

1 **Conservation of honeybees and other pollinators: A global survey**

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3 Kennedy Halvorson^{1,2,3} khalvors@yorku.ca

4 Roswitha Baumung¹ Roswitha.Baumung@fao.org

5 Gregoire Leroy¹ Gregoire.Leroy@fao.org

6 Chao Chen^{1,4} chao_chen@outlook.com

7 Paul Boettcher^{1,*} Paul.Boettcher@fao.org

8

9 ¹ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, Italy

10 ² University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada

11 ³ York University, Toronto, Canada

12 ⁴ Institute of Apicultural Research, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Beijing

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14 * Corresponding author: Animal Production and Health Division; Food and Agriculture

15 Organization of the UN; Viale delle Terme di Caracalla; 00153 Rome, Italy; Tel: +39

16 0657055620; Email: paul.boettcher@fao.org

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18 Short title: Global conservation of pollinator species

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22 **ABSTRACT**

23 Insect populations are declining globally. Most crops rely on insect pollination, putting
24 food security at risk. Honeybees are important pollinators and have been used widely in
25 public awareness campaigns. This study surveyed countries about the status of their
26 pollinators and programmes for monitoring and management. Responses were received
27 from 273 persons from 108 countries. *Apis mellifera* was reported by nearly all
28 countries. Many countries (72%) routinely collect honeybee data and populations are
29 stable or increasing (77% of countries). Other pollinators receive less attention,
30 although their populations are dwindling in most (70%) countries. Conservation and
31 protection are more commonly practiced for honeybees. Most threats, such as habitat
32 loss and pesticides, are shared by all pollinators. Therefore, conservation measures to
33 decrease these threats would be efficient, provided that competition among species is
34 avoided. Monitoring of pollinator populations should be increased.

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36 **Keywords:** Conservation, Protection, Honeybee, Pollinator, Population monitoring

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39 INTRODUCTION

40 Pollinators play critical roles in nature and in food and agriculture. Around 90% of wild
41 flowering plants and 75% of food crops rely on animal pollination. More than 200000
42 species serve as pollinators, including many bee species. Recent reviews on pollinators
43 include Ollerton (2017) and Rader et al. (2020). The honeybee, particularly the Western
44 Honeybee, *Apis mellifera*, is the best-known pollinator and the most frequently subject
45 to human management.

46 Like many insect species (Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuya 2019) and biodiversity in
47 general (e.g Maxwell et al. 2016), populations of pollinators are declining globally
48 (Potts et al. 2010). This decline threatens both natural ecosystems and agricultural
49 production systems (Rhodes 2018). Concern for this trend prompted the
50 Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services
51 (IPBES) to undertake an assessment on pollinators, pollination and food production
52 (IPBES, 2016). The key messages of the assessment highlighted the diversity of
53 pollinators and the importance of pollination from economic, nutrition, sustainability
54 and cultural perspectives. The report noted that many pollinators risk extinction for a
55 wide number of reasons, including pesticide use, diseases and simplification of
56 agricultural landscapes. The IPBES assessment report and/or the phenomena and trends
57 discussed therein have led to the launching of numerous pollinator initiatives on
58 national, regional and global levels (e.g. European Commission 2018; FAO 2020a).

59 In addition to losses in terms of numbers of pollinators, their genetic diversity is at risk.
60 On the global level, policy-related matters involving agrobiodiversity are addressed by
61 the Commission on Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture (CGRFA -
62 <http://www.fao.org/cgrfa>), a specialized body of the Food and Agriculture Organization

63 (FAO) of the United Nations. Among its work, the CGRFA member countries and
64 technical units of FAO monitor and assess the status of genetic resources for food and
65 agriculture.

66 For animals, FAO maintains the Domestic Animal Diversity Information System
67 (DAD-IS), which serves as the Clearing House Mechanism of the Convention on
68 Biological Diversity (CBD) for monitoring of animal genetic resources for food and
69 agriculture. Each member nation nominates a “National Coordinator”, who is
70 responsible for regularly reporting official population numbers of the livestock breeds
71 within the country. The data in DAD-IS are also used for compiling Indicators 2.5.1b
72 and 2.5.2 of the Sustainable Development Goals, which monitor conservation of
73 agrobiodiversity. Although pollinators are animal genetic resources of importance for
74 food and agriculture, they had neither been considered in the intergovernmental process
75 for these resources nor monitored in DAD-IS, which emphasizes “traditional” livestock
76 species, such as cattle and poultry.

77 Given the increasing concern for pollinators and their genetic diversity, in 2017 the
78 CGFRA requested FAO to consider including domesticated honeybees and potentially
79 other pollinators into DAD-IS (FAO, 2017). In response to this request, we developed a
80 global survey to collect observed and anecdotal data on the status of world-wide
81 honeybee and pollinator populations, perceived threats and programmes for their
82 conservation and protection. The questionnaire also addressed the existence of
83 programmes for monitoring the status of these species. The objective of this study was
84 to evaluate the results of this survey and draw inferences about pollinator conservation
85 and protection and to support the development of DAD-IS for routine global monitoring
86 of honeybees and possibly other pollinators.

87

88 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

89 **Data**

90 The survey included 28 questions, divided into three sections: (i) General information,
91 (ii) Honeybees and (iii) General pollinators. The topics of the survey are summarized in
92 Table 1. The general information section included a question about the respondents'
93 professional role regarding honeybees and pollinators, which allowed us to determine if
94 there were any significant associations between a respondent's role and his or her
95 response. The latter two sections requested information on the main honeybee and
96 pollinator species present in the respondent's country, their contributions to food and
97 agriculture, threats to their survival, their observed or perceived population status, and
98 systems for population monitoring and protection and conservation. The questionnaire
99 included yes/no, multiple choice, short answer and free-text questions, as well as
100 questions asking participants to rank responses according to their importance. Some
101 questions (e.g. those regarding honey production and types of pollinated crops) will not
102 be discussed in this article.

