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Early-phase colonization by introduced

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20 Abstract

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There is a growing interest to document and better understand patterns and processes involved 22 in non-native bee introductions and subsequent colonization of new areas worldwide. We 23 studied the spread of the East Asian bee Megachile sculpturalis in Serbia and southeastern 24 Europe; the bee was earlier established in the USA (since 1994) and western Europe (since 25 2008). Its establishment in Serbia remained dubious throughout most of 2017–2019, following 26 the first detection. We herewith report about its establishment and spreading, that was 27 28 corroborated in 2019 under specific circumstances. Owing to the exceptionally poor blooming of Styphnolobium japonicum, we recorded high activity density of M. sculpturalis concentrated 29 on a scarce key food resource. We presented a novel quantitative approach for the improved 30 early detection of *M. sculpturalis*, based on the interplay between the bee's local occurrence 31 pattern and dynamics of key food-plant(s) availability. The approach seems particularly 32 effective during the early-phase colonization, at initially low population density of introduced 33 bees. We addressed the importance of integration of the genuine plant usage patterns with 34 context-specific bee assessment options, for establishing the effective monitoring. Yet, no 35 comprehensive approach exists for the effective quantification of its wider spatial trends, 36 37 various interactions and their effects; hence, further research is needed for evaluation of bee's invasiveness potential. Our improved understanding of *M. sculpturalis* local dynamics and 38 detectability triggered an extension of the study scope to the regional-scale context: the early 39 colonization of SE-Europe. With a more insightful interpretation of M. sculpturalis 40 introduction into Serbia, we suggest that a diffusive mode of spreading now seems the more 41 plausible scenario (than the seemingly more likely long-distance jump). The two-scale study 42 outcomes further advanced the evidence base and relevant efforts for the development of 43 standardized monitoring protocols. 44

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46 <u>Keywords</u>: colonization scenarios, invasive pollinators, monitoring, non-native bees, Serbia,
 47 southeastern Europe, *Styphnolobium japonicum*

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50 Introduction

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Among the continually growing number of introduced species being discovered around the 52 world (Seebens et al. 2017; Pyšek et al. 2020), bees as a group (Hymenoptera: Apoidea: 53 Anthophila) may count as moderately large. About 80 species were recently listed as non-54 native worldwide (Russo 2016) representing a small share of an estimated total of more than 55 20,000 extant bee species (Michener 2007; Ascher and Pickering 2020). The majority of non-56 native bees (around 73%) were established following accidental introductions, with a 57 58 remarkable number of those that are cavity-nesters, principally in various types of wooden material or hollow plant stems (Russo 2016; Poulsen and Rasmussen 2020). Most of the 59 introductions happened in North America (around 69%), while Europe could be currently 60 regarded as a comparatively "coldspot" of alien bee species richness. Of only three fully 61 confirmed non-native bee species in Europe, two are still known from quite restricted areas: 62 63 Megachile disjunctiformis Cockerell, 1911 in central Italy (only Bologna) and Xylocopa pubescens Spinola, 1838 in southern Greece and southern Spain (Rasmont et al. 2017; 64 65 Bortolotti et al. 2018). So far, *Megachile sculpturalis* Smith, 1853 is the only alien bee widely established and continuously spreading across Europe. 66

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A growing number and geographical extent of alien bee introductions worldwide raises 68 concerns regarding their potential to cause negative environmental impacts. Documented or 69 predicted impacts include: decline of native bee populations through competition (for floral or 70 71 nesting resources) or pathogen and parasite transmission, degradation of native flowerpollinator networks, reduced pollination of native and crop plants, facilitation of alien weeds 72 and invasive plants (Goulson 2003; Russo 2016; Morales et al. 2017; Vanbergen et al. 2018; 73 Aizen et al. 2020). So far, it was clearly established in relatively few cases that alien bees have 74 75 caused detrimental effects - principally the representatives of social bees: Apis mellifera L. and Bombus spp. (Russo 2016; Morales et al. 2017). Much less common are studies which 76 77 quantitatively document possible negative impact of solitary alien bees (MacIvor and Packer 2015; Fitch et al. 2019; LeCroy et al. 2020), including the recent survey on M. sculpturalis 78 79 (Geslin et al. 2020). Although these results were mostly based on correlational evidence, the lack of indisputable interaction among native and non-native bees should not be interpreted as 80 lack of impact (Stout and Morales 2009). In the case of *M. sculpturalis*, its most worrying 81 feature is an unusually aggressive and/or destructive behavior exerted while competing with 82 83 native solitary bees for nesting cavities (summarized in: Le Féon et al. 2018; Lanner et al.

2020a; Lanner et al. 2020b; Straffon-Díaz et al. 2021). This competition may be both direct 84 (aggressive repelling, or even destruction of brood of other bees in already closed nests) or 85 indirect (preemptive usage), including the elements of amensalism (e.g., killing of co-occurring 86 species which are using the cavities of different size-classes, i.e., not being in competition). 87 However, there are still no exact and straightforward estimates of its extended impact on 88 affected taxa, i.e., the conclusive evidence of causative effects on population trends. Following 89 the environmentalists' precautionary principle, it may be best considered as a potentially 90 invasive alien species (Bila Dubaić et al 2021), pending further studies. In this context, we use 91 92 the term "invasive" in its restricted conservationist sense, i.e., to denote a subset of all established alien species which cause substantial negative impact on native biota and/or 93 ecosystems (e.g. Russo 2016; Vanbergen et al. 2018; IUCN 2020). In some other studies on 94 this bee, the term was used somewhat more loosely or in a wider sense - according to the 95 approach to include all alien species which rapidly/extensively expand in non-native range, 96 97 regardless of impact (cf. Blackburn et al. 2011; Hui and Richardson 2017; for conceptual and terminological controversies in invasion biology see also: Hoffmann and Courchamp 2016; 98 99 Courchamp et al. 2017).

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101 Megachile sculpturalis belongs to the subgenus Callomegachile Michener, which is distributed principally in the Old World tropics (Michener 2007; Ascher and Pickering 2021). As a rare 102 103 extratropical member, M. sculpturalis range stretches across eastern Asia: from Taiwan and eastern mainland China, through Korean Peninsula to Japan (Batra 1998; Wu 2006; Ascher 104 105 and Pickering 2021). It is a bee of distinctive appearance – quite large, parallel-sided black body, 21–27 mm long in females and 12–22 mm in males (Hinojosa-Diaz et al. 2005; Aguado 106 107 et al. 2018), wings transparent with dark tips (a comprehensive description is available in Sheffield et al. 2011). Females make nests in existing cavities in dead wood or hollow plant 108 109 stems and seal them with resin-like material (Hinojosa-Diaz et al. 2005; Maeta et al. 2008; Quaranta et al. 2014; Westrich et al. 2015), hence the colloquial name initially coined for this 110 bee in North America: "giant resin bee"; here we adopted a more appropriate alternative name: 111 "sculptured resin bee" (from: iNaturalist.org). It is assumed that long-distance overseas 112 introductions of this cavity nester have happened *via* inadvertent importation of timber goods 113 or other suitable nesting materials (Mangum and Brooks 1997; Quaranta et al. 2014; Russo 114 2016; Le Féon et al. 2018). Similar mechanism (passive, human-assisted transportation) is 115 expected to contribute to secondary introductions within colonized continents, as long- or 116 short-distance jumps (Westrich et al. 2015; Lanner et al. 2020a). Due to a large size, contrasting 117

dark and bright color-pattern, vivid nesting activity and frequent visitation of some commonly
available ornamental plants, this bee is readily spotted and recognized, hence, expectedly easy
to be detected as soon as it appears in new areas (Quaranta et al. 2014; Lanner et al. 2020a).

