- 1 Critical links between biodiversity and health in wild bee conservation
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41 Abstract

Wild bee populations are declining due to human activities, such as land use, which strongly affect the composition and diversity of available plants and food sources. The chemical composition of food (i.e. nutrition), in turn, determines health, resilience and fitness of bees. However, for pollinators, the term *health* is recent and subject to debate as is the interaction between nutrition and wild bee health.

We define bee health as a multidimensional concept in a novel integrative framework linking bee biological traits (physiology, stoichiometry and disease) and environmental factors (floral diversity, nutritional landscapes). Linking information on tolerated nutritional niches and health in different bee species will allow us to better predict their distribution and responses to environmental change and thus support wild pollinator conservation.

Keywords: Hymenoptera, biodiversity loss, plant-insect interactions, conservation,
 physiology, pollination, pollinators, ecosystem services

56 Bees decline because their food sources disappear

Animals pollinate more than 85 % of flowering plants and 75 % of the leading crops worldwide [1], which provide food and medicines for other animals and humankind. They also support natural habitats and play a key role for plant productivity, food webs and ultimately for human well-being [1–3]. Bees (Apidae) are the most important group of pollinators with the vast majority of species represented by wild species (~20,000 species) [4].

Alarmingly, many wild bee populations are declining due to the impact of different biotic 63 64 and abiotic stressors caused by human activities and acting alone or in combination, such 65 as pesticides, invasive species, pathogens, intensive land-use and climate change [5-11]. In particular agricultural intensification appears to negatively impact wild bee 66 67 communities [12,13]. In fact, overall biodiversity typically decreases with increasing landuse intensity [14,15], which directly or indirectly leads to the loss of floral diversity and 68 69 nesting sites [10,16] and may alter pathogen prevalence [17–19]. Declining floral diversity 70 in turn decreases the spectrum of flowering plants available as food sources and therefore 71 restricts the nutritional landscape accessible to bees [20-23].

72

73 Nutritional landscapes of bees

As nutritional intake and thus the nutrient composition (henceforth referred to as nutritional quality) of food strongly determine health, resilience to pathogens and fitness of animals [24], access to food resources enabling a diverse and balanced nutrition is one key driver of population stability [21]. In this context, we consider as nutrient any chemical compound, i.e., from chemical elements, through phospholipids, amino acids to "group

components" like proteins, that are part of the food/nutrition of bees. Bees obtain most 79 80 nutrients and several potentially medical active plant secondary metabolites from 81 flowering plants through consuming mostly nectar and pollen [20,25,26]. Nectar primarily 82 provides carbohydrates needed to maintain energetic and metabolic processes, while 83 pollen is the main source of all other macro-nutrients (i.e., protein and fat) and micro-84 nutrients (e.g., vitamins, sterols) required for metabolic processes, tissue homeostasis 85 and development (e.g., ovary development) as well as larval growth [27-29]. Ideally, floral communities provide food resources of both sufficient quality and quantity. The quantity 86 87 of food resources is determined by the abundance of flowers present in the landscape, 88 i.e., the number of plants/flowers present per species and the overall amount of flowering 89 species [30]. The quality of food resources depends on the composition of different 90 flowering plant species as each plant species provides pollen and/or nectar with a specific 91 nutrient profile [31]. In fact, the nutritional profiles of pollen and nectar vary greatly among 92 different plant species [32-35] and even among plant individuals of the same species 93 growing in different plant communities [36]. Floral communities, which are characterized 94 by a specific composition and diversity of flowering plant species, consequently determine 95 resource availability and diversity and thus the nutritional landscape in which bees are foraging [21]. For more details on variation in nutritional quality in pollen and nectar, the 96 97 effect of different diets on bee performance and fitness as well as on differences in 98 foraging preferences among bees, see Vaudo et al. [21].

While much less understood, the nutritional needs of bee species are also expected to vary substantially between bee species [21]. The sustainability of bee populations thus depends on flowering plant communities that provide sufficient amounts and the different

nutrients required, because the quality of food and in particular of pollen directly
determines offspring survival and development and can therefore influence the entire
population [21,37,38].

