersweg	<i>Chelostoma campanularum</i>	*	oligolectic: <i>Campanula</i>
Kuntersweg	<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	*	oligolectic: <i>Campanula</i>
Kuntersweg	<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	*	polylectic
Kuntersweg	<i>Halictus tumulorum</i> group		
Kuntersweg	<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	*	oligolectic: Asteraceae
Kuntersweg	<i>Hylaeus nigrinus</i>	*	oligolectic: Asteraceae
Kuntersweg	<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i>	*	polylectic
Kuntersweg	<i>Lasioglossum leucozonium</i>	*	polylectic
Kuntersweg	<i>Lasioglossum morio</i>	*	polylectic
Kuntersweg	<i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i>	*	polylectic
Kuntersweg	<i>Nomada lathburiana</i>	*	parasitic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Andrena cineraria</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Andrena gravida</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Andrena nitida</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Bombus campestris</i>	*	parasitic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Bombus hortorum</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Bombus lucorum/terrestris</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Bombus sylvarum</i>		polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Bombus vestalis</i>	V *	parasitic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>	*	oligolectic: <i>Ranunculus</i>

above and below ground groundnesting	KUN-00011	1682 m
	KUN-00040, KUN-00010	x
above and below ground	KUN-00013, KUN-00034, KUN-00051	x
cavities above ground	KUN-00046	2172 m
cavities above ground groundnesting	KUN-00047	2511 m
	KUN-00028	2457 m
	KUN-00031	x
cavities above ground	KUN-00016	2457 m
cavities above ground	KUN-00015, KUN-00019, KUN-00025, KUN-00039	4245 m
groundnesting	MG846681	x
groundnesting	MG791992	x
groundnesting	barcode not abloaded due to bad sequence quality	2457 m
groundnesting	MG791984, MK268701, MG846668, MG791985	2457 m
host nest	KUN-00009	3967 m
groundnesting	PAS-00008, PAS-00046	x
groundnesting	PAS-00015, PAS-00045	x
groundnesting	PAS-00007	x
host nest	PAS-00063	x
above and below ground	PAS-00011, PAS-00049	x
above and below ground groundnesting	PAS-00005, PAS-00053	x
	PAS-00003, PAS-00044	x
above and below ground	PAS-00001, PAS-00033, PAS-00036	x
above and below ground	PAS-00032	x
host nest	PAS-00012	x
cavities above ground	PAS-00050	x

Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Halictus rubicundus</i> group		
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Halictus tumulorum</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Hylaeus nigrinus</i>		oligolectic:
		*	Asteraceae
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Lasioglossum leucopus</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i>	*	polylectic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Megachile versicolor</i>		polylectic
		*	
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Nomada fabriciana</i>	*	parasitic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Nomada fulvicornis</i>	*	parasitic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Nomada goodeniana</i>	*	parasitic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Nomada marshamella</i>	*	parasitic
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Osmia bicornis</i>		polylectic
		*	
Pasinger Stadtpark	<i>Sphecodes ephippius</i>	*	parasitic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Andrena cineraria</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Andrena gravida</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Andrena haemorrhhoa</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Andrena nitida</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Andrena tibialis</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Bombus hypnorum</i>		polylectic
		*	
Rathenaustraße	<i>Bombus lucorum/terrestris</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Bombus sylvarum</i>		polylectic
		V	
Rathenaustraße	<i>Halictus scabiosae</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Halictus tumulorum</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Heriades truncorum</i>		oligolectic:
		*	Asteraceae
Rathenaustraße	<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i>	*	polylectic

	PAS-00041					x	
groundnesting	PAS-00025					x	
groundnesting	MG846688					x	
cavities	PAS-00027					x	
above ground							
groundnesting	loaded due to bad sequence quality					x	
groundnesting	MG846680						2081 m
groundnesting	MG846670, MG846671, MG846675						2081 m
cavities	PAS-00028						
above ground							2081 m
host nest	PAS-00022, PAS-00023, PAS-00024, PAS-00042					x	
host nest	PAS-00021, PAS-00043					x	
host nest	PAS-00018, PAS-00019, PAS-00020, PAS-00051						4110 m
host nest	PAS-00052					x	
cavities	PAS-00009					x	
above ground							
host nest	MK268697						2426 m
groundnesting	RAT-00023						1944 m
groundnesting	RAT-00005						1944 m
groundnesting	RAT-00006			x		x	
groundnesting	RAT-00007						3931 m
groundnesting	RAT-00024			x		x	
cavities	observation only	x	x	x		x	
above ground							
groundnesting	observation only	x	x	x		x	
above and	observation only	x	x	x		x	
below ground							
above and	observation only					x	
below ground							
groundnesting	RAT-00028						2430 m
groundnesting	RAT-00016					x	
groundnesting	MK442004, MG846685, MG846687, MG846689					x	
cavities	RAT-00013	x	x	x		x	
above ground							
groundnesting	MG846684	x	x	x		x	

Rathenaustraße	<i>Lasioglossum laticeps</i>		polylectic
		*	
Rathenaustraße	<i>Lasioglossum leucopus</i>		polylectic
		*	
Rathenaustraße	<i>Lasioglossum morio</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i>	*	polylectic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Nomada flavoguttata</i>	*	parasitic
Rathenaustraße	<i>Nomada guttulata</i>		parasitic
		*	
Rathenaustraße	<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	*	
Weitlstraße	<i>Andrena cineraria</i>	*	polylectic
Weitlstraße	<i>Anthidium oblongatum</i>	V	polylectic
Weitlstraße	<i>Bombus hortorum</i>		polylectic
		*	
Weitlstraße	<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>		polylectic
		*	
Weitlstraße	<i>Bombus lucorum/terrestris</i>	*	polylectic
Weitlstraße	<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>		polylectic
		*	
Weitlstraße	<i>Bombus pratorum</i>		polylectic
		*	
Weitlstraße	<i>Bombus sylvarum</i>	V	polylectic
Weitlstraße	<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i>		oligolectic:
		*	<i>Ranunculus</i>
Weitlstraße	<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>		oligolectic:
		*	<i>Campanula</i>
Weitlstraße	<i>Halictus scabiosae</i>	*	polylectic
Weitlstraße	<i>Halictus tumulorum</i>	*	polylectic
Weitlstraße	<i>Heriades truncorum</i>		oligolectic:
		*	Asteraceae
Weitlstraße	<i>Hylaeus communis</i>		polylectic
		*	
Weitlstraße	<i>Hylaeus nigrinus</i>		oligolectic:
		*	Asteraceae
Weitlstraße	<i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i>	*	polylectic
		*	
Weitlstraße	<i>Megachile rotundata</i>	*	



groundnesting	barcode not abloaded due to bad sequence quality	x	x	x	x	
groundnesting	barcode not abloaded due to bad sequence quality					2443 m
groundnesting	MG846677, MG846678		x	x	x	
groundnesting	MG846673, MG846674			x	x	
host nest	RAT-00015			x	x	
host nest	RAT-00014					no record in Munich in the last 20 years
	RAT-00004			x	x	
groundnesting	observation only					2462 m
cavities	WEI-00010,					
above ground	WEI-00024					1868 m
above and below ground	WEI-00021					1868 m
above and below ground	WEI-00022			x	x	
groundnesting	observation only					1868 m
above and below ground	observation only					1868 m
above and below ground	WEI-00023					2006 m
above and below ground	WEI-00011, WEI-00016					1932 m
cavities	WEI-00020					2704 m
above ground cavities	WEI-00027					1868 m
above ground groundnesting	WEI-00014			x	x	
groundnesting	WEI-00029					2006 m
cavities	WEI-00013			x	x	
above ground cavities	WEI-00012			x	x	
above ground cavities	WEI-00025			x	x	
above ground groundnesting	MK441999, MK442000, MK442001, MG791986, MG846672 WEI-00019			x	x	1868 m

Weitlstraße	<i>Nomada cf fucata</i>	*	parasitic
Weitlstraße	<i>Sphecodes monilicornis</i>	*	parasitic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Andrena cineraria</i>	*	polylectic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	*	polylectic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Bombus lucorum/terrestris</i>	*	polylectic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Halictus tumulorum</i> group	*	
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Halictus scabiosae</i>	*	polylectic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i>	*	polylectic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Lasioglossum laticeps</i>	*	polylectic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Lasioglossum leucozonium</i>	*	polylectic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i>	*	polylectic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Megachile versicolor</i>	*	polylectic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Megachile willughbiella</i>	*	polylectic
Werner- Seelenbinder-Weg	<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	*	polylectic
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Bombus humilis</i>	3	polylectic
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	*	polylectic
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Bombus lucorum/terrestris</i>	*	polylectic
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>	*	polylectic
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Bombus sylvarum</i>	*	polylectic
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Halictus confusus</i> group		
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Halictus erygnathus</i> group		
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Halictus scabiosae</i>	*	polylectic
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	*	polylectic
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	*	oligolectic: Asteraceae
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Hoplitis adunca</i>	*	oligolectic: <i>Echium</i>
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Hylaeus communis</i>	*	polylectic

host nest	WEI-00007			2350 m
host nest	MG845964, MG845965	x	x	
groundnesting	WSW-00014		x	
above and below ground	WSW-00027	x	x	
groundnesting	WSW-00005		x	
	WSW-00017		x	
groundnesting	WSW-00025			3450 m
groundnesting	MG846682, MG846683		x	
groundnesting	MG846696		x	
groundnesting	MK441998			1723 m
groundnesting	barcode not abloaded due to bad sequence quality		x	
cavities above ground	WSW-00013			1587 m
cavities above ground	WSW-00026			1587 m
cavities above ground	observation only			1970 m
cavities above ground	WBA-00047			2076 m
above and below ground	WBA-00023, WBA-00031			1952 m
groundnesting	observation only			2076 m
above and below ground	WBA-00003, WBA-00048			1952 m
above and below ground	WBA-00028		x	
	WBA-00025			
	WBA-00032			
groundnesting	WBA-00027, WBA-00046			6052 m
groundnesting	WBA-00010, WBA-00016			4172 m
cavities above ground	observation only			2076 m
cavities above ground	WBA-00033			4108 m
cavities above ground	WBA-00040			1952 m

Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Hylaeus nigrinus</i>	*	oligolectic: Asteraceae
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Lasioglossum leucozonium</i> group		
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Lasioglossum morio</i> group		
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Nomada flava</i>	*	parasitic
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Osmia spinulosa</i>	3	oligolectic: Asteraceae
Willy-Brandt-Allee	<i>Sphecodes puncticeps</i>	*	parasitic

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1) Red List Stati: \* = not threatened, V = pre-warning list, 3 = threatened

2) Diversity Work Bench accession numbers start with three letters for the site; the remaining numbers are GenBank accessions of DNA barcodes.

Physical vouchers were deposited in the Zoologische Staatssammlung München.

cavities above ground	WBA-00006, WBA-00007 WBA-00008 WBA-00009 WBA-00022		2076 m
host nest cavities above ground	WBA-00011, WBA-00020 WBA-00004 WBA-00042	x	7705 m
host nest	MG845958		7705 m

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**Table S3.** Species recorded within the last twenty years at 500, 1000, and 1500 m distance from the respective flower strip

500 m	1000 m	1500 m
<b>Altostraße</b>		
n = 24	n = 43	n = 400
	<i>Andrena bicolor</i>	<i>Andrena bicolor</i> <i>Andrena carantonica</i> <i>Andrena cineraria</i> <i>Andrena fulvata</i> <i>Andrena fulva</i> <b><i>Andrena haemorrhoea</i></b> <i>Andrena helvola</i> <i>Andrena minutula</i> <i>Andrena minutuloides</i> <i>Andrena nitida</i> <i>Andrena ovatula</i> <i>Andrena praecox</i> <i>Andrena subopaca</i> <i>Andrena varians</i> <i>Andrena ventralis</i> <i>Andrena viridescens</i> <i>Andrena wilkella</i> <i>Anthidium manicatum</i>
	<i>Andrena minutula</i>	
<i>Andrena wilkella</i>	<i>Andrena wilkella</i>	<i>Andrena wilkella</i>
<b><i>Anthidium oblongatum</i></b>	<b><i>Anthidium oblongatum</i></b> <i>Anthidium punctatum</i>	<b><i>Anthidium oblongatum</i></b> <i>Anthidium punctatum</i> <i>Bombus barbutellus</i> <i>Bombus bohemicus</i> <b><i>Bombus hortorum</i></b> <i>Bombus humilis</i> <i>Bombus hypnorum</i> <b><i>Bombus lapidarius</i></b> <b><i>Bombus lucorum</i></b> <b><i>Bombus pascourorum</i></b> <i>Bombus pratorum</i> <i>Bombus rupestris</i> <i>Bombus soroeensis</i> <b><i>Bombus sylvarum</i></b> <b><i>Bombus terrestris</i></b> <b><i>Bombus vestalis</i></b> <i>Ceratina cyanea</i> <i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i> <i>Coelioxys conica</i> <i>Colletes daviesanus</i> <b><i>Colletes similis</i></b> <i>Epeolus variegatus</i> <i>Halictus confusus</i> <b><i>Halictus eurygnathus</i></b> <i>Halictus maculatus</i> <b><i>Halictus rubicundus</i></b>
<i>Bombus humilis</i> <i>Bombus hypnorum</i> <b><i>Bombus lapidarius</i></b> <b><i>Bombus lucorum</i></b> <b><i>Bombus pascourorum</i></b> <i>Bombus pratorum</i>	<i>Bombus humilis</i> <i>Bombus hypnorum</i> <b><i>Bombus lapidarius</i></b> <b><i>Bombus lucorum</i></b> <b><i>Bombus pascourorum</i></b> <i>Bombus pratorum</i>	
<b><i>Bombus terrestris</i></b> <b><i>Bombus vestalis</i></b>	<b><i>Bombus terrestris</i></b> <b><i>Bombus vestalis</i></b>	
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	
	<i>Halictus confusus</i>	
<b><i>Halictus rubicundus</i></b>	<b><i>Halictus rubicundus</i></b>	

Halictus simplex	Halictus simplex	Halictus scabiosae Halictus simplex <b>Halictus subauratus</b> Halictus tumulorum <b>Heriades truncorum</b>
Hoplitis adunca	Hoplitis adunca	Hoplitis adunca Hoplitis claviventris Hoplitis leucomelana Hylaeus brevicornis <b>Hylaeus communis</b> Hylaeus confusus Hylaeus gibbus Hylaeus gracilicornis Hylaeus gredleri Hylaeus hyalinatus Hylaeus nigritus Hylaeus signatus Lasioglossum albipes Lasioglossum calceatum Lasioglossum fulvicorne Lasioglossum laticeps Lasioglossum leucopus Lasioglossum leucozonium Lasioglossum lineare Lasioglossum malachurum Lasioglossum morio Lasioglossum nitidiusculum Lasioglossum nitidulum <b>Lasioglossum pauxillum</b> Lasioglossum rufitarse Lasioglossum villosulum Lasioglossum zonulum
<b>Hylaeus communis</b>	<b>Hylaeus communis</b>	
Hylaeus gracilicornis	Hylaeus gracilicornis	
Hylaeus nigritus	Hylaeus nigritus Hylaeus signatus	
Lasioglossum calceatum Lasioglossum fulvicorne Lasioglossum laticeps	Lasioglossum calceatum Lasioglossum fulvicorne Lasioglossum laticeps	
Lasioglossum morio	Lasioglossum morio	
<b>Lasioglossum pauxillum</b>	<b>Lasioglossum pauxillum</b>	
Megachile ericetorum	Megachile ericetorum	Megachile ericetorum Megachile nigriventris Megachile rotundata Megachile versicolor <b>Megachile willughbiella</b> Melitta haemorrhoidalis Melitta lepornia Nomada flava Nomada flavoguttata Nomada fucata Nomada marshamella Nomada moeschleri Nomada panzeri Nomada succincta Osmia bicornis Osmia claviventris Osmia rufohirta Osmia spinulosa
<b>Megachile willughbiella</b>	<b>Megachile willughbiella</b>	
	Osmia bicornis	
	Osmia spinulosa	

Sphecodes ferruginatus	Panurgus banksianus Pseudoanthidium nanum Sphecodes crassus Sphecodes ephippius Sphecodes ferruginatus Sphecodes gibbus Sphecodes miniatus Sphecodes monilicornis Sphecodes puncticeps Sphecodes rufiventris Trachusa byssina
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## Biedersteinstraße

n = 50

**Andrena bicolor**

Andrena chrysoceles

**Andrena cineraria**

Andrena gravida

Andrena hattorfiana

Andrena helvola

Andrena labialis

Andrena proxima

Andrena subopaca

Andrena tibialis

Andrena vaga

Andrena ventralis

**Anthidium manicatum**

Anthophora plumipes

**Bombus pascuorum**

n = 149

**Andrena bicolor**

Andrena chrysoceles

**Andrena cineraria**

Andrena denticulata

Andrena labialis

Andrena fulva

Andrena gravida

Andrena haemorrhhoa

Andrena hattorfiana

Andrena helvola

Andrena labialis

Andrena minutula

Andrena minutuloides

Andrena mitis

Andrena nitida

Andrena ovatula

Andrena proxima

Andrena subopaca

Andrena tibialis

Andrena vaga

Andrena ventralis

Andrena viridescens

Andrena wilkella

**Anthidium manicatum**

Anthophora plumipes

Bombus distinguendus

Bombus pomorum

**Bombus barbutellus**

Bombus campestris

Bombus humilis

Bombus hypnorum

**Bombus lapidarius**

Bombus muscorum

**Bombus pascuorum**

Bombus pratorum

Bombus rudericus



	Bombus rupestris
	Bombus soroeensis
	Bombus subterraneus
	Bombus sylvarum
	<b>Bombus terrestris</b>
Bombus vestalis	Bombus vestalis
	Ceratina cyanea
Colletes cunicularius	Colletes cunicularius
<b>Halictus rubicundus</b>	<b>Halictus rubicundus</b>
<b>Halictus tumulorum</b>	<b>Halictus tumulorum</b>
	<b>Hylaeus communis</b>
	<b>Hylaeus hyalinatus</b>
<b>Hylaeus signatus</b>	<b>Hylaeus signatus</b>
	Hylaeus styriacus
<b>Lasioglossum albipes</b>	<b>Lasioglossum albipes</b>
Lasioglossum calceatum	Lasioglossum calceatum
	<b>Lasioglossum laticeps</b>
Lasioglossum leucozonium	Lasioglossum leucozonium
Lasioglossum malachurum	Lasioglossum malachurum
	Lasioglossum nitidulum
<b>Lasioglossum pauxillum</b>	<b>Lasioglossum pauxillum</b>
	Lasioglossum sexstrigatum
	Lasioglossum zonulum
Nomada alboguttata	Nomada alboguttata
Nomada fabriciana	Nomada fabriciana
Nomada fulvicornis	Nomada fulvicornis
Nomada goodeniana	Nomada goodeniana
Nomada lathburiana	Nomada lathburiana
	Nomada marshamella
	Nomada panzeri
Nomada ruficornis	Nomada ruficornis
	Nomada signata
	<b>Osmia bicornis</b>
Sphecodes albilabris	Sphecodes albilabris
	Sphecodes crassus
Sphecodes ephippius	Sphecodes ephippius
<b>Sphecodes monilicornis</b>	<b>Sphecodes monilicornis</b>
	Xylocopa violacea

## Fockensteinstraße

n = 1

n = 1

n = 79 (observations  
from 1600 m distance)

Andrena bicolor  
Andrena chrysoceles  
Andrena cineraria  
Andrena flavipes  
Andrena fulva  
Andrena fulvata  
Andrena gravida  
Andrena intermedia

**Bombus terrestris**

**Bombus terrestris**

Andrena minutula  
Andrena ovatula  
Andrena praecox  
Andrena semilaevis  
Andrena subopaca  
Andrena tibialis  
Andrena viridescens  
Andrena wilkella  
**Anthidium manicatum**  
**Anthidium oblongatum**  
Anthidium punctatum  
Anthophora plumipes  
Anthophora quadrimaculata  
Bombus humilis  
**Bombus hypnorum**  
**Bombus lapidarius**  
**Bombus lucorum**  
**Bombus pascuorum**  
**Bombus terrestris**  
Ceratina cyanea  
Chelostoma rapunculi  
**Halictus rubicundus**  
**Halictus scabiosae**  
**Halictus subauratus**  
**Halictus tumulorum**  
Heriades truncorum  
**Hoplitis adunca**  
Hoplitis leucomelana  
**Hylaeus brevicornis**  
**Hylaeus communis**  
Hylaeus confusus  
Hylaeus gracilicornis  
Hylaeus gredleri  
Hylaeus hyalinatus  
Hylaeus rinki  
Hylaeus signatus  
Hylaeus sinuatus  
Lasioglossum albipes  
**Lasioglossum calceatum**  
Lasioglossum fulvicorne  
Lasioglossum laticeps  
Lasioglossum leucopus  
Lasioglossum leucozonium  
Lasioglossum morio  
**Lasioglossum nitidulum**  
Lasioglossum pauxillum  
Lasioglossum villosulum  
Macropis europaea  
Macropis fulvipes  
**Megachile ericetorum**

**Megachile rotundata**  
**Megachile willughbiella**  
 Melecta albifrons  
 Nomada fabriciana  
 Nomada flava  
 Nomada flavoguttata  
 Nomada marshamella  
 Nomada signata  
 Osmia aurulenta  
 Osmia bicolor  
**Osmia bicornis**  
**Osmia caerulescens**  
 Osmia cornuta  
 Sphecodes ephippius  
 Sphecodes ferruginatus  
**Sphecodes monilicornis**  
 Stelis breviscula  
 Stelis ornatula

## Kuntersweg

n = 1

n = 1

n = 72

Andrena barbilabris  
 Andrena cineraria  
 Andrena denticulata  
 Andrena flavipes  
 Andrena fucata  
 Andrena haemorrhhoa  
 Andrena helvola  
 Andrena nitida  
 Andrena praecox  
 Andrena wilkella  
 Bombus bohemicus  
**Bombus hortorum**  
 Bombus humilis  
**Bombus pascouorum**  
 Bombus ruderatus  
 Bombus soroeensis  
 Bombus subterraneus  
 Bombus sylvarum  
**Bombus terrestris**  
 Bombus vestalis  
 Bombus veteranus  
 Coelioxys aurolimbata  
 Coelioxys rufescens  
 Chelostoma florissomne  
 Dufourea dentiventris  
 Eucera longicornis  
 Halictus simplex  
**Halictus tumulorum**  
 Hoplitis villosa

**Halictus tumulorum**

**Halictus tumulorum**

Hylaeus communis  
Hylaeus sinuatus  
**Lasioglossum calceatum**  
Lasioglossum latriventre  
**Lasioglossum leucozonium**  
Lasioglossum sexnotatum  
Macropis europaea  
Macropis fulvipes  
Megachile circumcincta  
Megachile versicolor  
Nomada braunsiana  
Nomada facilis  
Nomada ferruginata  
Nomada fucata  
Nomada goodeniana  
Nomada marshamella  
Osmia aurulenta  
Osmia bicolor  
Osmia leaiana  
Osmia parietina  
Osmia xanthomelana  
Stelis phaeoptera  
Trachusa byssina

## Pasinger Stadtpark

n = 329

Andrena bicolor  
Andrena bucephala  
Andrena carantonica  
Andrena chrysopyga  
**Andrena cineraria**  
Andrena coitana  
Andrena combinata  
Andrena decipiens  
Andrena denticulata  
Andrena dorsata  
Andrena flavipes  
Andrena floricola  
Andrena fulvata  
Andrena fulvida  
**Andrena gravida**  
Andrena gelriae  
Andrena haemorrhoea  
Andrena hattorfiana  
Andrena helvola  
Andrena humilis  
Andrena labiata  
Andrena labialis  
Andrena lathyri

Andrena minutula  
Andrena nigroaenea  
**Andrena nitida**  
Andrena nitiduscula  
Andrena ocreata  
Andrena pandellei europaea  
Andrena pilipes  
Andrena praecox  
Andrena proxima  
Andrena rosae  
Andrena ruficrus  
Andrena schencki  
Andrena symphyti  
Andrena synadelpha  
Andrena tibialis  
Andren thoracica  
Andrena vaga  
Andrena ventralis  
Andrena wilkella  
Anthophora furcata  
Anthophora plumipes  
Bombus barbutellus  
Bombus bohemicus  
**Bombus campestris**  
Bombus confusus  
**Bombus hortorum**  
Bombus humilis  
Bombus hypnorum  
Bombus jonellus  
**Bombus lapidarius**  
**Bombus pascuorum**  
Bombus pomorum  
Bombus quadricolor  
Bombus ruderarius  
Bombus ruderatus  
Bombus rupestris  
Bombus soroeensis  
Bombus subterraneus  
**Bombus sylvarum**  
Bombus sylvestris  
**Bombus terrestris**  
**Bombus vestalis**  
Bombus veteranus  
Bombus wurfleini mastrucatus  
Ceratina cyanea  
Chelostoma campanularum  
**Chelostoma florissomne**  
Chelostoma rapunculi  
Coelioxys conica  
Colletes conicularis

Colletes daviesanus  
Colletes similis  
Epeolus variegatus  
Eucera longicornis  
Eucera nigrescens  
Halictus maculatus  
**Halictus rubicundus**  
Halictus simplex  
**Halictus subauratus**  
**Halictus tumulorum**  
Hoplitis leucomelana  
Hoplitis mitis  
Hylaeus brevicornis  
Hylaeus communis  
Hylaeus difformis  
Hylaeus hyalinatus  
**Hylaeus nigrinus**  
Hylaeus punctulatus  
Hylaeus signatus  
Hylaeus sinuatus  
**Lasioglossum calceatum**  
Lasioglossum costulatum  
Lasioglossum fulvicorne  
Lasioglossum laevigatum  
Lasioglossum laticeps  
Lasioglossum leucozonium  
Lasioglossum quadrinotatum  
Lasioglossum sabulosum  
Lasioglossum sexnotatum  
Lasioglossum villosulum  
Lasioglossum xanthopus  
Lasioglossum zonulum  
Macropis europaea  
Megachile centuncularis  
Megachile circumcincta  
Megachile ericetorum  
Megachile lagopoda  
Megachile ligniseca  
Megachile nigriventris  
Megachile willughbiella  
Melitta haemorrhoidalis  
Melitta nigricans  
Melitta tricincta  
Nomada alboguttata  
Nomada braunsiana  
Nomada errans  
**Nomada fabriciana**  
Nomada ferruginata  
Nomada flava  
Nomada flavoguttata

Nomada fucata  
**Nomada fulvicornis**  
 Nomada furva  
 Nomada hirtipes  
 Nomada integra  
 Nomada kohli  
 Nomada lathburiana  
 Nomada leucophthalma  
**Nomada marshamella**  
 Nomada obscura  
 Nomada obtusifrons  
 Nomada opaca  
 Nomada panzeri  
 Nomada roberjeotiana  
 Nomada ruficornis  
 Nomada rufipes  
 Nomada sexfasciata  
 Nomada striata  
 Nomada succincta  
 Osmia aurulenta  
**Osmia bicornis**  
 Osmia caerulescens  
 Osmia cerinthidis  
 Osmia claviventris  
 Osmia leaiana  
 Osmia lepeletieri  
 Osmia rufohirta  
 Osmia uncinata  
 Panurgus banksianus  
 Panurgus calcaratus  
 Sphecodes ferruginatus  
 Stelis punctulatissima  
 Trachusa byssina

## Rathenaustraße

n = 39

n = 79

n = 117

Andrena flavipes

Andrena bicolor  
  
 Andrena chrysoceles  
 Andrena falsifica  
 Andrena flavipes  
 Andrena fulva  
**Andrena haemorrhoa**  
  
 Andrena minutula  
 Andrena minutuloides  
**Andrena tibialis**  
 Andrena viridescens

Andrena bicolor  
 Andrena carantonica  
 Andrena chrysoceles  
 Andrena falsifica  
 Andrena flavipes  
 Andrena fulva  
**Andrena haemorrhoa**  
 Andrena hattorfiana  
 Andrena humilis  
 Andrena minutula  
 Andrena minutuloides  
**Andrena tibialis**  
 Andrena viridescens  
 Andrena wilkella

