

1 **European wild honeybee populations are endangered**

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13 native bees

14

15 **Abstract**

16 The population trends of wild western honeybees (*Apis mellifera*) have been neglected by
17 conservationists because the species has been considered to consist of managed colonies only,
18 leading to its current European IUCN Red List category “Data Deficient”. New data suggests
19 that wild honeybee colonies (still) make up one sixth to one fifth of the overall European
20 honeybee population. The population trends of wild cohorts can be evaluated like those of any
21 other native wild species, albeit with some methodological adjustments to account for the bias
22 introduced by swarms emigrating from managed cohorts. We used data on wild colony
23 survival rates from six European countries to model their autonomous population changes
24 over ten-year periods, the time frame considered for population evaluation by the IUCN.
25 Populations of wild honeybee colonies currently represent demographic sinks in five out of
26 six countries. With an average estimated population decline of 60% per decade, the honeybee
27 should be considered “Endangered” in the wild in Europe. We believe that the formal
28 recognition of wild honeybee colonies’ existence and the explicit study of their population
29 trends beyond apiculture can have far-reaching consequences for the evolution of this unique
30 species and bee conservation in general.

31 **Introduction**

32 The western honeybee, *Apis mellifera*, is among the most abundant flower visitors across its
33 cosmopolitan geographic range (Garibaldi et al. 2013; Hung et al. 2018), so its persistence on
34 the species level seems to be of little concern in conservation science (Iwasaki and
35 Hogendoorn 2021). It is rarely appreciated, however, that the existence of honeybees in
36 regions with temperate climates is rather remarkable. The tribe of honeybees (Apini) only
37 comprises about twelve species, most of which are confined to small distribution areas in
38 (sub-)tropical Asia (Su et al. 2023; Kitnya et al. 2024). Only the western honeybee (in
39 Europe) and, to a lesser degree, the eastern honeybee *Apis cerana* (in Asia) have evolved the
40 peculiar ability to withstand long winters (Ruttner 1988). Forming perennial colonies, they are
41 unique components of their respective temperate climate bee communities. Besides its
42 colonisation of the temperate zone, *Apis mellifera* is further special because it is the only
43 extant honeybee native to Africa, Western Asia and Europe. This shows that *Apis mellifera*,
44 while common as a species, is uncommon from both a functional and phylogenetic
45 perspective. Preserving its intra-specific genetic diversity and its potential to evolve naturally
46 outside of apiculture can be seen as important goals in insect conservation (Fontana et al.
47 2018; Requier et al. 2019).

48 Interestingly, bee conservationists have not evaluated the conservation status of the western
49 honeybee because they consider it a managed species, and thus, a part of agriculture or the
50 livestock sector (Geldmann and González-Varo 2018). In fact, with the number of managed
51 honeybee colonies increasing worldwide (Phiri et al. 2022), it seems unnecessary to promote
52 the species beyond beekeeping and apicultural research. Furthermore, methods typically used
53 to assess wildlife population trends seem unsuited for a managed, yet not truly domesticated
54 species. This is reflected by the “European Red List of Bees” by the International Union for
55 the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) as of 2014, in which *Apis mellifera* was listed as “Data
56 deficient” because no data on wild honeybee populations were available (Nieto et al. 2014).

57 Throughout the last decade, however, several studies have provided evidence for the
58 occurrence of wild honeybee colonies in Europe (Oleksa et al. 2013; Kohl and Rutschmann
59 2018; Browne et al. 2021; Moro et al. 2021; Oberreiter et al. 2021; Lang et al. 2022;
60 Rutschmann et al. 2022; Albouy 2024; Niklasson et al. 2024; Rutschmann et al. 2024 Sep 17;
61 Visick and Ratnieks 2024). Their average colony density was estimated to be 0.26 colonies
62 per km², which would be equivalent to about 5.5 million colonies, 17.8% of the overall
63 European honeybee population (managed hives: ca. 25.4 million) (Visick and Ratnieks 2023).

64 These figures suggest that wild honeybees are still ecologically and evolutionary relevant.
65 Besides their foragers contributing to the species' overall flower pollination (especially in
66 areas with low densities of managed hives) (Chang and Hoppenhauer 1991; Kohl and
67 Rutschmann 2018) and the neglected biotic interactions associated with natural honeybee
68 nests in tree holes or other cavities (Kohl et al. 2023), wild colonies are certainly relevant to
69 the evolution of regional honeybee populations by acting as sources of local adaptations and
70 as reservoirs for genetic variants of endangered subspecies (Requier et al. 2019; Panziera et
71 al. 2022). Unfortunately, wild honeybee populations have received little attention so far from
72 a conservation perspective.

73 In the context of ongoing updates to the European Red List of Bees (Ghisbain et al. 2023), the
74 (re-)discovery of wild honeybees provides the opportunity to make the first informed
75 assessment of their conservation status. Determining which IUCN Red List category currently
76 applies to a species is an important formal step since it will help to objectively decide whether
77 strategies to promote the respective populations are needed. The rationale is that wild species
78 are assigned a category of threat ranging from "Least Concern" to "Extinct in the Wild" based
79 on, for example, observed or estimated changes in population size within the last ten years
80 (IUCN 2024).

