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Title: Habitat preference influences response to changing agricultural landscapes

in two long-horned bees.

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Statements and Declaration

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

Abstract

Agricultural intensification and urban development have drastically influenced pollinators living in semi-natural grasslands. Pollinators are likely to have different responses to these land-use changes; some decline rapidly while others maintain or increase their populations. We predicted differences in interspecific response to land-use changes are partly attributed to differences in habitat preference. We examined the distribution and flower use patterns of two closely related *Eucera* species with different habitat preferences. Study sites were meadows surrounding traditional, intensified, and urbanised agricultural lands in the Osaka-Kobe metropolitan area, Japan. Forest-associated *Eucera nipponensis* were significantly fewer in consolidated and urbanised meadows than traditional meadows, whereas open land-associated *E. spurcatipes* exhibited the opposite. A significant negative relationship between their abundances was also found. Both species foraged on legume flowers most frequently (83.5%), but floral use pattern was significantly different in traditional and consolidated meadows. Bee species preferring stable habitats were vulnerable to land consolidation and urbanisation, while species associated with disturbed habitats maintained or increased population size in meadows with the land-use changes. Thus, recent land uses may have different impacts on species with different habitat preferences.

Introduction

Global pollinator declines caused by land-use changes, such as agricultural

intensification and urban development, have become prominent in semi-natural and

natural ecosystems (Kearns et al. 1998; Potts et al. 2010; Harrison and Winfree 2015).

Traditional semi-natural grasslands surrounding agricultural lands are known to

maintain diverse pollinators by providing rich floral resources and nesting sites

(Ockinger and Smith 2007). However, recent land-use changes have largely reduced the

quantity and quality of such semi-natural habitats, causing declines in wild pollinators,

such as bees and syrphid flies (Biesmeijer et al. 2006; Winfree et al. 2009). Although

many studies have examined the effects of agricultural intensification or urbanisation on

pollinators of semi-natural grasslands separately (Hernandez et al. 2009; Matteson et al.

2008; Martins et al. 2017; Shi et al. 2021), few have examined their combined effects

(Olivier et al. 2020).

Agricultural intensification and urban development typically diminish populations of

diverse pollinator species (Ollerton et al. 2014; Harrison and Winfree 2015), however,

some species maintain or even increase their abundance under such changes (Cane et al.

2008; Matteson et al. 2008; Potts et al. 2010; Martins et al. 2017). Understanding which

traits are important in determining responses to the intensified land uses is critical to

pick out conservation priority species in land-use changed areas. Interspecific

differences in susceptibility to these land-use changes may partly depend on differing

habitat preferences among pollinator species (Winfree et al. 2011). For example, it is

predicted that species inhabiting relatively stable, natural or semi-natural habitats would

be negatively influenced by land-use changes, whereas those preferring more disturbed

habitats would become dominant in human-modified landscapes. This prediction is

ideally examined by comparing closely related species with similar ecological and

morphological traits but different habitat preferences.

To test this prediction, we compared the distribution of two closely related

long-horned bee species, *Eucera nipponensis* (Pérez) and *E. spurcatipes* (Pérez), which

often coexist in semi-natural grasslands in rural areas (Fig. S1a,b). *E. nipponensis* is

typically distributed throughout natural or semi-natural forests and nests on forest floors

(Inoue et al. 1990; Hattori et al. 2015; Sugiura and Maehara 2019), while *E. spurcatipes*

is exclusively observed in open landscapes, including coastal and residential areas,

which are more frequently disturbed (Saito et al. 1991; Hisamatsu et al. 2011; Ogawa

and Miyake 2020). Both species are ground-nesting, solitary bees that are widely

distributed throughout Japan and have a very long proboscis and a similar foraging

period (April to July) (Mitai 2014). Thus, the two species exhibited an overlap in

morphological traits and life cycles but differ in habitat preference. Here, we expected

that *E. nipponensis* would be more vulnerable to agricultural intensification and urban

development than *E. spurcatipes*.

To examine the effects of land-use changes on bee distribution, we surveyed

the abundance and flower use of the two *Eucera* species in semi-natural grasslands

(meadows) on the levees of traditional, land-intensified (consolidated), suburban, and

urban paddy fields. We also investigated the flowering plant richness and abundance

and surrounding landscapes for each grassland to examine the factors influencing the

distribution of each species. We addressed the following questions: (i) Does *E.*

nipponensis decrease in abundance in consolidated and urbanised grasslands? (ii) Does

agricultural intensification and urbanisation have any positive effect on *E. spurcatipes*

abundance? (iii) Are the impacts of land-use changes caused by changes in surrounding

landscapes or floral resources?

