Community structure and seasonality of bees and flowering plants in a riparian corridor of

the lower Rio Grande River in Webb County, Texas (USA)

Amede Rubio (amede.rubio@ttu.edu)[1,2] and Scott Longing[2], [1]Texas A&M International Univ.,

Laredo, TX, [2]Department of Plant and Soil Science, Texas Tech Univ., Lubbock, TX

<u>Abstract:</u>

The Lower Rio Grande River (LRGR) in Texas is the physical boundary between the United

States and Mexico and is considered one of the world's most at-risk rivers due to intensified

management of the riparian corridor and human use. Exotic plant invasions have significantly

altered the native floral communities because of invasive giant reed, with potential impacts to the

native wildlife using resources in the riparian corridor. This study was conducted along a 3.22

km stretch of the LRGR in southwestern Webb County, TX to assess bee (Anthophila)

communities and their flowering-plant resources among proximal and distal terrestrial upland

and river-adjacent sub-corridors. Patterns related to the bee community across the two habitats

consisted of low variation and dominance by common taxa, suggesting the riparian corridor

could be used as a resource for bee foraging and soil-nesting. Although a lack of community

structure similarities among habitats were found, indicator species analysis produced two bee

genera that were more common and abundant in the upland habitat. Total number of individual

bees and genera collected across 26 dates and 2 years show a bimodal trend, with peaks in

March-April and September – October, with bees increasing following floral blooms primarily

during the spring growing season. Findings provide a preliminary assessment of bees and

flowering plants in this managed riparian corridor, but further research is needed. Conservation

efforts should include an assessment of soil and vegetation structure and their influence on native

bees, considering the geographical expanse of these riparian habitats.

<u>Introduction:</u>

Pollinators and flowering plants are intricately linked by the mutualistic relationships that

have evolved over time (Potts et al. 2010, Fiedler et al. 2012). Pollination is a vital ecosystem

service provided by bees, which sustains important ecosystem services in natural ecosystems and

in the production of agricultural crops (Kremen et al. 2002). It is estimated that bees pollinate

over half of the world's crop varieties and are responsible for an estimated 15 billion dollars in

annual revenue (Kremen et al. 2002, Losey and Vaughan 2006, Kimoto et al. 2012). In addition

to managed systems and important ecosystem services highlighted by crop pollination, wild

flowering plant communities are especially dependent on bees. Plant interdependence on bees is

primarily to maintain seed production and species genetic variation to sustain wild plant

communities (Kimoto et al. 2012).

Currently, global threats to pollinators are expected to continue if environmental stressors

go unmitigated (Potts et al. 2010), with impacts to vegetation and further potential effects to

ecosystem services provides by insects (Losey and Vaughan 2006). The European Honeybee,

Apis mellifera, has been a bee pollinator receiving much attention, with managed honey bee

colonies in the United States declining by over 50% in the last two decades (Ragsdale et al.

2007). Concurrent with honey bee loses reported, some native bees have become threatened

because of reduced range or rarity relative to historical studies and accounts (Cameron et al.

2011). Moreover, managed bees can affect wild native bees through vector disease causing

agents during foraging in flowering plants (Fürst et al. 2014). Concomitantly, anthropogenic

inputs to managed systems can affect pollinators, such as *Aspergillus flavus* in corn crops that

can cause stonebrood in honey bee colonies (Klich 2007). Habitat fragmentation or invasion by

non-native species is another major environmental stressor to wild systems (Potts et al. 2010).

Consequently, resources such as native flowering plant communities and undisturbed areas of

bare ground that support foraging and ground nesting bees can become depauperate or depleted.

Overall, pollinator losses could dramatically affect ecosystem services, and therefore

understanding how habitats support wild bee populations (e.g. of focal taxa) and communities

remains an important area of research. This is especially critical where wild lands are affected by

anthropogenic disturbances and biological invasions simultaneously. Furthermore, managing

natural areas for wildlife, such as extensive riparian corridors, could be an effective strategy for

conservation of local and migratory animal species, such as monarch butterflies requiring nectar

during southerly annual migrations to Mexico.

The Rio Grande begins in the San Juan Mountains of Colorado and travels approximately

3,200 kilometers to drain into the Gulf of Mexico and in Texas serves as a geographical

boundary between the United States and Mexico (Karatayev et al. 2012). The river and its

associated riparian corridors are one of the most anthropogenically affected and yet understudied

systems in the world (Karatayev et al. 2012). The river is also a primary source of drinking water

and supports much of the municipal, industrial, and agricultural water needs for both nations on

the U.S.-Mexico border. Regionally, the endemic flora and fauna depend on the Rio Grande's

life sustaining properties; maintenance of food webs, providing refugia and habitat for animals,

and a steady source of available water (Ellis et al. 2001). The Rio Grande has been critically

affected by over-extraction of freshwater, pollution, invasive plant species and the compounding

threat of climate change (Karatayev et al. 2012). Watershed disturbances, especially those

occurring proximal to river channels (i.e. riparian corridors) impact resources for wildlife

