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The nectar report: Quantitative review of nectar sugar concentrations offered by bee visited flowers in agricultural and non-agricultural landscapes

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There is growing concern that some bee populations are in decline potentially threatening pollination security in agricultural and non-agricultural landscapes. Among the numerous causes associated with this trend nutritional stress, resulting from a mismatch between bee nutritional needs and plant community provisioning, has been suggested as one potential driver. To ease nutritional stress on bee populations in agricultural habitats, agri-environmental protection schemes aim to provide alternative nutritional resources for bee populations during times of need. However, such efforts have focused mainly on quantity (providing flowering plants) and timing (flower-scarce periods), while largely ignoring the quality of the offered flower resources. In a first step to start addressing this information gap we have compiled a comprehensive geographically explicit dataset on nectar quality (i.e. total sugar concentration), offered to bees both within fields (crop and weed species) as well as off field (wild) around the globe. We find that the total nectar sugar concentrations in general do not differ between the three plant communities studied. In contrast we find increased quality variability in the wild plant community compared to crop and weed community, which is likely explained by the increased phylogenetic diversity in this category of plants. In a second step we explore the influence of local habitat on nectar quality and its variability utilizing a detailed sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) data set and find that geography has a small, but significant influence on these parameters. In a third step we identify crop groups (genera), which provide sub-optimal nectar resources for bees and suggest high quality alternatives as potential nectar supplements. In the long term this data base could serve as a starting point to systematically collect more quality characteristics of plant provided resources to bees, which ultimately can be utilized by scientist, regulators, NGOs and farmers to improve the flower resources offered to bees. We hope that ultimately this data will help to ease nutritional stress for bee populations and foster a data informed discussion about pollinator conservation in modern agricultural

landscapes.

1 The nectar report: Quantitative review of nectar sugar
2 concentrations offered by bee visited flowers in agricultural and
3 non-agricultural landscapes

4

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 There is growing concern that some bee populations are in decline potentially threatening
12 pollination security in agricultural and non-agricultural landscapes. Among the numerous
13 causes associated with this trend nutritional stress, resulting from a mismatch between
14 bee nutritional needs and plant community provisioning, has been suggested as one
15 potential driver. To ease nutritional stress on bee populations in agricultural habitats, agri-
16 environmental protection schemes aim to provide alternative nutritional resources for bee
17 populations during times of need. However, such efforts have focused mainly on quantity
18 (providing flowering plants) and timing (flower-scarce periods), while largely ignoring the
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24 contrast we find increased quality variability in the wild plant community compared to crop
25 and weed community, which is likely explained by the increased phylogenetic diversity in
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27 quality and its variability utilizing a detailed sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) data set and
28 find that geography has a small, but significant influence on these parameters. In a third

29 step we identify crop groups (genera), which provide sub-optimal nectar resources for
30 bees and suggest high quality alternatives as potential nectar supplements. In the long
31 term this data base could serve as a starting point to systematically collect more quality
32 characteristics of plant provided resources to bees, which ultimately can be utilized by
33 scientist, regulators, NGOs and farmers to improve the flower resources offered to bees.
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35 and foster a data informed discussion about pollinator conservation in modern agricultural
36 landscapes.

37

38 Introduction

39 Pollinators are an integral part of natural as well as agricultural ecosystems, with the
40 majority of flowering plants relying on their ecosystem services (Ollerton, Winfree et al.
41 2011). Over the past decades bee pollinators have received particular attention, following
42 the realization that some populations seem to decline (Biesmeijer, Roberts et al. 2006,
43 Potts, Biesmeijer et al. 2010, Ollerton, Erenler et al. 2014). While managed honey bee
44 populations appear to suffer only in restricted geographic regions and in some years
45 (Moritz and Erler 2016), the focus of concern has recently extended to wild bees (Roulston
46 and Goodell 2011, Goulson, Nicholls et al. 2015, Vaudo, Tooker et al. 2015). Numerous
47 potential drivers for this proposed dynamic have been put forward including changes in
48 land use, agricultural intensification, habitat loss- or fragmentation, emerging pathogens
49 and their interactions (Brown and Paxton 2009, Winfree, Aguilar et al. 2009, Goulson,
50 Nicholls et al. 2015). While all these factors likely contribute to some degree, changes in
51 flower provided food resource for bees has emerged as prime candidate directly
52 regulating bee populations (Roulston and Goodell 2011). Bees and their larvae almost
53 exclusively rely on flower derived nutrients, namely nectar as their primary source of
54 carbohydrates and pollen for protein, lipids, and other micronutrients essential for
55 development, health and survival (Michener 2000, Brodschneider and Crailsheim 2010,
56 Roulston and Goodell 2011). Large scale changes in land-use can alter the quality,
57 abundance and availability of relevant flower derived resources, which in turn can result
58 in nutritional mismatch leading to nutritional stress for bee populations with potential

59 adverse effects (Potts, Biesmeijer et al. 2010, Roulston and Goodell 2011, Goulson,
60 Nicholls et al. 2015). For example, while bee pollinated crops might provide a cornucopia
61 of flower derived resources during their discreet flowering period, the lack of alternative
62 food sources in monocultural dominated agricultural settings, might put a strain on bee
63 species foraging outside the flowering period.