81 When trying to determine the IUCN category for honeybees, practical problems arise due to
82 its dual nature as wild and managed. Worker honeybees visiting flowers are easy to monitor,
83 but bees from wild and managed colonies are indistinguishable. Finding the actual nesting
84 sites of wild honeybee colonies is much more time consuming but can be achieved using the
85 beelining technique (following forager bees to their homes) (Kohl and Rutschmann 2018), by
86 specifically examining candidate nesting habitats (Oleksa et al. 2013; Kohl et al. 2022;
87 Rutschmann et al. 2022; Visick and Ratnieks 2024), or by crowdsourcing data with the help of
88 citizen scientists (Browne et al. 2021; Moro et al. 2021; Rutschmann et al. 2024 Sep 17).
89 However, directly assessing temporal changes in the number of occupied nest sites in an area
90 still does not suffice to estimate the wild honeybee population trend. Managed colonies can
91 revert to the wild by leaving their apiaries as swarms and establishing natural nests in cavities
92 of their choice during the reproductive season. This factor, which is comparable to the human-
93 mediated supplementation of a wild population by captive stock in other species, can mask the
94 autonomous population trend of the wild subpopulation. For example, approximately 10% of
95 trees with black woodpecker (*Dryocopus martius*) cavities are occupied by honeybees in
96 German forests each summer, suggesting the existence of a stable population of wild colonies.

97 However, studying the fate of many individual colonies revealed that only a few survive to the
98 next spring; their relatively high abundance in summer could only be explained by the
99 massive annual immigration of swarms from apiaries (Kohl et al. 2022).

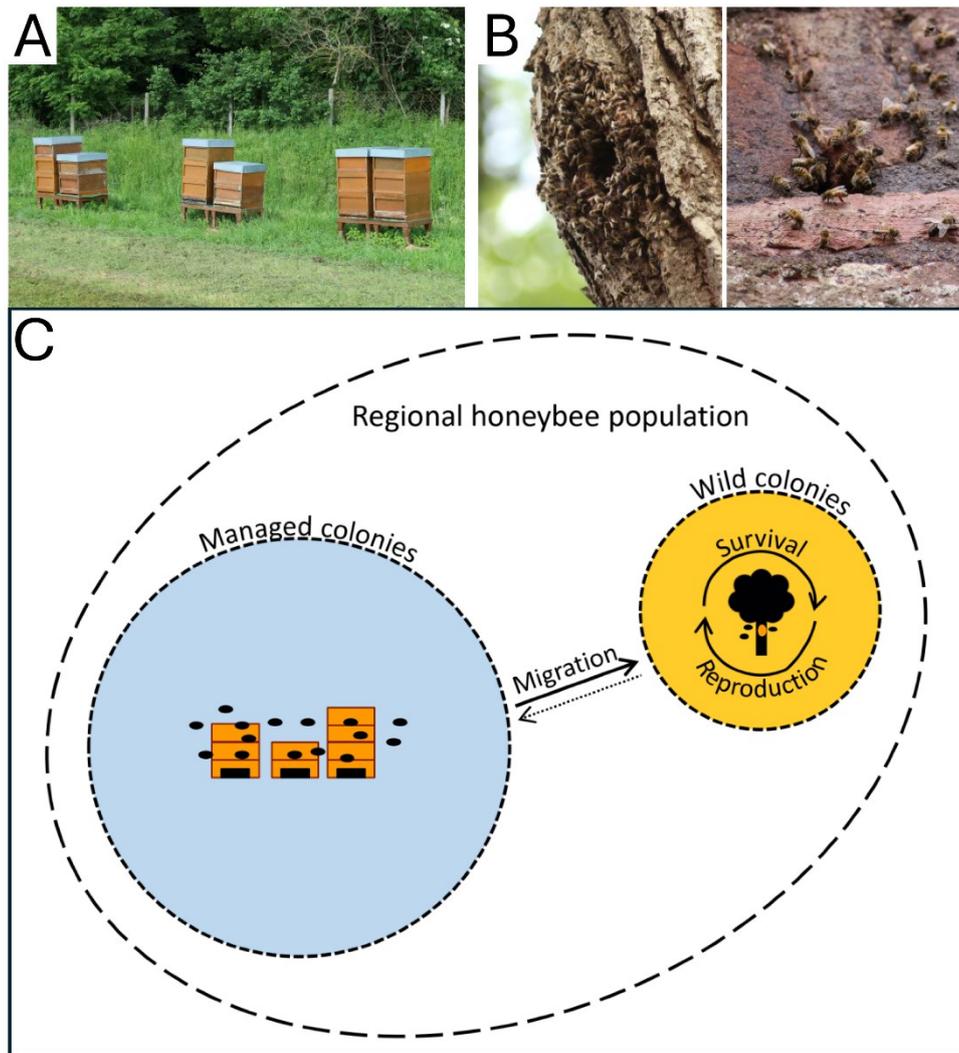
100 The relevant question for determining the conservation status of wild honeybees is, therefore,
101 “How would the population of wild colonies change over time if there was no immigration of
102 swarms from managed colonies?”. Understanding this requires the conceptual distinction
103 between wild and managed cohorts and thinking of them as a metapopulation (Kohl 2023;
104 Rutschmann et al. 2024 Sep 17). The autonomous change of the wild subpopulation is then
105 expressed by a statistic called the net reproductive rate (R_0), which in turn can be derived
106 from the average survival and reproductive rates of its members. Here, we use available data
107 on wild colony survival rates from six European countries to model how their populations
108 would change autonomously over ten-year periods. Based on these projected population
109 trends, we suggest the first informed IUCN Red List category for the species in Europe.