103 The survey was implemented through Google Forms®
104 (<https://goo.gl/forms/veNe0krWGcFjmT752>) and was open from 28 February to 31 July
105 2017. English and Spanish versions of the survey were distributed to through several
106 channels: (i) National governments, through invitations to National Coordinators (FAO,
107 2011); (ii) the Secretariat of the CBD; (iii) networks of IBPES; (iv) the International
108 Federation of Beekeepers Associations; and (v) the Domestic Animal Diversity
109 Network (DAD-Net; <http://dgroups.org/fao/dad-net>). In addition, for countries where no
110 response was received in the first two months of the survey, scientists with recent

111 publications on pollinators were contacted directly and invited to respond. The final
112 dataset is available at doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12200435.v1.

113 **Analysis**

114 One goal of the data preparation was to obtain a single overall response per country in
115 cases where several responses were received. For yes/no questions about the existence
116 of something, such as a conservation programme, “yes” was assumed to be correct for a
117 given country if at least one such reply was received. We assumed that persons
118 responding “no” were simply unaware of the existence of the object in question. For
119 questions regarding the presence of multiple objects, such as pollinator species or
120 conservation measures, responses from a given country were combined to create a
121 common list. For questions about threats to honeybee and pollinator populations,
122 respondents ranked the three greatest threats from lists. Responses were then weighted
123 according to rank (e.g. 1st = 3 points, 2nd = 2 points, 3rd = 1 point, not chosen = 0 points)
124 prior to analysis.

125 When evaluating population trends, individual responses were used as the dependent
126 variable ($y = 1$ for increasing, 0 for steady and -1 for decreasing) in a statistical analysis
127 to study the impact of different factors on trends for both honeybees and pollinators. We
128 used an ordered logistic analysis (R `polr` function), with geographical region (M49
129 standard classes); whether or not a monitoring system was reported at country scale; and
130 the professional role of respondents as explanatory factors in the initial model. Factors
131 were then sequentially eliminated and the model that minimized the Akaike Information
132 Criterion (AIC) was chosen as the final model. A similar model and approach was used
133 to assess the importance of the various perceived threats to honeybee and pollinator

134 populations, with the dependent variable being the score of the threat according to its
135 ranking (i.e. $y = 0, 1, 2$ or 3).

136

137 **RESULTS**

138 **Respondents**

139 A total of 273 responses were received from 108 countries (Figure 1). Multiple
140 responses were received from 62 countries. Figure 1 uses a colour gradient to indicate
141 the number of responses per country. The largest number of responses received from a
142 single country was 12, from Ecuador. For 66 countries (61%), a response was received
143 from a person representing the government.

144 The responses to the survey were well-representative of global honey production and
145 pollination services. Responses were received from 17 of the 18 largest honey-
146 producing countries and accounted for 90% of the global honey production in 2017
147 (FAO 2020b). Responding countries covered approximately 85% of the world's land
148 mass (Brinkhoff 2020).

149 More than half (51%) of survey respondents were scientists. Beekeepers were the next
150 largest category (20%), followed by government officials (11%), veterinarians (9%) and
151 non-governmental organizations (6%).

152 **Species and sub-species reported**

153 All 11 *Apis* species of honeybees were reported in at least one country, i.e. *A. mellifera*,
154 *cerana*, *florea*, *dorsata*, *laboriosa*, *nigrocincta*, *andreniformis*, *binghami*, *breviligula*,
155 *koschevnikovi* and *nuluensis*. The first six of these species were reported to be actively

156 managed in some manner (e.g. for honey production or pollination) in at least one
157 country.

158 *Apis mellifera*, was reported present and managed in all but one country (Tonga), and
159 other literature reports its presence there (Chapman et al. 2019). The ubiquity of *A.*
160 *mellifera* was also reflected by the fact that the species was considered “native” by
161 many respondents from the Americas, despite its origin in the Eastern Hemisphere. The
162 next most-widely reported species was the dwarf honeybee, *A. florea*, present in 21
163 countries, followed by the Asian honeybee, *A. cerana*, in 16 countries. *Apis cerana* was
164 much more frequently managed (15 countries) than *A. florea* (5).

165 Eighty-five countries identified local *Apis* sub-species. Twenty-six subspecies of *A.*
166 *mellifera* were reported, along with various hybrids. *A. m. ligustica*, *carnica*, *mellifera*
167 *and scutellata* were the four most common sub-species.

168 The survey emphasized bee pollinators, but respondents were asked to indicate other
169 species of importance. Non-*Apis* bees were reported by 101 countries (94%) and
170 managed in 78 countries. The most commonly managed species were bumblebees
171 (*Bombus* spp.), in 60 countries. Some *Bombus* species are raised commercially (e.g.
172 Desjarins et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2015) *Bombus* species were followed by stingless
173 bees (*Meliponini* spp. – 25 countries), mason bees (*Osmia* spp. - 19), leafcutter bees
174 (Family Megachiliadae - 17, carpenter bees (*Xylocopa* spp. - 14) and sweat bees
175 (Family Halictidae - 10).

176 Among non-bee species, butterflies were the most common pollinator, cited by 82
177 countries (76%). Other pollinators reported by more than half of the countries were flies
178 (63%), wasps (59%), and birds (54%).

179 With respect to individual species, *B. terrestris* was specifically noted by 19 countries.
180 Other species cited multiple times were *M. rotundata* (11), *B. impatiens* (4) and several
181 *Osmia* species.