Anthidium manicatum	Anthidium manicatum	Anthidium manicatum
Anthidium oblongatum	Anthidium oblongatum	Anthidium oblongatum
Bombus bohemicus	Bombus bohemicus	Bombus bohemicus
Bombus hortorum	Bombus hortorum	Bombus hortorum
		Bombus humilis
<b>Bombus hypnorum</b>	<b>Bombus hypnorum</b>	<b>Bombus hypnorum</b>
Bombus lapidarius	Bombus lapidarius	Bombus lapidarius
<b>Bombus lucorum</b>	<b>Bombus lucorum</b>	<b>Bombus lucorum</b>
<b>Bombus pascourorum</b>	<b>Bombus pascourorum</b>	<b>Bombus pascourorum</b>
		Bombus pratorum
		Bombus rupestris
		<b>Bombus sylvarum</b>
		<b>Bombus terrestris</b>
		Bombus vestalis
Ceratina cyanea	Ceratina cyanea	Ceratina cyanea
Chelostoma campanularum	Chelostoma campanularum	Chelostoma campanularum
	Chelostoma rapunculi	Chelostoma rapunculi
	Halictus rubicundus	Halictus eurygnathus
		Halictus rubicundus
		Halictus simplex
		<b>Halictus subauratus</b>
		<b>Halictus tumulorum</b>
<b>Heriades truncorum</b>	<b>Heriades truncorum</b>	<b>Heriades truncorum</b>
Hoplitis adunca	Hoplitis adunca	Hoplitis adunca
Hylaeus communis	Hylaeus communis	Hylaeus communis
		Hylaeus confusus
Hylaeus hyalinatus	Hylaeus hyalinatus	Hylaeus hyalinatus
Hylaeus nigritus	Hylaeus nigritus	Hylaeus nigritus
Hylaeus signatus	Hylaeus signatus	Hylaeus signatus
		Hylaeus sinuatus
	Lasioglossum albipes	Lasioglossum albipes
<b>Lasioglossum calceatum</b>	<b>Lasioglossum calceatum</b>	<b>Lasioglossum calceatum</b>
		Lasioglossum laevigatum
<b>Lasioglossum laticeps</b>	<b>Lasioglossum laticeps</b>	<b>Lasioglossum laticeps</b>
Lasioglossum leucozonium	Lasioglossum leucozonium	Lasioglossum leucozonium
<b>Lasioglossum morio</b>	<b>Lasioglossum morio</b>	<b>Lasioglossum morio</b>
	<b>Lasioglossum pauxillum</b>	<b>Lasioglossum pauxillum</b>
		Megachile ericetorum
Megachile rotundata	Megachile rotundata	Megachile rotundata
Megachile versicolor	Megachile versicolor	Megachile versicolor
Megachile willughbiella	Megachile willughbiella	Megachile willughbiella
	<b>Nomada flavoguttata</b>	<b>Nomada flavoguttata</b>
	Nomada fulvicornis	Nomada fulvicornis
	Osmia aurulenta	Osmia aurulenta
	Osmia bicolor	Osmia bicolor
	<b>Osmia bicornis</b>	<b>Osmia bicornis</b>
Osmia caerulescens	Osmia caerulescens	Osmia caerulescens



Osmia claviventris  
 Osmia spinulosa  
 Sphecodes crassus  
  
 Sphecodes geoffrellus  
 Sphecodes gibbus  
 Sphecodes miniatus  
 Sphecodes monilicornis

Osmia claviventris  
 Osmia spinulosa  
 Sphecodes crassus  
 Sphecodes ferruginatus  
 Sphecodes geoffrellus  
 Sphecodes gibbus  
 Sphecodes miniatus  
 Sphecodes monilicornis

## Weitlstraße

n = 15

n = 19

Anthidium strigatum  
 Bombus humilis  
**Bombus lapidarius**  
 Ceratina cyanea  
 Halictus rubicundus  
**Halictus scabiosae**  
**Heriades truncorum**  
**Hylaeus communis**  
**Hylaeus nigritus**  
 Lasioglossum calceatum  
 Lasioglossum laticeps  
 Lasioglossum morio  
**Lasioglossum pauxillum**  
 Lasioglossum villosulum  
**Sphecodes monilicornis**

Andrena chrysoceles  
 Anthidium strigatum  
 Bombus humilis  
**Bombus lapidarius**  
 Ceratina cyanea  
 Halictus rubicundus  
**Halictus scabiosae**  
**Heriades truncorum**  
**Hylaeus communis**  
**Hylaeus nigritus**  
 Lasioglossum calceatum  
 Lasioglossum laticeps  
 Lasioglossum morio  
**Lasioglossum pauxillum**  
 Lasioglossum villosulum  
**Sphecodes monilicornis**

## Werner-Seelenbinder-Weg

n = 8

n = 78

**Bombus lapidarius**  
  
 Bombus pascouorum  
 Bombus pomorum  
 Bombus ruderarius  
 Bombus rupestris

**Andrena cineraria**  
 Andrena minutula  
 Andrena nitida  
 Andrena ovatula  
 Anthidium manicatum  
 Anthidium oblongatum  
 Anthidium strigatum  
 Bombus barbutellus  
 Bombus campestris  
 Bombus distinguendus  
 Bombus humilis  
 Bombus hypnorum  
**Bombus lapidarius**  
**Bombus lucorum**  
 Bombus pascouorum  
 Bombus pomorum  
 Bombus ruderarius  
 Bombus rupestris  
 Bombus soroensis  
 Bombus subterraneus  
 Bombus sylvarum

Lasioglossum albipes

Sphecodes ephippius

**Bombus terrestris**

Bombus vestalis

Ceratina cyanea

Halictus confusus

Halictus rubicundus

**Halictus tumulorum**

Heriades truncorum

Hoplitis adunca

Hylaeus communis

Hylaeus confusus

Hylaeus nigrinus

Lasioglossum albipes

**Lasioglossum calceatum**

Lasioglossum fulvicorne

**Lasioglossum laticeps**

Lasioglossum morio

**Lasioglossum pauxillum**

Lasioglossum sexstrigatum

Lasioglossum villosulum

Macropis fulvipes

Megachile rotundata

Nomada lathburiana

Osmia bicolor

Osmia caerulea

Sphecodes ephippius

Sphecodes gibbus

Sphecodes marginatus

Sphecodes monilicornis

## Willy-Brandt-Allee

n = 19 (observations  
from 1600 m distance)

Andrena flavipes

Andrena wilkella

Anthidium punctatum

**Bombus sylvarum**

Ceratina cyanea

Halictus simplex

Halictus tumulorum

Hylaeus signatus

Lasioglossum calceatum

Megachile circumcincta

Nomada flavoguttata

Nomada marshamella

Osmia aurulenta

Osmia bicolor

**Osmia spinulosa**

Chapter 7

**Bee species recorded  
between 1992 and 2017  
from green roofs in  
Asia, Europe, and North America,  
with key characteristics  
and open research questions**

Hofmann, M. M., and Renner, S. S.

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# Bee species recorded between 1992 and 2017 from green roofs in Asia, Europe, and North America, with key characteristics and open research questions

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**Abstract** – Green roofs, which have become mandatory on new flat-topped buildings in many cities, increase habitat connectivity for wildlife and have contributed to a boom in urban beekeeping. The ecological benefits or risks of green roofs for wild bees (bee species other than the domesticated honey bee, *Apis mellifera*), however, have not been comprehensively analyzed. We therefore reviewed studies on insects caught on green roofs in Asia, Europe, or North America between 1992 and early 2017 and extracted information on wild bees. The resulting species list includes 236 Apidae identified in 35 studies, with thermophilic species probably overrepresented because roofs provide warm and dry habitats. The percentage of cavity-nesting bees on roofs is higher than that on nearby ground, while the percentage of pollen specialists is lower. Data are almost completely lacking on the reproductive success of bees on green roofs, the effect of roof age on bee diversity, and the genetic or demographic benefits of increased habitat connectivity. Our list of the bee species so far reported on green roofs will help in the selection and implementation of suitable soils, nesting aids, and plantings.

**Bees / Cavity-nesting species / Ground-nesting species / Species diversity / Urban habitats**

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The past 20 years have seen a dramatic increase in research on green roofs (reviewed in Bowler et al. 2010 and Blank et al. 2013), which are now mandatory on flat-topped buildings in Switzerland and a few other European countries and supported by incentives in the USA (Brenneisen 2006; Stutz 2010). Although there are different types of green roofs, one can generally distinguish between intensive and extensive roof greening. Intensive green roofs usually have a soil layer of at least 15 cm and sometimes up to

60 cm or more (Mann 1994), while extensive green roofs have only a thin layer of soil (5–15 cm), supporting mostly mosses, herbs, succulents, and grasses (Gedge and Kadas 2005). Roofs with shallow soil layers are a difficult growing environment for plants because of moisture stress, severe drought, and full exposure to sun and wind (Schneider and Riedmiller 1992; Dunnett and Kingsbury 2008). On the other hand, extensive roofs require minimal maintenance and can be self-sustaining.

Ecosystem services from green roofs include storm-water management (Getter and Rowe 2008; Berndtsson 2010), moderation of the urban heat island effect (Takebayashi and Moriyama 2007; Tabares-Velasco et al. 2012), lower building temperatures (Oberndorfer et al. 2007), and a role as urban wildlife habitat (for reviews, see Fernandez-Canero and Gonzalez-Redondo 2010, Williams et al. 2014, and Gonsalves 2016). An important aspect for the latter role is that green roofs are undisturbed by humans during most of the year, making them quiet

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habitats with low pesticide loads (Hui and Chan 2011). They also increase habitat connectivity for certain arthropods (Braaker et al. 2014).

Of the many arthropods living on green roofs, bees stand out because of their role as pollinators and because urban beekeepers tend to find beekeeping “restorative and empowering” (Moore and Cost 2013). While urban beekeeping has led to an increase of the density of honey bees in cities, the past 50 years have seen a decline in the abundance of wild bee species, attributed mostly to habitat loss and pesticides (Goulson et al. 2008), although hard data on change in bee abundances in urban spaces over time are scarce. Wild bees, most of which are solitary bees, are expected to benefit from the newly created habitat on green roofs because they may be able to forage both on the ground and on green roofs, and thermophilic species might also find nesting opportunities on green roofs. Surprisingly, however, the effects of green roofs on the diversity and abundance of wild bees in cities have received little attention despite repeated calls for bee-targeted green roof research (Zurbuchen and Müller 2012; Witt 2016). We here provide the first list of bee species recorded from green roofs, summarize key ecological traits of these bees, and point to important open questions about the role of green roofs as habitat for solitary bees.

## 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

We searched relevant keywords, such as “green roof” (or “living roof,” or “Gründach”), and “bee” (or hymenoptera or Wildbienen), using the search engines Web of Science (<http://www.isiknowledge.com>), ScienceDirect (<http://www.sciencedirect.com>), Google Scholar (<https://scholar.google.de>), and Google (<https://www.google.de>). We also included online-only journals, B.Sc., M.Sc., and diploma reports, and doctoral theses. Abstracts were checked to see whether a study covered wild bees on green roofs, and studies exclusively dealing with urban beekeeping were excluded because honeybees are a managed species.

Each found study was scanned for the following information: (i) Where and when was the study conducted? (ii) How many roofs were investigated and which sampling technique was used? (iii)

Which roof type (extensive or intensive) was investigated and were there non-roof reference areas? (iv) Which taxa were found? Were the specimens identified to species level? Results were tabulated and a species list was created as a basis for future work on green-roof-occurring species.

## 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the criteria laid out above, we found 35 studies dealing, at least partially, with wild bees on green roofs (Table S1, Supplementary Material). Compared to the 300 peer-reviewed studies about green roofs available by 2013 (Blank et al. 2013; a number supported by our search) and the large numbers of hits when searching for “green roof” on ScienceDirect ( $n = 1982$ , accessed 1 March 2017) or the Web of Science ( $n = 916$ , accessed 1 March 2017), a number of just 35 studies mentioning wild bees on green roofs is low. Almost 40% of these 300 publications on green roofs deal with engineering aspects, and another 37% with general aspects of the environment and ecology. Only 3% are assigned to the ISI category biodiversity conservation (Blank et al. 2013), a category that encompasses studies on plants, birds, beetles, collembolans, soil arthropods, spiders, and other invertebrates (Williams et al. 2014). Of the 35 studies, eight fully focus on wild bees (Brenneisen 2005; Colla et al. 2009; Tonietto et al. 2011; Ksiazek et al. 2012, 2014; Kratschmer 2015; MacIvor et al. 2015; Walker 2016); the remaining 27 included hymenopterans other than bees. The longest species lists contain 77 (Brenneisen 2006), 79 (Colla et al. 2009), 91 (Kratschmer 2015), or 126 species (Braaker et al. 2014), showing that green roofs are indeed an important habitat for wild bees.

Especially thermophilic species (not only bees but also other arthropods) adapted to living under dry conditions have been reported from green roofs, including a few rare species (Jones 2002; Kadas 2006; MacIvor and Lundholm 2011; Kratschmer 2015). Generally, intensive green roofs, have a higher bee diversity and abundance than extensive green roofs (Brenneisen 2006; Madre et al. 2013; Kratschmer 2015; Witt 2016), and unsurprisingly green roofs with a higher

number of plant species tend to have a higher number of bee species (Köhler 2014).

So far, 236 species have been recorded on green roofs (Table S2, Supplementary Material), with several additional species present, but not identified to species level (at least  $n = 13$ ). Several studies, unfortunately, mention species lists in the text, but fail to make them available (Mann 1996a, b; Köhler 2014; Braaker et al. 2014, 2017). Of the 236 species, 151 are from Europe and 72 from North America. Eleven species were found both in Europe and America. The only Asian study of bees on green roofs reported three species, including the honey bee (Nagase and Nomura 2014). For Africa and Australia, no studies about wild bees on green roofs were found.

Only three studies provide data on bee foraging behavior (Mann 1994; Kratschmer 2015; Witt 2016). All showed that oligolectic species are underrepresented on green roofs. While it is not known how many of the estimated 20,000 species of wild bees worldwide are oligolectic (Michener 2007), green roofs appear to be used by few oligolectic bees: Thus, 11% of the species found on green roofs in Vienna, Austria, and Hannover, Germany, were oligolectic (Kratschmer 2015; Witt 2016) and 4% of those on a roof in Böblingen, Germany (Mann 1994), while the number of oligolectic species in the Austrian, German, and Swiss bee faunas overall is ca. 30% (Zurbuchen and Müller, 2012: p. 26), which for Germany would be 193 (Schmidt et al. 2015). These findings fit with a noted decrease in foraging specialists among insect species in urban compared to rural areas (Hernandez et al. 2009).

Another “green roof bee fauna” characteristic is the high proportion of cavity-nesting compared to ground-nesting species. Of the ca. 580 wild bee species in Germany, Liechtenstein, Austria, and Switzerland (Schmidt et al. 2015), some 50% breed in the ground, 23% above ground, and 25% are parasites, but even in Europe, the nesting sites of at least 23 species are unknown (Zurbuchen and Müller, 2012: p. 57). On green roofs in Vienna, 31% of the wild bee species nested above ground (Kratschmer 2015) and in Chicago 30 to 35% (Tonietto et al. 2011; Ksiazek et al. 2014). By comparison, 40% of the green roof species in Vienna nested in the ground (Kratschmer 2015) and

60 to 70% of those in Chicago (Ksiazek et al. 2014; Tonietto et al. 2011). The latter high percentages may be partly a collecting artifact, since ground-nesting species are more likely to be caught in pan traps, which was the method used in these studies. Artificial nesting aids on green roofs may increase the species diversity of cavity-nesting bees, but if they are installed on the roofs of high raises, reproductive success, measured as finished brood cells, may be low (MacIvor 2016). Artificial nesting sites for ground-nesting bees, consisting of sand and earth layers with a thickness of 20 cm, can be sufficient for bees to nest (Brenneisen et al. 2014).

Regarding body size, one would expect relatively many large species on green roofs, since they have larger foraging distances and therefore may detect vertically distant foraging grounds more readily than small bee species (Greenleaf et al. 2007). Indeed, MacIvor et al. (2015) found more medium and large than small bees on green roofs in Toronto, Canada, but small bees dominated the species spectrum on roofs in Chicago and Vienna (Ksiazek et al. 2012; Kratschmer 2015). These different results may be partly explained by these authors’ different collecting methods, namely netting vs. pan trapping. Small bees were especially frequent, when the soil depth exceeded 20 cm (Kratschmer 2015). Further studies are required to understand the correlation of green-roof nesting and bee body size, itself related to foraging distance, which is of prime importance in the successful reproduction of bees nesting on roofs.

Few of the plants that do well on green roofs are good nectar and pollen sources for wild bees, most important among them probably the species of *Sedum* (MacIvor et al. 2015), but the number of plant species on green roofs is extremely low compared to that on ground-level habitats (MacIvor and Lundholm 2011; Tonietto et al. 2011; Ksiazek et al. 2012, 2014; Braaker et al. 2014, 2017), and in spite of “habitat connectivity” (enhancing both gene flow and numbers of individuals) being among the most often quoted benefits of green roofs, only a single study so far has provided data supporting this notion (Braaker et al. 2014, 2017).

Table I summarizes expectations and findings about the species diversity and life history types of bees on green roofs. Based on the available data (Table I; Supplementary Material: Tables S1, S2),

**Table I.** Trends observed in bee size, diet, and nesting habitat when comparing bees from green roofs and nearby ground-level habitats

Green roof features	Predicted consequences for bee diversity	Results from the 35 studies reviewed here
Green roofs are hot and dry habitats.	Thermophilic species predominate on green roofs.	Increased proportion of thermophilic species (Jones 2002; Kadas 2006; MacIvor and Lundholm 2011; Kratschmer 2015)
Intensive roofs have higher plant diversity than extensive roofs.	Higher plant diversity can support higher bee diversity.	Higher abundances and species numbers on intensive, biodiverse green roofs (Köhler 2014; Brenneisen 2006; Madre et al. 2013; Kratschmer 2015; Witt 2016)
Reduced plant species numbers compared to ground-level habitats	Insufficient food supply for specialist bees	Oligolectic bee species are underrepresented on green roofs (Mann 1994; Kratschmer 2015; Witt 2016).
Extensive green roofs have a thin soil layer.	Ground-nesting species, especially larger species with deep nests, cannot breed on green roofs.	Increased proportion of cavity-nesting species compared to ground-nesting species (Tonietto et al. 2011; Ksiazek et al. 2014, Kratschmer 2015)
Green roofs are planted on buildings, thus more or less high above ground.	Vertical isolation from ground habitats is especially hard to overcome for small bee species.	Large and medium-sized species are some times overrepresented (MacIvor et al. 2015) but not always (Ksiazek et al. 2012; Kratschmer 2015).

more work is needed to better understand the potential of green roofs as an urban bee habitat. Thus, there are still no solid data on how readily wild (solitary and semi-social) bees change between roofs and ground-level habitats for foraging or nesting or whether they ever travel between different roofs (i.e., whether roofs connect habitats). Marking experiments are urgently required, such as have long been successfully applied in studies of other insects (Walker and Wineriter 1981; for reviews see Hagler and Jackson 2001). There are also only anecdotal observations of roof-breeding bees (e.g., Kratschmer 2015), rather than hard data on the breeding success or failure of bees that have accepted the nesting aids installed on green roofs. If green roofs are intended as an alternative habitat for bees, it is crucial to understand how well they can reproduce there. Otherwise, the risk that green roofs may become an “ecological trap,” that is, habitats that cannot sustain reproducing populations (Donovan and Thompson 2001), is high, meaning that species accept green roofs for nesting, but then fail to rear their brood. This is the case in some ground-breeding birds, such as lapwings (*Vanellus vanellus*), that built nests on green roofs, but with

low chick survival due to insufficient food and water on the roofs (Baumann 2006).

Another open question is the speed of colonization by wild bees of newly established green roofs and their development as bee habitat over time. Studies on this topic so far have focused on plants (Köhler 2006; Emilsson 2008; Nagase and Nomura 2014; Deng and Jim 2016; Lundholm 2016; but see Kadas 2006).

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

Despite public awareness of the importance of wild bees as pollinators of most flowering plants and the current enthusiasm for urban beekeeping (Moore and Kosut 2013), little is known about the role of green roofs as a habitat for wild bees, in terms of both foraging and for successful nesting. Small-scale local conditions determine the nest-site selection by bees in general as well as in urban areas (Everaars et al. 2011), and artificial nesting aids matching the preferences of specific bee species could promote bee reproduction on green roofs. Our list of the 236 species of wild bees that have so far been reported on green roofs (Table S2, Supplementary Material) will help in



the selection and implementation of suitable soils, cavity-providing structures, or plants addressed to species managing to breed on green roofs. The promise of green roofs as urban bee habitat will only be fulfilled with more research on wild bees' requirements for successful reproduction.

## CONTRIBUTIONS

MH compiled the data and wrote the first draft; MH and SSR co-wrote the final draft. Both authors read and approved the final manuscript.

**Espèces d'abeilles inventoriées entre 1992 et 2017 sur les toits végétalisés en Asie, Europe et Amérique du Nord, avec leurs principales caractéristiques et des questions de recherche ouvertes**

**Abeilles / espèces nichant dans des cavités / espèces nichant au sol / diversité des espèces / habitats urbains**

**Bienenarten, die zwischen 1992 und 2017 auf Gründächern in Asien, Europa und Nordamerika nachgewiesen wurden, einschließlich von Schlüsselmerkmalen und bisher ungeklärten Forschungsfragen**

**Solitärbiene / höhlenbrütende Arten / bodenbrütende Arten / Artenvielfalt / urbane Habitate**

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Supplementary material from

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**Table S1: Overview of green roof (= GR) studies involving wild bee species assessment**

Location	Time span	Roof type	Survey method	Species level ID (Y/N)	# species	Research Question(s)	Reference
<b>European Studies</b>							
Baden-Wuerttemberg, Germany	1990 - 1992	“Pflegeteilschächel” “Pflanzendach” experimental extensive roof (only one layer, no drainage)	Pan traps	Y	19	Green roofs as secondary habitat	(Riedmiller 1991; Schneider & Riedmiller 1992; Riedmiller & Schneider 1993)
Berlin (7 roofs) and Neubrandenburg (5 roofs), Germany	April-September 2013	Green roofs of different ages (n=12)	Pan traps	Y (list not provided)	51	Influence of the number of plant species on the number of bee species	(Köhler 2014)
Bingen, Germany	July-September 2014 and June-August 2015	Extensive GR (n=5) and gravel roofs (n=4)	Observation	N	N/A	Comparison of insect abundance, <b>density/m<sup>2</sup></b> and <b>diversity</b>	(Hietel 2016 summarizing information from Kaiser 2014; Kuhlmann 2015)

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<b>Böblingen/</b> Sindelfingen, Germany	mainly May- August 1992	Extensive to intensive GR (n=4)	Netting and hand capturing (two days each, 1-2h)	Y	49	Assessment of the arthropod spectrum on differently planted GR	(Mann 1994)
<b>Böblingen,</b> Germany and Linz, Austria		Extensive (n=4) and intensive (n=3) GR	Pan traps and Netting	Y (list not provided)	N/A	Faunistic assessment on different roof types	(Mann 1996a, 1996b)
Basel, Luzern, St Gallen, Zurich, Switzerland	2004 - 2005	Extensive GR (n=18)	Pan traps and observation	Y	77	Wild bees on extensive GRs; no comparison to ground-level habitats (reference samples lost due to disturbance)	(Brenneisen 2005)
St Gallen, Tessin, Vallis, Switzerland	2011 - 2013	GR (n=8), spontaneous GR (n=1), non-GR (n=3)	Observation, Netting (max 4x per year, 30 min each)	Y	44	Feasibility of nesting aids for ground-nesting species on GRs	(Brenneisen et al. 2014, summarizing information from Kälin 2005; Kessler 2010; <b>Käppeli</b> 2010; Zehnder 2011)



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Hannover, Germany	June-July 2015	GR (n=10): extensive <i>Sedum</i> -roofs (n=3), some shrubs (n=2), intensive roofs	Netting, 1x June and 1x July	Y	28	Wild bees and wasps on GRs	(Wirt 2016)
London, UK	Summer-Autumn 2004	GR ( <i>Sedum</i> , n=3) and brown/biodiverse roofs (n=2)	Pan traps	Y	22	Invertebrate conservation and habitat mitigation; Comparison of green ( <i>Sedum</i> ) roofs, brown/biodiverse roofs and brownfields	(Kadas 2006)
London, UK	N/A	Extensive GR (n=8)	Suction sampler	Y	N/A 9	Invertebrate survey	(Jones 2002)
Northern France	11 April - 7 June 2011	Moss/ <i>Sedum</i> , herbaceous layer and shrubs (roofs (n=115)	Hand-sampling with pill bottles	Y	18	spider, true bug, beetle and hymenopteran abundance and species richness	(Madre et al. 2013)
Stuttgart, Wuerzburg, Germany	June-July 2005	Intensive (n=1) and extensive (n=2) GR	Pan traps	N	4	Height limitation of invertebrates on skyscrapers	(Mann 2005)

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Vienna, Austria	March – September 2014	Intensive and extensive GR (n=9)	Netting	Y	91	Species composition and abundances on GR, influence of vegetation and surrounding area	(Kratschmer 2015)
Zurich, Switzerland	May - September 2010	Extensive GR (n=40)	Pan traps, non-directional traps	Y (list not provided)	126	Habitat connectivity by GR for taxa of different mobility	(Braaker et al. 2014, 2017)

#### North American Studies

Chicago, US	June – October 2008	GR dominated by native plants (n=2) or Sedum (n=4)	3x 15 min observation, netting, pan traps	Y	18	Comparison of GR with tallgrass prairie and city-park green spaces	(Tonietto et al. 2011)
Chicago, US	Three month	N/A (n=3)	Pan traps	N	N/A	Pollen limitation on GR compared to ground-level sites	(Ksiazek et al. 2012)
Chicago, US	2 years	Intensively maintained to extensive roofs (n=7)	Pan traps	Y	26	Species composition on GRs	(Ksiazek et al. 2014)
Halifax, Nova Scotia, US	May – October 2009	Established (>8) intensive roofs (> 30 cm growth medium)	Pan traps	N (only morpho-species)		Comparison of GR and ground-level habitats	(MacIvor & Lundholm 2011)

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Halifax, Nova Scotia, US	June-August 2014	Native planted GR (n=2)	Netting	Y	24	Comparison of green roof, urban and coastal barrens habitats	(Walker 2016)
Michigan, US	June – July 2010	<i>Sedum</i> GR (n=2)	Netting	Y	1	Arthropod survey of Michigan	(O'Brien, Swanson, & Monsma, 2012)
Toronto, Canada	2004 – 2006	Actively seeded (n=1) and passively seeded (n=1) GR	Pan traps	Y	79	Diversity and abundance of bees on GR in comparison to ground-level sites	(Colla et al. 2009)
Toronto, Canada	5 days in June and July	Green Roof Innovation Testing Lab (University of Toronto)	Netting	Y	17	Pollen analysis of urban bees visiting <i>Sedum</i> on green roofs	(MacIvor et al. 2015)
Toronto, Canada	2011 - 2013	Vegetated and non-vegetated roofs (n=29)	Trap nests	Y	11	Nesting activity of bees on GR depending on building height	(MacIvor, 2016)
Upper Midwest Great lakes (MI, OH), US	July - August 2004	Extensive (n=1) and intensive (n=1) roof	Netting	N	59 morpho-species of insects	Rapid biodiversity assessment from presence-absence and relative abundance data	(Coffman & Waite 2011)

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### Other studies

Chiba City, Japan	May- November 2010	150 m <sup>2</sup> biotope roof, 8 years	Observation (7 x 3h), netting, pan traps	Y	3	Plant development and invertebrate colonization after 8 years	(Nagase & Nomura 2014)
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**Table S2: Alphabetical list of species reported on green roofs**

<b>Species</b>	<b>Location</b>
<b>European records</b>	
<i>Andrena fulva</i>	Basel, CH
<i>Andrena bicolor</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Basel, St Gallen, CH; London, UK
<i>Andrena blüthgeni</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Andrena chrysoceles</i>	Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Luzern, St. Gallen, CH
<i>Andrena cineraria</i>	Basel, CH
<i>Andrena combinata</i>	Tessin, CH
<i>Andrena curvungula</i>	Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE
<i>Andrena damivia</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Andrena denticulata</i>	Hannover, DE
<i>Andrena dorsata</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; Hannover, DE; Vienna, AT
<i>Andrena flavipes</i>	Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, Tessin ZH, CH; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Hannover, DE; London, UK; Northern France, FR; Vienna, AT

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<i>Andrena fucata</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE</b>
<i>Andrena fulva</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; London, UK</b>
<i>Andrena gravida</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Vienna, AT</b>
<i>Andrena haemorrhoa</i>	<b>Basel, St Gallen, CH; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE</b>
<i>Andrena labialis</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE</b>
<i>Andrena labiata</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE</b>
<i>Andrena minutula</i>	<b>Baden-Württemberg, DE; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Basel, Tessin, CH; Hannover, DE; London, UK; Vienna, AT</b>
<i>Andrena minutuloides</i>	<b>Baden-Württemberg, DE; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Basel, CH</b>
<i>Andrena mnigroaena</i>	<b>London, UK</b>
<i>Andrena nigroaenea</i>	<b>Vienna, AT</b>
<i>Andrena nitida</i>	<b>St Gallen, ZH, CH</b>
<i>Andrena nitidiuscula</i>	<b>Baden-Württemberg, DE</b>
<i>Andrena ovatula</i>	<b>Vienna, AT; Tessin, CH</b>
<i>Andrena pandellei</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE</b>
<i>Andrena pilipes</i>	<b>Vienna, AT</b>



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<i>Andrena scotica</i>	London, UK; St Gallen, CH
<i>Andrena spec.</i>	Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, ZH, CH
<i>Andrena strohmeilla</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE</b>
<i>Andrena subopaca</i>	Basel, St Gallen, CH; <b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE</b>
<i>Andrena tibialis</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Andrena trimmerana</i>	London, UK
<i>Andrena varians</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Vienna, AT</b>
<i>Andrena viridescens</i>	ZH, CH
<i>Anthidium spec.</i>	Würzburg, DE
<i>Anthidium punctatum</i>	St Gallen, CH
<i>Anthidium strigatum</i>	St Gallen, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Anthophora crinipes</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Anthophora furcata</i>	Basel, CH
<i>Anthophora plumipes</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Anthophora quadrimaculata</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Hannover, DE; Vienna, AT</b>
<i>Anthophora spec.</i>	Basel, CH