110

111 **Methods**

112 *Defining wild honeybee colonies*

113 There is generally no physical or genetic barrier between managed (Fig. 1a) and wild
114 honeybee colonies (Fig. 1b), and, contrary to common misconception, no stable “breeds” of
115 domesticated honeybees exist (Seeley 2019). We therefore simply define wild *Apis mellifera*
116 colonies based on their mode of living as colonies that live ownerless and unmanaged in
117 cavities they have occupied themselves. In other publications, the same type of colonies has
118 been described as “free-living” or “wild-living” to account for the possibility that a given
119 population of colonies might not be self-sustaining (and thus not “truly wild”), just as the
120 attribute “feral” has been used to highlight that wild colonies might be recent emigrants from
121 apiaries (behavioural definition of “feral”) or that the population under consideration was
122 introduced by humans at some point in history.



123

124 **Figure 1.** *A) Apiary with honeybee colonies managed in movable-frame hives. B) Examples*
 125 *of typical wild honeybee nesting sites: tree cavity (left) and hollow space in a wall (right). C)*
 126 *Metapopulation model of managed and wild honeybee colonies. Managed and wild colonies*
 127 *belong to one biological population; there is a genetic exchange through the random mating*
 128 *of queens and drones, and colonies can migrate between managed and wild cohorts*
 129 *("subpopulations"). Selection pressure under apicultural management (natural and artificial*
 130 *selection) and under wild conditions (natural selection) are expected to differ. Figure*
 131 *modified after (Kohl 2023).*

132 *Estimating population trends of wild honeybees*

133 To study the demography of wild honeybees, it is practical to consider regional honeybee
 134 populations as metapopulations consisting of cohorts ("subpopulations") of managed and wild
 135 colonies (Fig. 1 c). Four variables affect the size of the wild cohort: immigration, emigration,
 136 survival, and natality. "Immigration" occurs when managed colonies swarm and become

137 ownerless. By dispersing from the apiary and occupying a cavity on their own, they become
138 members of the wild subpopulation. “Emigration” occurs when beekeepers capture swarms of
139 wild colonies, be it directly or by luring swarms into bait hives. (We can assume that in most
140 regions, emigration from the wild cohort is of minor importance, since beekeepers usually
141 obtain new colonies by splitting their own stock or by trade with other beekeepers.)

142 To understand how the size of the wild subpopulation would change intrinsically, we needed
143 to consider the survival (s) and the natality (n) (i.e., reproduction) of the colonies that are
144 already members of that cohort. The annual survival rate of wild colonies can be empirically
145 studied by making repeated surveys of known nest sites (Seeley 2017). We were able to make
146 point estimates of annual survival rates because data on wild colony survival are now
147 available for several regions in Europe (see below). The natality rate of wild honeybee
148 colonies, the number of swarms produced per colony per year, is difficult to determine in the
149 field. We assumed that wild colonies produce, on average, $n = 2$ swarms per year based on
150 studies that examined the reproductive behaviour of unmanaged honeybee colonies living in
151 hives with limited volumes (Gilley & Tarpy, 2005: 1.667 swarms/year; Lee & Winston, 1987:
152 2.2 swarms/year; Rutschmann, Kohl, et al., 2024: 1.7 swarms/year; Winston, 1980: 3
153 swarms/year), .

154 Given the annual survival and natality rates, we calculated the net reproductive rate (R_0) of
155 the wild subpopulations. Since the generation time in temperate honeybee colonies is typically
156 one year and colonies are hermaphrodites, this is:

$$157 \quad R_0 = s + s * n.$$

158 This index describes how the population of wild colonies would change from year to year if
159 no immigration occurred, with values < 1 denoting population decline and values > 1
160 denoting population stability or increase.

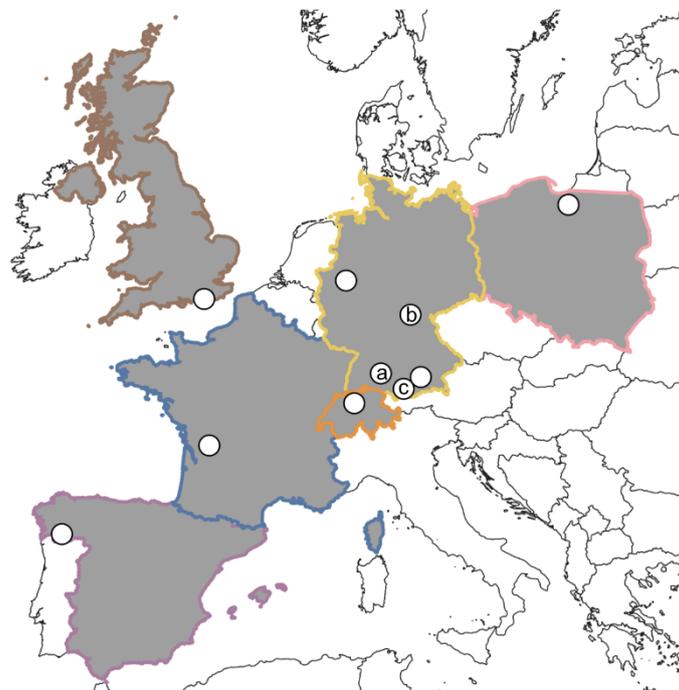
161 *Sources of wild colony survival data*

