



Cite this article: Maclvor JS. 2016 DNA barcoding to identify leaf preference of leafcutting bees. *R. Soc. open sci.* **3**: 150623. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rsos.150623>

Received: 15 November 2015

Accepted: 4 February 2016

Subject Category:

Biology (whole organism)

Subject Areas:

molecular biology/ecology/plant science

Keywords:

Megachile, Megachilidae, ITS2, rcbL, phylogeny, antimicrobial properties

Author for correspondence:

J. Scott Maclvor

e-mail: scott.macivor@utoronto.ca

DNA barcoding to identify leaf preference of leafcutting bees

J. Scott Maclvor

Department of Biological Sciences, University of Toronto Scarborough,
1265 Military Trail, Toronto, Ontario, Canada M1C 1A5

JSM, 0000-0002-2443-8192

Leafcutting bees (*Megachile*: Megachilidae) cut leaves from various trees, shrubs, wildflowers and grasses to partition and encase brood cells in hollow plant stems, decaying logs or in the ground. The identification of preferred plant species via morphological characters of the leaf fragments is challenging and direct observation of bees cutting leaves from certain plant species are difficult. As such, data are poor on leaf preference of leafcutting bees. In this study, I use DNA barcoding of the rcbL and ITS2 regions to identify and compare leaf preference of three *Megachile* bee species widespread in Toronto, Canada. Nests were opened and one leaf piece from one cell per nest of the native *M. pugnata* Say ($N = 45$ leaf pieces), and the introduced *M. rotundata* Fabricius ($N = 64$) and *M. centuncularis* (L.) ($N = 65$) were analysed. From 174 individual DNA sequences, 54 plant species were identified. Preference by *M. rotundata* was most diverse (36 leaf species, $H' = 3.08$, phylogenetic diversity (pd) = 2.97), followed by *M. centuncularis* (23 species, $H' = 2.38$, pd = 1.51) then *M. pugnata* (18 species, $H' = 1.87$, pd = 1.22). Cluster analysis revealed significant overlap in leaf choice of *M. rotundata* and *M. centuncularis*. There was no significant preference for native leaves, and only *M. centuncularis* showed preference for leaves of woody plants over perennials. Interestingly, antimicrobial properties were present in all but six plants collected; all these were exotic plants and none were collected by the native bee, *M. pugnata*. These missing details in interpreting what bees need offers valuable information for conservation by accounting for necessary (and potentially limiting) nesting materials.

1. Background

The Megachilidae is the second largest bee family with over 3900 species and a worldwide distribution [1,2]. These bees

are solitary and important pollinators in most terrestrial environments. Many of these bees use foreign materials to construct their nests [1–4]. For some megachilid species, these nesting materials consist of little more than fine particle mud, sand and smaller pebbles [5]. Others depend on plant materials including leaves, flower petals, resins and plant hairs [5–10]. The collection of foreign material is one factor that may have promoted the diversification of megachilid bees [4].

Megachilid bees and especially those in the genus *Megachile* predominantly collect leaves by cutting pieces with their mandibles to construct their nests [11–13]. Not all leafcutting bees actually collect leaves, some use flower petals (e.g. *M. montivaga* Cresson) [14,15] and others collect plant resins (*M. sculpturalis* Smith, *M. campanulae* Robertson), or even tile caulking and plastic bags [16]. Although leafcutting bees are well-studied compared with other solitary bees [17,18], surprisingly little information is available on which leaf types are cut and by which bee species.

