

# The apiary influence range: A new paradigm for managing the cohabitation of honey bees and wild bee communities

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- 1 The apiary influence range: a new paradigm for managing the cohabitation of honey bees
- 2 and wild bee communities
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#### 10 Abstract

11 There is an emerging controversy among bee biologists, land managers and beekeepers about the legitimacy of high-density beekeeping in natural protected areas due to the risks 12 13 of detrimental interactions with local wild bees. The conflicting needs of wild bee 14 conservation and productive beekeeping requires the adoption of inclusive conservation 15 measures. The distance-based beekeeping regulation is a relevant candidate approach in 16 that respect. It consists in increasing spacings among neighbouring apiaries so as to reduce the proportion of land cover under detrimental competition for floral resources. This 17 18 approach stems from the concept of Apiary Influence Range (AIR), i.e. the distance range 19 around apiaries within which measurements of native plant-pollinators interactions are 20 significantly altered. The seminal study on this topic reported AIRs spanning distances of 21 0.6–1.1 km around apiaries. The objective of this study is to provide conservation biologists 22 and practitioners with a roadmap to manage the coexistence between productive 23 beekeeping and wild bee conservation, along with a formalized terminology. We first

24 introduce the key theoretical ideas linked with the AIR. Then, we develop the associated 25 calculation rationale to help land managers achieve their wild bee protection goals. Finally, 26 we further provide original AIR values complementary to those available in recent literature. 27 We believe the distance-based beekeeping regulation is in practice more tractable than 28 setting maximal honey bee colony density rules. It may contribute to guide bee biologists 29 and conservation practitioners towards successful inclusive bee conservation, providing the 30 approach can be supported by a broader range of trials in various environmental contexts and using standardised terminology. 31

32

#### 33 **1. Introduction**

34 As modern farming practices make agro-ecosystems less suitable environments for 35 sustainable honey production, professional beekeepers periodically move large apiaries into 36 natural areas, either to exploit temporary mass-flowering resources or to escape chemical 37 hazards and seasonal food shortages (Odoux et al., 2014; Requier et al., 2017). But in recent vears, conservation biologists have raised awareness about the risk of ecological 38 39 interference between the massively introduced managed honey bee (Apis mellifera) and the 40 diverse native wild bee fauna in protected natural areas. Expected interference mechanisms 41 have been reviewed in recent studies and may include among others exploitation 42 competition for nectar and pollen, behavioural and foraging time budget alteration, skewed 43 sex ratio, fitness and offspring size reduction, alteration of pollination networks and spillover of shared pathogens and predators (Cane and Tepedino, 2017; Geslin et al., 2017; 44 45 Russo, 2016), though there is still some level of inconsistencies among studies assessing the 46 honey bee induced competition (Wojcik et al., 2018).

There is now in scientific literature an emerging controversy over excessivelyconservationist positions pleading for the complete ban of beekeeping out of protected areas

49 (Geldmann and González-Varo, 2018; González-Varo and Geldmann, 2018; Kleijn et al., 2018; 50 Saunders *et al.*, 2018). Bee biologists also recall the need to conserve the diversity of the 51 honey bee in its native range, i.e. Africa, Europe and western Asia, in all its dimensions: 52 genetic diversity, local adaptations, endangered subspecies as well as traditional beekeeping 53 knowledge and practices (Alaux et al., 2019; Requier et al., 2019). This conservation 54 beekeeping, aiming at preserving local honey bee genotypes, is another important 55 component to consider in the debate alongside the more conventional beekeeping. From a 56 social perspective, beekeepers are also now struggling to find suitable settlements because 57 they do not own the land they exploit and are vulnerable to land management policies made 58 by public and private owners (Durant, 2019).

59 These conflicting issues can only be conciliated with an inclusive conservation approach 60 (Kleijn et al., 2018), involving all the stakeholders for an overall enhanced effectiveness, 61 social acceptability and sustainable results. To date, the recommendations found in scientific 62 literature to inform inclusive conservation policies are scarce and plead for *density-based* beekeeping regulation, i.e. the introduction of maximal colony density thresholds that are 63 64 recognized to have no observable adverse effect on the local pollinator fauna. For instance 65 Steffan-Dewenter and Tscharntke (2000) suggested a precautionary principle based on the 66 European-wide average density of 3.1 colonies/km<sup>2</sup>. Later on, Torné-Noguera *et al.* (2016) 67 reported empirically a threshold of 3.5 colonies/km<sup>2</sup>. However, those recommended density 68 thresholds are somehow difficult to apply in real-life situations. They appear too restrictive 69 given the typical size of professional apiaries (100 to 200 colonies) and they do not state 70 how colony numbers should be allocated among apiaries, nor distributed in space.

