# **UC Office of the President**

## **Recent Work**

## **Title**

The worldwide importance of honey bees as pollinators in natural habitats

#### **Permalink**

https://escholarship.org/uc/item/2zh37909

## **Journal**

Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 285(1870)

#### **ISSN**

0962-8452 1471-2954

#### **Authors**

Hung, Keng-Lou J Kingston, Jennifer M Albrecht, Matthias et al.

### **Publication Date**

2018-01-10

#### DOI

10.1098/rspb.2017.2140

## **Supplemental Material**

https://escholarship.org/uc/item/2zh37909#supplemental

## **Data Availability**

The data associated with this publication are in the supplemental files.

Peer reviewed

1 The worldwide importance of honey bees as pollinators in natural habitats 2 3 Keng-Lou James Hung<sup>1,†</sup>, Jennifer M. Kingston<sup>1</sup>, Matthias Albrecht<sup>2</sup>, David A. Holway<sup>1</sup>, Joshua R. Kohn<sup>1</sup> 4 5 6 <sup>1</sup>Section of Ecology, Behavior and Evolution, Division of Biological Sciences, University of 7 California San Diego, 9500 Gilman Drive, La Jolla, CA 92093-0116, USA 8 <sup>†</sup>Present address: Department of Evolution, Ecology and Organismal Biology, The Ohio State 9 University, 318 West 12th Avenue, Columbus, OH 43210, USA 10 <sup>2</sup>Agroecology and Environment, Agroscope, Reckenholzstrasse 191, CH-8046, Zürich, 11 Switzerland 12 13 **Subject Areas:** 14 **Ecology** 15 16 **Keywords:** 17 Apis mellifera, floral visitation, meta-analysis, plant-pollinator network, pollination, pollination 18 effectiveness 19 20 **Author for correspondence:** 21 Keng-Lou James Hung 22 Email: kenglou.hung@gmail.com 23

**Abstract**. The western honey bee (Apis mellifera) is the most frequent floral visitor of crops worldwide, but quantitative knowledge of its role as a pollinator outside of managed habitats is largely lacking. Here we use a global data set of 80 published plant-pollinator interaction networks as well as pollinator effectiveness measures from 34 plant species to assess the importance of A. mellifera in natural habitats. Apis mellifera is the most frequent floral visitor in natural habitats worldwide, averaging 13% of floral visits across all networks (range 0 - 85%), with 5% of plant species recorded as being exclusively visited by A. mellifera. For 33% of the networks and 49% of plant species, however, A. mellifera visitation was never observed, illustrating that many flowering plant taxa and assemblages remain dependent on non-A. mellifera visitors for pollination. Apis mellifera visitation was higher in warmer, less variable climates and on mainland rather than island sites, but did not differ between its native and introduced ranges. With respect to single-visit pollination effectiveness, A. mellifera did not differ from the average non-A. mellifera floral visitor, though it was generally less effective than the most effective non-A. mellifera visitor. Our results argue for a deeper understanding of how A. mellifera, and potential future changes in its range and abundance, shape the ecology, evolution, and conservation of plants, pollinators, and their interactions in natural habitats.

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

#### 1. Introduction

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

The western honey bee (*Apis mellifera* L.) provides highly valued pollination services for a wide variety of agricultural crops [1], and ranks as the most frequent single species of pollinator for crops worldwide [2]. A long history of domestication and intentional transport of *A. mellifera* by humans has resulted in its current cosmopolitan distribution that includes all continents except Antarctica and many oceanic islands. Given the advanced state of knowledge concerning this species and its role in agriculture, it seems surprising that the importance of *A. mellifera* as a pollinator in natural habitats remains poorly understood [3–5].

Clarifying the role of A. mellifera as a pollinator in natural habitats is important for several reasons. First, animal-mediated pollination represents a vital ecosystem service [6,7]; an estimated 87.5% of flowering plant species are pollinated by animals [8]. Quantification of the pollination services provided by the cosmopolitan, super-generalist A. mellifera [9] will thus provide insight into the functioning of many terrestrial ecosystems. Second, non-A. mellifera pollinators are declining as a result of habitat loss, habitat degradation, and other factors including pesticides, pathogens, parasites, and climate change [10–12]. In cases where A. mellifera populations can withstand these perturbations, the degree to which they replace pollination services formerly performed by extirpated pollinators [13–17] deserves scrutiny. Third, recent increases in the mortality of managed A. mellifera colonies in some regions of the world [11,18] may extend to populations of free-living A. mellifera [19–21]. Threats to A. mellifera populations could thus affect the reproduction and population dynamics of plants in natural areas, with potential shifts in the composition of plant assemblages [22,23], and in turn, the ecosystem services (e.g., carbon sequestration, soil retention) that these plants provide. Lastly, where introduced populations of A. mellifera attain high densities [24–26], they may

compete with other pollinators [27–29] or compromise plant reproductive success [30]. These phenomena are of broad ecological, evolutionary, and conservation importance, but to our knowledge, there currently exists no global quantitative synthesis of the numerical importance of *A. mellifera* as a pollinator in natural ecosystems in their native or introduced ranges.

Here, we address questions concerning the importance of *A. mellifera* by exploiting a recent trend in pollination research—the documentation of community-level, plant-pollinator interaction networks (hereafter "pollination networks"). Quantitative pollination network studies document the identity and frequency of each type of pollinator visiting each plant species within a locality [31]. Network data are used to address a variety of questions (e.g., [32–34]), but key for our goals here, they provide an underutilised opportunity to gauge the importance of *A. mellifera* in natural habitats, particularly because the role of *A. mellifera* has rarely been the focus of these studies [25,26,35]. We compiled a database of 80 quantitative pollination networks from natural habitats worldwide. To further assess the importance of *A. mellifera* as a pollinator, we also compiled data on per-visit pollination effectiveness of *A. mellifera* relative to other floral visitors from studies of 34 plant species.

Our meta-analyses address three interrelated lines of inquiry concerning the ecological importance of *A. mellifera* in natural habitats. (i) What proportions of floral visits are contributed by *A. mellifera* foragers to individual networks worldwide, and to individual plant species within networks? (ii) What environmental factors govern the relative contribution of *A. mellifera* to community-level floral visitation, and do levels of visitation differ between its native and introduced ranges? (iii) Given that pollination network studies often use visitation frequency as a proxy for pollinator importance (e.g., [36]), how does the per-visit pollination effectiveness of *A. mellifera* compare to the effectiveness of other floral visitors?

