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A MELIPONICULTURA COMO INDUTORA DE PROCESSOS DE RESILIÊNCIA SOCIOECOLÓGICA EM AGROECOSSISTEMAS CAMPONESES NA BAIXADA MARANHENSE

Tese apresentada ao Curso de Doutorado do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Agroecologia da Universidade Estadual do Maranhão, para a obtenção do título de Doutor em Agroecologia.

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Capítulo III

The effect of landscape composition on stingless bee (*Melipona fasciculata*) honey productivity in a wetland ecosystem of Eastern Amazon, Brazil

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A colmeia: nossa história com as abelhas

Bee Wilson, 2005

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46 Abstract

47 Humanity depends on the processes and resources of natural ecosystems, such as natural grassland fields and forests. These ecosystems depend on pollinators, especially bees, to 48 ensure crossbreeding and plant productivity. Faced with deforestation and the fragmentation 49 of forest remnants, meliponiculture plays an important role in biodiversity conservation, 50 ecological restoration and generating income for family farmers. Little is known about the 51 effect of landscape on the productivity of native tiúba bees (Melipona fasciculata) in the 52 Baixada Maranhense Environmental Protection Area (APA) in the Brazilian Amazon. This 53 study aimed to evaluate the landscape effect on *M. fasciculata* honey productivity in APA. 54 We selected 34 stingless beekeepers, mapped and classified landscapes within a 2,000 m 55 radius around the meliponaries, measured honey productivity, and identified the pollen types 56 in each meliponary. We analyzed productivity as a function of mapping the landscape and 57 58 associated beekeeping. Our results have found that honeys from forest landscapes have greater richness and abundance of species, indicating more pollination services in these 59 60 landscapes, but have lower productivity. The highest honey productivity occurs in landscapes with a greater percentage of natural grassland field and a composition dominated 61 62 by shrubs. Melissopalynology and geographical information from landscape mapping provide a precise ecological dimensioning of *M. fasciculata* honey productivity in the APA, 63 which can guide conservation, management and restoration actions in this region, and 64 enhance the recognition of environmental services provided by stingless beekeepers. 65

- 66 Key words: Meliponiculture, melissopalynology, mapping, forest, natural grassland field
- 67

68 1 INTRODUCTION

In the Brazilian state of Maranhão, 75 % of the Amazon Biome has already been 69 deforested to provide space for the expansion of large-scale agriculture and cattle ranching 70 71 (Celentano et al., 2017), which compromises the provision of essential ecosystem services such as pollination due to reduced habitats and pollinators (Pioker-Hara et al., 2014). 72 Furthermore, among the Brazilian states, Maranhão is considered one of the poorest and 73 74 most vulnerable to climate change disasters (Almeida et al., 2016). Thus, the establishment of state policies become crucial for forest conservation and restoration (Celentano et al., 75 2017), as well as the promotion of low-impact economic activities that value 76 sociobiodiversity, such as the raising of native bees (Ribeiro et al., 2019). 77

Deforestation reduces the abundance and richness of pollinators, leading to reduced gene flow and putting the entire plant community at risk, especially allogamous plants that depend on pollinators to maintain heterozygosity (Sujii et al., 2021). This compromises the maintenance of ecosystems, especially their ability to adapt to landscape and climate changes (Waddell et al., 2020).

In Brazil, the native bees represent 40 % of pollinators (Kerr et al., 2001) while environmental degradation alters their nesting, foraging and pollination behavior (Roubik, 2006). The bees are disappearing from natural landscapes due to the loss and fragmentation of habitats, to the expansion of large-scale agriculture and to the indiscriminate use of pesticides (Myerscough et al., 2017). This trend has drastic ecological, social and economic impacts, given that the productivity of cultivated plants also depends on pollinators (Brancalion et al., 2016).

In Maranhão the native stingless bee 'tiuba' (Melipona fasciculata Smith, 1854) is 90 traditionally the principal bee raised in an Environmental Protection Area (APA from 91 Portuguese Área de Proteção Ambiental) of the Baixada Maranhense, in the Amazon 92 Biome, and has economic importance in the generation of income by family farmers 93 (Venturieri et al., 2018). This bee prefers diversified sources of nectar and pollen from native 94 species available at the landscape level (Sponsler and Johnson, 2015). The greater variety of 95 flavors, colors and aromas found in the honey from the native bees is a function of the high 96 97 diversity of the plants they visit (Roubik, 2006), which gives that honey high medicinal and 98 culinary value (de Oliveira Alves, 2013).

99 These honeys contain higher content of water, sucrose and minerals than those of
 100 *Apis mellifera* L., while the ash content and colors vary as a function of the botanical origin

101 (González-Miret et al., 2005). The floral origin of honey can be estimated using
102 melissopalynology, which reveals the richness of plants visited during the production period,
103 in addition to providing important information about plant diversity in the landscape
104 (Fernandes et al., 2020).

The raising of native bees (meliponiculture), conservation and restoration of 105 106 landscapes are synergistic processes (win-win); just as bees benefit from the amount and diversity of pollen in the landscape, the landscape benefits from the pollination process 107 (Härtel and Steffan-Dewenter, 2014). However, the mechanism behind this interaction and 108 109 the effect of the landscape on honey productivity have remained poorly elucidated (Sponsler and Johnson, 2015). Understanding the role of meliponiculture in maintaining this process, 110 111 and knowing these relationships are fundamental for encouraging policies and incentives for 112 sustainable productive activities.

113 The diversified context of the APA – with landscapes formed by agroecosystems of small properties, forest remnants, areas in natural regeneration, floodplains and natural 114 115 grassland fields - configures a natural laboratory for studying the relationship between landscape and honey productivity. We tested the hypothesis that *M. fasciculata* honey 116 117 productivity responds positively to old growth forest cover. In this context, our objective was to identify how honey production varies as a function of different landscape 118 configurations. For this: 1) we measured the productivity of *M. fasciculata* honey; 2) we 119 mapped land use and land cover (LULC) in landscapes of meliponaries; 3) we identified the 120 pollen types in the honey samples; and 4) we modeled productivity as a function of 121 122 landscapes and floral origin.

123

124 **2 METHODOLOGY**

125 **2.1 Study area**

The study was carried out between the years 2017 and 2021 in 13 municipalities of 126 an Environmental Protection Area (APA) in the state of Maranhão, Brazil: Anajatuba, Arari, 127 128 Matinha, Cajapió, São João Batista, São Vicente Ferrer, São Bento, Palmerândia, Peri Mirim, Bequimão, Pinheiro, Santa Helena and Turilândia (Figure 1A). This APA is a 129 130 sustainable use conservation unit created in 1991 and designated as Sítio Ramsar in 2000 131 (site number: 1,020), which contains 17,750 km² (Figure 1B). The estimated population is 132 387 thousand inhabitants; the economy is based on the extraction of babassu (Attalea speciosa), artisanal fishing and family farming (Ramsar, 2000). The study area is located in 133

the Amazon Biome with palm vegetation, the location of the largest lacustrine complex in the Northeast, floodplains and a part of the mangrove belt. According to the Koppen climate classification, the climate is tropical including Am, Aw and As, with an average temperature of 25 °C and annual rainfall between 1,600 and 2,000 mm, concentrated mainly between January and June (Alvares et al., 2013). The soils come from alluvial fluvial-marine geological formations with low natural fertility, fragile structure and limited drainage (Martin et al., 1980).



