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# Interactions between pesticides and pathogen susceptibility in honey bees

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There exist a variety of factors that negatively impact the health and survival of managed honey bee colonies, including the spread of parasites and pathogens, loss of habitat, reduced availability or quality of food resources, climate change, poor queen quality, changing cultural and commercial beekeeping practices, as well as exposure to agricultural and apicultural pesticides both in the field and in the hive. These factors are often closely intertwined, and it is unlikely that a single stressor is driving colony losses. There is a growing consensus, however, that increasing prevalence of parasites and pathogens are among the most significant threats to manage bee colonies. Unfortunately, improper management of hives by beekeepers may exacerbate parasite populations and disease transmission. Furthermore, research continues to accumulate that describes the complex and largely harmful interactions that exist between pesticide exposure and bee immunity. This brief review summarizes our progress in understanding the impact of pesticide exposure on bees at the individual, colony, and community level.

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## Introduction

Bees are important pollinators of many crops and native plants, contributing about one-third of the human diet globally and providing immeasurable ecosystem services [1–3]. There are ca. 4000 species of bees across North America, but a number of species have exhibited population declines [4,5], including several bumble bee species that have decreased in both abundance (up to 96%) and geographical range (23–87%) [6]. Similar declines have also been reported in solitary species, particularly with bees that are habitat and flower specialists [7].

Additionally, beekeepers have reported economically unsustainable, annual honey bee colony losses of ca. 31–46% since 2010 [8]. Research efforts are focused on the relationship between current agricultural practices and consistent losses of honey bee colonies. This includes large-scale conversion of natural landscapes into productive crop fields, which has led to a reduction in forage availability and malnutrition, as well as increased pesticide exposures to bees [4,8–18,19\*,20–22]. Other factors that affect honey bee health can include parasites and pathogens, with increased infestations and infections, respectively, in colonies with reduced immunocompetence caused by poor nutrition and exposure to pesticides [23–26,27\*\*].

There are multiple interacting stressors that affect honey bee colonies. For example, the ectoparasitic mite *Varroa destructor* feeds on the hemolymph of bees, resulting in physiological deficiencies that reduce overwintering success for the colony [28]. Moreover, physical damage to the bee cuticle caused by mite feeding can introduce several viruses into host bees [29,30]. If unmanaged, *Varroa* mite infestations can increase the mortality of bees in the colony within one season [31,32]. The lack of, or improper, *Varroa* mite management is a significant driver for losses among beginning and hobbyist beekeepers [33]. However, *Varroa* mites continue to be the major reason for the use of beekeeper-applied miticides or varroacides since their introduction to the U.S. [34,35]. These apicultural pesticides, along with agricultural pesticides (insecticides, fungicides, herbicides) transported to the hive by foraging bees, may result in synergistic interactions that cause higher toxicity than compounds acting alone [36–40,41\*]. Pesticides may also accumulate in the hive, affect brood development, and increase selection pressure for varroacide-resistant mites [42–44]. Laboratory studies often examine individual stressors for direct evidence of their adverse effects on bees; however, complex stressor interactions and the ability for bees to socially or behaviorally defend themselves have made it difficult to understand the causes and effects of stressor interaction in the field [25,41\*,45,46]. This review examines the current literature focusing on pesticide exposure and pathogen impacts on honey bees, with emphasis on the interface between these stressors at different levels of biological organization (i.e., individual to colony to apiary).

## Individual-level effects

Laboratory studies have demonstrated that exposure to sublethal doses of pesticides can negatively affect honey