Materials and Methods

Study area, paddy fields, and plots

The study was conducted in 28 paddy sites across the rural-urban landscape of

the Osaka-Kobe metropolitan area (34°66′–96′ N, 134°94′–135°48′ E; Kobe, Akashi,

Sanda, Takarazuka, Nishinomiya, Itami, and Kawanishi cities, Hyogo prefecture;

Toyonaka city and Nose town, Osaka prefecture) (Fig. S2). In this study site,

consolidated and unconsolidated traditional paddy fields, as well as neighbouring

secondary forests, are widely distributed in its rural zones (Uematsu et al. 2010),

however, paddy fields and secondary forests have been rapidly decreasing in its urban

zones since the 1980s (Tsuji et al. 2011; Uchida et al. 2018). In 2021, we investigated

abundance and flower use of the two *Eucera* species in meadows which have been

maintained on the levees of paddy fields and irrigation ponds, and at the edges of

between paddy fields and secondary forest by periodic mowing in the study sites

(Uematsu et al., 2010; Uchida et al., 2018).

The meadows were categorised into four land-use types: traditional,

consolidated, suburban, and urban (Fig. S3). Land consolidation converts small,

irregular, and poorly drained paddy fields into large, quadrangular, and well-drained

fields to improve productivity (Uematsu et al. 2010). We defined suburban and urban

categories based on the percentage of surrounding developed land area within 1 km of

the centre of each study site (suburban < 60%; urban 60% ≤). In the study area, land

consolidation and urban development in the surrounding landscape have caused the loss

of plant and butterfly diversity in paddy meadows (Uchida and Ushimaru 2014; Uchida

et al. 2018). At each study site, we established a 2 × 500 m² belt plot on meadows. We

examined a total of 28 plots; seven sites for each of the four land-use types.

Landscape variables around study sites

For each study site, we calculated the total areas of traditional, consolidated

and abandoned paddy fields; other farmlands; secondary forests; water surfaces (rivers

and ponds); and developed lands (residential/partly commercial, industrial land uses,

and areas for public facilities such as stations, city halls, and hospitals) within a 1 km

radius from the site centre using QGIS software (version 3.16.1; QGIS Development

Team 2021) and aerial images from Google Maps (2021). We conducted a principal

component analysis (PCA) on these seven area variables to reduce the number of

landscape variables included in the data analysis. We found that two primary axes

explained 63.2% of the total variance (PC1, 46.8%; PC2, 16.4%). The PC1 value was

positively correlated with developed lands, water surfaces, and other farmland areas and

negatively correlated with forests and consolidated and abandoned paddy field areas.

Thus, the PC1 axis indicates changes in the surrounding landscapes from rural with

secondary forests and paddy fields to urban with developed lands and farmlands (Fig.

S4). The PC2 axis increased mainly with traditional and abandoned field areas and

decreased with other farmland areas, indicating the amount of surrounding

unconsolidated paddy fields (Fig. S4).

Bee abundance surveys

We conducted a single bee abundance survey per day for each study site on

sunny, warm days from mid-April to mid-May 2021. We observed bees for two hours:

one hour in the morning (between 09:00–12:00) and the afternoon (between 12:00–

15:00). We walked along each belt plot, captured all *Eucera* bees using a sweep net (42

cm diameter), and stored them in plastic vials. We held all captured individuals at 1–

4 °C for approximately 10 min in a cooler box. Then, we identified species and made

markings with different colours for each species on the thorax of each chilled individual

to avoid double counting of the same individuals and released them in the fields (Fig.

S1c). All chilled bees recovered well enough to visit flowers within a few minutes. We

counted the total number of marked individuals for each species as a measure of the

species abundance at each site.

Flower use surveys

156   To examine interspecific differences in flower use, we first recorded

background flowering entomophilous species and their flower numbers in each plot.

Next, we recorded the flower species visited by marked *Eucera* bees and their visit

frequency to each species on the same day of the abundance survey. Only visits where

bees inserted their proboscis into the corolla tubes or spurs were recorded. We measured

the corolla tube length, petal, and inflorescence size (in mm) of four (or all if there were

less than four) individuals per flowering species using digital callipers. We followed the

method described by Hiraiwa and Ushimaru (2017) to calculate the mean corolla tube

length and the visual (attention) size of each species. Flower abundance for each species

was calculated as the total visual size of flowers (the mean visual size multiplied by the

number of flowers) for each site.

