

ORIGINAL RESEARCH ARTICLE

Non-pollinating floral visitors of the *Cucurbita* genus plants and their relationship with the presence of pollinating bees

Mariana Paola Mazzei^{1*}, José Luis Vesprini², Leonardo Galetto²

¹Instituto de Investigaciones de Ciencias Agrarias de Rosario, CONICET, Universidad Nacional de Rosario, Argentina. E-mail: mariana.mazzei@unr.edu.ar

²Instituto Multidisciplinario de Biología Vegetal, CONICET, Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, Argentina.

ABSTRACT

Flower-visiting insects may be pollinators or, conversely, unrelated to the reproductive process of plants. Interactions between pollinating and non-pollinating flower visitors can negatively influence pollen transfer. Little is known about the effects of bee visits on pollination of squash (*Cucurbita* spp.) flowers and their interactions with the presence of other floral visitors. The study was conducted at the Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias (Universidad Nacional de Rosario) in the south of Santa Fe (Argentina) and evaluated the effect of the presence of non-pollinating floral visitors on bee foraging in the flowers of two cultivated squash species. Flower sex and squash species *C. maxima* and *C. moschata* were included as variables. A total of 937 visitors were recorded in 403 flowers. Bees of the tribes Eucerini and Apini were the most abundant pollinators with an average of 2.3 individuals per flower during 10 minutes of observation. Diptera, flower sex and squash species did not influence the number of bee visits, whereas the prolonged stay of coleoptera and formicids negatively affected the presence of bees on both squash species. The presence of coleoptera reduced bee visits by 38%, while in the presence of ants, bees did not visit the flowers. The theft of nectar and pollen by non-pollinating floral visitors could have a negative effect on the reproductive success of squash.

Keywords: Coleoptera; Diptera; Formicidae; Interaction; Squash

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 15 June 2021
Accepted: 25 July 2021
Available online: 7 August 2021

COPYRIGHT

Copyright © 2021 by author(s).
Trends in Horticulture is published by
EnPress Publisher LLC. This work is li-
censed under the Creative Commons At-
tribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International
License (CC BY-NC 4.0).
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>

1. Introduction

Biological pollination by native insects is a common good provided by the ecosystem for agricultural producers and therefore this ecological process is considered an ecosystem service. Pollination contributes to human well-being by maintaining and enhancing fruit and seed production in natural ecosystem species and crops within agricultural ecosystems. Ecosystem services depend on biodiversity and vice versa, because they involve a complex set of direct and indirect interactions between multiple functional groups of organisms such as herbivores, pathogens, predators and pollinators^[1]. Floral visitors can play different roles in the flower, such as pollination in the case of pollinating bees, or be unrelated to the reproductive process, for example, herbivorous arthropods, although the latter consume nectar or pollen^[2] or yeasts that decrease sugar concentration^[3]. Some visitors may prey on floral structures such as petals, sepals and stigmas; for example, adult beetles of *Diabrotica speciosa* are known and very damaging predators of squash flowers^[4].

Flower herbivory has indirect negative effects on pollinator visitation frequency due to reduced corolla size, flower number, flower

lifespan, quantity and quality of available pollen, and destruction of entire sex organs^[5-10]. Nectar consumption by non-pollinator visitors can produce changes in the behavior of legitimate pollinators by altering flight distances, the number of flowers visited, and the time spent at each flower^[11], thus contributing to an antagonistic relationship between pollinator and non-pollinator visitors.

On the other hand, interactions between different visitors can influence the role of the main pollinator; for example, aggressive visitors that displace other floral visitors^[12]. Ants are considered aggressive visitors because of their role in defending plants against herbivorous arthropods^[13]. Several studies show an antagonistic relationship between different ant species with pollinators such as bees^[14,15]. In fact, some plants have developed systems to protect their flowers by producing extrafloral nectar collected by ants and differentiated from floral nectar used by pollinators^[16,17]. An example of these plants with extrafloral nectaries are several species of the genus *Cucúrbita*, since in addition to having nectar glands in the flowers that are related to crop pollination, they also have this type of glands in vegetative parts related to ant attraction^[18]. Other plants have structures that hinder access to nectar by non-pollinating insects, such as trichomes on the nectaries or smooth, slippery and adhesive surfaces on the petals^[19].

Coleoptera or Diptera can negatively influence the frequency of visits of main pollinators to flowers by consuming nectar and/or pollen^[2,20,21]. *Dia-brotica speciosa*, for example, is a very abundant coleopteran in squash crops, which in addition to feeding on leaves and petals, are consumers of pollen and nectar^[22].

Fruit production in squash crop is pollinator dependent by having separate male and female flowers (dichlino-monoecious plants)^[23]. Plants initially produce only male flowers and continue to produce them usually in a higher proportion to female flowers^[24]; of the total female flowers produced by a plant, only 20–50% reach harvest as fruits. Flowers of both sexes of *C. maxima* and *C. moschata* produce nectar, although female flowers produce greater quantities than male flowers^[24,25].