182 Countries had the opportunity to mention particularly important pollinators and
183 pollinated crops. For honeybees, 89 countries indicated pollinated crops. Among these,
184 81 (91%) mentioned fruit trees, with tree species depending on geographical location
185 and climate. Other important crops were cucurbit species (35 countries - 39%);
186 brassicas (33; 37%), pulses (22; 24%) and sunflowers (20; 22%). Fewer countries
187 reported specific relationships between crops and non-*Apis* pollinators. The most
188 commonly named combinations were *Bombus* species with tomatoes and other
189 greenhouse crops and Megachiliadae species with leguminous forage crops such as
190 alfalfa and clover.

191 **Monitoring of pollinators**

192 Population monitoring is critical for preventing the extinction of species and managing
193 their genetic diversity. Table 2 shows the numbers of countries with systems for
194 monitoring, distinguishing between honeybees and other pollinators. Monitoring of
195 honeybees was more commonly practiced (78 vs. 44 countries; $p < 0.001$ – Fisher’s
196 exact test). This result was notable considering that many more species of pollinators
197 than honeybees were potentially available for monitoring. Various countries have
198 reported national honeybee monitoring programmes (e.g. Porrini et al. 2016; Kulhanek
199 et al. 2017).

200 Indicating the monitored species was voluntary and was reported by 20 countries.
201 Eighteen countries confirmed monitoring of non-*Apis* bees, including eight countries

202 that monitor one or more *Bombus* species. Butterflies, moths, birds and bats were other
203 species reported by at least one country. Several countries, in Europe especially,
204 mentioned the monitoring of a large range in species.

205 Respondents were asked to identify the responsible authority monitoring honeybees.
206 While the government was most often cited (61 countries), respondents frequently
207 named more than one entity. Beekeeper associations were reported in 50 countries, and
208 scientists and research organizations in 46 countries. Fewer than 20% of countries rely
209 on a single actor and more than 40% involve all three of these entities. When only a
210 single actor was responsible for monitoring, it was usually the government (10 of 15
211 instances).

212 Among the countries that do not monitor honeybees, 28 indicated reasons for this
213 absence. Lack of funding (20 countries) was the most common reason. Multiple
214 responses were accepted; lack of political will (13), lack of awareness regarding the
215 importance of such information (11); and low national priority (11) were also frequently
216 reported.

217 **Trends in populations of honeybees and other pollinators**

218 The distributions of population trends for honeybees and other pollinators according the
219 statistical analysis accounting for effects of global regions are in Figure 2. The AIC was
220 minimized when Region was the only explanatory effect. Therefore, the role of the
221 respondent had no significant impact on his or her response. A substantial difference is
222 evident between population trends of honeybees and other pollinators. Honeybee
223 populations were perceived to be or stable or increasing by more than 50% of
224 respondents in all regions, whereas populations of other pollinators were perceived to be
225 decreasing by at least 50% of the respondents in all regions except Oceania. Among

226 countries with monitoring programmes, around 70% reported decreasing populations of
227 non-honeybee pollinators, whereas 77% reported that honeybee populations were steady
228 or increasing.

229 The only statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) for honeybees was between
230 Northern America and Sub-Saharan Africa. Nearly 90% of respondents from Northern
231 America reported a positive or stable trend, whereas this proportion was just slightly
232 greater than 50% for Sub-Saharan Africa. For other pollinators, the only significant
233 ($p < 0.05$) difference was between Europe and Asia. Most of the respondents from both
234 regions perceived general pollinator populations to be declining, but this view was more
235 common in Europe (87% vs. 56% of respondents).

236 Specific monitoring of the genetic diversity of honeybees was much less common than
237 monitoring the population status of either honeybees or other pollinators. Only 30
238 countries (28%) undertake this activity. The questionnaire did not specify whether
239 diversity was defined as within or across sub-species; responses generally referred to
240 monitoring within sub-species. Various approaches were described for this activity.
241 These approaches included pedigree, molecular and morphometric based methods, each
242 of which were reported in five countries, with many countries applying multiple
243 approaches. Among the 25 countries for which a trend in genetic diversity was reported,
244 it was either steady or increasing in 20.

245 **Threats to honeybees and other pollinators**

246 The results of the analysis of perceived threats to honeybees and other pollinators are in
247 Figure 3. Region was again the only significant effect, indicating that professional role
248 of the respondent had no substantial effect the threats he or she perceived to be most
249 important. Regarding honeybees, the main threat identified was the *Varroa destructor*

250 mite. The average score for the threat of *V. destructor* was 1.6 (maximum of 3.0) with
251 significant ($p < 0.05$) regional variation.

252 The second greatest threat for honeybees was pesticides (1.2); followed by habitat loss
253 and degradation (0.8); and climate change (0.7). Significant ($p < 0.05$) regional
254 differences were observed for seven of the classes of honeybee threats. *Varroa*
255 *destructor* was the most important threat in Asia, Europe, North Africa and Northern
256 America. Pesticides were the most important in Latin America, habitat loss and
257 degradation in Sub-Saharan Africa, and bacterial and fungal diseases in Oceania.

258 Regional variability was particularly common among threats involving diseases, pests
259 and parasites. For example, *V. destructor* was reported as the main threat much more
260 frequently in Northern America (2.5) and Europe (2.4) than in sub-Saharan Africa (0.7)
261 and Oceania (1.0). Native African subspecies of *A. mellifera* are less susceptible to *V.*
262 *destructor* than subspecies native to Europe (e.g. Locke 2016). Among the responding
263 countries from Oceania, *V. destructor* is primarily established only in New Zealand
264 (Iwasaki et al. 2015). Significant regional variation was also present for the importance
265 of habitat loss and degradation, pesticides and climate change.

266 In addition to differences in species and sub-species of pollinators and pests, regions
267 also differ substantially in beekeeping practices and environments, including crop
268 production environments. For example, the commercial pollination and beekeeping
269 industries are much more important in North America than in Africa, where beekeeping
270 of often informal and often includes the use of natural nesting sites (e.g. Lowore et al.
271 2018). These factors may impact the relative importance of threats.