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

#### 2. Material and Methods

(a) Database for network synthesis

We used two approaches to compile our dataset of pollination networks. First, we performed a literature search using the ISI Web of Science database with the search terms [pollinat\* network], [pollinat\* web], and [pollinat\* visit\* community], examining all studies available as of August 2016. Second, we downloaded all pollination network data from the Interaction Web Database of the National Center for Ecological Analysis and Synthesis website and (http://data.nceas.ucsb.edu/) the Web of Life Ecological Networks Database (http://www.web-of-life.es/) available as of December 2014. We collected all studies and plantpollinator interaction network datasets that documented visitation frequency (i.e., number of individuals observed contacting flowers or number of floral contacts per unit time) between each pair of plant and pollinator taxa. We defined a network as the sum of recorded plant-pollinator interactions in all sites from a single study that fell within a 50-km diameter circle, regardless of the number of sites that constitute the network. Sites within the same study that are separated by more than 50 km were treated as separate networks. When we encountered networks from different studies that were less than 50 km apart, we excluded those that sampled a smaller number of plant or pollinator taxa, or documented fewer interactions. We chose 50 km as a threshold to avoid over-representing studies that include many networks within a locality (e.g., [32,37]), while keeping separate those networks originating from distinct localities within the same geographic region, such as networks documented on different islands from the same archipelago (e.g., [38]). When studies included multiple years of data collection at the same sites using the same protocols, we pooled data from all study years into a single network.

All networks retained for analyses met the following criteria. The data were collected in natural habitats, here defined as largely unmanaged assemblages of plant species where the identities and relative abundances of plant species are not purposefully manipulated (thus excluding, for example, agricultural, urban, and experimental habitats; see the electronic supplementary material, table S1-1). Each network consisted of observations on five or more plant species when pooled across the sites making up an individual study. All networks documented a broad range of pollinators; studies with a narrow taxonomic scope (e.g. social bees, bird pollinators with incidental observations of A. mellifera) or those that a priori excluded A. mellifera were not included. We also excluded networks from sites that were known to be heavily influenced by A. mellifera colonies stocked for adjacent agricultural pollination. Thus, our estimates of the numerical importance of A. mellifera may be conservative with respect to mosaic landscapes where natural habitats are intermixed with agricultural fields with managed A. mellifera colonies [39]. We did not a priori exclude networks from localities outside of the presumed climatic niche of A. mellifera [40], or where A. mellifera was never introduced. In all, we obtained 80 networks (see the electronic supplementary material, table S1-1) from 60 peerreviewed studies and three graduate theses [37,41,42]. While lacking coverage in some regions (figure 1), our dataset attains geographical coverage comparable to other recent studies that examine the importance and conservation of pollinators at a global scale [2,12,43].

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

For each network, we obtained the following data from their associated publications or from study authors when data were not available from publications: latitude, longitude, and final year of data collection. When these data were not available and authors could not be reached, we used the approximate geographical centre of the study locality listed in the publication, and the year of publication as the last year of data collection. We defined the native status of *A. mellifera* 

based on [40] and [44]; although we caution that the native status of A. mellifera in the British Isles and northern Europe remains unresolved. We also extracted the following information from each study, when available: the proportion of all floral visits contributed by A. mellifera (in two networks this metric was estimated by calculating the proportion of the total visitation rate, summed across plant species, contributed by A. mellifera; see the electronic supplementary material, table S1-1), the proportion of plant species receiving at least one visit by A. mellifera, and the rank of A. mellifera with respect to both the proportion of all floral visits contributed and the proportion of plant species visited. Additionally, we used geographic information system (GIS) analysis to obtain elevation data and bioclimatic variables ([45],http://www.worldclim.org) for each network based on its GPS coordinates. We also categorised each network as being on an island or a mainland; the latter category includes all continents as well as islands > 200,000 km<sup>2</sup>, namely Great Britain (United Kingdom), Honshu (Japan), and Greenland. For studies for which raw data were not available, we contacted the corresponding authors to request data, or, in cases where data could not be shared, requested summary statistics on plant-pollinator interactions. When raw numeric data were unavailable from the publication or from authors, we used ImageJ to extract data from figures, where possible (see the electronic supplementary material, table S1-1). Due to the different methodologies and data reported by each study, not all of the abovementioned variables were extracted from all networks.

(b) Frequency and patterns of Apis mellifera visitation

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

We calculated the global mean and median proportion of all floral visits contributed by A. mellifera, using each network as a data point (n = 80 networks). Calculations were repeated after excluding networks that documented no A. mellifera visits, in order to examine the role of A. mellifera specifically in localities where it occurs. Additionally, we examined plant species in 41

networks in which (i) *A. mellifera* was present, and (ii) data on the number of visits contributed by *A. mellifera* and non-*A. mellifera* visitors were available for each plant species. Across these networks, we calculated the mean and median proportion of plant species that were (i) not visited by *A. mellifera*, (ii) numerically dominated by *A. mellifera* (i.e., *A. mellifera* contributing  $\geq 50\%$  of all floral visits), and (iii) visited exclusively by *A. mellifera*. Because plant species receiving few visits overall may tend to have extreme values of proportion of visits by *A. mellifera*, we restricted the analysis to 834 plant taxa with  $\geq 10$  visits recorded. Additionally, to aid in visualizing the distribution of the numerical importance of *A. mellifera* across plant species, we also calculated for each network the proportion of plant species that fell into each of 10 bins with respect to the proportion of visits contributed by *A. mellifera* (range = 0 - 1; bin width = 0.1). We then constructed a histogram by calculating the mean and 95% confidence intervals of each bin across all 41 networks.

(c) Environmental correlates of Apis mellifera visitation frequency

We constructed multiple regression models to identify environmental factors that best explain variation in the visitation frequency of A. mellifera among networks. The response variable in these regression models was the proportion of all floral visits in each network contributed by A. mellifera. Due to the strongly non-normal distribution of the data as well as the presence of numerous zeroes, we performed zero-inflated, multiple beta regression using package gamlss [46] in R (version 3.3.1 [47]). One network located above the Arctic Circle [48] was excluded from this analysis because bioclimatic data were unavailable (hence, n = 79). We note that the exclusion of networks with no A. mellifera visits did not qualitatively alter our results (see the electronic supplementary material, table S2-1).