64 In order to ease nutritional stress on bee populations in agricultural settings the
65 establishment of selective foraging habitats has been incentivized via agro-environmental
66 management schemes in the EU and elsewhere (Phillips and Lowe 2005, Vaughan and
67 Skinner 2008, Lye, Park et al. 2009, Goulson, Nicholls et al. 2015, Potts, Biesmeijer et al.
68 2015). Such schemes seek to provide bees with alternative complementary flower
69 resources outside the mass flowering periods of commercial crops, but have traditionally
70 focused solely on providing plants to attract and sustain a diverse bee community (Vaudo,
71 Tooker et al. 2015). However, quantity and timing alone are likely insufficient to maintain
72 healthy bee populations (Vaudo, Tooker et al. 2015). The quality of floral resources (e.g.
73 sugar content of nectar) also plays a major role in bee health with direct consequences
74 for bee's fitness (Brodschneider and Crailsheim 2010, Vaudo, Tooker et al. 2015, Vaudo,
75 Patch et al. 2016). Such qualitative aspects of bees nutrition should be taken into
76 consideration to develop a complementary and nutritionally optimized resource base for
77 bee populations in agricultural landscapes in order to improve the nutritional basis for bee
78 populations in agricultural environments (Vaudo, Tooker et al. 2015).

79 As a first step to facilitate the integration of flower resource quality in pollinator
80 management we have compiled a geographically explicit data base of nectar quality
81 (measured as total sugar concentration) provided by bee visited flowers in an agricultural
82 setting. Given that nectar is the main carbohydrate source for adults as well as developing
83 bees sugar concentration is directly linked to the amount of sugar bees can extract from
84 flowers and has traditionally served as a proxy for nectar quality (Roulston and Goodell
85 2011, Vaudo, Tooker et al. 2015). We use this data base to compare the quality and
86 quality variability of nectar resource bees can encounter in agricultural landscapes in-
87 (crop and weeds) and off-field (wild) around the globe. In a second step we utilize a unique
88 historical data set to analyze the influence of local habitat and water stress on nectar

89 sugar concentrations and their variability. In a last step we identify crop genera, which
90 provide sub-optimal nectar quality and suggest plant groups which could serve as high
91 quality alternatives during times of need.

92

93 **Materials and Methods**

94 *Data collection and categorization*

95 In late 2017 and early 2018 we searched the literature for records on nectar quality in bee
96 pollinated flowers using ISI web of knowledge and google scholar as main information
97 sources. We used alterations of the search terms: “bee”, “pollinator”, “nectar” and “sugar
98 concentration” to identify the relevant publications and extended our search to literature
99 cited within them. In addition, we extended our data gathering efforts to the French and
100 German literature to provide a more complete picture and make this information easier
101 accessible to the English speaking scientific community.

102

103 *Plant selection*

104 Plant species were categorized as bee visited if either bee pollination was directly
105 observed or the flowers were explicitly classified as “melittophil” based on their floral
106 characteristics by the study authors. In addition, we used the USDA pollinator manual
107 (McGregor 1976) and the expertise of BASF plant experts for cross validation of the
108 derived classifications.

109

110 *Geographic localization*

111 We chose to map the plant distribution on a continental scale because this information
112 was available for the majority of plant species included in the data set. We decided to
113 choose the Panama Canal as separation line between North and South America the Ural
114 and the black sea to separate Europe from Asia and the Suez Canal to separate Asia and
115 Africa. Using the encyclopedia of life (<http://eol.org/>) as main source for plant distribution
116 we recorded the presence and absence of collection records of each plant species on the
117 five continents. This very broad geographical classification is intended as a first attempt
118 to make this information geographically explicit and should serve as a starting point to

119 add more detailed information on the local geographic (e.g. national or region) or habitat
120 characteristics in the future. Such information will be vital to make more precise
121 predictions about the temporal quality dynamics in agricultural landscapes around the
122 globe.

123

124 Categorization of crop, weed and wild plants

125 The selected plants were categorized as crop species if they were listed as “cultivated
126 crops” in governmental data bases (e.g. USDA: <https://plants.usda.gov> and European
127 commission plant variety catalogue: <https://ec.europa.eu>, (McGregor 1976)), the open
128 primary literature or were known as such to our BASF crop experts. All remaining plants
129 without such records were categorized as non-cultivated. In a second step these non-
130 cultivated plants were categorized either as a weed species, in case they were listed in
131 an agricultural or governmental weed data resource (e.g. USA Noxious weed data base
132 <https://plants.usda.gov>, Australia weeds http://www.environment.gov.au_or_industry
133 [compendium](#) (Bayer 1992)), or as wild plants in case they were no such recorded were
134 found. Once a plant species was categorized (as crop weed or wild) in one geographic
135 region it was classified as such in all other regions where it was present.

136

137 Resource quality

138 We used sugar (total carbohydrate) concentration in nectar (% w/w) as proxy for nectar
139 quality. This quality characteristic was chosen because it is the most frequently reported
140 quantitative measurement of nectar quality in the literature, and is directly related to bee
141 fitness (Vaudo, Tooker et al. 2015). However, it is important to mention that other quality
142 criteria (e.g. sugar composition, nectar volume as well as the presence and absence of
143 non-sugar compounds) are also important markers for resource quality (Vaudo, Tooker
144 et al. 2015).

145

146 Nectar quality categorization

147 Nectar serves as the main carbohydrate source for bees and consequently the total
148 caloric value as well as the rate of calorie uptake are important aspects of nectar quality
149 for bees. One of the main factors determining uptake rate is nectar viscosity, which in
150 term is largely determined by nectar sugar concentration. Based on uptake
151 measurements and theoretical consideration the bee optimal concentration range was
152 determined as 35-65% (Kim, Gilet et al. 2011). While this is a theoretical optimal range
153 and bees seem to prefer higher over lower nectar sugar concentrations (Wykes 1952,
154 Roubik and Buchmann 1984, Cnaani, Thomson et al. 2006) they will collect nectar with
155 sugar concentrations below that value under natural conditions (e.g. (Roubik and
156 Buchmann 1984)). However, all evidence suggests that bees avoid foraging on nectar
157 sources below 20% sugar concentration, likely because the caloric intake cannot support
158 sustained foraging activity with potentially detrimental effects for the bee colony (Maurizio
159 and Grafl 1980, Roubik and Buchmann 1984, Cnaani, Thomson et al. 2006). Based on
160 these criteria we define nectar concentrations of 65-35% as optimal 35-20% as adequate
161 and nectar sugar concentrations below 20% low quality.