272 For other pollinators, the main perceived threats were habitat loss and degradation
273 (average = 1.7), pesticides (0.8), agricultural intensification (0.8) and climate change

274 (0.8). Northern Africa, for which pesticides ranked as most threatening, was the only
275 region where habitat loss and degradation was not considered the most important threat.
276 However, regional differences were not significant for any of the threats to general
277 pollinators.

278 **Conservation and protection activities for honeybees and other pollinators**

279 For honeybees, conservation or protection measures were reported for 72 countries
280 (67%) versus only 54 (50%) for other pollinators. No significant differences were
281 observed among the native range of *A. mellifera* (Africa, Europe and the Near East –
282 70%), *A. cerana* (East and Southeast Asia – 71%) and other countries (58%). A much
283 more substantial association was seen for level of economic development. Among
284 OECD countries, 94% reported protection activities for honeybees, versus 55% for non-
285 OECD countries ($p < 0.0001$). A smaller difference was observed for for conservation
286 activities for other pollinators (66% vs. 42%; $p < 0.04$).

287 The government is the most common actor for both protection of domesticated
288 honeybees and conservation of wild pollinators, with a slightly greater role (87% of the
289 countries with conservation measures) for other pollinators than for honeybees (83%).
290 Research institutions are the second most important actor for both species groups (56 vs
291 41 countries for honeybees and other pollinators). Beekeeper organizations were
292 reported to play an active role in protection of honeybees in almost half (52) of
293 countries. Conservation organizations play a role in slightly less than a third of countries
294 for both species groups, with a slightly greater importance (34 vs. 30 countries) for
295 other pollinators.

296 Figure 4 shows the numbers of countries undertaking various activities to support
297 protection of honeybees and conservation of other pollinators. Research was the most

298 common activity for honeybees, being performed in 64 of the 72 countries reporting
299 some activity. However, research was a complementary activity, no country reported
300 research as the only measure. Conservation of native populations and pesticide
301 regulations were the next most frequently performed activities, in 57 and 55 countries,
302 respectively. The least common activity for honeybees, habitat conservation or
303 restoration, was reported in 43 countries, which was nevertheless more common than
304 any conservation measure for other pollinators. For these species, the six activities in
305 Figure 4 were all being undertaken with similar frequency.

306 Regarding specific pollinator friendly farming practices (no figure or table), integrated
307 pest management was reported by 43 and 35 countries for the benefit of honeybees and
308 other pollinators, respectively. Planting of hedgerows and flower strips was reported by
309 42 and 29 countries, for honeybees and other pollinators, respectively. Among activities
310 specific to honeybees, 21 countries take measures to preserve honeybee germplasm and
311 15 countries own and manage honeybee colonies. For non-honeybee pollinators, 22
312 countries provide or protect nesting resources.

313

314 **DISCUSSION**

315 The respondents to this survey had substantial heterogeneity with respect to their
316 professional role dealing with bees and other pollinators, but one clear and perhaps
317 counter-intuitive observation can be made from this survey: Although honeybees tend to
318 receive more attention in awareness campaigns, their true risk of extinction seems to be
319 far less than for other pollinators in general, at least for domesticated honeybee
320 populations.

321 Honeybees represent only a small fraction of the number of pollinator species, many of
322 which have transboundary geographical ranges. One species in particular, *A. mellifera*,
323 can essentially be found in all of the countries of the world and is sometimes considered
324 a threat to native honeybee species (Teichroew et al. 2017). In China, the distribution of
325 *A. cerana* has decreased by 75% since the introduction of *A. mellifera* (Yang 2005). In
326 most countries ($\approx 80\%$), the population sizes of honeybees are either known or perceived
327 to be stable or increasing, whereas other pollinators tend to be in decline in most (70%).
328 Honeybee populations are much better monitored (78% vs 43% of countries) and
329 supported by protection programmes (67% vs 50% of countries).

330 This apparent bias toward protection of honeybees over conservation of other pollinator
331 species, although somewhat counter-intuitive, is perhaps not unusual or unexpected.
332 Several plausible explanations for this bias can be hypothesized. Well-known “flagship”
333 species often receive greater public attention and expenditures for their conservation
334 (e.g. Small 2012; Daniels et al. 2019).

335 Economic factors also influence protection and conservation activities and spending.
336 First, honeybee pollinator services result in greater crop yields and thus greater
337 economic returns for farmers. Non-honeybee pollinators also provide this service, in
338 some instances superior to honeybees (e.g. Garibaldi et al. 2013), but often in a less-
339 appreciated manner. Second, both honey production and commercial pollination yield
340 substantial returns for beekeepers. Most non-honeybee pollinators contribute to only the
341 first of these revenue-generating activities. Non-honeybee pollinators may have a
342 greater value to pollination of wildflowers than honeybees, but this value is difficult to
343 measure and is a public, rather than private good.

344 Finally, from a purely numerical and probabilistic standpoint, honeybees (*A. mellifera*,
345 particular) are found in every country of the world, creating a much larger opportunity
346 for their protection than of any single other pollinator species.

347 Ubiquity, economics and opportunity have also been shown to be associated with
348 protection decisions for domesticated animals (Leroy et al. 2019). National gene banks
349 for livestock tend to have larger collections of more economically important species,
350 particularly cattle. Within species, collections tend to be larger for commercially
351 oriented transboundary breeds than for small local breeds, despite their greater
352 extinction risk.

353 These results do not necessarily suggest reducing the attention given to protection of
354 honeybees. One reason for the increased recent attention for honeybees is the so-called
355 colony collapse disorder (CCD - Stokstad, 2007). Our survey did not mention CCD
356 specifically, but inquired about colony loss in general. A total of 65 (60%) countries
357 reported annual losses of at least 10% of colonies in recent years and 21 (20%) reported
358 losses exceeding 30%. Such events can devastate a country's pollination services and
359 erode genetic diversity. The reasons for CCD are still not well understood, implying the
360 need for more research (Steinhauer et al. 2018). Although CCD is just one example,
361 research (Figure 4) was the most common honeybee protection activity reported.