Figure 1. (a) Location of the study area in the Baixada Maranhense Environmental Protected Area
(APA), Maranhão state, eastern Amazon, Brazil, and (b) the 34 sampling units (bee landscapes)
enumerated (id) in the APA.

145 2.2 Experimental design

144

Thirty-four *M. fasciculata* beekeepers were selected to participate in this research 146 through the 'snowball' sampling methodology (Albuquerque et al., 2014) where visits to the 147 beekeepers residences were initiated by a key informant who indicated other beekeepers, a 148 process that was reiterated until the sampling size was achieved. From the group of 47 149 beekeepers visited, we excluded those with less than 12 boxes of bees or with productivity 150 lower than 260 mL.year⁻¹. We included beekeepers who used standardized or rustic-type 151 boxes (without standard measures), beekeepers in urban, peri-urban and rural locations, and 152 excluded those who raised bees in hollow tree trunks. 153

The research was authorized by the environmental agency of the state of Maranhão 154 155 (Sema A08/2019) and by the appropriate federal agency (Sisbio 68238/2019). All selected beekeepers agreed to participate in the research and signed an informed consent form, which 156 was registered with the research ethics committee (CAAE: 84113418.3.0000.5554/2018) as 157 required by law. We carried out semi-structured interviews, which lasted about 30 minutes 158 159 each, to ascertain the social profile of beekeepers and the details of beehive management: gender, age, number of years in beekeeping, name and number of beekeepers in the network 160 161 of contacts and number of boxes.

162

163 **2.3 Honey productivity**

To measure honey productivity $(ml.bx^{-1})$ three bee boxes from each meliponary were 164 165 randomly selected and reserved among those in the production phase – as it was previously 166 arranged with each beekeeper. We collected the samples in November 2019, respecting the usual harvest schedule, containing the entire annual accumulation of pollen (December 2018 167 168 - November 2019) to account for a broad measure of the set of resource-providing melittophilous plants. The sampling methodology allowed to control the temporal and spatial 169 170 variation in the species flowering, whose concentration occurs in the dry season between 171 July and December (de Oliveira Alves, 2013). For the harvest, a portable electric vacuum suction pump (Aspiramax MA520-60) was employed, according to a hygiene protocol and 172 utilizing sterilized containers to avoid contamination between samples and the environment. 173 174 The total honey content of each box harvested was collected and measured, and the 175 meliponary yield was estimated as the mean production of the three boxes. We measured the internal volume of the three harvested boxes and averaged the volume of the boxes. We 176 177 standardized the productivity value to minimize the effect of the variation in the volume of boxes between meliponaries as follows: the average value of productivity (\bar{p}) of each 178 meliponary (ml) was divided by the average internal volume of the boxes from each 179 180 meliponary (volbx) and multiplied by the average volume of the total number of boxes in the study (16.84cm³), as described in the following calculation: $\bar{p} = ml/volbx \times 16.84$. 181

182

183 2.4 Mapping the bee landscape

We considered the landscape of the bee (sampling unit) as the circular area around each of the 34 meliponaries within a radius of 2,000 m (an area equivalent to 1,256 hectares). The radius was determined based on the flight of the bee *M. fasciculata* (Nunes-Silva et al.,

2020; Borges et al., 2020), controlling the spatial variation of plant flowering in the different 187 188 landscapes. We collected data from 2018 on land use and land cover (LULC) data from the mapping carried out by the MapBiomas project (Souza et al., 2020). MapBiomas performs 189 190 the annual classification of the LULC of Brazilian biomes based on satellite images from the Landsat satellite, with a spatial resolution of 30 m. We defined 12 classes in the studied 191 192 landscapes: mature forest, secondary vegetation subdivided into three classes (1-15 years, 16-25 years, 26-33 years) (Silva Junior et al., 2020), water, mangrove, urban area, pasture, 193 agriculture, natural grassland field, floodplain and mosaic. The classification 'mosaic' 194 195 includes shifting cultivation, sandy formations, small pastures and villages (Capanema et al., 2019). From the LULC classification of each bee landscape, we calculated two metrics for 196 197 each class: area percentage (% = class area/total area \times 100) and patch density (pd = number of patches/area). These metrics were calculated using the landscape metrics package in the 198 199 software R. (Hesselbarth et al., 2019; R Core Team, 2020).

Complementarily, we calculated five landscape entropy measures (joint, marginal, conditional, mutual, relative mutual information) (Nowosad and Stepinski, 2019) and systematized climate variables with CHIRPS data (annual rainfall, annual rainy days, mean rainfall per day) (Katsanos et al., 2016) and geographic metrics (long, long², long³, lat, lat×long, lat×long², lat², long×lat², lat³) (Borcard et al., 2011).

205

206 2.5 Floral origin with Melissopalynology

For the melissopalynological analysis of each of the 34 meliponaries, we took a subsample of 15 mL of honey harvested and homogenized from each box separately (see item 2.3); this subsample was kept cooled until the moment of preparation of the slides by acetolysis (Melhem et al., 2003). One slide was prepared from each box of bees studied, 3 boxes \times 34 meliponaries = 102 slides (102 samples).

The slides were subjected to qualitative and quantitative analysis through microscopy to determine the richness of species and the relative frequency of abundance among all meliponaries with a minimal count of 500 pollen grains per sample. Although this count with a predefined minimum value has as its main objective to determine the participation of botanical species in the floral origin, it was adopted herein to estimate the abundance of pollen in the samples.

The taxonomic identification of the species was determined according to the specialized literature (Carreira et al., 1996; Carreira and Barth, 2003; Albuquerque et al., 2013), and the classification system adopted for the botanical family level was APG IV
(Chase et al., 2016). The same samples were prepared in parallel without acetolysis to
analyze contaminants visible under a microscope (Barth, 2004).

We classified each pollen type identified by life form (tree, palm, shrub, herb, vine, 223 224 aquatic herb), floral resource (nectar, pollen, unidentified), origin (native to Brazil or exotic), 225 and preferential habitat (wetland, grassland, forest, savannah, anthropogenic) ("RCPol -Rede de Catálogos Polínicos Online," 2020). The origin of honey from each meliponary was 226 classified as: monofloral (when there is a dominant pollen type with presence of more than 227 228 45%) or heterofloral (when there is a set of types with more than 9% presence and the absence of a dominant type), taking into account only the nectariferous species (Ribeiro et 229 230 al., 2019). The set of pollen types with low frequency (less than 9%) was considered in 231 calculations of richness, relative abundance and modeling.

232

233 **2.6 Data analysis**

234 **2.6.1 Preparation of matrices**

To evaluate the effect of landscape and floral origin on honey productivity, we set up six data matrices. A: LULC, subdivided into A1: percentage of coverage of classes (%), A2: density of patches by class (pd), B: profile and management of the beekeepers, C: richness and abundance of pollen types by meliponary, D: counts of botanical species, E: life form of species identified by meliponary (richness and abundance), F: entropy, climate and geographic metrics.

The honey productivity values had an asymmetric distribution and were transformed with the natural logarithmic function before the linear regression calculation to obtain normalization of the residuals and homogeneity of the variance of the models used.

