

We are IntechOpen, the world's leading publisher of Open Access books Built by scientists, for scientists

4,800

Open access books available

122,000

International authors and editors

135M

Downloads

Our authors are among the

154

Countries delivered to

TOP 1%

most cited scientists

12.2%

Contributors from top 500 universities



WEB OF SCIENCE™

Selection of our books indexed in the Book Citation Index
in Web of Science™ Core Collection (BKCI)

Interested in publishing with us?
Contact book.department@intechopen.com

Numbers displayed above are based on latest data collected.

For more information visit www.intechopen.com



American Foulbrood and the Risk in the Use of Antibiotics as a Treatment

Enrique Mejias

Abstract

Honeybees (*Apis mellifera*) crucially pollinate agricultural crops and endemic species, in addition to producing various apiculture products. The most economically relevant and abundant beehive product is honey, a sweet substance made from the secretions of melliferous plants. Honey is a natural food rich in nutrients, including certain bioactive compounds inherited from floral nectar and pollen. Among the most dangerous diseases for bees is American foulbrood. Spores of the causative microorganism, *Paenibacillus larvae*, can contaminate larvae food or the operculum wax in which larval stages of honeybees are kept. Infection is further promoted by common apiculture practices, such as reusing inert material contaminated with spores, even after months of storage. American foulbrood is untreatable, and management implicates completely incinerating the infected hive and all material that could have come into contact with pathogenic spores. The purpose of such drastic measures is to decrease propagation risk for other beehives. While evidence indicates that antibiotics could effectively control and combat this disease; antibiotic use is prohibited in most honey-producing countries due to increased risks to microbial resistance. Antibiotic residues in honey can affect consumer health, since the natural biological attributes of honey can be altered.

Keywords: American foulbrood, *Paenibacillus larvae*, honey, beehive products, antibiotics residues

1. Introduction

Honeybees (*Apis mellifera*) and wild bees possess a number of morphological traits that facilitate pollen transport, making bees efficient pollinizers and ensuring the preservation and diversity of agricultural crops and native plant species [1]. However, the continued existence of bees and, by extension, pollinating and honey-producing activities are under threat by a range of hostile conditions. Pesticide exposure [2, 3] is one such condition, but the acute effects of climate change are among the primary drivers for decreases in and the weakening of beehive populations.

Climate-change phenomena have strongly impacted the viability of ecosystems [4]. Prolonged droughts and high temperatures due to intense heat waves have become, in recent years, determining factors in weakened [5] and decreased [6] beehive populations across Mediterranean climates, including western Australia,

southeastern Africa, central Chile, California, and the Mediterranean basin of Europe. The combination of harsh temperatures and shortened flowering periods, as associated with insufficient water, can result in reductions to fat reserves and overall body mass in bees. This status can translate into fewer pollinating and honey-producing activities [7], as well as an increased incidence of specific diseases affecting honey bees weakened by nutritional deficits [8, 9].

Addressing the aforementioned threats to sustainably preserve the apiculture industry requires compliance with strict international regulations and norms to ensure the quality and safety of export products. Sufficiently monitoring residues in honey and adequately controlling diseases affecting bee health and production are constant preoccupations for apiculturists and exporters worldwide. In this chapter, there will be listed the main issues related to the uses of antibiotics as effective treatment against *Paenibacillus larvae* and the risk of potential resistance effects over health of consumers of bee products focused mainly on honey. Also, the development of alternative strategies to control this disease is discussed briefly.

2. Honey and other apiculture products

Besides fulfilling the critical role of pollinizing agricultural crops, *A. mellifera* are responsible for a number of economically valuable products, including propolis, royal jelly, bee venom, beeswax, bee pollen, and honey. Pollination and these apiculture products are made possible by adaptations that facilitate the collection and transport of pollen grains to the beehive. Behaviorally, bees improve pollen-transport efficiency by wetting pollen grains with nectar, thus creating a cohesive surface that increases the amount of pollen that can be carried during flight. Due to its anatomical skills, the characteristic buzz of bees facilitates the collection of pollen grains located on floral structures [10]. Brushes of hairs present on bee legs further favor pollen collection, specifically through the formation of a special cavity known corbiculum, on the hind pair of legs. Plant pollens are first conglomerated in the corbicular structures, but once inside the beehive, flightless bees are able to move and fragment the collected material into a honeycomb cell, where it is further broken up into a powder and accumulated against the interior of the honeycomb cell [11]. This collection and conglomeration process results in bee pollen, the water content of which is between 4 and 10%. These levels ensure good preservation over time (i.e. organic components do not degrade or decompose), thus guaranteeing that the preferably polar nutritional contents of bee pollen are chemically unaltered [12].