362 Decades of research on honeybees has resulted in the development of methods to
363 prevent colony loss and recover colonies through breeding (e.g. Histov et al, 2020;
364 Maucourt et al. 2018). Such research is generally not available for other pollinator
365 species, especially those that are not managed.

366 In addition, although the presence of *A. mellifera* in every country in the world suggests
367 that extinction of the species is extremely unlikely, individual subspecies are not as
368 secure (De la Rua et al. 2009; Requier et al. 2019) and may be threatened by the more
369 common subspecies.

370 Commercial pollination services, honey production and the related international trade of
371 honeybee genetic material are dominated by a few *A. mellifera* subspecies, particularly
372 *A. m. ligustica* and *A. m. carnica*, and various hybrids that have favourable genetic and
373 phenotypic characteristics for these tasks. When these subspecies are introduced, they
374 can compete for resources and hybridize with the natives, decreasing their number or
375 diluting their gene pools (for a review, see Mallinger et al. 2017). In this survey,
376 international trade in honeybees was reported by 66 countries. A similar phenomenon
377 threatens the diversity of livestock and crops (FAO 2015) and is one factor that
378 motivated the CGRFA to examine the routine monitoring of pollinators.

379 The recommended solution to improve the sustainability of pollinators, including
380 honeybees, would be to increase efforts to conserve and/or sustainably use all species.
381 Unfortunately, financial realities may constrain this approach. When possible,
382 protection and conservation measures should be designed to emphasize the truly at-risk
383 species and optimized to benefit both honeybees and other pollinators, as well as other
384 types of biodiversity. The main threats reported were similar between honeybees and
385 other pollinators. With the exception of *V. destructor*, which only affects honeybees,
386 habitat loss and degradation and pesticides were most important threats for both groups
387 of species. Climate change was the next most important threat for both groups. This
388 result implies that many initiatives, if managed correctly, would benefit both groups,
389 even if the primary intention is to bolster honeybee populations. Conserving pollinator

390 diversity may be more beneficial to ecosystems than management for pollination
391 services (Senapathi et al. 2015).

392 Many protection and conservation measures, including regulations or bans on
393 pesticides, sustainable agriculture practices and increasing public awareness are already
394 being applied. However, less than 40% of countries report targeting these activities
395 toward non-honeybee pollinators. Adoption of practices that too strongly favour one
396 type of pollinator over another must be avoided. Various scientists recommend limiting
397 or prohibiting beekeeping activities in protected areas inhabited by valuable wild
398 pollinators (e.g. Colla and MacIvor, 2017; Geldmann and González-Varo, 2018). Others
399 (e.g. Alaux et al. 2019) have outlined justifications for keeping of native honeybees
400 within protected areas, if properly managed.

401 Improved monitoring of population status is important. Based on preliminary results of
402 this survey (FAO 2018), in 2019, the CGRFA formally requested FAO to include data
403 fields related to honeybees in DAD-IS. The relative lack of data monitoring systems for
404 other species of pollinators was among the reasons that those species were not included
405 in this mandate, despite their importance and declining populations.

406 The large number of non-honeybee pollinators and their diversity from country to
407 country are factors that may limit their comprehensive monitoring on national and
408 global levels. Although some countries report monitoring of hundreds of species of
409 pollinators, this may not be feasible for all, especially those with developing economies.

410 FAO and the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) have developed a
411 simple protocol for detecting and monitoring pollinators (LeBuhn et al. 2016) that is
412 being used by 13 countries that responded to the survey.

413 When monitoring a large number of pollinator species is not feasible, other, more
414 efficient but less comprehensive approaches could be considered. One approach
415 practiced by some countries consists of the designation of indicator species whose
416 population trends mimic those of pollinators in general (Naeem et al. 2020). Butterflies
417 (Brereton et al. 2011) have been proposed as one possible indicator, in part because of
418 their appeal to the public. Citizen science has been investigated as a lower cost approach
419 to gather data to complement standard approaches for insect population monitoring
420 (Dennis et al. 2017). The recently launched World Bee Count (2020) is one such
421 initiative.

422 For non-honeybee pollinators, details on the status of individual species may be of less
423 interest than the status of all pollinators as a group, on the services they deliver, or on
424 their respective ecosystems. Various scientists have proposed indirect approaches (Sapir
425 et al. 2015) for assessing or predicting the status of pollinators, considering indirect
426 measures and indicators of species abundance. Hegland et al. (2010) developed a cost-
427 effective approach to monitor plant-pollinator networks. Affek (2018) proposed a set of
428 indicators to measure the pollination potential of different ecosystems, while also
429 accounting for potential honey production.

430

431 **CONCLUSIONS**

432 This study provided information reflecting that although the honeybee, in particular *A.*
433 *mellifera*, is often used as the flagship species for pollinator conservation, they are
434 generally not at risk of extinction as a species. Honeybee populations were perceived to
435 be or stable or increasing by a majority of respondents in all regions, whereas
436 populations of other pollinators were judged to be declining by most of the respondents

437 in nearly all regions. *A. mellifera* is overwhelmingly the most commonly managed
438 pollinators. Many countries routinely collect honeybee population data and have
439 protection and conservation programmes for *A. mellifera* and other honeybee
440 populations. In a large part of the world, honeybee populations are steady and
441 increasing in numbers.

442 The survey also revealed the wide disparity in information about and resources
443 dedicated toward honeybees and other pollinators. Honeybees, due to their clear
444 commercial importance, have been widely researched for years in many countries.