Nesting material choice may limit the geographical ranges and/or abundances of particular bee species. However, the leaf preferences of megachilid bee species have rarely been investigated. Identifying leaf preference could inform management and conservation [19], research and the improvement of experimental design [20–22], as well as plant selection and horticulture to reduce damage to ornamental plant species [23]. For example, Horne [19] experimentally evaluated the leaf preference of *M. rotundata* among 11 plant species. In enclosures, bees cut all plant species offered to them but showed a significant preference for leaves of buckwheat (*Fagopyrum esculentum* Moench), which were also significantly larger than the leaves of the other 10 species. Kim [20] observed *M. apicalis* Spinola visiting *Wisteria* sp. for leaf pieces in nature and subsequently used the plant in pots in enclosures to study relationships between female body size and fecundity. Finally, Nugent & Wagner [23] compared the level of leaf defoliation by unidentified *Megachile* bee species on seven different *Populus* cultivars and found one cultivar was defoliated significantly less than all others. Mechanical properties of leaves are evidently important for leaf preference in leaf-collecting *Megachile* bees. However, studies of resin- and trichome (leaf hair)-collecting megachilid bees suggest antimicrobial factors are important to protect brood from diseases, moulds and parasites [24–26], and so these properties might also be desirable among leaf-collecting *Megachile* bees.

Studies that report the identities of leaves cut by megachilid bees do so based on the characteristic damage to leaves [19,27–32] (figure 1). For example, one study made observations on *Hoplitis producta* (Cresson) collecting *Fragaria* sp. leaf pieces [33], Michener [1] noted *Hoplitis pilosifrons* (Cresson) using *Oenothera* sp. leaves, *M. centuncularis* was observed cutting leaves from beech (*Fagus*) trees [34], and another study found the ground-nesting *M. integra* Cresson using blackberry (*Rubus* sp.) [35]. Strickler *et al.* [32] linked *M. relativa* Cresson to cutting plants in the genera *Fragaria* and *Epilobium*, and *M. inermis* Provancher to (among many others) *Acer*, *Betula*, *Rubus* and *Amelanchier*. The authors associated the size of the cuts on the leaves to the two different bees studied because the first bee species cut noticeably larger pieces than the second one.

Determining leaf preference from observations of the bee in the act of cutting, or by surveying for the characteristic leaf cuts on plants, gives partial lists that can offer useful details about local megachilid bee nesting requirements. However, methods that more accurately link leaf–bee species interactions could provide details about inter- and intraspecific variation in leaf preference, contributing to gaps in knowledge on these essential pollinators. One technique that could ameliorate our understanding of leafcutting bee nesting preferences is DNA barcoding, which uses the diversity in short gene sequence regions to improve species-level identification [36–39]. These techniques are especially useful in cases where morphological identification is difficult or not possible [40], as is the case with leaf fragments in bee nests.

In this study, I use DNA barcoding to identify leaf preference of three leafcutting bee species, one native (*M. pugnata* Say) and two exotic bees that are naturalized in the study region, *M. centuncularis* (L.) and *M. rotundata* [13]. The leaf fragments were removed from nests constructed in artificial nest-boxes that were set up in the city of Toronto in 2012 and 2013. I first compare the species diversity in leaf preference among the three bee species and as previous studies show bee species tend to prefer leaves from only a few species [19,20], I hypothesize that bees would not overlap in their leaf preferences. Second, because anthropogenic landscape change can reduce phylogenetic diversity (pd) [41], I hypothesize that the leaf preference of the native bee studied in an urban environment would be more phylogenetically constrained than that of the two exotic bees. Native bees prefer native plants [42,43], and so similarly I hypothesize that the native bee (*M. pugnata*) would prefer native leaves rather than exotic ones for nesting material. Lastly, I determine whether any bees exhibit specialization or affinities for native or exotic species, or particular kinds of vegetation, including trees, shrubs or flowering plants, which would have applications for conservation planning and management.

