

The Replacement Fallacy

How Technological Solutions to Ecological Collapse
Mirror the Structural Logic of Labor Displacement

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Abstract

This paper identifies a structural pattern we term the Replacement Fallacy: the tendency for technologies introduced as supplements to natural or human systems to gradually displace those systems through a predictable five-phase trajectory of introduction, adoption, degradation, dependency, and lock-in. We demonstrate this pattern through four historical case studies (industrial fishing, synthetic fertilizers, infant formula, and Green Revolution agriculture) and then apply it to a cross-domain analysis comparing two seemingly unrelated contemporary developments: the emergence of AI-driven robotic pollination systems and the displacement of human data annotation workers by automated AI pipelines. We argue that biological pollinators and human data workers occupy structurally homologous positions as invisible infrastructure; economically essential, systematically undervalued, and subject to replacement fantasies that ignore the complexity of what is being replaced. The paper documents a six-dimensional structural homology between these domains, drawing on ecosystem services economics, platform labor studies, and automation displacement research. We identify “colony collapse” as a generalizable displacement dynamic operating in both biological and labor systems. We identify “ground-truth degradation” as the AI-specific mechanism by which automated annotation erodes the semantic verification infrastructure required to detect its own failures in open-ended, real-world contexts, while distinguishing this from formally verifiable domains where automated validation remains viable. We define “endogenous degradation” as encompassing both direct physical mechanisms (soil chemistry, lactation suppression) and economic feedback loops that structurally eliminate the conditions for the original system’s survival. We conclude that the current moment represents a critical intervention window for robotic pollination technology, analogous to the early adoption phase in each historical case, where structural safeguards can still be implemented before the trajectory becomes irreversible.

Keywords: replacement fallacy; pollinator decline; robotic pollination; ghost work; data annotation labor; technological lock-in; supplement-to-replacement trajectory; ground-truth degradation; semantic verification; invisible infrastructure; endogenous degradation

1. Introduction

In 2018, Potts et al. (2018) published a paper in *Science of the Total Environment* presenting six arguments why robotic pollination was technically and economically unviable as a full replacement for biological pollinators. They warned that robotic systems provide only the single pollination service humans deem most critical while ignoring the broader ecological functions pollinators provide, including contributions to wild plant reproduction, soil ecosystem processes, pest regulation through support of predator populations, and genetic diversity maintenance among plant communities. Five years earlier, the European Food Safety Authority had concluded that three neonicotinoid pesticides posed high risks to bees, leading to partial restrictions in 2013 and ultimately a total outdoor ban by 2018 (European Food Safety Authority, 2013). The United States did not follow suit.

In parallel, a different kind of displacement was accelerating. By 2023, TIME magazine revealed that OpenAI had contracted Kenyan workers through the platform Sama to perform content moderation for ChatGPT at wages between \$1.32 and \$2.00 per hour, exposing them to descriptions of child sexual abuse and murder (Perrigo, 2023). Scale AI, valued at \$7 billion at the time of reporting, was paying data annotators in the Philippines and Kenya similarly depressed wages while generating billions in enterprise revenue (Business & Human Rights Resource Centre, 2023). In both cases, the workers whose labor powered the system were invisible to its beneficiaries.

This paper argues that these two developments are not merely analogous but structurally homologous: they share the same underlying logic, the same phase trajectory, and the same mechanisms of irreversibility, despite operating in radically different domains. Both follow a trajectory we term the Replacement Fallacy: a five-phase pattern in which a technology introduced as a supplement gradually degrades the system it claims to support, creates dependency on the technological substitute, and ultimately renders return to the original system impossible. The fallacy lies not in the technology itself but in the systematic failure to identify who bears the cost when a supplement becomes a replacement, and what happens when the replacement fails.

The contribution of this paper is threefold. First, we document the five-phase supplement-to-replacement trajectory as a generalizable pattern across four historical case studies, demonstrating consistent timelines of 35 to 60 years and consistent mechanisms of irreversibility. Second, we establish a novel structural homology between pollinator displacement and AI labor displacement, including the identification of “ground-truth degradation” as the AI-specific mechanism that parallels ecological degradation in the biological cases. Third, we demonstrate that the current moment represents an identifiable intervention window, precisely because the pattern has been documented before, where structural safeguards can be embedded before sunk costs foreclose alternatives.