445 While some general pollinators are utilized and managed, they are almost all bee species
446 and less is known about other pollinators. These species are less likely to be monitored
447 and conserved than their bee, and specifically honeybee, counterparts. In most countries
448 populations of general pollinators are decreasing.

449 Honeybees and other pollinators face many of the same risks. Therefore, greater
450 implementation of protection and conservation activities that equitably support the
451 wellbeing of all pollinators is recommended whenever possible. Increased monitoring of
452 pollinator is also warranted. Globally, genetic diversity of pollinators is not widely
453 studied, even in honeybees, although genetic diversity is generally accepted to be vital
454 to species' long-term propagation and health. Even within honeybees, the increasing
455 dominance of highly-productive domesticated *A. mellifera* subspecies puts genetic
456 diversity of that species at risk and may also be detrimental for *A. cerana* and other *Apis*
457 species.

458

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466

467 **AUTHOR DECLARATIONS**

468 Availability of data and materials: The datasets generated during and/or analysed during
469 the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

470 The data are also available in the public domain at
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472

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480 oversaw its distribution. GL managed the data, performed the statistical analyses and
481 prepared graphics; CC contributed to interpretation of the data, particularly from the
482 entomological perspective. PB co-proposed the study and co-designed the survey and

483 finalized the manuscript. All authors contributed substantially to revisions. The authors
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485

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487

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607 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

608 **Fig.1** Countries with responses to the survey, with a colour gradient according to the
609 number of responses per country

610

611 **Fig.2** Reported trends in populations of honeybees and other pollinators according to
612 regions. [Different letters correspond to significantly different trends across regions
613 ($p < 0.05$) after correcting for multiple testing]

614

615 **Fig.3** Reported threats in populations of honeybees and other pollinators according to
616 regions, ranked on a 0-3 scale. with 3 being the greatest level of threat. (NS: non-
617 significant; * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$)

618

619 **Fig.4** Numbers of countries reporting various activities for conservation of honeybees
620 and other pollinators

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622 **Table 1** Summary of survey sections and question topics

Section 1 – Information about respondents (e.g. country, professional role)	
Section 2 – Honeybees	
Questions	Topic
1	Species and subspecies
2-3	Population data collection
4-5	Honey management
6-8	Population status
9-10	Services
11-13	International trade
14	Services and Products
15	Threats
16	Conservation
17	References
Section 3 – General pollinators	
Questions	Topic
18-19	Species and subspecies
20-21	Services
22	Population data collection
23	Population status
24	Threats
25-26	Species extinct or at risk
27	Conservation
28	References

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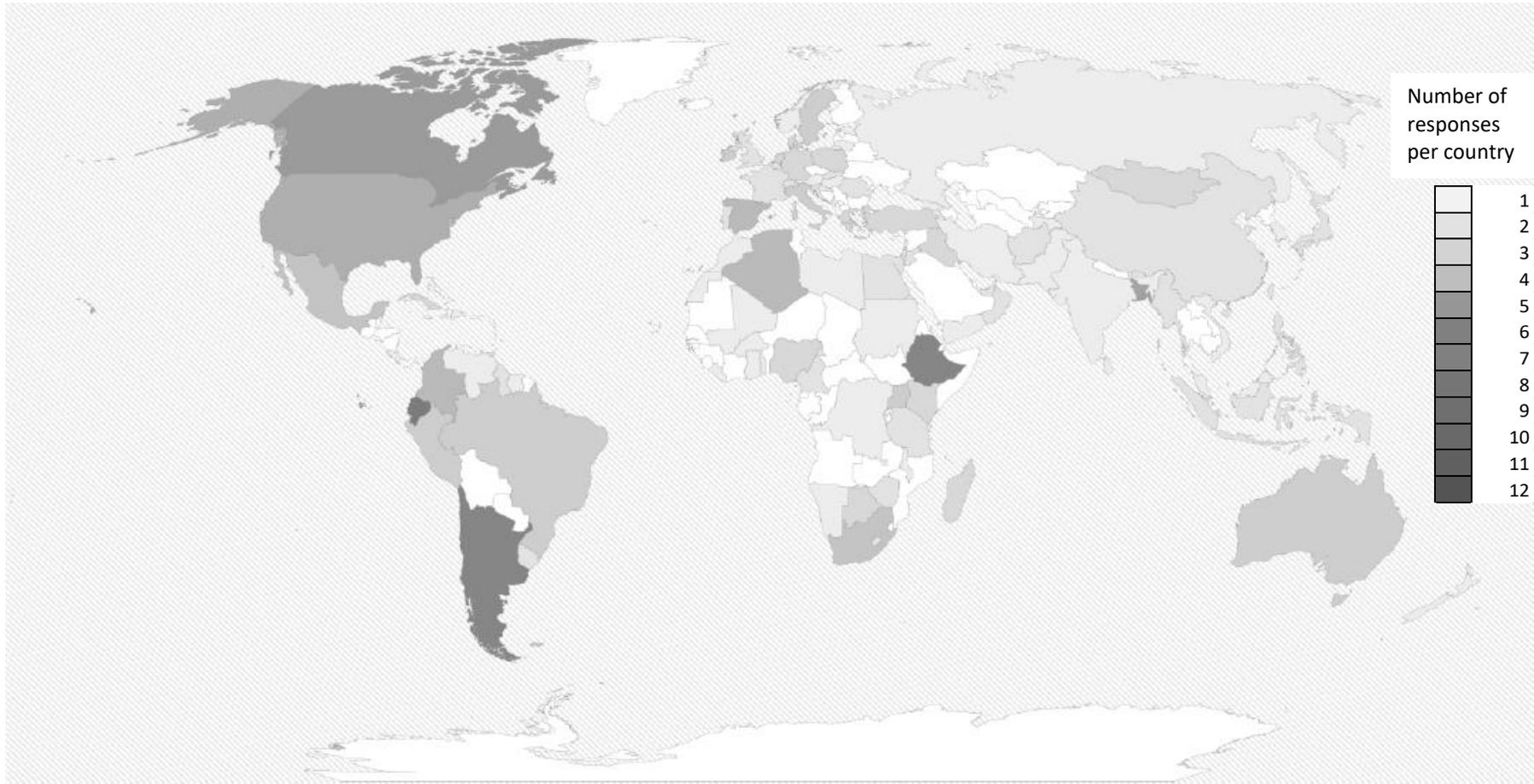
625 **Table 2** Numbers and proportions (%) of countries with national systems for
 626 monitoring of pollinator populations