In addition to pollen collection, young melliferous bees secrete a liquid from wax glands that, when exposed to air, hardens and forms small flakes that collect on the underside of the bee. This economically valuable natural substance is known as beeswax and is used by bees to construct hexagonal alveoli into honeycombs. The rigid structure of honeycomb cells serves to conserve honey and pollen. Likewise, alveoli serve as a place for the queen bee to deposit eggs and for larvae or pupae to develop [13]. Beeswax contains carbohydrates (present in pollen and nectar) that have transformed into fats due to the presence of enzymes and enzyme precursors secreted by bees. More specifically, beeswax is constituted by water and minerals (1–2%), mono-esters and hydroxyl mono-esters, complex wax esthers, hydrocarbons, and free wax acids [14].

Despite the importance of bee pollen and beeswax, honey is the primary apiculture product. The global honey trade is valued at 2.4 billion dollars annually and involves the movement of approximately 630 thousand tons of honey. Chile accounted for 0.6% of total exports in 2017 and is ranked 30th among export countries. In 2017, the main import markets of honey were the United States and Germany.

Honey has been described as a naturally sweet mixture produced by *A. mellifera* bees from the nectar of flowers and the secretions of melliferous plants. These components are mixed with bee-produced substances and are deposited, dehydrated, and stored in honeycomb cells until later use [15]. The composition of this natural food includes sugars, mostly glucose and fructose, the ratio of which determines the degree of granulation for a honey [16]. Disaccharide and maltose sugars are also present [17]. Components found in lesser quantities include organic acids, amino acids, proteins, enzymes, minerals, lipids, vitamins [18, 19], and hydroxymethylfurfural, which is used as an indicator of freshness [20, 21].

Status as a natural functional food means that honey is the best-characterized apiculture product. Bees selectively use floral resources available in proximity to beehives [22–24]. This is important to consider as the traits of apiculture products, including honey and bee pollen, are inherited through secondary plant metabolites transferred in nectar [25]. Consequently, the attributes of melliferous species are directly related to the biological properties of resulting honeys [26]. Notable among the biologically active components of honey are phenolic compounds [27] and flavonoids [28, 29]. Phenolic compounds and flavonoids have antioxidant capacities, acting through routes complementary to enzymatic antioxidants identified in honeys, such as glucose oxidase and catalase [30–32]. Antibiotic activity, also as related to phenolic acids and flavonoids, has been reported in some honeys globally [33–36].

In addition to affecting biological properties, plant origin also directly influences the market value of honey. Quantitative and qualitative melissopalynological analyses can be used to classify honeys as monofloral, bifloral, or polyfloral. The highest demand is for monofloral honeys, which are primarily constituted (>45%) by pollen grains of the same melliferous species. Therefore, honey quality depends on the presence and concentration of specific chemical compounds and on the botanical origin of said compounds [37].

The elaboration of the aforementioned apiculture products can, under certain conditions, concurrently occur with the production of live material. More specifically, rearing queen bees and colonies are diversification options for national apiculturists [38]. There is a demand for bee packages, nucleus colonies, and, particularly, queen bees in countries such as Canada, France, Mexico, and Italy. This point has driven industry growth in Chile, which, over the last 3 years, has doubled in size, going from more than 10,000 exported queen bees in 2015 to more than 20,000 in 2017 [39].

3. American foulbrood

There are two groups of diseases that can affect beehives—exotic and endemic diseases. Exotic diseases include parasites such as the small hive beetle (*Aethina tumida*) and Tropilaelaps mites (*Tropilaelaps clareae*). Endemic diseases include pathologies that more frequently affect bees, such as nosemosis (caused by *Nosema apis*), varroosis (caused by *Varroa destructor*), and acarapisosis (caused by *Acarapis woodi*). This same group of diseases also includes two Gram-positive microorganisms that cause American (*Paenibacillus larvae*) and European (*Melissococcus plutonius*) foulbrood [40].

The first report of American foulbrood in Chile was in 2001, whereas the first case of European foulbrood was in 2009. According to protocols for the management of apiculture diseases issued by the Chilean Ministry of Agriculture, both foulbrood diseases are classified as endemic and with low prevalence in the country. Nevertheless, the management of European foulbrood is less complex and involves

less drastic sanitary measures than American foulbrood. Indeed, the incidence of European-foulbrood outbreaks has consistently declined since initial detection, with only one incident reported in 2016.

By contrast, American foulbrood is difficult to manage and eradicate. This pathogen has been detected in most regions of Chile, but the number of reported cases has varied since 2005. Notwithstanding, a worrying 44 outbreaks were reported in 2018, and an additional 61 outbreaks have been reported as of June 2019. Most cases have been reported in the Atacama, O'Higgins, and Maule Regions of Chile [41]. Given that antibiotic treatment of this disease is prohibited [42] and that sanitary control measures include the incineration of all live material, it is believed that American foulbrood outbreaks are underreported in Chile out of fear for the total loss of infected beehives. In this way, according to the World Organization for Animal Health (OIE), there are cases reported in the first half of 2019 in Europe (with declared infection in Finland), South Africa, North America, South America and Australia. Despite those data, many countries have no information available for knowing the real state of this disease around the world as it shows **Figure 1**.