Added to this, size and floral morphology play an important role in the frequency of visits received by each flower type and among different *Cucurbita* species. For example, the male flowers of *C. moschata* possibly receive more pollinators than the female ones, because the corolla allows a faster and easier access of the pollinator to the nectary, which is larger and has a wider opening; at the same time, the flowers of *C. maxima* are smaller than those of *C. moschata* and the female ones have the style and gynoecium closer to the petals^[24].

In squash, pollen grains are heavy, sticky and have pollen cement^[26], and pollination has been described as entomophilous^[27]. In South America, different species of bees have been found pollinating species of the genus *Cucurbita*. Among them, the most abundant are *Apis mellifera* (Tribe: Apini)^[23,26,28-30,26] and *Trígona spinipes* (Tribe: Meliponini)^[29]. In Central America the most abundant bees are *A. mellifera*^[31,32], *Augochlora nigrocyanea* (Tribe: Augochlorini)^[32,33], *Xenoglossa gabbi* (Tribe: Eucerini)^[34] and species of the genus *Peponapis* (Tribe: Eucerini)^[31,33,35].

It was hypothesized in this study that bee visits to squash flowers are negatively affected by the presence of non-pollinating floral visitors. Specific predictions were as follows: (1) *Cucurbita* flowers with non-pollinating floral visitors receive fewer visits from pollinating bees than flowers without; (2) the magnitude of the reduction in the number of bee visits in flowers depends on the identity of the non-pollinating floral visitor; and (3) *Curcurbita* species and flower sex differentially affect the number of bee visits per flower.

2. Materials and methods

The research was conducted in Santa Fe, Pampas region of Argentina, during the December to February 2019, which corresponds to the squash flowering season. Previously, this region was an extensive grassland that has become one of the largest agricultural regions in the world (~5 Mha)^[36]. Herbicide-tolerant soybean and corn are the predominant summer crops, while fallow fields abound in winter^[37]. Horticultural crops are restricted to small orchards near cities.

Three orchards in the south of the province of Santa Fe were selected for this study: one in the town of Funes (32°53'33.10" S 60°49'50.16" W) and two in the town of Zavalla (30°01'52.43" S 60°53'50.02" W and 33°01'49.32" S 60°53'03.48" W). The predominant soils in the area are Mollisols and the climate is temperate. Samples and observations were taken in the warm season with an average of 24 °C per day and an average rainfall of 110 mm per month. In the research orchards, *C. maxima* Duch. and *C. moschata* Duch. were planted simultaneously in plots of approximately 100 m², at a distance of more than 1,000 m from each other and with controlled agroecological management.

On sunny days with low wind speed, during the anthesis hours (5:30–13:30), random sampling stations corresponding to different plants were established in each orchard. The data recorded the results of evaluations on 403 flowers, 337 male and 66 female, belonging to 226 of *C. maxima* and 177 of *C. moschata*, during a total of 67 hours distributed in 16 days.

At each sampling station, a squash flower was observed for 10 min and records were taken on the type of floral visitors present on the corolla, squash species and sex of the flower. Floral visitors were classified as: (1) visitors of floral Pollinating (VFP) are those that remained for 10 sec or more in contact with the reproductive organs of the flower in search of nectar or pollen; in addition, they presented morphological characteristics adapted for the collection and dispersion of pollen, such as the presence of combs or corbiculae on the hind legs, presence of hairs on the abdomen, and remained in the flower for a period of time less than the complete observation period, that is, they have a high degree of displacement between flowers; (2) non-pollinating visitors (NPV), those that did not present the morphological characteristics mentioned above and that also remained in the same flower for a time greater than 10 min, with little displacement between flowers. In each observed flower, the number of bees or VFPs was counted to generate the variable number of bee visits, also taking into account the identity of each VFP observed in or-

der to evaluate the possible differential effect of each of these on pollinators. The importance of each VFP was rated according to the number of visits recorded; those whose appearance was less than 6% of the flowers evaluated were not considered in the comparative analysis. Each floral visitor was recorded in a photo and once captured, it was preserved in an insectary. Subsequently, each specimen was observed under a 40x magnifying glass and with the help of bibliographic records^[38–40] were taxonomically classified to the lowest possible level; in the case of not being able to reach species, the concept of morphological species was used.

A binary data matrix included squash species, flower sex, VFNP and presence/absence of bees (VFP). This matrix was used to determine the 'probability of bee presence', that is, the probability of a flower occupied by VFNP for more than 10 min of being visited by bees (VFP). For this variable, the Bernoulli probability distribution was considered, due to the nature of the data (non-clustered binary). The matrix for the variable Number of Bee Visits contained the same variables mentioned above, but the response variable reached values between 1 and 15. The error distribution was determined through the Fitdist function of the Fitdistrplus package^[41]. The probability of presence and number of bee visits were analyzed by Generalized Linear Models (GLMs) using the GLM function of the lme4 statistical package^[42]. All data analysis and graphs were performed by means of the statistical software R Project^[43].