162

163 Analysis

164 Nectar quality and its variability in bee visited plants

165 In the first part of the analysis we focused on the broad picture of nectar quality and its
166 variation provided by a given plant community (crop, weeds and wild) on all relevant
167 continents around the globe. In addition, we explore the possible of intrinsic differences
168 in nectar quality variability of the plant species belonging to the different communities
169 (crop, weed and wild) using plant species where we had multiple quality measurements
170 ($N > 3$) to calculate standard deviation (SD) as a proxy for within species variability.

171

172 The influence of local habitat on nectar quality and its variability

173 During our non-english literature screening we discovered a data set (Simidtschiev 1988),
174 which is uniquely suited to isolate the contribution of geographic location and water
175 availability to nectar sugar concentrations and its variation in the sunflower (*Helianthus*
176 *annuus* L.). In order to make this data easier accessible to the scientific community, we

177 will give a brief summary of the materials and methods used. Between 1981 and 1986 a
178 field experiment was conducted at two field sites in Bulgaria (Toshevo in north-east and
179 Plovdiv in central Bulgaria) separated by more than 300 km. Over this time period 52
180 different sunflower variants and hybrids, originating from different geographical regions
181 around the globe (including Europe, North America, South America and Australia), were
182 grown under standard agronomical conditions at both locations in paired design. The
183 nectar sugar concentration for all varieties were measured each year on 25 flowers per
184 variant/hybrid day and location (200-300 measurements per year) using a capillary based
185 extraction method and an Abbe Refractometer. In a second experiment, the author tested
186 the effect of irrigation (watering vs. no watering) Using this unique data set (Simidtschiev
187 1988) we explore the influence of location on nectar sugar concentration variation in the
188 sunflower taking advantage of the paired design of the study.

189

190 Nectar quality offered by plant genera

191 In a last step we compared the quality of crop genera in terms of nectar quality. We used
192 all genera, where we had measurements for more than 3 plant species belonging to this
193 genus. We categorized them according to our pre-defined (see above) as optimal (35-
194 65%), adequate (34-20%) and low quality (below 20%). We used this information to
195 identify crop genera offering low quality nectar and potential genera offering high nectar
196 quality as potential replacements.

197

198 Statistics

199 Both statistical analysis and graphs generation were conducted in R v. 3.3.3. We used
200 descriptive statistics, conservative non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis (KW) test and
201 Bonferroni corrected pairwise Wilcoxon-test (paired or not paired) as post hoc test in
202 cases where the KW test indicated significant difference between groups. In order to
203 analyse homogeneity of variance in nectar concentration between groups we used the
204 non-parametric Fligner-test and Bonferroni corrected pairwise Fligner-test in case the

205 main test indicated significant differences between groups as post hoc test. Significance
206 level were set to $\alpha = 0.05$ in all cases.

207

208 Results

209 Data summary

210 In total we collected 322 individual measurements of sugar concentration in nectar for
211 bee pollinated flowers ranging from 6.3 – 85%. With similar sampling sizes for plant
212 species in crop (N = 151) and wild plants (N = 141), but fewer measurements for weeds
213 (N=30). On a Genus level we find that the wild community has the highest phylogenetic
214 diversity in terms of number of genera recorded (N = 63) followed by the crop community
215 (N = 29) and the least diversity in the weed community (N = 18). In general, the recorded
216 data is evenly spread across the geographic regions (see Table 1), however only a limited
217 number of weed species could be identified in Africa (N=13) and South America (N=18).
218 The summary statistics including mean, median 10th and 25th Percentile are presented in
219 Table 1.

220

221 Nectar quality & variability

222 Overall nectar concentration in all regions were comparable around a median value of
223 40% sugar concentration (see Figure 1, Tab.1) and no significant differences between
224 crop, weed or wild plant communities were found globally (KW $\chi^2 = 3.2$, $p = 0.2$) or within
225 the different geographic regions (all KW $\chi^2 < 4.48$, $p > 0.11$; see Figure 1 and Table 1).
226 In contrast to the median concentrations we find that the three plant communities differed
227 in the variability of nectar quality (Global community; Fligner test $\chi^2 = 31.97$, $p < 0.001$).
228 This effect is mainly driven by an increased variability of the wild community (see Fig.1)
229 which differs significantly from the crop community on a global level (Bonferroni corrected
230 pairwise Fligner test crop x wild $\chi^2 = 30.64$, $p < 0.001$), with a similar trend in the same
231 direction when compared to the weed community (Bonferroni corrected pairwise Fligner
232 test; crop x weed $\chi^2 = 5.02$, $p = 0.08$). In contrast we find that crop and weed species
233 clearly do not differ in terms of their variability (Bonferroni corrected pairwise Fligner test

234 weed x wild $\chi^2 = 1.01$, $p = 0.93$). When comparing the variability of nectar quality on a
235 species level we find that we had only had a limited number of species where we had
236 multiple nectar measurements ($N > 2$) recorded (crop $N = 18$, weed $N = 6$ and wild $N =$
237 18). Using this limited data set we find no indication of intrinsic differences in variability
238 (measured as SD) of plant species belonging to the three different (KW $\chi^2 = 2.52$, $p =$
239 0.28).