In a recent study (Henry and Rodet, 2018), we provided alternate guidance towards
beekeeping regulation based on minimal distance thresholds between neighbouring apiaries.
The field work was carried out in a protected Mediterranean rosemary scrubland covering

74 5,700 ha. During the spring rosemary bloom, professional beekeepers migrate numerous 75 colonies into the area (up to 14 colonies/km<sup>2</sup>). This activity triggers a foraging competition 76 which depresses not only the occurrence and foraging success of local wild bees but also 77 nectar and pollen harvesting by the honey bees themselves. We however noticed that 78 competition was relaxed beyond a certain distance threshold away from apiaries, herein 79 called the Apiary Influence Range (AIR). Practically, this means that the studied competition 80 metrics were better accounted for by a two-step threshold effect model (closer-vs.-farther 81 binary distance variable) rather than a progressive effect model (continuous distance 82 variable). AIRs spanned distances of 0.6–1.1 km depending on the considered competition 83 ecological metric. The concept of AIR has direct practical implications towards inclusive 84 conservation. It may help land managers assessing land cover actually under the influence 85 of honey bees (AIR cover) vs. land cover compatible with wild bee conservation at low competition levels. 86

87 We believe the AIR framework may contribute to guide bee biologists and conservation practitioners towards inclusive bee conservation. It provides a concrete criterion to reduce 88 89 competition risks by setting a minimal distance threshold between neighbouring apiaries in 90 order to ensure areas with relaxed competition. This distance-based beekeeping regulation 91 (Henry and Rodet, 2018) appears more operational than any regulation based on colony 92 density recommendations in protected areas. It is however necessary to further support 93 these findings by carrying out more competition assessment studies in a range of protected 94 areas from diverse biogeographical contexts.

95 The objective of this study is to establish a formalised terminology to facilitate future meta96 analyses on that topic. We first demonstrate the basic theory and calculation in Material and
97 Methods. We then present additional AIR data recomputed from the original study (Henry

and Rodet, 2018). Finally, we highlight perspectives and new challenges for the applicability
of the AIR framework and distance-based beekeeping regulation in protected areas.

100

#### 101 **2. Material and Methods**

102 We develop below the theory and calculation associated with the distance-based beekeeping 103 regulation. All the terms we have coined hereafter are further defined in Table 1. The 104 reasoning behind the distance-based beekeeping regulation is that exploitation competition 105 between honey bees and wild bees, or among honey bees themselves, occurs within a 106 determined distance range around apiaries, herein called the AIR and expressed in km (0.6 107 to 1.1 km in Henry and Rodet, 2018). For an enhanced applicability and effectiveness, we 108 propose that any attempt to regulate beekeeping in a protected area may be based on 109 minimum distance thresholds between neighbouring apiaries, rather than on maximal 110 colony density thresholds. We however assume the AIR will be specific to the environmental 111 context of interest and to the considered *competition metric*.

- 113 Table 1. Terminology and definitions associated with the concept of distance-based
- 114 beekeeping regulation in natural protected lands.