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The first confirmed establishment outside of its native range was in 1994 in North Carolina, 122 USA (Mangum and Brooks 1997), followed by rapid expansion across eastern half of North 123 America (Mangum and Sumner 2003; Hinojosa-Diaz et al. 2005; Parys et al. 2015). In Europe, 124 it was first detected in 2008, in southeastern France (Vereecken and Barbier 2009), soon 125 126 followed by records in northwestern Italy in 2009, and southeastern Switzerland in 2010 (Amiet 2012; Quaranta et al. 2014). Documented spreading in the period 2011–2014 was 127 mostly confined to these areas (Westrich et al. 2015; Le Féon et al. 2018; Ruzzier et al. 2020). 128 Since 2015 a more dynamic range extension took place: around the Alps in Switzerland, 129 southern Germany, Slovenia, Austria and Liechtenstein (Westrich et al. 2015; Dillier 2016; 130 131 Gogala and Zadravec 2018; Lanner et al. 2020a; Westrich 2020), much more widely in France and Italy (Le Féon and Geslin 2018; Le Féon et al. 2018; Poggi et al. 2020; Ruzzier et al. 2020), 132 133 south-westwards into NE-Spain (Aguado et al. 2018; Ortiz-Sánchez et al. 2018) and most recently across the Mediterranean Sea, reaching the island of Mallorca as the southernmost 134 135 point in Europe so far (Ribas Marquès and Díaz Calafat 2021). In contrast with this, largely continuous spreading (comprising also few smaller jumps), range establishment east of the 136 Alps (2015–2019) represents more remote, arguably long-distance dispersal events of yet 137 unclear origin and mechanism: into northeastern Hungary (Kovács 2015), northeastern Austria 138 (Westrich 2017), northern Serbia (Ćetković and Plećaš 2017), southern Croatia (Resl 2018; 139 "pitrusque" 2019), Crimea (Ivanov and Fateryga 2019), southern Romania (Hymenopterists 140 Forum 2019), and northern Bosnia & Herzegovina in 2020 (Nikolić 2020). Range expansion 141 within Europe for the reference period (2008–2019) is presented schematically with the series 142 of phase-maps and summarizing review of its dynamic distribution (Cetković et al. 2020; 143 Suppl. material 1). 144

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Following its remarkable non-native spreading, evidence was accumulated about sculptured
resin bee interactions with numerous plant genera and families (Quaranta et al. 2014; Parys et
al. 2015; Le Féon et al. 2018; Ruzzier et al. 2020), showing more diverse spectrum than
currently available for its native area. Accordingly, *M. sculpturalis* is often referred to or
assumed to be polylectic (Mangum and Brooks 1997; Maeta et al. 2008; Quaranta et al. 2014;
Parys et al. 2015; Westrich et al. 2015; IUCN 2020; Ribas Marquès and Díaz Calafat 2021),

but without clear evaluation of the documented visitation pattern, e.g., the share of pollen vs. 152 only nectar foraging. Based on numerous sources (cf. Cetković et al. 2020; an ongoing 153 analysis), M. sculpturalis shows particularly strong preference for the pollen of Fabaceae 154 (Batra 1998; Mangum and Sumner 2003; Maeta et al. 2008; Westrich et al. 2015; Campbell et 155 al. 2016; Dillier 2016; Hall and Avila 2016; Aguado et al. 2018; Andrieu-Ponel et al. 2018; Le 156 Féon and Geslin 2018; Le Féon et al. 2018; Guariento et al. 2019; Ruzzier et al. 2020; Westrich 157 2020; Ribas Marquès and Díaz Calafat 2021), principally of large-flowered members of the 158 subfamily Faboideae. Within the European range, most frequently documented pollen-source 159 160 is the ornamental Japanese pagoda tree, Styphnolobium japonicum (L.) Schott. In contrast with this growing evidence, the loosely repeated "wide polylecty" might represent a biased or 161 uncritical perception, which ignores often remarkably narrow effective dietary preferences of 162 *M. sculpturalis.* The patterns of genuine plant usage of this bee are yet to be thoroughly 163 evaluated, taking into account floral resource availability, variability of plants phenology and 164 suitability of different habitat types across the colonized areas. 165

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The present survey of the sculptured resin bee introduction in Serbia is an event-driven case 167 study of an early-phase colonization. First accidental encounter of a single specimen in 2017 168 was interpreted as a likely long-distance chance dispersal of uncertain success (Ćetković and 169 Plećaš 2017). Due to an extended lack of confirmation throughout the seasons of 2017–2018, 170 171 the current study was initiated with the second find in the same area (the city of Belgrade), attained late in 2019 under specific circumstances. Namely, owing to an extremely reduced 172 blooming of its preferred host plant (S. japonicum) in 2019, we managed to detect the vivid 173 activity of still locally rare sculptured resin bees, temporarily concentrated on a scarce food 174 source. We herewith explored the spatial relationships between bee activity patterns and local 175 availability of key plant resources. We specifically evaluated the effects of variable floral 176 resources on the bee detectability in 2017–2019. Despite a growing number of studies, a 177 specified approach is still missing to quantify the sculptured resin bee distribution dynamics, 178 population trends, its interactions with key plants and with native bees, hence ultimately, to 179 assess its invasiveness potential. Until now, we lack an effective approach for early detection 180 and the extended surveillance of its expansion. The presented quantitative assessment 181 represents a step towards a more comprehensive monitoring. Our improved understanding of 182 *M. sculpturalis* local dynamics and detectability triggered an extension of the research scope, 183 which enabled inferences about possible origin(s) and modes of its dispersal within this part of 184 Europe. The study of the wider, regional-scale context of this introduction (the colonization of 185

SE-Europe) enabled a better understanding of possible scenarios of *M. sculpturalis*introduction and early colonization. Therefore, the two-scale study outcomes further advanced
the evidence base and relevant efforts for the development of standardized monitoring
protocols.

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192 Material and methods

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The study of *M. sculpturalis* arrival and establishment in Serbia was mostly based on extensive fieldwork within the city of Belgrade, during the period of 2017–2019. The wider geographical and temporal context of this survey included principally the eastern Pannonian Plain, but we also considered the nearest known occurrences towards the west and to the east of this area (from Austria and Slovenia through the Crimean Peninsula), for the period of 2015–2019.

