

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

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1 **Abstract**

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

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

22 *“El sur también existe”*

23 Joan Manuel Serrat, singer and songwriter

24

25 **Introduction**

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

46 mechanisms involved (Aizen and Harder 2009a,b, Potts et al. 2010, vanEngelsdorp and
47 Meixner 2010, Hofmann et al. 2018, Herrera 2019, Jamieson et al. 2019).

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

70 **Material and methods**

71 *The data*

72 The literature on floral biology, pollination ecology, plant-pollinator interactions and crop
73 pollination was searched for field studies conducted during 1960-2019 in the
74 Mediterranean Basin and providing quantitative data on the relative abundance of
75 honeybees and wild bees at flowers of insect-pollinated plants, either wild-growing or
76 cultivated. Preliminary searches had shown that studies conducted before 1960 quite
77 rarely reported quantitative data on bee abundance at flowers. The literature screening
78 used searches in Web of Science, Google Scholar and my personal database of plant-
79 pollinator studies. To improve the chances of obtaining a representative, geographically
80 comprehensive coverage of all regions surrounding the Mediterranean Sea (i.e., African,
81 Asian and European shores), literature searches were conducted using terms in English,
82 French, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish. For inclusion in this study I considered
83 exclusively field investigations where (1) quantitative data were provided on relative
84 numbers of wild bees and honeybees based on direct visual counts or standardized
85 collections at flowering individuals or flowering patches of single plant species.
86 Investigations at the plant community level or providing semiquantitative or subjective
87 abundance scores of bee abundance were thus excluded; and (2) the year(s) on which bee
88 abundance data had been originally collected in the field was unambiguously stated. In a
89 few publications where information from two or more study years had been pooled into a
90 single estimate of wild bee and honeybee abundances, but the data were otherwise
91 suitable, the average year was used. A total of 336 estimates of wild bee and honeybee
92 abundance at the flowers of 200 plant species were gathered from 136 different literature
93 sources. Each data record corresponded to a unique combination of plant species x
94 sampling year x sampling location. The data had been collected in the field between 1963–

95 2017 in 13 different countries surrounding the Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 1). Information on
96 plant type (wild-growing vs. cultivated) and taxonomic affiliation (plant family) was also
97 incorporated into the data set.

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

105 Trends in honeybee abundance in the Mediterranean Basin over the period considered
106 in this study were assessed using information gathered from the Food and Agriculture
107 Organization (FAO) of the United Nations global database (FAOSTAT;
108 <http://www.fao.org/faostat>). This data source has been used previously in historical
109 reviews of honeybee abundance (Aizen and Harder 2009a,b, vanEngelsdorp and Meixner
110 2010, Moritz and Erler 2016). Number of honeybee colonies per country and year for the
111 period 1963-2017 was obtained from FAOSTAT (accessed 25 September 2019) for each
112 of the 13 Mediterranean countries with estimates of wild bee and honeybee relative
113 abundances in my data set (Fig. 1). Comparable abundance figures were obtained by
114 dividing the number of honeybee colonies by the land surface of the country (obtained
115 also from FAOSTAT), which provided estimates of honeybee colonies/km² per country
116 and year. Data on honey production per country and year were also obtained from
117 FAOSTAT to check the reliability of colony number data as a suitable proxy for honeybee
118 abundance (Aizen and Harder 2009b, Moritz and Erler 2016).

119 *Statistical analyses*

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

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

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

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

153 **Results**

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

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

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

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

192 Discussion

193 Previous studies that have examined long-term trends in honeybee colony numbers from a

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

216 Correlative and experimental evidence alike has recently shown that, at local or
217 regional scales, honeybees can have strong negative impacts on wild bee populations in
218 both natural and anthropogenic scenarios (Shavit et al. 2009, Lindström et al. 2016, Torné-

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

238 On average, model-predicted importance of wild bees relative to honeybees was
239 slightly lower in flowers of cultivated plants throughout the period considered, a finding
240 that seems logically related to the traditional practice of placing honeybee colonies in the
241 vicinity of orchards or cultivated land to ensure crop pollination. More difficult to
242 interpret is the close similarity between wild and cultivated plants in average replacement
243 rate of wild bees by honeybees in flowers, as denoted by parallel slopes of mean predicted