Section 2 establishes the five-phase trajectory through historical case studies. Section 3 maps robotic pollination onto that trajectory. Section 4 documents the structural homology with AI data annotation labor. Section 5 examines how technological fixes erode regulatory pressure. Section 6 presents recommendations for the current intervention window.

2. The Five-Phase Trajectory: Historical Evidence

Before examining the contemporary cases, we establish the structural pattern through four historical precedents. Each followed a consistent five-phase trajectory: Introduction (technology framed as supplement), Adoption (rapid uptake on demonstrated short-term benefits), Degradation (technology degrades the natural system it supplements), Dependency (degraded system can no longer function without the technology), and Lock-in (return to the original system becomes effectively impossible). The consistency of this trajectory across radically different domains suggests it reflects a fundamental dynamic of technological substitution rather than domain-specific contingencies.

2.1 *Industrial Fishing and the Cod Collapse*

Post-World War II sonar, radar, and factory trawler technologies were introduced as tools for more efficient and sustainable fisheries management. Between 1957 and 1968, Northern cod catches in the Northwest Atlantic nearly quadrupled, from approximately 254,500 metric tons to a peak of 810,000 metric tons (Schijns and Froese, 2021). The technology created a ratchet effect: increased catch efficiency was misinterpreted as evidence of healthy fish stocks, justifying further investment in harvesting capacity. By the time Canada imposed its moratorium on July 2, 1992, spawning biomass had dropped to approximately 1 percent of historic levels (Hutchings and Myers, 1994). UK bottom-trawl landings per unit of fishing power declined 94 percent over 118 years (Thurstan et al., 2010). The moratorium, expected to last two years, lasted 32. The Canadian government cautiously reopened the commercial cod fishery in 2024 with a reduced quota of 18,000 metric tons. Approximately 19,000 fishing and processing workers in Newfoundland and Labrador lost their jobs directly, with broader economic losses exceeding \$700 million annually (Britannica, 2025).

The timeline from widespread technology adoption to ecological collapse was approximately 35 to 40 years. At no point did any actor consciously decide to destroy the fishery. Each incremental investment in harvesting technology was individually rational. The collapse emerged from the accumulated weight of rational decisions made without consideration of systemic effects.

2.2 *Synthetic Fertilizers and the Nitrogen Treadmill*

The Haber-Bosch process, developed between 1909 and 1913, enabled industrial synthesis of nitrogen fertilizer, explicitly framed as a humanitarian technology. The critical inflection came with the Green Revolution of the 1960s and 1970s, when high-yielding crop varieties were engineered to require heavy synthetic nitrogen inputs (Evenson and Gollin, 2003).

Mulvaney et al. (2009) documented what they termed the “fertilizer treadmill”: synthetic nitrogen stimulates soil microbes that consume organic matter faster than crop residues can replace it; as organic matter dissipates, soil loses its natural nitrogen storage capacity; more synthetic inputs become required to maintain the same yields. The Morrow Plots, the longest-running agricultural experiment in the United States, showed soil organic matter rising under manure-based fertilization through 1967, then steadily declining after synthetic nitrogen replaced organic inputs. Only 10 to 50 percent of applied synthetic fertilizer is absorbed by crops; the remainder enters waterways or escapes as nitrous oxide, a greenhouse gas approximately 273

times more potent than carbon dioxide over a 100-year horizon (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2021).

The timeline from supplement to acknowledged dependency was approximately 50 years. Today, an estimated 48 percent of the global population is fed through crops made possible by synthetic nitrogen, making reversion to organic-only methods effectively impossible at current population levels without massive restructuring (Erisman et al., 2008).

2.3 Infant Formula and the Displacement of Breastfeeding

Infant formula was introduced as a medical supplement for cases where breastfeeding was physiologically impossible. Through aggressive marketing, including salespeople dressed as healthcare providers distributing free samples just long enough to disrupt lactation, breastfeeding rates underwent a dramatic decline. Initiation rates in the 1911 to 1915 cohort were nearly 70 percent (Hirschman and Butler, 1981); by 1972, only 22 percent of women breastfed (Eckhardt and Hendershot, 1984).