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200 Local scale: Belgrade as study area

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Belgrade is one of the largest cities in southeastern Europe (Belgrade "proper" administrative-202 urbanistic core area is nearly 776 km^2 , population >1.5 million), situated at the border between 203 the two quite different geographical units: the predominantly hilly to mountainous Balkan 204 205 Peninsula to the south, and the vast lowlands of the Pannonian Plain to the north. It is positioned in a climatically transitional zone between temperate-continental and more steppic regime, with 206 207 a relief spanning the altitude range of 65–506 m. The Belgrade area encompasses more than 50% of varied agricultural habitats as a matrix, with embedded mosaics of urban and rural 208 209 habitats; two principal sections of Belgrade (the Balkan and the Pannonian - Fig. 1) are characterized with distinct spatial arrangement and contrasting types of settlements, 210 agricultural systems and more natural habitats, owing to a largely different physiography and 211 historical development. From the perspective of wild bee studies, various urbanistic areas may 212 be characterized by differing types, extent and relative share of suitable habitats (e.g., from 213 urban green to semi-natural). In order to consider possible coarse-scale effects of variability in 214 key resources and other environmental features across urban gradients of Belgrade, we use a 215 framework of wider "urbanistic zones" (Fig. 1). They are based on landscape scale 216 characterization of available elements of physiography, land-cover, gradients of urbanization 217 and management regime features. Some easily defined coarse-scale differences (e.g. varied 218 219 urban temperature regimes or dominant management practice) might differently affect activity

patterns of plants and bees, potentially leading to dynamic shifts in bee local distribution and
resource usage. More details of the wider study area and operative aspects of zonation used in
this survey are available in Suppl. material 2 (ii–iii).

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Figure 1. Urbanistic zonation of the study area in Serbia (18×11 km), within the Belgrade
 proper (light blue outline; sections separated by the red dotted-line): BUC – Balkan Urban
 Core; BMP – Balkan Mixed Periphery; PUC – Pannonian Urban Core; PSU – Pannonian Semi Urban; PPU – Pannonian Peri-Urban.

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The first record of *M. sculpturalis*, in early July 2017 (a single male), was an unexpected find 232 233 within a routine monitoring of wild bee communities of selected urban habitats in Belgrade area (Ćetković and Plećaš 2017; Fig. 2A). However, its establishment in Serbia remained 234 unconfirmed during the first two seasons. We extended efforts to explore the state of its 235 presence, focusing on locations with Japanese pagoda trees (Styphnolobium), as the most 236 favorable pollen source for *M. sculpturalis* in Europe. This exotic plant is probably the only 237 species with appropriate blooming phenology while also with high density throughout the 238 Belgrade area. During the seasons of 2017–2018 our surveys covered 12 locations within 18 239

²³⁰ Local scale: survey set up and study design

days (26 "occasions" = unique date/loc combinations), spending about 440 person-minutes 240 (=7.25 person-hours) in collecting or observing bees on S. *japonicum* throughout the area, and 241 covering the *M. sculpturalis* main flight period. We parallelly continued with variously focused 242 wild bee surveys on other abundant summer-blooming plants across Belgrade. This included 243 extensive survey on Lavandula and Ballota (Lamiaceae), and sporadically on Buddleja 244 (Scrophulariaceae) – all being listed as attractive or potential food plants for *M. sculpturalis* 245 (Quaranta et al. 2014; Le Féon et al. 2018; Ivanov and Fateryga 2019). For the observations on 246 Lavandula (8 locations within 18 days, 21 unique occasions, totaling nearly 490 person-247 248 minutes) and Ballota (13 locations within 27 days, 32 unique occasions, totaling >1,190 person-minutes) we spent about 28 person-hours during the summer seasons 2017–2019. None 249 of these efforts yielded any additional point-occurrence or recorded interaction of 250 *M. sculpturalis* (for *Buddleja* see Results). 251

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Figure 2. (A) the first specimen of *Megachile sculpturalis* (male), caught in Serbia in July 2017; (B) mass-foraging females detected in August 2019.

The second record of *M. sculpturalis* was also accidental. The summer of 2019 was 257 characterized with an extreme failure in *S. japonicum* blooming (see details in Results); hence 258 this plant was excluded from our regular monitoring that year. Then, upon unexpected detection 259 of numerous sculptured resin bees on August 02, 2019, on a single S. japonicum tree (Fig. 2B; 260 Suppl. material 3: Table S3.2), we undertook an immediate survey across Belgrade, to 261 document and quantify its eventually confirmed presence. We searched for and checked as 262 many locations with S. japonicum as possible, across all urbanistic zones (Fig. 1; see also: 263 Suppl. material 2 (iii)). However, the next 7-day period (August 03–09) represented the very 264 end of S. japonicum blooming season in 2019, when many trees had already ceased blooming. 265

On all locations with still blooming trees, we conducted counts of bees foraging on flowers, 267 using binoculars where needed (for high crowns). The priority was to make as many unit-268 location checks as possible in a limited available time. We adjusted the procedure accordingly: 269 (a) at sites with lower activity density, the bees were usually not continually present, so we 270 recorded the intervals separately for each number of bees observed; (b) when continuous and 271 more vivid activity was observed (>5 bees visible at any moment), 3-4 snapshot counts were 272 made over the time spent on site, using two abundance classes: moderate (6-10) or high (11-273 274 20). We adapted the snapshot technique from ornithology (Gaston et al. 1987; Greene & Efford 2012; Barraclough 2020), as suitable for situations when numerous individuals are flying 275 within the field of view, without possibility to be counted accurately. At a few sites with 276 variable bee activity on different trees, the combination of both techniques was employed. Due 277 to differing situations, duration of counting per location varied from 1-50 minutes (usually 10-278 20', average ~15.3'). We scaled all recorded values to one minute of continual bee activity on 279 a defined unit of floral resource within a landscape sector (as elaborated further on), by 280 averaging all counts against the recorded time (hereafter: Bees per Minute = BpM). Details of 281 sampling and calculation procedures are available in Suppl. material 3 (explanation of metrics 282 283 in Table S3.1; sampling duration and BpM estimates per sectors in Table S3.2). In total, we spent about 300 person-minutes (5 person-hours) working on 16 sites with at least some 284 blooming trees (out of 40 surveyed sites), mostly in observation/counting (>260 minutes). At 285 some sites we also collected bee specimens by hand-net, as vouchers and for future genetic 286 287 studies.

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289 Simultaneously, we estimated the key floral resource, to assess if its quantity, distribution, and phenology affect the local differences in activity density and distribution of the bee population. 290 291 We recorded the number of S. japonicum trees (hereafter: NoT), and visually assessed their actual blooming status at each visited location: the number of trees that entered blooming in 292 2019 (hereafter: NoT_iB), the share of inflorescences developed at each crown in bloom during 293 2019 (as a fraction of the fully blooming crown; summed value interpreted as: Total Floral 294 295 Resource, hereafter: TFR), and finally, the actual share of flowers still in bloom at crown at the moment we made the observation (summed to: Current Floral Resource, hereafter: CFR). We 296 continued to survey S. japonicum until early September, regardless of the ceased blooming 297 (and no bee activity), to provide the spatial coverage of resource availability across the study 298

area. For the extended explanations and visual examples of these parameters see in Suppl.material 3 (Table S3.1).