244 All mapping data (LULC) were tested for normality and heteroscedasticity with the 245 Shapiro-Wilk and Breusch-Pagan tests. The mapping variables did not have multinormality (Mardia's test p < 0.05) and 35.7% of the variables have more than 50% of zeros; thus, no 246 247 transformations were performed, only the standardization of each variable in z values (each original value was subtracted from the mean and divided by the standard deviation of the 248 respective variable) (Borcard et al., 2011). We evaluated the variance and the number of 249 250 zeros, and eliminated the very rare variables and those with a variance close to zero (Marchant, 2002): mangrove(%), agriculture(%), mangrove(pd), mature forest(pd), 251 urban(pd), agriculture(pd), mosaic(pd), floodplain(pd) and; multicollinearity: secondary 252

vegetation 26-33 years(%). Thus, 15 landscape variables remained, nine of which were measures of area percentage (A1: secondary vegetation 1-15 years, secondary vegetation 16-25 years, mature forest, permanent water, urban area, pasture, mosaic, natural grassland field, floodplain) and six measures of patch density (A2: secondary vegetation 1-15 years, secondary vegetation 16-25 years, mature forest, permanent water, pasture, natural grassland field).

259

260 **2.6.2** Modeling the effects of landscapes on productivity

261 To model the landscape effect (LULC) on honey productivity, we applied a redundancy analysis (RDA) using matrices A1 and A2 as explanatory variables for honey 262 263 productivity and profile and management variables (matrix B) as covariates to remove their effects (Borcard et al., 2011; Jaffé et al., 2015). RDA is a multivariate analysis method that 264 265 consists of performing a multiple linear regression between the explanatory variables of an X matrix with each response variable of a Y matrix and then performing a Principal 266 267 Component Analysis (PCA) on the adjusted values of the Y matrix (Borcard et al., 2011). The analysis was performed by the package Vegan v.2.5-7 (Oksanen et al., 2020). We made 268 269 a direct selection of variables using the Ordistep function from the Vegan package with each 270 of the matrices A1 and A2 separately as explanatory variables and grouped to obtain the best final model (Borcard et al., 2011). To control the collinearity between the variables in the 271 272 final model, we ensured that all selected variables had a variance inflation factor (VIF) below 273 10 and, at the end, we partitioned the variation of A1 and A2 (Borcard et al., 2011).

Furthermore, we performed a multiple linear regression with the same variables as the final RDA model to evaluate the linear coefficients of each variable and to verify whether the linear regression assumptions (normality of the distribution and constant variance of the residuals) had been achieved, with the packages Stats v.4.0.5 and lmtest v.0.9-38. The transformations and modeling were performed with functions from the package Vegan and Stats (Oksanen et al., 2020). The same script was performed with the F matrix, but the models were not significant (p > 0.05) and the results will not be presented.

We organized the set of landscapes according to the honey productivity gradient, indicating the high and low honey productivity meliponaries according to the categories: low (up to the first quartile), medium (between the first and third quartiles) and high (above the third quartile) to obtain a visual description of the effects of landscape variables.

285

286 2.6.3 Modeling the effects of floral origin on productivity

We analyzed honey productivity as a function of pollen analysis variables. The 287 relationship between productivity and, richness and abundance (matrix C) was determined 288 289 through independent linear regressions. For the counts of identified botanical species (matrix D), we applied the Hellinger transformation that is recommended for abundance data 290 (Borcard et al., 2011) and the relationship with productivity followed the same steps 291 described for the mapping analysis to obtain a final independent model, whereas a second 292 model was obtained by repeating the analysis after omitting some species selected in the first 293 294 because they were very rare (Marchant, 2002). The relationship between productivity and life forms (matrix E) followed the same steps as the multivariate analysis; and with the 295 selected variables, we calculated independent linear regressions, since there was no 296 297 significant multiple model (p > 0.05).

298

299 **3 RESULTS**

300 3.1 Profile of beekeepers and honey productivity

In the Baixada Maranhense APA, the meliponaries were established mainly in the 301 302 rural area (76.5%) and to a lesser extent in the urban area (23.5%). The backyard of the 303 houses was the preferred place in 88% of the cases. Those responsible for this activity were 304 mostly men (75%) with an average age of 56 years (\pm 13.24), working in this activity for 305 18.3 years (\pm 14). The size of their contact network varied from 1 to 40 people (18.3 \pm 11.1), 306 and allowed us to estimate the existence of 150 Melipona beekeepers in the APA, which means that the 34 sampled represent 23% of the universe. Respondents had between 12 and 307 308 320 tiuba bee boxes (79 ± 73), boxes whose internal volume varied from 10 to 25cm³ (16.8 \pm 3.6). Meliponiculture was not the main activity of the interviewees, but rather was part of 309 the family's set of activities. The honey productivity in meliponaries ranged from 260.0 to 310 4,794.8mL.bx⁻¹ (1.302 \pm 928.7); the low productivity category ranged from 260.0 to 311 513.8mL.bx⁻¹ and high from 1,788.4 to 4,794.8mL.bx⁻¹. 312

313

314 **3.2 Bee landscape**

The following classes occurred in all 34 landscapes: secondary vegetation 26 to 33 years old which is the most representative class with a cover gradient ranging from 2.4 to 72% (34.8 ± 19.6); secondary vegetation varying from 16 to 25 years, ranging from 3.6 to 32.2% (15.5 ± 6.2); secondary vegetation between 1 to 15 years ranging from 0.4 to 9% (2.3 ± 2.1); floodplain ranging from 1.3 to 52.4% (14.6 ± 14.0) and permanent water from 0.1 to 31.6% (8.1 ± 8.3). Other important classes were: pasture that occurred in 29 landscapes ranging from 0 to 50% (10.8 ± 11.9); natural grassland field occurring in 27 landscapes and ranging from 0 to 41.7% (7.2 ± 11.5); mosaic found in 29 landscapes ranging from 0 to 9% (2.0 ± 2.6) and mature forest occurring in 10 landscapes and varying from 0 to 10% (0.5 ± 1.8).

325

326 **3.3 Landscape effects on honey productivity**

When the LULC variables were modeled separately (matrices A1 and A2), the 327 percentage of classes ($R^2 = 0.36$, p = 0.036) and the patch density ($R^2 = 0.08$, p = 0.050) 328 resulted in lower explanatory values than when considering the 15 variables together ($R^2 =$ 329 0.63, p = 0.001) (Table 1). The profile and management covariates were significant, after 330 discounting their effects; the landscape explained almost half of the variance of honey 331 production in the final additive model ($R^2 = 0.44$, p = 0.001); six variables were selected: 332 333 three with a positive effect (% natural grassland field, % permanent water and natural grassland field patch density) and three with a negative effect (% mosaic; % mature forest 334 335 and pasture patch density). The construction of the multiple linear model with the same variables selected in the RDA revealed a significant model (p < 0.0001) that fulfills the 336 assumptions of the regression. When partitioned, the variances of the final additive model, 337 matrix A1 and matrix A2, have respective explanatory powers of 0.561 (p < 0.0001) and 338 0.245 (p < 0.0001) with no interaction effect between them. In general, the RDA and multiple 339 linear regression coefficients are coherent (Table 2). 340

The landscape variables selected in the modeling and their effect on productivity can 341 be visualized when organized according to the productivity gradient, using the categories of 342 meliponaries with low and high honey productivity (Figure 2). In line with the modeling, 343 344 there is a greater predominance of native field coverage and density of native field patches in the landscapes among meliponaries with high productivity (at the top of the figure), as 345 346 well as the permanent water class. The higher frequency of landscapes with low productivity meliponaries (at the bottom of the figure) contain higher forest cover and greater presence 347 of mosaic and pasture patches. 348

Table 1. Redundancy analysis (RDA) sequence to test landscape effects (Land use and Land Cover) on *Melipona fasciculata* honey productivity (Y) in the Baixada Maranhense Environmental Protected Area (APA), Maranhão state, eastern Amazon, Brazil, in 2019.