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<i>Bombus alpestris</i>	St. Gallen, CH
<i>Bombus bohemicus</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Bombus campestris</i>	St. Gallen, CH
<i>Bombus hortorum</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen</b> , DE; St. Gallen, Tessin, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Bombus humilis</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen</b> , DE; Luzern, St. Gallen, Tessin, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Bombus hypnorum</i>	Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, ZH, CH; Northern France, FR; Hannover, DE; Vienna, AT
<i>Bombus lapidarius</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; <b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen</b> , DE; Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, ZH, CH; Hannover, DE; London, UK; Northern France, FR; Stuttgart, DE; Vienna, AT
<i>Bombus lucorum</i>	Hannover, DE; London, UK; Vienna, AT
<i>Bombus pascuorum</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; <b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen</b> , DE; Luzern, St. Gallen, Tessin, ZH, CH; Hannover, DE; Northern France, FR; Vienna, AT
<i>Bombus pratorum</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen</b> , DE; St. Gallen, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Bombus ruderatus</i>	Northern France, FR
<i>Bombus rupestris</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Bombus soroeensis</i>	Basel, St. Gallen, CH

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<i>Bombus spec.</i>	St Gallen, CH
<i>Bombus spec.</i>	Würzburg, DE
<i>Bombus sylvarum</i>	Northern France, FR
<i>Bombus sylvestris</i>	Basel, St Gallen, CH; London, UK
<i>Bombus terrestris</i>	Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Hannover, DE; London, UK; Northern France, FR; St. Galle, Wallis, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Ceratina cyanea</i>	Tessin, CH
<i>Chelostoma campanularum</i>	St. Gallen, CH
<i>Chelostoma florissome</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i>	Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; St. Gallen, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Coelioxys aurolimbata</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE
<i>Coelioxys echinata</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Coelioxys elongata</i>	Hannover, DE; Vienna, AT
<i>Coelioxys haemorrhoea</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Coelioxys mandibularis</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Colletes daviesanus</i>	Hannover, DE; Vienna, AT; ZH, CH

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<i>Colletes spec.</i>	St. Gallen, CH
<i>Dasygaster hirtipes</i>	Tessin, CH
<i>Eucera nigrescens</i>	Basel, Luzern, Tessin, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Halictus aff. eurygnathus</i>	Basel, CH
<i>Halictus kessleri</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Halictus maculatus</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Halictus rubicundus</i>	St. Gallen, Tessin, CH
<i>Halictus scabiosae</i>	Luzern, CH; Northern France, FR
<i>Halictus seladonius</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Halictus simplex</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen</b> , DE; Tessin, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Halictus spec.</i>	St Gallen, CH
<i>Halictus subauratus</i>	Basel, Tessin, CH; Northern France, FR; Vienna, AT
<i>Halictus tumulorum</i>	<b>Baden-Württemberg</b> , DE; <b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen</b> , DE; Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, CH; Hannover, DE; Vienna, AT
<i>Heriades crenulatus</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Heriades rubicola</i>	Vienna, AT

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<i>Heriades truncorum</i>	Hannover, DE; St. Gallen, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Hylaeus brevicornis</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen</b> , DE; St. Gallen, CH
<i>Hylaeus cardioscapus</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Hylaeus communis</i>	Basel, Tessin, CH; Hannover, DE; Vienna, AT
<i>Hylaeus confusus</i>	St. Gallen, CH
<i>Hylaeus dilatatus</i>	Hannover, DE
<i>Hylaeus gredleri</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Hylaeus hyalinatus</i>	Hannover, DE; Tessin, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Hylaeus imparilis</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Hylaeus leptocephalus</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen</b> , DE
<i>Hylaeus nigrinus</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen</b> , DE; Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, CH
<i>Hylaeus pictipes</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Hylaeus punctatus</i>	Wallis, CH
<i>Hylaeus simatus</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Hylaeus spec.</i>	<b>Würzburg</b> , DE
<i>Hylaeus styriacus</i>	Basel, CH; Vienna, AT

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<i>Hylaeus taeniolatus</i>	Basel, CH
<i>Lasioglossum albipes</i>	Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, ZH, CH
<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, ZH, CH; Hannover, DE; London, UK; Vienna, AT
<i>Lasioglossum fulvicorne</i>	Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, Tessin, ZH, CH; Hannover, DE
<i>Lasioglossum laticeps</i>	Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, ZH, CH; Hannover, DE; Vienna, AT
<i>Lasioglossum lativentre</i>	Basel, CH; London, UK
<i>Lasioglossum leucopus</i>	Basel, CH; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Hannover, DE; London, UK
<i>Lasioglossum lucidulum</i>	Tessin, CH
<i>Lasioglossum malachurum</i>	Northern France, FR; Vienna, AT; St. Gallen, ZH, CH
<i>Lasioglossum marginatum</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Lasioglossum minutissimum</i>	Basel, CH; London, UK
<i>Lasioglossum minutulum</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Lasioglossum morio</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, Wallis, ZH, CH; Hannover, DE; London, UK; Vienna, AT
<i>Lasioglossum nigripes</i>	Vienna, AT

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<i>Lasioglossum nitidulum</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Hannover, DE; Vienna, AT</b>
<i>Lasioglossum parvulum</i>	St Gallen, Wallis, CH
<i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i>	Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, Tessin, CH; <b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Hannover, DE; Vienna, AT</b>
<i>Lasioglossum politum</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; Basel, Tessin, Wallis, CH; Northern France, FR; Vienna, AT
<i>Lasioglossum sabulosum</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Lasioglossum smeathmanellum</i>	Basel, Luzern, CH; London, UK
<i>Lasioglossum zomulum</i>	St. Gallen, Tessin, CH
<i>Megachile apicalis</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Megachile circumcincta</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE</b>
<i>Megachile ericetorum</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; <b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Northern France, FR; Vienna, AT</b>
<i>Megachile lagopoda</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Megachile leachella</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Megachile pilidens</i>	Northern France, FR; Vienna, AT
<i>Megachile spec.</i>	<b>Würzburg, DE</b>

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<i>Megachile versicolor</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Megachile willughbiella</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; Basel, St. Gallen, Tessin, CH; Hannover, DE; Northern France, FR; Vienna, AT
<i>Melecta albifrons</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Melitta haemorrhoidalis</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Melitta leporina</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Nomada fabriciana</i>	Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; London, UK
<i>Nomada flava</i>	Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE
<i>Nomada fucata</i>	Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE
<i>Nomada goodeniana</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Nomada spec.</i>	St Gallen, ZH, CH
<i>Nomada sheppardana</i>	Hannover, DE
<i>Nomada striata</i>	St Gallen, CH
<i>Nomada succincta</i>	Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE
<i>Osmia adunca</i>	Basel, Wallis, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Osmia aurulenta</i>	Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE



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<i>Osmia bicolor</i>	St. Gallen, CH
<i>Osmia bicornis</i>	Hannover, DE
<i>Osmia caerulea</i>	Tessin, CH
<i>Osmia cornuta</i>	Basel, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Osmia leucomelana</i>	St Gallen, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Osmia mitis</i>	St. Gallen, CH
<i>Osmia rufa</i>	Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, ZH, CH; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Vienna, AT
<i>Panurgus calcaratus</i>	Basel, CH
<i>Sphecodes albilabris</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Sphecodes ephippius</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; St. Gallen, CH</b>
<i>Sphecodes ferruginatus</i>	St. Gallen, CH
<i>Sphecodes monilicornis</i>	Tessin, CH; Vienna, AT
<i>Sphecodes niger</i>	<b>Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE</b>
<i>Sphecodes ruficrus</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Sphecodes schenckii</i>	Tessin, CH

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<i>Stelis punctulatifissima</i>	Vienna, AT
<i>Xylocopa violacea</i>	Basel, CH

### **Records from both Europe and North America**

<i>Anthidium manicatum</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, CH; Chicago, IL; Toronto, ON; Vienna, AT
<i>Anthidium oblongatum</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; Chicago, IL; Northern France, FR; Vienna, AT; Wayne Co, Kent Co., Washtenaw Co., MI
<i>Apis mellifera</i> *	Baden-Württemberg, DE; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Basel, Luzern, St. Gallen, Tessin, Wallis, ZH, CH; Chicago, IL; Halifax, NS; London, UK; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Northern France, FR; Stuttgart, DE; Toronto, ON; Vienna, AT
<i>Halictus rubicundus</i>	Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; Chicago, IL; Halifax, NS; Luzern, St. Gallen, CH; Toronto, ON; Vienna, AT
<i>Hylaeus leptocephalus</i>	Chicago, IL; Toronto, ON; Vienna, AT
<i>Hylaeus punctatus</i>	Chicago, IL; Toronto, ON; Vienna, AT
<i>Lasioglossum leucozonium</i>	Basel, St. Gallen, Tessin, CH; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; London, UK; Toronto, ON; Vienna, AT
<i>Lasioglossum villosulum</i>	Basel, Luzern, S. Gallen, CH; Böblingen/Sindelfingen, DE; London, UK; Northern France, FR; Toronto, ON; Vienna, AT

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<i>Megachile centuncularis</i>	Basel, Tessin, CH; Chicago, IL; London, UK; Toronto, ON; Vienna, AT
<i>Megachile rotundata</i>	Baden-Württemberg, DE; Basel, CH; Chicago, IL; Hannover, DE; Northern France, FR; Toronto, ON; Vienna, AT
<i>Osmia caerulea</i>	Toronto, ON; Tessin, CH; Vienna, AT

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**North American records**

<i>Agapostemon virescens</i>	Chicago, IL; Toronto, ON
<i>Andrena ceanothi</i>	Halifax, NS
<i>Andrena commoda</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Andrena crataegi</i>	Halifax, NS
<i>Andrena milwaukeeensis</i>	Halifax, NS
<i>Andrena nasonii</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Andrena nivalis</i>	Halifax, NS
<i>Andrena regularis</i>	Halifax, NS
<i>Andrena vicina</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Andrena wilkella</i>	Halifax, NS; Toronto, ON

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<i>Andrena w-scripta</i>	Halifax, NS
<i>Anthidiellum notatum</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Augochlorella aurata</i>	Chicago, IL; Toronto, ON
<i>Bombus bimaculatus</i>	Halifax, NS; Toronto, ON
<i>Bombus griseocollis</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Bombus impatiens</i>	Halifax, NS; Chicago, IL
<i>Bombus perplexus</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Bombus rufocinctus</i>	Halifax, NS; Toronto, ON
<i>Bombus terricola</i>	Halifax, NS
<i>Bombus vagans</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Calliopsis andreniformis</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Caratina calcarata</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Ceratina dupla dupla</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Coelioxys sayi</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Halictus confusus</i>	Chicago, IL; Toronto, ON
<i>Halictus ligatus</i>	Chicago, IL; Halifax, NS; Toronto,

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	ON
<i>Heriades carinata</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Hoplitis affinis</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Hoplitis cressoni</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Hoplitis producta</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Hylaeus affinis</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Hylaeus mesillae</i>	Chicago, IL; Halifax, NS
<i>Hylaeus modestus</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum anomalum</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Lasioglossum coriaceum</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum cressonii</i>	Halifax, NS; Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum divergens</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum ellisiae</i>	Chicago, IL; Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum ephialtum</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum fattigi</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum foxii</i>	Toronto, ON

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<i>Lasioglossum illinoense</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Lasioglossum imitatus</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum laevissimum</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum lineatulum</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum mitchelli</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Lasioglossum paracmirandum</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum pectorale</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Lasioglossum perpunctatum</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum perspicuum</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum pilosum</i>	Chicago, IL; Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum rohweri</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum smilacinae</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Lasioglossum spec.</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Lasioglossum spec.</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Lasioglossum tegulare</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Lasioglossum zephyrum</i>	Chicago, IL; Toronto, ON

Hofmann, M., and S. S. Renner. Bee species recorded between 1992 and 2017 from green roofs in Asia, Europe, and North America, with key characteristics and open research questions. *Apidologie*. Online supporting material, Tables S1 and S2

<i>Lasioglossum zophops</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Lasioglossum oblongum</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Megachile brevis brevis</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Megachile campanulae</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Megachile dentiventris</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Megachile frigida</i>	Halifax, NS
<i>Megachile illata</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Megachile latimamus</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Megachile melanophaea</i>	Halifax, NS
<i>Megachile pugnata</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Megachile texana</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Melissodes bimaculata</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Melissodes desponsa</i>	Chicago, IL; Toronto, ON
<i>Osmia lignaria</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Osmia pumila</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Pepoapis pruinosa</i>	Toronto, ON

Hofmann, M., and S. S. Renner. Bee species recorded between 1992 and 2017 from green roofs in Asia, Europe, and North America, with key characteristics and open research questions. *Apidologie*. Online supporting material, Tables S1 and S2

<i>Sphecodes spec.</i>	Toronto, ON
<i>Sphecodes spec.</i>	Chicago, IL
<i>Xylocopa virginica</i>	Toronto, ON
<b>Asian records</b>	
<i>Apis cerana japonica</i>	Chiba City, Japan
<i>Xylocopa appendiculata circumvolans</i>	Chiba City, Japan







## Chapter 8

# **A photo-based assessment of wild bees in a filled-up gravel pit in Riem, Munich – with a species list of bees found in Central European gravel pits**

Hofmann, M. M., and Fleischmann, A.

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## **A photo-based assessment of wild bees in a filled-up gravel pit in Riem, Munich– with a species list of bees found in Central European gravel pits**

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### **Abstract**

Gravel pits, both in active use and restored, provide important replacement habitats and nesting requisites for wild bees formerly specialized in nesting in dynamic fluvial landscapes. Species inventories in six Central European gravel pits report 239 species of wild bees, and this study found 48 species of wild bees and the domesticated *Apis mellifera* in the refilled section of the Obermayr gravel pit in Riem, Munich. The tested inventory method of *in-situ* photo-documentation, instead of voucher specimen collection, is feasible for most bee families, but is not applicable for Halictidae and some small nomad bees (genus *Nomada*) or mini-miners (*Andrena* subgenus *Micrandrena*), as well as species complexes in the genus *Bombus*.

## Introduction

Dynamic riverside landscapes are an important habitat for various wild bee species (Völkl et al. 2002), but became increasingly rare in Central Europe. An assessment of more than 76.000 km of watercourses in Germany, conducted by the water management authorities of the federal states, showed that only 1.6 % of the rivers are in their natural state, another 6.2 % are only slightly modified and 11.9 % moderately changed, the rest falls in the classes considerably, strongly, very strongly or completely changed (Arle et al. 2017). Thus, many of the bee species naturally specialized on riverside habitats are nowadays found in sand and gravel pits instead (Escher 1974, Westrich 2018), as these provide manifold different niches, like deep and shallow ponds, accumulations of clay, sand, gravel, rocks, shrubland and steep faces (Krebs and Wildermuth 1976) – especially for many soil-nesting bees species, the presence of open, poorly vegetated, freshly exposed soils is an essential habitat demand (Westrich 1989, Falk 2015). The continuous de-novo succession of the habitat through ongoing gravel extraction simulates landscape dynamics typically induced in erosion banks and river landscapes by flooding events and fluvial erosion cycles (Meisterhans and Heusser 1970, Krebs and Wildermuth 1976). Inventories conducted in actively used and restored gravel pits in Central Europe identified 239 species of wild bees for this habitat (see *Results* section Tables 1 and 2 for references).

The gravel pit of the Obermayr Company in the East of Munich offers both renatured areas and areas which are still mined for sand and gravel. This study focused on a living bee inventory in the non-active parts of the gravel pit, applying a standardized *in-situ* photo-documentation, and vouchers were only collected for those taxonomically critical genera where determination in the field was not possible. Besides producing a species inventory for the Obermayr gravel pit in Riem, this study aimed to test the feasibility of using a non-invasive species determination based on bee specimen photography in the field instead of voucher collection. With current projects like the “Bundesprogramm Biologische Vielfalt – Schwerpunkt Sichern von Ökosystemdienstleistungen” of the Federal Office for Nature Conservation (BfN) and the Federal Ministry for the Environment, Nature Conservation and Nuclear Safety (BMU), non-invasive monitoring methods become increasingly important and the possibility of reliable, reproducible documentation fulfilling scientific standards without specimen collection needs to be tested.

## Material and methods

### Species list for Central European gravel pits

We are aware of five published studies which have monitored wild bees in gravel pits (Table 1). Additionally, we requested an unpublished report for another Munich gravel pit located in the East of Munich (Trudering). The species lists within these studies were compiled and a list of 239 species recorded in gravel pits was generated (Table 2). The honey bee *Apis mellifera* was excluded from the analyses, as this is a domesticated and ubiquitous species. Each found study was scanned for the following information: (i) Where and when was the study conducted? (ii) Which sampling technique was used? (iii) Which taxa were found? If the information was not directly clear from the published material, the authors were contacted via email.

## Study site “Kiesgrube Obermayr”

“Kiesgrube Obermayr” is situated in the East of Munich, in Riem at N48°8.833140' E11°42.608280' 520 m a.s.l.. While the southern part is still an active gravel pit, the northern part is refilled and maintained as an open-soil and nutrient-poor grassland site. The area is not open to the public and is maintained by the Landesbund für Vogelschutz (LBV) and the municipal department (Kommunalreferat). It borders to the Munich Trade Fair Center in the Southwest, a transshipment station in the West and arable fields to all other directions. Until 2004, the northern area had still been in active use as gravel pit, and then was refilled with several soil types. There are two experimental fields with washed dry mud (middle and eastern part), a fine sediment resulting from washing gravel, and washed sand, a sandy material also resulting from the washing process with fine cohesive components (H. Sedlmeier, pers. com.). The steep face in the northern part of the biotope also consists of this washed sand. Unwashed gravel had been piled up to several walls and hills at the site. There is also a south-east-facing wall of demolished concrete that is not covered by vegetation. In the middle of the biotope there is railroad basalt disposed from the railroad tracks of former Neuaubing station. The bigger stones probably originated from the alpine upland. Loamy gravel derived from the topsoil removed for gravel extraction forms the hills in the south and the smaller walls in the northeastern and northern part of the biotope, these artificial hills are sparsely covered by woody vegetation, mainly consisting of willows (*Salix* spp., Salicaceae). The rest of the area is covered by a thin, compressed loam-gravel-layer on building rubble. Flat areas, hills, and ponds create a highly-structured area (Figure 1). The area's flora (> 545 documented species found during species monitorings from 2003 – 2016; a list excluding threatened taxa is available via the LBV administration) and its butterfly, grasshopper, and beetle fauna (see biotope reports available via the LBV administration) are extremely rich. Herbaceous plants and grasses were reintroduced by autochthonous transfer of mowed material from nearby dry grassland habitats of Munich, and *Hippophae rhamnoides*, *Sorbus aucuparia* and various *Rosa* sp., all of Munich provenance, had been actively planted by the LBV. Hundreds of trees and shrubs of eight *Salix* species have established by themselves (H. Sedlmeier, pers. com.).

## Species inventory

Between the 14<sup>th</sup> of March and the 8<sup>th</sup> of August 2017, the Obermayr gravel pit was visited by the first author in regular intervals (every 2-3 weeks), the initial spring species survey was conducted by both authors. Monitoring walks were conducted between 10 am and 4 pm on sunny, warm days with little or no wind. The mapping did not follow a strict route, but bees were searched for on flowers and nesting requisites. If possible, species were identified directly in the field and were documented via macro-photography in a standardized setup: for detailed pictures, the bees were caught with an insect net and cooled down for 10 minutes in an Eppendorf cupped plastic vial stored on ice in a cooled box. When the bees fell into rigor of cold, they were transferred onto scale paper (using a small box lined with millimeter paper on its bottom) and photographed from all sides (SLR camera: Pentax K-x; Lens: Sigma DG 17-70 mm, 1:2.8, macro), carefully turning them by hand or using a pair of watchmaker's tweezers (see Figure 2 as an example of such a photo voucher). Within one to two minutes, they warmed up again and were released at the location they were also caught. For species that are taxonomically difficult to distinguish by morphology alone, like most members of the genera *Sphecodes*, *Lasioglossum* or *Halictus*, voucher specimens, preferably males (for morphological re-identification by genitalia preparations), were collected and identified morphologically and via DNA barcoding (methods and primers as described in Hofmann et al. 2018). Photo vouchers are accessible via the Diversity Workbench (DWB) server, DNA barcodes were uploaded to NCBI GenBank (see

Table 3 for GenBank Accession Numbers and DWB Accessions). The voucher specimens are deposited in the Zoologische Staatssammlung Munich (ZSM).

Additionally, we included species records from 2016 provided by M. Bräu in the species list. The domesticated honey bee *Apis mellifera* was abundantly observed at the Kiesgrube Obermayr, but not included in the species list.

## Results

We found six studies with wild bee species lists for Central European gravel pits (Table 1). In these studies, 239 species were documented (Table 2). Of these, 108 species were reported by only one study, while 131 were reported in at least two different studies (two studies: 59 spp., three studies: 48 spp., four studies: 17 spp., five studies: 6 spp., all six studies: 1 spp.). Of the 239 species with records published from gravel pits, 184 are also native in the Munich area (M. Bräu, pers. com.).

A total of 48 species were found in the survey area (see Table 3). 29 were documented via standardized *in-situ* photography, eight via DNA-barcoding, and 3 species were observed. Eight of these have also been recorded by M. Bräu in 2016, and an additional six species had been documented in 2016, but were not seen in 2017. Amongst the observed species, four were oligolectic, 33 polylectic and eleven were cuckoo bees. Of the non-parasitic bees eleven nested above ground, five above and below ground and 32 below ground. A *Megachile* female could not be identified to species level, as the pollen brush was full and the colors relevant for determination were not visible. A *Megachile* male voucher (KGO-00081) was unclear, as coxa 1 and tergite 6 were not visible. Most likely it was a *Megachile rotundata* male, but it cannot be excluded that it was another species, thus we did not include it in our list. The photo voucher of *Megachile cf. versicolor* could also be *Megachile centuncularis*, as a definite separation of these two species is only possible via examination of the genitalia, but the redish tarsal segments hint towards *M. versicolor* (KGO-00021). The same applies for the *Halictus confusus/tumulorum* complex, the photo voucher was not unambiguous, but here we can confirm the presence of *H. tumulorum* via DNA barcoding (voucher MG792009). For one *Hylaeus* voucher, we strongly suspect it to be *H. nigritus*, but we lack a photo of sufficient quality of the face in frontal view to say for sure (KGO-00039). For *Andrena*, we had photo vouchers of one male and three females, where relevant features were not visible and they thus could not be identified. In total, 12% of the photo vouchers (excluding *Halictus*, *Lasioglossum* and *Sphecodes* pictures) were not identifiable to species level.

## Discussion

With at least 48 species, the gravel pit Obermayr is an important wild bee habitat in the East of Munich, especially for ground-nesting species. In Germany, Austria and Switzerland, 50% of the bees are nesting in self-burrowed tunnels in the ground and 19% in hollow spaces which can be aboveground or underground (Zurbuchen and Müller 2012, p.57; Westrich 2018), but for the gravel pit the proportion ranges at 79%. This should be considered when it comes to the refill of idle gravel pits. By maintaining some open soil sites, they can enrich the landscape by providing nesting sites for wild bees. Moreover, if hollows and puddles hold the water, renatured gravel pits are important spawn habitats for amphibians (Escher 1974), and steep walls can serve swallows as nest sites (Wagner 1969), and such sites also have a high conservation value for



butterflies (Lenda et al. 2011). With some planning effort, the conservation value of abandoned gravel pits can be strongly increased.

Photo-documentation *in-situ* instead of voucher collection proved feasible for most wild bee genera, but nevertheless taxonomic skills are necessary to be able to recognize bee sex and genera in the field, to be aware which different features need to be photographed or focused on in males and females and in different genera (see Table 4 for examples). The method is problematic for species from the genera *Sphcodes*, *Lasioglossum* and *Halictus*, but also in certain groups of *Andrena*, *Nomada* or *Bombus*, as some species in these groups differ only in minute texture features difficult to document by photography. Generally, small individuals (< 7 mm) can be problematic for another reason, as the rigor of cold only lasts for about a minute, thus time often is not sufficient to get all details documented. Moreover, another limitation to the photo-based identification of bee females is that individuals with pollen load usually cannot be identified, as the pollen generally obscures the colour of the scopae – hence we chilled down only foraging females without pollen load, and did not consider those carrying pollen.

Macro photographs need to be of sufficient quality, brightness and especially depth of field and resolution to be able to identify microstructures and sculpture on the thorax and tergites, thus a good macro lens is required, and if the weather is cloudy, an additional light source improves picture quality.

The big advantages of *in-situ* bee photo-documentation are the preservation of live individuals' color information (which is often lost in specimens) and the possibility to share voucher information (e.g. with taxonomic specialists) via a cloud, thus it is not necessary to send fragile specimens per mail, if the determination needs to be confirmed by a second person. However, in comparison with collecting voucher specimens, this method certainly has certain limitations and also some disadvantages: firstly, the photographer needs to be quick in taking pictures of all relevant features, because the rigor of cold does not last long. Secondly, if pictures are not good enough to see the characters you need, there is no chance to go back to the original individual, after it was released. Moreover, the time effort in the field is increased compared to specimen collection, thus only smaller or fewer sites can be monitored at a time.

Although photo-documentation cannot replace voucher collection completely, it can be an approach towards non-invasive species documentation (especially in larger bees and easier to recognize groups), which becomes increasingly important in times of drastic decreases in many insect taxa worldwide (Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys 2019). That bee identification from photographs is possible to a certain degree (considering above-mentioned limitations to the method), at least in the larger genera (especially Megachilidae), has been repeatedly shown in numerous web-based insect identification forums and discussion groups (including social media), where good macro-photographs have enabled specialists to securely identify bee taxa to genus and even species level, sometimes contributing new regional records with this method (e.g., BWARS.com 2018; Wildbienen-Forum 2019; Hummelforum 2019; BugGuide.net 2019).

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**Table 1: Inventories of active and renatured gravel pits in Central Europe, with study period and sampling method.**

Site	Study period	Sampling method	Publication
inactive gravel pit complex in Leverkusen	2000-2005	net sampling	[1] Cölln et al. 2012
former gravel pit Roth in Trudering, Munich	4 monitoring walks in 2015; additional investigation day in 2008	net sampling	[2] Dubitzky, A. (unpublished)
Ramsar area “Baggerweieren” at “Haff Réimech”, Luxembourg	1997 to 2004; 209 monitoring walks	net sampling	[3] Feitz et al. 2006
gravel pits between Rhine and Lake Zurich	N/A	N/A	[4] Krebs and Wildermuth 1976
closed gravel pit Rutzendorf, Lower Austria	2003-2005 and 2007-2008; four-weekly rhythm	net sampling	[5] Pachinger and Prochazka 2009; with additional data from B. Pachinger for 2009 and later (pers. communication)
gravel pit “am Hardtwald Durmersheim” south of Karlsruhe	1993 to 2005	net sampling	[6] Schiel and Rademacher 2008; with additional data from A. Schanowski for 2007 (pers. communication)

**Table 2: List of wild bees reported for Central European gravel pits.** The numbers in squared brackets indicate the studies where the species was reported (numbers refer to Table 1). Species marked in bold were also found in this study.

