

Brood development and nest parasitism of *Xylocopa* (*Neoxylocopa*) *augusti* Lepeletier (Hymenoptera: Apidae), a promising crop pollinator in Argentina

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Abstract – Pollination of passion fruit and other crops by species of carpenter bees of the 8 genus Xylocopa Latreille significantly increases both the quality and quantity of fruits. To 9 enhance pollination services, bee nests are either introduced into the crop area or females are 10 11 encouraged to nest using trap-nests. Thus, knowledge of trap-nest preference, brood development, and nest parasitism is essential for effective and sustainable nest management 12 13 practices. Xylocopa (Neoxylocopa) augusti Lepeletier is a promising pollinator in some areas of Argentina because of its high abundance, ability to buzz pollinate, and easy acceptance of 14 15 trap-nests. However, limited information is available on the biology of this pollinator. Herein we provide detailed information on its nesting cycle, brood development, and parasitism from 16 17 trap-nests at an urban area in Buenos Aires province, Argentina. Our study indicates that X. augusti is a solitary and likely univoltine species that shares some nesting and developmental 18 features with other species in the subgenus Neoxylocopa, which might facilitate the adoption 19 of existing management techniques developed for other species and regions. Biological 20 information on Physocephala wulpi Camras (Diptera: Conopidae), a parasitoid of X. augusti, 21 is also given for the first time. 22

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24 Pollination services / Physocephala / Parasitoid / Hyperparasitoid / Xylocopinae

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28 1. INTRODUCTION

The economic value of animal pollination in agriculture is undeniable, as about 75% of the leading global food crops depend partially or fully on pollinators (Klein et al., 2007). For example, while bees are essential for the pollination of some crops (e.g., almonds: Traynor,
2017), for others less pollinator-dependent crops, bees might help to increase up to 50% the
quality and quantity of their seeds and fruits (e.g., coffee: Roubik, 2002). Pollinators are also
responsible for 40% of the world's supply of nutrients (Eilers, Kremen, Greenleaf, Garber, &
Klein, 2011), which means that pollinator loss could significantly affect global health due to
the increase of malnutrition-related diseases (e.g., Chaplin-Kramer et al., 2014; Ellis, Myers,
& Ricketts, 2015; Smith, Singh, Mozaffarian, & Myers, 2015).

The management of pollinators is a sustainable alternative to the maintenance of 38 39 agricultural production, particularly in view of recent declines of native pollinators worldwide and honey bee colony losses (e.g., Bommarco, Kleijn, & Potts, 2013; Junqueira & 40 Augusto, 2017). Carpenter bees of the genus Xylocopa Latreille (Apidae: Xylocopini) are 41 among the most promising crop pollinators due to their cosmopolitan distribution, long 42 activity season, polylectic habits, easy acceptance of artificial substrates for nesting, their 43 ability to buzz-pollinate, and being active at higher temperatures than honey bees 44 (Buchmann, 2004; Hogendoorn, 2004; Keasar, 2010). 45

Xylocopa includes more than 470 species in 31 subgenera worldwide, most of them 46 occurring in tropical and subtropical areas. The majority of species nest in solid wood, such 47 48 as tree branches and trunks, but some nest in hollow plant stalks and soft wood, or even in the ground. Species are often robust and range from solitary to semisocial or primitively eusocial, 49 50 where the oldest female (mother or sister) feeds both young females and males via trophallaxis (Michener, 2007; Lucia, Gonzalez, & Abrahamovich, 2015). A few species of 51 52 Xylocopa have already been used as efficient crop pollinators of passion fruit (Passiflora ssp.), sunflowers (Helianthus annuus L.), squash (Cucurbita ssp.), tomato (Solanum 53 lycopersicum L.), and eggplant (Solanum melongena L.) (Gerling, Velthuis, & Hefetz, 1989; 54 Sihag, 1993a; Mardan, 1995; Hogendoorn, Steen, & Schwarz, 2000; Aguiar-Menezes, 55 Menezes, Cassino, & Soares, 2002; Sadeh, Shmida, & Keasar, 2007). Pollination by 56 carpenter bees increases the quantity and quality of the crop, as in the case of passion fruits 57 that result in bigger and sweeter fruits when pollinated by these bees (e.g., Junqueira & 58 Augusto, 2017). 59

To increase pollination services, natural carpenter bee nests are introduced into the crop area or females are encouraged to nest using trap-nests, a method that consists of using bamboo canes or wooden blocks with tunnels of varying diameter to promote their nesting (e.g., Krombein, 1967; Freitas & Oliveira-Filho, 2003). Thus, knowledge on the natural history as well as trap-nest preference, brood development, and nest parasitism is essential foreffective and sustainable nest management practices.