To incorporate bioclimatic variables [45], we first performed principal components analysis (PCA) to avoid constructing models with highly collinear terms. We performed one PCA for the 11 variables measuring temperature, and a separate PCA for the eight bioclimatic variables measuring precipitation (see the electronic supplementary material, table S3). We then reduced bioclimatic variables to the first two principal components of the temperature and precipitation variables, which accounted for 86% and 89% of the variance, respectively. We constructed a full model containing the following explanatory variables, without interactions: latitude, longitude, altitude, land category (mainland versus island), and the first two principal components of temperature and precipitation variables. We used R package glmulti [49] to generate all possible permutations of the full model on which to perform zero-inflated, multiple beta regression; and then selected the best-fit model using corrected Akaike's Information Criterion (AICc) scores. We also used the best-fit environmental model to address whether the proportion of visits contributed by A. mellifera, after accounting for environmental factors, was affected by (i) A. mellifera native status (native versus introduced), and (ii) year of data collection.

## (d) Pollination effectiveness

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

We used two approaches to compile data on pollination effectiveness. First, we performed a literature search using the ISI Web of Science database with the search term [pollinat\*] in combination with one of the following terms: [efficiency], [effectiveness], ["pollen deposition"], ["seed set"], ["fruit set"], or ["pollination biology of"], examining all studies available as of August 2016. Second, we examined the literature cited sections of each of the studies found through the first approach for additional studies not captured in the initial literature search. Data points in this analysis consist of studies of focal plant species that compared *A. mellifera* and at

least one other pollinator taxon with respect to pollen deposition, seed set, or fruit set resulting from single floral visits [50]. We used seed set data whenever available because it is most directly related to plant reproductive fitness [51], fruit set when seed counts were unavailable, and pollen deposition when measures of seed and fruit set were unavailable. When raw data were unavailable, we used ImageJ to extract data from figures. In all, we obtained 32 studies reporting single-visit pollination effectiveness data for 34 plant species, spanning 22 plant families (see the electronic supplementary material, table S1-2). Of these, 18 plant species in 15 families were undomesticated, and 16 plant species in 7 families were grown in agricultural settings. For each plant species considered, we divided the pollination effectiveness of *A. mellifera* by the mean effectiveness of all other visitors studied to obtain the relative effectiveness of *A. mellifera*. We also divided *A. mellifera* effectiveness by that of the most effective non-*A. mellifera* visitor. We then used one-sample *t*-tests to examine whether the pollination effectiveness of *A. mellifera* floral visitor.

#### 3. Results

- 216 (a) Frequency and patterns of Apis mellifera visitation
  - Apis mellifera was recorded in 88.89% (16/18) of the pollination networks from its native range and in 61.29% (38/62) of the networks from its introduced range (figure 1; see also the electronic supplementary material, table S1-1). Across all networks, the mean proportion of visits contributed by A. mellifera was 12.64% (figure 2a; median = 1.56%); among the 54 networks in which A. mellifera was recorded, this proportion increased to 18.72% (median = 8.13%). Apis mellifera was the most frequent floral visitor in 17 networks and visited the most plant species in 14 networks.

Across 41 networks in which *A. mellifera* was present and the proportion of visits to each plant species by *A. mellifera* was recorded, we found a positively skewed distribution of the proportion of visits contributed by *A. mellifera* to individual plant species (figure 2b). *Apis mellifera* was the only documented visitor to 4.48% of plant taxa (median = 0%, range = 0%–66.67%) and contributed the majority ( $\geq 50\%$ ) of visits to 17.28% of plant taxa (median = 0%, range = 0%–100%). However, *A. mellifera* went unrecorded as a visitor to nearly half (49.38%) of plant taxa (median = 47.22%, range = 0%–100%). The overall patterns we report remain similar when we expand the analysis to include plant species where fewer than 10 visits were recorded (i.e., those species that might be expected to produce extreme values; see the electronic supplementary material, figure S4-1).

(b) Environmental correlates of Apis mellifera visitation frequency

The best-fit zero-inflated, multiple beta regression model of environmental variables revealed that the proportion of visitation by *A. mellifera* in networks increases with the first principal component of temperature variables, with higher values corresponding to higher overall temperature, higher isothermality, lower annual temperature range and less seasonality (table 1; further statistics are reported in the electronic supplementary material, table S2-2). *Apis mellifera* visitation was also higher in mainland than island networks (table 1), but we found no effect of native status on the proportion of visits contributed by *A. mellifera* (table 1). Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that eight of the ten networks with the highest *A. mellifera* visitation came from introduced range localities. In five of these networks [25,26,35,37,52], *A. mellifera* accounted for more than half of the total visits recorded. Lastly, we found that study year was unrelated to the proportion of *A. mellifera* visits in natural habitats worldwide (table 1).

## 246 (c) Pollination effectiveness

A literature survey of single-visit pollinator effectiveness data revealed that *A. mellifera* does not differ from the average non-*A. mellifera* floral visitor, with the effectiveness of *A. mellifera* averaging 90.1% that of other visitors (one sample *t*-test,  $t_{33} = 1.25$ , P = 0.22; figure 3*a*). On the other hand, *A. mellifera* was generally less effective than the most effective non-*A. mellifera* visitor, with *A. mellifera* effectiveness averaging 75.6% that of the top non-*A. mellifera* visitor (one sample *t*-test,  $t_{33} = 3.28$ , P = 0.0024; figure 3*b*). The relative effectiveness of *A. mellifera* did not differ between non-agricultural (n = 18) and agricultural (n = 16) plant species, either when compared with the average non-*A. mellifera* visitor (figure 3*a*; Welch's two-sample *t*-test,  $t_{30.75} = 0.44$ , P = 0.67) or when compared with the top non-*A. mellifera* visitor (Figure 3*b*; Welch's two-sample *t*-test,  $t_{24.46} = 0.96$ , P = 0.34).