(Fowler et al. 2018). For example, invasive plant species pose a significant threat to plant and

pollinator communities along the Rio Grande in Texas (Rubio et al. 2014), but this has not been

investigated. Invasive grasses such as buffelgrass (*Cenchrus ciliaris*), guinea grass (*Urochloa*

maxima), and giant reed (*Arundo donax*) dominate the riparian corridor of the LRGR, which was

once a native mixed grass prairie (Sands et al. 2012). Studies suggest that the rapid growth and

spread of invasive grasses can have a severe negative impact on floral resources for pollinators

(Fierke and Kauffman 2006, M.M.T Beater 2008, Kristine J. Brooks 2010), including those

along the LRGR in Texas.

Although impacts from anthropogenic activities and invasive grasses are widespread, the

LRGR riparian corridor in Southwestern Webb County, TX remains understudied. A need exists

to better understand how wildlife uses the riparian corridor to better align conservation goals for

target species. Little is known about the current state of flowering plant and bee communities

provided by the riparian corridor, with potentially significant areal coverage of resources for

nesting (i.e. sandy soil) and foraging (i.e. flowering plants). The objectives of this study were to

survey the riparian and upland habitats in the LRGR and document bee and flowering plant

generic and species richness, respectively, and to determine if differences in communities existed

across riparian habitats (i.e. upland and riparian habitats within the riparian corridor).

Information on pollinator habitat preferences, diversity and seasonality support further

conservation actions and strategies for ecological restoration in this intensively managed system.

<u>Methods:</u>

Study Area

This project was conducted within a 3.22 km stretch along the banks of the Lower Rio

Grande River (LRGR) in Southwestern Webb County, TX, (27.5013°N; 099.52697°W). The

area is a steppe climate and located within a subtropical zone (NRCS 2006) with short periods of

humidity (less than 5 humid months) and dry winters. The average annual temperature is 30.2°C

and the average precipitation is 54.7 cm (NRCS 2006) . Typically, May, June and September are

the wettest months averaging 7.26 cm of precipitation combined (NRCS 2006). The LRGR (RG)

soil series primarily dominates the study area; the soil is deep, well drained, very fine sandy

loam, and moderately alkaline (Sanders and Gabriel 1985). The LRGR's soil is able to sustain

riparian vegetation through periods of prolonged drought due to its flood water holding capacity

(Moore et al. 2016). Disturbances along the Rio Grande may create an ideal substrate to be

exploited by invasive plants such as giant reed and other exotics. The unique LRGR plant

communities can provide suitable habitat for many vertebrate and invertebrate species, including

polyphagous beetles (Osbrink et al. 2018) and native bee communities (Henne et al. 2012).

Sampling Design and Habitats

In February 2017, twenty (10 in each habitat) 50 m-long x 1m-wide belt transects were

established parallel to the Rio Grande in riparian and upland habitats for identifying extant floral

diversity and sampling bee communities. In March 2017 – May 2017, 24 triplet bowl bee traps

(12 in riparian zone and 12 in upland terrace zone) were placed 50 m apart within the 3.22 km

sampling area (Fig. 1). The upland habitats were between 180 and 530 m from the main stem of

the river, while riparian habitats were located from 50 to 130 m from the river. Sampling plots in

both habitats were separated on average by 172 m. The total area representative of the sampled

habitats was approximately .003 km^2, and the selected habitats were characteristic of the riparian

corridor exposed to invasion by exotic invasive plants (Rubio et al. 2014) and human

management (Fowler et al. 2018). Each transect and pan trap was sampled monthly from

February 2017 to May 2019.

Vegetation Sampling

To supplement transect flowering-vegetation sampling, flowering plants were also

identified *in situ* around a 5 m radius of each bee pan trap cluster. Blooming plants were

censused monthly within riparian and upland habitats on 25 visits. During each visit, plants with

visible blooms were recorded as present, representing one individual or count of that plant

species. This facilitated an analysis of the seasonality of bloom occurrences and the relationship

with bee activity in both habitats and using pooled data. All unknown plant species were

photographed and/or harvested for identification in the lab. Voucher specimens and digital

images of flowering plants are held in the Texas A&M International Teaching Herbarium.