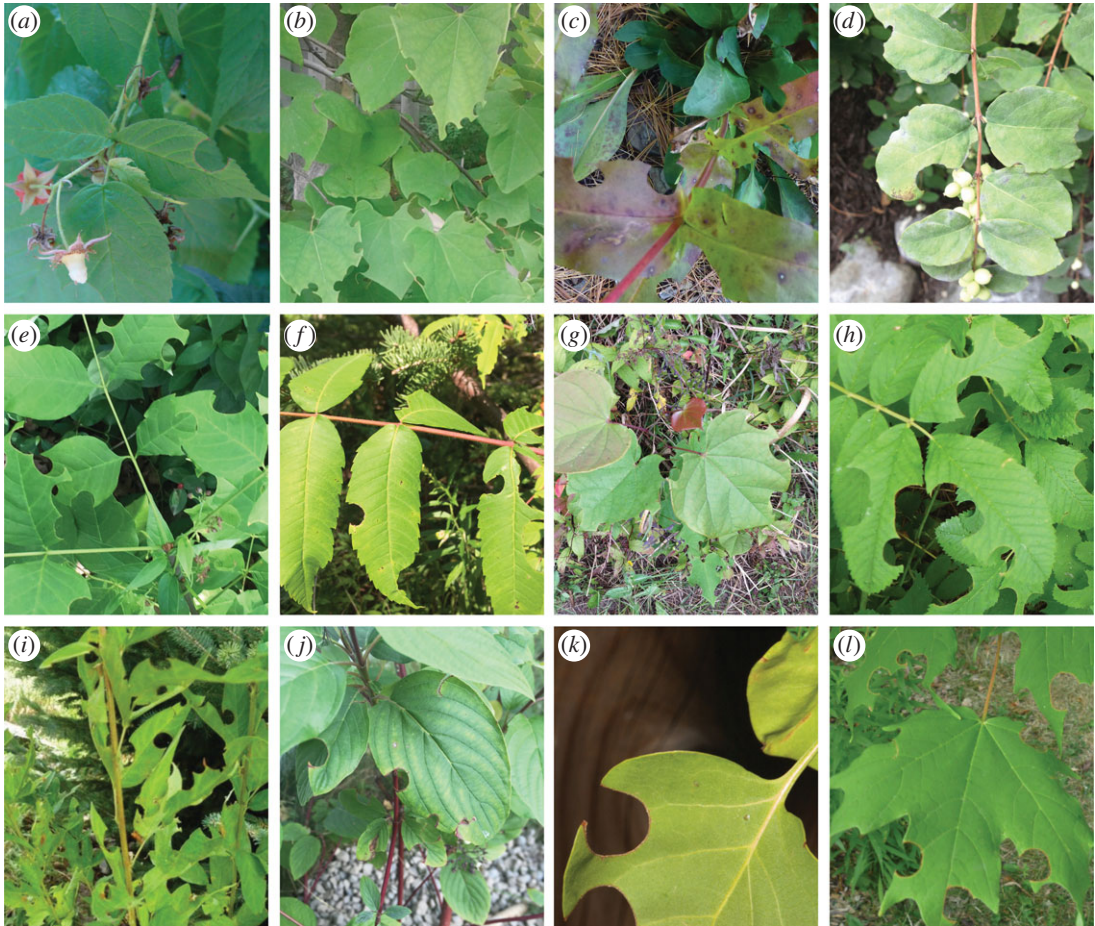


Figure 1. Examples of cuts by leafcutting bees on various plants. (a) Raspberry (*Rubus*) (photo: Sara Schraf), (b) redbud (*Cercis*) (photo: Heather Lynn), (c) beardtongue (*Penstemon*) (photo: Deb Chute), (d) honeysuckle (*Lonicera*), (e) ash (*Fraxinus*), (f) sumac (*Rhus typhina*), (g) basswood (*Tilia*), (h) rose (*Rosa*) (photo: Deb Chute), (i) Canadian tick trefoil (*Desmodium*) (photo: Deb Chute), (j) dogwood (*Cornus*), (k) lilac (*Syringa*) (photo: Rob Cruickshanks) and (l) maple (*Acer*) (photo: Victoria MacPhail).