Step LULC Model [¥]					р	R ² adj.			
	A1 (%)	 Y ~ sf15+sf25+old forest+water+urban+pasture+mosaic+natural grassland+floodplain Y ~ sf15pd+sf25pd+sf33pd+waterpd+pasture pd+ natural grassland pd 					0.002	0.36	
Original independent	A2 (pd)						0.050	0.08	
models $A1 (\%)+ Y \sim sf15+sf25+old \text{ forest+water+urban+pasture+mosaic+ natural grassland + floodplain +} A2 (pd) Sf15pd+sf25pd+sf33pd+waterpd+pasturepd+ natural grassland pd$					0.001	0.63			
Covariable - ma	anagement	$Y \sim age+b-time+network+n-box+vol$	_	_				0.047	0.17
Additive model	All	$Y \sim A1 (\%) + A2 (pd) - management (network+netwow+network+network+network+network+network+network+network+ne$	n-box)						
Final additive model	Y ~ nati	ve grassland(%) + water(%) + native grassland	(pd) + mos	aic(%) + o	ld forest	(%) + pastur	re(pd)	0.001	0.44
network; n-box is num	ber of beehiv	ves; vol is average volume of boxes; R ² adj. is r squ	are adjusted	; p is signi	ficance le	evel.	,		
network; n-box is num Table 2. Analysis of va Area (APA), Maranhã	ber of beehiv riance of the o state, easter	res; vol is average volume of boxes; R ² adj. is r squ final additive model to test on <i>Melipona fasciculata</i> rn Amazon, Brazil, in 2019.	are adjusted honey prod	; p is signi uctivity, in	ficance le the Baix	evel. ada Maranher	nse Envir	onmenta	l Protected
network; n-box is num Table 2. Analysis of va Area (APA), Maranhão expl	ber of beehiv riance of the o state, easter anatory var	res; vol is average volume of boxes; R ² adj. is r squ final additive model to test on <i>Melipona fasciculata</i> rn Amazon, Brazil, in 2019. iable: landscape / covariable: management [*]	are adjusted honey prod	; p is signi uctivity, in $\frac{F}{20.12}$	ficance le the Baix	evel. ada Maranher score rda	nse Envire	onmenta	l Protected
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 4 network is size of the network, n-box is number of beehives. pd is density of patches, df is degrees of freedom, F is Fischer test, score rda is biplot scores for constraining variables, coef lm is multiple linear regression coefficients; p is significance level.



Figure 2. Composition of the bee landscape (*Melipona fasciculata*) in 34 meliponary arranged in a productivity gradient, sampling unit (id) refer to the meliponary in the center of the bee landscape, indication of low and high honey productivity, cities (urban area) are identified, in APA of Baixada Maranhense, state of Maranhão, Brazil, in 2018.

418 **3.4 Floral origin of honey**

419 The pollen present in the analyzed honeys was classified into 77 pollen types 420 belonging to 23 botanical families, of which 50 were identified at the species level, 26 at the genus level and one only to the family level (see Table 4 in SM), with the majority of plants 421 (84.2%) being native, 28.5% arboreal, 28.5% shrubs, 15.6% herbaceous, 14.2% vines, 422 0.05% palms and 0.03% aquatic plants. As for the floral origin, 19 honey samples were 423 classified as heterofloral and 15 as monofloral. Cultivated plants (Eucalyptus globulus 424 425 Labill, Psidium guajava L.) were representative in honey samples from three sites only (6, 426 19, and 33), in the other honey samples (93.1%) the floral origin is composed of native plants (details in Table 5 in SM). 427

428 The floral origin of honeys from 29 meliponaries (83%) is explained by 15 plant species with greater relative abundance (Figure 3), they are: Eichhornia crassipes Mart. 429 (Solms), Myrcia cuprea (O. Berg) Kiaersk., Senna occidentalis (L.) Link, Distimake 430 aegyptius (L.) A.R. Simões & Staples, Mimosa pudica L., Pontederia parviflora Alexander, 431 Attalea speciosa Mart. ex Spreng, Mimosa verrucosa Benth, Mimosa caesalpiniifolia Benth, 432 Hyptis atrorubens Poit, Chamaecrista diphylla (L.) Greene, Machaerium sp., Camptosema 433 sp., Eucalyptus globulus Labill. and Mouriri acutiflora Naudin. The description of these 434 435 plants and their frequencies in the 34 landscapes studied are displayed in Table 6 (SM).

436



Figure 3. Microphotographs (40x objective; 10 micrometer scale) of the fifteen main pollens,
in relative abundance, observed in the pollen slide of honey samples from the bee *Melipona fasciculata* of meliponaries of 13 municipalities of the Baixada Maranhense APA, in eastern
Brazilian Amazon. 2019.

441

The identification and counting of contaminants in honeys, performed in samples without acetolysis, detected the absence of contaminants or foreign elements, and the presence of common elements with the following frequency in the set of 34 honeys: vegetable tissue (53.8%), yeast (23%), Bryophyte spore (9.6%), insect organ: paw or antenna (3.8%) plant part: root (3.8%), monolete fern spore (2%), algae (2%) and Lycophyte (2%).

110

448 **3.5 Relationships between floral origin and honey productivity**

The mean richness of species registered in the slide of honeys from the meliponaries was 17.4 (\pm 3.5) species, varying from 11 to 26 species while the average abundance of grains counted by honeys was 774 (\pm 161.5) grains and ranged from 421 to 1,223 grains. Honey productivity had a negative relationship with species richness (r = - 0.36 Pearson, p = 0.032) and with pollen abundance (r = - 0.39 Pearson, p = 0.019).

Honey productivity was positively correlated with shrub richness (r = 0.37 Pearson, R² = 0.11, p = 0.029) and negatively correlated with palm abundance (Kendall' tau = - 0.33, R² = 0.18, p = 0.008) present in bees' landscapes (see Table 3). There was no relationship between tree species and productivity.

In the modeling of productivity as a function of botanical species, eight species that 458 459 account for honey productivity ($R^2 = 0.86$; p < 0.0001) were selected in model '1'. However, 460 among the eight species, Cenostigma bracteosum (Tul.) Gagnon & G.P.Lewis is rare and only occurred in one sample from the meliponary with the greatest productivity (id = 12) 461 462 with two grains, whereas Ipomoea carnea Jacq. only occurred in two meliponaries (id: 2 and 23), with three grains in each. In model '2' we omitted C. bracteosum and I. carnea and the 463 464 modeling selected three species (one different from model 1: Mimosa caesalpiniifolia Benth), which account for more than half of the variance of honey productivity ($R^2 = 0.54$; 465 466 p < 0.0001).

The species set (considering models 1 and 2) contained nine native botanical species grouped into six families (Table 3). The main botanical family is Fabaceae (44.4%). The life forms of this species set were: shrubs (44.4%), trees (33.3%), palms (11.1%), and herbs (11.1%). As to the floral resources of these species for the bees, all were nectariferous and polliniferous species; two were highly polliniferous.