Bee Sampling

The goal of bee community sampling was to census the seasonal abundances and

diversity of bees using the riparian corridor for foraging or other behaviors such as nesting in

sandy substrate (Fellendorf et al. 2004). Bee data was biased because of our selected sampling

method, towards some bee families such as the sweat bee family Halictidae being more collected

using bee bowls (Hall 2016). However, this family is commonly abundant and represents a large

portion of native biodiversity in the region (Wilson and Carril 2015) that could benefit from

warm, sandy soils and diverse flowering vegetation (Michener 2007). Bees communities were

sampled using hand collecting with aerial nets along the 50 m belt transects and using pan traps

(i.e. bee bowls) (LeBuhn et al. 2016). Belt transect sampling involved visually locating floral

resources and collecting bees directly from plants by sweeping nets (i.e. hunt sampling). Hunt

sampling the length of each transect was conducted in pairs (one person netting and the other

recording), lasting approximately 25 minutes. Bee bowl collection structures were an adaptation

of Droege et al. (2010). Bowls traps consisted of 3.5 oz cups painted three different fluorescent

colors (Blue, White, and yellow) (New Horizons Entomology Services, Upper Marlboro, MD

USA). Four-foot metal T-posts with metal wire utilized to secure the bowls in place for

sampling. Soapy water solution (water + a few drops of ivory dish soap) was added to each

container to capture pollinators. Bee bowls were set on two dates each month between 09:00 am

and 011:00 am CST and bees were collected from bee bowls after 24 hours. Bees collected from

hand netting and bee bowl pan traps were placed into 4oz Whirl Pak® (Nasco Fort Atkinson,

WI) bags or vials containing 70% ethanol. In the laboratory, bees were identified to the level of

genus using available taxonomic keys available online (Discover Life

http://www.discoverlife.org/mp/20q?guide=Bee_genera and, Bugguide

http://bugguide.net/node/view/8267/bgpage) and in published keys (Michener et al. 1994;

Michener 2007; Wilson and Carril 2015). Voucher specimens were deposited in the insect

collection in the Department of Biology and Chemistry at Texas A&M International University.

Temperature data was collected monthly using a Kestrel 5000 Environmental Meter with

LINK (Kestrel Meters, Boothwyn, PA) at each bee bowl cluster (n = 24) and averaged across

samples to yield one value per sampling date.

Data Analysis

Data matrices consisting of bee genera and blooming plant counts for each month across

two years was created to preliminarily assess community structure regarding generic richness

and abundance among the riparian and upland habitats. The row and column summary command

in PC-ORD was used to produce values for generic richness and three community diversity

indices (Shannon's H, Simpson's D and Evenness). Generic richness and total number of

individuals within a genus (i.e. abundance) was used to statistically compare bee and plant

communities among habitats and months (see below).

Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was used to initially compare bee

communities among upland and riparian habitats. Bee genera counts were used in the main

matrix to ordinate the total sample plots (n =10 from each habitat). Ordinations were conducted

using raw counts of bee genera. Using the same data matrix as for NMDS, indicator species

analysis (ISA) was performed to determine if any bee genera were collected in greater

disproportionately from one of the two habitats. NMDS and ISA were conducted using PCORD

7.0 (Wild Blueberry Media LLC, Corvallis, OR, USA).

A mixed model with a repeated measures analysis was utilized (JMP 14, SAS Institute

Inc, Cary, NC) to compare bee genera richness and abundances among the riparian and upland

habitats. The model was constructed using the fixed main effects of bee generic richness and

abundance, a full factorial between month and habitat (upland and riparian) and a random effect

of year with nested month.

Correlation analysis (i.e. non-parametric correlation Spearman's ρ) was used to determine

bivariate relationships among genera richness, total number of individuals, number of plants in

bloom, and air temperature (JMP 14, SAS Institute Inc, Cary, NC). Pooled data was used (across

habitats) to determine relationships of bee generic and abundance seasonality and total bloom

characteristics within the study area.

Results

A total 1489 bee individuals representing 29 genera were collected across the riparian and upland habitats (Table 1). The 10 most dominant bee genera comprised 90 percent of the total number of individuals collected, with the remaining 19 bee genera comprising the remainder of the community (10 percent). *Lasioglossum* (*Dialictus*) was the genera collected most frequently (618 individuals) and was collected over three times more than the next most abundant bee (*Apis*, 212 individuals).

Across the total sampled area (i.e. upland and riparian habitats), a total of 57 flowering plants species with blooms were counted representing 24 families (Table 2). Fifty flowering plant species were counted in the riparian and 24 in the upland habitat. Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*), Narrowleaf globemallow (*Sphaeralcea angustifolia*), and silverleaf nightshade (*Solanum elaegnifolium*) were the dominant plants comprising 20 percent of the grand total number of blooming plants observed in the study. Bee abundance and vegetation data were summarized graphically (Fig. 2), showing a higher diversity of flowering plants in riparian corridor compared to upland habitat yet with similar bee communities.