105 Surprisingly, the interaction between flowering plant communities, the nutritional 106 landscape available and the health status of different wild bee species has hitherto 107 received little attention (but see [21,34]). This knowledge is, however, crucial for 108 determining how floral communities and respective conservation measures can support 109 wild bee populations. We therefore propose a conceptual framework of how 110 anthropogenic changes in flowering plant communities can affect bee communities by 111 altering the nutritional landscape and thus niches available to support healthy wild bee 112 populations.

113

114 Measuring wild bee health

115 While human health is understood as the physical, mental and social well-being of an 116 individual or population, the health of wildlife has generally been understood as the 117 absence of disease [39]. For pollinator communities, the term health only recently 118 appeared in the literature and its precise definition is still subject to debate [40]. López-119 Uribe et al. suggested a multilevel approach and the use of various parameters to 120 measure bee health at the individual, colony and population level [40]. The population's 121 health status should then be a direct consequence of the average health status of 122 individuals, with population size likely being positively correlated with average individual 123 health.

We propose to apply a multidimensional concept of bee health to wild bees defined as the status of well-being of each individual as a result of their interaction with the local environment (Fig.1). We suggest recording and integrating all or several of the following physiological parameters to comprehensively capture individual bee health: composition and amount of stored nutrients in bee bodies (such as proteins, lipids, glycogen, chemical elements), body size [41], pathogen load, beneficial microbiota [42], immunocompetence [43] and fertility [44].

131 Physiological parameters were shown to be important for understanding species' 132 sensitivity to environmental modifications [45], because the physiology of individuals 133 responds before changes in populations become visible [46]. For instance, diet quality 134 correlates with increased levels of the storage protein and antioxidant vitellogenin in 135 individual honey bees, which correlates with higher overwintering survival of the entire 136 colony [19,47]. Energy storage is critical to bee survival. The main categories of 137 macronutrients used for energy storage in insects (glycogen, lipids and proteins) affect 138 several life-history traits such as dispersal capacities, reproduction, diapause and survival 139 [48]. Moreover, both macro- and micronutrients are acquired through the consumption of 140 pollen and nectar and thus are at the interface between bees and floral resources. 141 Variations in floral resource availability will therefore influence the energy budget and 142 ultimately the health of bees.

Additional physiological health parameters *sensu lato* include morphometrics, stoichiometry, microbial communities or pathogen loads. For example, wing morphometry and wing fluctuating asymmetry were found to correlate with different stressors [49–51]. Also, floral composition and diversity are known to shape the bee microbiome

composition, particularly in solitary bees, with consequences on nutrient uptake,
detoxification, immunity and health [44,52–54]. By defining stoichiometric phenotypes
(i.e., the elemental composition of bee bodies) [55] deviations from optimal phenotypes,
as expected in nutritionally impoverished landscapes and for declining populations, can
be revealed, which can then also indicate reduced health.

All physiological health parameters mentioned above are likely affected by multiple environmental parameters related to variation in floral resource diversity, abundance and quality, but also environmental pollutants (e.g., pesticides, antibiotics, heavy metals) and pathogens (Fig. 1). Measurement of multiple variables can therefore provide a more complete picture of pollinator health status than focus on a single one.

157



159 Fig. 1: The multifaceted nature of bee health. The main landscape-scale environmental 160 factors, their effects on the floral community and thus nutritional landscape and bee diets, 161 and consequences for bee nutrition and health. These can be observed by recording and integrating different parameters (right column). Bee health based on the physiology of 162 163 individual bees can then be related to additional parameters, such as population density 164 (i.e. the number of bees caught per plot for a given species and time period) or variation 165 in population dynamics over time, ideally obtained for multiple seasons to infer changes in population densities across years. 166 167