2. Material and methods

2.1. Sample collection

To sample leaves from nests I set up artificial nests (nest-boxes), which are a preferred habitat for many cavity-nesting bee species [8,17,44,45]. One nest-box was set up at each of 200 locations throughout the city of Toronto in residential gardens, community gardens, public parks and on green roofs, each year from 2011–2013, approximately 250 m apart in distance [46]. Each nest-box was made of a 30 cm piece of PVC pipe that was 10 cm in diameter into which 30 cardboard nesting tubes (10 of each of three widths: 7.6 mm, 5.5 mm, 3.4 mm) were inserted [47]. These were attached to fixed structures at each site (e.g. wooden stake, fence post, exposed tree limb). Nest-boxes were set up in April and retrieved in October. The nesting tubes were opened and all brood were stored in a walk-in fridge at 4°C for the winter. In spring, all individual brood cells were placed in a growth chamber at 26°C and 65% humidity so that they could be identified to species level after emergence.

Thirty-six bee species (including five cleptoparasites) used the nest-boxes over the three seasons [46]. From this group, three common leafcutting species were selected for study, the native *M. pugnata*, and the introduced *M. centuncularis* and *M. rotundata*. *M. pugnata* uses mud and chewed leaves to line its brood cells, and makes partitions between adjacent cells using circular pieces of leaves laid one over the other (figure 2). *M. rotundata* and *M. centuncularis* collect circular pieces of leaves and line each brood cell with a roll of layered leaves (figure 2). One leaf piece was selected from one cell per nest of the native *M. pugnata* ($N = 45$ leaf pieces; 10 sites), and the introduced *M. rotundata* ($N = 64$; 29 sites)

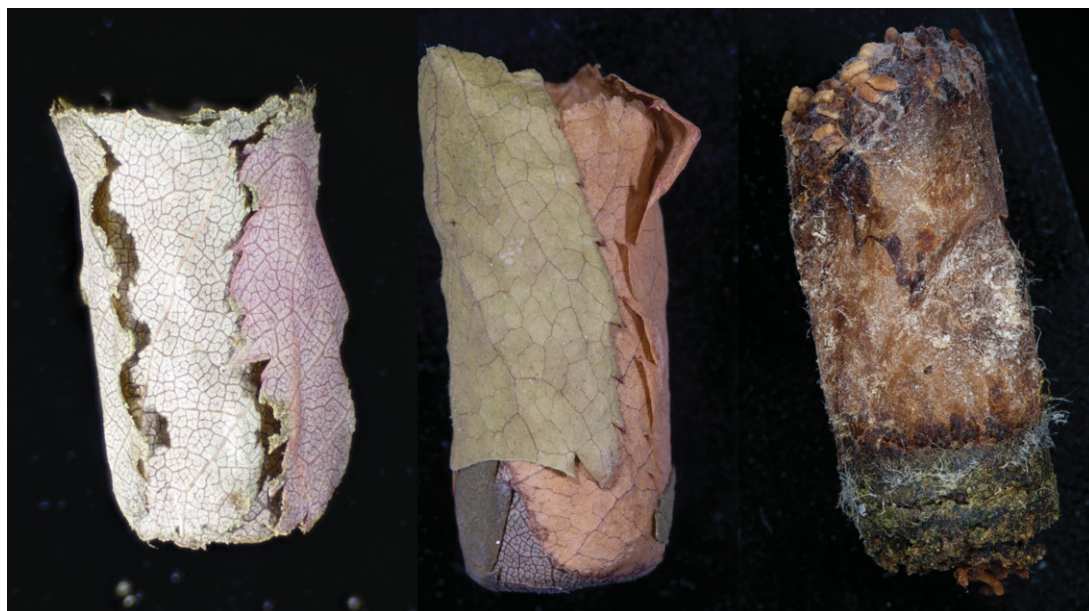


Figure 2. Representative examples of brood cells constructed by each of the leafcutting bees. From left to right: *M. rotundata*, *M. centuncularis* and *M. pugnata*. Photos were taken at the Packer Collection at York University (PCYU) laboratory using a Canon E05 40D camera with a K2 lens and a 10× lens attachment, with a Microoptics ML 1000 fibreoptics illuminating system at the highest flash setting and highest magnification.

and *M. centuncularis* ($N = 65$; 31 sites). A total of 62 sites were sampled over the 2012 and 2013 seasons. No sites were shared among all three bees, and only two sites were shared between *M. pugnata* and *M. centuncularis*, one between *M. pugnata* and *M. rotundata*, and four sites between *M. centuncularis* and *M. rotundata*.