Riparian Habitat Associations

Pooled riparian and upland community data showed that bee genera richness between both habitats were not significantly different (26 and 29 bee genera, respectively). NMDS ordinations showed that bee communities at the taxonomic level of genera were similar among the upland and riparian locations and dominated by sweat bees. Two bee genera in relatively lower abundances (*Halictus* and *Ashmeadiella*) were found to be significant indicator taxa, both

showing affinity for the upland habitats. (*Ashmeadiella* IV = 55.1, P = 0.007; *Halictus* IV = 41.7,

P = 0.0374). A total of four individuals were collected as singletons: *Pseudopanrugis*,

Sphecodogastra, *Florilegus* and *Epeolus*. Three of these four genera occurred in the riparian

habitat, while one (*Pseudopanrugis*) occurred in the upland habitat but because of rarity in our

sample they are not indicator taxa of one of the two habitats. The top two dominant bee genera

regarding abundances (*Dialictus* and *Apis*) accounted for 56 percent of the total number of

individual bees collected. Bee community evenness was very similar in riparian (0.65) and

upland communities (0.66) (Table 1). Shannon diversity was not significantly different among

riparian (2.13) and upland (2.10) communities, and the Simpson diversity index showed slight

differences between riparian (.80) and upland (.76) communities but without significant

differences detected among these habitats (Table 1).

Among 57 flowering plant species recorded, 7 were found only in upland and 35 were

found only in riparian habitats (yet bee communities were generally similar). A total of 17 plant

species occurred in both riparian and upland habitats, with most of these plants producing

blooms attractive to specialist or generalist pollinators. A total of six plant species were most

frequently encountered occurring in over 50 percent of sample plots and blooms of these species

persisted an average of four months across all years in the current study: silverleaf nightshade

(*Solanum elaeagnifolium*) (April-September), common sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) (April-

September), narrowleaf globemallow (*Sphaeralcea angustifolia*) (March-July), annual sowthistle

(*Sonchus oleraceus*) (February-April), Texas vervain (*Verbena officinalis*)(February-April), and

cowpen daisy (*Verbesina encelioides*) (March-May). Blooming plant community evenness

differed significantly between riparian (0.94) and upland communities (0.88) (Table 2). Shannon

diversity was higher in riparian (3.66) than upland (2.79) plant communities, and Simpson

diversity index showed slight differences between riparian (0.96) and upland (0.91) communities

(Table 2).

Seasonal Bee Communities

Analysis of pooled bee abundance data showed no significant difference in abundance

between years of data collection. However, effect tests in our statistical model showed a

significant difference for monthly abundance, across all sites and years (DF = 11; F Ratio =

4.9134; P = 0.0048) (α = 0.05). Least-squares means plots showed three peaks of higher bee

abundance in the months of March (0.0170), April (P = 0.0001) and September (P = 0.0139) (α =

0.05) (Fig. 3 a). The two most abundant bees showed clear peaks, with *Apis* had the highest peak

abundances in March and April and *Lasioglossum* (*Dialictus)* in September.

Analysis of pooled community data showed no significant difference in genera richness

between years of data collection. Effect tests in our statistical model showed a significant

difference for monthly genera richness, across all sites and years (DF = 11; F Ratio = 2.8308; P =

0.0473) (α = 0.05). Least-squares means plots shows a bimodal trend of increasing genera

richness in the months of April (P = 0.0115) (averaged 17 genera) and September (averaged 20

genera) (P = 0.0162) (α = 0.05) (Fig. 3 b).

Bee Community, Bloom and Temperature Relationships

Due to non-significant differences between the years of data collection, plant, bee and

environmental data was pooled across years prior to analysis. There was a strong positive

correlation between bee genera and blooming plant richness, which was highly statistically

significant, (r_s = 0.7964; P < 0.0001) (α = 0.05) (Fig. 4 a). Similarly, bee abundance was

positively correlated with blooming plant richness and was statistically significant, (r_s= 0.6260; P

= 0.0006) (α = 0.05) (Fig. 4 b). Average monthly temperature did not have a statistically

significant effect on bee genera richness or bee abundance; however, both abundance and

richness generally decreased at temperatures below 15°C and above 30°C which was highly

evident in the months of April and September across years (Fig. 4 c-d). Bee abundance was

strongly associated with genera richness and was statistically significant (r_s = 0.5821; P =

0.0018) (α = 0.05). A plot of bee abundance by genera was best represented by a log-linear

model, which showed bee abundance increasing logarithmically with increasing genera (Fig. 5).

Discussion

Riparian areas and associated watersheds are extremely vulnerable to natural and human

caused disturbances. The intensity of such disturbances can often be associated with irreversible

changes in these landscapes, usually resulting in loss of biodiversity and overall ecological

identity and function. Along the Lower Rio Grande River (LRGR) near Laredo, TX (including

our study area) urbanization, over extraction of freshwater, and invasive plant species continue to

threaten ecological communities. Recently, the Rio Grande river has been at the forefront of a

growing socio-political issue. The United States government has secured funding to build a

border wall along the Rio Grande between the U.S. and Mexico (Fowler et al. 2018). The LRGR

in Texas will be the most impacted by the construction since there are approximately 2000 km of

border between countries (Fowler et al. 2018). There is little or no data that can serve as a

baseline to determine the effects of ongoing ecological change in this important riparian corridor.