162 We consulted eight studies representing six European countries that provide information on
163 wild colony survival rates (Fig. 2, Table 1). Oleksa et al. (2013) discovered wild colonies in
164 trees along rural alleys in Poland, and these colonies were re-inspected over the next two
165 years (Oleksa et al., unpublished). Continuous occupation by the same colonies, as opposed to
166 re-occupation by new swarms, was tested using both mitochondrial and microsatellite
167 markers. From an initial count of 67 colonies, 16 cavities remained occupied by the same
168 colonies after the first year and 6 after the second year. We calculated an average annual

169 survival rate for this population based on the average of the proportion of colonies remaining
170 after the first and the second year.

171 Detailed demographic data were available for honeybee colonies nesting in cavities by the
172 black woodpecker in southern Germany (Kohl et al. 2022). In that study, nest sites were
173 controlled three times per year to determine summer (July–September), winter (September–
174 April), and spring (April–September) survival rates. The annual colony survival rate was
175 obtained by multiplication. The study also accounted for the possibility that the death of a
176 colony in spring is followed by the quick re-occupation of the cavity by a new swarm, without
177 being noticed during the monitoring, using microsatellite genetic data. The rate of such “silent
178 spring turnovers” was reported to be 11.1% (one out of nine tested cases).

179 For the remaining studies, in case annual survival was not provided directly, we multiplied
180 seasonal survival rates to obtain the “apparent annual colony survival rates”. When the
181 original study had not explicitly estimated the rate of unobserved colony turnovers during the
182 swarming season, we further multiplied the “apparent annual colony survival rates” by the
183 factor 0.889 (in line with the result from the German study, see above), to obtain corrected
184 point estimates of annual colony survival rates.



185
186 **Figure 2.** Map of Europe highlighting six countries with data on wild honeybee colony
187 survival rates (grey) and the respective study regions (dots). One study used data from three
188 different forest regions (“German forest”; locations marked as “a”, “b”, “c”).

189 **Table 1.** Overview of eight studies on wild honeybee population demography that provide
 190 wild colony survival data. The annual colony survival rates (*s*) are the values used in this
 191 study (corrected for potential silent colony turnovers, if necessary; see Methods text).

Country	Region	Information provided	Number of nest sites monitored	Study period	<i>s</i>	Reference
Germany	Three managed forest regions in southern Germany	Annual survival rate	77	2017–2021	0.106	(Kohl et al. 2022)
Germany	City of Dortmund	Annual survival rate	30		0.121*	(Lang et al. 2022)
Germany	City of Munich	Summer, winter and spring survival rates	107	2016–2023	0.132*	(Rutschmann et al. 2024 Sep 17)
Poland	Northeastern Poland	Proportion of colonies remaining after one and two years	67	2013–2015	0.307	(Oleksa et al. 2013), A. Oleksa, pers. communication
Spain	Comarca de la Limia, Galicia	Annual survival rate	83	2019–2023	0.299	(Rutschmann et al. 2022) Rutschmann & Kohl, unpublished data
France	County of Saintonge	Summer, winter and spring survival rates	140	2018–2021	0.312	(Albouy 2024)
Switzerland	Regions north of the Alps	Annual survival rate	172	2020–2023	0.096	(Cordillot 2024)
England	Southeast England	Summer and winter survival rates	38	2021–2023	0.384*	(Visick & Ratnieks, 2024; O. Visick, pers. communication 2023)