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All surveyed locations were primarily georeferenced in Google Earth Pro ver. 7.3.3.7786 302 (Google Inc. 2020), and further prepared as distribution maps in OGIS ver. 3.4 (OGIS 303 Development Team 2018). To deal with the uneven and patchy distribution of surveyed 304 S. *japonicum* trees, and the logistic limitations of the sampling approach, we grouped the point-305 sampled quantitative data following the rationale similar to landscape ecology studies on wild 306 307 bees (e.g. Steffan-Dewenter et al. 2002; Steckel et al. 2014; Cohen et al. 2020). We defined a primary framework of circular sectors of 250 m radius (hereafter: S250; Suppl. material 2: 308 Fig. S2.3A), manually fitted to include all surveyed point-locations without overlapping. 309 Various bees perceive the landscape composition and configuration (particularly distribution 310 of resources and other habitat features) at different spatial scales, since their foraging ranges 311 principally depend on size; the radius of 250 m is commonly used to define the smallest 312 meaningful study scale (Steffan-Dewenter et al. 2002), while larger bodied bees may forage at 313 much larger distances (Gathmann and Tscharntke 2002; Greenleaf et al. 2007). Due to the 314 spatial limitations of the sampled area, we added just one coarser scale (sectors of 500 m radius; 315 316 hereafter: S500; Suppl. material 2: Fig. S2.3B), for testing for different scale effects. As a result, all recording sites were arranged into two series of standardized circular sectors: 40 317 locations S250 (ca. 0.2 km²), and 23 locations S500 (ca. 0.8 km²), and all parameters were 318 calculated per those spatial units (see more details about the procedure in: Suppl. material 319 320 2 (iii)). Therefore, we used some technical concepts and experiences from landscape ecology studies as a suitable practical approach (and a prospective "working framework") to quantify 321 322 and analyze relationships between bee distribution pattern and resources availability.

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All values from the field assessments were summed per defined sector. To calculate TFR we 324 summed individual values from each S. *japonicum* tree in bloom, expressed as a fraction of the 325 whole crown, based on the estimated maximal extent of blooming attained during the summer 326 of 2019. Similarly, we calculated CFR as a sum of estimated blooming fractions at the moment 327 328 of assessment, i.e., representing the actual extent of blooming of each crown within the sector. We recorded blooming fractions as percentage of the whole crown for each assessed tree, and 329 then summed the values in decimal form (e.g. blooming of 10% of one crown, 25% of another 330 and 80% of a third, gives the value of 1.15 "unit crowns" per sector; more details and visual 331

examples for the calculation available in Suppl. material 3: Table S3.1, summed results inTable S3.2).

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335 *Local scale: statistical analyses*

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We tested if various aspects of floral resource distribution and seasonal dynamics (i.e., change 337 from TFR to CFR level of blooming) had a measurable effect on local differences in bee 338 activity. We analyzed the relationship between bee activity density (BpM) and all measured 339 340 parameters of key floral resource (NoT, NoT_iB, TFR, and CFR), calculated in S250 and S500 frameworks, with Generalized Least Square linear regression to account for heteroscedasticity 341 of errors. We, additionally, used GLS linear regression to analyze the relationship between 342 BpM and TFR, CFR, percentage of TFR (TFR/NoT), and percentage of CFR (CFR/NoT), all 343 averaged across each urbanistic zone. Analyses' assumptions were tested by examination of 344 residuals. Furthermore, we tried to establish was there any local pattern in reduction of 345 S. japonicum blooming (i.e. possible differences caused by environmental effects which 346 347 specifically vary with urbanistic gradients, using urbanistic zones as tentative proxies), and if so, are the bees responding to these differences. Differences in NoT, NoT iB, TFR, CFR and 348 349 BpM between urbanistic zones were analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis test. All analyses have been performed in R v3.6.3 (R Core Team 2020) and the R-package nlme v3.1-144 (Pinheiro et al. 350 351 2020).

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353 *Regional context: introduction and expansion within the SE-Europe*

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We compiled, from all available sources (Suppl. material 4: Table S4.2), the records from the 355 region most adjacent to the focal study area (Belgrade) – N-Serbia and E-Hungary, spanning 356 the period of 2015–2019. Furthermore, we aimed to consider the spatio-temporal relationships 357 with the nearest records towards the west (i.e., towards the introduction core of Europe), as 358 well as with rare records in the east (up to the Crimean Peninsula). Therefore, we have covered, 359 in a very broad sense, the area of SE-Europe, wherein the colonization by this species was 360 documented only since 2015 (Suppl. material 4: Table S4.1). The compilation and mapping of 361 records were conducted within a more extensive Europe-wide survey of *M. sculpturalis* 362 distribution and expansion; preliminary results for the period 2008–2019 were presented as 363 series phase-maps in Ćetković et al. (2020;available 364 of summary at: https://srbee.bio.bg.ac.rs/english). We herewith include a slightly modified version of the 365

summary map for 2019 (Suppl. material 1). Records were georeferenced using the combination of Google Earth Pro ver. 7.3.3.7786 (Google Inc. 2020) and QGIS ver. 3.4 (QGIS Development Team 2018). Maps were made primarily with QGIS, and the output images further processed with various picture-editing software. We used the "Ruler" tool in Google Earth Pro to measure the linear distances between various adjacent occurrences (within and between the years in relation to the sequence of their detections), in order to quantify the basic spatial elements of apparent dispersal outcomes.

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- 375 **Results**
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- 377 Local scale: the Belgrade survey
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Following the first detection of *M. sculpturalis* in Belgrade (and Serbia), in July 2017, we confirmed the establishment of this species only in August 2019. Our recording was almost exclusively based on bees foraging on *S. japonicum* trees. Exceptions were the first detected specimen – a male collected on *Trifolium repens*, and the single female observed around the *Buddleja* bush; both cases were in downtown parks with nearby presence of *S. japonicum* trees. We did not detect *M. sculpturalis* neither on *Lavandula* nor *Ballota* during the 2017–2019 period, despite notable efforts.

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Results of statistical testing have shown mostly non-significant values for metrics calculated 387 within the S500 framework (see in Suppl. material 5); therefore, we herewith present only the 388 results from the S250 framework. Throughout the Belgrade area, we recorded *M. sculpturalis* 389 at most locations where the current floral resource (CFR) of S. japonicum was sufficient to 390 391 attract foraging bees at the moment of survey (Fig. 3A,B). The minimal sufficient value was CFR≥0.1, found in 16 of 40 sectors (40%). Bees were recorded in 14 of 16 suitable sectors 392 (88%); within 5 locations we also collected specimens (22 females, 3 males). The estimated 393 activity density of bees per sector ranged 0–15.5 BpM (mean 4.66±5.35 SD). The remaining 394 sectors were recorded as without any blooming in 2019, or with blooming being already 395 finished before our survey, hence, without possibility to detect bees (sectors with values for 396 NoT iB, TFR, or CFR less than 0.05; see in Suppl. material 3). Of all tested metrics, only CFR 397 had a significant effect on BpM (Table 1, Fig. 4A) and when values were averaged across each 398 urbanistic zone, only CFR and %CFR had a significant effect on BpM (Table 2, Fig. 4B). We 399

- did not find significant differences in bee activity density between different urbanistic zones of
 Belgrade (H(4)=4.521, *p*-value=0.341).
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Figure 3. Distribution of (**A**) effective floral resources of *S. japonicum*, as surveyed in August 2019 (Current Floral Resource – CFR), and (**B**) respective metrics of *M. sculpturalis* activity density (Bees per Minute – BpM), both presented within the S250 framework (circular sectors – "landscapes" of r=250 m; values shown in classes). Urbanistic zones (for acronyms see in Fig. 1) are shown as background shades of grey, representing the averaged value of CFR per zone calculated either for (**A**) all 40 sectors, or (**B**) only for 16 sectors with CFR \geq 0.1. The

location of the first find is marked with "2017". Numerical data available in Suppl. material 3:
Tables S3.2–S.3.4; see also maps in Suppl. material 5. for the complete visualization of floral
resource metrics.