Xylocopa (Neoxylocopa) augusti Lepeletier is a widely distributed species in southern 66 South America, occurring in Bolivia, Uruguay, Paraguay, Argentina, and southern Brazil 67 (Moure, 2012; Lucia, Alvarez, & Abrahamovich, 2014a). In Argentina, it is more widespread 68 in the east than in the west, occurring from Buenos Aires to Formosa province (Lucia, 69 70 Alvarez, & Abrahamovich, 2014a). This species is a promising crop pollinator in Argentina because of its high abundance, docile behavior, ability to buzz-pollinate, and easy acceptance 71 72 of trap-nests. In addition, the species uses a wide range of plant species to obtain pollen and nectar, including several crops of economic importance, such as H. annuus, S. melongena, 73 Medicago sativa L. (Lucerne), Phaseolus vulgaris L. (beans), and Cucurbita moschata 74 Duchesne ex Poir. (Tesón, Dagoberto, Lizarralde, & Loiácono, 1976; Telleria, 1999, Alvarez, 75 Lucia, Ramello, Del Pino, & Abrahamovich, 2014; Lucia, Tellería, Ramello, & 76 Abrahamovich, 2017). 77 Despite the potential of X. augusti as a crop pollinator, limited information is 78

available on its biology to facilitate the development of effective and sustainable management
practices. Thus, the aim of this work is to provide detailed information on its nesting cycle,
brood development, and parasitism from trap-nests established at an urban area in Buenos
Aires province, Argentina.

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84 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

85 2.1. Study area and trap-nests

We conducted observations at the Unidad de Vivero Forestal of the Universidad 86 Nacional de La Plata (34°54'39"S, 57°55'37"W, 18 m.a.s.l.) and Vivero Forestal, Facultad de 87 Ciencias Naturales y Museo, an urban area of the city of La Plata located in the northeastern 88 89 Buenos Aires province, Argentina. This area, about 4 ha in extension, possess a variety of cultivated trees accompanied by weeds and adventitious species. The climate of the region is 90 humid temperate, with the cold season extending from May to October, and the mean 91 monthly temperature not reaching 18 °C. There is no a dry season and the average annual 92 precipitation ranges from 800 to 1000 mm. Lucia et al. (2017) provide detailed information 93 on the foraging behavior as well as local floral resources of X. augusti at the study area. 94 95 Each September, between 2015 and 2018, we deployed about 1500 trap-nests at the study site, each consisting of an internode of wild cane (Arundo donax L., Poaceae) closed at 96 one end by the node and open at the other. We cut and collected canes from plants growing 97

98 along roads and streams near the study area, and chose those with a best fit for X. augusti as approximated by its body size. Due to availability in the field, we obtained a variable number 99 of internodes of different lengths and diameters. Thus, the canes we used as trap-nests ranged 100 from 13.6 to 27.0 cm in length and from 12.50 to 17.00 mm in inner diameter. We placed 101 trap-nets horizontally, in groups of 15–25, inside hollow bricks and empty plastic containers 102 on top of open shelves, located between 1 and 2 m above ground. Each group of trap-nests 103 104 contained a variable, random number of trap-nests of different dimensions (Figure 1). We recorded the presence or absence of bees daily by inspecting the entrance of each trap-nest. 105 106 During these inspections, we also noted their guarding behavior at random times through the day, as well as sometimes early in the night. Bees occupied trap-nests as early as 5 to 10 days 107 after we deployed them in the field. Because we intended to maintain a permanent population 108 of X. augusti at the study area for other studies, we replaced the trap-nests we used for this 109 study and left unoccupied nests for the following nesting season. 110