To determine the identity of each leaf cut sample, using forceps I removed one leaf piece per brood cell, then each was cut into a 0.5 cm² square, washed in ethanol, air dried, and placed into an individual sampling vial in a 96-vial DNA extraction plate (AcroPrep) provided by the Canadian Centre for DNA Barcoding (CCDB). Two filled plates of leaf fragments were then sent to the CCDB for DNA extraction [48] and barcoding [37,49,50]. The primers rcbL and ITS2 were used to obtain nucleotide sequences for each sample. Identities of the leaf samples were determined by downloading sequence data (greater than 50 bp) from the Barcode of Life Data (BOLD) systems. A total of 47.4% of samples yielded incomplete sequence data (rcbL = 11.9% of sample, ITS2 = 35.6%). However, sequence quality was high (rcbL = 96.7% (<1% Ns); ITS2 = 93.75% (<1% Ns)) and sequence data were cross-referenced in the gene sequence database GenBank [51] for 100% matches using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) [52]. Lastly, once the identities of the leaves were determined, the antimicrobial properties of each of the plant species were determined by surveying the literature that measures these values (table 1) [53–60].

2.2. Analysis

From the type and number of leaf species cut as determined by DNA barcoding, I determined the richness and Shannon diversity index (H') of leaf species preference for each of the three bee species. Rarefaction curves for leaf preference of all bee species were interpreted using iNEXT software [61,62]. Using the package 'ecodist' [63] in the R statistical program [64], I calculated the Bray–Curtis dissimilarity index to compare how leaf preference differed between the leafcutting bee species. I then used a Spearman's rank correlation to determine similarity in leaf preference between each bee species pair. Bee species pairs that were positively correlated meant they overlapped in leaf preference. The leaf preferences of the three bee species were also compared by plant species grouped by status ('exotic' or 'native') and type ('tree', 'shrub', 'perennial', 'annual') using a set of Pearson's χ^2 -tests in the R package 'MASS'. Some plant species used by the bees were biennials ($N = 3$, see table 1) and these were included as perennials in the analysis. Another χ^2 -test was used to compare preference with plant species grouped as 'woody' ('tree' + 'shrub') or 'non-woody' ('perennial' + 'biennial' + 'annual').

Table 1. List of leaf species collected by each of the three megachilid bees as determined using DNA barcoding. Plants having secondary compounds with known antimicrobial properties were determined for each species or genus as per ^aNickell [53], ^bBorchardt *et al.* [54], ^cMogg *et al.* [55], ^dCappuccino & Armason [56], ^eHayes [57], ^fMadsen & Pates [58], ^gAmadou *et al.* [59], ^hChen *et al.* [60]. These were denoted at the species level with ‘+++’, at the genus level with ‘++’. Species known to have no known antimicrobial and antifungal properties are given ‘-’, and at the genus level ‘---’. MC, *M. centuncularis*; MP, *M. pugnata*; MR, *M. rotundata*.