Within the surveyed area (16×9 km was the approximate span of all visited S. japonicum 414 locations; Fig. 3A), we covered all urbanistic zones, with a varying number of surveyed 415 locations between the zones (2–11; see also Suppl. material 2 (iii)). We counted the total of 416 490 S. japonicum trees (NoT), distributed quite unevenly across the study area (1-64 per 417 sector). In 17 sectors (comprising 196 trees) we recorded no sign of blooming during 2019. 418 Within the remaining 23 sectors, only on 51 trees we recorded at least some level of blooming 419 in 2019 (NoT_iB; 12.2% of the total NoT). These blooming trees had a variable share of crowns 420 effectively in bloom (TFR; 48.4% of the total NoT iB); expressed per sector, TFR values 421 422 ranged 0.2–3.0 among these 23 sectors. As a reference high value, we established that the longterm average intensity of S. *japonicum* blooming in good seasons is at least \geq 85% of the total 423 crown volume (based on our observations from several past seasons). Accordingly, the sum of 424 detected TFR available to bees during the summer of 2019 represented at most 5.9% of average 425 S. japonicum resource availability in good seasons. At the time of our survey (August 02–09), 426 the extent of available resource (CFR) was further reduced: only about 1.5% of the summed 427 crown volume was still in bloom. The effective floral resources in early August (i.e., values of 428 CFR≥0.1) were recorded in only 16 sectors (totaling about 30% of the respective TFR summed 429 value). Effective CFR values ranged 0.1–1.1 per sector (Fig. 3A). Further details of all metrics 430 are available in Suppl. material 3 (Table S3.2 and Table S3.3). For the spatial visualization of 431 432 established raw patterns, we presented distribution of all four aspects of resource availability, and respective M. sculpturalis activity density metrics, in a sequence of maps (Suppl. 433 material 5: Figs. S5.1–S5.2). We found no statistically significant differences in any of the 434 floral resource metrics (NoT, NoT_iB, TFR, CFR) between different urbanistic zones (Suppl. 435 436 material 5: Table S5.1).

437



Figure 4. Relationship between (A) BpM and CFR, and (B) BpM and %CFR averaged across
each urbanistic zone (BpM – Bees Per Minute; CFR - Current Floral Resource; %CFR –
percentage of current floral resource).

442

Table 1. Results of the GLS linear regression models of the relationship of bee activity
density (BpM) and variables NoT, NoT iB, TFR, and CFR (N=16).

Model		SE	t-value	p-value
Intercept	6.368	1.638	3.887	0.002*
Variable	-0.144	0.854	-1.644	0.122
Intercept	6.092	2.001	3.045	0.008*
Variable	-0.557	0.579	-0.962	0.352
Intercept	3.459	2.689	1.286	0.219
Variable	0.951	1.824	0.521	0.611
Intercept	-0.154	1.858	-0.089	0.935
Variable	12.276	3.891	3.154	0.007*
	delInterceptVariableInterceptVariableInterceptVariableInterceptVariableInterceptVariable	delEstimateIntercept6.368Variable-0.144Intercept6.092Variable-0.557Intercept3.459Variable0.951Intercept-0.154Variable12.276	delEstimateSEIntercept6.3681.638Variable-0.1440.854Intercept6.0922.001Variable-0.5570.579Intercept3.4592.689Variable0.9511.824Intercept-0.1541.858Variable12.2763.891	delEstimateSEt-valueIntercept6.3681.6383.887Variable-0.1440.854-1.644Intercept6.0922.0013.045Variable-0.5570.579-0.962Intercept3.4592.6891.286Variable0.9511.8240.521Intercept-0.1541.858-0.089Variable12.2763.8913.154

445 Significant p-values in bold (* $p \le 0.01$).

446 NoT- number of trees; NoT_iB - number of trees in bloom; TFR - total floral resource; CFR - current floral
447 resource.

448

449	Table 2. Results of the GLS	S linear regression n	nodels of the relation	onship of bee activity

450 density (BpM) and variables TFR, CFR, %TFR and %CFR, all averaged across each 451 urbanistic zone (N=5).

Model		Estimate	SE	t-value	p-value
TED	Intercept	1.575	5.663	0.278	0.799
IFK	Variable	3.121	4.184	0.745	0.509
0/ TED	Intercept	0.568	2.388	0.238	0.827
70 I F K	Variable	15.359	6.196	2.479	0.089
CED	Intercept	-2.492	0.909	-2.741	0.071
CFK	Variable	18.008	1.838	9.798	0.002*
0/ CED	Intercept	1.293	0.756	1.711	0.186
70UFK	Variable	30.223	3.981	7.592	0.005*

452 Significant p-values in bold (* $p \le 0.01$).

453 TFR - total floral resource; %TFR - percentage of total floral resource; CFR - Current Floral Resource; %CFR
 454 – percentage of current floral resource.

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456 *Regional context: introduction and expansion within the SE-Europe*

457

We compiled a total of 14 occurrences of *M. sculpturalis* from the eastern Pannonian region north of Belgrade, from the period 2015–2019. All relevant details – data and metadata (coordinates, dates, bionomics, sources) used for this regional mini-survey are available in Suppl. material 4: Table S4.1; regional records are clearly delimited within the mapped European distribution for 2019 (Suppl. material 1). Additional records from Hungary (after 2015) were mostly discovered through a tailored data-mining within nationally based internet sources (previously being poorly accessible due to a language barrier). Findings from Serbia
also became available with certain delay; in the case of Palić record of 2018 (northernmost
Serbia) it was due to misidentification (at: Insekti Srbije 2018; corrected in 2020 by JBD).
From the more remote areas, we included 11 most adjacent records to the west, which are very
broadly marginal to the wider Pannonian periphery: from E-Austria, Slovenia and SW-Croatia
(2016–2019); there were only three eastern records, from Romania and Crimea (2018–2019).

470

The first Serbian record (in Belgrade 2017) was amongst the earliest known so remotely to the 471 472 east from the contemporary colonized areas in western Europe. By that time, the closest previous occurrences were from NE-Hungary in 2015 (Kovács 2015; ca. 330 km linear 473 distance to the north), and from NW-Slovenia in 2016 (Gogala and Zadravec 2018; ca. 550 km 474 to the west). The closest contemporary occurrence was the first record in NE-Austria (Westrich 475 2017; ca. 490 km northwest of Belgrade). With the additional records in 2018, the apparent 476 distribution gap across the eastern Pannonian Plain was reduced to ca. 160 km (from Belgrade 477 northwards to Palić and Szeged). Additional adjacent records to the west (Austria, Slovenia, 478 and Croatia) remained at a fairly large distance throughout 2018–2019 (≥440 km). Detections 479 further east in Europe (2018–2019) were more distant: ca. 1,000–1,150 km between Crimea 480 (2018) and the closest records in Hungary (2015-2018) or Serbia (2017-2018); ca. 450-481 530 km between records in Serbia and Romania (2019); ca. 470-510 km between records in 482 Hungary and Romania; ca. 640 km between records in Crimea and Romania. Gaps between 483 the adjacent findings within E-Pannonian Plain were further reduced by the end of the season 484 2019 (ranging mostly 80–105 km, rarely 115–130 km, but in some areas only ca. 30–40 km), 485 seemingly approaching the near-continuous distribution. Noteworthy, many records from this 486 487 region were from the nesting situations, and none from the proven pollen-source plants.