The infectious pathway of *P. larvae* is through spores that can survive in the environment for many years, contaminating beehive materials and apiculture products. These spores are particularly resistant to heat and a number of chemical compounds. Once bee larvae have ingested food contaminated with spores, the bacteria, in a vegetative state, proliferate without damaging the stomach lining of the larva. During this infectious stage, bacteria obtain nutrients from food ingested by the larva [43]. American foulbrood affects larvae in any of the three honey-bee castes. The most susceptible, however, are immunosuppressed bees due to exposure to environmental contaminants (e.g. pesticides, metals) or that have suffered any of the aforementioned diseases. During outbreaks, *P. larvae* spores can be found in the honey and beeswax, and pillaging from sick hives, the use of contaminated beekeeping materials, and poor beehive management, among other factors, can contribute to the spread of disease [44].

Bee colonies present a coexistence mechanism with *P. larvae*. This host-etiological agent relationship has existed for more than 2400 years and is a highly specific infection, with germination possible only in bee larvae aged 1 or 2 days [45].

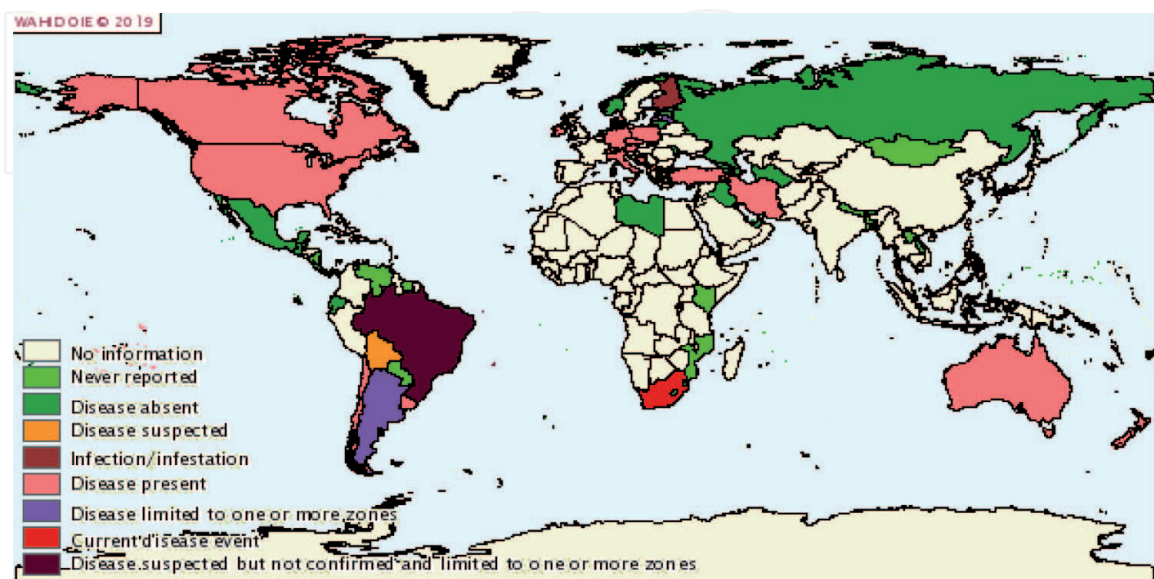


Figure 1. Dynamic maps showing the presence or absence of American foulbrood at the national and sub-national levels. Information based on 6-monthly reports (first half of 2019) according to the data base taken from World Organization for Animal Health (OIE).

Nevertheless, this microorganism has at least four distinct genotypes (ERIC I-IV) that modulate infection with different degrees of pathogenicity. The ERIC I and ERIC II genotypes were found to be the most aggressive through repetitive-element PCR analyses performed with primers amplifying enterobacterial repetitive intergenic consensus elements [46]. Therefore, American foulbrood infection can, in some cases, mean a total loss of colony larvae. In other cases, hives can survive with the spores and, even, never show visible clinical symptoms [47]. Inadequate management by beekeepers can result in a disease outbreak, specifically by unbalancing the internal equilibrium of the beehive and provoking a violent increase in the load of spores within larvae nests [48].

The symptoms and effects of American foulbrood manifest slowly in beehives and occur while larvae receive contaminated food. In this stage, disease is not visible, but the first signs include the presence of dark, sunken, and greasy cappings that may be perforated by bees removing brood already in the process of putrefaction [49]. Finally, hive death occurs due to the lack of new, live brood and the aging and death of adult bees. The weakened hive then become an easy target for pillaging by bees from stronger hives seeking food reserves. Such pillaging serves to propagate the disease in nearby beehives and, consequently, the entire apiary [43, 50].