The sampling area is unique in that there are overlapping community structures reminiscent of

both riparian forest, upland scrub habitats, and urban landscapes. Our study shows that diverse

native bees are utilizing riparian habitat resources and if current trend of disturbances continue,

this could have a significant impact on extant bee communities. To date, the current study

provides the only account of bee diversity and flowering plant diversity for this important habitat

and freshwater resource in the region.

Among the dominant genera of bees collected in the study, *Lasioglossum (Dialictus)* was

most abundant. They are ground nesting bees and can have an array of social behaviors that

range from strictly solitary to parasitic. The high number of collected *Lasioglossum (Dialictus)*

may be attributed to our primary sampling method (bee bowls) that has been show to bias

samples towards higher relative abundances for bees in the family Halictidae (Roulston et al.

2007). Bees in the genus *Diadasia* (Tribe Emphorini) are small to medium sized hairy bees that

range in size from 5-20 mm (Michener 2007). The bees encountered from this genus were

observed mainly foraging on narrowleaf globemallow (*Sphaeralcea angustifolia*) which was a

common plant present in both habitat types. Many of the bees in this genus are foraging

specialists and make shallow nests often with tubular entrances around the opening (Michener

2007). The genus *Melissodes* (Tribe Eucerini) are medium to large bodied bees 7.5-16 mm

(Michener 2007). Many of the *Mellisodes* collected were in early - mid fall (September-October)

which is characteristic of this genus (Wilson and Carril 2015). The bees in this genus are

specialists that primarily forage on flowers of the family Asteraceae, but few may be generalists

(Michener 2007). All *Melissodes* are ground nesting solitary bees (Michener 2007).

Unexpectedly, September showed are large spike bee genera and abundance although blooming

plants remained low. Upon further investigation, blooming invasive and weedy plant san

miguelito vine (*Antigonon leptopus*) was found growing within the riparian habitat along with

other dominant flowering plant species. The combined effects of late blooming common

sunflower, silverleaf nightshade and presence of san miguelito vine provide resources for late

season bees such as some *Melissodes*.

There was a clear lack of heterogeneity between upland and riparian zones sampled in the

study. The NMDS procedure failed to find a solution that was associated with habitat

differences, and this was probably because of the overlap of the dominant taxa in the two

habitats. Only genera *Halictus* and *Ashmeadiella* showed a strong affinity for upland habitats.

Halictus are common bees, medium bodied and foraging generalists (Michener 2007).

Ashmeadiella are small bees that have an affinity for drier environments and can be both

generalist and specialist foragers (Wilson and Carril 2015). Some *Ashmeadiella* are known to

forage on mesquite flowers which in our study was only encountered on the upland sites (Wilson

and Carril 2015). The upland site was patchier than the riparian habitat and had a higher invasive

buffelgrass cover, which is a weedy grass that grows in large aggregate groups. Invasion by

grasses like buffelgrass and giant reed, have severely fragmented the landscapes and decreased

floral resources available to foraging bees (Everaars et al. 2018). Grasses are mostly wind

pollinated or propagate vegetatively and don't provide resources for bees. In addition to patchy

vegetation, upland sites also had more bare ground that bees could have used as nesting habitat.

Riparian habitats recorded two times more flowering plant species than upland habitats, which

likely stimulated upland bees to forage in the riparian zone. This is further supported by

distances between the two zones which averaged only 172 m, which might not have been enough

spatial distance to present differences. Consequently, the proximity of both habitats created

overlap of similar plant communities in which would be within bee foraging range. In a study

conducted by Gathmann and Tscharntke (2002) showed that bees averaged 150 – 600 m of

foraging distance between nesting sites and floral resources, which comparatively is well within

our distance measure between habitats. Other covariables that drive distances between habitats,

elevation and distance to river, likely in part drive soil and plant differences in riparian and

upland sites but did not significantly affect bee genera richness and abundance.

Overall, results show high similarities among habitats and dominant, soil-nesting bees in

both habitats. From a conservation standpoint, singletons (4 bee genera) and those occurring as

rare (e.g. fewer than 5 individuals) could warrant further study, while the dominant taxa are

apparently using the river corridor as a habitat and foraging resource. The succession of invasion,

primarily as a result of giant reed grass and riparian disturbance, is a dynamic process. As giant

reed grass continues to spread and create large monotypic stands, floral diversity and potential

pollinator/bee resources may decline (Herrera and Dudley 2003). Consequently, this may cause

extirpation of rare species from the riparian corridor. Furthermore, investigating how

disturbances affect soil nesting native bees would advance our understanding of bee biology in a

unique riparian community. Further, ecological restoration involving native plants could assist in

management of invasive reed grass, coupled with other benefits from intensified riparian

management involving giant reed (Patiño et al. 2018). Ecological restoration towards native

vegetation could support initiative for management of the corridor by reestablishing native

vegetation to replace dense stands of giant reed.

Seasonally, bee communities can vary significantly over time, largely depending on the

availability of floral resources, seasonal phenology and environmental factors (Kimoto et al.