Species	Family	Study
<i>Andrena agilissima</i> (Scopoli, 1770)	Andrenidae	[3]
<i>Andrena apicata</i> Smith, 1847	Andrenidae	[2]
<i>Andrena barbilabris</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	[1,6]
<b><i>Andrena bicolor</i> Fabricius, 1775</b>	Andrenidae	[1,2,6]
<i>Andrena carantonica</i> Pérez, 1902	Andrenidae	[1,6]
<i>Andrena chrysopus</i> Pérez, 1903	Andrenidae	[6]
<b><i>Andrena chrysoceles</i> (Kirby, 1802)</b>	Andrenidae	[3,5]
<i>Andrena cineraria</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Andrenidae	[2,3,6]
<i>Andrena denticulata</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	[6]
<b><i>Andrena dorsata</i> (Kirby, 1802)</b>	Andrenidae	[1,5,6]

<b><i>Andrena flavipes</i> Panzer, 1798</b>	Andrenidae	[1,5,6]
<i>Andrena fulva</i> (Müller, 1766)	Andrenidae	[1,3]
<i>Andrena fulvata</i> Stoeckhert, 1930	Andrenidae	[2]
<i>Andrena gelriae</i> van der Vecht, 1927	Andrenidae	[6]
<b><i>Andrena gravida</i> Imhoff, 1832</b>	Andrenidae	[2]
<b><i>Andrena haemorrhoea</i> (Fabricius, 1781)</b>	Andrenidae	[1,3,5,6]
<i>Andrena hattorfiana</i> (Fabricius, 1775)	Andrenidae	[3]
<i>Andrena helvola</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Andrenidae	[2]
<i>Andrena impunctata</i> Pérez, 1895	Andrenidae	[5]
<i>Andrena intermedia</i> Thomson, 1870	Andrenidae	[2]
<i>Andrena labiata</i> Fabricius, 1781	Andrenidae	[1,6]
<i>Andrena lathyri</i> Alfken, 1899	Andrenidae	[6]
<i>Andrena minutula</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	[1,3,6]
<i>Andrena minutuloides</i> Perkins, 1914	Andrenidae	[1,5]
<i>Andrena mitis</i> Schmiedeknecht, 1883	Andrenidae	[6]
<i>Andrena nigroaenea</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	[5]
<i>Andrena nitida</i> (Müller, 1776)	Andrenidae	[3]
<i>Andrena nobilis</i> Morawitz, 1873	Andrenidae	[5]
<i>Andrena oralis</i> Morawitz, 1876	Andrenidae	[5]
<i>Andrena ovatula</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	[1,5,6]
<i>Andrena pilipes</i> Fabricius, 1781	Andrenidae	[1,5,6]
<i>Andrena praecox</i> (Scopoli, 1763)	Andrenidae	[1,2,6]
<i>Andrena propinqua</i> Schenck, 1853	Andrenidae	[5]
<i>Andrena proxima</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	[1]
<i>Andrena pusilla</i> Pérez, 1903	Andrenidae	[6]
<i>Andrena ruficrus</i> Nylander, 1848	Andrenidae	[2]
<i>Andrena schencki</i> Morawitz, 1866	Andrenidae	[3]
<i>Andrena scita</i> Eversmann, 1852	Andrenidae	[5]
<i>Andrena similis</i> Smith, 1849	Andrenidae	[6]
<i>Andrena simontornyella</i> Noskiewicz, 1939	Andrenidae	[5]
<i>Andrena strohella</i> Stoeckhert, 1928	Andrenidae	[2]
<i>Andrena subopaca</i> Nylander, 1848	Andrenidae	[3,6]
<i>Andrena symphyti</i> Schmiedeknecht, 1883	Andrenidae	[5]
<b><i>Andrena vaga</i> Panzer, 1799</b>	Andrenidae	[1,2,3,4,6]
<i>Andrena ventralis</i> Imhoff, 1832	Andrenidae	[2]
<b><i>Andrena viridescens</i> Viereck, 1916</b>	Andrenidae	[6]
<i>Andrena wilkella</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Andrenidae	[1,6]
<i>Anthidiellum strigatum</i> (Panzer, 1805)	Megachilidae	[3,4,6]
<b><i>Anthidium manicatum</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)</b>	Megachilidae	[3]
<i>Anthidium nanum</i> Mocsary, 1881	Megachilidae	[3,5]
<b><i>Anthidium oblongatum</i> (Illiger, 1806)</b>	Megachilidae	[3]
<b><i>Anthidium punctatum</i> Latreille, 1809</b>	Megachilidae	[3,5]
<i>Anthophora bimaculata</i> (Panzer, 1798)	Apidae	[6]
<i>Anthophora plumipes</i> (Pallas, 1772)	Apidae	[1,2,3,4]
<i>Anthophora quadrimaculata</i> (Panzer, 1798)	Apidae	[1]
<i>Anthophora retusa</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	[1,3,6]

<b><i>Bombus hortorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)</b>	Apidae	[1,2,5]
<i>Bombus humilis</i> Illiger, 1806	Apidae	[5,6]
<b><i>Bombus hypnorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)</b>	Apidae	[1,3]
<b><i>Bombus lapidarius</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)</b>	Apidae	[1,2,5,6]
<b><i>Bombus lucorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)</b>	Apidae	[1,2,5]
<b><i>Bombus pascuorum</i> (Scopoli, 1763)</b>	Apidae	[1,2,3,5,6]
<b><i>Bombus pratorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)</b>	Apidae	[1,2]
<b><i>Bombus rupestris</i> (Fabricius, 1793)</b>	Apidae	[1,2,6]
<i>Bombus soroensis</i> (Fabricius, 1776)	Apidae	[2]
<b><i>Bombus sylvarum</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)</b>	Apidae	[3,5,6]
<b><i>Bombus terrestris</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)</b>	Apidae	[1,3,5]
<b><i>Bombus vestalis</i> (Geoffroy, 1785)</b>	Apidae	[1,2,5]
<i>Camptopoeum frontale</i> (Fabricius, 1804)	Andrenidae	[5]
<i>Ceratina chalybea</i> Chevrier, 1872	Apidae	[5]
<i>Ceratina cucurbitina</i> (Rossi, 1792)	Apidae	[1,3,5,6]
<i>Ceratina cyanea</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	[1,2,3,4,5,6]
<i>Chelostoma campanularum</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	[1,6]
<i>Chelostoma distinctum</i> (Stöckhert, 1929)	Megachilidae	[3,6]
<i>Chelostoma florissomne</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	[3]
<i>Chelostoma rapunculi</i> (Lepeletier, 1841)	Megachilidae	[1,3,6]
<i>Coelioxys afra</i> Lepeletier, 1841	Megachilidae	[3,6]
<i>Coelioxys aurolimbata</i> Förster, 1853	Megachilidae	[3]
<b><i>Coelioxys elongata</i> Lepeletier, 1841</b>	Megachilidae	this study
<i>Coelioxys mandibularis</i> Nylander, 1848	Megachilidae	[1]
<i>Coelioxys quadridentata</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	[1,3]
<b><i>Colletes cunicularius</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)</b>	Colletidae	[1,2,3,6]
<b><i>Colletes daviesanus</i> Smith, 1846</b>	Colletidae	[1,4,5]
<i>Colletes fodiens</i> (Geoffroy, 1785)	Colletidae	[1,6]
<i>Colletes hederæ</i> Schmidt and Westrich, 1993	Colletidae	[3]
<i>Colletes similis</i> Schenck, 1853	Colletidae	[1,6]
<i>Dasypoda hirtipes</i> (Fabricius, 1793)	Melittidae	[3,4,5,6]
<i>Dioxys tridentata</i> (Nylander, 1848)	Megachilidae	[3]
<i>Epeoloides coecutiens</i> (Fabricius, 1775)	Apidae	[3]
<i>Epeolus variegatus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	[1,3,6]
<i>Eucera longicornis</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Apidae	[3,5]
<i>Eucera nigrescens</i> Pérez, 1879	Apidae	[3,5,6]
<i>Eucera pollinosa</i> Smith, 1854	Apidae	[5]
<i>Halictus confusus</i> Smith, 1853	Halictidae	[6]
<b><i>Halictus eurygnathus</i> Blüthgen, 1931</b>	Halictidae	[3]
<i>Halictus gavarnicus</i> Pérez, 1903	Halictidae	[5]
<i>Halictus kessleri</i> Bramson, 1879	Halictidae	[5]
<i>Halictus langobardicus</i> Blüthgen, 1944	Halictidae	[3,6]
<i>Halictus leucaheneus</i> Ebmer, 1972	Halictidae	[6]
<i>Halictus maculatus</i> Smith, 1848	Halictidae	[3,5,6]
<i>Halictus pollinosus</i> Sichel, 1860	Halictidae	[5]
<i>Halictus quadricinctus</i> (Fabricius, 1777)	Halictidae	[5,6]

<b><i>Halictus rubicundus</i> (Christ, 1791)</b>	Halictidae	[1,3,6]
<b><i>Halictus scabiosae</i> (Rossi, 1790)</b>	Halictidae	[1,3,6]
<i>Halictus seladonius</i> (Fabricius, 1794)	Halictidae	[5]
<i>Halictus sexcinctus</i> Fabricius, 1775	Halictidae	[4,5,6]
<i>Halictus simplex</i> Bluethgen, 1923	Halictidae	[5,6]
<i>Halictus smaragdulus</i> Vachal, 1895	Halictidae	[6]
<b><i>Halictus subauratus</i> (Rossi, 1792)</b>	Halictidae	[3,5,6]
<b><i>Halictus tumulorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)</b>	Halictidae	[1,2,3,5,6]
<i>Heriades crenulatus</i> Nylander, 1856	Megachilidae	[6]
<i>Heriades truncorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	[1,3,5,6]
<i>Hoplitis acuticornis</i> (Dufour and Perris, 1840)	Megachilidae	[3]
<i>Hoplitis adunca</i> (Panzer, 1798)	Megachilidae	[5]
<i>Hoplitis claviventris</i> (Thomson, 1872)	Megachilidae	[3]
<i>Hoplitis leucomelana</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	[1,2,3,4,5]
<i>Hoplitis tridentata</i> (Dufour and Perris, 1840)	Megachilidae	[3,6]
<i>Hylaeus angustatus</i> (Schenck, 1859)	Colletidae	[3,6]
<b><i>Hylaeus annularis</i> (Kirby, 1802)</b>	Colletidae	[1,3,6]
<i>Hylaeus brevicornis</i> Nylander, 1852	Colletidae	[1,5,6]
<i>Hylaeus cardioscapus</i> Cockerell, 1924	Colletidae	[5]
<i>Hylaeus clypearis</i> (Schenck, 1853)	Colletidae	[3]
<b><i>Hylaeus communis</i> Nylander, 1852</b>	Colletidae	[1,6]
<i>Hylaeus confusus</i> Nylander, 1852	Colletidae	[1,2,6]
<i>Hylaeus cornutus</i> Curtis, 1831	Colletidae	[1,3,5]
<i>Hylaeus difformis</i> (Eversmann, 1852)	Colletidae	[3]
<i>Hylaeus dilatatus</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Colletidae	[5]
<i>Hylaeus gibbus</i> Saunders, 1850	Colletidae	[5,6]
<i>Hylaeus gredleri</i> Foerster, 1871	Colletidae	[1,3,5,6]
<i>Hylaeus hyalinatus</i> (Smith, 1842)	Colletidae	[1,3,5]
<i>Hylaeus nigrinus</i> (Fabricius, 1798)	Colletidae	[3]
<i>Hylaeus punctatus</i> (Brullé, 1832)	Colletidae	[3]
<i>Hylaeus punctulatissimus</i> Smith, 1842	Colletidae	[1]
<i>Hylaeus signatus</i> (Panzer, 1798)	Colletidae	[1,3]
<i>Hylaeus variegatus</i> (Fabricius, 1798)	Colletidae	[3,6]
<i>Lasioglossum aeratum</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[5,6]
<i>Lasioglossum albipes</i> (Fabricius, 1781)	Halictidae	[6]
<i>Lasioglossum brevicorne</i> (Schenck, 1869)	Halictidae	[6]
<i>Lasioglossum calceatum</i> (Scopoli, 1763)	Halictidae	[1,2,3,5,6]
<i>Lasioglossum clypeare</i> (Schenck, 1853)	Halictidae	[5]
<i>Lasioglossum costulatum</i> (Kriechbaumer, 1873)	Halictidae	[3,6]
<i>Lasioglossum discum</i> (Smith, 1853)	Halictidae	[5]
<i>Lasioglossum fulvicorne</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[3,6]
<i>Lasioglossum glabriusculum</i> (Moraw., 1872)	Halictidae	[3]
<i>Lasioglossum intermedium</i> (Schenck, 1869)	Halictidae	[1,3]
<i>Lasioglossum interruptum</i> (Panzer, 1798)	Halictidae	[5]
<b><i>Lasioglossum laticeps</i> (Schenck, 1869)</b>	Halictidae	[1,3,6]
<i>Lasioglossum lativentre</i> (Schenck, 1853)	Halictidae	[3,5,6]

<i>Lasioglossum leucopus</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[1,6]
<b><i>Lasioglossum leucozonium</i> (Schrank, 1781)</b>	Halictidae	[1,2,3,6]
<i>Lasioglossum limbellum</i> (Morawitz, 1876)	Halictidae	[3,6]
<i>Lasioglossum lucidulum</i> (Schenck, 1861)	Halictidae	[6]
<i>Lasioglossum malachurum</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[3,4,5,6]
<i>Lasioglossum minutissimum</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[1,6]
<i>Lasioglossum monstrificum</i> (Morawitz, 1891)	Halictidae	[1]
<b><i>Lasioglossum morio</i> (Fabricius, 1793)</b>	Halictidae	[1,2,3,5,6]
<i>Lasioglossum nigripes</i> (Lepeletier, 1841)	Halictidae	[5]
<i>Lasioglossum nitidiusculum</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[3]
<i>Lasioglossum pauperatum</i> (Brullé, 1832)	Halictidae	[6]
<b><i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i> (Schenck, 1853)</b>	Halictidae	[1,3,6]
<i>Lasioglossum politum</i> (Schenck, 1853)	Halictidae	[5,6]
<i>Lasioglossum punctatissimum</i> (Schenck, 1853)	Halictidae	[1,6]
<i>Lasioglossum puncticolle</i> (Morawitz, 1872)	Halictidae	[3]
<i>Lasioglossum quadrinotatum</i> (Schenck, 1861)	Halictidae	[3,6]
<i>Lasioglossum quadrinotatum</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[5,6]
<i>Lasioglossum semilucens</i> (Alfken, 1914)	Halictidae	[3]
<i>Lasioglossum sexnotatum</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[5,6]
<i>Lasioglossum sexstrigatum</i> (Schenck, 1869)	Halictidae	[1,6]
<i>Lasioglossum trichopygum</i> (Bluethgen, 1923)	Halictidae	[5]
<i>Lasioglossum villosulum</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[1,3,6]
<i>Lasioglossum xanthopus</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[5,6]
<i>Lasioglossum zonulum</i> (Smith, 1848)	Halictidae	[5,6]
<i>Macropis europaea</i> Warncke, 1973	Melittidae	[3]
<i>Megachile alpicola</i> Alfken, 1924	Megachilidae	[6]
<i>Megachile centuncularis</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	[1,6]
<i>Megachile circumcincta</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	[1,2,3]
<i>Megachile ericetorum</i> Lepeletier, 1841	Megachilidae	[1,2,3]
<i>Megachile lagopoda</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)	Megachilidae	[5]
<i>Megachile ligniseca</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Megachilidae	[3]
<i>Megachile nigriventris</i> Schenk, 1869	Megachilidae	[2]
<i>Megachile parietina</i> (Geoffroy, 1785)	Megachilidae	[4]
<i>Megachile pilidens</i> Alfken, 1924	Megachilidae	[1,3,6]
<i>Megachile rotundata</i> (Fabricius, 1787)	Megachilidae	[6]
<b><i>Megachile versicolor</i> Smith, 1844</b>	Megachilidae	[1,2,5]
<b><i>Megachile willughbiella</i> (Kirby, 1802)</b>	Megachilidae	[1,3,4,5]
<i>Melecta albifrons</i> (Forster, 1771)	Apidae	[4]
<i>Melitta leporina</i> (Panzer, 1799)	Melittidae	[1,3,5,6]
<i>Melitta nigricans</i> Alfken, 1905	Melittidae	[3]
<i>Nomada alboguttata</i> Herrig-Schaeffer, 1839	Apidae	[1,3,5,6]
<i>Nomada bifasciata</i> Olivier, 1811	Apidae	[3]
<i>Nomada fabriciana</i> (Linnaeus, 1767)	Apidae	[1,2,3,6]
<i>Nomada ferruginata</i> (Linnaeus, 1767)	Apidae	[2,3]
<i>Nomada flava</i> Panzer, 1798	Apidae	[1,3,6]
<b><i>Nomada flavoguttata</i> (Kirby, 1802)</b>	Apidae	[1,3,6]



<i>Nomada flavopicta</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	[3]
<i>Nomada fucata</i> Panzer, 1798	Apidae	[1,3,6]
<i>Nomada fulvicornis</i> Fabricius, 1793	Apidae	[1,6]
<i>Nomada fuscicornis</i> Nylander, 1848	Apidae	[6]
<b><i>Nomada goodeniana</i> (Kirby, 1802)</b>	Apidae	[6]
<b><i>Nomada lathburiana</i> (Kirby, 1802)</b>	Apidae	[2,3,6]
<i>Nomada leucophthalma</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	[3]
<i>Nomada marshamella</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	[1,3]
<i>Nomada obscura</i> Zetterstedt, 1838	Apidae	[6]
<i>Nomada panzeri</i> Lepeletier, 1841	Apidae	[2,6]
<i>Nomada rufipes</i> Fabricius, 1793	Apidae	[6]
<i>Nomada sexfasciata</i> Panzer, 1799	Apidae	[3]
<i>Nomada sheppardana</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Apidae	[6]
<i>Nomada signata</i> Jurine, 1807	Apidae	[3]
<i>Nomada succincta</i> Panzer, 1798	Apidae	[1,3]
<i>Nomada zonata</i> Panzer, 1798	Apidae	[1]
<b><i>Osmia aurulenta</i> (Panzer, 1799)</b>	Megachilidae	[3,4]
<b><i>Osmia bicolor</i> (Schrank, 1781)</b>	Megachilidae	[1,3,4]
<i>Osmia bicornis</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	[1,3]
<i>Osmia brevicornis</i> (Fabricius, 1798)	Megachilidae	[3]
<i>Osmia caerulescens</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	Megachilidae	[6]
<i>Osmia gallarum</i> Spinola, 1808	Megachilidae	[3,6]
<i>Osmia rufohirta</i> Latreille, 1811	Megachilidae	[3]
<b><i>Osmia spinulosa</i> (Kirby, 1802)</b>	Megachilidae	[3,5]
<i>Panurgus calcaratus</i> (Scopoli, 1763)	Andrenidae	[1,5,6]
<i>Rhophitoides canus</i> (Eversmann, 1852)	Halictidae	[5]
<i>Sphecodes albilabris</i> (Fabricius, 1793)	Halictidae	[1,3,6]
<b><i>Sphecodes crassus</i> Thomson, 1870</b>	Halictidae	[1,2,6]
<i>Sphecodes cristatus</i> Hagens, 1882	Halictidae	[6]
<b><i>Sphecodes ephippius</i> (Linnaeus, 1767)</b>	Halictidae	[1,5,6]
<i>Sphecodes ferruginatus</i> Hagens, 1882	Halictidae	[1]
<i>Sphecodes geoffrellus</i> (Kirby, 1802)	Halictidae	[1,6]
<b><i>Sphecodes gibbus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)</b>	Halictidae	[1,5,6]
<i>Sphecodes longulus</i> Hagens, 1882	Halictidae	[1,6]
<i>Sphecodes marginatus</i> Hagens, 1882	Halictidae	[2]
<i>Sphecodes miniatus</i> Hagens, 1882	Halictidae	[1,2,5,6]
<b><i>Sphecodes monilicornis</i> (Kirby, 1802)</b>	Halictidae	[1,2,5,6]
<i>Sphecodes niger</i> Hagens, 1874	Halictidae	[1]
<i>Sphecodes pellucidus</i> Smith, 1845	Halictidae	[1,6]
<b><i>Sphecodes puncticeps</i> Thomson, 1870</b>	Halictidae	[1,6]
<i>Sphecodes reticulatus</i> Thomson, 1870	Halictidae	[1,6]
<i>Sphecodes rufiventris</i> (Panzer, 1798)	Halictidae	[6]
<i>Stelis odontopyga</i> Noskiewicz, 1925	Megachilidae	[3]
<i>Stelis ornatula</i> (Klug, 1807)	Megachilidae	[1]
<i>Tetraloniella dentata</i> (Germar, 1839)	Apidae	[5]
<i>Trachusa byssina</i> (Panzer, 1804)	Megachilidae	[3]

**Table 3: Species List for gravel pit Obermayr.** The record type refers to the mode of documentation (o = observation, p = photo-documentation, b = barcoding of voucher specimen, ext = external data from M. Bräu), the record ID gives the GenBank or Biodiversity Workbench accession numbers for barcoded or photographic vouchers, lecty describes the foraging preference and nest site preference whether a bee builds its nest below or above the surface or is parasitic. Species where determination was not sure on the photograph are printed in grey.

<b>Species</b>	<b>record type</b>	<b>record ID</b>	<b>lecty</b>	<b>nest preference</b>	<b>site</b>
<i>Andrena bicolor</i> Fabricius, 1775	o	observation on 28.03.2017	polylectic	ground	
<i>Andrena chrysoceles</i> (Kirby, 1802)	p	KGO-00099	polylectic	ground	
<i>Andrena dorsata</i> (Kirby, 1802)	ext	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016	polylectic	ground	
<i>Andrena flavipes</i> Panzer, 1798	ext, p	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016 KGO-00028	polylectic	ground	
<i>Andrena gravida</i> Imhoff, 1832	p	KGO-00097	polylectic	ground	
<i>Andrena haemorrhoa</i> (Fabricius, 1781)	p	KGO-00084	polylectic	ground	
<i>Andrena vaga</i> Panzer, 1799	ext, p	M.Bräu, n.d. KGO-00096 KGO-00106	oligolectic	ground	
<i>Andrena viridescens</i> Viereck, 1916	ext	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016	oligolectic	ground	
<i>Anthidium manicatum</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	p	KGO-00035	polylectic	above	
<i>Anthidium oblongatum</i> (Illiger, 1806)	p	KGO-00014	polylectic	above	
<i>Anthidium punctatum</i> Latreille, 1809	p	KGO-00073	polylectic	above	
<i>Bombus hortorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)	p	KGO-00082	polylectic	above ground	and
<i>Bombus hypnorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	p	KGO-00074	polylectic	above	
<i>Bombus lapidarius</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	p	KGO-00069 KGO-00100	polylectic	above ground	and
<i>Bombus lucorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)	p	KGO-00065	polylectic	ground	
<i>Bombus pascuorum</i> (Scopoli, 1763)	p	KGO-00067	polylectic	above ground	and
<i>Bombus pratorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)	o	observed 28.03.2017	polylectic	above	
<i>Bombus rupestris</i> (Fabricius, 1793)	p	KGO-00070	parasitic	parasitic	
<i>Bombus sylvarum</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)	p	KGO-00002 KGO-00068	polylectic	above ground	and
<i>Bombus terrestris</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	p	KGO-00079	polylectic	ground	
<i>Bombus vestalis</i> (Geoffroy, 1785)	ext, p	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016 KGO-00101	parasitic	parasitic	

<i>Coelioxys elongata</i> Lepeletier, 1841	p	KGO-00080	parasitic	parasitic	
<i>Colletes cunicularius</i> (Linnaeus, 1761)	ext, p	M.Bräu, n.d. KGO-00107	polylectic	ground	
<i>Colletes daviesanus</i> Smith, 1846	o	observed 14.08.2017	oligolectic	ground	
<i>Halictus eurygnathus</i> Blüthgen, 1931	p	KGO-00022 KGO-00034	polylectic	ground	
<i>Halictus rubicundus</i> (Christ, 1791)	p	KGO-00103	polylectic	ground	
<i>Halictus scabiosae</i> (Rossi, 1790)	p	KGO-00006	polylectic	ground	
<i>Halictus subauratus</i> (Rossi, 1792)	b	MG792004	polylectic	ground	
<i>Halictus tumulorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	b	MG792009	polylectic	ground	
<i>Hylaeus cf. nigrinus</i> (Kirby, 1802)	p	KGO-00039	polylectic	above	
<i>Hylaeus communis</i> Nylander, 1852	p	KGO-00027 KGO-00050 KGO-00052	polylectic	above	
<i>Lasioglossum laticeps</i> (Schenck, 1869)	b	MG791965 MG791966 MG791967	polylectic	ground	
<i>Lasioglossum leucozonium</i> (Schrank, 1781)	b	MG791993 MG791991	polylectic	ground	
<i>Lasioglossum morio</i> (Fabricius, 1793)	b	MG791969 MG791970 MG791971 MG791972	polylectic	ground	
<i>Lasioglossum pauxillum</i> (Schenck, 1853)	b, ext	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016, and 20.5.2016 MG791980 MG791981 MG791983	polylectic	ground	
<i>Megachile cf. versicolor</i> Smith, 1844	p	KGO-00021	polylectic	above	
<i>Megachile willughbiella</i> (Kirby, 1802)	p	KGO-00036 KGO-00037	polylectic	above ground	and
<i>Nomada flavoguttata</i> (Kirby, 1802)	ext	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016	parasitic	parasitic	
<i>Nomada goodeniana</i> (Kirby, 1802)	ext	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016	parasitic	parasitic	
<i>Nomada lathburiana</i> (Kirby, 1802)	ext	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016	parasitic	parasitic	
<i>Osmia aurulenta</i> (Panzer, 1799)	ext, p	M.Bräu, 20.05.2016 KGO-00071 KGO-00104	polylectic	above	
<i>Osmia bicolor</i> (Schrank, 1781)	p	KGO-00105	polylectic	above	
<i>Osmia spinulosa</i> (Kirby, 1802)	p	KGO-00072	oligolectic	above	
<i>Sphcodes crassus</i> Thomson, 1870	b	MG845959	parasitic	parasitic	
<i>Sphcodes ephippius</i> (Linnaeus, 1767)	ext	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016	parasitic	parasitic	

<i>Sphcodes gibbus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	ext	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016	parasitic	parasitic
<i>Sphcodes monilicornis</i> (Kirby, 1802)	ext	M.Bräu, 21.04.2016	parasitic	parasitic
<i>Sphcodes puncticeps</i> Thomson, 1870	b	MG 845968	parasitic	parasitic

**Table 4: Species features for photo-documentation.** This list is not attempting to be comprehensive and must be adapted depending on time and region of the monitoring and should be in accordance with the respective identification keys.

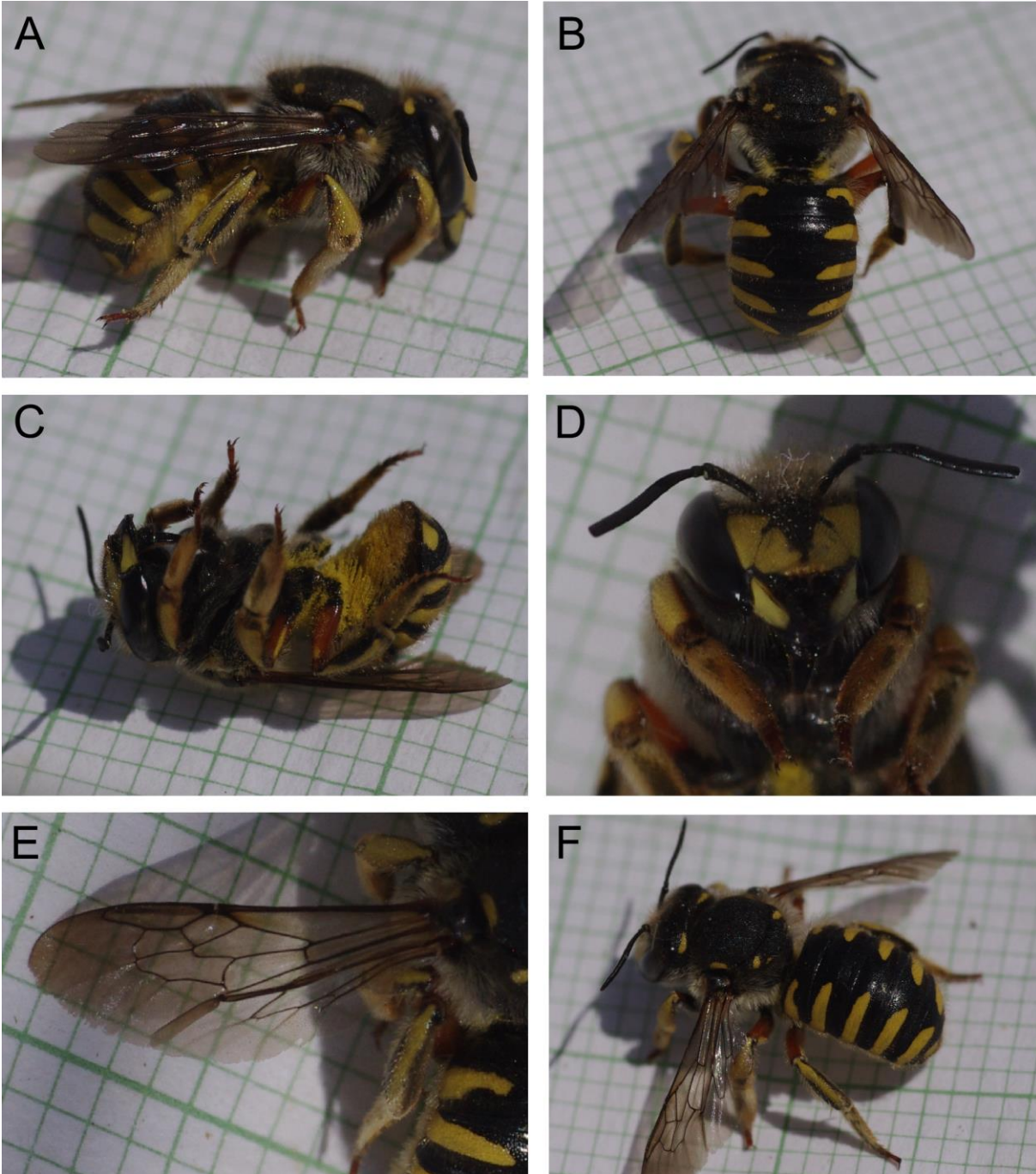
<b>General features:</b>	
Overview photograph from top, side and bottom	size, colors, body shape
Frontal view of the face	shape, colors, hairs, mandibles, clypeus, labrum
Details of thorax from above	sculpturation of scutum and potential rugosity of propodeum
Detail of abdomen from above	tergite bands and sculpturation
<b>For females:</b>	
Pollen brush or scopae with flocci	color(s), extension
<b>For males:</b>	
Sternites	spines, shape of last sternite
<b>Additional features:</b>	<b>genus-specific</b>
<i>Andrena</i> males:	frontal and side view of the head, detail of antennae (front view) and mandibles
<i>Anthophora</i> males:	mid-tarsi and mid-basitarsi, hind tibiae and basitarsi
<i>Bombus</i> females:	sternite 6, head in front and side view, hind tibiae and basitarsi
<i>Bombus</i> males:	detail of antennae, hind tibiae and basitarsi
<i>Chelostoma</i> males:	sternites 2 and 4
<i>Coelioxys</i> females:	tergite 6 and sternites 5 and 6, mandibles
<i>Coelioxys</i> males:	tergite 5 edges and sternite 4, mandibles
<i>Colletes</i> females:	hind margin of tergite 1, back of thorax, dorsal fringe of hind tibiae, galeae, clypeus
<i>Colletes</i> males:	<b>sternite 6</b> , galeae
<i>Hylaeus</i> :	<b>frontal face</b> and antennal <b>view</b> , pronotal collar, presence or absence of lateral hair fringes on the first tergites additionally for males: mandibles and labrum
<i>Megachile</i> females:	tergite 6 in sideview, tibiae, basitarsi
<i>Megachile</i> males:	front tarsi, front coxae, tip of antennae
<i>Nomada</i> :	frontal and side view of head, labrum and tip of mandibles, detail of antennae, detail of hind femora and tibiae (esp. inner sides)
<i>Osmia</i> :	spurs of hind tibiae, shape of sternite 6, antennae, clypeus

**Figure Captions**

Figure 1: The study site “Kiesgrube Obermayr” (modified from <https://www.google.de/maps/@48.1462044,11.7084456,606m/data=!3m1!1e3>, last accessed 19 Feb. 2019)



Figure 2: Picture plate of an *Anthidium manicatum* female: A) Lateral view; B) Dorsal view; C) Ventral view; D) Detail face and front legs; E) Detail wings; F) Thorax and abdomen pattern. Images A-E: individual immobilized by chilling. F: recovering from paralyzation. Square grid = 1 mm. All photographs by M. Hofmann.