240

241 The influence of local habitat on nectar quality and its variability

242 When reanalyzing the Simidtschiev (1988) sunflower dataset comparing nectar sugar
243 concentrations we find that geographic location has a small ($\text{Median}_{\text{Toschevo}} = 30.7\%$,
244 $\text{Median}_{\text{Plovdiv}} = 36.05\%$ see Fig.2), but significant influence on nectar concentrations
245 (paired Wilcoxon test: $V = 216$, $p < 0.0001$ see Fig.2) and its variation (Fligner test $\chi^2 =$
246 6.12, $p = 0.01$ see Fig.2). When looking at the effect of non-irrigation (natural rainfall) on
247 nectar sugar concentration of the four tested sunflower varieties Simidtschievs' analysis
248 (1988) finds that in three of the four varieties watering did not significantly influence nectar
249 sugar concentration and in the fourth cultivar (hybride 260) it only decreased it by about
250 3.4% (mean irrigation = 50.3, mean natural rainfall = 53.7%).

251

252 Nectar quality on a genus level

253 In total we recorded multiple measurements for 12 crop and 15 non-crop genera and find
254 that there is a significant differences in nectar sugar concentration between them (KW
255 $\chi^2 = 100.68$, $p < 0.0001$ Fig.3). When comparing the nectar quality according to our
256 categorization (see above) our results indicate that two crop genera, namely Capsicum
257 (including paprika and chili) and Pyrus (pear), offer low quality nectar (median sugar
258 concentration $< 20\%$. (see Fig. 3). When looking at the genera offering high quality nectar
259 we were able to identify 15 Genera which provide optimal nectar concentrations (35%-
260 65%) for bees (see Fig.3).

261

262 Discussion

263 In this study we have compiled the first comprehensive data set on nectar quality provided
264 by bee visited plants in agricultural landscapes around the globe. Our data indicates that
265 nectar sugar concentrations in bee visited flowers is strongly conserved across all
266 communities and geographic regions with a median value around 40% (see Fig. 1 and
267 Tab.1). In addition, we find that wild plants exhibit stronger variation in nectar
268 concentrations at the community level when compared to crop plants. However, this
269 difference is not reflected on the species level. Using a comprehensive data set from the
270 German literature (Simidtschiev 1988) on sunflower varieties we find evidence that
271 microhabitat (e.g. water availability) and geographic region might have a more limited
272 effect on nectar sugar concentration and its variation than previously thought. Using the
273 complete data set we identify two crop genera (*Capsicum* and *Pyrus*) which provide low
274 quality nectar to bees during their flowering period and suggest 15 possible genera which
275 provide high quality nectar as potential supplement nectar source.

276 When looking at the recorded nectar sugar concentrations we find strong support
277 for the well-established idea that flowers are under strong selection pressure to provide
278 nectar suitable for their respective pollinators (Baker 1975, Harder 1986, Perret,
279 Chautems et al. 2001). In the case of bees, the literature suggests optimal values ranging
280 from 35-65% which is well supported by our data (Waller 1972, Harder 1986, Kim, Gilet
281 et al. 2011). It has been suggested that the pollinator preferences for different sugar
282 concentrations could be explained by different modes of nectar intake, which in case of
283 bees favours higher viscosity and consequently sugar concentrations (Kim, Gilet et al.
284 2011). Our results therefore indicate that nectar quality between different plant
285 communities in agricultural landscapes and their surroundings are 1) closely matched to
286 pollinators needs 2) comparable between all regions and 3) in principal likely sufficient to
287 maintain healthy bee pollinator populations.

288 In contrast to the median sugar concentrations we find elevated nectar quality
289 variability of the wild plant community compared to the crop and likely weed plants
290 communities (see Fig. 1). However, based on the results of our limited species level data

291 set we have no indication that this pattern is reflected on the species level where plants
292 of the different communities exhibited comparable variability. In particular the species
293 belonging to the weed community are interesting in this regard as they are wild species
294 which grow under (invade) standardized agricultural conditions. A priori we could expect
295 that the more standardized growing conditions in agricultural could reduce nectar quality
296 variability when compared to natural habitats. As we do not find differences between
297 these three groups on the species level our results support the view that growing
298 conditions might have a more limited influence on the variability of nectar sugar
299 concentration and supports a plant species specific nectar concentration of at least some
300 species. In turn this suggest that the observed variation on the community level likely
301 reflects the elevated phylogenetic diversity in wild plants compared to crop and weed
302 species (Meyer, DuVal et al. 2012). Indeed, when looking at the community level, we find
303 the wild community containing more than twice the number of wild genera (N=63)
304 compared to the crop (N=29), as well as the weed community (N=18), which seems the
305 most likely explanation for the observed pattern.

306 The comprehensive study of Simidtschiev (1988) offers the unique opportunity to
307 study the effects of geography and water availability on nectar sugar concentration. These
308 findings support our initial findings that geography, in this case only has a limited absolute
309 effect on nectar sugar concentration and its variation in ab (See Fig. 2). In particular the
310 fact that plants “defended” their nectar sugar concentrations against variation in water
311 availability suggest that at least sunflowers have plant species specific nectar sugar
312 concentrations. In his original analysis Simidtschiev (1988) suggests that instead of
313 changes in nectar concentration, nectar volume responds to reduced water availability,
314 which in turn reduce the caloric value and consequently resource quality for bees. It would
315 be interesting to analyse what parameters best explain the observed variation (including
316 temperature, rainfall soil types ect.) because such factor undoubtedly play a role in
317 shaping nectar concentrations to some degree (Corbet, Willmer et al. 1979).
318 Unfortunately, these parameters were not recorded by Simidtschiev (1988) for the study
319 duration. This highlights the importance of multiple measurements to adequately
320 characterize resource quality for bees. In a next step it would be very important to include
321 such measurements into the data base to provide a more detailed picture of nectar quality

322 to serve as a robust basis to improve the resource quality offered to bee populations in
323 the future.