To observe brood development, we opened completed nests lengthwise and secured 111 both halves with tape. We reopened nests daily until adult emergence and kept them in the 112 laboratory at room conditions (18–25 °C). We recorded the following nest data: number, 113 width, and length of brood cells, cell partition thickness (center and periphery), inner 114 115 diameter of nest entrance, and internode length. We took measurements of internal nest features using a caliber. We estimated sex ratio as the number of emerged females over the 116 number of emerged males. To determine the average wet mass of larval provisions, we 117 carefully removed them from the brood cells, weighed them with an electronic scale, and 118 119 return them to the same cell. We documented details of the nest architecture, emergence phenology, and sex ratio from 52 trap-nests. We took brood cell dimensions from 79 trap-120 nests and used a Panasonic® FZ18 digital camera (Panasonic, Japan) to record external nest 121 features. 122

We obtained adults of Physocephala (Diptera: Conopidae) from larvae developing 123 inside the metasoma of dead female bees that we found inside the nest or near the nest 124 entrance. We placed the metasoma of each bee individually in acrylic containers and kept 125 them in the laboratory until emergence of adult conopid flies. We euthanized conopids 24 h 126 after emergence, sexed, labeled, and numbered them with the corresponding bee specimen. 127 We estimated bee body size by measuring the minimum intertegular distance (Cane, 1987) 128 with an ocular micrometer on a Nikon SMZ745 stereomicroscope. To estimate relative age of 129 carpenter bees that were parasitized by conopid flies, we record the degree of wing wear in a 130 scale of one to five, with one being unworn and five heavily worn, as in Camillo and 131

132 Garófalo (1989). Associated organisms were identified using taxonomic keys and by

133 comparison with specimens deposited in the División Entomología of Museo de La Plata,

- 134 Argentina (MLP), as in the case of Coleoptera (i.e., Pinto & Bologna, 1999), or by specialists
- 135 (Hymenoptera and Diptera). Voucher specimens of bees and associated organisms are in
- 136
- 137
- 138 2.2. Data analysis

MLP.

We used an independence test (Chi-square analysis) to evaluate the relationship 139 between the sex of the emerged bees and the position of the brood cell inside the nest from 140 which they emerged. For comparison purposes, we used data of bees that emerged from the 141 first four cells because nests ranged from one to six in their number of cells. We estimated 142 total mortality of immature stages as the sum of the number of cells attacked by either 143 parasites or pathogens, plus the number of cells containing dead larvae or pupae of unknown 144 cause. To test for association between bee body size and sex of the emerged conopid fly, we 145 used a Goodness of fit test. In addition, we tested for differences in the body size between 146 147 sexes of the conopid flies using a non-parametric Wilcoxon test. We tested assumptions of each statistical test and conducted analyses with R statistical software, version 3.3.1 (R Core 148 149 Team 2016).

150

151 **3. RESULTS**

152 3.1. Nest cycle and brood development

Overwinter females started to build their nests in early October and began to close the 153 first cells in mid-October. Adult emerge occurred from early/mid-December throughout mid-154 January but it peaked in late December. All nests consisted of a single adult, which defended 155 the nest by blocking the nest entrance with either the dorsum of the metasoma or with the 156 head. Blocking the nest with the head occurred throughout the day, primarily in response to 157 other female of X. agusti trying to enter the nest. Bees blocked their nest entrance with their 158 metasoma at night (Figure 1b), sometimes expelling a light brown or yellowish fluid from 159 their anal opening, when we disturbed the nests. 160

Bees used trap-nests of all diameters. However, about half (58.4%) of trap-nest used by bees had diameters ranging between 14 and 16 mm. Each nest contained a linear series of one to six ($\bar{x} = 3.0 \pm 1.35$, n = 52 trap-nests) barrel-shaped brood cells. Brood cells ranged from 15.35 to 24.23 mm ($\bar{x} = 19.27 \pm 1.49$, n = 178 cells) in length and their position inside the nest did not have an effect on its length (Table 1, Figure S1 in supporting information).