## Chapter 9

# **Courtship behaviour in the genus *Nomada*–antennal grabbing and possible transfer of male secretions**

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# Courtship behaviour in the genus *Nomada* – antennal grabbing and possible transfer of male secretions

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## Abstract

Due to low population densities, copulation in the cuckoo bee genus *Nomada* has not previously been observed, although a seminal paper by Tengö and Bergström (1977) on the chemomimesis between these parasitic bees and their *Andrena* or *Melitta* hosts postulated that secretions from male glands might be sprayed onto females during copulation. Our observations on the initiation and insertion phase of copulation in three species of *Nomada* now indicate antennal grabbing as a mechanism by which chemicals are transferred between the sexes. Histological studies of the antennae of *N. fucata* and *N. lathburiana* reveal antennal modifications associated with cell aggregations that represent glandular cells, and SEM studies revealed numerous excretory canals.

## Keywords

Antennal structure, copulation, chemomimesis, male secretions, cuckoo bees

## Introduction

Bees (Apoidea, Apiformes) use visual, auditory and chemical signals to locate potential mates, and males may search for females at flowers, nest sites, or perch spots by non-aggressively patrolling along a strict route or by defending a territory in which females are likely to be encountered (Alcock et al. 1978, Eickwort and Ginsberg 1980). Observations on the actual copulation, which usually occurs on the wing, are scarce (Alcock et al. 1978, Michener 2007). Especially kleptoparasitic bees, which have low population densities, are rarely observed during mating, which comprises initiation, insertion, and separation. Here we report on the mating behavior of three species of *Nomada*, a genus of kleptoparasitic bees in the tribe Nomadini of the family Apidae (Hedtke et al. 2013) that comprises around 700 species occurring throughout the Holarctic, the Neotropics, sub-Saharan Africa, and the oriental region (Michener 2007; Ascher and Pickering 2017).

*Nomada* parasitizes predominantly species of *Andrena* (Tengö and Bergström 1977, Michener 2007), and the females use olfactory cues for detecting suitable host nests, but visual cues for finding nest entrance holes (Cane 1983, Schindler 2005). *Nomada* courtship includes “swarming” of males at shrubs of willow (*Salix* spec.) and gooseberry (*Ribes uva-crispa*; Friese 1923: 384) or males patrolling in groups with males of the host species (Tengö and Bergström 1977). Alcock (1978) saw males rubbing their abdomen and the lower surface of their head against blades of grass from which he inferred that they mark rendezvous places with sexual pheromones, an inference supported by an observation of a *N. fabriciana* male rubbing itself against a leaf (Smit 2005). Female dummies prepared with extracts of conspecific females elicit the initiation of copulation (Fleck 1995). The mandibular gland secretions of *N. bifida*, *N. flavoguttata*, *N. flavopicta*, *N. goodeniana*, *N. leucophthalma*, *N. lineola*, *N. marshamella*, and *N. panzeri* contain chemical compounds identical to those of the Dufour’s glands of their host species (Tengö and Bergström 1977), and Tengö and Bergström hypothesized that these secretions are sprayed on the females during mating to help them enter the host species’ nests. Figure 3 in Bergström (2008) shows a *Nomada lathburiana* female waiting to enter the nest of an *Andrena cineraria* female.

The present study of the courtship and mating behaviour of *Nomada* is based on field and lab observations of *N. fucata* and *N. lathburiana* in central Germany (Schindler 2005) and field studies on *N. flavoguttata* in southern Germany. *Nomada flavoguttata* is distributed across Eurasia, *N. fucata* from Portugal to Central Asia and from Sweden to Northern Africa, and *N. lathburiana* in Eurasia and Northern Africa (Scheuchl and Willner 2016). Observation of a previously unreported behavior during the initiation of copulation, which we term “antennal grabbing”, indicated that males transfer a chemical substance to the antennae of the females. This led us to investigate the morphology and histology of the antennae.

## Methods

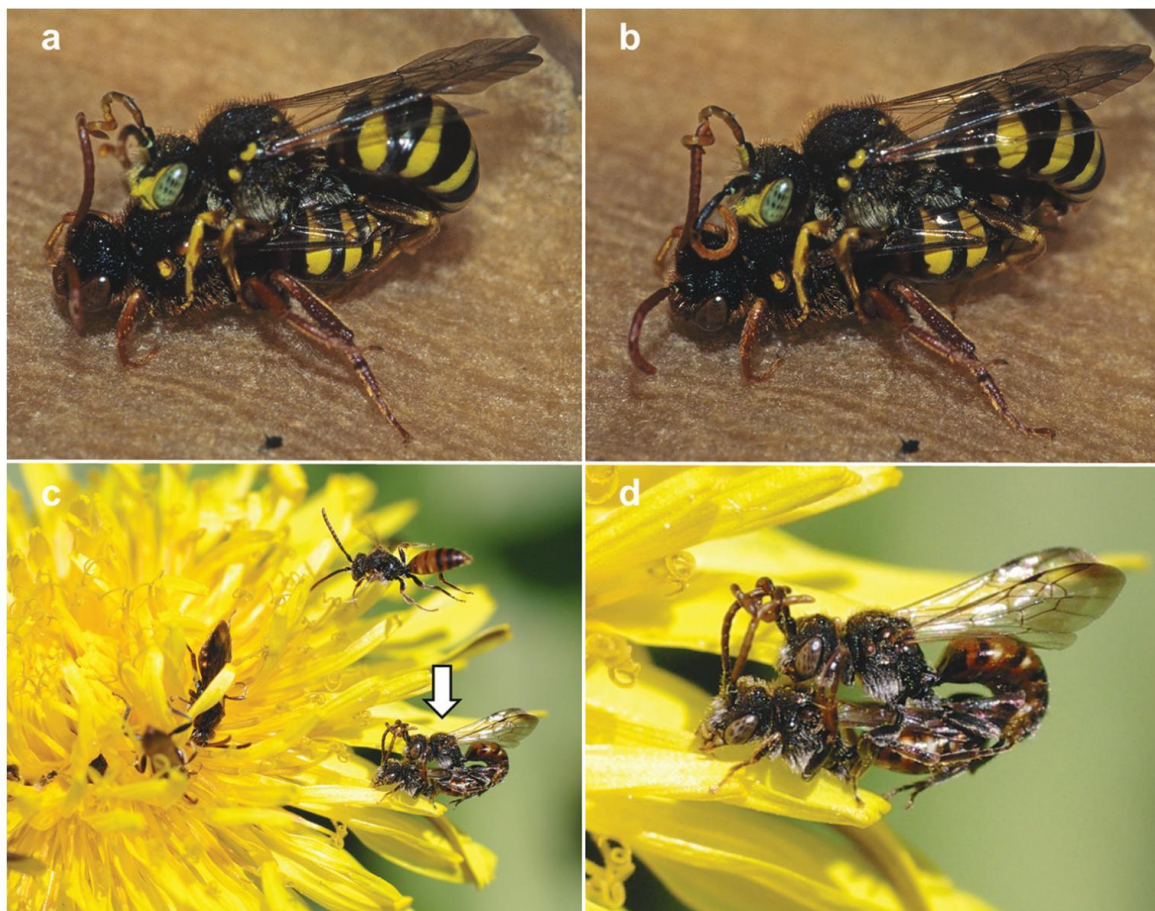
### Behavioral observations

Courtship behavior in *Nomada fucata* F. and *N. lathburiana* (K.) was studied both in the field and in the lab. The courtship phase was observed at nesting sites of the host species *Andrena flavipes* Panz. and *A. vaga* Panz. and at foraging plants in an abandoned gravel pit near Bonn (50.773293°N, 7.147145°E, about 50 m a.s.l.) in 1998 and 1999. The initiation and insertion phase of copulation in *N. flavoguttata* (K.) was observed on 24 May 2017 in the conservation area “Allacher Heide” in Munich (48.206729°N, 11.474383°E, 517 m a.s.l.). It was the first sunny and warm day after a longer period of cold and moist weather, leading to a major hatching event of several *Nomada* species. Within 5 m<sup>2</sup>, more than 50 *Nomada* bees could be observed foraging and mating on *Taraxacum officinale* s.l. (Fig. 1). Three bees were also identified via DNA barcoding (see Appendix 1 for a description of lab procedures).

Studies in the lab were carried out with virgin males and females of *N. fucata* and *N. lathburiana*. Bees were collected with emergence traps at the nests and released in flight cages (4 × 2 × 2 m) or transferred in petri-dishes (ø 15 cm) for observation. *Nomada* individuals were kept in refrigerators at 6 °C before being placed into the arena. Petri-dishes were illuminated with artificial light. Courtship behavior was documented with macro photographs and video records that were then analyzed frame by frame. Courtship was divided into the following phases, a) Courtship or pre-copula phase: males discovering mates, males approaching females, males mounting the abdomen of the females and attempting to copulate. b) Copula phase: male inserting his genital into the female’s genital aperture. We did not observe the separation phase of copulation.

### Morphological studies

Flagella morphology of males of *Nomada fucata* and *N. lathburiana* was studied under a photo stereomicroscope, with photos taken at 10 to 40 x. Morphological terminology for the antennae follows Michener (1944), those for the cuticular structures Es-slen and Kaisling (1976). Elevated modifications on the flagella of *Nomada* males are called tyloids, following Schönitzer et al. (2000). Morphological structures of the outer and the inner surface of the flagella of *N. fucata* and *N. lathburiana* males were examined under scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Study objects were dried, mounted on aluminum stubs and gold coated or in the case of the flagella of *N. flavoguttata* platinum coated. Some antennae were cleaned by macerating in 5% KOH for 12 hours at 40 °C and dehydrated in graded ethanol series. To study the inner surface of the flagella, they were embedded in hot-melt glue, opened transversally with industrial blades, macerated and dehydrated as described above.



**Figure 1.** Mating of *Nomada lathburiana* (**a, b**) in the lab and of *N. flavoguttata* on *Taraxacum officinale* s.l. (**c, d**). **a** ♂ mounts the ♀ and fixes its wings with its mid and hind legs and tries to entangle the female's antennae spirally with its flagella. ♂ lifts the abdomen of the ♀ with its hind legs and tries to insert its genitalia in the female's genital opening **b** ♂ repeatedly spirally entangles the female's antennae with its left and right flagellum and pulls it off medially to apically. ♂ tries to insert its genitalia repeatedly **c** ♂♂ patrolling at a blossom of *T. officinale* **d** Insertion phase of copulation. Antennation of ♂ as described in (**b**).

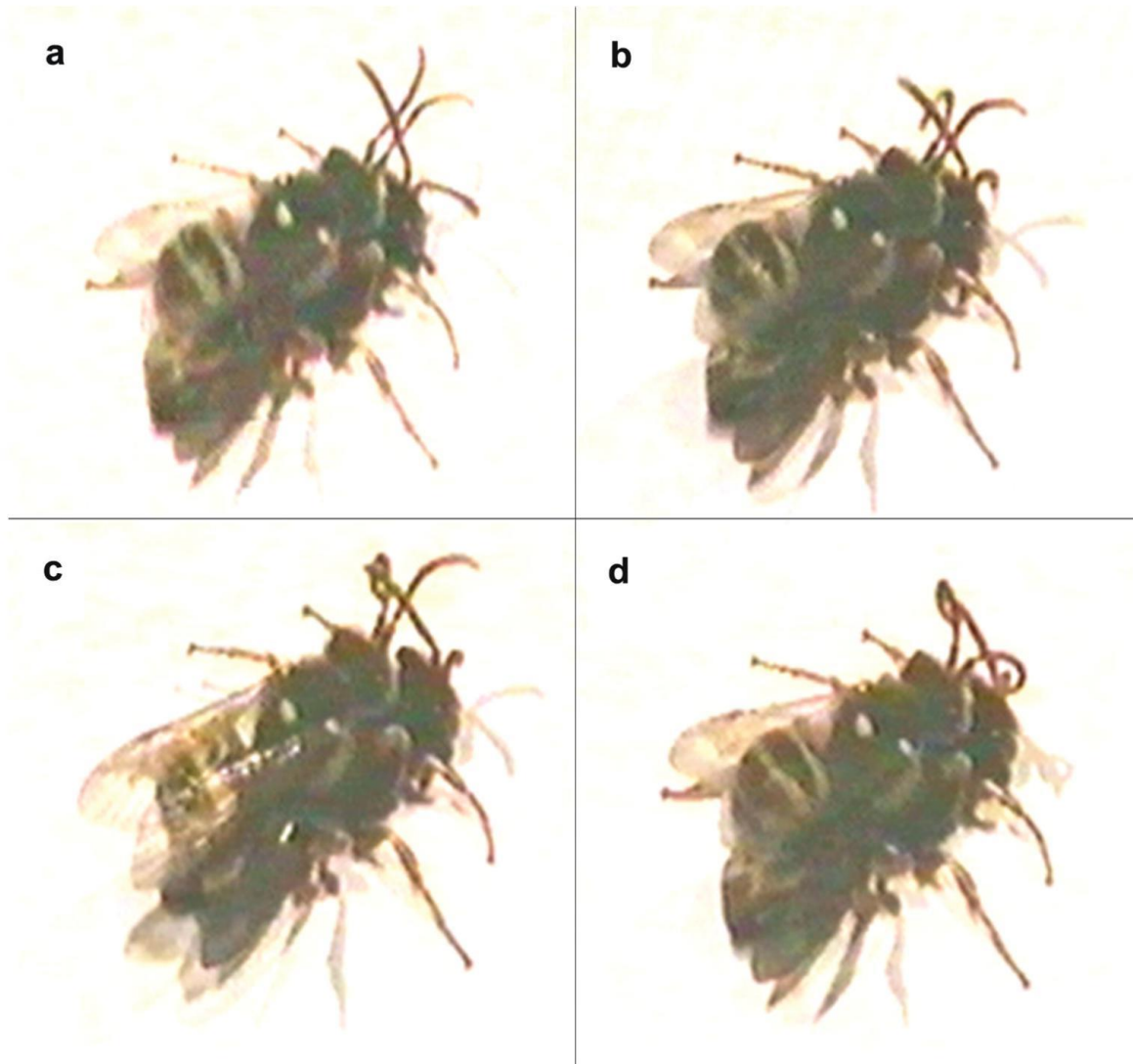
### Histological studies

Antennae of males of *N. fucata* and *N. lathburiana* were fixed in a Duboscq-Brasil solution (Romeis 1989) and then transferred in 70% ethanol. They were dissected (transversally and longitudinally), dehydrated in graded ethanol series and embedded in EMbed 812 (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA). Semi-thin sections of flagella 4–7 (*N. fucata*) and flagella 9–11 (*N. lathburiana*) were made with glass knives on a rotation microtome. Sections were stained with toluidinblue and analysed under a photo-microscope.

### Results

#### Courtship behavior of *Nomada flavoguttata*, *N. fucata*, and *N. lathburiana*

Field observations revealed that males of *N. fucata* patrol together with males of *Andrena flavipes*, the host species, at foraging plants and above the entrances of the



**Figure 2.** Mating of *Nomada fucata* (singular images of a video sequence). **a** ♂ mounts the ♀ and fixes its wings with its mid and hind legs. ♂ lifts the abdomen of the ♀ with its hind legs and tries to insert its genitalia in the female's genital opening **b** ♂ entangles the female's left antenna with its left flagellum **c** ♂ pulls its left flagellum from medial to apical along the female antenna **d** ♂ repeatedly entangles the female's antennae with its left and right flagellum and pulls it off medially to apically. ♂ tries to insert its genitalia.

fossorial host nests. During these flights, we observed neither inter- nor intraspecific aggression. *Nomada* males attempted to copulate with females that they discovered on flowers or on the ground, but females rejected the males in all observed attempts ( $n = 11$ ). Males of *N. lathburiana* did not patrol potential rendezvous sites.

For both *N. fucata* and *N. lathburiana*, copulation was studied in the laboratory, with females chilled down for immobilization (since mobile females repelled the males in the lab experiment). For *N. fucata*, two copulations were observed, and for *N. lathburiana* four. Males mounted the abdomen of the females, fixed their forelegs on the side of the females' thorax, clinched the wings of the females with their middle legs and lifted their mates' abdomen with their hind legs to insert the genitalia. In this position the males' head was above the pronotum of the female. During the initiation of copulation males repeatedly wound their flagella (in case of *N. lathburiana* in a spiral) around

**Table 1.** Tyloid-like structures on the flagella of central-European *Nomada* males. The preselection of most species followed descriptions from Celary 1995 and Scheuchl 2000. Systematics after Alexander and Schwarz (1994); Abbreviations: gr. = Group, flg. = flagellomere.

Species	Species-group	Tyloid-like structures	
		position	morphology
<i>N. bifasciata</i> Olivier	<i>bifasciata</i> -gr.	figs 3–8	inconspicuous tubercles
<i>N. fucata</i> Panzer	<i>bifasciata</i> -gr.	figs 3–8	inconspicuous tubercles
<i>N. melanopyga</i> Schmied.	<i>bifasciata</i> -gr.	figs 4–9	inconspicuous tubercles
<i>N. succincta</i> Panzer <sup>1</sup>	<i>bifasciata</i> -gr.	figs 3–8	inconspicuous tubercles
<i>N. flavoguttata</i> (Kirby)	<i>flavoguttata</i> -gr.	figs. 3–7	inconspicuous tubercles
<i>N. bluethgeni</i> Stöckhert	<i>furva</i> -gr.	figs 2–4	spiky spots
<i>N. distinguenda</i> Morawitz	<i>furva</i> -gr.	figs 3–5	inconspicuous tubercles
<i>N. furvoides</i> Stöckhert	<i>furva</i> -gr.	figs 3–5	spiky to rounded elevation
<i>N. kohli</i> Schmied.	<i>furva</i> -gr.	figs 3–5	rounded spots
<i>N. posthuma</i> Blüthgen <sup>2</sup>	c.f. <i>furva</i> -gr.	figs 3–6	spots
<i>N. argentata</i> Herr.-Schäf.	<i>integra</i> -gr.	figs 4–8	tubercles
<i>N. beaumonti</i> Schwarz	<i>integra</i> -gr.	figs 4–10	spiky spots
<i>N. facilis</i> Schwarz	<i>integra</i> -gr.	figs 3–9	spiky spots
<i>N. integra</i> Brullé	<i>integra</i> -gr.	figs 3–10	transverse ridges
<i>N. pleurosticta</i> Herr.-Schäf.	<i>integra</i> -gr.	figs 4–9	transverse ridges
<i>N. stigma</i> Fabricius	<i>integra</i> -gr.	figs 4–9	transverse ridges
<i>N. braunsiana</i> Schmied.	<i>ruficornis</i> -gr.	figs 2–9	spots
<i>N. castellana</i> Dusmet	<i>ruficornis</i> -gr.	figs 4–12	spots
<i>N. lathburiana</i> (Kirby)	<i>ruficornis</i> -gr.	figs 1–11	thorn-like spots
<i>N. striata</i> Fabricius	<i>ruficornis</i> -gr.	figs 3–7	inconspicuous tubercles

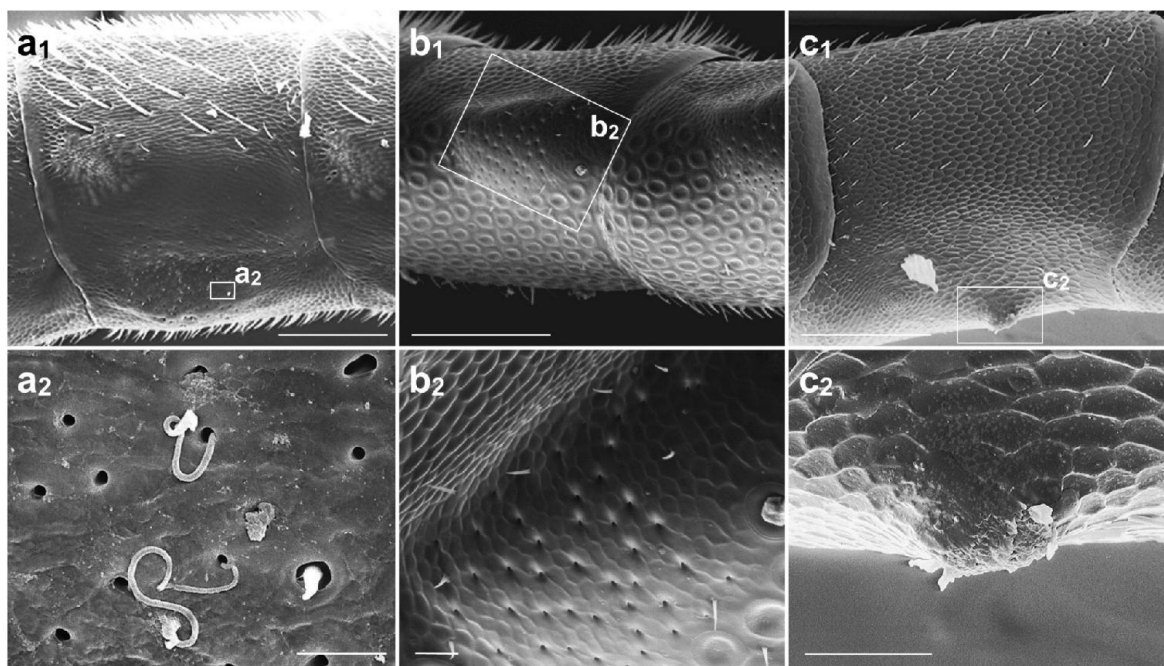
<sup>1</sup> the taxa *Nomada succincta* and *Nomada goodenia* were not separated,

<sup>2</sup> species for this study not available.

the female's antennae and then stroked the female's antennae (Fig. 1 and 2). For *N. flavoguttata*, the first stages of copulation were observed in the field (Fig. 1). We observed about 50 males and females foraging and resting on flowers of dandelion (*Taraxacum*). Males attempted to mount females from the back and grabbed the females' antennae with their flagella, similar to the behavior observed in the lab for *N. lathburiana*.

### Morphology of the flagella

In all three species, the flagella of the males' antennae bear tyloid like-structures (Table 1, Fig. 3). In *N. fucata*, these tyloids are inconspicuous tubercles at the lateral side of flagella 3 to 8. The tubercles show numerous pores with diameters of 0.6 to 1 µm out of which paste-like substances were secreted. In *N. flavoguttata*, the tyloids are most prominent laterally on flagella 3 to 7 but can also be seen on flagella 8 to 10. There also are numerous pores (ca. 0.5 µm) and 3 to 5 µm-long setae. In *N. lathburiana*, thorn-like cuticular modifications can be seen at the ventral side of flagella 2 to 11, the surface of which appears to be coated with secretions; there were no pores.



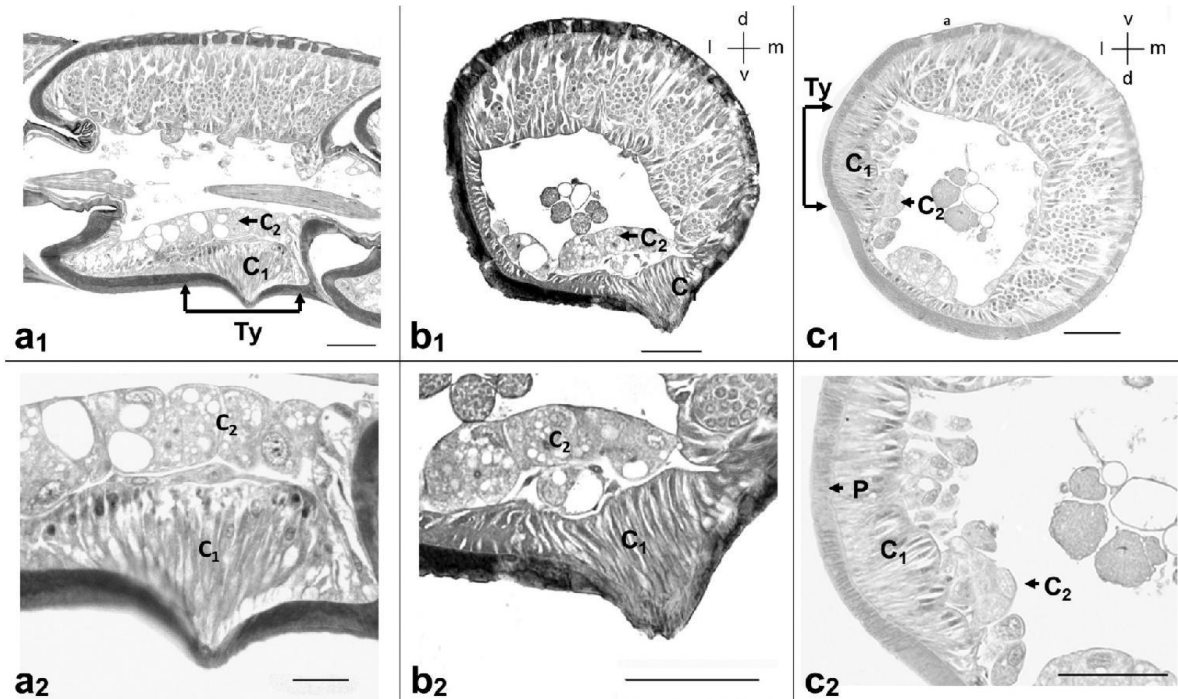
**Figure 3.** Modifications on the antennae of *Nomada fucata* ♂ (**a**) (left antenna, dorsal), *N. flavoguttata* ♂ (**b**) (right antenna, ventral) and *N. lathburiana* ♂ (**c**) (left antenna, lateral). SEM micrographs. **a<sub>1</sub>** weak elevation on flagellum 6 laterally. Scale unit: 0.1 mm **b<sub>1</sub>** weak elevations on flagellum 4 ventrally. Scale unit: 0.1 mm **c<sub>1</sub>** nodule on flagellum 9. Scale unit: 0.1 mm **a<sub>2</sub>** pores and secretions on the elevation. Scale unit: 0.01 mm **b<sub>2</sub>** pores and setae on the elevations. Scale unit: 0.01 mm **c<sub>2</sub>** nodule covered with secretions. Scale unit: 0.02 mm.