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

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

268 It does not seem implausible to suggest that, because of its colossal magnitude and

269 spatial extent, the exponential flood of honeybee colonies that is silently taking over the
270 Mediterranean Basin can pose serious threats to two hallmarks of the Mediterranean
271 biome, namely the extraordinary diversities of wild bees and wild bee-pollinated plants
272 (Blondel et al. 2010). The Mediterranean Basin is home to ~3300 wild bee species, or
273 about 87% of those occurring in the whole Western Palaearctic region (data taken from
274 Discover Life, <https://www.discoverlife.org/>, accessed 1 November 2019; and Kuhlmann
275 2019). Large as that percent may seem, it is likely an underestimate given the imperfect
276 knowledge of Mediterranean Africa wild bee faunas. From a conservation perspective,
277 actions advocated for promoting apiculture or enhancing honeybee populations in
278 European regions where the species is actually declining (de la Rúa et al. 2009, Cayuela et
279 al. 2011) should not be transferred uncritically to the Mediterranean Basin, as Fig. 5
280 should make clear. In the Mediterranean, such actions would be aiming at the wrong
281 conservation target and, even worse, could be indirectly threatening the unique regional
282 diversity of wild bees, wild bee-pollinated plants and their mutualistic relationships.

283 **Acknowledgements**

284 This study was prompted by the troubling discrepancy between allusions to the
285 honeybees' impending demise so often found in popular media, and my subjective
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- 426

427 Table 1. Summary of results of the linear mixed model testing for the significance of
428 supra-annual variation in $\text{logit}(p_{wb})$, the log of the quotient between proportions of
429 wild bees and honeybees, in flowers of wild-growing and cultivated plants of the
430 Mediterranean Basin.

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

431

432

433 **Legends to figures**

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

438 Fig. 2. Variation over 1963-2017 in density of honeybee colonies in the 13 circum-
439 Mediterranean countries considered in this study (gray lines), and overall relationship
440 for the Mediterranean Basin as a whole (blue line; estimated from parameters obtained
441 by fitting a linear mixed model to the data with country as a random effect). Note the
442 logarithmic scale on vertical axis.

443 Fig. 3. Frequency distribution of $\text{logit}(p_{wb})$, the logarithm of the ratio between
444 proportions of wild bees and honeybees at flowers, in the $N = 336$ unique combinations
445 of plant species x sampling year x sampling location considered in this study. Bars to
446 the left and right of the vertical dashed line [$\text{logit}(p_{wb}) = 0$] correspond to situations of
447 numerical dominance at flowers of honeybees and wild bees, respectively.

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

456 Fig. 5. Variation over 1963-2017 in density of honeybee colonies in Germany and
457 Spain (gray lines), based on FAOSTAT data (see text). These two countries were

458 chosen as representatives, respectively, of thoroughly-studied, mid-western, temperate-

459 climate Europe, and insufficiently-studied, southern, Mediterranean-climate Europe.