The categorical explanatory variables of the corresponding models were in order of importance: presence of VFNP, *Curcubita* species and flower sex. The most 'parsimonious' model was chosen by the maximum likelihood method through the Anova function. The plots were constructed with the Visreg function of the same package and are of contrast type^[44]. To assess the quality of the fitted models of the binary response variable Probability of Presence, the normality of the residuals was observed using the DHARMA library^[45] with 500 simulations. ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic) and AUC (Area Under the Curve) curves corresponding to each

Table 1. Floral visitors recorded on squash flowers

Order	Superfamily	Family	Subfamily	Tribe	Genre	Species
Visitors of Pollinating floral (VFP)						
Hymenoptera	Apoidea	Apidae	Apinae	Apini	<i>Apis</i>	<i>A. mellifera</i>
			Apinae	Eucerini	<i>Peponapis</i>	<i>P. fervens</i>
			Apinae	Eucerini	<i>Thygater</i>	<i>T. analis</i>
			Apinae	Eucerini	<i>Melissoptila</i>	-
Low-abundance VFP						
Hymenoptera	Apoidea	Apidae	Apinae	Bombini	<i>Bombus</i>	-
		Halictidae	Halictinae	Caenonactinini	-	-
Lepidoptera	Pyraloidea	Crambidae	Spilomelinae	Margaroniini	Diaphania	<i>D. hyalinata</i>
Non-pollinating floral visitors (NPV)						
Diptera	Ephydroidea	Drosophilidae	-	-	-	-
Coleoptera	Chrysomeloidea	Chrysomelidae	Galerucinae	Luperini	<i>Diabrotica</i>	<i>D. speciosa</i>
Hymenoptera	Vespoidea	Formicidae	Formicinae	Plagiolepidini	<i>Plagiolepis</i>	<i>P. alluaudi</i>

Low abundant VFP: pollinating floral visitors that appeared in less than 6% of the flowers evaluated. Halictidae were recorded in 21 of the 403 total flowers and bumblebees and lepidoptera were censused outside the sampling stations (flowers).

Source: Faculty of Agricultural Sciences (National University of Rosario), Santa Fe, Argentina.

model were calculated by means of the ROCR library^[46]. To assess the quality of the models for the Poisson response variable “number of visits”, the Graphics library^[43] was used as supplementary material.

3. Results

The most abundant VFP were bees of the morphological Tribe Eucerini (3) and Apini: *A. mellifera* (1) (**Table 1**). A total of 937 individuals and an average of 2.3 visits per flower during 10 min were recorded. In some flowers no bees were observed pollinating, while in others a maximum of 15 individuals were recorded. The bees visited a total of 271 flowers of which 192 did not record VFNP. In those flowers the average was 2.7 visits per flower for 10 min. VFNP individuals were present in 132 flowers including: 76 small Diptera (<5 mm) of the family Drosophilidae, 28 Coleoptera of the species *D. speciosa* and 28 Formicidae of the species *Plagiolepis alluaudi* (**Table 1**; **Figure 1**). Bee visits in flowers occupied by VFNP were, on average, 2.2, 1.5 and 0 every 10 min, in flowers with presence of Diptera, Coleoptera and ants, respectively.

The Probability of Bee Presence was significant ($P < 0.001$) only for the variable Presence of VFNP, excluding the variables *Cucurbita* Species and Flower Sex (**Table 2**). No bees were observed

on flowers with *P. alluaudi* present (**Figure 2**); consequently, for the second model with the response variable number of bee visits the *P. alluaudi* category was not incorporated. The Poisson probability distribution was the best fit for the response variable number of bee visits. The most parsimonious and explanatory model was the one that included the variable presence of VFNP ($P < 0.05$) and excluded the other variables (**Table 2**). Multiple comparisons between VFNP and flowers without VFNP presence showed that there were differences ($P < 0.05$) in the number of bee visits between *D. speciosa* categories and empty flowers; on the other hand, pollinator bee visits decreased 38% in flowers with coleopteran presence (**Figure 3**). On the other hand, the presence of Drosophilidae had no significant effect (**Table 2**).



Figure 1. Non-pollinating floral visitors (NPVs) found on squash flowers.

Table 2. Models constructed for each response variable and the significances of the explanatory variables included

Model	AIC	GI	VFNP	Species of cucurbita	Sex of the flower
Probability of bee presence (error distribution: Bernoulli)					
VFNP + Cucurbita+ species sex of the flower	427.8174	6	P < 0.001	0.95506	0.07681
VFNP+Species	428.9485	5	P < 0.001	0.95506	-
VFNP	426.9517	4	P < 0.001	-	-
Number of bee visits (error distribution: Poisson)					
VFNP + cucurbita+ species sex of the flower	1017.041	6	P < 0.05	0.78106	0.20514
VFNP + species	1016.646	5	P < 0.05	0.78106	-
VFNP	1014.724	4	P < 0.05	-	-

Source: Faculty of Agricultural Sciences (National University of Rosario), Santa Fe, Argentina.