### Antennal glands

Histological studies of *N. fucata* and *N. lathburiana* corroborated that these antennal modifications are associated with glands (Fig. 4). Longitudinal and cross semi-thin sections of several flagella revealed two cell aggregations that represent glandular cells of type 1 and type 3 (Noirot and Quennedy 1991). SEM studies of the inner surface of the modifications revealed numerous excretory canals (see Fig. 5)

### Discussion

This is the first report of the mating behavior in *Nomada*. The males use their antennae to grab the females' antennae for a chemical signal transfer, while they use their feet to pin down the female. In Hymenoptera and other insects, transfer of sexual pheromones from the males to the females is widespread (e.g. Hymenoptera, Terebrantes: Dahms 1984, Bin and Vinson 1986, Isidoro et al. 1999; Hymenoptera, Aculeata: Isidoro et al. 1996, 2002, Romani et al. 2003; Coleoptera: de Marzo and Vit 1983, Bartlet et al. 1994; Trichoptera: Roemhild 1980), with the organs of transfer usually assumed to be the antennae on the basis of histological studies that revealed male antennal glands. Antennal movements during mating have been observed in Halictidae, Megachilidae,

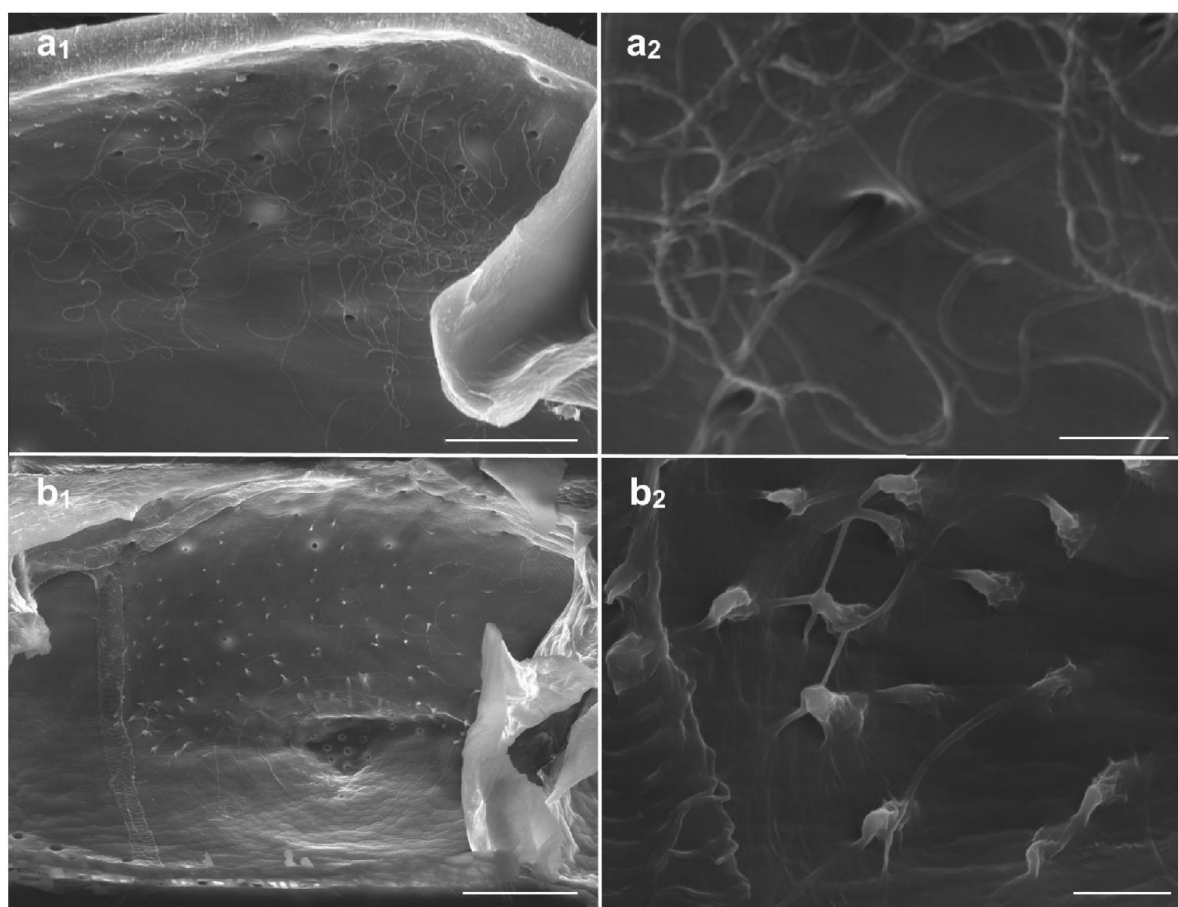


**Figure 4.** Semi-thin sections of antennomere 9 of *Nomada lathburiana* ♂ [a=longitudinal, b=cross. Ty=Thyloid, C<sub>1</sub>=compact epidermal cells, C<sub>2</sub>= gland cells, type III (Noiroit & Quenedey 1991). Scale unit: 0.05 mm (a<sub>1</sub>, b<sub>1</sub>, b<sub>2</sub>), 0.02 mm (a<sub>2</sub>). Topography: l=lateral, m=medial, v=ventral, d=dorsal] and of antennomere 7 of *Nomada fucata* ♂ [c=cross. Ty=Thyloid, C<sub>1</sub>= compact epidermal cells, C<sub>2</sub>=gland cells, type III, P=porous cuticle (Noiroit & Quenedey 1991). Scale unit: 0.05 mm (c<sub>1</sub>, c<sub>2</sub>) Topography: l=lateral, m=medial, v=ventral, d=dorsal].

Colletidae, and Anthophoridae (Barrows 1975, Batra 1978, Wcislo et al. 1992, Wcislo 1995, Wcislo and Buchmann 1995, Felicioli et al. 1998). A winding of the male's antennae around the females' antennae, which we here term “antennal grabbing,” has been observed in the widespread west Palearctic species *Melecta albifrons* (Jacobi 2005), and similar antennal rubbing behaviors have been documented for Dryinidae (Waloff 1974), Tiphidae (Rivers et al. 1979), Sphecidae (Blösch 1999, 2000), and Vespidae (Romani et al. 2005).

Male antennation has been interpreted in terms of sensory exploration of visual and tactile stimuli as well as the transfer of pheromones (Isidoro et al. 1996, Bin et al. 1989, Schönitzer et al. 2000, Ayasse et al. 2001, Romani et al. 2003). Our observations suggest that *Nomada* males transfer liquid pheromones secreted from antennal glands to the females. Paste-like excretions as we saw on flagella pores of *N. fucata* may serve as contact pheromones that are spread directly onto the female antennae (Wittmann and Blochtein 1995, Isidoro et al. 1996). In *Osmia cornuta*, males in copula position rhythmically move their antennae, but without touching the females' antennae (Felicioli et al. 1998), suggesting that volatile, not liquid, pheromones are applied onto the females' antennae. In *Megachile* and *Xylocopa*, by contrast, males bring their modified fore or middle leg basitarsus in contact with the female flagella (Wittmann & Blochtein 1995, Wittmann et al. 2004), suggesting the





**Figure 5.** Excretory canals at the inner surface of the tyloid-like structures on the antennomere 6 of *Nomada fucata* ♂ (**a<sub>1</sub>**, **a<sub>2</sub>**) and antennomere 5 of *Nomada lathburiana* ♂ (**b<sub>1</sub>**, **b<sub>2</sub>**). SEM micrographs. Scale unit: 0.03mm (**a<sub>1</sub>**), 0.004mm (**a<sub>2</sub>**), 0.06 mm (**b<sub>1</sub>**), 0.01 mm (**b<sub>2</sub>**).

transfer of pheromones from tarsal glands. In males of *Anthophora plumipes*, finally, sexual pheromones produced in abdominal glands are transferred with the hind legs to specialized setae of the elongate middle legs that then brush them onto the females' antennae (Wittmann et al. 2004).

The biological function of the substance transferred by *Nomada* males to females during antennal grabbing may lie in making inseminated females unattractive to other males as suggested for *Centris adani* (Frankie et al. 1980) or in males perfuming females to facilitate odor mimetism of the host bees as suggested for five of eight chemically investigated *Nomada*/host pairs (Tengö and Bergström 1977). Identical compounds (isoprenoid and straight chain esters of short acids) in the nest-parasitic *Nomada* females and their *Andrena* or *Melitta* hosts presumably make it easier for the parasites to gain entrance into the nests of host-bee females without being attacked. Tengö and Bergström (1977) reported that the *Nomada* compounds they investigated are produced in the males' mandibular glands (in the head), but it appears that entire heads may have been used for chemical extraction. These authors also had no opportunity to observe any mating behavior. Interestingly, *Nomada flavoguttata*, the only species included in both studies, was not found to produce identical compounds as its host.

## Acknowledgements

Constructive comments from the editor, Michael Ohl, an anonymous reviewer, and Gunnar Bergström are much appreciated.

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## **Appendix I**

### **DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing**

DNA was isolated with the QIAGEN DNeasy-Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany), using one leg per bee and following the QIAGEN Quick-Start Protocol (January 2011) with two modifications: The legs were incubated in Lysis Buffer (ATL) and Proteinase K for at least 48 h at room temperature and 5 to 10 hours at 56 °C. To increase DNA concentration, we used 100 µL elution buffer (PE; 5 mM Tris/HCL pH 8.5). A fragment of the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase (COI) gene with a 658 bp target region near the 5' terminus of COI was amplified using primers described in Schmidt et al. (2015), namely COIfor (ATT CAA CCA ATC ATA AAG ATA TTG G) and COIrev (TAA ACT TCT GGA TGT CCA AAA AAT CA). Polymerase chain reactions (PCR) were performed using standard conditions. Amplified products were sequenced on an ABI 3100 Avant capillary sequencer (Applied Biosystems), and forward and reverse sequences were manually edited and assembled, using Sequencher 5.1 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA) and BLAST searching in GenBank. All species sequenced for this study have been previously barcoded for the GBOL-project, and reference sequences were therefore available in NCBI GenBank under DOIs: [dx.doi.org/10.5883/DS-GBAPI](https://doi.org/10.5883/DS-GBAPI) and [doi.org/10.5883/DS-GBAPS](https://doi.org/10.5883/DS-GBAPS). Three new sequences were generated for this study and are available under as GenBank accessions MG845937, MG845938, and MG845939.

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## Chapter 10

# **General Discussion**





## BEE DIVERSITY IN MUNICH

At least 565 species of wild bees have been recorded from Germany since about 1800 (Westrich 2018) of which 506 (90%) occur in Bavaria (Mandery et al. 2003a). Of these 506 species, 40 are considered locally extinct and 79 threatened by extinction (Mandery et al. 2003b). For the city of Munich, 324 species have been recorded since 1795, of which 58 have not been re-collected since 1919 and thus may be extinct with the city perimeter. Another 22 have not been seen in the last 50 years (chapter 4). As far as I was able to ascertain, 244 species have been recorded for the city area of Munich since 1969, of which I found 142 species (58%) at one or more of my study areas. In the course of this research, I submitted 183 Cytochrome c Oxidase subunit 1 sequences to GenBank (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank>), each linked to a voucher in the Zoological Collections in Munich (<https://www.zsm.mwn.de>), and uploaded 390 photo vouchers at the Diversity Workbench server of the Bavarian Natural History Collections ([https://diversityworkbench.net/Portal/Diversity\\_Workbench](https://diversityworkbench.net/Portal/Diversity_Workbench)). I also collected and needled 266 specimens, all deposited in the Zoological Collections. Lastly, 84 plant specimens were collected and deposited in the Munich Botanical Collections (<http://www.botanischestaatssammlung.de>) as part of my research.

Diversity hotspots were the Munich Botanical Garden (21 ha) with 105 species, and the Allacher Lohwald site (150 ha) with 81 species. By comparison, the renatured gravel pit Obermayr (18 ha) in the east of Munich had only 48 species, 54% of them ground-nesting (chapter 8), pointing to its suitability for wild bees in terms of nesting sites. The increased percentage of sealed surfaces in cities reduces the nesting space for ground-nesting wild bees, which is thought to pose severe problems for the 369 (i.e. 50% of 745) bee species in Germany, Austria and Switzerland that nest in self-burrowed tunnels in the ground. In addition, 143 species nest in hollow spaces either aboveground or belowground (Zurbuchen and Müller 2012, p. 57; Westrich 2018) and may also experience a lack of nesting sites, but few data on this topic are available.

Several mostly thermophilic species have been recorded for Munich only since the 2000s. For instance, *Osmia cornuta*, a Mediterranean species that nests in sun-exposed loess and clay walls (Scheuchl and Willner 2016) was first recorded for Munich in 2010, but has now established a large breeding population in the Munich Botanical Garden at sun-exposed wooden nesting aids (>100 individuals). *Halictus scabiosae*, a distinctly thermophilic species (Westrich 2018) was first seen in Munich 2016, also in the Botanical Garden, and has since then been recorded multiple times in the entire city area. Its spread started in the 21<sup>st</sup> century and has also been described for other regions, including Hesse, Thuringia, and Saxony (Frommer and Flügel 2005; Burger and Frommer 2010). Due to its increasing commonness and distinct look, which allows its ready identification in the field, *Halictus scabiosae* was the “Wildbiene des Jahres 2018”, i.e., the wild bee of the year 2018 (<https://www.nabu.de/news/2017/12/23600.html>, last accessed 22 Sep. 2018).

Another thermophilic new species for Munich that I was able to make during this study is the rare *Anthophora bimaculata*, which I saw in the Botanical Garden in its sleeping position on a blade of grass in the heath area. This species had never been registered for the Munich area before. Its habitat requirements --dry, warm locations with sand or clay for digging the nests-- may be limiting its expansion (Westrich 2018). The spread of yet another new species for Munich since 2004, *Hoplitis adunca*, can be explained by the geographic expansion of its pollen source, species in the genus *Echium*. The viper’s bugloss, *E. vulgare*, is currently expanding its range on Germany as winters become shorter and temperatures warmer, and with it, the number of records for *H. adunca* has also been increasing. Last year, 2018, I could observe a further new species for the Munich Botanical Garden, *Colletes hederæ*. This late-flying bee appears in mid-August and was only been described in 1993

(Schmidt and Westrich 1993). It has expanded northwards within the last ten years (Hopfenmüller 2014). All these new records of thermophilic species reflect a change in the community composition towards warm-loving species caused by warmer temperatures over the last years. This effect is particularly visible in urban habitats, as these are generally warmer than adjoining rural areas, which is referred to as the urban heat island effect (Myrup 1969). As winters are shorter (in Munich chill days with temperatures below 5°C have decreased by 7.3 days per decade, Zohner and Renner 2014, Figure S2), bee species from warmer areas have higher probabilities to sustain the winter.

In contrast to these new finds (of species that appear to expanding their ranges), I could not find several other species that had been present at my study sites 20 years ago, despite targeted search efforts. An example is *Andrena rufizona* Imhoff, 1834, which had one of its largest known populations in Germany in the Allacher Lohe before the marshalling yard was built, but was reduced from about 20 breeding females to one female and several males by 1999 (Schuberth 2000). The last sighting of this species was in 2002 (J. Schuberth, Munich, personal communication, 2019).

Despite such losses, greenspace-rich urban areas, such as Munich, can support high numbers of wild bee species as long as conservation measures are undertaken to increase the bees' nesting and foraging opportunities to maintain self-sustaining populations. In my view, this will only be achieved, however, if conservation goals in urban landscapes change from solely public education-oriented to active floral and faunal preservation measures, a topic taken up in the next section.

## URBAN BEE DIVERSITY AND NOVEL BEE HABITATS

For a long time, nature protection in urban spaces has focused on environmental education, the raising of the public's awareness of the plight of nature, and on fundraising, as cities have high densities of humans, many of them affluent and well educated (McCleery 2014). City kids are thought to become increasingly disconnected from nature due to a lack of opportunities for experiencing the natural world. This can be overcome by offering outdoor activities and learning opportunities. For example, a six-week-long project about bird-feeding and monitoring on the school grounds of eight primary schools in Brighton and Hove (UK) increased the children's awareness of local biodiversity as well as their bird identification skills (White et al. 2018). Interest in urban wildlife, however, is also increasing in the field of ecology (cf. introduction of this dissertation), and research collaborations have formed, such as the Urban Wildlife Information Network (UWIN), which aims to systematically collect long-term data sets in several cities on multiple species (Magle et al. 2019).

An emerging field in urban biodiversity research is the study of green roofs (reviewed in Bowler et al. 2010, and Blank et al. 2013), which are now mandatory on flat-topped buildings in Switzerland and a few other European countries, and which are supported by citizen incentives in the USA (Brenneisen 2006, Stutz 2010). Most green roofs fall in the category of extensive green roofs, which only have a thin layer of soil (5-15 cm) and have little or no maintenance costs because of robust roof top vegetation, while only a few are intensive green roofs that have a soil layer of at least 15 cm and require regular garden care (Mann 1994). Besides positive effects of green roofs due to storm-water management (Getter and Rowe 2008, Berndtsson 2010), moderation of the urban heat island effect (Takebayashi and Moriyama 2007, Tabares-Velasco et al. 2012), and lower building temperatures (Oberndorfer et al. 2007), they also constitute mostly undisturbed wildlife habitats with low pesticide loads (for reviews, see Fernandez-Canero and Gonzalez-Redondo 2010, Williams et al. 2014, and Gonsalves 2016). There are reports of 236 species of wild bees on green roofs worldwide (chapter 7). The longest species list exists for Zurich, Switzerland, where 126

species were registered on green roofs (Braaker et al. 2014), showing the importance of this habitat for wild bees. The bees found on green roofs are mostly thermophilic and adapted to dry conditions, as the microclimate on green roofs is often times hot and dry (literature summarized in Hofmann and Renner 2018; chapter 7). These conditions lead to a low plant diversity, which then again influences the wild bee species composition. Oligolectic species are underrepresented on green roofs, as suitable foraging plants are often missing, while the highest bee diversity and abundance are found on intensive green roofs with high plant species numbers. Due to thin substrate layers on green roofs, the wild bee communities have a high proportion of cavity-nesting species and low numbers of ground-nesting bees (Tonietto et al. 2011, Ksiazek et al. 2014, Kratschmer 2015). Although there are reports of wild bees nesting on green roofs, my review of the literature (chapter 7) showed that there is a lack of data about their realized reproductive success, which is crucial for judging the value of such a new habitat for bee conservation. Another aspect that needs further research is the question of the contribution of green roofs to habitat connectivity. So far, only one study has provided data supporting that green roofs can contribute to linking habitats by being stepping stones between urban greenspaces separated by built-up sites (Braaker et al. 2014, 2017). Whilst I was originally hoping to investigate bees on green roofs in Munich-Pasing, this proved to be logistically too challenging, and I therefore ended up not pursuing this project idea.

Another possibility of connecting habitats within urban areas, which are often isolated by buildings and impervious surfaces in the urban landscape, is roadside vegetation. However, if this is mown frequently, its attractiveness for pollinators is low. A conservation measure for improving such sites is the establishment of flower strips. Flower strips are man-made patches of flowering plants that provide foraging resources for flower-visiting insects, especially bees, butterflies, and flies (e.g. Haenke et al. 2009), as well as retreat possibilities, shelter and overwintering space for many taxa (Haaland et al. 2011). Monitoring and experiments in the rural landscape have shown that such strips enhance the local plant and insect diversity (e.g. Kirmer and Tischew 2014, Schmid-Egger and Witt 2014, Scheper et al. 2015, Dicks et al. 2017 review 80 studies of flower strips), but conservation agencies have only just started to establish flower strips also in urban areas. While pest control and enhanced yield of insect-pollinated crops are the major goals of flower strips in the agricultural context (e.g. Tschumi et al. 2016), the conservation of pollinators and an increase in plant and insect diversity are the major goals of such strips in cities, with increased insect diversity then benefitting other animals, including birds.

My study of the catchment area of One-to-two-year-old flower strips in the city of Munich revealed that most species found *on* the flower strips are also found within a radius of about 1500 m *around* the flower strip (chapter 6). As one would have expected, most of the bee species I recorded at the flower strips were common species that in Germany are not threatened (Westrich et al. 2011). A large proportion are polylectic, and the few oligolectic species were mostly specialized on Asteraceae pollen. The foraging preferences in the all-Munich species pool of 165 polylectic, 72 oligolectic and 87 parasitic species compared to the 43 polylectic, 10 oligolectic and 15 parasitic species found on the flower strips did not differ significantly, however, showing that a species-rich flower strip can support a large number of species even if they are specialized on the pollen of particular plants. Especially strips with plants flowering over a long period of time have a high conservation value (Scheper et al. 2015), and this can be achieved by a suitable species mix and mowing regime. The numbers of bee species on the flower strips are probably increasing with time, but my sample size was too low for statistical testing; nevertheless, the flower strip at Fockensteinstraße established in 2015 showed the highest bee diversity compared to the eight flower strips sown in 2017. An increase in bee diversity over time would be in line with the results of Freyer and colleagues (2010) who suggested that flower strips should be composed of annual and perennial plants and be left growing for at least three years.

Since flower strips only provide food resources, but not nesting sites, their success partly depends on their distance from suitable nesting sites. Habitat connectivity, which is increased by both flower strips or green roofs, is required to maintain bee populations due to the relatively low flight distances of wild bees, a topic that I addressed experimentally. There are at least four ways to study bee flight distances, including radio-transmitters (e.g. Carreck et al. 1999), genetic markers (Chapman et al. 2003, Knight et al. 2005), translocation experiments (Gathmann and Tscharntke 2002) or mark-recapture/mark-reobserve studies (Zurbuchen et al. 2010a,b), which each introduce a different bias, making the comparison of studies with different approaches problematic. With translocation experiments, where bees are removed from their nest and released at different distances from the nest, foraging distances are likely overestimated, as a returning bee covers the distance back to the nest only once, while for foraging, the distance would be covered twice. In mark-recapture-studies, on the other hand, the probability to find a bee at higher distances from the nest decreases because of the squared increase in the surface to be searched, leading to a likely underestimation of flight distances. The experimental approach I took is described in the next section. By tagging 2689 bee individuals (1808 females and 881 males) belonging to six small-bodied species and using a mark-release-observe approach in a habitat with a homogenous flower cover all year long, namely the Munich Botanical Garden, I was able to show that average flight distances in the studied Megachilidae species (a) follow the body size-flight distance correlation found in previous studies (Gathmann and Tscharntke 2002, Greenleaf et al. 2007) and (b) are below 150 m (chapter 5), making this distance a rule of thumb for planning greening measures.

## METHODOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS

For this doctoral research, the Munich Botanical Garden was an ideal study site as it has a high floral coverage all season long and well-established bee populations. Moreover, with on average 1000 visitors per day between April and September it has a high potential for citizen science projects. Citizen science means involving lay people in the gathering of scientific data. In the case of my flight distance study (chapter 5), the visitors of the Botanical Garden were asked to record the location of a tagged bee (see color photos of Figure 1 in chapter 5), which added additional survey hours and resulted in over 150 additional sighting data points for the analysis. As the visitor paths through the garden are leading to all large flower beds, it is probable that the garden was well ‘covered’ by observations. Visitors of the Botanical Garden often focus on flowers (often photographing them), thus they were likely to notice the individually-marked wild bees with the colorful dots on their thoraxes. My study approach with the individually numbered bees required no special taxonomic knowledge, and by reporting sightings either via GPS (for instance when this information was stored along the photograph on a smartphone) or by marking the location on a garden plan handed out to visitors, most of the foraging distances reported by garden visitors could be included in the total pool of data.

From a methodological point of view, the Munich Botanical Garden presented another advantage for studying wild bees, having been established at its current location between 1912 and 1914 (it opened on 10 May 1914), it includes highly stable habitats with flower and bee populations that appear to have persisted for many years. Although the floral composition is artificial and contains a lot of non-native species, it guarantees a large number of foraging resources for bees all season long, without the application of pesticides in amounts typical for agricultural landscapes. Based on an assessment of the wild bee fauna 1997/98 (Bembé et al. 2001), I could compare the 2017/2018 species composition with the bee fauna 20 years ago. By excluding changes in floral resources, changes habitat structure (fragmentation), as well as

the use of agrochemicals, I was able to correlate shifts in the species spectrum with changes in the climate. No other environmental parameter at the study site matches the directionally increase in warm-loving species (described above in chapter 3). Such an observation is only possible at a study site with constant conditions over a long period of time.

Advances in electronic data storage allow new approaches for documenting bee species. Instead of collecting physical voucher specimen by killing the animals and storing them in museums and zoological collections, close-up macro-photography pictures taken *in-situ* can be stored on servers and then can be accessed worldwide. This allows researchers to check the identification of vouchers without the need of visiting the physical specimen, saving money and time and enabling cooperation over large distances. Such a photo-documentation-approach, of course, only works in specimens and species with a sufficient number of features that can be seen from the outside. This is true for many Megachilidae, but not for species for which genital preparations or fine microstructural features are required for identification. Such are, for instance, needed in the wild bee genera *Sphecodes*, *Lasioglossum* and *Halictus*, but also in certain groups of *Andrena*, *Nomada* or *Bombus*. For the wild bees occurring in Bavaria, however, macro-photographical identification is feasible for most genera, although taxonomic experience is necessary to be able to recognize bee sex and genus in the field. Also, different features need to be photographed in males and females and in the different genera.

To achieve high-resolution pictures from all sides of the specimen, I needed to immobilize the bees, which I did via chill anesthesia by catching the individual and keeping it in a small vial on ice for a few minutes. Depending on the species, its flight season, and its size, the cooling and also the warm-up phase will take more or less time. Generally, small individuals (< 7 mm) loose the rigor of cold after about a minute, leaving little time to get all details documented. This is problematic, because one cannot get back to the specimen once it has warmed up and has flown away, so one needs to know all the features needed for identification and also needs to be fast enough to document these. Additionally, the production of a photo voucher *in-situ* takes longer than the collection of a specimen in the field, limiting the area that can be assessed in a certain time using this method. Another limitation to the photo-based identification of bee females is that individuals with pollen load usually cannot be identified, as the pollen generally obscures the color of the scopae, which often is an important identification feature. On the other hand, an advantage of photo documentation over a physical specimen is that the colors do not fade over time and that additional information, for example, pictures of the food plants or the habitat, can be linked with the voucher photos more easily than with needled specimen.

Although photo-documentation cannot replace voucher collection, it is a great way of non-invasive biodiversity documentation, which is becoming increasingly important in times of drastic decreases in many insect taxa worldwide (Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys 2019). The increased public interest in wild bees requires approaches that do not involve unnecessary killing of insects, that increase the acceptance of biodiversity research in public, and that motivate people to get involved in scientific data collection. Expert-labeled images in database are also the *sine qua non* for machine learning and computer-based future identification methods via computer vision. Lastly, studying bees in the wild via photo-documentation allows the documentation of behavioral patterns and linking those to photo vouchers. For instance, I was able to observe the copulation of *Nomada flavoguttata* (chapter 9), which had never been reported before, and could document this behavior via macro-photography. The males grab the females' antennae with their antennae, probably for chemical signal transfer, as glands are seen in histological thin sections of the male antennae. Similar behaviors are also seen in other wild bee species: In *Osmia cornuta*, males in copula position rhythmically move their antennae, but do not touch the females' antennae (Felicoli et al. 1998), suggesting that volatile, not liquid, pheromones are applied onto the females. In *Megachile* and *Xylocopa*, by contrast, males bring their modified fore or middle leg basitarsus in contact with the female flagellae (Wittmann and Blochtein 1995, Wittmann et

al. 2004), pointing to the transfer of pheromones from tarsal glands. In males of *Anthophora plumipes*, finally, sexual pheromones produced in abdominal glands are transferred with the hind legs to specialized setae of the elongate middle legs that then brush them onto the females' antennae (Wittmann et al. 2004).

## FACTORS INFLUENCING THE BEE SPECIES COMPOSITION

The observation methods described above in combination with a statistical analysis of historic and current data on wild bees for both Munich and all of Germany revealed several factors influencing local faunas. Hierarchical Bayesian Models showed that extinction risk in German wild bees is best explained by a species' habitat preferences and its flight time. Species with narrow habitat preferences (defined as occurrence in one or two of the six habitats forests and heaths; meadows; hedgerows; wasteland and nutrient-poor sites; raw-soil sites with little vegetation, such as sand dunes, heathland, steppes, and sand or gravel pits; or urban areas, including gardens and parks) are more threatened than habitat generalists (defined as species occurring in three to six of these habitats), and species adapted to urban habitats, and species flying in spring are less threatened than late-flying summer species (chapter 2). While specialist bees (both habitat and foraging specialists) have for long been considered more threatened than generalists due to their dependence on a particular resource (e.g. Scheper et al. 2014), the increased threat of late-flying bees to my knowledge had not been demonstrated before and is not so easily explained. It is most likely linked to the sparse flower availability in the summer months, as mass-flowering crops are not in bloom anymore and meadows are cut, while in the spring fruit trees are flowering and meadows are not mown yet. This is a factor particularly important for rural areas, where large parts of the habitat are determined by the agricultural planting and harvesting regime. In cities, on the other hand, biomass production may not fluctuate as much with the seasons. Urban habitats are often flower-rich throughout the year as gardens and balconies are maintained blooming for aesthetic reasons.

If food scarcity in rural areas is a problem contributing to the high extinction risk of summer-flying bee species, as suggested by my German-wide statistical analysis (chapter 2), one would expect that spring- and summer-flying bee species in urban areas would not differ from each other in their extinction probabilities. To test this, I used three urban managed greenspaces for which bee diversity assessment have been made 20 years ago and compared those data with today's species spectrum. At the Allacher Lohe forest and heath, species numbers have decreased from 135 species in the 1990s to 80 in 2018, while the numbers for the Virginia Depot have increased from 32 to 44, and those from the Munich Botanical Garden from 78 to 106 over essentially the same 20-year period (which points to climate change as a driver; below). At the Allacher Lohe, there were severe construction works by building and operating the marshalling yard since 1988, impacting habitat layout and connectivity. At the Virginia Depot, in contrast, which was long off-limits to public due to its military use and is nowadays maintained by experts from the Landesbund für Vogelschutz (LBV), a high floral diversity with little distraction has increased the value of this inner-city biotope.

As shown in the study that forms chapter 3 of this thesis, the Munich Botanical Garden can be considered as having been constant in its floral and nesting resources for bees since 1914, as layout and species composition have remained virtually unchanged. This allowed me to disentangle floristic changes from climate change, specifically shorter winters and increasing temperatures in spring and summer, as the possible explanations for the increase in warm-loving bee species over the past 20 years. Although the factors floral resources, nesting sites, and warmer temperatures are normally not easily separated, the comparison of the

different study sites examined in this study (as summarized in Table 2 in chapter 1) points towards the positive effect of warmer temperatures *per se* for wild bee species diversity in Munich. Warming was similar for the Allacher Lohe, the Virginia Depot and the Munich Botanical Garden over the last 20 years, whereas the development of floral and nesting resources at the three sites has been different. While the Virginia Depot has increased in plant richness and variable nesting locations for wild bees due to the habitat enhancement measures by the Landesbund für Vogelschutz, the Botanical Garden has stayed constant in these aspects, and the Allacher Lohe has lost floral and nesting resources due to the construction of the marshalling yard (see Table 2 in chapter 1). Comparing this with the detected species diversity changes (increased species numbers at both the Botanical Garden and the Virginia Depot and a decreased number at the Allacher Lohe) shows that wild bee species can indeed be supported by increasing the diversity and blooming time of plant species and making available different nesting sites (and nest building materials). However, when flower diversity remains unchanged (as in a botanical garden), warmer temperatures support more wild bees, as I found by comparing the Munich Botanical Garden's bee diversity in 1997 with that in 2017 (chapter 3).

The finding that flight season does not explain bee species extinction (absence) or persistence at the three study sites over the last 20 years indicates sufficient food supply throughout the season for the studied sites (cf. Grimm et al. 2008). However, flower richness and nesting resources, not any climate warming, are the only plausible parameters explaining the high numbers of wild bee species at the one-to-two-year-old flower strips: The 68 species recorded during the flower strips' first season represent 21% of the 324 species ever recorded for Munich and 29% of the 232 species recorded between 1997 and 2017.

