

— Opinion —

THESIS, DECONSTRUCTION AND NEW SYNTHESIS: THE CHANGING FACE OF APPLIED POLLINATION

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Abstract—A quarter millennium of the changing face of pollination biology from 18th Century discovery (thesis) to 21st Century crisis is presented in six overlapping, interdigitating facets. Pollination biology was not regarded as serious science at its onset, but acceptance of the Darwinian theory of evolution has shown its biological value. Disciplinary issues in pollination (i.e. deconstruction) have produced a wealth of knowledge but with botanical and zoological solitudes. At the same time botany and zoology tend to be separate within agronomy and apiculture. Philosophical, social, scientific, technical, political and business agendas have variously hampered, and continue to hamper, objective science in each facet. Nevertheless, interdisciplinary approaches to pollination ecology, its inherent co-evolutionary principles, and the current “pollination” crisis have become a scientific and social unifying force that cannot but lead to new knowledge, insights and, I hope, wisdom (new synthesis).

Keywords: Agricultural intensification, Agronomy, Apiculture, Evolution, Pollination crisis, Biodiversity

Pollination biology can be viewed as having started as **thesis** (i.e. a premise to be maintained or proved), having grown in depth and breadth through **deconstruction** (i.e. critical analysis of ideas and knowledge) and is entering a new phase of **synthesis** (i.e. combining components, old and new, to form a connected whole). Throughout the generally constructive history of pollination biology there have been detractions, distractions, and antagonisms. I present a brief compilation and commentary, in six overlapping and interdigitating facets, of the quarter millennium’s changing face of pollination biology from non-applied and applied viewpoints. Whilst philosophical, social, scientific, technical, political and business agendas have variously hampered, and continue to hamper, objective science in each facet, these challenges have provided stimulus to deeper research. Certainly, pollination biology has grown in scientific respectability, influence, rigour and utility. Nowadays, it is generally acknowledged that there are enough instances, and mounting evidence, of the erosion of pollination services in many environments and locations that science and society should take, and is taking, notice.

Pollination biology has a venerable history of about one quarter of a millennium (see Baker 1979, 1983; Proctor et al. 1996; Waser 2006). From early days practical issues have not escaped the attentions of pollination biologists. Philip Miller as horticulturalist extraordinaire and Arthur Dobbs with his deep appreciation of agriculture both described pollination *per se* as early as the mid-18th Century (Vogel 1996). Christian Konrad Sprengel, the author of the first text book on pollination (1793), also considered the

practical implications of his discoveries and generalizations (Endress 1992; Vogel 1996). During the latter half of the 19th Century, the subject burgeoned. Knuth’s (1909) Handbook of Pollination Biology (three volumes in incomplete translation but four in the original German) lists over 2,000 references to scientific publications. Other important textbooks and compendia have since been published, notably those by Faegri & van der Pijl (1979), Proctor et al. (1996) and Willmer (2011). Also, over the years, the importance of pollination to agriculture became increasingly recognized, especially because of the expansion and intensification of mechanized and chemically oriented crop production. Reviews of crop pollination by insects are exemplified by McGregor (1976) and Free (1993). The need for pollinators (especially western honeybees (*Apis mellifera*)) in agroecosystems has become ever more evident as has the need for their protection, especially from pesticide applications (e.g. Brittain (director) 1933, ICPPR over 3 decades and most recently 2015; NRCC 1981; Johansen & Mayer 1990; Fischer & Moriarty (eds) 2014).

While practical facets of pollination were becoming more and more incorporated into agricultural practice, and alternative (non *Apis*) pollinators were being considered with methods of husbandry developed, it was becoming clear that major issues were starting to confront pollination in natural, quasi-natural and managed systems (NRCC 1981). The seminal publication of the book “The Forgotten Pollinators” (Buchmann & Nabhan 1996) brought the plight of pollinators across ecosystems (including agroecosystems) and the world into stark focus. It launched contemporary international concern for the role of pollination as an ecosystem service. The São Paulo Declaration on Pollinators (Dias et al. 1999; Kevan & Imperatriz-Fonseca (eds) 2002; 2006) led to the assimilation of ecosystem interrelations and

Received 20 May 2015, accepted 12 October 2015

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80 services, as exemplified by pollination, into the agenda of the
81 Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) in 2002. The
82 potential economic consequences of pollination deficits to
83 human food and fibre production have created international
84 concern (Kevan & Phillips 2001; Aizen et al. 2009;
85 Melathopoulos et al. 2015).

86 With the above overview in place, I present the six
87 overlapping, but certainly not mutually exclusive, facets of
88 the general development of pollination biology and
89 introduce the detractions from advancement and how they
90 have been answered.