169 Floral diversity as environmental driver of bee health

170 Floral diversity, abundance and community composition correlate with the abundance and 171 diversity of wild bee species [56,57] through food availability [58], nutritional quality or 172 content [21,27,59,60] and resource phenology [23,58,61]. Bees thrive in environments 173 where plant species diversity is high [12,62,63] and so is the diversity and quantity of 174 available food resources [23,64,65]. Moreover, resource diversity increases the 175 opportunities for specialist (oligolectic) bee species with restricted pollen host plants to 176 find suitable food resources. In generalist (polylectic) species, access to a diverse 177 spectrum of resources supports immunity, health, performance and survival (Table 1), 178 likely due to access to adequate nutrition and beneficial plant secondary metabolites. In 179 contrast, chronic intake of monotonous, non-suitable, low guality or toxic food reduces 180 the immune-competence and vitellogenin levels of bees, thus affecting bee health, 181 through "nutritional stress" [47,66]. Poor nutrition can also lead to higher susceptibility to 182 disease [67] and pesticides [68]. In fact, nutritional stress as a consequence of restricted 183 access to adequate floral resources is considered one of the main drivers of bee pollinator 184 decline [21,69,70]. While floral diversity may not provide an added value per se or 185 automatically yield beneficial synergistic effects as compared to higher quality monofloral 186 diets [34,71,72] it can clearly mitigate negative effects of poor diets and provide overall 187 more choices to various bee species (Table 1).

188

Table 1: Effect of floral diet on bee health. Key studies on effects of monofloral and polyfloral diets on health and performance in different generalist (i.e. polylectic) bee species under both lab and field conditions.

Experiment Bee species Effects Response variable Citation

Landscapes, enriched	Honeybee	Access to more diverse	Bee health	Alaux et al., 2017
or not with	(Apis	floral resources was	(vitellogenin	[47]
melliferous catch			expression level)	[47]
	mellifera)	linked to a higher bee	expression level)	
crops, effect on		vitality (vitellogenin		
colony overwintering	Duff to the d	expression level)		Dense stal 2017
Monofloral diet	Buff tailed	Additive negative	Worker mortality,	Dance et al., 2017
combined with	bumblebee	effects of monofloral	worker weight,	[73]
pesticides, effects on	(Bombus	diet and pesticides on	colony weight gain,	
colony performance	terrestris)	colony growth, drone	number of males,	
		size and reproductive effort	food uptake	
Monofloral vs.	Honeybee	When parasitized, bees	Longevity of adults	Di Pasquale et al.,
polyfloral pollen diets	(Apis	fed with the polyfloral		2013 [74]
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	mellifera)	blend lived longer than		
		bees fed with		
		monofloral pollens		
Diets with varying	European	Monofloral diets of	Larval performance	Eckhardt et al.,
proportions of	orchard bee	Ranunculus are		2014 [75]
Ranunculus and	(Osmia	detrimental for larval		2014[75]
Sinapsis	cornuta)	performance		
Royal jelly	Honeybee	Larval resistance to	Larval resistance to	Foley et al., 2012
supplemented with	(Apis	disease was enhanced	disease	[76]
mono- or polyfloral	mellifera	on a diet	uisease	[70]
	memjeru	supplemented with		
pollen diets		either dandelion or		
Landaaanaa diffarina	<u>Curanhaa haa</u>	polyfloral pollen		Kalura at al. 2017
Landscapes differing in floral resource	Sugarbag bee	Colony performance	Colony performance	Kaluza et al., 2017
	(Tetragonula	and reproduction was	and reproduction	[64]
diversity, effect on	carbonaria)	positively correlated	(brood)	
colony performance		with floral diversity in		
and reproduction	2	the landscape		
-	-			[/1]
. –	bicornis)		•	
		. ,	to adult development	
neonicotinoid)				
		parameters		
Monofloral and	Common	Exposure to pesticides	Nesting success.	Leza et al. 2018
mixed diets combined	eastern	reduces survival and	-	
	bumblebee			
-	(Bombus			
	impatiens)		-	
			,,	1
Wild plant diversity gradient diet (including oilseed rape treated with a neonicotinoid) Monofloral and	eastern bumblebee <i>(Bombus</i>	Resource diversity offset the effects of insecticides (interactive effects) and increased reproduction parameters Exposure to pesticides	Brood cell production, bee reproduction, larval to adult development Nesting success, queen mortality and activity levels, queen nectar consumption, colony development	Klaus et al. 2021 [71] Leza et al. 2018 [77]