3.1 Control strategies

3.1.1 Antibiotic treatments and the analytical methods for detecting residues in honey

The need to control American foulbrood is principally driven by damage caused by infection, which can include the loss of beehives and compromised honey and queen-bee exports. The use of tetracycline prophylactics is widespread in large animals and is allowed for bees in some honey-producing countries. In most countries, however, *P. larvae* expansion is controlled through the total incineration of hives with active infections [51]. The application and uses of veterinary antibiotics have been restricted primarily due to the appearance of antibiotic-resistant *P. larvae* strains. Such resistance could partially be due to the frequent application of veterinary drugs to prevent and control potential infestations, even in the absence of disease diagnosis [52]. In addition to antibiotic-resistance in *P. larvae*, the presence of antibiotics represents a health risk for consumers of contaminated honeys.

Where antibiotic use is allowed, maximum residual limits range between 10 and 50 ppb. These limits are intended to minimize the presence of antibiotic compounds in end-products, such as honey [53]. Antibiotics can, undoubtedly, affect the properties, quality, and, finally, export price of honey. Additionally, some purchasing countries regulate against the presence of antibiotics in beehives, thus impacting beekeepers that export honey [54–56]. This is a particularly relevant point for Chilean beekeepers as the primary export market is Europe, which has zero tolerance for antibiotics in imported honey (**Table 1**) [42]. These strict regulations require the determination of each compound in honey through highly sensitive analytical methods.

Several studies have aimed to develop reliable methods for detecting and quantifying the presence of antibiotics in complex organic matrixes, such as honey. Despite the ban of antibiotics in beekeeping, these substances have been detected in various European honey samples [57]. Liquid chromatography with UV-Vis detection resulted in the isolation of tetracycline, oxytetracycline, chlortetracycline, doxycycline, minocycline, and methacycline in different fortified honey samples cleaned by solid-phase extraction [58]. A more recent methodology with good

Antibiotic	Maximum residual limit
Oxytetracycline	Forbidden
Tylosin	Forbidden
Lincomycin	Forbidden
Streptomycin	Forbidden
Sulfonamides	Forbidden
Chloramphenicol	Forbidden
Nitrofurans	Forbidden

Table 1.
Maximum residual limits for antibiotics in the European Union.

results is QuEChERS solid-phase extraction followed by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry [59].

Antibiotic resistance against tetracyclines by American and European foulbrood strains has led to research of other antibiotics. Sulfonamides have been widely used, but specific methods of determining and detecting these compounds in honey are needed since toxic collateral effects in association with allergies have been observed in humans [60]. To this end, high performance liquid chromatography paired with time-of-flight mass spectrophotometry has detected trace amounts of these compounds through direct injection [61].

Tylosin, a macrolide antibiotic active against many Gram-positive bacteria, has been increasingly used instead of tetracyclines and sulfonamides in beekeeping. Nevertheless, American foulbrood also presents resistance against macrolides. The best methodology for detecting macrolides in honey samples is solid-phase extraction followed by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrophotometry [62]. Another type of antibiotic used against American and European foulbrood is streptomycin. This aminoglycoside can potentially control foulbrood disease in beehives. Traditional methods of detection include high-performance liquid chromatography with different strategies of solid-phase extraction [63, 64]. The adverse effects to consumers of honeys contaminated by streptomycin include acute otitis and allergic dermatitis [65].

Finally, a number of antibiotics have been fully banned in the control of American foulbrood due to adverse effects to human health. For example, nitrofurans are associated with possible carcinogenic effects while chloramphenicol can cause aplastic anemia, in addition to evidencing possible carcinogenic risks [59, 66].

3.1.2 Nuclear irradiation

One reliable and traceable treatment for efficiently eliminating the highly resistant *P. larvae* spores is the gamma irradiation (15 kGy) of structural components in beehives [67]. Effective treatment would reduce the significant economic losses caused by the destruction of all material contaminated with *P. larvae*. An important advantage of this methodology is that the same procedure can be used to control various diseases at once; i.e., fungal, viral, and bacterial diseases affecting bees can be effectively eliminated through gamma irradiation [68]. Nevertheless, the use of gamma irradiation to control apiculture diseases is restricted only to the elimination of spores in honey, beeswax, and inert material in the hive. Irradiation cannot be used on live individuals within the hive due to previously reported adverse effects [69].

3.1.3 Antimicrobial peptides

An alternative strategy for controlling and combating *P. larvae* has been through peptides that act as natural antibiotics against this microorganism. Some peptides evidencing infection resistance have already been isolated from adult melliferous bees [70]. More recent studies have established which peptides with antibiotic activity originate from symbiont bacteria present in bees, such as lactic acid bacteria and *Brevibacillus laterosporus* [71, 72].

4. Conclusions

American foulbrood has been present since the beginning of beekeeping and has evolved over time. Nevertheless, the apiculture industry today faces a complex situation. The effects of climate change have modified the availability of nutrients and food for bees, ultimately weakening hive health. Food availability for bees has been further decreased by the use of agrochemicals and the occurrence of extensive, devastating forest fires. These situations have provoked a resurgence of American foulbrood outbreaks, which need to be controlled to mitigate population and economic losses. Researchers specializing in apiculture should focus efforts on the search for new, environmentally friendly control strategies against this disease. Such efforts will help prevent the use of antibiotics, which in addition to inducing *P. larvae* resistance can lead to adverse effects in individuals who consume honeys contaminated by veterinary-use drugs.