91 I consider **Facet I** to be that of Discovery. It started and
92 continues energetically with *Theses* (as mentioned above and
93 as are basic to the other Facets identified). Facet I continues
94 actively today through *Deconstruction* (i.e. the critical
95 analysis of ideas (theses) and knowledge by observation and
96 experimentation). Initial 18th Century explanations of floral
97 and pollinator form and function were viewed as contrary to
98 some special-creationist beliefs and pollination studies were
99 often considered as non-serious science (Vogel 1996). Other
100 difficulties may have resided in the detailed exposés that
101 plants had sex, as advanced much earlier by Linnaeus (1729)
102 and put down as “loathsome harlotry”
103 (www.ucmp.berkeley.edu/history/linnaeus.html). Both
104 Linnaeus and Sprengel accepted the creationist beliefs of
105 their days. Certainly, that early resistance was foiled by
106 acceptance of the Darwinian theory of evolution through
107 natural selection, even as exemplified through pollination
108 (Darwin 1862, 1877).

109 As biology became increasingly subdivided, pollination
110 zoology (apiculture, entomology) and botany (agronomy,
111 plant reproductive needs) became increasingly the purviews
112 of detailed and subdisciplinary life sciences: pollination
113 biology, for all its productivity, became poorly integrated.
114 Late in the 20th and now in the early 21st Century
115 pollination biology is expanding with recognition of the
116 “pollination crisis”, but the environmental focus has stressed
117 animal pollinators, especially bees (Kevan & Imperatriz-
118 Fonseca (eds) 2002, 2006; Stubbs & Drummond (eds)
119 2001; Strickler & Cane (eds) 2003; STEP 2015) rather than
120 botanical aspects until recently (IPBES 2014 ongoing).

121 **Facet II** constitutes the application of pollination biology
122 to human food and fibre production. Although some
123 scientists recognized that pollination was directly important
124 to food and human well-being, it was not widely applied
125 until agriculture and beekeeping became mechanized in the
126 mid-19th Century. It culminated with the publication of
127 several major treatises, notably those of McGregor (1976)
128 and Free (1993). It is useful to parse out, as **Facet III**, the
129 issues of intensive renewable natural resources exploitation
130 (farming and forestry) and pesticide use as having additional
131 ramifications in pollination biology. In Facet III, pesticides,
132 notably insecticides, became increasingly used in food and
133 fibre production in the early 20th Century. Concern for
134 pollinators stemmed primarily from honeybee kills
135 (Anderson & Atkins 1968), but Brittain (1933), as director
136 of a major study on pollination of apples, as early as the
137 1920s recognized broader concerns. Regulatory requirements
138 for the registration of pesticides have become increasingly

139 rigorous (often including needs for studies on safety for
140 pollinators) and widespread since the 1970s (see Fisher &
141 Moriarty (eds) 2014).

142 Apicultural concerns (e.g. colony collapse disorder, other
143 pests and diseases of the apiary, neonicotinoid insecticides,
144 overwintering losses in temperate countries) have tended to
145 draw attention away from overarching, and ultimately more
146 serious, environmental problems.

147 In both Facets II and III, the lack of integration between
148 agronomy (botanical) and apiculture (zoological) is evident.
149 At the same time, studies in basic and applied pollination
150 tended to follow separate paths. Within agronomy, plant
151 breeders have promoted, and continue to promote,
152 pollinator-independent crops to assure yield. That applies
153 strongly to crop breeding (which has probably been going on
154 for millennia) for self-pollinating, self-compatible, and
155 apomictic cultivars of crop plants that ancestrally required
156 pollination by insects (see Shivanna & Sawhney (eds) 1997;
157 Slepser & Poehlman 2006) and to a lesser extent to wind-
158 pollinated cereals. Meanwhile, apidologists and beekeepers
159 have advocated the almost exclusive use of the western
160 honeybee (*A. mellifera*) to solve issues of pollination deficits,
161 an attitude that is fast changing (Strickler & Cane (eds)
162 2003). Throughout Facets II and III the pesticide industries
163 have mostly and vociferously denied responsibility for the
164 demise of managed and wild pollinators.