Terminology	Definitions		
Exclusive wild bee	Characterizes wild bee conservation policies based on the total		
conservation	ban (exclusion) of managed honey bees away from a focus		
	protected land.		
Inclusive wild bee	Characterizes wild bee conservation policies aiming at		
conservation	reconciling the conflicting needs of wild bee conservation and		
	productive beekeeping within a focus protected land.		
	Inclusive conservation tolerates productive apiaries but		
	organizes spaces or periods of moderate competition through		
	beekeeping regulation measures. The density-based regulation		
	imposes maximal colony density thresholds, while the distance-		
	based regulation imposes minimal distance thresholds among		
	neighbouring apiaries.		
Competition	Ecological response variables liable to reveal a competition for		
metrics	the exploitation of floral resources, either between honey bees		
	and wild bees, or among honey bees themselves (respectively		
	inter- or intra-specific competition). These metrics may relate to		
	the individual foraging success, the reproductive success, the		
	body condition, the population dynamics, the species community		
	composition of the plant-pointator interaction network		
Aniary Influence	Distance range around an aniary within which a given		
Range (AIR)	compatition metric is significantly altered compared to its usual		
Range (AIR)	level observed beyond that distance. An aniary Influence Range		
	can be defined as a distance threshold beyond which expected		
	competition is relaxed (Fig. 1).		
Land-cover	The amount of protected land (in %) managers are willing to		
protection goal	dedicate to wild bee conservation vs. exploitation by productive		
F	beekeeping. A 100% protection goal in favour of wild bees is		
	equivalent to an <i>exclusive wild bee conservation</i> policy. Inclusive		
	conservation policies may target <i>conservative</i> (80%), <i>balanced</i>		
	(50%) or <i>moderate</i> (20%) protection goals, depending on the		
	local beekeeping history. The corresponding minimal distances		
	requested among neighbouring apiaries may be derived from		
	simple land cover formulas (Eqs. 1-4).		
Spatially explicit	Advanced version of the distance-based regulation of beekeeping		
distance-based	whereby some specific parts of a focus protected land are		
regulation	identified as priority conservation areas that need to be explicitly		
	located away from AIRs. These may be peculiar micro-refugia or		
	sensitive habitats hosting threatened or emblematic plant or		
	pollinator species. This option further constrains the spatial		
	allocation of apiaries (Fig. 2).		

#### 117 2.1. Competition metrics

118 *Competition metrics* are the ecological response variables liable to reveal a competition for 119 the exploitation of floral resources. At the proximal level, it may involve assessments of 120 nectar or pollen availability in flowers, nectar or pollen foraging success in wild bees (inter-121 specific competition), but also in the honey bee foragers themselves (intra-specific 122 competition). It may also comprise standardized assessments of wild bee fitness, body size 123 or abundance (flower visiting rate), though the latter metrics might reveal competition only 124 at the next generation if competition has eventually resulted in altered local wild bee fitness.

125

#### 126 2.2. The Apiary Influence Range (AIR)

127 The AIR is the distance range around apiaries within which competition metrics are 128 significantly altered (Fig. 1). It may be readily delineated by threshold statistical models with 129 a moving function of distance. Simple threshold statistical models, such as generalized 130 fluctuation tests or breakpoint regressions (Zeileis et al., 2002), can easily locate the most 131 parsimonious thresholds for structural changes in univariate data patterns. Previous studies 132 (Henry and Rodet, 2018) have used generalized linear models and the Akaikee Information 133 Criterion framework to assess the probability that competition metrics are better accounted 134 for by a two-step threshold effect model (closer-vs.-farther binary distance variable) rather 135 than a progressive effect model (continuous distance variable). Results were in support of a 136 two-step distance threshold for most candidate competition metrics, which is the basic 137 assumption for the distance-based regulation of apiary influence we propose here. AIRs 138 shown in Fig. 1 range from 0.6 to 1.1 km, which is effectively comprised within the honey

bee median foraging range of 1–2 km usually reported in literature (Couvillon *et al.*, 2014;
Steffan-Dewenter and Kuhn, 2003; Visscher and Seeley, 1982).

141 The distance-based regulation of beekeeping lays on the AIR concept. It consists in 142 increasing the distance among neighbouring apiaries so as to provide wild bees with more 143 space outside the AIRs, i.e. more space under relaxed competition and therefore compatible 144 with wild bee conservation (Fig. 2a vs. 2b). As an interesting property, this approach gives 145 less importance to apiary size, and therefore to honey bee colony density. We still tentatively 146 recommend an upper limit of about 30 to 50 colonies per apiary in order to fit the actual 147 average apiary size observed in Henry and Rodet (2018), namely 30.1 ± 21.8 (sd) colonies. 148 The distance-based regulation can then be simply viewed as spacing out those apiaries with 149 respect to a minimal distance that should be a function of an overall wild bee *land cover* 150 protection goal decided by managers.