324 In our quality analysis we have identified two genera of crop plants, which provide
325 low quality nectar sugar concentrations. While it is well-known that pears (*Pyrus*) are not
326 considered attractive to bees due to their low nectar (Fig.3) quality (Maurizio and Grafl
327 1980) the even lower levels in *Capsicum* (e.g. paprika and chilies) suggest that these
328 crop will likely not be able to sustain bee populations on their own and are likely avoided
329 by bees if alternatives are present. Such information, coupled with detailed information
330 regarding geographic abundance of these crops, could be used to identify potential
331 targets for a resource quality intervention such as agro-environmental scheme. Our data
332 suggest 15 genera which provide high quality alternatives which could be used as high-
333 quality alternative. In particular orchards might be a good target for such measures as the
334 targeted resource interventions could be located close to the orchard which in turn could
335 retain bees, in particular wild bees, in the area and increase overall pollination.

336 Our study is a first step towards the integration of resource quality in bee
337 conservation practices. The obvious next step could be to include additional quality
338 markers for nectar including nectar volume, sugar composition and non-sugar
339 components, which clearly play an important role in determining nectar quality for bees
340 (Vaudo, Tooker et al. 2015). A second important step would be to compile a similar data
341 set for the second important flower resource pollen and its quality markers such as crude
342 protein content, amino acid composition, lipid content and the presence of potential
343 adverse components. Such information should be combined with detailed geographic and
344 information on exact flowering periods in order to estimate the resource availability and
345 quality during the season in a given location and plan and implement targeted
346 interventions to support bee populations.

347 Such a tool could support farmers, Scientists, Regulators NGOs and the industry
348 when designing optimized alternative flower resources for bees in agricultural
349 landscapes. We hope that this data set will serve as a starting point to help facilitate a
350 data informed discussion about pollinator conservation in agricultural landscapes

351 between all relevant stakeholders and will ultimately help to reduce nutritional stress for
352 bee populations in modern agricultural landscapes.

353

354 Conclusion

355 In this study we conducted the first systematic review of nectar sugar quality bees
356 can encounter in agricultural landscapes in- and off-field around the globe. We report that
357 nectar sugar concentrations do not vary between regions or habitats with a median of
358 around 40% nectar total sugar concentration. We have identified several crop genera
359 providing nectar with sub optimal sugar concentrations for bees which could potentially
360 benefit from alternative nectar sources during their mass flowering period. This dataset is
361 only a first step toward integrating nectar sugar concentrations into bee management
362 practices and we hope that this data resource will facilitate communication between all
363 relevant stakeholders and ultimately help to reduce nutritional stress for bee populations
364 in modern agricultural landscapes.

365

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Figure 1(on next page)

Nectar sugar concentrations of bee visited flowers around the globe

Figure 1.: Summarizes the total nectar concentration in percent in agricultural landscapes on a continental as well as global basis. We present data for Europe, North America, South America, Africa, Australia and overall (Global) for crop, weed and wild plant communities. Results of the statistical analysis panels (Kruskal Wallis (KW) χ^2 , and p values) are presented in the upper left corner of the individual Panels.