#### 4. Discussion

While *A. mellifera* is acknowledged to be a widely introduced [53,54], super-generalist [55,56] species that occupies a central role in many pollination networks [9,24,57], our study presents the first quantitative synthesis demonstrating the importance of *A. mellifera* as a floral visitor in natural habitats at a global scale. Despite considerable variance in its local abundance (figures 1, 2a), *A. mellifera* appears to be the most important single species of pollinator across the natural systems studied, owing to its wide distribution, generalist foraging behaviour, and competence as a pollinator. The numerical dominance of *A. mellifera* is further underscored by our finding that, in a subset of 68 networks with sufficient taxonomic resolution, the average proportion of floral visits contributed by *A. mellifera* was more than double that contributed by all bumble bee species (Apidae: *Bombus*) combined (*A. mellifera* mean = 13.79%, *Bombus* mean = 6.26%, P =

0.055; see the electronic supplementary material, S5). Given that *Bombus* is the only other pollinator genus comparable to *A. mellifera* with respect to both local importance and global distribution [7,9,54], it seems unlikely that any other single pollinator species contends with *A. mellifera* with respect to worldwide numerical importance in natural habitats. That said, with appropriate data, it would be instructive to compare the worldwide importance of *A. mellifera* with that of other cosmopolitan and widely introduced pollinator taxa, such as the hover fly (Syrphidae) species *Syrphus ribesii* (L.) and *Eristalis tenax* (L.) [58], or with that of pollinator taxa that numerically dominate pollination networks in key biomes, such as stingless bees (Apidae: Meliponini) in tropical ecosystems [24,59].

We quantify for the first time that despite the global distribution and often high local abundance of *A. mellifera*, it is a frequent visitor to only a minority of insect-pollinated plant species (figure 2b). Even in networks where more than half of all visits are contributed by *A. mellifera*, ca. 16% of the plant species, on average, receive fewer than 10% of their visits from *A. mellifera* (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S4-2). Although individual *A. mellifera* colonies are known to forage extensively on only a fraction of the plant species available at any given time [60], the skewed pattern of floral visitation documented here (figure 2b) is nonetheless surprising given that *A. mellifera* has the greatest diet breadth of any pollinator species studied [55,56]. This result underscores the importance of maintaining robust, diverse assemblages of non-*A. mellifera* pollinators to provide pollination services for the majority of flowering plant species in natural habitats.

From a different perspective, *A. mellifera* often numerically dominated a portion of the plant species in a given network. While non-*A. mellifera* pollinators may find such plant taxa inherently unprofitable in some cases, they may be displaced by *A. mellifera* via interference or

exploitative competition in other cases (e.g., [61]). In instances where *A. mellifera* numerically dominates plant species belonging to the "core" of a pollination network (i.e., the subset of locally abundant plant species that are visited by a variety of pollinator taxa [31,62]), they may exert a strong influence on co-occurring pollinators [39]. While this phenomenon has been documented in the native range of *A. mellifera* [39], it may be especially consequential in its introduced range, where plant species numerically dominated by *A. mellifera* presumably coevolved with, and supply food for, native pollinators [63]. Our results thus suggest that *A. mellifera* may disrupt interactions between plants and other pollinators in many areas, including localities where *A. mellifera* attains only modest abundance (see the electronic supplementary material, S4-3).

Our analyses of how *A. mellifera* visitation correlates with environmental variables revealed significant associations with climatic and geographical predictors, but no effect of native status (table 1). Release from pathogens and parasites can contribute to the success of introduced species [64], but this mechanism may be less important for *A. mellifera* given that major pathogens and parasites have spread worldwide with the trafficking of managed colonies [17, 18]. Nevertheless, the majority of networks with the highest proportion of *A. mellifera* visits come from introduced range localities. Researchers have long recognised the potential for introduced *A. mellifera* to impact co-occurring pollinators (e.g., [29,65]) and plants (e.g., [66]) at the local scale. Numerical dominance of introduced *A. mellifera* may also lead to homogenisation [67] of pollinator faunas, and of pollination networks, across large spatial scales. Accordingly, further studies are needed to clarify why *A. mellifera* reaches high levels of abundance in some parts of its introduced range (e.g., [25,26]) and how variation in its local abundance affects native plants and pollinators.

Despite recent increases in the mortality of managed *A. mellifera* colonies in Europe and North America [68,69], our analyses found that study year was unrelated to the proportion of *A. mellifera* visits in natural habitats worldwide (table 1). Agents responsible for increased mortality in managed colonies can affect wild or feral *A. mellifera* colonies [19–21], but ongoing research suggests that unmanaged *A. mellifera* populations may be better able to cope with parasites and pathogens compared to managed populations [70]. In our pollination networks, the degree to which *A. mellifera* foragers originated from managed versus unmanaged colonies likely varies. However, in one network numerically dominated by *A. mellifera* [37], genetic testing indicated that the majority of *A. mellifera* foragers were derived from feral, Africanised colonies [71].

Most network studies equate visitation frequency with the importance of a particular pollinator, but pollination biologists usually define pollinator importance as the per-visit effectiveness multiplied by visitation frequency [50]. Our survey of pollinator effectiveness estimates involving *A. mellifera* (figure 3) suggests that the average importance of *A. mellifera* as a pollinator is satisfactorily estimated by its visitation frequency. However, given that *A. mellifera* exhibits poor effectiveness at pollinating certain plant taxa [57,72], additional studies are needed to demonstrate the importance of *A. mellifera* as a pollinator of any particular plant species. Repeated visits by abundant pollinators, for example, can damage flowers and reduce reproductive success [73]. On plant species where *A. mellifera* attains high visitation rates, negative relationships between visitation frequency and plant reproductive fitness may occur [39] and are worthy of investigation [74].

As a numerically abundant, super-generalist pollinator, *A. mellifera* may influence the fitness [27] and behaviour [63] of competing pollinators, enhance [15] or reduce [30] plant

reproduction, and facilitate the spread of non-native weeds [75] and pathogens [76]. Given the ecological importance of *A. mellifera*, changes in its distribution and abundance may impact the evolutionary trajectory of co-occurring animal-pollinated plants [77] and pollinators. Our study quantifies the current importance of *A. mellifera* in natural communities, and also highlights the vital importance of non-*A. mellifera* pollinators, whose key role in maintaining ecosystem function cannot be replaced by *A. mellifera*. Our study underscores the need for more data on how *A. mellifera*, and potential changes in its range and population size, shape the ecology, evolution, and conservation of plants, pollinators, and their interactions in natural habitats on local and global scales.

## **Data Accessibility**

Project data are made available in the electronic supplementary material.

#### **Author Contributions**

- 352 The study was conceived by K.-L.J.H., D.A.H. and J.R.K. Data were collected by K.-L.J.H.,
- J.M.K., M.A, and J.R.K. Data analysis was conducted by K.-L.J.H. All authors contributed to the
- writing of the manuscript and gave final approval for publication.

## **Competing Interests**

We have no competing interests.