166 Cell partitions are smooth and concave on their outer surface, rough and flat on their inner surface. Cell partitions were thicker at the periphery ($\bar{x} = 5.14 \pm 0.90$ mm, 3.14-7.5, n = 113) 167 than at the center ($\bar{x} = 1.65 \pm 0.33$ mm, 0.9–2.4, n = 102). 168 The egg-to-adult development time ranged from 44 to 66 days and was similar 169 between sexes (W = 25, p = 0.11, n = 18). However, the larva-pupa period was shorter in 170 males than in females (Table 2). The larvae feeding period lasted 8–18 days in females (\bar{x} = 171 15.4 \pm 3, n = 19) and 12 to 15 days in males ($\bar{x} = 12.8 \pm 1.6$, n = 5) after hatching. In females, 172 pupae pigmentation began between 10 to 18 days after pupation ($\bar{x} = 14.8 \pm 2.3$, n = 23). 173 Mass provision varied from 1.12 to 2.00 gr among cells ($\bar{x} = 1.57 \pm 0.29$, n = 16). 174 175 3.2. Sex ratio 176 The overall sex ratio was female-biased $(3 \bigcirc :1 \bigcirc)$ based on the 52 nests we kept in the 177 laboratory (83 \bigcirc , 31 $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$), which was significantly different from a theoretical sex ratio 1:1 (χ^2 178 = 24.85, df = 1, p < 0.001). Both sexes of bees emerged from cells at different positions 179 inside the nest. However, females were more likely to emerge from the two innermost cells (1 180 and 2) than males (Cell 1: $x^2 = 32.4$, df = 1, p < 0.0001, n = 38, 2, 2; Cell 2: $x^2 = 5.76$, df = 1, 181 p < 0.05, n = 24, 10Å). In contrast, the outermost cells were not sex-biased (Cell 3: $\chi^2 =$ 182 0.18, df = 1, p = 0.67, n = 10%, 12%; Cell 4: χ^2 = 2.57, df = 1, p = 0.11, n = 10%, 4%) (Table 183 3, Figure 2, Figure S2 supporting information). 184

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186 3.3. Brood mortality

Overall brood mortality was approximately 30%. Mortality was highest in the larval stage (25.5%, 41 out of 161 brood cells of 52 trap-nests) likely due to viruses, fungi, and unknown causes. The beetle Cissites maculata (Swederus) (Coleoptera: Meloidae) (Figure 3) and the sapid wasp (Hymenoptera: Sapigidae, likely Huarpea) were the only brood parasites we observed. The former species parasitized six cells of four nests while the latter two cells of two nests.

- 193
- 194 3.4. Xylocopa adult mortality

The conopid fly Physochepala wulpi Camras (Diptera: Conopidae) significantly attacked young bees (χ^2 = 29.45; df = 4, p <0.0001), as inferred by the bees' wing condition (1–3 stage of wing wear according Camillo and Garófalo (1989). Bee relative age and number of parasitized females was inversely correlated (cor = -0.77). The emergence period

- 199 of the conopid fly varied depending on the season in which we collected them. Larvae
- 200 collected between late-spring (mid-November) and mid-summer (January) showed a
- significantly shorter developing period (\bigcirc : 29–43 days, $\bar{x} = 35.38$, median = 32, n = 19; \bigcirc :
- 202 29–46 days, $\bar{x} = 34.07$, median = 32, n = 15) than those collected during the late summer
- 203 (mid-March) and beginning of autumn (early April) (3: 186–296 days, \bar{x} = 235.6, median =
- 204 237, n = 17; \mathfrak{Q} : 191–280 days, $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ = 235.6, median = 235, n = 17). The sex of the conopid fly 205 was independent of the size of the host bee (OR = 2.12; IC = 0.31, 14.38; Wald statistic, p = 0.44; n = 41).
- 207

208 3.5 Conopid adult mortality

The eulophid wasp Pediobius williamsoni (Girauld) (Hymenoptera: Eulophidae) parasitized 11 pupae of Physocephala wulpi. The development of P. williamsoni in the laboratory lasted from 25 to 79 days ($\bar{x} = 46.62 \pm 19.1$, n = 8). However, in two cases, it showed a longer development period (130 and 218 days) (Table S1 supporting information).

