

1 **The wild honeybee population of Europe is in decline: evidence from**
2 **monitoring studies**

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 Populations of wild western honeybees (*Apis mellifera*) have been neglected because the
21 species has been considered to consist of managed colonies only. New data suggest that wild
22 colonies (still) make up at least one sixth of the overall European honeybee population. Their
23 population trends can be evaluated like those of other species, albeit with some
24 methodological adjustments to account for the bias introduced by swarms emigrating from
25 apiaries. We used data on the annual survival rates of free-living colonies from seven
26 European countries and assumed a realistic swarming rate of two swarms per colony per year
27 to estimate the intrinsic growth rates of wild populations. Observed variation in nest site
28 reoccupation rates among years was taken as a measure of environmental stochasticity in
29 population performance. We then simulated the autonomous wild population changes over

30 ten-year periods, the time frame considered for assessments by the IUCN. Wild honeybee
31 populations still exist in five of the seven countries with data, but they currently act as
32 demographic sinks in most regions. With an estimated median population decline of 56% per
33 decade, the honeybee can be considered “Endangered in the wild” at the European level. (For
34 future updates on the population status see <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18424042>.)

35

36 **Introduction**

37 The western honeybee, *Apis mellifera*, is one of the most abundant flower visitors globally
38 (Hung et al., 2018), so its persistence at the species level seems to be of little concern in
39 conservation science. It is rarely appreciated, however, that the existence of honeybees in
40 regions with temperate climates is rather remarkable. The tribe of honeybees (Apini) only
41 comprises about a dozen species, most of which are confined to small distribution areas in
42 (sub-)tropical Asia (Smith, 2021). Only the western honeybee (in Europe) and, to a lesser
43 degree, the eastern honeybee *Apis cerana* (in Asia) have evolved the peculiar ability to
44 withstand long winters (Ruttner, 1988). Forming perennial colonies, they are unique
45 components of their respective temperate-climate bee communities. Furthermore, *Apis*
46 *mellifera* is special because it is the only extant *Apis* species naturally occurring outside of
47 Asia. Preserving its intra-specific genetic diversity and potential to evolve outside of
48 apiculture can be seen as important goals in insect conservation (Fontana et al., 2018; Requier
49 et al., 2019).

50 Interestingly, bee conservationists have not evaluated the conservation status of the western
51 honeybee, likely because it is considered an entirely managed, or even domesticated, species,
52 and thus, part of agriculture or the livestock sector (Geldmann & González-Varo, 2018). On
53 the one hand, this view is based on the inaccurate conflation of management and
54 domestication. On the other hand, it neglects the fact that managed honeybee colonies have
55 existed in sympatry with wild colonies since the beginning of apiculture about two thousand
56 years ago (Kohl & Rutschmann, 2018; Niklasson et al., 2024; Visick & Ratnieks, 2023). The
57 mating of honeybee queens and drones takes place in free flight and is not usually controlled
58 by beekeepers (Koeniger et al., 2014), and swarms from wild colonies have traditionally been
59 a source of beekeeping operations, while, in turn, swarm emigration from apiaries is never
60 completely prevented (Crane, 1999). Due to a genetic and demographic continuum between
61 both groups of colonies, there is no scientific evidence for a general biological distinction
62 between managed and wild honeybees (Johnson, 2023).

63 The wild versus managed dichotomy is often confounded with the question of whether
64 honeybees are native versus allochthonous. Certain subspecies of honeybee, mainly Italian
65 (*A. m. ligustica*) and Carnolian bees (*A. m. carnica*) are preferred in modern apiculture. They
66 have been introduced to countries outside their native ranges, and, due to a general lack of
67 mating control, have hybridized with the native populations (De la Rúa et al., 2009).
68 Furthermore, some bee breeders intentionally create crosses between different subspecies to
69 achieve short-term heterosis. These hybrids are commonly referred to as “Buckfast bees” after
70 the first crosses intentionally created at Buckfast Abby in England starting in the 1920s (Costa
71 et al., 2025). Nevertheless, from an evolutionary perspective, the subspecies overrepresented
72 in apiculture and their hybrids are not intrinsically less wild than other honeybee populations.

73 Apart from doubts about whether the attribute “wild” is appropriate for free-living colonies of
74 honeybee, a simple reason for the neglect of wild populations in conservation is the
75 widespread assumption that they had long since become extinct anyway (Meixner et al., 2015;
76 Stoeckhert, 1933). Due to habitat loss and/or the introduction of the invasive ectoparasitic
77 mite *Varroa destructor* (starting around 50 years ago), the latter being a main driver of colony
78 mortality in apiculture (Traynor et al., 2020), there would simply be no wild subpopulations
79 left to protect. Unfortunately, there is no data documenting such alleged extinction in the wild
80 (Kohl & Rutschmann, 2018), which is why *Apis mellifera* was listed as “Data deficient” in the
81 “European Red List of Bees” by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature
82 (IUCN) as of 2014 (Nieto et al., 2014). Throughout the last decade, however, researchers have
83 started searching for, and (re-)discovered, wild honeybee colonies in Europe (Albouy, 2024;
84 Browne et al., 2021; Kohl & Rutschmann, 2018; Lang et al., 2022; Moro et al., 2021; Oleksa
85 et al., 2013; Requier et al., 2020; Rutschmann et al., 2022; Rutschmann, Remter & Roth,
86 2025; Visick & Ratnieks, 2024). The average colony density was estimated to be 0.26
87 colonies per km², equivalent to about 5.5 million colonies, 17.8% of the overall European
88 honeybee population (which comprises ca. 25.4 million managed hives) (Visick & Ratnieks,
89 2023).

90 These figures suggest that wild honeybees are still ecologically and evolutionary relevant. In
91 the context of ongoing updates to the European Red List of Bees (Ghisbain et al., 2023), their
92 (re-)discovery provides the opportunity to make the first informed assessment of their
93 conservation status in Europe. Determining a species’ Red List category is important since it
94 helps to objectively decide whether strategies to promote populations are needed. The
95 rationale is that wild species are periodically assigned a category of threat ranging from

96 “Least Concern” to “Extinct in the Wild” based on, for example, observed or estimated
97 changes in population size within the last ten years (IUCN 2024).