152

Fig. 1. Illustration of the Apiary Influence Range (AIR) applied to three competition 153 154 metrics selected from Henry and Rodet (2018). Depending on the metric, AIRs expend 155 from 0.6 to 1.1 km around apiaries (circles around the triangle), with significant 156 differences between values from sampling sites located closer to (inside circles) vs. 157 farther away (outside circles) from the nearest apiary. The AIR may be viewed as the 158 most discriminatory distance threshold between closer and farther sites according to 159 statistical threshold models. Examples stand for competition metrics measured in a rather homogeneous rosemary mass-flowering Mediterranean scrubland. Honey bee 160 161 foraging success was assessed by nectar crop content measurements (µl). Wild bee 162 foraging occurrence was expressed as a number of foraging individuals per 100 units 163 of flowering rosemary volume. Wild bee nectar foraging success, initially assessed by

- **nectar crop content measurements (μl), was further standardised to the maximal**
- **expected field nectar crop content given each individual's body size.**



167

168 Fig. 2. Idealised representation of the distance-based beekeeping regulation in a 169 natural protected area. (a) with no wild bee protection goal, apiaries may bee tightly 170 clumped, with coalescent AIRs leaving few spaces with relaxed competition (here 171 about 10% land cover). (b) increasing distances among neighbouring apiaries will 172 provide more space under relaxed competition, compatible with wild bee 173 conservation. (c) the idealised basis pattern may be used to compute the proportions 174 of landscape covered by AIRs. (d) more advanced spatially explicit regulation 175 approaches may include specific priority conservation areas based on peculiar local 176 plant-pollinator interaction networks, and possibly including their own buffering 177 area.

#### 180 2.3. The wild bee land cover protection goal

181 The land-cover protection goal is the amount of protected land managers are willing to 182 dedicate to wild bee conservation vs. floral exploitation by beekeeping. In the absence of wild 183 bee protection goals, land managers may admit a tight network of apiaries, whose AIRs will 184 cover 100% of the land area. As AIRs become coalescent (apiary spacing equivalent to, or 185 shorter than, twice the AIRs, Fig. 2a), apiaries will theoretically impose a saturating influence 186 all over the protected area. At the opposite, an *exclusive* wild bee protection goal would 187 means the complete ban of beekeeping away from the protected area (0% AIRs land cover). 188 In the intermediate *inclusive conservation* strategy we propose here, managers may wish to 189 allocate a certain proportion of land cover to wild bee conservation vs. floral exploitation by 190 beekeeping. Depending on managers expertise and local beekeeping history, reasonable 191 wild bee protection goals may vary from a rather balanced 50% land protection goal to a 192 rather *conservative* 80% land protection goal in favour of wild bees. Managers of protected 193 lands with a longstanding beekeeping history at saturation level may rather target a 194 moderate 20% land protection goal as a first step towards honey bee regulation. It is 195 important to keep in mind that a 50% land protection goal does not mean that half the land 196 area is freed from forager honey bees. Rather, it states that half the area is under the 197 influence of apiaries, with potentially high levels of competition, while the second half allows 198 for the cohabitation of wild and managed bees at low competition levels. Conversely, we 199 believe that this protection goal framework should not be used as an argument to introduce 200 or intensify beekeeping in pristine areas, particularly those holding sensitive or endangered 201 plant or bee species, such as in small oceanic islands with high levels of endemism (e.g. Abe 202 et al., 2010; Kato et al., 1999).

203

To achieve their *wild bee land cover protection goal* strategy, managers may use a *land cover formula* linking the minimal distance among neighbouring apiaries (d, km) with the Apiary Influence Range (AIR, km). The formula may be derived from the basis pattern of the idealised apiary spatial allocation (Fig. 2c). In this basis pattern, the three equidistant neighbouring apiaries delineate a triangular landscape unit whose surface  $S_{unit}$  is given by:

210 
$$S_{unit} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} \times d^2$$
 (with  $d \ge 2AIR$ ) (Eq. 1).

211 Within the landscape unit  $S_{unit}$ , the three AIRs cover an influence surface  $S_{AIR}$  equivalent to:

212 
$$S_{AIR} = \frac{1}{2} \times \pi \times AIR^2$$
 (with  $AIR \le \frac{1}{2}d$ ) (Eq. 2).

In this configuration, the effective land cover protection goal, i.e. the proportion of lowcompetition surface compatible with wild bee conservation, is given by the proportion of the landscape unit surface *S*<sub>unit</sub> *not* covered by apiary influence surfaces *S*<sub>AIR</sub>, following:

216 Goal (%) = 
$$1 - \frac{S_{AIR}}{S_{unit}} = 1 - \left(\frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \times \frac{AIR^2}{d^2}\right)$$
 (with Goal defined in [0.1, 1]) (Eq. 3).

Reciprocally, the spacing among neighbouring apiaries required to achieve a particular wildbee land cover protection goal is given by:

219 
$$d_{Goal} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \times \frac{AIR^2}{(1-Goal)}\right)}$$
 (with Goal defined in [0.1, 1]) (Eq. 4).