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214 **4. DISCUSSION**

215 Cavity-nester bees, such as carpenter bees, are suitable pollinators for sustainable pollination in agroecosystems because they accept trap-nests, which then can be moved in 216 217 order to increase pollination services. A few types of trap-nests have been employed to promote nesting of carpenter bees, namely bamboo canes, wood trunks, and wooden boards 218 inside of Langstroth honey bee hives (Camillo & Garofalo, 1982; Freitas & Oliveira-Filho, 219 2003; Pinilla-Gallego & Nates-Parra, 2015). However, as used in this work, canes appear to 220 be preferable because they are affordable and easy to deploy and replace, as well as readily 221 accepted by bees (Chaves-Alves, Junqueira, Rabelo, Oliveira, & Augusto, 2011). Despite the 222 importance of carpenter bees for agriculture, their diversity, and worldwide distribution, only 223 a few species are currently managed. This is a perhaps a reflection of our limited knowledge 224 of many aspects of their biology. Although basic information on the nesting biology and nest 225 architecture of carpenter bees is available for several species worldwide (e.g., Anzenberg, 226 1977; Gerling, Hurd Jr., & Hefetz, 1983; Sihag, 1993a, 1993b; Vicidomini, 1996; Raju & 227 Rao, 2006; Hongjamrassilp & Warrit, 2014; Ali, Shebl, Alqarni, Owayss, & Ansari, 2016), 228 most studies are restricted to a few common species and from particular regions. For 229 example, most information in South America is from Brazil (e.g., Sakagami & Laroca, 1971; 230 Camillo & Garofalo, 1982; Camillo, Garófalo, & Muccillo, 1986; Viana, Kleinert, & Silva, 231

232 2002; Oliveira-Filho & Freitas, 2003; Bernardino & Gaglianone, 2008; Marchi & Melo, 2010; Pereira & Garófalo, 2010), with few studies available from other regions (e.g., 233 234 Gonzalez, Gonzalez, & Cuellar, 2009; Lucia et al., 2014a, 2015, 2017). Such a limitation impedes the effective development and implementation of sustainable practices for a wide 235 range of species. For example, efforts to establish carpenter bees in bamboo canes in 236 Colombia have had little to no success due to the incipient knowledge of the bees' biology 237 238 (Pinilla-Gallego and Nates-Parra 2015). Thus, the biological data present herein for X. augusti will add to this dearth of knowledge. 239

In general, our findings on the life cycle and nest structure are similar to those 240 recorded by Pereira and Garofalo (2010), Marchi and Melo (2010), and Camillo and Garofalo 241 (1982) for other species of the subgenus Neoxylocopa Michener. The number of cells per nest 242 in X. augusti and the egg-to-adult developing time are within the ranges of those reported for 243 X. frontalis (Olivier) (1–6 cells; 53 days) and X. grisescens Lepeletier (2–5 cells; 55 days) 244 (Pereira & Garofalo 2010). The female-biased sex ratio we observed in X. augusti has also 245 been documented in X. frontalis (Marchi & Melo, 2010) and X. suspecta Moure & Camargo 246 (Camilo et al., 1986). Similarly, the emergence of females from the innermost cells and males 247 from the outermost cells in X. augusti, follows the pattern observed in other carpenter bees 248 249 (e.g., Sakagami & Laroca, 1971; Pereira & Garofalo, 2010), as well as other solitary species (e.g., Jesus & Garófalo, 2000; Pitts-Singer & Cane, 2011). Lastly, the dimensions of the 250 251 brood cells and partitions documented from trap-nests are similar to those reported in natural nests for Xylocopa augusti (Lucia et al., 2014a). Thus, the features of the nesting biology of 252 253 X augusti studied here seem highly conserved among the species of the subgenus Neoxylocopa. 254

Several pathogens and natural enemies are associated with carpenter bees during their 255 life cycle, including brood parasites, parasitoids, virus, and entomopathogenic fungus (Hurd 256 Jr., 1978; Lucia, Aquino, Hansson, & Abrahamovich, 2010, 2014b, 2015; Avalos-Hernández, 257 Lucia, Álvarez, & Abrahamovich, 2011; Stuke, Lucia, & Abrahamovich, 2011; Reynaldi, 258 Lucia, & Garcia, 2015; Lucia, 2016). However, infestation by fungus is among the most 259 important causes of immature mortality (Gerling et al., 1989; Pereira & Garofalo, 2010). The 260 entomopathogenic fungus Ascosphaera apis (Maasen ex Claussen) L.S. Olive and Spiltoir 261 (Onygenales: Ascosphaeraceae) causes chalkbrood disease and was recently reported for X. 262 augusti in Argentina (Reynaldi et al., 2015). 263 The beetle Cissites maculata (Coleoptera: Meloideae) and sapygid wasps 264