family	genus	common	status	type	antimicrobial	MC	MP	MR
Anacardiaceae	<i>Rhus typhina</i> L.	staghorn sumac	native	tree	++ ^{ab}	1	0	4
Apocynaceae	<i>Gynanchum rossicum</i> (Kleopow) Borhidi	dog-strangling vine	exotic	perennial	++ ^{cd}	0	0	7
Asteraceae	<i>Artemisia biennis</i> L.	wormwood	exotic	biennial	++ ^a	0	0	1
	<i>Helianthus annuus</i> L.	common sunflower	native	annual	+ ^a	0	0	1
	<i>Rudbeckia triloba</i> L.	brown-eyed susan	native	perennial	+ ^a	0	0	1
	<i>Solidago canadensis</i> L.	Canadian goldenrod	native	perennial	++ ^a	0	0	1
Caryophyllaceae	<i>Symphytrichum nova-angliae</i> (L.) G.L.Nesom	New England aster	native	perennial	++ ^a	0	1	0
	<i>Silene vulgaris</i> (Moench) Garcke	bladder campion	exotic	perennial	-- ^b	1	0	0
Celastraceae	<i>Celastrus scandens</i> L.	American bittersweet	native	tree	++ ^a	1	0	0
Chenopodiaceae	<i>Chenopodium album</i> L.	lamb's quarter	exotic	annual	++ ^a	0	2	1
Convolvulaceae	<i>Convolvulus arvensis</i> L.	field bindweed	exotic	annual	++ ^e	0	0	1
Comaceae	<i>Ipomoea hederacea</i> Jacq.	ivy-leaved morning glory	exotic	annual	+ ^f	0	0	2
	<i>Cornus stolonifera</i> L.	red osier dogwood	native	shrub	++ ^a	0	1	1
	<i>Cornus racemosa</i> Lam.	gray dogwood	native	shrub	+ ^b	0	5	0
Euphorbiaceae	<i>Euphorbia dentata</i> Michx.	toothed spurge	exotic	annual	+ ^b	0	0	1

(Continued.)

Table 1. (Continued.)

family	genus	common	status	type	antimicrobial	MC	MP	MR
Fabaceae	<i>Amphicarpaea bracteata</i> (L.) Fernald.	hog peanut	native	perennial	++ ^a	0	0	1
	<i>Baptisia australis</i> Hort. Ex. Lehm.	false indigo	exotic	perennial	++ ^a	1	0	1
	<i>Caragana arborescens</i> Lam.	Siberian peashrub	exotic	shrub	+ ^a	1	0	0
	<i>Cercis canadensis</i> L.	redbud	native	tree	++ ^a	5	0	3
	<i>Desmodium canadense</i> (L.) DC.	Canadian tick trefoil	native	perennial	++ ^a	2	0	2
	<i>Lotus corniculatus</i> L.	bird's-foot trefoil	exotic	perennial	-- ^b	0	0	2
	<i>Melilotus alba</i> Medik.	sweet clover	exotic	annual	++ ^a	0	0	4
	<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i> L.	string bean	exotic	annual	++ ^a	4	0	0
	<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i> L.	black locust	native	tree	++ ^a	2	0	0
	<i>Securigera varia</i> (L.) Lassen	crown vetch	exotic	annual	++ ^a	0	0	1
Grossulariaceae	<i>Ribes hirtellum</i> Michx.	American gooseberry	native	shrub	++ ^a	0	0	1
Juglandaceae	<i>Carya cordiformis</i> (Wangenh.) K. Koch	bitternut hickory	native	tree	+ ^a	0	1	0
Lamiaceae	<i>Stachys palustris</i> L.	marsh woundwort	exotic	perennial	-- ^b	1	0	1
Lythraceae	<i>Lythrum salicaria</i> L.	purple loosestrife	exotic	perennial	++ ^b	1	5	0
Oleaceae	<i>Syringa vulgaris</i> L.	common lilac	exotic	tree	-- ^b	0	0	3
Onagraceae	<i>Epilobium ciliatum</i> Raf.	slender willowherb	native	perennial	++ ^b	0	1	0
	<i>Epilobium parviflorum</i> (Schreb.) Schreb.	smallflower hairy willowherb	native	perennial	+ ^b	2	0	1
	<i>Oenothera biennis</i> L.	common evening primrose	native	biennial	++ ^{be}	0	0	2
	<i>Oenothera parviflora</i> L.	northern evening primrose	native	biennial	++ ^a	1	0	0
	<i>Oenothera pilosella</i> Raf.	meadow evening primrose	native	perennial	+ ^b	0	5	1

(Continued.)