The displacement mechanism is physiologically precise and directly analogous to ecological degradation. Reduced breastfeeding frequency decreases prolactin levels, which decreases milk supply, which increases formula dependency. The biological infrastructure for the natural system literally atrophies from disuse. A 2018 National Bureau of Economic Research working paper estimated that Nestlé's entry into low-income-country markets caused approximately 66,000 infant deaths annually at peak among mothers without access to clean water (Antila-Hughes et al., 2018). The formula industry, valued in the tens of billions, now possesses sufficient political power to resist regulation; only 32 countries (approximately 16 percent) have legislation substantially aligned with the WHO International Code of Marketing of Breast Milk Substitutes (Global Breastfeeding Collective, 2022).

2.4 Green Revolution Seeds and Groundwater Collapse

High-yielding variety seeds, introduced to buffer against drought, required intensive irrigation that shifted India's Punjab region from canal-supplemented rainfed agriculture to 79 percent groundwater dependency by 2022 (FairPlanet, 2024). Punjab's water table has been projected to drop below 300 meters by 2039, at which point contamination renders remaining water unfit for any use (Mongabay India, 2022). India's rice varietal diversity has declined dramatically, from an estimated 110,000 or more traditional varieties to approximately 30,000, an irreversible loss of genetic diversity that eliminates the fallback option of traditional cultivation (Richharia and Govindaswami, 1990).

2.5 The Common Structure

Across all four cases, the trajectory from supplementation to lock-in required 35 to 60 years. All exhibited five converging mechanisms of irreversibility: physical (aquifer depletion, soil degradation, species extinction), knowledge-based (loss of traditional ecological knowledge and artisanal expertise), infrastructural (processing, distribution, and regulatory systems built around the replacement technology), biological (atrophy of living systems that constituted fallback options), and market-driven (consolidation creating barriers to alternative

entry). Cowan and Gunby (1996) demonstrated empirically in the *Economic Journal* why chemical pest control dominates despite evidence that Integrated Pest Management is superior, identifying four lock-in mechanisms that map directly onto these cases. Stone (2007) introduced “agricultural deskilling” in *Current Anthropology*: rapid technology turnover severs the link between environmental and social learning, leaving practitioners unable to evaluate alternatives.

A critical feature shared by all four cases is that the degradation mechanism was endogenous: the supplement itself caused the degradation of the system it supplemented. We define endogenous degradation broadly to encompass two distinct but functionally equivalent mechanisms. The first is direct substrate degradation, where the supplement physically or biologically alters the original system’s capacity. Synthetic nitrogen chemically destroys soil’s organic matter cycling. Formula physiologically suppresses lactation through prolactin reduction. In these cases, the causal chain from supplement to degradation is immediate and material.

The second mechanism is economic feedback degradation, where the supplement restructures the economic conditions that sustain the original system, causing its atrophy through withdrawal of resources rather than direct physical alteration. This distinction matters because the pollination and AI labor cases both operate primarily through economic feedback rather than direct substrate destruction. A robot does not chemically degrade a wildflower. But the availability of robotic pollination reduces the economic value of maintaining pollinator habitat; that habitat is then converted to production; wild pollinator populations decline; robotic dependency increases. The degradation is mediated through a human economic decision, but the decision is itself a structural consequence of the supplement’s availability. The supplement creates the conditions under which the rational economic choice is to degrade the original system. This is not simple market competition (where a superior product replaces an inferior one); it is a feedback loop in which the supplement’s presence systematically eliminates the conditions required for the original system’s survival, regardless of the original system’s intrinsic viability.

This distinction between direct substrate degradation and economic feedback degradation is important because it clarifies why the Replacement Fallacy is not merely a description of market obsolescence. Electric vehicles replacing horses is not endogenous degradation; it is competitive substitution. The horse’s capacity to function is not degraded by the car’s existence. By contrast, in every case examined here, the original system’s capacity to function is progressively destroyed because the supplement exists, whether through chemical alteration, physiological suppression, or the restructuring of economic incentives that sustained it. The supplement does not merely outperform the original system; it consumes it.