98 As it is not generally possible to distinguish wild-living and managed honeybees based on
99 morphology or genetics, the practical problem arises of how to specifically assess wild
100 population trends. Even if the nesting sites of wild honeybees are known, directly assessing
101 temporal changes in the number of colonies inhabiting an area still does not suffice: managed
102 colonies can revert to the wild by leaving their apiaries as swarms and establishing natural
103 nests in cavities of their choice during the reproductive season, masking the (hypothetical)
104 intrinsic population trend of the existing wild cohort. For example, approximately 10% of
105 trees with black woodpecker (*Dryocopus martius*) cavities are occupied by honeybees in
106 managed forests in Germany each summer, suggesting the existence of a stable population of
107 wild colonies. However, studying the fate of many individual colonies revealed that only a
108 few survive to the next spring; their relatively high abundance in summer could only be
109 explained by the massive annual immigration of swarms from apiaries (Kohl et al., 2022).

110 In awareness of the problems that arise when dealing with species that contain managed
111 populations, the IUCN (2024) has determined the following threshold to decide whether a
112 population should be considered “wild” in the first place and thus be assessed:
113 “*Subpopulations dependent on direct intervention are not considered wild, if they would go*
114 *extinct within 10 years without ‘intensive’ management such as [...] regularly supplementing*
115 *the population from captive stock to prevent imminent extinction”*. The emigration of
116 honeybee swarms from apiaries, though a natural process, can be regarded as a regular
117 supplementation of the wild population from captive stock. Therefore, the relevant question
118 for determining whether a cohort of free-living colonies deserves the attribute “wild
119 subpopulation” is, “How would the population of wild colonies change over time if there was
120 no immigration of swarms from managed colonies?”. Understanding this requires the
121 conceptual distinction between wild and managed cohorts and thinking of them as a
122 metapopulation (Kohl, 2023; Rutschmann, Remter & Roth, 2025). The (hypothetical) intrinsic
123 change of the wild subpopulation per unit time can then be expressed by its finite growth rate
124 (λ) (Krebs, 2013), which in turn can be derived from the average survival and reproductive
125 rates of its members. Here, we use available data on free-living colony survival rates from
126 seven European countries to model how their populations would change intrinsically over ten-
127 year periods. Based on these projected population trends, we suggest an informed
128 conservation category for the species in Europe.

129

130 **Methods**

131 *Framework for studying the demography of wild honeybee populations*

132 Based on what we know about honeybee biology, there is no general physical or genetic
133 barrier between groups of managed (Figure 1a) and wild honeybee colonies (Figure 1b), and,
134 contrary to common misconception, no stable “breeds” of honeybees exist (Johnson, 2023;
135 Seeley, 2019). We therefore define wild *Apis mellifera* colonies based on their mode of living
136 as colonies that are unmanaged and live in their natural comb nests at sites they have occupied
137 themselves (Rutschmann, Remter & Roth, 2025) (see supplementary information for further
138 information).

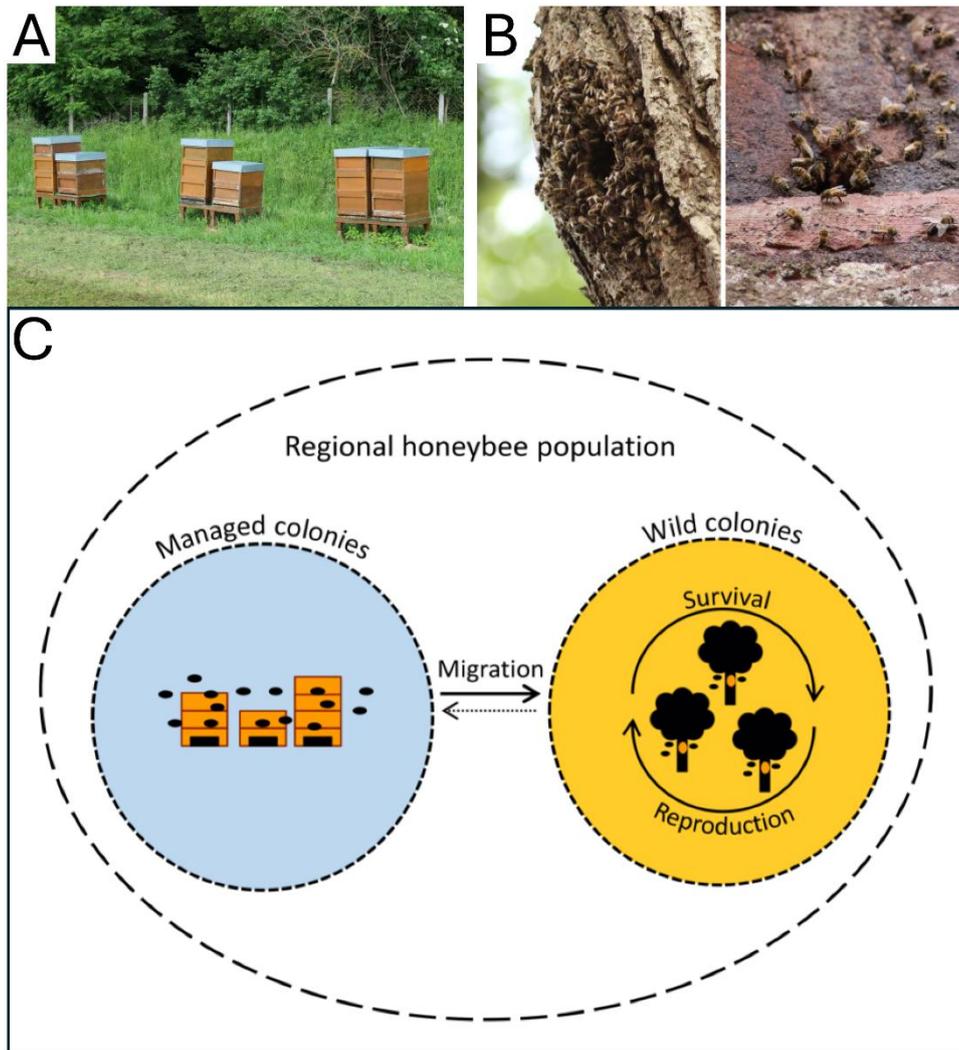
139 Since honeybees are eusocial insects, colonies can be viewed as superorganisms (Helanterä,
140 2016; Seeley, 1989), and colonies, not individual bees, are the relevant unit in population
141 studies (Seeley, 2017). Colony reproduction is achieved via fission during the swarming
142 season, whereby a fraction of the workers and a queen leave the old nest as a swarm to occupy
143 a new nesting site. Newly founded colonies typically start reproducing in the next swarming
144 season (at the age of approx. one year). Since young queen bees take over egg-laying in
145 established colonies, colonies are rejuvenated annually and it is reasonable to assume that
146 there is little effect of colony age on survival and reproduction after new colonies have passed
147 the difficult establishment phase (Seeley, 1985).