AIC: Akaike information criterion, VFNP: non-pollinating floral visitors, GI: degrees of freedom.

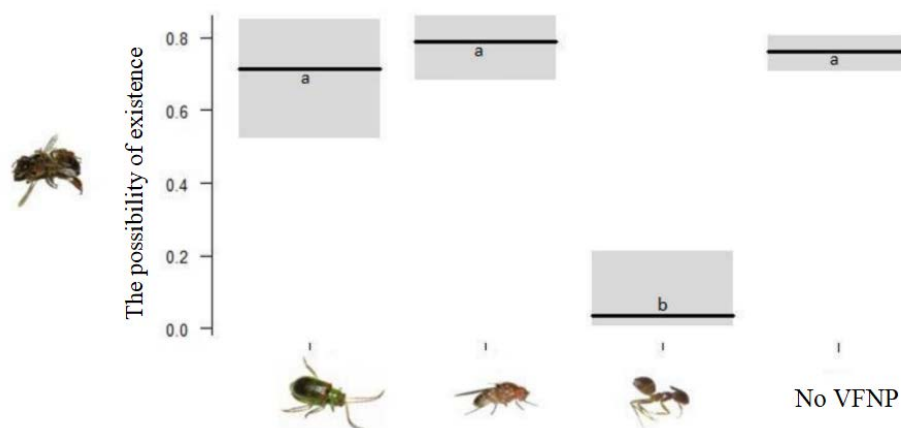


Figure 2. Probability of presence of pollinating bees in *Cucurbit* flowers with *Diabrotica speciosa*, Drosophilidae, and *Plagiolepis alluaudi*, and in flowers without VFNP (in order from left to right).

Note: The probability of pollinator bee presence decreased with the presence of *P. alluaudi* ($P < 0.001$).

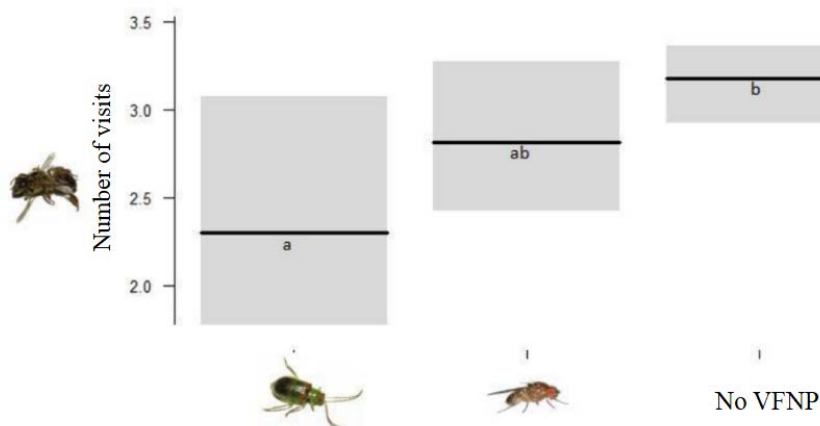


Figure 3. Average number of bee visits every ten minutes in flowers with *Diabrotica speciosa* and Drosophilidae, and without non-pollinating floral visitors (NPV), (in order from left to right).

Note: Visitation values are expressed as the result of the link function used by the Logit model. The horizontal lines on the x-axis represent the values for each category of the explanatory variable VFNP. Flowers with *D. speciosa* present had 38% fewer bee visits than empty flowers ($P < 0.05$).

From top to bottom: Female flower of *Cucurbita moschata* with Drosophilidae and a bee feeding on nectar obtained from the floral nectaries. Male

flower of *C. maxima* with *Diabrotica speciosa*. Male flower of *C. maxima* with *Plagiolepis alluaudi*.

4. Discussion

In several studies, representatives of the tribe Eucerini were found in different cultivated cucurbittas, including: *C. ficifolia*, *C. maxima*, *C. mixta*, *C. moschata*, *C. pepo* and in wild cucurbittas^[23,27,31,33–35,47,48], while *A. melifera* was recorded only in some cultivated species such as *C. maxima*, *C. moschata* and *C. pepo*^[24,26,29,30,47,49,50]. Although in this study it was observed that many squash flowers were not visited by bees due to the interference of VFNPs, visits were recorded in flowers without VFNP being, on average, 15.6 visits/flower and per hour, with a maximum of 90 visits; these values are high compared to other studies^[30,49]. It is possible that at the time of the observations the recorded wild pollinator community was actively foraging the crop flowers without VFNP during anthesis being, on average, 93.6 the number of bee visits/flower during the whole floral opening.

Generally, squash flowers host Coleoptera (*Diabrotica* sp., *Acalymma vittatum* and *Cyclocephala borealis*) and small Diptera (Drosophilidae) that stay up to 30 min in the flowers^[24,26,47,50]. In this work, some of these groups were found to interfere with pollinator visits, so their presence would have impacts on the pollen transfer process in this crop.