Acknowledgements

Funding by CONICYT—PAI/Inserción sector productivo, 1era conv. 2019, Grant number I7819010001.

Conflict of interest

The author declares no conflict of interest.

Author details

Enrique Mejias
Departamento de Tecnologías Nucleares (DTN), División de Investigación y Aplicaciones Nucleares (DIAN), Comisión Chilena de Energía Nuclear (CCHEN), Santiago, Chile

*Address all correspondence to: enrique.mejias@cchen.cl;
e.mejiasbarrios@gmail.com

IntechOpen

© 2019 The Author(s). Licensee IntechOpen. This chapter is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. 

References

- [1] Klein A-M, Boreux V, Fornoff F, Mupepele A-C, Pufal G. Relevance of wild and managed bees for human well-being. *Current Opinion in Insect Science*. 2018;**26**:82-88
- [2] Mitchell EAD, Mulhauser B, Mulot M, Mutabazi A, Glauser G, Aebi A. A worldwide survey of neonicotinoids in honey. *Science* (80-). 2017;**358**(6359):109-111. Available from: <http://www.sciencemag.org/lookup/doi/10.1126/science.aan3684>
- [3] Kohnsaka R, Park MS, Uchiyama Y. Beekeeping and honey production in Japan and South Korea: Past and present. *Journal of Ethnic Foods*. 2017;**4**(2):72-79. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S2352618117300380>
- [4] Flores JM, Gil-Lebrero S, Gámiz V, Rodríguez MI, Ortiz MA, Quiles FJ. Effect of the climate change on honey bee colonies in a temperate Mediterranean zone assessed through remote hive weight monitoring system in conjunction with exhaustive colonies assessment. *Science of the Total Environment*. 2019;**653**:1111-1119. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S004896971834350X>
- [5] Hernando MD, Gámiz V, Gil-Lebrero S, Rodríguez I, García-Valcárcel AI, Cutillas V, et al. Viability of honeybee colonies exposed to sunflowers grown from seeds treated with the neonicotinoids thiamethoxam and clothianidin. *Chemosphere*. 2018;**202**:609-617. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0045653518305320>
- [6] Switanek M, Crailsheim K, Truhetz H, Brodschneider R. Modelling seasonal effects of temperature and precipitation on honey bee winter mortality in a temperate climate. *Science of the Total Environment*. 2017;**579**:1581-1587. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0048969716326444>
- [7] CaraDonna PJ, Cunningham JL, Iler AM. Experimental warming in the field delays phenology and reduces body mass, fat content and survival: Implications for the persistence of a pollinator under climate change. *Functional Ecology*. 2018;**32**(10):2345-2356. Available from: <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/1365-2435.13151>
- [8] Phillips C. Following beekeeping: More-than-human practice in agrifood. *Journal of Rural Studies*. 2014;**36**:149-159. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0743016714000886>
- [9] Dolezal AG, Toth AL. Feedbacks between nutrition and disease in honey bee health. *Current Opinion in Insect Science*. 2018;**26**:114-119
- [10] Thorp RW. The collection of pollen by bees. *Plant Systematics and Evolution*. 2000;**222**(1-4):211-223. Available from: <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/BF00984103>
- [11] Human H, Nicolson SW, Strauss K, Pirk CWW, Dietemann V. Influence of pollen quality on ovarian development in honeybee workers (*Apis mellifera scutellata*). *Journal of Insect Physiology*. 2007;**53**(7):649-655. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022191007001114>
- [12] Gergen I, Radu F, Bordean D, Isengard HD. Determination of water content in bee's pollen samples by Karl Fischer titration. *Food Control*. 2006;**17**(3):176-179
- [13] Bradbear N. l'Alimentació O de les NU per a l'Agricultura i, Agricultura D de. *La Apicultura y los medios de vida*

sostenibles. Roma: FAO; 2005. Available from: <http://www.fao.org/docrep/008/y5110s/y5110s00.htm>

[14] Fratini F, Cilia G, Turchi B, Felicioli A. Beeswax: A minireview of its antimicrobial activity and its application in medicine. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Medicine*. 2016;**9**(9):839-843. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1995764516301407>

[15] Joint FAO/WHO Codex Alimentarius Commission & JFFSP. Revised Codex Standard for Honey, Standards and Standard Methods. 2001. Available from: http://www.fao.org/input/download/standards/310/cxs_012e.pdf

[16] Ojeda de Rodríguez G, Sulbarán de Ferrer B, Ferrer A, Rodríguez B. Characterization of honey produced in Venezuela. *Food Chemistry*. 2004;**84**(4):499-502