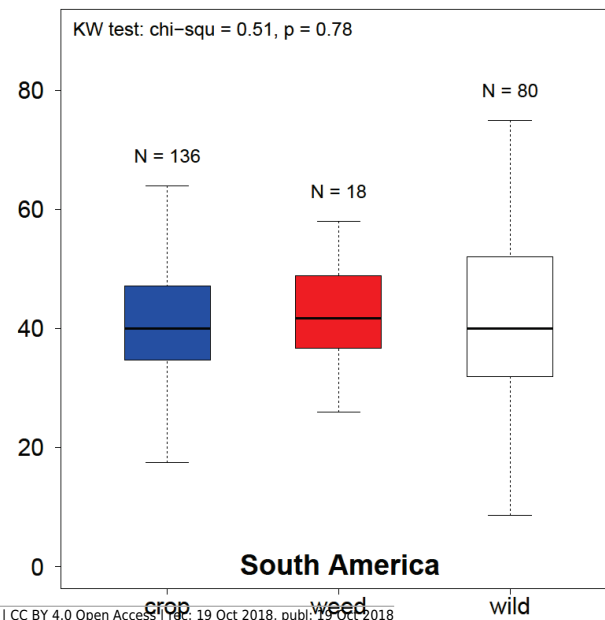
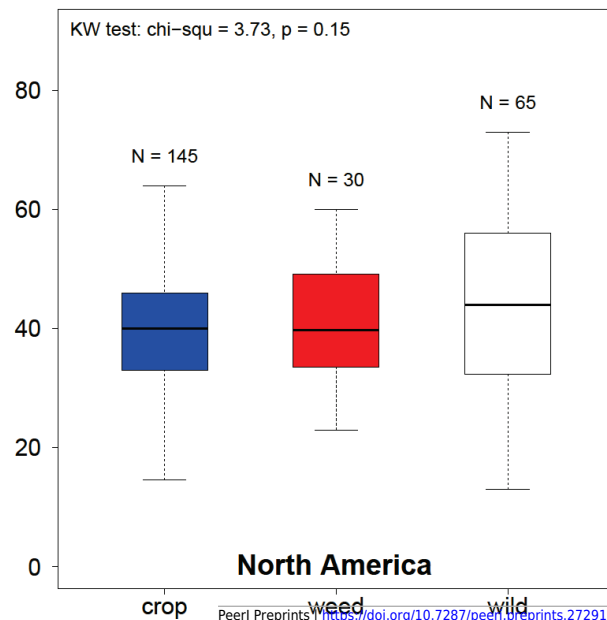
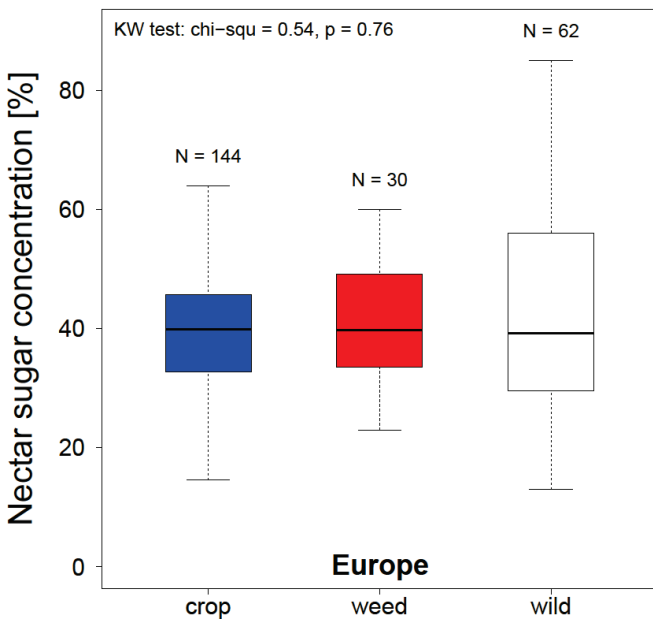
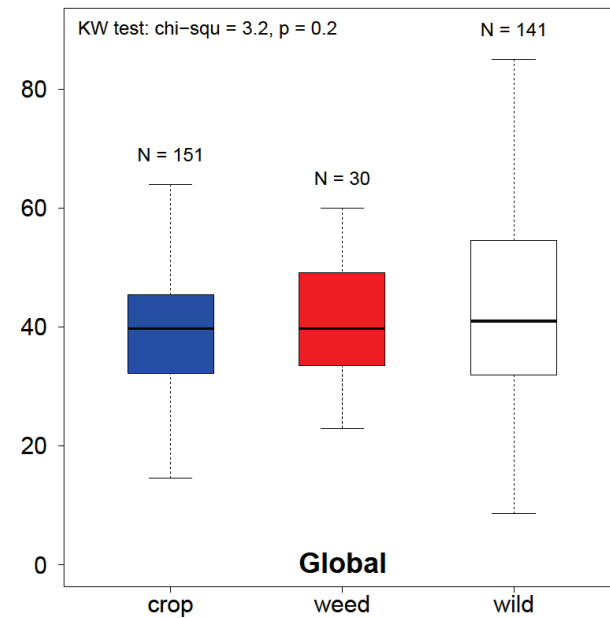
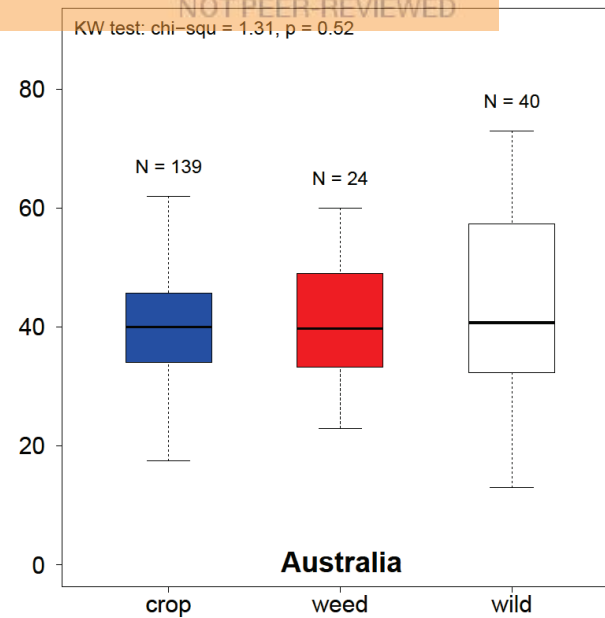
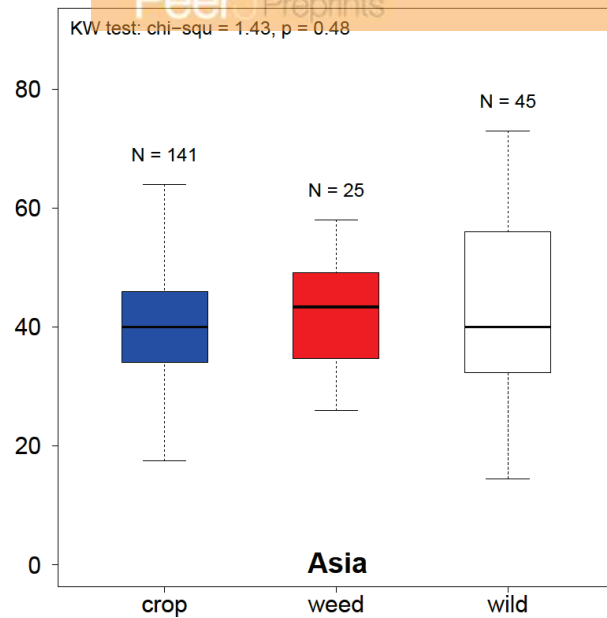
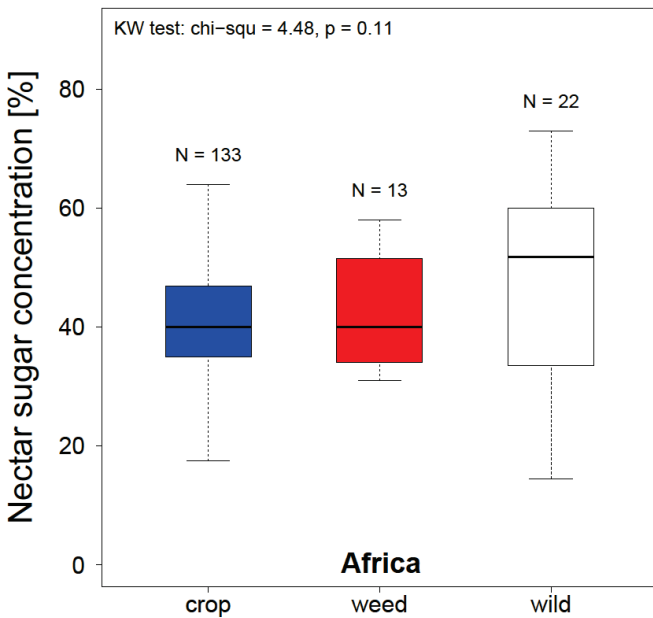