## 2 Parasites/parasitoids/biological control

90 bee behavior [47,48], foraging [49], longevity [43], and  
 91 olfactory learning and memory [50–53]. Pesticide expo-  
 92 sure can also impair honey bee detoxification pathways  
 93 [54], and the harmful effects of interactions between  
 94 multiple pesticides in bees appear to be nearly as complex  
 95 as the drug interactions observed in mammals [39,55].  
 96 More pertinent to concerns related to the increasing role  
 97 of pathogens in colony decline is the impact of pesticide  
 98 exposure on the immune response of honey bees and  
 99 their ability to resist or tolerate pathogen infection. The  
 100 pathogen most commonly used in laboratory studies has  
 101 been the microsporidium *Nosema ceranae*, which has  
 102 proven the most tractable in controlled infection studies.  
 103 Significant effects on honey bee immune responsiveness  
 104 to infection with *Nosema* have been observed with expo-  
 105 sure to neonicotinoid pesticides [23,24,56–58,59\*\*,60\*\*],  
 106 fipronil [23,57,61], as well as fungicides [62], in addition to  
 107 altered queen physiology and survival [59\*\*] and reduced  
 108 sperm viability and gene expression [60\*\*]. More note-  
 109 worthy, given the widespread prevalence of agricultural  
 110 and apicultural pesticide residues in the hive environ-  
 111 ment [42], is the finding that bees exposed to these  
 112 residues in the hive also have increased susceptibility  
 113 to *Nosema* [62,63]. With regards to other honey bee  
 114 pathogens, harmful interactions have been demonstrated  
 115 between viral pathogenicity and exposure to the neoni-  
 116 cotinoid pesticide clothianidin [26], as well as the pyre-  
 117 throid miticide *tau*-fluvalinate [64]. Recent work has also  
 118 employed a model insect virus [65\*\*] to reveal that  
 119 exposure to the formamidine miticide amitraz increases  
 120 mortality associated with viral infections [66\*]. In addition  
 121 to pesticide exposure, there is also mounting evidence  
 122 that organosilicone spray adjuvants used in various pesti-  
 123 cide formulations may pose a more serious threat than  
 124 previously realized, as they have been demonstrated to  
 125 both impair olfactory learning [67] and increase viral  
 126 pathogenicity in bees [68\*]. Another exciting recent study  
 127 shows a synergistic interaction when bee larvae are  
 128 exposed to clothianidin or the organophosphate dimetho-  
 129 ate in combination with *Paenibacillus larvae*, the causa-  
 130 tive agent of American foulbrood [69]. Finally, gene  
 131 expression studies have also suggested that thymol, for-  
 132 mic acid, and the phosphorothioate miticide coumaphos  
 133 may suppress expression of genes related to bee immu-  
 134 nity [70]. A number of recent reviews address in greater  
 135 detail the links between pesticides and bee diseases  
 136 [71\*\*] and provide some discussion of improvements  
 137 and future directions for this research [72\*\*]. Although  
 138 there exist ample correlative studies to suggest a link  
 139 between pesticide exposure and the ability of bees to  
 140 resist or tolerate pathogen infection, there is very little  
 141 known about the mechanisms of such a connection. One  
 142 outlier is a study describing a negative modulator of NF-  
 143  $\kappa$ B activation (NF- $\kappa$ B function reviewed here [73]) that  
 144 reduces honey bee immunocompetence when exposed to  
 145 clothianidin and another neonicotinoid, imidacloprid, but  
 146 not when exposed to the organophosphate chlorpyrifos

[26]. Two recent studies also described an important role  
 147 for the evolutionarily conserved ATP-sensitive inwardly  
 148 rectifying potassium ( $K_{ATP}$ ) channel in the regulation of  
 149 honey bee cardiac function [65\*\*] and antiviral immunity  
 150 [74\*\*]. This supports earlier findings that  $K_{ATP}$  channels  
 151 play a role in mediating fruit fly survival during viral  
 152 infections similar to that observed in mammals [75].  
 153 Although the exact mechanism has yet to be elucidated,  
 154 evidence suggests that  $K_{ATP}$  channels have a function in  
 155 modulating antiviral RNAi by facilitating tissue-specific  
 156 regulation of innate immune response mechanisms by the  
 157 cellular environment of the heart [76]. Taken together,  
 158 these studies also support the hypothesis that disruption  
 159 of cardiac function and subsequent inability to maintain  
 160 homeostasis may reduce the ability of bees to tolerate  
 161 infection by pathogens [66\*], providing another possible  
 162 mechanism by which cardioactive pesticides could reduce  
 163 honey bee immunocompetence. 164

### Colony-level effects 165

Pesticide effects on honey bee colonies are typically  
 166 studied in the field; however, the number of interacting  
 167 biotic and abiotic stressors that can affect these colonies  
 168 presents variables that are difficult to manage with these  
 169 studies. Additionally, social bee behaviors, such as age-  
 170 based divisions of labor, can cause disparities in the  
 171 evaluation of pesticide exposures, toxicities, and risks  
 172 to the different castes and their roles in the colony  
 173 [38,77,78]. For example, older forager bees are more  
 174 likely to be exposed to pesticides via contact or oral  
 175 exposure to contaminated nectar and water sources than  
 176 younger nurse bees, and these older bees are reported to  
 177 be more sensitive to these pesticide exposures  
 178 [79,80\*\*,81\*,82\*]. By contrast, nurse bees are more likely  
 179 to be exposed to pesticide-contaminated pollen than  
 180 forager bees, since the nurse bees consume pollen to  
 181 produce glandular secretions to feed brood and queen  
 182 bees. Nurse bees infected by *Varroa* mites and feeding on  
 183 pesticide-contaminated pollen may have higher virus  
 184 titers compared to those feeding on uncontaminated  
 185 pollen and, in turn, can increase the risk of transmitting  
 186 viruses to the brood and queen during feeding [78,83–85].  
 187 Additionally, young adult bees emerging from parasitized  
 188 pupae may be disproportionately impacted by *Varroa*  
 189 mites as multiple mites reproduce and feed within the  
 190 developing pupal cell. Heavy parasitism alters physio-  
 191 logical features critical for winter survival in host bees and  
 192 may lead to developmental abnormalities such as mal-  
 193 formed wings caused by *Varroa*-vectored deformed wing  
 194 virus [86,87]. In addition, the exposure of bees to pesti-  
 195 cides can not only adversely affect brood care and pro-  
 196 duction, but can affect other caste behaviors such as  
 197 mating, egg laying, and other routine tasks that support  
 198 healthy colony numbers. Forager bees exposed to certain  
 199 pesticides are reported to exhibit impaired foraging beha-  
 200 viors and cognitive functions that not only lead to reduced  
 201 food stores, lower brood production, and higher pathogen 202

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