2012). Bee genera and abundance showed a high seasonal/monthly variation but conversely not

significant inter-annual differences. Lack of significant inter-annual differences in bee diversity

may be in part due to the regions relatively consistent subtropical climate, which in turn may

develop patterns in bee behavior (Boucek et al. 2016). Genera across months and years, were

significantly different with April and September having the greatest richness. Similarly,

abundance across months and years was significantly different with March, April and September

having the highest bee abundance which may be largely attributed to floral availability and

temperature (Classen et al. 2015). Kimoto et al. (2012) showed similar trends in their study

where during the spring growing season had the highest bee activity which was also strongly

associated with available floral resources and average monthly temperature. In our study

temperature extremes negatively affected bee behavior since the data showed both abundance

and richness decreased at temperatures below 15°C and above 30°C. To support this blooming

plants, bee genera and abundance are strongly associated in the months of April and September

(across years) which show a temperature range of 25°C -30°C (Fig. 4 c-d). Temperature extremes

could have limited bee access to floral resources although they were abundant. Seasonal rainfall

that may have provided significant information of associations with study variables like genera

richness, bee abundance, and blooming plant counts was not measured.

Conclusion

Along a narrow two mile stretch of the Lower Rio Grande River (LRGR) we recorded

previously undocumented bee and flowering plant communities, which supports further studies

and conservation actions involving this important river and its riparian corridor. How wild and

native bees use this habitat remains an important area of investigation, especially considering

intensified management in the riparian corridor. The community approach and findings of the

current study show diverse bees using resources provided in this variable habitat, while the

diversity and areal coverage of flowering plant communities in the riparian are likely affected by

competition from highly invasive plants such as giant reed grass. These environmental flow-

mediated habitats are facing additional severe threats from anthropogenic activity and invasive

plant species. The flowering plant communities, soil structure (i.e. affecting bee nesting) and bee

communities could serve as biological targets for ecological restoration conducted in this

intensively managed riparian corridor.

Acknowledgements

362   We would like to thank Laredo College and Tom Miller for allowing access to our study

363 sites along the Rio Grande river. We would also like to thank Samuel Discua for assisting in the

364 identification of bee genera. Lastly, we would like to thank Texas A&M International University

365 for research support.

References

Boucek, R. E., E. E. Gaiser, H. Liu, and J. S. Rehage. 2016. A review of subtropical community
resistance and resilience to extreme cold spells. Ecosphere 7: e01455.
Cameron, S. A., J. D. Lozier, J. P. Strange, J. B. Koch, N. Cordes, L. F. Solter, and T. L. Griswold.
2011. Patterns of widespread decline in North American bumble bees. Proceedings of the
National Academy of Sciences 108: 662-667.
Classen, A., M. K. Peters, W. J. Kindeketa, T. Appelhans, C. D. Eardley, M. W. Gikungu, A. Hemp,
T. Nauss, and I. Steffan-Dewenter. 2015. Temperature versus resource constraints: which
factors determine bee diversity on M ount K ilimanjaro, T anzania? Global Ecology and
Biogeography 24: 642-652.
Droege, S., V. J. Tepedino, G. LeBuhn, W. Link, R. L. Minckley, Q. Chen, and C. Conrad. 2010.
Spatial patterns of bee captures in North American bowl trapping surveys. Insect Conservation
and Diversity 3: 15-23.
Ellis, L. M., C. S. Crawford, and M. C. Molles Jr. 2001. Influence of annual flooding on terrestrial
arthropod assemblages of a Rio Grande riparian forest. Regulated Rivers: Research &
Management: An International Journal Devoted to River Research and Management 17: 1-20.
Everaars, J., J. Settele, and C. F. Dormann. 2018. Fragmentation of nest and foraging habitat affects
time budgets of solitary bees, their fitness and pollination services, depending on traits: results
from an individual-based model. PloS one 13: e0188269.
Fellendorf, M., C. Mohra, and R. J. Paxton. 2004. Devasting effects of river flooding to the ground-
nesting bee, Andrena vaga (Hymenoptera: Andrenidae), and its associated fauna. Journal of
Insect Conservation 8: 311-312.
Fiedler, A. K., D. A. Landis, and M. Arduser. 2012. Rapid Shift in Pollinator Communities Following
Invasive Species Removal. Restoration Ecology 20: 593-602.
Fierke, M. K., and J. B. Kauffman. 2006. Invasive species influence riparian plant diversity along a
successional gradient, Willamette River, Oregon. Natural Areas Journal 26: 376-382.
Fowler, N., T. Keitt, O. Schmidt, M. Terry, and K. Trout. 2018. Border wall: bad for biodiversity.
Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 16: 137-138.
Fürst, M., D. P. McMahon, J. Osborne, R. Paxton, and M. Brown. 2014. Disease associations
between honeybees and bumblebees as a threat to wild pollinators. Nature 506: 364.
Gathmann, A., and T. Tscharntke. 2002. Foraging ranges of solitary bees. Journal of animal ecology
71: 757-764.
Hall, H. G. 2016. Color Preferences of Bees Captured in Pan Traps. Journal of the Kansas Entomological
Society 89: 273-277.
Henne, C., E. Rodriguez, and J. Adamczyk. 2012. A survey of bee species found pollinating
watermelons in the lower Rio Grande valley of Texas. Psyche: A Journal of Entomology 2012.
Herrera, A. M., and T. L. Dudley. 2003. Reduction of riparian arthropod abundance and diversity as a
consequence of giant reed (Arundo donax) invasion. Biological Invasions 5: 167-177.
Karatayev, A. Y., T. D. Miller, and L. E. Burlakova. 2012. Long-term changes in unionid assemblages
in the Rio Grande, one of the World's top 10 rivers at risk. Aquatic Conservation: Marine and
Freshwater Ecosystems 22: 206-219.
Kimoto, C., S. J. DeBano, R. W. Thorp, S. Rao, and W. P. Stephen. 2012. Investigating temporal
patterns of a native bee community in a remnant North American bunchgrass prairie using blue
vane traps. Journal of Insect Science 12: 108.
Klich, M. A. 2007. Aspergillus flavus: the major producer of aflatoxin. Molecular plant pathology 8:
713-722.