## **Funding**

Funding to K.-L.J.H. include NSF Doctoral Dissertation Improvement Grant DEB-1501566; the
Mildred E. Mathias Graduate Student Research Grant and the Institute for the Study of
Ecological and Evolutionary Climate Impacts Graduate Fellowship from the University of
California Natural Reserve System; the Frontiers of Innovation Scholar Fellowship, an Academic
Senate Grant, and the McElroy Fellowship from the University of California, San Diego; the Sea
and Sage Audubon Society Bloom-Hays Ecological Research Grant; and the California Native
Plants Society Educational Grant.

367

368

## Acknowledgments

- The authors gratefully acknowledge the following individuals who provided raw data, summaries
- of data, and helpful discussions on the use of their data: T. Abe, R. Alarcón, J. Albrecht, I.
- 371 Bartomeus, J. Bascompte, N. Blüthgen, L. Burkle, M. Campos-Navarrete, L. Carvalheiro, A.
- Gotlieb, M. Hagen, S. Hegland, C. Kaiser-Bunbury, M. Koski, X. Loy, H. Marrero, C. Morales,
- A. Nielsen, O. Norfolk, N. Rafferty, R. Ramos-Jiliberto, D. Robson, H. Taki, K. Trøjelsgaard, C.
- Tur, D. Vázquez, M. Vilà, and Y. Yoshihara. We thank all authors who have made their raw or
- summarised data publicly available. J. Ollerton and R. Junker provided insightful comments in
- 376 peer review.

377 378

#### References

- 1. Calderone NW. 2012 Insect pollinated crops, insect pollinators and US agriculture: trend analysis of aggregate data for the period 1992–2009. *PLoS One* **7**, e37235.
- 381 (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0037235)
- 2. Garibaldi LA *et al.* 2013 Wild pollinators enhance fruit set of crops regardless of honey bee abundance. *Science* **339**, 1608–1611. (doi:10.1126/science.1230200)
- 384 3. Aebi A, Vaissière BE, van Engelsdorp D, Delaplane KS, Roubik DW, Neumann P. 2012
- Back to the future: *Apis* versus non-*Apis* pollination—a response to Ollerton et al. *Trends*
- 386 *Ecol Evol* **27**, 142–143. (doi:10.1016/j.tree.2011.11.017)

- 4. Ollerton J *et al.* 2012 Overplaying the role of honey bees as pollinators: a comment on Aebi and Neumann (2011). *Trends Ecol Evol* **27**, 141–142. (doi:10.1016/j.tree.2011.12.001)
- 389 5. Butz Huryn VM. 1997 Ecological impacts of introduced honey bees. *Q Rev Biol* **72**, 275– 297. (doi:10.1086/419860)
- 391 6. Ashman T-L *et al.* 2004 Pollen limitation of plant reproduction: ecological and evolutionary causes and consequences. *Ecology* **85**, 2408–2421. (doi:10.1890/03-8024)
- 7. Kearns CA, Inouye DW. 1997 Pollinators, flowering plants, and conservation biology. *Bioscience* **47**, 297–307. (doi:10.2307/1313191)
- 8. Ollerton J, Winfree R, Tarrant S. 2011 How many flowering plants are pollinated by animals? *Oikos* **120**, 321–326. (doi:10.1111/j.1600-0706.2010.18644.x)
- Geslin B *et al.* 2017 Massively introduced managed species and their consequences for plant–pollinator interactions. *Advances in Ecological Research* 57, 147–199 (doi:10.1016/bs.aecr.2016.10.007)
- 400 10. Potts SG, Biesmeijer JC, Kremen C, Neumann P, Schweiger O, Kunin WE. 2010 Global
   401 pollinator declines: trends, impacts and drivers. *Trends Ecol Evol* 25, 345–353.
   402 (doi:10.1016/j.tree.2010.01.007)
- 403 11. Goulson D, Nicholls E, Botias C, Rotheray EL. 2015 Bee declines driven by combined stress
   404 from parasites, pesticides, and lack of flowers. *Science* 347, 1255957.
   405 (doi:10.1126/science.1255957)
- Winfree R, Aguilar R, Vázquez DP, LeBuhn G, Aizen MA. 2009 A meta-analysis of bees' responses to anthropogenic disturbance. *Ecology* 90, 2068–2076. (doi:10.1890/08-1245.1)
- 408 13. Xia J, Sun SG, Guo YH. 2007 Honeybees enhance reproduction without affecting the outcrossing rate in endemic *Pedicularis densispica* (Orobanchaceae). *Plant Biol (Stuttg)* **9**, 410 713–719. (doi:10.1055/s-2007-965259)
- 411 14. Junker RR, Bleil R, Daehler CC, Blüthgen N. 2010 Intra-floral resource partitioning between
   412 endemic and invasive flower visitors: consequences for pollinator effectiveness. *Ecol* 413 *Entomol* 35, 760–767. (doi:10.1111/j.1365-2311.2010.01237.x)
- 15. Dick CW. 2001 Genetic rescue of remnant tropical trees by an alien pollinator. *Proc Biol Sci* **268**, 2391–2396. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2001.1781)
- 16. Hanna C, Foote D, Kremen C. 2013 Invasive species management restores a plant-pollinator mutualism in Hawaii. *J Appl Ecol* **50**, 147–155. (doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12027)
- 418 17. Hermansen TD, Britton DR, Ayre DJ, Minchinton TE. 2014 Identifying the real pollinators?
   419 Exotic honeybees are the dominant flower visitors and only effective pollinators of *Avicennia*
- 420 *marina* in Australian temperate mangroves. *Estuaries and Coasts* **37**, 621–635.
- 421 (doi:10.1007/s12237-013-9711-3)