192 * corrected for a potential silent colony turnover rate of 11.1%

193 *Identifying the IUCN category of threat*

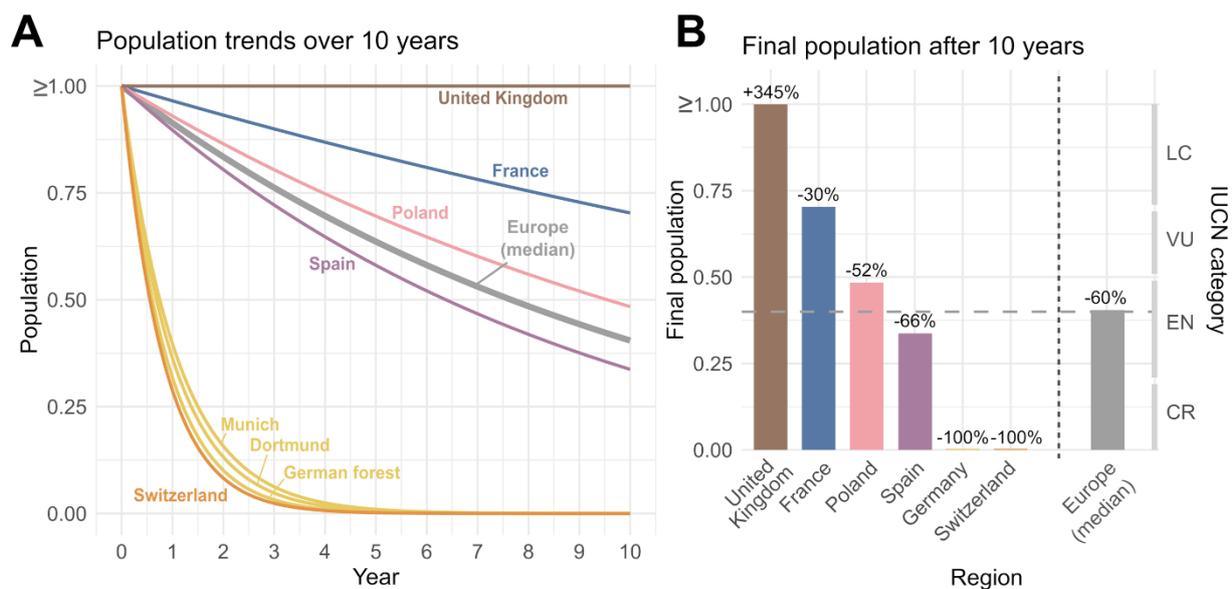
194 The IUCN guideline (2024) lists five non-exclusive criteria that can be used to evaluate into
 195 which category of threat a given taxon belongs: (A) observed, estimated, inferred, or
 196 projected population size reduction over 10 years or three generations (whichever is longer);
 197 (B) small or declining geographic range; (C) a small remaining population *per se*; (D) a very
 198 small or spatially restricted remaining population, or (E) a statistical population viability
 199 analysis. We here evaluate wild *Apis mellifera* populations based on criterium (A), the change
 200 in population size over a 10-year period. (Honeybee colonies start reproducing within their
 201 first year of life, typically in their first spring after successful hibernation, and therefore, the
 202 duration of three generations is shorter than 10 years). Specifically, we used the criterium

203 A2ab, a “population reduction estimated [...] in the past where the causes of reduction may
204 not have ceased or may not be understood or may not be reversible” based on “(a) direct
205 observation” and “(b) an index of abundance appropriate to the taxon”. Our index is the net
206 reproductive rate (R_0) of the wild subpopulation, which in turn is based on wild colony
207 survival rates observed between 2013 and 2024. To obtain the relative wild honeybee
208 population trend over a hypothetical decade without migration, we calculated R_0^x , with x
209 denoting the year from 0 to 10. Accordingly, we estimated the rate of population change per
210 10 years as percentage by calculating $(R_0^{10} - 1) * 100$. Depending on the modelled rate of
211 change, we then classified a population as “Least concern” (reduction: $< 30\%$), “Vulnerable”
212 (reduction: $\geq 30\%$), “Endangered” (reduction: $\geq 50\%$), “Critically Endangered” (reduction: \geq
213 80%), or “Extinct in the Wild” (reduction: 100%). These calculations were performed for the
214 populations of each of the eight studies, for the six countries represented, and for the overall
215 European wild subpopulation, as represented by the median net reproductive rate of the six
216 countries.

217

218 **Results**

219 In five out of six European countries, populations of wild honeybees are in decline (Figure 3).
220 In Germany (where data from three independent studies are in close agreement) and in
221 Switzerland, wild honeybee populations must be assumed to (have) entirely disappear(ed)
222 within any given period of 10 years without immigration (projected decline: $\sim -100\%$ /decade).
223 In Spain and Poland, wild honeybee populations are predicted to be declining by 66% and
224 51% per decade, meaning that they are “Endangered” according to IUCN red list criteria. The
225 wild population monitored in France appears to be in moderate decline (-30% per decade); it
226 is at the brink between IUCN Red List criteria “Least Concern” and “Vulnerable”. Only the
227 wild honeybee population in South England appears to have the intrinsic capacity to increase
228 in size (projected increase per decade: $+345\%$), and therefore is categorised as “Least
229 Concern”. The median population change per decade is -60% , meaning the overall wild
230 honeybee population in Europe can be classified as “Endangered”.



231

232 **Figure 3. A)** Projected wild honeybee population trends over hypothetical 10-year-periods.

233 Relative changes in population size are based on net reproductive rates, which in turn rely on
 234 observed colony survival rates and an assumed natality rate of 2 swarms per colony per year.

235 **B)** Wild honeybee population remaining (bars) and their relative change (numbers above
 236 bars) after hypothetical 10-year-periods of intrinsic development (without migration) for six

237 European countries and their average. The second y-axis shows the associated IUCN

238 conservation categories: LC= Least Concern, VU= Vulnerable, EN= Endangered,

239 CR=Critically Endangered.

240

241 Discussion

242 *The first Red List category assessment of wild *Apis mellifera**

243 It is an established belief that wild populations of *Apis mellifera* have gone extinct in Europe
 244 due to habitat loss (Stoekhert 1933) and/or the introduction of the invasive ectoparasitic mite

245 *Varroa destructor* (starting around 50 years ago) (Thompson et al. 2014; Meixner et al. 2015),
 246 the latter being a main driver of colony mortality in apiculture (Traynor et al. 2020). However,

247 motivated by the well-established insight that temperate-adapted honeybees still form viable
 248 wild populations in the northeastern United States (reviewed by Seeley, 2019), researchers

249 recently started searching for, and (re-)discovered, wild honeybee colonies in Europe, too.