Table 1. (Continued.)

family	genus	common	status	type	antimicrobial	MC	MP	MR
Papaveraceae	<i>Chelidonium majus</i> L.	greater celandine	native	perennial	++ ^a	0	0	2
Poaceae	<i>Setaria italica</i> (L.) P.Beauv.	foxtail millet	exotic	annual	++ ^g	0	0	1
Polygonaceae	<i>Fallopia convolvulus</i> (L.) A. Löve	black bindweed	exotic	annual	++ ^h	0	1	1
Rhamnaceae	<i>Rhamnus cathartica</i> L.	common buckthorn	exotic	tree	-- ^b	0	0	2
Rosaceae	<i>Crataegus macrocarpa</i> Ashe	big fruit hawthorn	native	tree	+ ^b	0	1	0
	<i>Fragaria virginiana</i> Duchesne	wild strawberry	native	perennial	+ ^b	0	1	0
	<i>Prunus avium</i> (L.)	bird cherry	exotic	tree	+ ^b	2	4	1
	<i>Prunus virginiana</i> L.	chokecherry	native	tree	+ ^b	0	1	0
	<i>Rosa blanda</i> Gray	smooth wild rose	native	shrub	+ ^b	1	1	1
	<i>Rosa palustris</i> Marshall	swamp rose	exotic	shrub	+ ^b	3	4	0
	<i>Rosa multiflora</i> Thunb.	multiflora rose	native	shrub	++ ^a	15	5	5
	<i>Rosa glauca</i> Pourret	red-leaved rose	exotic	shrub	+ ^b	3	1	1
	<i>Rosa virginiana</i> P.Mill	common wild rose	exotic	shrub	+ ^b	0	5	0
	<i>Rubus occidentalis</i> L.	black raspberry	native	shrub	+ ^b	3	0	0
Sapindaceae	<i>Acer saccharum</i> Marshall	sugar maple	native	tree	++ ^a	4	0	3
	<i>Acer platanoides</i> L.	Norway maple	exotic	tree	++ ^a	8	0	1
Tiliaceae	<i>Tilia cordata</i> Mill.	small leaf linden	native	tree	+ ^b	0	0	1
Vitaceae	<i>Ampelopsis japonica</i> (Thunb.) Makino.	Japanese peppervine	exotic	shrub	- ^g	1	0	0
	<i>Vitis riparia</i> Michx.	riverbank grape	native	shrub	+ ^{pe}	2	0	1

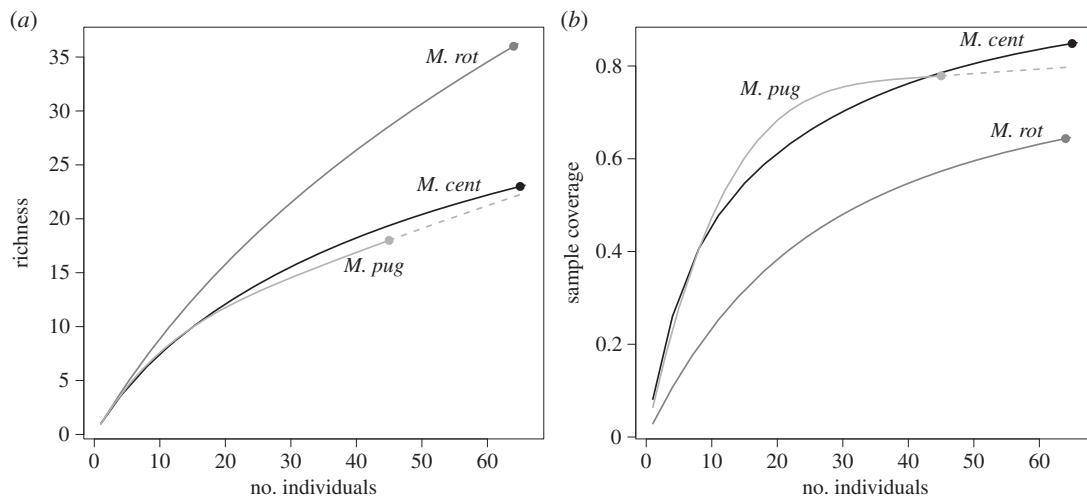


Figure 3. (a,b) Rarefaction and species completeness curves for the leafcutting bee species (*M. centuncularis* = *M. cent*, *M. pugnata* = *M. pug*, *M. rotundata* = *M. rot*).