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490 Discussion

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We documented and analyzed the widespread local occurrence of *M. sculpturalis* within the city of Belgrade, highlighting the early phase of its establishment in Serbia (2017–2019). This initially local case study provided a novel quantitative approach for assessing the bee activity in relation to floral resource availability, contributing to the framework for early detectability of the expanding Asian bee. Improved understanding of *M. sculpturalis* dynamic local patterns triggered an extension of the research scope to the wider, regional-scale context of this introduction – the colonization within the E-Pannonian Plain and SE-Europe (2015–2019). The
combined outcomes of two complementary studies, one of local and another of regional
occurrence patterns during the early colonization, provide important elements for future
monitoring protocols.

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503 Local scale: the Belgrade survey

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Detection and monitoring of a newly established species may be challenging before a 505 506 substantial local population build-up is attained (Hui and Richardson 2017), commonly involving a variously induced time lag after the initial introduction (Crooks 2005). We 507 confirmed the sculptured resin bee at numerous locations across Belgrade in 2019, only two 508 years after its first detection in Serbia. We suggest that such an early and widespread detection 509 was enabled through the effect of "concentration" of bee foraging activities on a limited amount 510 of the preferred floral resource. Namely, the summer of 2019 was characterized with an 511 exceptional reduction of bee's key food resource (S. japonicum): less than 13% of individual 512 trees had entered some level of blooming, and only about 6% of the potential "blooming 513 volume" was actually in bloom (TFR; as compared with good-blooming years); moreover, the 514 515 availability of floral resources was further reduced during the short period of our survey (to 1.5%). Therefore, the average bee foraging intensity was concentrated by the factor of nearly 516 517 67 (i.e., it was 67 times more likely to observe active bees on inflorescences). Consequently, recording was highly successful: we detected M. sculpturalis in 88% of sectors in which the 518 519 blooming of S. japonicum was sufficient to support at least minimal bee foraging (the threshold 520 value CFR ≥ 0.1 for this study design). The concentration effect may be particularly emphasized when a poor-blooming year follows the good year(s). This is based on a more general 521 mechanism: alternating inter-annual fluctuations of blooming intensity of food plants may 522 promote phase-delayed good or poor reproduction success of affected bee species (Tepedino 523 and Stanton 1981; Crone 2013). The phase-delays produce a mismatch between the actual 524 floral resources and the contemporary bee activity density, and in turn, the alternation of 525 "concentration" and "dilution" effects. Blooming of S. japonicum seemingly follows a sort of 526 alternating, but basically more irregular bearing pattern, a phenomenon otherwise well known 527 in numerous tree taxa belonging to widely different plant families (Monselise and Goldschmidt 528 1982). The good blooming phase of S. japonicum in Belgrade during the first two years of 529 M. sculpturalis documented presence (2017-2018) was favorable for the establishment and 530 531 initial population build-up, albeit being slow. However, in the same period, its apparent activity

has been diluted over this hyper-abundant and widely available floral resource, making it difficult to detect. We expect that observable activity density of *M. sculpturalis* remains decisively affected by this interplay of concentration and dilution phases until the substantially abundant local population is attained. The preliminary outcomes from our 2020 survey (reduced recording success in conditions of good blooming season), are concordant with this expectation (Bila Dubaić et al. 2021).

538

Within the sectors with detectable bee activity (CFR ≥ 0.1), we have found that the activity 539 540 density (BpM) was solely affected and significantly related to the levels of currently available floral resources (CFR); this was shown at both sector/landscape scale and as averaged values 541 across urbanistic zones defined in this study. We could not detect any effects of other tested 542 resource parameters (NoT, NoT_iB, TFR) on bee abundance and distribution patterns, neither 543 of other possible environmental features that vary between the defined urbanistic zones. 544 Arguably, the lack of significant effects may be in part ascribed to a high variability of key 545 floral resources and/or to a small sample size (due to limited surveying period). However, this 546 may also indicate the ability of *M. sculpturalis* to efficiently trace available key food resources, 547 owing to its size and expectedly strong flight capacity (Quaranta et al. 2014; Westrich et al. 548 549 2015). Accordingly, it might be able to quickly optimize its foraging over sizable distances at local scale, which is of particular importance when resources become critically restricted. 550 551 Probably for the same reasons, our analysis has shown that a coarser-scale framework (S500) was less meaningful than the finer-scale (S250), which seems counterintuitive for a large bee, 552 hence worthy of further testing. Upon *M. sculpturalis* reaching higher, more stable abundances, 553 it will be of interest to examine if other aspects of urban environmental gradients might also 554 affect its local distribution and activity patterns (in addition to the key food availability). Of 555 various features of urban environments, commonly emphasized as affecting wild bee diversity 556 and/or dynamics (Hernandez et al. 2009; Fortel et al. 2014; Fischer et al. 2016; Leong et al. 557 2016; Baldock 2020), we expect that just a few might be proven as effective predictors of local 558 differences in dynamic distribution patterns of M. sculpturalis. Probably most relevant are 559 features associated with gradients of urban temperature regimes – including heat island effects, 560 and associated shifts in local phenology of relevant plants. Bee phenology and the seasonal 561 availability of food plants (either those foraged for pollen or as nectar sources) might be further 562 modified by management regimes (watering, pruning, etc.) of different urban settings. The 563 main purpose of capturing such local differences – if shown significant – is to enable an 564

accurate, while also feasible and rational framework for future monitoring schemes, i.e., fordesigning an appropriately stratified sampling (allowing the minimal time investment, etc.).

567

Noteworthy, even under dramatically reduced foraging opportunities on S. japonicum as the 568 preferred food-plant, we could not detect the bee's activity on alternative plants within the area. 569 570 One such commonly available plant, Lavandula, is very frequently visited in bee's European range, second only to S. japonicum (cf. Cetković et al. 2020: extracts from ongoing study). In 571 some country accounts, such as France (Le Féon et al. 2018) and Italy (Ruzzier et al. 2020), it 572 573 was even ranked as first (based on all available records); however, more frequent casual encounters of *M. sculpturalis* in southern France and northern Italy became common only >8574 years upon respective first detections. Therefore, a different visitation pattern was likely 575 affected by a higher population abundance attained due to the *M. sculpturalis* longer local 576 persistence. Its higher abundances could have promoted a spill-over effects of surplus bees, 577 which were forced to visit other available plants, at least for nectar (Lavandula and Buddleja 578 are probably not suitable as pollen source – cf. Ćetković et al. 2020). Conversely, the lack of 579 580 records on other plants in the Belgrade area may be indicative of the local bee population not yet reaching the abundance, which could support spill-over effects. 581