No conclusive results were found on the possible influence of floral morphology and nectar and pollen supply on bee visits between floral sexes and *Cucurbita* species. Although some authors in Nigeria, Peru, and Italy did observe a higher number of bee visits on female flowers than on male flowers of *C. moschata* and *C. pepo*^[24,51,52], although these were mainly by *Apis*. In contrast, the observations in the present study found members of the tribe Eucerini, whose genera are considered specialized pollinators for the genus *Cucúrbita*^[35,48]. Both these bee genera and the genus *Cucúrbita* are native to the Americas^[27,53,54] as evidenced by old records of some bees for Argentina^[55–57]. It is possible that the foraging of eucerine bees is not differential between flower sexes due to the specialization of the genus mentioned above.

Ant behavior on flowers varies by species, some are aggressive, negatively affecting bee

and bumblebee visits^[14,15,58,59], while other species are not and their presence has shown no effect on pollinator activity in Boraginaceae and Orchidaceae^[60,61]. In other cases, ants favored the presence of some large pollinators such as bumblebees of the genus *Xylocopa* in flowers of *Melastoma malabathricum*, by deterring smaller and less efficient pollinators such as Halictidae of the genus *Nomia*^[62].

Acuña-Perandrés^[63] considers *Pheidole pallidula* as important in the pollination of *C. pepo*; although he considers that ants experience a great loss of pollen load that must be compensated with a high frequency of visits. In general, the role of ants as pollinators was discarded in this study, because the antecedents indicate that ants have little specificity in flower selection, do not have specific structures for pollen transport, and some species inhibit pollen grain germination by secretions from metapleural glands^[19]. In addition, pollen grains in squash are comparatively large (0.1–0.2 mm in diameter)^[24,26] to be transported by small insects, flowers remain open for few hours and the mobility of ants between flowers is very low probably as a consequence of the high nectar source in the flower. In addition, they tend to be pollinators of plants with dense inflorescences because of the type of movements they make, which is mainly within and between nearby inflorescences^[64,65].

Some works show that by simultaneously increasing pollination and pest control, reproductive yields are exceeded compared to the sum of each activity separately^[26,58,66]; a possible explanation could be the response of bees in the presence of coleoptera, as confirmed in this study. Bees tend to avoid *C. maxima* flowers when *Acalymma xantographa* and other coleopterans are present^[26]. However, no aggressive behavior of coleopterans towards bees was recorded in this work, so the reduction in the number of visits in flowers with *D. speciosa* could be due to the decrease in space or resources available in the flower, since this coleopteran species consumes nectar and pollen. To confirm this inference, it would be interesting to evaluate during anthesis the amounts of nectar present in flowers with or without *D. speciosa*. Also, in addition to this direct interaction between coleopterans

and pollinators, a possible indirect interaction with an important role on bee foraging behavior caused by *D. speciosa* damage to flower structures should be considered. *speciosa* to flower structures (petals, nectaries, and buds) that impact bee attractiveness and reduce visits^[6,7,29,67,68]. In addition, nectar and pollen theft by VFNP such as ants and coleoptera may have an overall detrimental effect on pollen deposition and fruit production in flowers with VFNP^[69] so it would be interesting to evaluate this fact in future research.

5. Conclusions

The prolonged stay (>10 min) of ants and coleoptera on the flowers of both squash species negatively affected bee visits. The presence of *Plagiolipsis alluaudi* is associated with a very low probability of bee presence, while the number of visits decreases with the presence of *Diabrotica speciosa*. *Drosophilidae* sp., flower sex and *Cucurbita* species had no direct influence on bee visits to squash flowers.

Acknowledgments

Thanks to the external reviewers for their valuable suggestions, to Dr. Fernando López Anido for his advice, Dr. María de los Milagros Dalmazzo for her help with taxonomic identification, to the Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias (UNR), to CONICET, FONCyT and SECyT (UNC).

Conflict of interest

The authors declared no conflict of interest.