3. Robotic Pollination: Mapping the Current Phase

The robotic pollination ecosystem is currently in the early Introduction phase. Total venture capital and grant funding across the sector remains modest relative to the \$6+ billion flowing into broader robotics in the first half of 2025 (Crunchbase News, 2025). The largest player, BeeHero (approximately \$64 to 70 million raised), actually optimizes biological bee pollination through IoT sensors and AI rather than replacing bees. Pure robotic pollination companies remain early-stage: Arugga AI Farming (\$6 to 13 million raised) commercializes buzz-pollination robots for greenhouse tomatoes; Dropcopter (approximately \$750,000

raised) uses drones for orchard pollination; BloomX offers electrostatic pollination systems.

Current robotic pollination costs are at or above biological pollination costs. USDA data shows California almond pollination runs approximately \$181 to \$209 per colony, with 2025 prices rising. No published economic analysis projects a specific crossover date when robotic pollination becomes cheaper than biological, a striking absence compared to solar-versus-fossil-fuel cost curves. The economic case rests on yield improvements (25 to 50 percent reported by Dropcopter) and reliability during adverse weather, not on cost displacement.

Every commercial company explicitly frames its technology as supplementing, not replacing, biological pollinators. This framing is precisely the Introduction-phase language observed in every historical case study examined in Section 2. Nimmo (2022) argues in *Environment and Planning E* that robotic pollination research, regardless of stated intent, inscribes meanings that point toward a future where insect pollinators are largely absent, effectively backgrounding alternative futures in which structural transformations of agriculture mitigate pollinator decline.

Government funding overwhelmingly favors pollinator conservation over robotic alternatives. USDA NIFA has allocated \$10 to \$11.6 million for pollinator health research; the EU's Horizon Europe committed approximately 6 to 7 million euros each to the AGRI4POL and BUTTERFLY projects (USDA NIFA, 2024). This asymmetry is significant: the supplement phase has not yet reached the investment levels that would signal imminent transition. The pattern is identifiable precisely because we know what the next phases look like.

The endogenous degradation mechanism for the pollination case operates through economic feedback. As robotic systems reduce the per-acre cost of pollination or provide reliability during adverse weather, the economic argument for maintaining pollinator-friendly habitat weakens. Land currently managed for wildflower margins, hedgerows, and nesting sites has an opportunity cost; if pollination can be purchased as a service, that land can be converted to production. Each acre converted further reduces wild pollinator populations, which increases dependency on robotic systems, which further weakens the economic case for conservation. The robot does not kill the wildflower; it makes the rational economic decision to plow the wildflower. The treadmill turns through economic incentive restructuring rather than direct physical alteration, but the result is functionally equivalent to the nitrogen case: the original system's capacity to sustain itself is progressively destroyed by the supplement's existence.

4. Ghost Workers as Ghost Pollinators: The Structural Homology

The core argument of this paper is that biological pollination and AI data annotation labor occupy structurally homologous positions in their respective economies. Both function as invisible infrastructure: economically essential, systematically undervalued, made visible only when they fail, and subject to replacement fantasies that ignore the complexity of what is being replaced. To our knowledge, no published work has drawn this explicit comparison, though the building blocks are well established in both the ecosystem services literature and the platform labor literature.

4.1 The Exploitation Ratio

Global crop pollination services are valued at \$195 to \$657 billion annually, yet pollination is treated as a “free” ecosystem service requiring no compensation to its providers (Porto et al., 2020). The global data annotation services market is estimated at approximately \$1.3 billion as of 2024, projected to reach \$14.4 billion by 2034, yet it powers an AI industry generating revenues in the trillions (Zion Market Research, 2024). In both cases, the value-extracting system treats the labor as either free (wild pollinators) or near-free (ghost workers), and the economic contribution becomes visible only when the service is withdrawn.