Kremen, C., N. M. Williams, and R. W. Thorp. 2002. Crop pollination from native bees at risk from
agricultural intensification. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 99: 16812-16816.
Kristine J. Brooks, S. A. S., and Michael M. Douglas. 2010. Exotic Grass Invasions: Applying a
conceptual Framework to the Dynamicsof Degredation and Restoration in Australia's Tropical
Savannas. Restoration Ecology 18: 188-197.
LeBuhn, G., S. Droege, E. Connor, B. Gemmill-Herren, and N. Azzu. 2016. Protocol to Detect and
Monitor Pollinator Communities: Guidance for Practitioners. Food and Agriculture Organization
(FAO): Rome, Italy.
Losey, J. E., and M. Vaughan. 2006. The economic value of ecological services provided by insects.
Bioscience 56: 311-323.
M.M.T Beater, R. D. G., E.T.F. Witkowski. 2008. Impacts of clearing invasive alien plants from 1995
to 2005 on vegetation structure, invasion intensity and ground cover in a temperate to subtropical
riparian ecosystem. South African Journal of Botany 74: 495 - 507.
Michener, C. 2007. The bees of the world.
Moore, G., F. Li, L. Kui, and J. West. 2016. Flood water legacy as a persistent source for riparian
vegetation during prolonged drought: an isotopic study of Arundo donax on the Rio Grande.
Ecohydrology 9: 909-917.
NRCS, U. 2006. Land resource regions and major land resource areas of the United States, the Caribbean,
and the Pacific Basin. US Department of Agriculture Handbook 296.
Osbrink, W. L. A., D. B. Thomas, J. A. Goolsby, A. T. Showler, and B. Leal. 2018. Higher Beetle
Diversity in Native Vegetation Than in Stands of the Invasive Arundo, Arundo donax L., along
the Rio Grande Basin in Texas, USA. Journal of Insect Science 18.
Patiño, R., R. H. Rashel, A. Rubio, and S. Longing. 2018. Growth-suppressing and algicidal properties
of an extract from Arundo donax, an invasive riparian plant, against Prymnesium parvum, an
invasive harmful alga. Harmful algae 71: 1-9.
Potts, S. G., J. C. Biesmeijer, C. Kremen, P. Neumann, O. Schweiger, and W. E. Kunin. 2010.
Global pollinator declines: trends, impacts and drivers. Trends Ecol Evol 25: 345-353.
Ragsdale, N. N., K. Hackett, and K. Kaplan. 2007. Vanishing honey bees-colony collapse disorder.
Outlooks on Pest Management 18: 280.
Roulston, T. a. H., S. A. Smith, and A. L. Brewster. 2007. A comparison of pan trap and intensive net
sampling techniques for documenting a bee (Hymenoptera: Apiformes) fauna. Journal of the
Kansas Entomological Society 80: 179-181.
Rubio, A., A. E. Racelis, T. C. Vaughan, and J. A. Goolsby. 2014. Riparian soil seed banks and the
potential for passive restoration of giant reed infested areas in Webb County, Texas. Ecological
Restoration 32: 347-349.
Sanders, R., and W. Gabriel. 1985. Soil survey of Webb County, Texas. Soil Conservation Service. US
Department of Agriculture, Washington DC, USA.
**Sands, J. P., L. A. Brennan, F. Hernández, W. P. Kuvlesky Jr, J. F. Gallagher, and D. C. Ruthven
III. 2012.** Impacts of introduced grasses on breeding season habitat use by northern bobwhite in
the South Texas plains. The Journal of Wildlife Management 76: 608-618.
Wilson, J. S., and O. J. M. Carril. 2015. The bees in your backyard: a guide to North America's bees,
Princeton University Press.