Mixture of pollen in	Common	Survival of bees fed a	Lifespan of bees in	McAulay et al.,
diet, effect on	eastern	pollen mixture with	captivity	2019 [78]
lifespan	bumblebee	50% unfavourable		
	(Bombus	pollen (Helianthus		
	, impatiens)	annuus, Asteraceae)		
	. ,	was as good as on a		
		high quality monofloral		
		diet		
Mono-, di- and	Buff tailed	Colonies developed	Colony development	Moerman et al.,
trifloral diets, effect	bumblebee	best on mixed pollen	(brood)	2017 [38]
on colony	(Bombus	diets or high quality		
development	terrestris)	monofloral pollen diets		
High pollen diversity	Honeybee	Size and shape of	Physiological	Renzi et al., 2016
and protein vs. low	(Apis	hypopharyngeal acini	development	[79]
pollen diversity and	mellifera	was affected by		
protein diets		pesticide and diet,		
combined with		while protein content		
pesticide, effect on		in bee head was		
development of		affected only by		
hypopharyngeal		pesticide.		
glands				
Landscape gradient in	Honeybee	Decline in pollen	Colony performance	Requier et al., 2017
floral resource	(Apis	availability in summer	(brood, adult	[80]
abundance and	mellifera	led to decrease in	population size,	
diversity		pollen harvest, colony	honey reserve) and	
		performance and to	overwintering	
-		overwintering failure		
Landscape gradient of	Buff tailed	Higher abundance of	Colony growth and	Requier et al., 2020
semi-natural habitats	bumblebee	seminatural habitats	reproductive	[35]
	(Bombus	improved reproductive	performance	
	terrestris)	performance	(number of new	
			queens produced)	
Food resource	Orchard	Pesticides and food	Survival, nesting, and	Stuligross and
limitation and	mason bee or blue orchard	limitation had additive	reproduction	Williams 2020 [72]
pesticide exposure	bee (Osmia	effects and reduced		
	lignaria)	reproduction		
Diets differing in floral	Buff tailed	Colonies were less	Colony resistance to	Vanderplanck et al.,
composition, effect	bumblebee	susceptible to heat	stress	2019 [81]
on resilience to heat	(Bombus	stress when fed		
stress	terrestris)	suitable/high quality		
		diets		

193

194 However, how floral resource diversity and nutritional quality interact and affect bee health

195 is still largely unclear. This is particularly true for wild bees considered less resilient to

environmental changes and more difficult to study than managed honeybees [72,82]. For 196 197 example, it is little understood how different nutrients or nutrient groups contribute to bee 198 health, and if bee species differ in their tolerance towards deviations from optimal 199 nutritional profiles and thus available nutritional landscapes. Understanding these links 200 will shed light on the mechanisms underlying the observed positive effects of, for 201 example, polyfloral diets on bee performance (Table 1). This knowledge will also enable 202 better strategies for conservation or restoration of biodiversity for pollinators and thus 203 contribute to combat ongoing bee declines (see below). We therefore propose to link floral 204 communities, nutritional landscapes and bee health and diversity through assessing bee 205 species-specific nutritional niches.

206

207 Nutritional niches of bees

208 The ecological niche of a species describes a range of environmental conditions and 209 resources required for its persistence; it positions each species in relation to others in 210 ecosystem space [83], taking into account physical conditions, such as climate, and food 211 resources[84]. The nutritional niche is nested within the ecological niche and describes a 212 specific proportion and ratio of nutrients, which enable maximum growth, development, 213 performance and fitness (Fig. 2a) [85-87]. Notably, precise values of the optimal niche 214 can change with an animal's internal state (e.g., larva vs. adult) and with changing 215 environmental conditions [87]. The nutritional niche can consequently be described by a 216 multidimensional geometric space defined by food chemistry, where each axis represents 217 a nutrient (e.g., specific amino acids, chemical elements or group of components) 218 functionally relevant to a species, i.e. required for development, survival and reproduction

219 [37,87,88] (Fig 2). Within this space, some combinations of nutrients are more important 220 for performance and fitness than others. If they are limited in the environment this can 221 result in a discrepancy between the consumer's optimal nutritional niche and the niche 222 provided by the environment as suggested by ecological stoichiometry (stoichiometric 223 mismatch) [89]. Such important nutrients are often regulated by animals, as revealed by 224 the Geometric Framework of Nutrition (GFN) [85,90]. For instance, honey bees (Apis 225 mellifera), bumble bees (Bombus spp.) and mason bees (Osmia bicornis) regulate 226 protein, lipid and/or carbohydrate intake depending on their age and the presence of 227 brood [91,92]. For such important nutrients, species likely show little tolerance to 228 deviations from those concentrations which best support their performance/fitness, while 229 they are likely more tolerant to deviations from concentrations that are less 230 important/regulated for performance/fitness (as shown for *B. terrestris* [93]).