265 (Hymenoptera: Sapydidae) have also been reported as brood parasites in other species of

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- 266 carpenter bees. For example, the sapygid wasp Huarpea fallax (Gerstaecker) was recorded
- 267 from X. (Schonnherria) splendidula Lepeletier, X. (Neoxylocopa) augusti, and X.
- 268 (Neoxylocopa) atamisquensis (Friese, 1923; Hurd Jr. & Moure, 1961) while H. wagneriella
- 269 (duBuy) was recorded from nests of Xylocopa (Nanoxylocopa) ciliata Burmeister (Lucia,
- 270 2016).

Conopid flies are solitary and internal parasites of insects, usually in aculeate wasps, 271 272 and especially in bees (Camras & Hurd, 1957). Species of the genus Physocephala Schiner have been recorded from several genera of neotropical bees, including carpenter bees. These 273 274 flies attack adult female bees at flowers while they are foraging for nectar or pollen (Lucia et al., 2010; Stuke et al., 2011), a behavior we also observed in two occasions at our study site. 275 However, little is known about the biology of these parasites. To date, most biological studies 276 on conopid flies are from temperate areas and relating to the effect on species of bumble bees 277 (e.g., Schmid-Hempel, Müller, Schmid-Hempel, & Shykoff, 1990; Schmid-Hempel & 278 Schmid-Hempel, 1988). The interval between the collection date of the dead host bee and the 279 emergence of the conopid fly in Xylocopa augusti varied according to the season, from 29-46 280 days if collected in the late-spring and mid-summer to 186-296 days if collected in the late 281 summer and beginning of the autumn. This is likely related to changes in the temperature as 282 283 the winter season approaches, as it has been observed by Santos et al. (2008) in other species of Physocephala attacking the solitary bee Centris (Heterocentris) analis (Fabricius). 284

Enhancing pollination services by using high numbers of trap-nests of Xylocopa 285 augusti might increase the incidence of chalkbrood disease, conopids, and other parasites. 286 287 Chalkbrood is commonly associated with larvae of both solitary and social species and could be devastating for the production of managed bees (Pitts-Singer & Cane, 2011). Likewise, 288 conopid parasitism is common (30–70%) in natural populations of bumble bees in Europe 289 and Canada, sometimes affecting colony size by increasing worker mortality and altering 290 291 their foraging behavior (Schmid-Hempel et al., 1990; Otterstatter, Whidden, & Owen, 2002). Thus, further studies should address the impact of these diseases and parasites on managed 292 populations of X augusti. The eulophid wasp Pediobius williansoni, a parasite of the conopid 293 fly Physocephala wulpi (Lucia et al., 2010), might also prove useful in the biological control 294 of this species, if this ever becomes a problem. In summary, our study indicates that X. 295 augusti is a solitary and likely univoltine species with some nesting and developmental 296 features similar to other species in the subgenus Neoxylocopa. Knowing that the nesting 297 biology of these species is conserved could be useful from a practical point of view, as it 298 might facilitate the development and implementation of similar management techniques 299

300 across multiple species and regions. Future studies on X. augusti should focus on productivity aspects, such as the effect of trap-nest dimensions on both rates of occupancy 301 and the number of brood cells. Although we did not set up our experiment to assess 302 occupancy rate, this value ranged from about 5 to 30 % each year and bees tended to occupy 303 trap-nests with diameters between 14 and 16 mm. However, resource availability at the study 304 site might have influenced the rate of nest establishment each season, and trap-nest 305 306 preference might have resulted from having an abundance of those diameters. Trap-nest diameters that are closer to the bee's body size are expected to have greater number of brood 307 308 cells when compared to those that are much wider than the bee, as the latter requires an additional energetic cost to build and provisione. Similarly, longer trap-nests might allow 309 females to build more brood cells than short trap-nests. However, at least for some species of 310 cavity-nesters, tunnel diameter appears not to have a significant effect on brood productivity 311 (Vitale, Gonzalez, & Vázquez, 2017). Likewise, at least in natural nests of some carpenter 312 bees, the number of brood cells is independent of the tunnel length (Lucia et al. 2015). These 313 observations suggest that for some bee species, and at least under natural conditions, tunnel 314 315 dimensions might not be the main reproductive constrain. Doubtless, these aspects ought to be investigate for X. augusti. 316

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318 Conflict of interest Statement

The authors declare that they have no potential conflict of interest in relation to the study inthis paper.