Importantly, Eqs. (1-4) only apply for distances *d* equal to or greater than twice the *AIR*, which gives a wild bee protection goal >0.1 (or >10% land cover in favour of wild bee conservation). Otherwise, AIRs overlap among neighbouring apiaries, and calculations become a little bit more tricky just for targeting a whimsically low protection goal (<10% land cover).

#### 227 2.5. Simple vs. Spatially explicit distance-based regulation

We further distinguish between two mutually non-exclusive distance-based approaches, namely the simple distance-based regulation (Fig. 2b) and the more advanced *spatially explicit* one, which may be advisable in particular conservation contexts with specific protection goals (Fig. 2d).

In the simple *distance-based regulation*, protected land managers will have no specific protection goals other than optimising the proportions of land cover dedicated to beekeeping *vs.* wild bee conservation, regardless of landscape heterogeneity. In other words, they do not intend to target a specific location or habitat as being of priority conservation concern. Instead, they assume the wild bee conservation issue is homogeneous throughout the protected area.

Conversely, managers may want to target explicitly defined protection goals such as peculiar micro-refugia or sensitive habitats hosting threatened or emblematic plant or pollinator species. Once identified in the field, such priority conservation areas will constrain the spatial allocation of apiaries in a manner that prevents overlap with AIR surfaces (Fig. 2d). This spatial constraint will force managers to apply a spatially explicit allocation of apiaries.

243

#### 244 2.6. Computation of additional AIR values

Figure 1 presents AIRs for three main competition metrics. For a more in-depth assessment
of possible values, additional AIRs were recomputed from raw data (Henry and Rodet, 2018).
We were especially interest in (i) the distance range of increased *honey bee foraging occurrence* around apiaries (Cane and Tepedino, 2017) and (ii) the average *wild bee body mass.* The former competition metric could be easily recomputed following the procedure

250 analogous to wild bee foraging occurrence. The latter competition metric, however, 251 consisted in converting the wild bee body length (mm) into dry body mass (mg), which is 252 arguably more informative when one is further concerned by consequences on the overall 253 wild bee community biomass (Torné-Noguera et al. 2016). Indeed, the wild bee body length 254 was on average 12% greater in bee surveys away from the AIR, as compared to samples 255 within the AIR. This effect size might however be viewed differently from a body mass 256 perspective, given that body mass increases exponentially with body length (Kendall et al., 257 2019). To do so, we applied the allometric scaling law predicting dry body mass (mg) from 258 body length (mm) in Apidae (Kendall et al., 2019; Sabo et al., 2002), that we assumed to be a 259 model family liable to roughly depict scaling properties of wild bees as a whole:

260 Dry body mass =  $0.006 \times Body Length^{3.407}$ 

Doing so, the resulting AIR (distance threshold that best discriminates between wild bee samples closer to vs. farther away from apiaries) will remain virtually unchanged. The corresponding effect size of competition, however, is expected to increase due to the power law.

265

#### 266 **3. Results and discussion**

267 3.1. Applying the wild bee protection goal formula to the Rosemary honey flow case-study

In the context of the simple (implicit) distance-based regulation, Fig. 3 reports expected apiary influence land covers (%) as a function of distances among neighbouring apiaries for the Rosemary honey flow case-study (Henry and Rodet, 2018). It reveals that a balanced protection goal, i.e. about 50% land sharing between productive beekeeping vs. wild bee conservation at low competition levels, is achievable with about 2.5 km spacings among apiaries. It further shows that highly conservative regulation schemes with a 80% wild bee protection goal against 20% for beekeeping would require about 5-km apiary spacings,
which admittedly exceeds the size of many small natural reserves or protected areas in
Europe. Furthermore, the choice of one or another competition metric, leading to different
AIRs, is critical. It substantially influences the distance recommendations for achieving a
given protection goal. For instance, focusing on wild bee nectar foraging success (AIR = 0.6
km) or on honey bee foraging success (AIR = 1.1 km) returns 1.6-km and 3-km apiary
spacings respectively.