231 Such differences in tolerance to deviations is captured by the tolerated nutritional niche 232 which is a deviant of the optimal niche and captures the range that is still physiologically 233 manageable by organisms and results in a positive growth, development and fitness[87]. 234 If the realized nutritional niche as offered by the available nutritional landscape deviates 235 too far from the tolerated nutritional niche, individuals will fail to achieve successful 236 growth, development or reproduction [87]. The degree of variation in niche space 237 tolerated, in turn, denotes the tolerance of a specific animal for suboptimal diets. Different 238 species likely vary not only in the position of their optimal niche (i.e., the specific 239 proportions and ratios required), but also their tolerance for deviations from the optimum, 240 resulting in species-specific nutritional niche shapes and sizes (Fig. 2b). Determining the 241 tolerated nutritional niche of species can thus provide valuable information to predict the

spatial and temporal distribution of that species and its responses to environmentalchange [87,94].



245

Fig. 2: Nutritional niches of bee species in a multidimensional nutritional space. The optimal niche space (shaded) and the tolerated niche space (lighter color) of a species (Sp) and species-specific nutritional niches. Each shaded space represents the combinations and concentration ranges of nutrients tolerated and therefore supporting a species ´ growth, development, performance and fitness. Strong deviations from the nutritional niche over extended time periods will likely lead to negative impacts on health.

253 As a consequence of the complex and variable chemistry encountered in different plant 254 species, animals need to perform nutrient selective foraging in order to ensure healthy 255 offspring development [95]. In the case of bees, this means that they should choose pollen 256 with nutritional composition that match their nutritional needs, as shown for several 257 bumble bee species that thrive on pollen with high protein to lipid (P:L) ratios and low lipid 258 content [21,96] or bee larvae of O. bicornis that prefer high carbohydrate content diets 259 [91]. The chemical profile of pollen jointly collected by individual (female) bees of a 260 population can therefore be considered a proxy for their species-specific nutritional niche.

261 Recent advances in analytical methods facilitate the accurate quantitative chemical 262 analysis of pollen, including fatty acids and protein-bound and free amino acids [97], 263 sterols [98–100], plant secondary metabolites [101] and atoms of chemical elements [89]. 264 The chemical/nutritional profile of the overall pollen diet composed by a bee individual 265 can thus be calculated through integrating information on the proportional contribution of 266 nutritional profiles of pollen of all plant species visited for pollen collection (e.g., obtained 267 through metabarcoding or palynological studies). Notably, this approach does not allow 268 to determine the optimal nutritional niches of species, which would require cage (semi-269 field) experiments with manipulated artificial diets. However, through linking measured 270 (realized) nutritional niches and animal health the nutritional niches measured at sites 271 where populations show a generally good health status and high population density can 272 be a good proxy for the species' tolerated nutritional niches.

273

274 Dietary vs. nutritional generalists and specialists in bees

275 The degree of dietary specialization of a species is determined by its physiological (e.g., 276 ability to break down/tolerate specific plant compounds), sensory (e.g., intrinsic bias 277 towards specific flowers/plants) and morphological (e.g., proboscis length and wing 278 morphology) characteristics. It is typically described by the range of plant taxa used for 279 pollen collection (i.e., pollen hosts) [102,103]. In bees, the full spectrum of flower 280 specialization - sometimes referred to as dietary breadth [53,104] - ranges from species 281 that collect floral pollen from a single plant species or genus only (monolecty, oligolecty) 282 to generalists that do not appear to have distinct flower preferences (polylecty) [20]. 283 However, even generalists, including many social bees, forage pollen from a limited range

of flowering species [105–107]. A classification of floral specificity of pollen collection in
bees covering all levels of specialization was suggested by Cane & Sipes [108] and Müller
& Kuhlmann [105]. This classification, however, does not consider pollen nutrients, thus
is not based on the species' nutritional niches [105,108].