Figure 1. Map of the study area with bee bowl trap locations in riparian and upland habitats (triangles) Locations of

vegetation transects for flowering plant surveys (not shown) are within the extent of this sampling area and included

habitats within 5 m surrounding bee bowl locations.

476   Figure 2

478   Comparison of total generic bee abundances and total bloom counts in upland and riparian habitats during the study

479   period. Data has been pooled by years and shown as totals by month. Generic bee abundances were significantly

480   correlated to total bloom counts (r_s= 0.6260; P = 0.0006) (α = 0.05).

Figure 3

(a) Interaction plot of pooled bee abundance by month (years combined) (a), and interaction plot of pooled genera

richness by month (years combined) (b). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 4

Interaction plot of blooming plant richness (line) and bee genera richness (bars) (a) and bee abundance (bars) (b).

Interaction plot of monthly average temperature (line) and genera richness (bars) (c) and bee abundance (bars) (d).

Figure 5

Relationship of pooled bee abundance and genera richness showing a log linear interaction. Shading around

494   fit line shows the 95% confidence intervals.

Table 1. Bee genera collected during the study period and summary of diversity indices in riparian and upland sites.

Genus	Riparian	Upland	Total
Agapostemon	45	40	85
Ancyloscelis	8	16	24
Andrena	2	12	14
Anthophora	40	25	65
Anthophorula	3		3
Apis	140	72	212
Ashmeadiella	1	17	18
Augochlorella	3		3
Augochloropsis	15	9	24
Calliopsis	6	2	8
Centris		2	2
Ceratina	27	20	47
Diadasia	65	38	103
Dialictus	289	329	618
Epeolus	1		1
Eucera	4	3	7
Florilegus	1		1
Halictus		7	7
Lasioglossum	28	31	59
Lithurgus	5	2	7
Megachile	4	2	6
Melissodes	53	55	108
Osmia	5	8	13
Perdita	1	1	2
Pseudopanurgus		1	1
Sphecodogastra	1		1
Svastra	1	2	3
Vespidae	18	20	38
Xylocopa	4	5	9

	Riparian	Upland		
Total Richness	26	24	Grand Total	1489
Shannon	2.14	2.10		
Simpson	0.805	0.763		
Shannon Evenness	0.656	0.661		

514   **Table 2.** Blooming flowering plants and summary of diversity indices in riparian and upland sites.

Species	Riparian	Upland	Total
Acacia rigidula		1	1
Aloysia gratissima	4		4
Antigonon leptopus	1		1
Aphanostephus ramosissimus	3	3	6
Argemone sanguinea	5		5
Astragalus brazoensis		1	1
Brassica juncea	3		3
Chromolaena odorata	5	4	9
Ciclospermum leptophyllum	2		2
Cirsum texanum	3		3
Conyza canadensis	3		3
Croton ciliatoglanduliferus		1	1
Descurainia pinnata	4		4
Ehretia anacua		3	3
Funastrum clausum	1	1	2
Gaillardia pulchella	2		2
Galium aparine	2		2
Gamochaeta pensilvanica	6		6
Gaura parviflora	5		5
Glandularia quadrangulata	3	3	6
Heart Leaf Hibiscus	1		1
Helenium microcephalum	3		3
Helianthus annuus	14	14	28
Lactuca serriola	3	3	6
Lamium amplexicaule	1	1	2
Lantana camara	3		3
Lepidum viginicum	6	5	11
Leucosyris spinosa	2		2
Malva parviflora	2	2	4
Maurandella antirrhiniflora	3		3
Melilotus indicus	2		2
Monarda punctata	5		5
Morus rubra	1		1
Nama hispidum		4	4
Neptunia spp.	2		2
Oenothera speciosa	2	2	4
Oxalis stricta	2		2
Parietaria pennsylvanica	2		2

520   **Table 2.** Blooming flowering plants and summary of diversity indices in riparian and upland sites.

Species	Riparian	Upland	Total
Parkinsonia aculeata	3	3	6
Plantago rhodosperma	2	2	4
Prosopis glandulosa		1	1
Ratibida columnifera	3		3
Rubus riograndis	3		3
Ruellia simplex	2		2
Sibara virginica	3		3
Sisymbrium irio	4		4
Solanum americanum	1		1
Solanum elaegnifolium	15	15	30
Solanum triquetrum	3		3
Sonchus oleraceus	7	6	13
Sphaeralcea angustifolia	11	11	22
Teucrium cubense	2		2
Vachelia farnesiana		2	2
Verbena officianalis	8	8	16
Verbena plicata	1	1	2
Verbesina encelioides	6		6
Vicia ludoviciana	5		5

	Riparian	Upland	Grand Total	
Total Richness	50	24		282
Shannon	3.66	2.79		
Simpson	0.967	0.918		
Shannon Evenness	0.94	0.88		

538