[17] Deng J, Liu R, Lu Q, Hao P, Xu A, Zhang J, et al. Biochemical properties, antibacterial and cellular antioxidant activities of buckwheat honey in comparison to manuka honey. *Food Chemistry*. 2018;**252**:243-249. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0308814618301304>

[18] Meda A, Lamien CE, Romito M, Millogo J, Nacoulma OG. Determination of the total phenolic, flavonoid and proline contents in Burkina Fasan honey, as well as their radical scavenging activity. *Food Chemistry*. 2005;**91**(3):571-577

[19] Finola MS, Lasagno MC, Marioli JM. Microbiological and chemical characterization of honeys from Central Argentina. *Food Chemistry*. 2007;**100**(4):1649-1653

[20] Naila A, Flint SH, Sulaiman AZ, Ajit A, Weeds Z. Classical and novel approaches to the analysis of honey

and detection of adulterants. *Food Control*. 2018;**90**:152-165. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0956713518300732>

[21] Sakač MB, Jovanov PT, Marić AZ, Pezo LL, Kevrešan ŽS, Novaković AR, et al. Physicochemical properties and mineral content of honey samples from Vojvodina (Republic of Serbia). *Food Chemistry*. 2019;**276**:15-21. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0308814618317278>

[22] Louveaux J, Maurizio A, Vorwohl G. Methods of melissopalynology. *Bee World*. 1978;**59**(4):139-157

[23] Waddington KD, Holden LR. Optimal foraging: On flower selection by bees. *The American Naturalist*. 1979;**114**(2):179-196

[24] Donkersley P. Trees for bees. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*. 2019;**270-271**:79-83. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0167880918304481>

[25] Gheldof N, Engeseth NJ. Antioxidant capacity of honeys from various floral sources based on the determination of oxygen radical absorbance capacity and inhibition of in vitro lipoprotein oxidation in human serum samples. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*. 2002;**50**(10):3050-3055. Available from: <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jf0114637>

[26] Montenegro G, Gómez M, Díaz-Forestier J, Pizarro R. Aplicación de la Norma Chilena Oficial de denominación de origen botánico de la miel para la caracterización de la producción apícola. *Cienc e Investig Agrar*. 2008;**35**(2):181-190

[27] Alotibi IA, Harakeh SM, Al-Mamary M, Mariod AA, Al-Jaouni SK, Al-Masaud S, et al. Floral markers and biological activity

of Saudi honey. Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences. 2018;**25**(7):1369-1374. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1319562X18301323>

[28] Schramm DD, Karim M, Schrader HR, Holt RR, Cardetti M, Keen CL. Honey with high levels of antioxidants can provide protection to healthy human subjects. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 2003;**51**(6):1732-1735. Available from: <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jf025928k>

[29] Mejias E, Gómez C, Garrido T, Godoy P, Gómez M, Montenegro G. Natural attributes of Chilean honeys modified by the presence of neonicotinoids residues. Agroforestry Systems. 2019. Available from: <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s10457-019-00345-z>

[30] Mărghitaş LA, Stanciu OG, Dezmirean DS, Bobiş O, Popescu O, Bogdanov S, et al. In vitro antioxidant capacity of honeybee-collected pollen of selected floral origin harvested from Romania. Food Chemistry. 2009;**115**(3):878-883. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0308814609000235>

[31] Silici S, Sagdic O, Ekici L. Total phenolic content, antiradical, antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of Rhododendron honeys. Food Chemistry. 2010;**121**(1):238-243 Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0308814609013880>

[32] Gül A, Pehlivan T. Antioxidant activities of some monofloral honey types produced across Turkey. Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences. 2018;**25**(6):1056-1065. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1319562X18300469>

[33] Lachman J, Orsák M, Hejtmánková A, Kovářová E. Evaluation

of antioxidant activity and total phenolics of selected Czech honeys. LWT - Food Science and Technology. 2010;**43**(1):52-58. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0023643809001820>

[34] Almasaudi SB, Abbas AT, Al-Hindi RR, El-Shitany NA, Abdel-dayem UA, Ali SS, et al. Manuka honey exerts antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activities that promote healing of acetic acid-induced gastric ulcer in rats. Evidence-based Complementary and Alternative Medicine. 2017;**2017**:1-12. Available from: <https://www.hindawi.com/journals/ecam/2017/5413917/>

[35] Fyfe L, Okoro P, Paterson E, Coyle S, McDougall GJ. Compositional analysis of Scottish honeys with antimicrobial activity against antibiotic-resistant bacteria reveals novel antimicrobial components. LWT - Food Science and Technology. 2017;**79**:52-59. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0023643817300233>

[36] Alvarez-Suarez JM, Giampieri F, Brenciani A, Mazzoni L, Gasparri M, González-Paramás AM, et al. Apis mellifera vs Melipona beecheii Cuban polyfloral honeys: A comparison based on their physicochemical parameters, chemical composition and biological properties. LWT. 2018;**87**:272-279. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0023643817306576>

[37] Montenegro G, Mejías E. Biological applications of honeys produced by Apis mellifera. Biological Research. 2013;**46**(4):341-345