288 We propose that bee species differ not only in the specific nutrient amounts and ratios 289 required for optimal survival and reproduction (see above), but also in the degree of 290 variation in nutrient space tolerated, i.e., the tolerated nutritional niche, and thus in the 291 nutritional landscape in which they can thrive. Nutritional specialists are thus species with 292 comparatively narrow nutritional niches, and generalists are species with a comparatively 293 wide nutritional niche (Fig. 3). Nutritional niche breadth and dietary breadth can be, but 294 do not necessarily have to be correlated. While it is likely that dietary specialists also show 295 a narrow nutritional niche, some dietary specialists may have a broader nutritional niche 296 than some generalists. For example, some bees may visit a broad spectrum of plant 297 species with chemically similar pollen profiles, e.g., bee species collecting pollen from 298 Asteraceae. These are mostly specialized bees foraging on many different Asteraceae 299 species, while generalist bee species avoid Asteraceae pollen despite the ubiquitous 300 distribution of this plant family and the substantial amount of pollen provision (known as 301 the Asteraceae paradox [105]). While the reasons for this Asteraceae paradox remain 302 unresolved, the abundance of specific chemical compounds, e.g. Δ 7-sterols, found in 303 pollen of Asteraceae species may offer an explanation [100].

305 Linking bee health, floral diversity and nutritional niches

306 Some generalist bees have been shown to mix pollen from different plant sources, either 307 during one or several foraging trips, likely to achieve a nutritional balance and/or to dilute 308 toxic compounds [72,75], indicating that nutritional generalists may even specifically 309 target and clearly benefit from diverse pollen sources in florally diverse environments 310 (Table 1). Nutritional specialists, on the other hand, depend on the presence of specific 311 plant species which provide pollen with nutrient profiles that are close to their nutritional 312 niches. Access to a nutritionally diverse landscape as typically provided in florally diverse 313 environments would ensure that different species-specific macro- and micro-nutrient 314 requirements can be met [24,109]. We therefore predict that nutritional specialists with a 315 comparatively small nutritional niche are more common in florally diverse habitats and 316 thus nutritionally diverse landscape, where they have access to a broader spectrum of 317 resources and thus of potential nutritional niches, including their own [110] (Fig. 3).



319 320

Fig. 3: Link between floral diversity, nutritional landscapes and nutritional niches. 321 322 Bee species (Sp) with narrow nutritional niches (nutritional specialists, green dotted marked bees) and thus little tolerance for changes in the nutritional space (purple area in 323 nutritional space) are likely to be more susceptible to changes in the floral diversity than 324 325 bee species with broad nutritional niches (nutritional generalists, red dotted marked bees) and a higher tolerance (brown area in nutritional space). The nutritional landscape of each 326 327 environment is reflected by different colours of nutrients (bars in the centre). It is more 328 diverse, balanced and thus provides more nutritional niches in florally diverse 329 environments (left) compared to environments with reduced floral diversity (right). Florally 330 diverse environments also enable bees to dilute toxic compounds (e.g., harmful plant 331 secondary metabolites or pesticides) exposing them to overall less harmful compounds 332 than environments with reduced floral diversity.

333

334 Both nutritional generalists and nutritional specialists should therefore thrive in

335 nutritionally diverse landscapes, which are expected to provide more nutritional niches

than nutritionally poor landscapes (Fig. 3). Bees in nutritionally diverse landscapes will
more likely encounter their (potentially even optimal) nutritional niche. As a consequence,
they should be better nourished and therefore be healthier than bees in nutritionally poor
landscapes.

340

341 Notably, bees in more biodiverse environments may also harbour more diverse 342 pathogens and parasites [44,67,111,112]. However, access to (nutritionally) diverse 343 resources may render them more tolerant and resilient to pathogens and parasite 344 virulence factors (through optimal physiology) and/or more resistant to associated 345 infection risks (through optimal immunity) [10,74,81,113]. They may also more easily 346 adjust their diet to combat infection, e.g., through increasing the proportion of protein in 347 diets [114,115] or collecting resources with antimicrobial plant secondary metabolites 348 [25,33,116]. In fact, the bees' resilience to diseases, but also other stressors (e.g., climatic 349 or weather extremes), varies with floral/nutritional guality [81,117]. We therefore do not 350 expect that more stressors are necessarily linked with decreased health, but rather predict 351 a three-way-interaction between nutrition, health and stressors, such as pathogen loads, 352 which may result in different scenarios, such as linear and non-linear shifts in nutritional 353 niches (Fig. 4). For example, protein-rich diets improve the immune-competence of 354 bumble bees (*B. terrestris*) exposed to a parasite [66] and lipid-rich diets increase survival 355 in honey bees (A. mellifera) exposed to an organophosphate insecticide [117]. These 356 studies indicate that bees can adjust their diets to compensate different stressors, which will result in altered nutritional niche spaces (Fig. 4). Consequently, floral/nutritional 357 358 diversity may convey health benefits to generalist and specialist bee species through

providing a variety of nutritional niches, which can increase nutritional flexibility andresilience when facing additional stressors.