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Table 3. Coefficients of independent model obtained with RDA and multiple linear model of honey
yield (Y) of *Melipona fasciculata* as a function of 77 species, obtained by melissopalynology in
eastern Brazilian Amazon, Brazil. Model 2 omitted rare species.

Viald	annlan atom you is block hatomiaal an asias [¥]	family	score rda / coef lm		
riela	explanatory variables: botanical species	Taminy	model 1	model 2	
	Cenostigma bracteosum Tul., N/P, shrub, savanna	Fabaceae	0.394 / 7.159	omitted	
	Tibouchina aspera Aubl., N/P, tree, savanna	Melastomataceae	0.388 / 0.478	0.506 / 0.004	
	Ipomoea carnea Jacq., N/P, shrub, anthropic	Convolvulaceae	0.258 / 3.791	omitted	
$Y \sim$	Neptunia plena (L.) Benth, N/P, herb, wetland	Fabaceae	-0.621 /-1.111	-0.723 /-0.023	
	Anacardium occidentale L., N/P, tree, savanna	Anacardiaceae	-0.507 /-2.635	-	
	Attalea speciosa Mart. ex Spreng, N/P*, palm, anthrop	ic Arecaceae	-0.423 /-1.063	-	
	Psychotria carthagenensis Jacq., N/P, shrub, wetland	Rubiaceae	-0.149 /-2.547	-	
	Plathymenia sp., N/P, tree, savanna	Fabaceae	-0.003 /-1.334	-	
	Mimosa caesalpiniifolia Benth, N/P*, shrub, savanna	Fabaceae	-	0.245 / 0.009	
		R² adj.	0.86	0.54	
		р	<0,0001	<0,0001	

⁴⁷⁶ ⁴Botanical species; resources for bees (N - nectariferous, P - polliniferous, P* - too much pollen);
⁴⁷⁷ life form; habitat; R² adj. is r square adjusted; p is significance level, score rda is biplot scores for constraining variables, coef lm is multiple linear regression coefficients.

479

480 **4 Discussion**

The Amazon is the largest and most biodiverse Brazilian biome, but has the lowest number of laws and public policies related to pollinators (Hipólito et al., 2021), while in recent years deforestation, forest fragmentation and land use change have intensified (Silva Junior et al., 2020). Although there are several studies on the effect of landscape on the production of *Apis meliffera* honey (Sponsler and Johnson, 2015; Donkersley, 2019),
detailed studies on the landscapes and productivity of stingless honeybees are scarce (Jaffé
et al., 2015). The Environmental Preservation Area (APA) of Baixada Maranhense is a
natural laboratory for elucidating how the landscape influences the honey productivity of *M*. *fasciculata*.

490 *M. fasciculata* is a tropical bee, endemic in the north, northeast, and center of Brazil, 491 in the Amazon and Cerrado biomes (Camargo and Pedro, 2013). It has a life expectance 492 varying between 25 and 105 days and starts foraging around 25–33 days after emergence. 493 Climatic and floristic characteristics of the region determine behavior and foraging activity (Kerr et al., 1996; Vit et al., 2013; Gostinski et al., 2018). In a study using radio-frequency 494 495 identification tags (Oliveira et al., 2021) identified that most of the *M. fasciculata* bees (65%) drifted to another hive nearby (not necessarily associated with orientation mistakes) and that 496 497 factors such as temperature, humidity, and solar irradiation influenced the rates of drifting 498 behavior and affected foraging activity. Authors also identified that *M. Fasciculata* forages 499 during the entire day, but prefer the morning (peak activity per colony at 9:00 am). Indeed, 500 the species is very susceptible to climatic variation and small fluctuations can impact their lifespan and implicate extranidal activities (Oliveira et al., 2021). In our study, climate 501 502 variables were not significant to explain honey productivity, probably because of a small variation between sites. However, in the context of climate change, it is fundamental to 503 504 understand the impact of climatic variables on stingless bee behavior and extranidal activity.

Meliponiculture in the APA has a familial character, is conducted by people with advanced age, many years engaged in the activity and an important network of contacts. The beekeeper's experience indicated by the network of contacts, the number of boxes and handling helped to account for the variation in productivity (Jaffé et al., 2015). However, the honey productivity of the studied meliponaries is low and of greater variability (1,302 \pm 928.7ml.bx⁻¹) when compared to the average productivity of 2,430 ml in a similar ecosystem in the state of Pará (Venturieri et al., 2003).

512 Our analyses revealed that the variation in honey productivity is related to the 513 configuration of the landscapes around the meliponaries, the floral origin and the profile and 514 management of the beekeepers. These factors also affect the food and medicinal quality of 515 honey (de Oliveira Alves, 2013), which will be revealed in future physicochemical and 516 sensory analyses. The analysis of honey contaminants indicated only natural elements of the 517 working ecosystem of the bees and the absence of foreign bodies, which validates our samples, the sampling method, and values the APA beekeepers for their management andhygiene (Barth, 2004).

520

521 4.1 Landscapes related to greater honey productivity

In the APA, the highest honey productivity is associated with landscapes with greater coverage of natural grassland fields and permanent water, and with associated species. However, the identification of the floral origin by melissopalynology indicated that these honeys have lower richness and abundance of pollen, which suggests an abundant nectar supply in these landscapes.

527 The natural grassland field is a very old and stable non-forest ecosystem that, in the 528 geomorphological evolution of the Baixada Maranhense, was formed between 9,000 and 5,000 years ago (Lima et al., 2020). Areas of natural grassland field are similar to areas in 529 early succession, they are open, have high solar radiation, great richness and abundance of 530 531 herbaceous, shrub and grassland species with much flowering (Kohler et al., 2008; Neumüller et al., 2020), which guarantees a high nectariferous potential and honey 532 production for *M. fasciculata*. Our results confirm that high honey productivity is positively 533 related to shrubs and some trees. However, there are very few botanical records on the APA 534 535 natural grassland field vegetation (Pinheiro, 2020) to correlate to our data. Therefore, further research should assess the floristic aspect and phytosociology related to this ecosystem. 536 Studies on landscape structure indicate that the most efficient pollination and foraging 537 538 services occur where there are hedges, alleys, strips or forest corridors interspersed with 539 open fields, because they facilitate formation of the "cognitive map", communication and social flight guidance of the bees due to the three-dimensional structure of the landscape, as 540 541 opposed to the absence of these structures (Donkersley, 2019; Kheradmand and Nieh, 2019).

The positive effect of permanent water is due on the one hand to the water essential resource, which ensures greater productivity of local ecosystems, as well as the presence of nectariferous aquatic plants, especially *Eichhornia crassipes*, the most abundant species in the set of analyses and the primary one in 30% of the analyzed honeys (Table 5 in SM). Also, the availability of permanent water in the Amazonian dry period favors honey productivity (de Oliveira Alves, 2013).