- 422 18. Wilfert L, Long G, Leggett HC, Schmid-Hempel P, Butlin R, Martin SJM, Boots M. 2016
- Deformed wing virus is a recent global epidemic in honeybees driven by *Varroa* mites.
- 424 *Science* **351**, 594–597. (doi:10.1126/science.aac9976)
- 19. Thompson CE, Biesmeijer JC, Allnutt TR, Pietravalle S, Budge GE. 2014 Parasite pressures
- on feral honey bees (*Apis mellifera* sp.). *PLoS One* **9**, e105164.
- 427 (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0105164)
- 428 20. De la Rúa P, Jaffé R, Dall'Olio R, Muñoz I, Serrano J. 2009 Biodiversity, conservation and
- current threats to European honeybees. *Apidologie* **40**, 263–284.
- 430 (doi:10.1051/apido/2009027)
- 21. Kraus B, Page REJ. 1995 Effect of Varroa jacobsoni (Mesostigmata: Varroidae) on feral
- 432 Apis mellifera (Hymenoptera: Apidae) in California. Environ Entomol 24, 1473–1480. (doi:
- 433 10.1093/ee/24.6.1473)
- 22. Potts SG et al. 2016 Safeguarding pollinators and their values to human well-being. *Nature*
- 435 **540**, 220–229. (doi:10.1038/nature20588)
- 436 23. Biesmeijer JC et al. 2006 Parallel declines in pollinators and insect-pollinated plants in
- 437 Britain and the Netherlands. *Science* **313**, 351–354. (doi:10.1126/science.1127863)
- 438 24. Giannini TC, Garibaldi LA, Acosta AL, Silva JS, Maia KP, Saraiva AM, Guimarães PR,
- Kleinert AMP. 2015 Native and non-native supergeneralist bee species have different effects
- on plant-bee networks. *PLoS One* **10**, e0137198. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0137198)
- 25. Abe T, Wada K, Kato Y, Makino S, Okochi I. 2011 Alien pollinator promotes invasive
- mutualism in an insular pollination system. *Biol Invasions* **13**, 957–967.
- 443 (doi:10.1007/s10530-010-9882-9)
- 26. Kato M, Kawakita A. 2004 Plant-pollinator interactions in New Caledonia influenced by
- introduced honey bees. *Am J Bot* **91**, 1814–1827. (doi:10.3732/ajb.91.11.1814)
- 27. Thomson DM. 2016 Local bumble bee decline linked to recovery of honey bees, drought
- 447 effects on floral resources. *Ecol Lett* **19**, 1247–1255. (doi:10.1111/ele.12659)
- 28. Thomson D. 2004 Competitive interactions between the invasive European honey bee and
- native bumble bees. *Ecology* **85**, 458–470. (doi:10.1890/02-0626)
- 29. Roubik DW, Moreno JE, Vergara C, Wittmann D. 1986 Sporadic food competition with the
- 451 African honey bee: projected impact on neotropical social bees. *Journal of Tropical Ecology*
- **2**, 97–111. (doi:10.1017/S0266467400000699)
- 30. Gross CL, Mackay D. 1998 Honeybees reduce fitness in the pioneer shrub *Melastoma affine*
- 454 (Melastomataceae). *Biol Conserv* **86**, 169–178. (doi:10.1016/S0006-3207(98)00010-X)
- 455 31. Memmott J. 1999 The structure of a plant-pollinator food web. *Ecol lett* **2**, 276–280.
- 456 (doi:10.1046/j.1461-0248.1999.00087.x)

- 457 32. Albrecht M, Riesen M, Schmid B. 2010 Plant-pollinator network assembly along the
- 458 chronosequence of a glacier foreland. *Oikos* **119**, 1610–1624. (doi:10.1111/j.1600-
- 459 0706.2010.18376.x)
- 460 33. Burkle LA, Knight TM. 2012 Shifts in pollinator composition and behavior cause slow
- interaction accumulation with area in plant–pollinator networks. *Ecology* **93**, 2329–2335.
- 462 (doi:10.1890/12-0367.1)
- 34. Rafferty NE, Ives AR. 2011 Effects of experimental shifts in flowering phenology on plant-
- pollinator interactions. *Ecol Lett* **14**, 69–74. (doi:10.1111/j.1461-0248.2010.01557.x)
- 35. Olesen JM, Eskildsen LI, Venkatasamy S. 2002 Invasion of pollination networks on oceanic
- islands: importance of invader complexes and endemic super generalists. *Divers Distrib* **8**,
- 467 181–192. (doi:10.1046/j.1472-4642.2002.00148.x)
- 36. Ballantyne G, Baldock KCR, Willmer PG. 2015 Constructing more informative plant—
- pollinator networks: visitation and pollen deposition networks in a heathland plant
- 470 community. *Proc Biol Sci* **282**, 20151130. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2015.1130)
- 471 37. Hung K-LJ. 2017 Effects of habitat fragmentation and introduced species on the structure
- and function of plant-pollinator interactions. PhD dissertation. La Jolla, CA, USA: University
- of California, San Diego.
- 38. Trøjelsgaard K, Jordano P, Carstensen DW, Olesen JM. 2015 Geographical variation in
- 475 mutualistic networks: similarity, turnover and partner fidelity. *Proc Biol Sci* **282**, 20142925.
- 476 (doi:10.1098/rspb.2014.2925)
- 39. Magrach A, González-Varo JP, Boiffier M, Vilà M, Bartomeus I. 2017 Honeybee spillover
- 478 reshuffles pollinator diets and affects plant reproductive success. *Nat Ecol Evol* 1, 1299–
- 479 1307. (doi:10.1038/s41559-017-0249-9)
- 480 40. Ruttner F. 1988 Biogeography and taxonomy of honeybees. Berlin Heidelberg: Springer-
- Verlag.
- 482 41. Ingversen TT. 2006 Plant-pollinator interactions on Jamaica and Dominica: The centrality,
- asymmetry and modularity of networks. MSc thesis. Aarhus, Denmark: University of
- 484 Aarhus.
- 485 42. Kevan PG. 1970 High arctic insect-flower visitor relations: the inter-relationships of
- arthropods and flowers at Lake Hazen, Ellesmere Island, Northwest Territories, Canada. PhD
- dissertation. Edmonton, AB, Canada: University of Alberta.
- 488 43. Rader R et al. 2016 Non-bee insects are important contributors to global crop pollination.
- 489 *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **113**, 146–151. (doi:10.1073/pnas.1517092112)
- 490 44. Carreck NL. 2008 Are honey bees (*Apis mellifera L*.) native to the British Isles? *Journal of*
- 491 *Apicultural Research* **47**, 318–322. (doi:10.3896/IBRA.1.47.4.15)