Status of national systems	Honeybees		Other pollinators	
	N	%	N	%
Existent	78 ^a	72	44 ^b	41
Non-existent	24	22	55	51
Unknown	6	6	9	8

627 ^aFor nine countries, only some species of honeybees are regularly monitored

628 ^bFor at least one species of pollinator other than *Apis* honeybees

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645 **Fig.1** Countries with responses to the survey, with a colour gradient according to the number of responses per country

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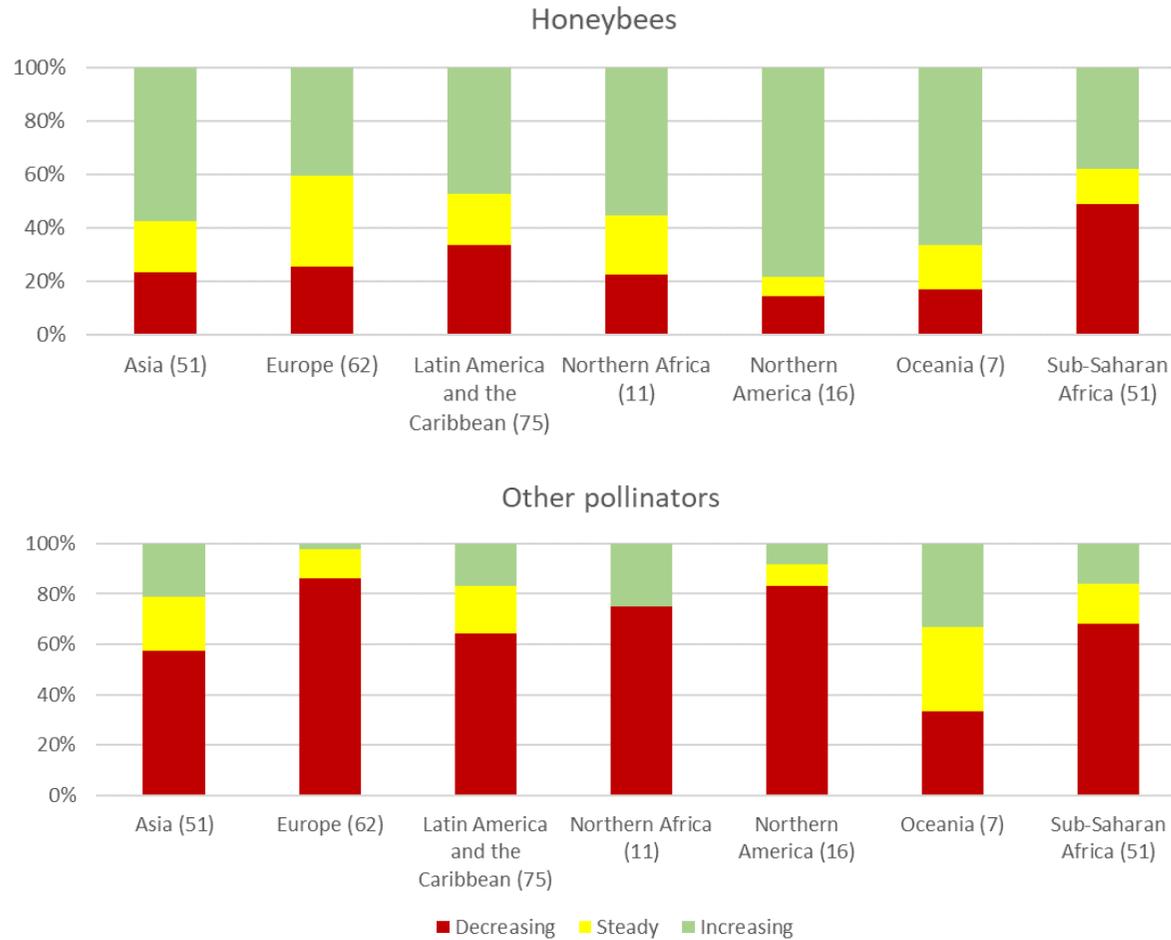
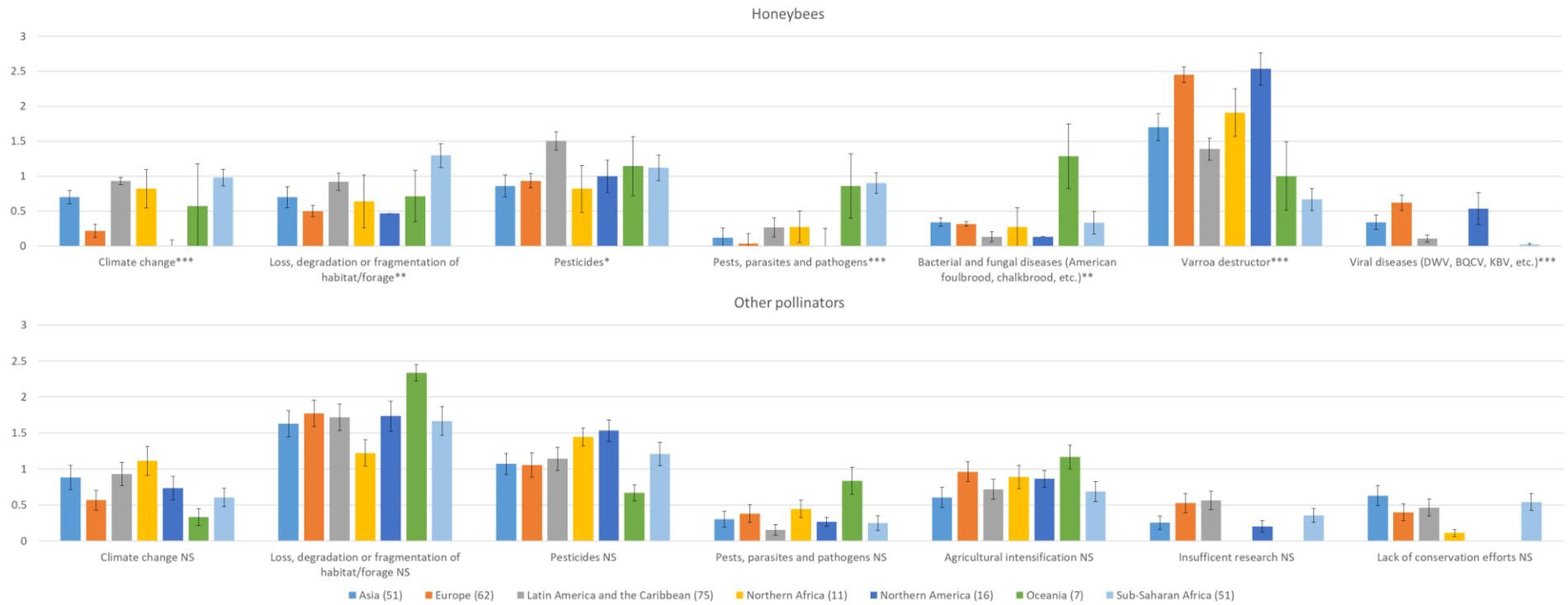