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551 **4.2 Landscapes related to lower honey productivity**

552 The lower honey productivity in the APA is associated with landscapes possessing greater coverage of mature forest, pastures and mosaic. Although these landscape classes 553 554 have a negative effect on honey productivity, which leads us to reject our original hypothesis, these honeys contain greater abundance and richness of pollen, with up to 26 species. These 555 556 data suggest a higher frequency of pollen foraging and a greater contribution of these meliponaries in ecosystem services of pollination and maintenance of gene flows, especially 557 558 in fragmented forest areas, compensating for the restriction of seed dispersal due to distance (Sujii et al., 2021). Furthermore, in mature tropical forests present the possibility of complex 559 560 and diversified webs and greater competition for resources with other species of native bees (Vit et al., 2013). 561

The negative relationship with pastures and mosaic, land cover that includes shifting agriculture and small pastures (Capanema et al., 2019), is most likely related to the dynamics of fire use in the landscape (Junior et al., 2016; Peralta et al., 2017), where culturally fire is used for pasture clearing and slash-and-burn practice (Júnior et al., 2008). The fire and smoke from forest fires trigger signals proportional to the size of the danger to the hive that is transmitted among bees; in the short term they interfere with the olfactory sense in general and in the long term hamper foraging and harm the plant-bee relationship (Cho et al., 2021).

The botanical species with the greatest negative effect on honey productivity is *Attalea speciosa* (babassu), a highly polliniferous palm, typical of the palm forest, and very abundant in anthropized environments. *A. speciosa* is not a good supplier of nectar, but it is home to wild *M. fasciculata* nests and other native insects (Anderson et al., 1988). Babassu has high social and economic importance in the region led by women babassu palm breakers, the largest traditional forest products extractive group in Brazil (Porro et al., 2011).

575

576 **4.3 Relations between floral origin and honey productivity**

The diversity of land-use classes and landscape configuration of the APA reveal a plasticity in the behavior of *M. fasciculata* and may indicate a range of tolerance, or an effort to adapt to forest fragmentation (Lichtenberg et al., 2017). The richness of botanical species identified in this study highlights the strong local adaptation of this bee species, which depending on the situation may adopt generalist (Ribeiro et al., 2019) or specialist (Antonini et al., 2006) behavior. The ecological appearance hypothesis (Feeny, 1976) explains that animal foraging takes place preferentially in the most "apparent" and easy-to-find plants, which can result in a specialization of foraging depending on the abundance and ease of finding floral resources. In all the studied meliponaries, the sampling methodology controlled the temporal and spatial foraging frequency variation of different landscapes and flora compositions as it evaluated the annual accumulation of pollen and nectar in a determined area - reflecting on honey productivity and floral origin.

589 Our study provides an important dimensioning of pollination ecosystem services 590 associated with meliponiculture in the APA, and confirms the synergy between this activity, 591 conservation and restoration of landscapes in this region. We identified a set of 77 botanical 592 species (84% native) associated with *M. fasciculata*, distributed in landscapes with different 593 configurations of land use and land cover. In practice, these results indicate a complex 594 relationship of interdependence between people, hives, waters and ecosystems, where the benefits of nature for people are multiple, and the families that raise their bees are equally 595 important for nature (Spangenberg et al., 2014). The work of Melipona beekeepers for the 596 597 conservation of biodiversity in the APA must be valued and recognized, as an economic and sociocultural activity based on local nature, which guarantees ecological management that 598 is very important for future generations. 599

600

601 **5.** Conclusion

Landscape composition has an important effect on the honey productivity of the 602 603 stingless bee Melipona fasciculata in the APA of Baixada Maranhense, in the Eastern 604 Amazon. In landscapes with higher percentage and density of natural grassland field patches, 605 percentage of permanent water and a specific composition of native shrub botanical species is where there is greater honey productivity, but lower species richness and pollen abundance 606 607 in honey. Meliponaries in landscapes with greater mature forest cover present lower honey productivity, but have honeys with greater richness and abundance of native species, 608 609 indicating more pollination ecosystem services in these landscapes.

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- 621

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The effect of landscape composition on stingless bee (*Melipona fasciculata*) honey productivity in a wetland ecosystem of Eastern Amazonia, Brazil

831832 Supplementary Material - SM

Table 4. Pollen types (77) identified in *Melipona fasciculata* honeybee samples by plant species in the 34 studied landscapes of APA Baixada Maranhense, in eastern Brazilian Amazon, Brazil, in 2019.

Plant species	Resource [£]	Life form	Origin	Habitat	P(%) [¥]
MONOCOTS					
ARECACEAE					
Attalea speciosa Mart. ex Spreng	N/P*	palm	native	anthropic	4.426
<i>Euterpes</i> sp.	N/P*	palm	native	forest	0.500
Mauritia flexuosa L.	P*	palm	native	forest	0.060
Syagrus sp.	N/P*	palm	native	anthropic	0.078
CYPERACEAE		•		^	
Cyperus luzulae (L.) Rottb. ex Retz.	А	aq herb	native	anthropic	0.967
Eriophorum vaginatum L.	А	herb	exotic	wetland	0.493
POACEAE					
Poaceae	А	herb	-	grassland	0.015
PONTEDERIACEAE				<u> </u>	
Eichornia crassipes Mart. (Solms)	Ν	aq herb	native	wetland	11.401
Pontederia parviflora Alexander	Ν	aq herb	native	wetland	4.583
EUDICOTS		•			
AMARANTHACEAE					
<i>Alternanthera brasiliana</i> (L.) Kuntze	N/P	herb	native	anthropic	2.183
Amaranthus sp.	N/P	herb	exotic	anthropic	0.007
ANACARDIACEAE					
Anacardium occidentale L	N/P	tree	native	savanna	0.265
ASTERACEAE	1.01				0.200
Baccharis sp	N/P	shruh	native	anthropic	0.011
Mikania cordifolia (L.f) Willd	N/P	vine	native	anthropic	0.011
Vernonia polyanthes (Spreng) Less	N	shrub	exotic	orassland	0.093
BEGONIACEAE	11	binuo	enotic	Brussiana	0.075
Begonia sp	Р	herb	native	anthropic	0.034
BIGNONIACEAE		nero	native	ununopie	0.051
Adenocalymma sp	N/P	vine	native	savanna	0.045
Arrahidaga sp	N/P	vine	native	anthronic	0.043
Tababuja sp	N	tree	native	anthropic	0.011
BURSERACEAE	IN	tice	native	antinopie	0.030
Protium lantostachnum Custrec	N	tree	native	forest	1 101
CECDODIACEAE	IN .	tice	native	lolest	1.101
Cecronia sp	D	traa	notivo	anthronic	0 220
	Г	liee	native	anunopie	0.220
	NI/D	alamala /arina	motivo	anthnamia	0.022
Distimaka gogunting (L.) A. B. Simõog & Storlag	IN/P	silfud/ville	native	anthropic	5.524
Distimake degyptius (L.) A.K. Simoes & Staples	N/P	creeper	native	anthropic	5.534
Merremia sp.	IN/P	Vine	exotic	anthropic	0./13
DILLENIACEAE	D	-11-		11	0.022
	Р	shrub	native	grassland	0.022
	N	1 1			0.000
Croton nellotropiljoluis Kunth	IN N/D	snrub	native	savanna	0.026
Seoastiania sp.	IN/P	snrub	native	grassland	0.187
	D		<i>,</i> .		0.027
Anaaenanthera macrocarpa (Benth.)	<u> </u>	tree	native	savanna	0.037
Andira anthelmia (Vell.) Benth.	N/P	tree	exotic	anthropic	1.896
Bauhinia forficata Link.	P	shrub	exotic	anthropic	0.011
Bowdichia sp.	Р	shrub	native	savanna	1.956