148 To study the population demography of wild honeybee colonies, it is practical to consider
149 regional honeybee populations as metapopulations comprising cohorts (“subpopulations”) of
150 managed and wild colonies (Figure 1c) (Kohl, 2023; Rutschmann, Remter & Roth, 2025). The
151 size of a cohort of wild colonies is affected by immigration, emigration, survival, and
152 reproduction (colony fission by swarming). Immigration occurs when managed colonies
153 swarm, disperse from their home apiary and occupy a cavity on their own, thus becoming
154 members of the wild subpopulation. Emigration occurs when beekeepers capture swarms of
155 wild colonies, be it directly or by luring swarms into bait hives. (We assume that this process
156 is negligible in most regions since beekeepers usually obtain new colonies by splitting their
157 own stock or trading with other beekeepers.) To understand how the size of the wild
158 subpopulation would change intrinsically, the average annual survival (s) and birth rate (b)
159 (i.e., the swarming rate) of the colonies that are already members of that cohort need to be
160 considered. Colony survival and swarming determine the annual population growth rate λ :

161

$$\lambda = s + s * b.$$

162 This index describes how the population of colonies would change from year to year if no
163 immigration occurred, with values < 1 denoting population decline and values > 1 denoting
164 population stability or increase (see Kohl et al., 2022, where the same statistic was referred to
165 as the net reproductive rate R_0). The annual rate of intrinsic population growth λ is the basis
166 for our projections of wild honeybee population trends.



167

168 **Figure 1.** *A) Apiary with honeybee colonies managed in movable-frame hives. B) Examples*
169 *of typical wild honeybee nesting sites: tree cavity (left) and hollow space in a wall (right). C)*
170 *Metapopulation model of managed and wild honeybee colonies. Managed and wild colonies*
171 *belong to one biological population; there is genetic exchange through the random mating of*
172 *queens and drones, and colonies can migrate between managed and wild cohorts*
173 *(“subpopulations”). Selection pressure under apicultural management (natural and artificial*

174 *selection) and under wild conditions (natural selection) is expected to differ. Figure modified*
175 *after (Kohl, 2023).*

176 *Estimating current trends of populations of wild honeybee colonies*

177 The annual survival rate in a population of wild honeybee colonies can be empirically studied
178 by making repeated surveys of known nest sites (Seeley, 2017). Nine monitoring studies were
179 available that provided information on the occupation histories of a total of 700 nesting sites
180 of wild honeybee colonies in seven European countries. The studies were conducted between
181 2013 and 2025, and within that period, they covered time windows of two to seven years
182 (Figure 2, Table 1). For each of the studied wild populations and for each country, we derived
183 a point estimate of the average annual colony survival rate (s_{est}) from the available data (see
184 supplementary information for details). The natality rate of wild honeybee colonies (the
185 number of swarms produced per colony per year), however, is difficult to determine in the
186 field. We therefore assumed that wild colonies produce, on average, $b = 2$ swarms per year
187 based on studies examining the reproductive behaviour of unmanaged honeybee colonies
188 living in hives with limited volume (see Rutschmann, Kohl, et al., 2025, and references
189 therein).

190 The average annual survival observed in a given population (s_{est}), and the assumed annual
191 swarming rate (b) can be combined to calculate simple estimates of the annual population
192 growth rate (λ_{est}), which, in turn, can be used to predict expected population growth over
193 longer periods. Beyond such predictions of the mean, we wanted to obtain information on the
194 uncertainty of population change given environmental stochasticity. For example, honeybee
195 populations are affected by the weather conditions (e.g., Switanek et al., 2017), both directly
196 and via its effect on floral resources. An appropriate indicator of the degree to which wild
197 populations respond to such environmental fluctuations is the annual variation in the
198 reoccupation rate of vacant nesting sites – information which typically comes with monitoring
199 data. The number of new swarms occupying nest sites is affected by the previous survival of
200 established colonies and their current swarming rate, and therefore, variation in nest
201 reoccupation should mirror variation in annual net population growth, which is also a function
202 of both survival and swarming. We simulated environmental stochasticity by drawing annual
203 population growth rates from a normal distribution with mean λ_{est} (specific to each studied
204 population) and a common coefficient of variation $CV = 0.132$ derived from the robust
205 coefficient of variation (RCV) in nest site reoccupation (see Supplementary Material for
206 details):

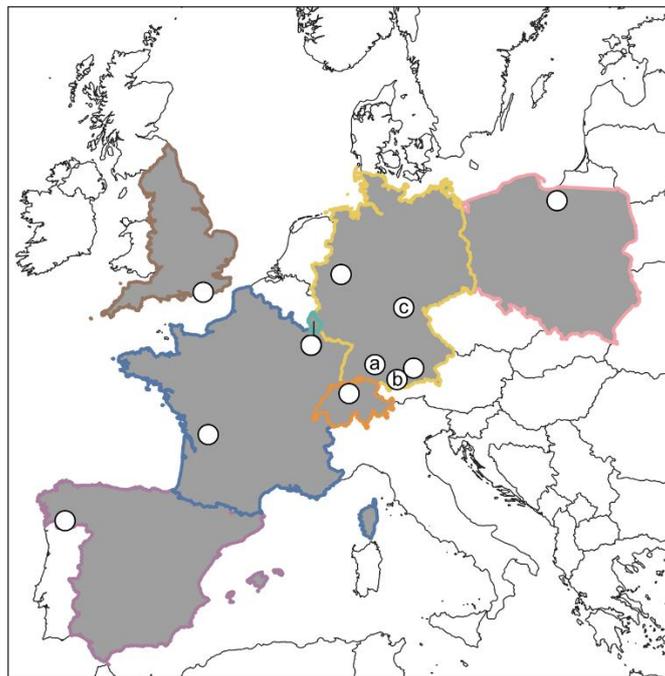
207 $\lambda_{sim,y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu = \lambda_{est}, \sigma^2 = (\lambda_{est} \times 0.132)^2)$

208 The relative population size over the course of a hypothetical decade without migration is
 209 given as

210 $\prod_{y=1}^{10} \lambda_{sim,y}$,

211 with y denoting the year (1 to 10) and with λ_y randomly varying among years. The
 212 simulations were repeated 10000 times for each of the nine studied populations. We present
 213 the mean and the 90% confidence interval (CI) of the population trend projections for each
 214 studied population, for each of the seven countries, and for the whole of Europe (using the
 215 median of the seven country-level estimates of the survival rate). In accordance with IUCN
 216 guidelines (IUCN 2024), we then used the mean projected population change per decade to
 217 classify a population as “Least concern” (reduction: < 30%), “Vulnerable” (reduction: \geq
 218 30%), “Endangered” (reduction: \geq 50%), “Critically Endangered” (reduction: \geq 80%), or
 219 “Extinct in the Wild” (reduction: 100%) (see supplementary information for details).