460 The blue line depict least-squares fitted linear regressions.

461

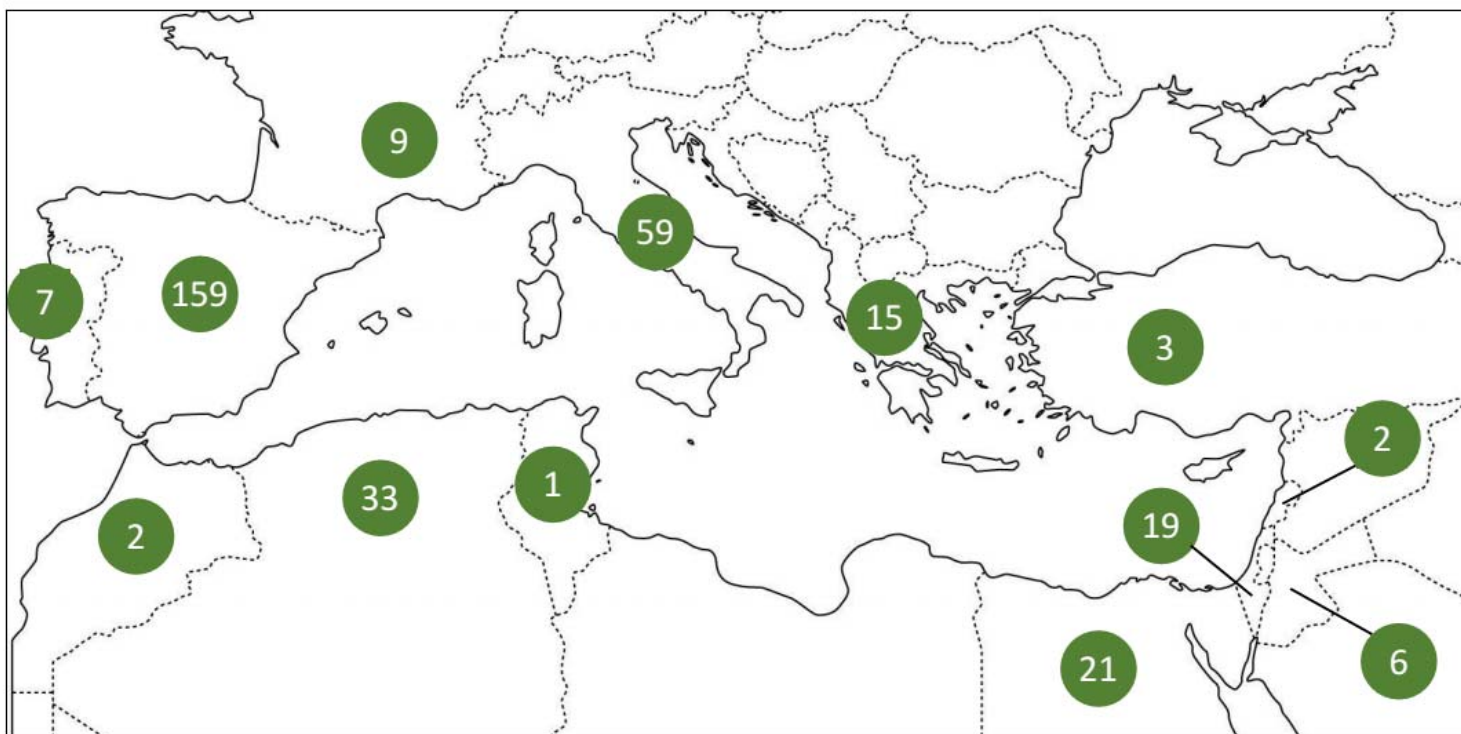


Fig. 1

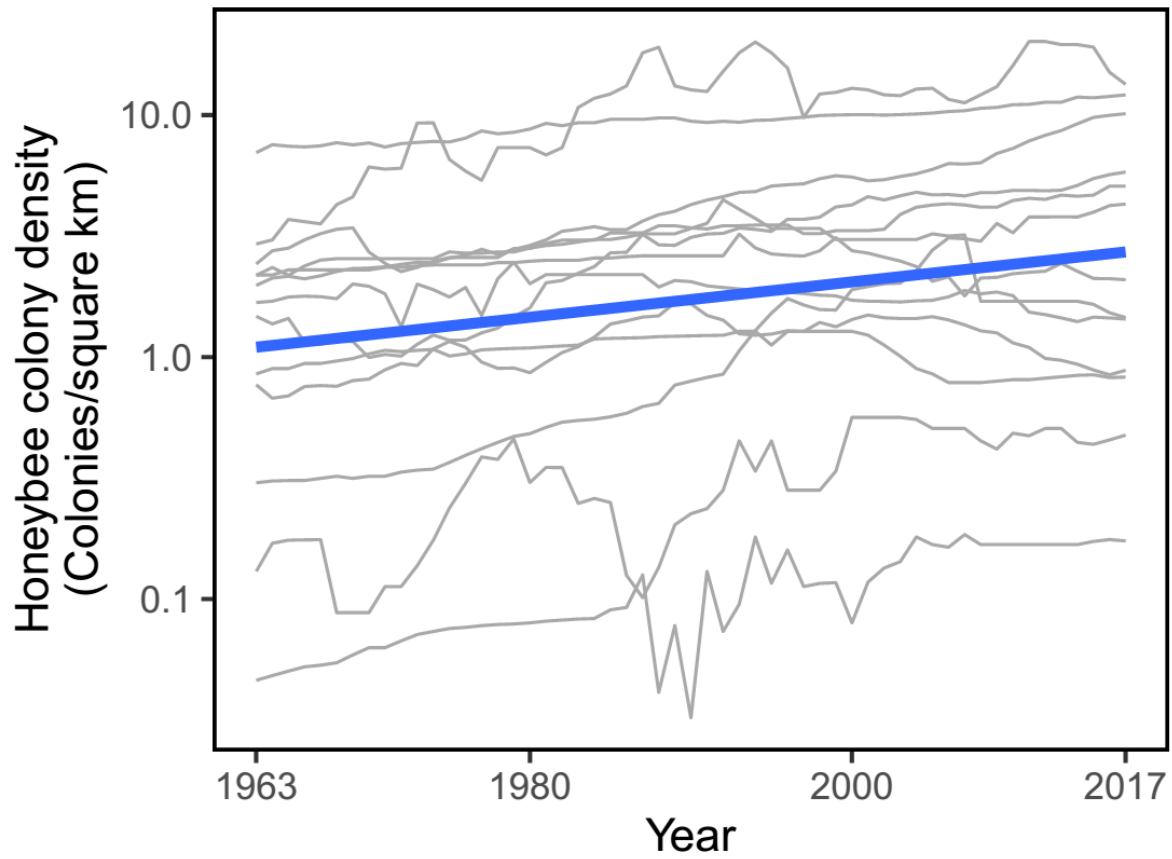