250 Using data on wild colony survival rates gathered in six countries during the last decade, we

251 modelled how the sizes of these wild honeybee subpopulations would have intrinsically

252 changed over the last 10 years. Our estimate of an average population size reduction of -60%

253 suggests that the overall wild honeybee subpopulation represents a demographic sink, and
254 therefore, according to IUCN guidelines, wild *Apis mellifera* should be considered
255 “Endangered” in Europe.

256 *Wild honeybee populations still exist but are endangered*

257 Given that many more honeybee colonies live in managed hives than in the wild in Europe
258 (Visick and Ratnieks 2023) and that “wild” colonies can be recent emigrants from apiculture
259 (“feral” colonies) (Kohl et al. 2022), the first obvious question raised by our perspective is
260 whether it is justified to consider European honeybees as “wild” in the first place. There is a
261 qualitative reply (“yes”) and a quantitative answer (“it depends”) to that question. The
262 honeybee is a native bee in most of Europe; it was a member of the European fauna long
263 before humans. Since the beginning of beekeeping culture about two thousand years ago,
264 there have always been both wild and managed honeybee colonies (Crane 1999). This is
265 testified, for example, by the distinction between “house bees” (managed in hives) and “forest
266 bees” (living in tree cavities) that was common in Germany until the beginning of the 19th
267 century (Schirach 1774). The mating of honeybee queens and drones takes place in free flight
268 and is not usually controlled by beekeepers (Koeniger et al. 2014). Swarms from wild
269 colonies have traditionally been a source of beekeeping operations and swarm emigration
270 from apiaries is not completely prevented. Therefore, we can assume that there has always
271 been a genetic and demographic exchange between wild and managed subpopulations, so one
272 might as well claim that honeybees managed in hives are essentially wild animals (Moritz and
273 Crewe 2018; Seeley 2019). These considerations show that quantitative rules must be applied
274 to formally decide when to use the attribute “wild” for honeybees.

275 In awareness of the problems that arise when dealing with species that contain managed
276 populations, the IUCN (2024) has determined the following threshold to decide for or against
277 considering a population as “wild”: “*Subpopulations dependent on direct intervention are not*
278 *considered wild, if they would go extinct within 10 years without “intensive” management*
279 *such as [...] regularly supplementing the population from captive stock to prevent imminent*
280 *extinction”*. The emigration of honeybee swarms from apiaries, even though a natural process,
281 can be regarded as a regular supplementation of the wild population from captive stock.
282 Therefore, it must be modelled how the cohort of free-living colonies would change in size
283 over a hypothetical period of 10 years without such supplementation by feral swarms. That is
284 what we did here. In fact, the first important result of this study is that the overall European

285 free-living honeybee subpopulation, despite likely population size reduction, would clearly
286 not go extinct within a decade, and therefore, formerly qualifies to be considered “wild”.

287 What holds for the whole of Europe, however, is not true for each of the individual
288 populations studied. In fact, our second key insight is that there are remarkable differences in
289 wild population demographics among regions. On the low end of the spectrum, there are the
290 populations studied in Germany and in Switzerland north of the Alps (Kohl et al. 2022; Lang
291 et al. 2022; Cordillot 2024; Rutschmann et al. 2024 Sep 17). Strikingly, these are clearly
292 expected to go extinct within a hypothetical 10-year time window, given their current low net
293 reproductive rates. Conditional upon the discovery of populations with higher average colony
294 survival rates, the honeybee can be considered “Extinct in the Wild” in these countries. On the
295 other end of the spectrum, there is the population studied in southeast England (Visick and
296 Ratnieks 2024), which seems to be stable on its own. Here, the projected excess population
297 reproduction of +345% per decade means that it can act as a demographic source for other
298 populations (including the managed subpopulation), and that it has strong evolutionary
299 potential. Between these extremes are the populations studied in France (Albouy 2024),
300 Poland (Oleksa et al. 2013), and Spain (Rutschmann et al. 2022), which apparently fare much
301 better than the ones in Germany and Switzerland, but also represent demographic sinks.