220



221

222 **Figure 2.** Map of Europe highlighting seven countries with data on wild honeybee colony
 223 survival rates (grey) and the respective study regions (dots). For Germany, three studies were
 224 available, with one using data from three different forest regions (“German forest”; locations
 225 marked as “a”, “b”, “c”).

226 **Table 1.** Overview of nine monitoring studies on wild honeybee populations that provide wild
 227 colony survival data (ordered according to the year in which monitoring began). The
 228 estimated annual colony survival rates (s_{est}) are the values used in this study. If necessary,
 229 survival rates were corrected for potential “silent colony turnovers”, the unobserved death of
 230 a colony followed by the quick reoccupation of its nest site by a new colony during the
 231 swarming season (see supplementary information for details).

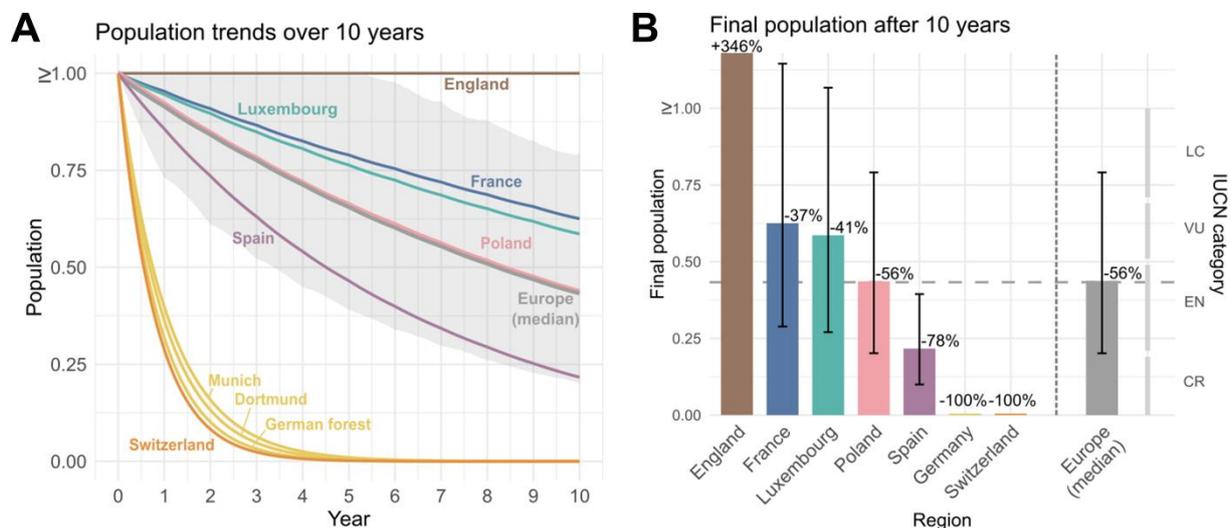
Country	Region	Information provided	Number of nest sites monitored	Study period	s_{est}	Reference
Poland	Northeastern Poland	Proportion of colonies remaining after one and two years	67	2013–2015	0.307	(Oleksa et al., 2013; A. Oleksa, pers. communication 2024)
Germany	City of Munich	Summer, winter and spring survival rates	107	2016–2023	0.133	(Rutschmann, Remter & Roth, 2025)
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	2018–2021	0.121	(Lang, Albouy & Zewen, 2022, Table 4 therein)
France	County of Saintonge	Summer, winter and spring survival rates	140	2018–2021	0.318	(Albouy, 2024, p. 623 therein)
Spain	Comarca de la Limia, Galicia	Annual survival rate	37	2019–2023	0.286	(Rutschmann et al., 2022; Rutschmann & Kohl, unpublished data)
Luxembourg	Luxembourg	Summer, winter and spring survival rates	73	2019–2025	0.316	(J. Park & R. Dammé, pers. communication 2025)
Switzerland	Switzerland Regions north of the Alps	Annual survival rate	106	2020–2023	0.096	(Cordillot, 2024, p. 107 therein)
England	Southeast England	Annual survival rate	63	2021–2024	0.370	(Visick & Ratnieks, 2026)

232

233 Results

234 In six out of seven European countries with data, populations of wild honeybees were
 235 projected to be in decline (Figure 3). In Germany (where data from three independent studies
 236 are in close agreement) and in Switzerland, wild honeybee populations are highly likely to
 237 disappear within 10 years without immigration according to the simulations (projected decline

238 per decade [upper, lower 90% CI]: -100% [-100%, -100%]). In Spain and Poland, wild
 239 honeybee populations were projected to be declining by -78% [-61%, -90%] and -56%
 240 [-21%, -80%] per decade, meaning that they would fall into the “Endangered” category
 241 according to IUCN red list criteria. The wild populations monitored in Luxembourg and
 242 France appear to be in moderate decline (-41% [+7%, -73%] and -37% [+15%, -72%] per
 243 decade); they would be classified as “Vulnerable”. Only the wild honeybee population in
 244 South England appears to have the intrinsic capacity to increase in size (projected increase per
 245 decade: +346% [+717%, +98%]). It would be classified as “Least Concern”. The median
 246 population change per decade is -56% [-20%, -80%], meaning the overall wild honeybee
 247 population in Europe would be classified as “Endangered” according to IUCN criteria.
 248



249
 250 **Figure 3. A)** Projected wild honeybee population trends over hypothetical ten-year periods
 251 for nine studied populations and for the whole of Europe. Relative changes in population size
 252 are based on intrinsic population growth rates, which in turn rely on observed colony survival
 253 rates and an assumed average natality of two swarms per colony per year. Lines describe the
 254 mean trends based on 10000 simulations for each population. The grey shaded area describes
 255 the 90% confidence interval for Europe. **B)** Wild honeybee population remaining (means and
 256 90% confidence intervals based on 10000 simulations) and their mean relative change
 257 (percentages) after hypothetical ten-year periods of intrinsic development (without migration)
 258 for seven European countries and the whole of Europe. The second y-axis shows the
 259 associated IUCN conservation categories: LC = Least Concern, VU = Vulnerable, EN =
 260 Endangered, CR = Critically Endangered. (The simulations for Germany were run using the
 261 average of the colony survival rates of the three studies. Confidence intervals for some