281





Fig. 3. Graphical Representation of the wild bee protection goal formula (Eq. 3)
applied to the Rosemary case-study (Henry and Rodet, 2018). Curves show how
distance among apiaries modulates the percent land cover under apiary competitive
influence vs. land cover compatible with wild bee conservation at low competition
level. Curves were computed with the AIRs of the three competition metrics shown
in Fig. 1, with the same colour legends (AIRs = 0.6, 0.9 and 1.1 km for lower, medium

and upper curves, respectively). Dashed lines reveal that a balanced 50% land
sharing between productive beekeeping vs. wild bee conservation is achievable with
a ca. 2.5 km spacing among apiaries, considering the wild bee foraging occurrence as
a competition metric (AIR = 0.9 km). Note the curves were corrected at low wild bee
protection goals (<10% land cover) due to overlapping AIRs among neighbouring</li>
apiaries (see methods, section 2.6).

295

296 3.2. Choice of the competition metric

297 It appears critical to identify an appropriate competition metric in this context. Table 2 298 presents AIRs derived from several competition metrics in Henry and Rodet (2018). The 299 honey bee foraging success shows the largest AIRs (nectar AIR = 1.1 km, pollen AIR > 1.2300 km), and therefore would return the most conservative recommendations with large 301 spacings among apiaries. On the one hand, those honey bee competition metrics may be 302 relevant for beekeepers themselves because they reveal an intra-specific competition liable 303 to affect honey yields. On the other hand, as discussed in Henry and Rodet (2018), the 304 honey bee foraging success as measured here conveys information on both competition 305 and a possible behavioural trade-off between distance and harvest. Indeed, foraging honey 306 bees may collect more nectar and pollen when foraging farther away from their colony in 307 order to balance the energetic and temporal costs of covering larger flight distances. This 308 may also lead to increased foraging loads at larger distances from apiaries, independently 309 from any intra-specific competition effect.

In an attempt to untangle the respective effects of competition and a possible behavioural
trade-off with distance from apiaries in honey bees, we further compared nectar and pollen
availabilities in rosemary flowers within *vs.* beyond the AIRs established for honey bee

313 foraging success. To do so, we used Linear Mixed Effect models (LME) as described in 314 Henry and Rodet (2018). In the original study, nectar and pollen availability data were both 315 significantly and negatively associated with honey bee foraging occurrence (also termed 316 foraging intensity), but not formally tested against distance to nearest apiaries. We first 317 found that nectar availability in rosemary flowers was indeed significantly lower within the 318 AIR corresponding to lower honey bee nectar foraging success, supporting the intra-319 specific competition hypothesis (LME, n = 100 nectar measurements out of 26 sites, t = 320 2.87, P = 0.009, Fig. 4). Interestingly, the effect size of apiary proximity on honey bee nectar 321 foraging success and on nectar availability in flowers were similar (-44% and -41%, 322 respectively), supporting a possible link mediated by intra-specific competition. On the 323 other hand, we found no evidence that pollen availability in rosemary flowers varied with 324 distance from nearest apiaries (LME, n = 63 pollen measurements out of 26 sites, t = -0.43, 325 P = 0.67). Although pollen availability significantly decreased with higher honey bee 326 foraging occurrence (Henry and Rodet, 2018) further studies should investigate the possible use of pollen availability and pollen foraging success as an effective competition 327 328 metric liable to reveal AIRs.



Fig. 4. Representation of the significant decrease in the rosemary nectar availability
within the AIR defined by a lower honey bee nectar foraging success (<1.1 km from</li>
the nearest apiary), compared to areas beyond the AIR (>1.1 km). Mean nectar
availability are 2.24 ± 1.81 (sd) and 3.81 ± 3.65 µl/100 flowers, respectively, leading
to a 41% average decrease with apiary proximity.

336

337 The honey bee foraging occurrence might also be a relevant candidate metric to consider. 338 When recomputed from raw data (Henry and Rodet, 2018), it returns an AIR of 0.8 km (Table 339 2), within which honey bee foragers are 58% more abundant than farther away (foraging 340 occurrence index =  $103.1 \pm 92.2$  (sd) vs.  $65.0 \pm 53.8$ , respectively). It seems that a 58% 341 decrease in honey bee foraging occurrence might be sufficient to partly relax local 342 competition, because wild bee occurrence presents a similar AIR (0.9 km, Table 2), with 343 occurrence values varying in the opposite direction (Fig. 1). Still, further studies are needed 344 to relate actual honey bee foraging occurrence with local wild bee foraging success. Some

345 managers may want to target the complete removal of honey bee foragers in wild bee 346 conservation areas. In a previous study, it was estimated that honey bee foraging occurrence 347 becomes marginal at ca. 7 km away from an apiary (Cane and Tepedino, 2017). Such a long-348 distance AIR would translate into nearly 19-km spacings among apiaries for a 50% 349 protection goal (Eq. 4). This is definitely too far reaching for an operational conciliation of 350 beekeeping and wild bee conservation, and even hardly doable in most protected areas.