364 Fig 4: Interaction between nutrition, health and stressors altered in addition to 365 florally impoverished landscapes. Hypothetical scenarios depict linear and non-linear changes in nutritional niches of nutritional specialists (purple area) and generalists (brown 366 367 area) following loss of floral diversity plus additional stressors (e.g. increased pathogen prevalence). Stressors may simply decrease the bees' tolerated nutritional niche space 368 without affecting their optimal nutritional niches (scenario 1). Alternatively, it may result in 369 370 a non-linear change in overall nutritional niches (including both the optimal and tolerated 371 niche space). Moreover, the magnitude and direction of ecological niche shifts under 372 stressed scenarios is known to differ among taxonomic groups [118], demonstrating 373 highly species-specific responses. Likewise, the nutritional niche of one species may be strongly decreased, while the optimal and tolerated nutritional niche of another species 374 375 may remain unaffected in the presence of additional stressors (scenario 2). This may in turn result in a species-specific likeliness of becoming (locally) extinct under stressed 376 377 conditions. To our knowledge there is hitherto no study that assessed nutritional niche shifts in different bee species exposed to different stressors. 378

379

380 Concluding Remarks and Outstanding Questions

Through integrating different physiological health measures and nutritional niches with floral diversity and composition, we can reveal meaningful interactions between nutritional landscapes and bee health (Fig. 3, Fig. 4). We can also investigate hitherto unknown interactive effects between different physiological health parameters, such as stoichiometry, physiology and disease loads. This integrative approach will enable better tailored management recommendations for

387 bee conservation. Until now, most conservation measures implicitly assumed that wild

bee populations can be enhanced by increasing floral diversity [8]. This can however lead

to shortages in types, amounts and proportions of specific nutrients and thus in a lack of

390 the nutritional niches required by different bees, in particular by nutritional specialists.

391 Such shortages can be elucidated e.g. by comparing bee and pollen stoichiometry to

392 reveal stoichiometric mismatches [89]. Similarly, bee-nutrient networks and ordination

393 analyses could reveal differences in link strength between specific nutrients or nutrient

394 ratios and specific bee species, with strong links indicating important nutrients, nutrient

395 groups or nutrient ratios and the plant species providing them. This information can then
396 be used to improve flower seed mixes or support the conservation of key plant species
397 and their habitats.

398 Notably, the quantity and quality of available floral resources can be modulated by 399 environmental conditions, such as water availability [119], rendering nutritional 400 landscapes and bee foraging highly sensitive to global change [120]. For example, global 401 change will likely affect the functional complementarity of bee-plant interactions, e.g. 402 through advancing seasonal flowering events. It remains open which bee species are 403 sufficiently plastic in their phenology and/or resource requirements to maintain their floral 404 associations and pollination service [121,122]. It is also little understood how such global 405 change induced shifts in phenology or resource use interact with bee health. Can we use knowledge on links between species-specific nutritional niches (breadth) and health to 406 407 predict which bees will be able to forage in specific landscapes? How can we adjust floral 408 enhancement schemes to take into consideration additional factors besides bee nutrition, 409 such as edaphic conditions, climate sensitivity, interactions with other plants within 410 communities and stakeholder interests? Understanding how global change affects the 411 physiology and adaptability of both bees and plants and thus (nutritional) niche shifts and 412 health requirements across species is one of the biggest challenges of ongoing and future 413 research.

414

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429 Author contributions

M.A.P. drafted the manuscript, developed figures and tables and coordinated co-authors contributions until finalization. All co-authors contributed to the original grant application upon which this conceptual paper is based. All co-authors provided comments, proofchecked citations, contributed to text and figures in particular to develop paragraphs specific to their expertise areas (pathogens, stoichiometry, niche theory). S.D.L. initialized the manuscript, invited co-authors and supervised manuscript development until finalization.

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