The wage data for data annotation workers reveals an extraction ratio that mirrors the pollinator economy. When OpenAI contracted Sama for content moderation, it paid Sama \$12.50 per hour; workers received \$1.32 to \$2.00 per hour, a six-to-nine-times markup by the intermediary alone (Perrigo, 2023). A 2025 Alphabet Workers Union-CWA survey of U.S.-based data workers found median wages of \$15 per hour with a 29-hour median workweek (\$22,620 annually); 25 percent relied on public assistance (Alphabet Workers Union-CWA Local 9009, 2025).

4.2 Ground-Truth Degradation: The AI Nitrogen Treadmill

The critical question for the five-phase model is whether AI labor displacement involves the same endogenous degradation mechanism observed in the historical cases. We argue it does, through a process we term ground-truth degradation, though with an important scope limitation.

A distinction must be drawn between two categories of verification. In formally verifiable domains, correctness can be determined algorithmically: a mathematical proof is valid or invalid; code compiles or fails; a chess move is optimal or suboptimal. In these domains, AI systems can self-verify through formal methods, and automated annotation does not degrade ground truth. Advances in synthetic data generation for domains like mathematical reasoning (e.g., AlphaGeometry) and code verification demonstrate that closed, rule-governed systems can sustain quality without human verification. Ground-truth degradation does not apply here.

In semantically complex domains, however, correctness is not algorithmically determinable. Content moderation requires understanding cultural context, evolving social norms, and the distinction between satire and sincerity. Medical annotation requires clinical judgment that integrates ambiguous symptoms with patient history. Hate speech detection varies across languages, dialects, and communities. In these domains, “ground truth” is not a fixed external standard but a product of informed human judgment applied to inherently ambiguous material. It is in these domains that ground-truth degradation operates.

In semantically complex data annotation, human workers serve a dual function. They generate labeled training data, but they also provide the independent verification layer that allows system operators to detect when model outputs are incorrect. When automated annotation systems replace human annotators in these domains, they do not merely substitute one labeling method for another; they eliminate the independent verification infrastructure required to detect their own failures. This is the structural equivalent of synthetic nitrogen destroying soil’s capacity to cycle nitrogen naturally. The supplement does not merely replace a function; it degrades the system’s capacity to perform that function independently.

The concern about recursive quality degradation has been well documented. Shumailov et al. (2024) demonstrated in *Nature* that training language models on outputs generated by other models causes “model collapse”: progressive degradation of output quality as training data becomes contaminated by machine-generated content. Recent advances in synthetic data curation and training methodology have begun to mitigate this pure model collapse phenomenon, and the technical community increasingly treats it as a solvable engineering challenge. However, the resolution of model collapse carries a structural consequence that the technical literature has largely overlooked: to the extent that model collapse required human-generated data, it functioned as the last technical barrier maintaining demand for human annotation labor. As that barrier falls, the economic case for human data workers narrows further, accelerating displacement precisely when the ground-truth degradation problem, which persists regardless of model collapse mitigation, makes their verification role more critical. The deeper issue is not whether models degrade when trained on synthetic data; it is whether anyone retains the capacity to detect when model outputs diverge from ground truth in open-ended, context-dependent domains. That capacity depends on human annotators with domain expertise. When that verification layer has been displaced, the system loses the ability to recognize its own failures. The web itself, the largest training corpus, is already experiencing this contamination; AI-generated content now constitutes a growing share of online text, complicating quality assessment for all subsequent models.

The treadmill dynamic follows directly. As automated annotation reduces demand for human annotators in semantically complex domains, the pool of experienced annotators shrinks. As the pool shrinks, the cost of accessing human verification increases. As verification costs increase, organizations rely more heavily on automated annotation. As automated annotation increases without independent verification, training data quality degrades. As training data quality degrades, model performance in context-dependent tasks degrades. As model performance degrades, the need for human verification becomes more acute, but the capacity for it has already atrophied. This is the nitrogen treadmill transposed into information systems: the supplement actively destroys the substrate it was supposed to augment, and the destruction is visible only to the verification layer that the supplement has displaced.