321 Authors Contribution

322 ML and PJR conceived this research and designed experiment; VHG participated in the

interpretation of the data. ML and VHG wrote the manuscript and participated in the

324 revisions of it. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

325

326 Data Availability Statement

Raw data supporting the findings of this study (e. g. nest cycle and brood development, sex

ration and adult mortality) are available from the corresponding author on request.

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Figure 1. Open shelves showing hollow bricks and plastic containers with trap-nests of
Xylocopa (Neoxylocopa) augusti Lepeletier in Buenos Aires province, Argentina. a, each
shelf was protected from direct sunlight and precipitation by a roof; b, photograph taken at
night (20:30 h) showing bees guarding the nest entrances with the dorsum of the metasoma
(black spots inside traps).

542

Figure 2. Number of bees of each sex emerged from trap-nests of Xylocopa (Neoxylocopa)
augusti Lepeletier in relation to the position inside the trap-nest in Buenos Aires province,
Argentina

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Figure 3. Detail of the trap-nest and associated organisms of Xylocopa (Neoxylocopa)
augusti Lepeletier in Buenos Aires province, Argentina. a, sagittal section of a trap-nest
showing differential development stages; b, larva of conopid fly Physocephala wulpi Camras
(Diptera: Conopidae) inside the metosoma of X. augusti; c–d, larva and pupa of P. wulpi; e,
larvae of the host bee and the brood parasite Cissites maculata (Swederus) (Coleoptera:
Meloideae) indicated by the arrow in the middle cell.

553

Table 1. Brood cell length (mm) in relation to the position inside the trap-nest of Xylocopa (Neoxylocopa) augusti Lepeletier in Buenos Aires province, Argentina. Cells are numbered from 1 to 6 according to their relative position inside the nest, with one being the innermost cell, far from the nest entrance. n = number of cells measured.

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Table 2. Duration (days) of each developmental stage of Xylocopa (Neoxylocopa) augusti
Lepeletier using trap-nests in Buenos Aires province, Argentina.

561

Table 3. Brood cell content, mortality, and sex emerged in relation to the position inside the

trap-nest of Xylocopa (Neoxylocopa) augusti Lepeletier in Buenos Aires province, Argentina.

564 n = number of cells examined.

1 Table 1.

Cell number	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	Max	Min	Desv.	n
1	19.61	24.23	17.00	1.51	60
2	19.32	21.50	17.00	1.29	51
3	19.27	22.56	15.35	1.79	36
	18.57	21	15.90	1.39	21
5	18.67	18.90	18.10	0.29	7
6	17.88	18.32	17	0.76	3

Table 2.

\mathcal{T}		I	Female	Male					
Egg-Larva 4		Max $\overline{x} \pm Dsv$		Min Max		$\overline{x} \pm Dsv$			
		6	4.6±0.65 (n =13)	4	6	4.8±0.	8 (n =	5)	
Larva-Pupa	16	37	24.6±6.2 (n =14)	18	21	19.2±2.	57 (n -	=7)	
Pupa-Adult	18	28	21.7±2.5 (n =42)	18	30	22±3.2	(n =1	7)	
Complete cycle	46	66 53.6±6.5 (n =13)		44 50		47.2±2.1 (n		=5)	
÷									
Table 3.	5								
Cell		Cells content					n	%	%
number F	emale	Male	Dead larvae	Dead oupae	m	% ortality	-	¥	Ó
1	20	2	11	1		22	50	05.0	5

Total	83	31	41	5		161		
6		_	1	-	50	2	100	_
5		3	1	1	33	6	30.0	70.0
4	9	4	7	_	33	21	71.0	29.0
3	10	12	12	1	38	35	45.5	55.5
2	24	10	9	2	24	45	70.6	29.4

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Cell position in the nest

4 5