- 492 45. Hijmans RJ, Cameron SE, Parra JL, Jones PG, Jarvis A. 2005 Very high resolution
- interpolated climate surfaces for global land areas. *Int J Climatol* **25**, 1965–1978.
- 494 (doi:10.1002/joc.1276)
- 46. Rigby RA, Stasinopoulos DM. 2005 Generalized additive models for location, scale and
- shape. J R Stat Soc Ser C Appl Stat **54**, 507–554. (doi:10.1111/j.1467-9876.2005.00510.x)
- 497 47. R Development Core Team. 2016 R: A language and environment for statistical computing.
- Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. URL: http://www.R-project.org.
- 48. Mosquin T, Martin JEH. 1967 Observations on the pollination biology of plants on Melville
- Island, N.W.T., Canada. *Canadian Field Naturalist* **81**, 201–205.
- 49. Calcagno V, de Mazancourt C. 2010 glmulti: an R package for easy automated model
- selection with (generalized) linear models. J Stat Softw 34, 1–29. (doi:10.18637/jss.v034.i12)
- 503 50. Ne'eman G, Jürgens A, Newstrom-Lloyd L, Potts SG, Dafni A. 2009 A framework for
- comparing pollinator performance: effectiveness and efficiency. *Biol Rev Camb Philos Soc*
- **85**, 435-451. (doi:10.1111/j.1469-185X.2009.00108.x)
- 506 51. Cane JH, Schiffhauer D. 2003 Dose-response relationships between pollination and fruiting
- refine pollinator comparisons for cranberry (*Vaccinium macrocarpon* [Ericaceae]). *Am J Bot*
- **90**, 1425–1432. (doi:10.3732/ajb.90.10.1425)
- 509 52. Aguiar CML. 2003 The use of floral resources by bees (Hymenoptera, Apoidea) in an area of
- Caatinga (Itatim, Bahia, Brazil). *Revista Brasileira de Zoologia* **20**, 457–467.
- 53. Ollerton J, Liede S. 1997 Pollination systems in the Asclepiadaceae: a survey and
- 512 preliminary analysis. *Biol J Linn Soc Lond* **62**, 593–610. (doi:10.1111/j.1095-
- 513 8312.1997.tb00324.x)
- 54. Russo L. 2016 Positive and negative impacts of non-native bee species around the world.
- 515 *Insects* **7**, 69. (doi:10.3390/insects7040069)
- 55. Olesen JM et al. 2010 From Broadstone to Zackenberg: space, time and hierarchies in
- ecological networks. Advances in Ecological Research 42, 1–69. (doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-
- 518 381363-3.00001-0)
- 56. Willmer P. 2011 *Pollination and floral ecology*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- 520 57. Aslan CE, Liang CT, Galindo B, Kimberly H, Topete W. 2016 The role of honey bees as
- 521 pollinators in natural areas. *Natural Areas Journal* **36**, 478–488. (doi:10.3375/043.036.0413)
- 522 58. Speight MCD. 2011 Species accounts of European Syrphidae (Diptera), Glasgow 2011.
- 523 Dublin: Syrph the Net Publications.
- 59. Michener CD. 2007 The bees of the world. 2nd ed. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins
- 525 University Press.

- 526 60. de Vere N, Jones LE, Gilmore T, Moscrop J, Lowe A, Smith D, Hegarty MJ, Creer S, Ford
- 527 CR. 2017 Using DNA metabarcoding to investigate honey bee foraging reveals limited
- flower use despite high floral availability. *Sci Rep* **7**, 42838. (doi:10.1038/srep42838)
- 529 61. Lindström SAM, Herbertsson L, Rundlöf M, Bommarco R, Smith HG. 2016 Experimental
- evidence that honeybees depress wild insect densities in a flowering crop. *Proc Biol Sci* **283**,
- 531 20161641. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2016.1641)
- 62. Bascompte J, Jordano P, Melián CJ, Olesen JM. 2003 The nested assembly of plant-animal
- mutualistic networks. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **100**, 9383–9387.
- 534 (doi:10.1073/pnas.1633576100)
- 63. Hansen DM, Olesen JM, Jones CG. 2002 Trees, birds and bees in Mauritius: exploitative
- competition between introduced honey bees and endemic nectarivorous birds? *J Biogeogr* **29**,
- 537 721–734. (doi:10.1046/j.1365-2699.2002.00720.x)
- 538 64. Torchin ME, Lafferty KD, Dobson AP, McKenzie VJ, Kuris AM. 2003 Introduced species
- and their missing parasites. *Nature* **421**, 628–630. (doi:10.1038/nature01346)
- 540 65. Paton DC. 1993 Honeybees in the Australian environment. *BioScience* **43**, 95–103.
- 541 (doi:10.2307/1311970)
- 542 66. Keys RN, Buchmann SL, Smith SE. 1995 Pollination effectiveness and pollination efficiency
- of insects foraging *Prosopis velutina* in south-eastern Arizona. *J Appl Ecol* **32**, 519–527.
- 544 (doi:10.2307/2404649)
- 67. McKinney ML, La Sorte FA. 2007 Invasiveness and homogenization: synergism of wide
- dispersal and high local abundance. *Glob Ecol and Biogeogr* **16**, 394–400.
- 547 (doi:10.1111/j.1466-8238.2007.000296.x)
- 548 68. vanEngelsdorp D, Hayes J, Underwood RM, Pettis J. 2008 A survey of honey bee colony
- losses in the U.S., fall 2007 to spring 2008. *PLoS One* **3**, e4071.
- 550 (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0004071)
- 69. Moritz RFA, de Miranda J, Fries I, Le Conte Y, Neumann P, Paxton RJ. 2010 Research
- strategies to improve honeybee health in Europe. *Apidologie* **41**, 227–242.
- 553 (doi:10.1051/apido/2010010)
- 70. Loftus JC, Smith ML, Seeley TD. 2016 How honey bee colonies survive in the wild: testing
- the importance of small nests and frequent swarming. *PLoS One* **11**, e0150362.
- 556 (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0150362)
- 71. Kono Y, Kohn JR. 2015 Range and frequency of Africanized honey bees in California
- 558 (USA). *PLoS One* **10**, e0137407. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0137407)
- 72. Westerkamp C. 1991 Honeybees are poor pollinators—why? *Plant Syst Evol* **177**, 71–75.
- 560 (doi:10.1007/BF00937827)