[38] De Jong D, Palacio MA, Oldroyd B, Garnery L, Arnold G, Buchler R, et al. Queen rearing and impact on the genetic variability (and health) of productive bee colonies. In: Bouga M, editor. International Federation of Beekeepers' Associations. Sao Paolo: Apimondia;

2010. Available from: https://www.apimondia.com/docs/awg/AWG_7_queen_rearing_and_genetic_variability_of_productive_bee_colonies.pdf
- [39] Odepa. Comisión Nacional de Apicultura [Powerpoint Presentation]. Santiago; 2018. Available from: <https://www.odepa.gob.cl/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/CNA-15-05-2018-Apicola.pdf>
- [40] Ritter W, Akkratanakul P, United Nations of the FAO. Honey Bee Diseases and Pests: A Practical Guide. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations; 2006. Available from: <http://www.fao.org/3/a-a0849e.pdf>
- [41] Servicio Agrícola & Ganadero. Loque americana. Sistema de Sanidad Animal. Available from: <http://www.sag.gob.cl/ambitos-de-accion/loque-americana-la>
- [42] European Commission. Pesticide Database: Regulation (EC) No. 396/2005
- [43] Genersch E. American foulbrood in honeybees and its causative agent, *Paenibacillus larvae*. Journal of Invertebrate Pathology. 2010;**103**:S10-S19. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022201109001864>
- [44] Locke B, Low M, Forsgren E. An integrated management strategy to prevent outbreaks and eliminate infection pressure of American foulbrood disease in a commercial beekeeping operation. Preventive Veterinary Medicine. 2019;**167**:48-52. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0167587718307906>
- [45] Human H, Pirk CWW, Crewe RM, Dietemann V. The honeybee disease American foulbrood—An African perspective. African Entomology: Journal of the Entomological Society of Southern Africa. 2011;**19**(2):551-557. Available from: <http://www.bioone.org/doi/abs/10.4001/003.019.0301>
- [46] Fünfhaus A, Göbel J, Ebeling J, Knispel H, Garcia-Gonzalez E, Genersch E. Swarming motility and biofilm formation of *Paenibacillus larvae*, the etiological agent of American foulbrood of honey bees (*Apis mellifera*). Scientific Reports. 2018;**8**(1):8840. Available from: <http://www.nature.com/articles/s41598-018-27193-8>
- [47] Morrissey BJ, Helgason T, Poppinga L, Fünfhaus A, Genersch E, Budge GE. Biogeography of *Paenibacillus larvae*, the causative agent of American foulbrood, using a new multilocus sequence typing scheme: MLST scheme for *Paenibacillus larvae*. Environmental Microbiology. 2015;**17**(4):1414-1424. Available from: <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/1462-2920.12625>
- [48] Sperandio G, Simonetto A, Carnesecchi E, Costa C, Hatjina F, Tosi S, et al. Beekeeping and honey bee colony health: A review and conceptualization of beekeeping management practices implemented in Europe. Science of the Total Environment. 2019;**696**:133795. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0048969719337362>
- [49] Poppinga L, Genersch E. Molecular pathogenesis of American foulbrood: How *Paenibacillus larvae* kills honey bee larvae. Current Opinion in Insect Science. 2015;**10**:29-36. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S2214574515000747>
- [50] Antúnez K, Anido M, Branchiccela B, Harriet J, Campá J, Zunino P. American foulbrood in Uruguay: Twelve years from its first report. Journal of Invertebrate

Pathology. 2012;**110**(1):129-131. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022201112000377>

[51] van Engelsdorp D, Meixner MD. A historical review of managed honey bee populations in Europe and the United States and the factors that may affect them. *Journal of Invertebrate Pathology*. 2010;**103**:S80-S95. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022201109001827>

[52] Rodríguez López D, Ahumada DA, Díaz AC, Guerrero JA. Evaluation of pesticide residues in honey from different geographic regions of Colombia. In: *Food Control*. Vol. 37. Elsevier Ltd; 2014. pp. 33-40. Available from: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S095671351300457X>

[53] Bargańska Ż, Namieśnik J, Ślebioda M. Determination of antibiotic residues in honey. *Trends in Analytical Chemistry*. 2011;**30**(7):1035-1041 Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0165993611000999>

[54] Wei G, Huang J, Yang J. Honey safety standards and its impacts on China's honey export. *Journal of Integrative Agriculture*. 2012;**11**(4):684-693. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S2095311912600562>

[55] Tayeb-Cherif K, Peris-Vicente J, Carda-Broch S, Esteve-Romero J. Use of micellar liquid chromatography to analyze oxolinic acid, flumequine, marbofloxacin and enrofloxacin in honey and validation according to the 2002/657/EC decision. *Food Chemistry*. 2016;**202**:316-323. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0308814616301534>