262 *countries are not visible because they are outside the y-axis range (England) or too small to*
263 *be seen at this scale (Germany and Switzerland)).*

264

265 **Discussion**

266 In species with both managed and free-living individuals, and in which managed individuals
267 frequently revert to the wild, any demographic definition of what constitutes a “truly wild”
268 subpopulation is arbitrary. The IUCN has dealt with this problem and defined wild
269 subpopulations as those that do not become extinct within 10 years (or three generations,
270 whichever is longer) (IUCN 2024). Using data on wild colony survival rates gathered in seven
271 countries during the last decade, we modelled how the sizes of wild honeybee subpopulations
272 would intrinsically change over a hypothetical period of ten years. While our estimate of a
273 median population decline of 56% indicates that the overall wild honeybee subpopulation
274 functions as a demographic sink, an important conclusion is that complete extinction within a
275 single decade is highly unlikely. Therefore, according to IUCN guidelines, the cohort of wild
276 *Apis mellifera* can be formally considered a “wild subpopulation” at the European level, and
277 the assessment of its population trend for the Red List of bees is justified.

278 Accepting the existence of wild honeybee populations solely because some *colonies* live wild,
279 combined with an arbitrary criterium of population survival, might be difficult for some
280 readers. The common linguistic distinction between honeybees and “wild bees” and the fact
281 that most people have only ever seen colonies in hives makes it hard to change the image of
282 the species. However, wild honeybees have most likely always made up a significant fraction
283 of the overall population of the species (Visick & Ratnieks, 2023). Furthermore, when
284 analysing apiculture and its history in detail, it becomes evident that successful beekeeping is
285 based on the continuous manipulation of colonies using all sorts of tools and techniques rather
286 than the biological change of the bees through breeding (Crane, 1999; Seeley, 2019). Of
287 course, with increasing management intensity, selection pressure will differ more profoundly
288 between beekeeping and wild conditions. Nevertheless, widespread domestication is rather
289 unlikely given that managed honeybees are usually not completely isolated from wild ones
290 (Johnson, 2023). Accordingly, no genetic markers are available that can reliably distinguish
291 wild from managed honeybees. These considerations suggest that wild honeybees are
292 currently best defined in demographic terms as we do here. In this light, the data indicate that
293 a wild honeybee population still exists in Europe, although it is in decline.

294 What holds for the whole of Europe, however, is not true for each of the individual
295 populations studied. In fact, our second key insight is that there are remarkable differences in
296 wild population demographics among regions. At the low end of the spectrum, there are the
297 populations studied in Germany and in Switzerland north of the Alps (Cordillot, 2024; Kohl et
298 al., 2022; Lang et al., 2022; Rutschmann, Remter & Roth, 2025). Conditional upon the
299 discovery of populations with higher average colony survival rates, model projections are
300 consistent with high local extinction risk in these countries. At the other end of the spectrum,
301 there is the population studied in southeast England (Visick & Ratnieks, 2026), which seems
302 to be stable on its own. Here, the projected excess population means that it can act as a
303 demographic source for other populations (including the managed subpopulation), and that it
304 has strong evolutionary potential. Between these extremes are the populations studied in
305 France (Albouy, 2024), Luxembourg (J. Park & R. Dammé, pers. communication 2025),
306 Poland (Oleksa et al., 2013), and Spain (Rutschmann et al., 2022), which apparently fare
307 much better than the ones in Germany and Switzerland, even if they still represent
308 demographic sinks.

309 When referring to individual populations by country of origin, it is important to note that each
310 is represented by only one or a few studies. Depending on their spatial and temporal scope,
311 these studies may provide stronger or weaker approximations of average demographic
312 patterns in the broader regions, whose delineation is to some extent arbitrary. Moreover, wild
313 subpopulations are spatially structured, and because they occupy habitats of varying quality,
314 source–sink dynamics are likely to occur among different patches (Dias, 1996). For example,
315 the study of the wild honeybee subpopulation in Galicia, Spain, was conducted in a landscape
316 dominated by intensive agriculture, not representative of the province. Since colony winter
317 survival is significantly lower in agricultural than in adjacent semi-natural habitats
318 (Rutschmann et al., 2022), we might have overestimated the rate of decline for that
319 population.

320 One might argue that this intrinsic decline is not a problem insofar as the wild subpopulation
321 could be (partly) replenished annually by feral swarms from the managed subpopulation. This
322 view makes sense when considering that wild and managed honeybees are intrinsically the
323 same. However, it lacks appreciation for the potential of significant genetic differences to
324 evolve between managed and wild populations due to the accumulation of minor allele
325 frequency changes at many loci. Such variation can reflect adaptations to contrasting selection
326 pressures or different demographic histories. For example, a lack of medical treatment can

327 select for colonies resisting *Varroa* mites and/or their transmitted viruses in the wild
328 population (Mikheyev et al., 2015), while frequent trade of managed colonies (or queen bees)
329 across countries can lead to a higher proportion of non-native alleles in the managed
330 compared to the wild subpopulation. In fact, beekeepers have largely altered managed
331 honeybee populations through the importation of non-native subspecies and subsequent
332 introgressive hybridisation in many regions (De la Rúa et al., 2009; Espregueira Themudo et
333 al., 2020; Kükner et al., 2021; Requier et al., 2019).

334 The presented analysis takes place at the species level, and therefore, a potential argument
335 against our case is that many extant honeybee populations might not be native and thus do not
336 represent conservation cases in the first place (Carreck, 2008). Apart from the rule that
337 population assessments are first made at the level of the species before lower taxonomic ranks
338 are considered (IUCN 2024), there are ecological arguments in support of the species-level
339 assessment. Native honeybee genotypes are unlikely to have been replaced completely in any
340 region (Moritz, 1991; Requier et al., 2019), so the issue generally includes hybrids rather than
341 merely non-native subspecies. Whether hybrid populations should be protected is a common
342 dilemma in conservation (Allendorf et al., 2001), however, most cases are about between-
343 species rather than within-species hybrids (Pieltt et al., 2015). Furthermore, deciding to neglect
344 non-native subspecies and subspecies-hybrids in wild honeybee population assessments
345 would mean applying a different standard compared to other taxa that are assessed at the
346 species level. For example, there is no debate about whether wild populations of the buff-
347 tailed bumblebee (*Bombus terrestris*) should be protected despite evidence of widespread
348 introgression of non-native subspecies via colonies used for greenhouse pollination (Kraus et
349 al., 2011; Seabra et al., 2019).