Cenostigma bracteosum Tul. Gagnon & G.P.Lewis	N/P	shrub	native	savanna	0.007
Camptosema sp.	NA	vine	native	grassland	2.877
Campsiandra sp.	NA	tree	native	forest	0.224
Centrosema pubescens Benth.	N/P*	vine	native	grassland	0.896
<i>Coursetia</i> sp.	NA	shrub	native	savanna	0.007
Chamaecrista diphylla (L.) Greene	N/P*	herb	native	anthropic	3.512
Crotalaria retusa L.	Ν	shrub	exotic	anthropic	1.008
<i>Cynometra</i> sp.	NA	tree	native	forest	0.209
Desmodium incanum DC.	N/P	herb	exotic	anthropic	0.026
Dicorvnia sp.	NA	tree	native	grassland	0.034
Dioclea sp.	NA	vine	native	anthropic	0.011
Inga cavennensis Sagot ex Benth	N/P*	tree	native	anthropic	0.019
Machaerium sp.	N	shrub	native	anthropic	2.788
Martiodendron parviflorum (Amshoff) R. Koeppen	NA	tree	native	forest	1.821
Mimosa verrucosa Benth	N/P*	shrub	native	forest	3 896
Mimosa caesalpiniifolia Benth	N/P*	shrub	native	savanna	3.523
Mimosa pudica L	P	Herb	native	anthropic	4 795
Myrocarnus frondosus Allem	P	tree	exotic	forest	1 034
Nentunia nlena (L) Benth	N/P	herb	native	wetland	1.051
Newtonia sp	NA	tree	evotic	forest	0.010
Pintadania phyllostachya Benth	N/D	tree	notive	forest	0.017
Plathymonia an		tree	nativo	Torest	0.011
Phullo commus cm	IN/F	tree	native	format	0.003
<u>Schugnhig lanto cama DC</u>	INA N/D	howh	native	Intest	0.011
Schrankla lepiocarpa DC.	IN/P	-herb	native	anthropic	0.333 5 (20
	N/P	shrub	native	anthropic	5.620
Schizolobium amazonicum Huber ex Ducke	N/P*	tree	native	anthropic	0.970
Stryphnodendron adstringens (Mart.) Coville	N/P	tree	native	savanna	1.564
Stylosanthes sp.	N/P*	herb	native	savanna	0.011
Zollernia sp.	N/P*	shrub	native	forest	0.015
Hyptis atrorubens Poit.	N	herb	native	anthropic	3.575
Hyptis sp.	N	herb	native	anthropic	0.821
MALPIGHIACEAE					
Peixotoa jussieuana A.Juss	NA	shrub	native	savanna	0.179
MELASTOMATACEAE					
Miconia alata (Aubl.) DC	N/P	shrub	native	grassland	0.086
Mouriri acutiflora Naudin.	N/P	tree	native	forest	2.407
Tibouchina aspera Aubl.	N/P	tree	native	savanna	1.952
MYRTACEAE					
Eugenia flavescens DC.	N/P*	shrub	native	savanna	0.194
Eucalyptus globulus Labill.	N/P	tree	exotic	anthropic	2.228
Myrcia cuprea (O.Berg) Kiaersk	N/P	shrub	native	forest	8.121
Psidium guajava L.	N/P*	tree	native	anthropic	1.907
PASSIFLORACEAE					
Passiflora glandulosa Cav.	Р	creeper	native	forest	0.007
RUBIACEAE					
Borreria tenella (Kunth) Cham & Schultde	N/P*	herb	native	grassland	0.202
Borreria verticillata (L.) G. Mey	N/P*	shrub	native	anthropic	1.720
Psychotria carthagenensis Jacq.	N/P	shrub	native	wetland	0.037
SAPINDACEAE					
Paullinia pinnata L.	Ν	vine	native	anthropic	0.179
Serjania Lethalis A.StHil	Ν	vine	native	savanna	1.123
SOLANACEAE					
Solanum paniculatum L.	Р	shrub	native	anthropic	0.907

⁴ Resources (N: nectariferous, P: polliniferous, *: excess pollen, NA: information not available, A: anemophilous). ⁴ P (%): relative pollen frequency in the 102 studied bee boxes;

Table 5. Analysis of the floral origin in honey of *Melipona fasciculata* of 34 meliponaries (id) in APA of Baixada Maranhense, eastern Brazilian Amazon,
Brazil, in 2019. Pollen type 1, 2, 3, 4 specifies the main pollen of nectariferous species and its relative abundance.

id	Classification	Pollen type 1	Pollen type 2	Pollen type 3	Pollen type 4
13	Heterofloral	Attalea speciosa 37 %	Hyptis atrorubens 17 %	Mouriri acutiflora 10 %	Protium leptostachium 9 %
20	Heterofloral	Tibouchina aspera 33 %	Mouriri acutiflora 27 %	Hyptis atrorubens 24 %	Protium leptostachium 9 %
19	Heterofloral	Mimosa pudica 29 %	Eucalyptus globulus 23 %	Andira antelmia 18 %	Hyptis sp. 15 %
24	Heterofloral	Eichhornia crassipes 33 %	Pontederia parviflora 27 %	Myrcia cuprea 19 %	Attalea speciosa 13 %
23	Heterofloral	Eichhornia crassipes 30 %	Alternanthera brasiliana 17 %	Myrcia cuprea 13 %	Pontederia parviflora 11 %
28	Heterofloral	Camptosema sp. 22 %	Attalea speciosa 22 %	Stryphnodendron adstringens 13 %	Distimake aegyptius 9 %
30	Heterofloral	Centrosema pubescens 42 %	Distimake aegyptius 19 %	Mouriri acutiflora 13 %	Eichhornia crassipes 12 %
22	Heterofloral	Mimosa caesalpiniifolia 29 %	Stryphnodendron adstringens 19 %	Neptunia plena 17 %	
2	Heterofloral	Distimake aegyptius 32 %	Myrcia cuprea 20 %	Mouriri acutiflora 19 %	
4	Heterofloral	Distimake aegyptius 43 %	Distimake sp. 12 %	Eugenia flavescens 10 %	
5	Heterofloral	Myrcia cuprea 44 %	Distimake aegyptius 34 %	Distimake sp. 14 %	
8	Heterofloral	Machaerium sp. 47 %	Myrcia cuprea 27 %	<i>Hyptis atrorubens</i> 15 %	
6	Heterofloral	Myrcia cuprea 36 %	Psidium guajava 22 %	Hyptis sp. 13 %	
34	Heterofloral	Distimake aegyptius 44 %	Myrcia cuprea 34 %	Machaerium sp. 15 %	
33	Heterofloral	Andira anthelmia 32 %	Psidium guajava 28 %		
7	Heterofloral	Myrcia cuprea 45 %	Distimake aegyptius 31 %		
25	Heterofloral	Eichhornia crassipes 43 %	Pontederia parviflora 36 %		
27	Heterofloral	Machaerium sp. 28 %	Serjania lethalis 24 %		
29	Heterofloral	Eichhornia crassipes 36 %	Alternanthera brasiliensis 18 %		
1	Monofloral	Machaerium sp. 48 %			
3	Monofloral	Peixotoa jussieuana 48 %			
9	Monofloral	Hyptis atrorubens 79 %			
10	Monofloral	Hyptis atrorubens 55 %			
11	Monofloral	Alternanthera brasiliana 48 %			
12	Monofloral	Myrcia cuprea 53 %			
14	Monofloral	Eichhornia crassipes 50 %			
15	Monofloral	Eichhornia crassipes 55 %			
16	Monofloral	Eichhornia crassipes 52 %			
17	Monofloral	Eichhornia crassipes 62 %			
18	Monofloral	Eichhornia crassipes 58 %			
21	Monofloral	Distimake aegyptius 65 %			
26	Monofloral	Eichhornia crassipes 50 %			
31	Monofloral	Schizolobium amazonicum 49 %			
32	Monofloral	Pontederia parviflora 51 %			