[56] Jin Y, Zhang J, Zhao W, Zhang W, Wang L, Zhou J, et al. Development and validation of a multiclass method

for the quantification of veterinary drug residues in honey and royal jelly by liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry. *Food Chemistry*. 2017;**221**:1298-1307. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0308814616318490>

[57] Commission EU. Commission regulation (EU) No 37/2010 of 22 December 2009 on pharmacologically active substances and their classification regarding maximum residue limits in foodstuffs of animal origin. *Official Journal of the European Union*. 2010;**L15**

[58] Viñas P, Balsalobre N, López-Erroz C, Hernández-Córdoba M. Liquid chromatography with ultraviolet absorbance detection for the analysis of tetracycline residues in honey. *Journal of Chromatography A*. 2004;**1022** (1-2):125-129. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0021967303018545>

[59] Shendy AH, Al-Ghobashy MA, Gad Alla SA, Lotfy HM. Development and validation of a modified QuEChERS protocol coupled to LC–MS/MS for simultaneous determination of multi-class antibiotic residues in honey. *Food Chemistry*. 2016;**190**:982-989. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0308814615009401>

[60] Muriano A, Chabottaux V, Diserens J-M, Granier B, Sanchez-Baeza F, Marco M-P. Rapid immunochemical analysis of the sulfonamide-sugar conjugated fraction of antibiotic contaminated honey samples. *Food Chemistry*. 2015;**178**:156-163. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0308814615000394>

[61] von Eyken A, Furlong D, Arooni S, Butterworth F, Roy J-F, Zweigenbaum J, et al. Direct injection high performance liquid chromatography coupled to data independent acquisition mass spectrometry for the screening of

antibiotics in honey. *Journal of Food and Drug Analysis*. 2019;**27**(3):679-691. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1021949819300134>

[62] Benetti C, Dainese N, Biancotto G, Piro R, Mutinelli F. Unauthorised antibiotic treatments in beekeeping. *Analytica Chimica Acta*. 2004;**520**(1-2):87-92. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0003267004006038>

[63] Granja RHMM, Niño AMM, Zucchetti RAM, Niño REM, Patel R, Salerno AG. Determination of streptomycin residues in honey by liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry. *Analytica Chimica Acta*. 2009;**637**(1-2):64-67. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0003267009000166>

[64] Wang Y, Ji S, Zhang F, Zhang F, Yang B, Liang X. A polyvinyl alcohol-functionalized sorbent for extraction and determination of aminoglycoside antibiotics in honey. *Journal of Chromatography A*. 2015;**1403**:32-36. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0021967315007256>

[65] Du L-J, Yi L, Ye L-H, Chen Y-B, Cao J, Peng L-Q, et al. Miniaturized solid-phase extraction of macrolide antibiotics in honey and bovine milk using mesoporous MCM-41 silica as sorbent. *Journal of Chromatography A*. 2018;**1537**:10-20. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0021967318300050>

[66] Campone L, Celano R, Piccinelli AL, Pagano I, Cicero N, Di Sanzo R, et al. Ultrasound assisted dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction for fast and accurate analysis of chloramphenicol in honey. *Food Research International*. 2019;**115**:572-579. Available from: <https://>

linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0963996918307282

[67] De Guzman ZM, Cervancia CR, Dimasuay KGB, Tolentino MM, Abrera GB, Cobar MLC, et al. Radiation inactivation of *Paenibacillus* larvae and sterilization of American foul brood (AFB) infected hives using Co-60 gamma rays. *Applied Radiation and Isotopes*. 2011;**69**(10):1374-1379. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S096980431100340X>

[68] Simone-Finstrom M, Aronstein K, Goblirsch M, Rinkevich F, de Guzman L. Gamma irradiation inactivates honey bee fungal, microsporidian, and viral pathogens and parasites. *Journal of Invertebrate Pathology*. 2018;**153**:57-64. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022201117304147>

[69] Gagnaire B, Bonnet M, Tchamitchian S, Cavalié I, Della-Vedova C, Dubourg N, et al. Physiological effects of gamma irradiation in the honeybee, *Apis mellifera*. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*. 2019;**174**:153-163. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0147651319301812>

[70] Khilnani JC, Wing HJ. Protocols to test the activity of antimicrobial peptides against the honey bee pathogen *Paenibacillus* larvae. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*. 2015;**117**:54-56. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0167701215300257>

[71] Janashia I, Choiset Y, Rabesona H, Hwanhlem N, Bakuradze N, Chanishvili N, et al. Protection of honeybee *Apis mellifera* by its endogenous and exogenous lactic flora against bacterial infections. *Annals of Agrarian Science*. 2016;**14**(3):177-181. Available from: <https://>

linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1512188716300264

[72] Marche MG, Satta A, Floris I, Lazzeri AM, Ruiu L. Inhibition of *Paenibacillus* larvae by an extracellular protein fraction from a honeybee-borne *Brevibacillus laterosporus* strain. *Microbiological Research*. 2019;227:126303. Available from: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0944501319303957>

IntechOpen