Figure 2 (on next page)

Nectar sugar concentrations of 52 sunflower varieties in two bulgarian regions

Figure 2: The graph depicts the nectar sugar concentration of 52 sunflower varieties (*Helianthus annuus*) at two geographic locations in Bulgaria - Toshevov and Plovdiv area, measured during the years 1981-1986. Data taken from (Simidtschiev 1988) .

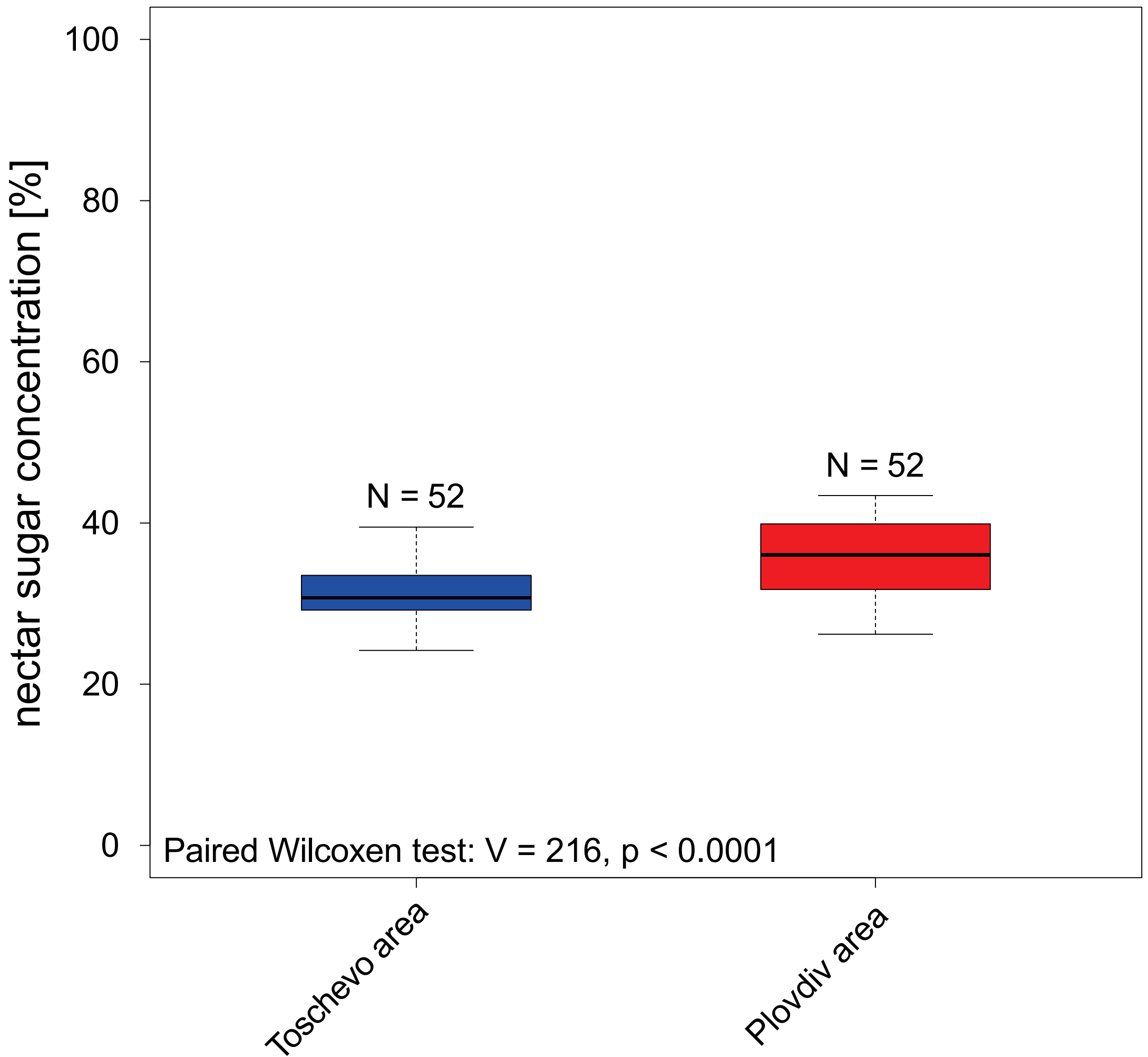


Figure 3 (on next page)

Nectar sugar concentrations of plant genera

Figure 3: Shows the distribution of nectar sugar concentration among all genera for which more than 3 measurements were available. The red lines indicate the boarder of the optimal (65-35%), adequate (35-20%) and low sugar nectar concentration (<20%). Crop genera are marked in red.