4.3 The Colony Collapse Dynamic

Colony Collapse Disorder (CCD) was first widely reported in 2006 and 2007, when beekeepers across the United States observed the rapid, unexplained disappearance of adult worker bees from otherwise functional hives. The phenomenon was formally characterized by vanEngelsdorp et al. (2009), whose descriptive epizootiological study found no single causal factor but rather elevated pathogen loads and multiple interacting stressors in affected colonies. The term captured a specific pattern: the sudden withdrawal of the labor force that sustained the system, leaving dependent structures unable to function.

We identify “colony collapse” as a generalizable concept describing this dynamic of sudden infrastructure withdrawal in systems that depend on invisible labor. When Remotasks terminated operations in Kenya, Nigeria, and Pakistan in March 2024, thousands of workers received last-minute email notification. The structural dynamics are homologous: the infrastructure that powered the system disappeared suddenly, with cascading effects on dependent communities, and the system’s beneficiaries were unprepared because the infrastructure had been invisible to them.

Research on labor market hysteresis demonstrates that these displacement effects are lasting. A U.S. Social Security Administration study found that 20 years after job loss, average earnings still lagged by 27 percent (Bain & Company, 2018). This is the labor-market equivalent of traditional ecological knowledge loss documented by Gómez-Baggethun et al. (2010) in *Conservation Biology*, where agricultural knowledge in Doñana, Spain declined approximately 40 percent between older and younger age classes following modernization. In both cases, the knowledge infrastructure that constitutes the fallback option degrades faster than the technology it was supposed to backstop, and the degradation is not immediately visible because the technology continues to function, at least for a while. Bain & Company estimates AI displacement could proceed 2 to 3 times faster than agricultural or manufacturing automation, compressing the timeline for knowledge atrophy.

4.4 Six Dimensions of Structural Homology

The structural homology between pollinator displacement and ghost worker displacement operates across six dimensions that, taken together, constitute a unified pattern rather than a loose metaphor.

First, both are treated as free labor whose economic contribution is systematically invisible to end consumers and policymakers. Pollination is a “free ecosystem service”; data annotation is hidden behind the marketing language of artificial intelligence. Second, both face replacement fantasies (robotic bees, fully automated AI) that dramatically underestimate the complexity and adaptability of the labor being replaced. Potts et al. (2018) enumerate the ecological functions beyond pollination that robots cannot replicate; Gray and Suri (2019) document the judgment, contextual reasoning, and cultural knowledge that data annotation requires beyond simple labeling.

Third, both involve geographic concentration of exploitation. Managed bee colonies are trucked across the United States in conditions that spread disease and cause physiological stress; ghost workers are concentrated in Global South countries with weak labor protections. Fourth, both exhibit colony-collapse dynamics where sudden withdrawal leaves the dependent system unable to function. Fifth, both demonstrate that when the replacement technology fails, the already-displaced workforce, biological or human, may have atrophied beyond recovery: the traditional knowledge, the community infrastructure, and the biological or cognitive capacity that constituted the fallback option have degraded during the displacement period.

Sixth, both involve endogenous degradation: the supplement actively degrades the original system’s capacity rather than merely substituting for it. Robotic pollination restructures the economic incentives that sustain pollinator habitat, causing habitat loss through rational economic decisions that are themselves a structural consequence of the supplement’s availability. Automated annotation displaces the human semantic verification infrastructure required to detect training data degradation, accelerating ground-truth degradation through a recursive feedback loop. In both cases, the supplement creates the conditions under which the original system’s survival becomes economically or operationally unsustainable. The treadmill turns in the same direction; only the mechanism of degradation differs.

The foundational literature on platform labor exploitation provides extensive documentation of the labor side of this dynamic. Gray and Suri (2019) coined the term “ghost work.” Jones (2021) extended the analysis to platform capitalism’s structural dependency on expendable labor. Muldoon et al. (2024), based on a decade

of fieldwork at the Oxford Internet Institute, documented the global supply chain of AI labor exploitation. The Oxford Fairwork Cloudwork Ratings scored Remotasks one out of ten on fair labor standards (Fairwork, 2023).

5. The Moral Hazard of the Technological Fix

A critical mechanism linking the pollinator and labor displacement cases is what we term regulatory pressure evaporation: the availability of a technological workaround reduces political urgency to address the root cause. If robotic pollination becomes viable, the argument for banning neonicotinoids loses its existential urgency. If AI can annotate its own training data, the argument for fair wages becomes merely ethical rather than operationally necessary. The technological fix transforms a structural problem into an optimization problem, and optimization problems do not generate the political will required for structural reform.