Data analysis

First, we compared the abundance of the two *Eucera* species among the four

land-use types using a generalised linear model (GLM, Poisson errors, and log link

function). In the GLM, the land-use type (consolidated; traditional; suburban; urban),

bee species identity (*E. nipponensis*; *E. spurcatipes*), and the interaction between them

were incorporated as explanatory variables, whereas the abundance of each species for

each site was the response variable. To consider spatial autocorrelation in bee

abundance, the spatial autocovariates for all sites were calculated using their latitude

and longitude measurements and were incorporated as a covariate in the model

(Dormann et al. 2007). Second, we examined the effects of landscape variables

identified by the PCA analysis (PC1 and PC2) on the abundance of each *Eucera* species

using a GLM (Poisson error and log-link function). In this GLM, we included the PC1

value, species identity, their interaction, and the spatial autocovariates as explanatory

variables, whereas the abundance of each species for each site was the response

variable. We excluded the PC2 value and the interaction between PC2 and species

identity in this model because our preliminary analysis revealed no significant effects on

bee abundance. Third, we examined the potential of competitive interactions between

the two species by analysing a GLM (Poisson error and log link function) in which the

abundances of *E. nipponensis* and *E. spurcatipes* were the response and explanatory

variables, respectively. In the GLM, we also included the spatial autocovariates of *E.*

nipponensis abundance as a covariate. Finally, we examined differences in flower use

between the two *Eucera* species for each land-use type using Fisher's exact test. All

statistical analyses were performed using R software (version 3.6.1; R Development

Core Team 2019).

Results

Bee abundance

We recorded 179 *E. nipponensis* and 373 *E. spurcatipes* individuals at the study

sites. *E. nipponensis* was significantly more abundant than *E. spurcatipes* in traditional

meadows, whereas this pattern was reversed for other land-use types (Fig. 1; Table S1).

PC1 had significant negative effects on the abundance of both species, and the

interaction between PC1 and species identity had a significant effect, indicating that *E.*

nipponensis decreased more drastically along PC1 gradients (Fig. 2; Table S1).

Furthermore, the abundance of the two *Eucera* bees was significantly negatively

correlated (Fig. 3; Table S1).

Flower use patterns

In total, we recorded 61 flowering plant species and observed 267 visits by the

two *Eucera* species to 16 species during the study. Flower use patterns significantly

differed between the two *Eucera* species in the traditional and consolidated sites (Fig. 4;

Fisher's exact test, *p<0.001* for each type). Specifically, *E. nipponensis* visited a variety

of flowering species in traditional sites, whereas *E. spurcatipes* used only a limited

number of plant species (Fig. 4). Overall, native *Vicia sativa L.* and exotic *Trifolium*

repens L. were the most frequently visited flowering species in this study (86 and 110

visits, respectively).

Discussion

Our results support the prediction that interspecific differences with regard to

the susceptibility of a species to land-use changes are influenced by habitat preference

differences. We found that *E. nipponensis* was less likely to occur in consolidated and

urbanised meadows, whereas *E. spurcatipes* maintained and increased its abundance in

these meadows. We also found that the different response of land-use change likely

caused changes of surrounding landscape for urbanisation and floral resources for paddy

consolidation. In the following discussion, we consider the effects of land-use changes

on pollinators with different habitat and flower preferences.

The effects of land-use changes on pollinators can vary with the type of habitat

transitioned to and from, depending on species characteristics (Winfree et al. 2011). Our

results showed similar but slightly different effects of urban landscapes on both *Eucera*

species; forest-associated *E. nipponensis* was more vulnerable to decrease and increase

in surrounding forests and developed lands, respectively, than open land-associated *E.*

spurcatipes (Fig 2). Moreover, *E. spurcatipes* became more abundant in both

consolidated and urbanised sites than *E. nipponensis* (Fig. 1), indicating that current

intensive land-use changes positively affected the relative dominance of *E. spurcatipes*.

Ground-nesting solitary bees are usually more susceptible to changes in land use and

management associated with agricultural intensification (Williams et al. 2010). Our

findings partly support the previous study and suggest that solitary bees can adapt to

intensified agricultural lands when they prefer disturbed habitats. Such species-specific

responses to land-use changes often cause compositional shifts in pollinator

communities. In our case, intensive land-use changes would promote the replacement of

forest-associated species by open land-associated species.

Floral resources are also an important determining factor of pollinator

distributions (Roulston and Goodell 2011), and land-use changes often alter flowering

resource composition, which in turn can affect pollinator distribution (Winfree et al.