Fig. 2

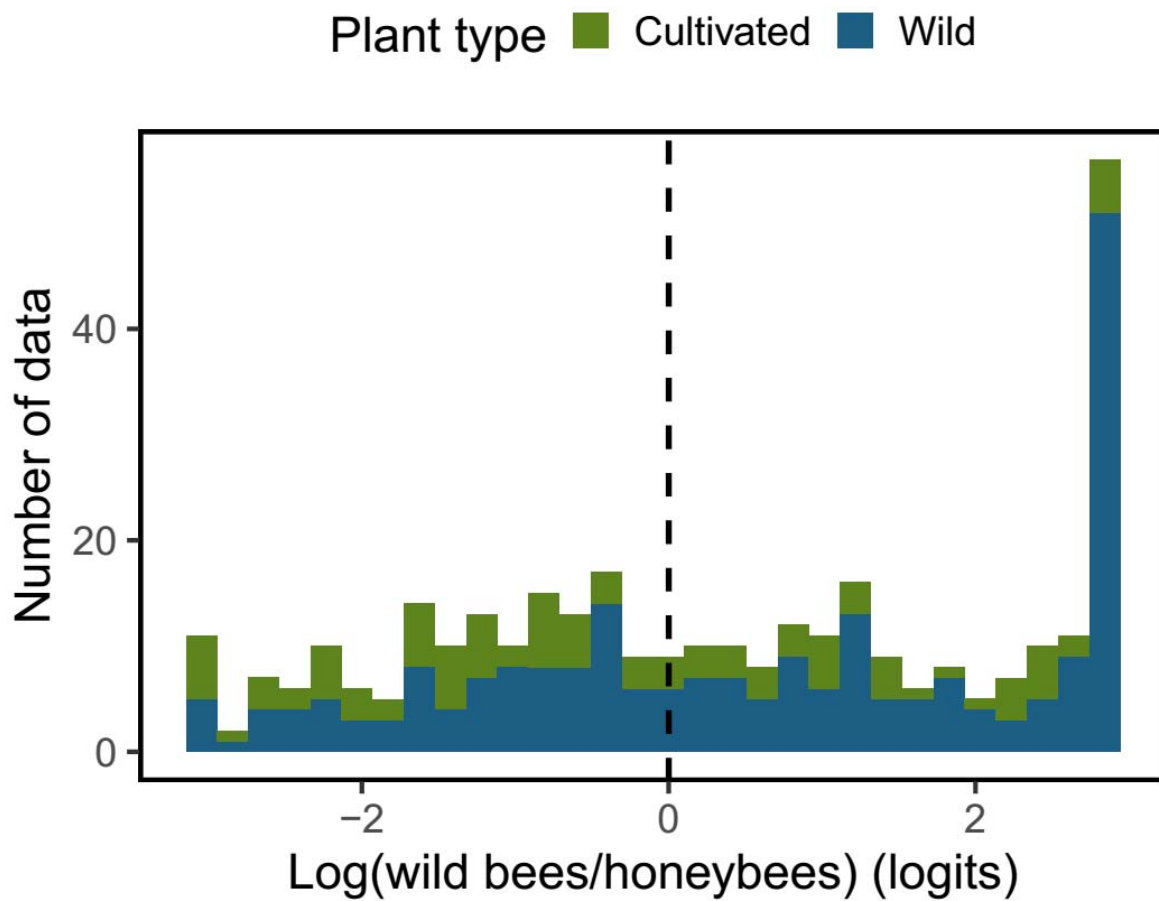


Fig. 3