302 When referring to the individual populations by their countries of origin, it needs to be
303 highlighted that each is represented by one or a few studies that cover a part of the respective
304 population. Depending on the spatiotemporal scope and the number of nest sites monitored
305 they will be better or worse in representing the average demographics in the respective wider
306 regions, the delineation of which is arbitrary. Wild populations themselves will be structured
307 spatially and represent metapopulations on smaller spatial scales. Wild colonies can occupy
308 more or less favourable habitats, so that there will be source-sink dynamics among such
309 patches (Dias 1996). For example, the rate of decline of the wild honeybee subpopulation in
310 Galicia, Spain, might be overestimated because the respective study was conducted in a
311 landscape dominated by intensive agriculture, not representative of the province, and colony
312 winter survival is significantly lower in agricultural than in adjacent semi-natural habitat
313 (Rutschmann et al. 2022). In fact, most of the available studies were conducted in highly
314 anthropogenically altered agricultural or urban landscapes. Despite the uncertainty in the
315 reliability of the country-level estimates, we believe that the combination of data from eight
316 studies and six countries leads to an informative estimate of the overall wild honeybee
317 population trend. Based on the best data available, we must assume that the overall population

318 of wild honeybees is in decline in Europe. More research and conservation actions are needed
319 to understand, and halt that decline.

320 *Evolutionary significance of wild honeybee subpopulations*

321 The intrinsic decline of wild subpopulations might not be considered a problem insofar as
322 they could be (partly) replenished annually by feral swarms from the managed subpopulation.
323 This view makes sense when considering that wild and managed honeybees are intrinsically
324 the same. However, it lacks appreciation for the potential of populations to evolve. Any pair
325 of wild and managed *colonies* might be difficult to distinguish genetically because
326 subpopulations of wild and managed honeybees will always share alleles. However, this does
327 not contradict the potential that significant genetic differences exist on the level of the
328 *population* due to the accumulation of minor allele frequency changes at many loci. These can
329 reflect adaptive differences to contrasting selection pressures. For example, a lack of medical
330 treatment against *Varroa* mites can select for colonies resisting *Varroa* mites and/or their
331 transmitted viruses in the wild population (Mikheyev et al. 2015; Bozek et al. 2018 Dec 19).
332 Another source of genetic variation is the rate of exchange with other populations. Frequent
333 trade of managed colonies (or queen bees) across countries can lead to a higher proportion of
334 non-native alleles in the managed subpopulation, whereas native genotypes are more likely to
335 be retained in the wild subpopulation (e.g., Malagnini et al., 2023).

336 *Wild honeybee conservation on the species level*

337 Our analysis takes place on the species level and thus does not take into consideration that
338 different subspecies of honeybee exist in Europe. Consequently, a potential argument against
339 our perspective is that many extant honeybee populations are not native and thus do not
340 represent conservation cases in the first place (Carreck 2008). While it is true that beekeepers
341 have altered honeybee populations through the importation of non-native subspecies and
342 subsequent introgressive hybridisation in many regions (De la Rúa et al. 2009; Requier et al.
343 2019; Espregueira Themudo et al. 2020; Kükroer et al. 2021), wild honeybee conservation
344 should include populations with admixed genetic backgrounds for several reasons.

345 First, it needs to be highlighted that native honeybee genotypes are unlikely to have been
346 replaced completely in any region, so the issue is generally about the conservation of hybrids
347 rather than merely about non-native subspecies (Moritz 1991). Whether hybrid populations
348 should be protected is a common dilemma in conservation (Allendorf et al. 2001), however,
349 most cases are about between-species rather than within-species hybrids (Pieltt et al. 2015).

350 Deciding to neglect subspecies-hybrids in the honeybee would mean applying a different
351 standard compared to other taxa that are assessed on the species level. For example, there is
352 no debate about whether wild populations of the buff-tailed bumblebee (*Bombus terrestris*)
353 should be protected despite evidence of widespread introgression of non-native subspecies via
354 colonies used for greenhouse pollination (Kraus et al. 2011; Seabra et al. 2019).

355 Besides “only” being subspecies-hybrids, admixed populations of wild honeybees also meet
356 other criteria in favour of their conservation (Wayne and Shaffer 2016). For example, we can
357 expect that many European honeybee subspecies and their hybrids represent ecological
358 equivalents because a main driver of the original differentiation of subspecies was geographic
359 barriers rather than environmental gradients (Ruttner 1988; but see Coroian et al. 2014). In
360 general, we can expect that extant honeybees hybrid populations interact with ecosystems the
361 same way as the original native subspecies did. In case native alleles have a selective
362 advantage over non-native ones, promoting wild hybrid subpopulations can even lead to a
363 progressive increase in the frequency of such alleles in the population (Wayne and Shaffer
364 2016; Malagnini et al. 2023). In that case, conserving wild honeybees could be understood as
365 a long-term means of conserving native honeybee subspecies.

366 Finally, in a (hypothetical) context in which local wild populations have gone extinct and are
367 to be re-established (see the German and Swiss cases above), a local, admixed feral founder
368 population may have advantages over a non-local source population comprising pure stock.
369 Regardless of the subspecies or the hybridization level, extant populations may already have
370 evolved local adaptations (Büchler et al. 2014), and through higher genetic diversity,
371 admixed populations have a higher likelihood of containing alleles that are adaptive in the
372 context of climate change, land use change, and novel parasites (Chan et al. 2019). Apart from
373 these considerations, it needs to be stressed that conserving wild honeybees on the species
374 level does not preclude assessing the conservation status of wild honeybee subspecies, where
375 this is applicable (Oleksa et al. 2013; Browne et al. 2021; Malagnini et al. 2023; IUCN 2024;
376 McCann and McCormack 2024).