The most extensively documented case of this dynamic is carbon capture and storage. A 2025 peer-reviewed study found that organizations benefiting from fossil fuel sales were responsible for 89 percent of all CCS lobbying spending between 2005 and 2024 (Gulden and Harvey, 2025). At COP28, 475 CCS lobbyists attended, larger than many national delegations (Center for International Environmental Law, 2023). Carton et al. (2023) provide the definitive analysis: carbon removal is more susceptible to mitigation deterrence than other options because it decouples atmospheric stabilization from the need to eliminate emissions.

The neonicotinoid regulatory history provides the most directly relevant case. EFSA identified high risks to bees from three neonicotinoid pesticides in January 2013, leading to partial restrictions that year; updated assessments led to a total outdoor ban by April 2018 (European Food Safety Authority, 2013). The United States maintained a critical loophole: under FIFRA, coated seeds are classified as “treated articles,” exempting neonicotinoid-coated seeds from environmental tracking despite the vast majority of the applied chemical leaching into the environment (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2023). Dentzman et al. (2025) document in *Pest Management Science* that agrichemical companies opposed regulation through private research and lobbying efforts credited with limiting the scope of restrictions.

A CropLife America internal memo from June 2014, published by Fang (2020) in *The Intercept*, detailed strategies to position the industry as a promoter of bee health, challenge EPA testing programs, and minimize negative associations between pesticides and pollinator effects. Syngenta and Bayer proposed technological mitigations (dust-reduction planting technology, flowering margins, monitoring) as alternatives to bans (Syngenta, 2013). The pattern of offering technological workarounds to forestall structural regulation is precisely the dynamic that the Replacement Fallacy trajectory predicts will intensify as robotic pollination matures.

No documented case was found where robotic pollination was explicitly cited in legislative proceedings as an argument against neonicotinoid restrictions. This is an important finding: the instrumentalization has not yet occurred. However, the preconditions are present. Industry white papers increasingly frame “precision agriculture” and “technological resilience” as responses to pollinator decline, language that positions technology as the solution to the structural problem that technology helped create. Even the EU’s outdoor neonicotinoid ban has been undermined by at least 67 “emergency authorisations” for outdoor use since taking effect (Greenpeace Unearthed, 2020). The U.S. Pollinator Health Task Force set a goal of

reducing winter colony losses to 15 percent (U.S. Pollinator Health Task Force, 2015); the 2023 to 2024 winter mortality rate for commercial beekeepers was 37.6 percent (Bee Informed Partnership, 2024). These numbers suggest that the political infrastructure for pollinator protection is fragile enough that a viable technological alternative could collapse it.

6. The Intervention Window: Recommendations

The historical case studies demonstrate a consistent finding: the cost of intervention escalates by orders of magnitude at each phase of the supplement-to-replacement trajectory. Early structural safeguards cost almost nothing; post-lock-in remediation costs billions and may be physically impossible. Robotic pollination is currently in the Introduction phase. AI labor displacement is further along, in the early stages of Degradation; the quality of the web as a training corpus is already measurably declining due to AI-generated content contamination, and the displacement of experienced human annotators is well underway. Both remain within the window where structural intervention is feasible. We offer six recommendations.

First, a Replacement Resilience Index for publicly funded pollinator technology research. Rather than imposing mandatory assessment requirements that add regulatory friction, federal agencies (NSF, USDA NIFA) should establish a scoring bonus for grant applications that demonstrate integration with biological pollination systems rather than substitution for them. Projects that include redundancy provisions, maintain biological pollinator infrastructure alongside technological systems, and address displacement risks would receive preferential scoring. This incentive-based approach is politically viable and creates market signals favoring integration over replacement.