Table 6. Fifteen main botanical species and its occurrence (%) in the 34 meliponaries (id) in APA of Baixada Maranhense, eastern Brazilian Amazon, Brazil, in 2019.

specie	occurrence, classification,	source of resources and	specie	occurrence, classification,	source of resources and
	number (id)	habitat		number (id)	habitat
Eichhornia crassipes Mart. (Solms)	19 occurrences (56 %) Monofloral: 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 26 Heterofloral: 23, 24, 25, 29 Low frequency: 2, 4, 7, 21, 22, 28, 30, 31, 32	nectariferous, aquatic, native, inhabits lakes, rivers and flooded fields.	<i>Mimosa</i> verrucosa Benth	 20 occurrences (59 %) Alta frequência: 12, 14, 17, 18, 20, 32, 33 Low frequency: 1, 4, 9, 10, 11, 13, 16, 19, 21, 24, 25, 27, 34 	very polyniferous and nectariferous, native, inhabits forest environment or wetlands.
Myrcia cuprea (O. Berg) Kiaersk	30 occurrences (88 %) Monofloral: 13 Heterofloral: 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 23, 34 Low frequency: 1, 3, 4, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 22, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 31, 32	nectariferous and polyniferous, shrub, native, inhabits forests or fields.	Hyptis atrorubens Poit	9 occurrences (26 %) ● Monofloral: 9, 10 ● Heterofloral: 8, 13, 20 ● Low frequency: 22, 27, 29, 33	nectariferous and polyniferous, shrub, native, inhabits forest or native grassland environment.
Distimake aegyptius (L.) A.R. Simões & Staples	21 occurrences (61 %) Monofloral: 21 Heterofloral: 2, 4, 5, 7, 30, 34 Low frequency : 6, 11, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22, 24, 27, 28, 31	nectariferous and polyniferous, liana, native, inhabits anthropic or savannah environment.	Chamaecrista diphylla (L.) Greene	 16 occurrences (47 %) Alta frequência: 1, 2, 4, Low frequency: 3, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 17, 28, 29, 31, 32 	nectariferous and polyniferous, herb, native, inhabits anthropic environment or wetland.
Senna occidentalis (L.) Link	27 occurrences (79 %) Alta frequência: 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 20, 29, 31 Low frequency: 2, 9, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 30, 32, 33	it provides only pollen, which influences the physiology and survival of bees, shrub, native, from anthropogenic or savanna environment.	<i>Mimosa caesalpiniifolia</i> Benth	 21 occurrences (62 %) Monofloral: 0 Heterofloral: 2, 3, 4, 9, 18, 20, 22, 28, 31 Low frequency: 1, 6, 7, 10, 12, 13, 16, 19, 24, 25, 26, 30 	nery poliniferous, shrub, native, inhabits savanna environment.
Mimosa pudica L.	30 occurrences (88 %) Monofloral: 0 Heterofloral: 19, 33 Low frequency: 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29,	polyniferous and nectariferous, herbaceous, native, inhabits anthropogenic or savannah environment.	Camptosema sp	 13 occurrences (38 %) Monofloral: 0 Heterofloral: 17, 28, 33, 34 Low frequency: 13, 15, 16, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 32 	unknown floral resource, liana, native, inhabits native grassland.
Pontederia parviflora Alexander	30, 32, 34 15 occurrences (44 %) Monofloral: 32 Heterofloral: 24, 25 Low frequency: 4, 5, 8, 11, 14, 16, 17, 23, 26, 29, 30, 34	nectariferous, aquatic herb, native, inhabits anthropogenic or savannah environment.	<i>Mouriri</i> – acutiflora Naudin	12 occurrences (35 %) • Monofloral: 0 • Heterofloral: 2, 13, 20 • Low frequency: 1, 3, 9, 10, 11, 19, 30, 31, 33	nectariferous and polyniferous, tree, native, inhabits forest environment or wetland.
	17, 25, 26, 27, 56, 54		Machaerium sp.	11 occurrences (32 %)	nectariferous and
Attalea speciosa Mart ex Spreng	27 occurrences (79 %) ● Monofloral: 13 ● Heterofloral: 28 ● Low frequency: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8,	very polyniferous and nectariferous, palm tree, native, inhabits anthropogenic or	_	 Monotloral: 1 Heterofloral: 8, 27 Low frequency: 2, 5, 7, 13, 23, 24, 29, 31, 34 	potyniferous, shrub, native, inhabits anthropic or savannah environment.
*• monoflor	11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 30, 32 al: > 45 %, • heterofloral: plant of percy: ≤ 9 %, • high frequency: >	savannah environment. Plant characteristic of Maranhão and APA. composition 9 % - 45 %,	Eucalyptus globulus Labill	23 occurrences (67 %) ● Monofloral: 0 ● Heterofloral: 19 ● Low frequency: 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 20,	nectariferous and polyniferous, tree, exotic, inhabits anthropic environment.

APÊNDICE B - Figura resumo para revista Journal of Apicultural Research

Figura 4. Figura resumo para revista Journal of Apicultural Research, parte do artigo: o efeito da composição da paisagem na produtividade do mel de abelhas sem ferrão (*Melipona fasciculata*) em um ecossistema de zonas úmidas da Amazônia Oriental, Brasil.



N - nectariferous; P - polliniferous; * - too much pollen; mosaic - includes shifting agriculture, sand formations, small pastures and villages.

APÊNDICE D - Figuras extras da execução da pesquisa

Figuras ilustrativas das atividades da pesquisa:

Figura 1. Alguns dos meliponicultores envolvidos na pesquisa. APA da Baixada Maranhense, estado do Maranhão, Brasil, em 2018.

Figura 2. Esquema de localização e mapeamento das paisagens utilizadas pelas abelhas na pesquisa. APA da Baixada Maranhense, estado do Maranhão, Brasil, em 2018.

Figura 3. Esquema de análise das variáveis do artigo sobre produtividade de mel de *Melipona fasciculata*. APA da Baixada Maranhense, estado do Maranhão, Brasil, em 2018.

Figura 4. Esquema de análise das variáveis do artigo sobre características físico-química de mel de *Melipona fasciculata*. APA da Baixada Maranhense, estado do Maranhão, Brasil, em 2018.

Figura 5. Diversos momentos da etapa de campo da pesquisa. APA da Baixada Maranhense, estado do Maranhão, Brasil, em 2018.









Figura 3. Esquema de análise das variáveis do artigo sobre produtividade de mel de *Melipona fasciculata*. APA da Baixada Maranhense, estado do Maranhão, Brasil, em 2018.



Figura 4. Esquema de análise das variáveis do artigo sobre características físico-química de mel de *Melipona fasciculata*. APA da Baixada Maranhense, estado do Maranhão, Brasil, em 2018.



Figura 5. Diversos momentos da etapa de campo da pesquisa. APA da Baixada Maranhense, estado do Maranhão, Brasil, em 2018