- 73. Sáez A, Morales CL, Ramos LY, Aizen MA. 2014 Extremely frequent bee visits increase
   pollen deposition but reduce drupelet set in raspberry. *J Appl Ecol* 51, 1603–1612.
   (doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12325)
- 74. Aizen MA, Morales CL, Vázquez DP, Garibaldi LA, Sáez A, Harder LD. 2014 When
   mutualism goes bad: density-dependent impacts of introduced bees on plant reproduction.
   *New Phytol* 204, 322–328. (doi:10.1111/nph.12924)
- 75. Barthell JF, Randall JM, Thorp RW, Wenner AM. 2001 Promotion of seed set in yellow starthistle by honey bees: evidence of an invasive mutualism. *Ecol Appl* 11, 1870.
  (doi:10.1890/1051-0761(2001)011[1870:POSSIY]2.0.CO;2)
- 76. Graystock P, Blane EJ, McFrederick QS, Goulson D, Hughes WOH. 2016 Do managed bees
   drive parasite spread and emergence in wild bees? *Int J Parasitol Parasites Wildl* 5, 64–75.
   (doi:10.1016/j.ijppaw.2015.10.001)
- 77. Mu J, Peng Y, Xi X, Wu X, Griffin JN, Niklas KJ, Sun S. 2014 Domesticated honey bees
   evolutionarily reduce flower nectar volume in a Tibetan lotus. *Ecology* 95, 3161–3172.
   (doi:10.1890/13-2055.1)

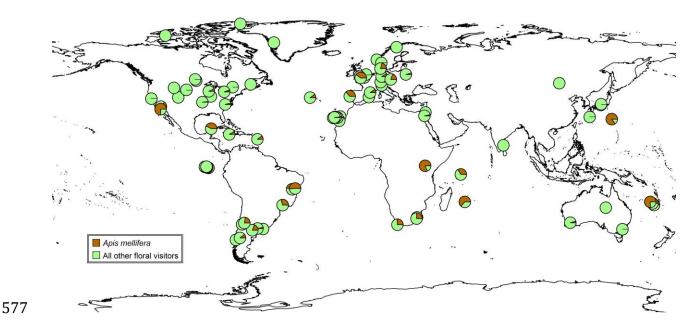
## Figures and Tables

576

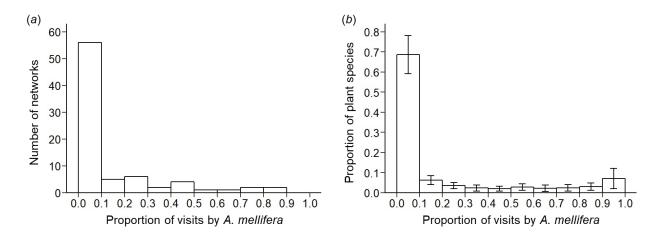
578

579

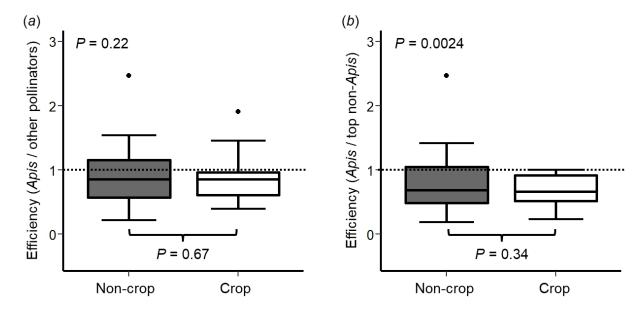
580



**Figure 1.** Proportion of all floral visits contributed by the western honey bee (*Apis mellifera*) in 80 plant-pollinator interaction networks in natural habitats worldwide. *Apis mellifera* is generally considered a native species in Europe, the Middle East, and Africa; and introduced elsewhere.



**Figure 2.** The distribution of the proportion of floral visits contributed by the western honey bee (*Apis mellifera*) (*a*) across 80 plant-pollinator interaction networks in natural habitats worldwide, and (*b*) across plant species in 41 networks where *A. mellifera* was documented and where the numbers of visits to each plant species by *A. mellifera* and other floral visitors were available. Bars show the mean value of each bin across networks; whiskers show 95% confidence intervals.



**Figure 3.** Average single-visit pollination effectiveness of the western honey bee (Apis mellifera) relative to (a) the mean effectiveness of all other floral visitor taxa, and (b) the effectiveness of the most effective non-A. mellifera taxon. P-values at the bottom-centre of each panel reflect two-sample t-test comparisons of A. mellifera relative effectiveness in non-crop (n = 18) versus crop (n = 16) plant species; P-values at the top-left reflect one-sample t-test comparisons of A. mellifera to the mean or most effective non-A. mellifera pollinator after combining data from non-crop and crop plant species. Boxes show central 50% of data and median; whiskers show quartiles  $\pm 1.5 \times$  interquartile range, or most extreme values of data, whichever is closest to median. Points indicate extreme values.

**Table 1.** The best-fit, zero-inflated, multiple beta regression models relating environmental variables to the proportion of visits contributed by the western honey bee (*Apis mellifera*) in plant-pollinator interaction networks worldwide (n = 79 networks where bioclimatic variables were available). Temperature PC1 increases with overall temperature and isothermality, and decreases with temperature seasonality and annual range. Models examining the influence of *A. mellifera* native status and last year of study on proportion of visits by *A. mellifera* were constructed by adding these two variables to the best-fit model of environmental variables.

Model (Δ AICc) / Variable	Estimate	t value	P value
Bes-fit environmental model ("BFEM") (Δ AICc = 0)	$Cox-Snell R^2 = 0.19$		
Temperature PC1	$\mu = 0.39$	4.24	< 0.001
Land category (mainland = $1$ , island = $0$ )	$\mu = 0.81$	2.27	0.026
BFEM + Apis native status ( $\triangle$ AICc = 1.39)	$Cox-Snell R^2 = 0.20$		
Temperature PC1	$\mu = 0.41$	4.31	< 0.001
Land category (mainland = $1$ , island = $0$ )	$\mu = 0.74$	2.04	0.045
Apis native status (native = 1, introduced = $0$ )	$\mu = 0.31$	0.99	0.33
BFEM + last study year ( $\triangle$ AICc = 2.25)	$Cox-Snell R^2 = 0.19$		
Temperature PC1	$\mu = 0.39$	4.75	< 0.001
Land category (mainland = $1$ , island = $0$ )	$\mu = 0.81$	2.26	0.026
Last study year (years CE)	$\mu=0.0056$	0.31	0.76
BFEM + Apis native status + last study year ( $\triangle$ AICc = 3.75)	$Cox-Snell R^2 = 0.20$		
Temperature PC1	$\mu = 0.41$	4.95	< 0.001
Land category (mainland = $1$ , island = $0$ )	$\mu=0.74$	2.03	0.046
Apis native status (native = $1$ , introduced = $0$ )	$\mu = 0.30$	0.96	0.34
Last study year (years CE)	$\mu=0.0041$	0.23	0.82