Second, catastrophe-hedging insurance structures for farms deploying robotic pollination. Crop insurance premiums should incorporate a redundancy discount for operations maintaining dual pollination systems (biological and technological). The actuarial logic is not environmental charity; it is single-point-of-failure elimination. A farm dependent solely on robotic pollination faces catastrophic risk from firmware failures, supply chain disruptions, weather events that ground drones, or regulatory changes. A farm maintaining biological pollinator infrastructure alongside robotic systems has operational resilience: if the robot fleet is grounded, the bees still fly. This is business continuity insurance, and insurers already price redundancy in other sectors. The mechanism is self-enforcing through existing insurance markets and requires no new regulatory apparatus.

Third, regulatory frameworks that explicitly categorize robotic pollination as supplementation. Maximum-replacement thresholds should require that robotic systems not exceed a defined percentage of total pollination services on any single operation, with periodic review as the technology and ecological evidence develop. The precedent for such thresholds exists in fisheries management, where catch quotas serve an analogous function.

Fourth, minimum wage floors and structural protections for AI data annotation workers, recognizing them as essential semantic verification infrastructure rather than expendable inputs. The ground-truth degradation mechanism identified in Section 4.2 means that depressing annotator wages and displacing experienced workers is not merely an ethical failure; it is a systemic risk to the AI systems that depend on the quality of their training data in semantically complex domains. Worker-owned cooperative models offer one viable

alternative to the current extraction-based platform structure.

Fifth, regulatory firewalls between pollination technology and pesticide regulation. The carbon capture precedent demonstrates that technological workarounds can be instrumentalized to delay structural reform. Pollinator protection regulations should be explicitly decoupled from artificial pollination capabilities: the availability of a technological substitute should not reduce the obligation to protect biological pollinators. This firewall should be established now, while the robotic pollination industry is too small to lobby against it.

Sixth, cross-domain monitoring for the Replacement Fallacy trajectory in other sectors. If the same five-phase pattern operates in fishing, agriculture, nutrition, pollination, and data work, it almost certainly operates in other domains where AI or robotic systems are being positioned as supplements to human or natural capabilities. The identifying markers are now documented: Introduction-phase “supplement” language, early-stage cost parity, invisible labor bearing unaccounted displacement costs, and endogenous degradation, whether through direct substrate destruction or economic feedback loops, of the original system’s capacity by the technology that claims to augment it.

7. Conclusion

The Replacement Fallacy is not a prediction. It is a documented pattern. Every historical case examined followed the same trajectory: a technology introduced as a supplement degraded the system it claimed to support, created dependency on the substitute, and ultimately rendered return to the original system impossible. The timeline was consistent (35 to 60 years), the mechanisms were consistent (physical, knowledge, infrastructure, biological, and market irreversibility), and the root dynamic was consistent: the entities bearing the cost of displacement were invisible to the entities making the decisions.

Bees are, in a meaningful structural sense, the original ghost workers. They generate \$195 to \$657 billion in annual economic value through pollination services, receive no compensation beyond habitat we continue to destroy, and face replacement by technologies marketed as more efficient and reliable. Data annotation workers generate the training data powering a multi-trillion-dollar AI industry, receive wages that in many cases fall below subsistence, and face displacement by the very systems their labor created. The structural logic is homologous. The invisibility is homologous. The trajectory, unless interrupted, will be homologous.

The endogenous degradation mechanism makes this more than an ethical concern. In the pollination case, robotic systems restructure the economic incentives that sustain pollinator habitat, making it rational to eliminate the biological infrastructure that constitutes the only fallback. In the AI case, automated annotation displaces the human semantic verification infrastructure required to detect training data degradation, accelerating ground-truth degradation in precisely the open-ended, context-dependent domains where human judgment is irreplaceable. Both systems are consuming the substrate they depend on. Both are doing so invisibly. Both are doing so in ways that will become apparent only after the damage is irreversible.

Robotic pollination is not yet locked in. The technology is early-stage, modestly funded, and universally framed as supplementation. The intervention window is open. But the historical record is unambiguous about what happens when that window closes: the conversation shifts from “how do we protect the original system” to “the original system is declining anyway” to “the replacement is more reliable” to “what original system?” Each transition feels rational in isolation. The Replacement Fallacy is the name for the trajectory

that emerges when nobody tracks who bears the cost of that rationality.

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