Taken together, the results of this doctoral work highlight the importance of protected urban sites for bee conservation. Such areas apparently can sustain a high diversity of bees over a long time (at least 20 years, see chapter 4). By contrast, bees occurring in German agricultural areas and even in protected sites within agricultural areas are decreasing (Hallmann et al. 2017, Seibold et al. 2019, Hofmann et al. 2019, chapter 2). Additionally, sites with initially low attractiveness for wild bees can be enhanced by greening measures like the establishment of flower strips.

## FUTURE RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND PROSPECTS

During times of habitat fragmentation and biodiversity loss, urban habitats are becoming an important wildlife refuge. This has been recognized with a resolution of the 9th UN Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity, which states that urban space will play a role in reaching the goals of the convention and therefore, their involvement in biodiversity conservation needs to be promoted. Although the number of publications about biodiversity in cities reached over 600 already by 2008 (Werner and Zahner 2009), many questions remain unsolved. Thus, little is known about how the different factors influencing city environments interact. To apply successful protection measures for animals and plants, researchers and political decision makers need to work together and adapt conservation measures that have worked in rural habitats to the city context. Challenges for plant and animal life in the urban environment are large areas of sealed surfaces, high density of building complexes, unusual (and heterogeneous) wind, sun, and artificial light conditions, and changed rain (water) retention and air moisture. Especially inner cities often have little greenspace, making habitat connectivity a main issue in urban planning. Large-scale mark-release-re-observe experiments are needed to investigate how well such small habitat patches are connected and which measures best support migration and exchange of individuals (gene

flow), especially in the case of understudied, but highly threatened insects. For such personnel-intensive research, an important aspect is the inclusion of interested and motivated lay volunteers. This yields an increase in working hours and areal coverage not possible for a single researcher (even when assisted by a group of students), while at the same time increasing the environmental education of the contributing lay scientists and their families or friends, who will learn about the studied organisms while collecting data. This again is likely to increase their motivation to contribute to nature conservation via profound and knowledge-based action as well as donations, being in line with one of the slogans of the International Day for Biological Diversity:

“One only protects what one knows”.



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## Appendix – Invited articles

Hofmann, M. M. (2016). Dialog der Bienen – Wie Bienenvölker einen neuen Wohnort auswählen. *Fatum* 5: 80-83.

Hofmann, M. M. (2017). Hoch hinaus – Wildbienen auf Gründächern. *Gebäude-Grün* 2: 25-29.

Hofmann, M. M., and Fleischmann, A. (2019). Über das schwierige Leben der Wildbienen in Stadt und Land. *Jahrbuch des Vereins zum Schutz der Bergwelt* 84: 239-248.

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**Dialog der Bienen –  
Wie Bienenvölker einen neuen  
Wohnort auswählen**

Hofmann, M. M.

*Fatum 5: 80-83.*

2016







# Dialog der Bienen

Wie Bienenvölker einen neuen Wohnort auswählen



**A**pis mellifera, die Honigbiene, ist wohl das bekannteste und beliebteste Insekt der Welt. Etwa 200 Milliarden Bienen befinden sich im Besitz von Imkern und leisten einen bedeutenden Beitrag zur Nahrungsversorgung des Menschen: Sie sind die wichtigsten Bestäuber vieler Nutzpflanzen. Was viele nicht wissen - die Honigbiene ist nur eine von weltweit etwa 20.000 Bienenarten.<sup>1</sup> Anders als die meisten Wildbienen hat die Honigbiene eine soziale Lebensweise. Im Bienenschwarm gibt es eine Königin und viele Arbeiterinnen. Im Laufe ihres Lebens erledigen die Arbeiterinnen verschiedenste Aufgaben für ihr Volk. Nach dem Schlupf ist die Biene zunächst im „Innendienst“ tätig. Das bedeutet, dass sie Brutzellen säubert, die Larven und die Königin versorgt und Wachs für den Bau von Waben und den Abschluss der Brutzellen produziert. Nach gut zwei Wochen ist sie am Eingang des Bienenstocks für die Bewachung ihres Volkes zuständig. In dieser Zeit bilden sich die Wachsdrüsen zurück, die sie als Sammlerin nicht mehr braucht. Ab etwa dem zwanzigsten Tag nach dem Schlupf wechselt die Biene endgültig in den „Außendienst“. Sie sammelt Pollen und Nektar und versorgt so das Bienenvolk mit Nahrung.

Im späten Frühjahr und Frühsommer ist es für die Honigbienen an der Zeit zu schwärmen. Zu dieser Zeit sind die Bienenvölker am größten. Mit insgesamt 20 000 bis 30 000 Individuen wird ihnen der Stock zu klein und sie beginnen neue Kolonien zu bilden. Jedes Volk bringt tausende von Drohnen (=männliche Bienen) hervor, deren einzige Funktion ist, die jungen Königinnen zu befruchten. Außerdem legt die alte Königin in besonders große Waben Eier, aus denen neue Bienenköniginnen heranwachsen sollen. Die Larven werden dazu von den Arbeiterinnen ausschließlich mit Gelée royale, dem Weiselfuttersaft, ernährt, und entwickeln sich so zu fruchtbaren Jungköniginnen. Die alte Königin verlässt mit etwa 10 000 Bienen ihre Kolonie, um ein neues Volk zu gründen. Ist das zurückbleibende Volk groß genug, schwärmen außerdem so lange auch die neu schlüpfenden Königinnen, bis nur noch so wenige Arbeiterinnen übrig sind, dass sie keinen weiteren Schwarm abspalten können. Die verbleibenden Jungköniginnen kämpfen nun um die Vorherrschaft im ursprünglichen Schwarm. Die Siegerin wird die neue Königin und der Schwarm nimmt wieder an Größe zu.

Für die schwärmenden Bienen gilt es, einen geeigneten neuen Wohnort für ihr Volk zu finden.

Gelingt es dem Imker nicht, den Schwarm einzufangen und in einen künstlichen Bienenstock zu übersiedeln, kann es sein, dass der Schwarm verwildert und sich einen natürlichen Nistplatz sucht. Hierbei bevorzugen Honigbienen hohle Baumstämme von etwa 40 Liter Volumen in einer Höhe von circa 5 Metern.<sup>2</sup> Gerne werden verlassene Stöcke verstorbener Völker genutzt, da schon vorhandene Waben den Materialaufwand für den Nestneubau verringern. Doch wie können sich tausende von Bienen auf einen Wohnraum einigen? Wie bewerten sie die Qualität der verschiedenen Möglichkeiten? Und wie gelingt es ihnen, den ganzen Schwarm dann auch zur richtigen Stelle zu leiten?

Beobachtet man einen Bienenschwarm, der sich beispielsweise an einem Ast niedergelassen hat, kann man erkennen, dass auf der Oberfläche des Schwarms einige Bienen den so genannten Schwänzeltanz aufführen. Der Schwänzeltanz wurde bereits von Aristoteles beschrieben und ab 1920 von Karl von Frisch genauer untersucht.<sup>3</sup> In der Regel dient der Schwänzeltanz dazu, den Futter-sammlerinnen im Bienenstock die Lage und Entfernung von Nahrungsquellen mitzuteilen. Dazu „schwänzelt“ die Biene, die eine rentable Nektarquelle entdeckt hat, indem sie ihren Hinterleib rüttelt. Je länger diese Schwänzelstrecke ist, desto weiter ist die Nahrung entfernt. Die Richtung, in der das Futter zu finden ist, wird relativ zum Sonnenstand angegeben. So können weitere Sammlerinnen die Nahrungsquelle besuchen. Wird dieser Schwänzeltanz allerdings auf einem Schwarm ausgeführt, wechselt er seine Bedeutung. Nun gibt er nicht die Position einer Futterquelle, sondern den Standort einer Nistmöglichkeit an.

Schwärmt ein Bienenschwarm, sammeln sich die meisten Bienen zunächst um die Königin herum, um diese zu schützen und sich gegenseitig warm zu halten. Durch den Stoffwechsel der dicht gedrängten Bienen, bzw. falls nötig auch durch Muskelzittern, gelingt es dem Schwarm, eine Temperatur von 34 – 36 °C im Inneren des Schwarms bzw. immerhin noch 17 °C an der Außenseite zu halten. Einige der ältesten Bienen allerdings, die bisher als Nahrungssammlerinnen tätig waren, verlassen ihre Kolonie und begeben sich auf die Suche nach neuen Nistmöglichkeiten. Während sie normalerweise nach farbigen, duftenden Blumen suchen, werden sie nun von dunklen Löchern und Spalten angezogen. Hat eine Kundschafterin einen potentiellen Nistplatz gefunden, fliegt sie um den Eingang und

Von den Bienen und den Blümchen  
Bild: Michaela Hofmann



**Michaela Hofmann**

studierte Biologie an der LMU. Ihren Schwerpunkt setzte sie auf Ornithologie und Entomologie. Schon in ihrer Masterarbeit beschäftigte sie sich mit den Wildbienen des Botanischen Gartens München. Einem Thema, dem sie sich nun auch in ihrer Promotion widmen will.



dann in den dunklen Hohlraum hinein. Durch ein Ablaufen der Wände sowie das Durchfliegen des Nistplatzes versucht sie, die Größe des Hohlrums abzuschätzen.<sup>4</sup> Falls sie ihre Entdeckung als geeignet empfindet, kehrt sie zum Schwarm zurück und berichtet mittels des gerade beschriebenen Schwänzeltanzes von ihrer Entdeckung. Je energischer dieser durchgeführt wird, desto hochwertiger ist der neue Wohnraum zu bewerten.

Zunächst kann man beobachten, dass auf der Oberfläche des Schwarmes für verschiedene Nistplätze geworben wird. Je energischer eine Kundschafterin für ihren Nistplatz wirbt, desto mehr andere Kundschafterinnen werden angeregt, den Nistplatz auch zu besuchen und zu bewerten. Befinden auch sie den Hohlraum als geeignet, werden auch sie energisch für diesen Standort Werbung machen und so immer mehr Befürworterinnen für diese Stelle anwerben. Im Laufe der Zeit verschwinden minderwertige Nistplatzvorschläge aus dem Vorschlagspool, weil jede einzelne Kundschafter-Biene nach einer gewissen Zeit aufhört, einen Standort zu bewerben. Hat sie bis zu diesem Zeitpunkt nicht genügend neue Befürworterinnen angeworben, wird diese Alternative nicht mehr berücksichtigt. Über diesen Mechanismus wird im Laufe der Zeit eine Mehrheitsmeinung gebildet, wodurch der neue Standort für den Schwarm als ausgewählt gilt. Diese beeindruckende Art der Konsensfindung ohne Worte kann durchaus als Dialog der Bienen betrachtet werden. Im Gegensatz zu Diskussionen in Menschen-Gemeinschaften haben die Bienen aber einen großen Vorteil: Sie alle verfolgen das gemeinsame Ziel, einen bestmöglichen Nistplatz für ihren Schwarm zu finden.

### Neue Wege der Tierethik

Die Fortsetzungsfolge *Neue Wege der Tierethik* verfolgt einen inklusiven Ansatz. Sie lässt Personen unterschiedlicher (Fach-)Hintergründe mit verschiedenen Perspektiven auf Tiere zu Wort kommen und schlaglichtartig einzelne kontroverse Aspekte und Ansätze aus dem Bereich der Tierethik beleuchten. Themenvorschläge, Anregungen und Kritik sind jederzeit erwünscht.

Sind sich dann alle Bienen eines Schwarmes einig (was je nach Witterung auch mal mehrere Tage lang dauern kann), kommt es zur nächsten Kommunikationsaufgabe: Wie koordiniert man eine Gemeinschaft mit mehreren Tausend Individuen, sodass alle gleichzeitig aufbrechen und in die richtige Richtung fliegen? Mit einfachem Losfliegen ist es nicht getan, da die meisten Bienen zunächst nicht die geeignete „Betriebstemperatur“ haben. Wie erwähnt ist der Schwarm außen meist nur etwa 17 °C warm, was nicht reicht, damit eine Biene fliegen kann. Um mit ihrer Flugmuskulatur die fast 250 Schläge pro Minute zu schaffen, die sie braucht, um abzuheben, muss der Bienenkörper erst einmal auf etwa 35 °C aufgeheizt werden. Würde man eine kältere Biene in die Luft werfen, würde diese einfach zu Boden fallen, statt wegzufiegen.

Auch in diesem Fall übernehmen die Kundschafterinnen eine wichtige Aufgabe. Sie treten in Dialog mit den kühlen Bienen an der Schwarmoberfläche und informieren sie über den anstehenden Abflug. Natürlich geschieht das nicht mit Worten, aber man kann den Dialog trotzdem hören. Etwa eine Stunde bevor ein Bienenschwarm abfliegt, ist ein hundertfaches, hohes Summen zu hören. Jeder einzelne Pfiff dauert nur etwa eine Sekunde und besteht aus einem ansteigenden Ton, ähnlich wie der eines startenden Formel-1-Autos. Dieses Geräusch wird von den Kundschafterinnen erzeugt.<sup>5</sup> Nach der Einigung auf einen geeigneten Nistplatz laufen sie hektisch auf der Schwarmoberfläche umher und bleiben dann immer wieder stehen, um ihre Brust gegen eine der unbeweglichen, kühlen Bienen zu drücken. Dabei ziehen sie die Flügel eng über dem Hinterleib zusammen und vibrieren leicht mit ihnen, was ein hochfrequentes Geräusch erzeugt. Zwischen diesen Pfeifsignalen führen die Kundschafterinnen weiterhin den Schwänzeltanz aus, um über den Standort des neuen Heims für den Schwarm zu informieren. Dieses „Wachrütteln“ führt dazu, dass sich die ruhenden Bienen auf den Abflug vorbereiten, was man kurz vor dem Abflug auch mit einer Wärmebildkamera nachweisen kann: Der Brustbereich aller Bienen hat die nötige Flugtemperatur von etwa 35 °C erreicht.

Der Abflug selbst wird von sogenannten Schwirrläuferinnen koordiniert. Diese laufen kurz vor dem Abflug summend mit ausgebreiteten Flügeln über den Schwarm und drängen die anderen Bienen auseinander. Es überrascht nicht, dass es sich auch bei



den Schwirrläuferinnen um die Kundschafterinnen handelt, die zunächst pfeifend und später abwechselnd pfeifend und schwirrend über den Schwarm laufen. Durch dieses Signal hebt der Schwarm schließlich ab, und schon entsteht die nächste Herausforderung – der koordinierte Flug zum neuen Nistplatz. Auch dieser wird von den Kundschafterinnen gelenkt. Sie durchfliegen den Schwarm immer wieder schnell in Richtung des neuen Nistplatzes, um sich an der Spitze angelangt wieder zurückfallen zu lassen.<sup>6</sup> Durch das schnelle nach vorne Schießen im Schwarm leiten sie ihre Kolonie zum Nistplatz. Für die letzten Meter wechseln sie allerdings ihre Strategie. Statt einer visuellen Leitung, die den Bienenschwarm grob in die Nähe des Nistplatzes bringt, geben sie olfaktorische Signale, um ihren Artgenossen den Weg zum Eingang des neuen

Wohnortes zu weisen. Sie platzieren sich um die Öffnung des Nistplatzes und heben ihren Hinterleib, wodurch sie Duftstoffe abgeben, die den Weg ins neue Heim weisen. Erstaunlicherweise reichen weniger als 5 % ortskundige Bienen, um eine Mehrheit an unwissenden Bienen erfolgreich zu lenken und ans Ziel zu führen.

Endlich am Ziel angekommen bezieht der Bienenschwarm sein neues Domizil und beginnt sofort mit dem Aufbau von Waben und dem Anlegen von Futterreserven. Bis zum Winter muss es dem Volk gelingen, genug Honig eingelagert zu haben, um die kalte Jahreszeit zu überstehen. Im nächsten Jahr beginnt das Spiel dann von neuem. Die Kolonie wächst, und irgendwann formt ein Teil der Bienen einen neuen Schwarm, der sich wiederum ein neues Heim suchen muss.\*

Von den Bienen und den Blümchen 2  
Bild: Michaela Hofmann

\* Wer noch genauer wissen will, wie sich ein Honigbienenschwarm koordiniert und mit welchen Experimenten man dies entschlüsselt, dem empfehle ich die Lektüre von Thomas D. Seeleys *Bienendemokratie - Wie Bienen kollektiv entscheiden und was wir davon lernen können*, erschienen im Fischer Verlag (2015), ISBN: 978-3-596-19407-0.

- 1 Charles D. Michener, *The bees of the world* (Baltimore und London: JHU Press, 2000).
- 2 Thomas D. Seeley, und Roger A. Morse. „The nest of the honey bee (*Apis mellifera* L.).“ in *Insectes Sociaux* (Heidelberg: Springer Verlag, 1976), 495-512.
- 3 Karl von Frisch, und Rudolf Jander. „Über den Schwänzeltanz der Bienen“ in *Zeitschrift für vergleichende Physiologie* (Heidelberg: Springer, 1957), 239-263.
- 4 Thomas D. Seeley. „Measurement of nest cavity volume by the honey bee (*Apis mellifera*).“ in *Behavioural Ecology and Sociobiology* (Heidelberg: Springer, 1977), 201-227.
- 5 Thomas D. Seeley, und Jürgen Tautz. „Worker piping in honey bee swarms and its role in preparing for liftoff“ in *Journal of Comparative Physiology* (Heidelberg: Springer, 2001), 667-676.
- 6 Madeleine Beekman et al., „How does an informed minority of scouts guide a honey bee swarm as it flies to its new home?“ in *Animal Behaviour* (Amsterdam: Elsevier, 2006): 161-171.



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# **Hoch hinaus – Wildbienen auf Gründächern**

Hofmann, M. M.

*Gebäude-Grün 2: 25-29.*  
2017



Wildbienen auf Gründächern

# Hoch hinaus!



Artenreiche extensive Dachbegrünung als Lebensraum zahlreicher Wildbienen

**Gründächer erfreuen sich einer immer größeren Beliebtheit. Neben den vielfach belegten Vorteilen, wie beispielsweise dem Schutz der Dachabdichtung, der Wärmedämmung oder der erhöhten Wasserrückhaltung, haben Gründächer auch einen Einfluss auf die städtische Pflanzen- und Tierwelt. Da Grünraum in der Stadt rar ist, werden diese künstlichen Ersatzhabitats auf den Dächern von einer Vielzahl von Organismen besiedelt. Arthropoden, also Gliedertiere wie Insekten oder Spinnen, sind zahlenmäßig besonders stark auf begrünten Dächern vertreten.**

Eine der bedeutendsten und auffälligsten Insektengruppen stellen dabei die Wildbienen dar. Alleine in Deutschland gibt es 571 Arten<sup>1</sup>, doch viele davon sind inzwi-

schen gefährdet. Der Einsatz von Neonicotinoiden und anderen Umweltgiften, die Intensivierung in der Landwirtschaft und die Zerstörung des Lebensraums tragen dazu bei, dass die Zahl der Insekten, vor allem der blütenbesuchenden Arten wie Bienen, in den letzten Jahren drastisch zurückging. Dabei spielen besonders die Wildbienen als Bestäuber eine wichtige Rolle in unserem Ökosystem.

Es mag überraschen, dass trotz der Bedeutung und auch der bekannten Gefährdung dieser Tiergruppe relativ wenig über den Einfluss von Gründächern auf Wildbienen bekannt ist. Weltweit gibt es nur knapp 40 wissenschaftliche Studien, die sich mit diesem Thema beschäftigen. Von diesen haben viele den Fokus aber ganz generell auf Arthropoden gelegt und behandeln Bienen nur als Teilaspekt ihrer

Untersuchung. Nur neun Studien beschäftigen sich ausschließlich mit Wildbienen auf Gründächern<sup>2-10</sup>. In Nordamerika wurden schwerpunktmäßig Gründächer in Chicago, Halifax und Toronto untersucht, während die neuere europäische Gründachforschung überwiegend in der Schweiz stattfindet.

Von den weltweit etwa 20.000 Wildbienenarten<sup>11</sup> konnten 236 auf Gründächern nachgewiesen werden. Da Gründächer meist sehr trocken und warm sind, waren viele der nachgewiesenen Wildbienen wärmeliebende Arten und werden normalerweise an Trockenrasenstandorten gefunden. Generell waren sowohl Arten- als auch Individuenzahlen höher, wenn die Pflanzenvielfalt auf den untersuchten Dächern größer war. Intensivdächer wiesen in allen Untersuchungen ein größeres Art-



OPTIGRÜN

*Extensivbegrünung mit Gehölzen durch partielle Substratanhügelungen gelten als ökologisch sehr wertvolle Dachbegrünungsformen.*

spektrum auf als extensive Dachbegrünungen<sup>2,8,12,13</sup>. Dabei können Gründächer für Wildbienen prinzipiell zwei Funktionen haben: Nahrungsquelle durch die dort blühenden (einheimischen) Pflanzenarten, aber auch Nistmöglichkeit für bodennistende Arten (bei Gründächern mit genügend dicker, eher trockener Auflage).

Nicht nur die Begrünungsart, sondern auch die Gebäudehöhe kann einen Einfluss auf die Artzusammensetzung auf Gründächern und deren Nutzung durch Wildbienen haben. In einer Studie, die die Besiedelung künstlicher Nisthilfen für Hohlraumbrüter untersuchte, wurde festgestellt, dass zwar elf Bienenarten und 16 Wespenarten derartige Nisthilfen annehmen,

mit zunehmender Gebäudehöhe die Anzahl der fertiggestellten Brutzellen aber abnimmt<sup>14</sup>. Weniger groß scheint der Einfluss der Gebäudehöhe auf die Nutzung des Dachs als Nahrungsquelle zu sein. Auch auf Dächern von bis zu 130 Metern Höhe wird die Blütezeit der Dachvegetation erkannt und gezielt beispielsweise von Honigbienen und Hummeln angefliegen<sup>15</sup>. Studien aus Nordamerika konnten zeigen, dass die trockenheitsresistenten und deswegen bei Dachbegrünung häufig verwendeten Sedum-Arten zu ihrer Blütezeit intensiv als Nahrungsquelle genutzt werden<sup>9</sup>. Es scheint auch keine Pollenlimitation auf Gründächern zu geben, das heißt die dort wachsenden Pflanzen werden durch die anwesenden Bestäuber hinreichend

gut bestäubt, sodass das künstliche Aufbringen von Pollen den Samenansatz nicht mehr weiter erhöht<sup>5</sup>.

Betrachtet man die Nahrungspräferenzen der festgestellten Arten, lässt sich allerdings Folgendes feststellen: Oligolektische Bienen, also Bienen, die sich auf wenige Pflanzenarten als Nahrungsquelle spezialisiert haben, sind auf Gründächern im Vergleich zu sich in der Nähe befindlichen Bodenstandorten unterrepräsentiert<sup>4,8,13,16,17</sup>. Das liegt daran, dass viele Pflanzenarten, auf die zahlreiche Wildbienen spezialisiert sind, nicht als Gründachbepflanzung geeignet sind, während die typischen Gründacharten, wie beispielsweise Sedum spp., keine auf sie spezialisierten Bienenarten vorweisen.



Auch bei den Nistgewohnheiten zeigt sich ein Trend. Die Zahl der im Boden nistenden Wildbienen ist im Vergleich zu Bodenhabitaten reduziert<sup>4,6,8</sup>. Auf Gründächern findet man dafür überdurchschnittlich viele oberirdisch nistende Wildbienen. Auch diese Beobachtung überrascht nicht, wenn man bedenkt, dass die meisten Wildbienen, die im Boden ihre Nester anlegen, trockene, sandig-lehmige Substrate von mindestens 20 Zentimetern Tiefe bevorzugen und somit zumindest das flache Substrat extensiver Dachbegrünungen kaum nutzen können. Es hat sich aber gezeigt, dass man durch das Aufschütten kleiner Substrathügel beziehungsweise das Schaffen von Sandlinsen oder das Aufstellen kleiner Sandkästen durchaus künstliche Nisthilfen

schaffen kann<sup>2,7</sup>. Bisher ist aber unklar, wie hoch die Sterblichkeit in solchen Nisthilfen ist, da die Wildbienenbrut auf Dächern vermutlich extremeren Temperaturschwankungen ausgesetzt ist, als das bei natürlichen Bodennestern der Fall wäre.

Generell spiegeln die beiden beschriebenen Trends, nämlich die Zunahme der oberirdisch in Hohlräumen nistenden Arten sowie die Abnahme von Nahrungsspezialisten auf Gründächern, Muster wider, die typisch für urbane Gebiete sind<sup>18</sup>. Diese Muster werden auf Gründächern sogar noch verstärkt festgestellt.

Unklar ist, ob bevorzugt größere oder kleinere Wildbienenarten Gründächer nut-

zen. Da größere Arten generell mobiler sind und bei der Nahrungssuche somit auch größere Distanzen zurücklegen<sup>19</sup>, kann man vermuten, dass dies auch die Neubesiedlung von Gründächern erleichtert. In der Tat konnte eine Studie aus Toronto diese Erwartung bestätigen<sup>9</sup>. Allerdings zeigten andere Studien das umgekehrte Bild, nämlich die Besiedlung der Gründächer durch überwiegend kleinere Bienenarten<sup>5,8</sup>. Teilweise lassen sich diese Ergebnisse auf unterschiedliche Sammlungsmethoden (Kescherränge vs. Bodenfallen) zurückführen, doch auch beim Vergleich von Studien mit vergleichbarer Methodik lassen sich Unterschiede feststellen. Möglicherweise gibt es regionale Unterschiede, oder es verändert sich die Grö-



OPTIGRÜN

Extensivbegrünung mit Totholz als Nistmöglichkeit für Wildbienen

## Dachbegrünung



Wildebiene bei der Nahrungsaufnahme auf dem Gründach

Benzensammensetzung der Arten auch im Verlauf der Zeit. Denkbar wäre, dass die Dächer zunächst von größeren Arten angezogen werden, die dort Nahrung suchen, während kleinere Arten Dächer auch als Niststandort verwenden und erst im Lauf der Zeit eine Population aufbauen können. Eine Untersuchung zu diesem Thema fehlt bisher allerdings.

Häufig wird angenommen, dass Gründächer als Trittsteine genutzt werden, die die fragmentierten städtischen Grünrauminselfen verbinden. In der Tat konnte dieser Effekt für mobile Arten, wozu die Wildbienen zählen, bestätigt werden<sup>20,21</sup>. Wie rege der Austausch zwischen einzelnen Gründächern und angrenzenden Boden-

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Auf jeder Dachbegrünung zu finden: die Honigbiene. Hier sogar mit Bienenstock zur Honiggewinnung.

FBB

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habitaten aber genau ist, bedarf noch weiterer Untersuchungen. In fast allen Studien wurde festgestellt, dass trotz relativ großer Artenzahlen auf Gründächern vergleichbare Flächen am Boden in der Regel höhere Arten- und Individuenzahlen aufweisen<sup>4-6,20,22</sup>, was darauf hindeutet, dass die verknüpfende Wirkung der Gründächer nicht für alle Wildbienenarten zu gelten scheint.

Nichtsdestotrotz zeigen die existierenden Studien, dass Gründächer von vielen Wildbienenarten genutzt werden können. Eine bienenfreundliche Dachgestaltung mit einheimischen Pflanzenarten sowie mit vielfältigem, unterschiedlich hohem Substrat sowie vieler Mikrostrukturen verspricht daher einen Beitrag zum Erhalt dieser bedeutenden Insektengruppe zu leisten. ■

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**Bye, bye Biene –  
Welche ökologischen Eigenschaften  
machen Wildbienen zu bedrohten  
Arten?**

Hofmann, M. M., and Renner, S.S.

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## Bye, bye Biene

Welche ökologischen Eigenschaften machen Wildbienen zu bedrohten Arten?

### *Weltweiter Insektenrückgang*

Derzeit ist das Insektensterben in aller Munde. Diverse Studien haben gezeigt, dass die Zahl der Insekten in allen untersuchten Gruppen, von Käfern über Hautflügler bis hin zu den Schmetterlingen, weltweit rückläufig ist, sowohl in den Tropen als auch bei uns (Sanchez-Bayo und Wyckhuys, 2019). So ging beispielsweise in Puerto Ricos Luquillo Regenwald die Biomasse von Insekten in den letzten 30 Jahren um das Zehnfache bis Sechzigfache zurück, was sich auch in den ebenfalls rückläufigen Bestandszahlen der von Insekten abhängigen Vögeln und Reptilien zeigt (Lister und Garcia, 2018). Besonderes Aufsehen hat auch die so genannte Krefeld-Studie von Hallmann und Kollegen aus dem Jahr 2017 erregt. Sie hat gezeigt, dass die Biomasse von Fluginsekten in den letzten 27 Jahren sogar in Schutzgebieten um 75% zurückgegangen ist, im Sommer sogar um über 80%. Besonders gut ist der beobachtete Rückgang bei den Bienen untersucht, da diese wichtige Bestäuber sind und somit von großem wirtschaftlichem Interesse. Es zeigt sich, dass die Zerstörung des Lebensraumes durch die Intensivierung der Landwirtschaft und die zunehmende Verstädterung, der Druck durch Parasiten und Pathogene, der Einsatz von Pestiziden, seit Mitte der 1990er Jahre vor allem von Neonikotinoiden, und der Mangel an ausreichenden Nahrungspflanzen über das ganze Jahr verteilt, den Rückgang der Wildbienen vorantreiben.