351

352 Finally, we found that converting wild bee body length into dry body mass (Table 2) could 353 greatly affect our perception of the competition effect on bee size. The mean individual 354 wild bee body length found in the surveys undertaken at different distances from apiaries 355 revealed a 12% decrease within a 0.65 km AIR (Henry and Rodet, 2018). Body size was 356 interpreted as a potential competition metric because the larger bee species are also more 357 mobile than smaller ones and can easily disperse away from apiaries to forage and nest in 358 low-competition areas. At first glance, a 12% difference, though significant, might appear 359 as a marginal effect. However, when converting body length into dry mass with an 360 appropriate allometric power law (Table 2), the 12% competition effect size translates into 361 a 33% decrease in mean individual wild bee dry body mass close to apiaries (mean 362 individual dry body mass = 24.77 vs. 36.95 mg, respectively). If one further combines this 363 33% mean wild bee body mass decrease with the 55% mean wild bee abundance decrease, 364 that would theoretically return an overall 69.8% decrease in wild bee dry biomass around 365 apiaries. This tentative biomass loss estimate appears excessively drastic. It should be re-366 evaluated using thorough field biomass measurements, rather than extrapolated from 367 admittedly weak allometric models (herein based on n=10 data points only in Sabo et al., 368 2002). Still, it reflects what has been found in previous studies, with significantly lower

- 369 wild bee biomass values close to apiaries as a result of reduced abundances of large (>70
- 370 mg fresh body mass) wild bees (Torné-Noguera *et al.*, 2016).

Table 2 : Synthesis of the Apiary Influence Ranges (AIR) reported in Henry and Rodet (2018), with significantly altered competition metrics. The competition effect size refers to the relative difference between competition metrics closer to vs. farther away from apiaries. The temporal lag indicates whether the effect was detected during the season in progress or whether it was detected on the next-year generation (particularly for competition metrics linked with reproductive success, and therefore liable to become apparent at the next generation).

380

372

<b>Competition metrics</b>	AIR (km)	Effect size	Temporal lag
Wild bee competition metrics			
Mean wild bee nectar foraging success	0.600 km	-50%ª	Current season
Mean wild bee body length	0.650 km	-12%ª	Current and Next season
Mean wild bee dry body mass	0.650 km	-33% <sup>b</sup>	Current and Next season
Wild bee foraging occurrence	0.900 km	-55%ª	Next season
Honey bee competition metrics			
Honey bee foraging occurrence	0.800 km	+58% <sup>c</sup>	Current season
Mean honey bee nectar foraging success	1.100 km	-44%ª	Current season
Mean honey bee pollen foraging success	>1.200 km <sup>d</sup>	-36%ª	Current season

381 <sup>a</sup> Recovered from Supplementary Information in Henry and Rodet (2018)

382 <sup>b</sup> Estimated from raw data (Henry and Rodet, 2018) by converting body length (mm) into dry body

383 mass (mg) following the allometric scaling laws reviewed for pollinators (Kendall *et al.*, 2019), see

384 text.

<sup>c</sup> Recalculated from raw data in Henry and Rodet (2018), see text.

<sup>d</sup> No distance threshold detected. If existing, the AIR may extend beyond 1.2 km.

387

388 3.3. Some perspectives and future directions

As a first critical challenge, more studies should be undertaken on that topic to make betterinformed management decisions (Wojcik *et al.*, 2018), and in particular with the help of rapid assessment methods (Cane and Tepedino, 2017) to appraise competition risks specific to each locality of interest. It is necessary to test the AIR approach in a broad range of environmental contexts, with varying floral resource availabilities and spatial distributions, beekeeping managements, honey bee phenotypes, and peripheral agricultural practices. Some issues are listed below.