References

1. Wielgoss A, Tschamtko T, Rumed A, *et al.* Interaction complexity matters: Disentangling services and disservices of ant communities driving yield in tropical agroecosystems. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 2014; 281(1775): 20132144.
2. Wäckers FL, Romeis J, van Rijn P. Nectar and pollen feeding by insect herbivores and implications for multitrophic interactions. *Annual Review of Entomology* 2007; 52: 301–323.
3. Herrera CM, de Vega C, Canto A, *et al.* Yeasts in floral nectar: A quantitative survey. *Annals of Botany* 2009; 103(9): 1415–1423.
4. Walsh GC. Host range and reproductive traits of *Diabrotica speciosa* (Germar) and *Diabrotica viridula* (F.) (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae), two species of South American pest rootworms, with notes on Other Species of *Diabroticina*. *Environmental Entomology* 2003; 32(2): 276–285.
5. Herrera CM, Medrano M, Rey PJ, *et al.* Interaction of pollinators and herbivores on plant fitness suggests a pathway for correlated evolution of mutualism-and antagonism-related traits. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 2002; 99(26): 16823–16828.
6. Leavitt H, Robertson IC. Petal herbivory by chrysomelid beetles (*Phyllotreta* sp.) is detrimental to pollination and seed production in *Lepidium papilliferum* (Brassicaceae). *Ecological Entomology* 2006; 31(6): 657–660.
7. McCall AC, Irwin RE. Florivory: The intersection of pollination and herbivory. *Ecology Letters* 2006; 9(12): 1351–1365.
8. Schemske DW, Horvitz CC. Plant-animal interactions and fruit production in a neotropical herb: A path analysis. *Ecology* 1988; 69(4): 1128–1137.
9. Strauss SY. Floral characters link herbivores, pollinators, and plant fitness. *Ecology* 1997; 78(6): 1640–1645.
10. Sutter L, Albrecht M. Synergistic interactions of ecosystem services: Florivorous pest control boosts crop yield increase through insect pollination. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 2016; 283(1824): 20152529.
11. Maloof JE, Inouye DW. Are nectar robbers cheaters or mutualists? *Ecology* 2000; 81(10): 2651–2661.
12. Trejo-Salazar RE, Scheinvar E, Eguiarte LE. Who really pollinates agaves? Diversity of floral visitors in three species of Agave (Agavoideae: Asparagaceae). *Revista Mexicana de Biodiversidad* 2015; 86(2): 358–369.
13. Ness JH. A mutualism's indirect costs: The most aggressive plant bodyguards also deter pollinators. *Oikos* 2006; 113(3): 506–514.
14. Cembrowski AR, Tan MG, Thomson JD, *et al.* Ants and ant scent reduce bumblebee pollination of artificial flowers. *The American Naturalist* 2014; 183(1): 133–139.
15. Junker R, Chung AYC, Blüthgen N. Interaction between flowers, ants and pollinators: Additional evidence for floral repellence against ants. *Ecological Research* 2007; 22(4): 665–670.
16. Freitas L, Bernardello G, Galetto L, *et al.* Nectaries and reproductive biology of *Croton sarcopetalus* (Euphorbiaceae). *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society* 2001; 136(3): 267–277.
17. Vesprini JL, Galetto L, Bernardello G. The beneficial effect of ants on the reproductive success of *Dyckia floribunda* (Bromeliaceae), an extrafloral nectary plant. *Canadian Journal of Botany* 2003; 81(1): 24–27.
18. López-Anido F, Vesprini JL. Extrafloral Nectaries in *Cucurbita maxima* Sub. *andreaana* (Naudin) Filov.