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

359 In that case, conserving wild honeybees could be understood as a long-term means of
360 conserving native honeybee subspecies.

361 Finally, in a (hypothetical) context in which local wild populations have gone extinct and are
362 to be re-established (see the German and Swiss cases above), a local, admixed feral founder
363 population may have advantages over a non-local source population comprising pure stock.
364 Regardless of the subspecies or the hybridization level, extant populations may already have
365 evolved local adaptations (Büchler et al., 2014), and through higher genetic diversity,
366 admixed populations have a higher likelihood of containing alleles that are adaptive in the
367 context of climate change, land use change, and novel parasites (Chan et al., 2019). Apart
368 from these considerations, it needs to be stressed that conserving wild honeybees at the
369 species level does not preclude assessing the conservation status of wild honeybee on the
370 subspecies level, where this is applicable (Browne et al., 2021; Malagnini et al., 2023;
371 McCann & McCormack, 2024; Oleksa et al., 2013; Valentine et al., 2025)

372 The perspective suggested by the present analysis of explicitly conserving wild honeybee
373 populations is currently not implemented. Usually, no difference is made between wild and
374 managed honeybees and the species is more often regarded as a problem, rather than a target,
375 of European wild bee conservation (Geldmann & González-Varo, 2018). However, wild
376 honeybee subpopulations likely suffer from the same environmental pressures as non-*Apis*
377 wild bees (Goulson et al., 2015; Kohl et al., 2023; Rutschmann et al., 2022). In fact, local wild
378 honeybees can be the bees most directly affected by long-distance apiary migrations, high
379 densities of managed hives, and the trade of queen honeybees across countries (Martínez-
380 López et al., 2022; Panziera et al., 2022; Requier et al., 2019). Given that the number of
381 managed colonies is currently growing (see supplementary information, figure S1), there is
382 probably an ongoing shift in the relative importance of selection pressure in the overall
383 honeybee population, with conditions under management gaining importance over wild
384 conditions. The evolutionary role of wild subpopulations in shaping the long-term resilience
385 and adaptability of the overall honeybee population remains uncertain, yet their contribution
386 is likely to be beneficial (Panziera et al., 2022; Requier et al., 2019). Therefore, the decline of
387 wild honeybees should not only be of concern for insect conservation but also for apiculture
388 and crop pollination in agriculture. Furthermore, the perspective that honeybees could be a
389 subject of conservation themselves also has an impact on the conflict between apiculture and
390 non-*Apis* bee conservation (Beaurepaire et al., 2025; Geldmann & González-Varo, 2018;

391 Henry & Rodet, 2018). For example, the existence of a wild honeybee subpopulation in a
392 conservation area could provide arguments to consider restrictions of beekeeping in that area.

393 Our inference of the wild honeybee population trend for Europe is based on colony survival
394 data from nine studies from seven countries only, and we had to rely on fixed assumptions
395 about colony swarming rates and environmental stochasticity. Hence it is obvious that
396 significant uncertainty remains about the actual population demography of the species on the
397 whole continent. Nevertheless, the monitoring data of free-living colonies analysed here likely
398 represented an unbiased picture. They were conducted during the pioneering phase of this
399 field of research and started without prior knowledge of how favourable their respective study
400 areas would be for wild honeybees. In fact, some studies were performed by citizen or hobby
401 scientists near their homes. In the next phase of research, scientists will probably search for,
402 and subsequently focus on, those (rare) wild populations that are thriving. Therefore, any
403 future population assessment will need to carefully evaluate whether the relevant monitoring
404 studies can provide an accurate picture of the overall population. We strongly recommend that
405 monitoring programs not only be continued but also expanded to a much broader range of
406 regions regardless of habitat quality, thereby enabling more robust inferences on population
407 trajectories in the future (Albouy, 2024; Kohl et al., 2022; Moro et al., 2024; Rutschmann,
408 Remter & Roth, 2025; Seeley, 2017). To support a continuous evaluation of wild honeybee
409 populations and to facilitate the regular update of their conservation status according to the
410 methods presented here, we created a living data base of nest site monitoring studies:
411 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18424042>. Apart from the mere monitoring of wild
412 populations, it will be equally crucial to identify the ecological and evolutionary factors that
413 constrain wild colony survival (e.g. Kohl et al., 2023) and explain why wild subpopulations
414 persist successfully in certain regions but decline in others. Guided by the principle that
415 effective conservation is only possible when underpinned by sound ecological knowledge, we
416 argue that explicitly recognising wild honeybee subpopulations as legitimate subjects of
417 demographic and ecological study is essential. Such recognition is a prerequisite for evidence-
418 based conservation strategies aimed at safeguarding this irreplaceable and evolutionarily
419 significant component of Europe's bee fauna.

420

421 **Data Availability Statement**

422 The data used for this work are referenced in the main text and the supplementary
423 information.

424

425 **Author contributions**

426 Patrick L. Kohl was involved in conceptualisation, methodology, investigation, formal
427 analysis, writing – original draft. Benjamin Rutschmann was involved in conceptualisation,
428 methodology, investigation, acquisition of datasets, formal analysis, visualization, writing –
429 review & editing.

430

431 **Conflict of interest declaration**

432 We declare we have no competing interests.

433

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441

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636

1 **Supplementary information for**
2 **The wild honeybee population of Europe is in decline: evidence from**
3 **monitoring studies**