396 What happens with heterogenous resources? The present AIR concept applies for apiary 397 migrations targeting mass flowering resources rather homogeneous in space. In most 398 natural contexts, however, floral resources tracked by beekeepers might be highly 399 heterogeneous in space, which is liable to modify the effective AIRs. The foraging habitat 400 fragmentation should therefore be implemented as a covariate into competition 401 assessments. Resources may also be heterogeneous in time, with food scarcity periods, 402 leading to different use of space by honey bee foragers (Couvillon et al., 2014). In the absence 403 of mass-flowering resources, AIRs are likely to change drastically. They are even likely to 404 become less detectable or stable in space, therefore making the distance-based regulation 405 inoperative in practice. Conversely, the local floral diversity might become the main driver 406 of potential competition patterns. This remains to be investigated in greater detail.

407 How shall we take apiary size into account? The entire reasoning here is based on an average 408 empiric apiary size of 30.1 ± 21.8 (sd) colonies and lays on the assumption that AIRs are 409 independent from apiary size. In practice, some competition metrics are actually influenced 410 by colony density (Henry et Rodet, 2018), and may therefore respond to both the distance 411 and size of the nearest apiary. AIRs will most probably increase as apiaries will get much 412 larger. This should be explicitly tested with a broader range of realistic professional apiary

sizes (e.g. >150 colonies). Conversely, below a threshold that need be determined, small nonprofessional apiaries may have virtually no influence and could be ignored in the process.

415 *Can periodic beekeeping break years help wild bee populations recovering?* Given the inter-416 annual response delay in some of the observed competition metrics (Table 2), it has been 417 suggested that land managers could envision periodic break years to temporarily halt 418 competition disturbance regime and boost resilience in local wild bee populations (Henry 419 and Rodet, 2018). This is equivalent to a temporal regulation of beekeeping, and could 420 certainly be explored as a possible complementary wild bee protection measure. Long-term 421 studies would however be required to evaluate the actual effectiveness of such a practice.

422 *Do local honey bee phenotypes generate less competition?* Conventional beekeeping uses 423 selected phenotypes among others for their honey yield. Locally adapted subspecies or 424 phenotypes might be less productive and less prone to generating competition. That might 425 be studied as a part of an inclusive conservation strategy with the joint management of 426 conventional vs. conservation beekeeping (Requier *et al.*, 2019).

427 Can bee-friendly practices help relax competition for floral resources? Requier et al. (2019)
428 cleverly suggested to hold conservation beekeeping in (honey-) bee-friendly practice areas
429 around core protected areas to help organise apiary allocation between conservation and
430 conventional beekeeping. Likewise, promoting bee friendly practices in agrosystems around
431 or embedded in natural protected areas can contribute to segregate honey bee and wild bee
432 foragers (Rollin et al., 2013) and reduce potential competition.

What about non-bee flower-visiting insects? Most of the studies on the interactions between
honey bees and other flower-visiting insects have focused on wild bees. There are however
a many other insect groups involved in plant-pollinator interactions including wasps,
syrphids, flies, beetles or butterflies (Rader et al., 2016). A broader taxonomic view of the
question would be welcome here.

438 Is the distance-based regulation economically sustainable for beekeepers? It appears critical 439 that land managers involve beekeepers, as well as local farmers, whenever they intend to 440 establish beekeeping regulation rules in their area. Some protection measures may become 441 prohibitively constraining for professional beekeepers and generate counterproductive 442 results. Human and social sciences have a central role to play here.

443

#### 444 **4. Conclusion**

445 We developed in this study a distance-based beekeeping regulation paradigm to help land 446 managers reconcile the conflicting needs of wild bee conservation and honey bee 447 management in a context of intensifying agriculture. By combining empiric observations 448 (Henry and Rodet, 2018) and theoretic calculations, we found that there is place for inclusive 449 solutions liable to support both wild bee conservation and honey production (Kleijn *et al.*, 450 2018). As an handy conservation measure, the Apiary Influence Range principle is now 451 envisioned by the French Coastal Protection agency, with a balanced (50%) land protection 452 goal in the larger protected areas (>500 ha) and an exclusive conservation strategy in the 453 smaller areas with no beekeeping history to date (Cavallin et al., 2019).

We however think that much work remains to be done to support the Apiary Influence Range and distance-based regulation paradigm, including replicated competition and distance threshold assessments in a broader range of situations, and testing the distance recommendation effectiveness in real world conditions. We provided here a roadmap to do so, as well as warnings against possible pitfalls on the way.

459

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470

#### 471 Author contribution

- 472 All authors contributed to the conception of the study design, data collection and analysis,
- 473 manuscript writing and revisions. MH developed the statistical rationale and released the
- 474 first manuscript draft.
- 475

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