582

Apparently, the understanding of genuine plant usage patterns is highly important for 583 improving the species early detectability, as well as for the further monitoring of its population 584 trends. The effect of concentration, herewith based specifically on a single key food plant, was 585 crucial for this early mass recording. Without that, the initially slow population growth would 586 translate into a prolonged cumulation of rare accidental encounters which commonly lags 587 behind the actual establishment and expansion. Such detection patterns are documented 588 elsewhere in Europe (cf. Le Féon et al. 2018; Lanner et al. 2020a; Ruzzier et al. 2020, etc.), but 589 590 without any consideration of possible mechanisms (cf. Crooks 2005) behind these time lags. In turn, our results further emphasize the relevance of *S. japonicum* as the single most important 591 food plant, both for the establishment/spreading and for efficient recording, at least during the 592 low population levels. Despite quite numerous plant taxa listed in various treatises of bee-plant 593 594 interactions, affiliation of *M. sculpturalis* with selected members of the Fabaceae plant family seems by far most relevant for pollen provisioning (Ćetković at al. 2020; see also relevant 595 references in Introduction). Furthermore, S. japonicum is the only widely available, mass-596 blooming and phenologically suitable representative of large-flowered Fabaceae in the 597 598 Belgrade area, and similar situation exist in many Serbian cities and towns (possibly also in

various other parts of Europe). Hence, to enable the early detection and to improve the 599 efficiency of surveillance efforts in areas of suspected bee presence (or expected arrival), 600 attention should be focused on locations with easily accessible but not excessively abundant 601 and too widely dispersed key plant resource. Most suitable test-locations might be small towns 602 or villages with preferably just a few S. japonicum trees, within wider landscapes which are 603 poor in any proven pollen-source plant. These situations might correspond with effects of 604 605 concentration, documented herewith for Belgrade in 2019. However, a suitable approach is yet 606 to be conceived for assessing the eventual spreading of M. sculpturalis through vast semi-607 natural or wilderness areas.

608

Several studies proposed the establishment of an effective monitoring as urgency action for 609 this rapidly expanding species (Quaranta et al. 2014; Le Féon et al. 2018; IUCN 2020; Ruzzier 610 et al. 2020; Ribas Marquès and Díaz Calafat 2021). So far, comprehensive studies in colonized 611 regions of Europe were more extensively based on opportunistic recordings of nesting activity 612 (within artificial or natural settings), often with a substantial involvement of citizen scientists 613 614 or through casual/scattered public contributions to various internet-based data repositories (Le Féon et al. 2018; Lanner et al. 2020a; Lanner et al. 2020b; Ruzzier et al. 2020; Westrich 2020). 615 616 Nesting-based monitoring may be organized as spatially effective, providing that a sufficiently wide network of voluntary observers could be organized and motivated to install the tailored 617 nesting facilities around their homes/workplaces, to regularly observe various bee activities, 618 and to tediously document and report their recordings. However, this approach may not be 619 620 uniformly feasible across Europe, due to regionally variable citizen's attitudes or prior experiences (Pocock et al. 2018; Requier et al. 2020). Furthermore, it is possibly not best suited 621 622 for the early phase of colonization, due to its likely poor effectiveness in recording too sparse bee activity density (i.e., poor effort-efficiency ratio). Therefore, it should be regarded as 623 624 complementary to active and field-intensive surveying of focal plants and bee activities on flowers. Undoubtedly, the combination of both approaches will be needed for the evaluation 625 of potential invasiveness of this first widespread alien bee in Europe. 626

627

628 Currently, we still lack an elaborate and comprehensive monitoring protocol – generally for 629 any of the alien bee species worldwide. In this study we propose a set of surveying routines 630 and analytical approaches suitable for a structured assessment of plant resource availability 631 integrated with the standardized quantification of sculptured resin bee activity density. For 632 building a functional monitoring approach, this working framework requires further testing and quantitative "calibration" of suggested procedures, under different environmental settings and varied modalities specific for each local or regional colonization event. This should be based on extensive comparison of future assessment trials, taking into account the complicated interplay of resources: the co-occurrence of favorable plants (of different functional status: pollen or nectar-only sources), their varying phenologies and management regimes at different scales (from landscape through regional), affected by varying environmental gradients (from urban to natural), while also considering the particular establishment histories.

640

641 *Regional context: introduction and expansion within the SE-Europe*

642

Detection of *M. sculpturalis* in Belgrade (2017) represented the first record of this bee from 643 the Balkan Peninsula and the second one from the area of eastern and southeastern Europe. 644 Together with the records from NE-Hungary (Gyöngyös; Kovács 2015) and from NE-Austria 645 (Vienna; Westrich 2017), these were the only three occurrences east of the Alps, as detected 646 by 2017. Accordingly, all were considered as likely cases of long-distance jump dispersal 647 (Kovács 2015; Ćetković and Plećaš 2017; Lanner et al. 2020a), relative to largely continuous 648 range expansion within the more western parts of Europe (Suppl. material 1), while most of 649 650 the Pannonian Plain represented a wide distribution gap between them. The relative position of the sole Romanian record, two years later (Bucharest; Hymenopterists Forum 2019), matches 651 these initial dispersal distances of the first three eastern occurrences; further eastern dispersal 652 jump, documented in Crimea in 2018, was remarkably more long-distant (Ivanov and Fateryga 653 654 2019).

655

From this wider perspective, the long-distance jump into Belgrade indeed seems as the most 656 plausible scenario. Belgrade's status (the capital city), and its position at important traffic 657 junctions of several major routes from central and western Europe, makes it highly exposed to 658 a large-scale transportation of diverse goods (Suppl. material 2 (i)). The lack of records from 659 most of Serbia, and also from most of neighboring countries, might further support the 660 hypothesis that Belgrade was the genuine introduction point for Serbia (and for the C-Balkans). 661 The initial dispersal distances of elaborated SE-European cases do not allow for more specific 662 inferences regarding the origin; hence, the source of this particular colonization is to be 663 resolved only with molecular genetic approach (Bila Dubaić and Lanner 2021; Lanner et al., 664 2021). Generally, human-aided secondary introductions among the recently established but 665 widely isolated locations within SE-Europe are not likely, since the initial low-abundances 666

reduce the chances for inadvertent passive transportations (Bertelsmeier and Keller 2018). Therefore, source(s) of these presumed long-distance jumps within SE-Europe could have been any of the populations from the earlier-established W-European range, even the overseas origins cannot be excluded (Kovács 2015). The recent estimates of genetic relatedness suggest that the introduction into NE-Austria represents the independent colonization event in Europe, i.e., not originating from populations established in France and Switzerland (Lanner et al. 2021).

674

675 However, an in-depth consideration of two contrasting cases (Belgrade vs. E-Pannonian) suggests that the alternative scenario of the colonization of N-Serbia is even more plausible; it 676 is based primarily on diffusive mode of spreading (Suarez et al. 2001). The vivid nesting 677 activity of *M. sculpturalis* in a small Hungarian town of Gyöngyös (Kovács 2015) indicates 678 that local establishment has happened one or more seasons before the actual detection. Its likely 679 longer and more extended presence in the NE-Pannonian region is further emphasized with 680 predominance of nesting-based records over the plant-based ones in reports from 2018. The 681 seemingly abrupt expansion of its apparent range across the NE-Pannonian Plain in 2018, only 682 three years after the first detection, cannot be based on further human-assisted jump dispersal 683 684 events. More likely, a slow "sneaking" diffusive dispersal was taking place near-continuously for several years, probably for a much longer period than could be inferred from the available 685 recordings. Accordingly, before the more substantial abundances could become obvious 686 (simultaneously throughout the region), the spreading southwards across the Pannonian 687 lowlands could have already reached the northern Balkans (i.e., Serbia in 2017), without being 688 detected in the intermediary area before 2018. Therefore, the impression of a genuine, fairly 689 690 distant jump into Belgrade, unrelated to the prior introduction in NE-Hungary, is most probably an artifact, i.e., the "type III" lag phase (Hui and Richardson 2017, after Crooks 2005). 691 692 Somewhat contrasting evidence of *M. sculpturalis* spreading patterns at two analyzed spatiotemporal scales (local vs. regional) indicates that it lacks the true lag phase (i.e., the "type II" 693 of Hui and Richardson 2017). The usually slow initial population build-up apparently does not 694 hamper the active and successful spreading of this bee, but coupled with relatively scattered 695 696 faunistic research in the area, it resulted in poor detection in the region during at least three years (since 2015). Noteworthy, the widespread presence (since 2018) was documented merely 697 through accidental/casual activity of citizen scientists' (Rovarok, pókok 2017–2019; Insekti 698 Srbije 2018; izeltlabuak.hu 2018), i.e., without any focused research. 699