2011). In our study, *E. nipponensis* and *E. spurcatipes* showed a strong preference for

legume flowers (63.5% and 92.9%, respectively), such as *V. sativa* and *T. repens*, which

were abundant in all types of paddy fields (Fig. 4). The distribution and abundance of

the study bees may have been unaffected by floral resource composition in this study.

However, *E. nipponensis* visited a variety of flowers in traditional sites and exhibited a

wider diet breadth than *E. spurcatipes* (Fig. 4). Specialist pollinators with narrow diet

breadth are usually more vulnerable to land-use change than generalists because of the

loss of their main host plants (Winfree et al. 2011; Weiner et al. 2014). Contrary to this

common assumption, legume-specialised *E. spurcatipes* were more robust to land-use

changes than generalist *E. nipponensis* in our study. The consistent presence of legume

flowers at the study sites could have supported populations of *E. spurcatipes*. In

contrast, poor flower richness in consolidated and urbanised paddy meadows (Uchida &

Ushimaru 2014; Uchida et al. 2018; this study) likely reduced the diet breadth of *E.*

nipponensis and potentially caused population shrinkage in this species.

We found a negative relationship between *E. nipponensis* and *E. spurcatipes*

abundance in the study area (Fig. 3), indicating that interspecific competition existed

between the species. Interspecific competition for floral resources usually occurs when

pollinators' foraging preferences overlap (Stout and Morales 2009), but the competition

would be relaxed when the species forage from a broader range of flowers (Goulson et

al. 2008). In our study, *E. nipponensis* had a broader foraging range and different flower

use patterns in consolidated and traditional meadows compared to *E. spurcatipes* (Fig.

5). In areas where both bee species coexisted in abundance, *E. nipponensis* frequently

visited woody plants and shallow dish-shaped flowers in addition to legume flowers

(GSH, personal observation). Similar flower use patterns of both *Eucera* species were

recorded in kaki persimmon orchards (Nikkeshi et al. 2021). Thus, our results do not

support the existence of strong competition for floral resources between both species.

The strength of interspecific competition among bees may vary depending on floral

availability and the flexibility of pollinator foraging (Shibata and Kudo 2020). Thus,

flexible flower use by *E. nipponensis* would have reduced competition with *E.*

spurcatipes.

This study provides a first step in addressing the impact of multiple land-use

changes on pollinators in paddy landscapes. We quantitatively revealed that forest-

associated species have declined owing to the intensified use of surrounding landscapes

in consolidated and urbanised paddy fields, while a species that prefers disturbed

habitats has increased in population size. Intensified and urbanised agricultural lands

could be alternative habitats for some pollinators (Goddard et al. 2010; Burkle et al.

2017), however, these areas may not be suitable habitats for forest bee community

(Harrison et al. 2018). Thus, the recent global prevalence of agricultural intensification

and urbanisation could have different impacts on species with different habitat

preferences and primarily decrease forest-associated species. To validate the generality

of our findings, a comparison of more closely related species preferring different

habitats is required worldwide.

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Fig. 1 Abundances of the two long-horned bees in paddy meadow study sites with

different land uses (orange circles, *Eucera nipponensis*; blue circles, *E. spurcatipes*).

Box plots represent the median (bold white horizontal line), first and third quartiles

represent box perimeters, and the whiskers represent 90th percentiles.

Fig. 2 Relationships between the two long-horned bee abundances (orange, *Eucera*

nipponensis; blue, *E. spurcatipes*) and the PC1 value in 28 study sites: traditional

(closed circle), consolidated (closed square), suburban (open square), and urban sites

(open circle). The solid lines (orange, *E. nipponensis*; blue, *E. spurcatipes*) represent

significant regressions estimated from the GLM (Table S1).

Fig. 3 Negative relationship between the abundances of *Eucera nipponensis* and *E.*

spurcatipes at 28 study sites: traditional (closed circle), consolidated (closed square),

suburban (open square), and urban (open circle). The line represents a significant

regression estimated from the GLM (Table S1).

Fig. 4 Flower use patterns of *Eucera nipponensis* and *E. spurcatipes* in four different land-use types. The left grey bars of each plot

show background flower abundances of species with different tube lengths, which was calculated as the total visual size of flowers (the

mean visual size multiplied by the number of flowers). The right orange and blue bars show visit frequencies of *E. nipponensis* and *E.*

spurcatipes to each flower species, respectively. Native (*Vicia sativa*) and exotic (*Trifolium repens*) legumes were the most visited

flower species in the study.