### *Die Gefährdung der Bienen aufgrund ihrer Lebensweise*

Neben diesen äußeren Faktoren können aber auch die biologischen Eigenschaften einzelner Arten einen Einfluss auf ihren Gefährdungsgrad haben. Es gibt Arten, die hohe Ansprüche an ihren Lebensraum haben, aber es gibt auch Generalisten, die fast überall zu finden sind. Manche Arten sind auf wenige Nahrungspflanzen spezialisiert, andere fliegen ein großes Spektrum an Pflanzen zum Nahrungserwerb an. Es gibt Arten, die nur im Frühling fliegen, und andere, die erst im Sommer auftauchen. Wieder andere Arten kann man das ganze Jahr über beobachten, manchen in mehreren Generationen. Die meisten der in Deutschland vorkommenden Bienen sind nur zwischen 4.5 und 13.5 Millimeter lang (so etwa 92% von 436 Arten). Andere Arten, wie beispielsweise die violette Holzbiene *Xylocopa violacea* erreichen eine Größe von bis zu drei Zentimetern. Auch gibt es Arten, die ihre Nester in selbstgegrabenen Gängen anlegen, während andere bereits existierende Hohlräume, wie Käferfraßgänge oder sogar die Löcher einer im Garten vergessenen Flöte, als Nest nutzen. Manche Arten fressen sich ihre Neströhren in Totholz, andere nagen sich in das Mark von Pflanzenstängeln hinein, um dort ihre Brutzellen anzulegen. In Deutschland bilden außer der Honigbiene nur die Hummel und manche Schmall- und Furchenbienen größere Völker mit Arbeiterinnen und einer Königin.



*Anthidium oblongatum* bereit zum Abflug | Foto: Michaela Hofmann, Virginia Depot München, Juli 2018

Um den Einfluss all dieser Faktoren auf den Gefährdungsgrad von Wildbienen zu untersuchen, haben wir eine Matrix aller Rote-Liste-gelisteten Arten mit ihren Eigenschaften erstellt und mit Hierarchischen Bayesischen Modellen untersucht, wie stark der Gefährdungsstatus von diesen Faktoren beeinflusst wird. Dabei flossen auch die verwandtschaftlichen Beziehungen der Bienen mit ein. Es zeigte sich, dass besonders spät fliegende Sommerarten und Arten mit einer engen Habitatpräferenz bedroht sind, während früh fliegende Arten, sowie Arten, die man auch in Städten häufig antrifft, weniger gefährdet sind. Abbildung 1 fasst das zusammen.

#### *Wildbienenschutz in Stadt und Land*

Die Ergebnisse der Analyse geben Hinweise darauf, wie Wildbienen effektiv geschützt werden können. Zum einen bieten Städte wertvollen und schützenswerten Lebensraum. Der urbane Raum kann durch geeignete Maßnahmen, wie die Förderung von Nahrungs- und Nisthabitaten zu einem wichtigen Rückzugsraum für Bienen werden, die es in Bereichen intensiver Landwirtschaft zunehmend schwer haben. Besonders fördern sollte man hier die in Städten deutlich unterrepräsentierten bodennistenden Arten, die aufgrund der Flächenversiegelung, aber auch der wenigen in städtischen Gärten zugäng-



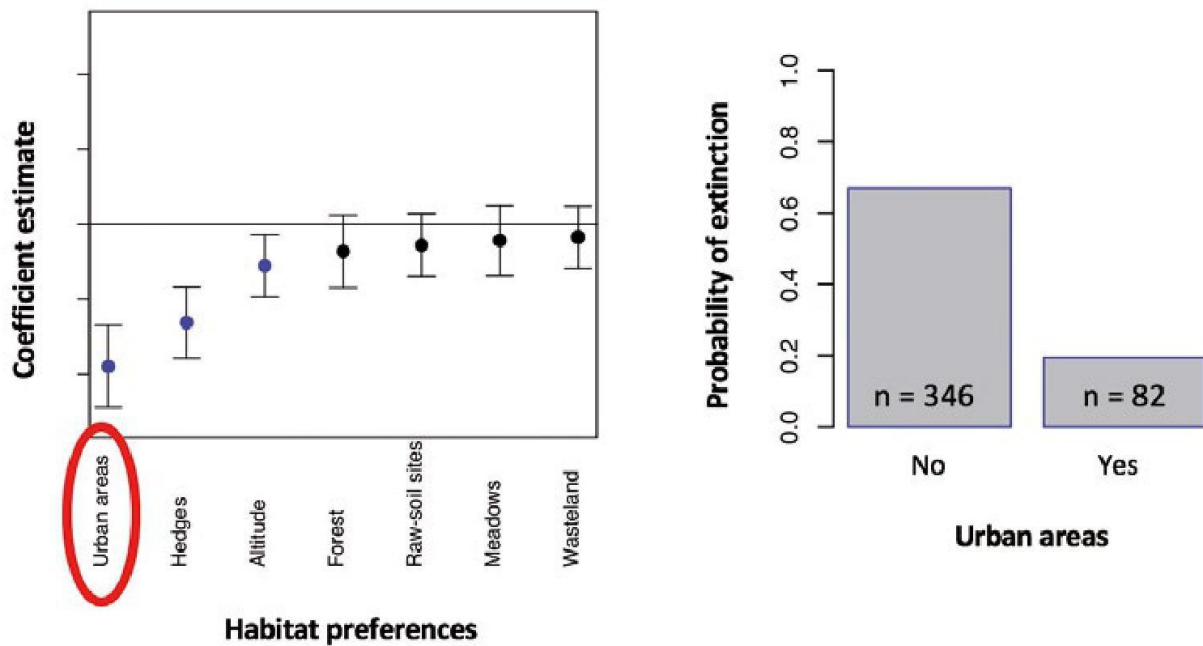


Abbildung 1. Relative Wichtigkeit verschiedener Habitats und des Vorkommens in Städten auf die Wahrscheinlichkeit von (lokaler) Extinktion. Modifiziert aus Hofmann et al. (2019).

lichen freien Bodenstellen, Schwierigkeiten haben, geeignete Nistplätze zu finden. Hier kann schon ein kleiner Bereich mit offen liegender Erde in Privatgärten oder an Straßenrändern helfen, diese Arten zu unterstützen. Zum anderen zeigt sich, dass man insbesondere im Sommer durch optimierte Mahd-Strategien und die Anlage von Blühstreifen das Nahrungsangebot für Bienen und andere Bestäuber verbessern muss, um dem aktuellen Trend rückläufiger Bestandszahlen entgegenzuwirken. Ein positiver Nebeneffekt ist außerdem die optische Aufwertung der Landschaft durch Blütenpflanzen.

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## info

### *Wildbienen in Deutschland*

In Deutschland gibt es über 565 Arten von Wildbienen, in Europa knapp 2000 Arten und weltweit sogar über 20.000 Arten. Die deutschen Wildbienen unterscheiden sich auf vielfältige Weise in ihrer Lebensweise und in ihren Ansprüchen an den Lebensraum. Während polylektische Arten eine Vielzahl von Nahrungspflanzen nutzen, sind oligolektische Arten auf eine oder wenige Pflanzenarten spezialisiert und daher von diesen abhängig, weshalb diese Arten häufiger bedroht sind wie die Nahrungsgeneralisten. Es gibt Bienen, die ihre Nester in selbstgegrabenen Gängen im Boden anlegen, während andere bereits existierende Hohlräume, z.B. Käferfraßgänge, nutzen. Trotz ihrer Vielfalt haben viele Wildbienen eines gemeinsam – sie sind bedroht. 52% der Arten sind gefährdet, vom Aussterben bedroht oder als extrem selten eingestuft; und 7% gelten bereits als verschollen.



QR-Code zur Publikation „Die Rote Liste gefährdeter Tiere, Pflanzen und Pilze Deutschlands, Band 3: Wirbellose Tiere (Teil 1)“.



Michaela Hofmann | Foto: Jana Jarczak



Susanne Renner | Foto: privat

# Über das schwierige Leben der Wildbienen in Stadt und Land

Hofmann, M. M., and Fleischmann, A.

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# Über das schwierige Leben der Wildbienen in Stadt und Land

von **Michaela M. Hofmann & Andreas Fleischmann**

**Keywords:** *Bionomie, Insektenrückgang, Blühstreifen*

**In Deutschland gibt es 585 Wildbienenarten mit den unterschiedlichsten Lebensweisen. Es gibt solitär lebende oder staatenbildende Bienen, Kuckucksbienen, Nahrungsgeneralisten und Nahrungsspezialisten, sowie die verschiedensten Strategien zum Sammeln von Nektar und Pollen und der Anlage von Nestern. Gemeinsam ist fast allen, dass sie durch die zunehmende Versiegelung von Flächen und die Intensivierung der Landwirtschaft bedroht sind. Es fehlen Nistplätze und blütenreiche Flächen für das Sammeln ihrer Nahrung, und der Einsatz von Insektiziden setzt ihnen zusätzlich zu. Im landwirtschaftlich genutzten Raum ist eine deutliche Abnahme der Biodiversität zu beobachten, während Städte für Wildtiere aller Art als Rückzugsort zunehmend an Bedeutung gewinnen. Grünflächen und Parkanlagen, aber auch Gründächer, können Lebensraum für Wildbienen sein. Da diese aber häufig nur wenige hundert Meter fliegen, ist es wichtig, diese urbanen Habitate mit genügend blühenden Flächen zu vernetzen.**

Wenn man von Bienen spricht, haben die allermeisten Menschen sofort das Bild der Honigbiene (*Apis mellifera*) im Kopf. Ihre Lebensweise ist uns vertraut, ihr Honig beliebt und ihre Leistung als Bestäuber geschätzt. Da ist die Überraschung oft groß, wenn man erfährt, dass die Honigbiene nur eine der 585 in Deutschland vorkommenden Bienenarten ist (SCHEUCHL & SCHWENNINGER, 2015) – weltweit sind es sogar mehr als 20.000 Bienenarten (ASCHER & PICKERING, 2017). In den Alpen kommen generell weniger Wildbienen-Arten vor als im wärmebegünstigteren Flachland, allerdings gibt es gerade bei den Hummeln einige Alpenspezialisten, die vor allem oberhalb der Baumgrenze vorkommen. Auch bei den Maskenbienen und den Sandbienen gibt es spezialisierte alpine Arten, und die Scheinlappenbienen (Gattung *Panurginus*) kommt sogar ausschließlich im Alpenbogen vor, bei uns in Deutschland mit zwei Arten.

Im Gegensatz zur Honigbiene leben die meisten Wildbienen solitär, das bedeutet, dass jedes Bienenweibchen als „Einsiedlerin“ - sozusagen als einzige Arbeiterin und Königin zugleich – ein Nest anlegt und für den eigenen Nachwuchs mit Nektar und Pollen verproviantiert; es werden keine Bienenschwärme gebildet und es gibt keine Arbeitsteilung. Nur wenige Wildbienenarten, z.B. die meisten Hummeln oder manche Schmal- und Furchenbienen, haben eine soziale Lebensweise mit der Aufteilung des Volks in Königin(nen) und Arbeiterinnen. Die Nistweise ist bei Wildbienen sehr vielfältig. Etwa zwei Drittel der heimischen Wildbienen nisten unterirdisch in selbst gegrabenen Gängen (ZURBUCHEN & MÜLLER, 2012). Andere Arten legen ihre Nester in markhaltigen Stängeln oder in Totholz an, und wieder andere Bienen nutzen leerstehende Schneckenhäuser, um dort ihre Brutzellen hineinzubauen. Am besten lässt sich das Nistverhalten der Wildbienen bei Arten beobachten, die oberirdische Hohlräume besiedeln, da diese Arten häufig auch künstliche Nisthilfen annehmen (sogenannte „Insektenhotels“, vgl.

Abb. 1a), wobei der Begriff „Hotel“ hier völlig unangebracht ist, denn es sind Nistgänge für den Wildbienen nachwuchs, nur wenige Wildbienenarten – zumeist Männchen – schlafen tatsächlich auch als ausgewachsene Tiere nachts in diesen Nisthilfen). Hier legen sie ihre Nester in Bambusröhrchen oder angebohrten Holzblöcken an (Abb. 1b), die Käferfraßgänge im Totholz oder Löcher in Hangabbruchkanten simulieren.



**Abb. 1 a und b:** Wildbienen nisthilfen (Fotos: Andreas Fleischmann).



Ein Wildbienenweibchen legt in seinem Leben je nach Art etwa 10 bis 20 Brutzellen an. Jede Brutzelle wird mit Nektar und Pollen verproviantiert und mit einem Ei versehen. Aus befruchteten Eiern entwickeln sich Wildbienenweibchen, aus unbefruchteten Eiern schlüpfen Männchen. Manche Arten verkleiden die Wand der Brutzellen mit Blattstücken, Pflanzenhaaren oder gar Blütenblättern, um den Nachwuchs zu schützen. Hat man Blattschneiderbienen der Gattung *Megachile* bei sich im Garten, kann man das an den ausgeschnittenen Blättern beispielsweise von Rosen erkennen (Abb. 2). Auch Gartenwollbienen (*Anthidium manicatum*, Abb. 4) lassen sich beim Sammeln von Nistmaterial beobachten. Weibchen dieser Art schaben mit ihren Beinen Pflanzenhaare vom Wollziest (*Stachys sp.*) oder ähnlichen „haarigen“ Pflanzen und tragen diese dann zu Kugeln geformt zu ihrem Nest. Die Gartenwollbienenmännchen zeigen sehr territoriales Verhalten und vertreiben männliche Artgenossen, aber auch Honigbienen und andere Insekten, die sich in ihr Revier wagen.



**Abb. 2:** Ein Weibchen der Buntfarbigen Blattschneiderbiene (*Megachile versicolor*) schneidet ein Blattstück für ihre Brutzelle. (Foto: Andreas Fleischmann).



**Abb. 3:** Männchen der Fuchsröten Mauerbiene (*Osmia bicornis*) an einer Nisthilfe. (Foto: Andreas Fleischmann).



**Abb. 4:** Eine weibliche Gartenwollbiene (*Anthidium manicatum*) auf Deutschem Ziest (*Stachys germanica*). (Foto: Andreas Fleischmann).

Die Art und Weise, wie Wildbienen den Pollenvorrat für ihre Brut sammeln, ist ebenfalls unterschiedlich, man kann drei grundsätzliche Sammelweisen unterscheiden: Manche Arten, wie z.B. die Maskenbienen (*Hylaeus*), schlucken den gesammelten Pollen und tragen ihn in ihrem Kropf zum Nest („Kropfsammlerinnen“). Viele Bienen sammeln wie die Honigbienen den Pollen an ihren Hinterbeinen („Beinsammlerinnen“), entweder in sogenannten Pollenkörbchen (Corbiculae), das sind grubenförmige Vertiefungen der Hinterschienen, oder in speziellen Haarbürsten. Und wieder andere Arten haben eine Haarbürste an der Unterseite des Abdomens, mit der der Pollen aufgenommen und zum Nest transportiert wird („Bauchsammlerinnen“). Bei der Gemeinen Löcherbiene (*Hierades truncorum*) kann man beispielsweise beobachten, wie sie durch Vibrationen des Hinterleibs auf Korbblütlern Pollen sammelt (Abb. 5). Während polylektische Bienen (Nahrungsgeneralisten), zu denen auch die Honigbiene zählt, nicht sehr wählerisch sind und ein großes Spektrum an Futterpflanzen nutzen, gibt es auch Bienenarten, die auf eine oder wenige Pflanzenarten spezialisiert sind und nur an diesen Pollen sammeln. Solche Bienen nennt man oligolektisch (Nahrungsspezialisten – genauer: Pollenspezialisten) – ihre Larven können nur den Pollen von wenigen, manchmal nur von einer einzigen Pflanzenart verwerten, ganz wie es auch bei Schmetterlingen Spezialisten gibt, deren Raupen nur an einer Futterpflanze fressen. Leider sind viele dieser Nahrungsspezialisten unter den Wildbienen bedroht, denn wenn an einem Standort ihre Pollenquelle verschwindet, verschwindet auch die zugehörige Biene.

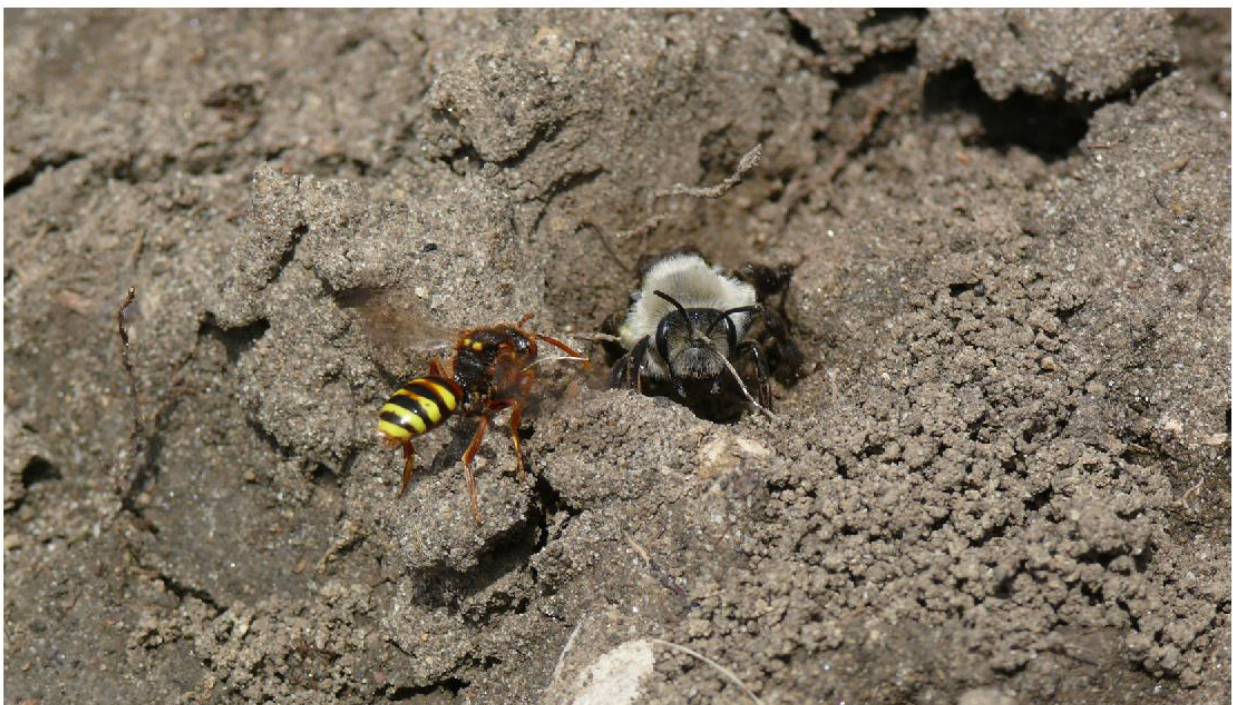
Nicht jede Wildbiene ist eine sprichwörtlich fleißige Biene, wenn es darum geht, den eigenen Nachwuchs zu versorgen. Wie im Vogelreich gibt es auch bei Wildbienen Kuckucke, genauer Kuckuckshummeln und Kuckucksbienen (Abb. 6). Diese Arten dringen in die Nester ihrer Wirte ein und lassen im Fall der Kuckuckshummeln ihren Nachwuchs durch das Wirtsvolk aufziehen (sogenannte sozialparasitische Arten). Im Fall der Kuckucksbienen legen sie ihre Eier in die Brut-



zellen der Wirtsbienen und ernähren sich vom Nahrungsvorrat, den sie dort finden (sogenannte Diebesparasiten). Um im Wirtsnest nicht aufzufallen, betreiben viele Arten Geruchsmimikry, was bedeutet, dass die parasitierende Bienenart den Geruch der Wirtsbiene nachahmt (TENGO & BERGSTRÖM, 1977). Manche dieser Duftstoffe werden möglicherweise sogar im Verlauf der Kopulation vom Männchen auf das Weibchen übertragen (SCHINDLER et al., 2018).



**Abb. 5:** Eine Gemeine Löcherbiene (*Heriades truncorum*) sammelt Pollen auf Rainfarn (*Tanacetum vulgare*). (Foto: Andreas Fleischmann).



**Abb. 6:** Eine Rothaarige Wespenbiene (*Nomada lathburiana*) am Nest der Weiden-Sandbiene (*Andrena vaga*). (Foto: Andreas Fleischmann).

In Deutschland sind alle Wildbienen nach dem Bundesnaturschutzgesetz besonders geschützt, das bedeutet, es ist verboten, Wildbienen nachzustellen, sie zu fangen, zu verletzen, zu töten oder ihre Entwicklungsformen, Nist-, Brut-, Wohn-, oder Zufluchtsstätten der Natur zu entnehmen, zu beschädigen oder zu zerstören. Dennoch sind 31 Arten vom Aussterben bedroht, 197 Arten gefährdet und weitere 42 Arten stehen auf der Vorwarnliste (vgl. Rote Liste der Bienen Deutschlands, verfügbar unter [https://www.wildbienen.info/downloads/rote\\_liste\\_bienen\\_fassung\\_5.pdf](https://www.wildbienen.info/downloads/rote_liste_bienen_fassung_5.pdf) oder per QR-Code).



Wie viele andere Insektengruppen sind auch Wildbienen vom massiven Insektensterben betroffen. Denn ihr Lebensraum wird nicht nur, wie der vieler Tiere, durch den enormen Flächenverbrauch und durch Versiegelung immer weiter reduziert (damit verlieren sie Nistplätze und Nahrungspflanzen). Blütenbesuchende Insekten leiden zudem an den Folgen der intensiven, industrialisierten Landwirtschaft, unter Monokulturen (die oft keinerlei Nahrung in Form von Pollen und Nektar bieten), der Entfernung von Hecken und blütenreichen Ackerrandstreifen, dem Grünlandumbruch, der Umstellung von Heu- auf Silagemahd, die kaum mehr blühende Blumenwiesen aufkommen lässt und dem Einsatz von Herbiziden, die blühende Nahrungspflanzen in Äckern und Feldern vernichten. Diejenigen Bienen, die in einer solch blütenarmen, ausgeräumten Landschaft nicht verhungern, fallen oft dem Einsatz von Insektiziden (z.B. aus der Wirkstoffgruppe der Neonikotinoide) zum Opfer (GOUSLON, 2013; GOULSON et al., 2015). Neueste Studien zeigen, dass sogar die oftmals extra für Bienen angelegten Blühstreifen an Ackerrändern zur tödlichen Insektenfalle werden, wenn nebenan im Feld Insektengifte ausgebracht werden, da die Blütenpflanzen dort diese Gifte ebenfalls aufnehmen und in Nektar und Pollen abgeben (GOULSON, 2013). Doch nicht nur auf intensiv landwirtschaftlich genutzten Flächen greift das Insektensterben um sich. In den letzten Jahren reduzierte sich die Biomasse der Fluginsekten sogar in Naturschutzgebieten um bis zu 75 % (HALLMANN et al., 2017). Besonders genau sind die Rückgänge bei den Wildbienen für die Gruppe der Hummeln untersucht (z.B. CAMERON et al., 2011). Sie sind, wie die anderen Bienen und Insekten auch, allgemein durch den Verlust bzw. die Fragmentierung ihres Lebensraumes bedroht, aber auch durch Pestizide. Bei den Honigbienen kommen hier noch Parasiten und Krankheitserreger hinzu, die sich besonders durch Wanderimkerei und weltweiten Bienenhandel so schnell verbreiten, wie noch nie zuvor (POTTS et al., 2010). Eine weit verbreitete Fehleinschätzung ist es hingegen, dass am derzeit festgestellten drastischen Insektenrückgang auch die Klimaerwärmung mit schuld sein könnte. Es ist schon lange bekannt und nachgewiesen, dass ein Temperaturanstieg eher zu einer Vermehrung der Insektenanzahl führen würde, denn wärmeliebende Insekten sind in mediterraneren Klimaten, und natürlich den Tropen, schon immer zahlreicher als in mehr nördlichen Breiten. Insofern würde der Klimawandel alleine eher zu einer höheren Zahl an Insekten bei uns führen (wie in den letzten 20 Jahren am Botanischen Garten München gezeigt wurde, siehe HOFMANN et al., 2018) – nur, dass wir davon nichts bemerken, weil die vielen negativen, oben geschilderten, menschengemachten Einflüsse diesen Effekt bei weitem aufheben. Um unseren Bestäubern zu helfen, müssten diese negativen Effekte reduziert werden, z.B. durch die Erhöhung

des Blütenangebotes, durch den Verzicht oder zumindest die deutliche Reduzierung des Einsatzes von Glyphosat und Neonikotinoiden und durch die Wiederherstellung kleinräumig strukturierter Lebensräume, die zugleich Nahrung und Nisträume für Wildbienen bieten (GOULSON et al., 2015). Nur so können Wildbienen die drohenden Ausfälle der Bestäubung durch Honigbienen, die ebenfalls stark bedroht sind (vgl. HAEFEKER, 2019, in diesem Jahrbuch), möglicherweise ausgleichen (WINFREE et al., 2007).

Während Flächen, auf denen intensive, industrialisierte Landwirtschaft betrieben wird, zunehmend verarmen, bieten Städte oft einen Rückzugsraum für viele Tierarten und weisen inzwischen zum Beispiel bei Vögeln häufig eine größere Vielfalt als das Umland auf (REICHHOLF, 2007). Auch Bienen können das Blütenangebot von Kleingartenanlagen, städtische Grünflächen und Parks oder auch Gründächern nutzen. Insbesondere über den Einfluss von Gründächern auf Wildbienen ist allerdings insgesamt noch sehr wenig bekannt, was überrascht, wenn man bedenkt, dass beispielsweise in München etwa 20% aller Dachflächen begrünt sind, was einer Vegetationsfläche von über 3 Millionen Quadratmetern entspricht (ANSEL et al., 2015). Weltweit gibt es nur knapp 40 Studien, die sich mit diesem Thema beschäftigen (z.B. BRENNEISEN, 2005; KRATSCHMER, 2015; WITT, 2016). Von den weltweit etwa 20.000 Wildbienenarten konnten 236 auf Gründächern nachgewiesen werden (HOFMANN & RENNER, 2017). Da Gründächer meist sehr trocken und warm sind, sind viele der dort nachgewiesenen Arten eher wärmeliebend und werden normalerweise auf Trockenrasenstandorten gefunden. Generell sind sowohl Arten- als auch Individuenzahlen höher, wenn die Pflanzenvielfalt auf den untersuchten Dächern höher ist. Intensivdächer wiesen in allen Untersuchungen ein größeres Artspektrum auf als extensive Dachbegrünungen (MADRE et al., 2013; KRATSCHMER, 2015). Eine bienenfreundliche Dachgestaltung mit vielfältigem, unterschiedlich hohem Substrat sowie vieler Mikrostrukturen verspricht daher, einen kleinen Beitrag zum Erhalt dieser bedeutenden Insektengruppe zu leisten.

Auch die Anlage von Blumenwiesen und Blühstreifen in Städten kann Bienen helfen. Während Blühstreifen in der Agrarlandschaft subventioniert werden (z.B. KULAP Kulturlandschaftsprogramm in Bayern, Österreichisches Agrarumweltprogramm ÖPUL) und inzwischen auch schon mehrfach untersucht wurden (PACHINGER, 2012; RAMSEIER, 2016), ist über den Effekt von Blühstreifen in der Stadt noch wenig bekannt. Dieses Thema wird derzeit in einem Projekt des Botanischen Instituts der Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München unter Leitung von Frau Professor Renner erforscht. Es wird untersucht, welche Pflanzenarten besonders gut von den heimischen Bestäubern genutzt werden. Neben der Zusammensetzung der verwendeten Saadmischungen ist aber auch wichtig, in welchen Abständen die Blühstreifen angelegt werden, da viele Wildbienenarten relativ geringe Sammelflughdistanzen von nur wenigen hundert Metern haben (ZURBUCHEN & MÜLLER, 2012). Ein großer Abstand zwischen Futterpflanzen und geeigneten Niststandorten ist in vielerlei Hinsicht nachteilig für Wildbienen (ZURBUCHEN et al., 2010). Bei längeren Sammelflughdistanzen und somit längeren Flugzeiten können weniger Brutzellen verproviantiert werden. Gleichzeitig wird der Nahrungsvorrat pro Zelle weniger, was zu kleineren Nachkommen führt. Ist das Wildbienenweibchen lange von seinem Nest weg, steigt auch die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass Brutparasiten (Kuckucksbienen, Schlupfwespen, etc.) erfolgreich ins Nest eindringen können. Durch den erhöhten Flugaufwand altern die Bienenweibchen zudem schneller.

Wie weit Wildbienen verschiedener Körpergrößen in einem idealen Habitat normalerweise fliegen, wird derzeit in einem Mitmachprojekt im Botanischen Garten München erforscht. Studenten der LMU markieren das ganze Jahr über Wildbienen mit farbigen Punkten oder Num-



**Abb. 7:** Männchen der Gehörnten Mauerbiene (*Osmia cornuta*) mit der Rückennummer 92. (Foto: Andreas Fleischmann).

mernplättchen (Abb. 7), und versuchen durch Wiederfundbeobachtungen Rückschlüsse auf ihre Lebensdauer, Futterpräferenzen und natürlich ihre Flugdistanzen zu ziehen. Um möglichst viele Beobachtungen zu sammeln, sind die Besucher des Botanischen Gartens München sowie alle Münchner aufgerufen, Sichtungen solcher markierter Bienen zu melden. Im vorletzten Jahr konnte so eine Biene verfolgt werden, die 724 m vom Ort des Markierens entfernt wiederbeobachtet wurde.

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