- Cucurbit Genetic Cooperative Report 2007; 30: 38–42.
19. Delabie JHC, Ospina M, Zabala G. Relaciones entre hormigas y plantas: Una introducción (Spanish) [Relationships between ants and plants: An introduction]. In: Fernández F (editor). Introducción a las hormigas de la región Neotropical. Colombia: Instituto de Investigación de Recursos Biológicos Alexander von Humboldt; 2003. p. 440.
 20. Martínez-Pérez L, Faife-Cabrera M. Robo de néctar en especies de los cuabales de Santa Clara, Cuba central (Spanish) [Nectar robbing in species of the cuabales of Santa Clara, central Cuba]. *Revista del Jardín Botánico Nacional* 2018; 39: 83–85.
 21. Wäckers FL, van Rijn PCJ, Ruin J. Plant-provided food for carnivorous insects: A protective mutualism and its applications. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2005. p. 356.
 22. Lenzi M, Orth AI, Guerra TM. Pollination ecology of *Momordica charantia* L. (Cucurbitaceae) in Florianópolis, SC, Brazil. *Brazilian Journal of Botany* 2005; 28: 505–513.
 23. Krug C, Alves-dos-Santos I, Cane J. Visiting bees of *Cucurbita* flowers (Cucurbitaceae) with emphasis on the presence of *Peponapis fervens* smith (Eucerini--Apidae)-Santa Catarina, Southern Brazil. *Oecologia Australis* 2010; 14(1): 128–139.
 24. Bazo I, Espejo R, Palomino C, *et al.* Estudios de biología floral, reproductiva y visitantes florales en el “Loche” de Lambayeque (*Cucurbita moschata* DUCHESNE) (Spanish) [Studies of floral biology, reproductive and floral visitors in the Lambayeque “Loche” (*Cucurbita moschata* DUCHESNE)]. *Ecología Aplicada* 2018; 17(2): 191–205.
 25. Dmitruk M. Flowering, nectar production and insects visits in two cultivars of *Cucurbita maxima* Duch. flowers. *Acta Agrobotanica* 2008; 61(1).
 26. Passarelli LM. 2002. Importance of *Apis mellifera* L. in the production of *Cucurbita maxima* Duch. *Investigación Agraria, Producción y Protección Vegetales* 2002; 17(1); 5–13.
 27. Hurd PD, Linsley EG, Whitaker TW. Squash and gourd bees (*Peponapis*, *Xenoglossa*) and the origin of the cultivated *Cucurbita*. *Evolution* 1971; 25(1): 218–234.
 28. Ashworth L, Galetto L. Pollinators and reproductive success of the wild cucurbit *Cucurbita maxima* ssp. *andreae* (Cucurbitaceae). *Plant Biology* 2001; 3(4): 398–404.
 29. Nicodemo D, Couto RHN, Malheiros EB, *et al.* Honey bee as an effective pollinating agent of pumpkin. *Scientia Agricola* 2009; 66: 476–480.
 30. Vidal MG, Jong D, Wien HC, *et al.* Pollination and fruit set in pumpkin (*Cucurbita pepo*) by honey bees. *Brazilian Journal of Botany* 2010; 33: 106–113.
 31. Canto-Aguilar MA, Parra-Tabla V. Importance of conserving alternative pollinators: Assessing the pollination efficiency of the squash bee, *Peponapis limitaris* in *Cucurbita moschata* (Cucurbitaceae). *Journal of Insect Conservation* 2000; 4(3): 201–208.
 32. Delgado-Carrillo O, Martén-Rodríguez S, Ashworth L, *et al.* Temporal variation in pollination services to *Cucurbita moschata* is determined by bee gender and diversity. *Ecosphere* 2018; 9(11): e02506.
 33. Parra-Tabla V, Campos-Navarrete MJ, Arceo-Gómez G. Plant–floral visitor network structure in a smallholder Cucurbitaceae agricultural system in the tropics: Implications for the extinction of main floral visitors. *Arthropod-Plant Interactions* 2017; 11(5): 731–740.
 34. Wille A. Las abejas *Peponapis* y *Xenoglossa* en Costa Rica y su importancia en la polinización de las *Cucurbita* domésticas (Spanish) [Peponapis and Xenoglossa bees in Costa Rica and their importance in the pollination of domestic Cucurbita]. *Revista de Biología Tropical* 1985; 33(1): 17–24.
 35. Delgado-Carrillo O, Lopezaraiza-Mikel M, Ashworth L, *et al.* A scientific note on the first record of nesting sites of *Peponapis crassidentata* (Hymenoptera: Apidae). *Apidologie* 2017; 48(5): 644–647.
 36. Leguizamón A. Modifying Argentina: GM soy and socio-environmental change. *Geoforum* 2014; 53: 149–160.
 37. Molina GAR, Poggio SL, Ghera CM. Epigeal arthropod communities in intensively farmed landscapes: Effects of land use mosaics, neighbourhood heterogeneity, and field position. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment* 2014; 192: 135–143.
 38. Bolton B, Palacio E, Fernández F, *et al.* Claves y sinopsis de las subfamilias y géneros (Spanish) [Keys and synopsis of subfamilies and genera]. In: Fernández F (editor). Introducción a las hormigas de la región Neotropical. Colombia: Instituto de Investigación de Recursos Biológicos Alexander von Humboldt; 2003. p. 398.
 39. Claps L, Roig S, Debandi G. Biodiversidad de artrópodos argentinos (Spanish) [Biodiversity of Argentine arthropods]. Mendoza: Sociedad Entomológica Argentina ediciones; 2008. p. 620.
 40. Dalmazzo M, González-Vaquero RA, Roig-Alsima A, *et al.* Hymenoptera: Halictidae. In: Roig-Juñent S, Claps LE, Morrone JJ (editor). Artrópodos Argentinos volume III. San Miguel de Tucumán: Editorial INSUE-UNT; 2014. p. 203–219.
 41. Delignette-Muller ML, Dutang C. Fitdistrplus: An R package for fitting distributions. *Journal of Statistical Software* 2015; 64: 1–34.
 42. Bates D, Mächler M, Bolker B, *et al.* Fitting linear mixed-effects models using lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software* 2015; 67(1): 1–48.
 43. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2018.
 44. Breheny P, Burchett W. Visualization of regression models using visreg. *The R Journal* 2017; 9(2): 56–71.
 45. Hartig F. DHARMA: Residual diagnostics for hierarchical (multi-level/mixed) regression models [Internet]. R package version 0.3.1; 2019. Available from:

- <https://r.meteo.uni.wroc.pl/web/packages/DHARMa/vignettes/DHARMa.html>.
46. Sing T, Sander O, Beerenwinkel N, *et al.* ROCR: Visualizing classifier performance in R. *Bioinformatics* 2005; 21(20): 3940–3941.
 47. Andrews ES, Theis N, Adler LS. Pollinator and herbivore attraction to *Cucurbita* floral volatiles. *Journal of Chemical Ecology* 2007; 33(9): 1682–1691.
 48. Giannini TC, Saraiva AM, Alves-dos-Santos I. Ecological niche modeling and geographical distribution of pollinator and plants: A case study of *Peponapis fervens* (Smith, 1879) (Eucerini: Apidae) and *Cucurbita species* (Cucurbitaceae). *Ecological Informatics* 2010; 5(1): 59–66.
 49. Batista EL, Pérez RO. Influencia de la abeja melífera en el rendimiento del cultivo de la calabaza (*Cucurbita pepo* L.) (Spanish) [Influence of honey bee on the yield of squash (*Cucurbita pepo* L.)]. *Centro Agrícola* 2015; 42(2): 47–53.
 50. Herrera Villalobos MJ. Determinación del rendimiento del cultivo de Zucchini (*Cucurbita pepo* L.) por acción de las abejas (*Apis mellifera* L.) como agentes polinizadores en el cantón Riobamba, provincia de Chimborazo (Spanish) [Determination of Zucchini (*Cucurbita pepo* L.) crop yield by the action of bees (*Apis mellifera* L.) as pollinating agents in Riobamba canton, Chimborazo province] [Undergraduate thesis]. Riobamba: Escuela Superior Politécnica de Chimborazo; 2019. p. 81.
 51. Agbagwa IO, Ndukwu BC, Mensah SI. Floral biology, breeding system, and pollination ecology of *Cucurbita moschata* (Duch. ex Lam) Duch. ex Poir. varieties (Cucurbitaceae) from parts of the Niger Delta, Nigeria. *Turkish Journal of Botany* 2007; 31(5): 451–458.
 52. Nepi M, Pacini E, Willemse MTM. Nectary biology of *Cucurbita pepo*: Ecophysiological aspects. *Acta Botanica Neerlandica* 1996; 45(1): 41–54.
 53. Mathewson JA. Nest construction and life history of the eastern cucurbit bee, *Peponapis pruinosa* (Hymenoptera: Apoidea). *Journal of the Kansas Entomological Society* 1968; 255–261.
 54. Michener CD. Biogeography of the bees. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden* 1979; 66(3): 277–347.
 55. Hurd P, Linsley E. The squash and gourd bees—genera *Peponapis* Robertson and *Xenoglossa* Smith—inhabiting America north of Mexico (Hymenoptera: Apoidea). *Hilgardia* 1964; 35(15): 375–477.
 56. Michener CD, LaBerge WE, Moure JS. Some American Eucerini bees. *Dusenya* 1955; 6(6): 213–228.
 57. Universidad Federal de Paraná. Moure's bee catalogue [Internet]. In: *Peponapis Robertson* 1902. Brazil; 1902. Available from: <http://moure.cria.org.br/catalogue?id=30357>
 58. Martins J, Carneiro A, Souza L, *et al.* How pollinator visits are affected by flower damage and ants presence in *Ipomoea carnea subs. fistulosa* (Martius and Choise) (Convolvulaceae)? *Brazilian Journal of Biology* 2019; 80: 47–56.
 59. Tsuji K, Hasyim A, Nakamura K. Asian weaver ants, *Oecophylla smaragdina*, and their repelling of pollinators. *Ecological Research* 2004; 19(6): 669–673.
 60. Almeida AM, Figueiredo RA. Ants visit nectaries of *Epidendrum denticulatum* (Orchidaceae) in a Brazilian rainforest: Effects on herbivory and pollination. *Brazilian Journal of Biology* 2003; 63: 551–558.
 61. Martins Belo R, Fekete Moutinho M, Sicsu P, *et al.* Formigas diminuem a quantidade de visitantes florais em *Cordia curassavica* (Boraginaceae) (Spanish) [The number of visitors in *Cordia curassavica* (Boraginaceae) is very small]. *Curso de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia - Universidade de São Paulo*; 2011.
 62. González FG, Santamaría L, Corlett RT, *et al.* Flowers attract weaver ants that deter less effective pollinators. *Journal of Ecology* 2013; 101(1): 78–85.
 63. Acuña Perandrés A. *Pheidole pallidula* como posible vector de polinización asistida en cultivos de calabacín (*Cucurbita pepo* L.) (Spanish) [*Pheidole pallidula* as a possible vector for assisted pollination in zucchini (*Cucurbita pepo* L.) crops] [Undergraduate thesis]. Girona: Universitat de Girona; 2016. p. 32.
 64. Cuba OH. Polinización y hormigas (Spanish) [Pollination and ants] [Internet]. 2005. Available from: <http://lamarabunta.org/videos/Polinyhorm.pdf>.
 65. Goitia W, Bosque C, Jaffe K. Interacción hormiga-polinizador en cacao (Spanish) [Ant-pollinator interaction in cacao]. *Turrialba* 1992; 42(2): 178–186.
 66. Lundin O, Smith HG, Rundlöf M, *et al.* When ecosystem services interact: Crop pollination benefits depend on the level of pest control. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 2013; 280(1753): 20122243.
 67. Krupnick GA, Weis AE, Campbell DR. The consequences of floral herbivory for pollinator service to *Isomeris arborea*. *Ecology* 1999; 80(1): 125–134.
 68. Mothershead K, Marquis RJ. Fitness impacts of herbivory through indirect effects on plant-pollinator interactions in *Oenothera macrocarpa*. *Ecology* 2000; 81(1): 30–40.
 69. Irwin RE, Brody AK, Waser NM. The impact of floral larceny on individuals, populations, and communities. *Oecologia* 2001; 129(2): 161–168.