4

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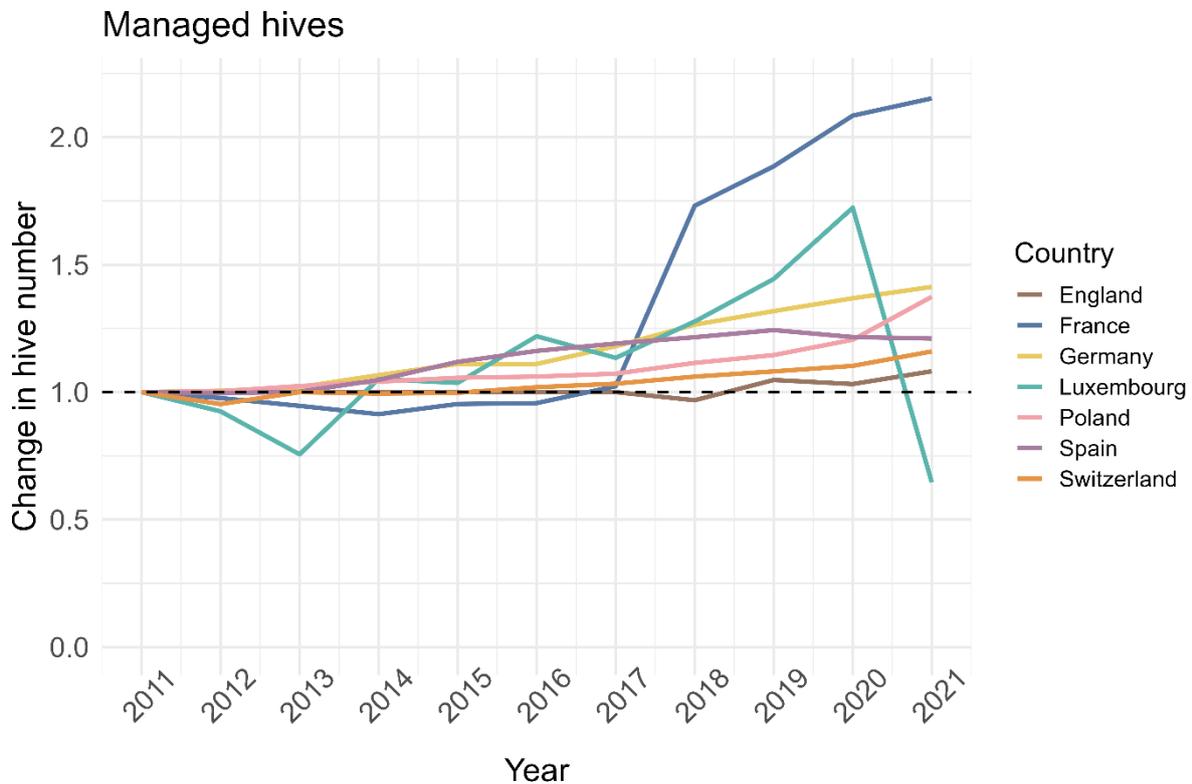
17 Keywords: pollinator decline, IUCN, Red List, monitoring, conservation status, beekeeping,
18 native bees

19

20 Keywords: conservation status, feral bees, free-living bees, honey bee, IUCN, monitoring,
21 native bees, pollinator decline, population trend, Red List

22 **Managed honeybee population trends**

23



24

25 Figure S1: Relative change in the number of registered managed honeybee colonies between
26 2011 and 2021 in seven European countries relative to 2011 (or between 2017 and 2021 and
27 relative to 2017 for UK). The countries are those for which data on wild honeybee
28 populations were available. Data from the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United
29 Nations (FAO, 2023) and the National Bee Unit of the UK
30 (<https://www.nationalbeeunit.com/bees-and-the-law/hive-count>; date accessed: 27 September
31 2024).

32

33 **Notes on the definition of wild honeybee colonies**

34 We here considered all colonies of *Apis mellifera* as “wild” that are ownerless and unmanaged
35 and live in their natural comb nests at sites they have occupied themselves. Therefore, our
36 definition is solely based on the colonies’ current mode of living, regardless of whether they,
37 or their ancestors, have a history of management. We think that this is the most useful
38 definition given that there has always been a genetic and demographic exchange between wild
39 and managed subpopulations. The western honeybee is a native bee in most of Europe and

40 since the beginning of beekeeping culture about two thousand years ago, there have always
41 been both wild and managed honeybee colonies (Crane, 1999). This is testified, for example,
42 by the distinction between “house bees” (managed in hives) and “forest bees” (living in tree
43 cavities) that was common in Germany until the beginning of the 19th century (Schirach,
44 1774). The mating of honeybee queens and drones takes place in free flight and is not usually
45 controlled by beekeepers (Koeniger et al., 2014), so there is no genetic barrier between wild
46 and managed subpopulations. Furthermore, swarms from wild colonies have traditionally
47 been a source of beekeeping operations and swarm emigration from apiaries is not completely
48 prevented so there is frequent migration between wild and managed cohorts. In other
49 publications, what we refer to as “wild colonies” has been described as “free-living” or “wild-
50 living” to account for the possibility that a given population of colonies might not be self-
51 sustaining (and thus not be “truly wild”), just as the attribute “feral” has been used to
52 highlight that wild colonies might be recent emigrants from apiaries (behavioural definition of
53 “feral” (Daniels & Bekoff, 1989)) or that the population under consideration was introduced
54 by humans at some point in history (in case of the Americas, Australia and New Zealand).
55 Note that we here refer to all wild-living *colonies* of honeybee as “wild” but use the IUCN’s
56 demographic criteria (no extinction within 10 years, see main text) to test whether a
57 *population* of wild-living colonies should be considered a “wild subpopulation”.

58

59 **Sources of wild colony survival data**

60 We consulted nine studies representing seven European countries that yielded information on
61 wild colony survival rates. Oleksa et al. (2013) discovered wild colonies in trees along rural
62 alleys in Poland, and these colonies were re-inspected over the next two years (Oleksa et al.,
63 unpublished). Continuous occupation by the same colonies, as opposed to re-occupation by
64 new swarms, was tested using both mitochondrial and microsatellite markers. From an initial
65 count of 67 colonies, 16 cavities remained occupied by the same colonies after the first year
66 and 6 after the second year. We calculated an average annual survival rate for this population
67 based on the average of the proportion of colonies remaining after the first and the second
68 year.

69 Detailed demographic data were available for honeybee colonies nesting in cavities by the
70 black woodpecker in southern Germany (Kohl et al., 2022). In that study, nest sites were
71 controlled three times per year to determine summer (July–September), winter (September–
72 April), and spring (April–September) survival rates. The annual colony survival rate was

73 obtained by multiplication. The study also accounted for the possibility that the death of a
74 colony in spring is followed by the quick re-occupation of the cavity by a new swarm, without
75 being noticed during the monitoring, using microsatellite genetic data. The rate of such “silent
76 spring turnovers” was reported to be 11.1% (one out of nine tested cases).

77 For the remaining studies, in case information on the *annual* survival was not provided
78 directly, we obtained it by multiplying information on seasonal survival rates (i.e., summer,
79 winter, spring survival). In the cases of the studies from Dortmund (Lang et al., 2022),
80 Munich (Rutschmann, Remter & Roth, 2025) and Luxembourg (J. Park & R. Dammé, pers.
81 communication 2025), the original study had not accounted for unobserved colony turnovers
82 during the swarming season, and therefore, we further multiplied the “apparent” annual
83 colony survival rates by the factor 0.889 (in line with the result from the other German study,
84 see above), to obtain corrected point estimates of annual colony survival rates.