701 The recognition of one vs. another mode of dispersal and identification of likely introduction and expansion pathway(s) may be severely difficult, and often speculative, but nevertheless 702 highly important for understanding the spatio-temporal patterns of each non-native 703 704 colonization (Suarez et al. 2001; Trakhtenbrot et al. 2005; Hui and Richardson 2017). Herewith we contrasted the evidence from methodologically different approaches (focused/systematic 705 surveillance based on focal plant resources and casual/opportunistic recording through 706 707 unfocused citizen observations) at two similar temporal scales (3 vs. 5+ years), but over largely different spatial scales (<20 km vs. >300 km). The study revealed somewhat contrasting, but 708 709 complementary expansion and detection patterns, as important aspects of usually hidden early colonization dynamics, which are of great methodological relevance for future monitoring. We 710 suggest that, in case of the bee with relatively narrow and well-established trophic 711 requirements, focusing on key floral resources and concentration-dilution effects is a highly 712 profitable approach. Nevertheless, the evidence which lacks this component may also be highly 713 useful in reconstruction of expansion modes and pathways, if interpreted within the suitable 714 spatio-temporal framework and well-understood recording context. Finally, we have shown 715 716 that, contrary to common expectations (Quaranta et al. 2014; Lanner et al. 2020a), the striking appearance and easy to observe behavior of *M. sculpturalis* is not sufficient to ensure the very 717 early detection and real-time tracking, without a specifically tailored surveillance approach. 718 However, it is a highly suitable and prospective model organism for comprehensive studies of 719 720 non-native bee colonizations.

721 722

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731 Authors contribution

- AC conceived the survey concept, JBD and MP contributed to survey methodology. All
- authors except JL contributed equally to collection of field data. MP performed statistical

- analysis and JBD provided geospatial visualization. JBD and AĆ wrote the initial draft of the
- manuscript, JR and MP assisted with editing the draft and finalizing the manuscript. After
- receiving revision of the manuscript, JL critically contributed during the rewriting process.
- All authors gave final approval for the publication.

738 Disclosure

- 739
- 740 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest or disputes over the ownership of the
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1052 Figure legends

1053

Figure 1. Landscape/urbanistic zonation of the study area in Serbia (18×11 km), within
Belgrade proper (light blue outline; sections separated by the red dotted-line): BUC – Balkan
Urban Core; BMP – Balkan Mixed Periphery; PUC – Pannonian Urban Core; PSU – Pannonian
Semi-Urban; PPU – Pannonian Peri-Urban.

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Figure 2. (A) the first specimen of *Megachile sculpturalis* (male), caught in Serbia in July
2017; (B) mass-foraging females detected in August 2019.

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Figure 3. Distribution of (**A**) effective floral resources of *S. japonicum*, as surveyed in August 2019 (Current Floral Resource – CFR), and (**B**) respective metrics of *M. sculpturalis* activity density (Bees per Minute – BpM), both presented within the S250 framework (circular sectors – "landscapes" of r=250 m; values shown in classes). Urbanistic zones (acronyms as in Fig. 1) are shown as background shades of grey, representing the averaged value of CFR per zone calculated either for (**A**) all 40 sectors, or (**B**) only for 16 sectors with CFR \geq 0.1. The location of the first find is marked with "2017". Numerical data available in

1069 Suppl. material 3: Tables S3.2–S.3.4; see also maps in Suppl. material 5. for the complete 1070 visualization of floral resource metrics.

1071

Figure 4. Relationship between (A) BpM and CFR, and (B) BpM and %CFR averaged across
each urbanistic zone (BpM – Bees Per Minute; CFR - Current Floral Resource; %CFR –
percentage of current floral resource).

1075

1077	Supplementary materials
1078	
1079	Supplementary material 1
1080	Summary visualization of the Megachile sculpturalis distribution and spreading through
1081	Europe for the period 2011–2019, shown as series of tentative expansion phases.
1082	Authors: Jovana Bila Dubaić, Milan Plećaš, Jovana Raičević, Julia Lanner, Aleksandar
1083	Ćetković
1084	Data type: text & figure (map); *.pdf
1085	
1086	Supplementary material 2
1087	Study area – Belgrade (Serbia): basic topography, biogeography, ecological patterns
1088	(habitats, land-use, landscapes) and urbanistic zonation:
1089	(i) City of Belgrade: general features (Figure S2.1);
1090	(ii) Zonation of Belgrade (version_01: survey in 2019; Figure S2.2);
1091	(iii) Survey design and processing of geospatial framework (Figure S2.3).
1092	(This is the PDF version of selected pages from the thematic project website (Ćetković et al.
1093	2020), by: Centre for Bee Research of the Faculty of Biology, University of Belgrade
1094	(available also at: <u>https://srbee.bio.bg.ac.rs/english/belgrade-general-features;</u>
1095	https://srbee.bio.bg.ac.rs/english/m-sculpturalis-2019-survey; with occasional updates.)
1096	Authors: Jovana Bila Dubaić, Milan Plećaš, Jovana Raičević, Julia Lanner, Aleksandar
1097	Ćetković
1098	Data type: text & figures (maps); *.pdf
1099	
1100	Supplementary material 3
1101	Quantitative survey of distribution and abundance parameters of <i>M. sculpturalis</i> (BpM)
1102	and S. japonicum (NoT, NoT_iB, TFR, CFR) in the Belgrade area in August 2019: Tables
1103	S3.1–S3.4.
1104	Authors: Jovana Bila Dubaić, Milan Plećaš, Jovana Raičević, Julia Lanner, Aleksandar
1105	Ćetković
1106	Data type: spreadsheet database (data & metadata); *.xlsx
1107	

1108 Supplementary material 4

- 1109 Table S4.1. Records of *M. sculpturalis* from the broader SE-European region and the
- adjacent areas (compiled for: 2015–2019). Table S4.2. Published data sources used.
- 1111 Authors: Jovana Bila Dubaić, Milan Plećaš, Jovana Raičević, Julia Lanner, Aleksandar
- 1112 Ćetković
- 1113 Data type: spreadsheet database (records and sources); *.xlsx
- 1114
- 1115 Supplementary material 5
- 1116 Belgrade area: results of statistical testing (Tables S5.1–S5.3) and distribution maps of
- 1117 estimated metrics (Figures S5.1–S5.2).
- 1118 Authors: Jovana Bila Dubaić, Milan Plećaš, Jovana Raičević, Julia Lanner, Aleksandar
- 1119 Ćetković
- 1120 Data type: text, tables & figures (maps); *.pdf