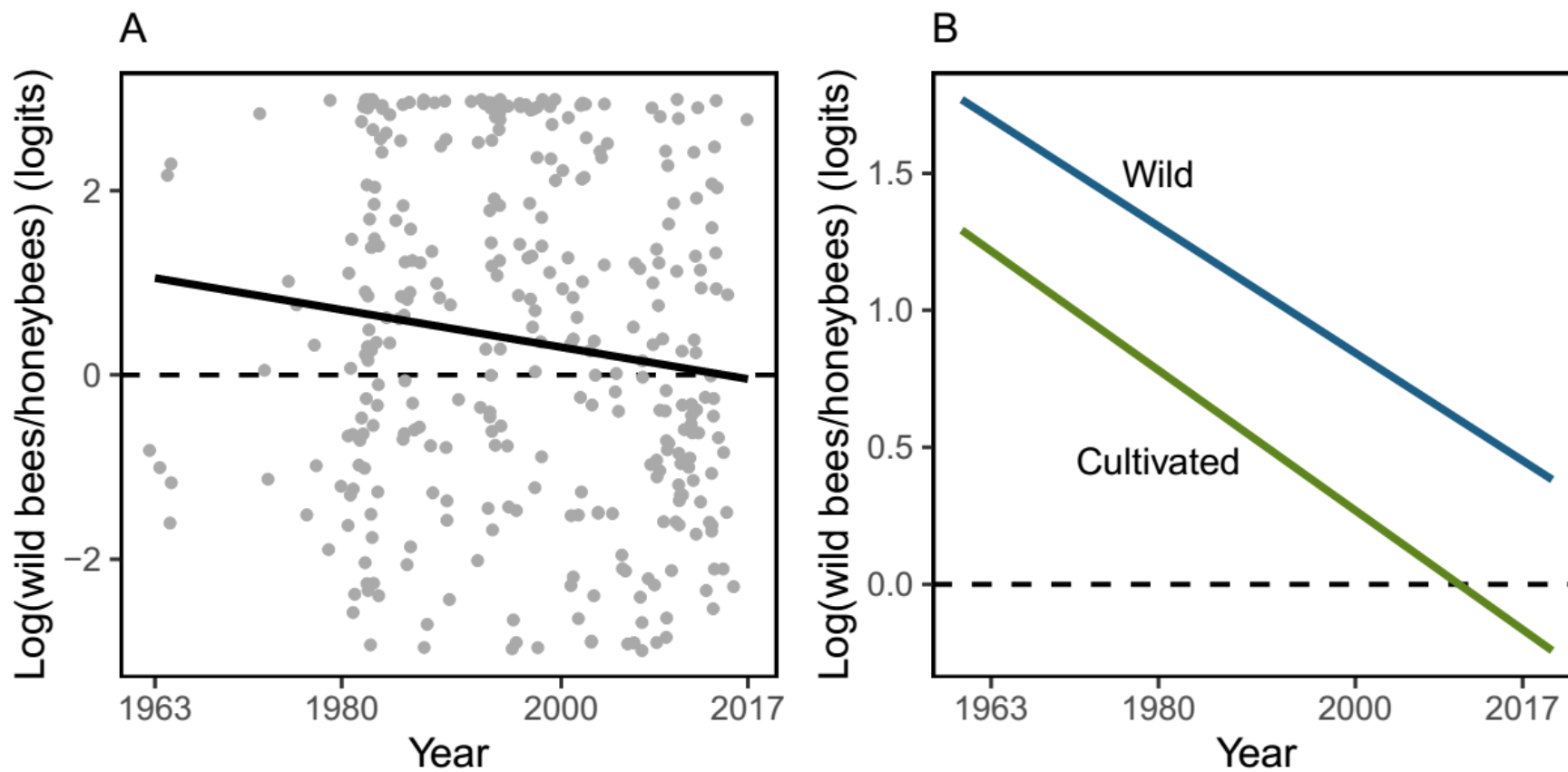


Fig. 4

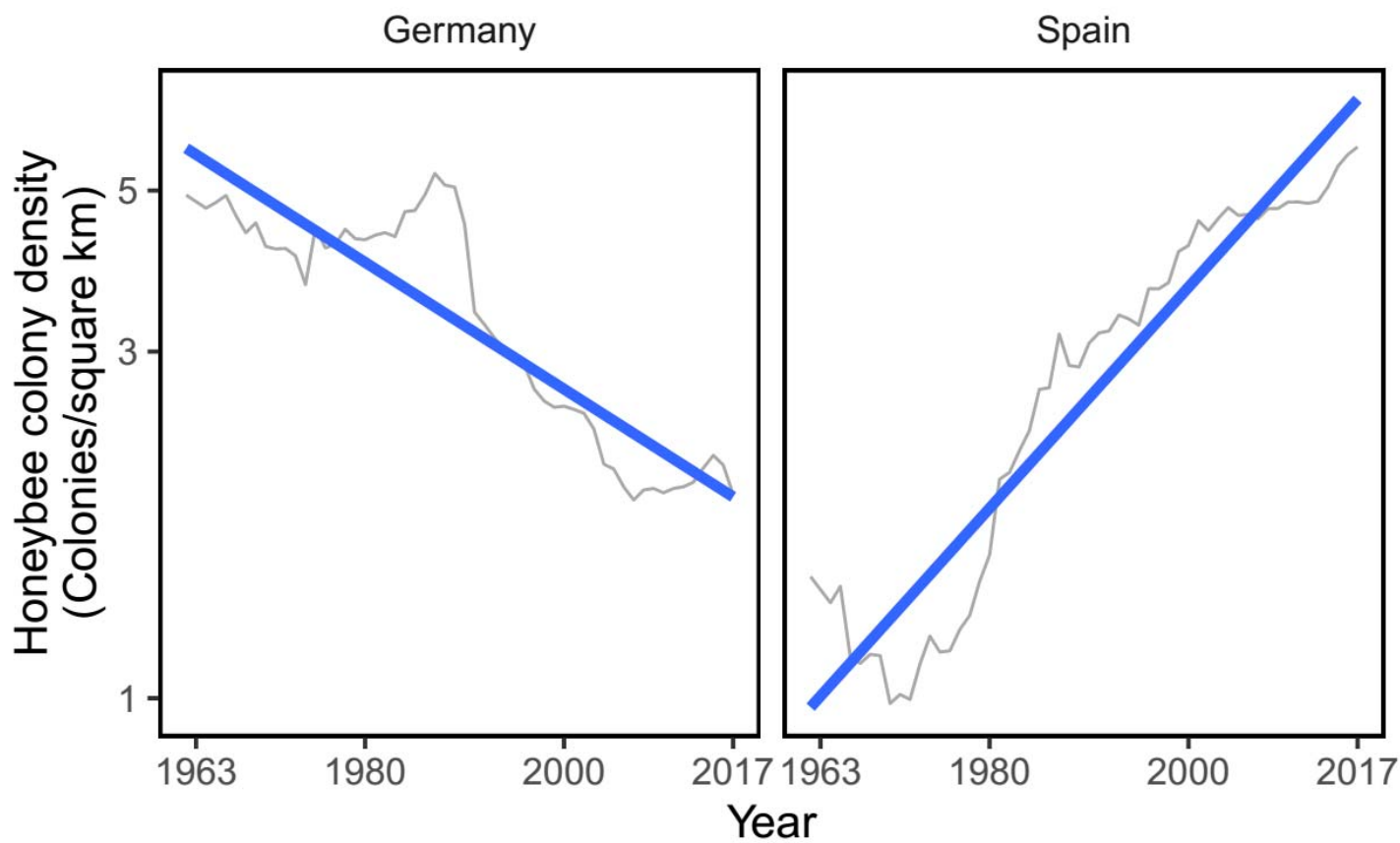


Fig. 5