165 The recognition in the mid 20th Century of the value of
166 non-*Apis* species as managed pollinators constitutes the start
167 of **Facet IV** (Strickler & Cane (eds) 2003). Alfalfa
168 leafcutting bees (*Megachile rotundata*) became important in
169 the 1950s. Bumblebees (*Bombus* spp.) became domesticated
170 for greenhouse pollination in the 1990s. Mason bees (*Osmia*
171 spp.) are being exploited in Europe, Asia and North
172 America. Stingless bees (Meliponini) are being investigated
173 for their utility for crop pollination in South America. Even
174 so, some beekeepers and apidologists, now seemingly a
175 decreasing minority, remain antagonistic, opining that
176 alternative pollinators do not do the job and are too pricey. I
177 am not aware of studies that have fully tested those opinions
178 as scientific hypotheses. There are various studies that show
179 that non-*Apis* pollinators are more efficient in terms of their
180 capacities to move pollen (Javorek et al. 2002; Cane &
181 Schifhauer 2003; Artz & Nault 2011; Ne’eman et al. 2011).

182 The adoption of non-*Apis* pollinators for some cropping
183 systems suggests that they are capable of doing the job and
184 are economically superior. Full analyses of costs and benefits
185 remain to be made whereby the relations between pollination
186 and yield deficits are linked to costs and benefits of managed
187 (*Apis* or non-*Apis*) and/or unmanaged pollination. Recent
188 studies across continents, landscapes and farming systems
189 strongly suggest the economic value of wild populations of
190 pollinators to agricultural sustainability (Garibaldi et al.
191 2014).

192 **Facet V** expands the purviews of Facets I to IV because
193 attention to ecosystem function enters the picture. Although
194 initially this Facet was restricted to agriculture (e.g. Brittain
195 (director) 1933) it became expanded in the 1970s to include
196 forest environments (NRCC 1981; Kevan & Plowright

197 1995), general ecosystems (Kevan 1999, 2001; Kevan &
198 Baker 1983) and economics (Kevan & Phillips 2001). Even
199 so, the broader issues remained largely unrecognized until the
200 late 1990s when syntheses through Buchmann & Nabhan's
201 book (1996) *The Forgotten Pollinators* and the *São Paulo*
202 *Declaration on Pollinators* (Dias et al. 1999) heralded
203 today's global concerns. Nearly two decades later, problems
204 in pollinator conservation and management, pollination itself
205 and apiculture (parasites, pathogens, pesticides) continue to
206 intensify. Ecosystem function is receiving increasing
207 recognition, especially with expanded studies of connectance
208 patterns, or webs, of pollinators and plants. Those patterns
209 are being used to understand the extents and strengths of
210 interactions between flowers and flower visitors (e.g. Moreira
211 et al. 2015) even if the additional dimensionalities as to how
212 they function and their importance to pollination remain
213 relatively poorly understood.

214 **Facet VI, the new synthesis**, is the here and now, and
215 what may be envisioned for the future.

216 It is generally acknowledged that there are enough
217 instances, and mounting evidence, of the erosion of
218 pollination services in many environments and localities that
219 science and society should take notice. In fact, since the
220 acknowledgement that pollination services for agriculture
221 and wildlife are at risk, major international and national
222 initiatives are addressing the interdisciplinarity of the
223 emergent problems (e.g. US-NAS 2007; IPI 2009;
224 CANPOLIN 2009 – 2014; STEP 2015). Formal risk
225 analyses are now being applied widely for assessing the
226 effects of pesticide use on managed pollinator health (Fischer
227 & Moriarty (eds) 2014; ICPPR 2015) and are being
228 seriously considered for application to pollination ecology in
229 its environmental contexts.

230 Most recently, the IPBES (2014 and ongoing)
231 (Intergovernmental Panel on Biodiversity and Ecosystem
232 Services) has taken on the task of producing a synthetic and
233 scientifically based review, ranging from biology and ecology
234 to economics and societally-based knowledge aimed at policy
235 and pollination (publication expected in 2016). The *new*
236 *synthesis* (**Facet VI**) takes on the evolving integrative and
237 transdisciplinary approaches as they are embraced by
238 forward-looking scientific teams around the world and in
239 industry-sponsored environmental programs. Narrow
240 disciplinary approaches will continue to contribute to the
241 broader issues. Some vested interests might deny
242 responsibilities and so detract from progress. In some
243 countries, government policies require commercial
244 involvement in research, and so detract from real or
245 perceived objectivity. Scholarly disagreements will continue
246 but, ultimately, they are the grist for the advancement of
247 knowledge.

248 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS, DISCLAIMER, AND 249 APOLOGIES

250 I am grateful to my many friends around the world for sharing
251 their views and information. In a short article such as this, it is
252 impossible to recognize, by citation, the wealth of published
253 information I have consulted. I admit that this article contains
254 editorialising and opinion that do not necessarily reflect the views

255 of others, or of organisations, with which I have worked. My friend,
256 John Smith helped in revising this essay. For funding, I thank the
257 Canadian Pollination Initiative (NSERC-CANPOLIN), for which
258 this is publication number 142.

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