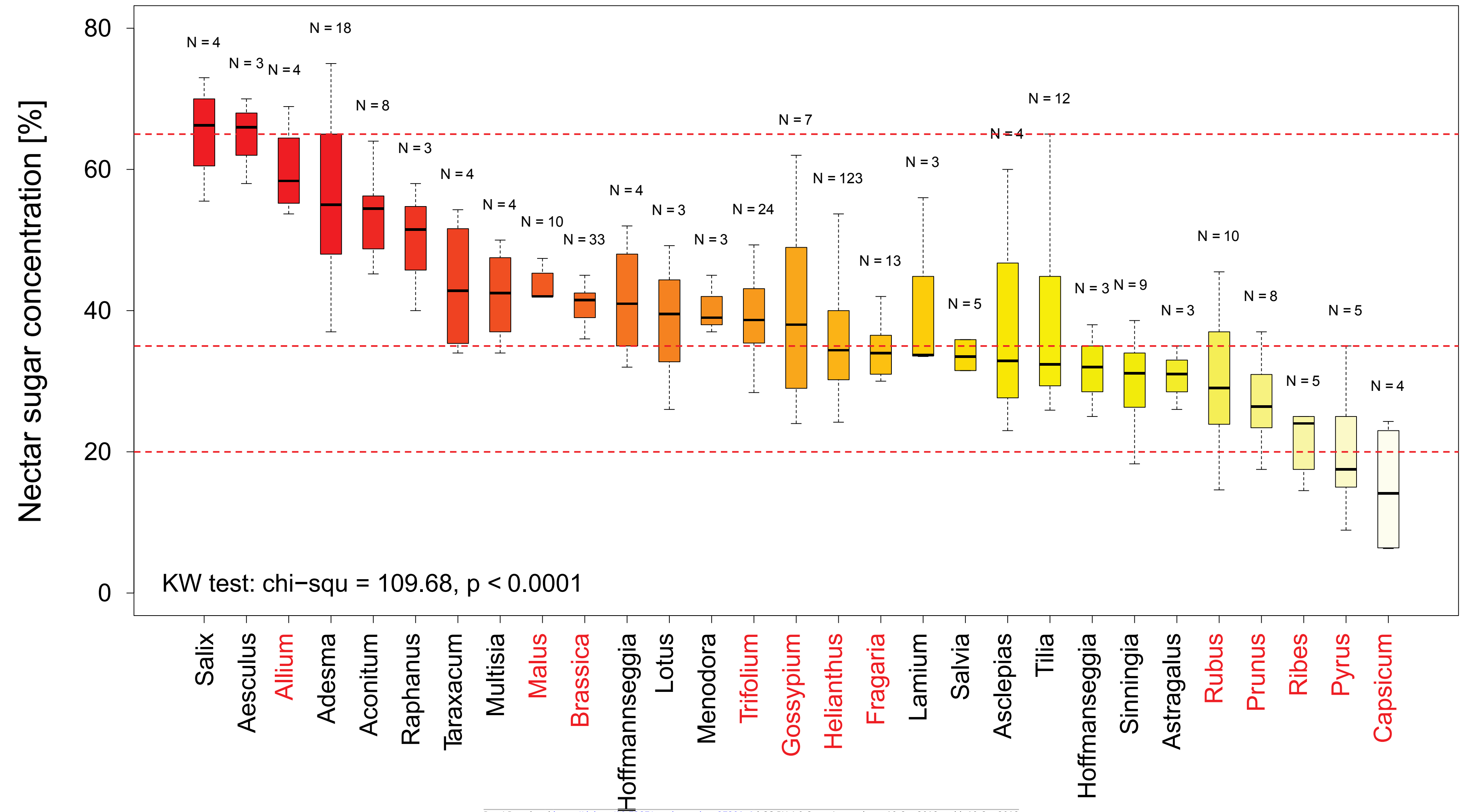


Table 1 (on next page)

Summary statistics of nectar sugar concentrations

Table 1.: Summary statistic of the sugar concentration [%] of crop, weed and wild plant communities across the globe

Table 1.: Summary statistic of the sugar concentration [%] of crop, weed and wild plant communities across the globe

Region	Community	N	median	mean	10th Percentile	25th Percentile
Global	ALL	322	40	41.0	25	32
	Crop	151	39.7	39.2	24	32
	Weed	30	39.8	41.6	30.5	33.6
	Wild	141	41	32	25	32
Europe	ALL	236	39.7	40.3	24.9	32.3
	Crop	144	39.9	39.4	24.1	32.9
	Weed	30	39.8	41.6	30.5	33.6
	Wild	62	39.3	41.7	24.9	29.9
North America	ALL	240	40	40.9	25	32.7
	Crop	145	40	39.6	24.1	33
	Weed	30	39.8	41.6	30.5	33.6
	Wild	65	44	43.8	25.3	32.3
South America	ALL	234	40	41.3	26.4	33.9
	Crop	136	40	40.8	28.3	34.9
	Weed	18	41.7	42.5	32.9	37
	Wild	80	40	42	26	32
Africa	ALL	168	41	41.9	27.5	34.9
	Crop	133	40	40.9	28.5	35
	Weed	13	40	42.8	32.8	34
	Wild	22	51.8	47.6	23.3	34
Asia	ALL	211	40	40.9	26	33
	Crop	141	40	40	25.8	34
	Weed	25	43.4	42.5	31.7	34.7
	Wild	45	40	42.9	25.4	32.3
Australia	ALL	203	40	40.9	26	33
	Crop	139	40	40	25.8	43
	Weed	24	39.8	41.6	31.4	33.4
	Wild	40	40.8	43.6	25.9	32.5