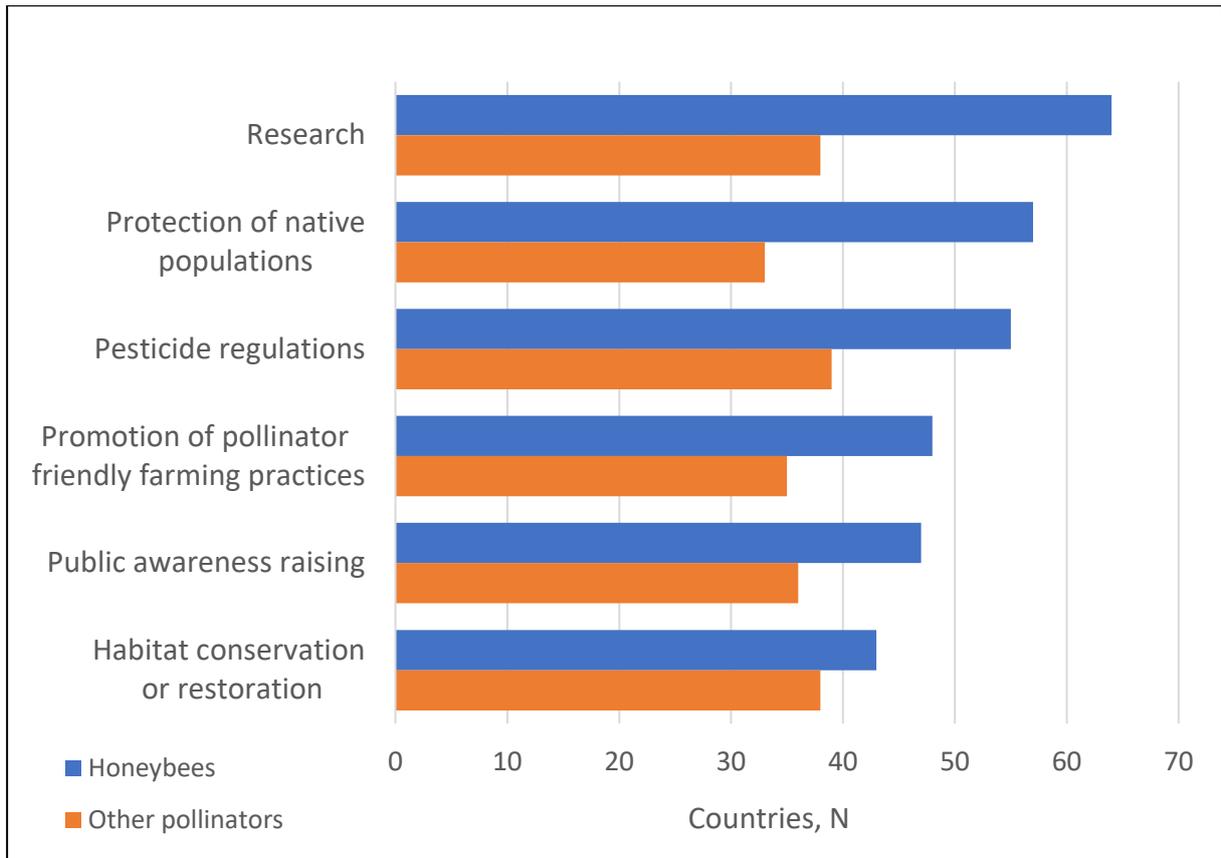
Fig.2 Reported trends in populations of honeybees and other pollinators according to regions. [Different letters correspond to significantly different trends across regions ($p < 0.05$) after correcting for multiple testing]



664

665 **Fig.3** Reported threats in populations of honeybees and other pollinators according to regions, ranked on a 0-3 scale. with 3 being the greatest level

666 of threat. (NS: non-significant; * P<0.05; ** P<0.01; *** P<0.001)



668

669 **Fig.4** Numbers of countries reporting various activities for conservation of honeybees and

670 other pollinators