85

86 **Data on variation in nest site reoccupation rates**

87 Variation in the rate at which vacated honeybee nesting sites are reoccupied by new swarms
88 can be seen as a measure of how strongly wild honeybee populations are affected by
89 interannual environmental stochasticity, since it reflects variation in both the survival and
90 swarming rates in the population. We were able to obtain data on variation in nest site
91 reoccupation from five (out of nine) monitoring studies. Given the limited information, we
92 decided to derive a robust general estimate of interannual population fluctuations that we
93 would use for all population simulations. To that end, we calculated the median annual
94 reoccupation rate for each study as well as the median absolute deviation (MAD) in
95 reoccupation, which is a robust measure of the standard deviation (using the “mad” function
96 in R). Dividing the MAD by the median yields the robust coefficient of variation (RCV)
97 (Arachchige et al., 2020). The mean RCV in nest site reoccupation across five studies was
98 13.2% (see Table S1 for an overview of reoccupation rate data from five studies). We hence
99 simulated environmental stochasticity by drawing annual population growth rates from a
100 normal distribution with mean λ_{est} (specific to each studied population) and a common
101 coefficient of variation $CV = 0.132$ derived from the robust coefficient of variation (RCV) in
102 nest site reoccupation:

$$103 \quad \lambda_{sim,y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu = \lambda_{est}, \sigma^2 = (\lambda_{est} \times 0.132)^2)$$

104 Table S1: Overview of nest site reoccupation data from seven monitoring studies. The number
 105 of years refers to the number of swarming seasons in which reoccupation rates could be
 106 determined. MAD= median absolute difference, RCV = robust coefficient of variation.

Country	Ref.	Number of years	Median number of vacant sites/year	Median reoccupation rate	MAD reoccupation rate	RCV reoccupation rate
Germany	(Rutschmann, Remter & Roth, 2025)	7	16	0.692	0.086	0.124
Germany	(Kohl et al., 2022)	3	32	0.656	0.007	0.010
France	(Albouy, 2024, p. 623 therein)	6	69	0.509	0.086	0.169
Spain	(Rutschmann et al., 2022; Rutschmann & Kohl, unpublished data)	4	22.5	0.508	0.176	0.347
England	(Visick & Ratnieks, 2026)	3	17	0.652	0.008	0.012

107

108 Notes on the IUCN category of threat and population projections

109 The IUCN guideline (2024) lists five non-exclusive criteria that can be used to evaluate into
 110 which category of threat a given taxon belongs: (A) observed, estimated, inferred, or
 111 projected population size reduction over 10 years or three generations (whichever is longer);
 112 (B) small or declining geographic range; (C) a small remaining population *per se*; (D) a very
 113 small or spatially restricted remaining population, or (E) a statistical population viability
 114 analysis. We here evaluate wild *Apis mellifera* populations based on criterium (A), the change
 115 in population size over a 10-year period. Specifically, we used the criterium A2ab, a
 116 “population reduction estimated [...] in the past where the causes of reduction may not have
 117 ceased or may not be understood or may not be reversible” based on “(a) direct observation”
 118 and “(b) an index of abundance appropriate to the taxon”. Our index is the annual rate of

119 intrinsic growth of the wild subpopulation, which in turn is based on wild colony survival
120 rates determined by nine independent monitoring studies in seven countries. The period
121 covered by the studies was from 2013 to 2025, with each study looking at a time span of
122 between two and seven years. All calculations for the population projections as detailed in the
123 main text were conducted in R version 4.4.2 (R Core Team, 2024).

124 As shown by the following considerations, evaluating population change over 10 years makes
125 sense because this approximately matches the time of three consecutive generations in
126 honeybees (it is the generation length of *colonies*, not individual worker or queen bees that is
127 the unit of interest here). According to the IUCN definition (IUCN Standards and Petitions
128 Committee, 2024),

129 *“Generation length is the average age of parents of the current [age] cohort (i.e.,*
130 *newborn individuals in the population). Generation length therefore reflects the*
131 *turnover rate of breeding individuals in a population. Generation length is greater*
132 *than the age at first breeding and less than the age of the oldest breeding individual,*
133 *except in taxa that breed only once. Where generation length varies under threat, such*
134 *as the exploitation of fishes, the more natural, i.e. pre-disturbance, generation length*
135 *should be used.”*

136 Temperate-adapted honeybee colonies usually start reproducing just after having completed
137 their first year of life, i.e. in the swarming season following their first winter survival, and
138 they are expected to produce swarms every year until death. Therefore, the generation length
139 of honeybee colonies is equal to the average age of established colonies (those having
140 completed at least one year) at the time of swarming. Like average colony lifespan, average
141 age at reproduction of established colonies can be calculated based on data of annual colony
142 survival rates: by summing over a range of plausible age classes the products of age in years
143 times the probability of dying at that age. (See (Kohl et al., 2022) for corrected versions of the
144 formulas initially proposed by (Seeley, 1978)).

145 In the following formula for generation length (G), A is colony age in number of completed
146 years, and e is the annual probability of survival for established colonies:

147
$$G = \sum_{A=1}^{10} A(e)^{A-1}(1 - e)$$

148 We arbitrarily restrict the summation to the maximum age class of ten because we think it
149 uncommon that colonies live longer (Kohl et al., 2022). Currently, there is detailed data on
150 age-related colony survival probability from only two self-sustaining populations of European
151 honeybees, one living in temperate forests of New York State, USA (Seeley, 2017), and one in
152 Wyperfield National Park in Southeastern Australia (Oldroyd et al., 1997) (for an overview
153 see table 1 in Kohl et al., 2022). Since the survival statistics for these populations are very
154 similar, we here assume that they reflect temperate honeybees' natural, pre-disturbance
155 demographics. In New York State, the annual survival rate of established colonies was found
156 to be 0.79, so generation length is 3.36 years. In Wyperfield, annual survival rate of
157 established colonies was found to be 0.76, leading to the estimated generation length of 3.26
158 years. Accordingly, the duration of three consecutive generations is wild honeybee
159 populations is approximately 10 years (10.09 years and 9.78 years, respectively). These
160 considerations show that using 10-year periods for conservation status assessment in the
161 western honeybee is reasonable.

162

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