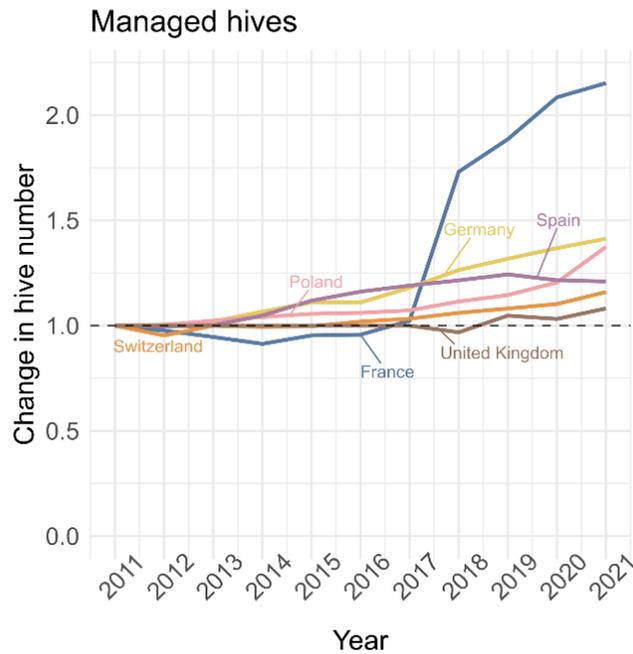
377 *A novel perspective on honeybee conservation*

378 The western honeybee has so far been regarded as a problem, rather than a target, of European
379 wild bee conservation (Geldmann and González-Varo 2018; Herrera 2020). In fact, several
380 modern beekeeping practices have been identified to be potentially harmful to wild bee
381 populations (Goulson and Hughes 2015; Lindström et al. 2016; Iwasaki and Hogendoorn
382 2022; Martínez-López et al. 2022). However, the bees that are potentially most strongly

383 affected by long-distance apiary migrations, high local densities of managed hives and trade
384 in queen honeybees across countries, are the local wild honeybees (Requier et al. 2019;
385 Panziera et al. 2022). The diversity of bees and population sizes of many non-*Apis* bees are
386 known to be in decline (Aizen et al. 2016; Zattara and Aizen 2021), and we demonstrate that
387 wild honeybee subpopulations can be considered to be in decline in Europe, too. Wild
388 honeybee populations likely suffer from the same environmental pressures as other wild
389 bees(Goulson et al. 2015; Rutschmann et al. 2022; Kohl et al. 2023). This contrasts with
390 changes in populations of managed honeybee colonies, which rather reflect socio-cultural and
391 socio-economic developments (Potts et al. 2010; vanEngelsdorp and Meixner 2010; Moritz
392 and Erler 2016).

393 Given that the number of managed colonies is currently growing (Fig. 4), there is probably an
394 ongoing shift in the relative importance of selection pressure in the overall honeybee
395 population, with conditions under management gaining importance over wild conditions. We
396 do not know which evolutionary role the existence of a wild subpopulation plays in the long-
397 term health and adaptability of the overall honeybee population, but it is likely to be negative
398 (Requier et al. 2019; Panziera et al. 2022). Therefore, the decline of wild honeybees should
399 not only be of concern in conservation but also in apiculture. Furthermore, the perspective
400 that honeybees could be a subject of conservation themselves also has an impact on the
401 conflict between apiculture and non-*Apis* bee conservation (Geldmann and González-Varo
402 2018; Henry and Rodet 2018): highlighting the existence of a wild honeybee subpopulation in
403 a conservation area is an excellent argument to restricting apiculture in that area.

404 We suggest that wild honeybee monitoring programs should be continued and adopted in
405 many more regions to allow for better inference of population trends (Seeley 2017; Kohl et al.
406 2022; Albouy 2024; Moro et al. 2024; Rutschmann et al. 2024 Sep 17). Furthermore, we need
407 to know which factors limit wild honeybee colony survival (e.g. Kohl et al., 2023), and why
408 wild subpopulations fare so much better in some regions compared to others. According to the
409 principle that we can only conserve what we understand, we believe that recognising wild
410 honeybee subpopulations as real and tangible subjects of population demographic studies is a
411 key step in the conservation of this unique component of the European bee fauna.



412

413 **Figure 4:** Relative increase in the number of registered managed honeybee colonies between
 414 2011 and 2021 (or 2017–2021 for UK) in the six countries considered in this study. The
 415 number of hives registered in 2011 (or 2017 for UK) is set to “1”. Data from the Food and
 416 Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO 2023) and the National Bee Unit of the
 417 UK (<https://www.nationalbeeunit.com/bees-and-the-law/hive-count>; date accessed: 27
 418 September 2024).

419

420 **Data Availability Statement**

421 The data used for this work are either directly listed or referenced in the text.

422

423 **Author contributions**

424 Patrick L. Kohl was involved in conceptualization, methodology, investigation, formal
 425 analysis, writing– original draft. Benjamin Rutschmann was involved in conceptualization,
 426 methodology, investigation, formal analysis, visualization, writing– review & editing.

427

428 **Conflict of interest declaration**

429 We declare we have no competing interests.

430

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437

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