To compare pd in leaf preference by each of the three bee species, I constructed a phylogeny of all leaf species identified from the nests of each species by using the prune function in the R package 'phytools' [65] from an existing rooted phylogeny of 912 plant species identified from the study region [66]. Faith's pd was calculated from the phylogeny of leaf preference for each of the three bee species using the R package 'picante' [67].

3. Results

DNA barcoding identified leaves of 54 species in 46 genera and 24 families (table 1) from 174 samples (e.g. every third sample was of a unique plant species). The leaves collected were significantly different among bee species ($\chi^2 = 197.44$, $p < 0.001$). *M. centuncularis* collected 23 species in 20 genera and 10 families, and 23.1% of the total leaves analysed were *Rosa multiflora* Thunb. *M. pugnata* collected leaves from 18 species in 14 genera and 8 families, with *Cornus racemosa* Lam., *Lythrum salicaria* L., *R. multiflora* and *R. virginiana* P.Mill. all tied for the most identified leaf type (11.1% each). *M. rotundata* collected leaves from 36 species in 33 genera and 20 families. *Cynanchum rossicum* (Kleopow) Borhidi was the most often identified species for *M. rotundata*. Rarefying leaf species richness and sample completeness for all three bees to control for uneven sample size indicated that the estimate of total species richness was lower for *M. pugnata* and *M. centuncularis* than *M. rotundata* and that sampling more adequately characterized the leaf preference of *M. pugnata* than that of *M. centuncularis* and *M. rotundata* (figure 3).

Diversity in leaf preference was greatest in the exotic *M. rotundata* ($H' = 3.08$) then *M. centuncularis* ($H' = 2.38$), and lowest in the native *M. pugnata* ($H' = 1.87$). The pd in leaf preference was highest in *M. rotundata* (pd = 2.97), followed by *M. centuncularis* (pd = 1.51) and the native *M. pugnata* (pd = 1.22) (figure 4). Controlling for species richness (pd/SR), *M. centuncularis* (0.64) and *M. pugnata* (0.65) were more constrained in pd than was *M. rotundata* (0.96).

A Bray–Curtis cluster analysis showed leaf preference between *M. centuncularis* and *M. rotundata* was more similar than that of *M. pugnata* (figure 5). A Pearson's *R* correlation confirmed that there was significant overlap in the leaf preference of *M. centuncularis* and *M. rotundata* ($R = 0.288$, $p = 0.035$). Four plant species were visited by all bee species and all were shrubs or trees: *R. blanda* Gray, *R. glauca* Pourret, *R. multiflora* and *Prunus avium* (L.) (table 1). Twelve plant species were shared between *M. centuncularis* and *M. rotundata*, whereas *M. pugnata* shared six and eight leaf species with *M. centuncularis* and *M. rotundata*, respectively. *M. rotundata* used seven species from the legume family Fabaceae and preferred these plants to the others (21.5% of the total). Rosaceae was the most used family for both *M. centuncularis* (6 species, $N = 27$) and *M. pugnata* (9 species, $N = 23$). For *M. pugnata*, leaves in the family Rosaceae represented half of all species collected. Leaves of *R. multiflora* were the most abundantly collected species by all three species combined ($N = 25$). Only one grass species was collected, *Setaria italica* (L.) P. Beauvois, by one *M. rotundata* individual (table 1).

Native leaves were not collected more than exotic leaves ($\chi^2 = 1.30$, $p = 0.52$) with 30 native plant species and 24 exotic species collected among the three bees (table 2). Exotic plant species collected

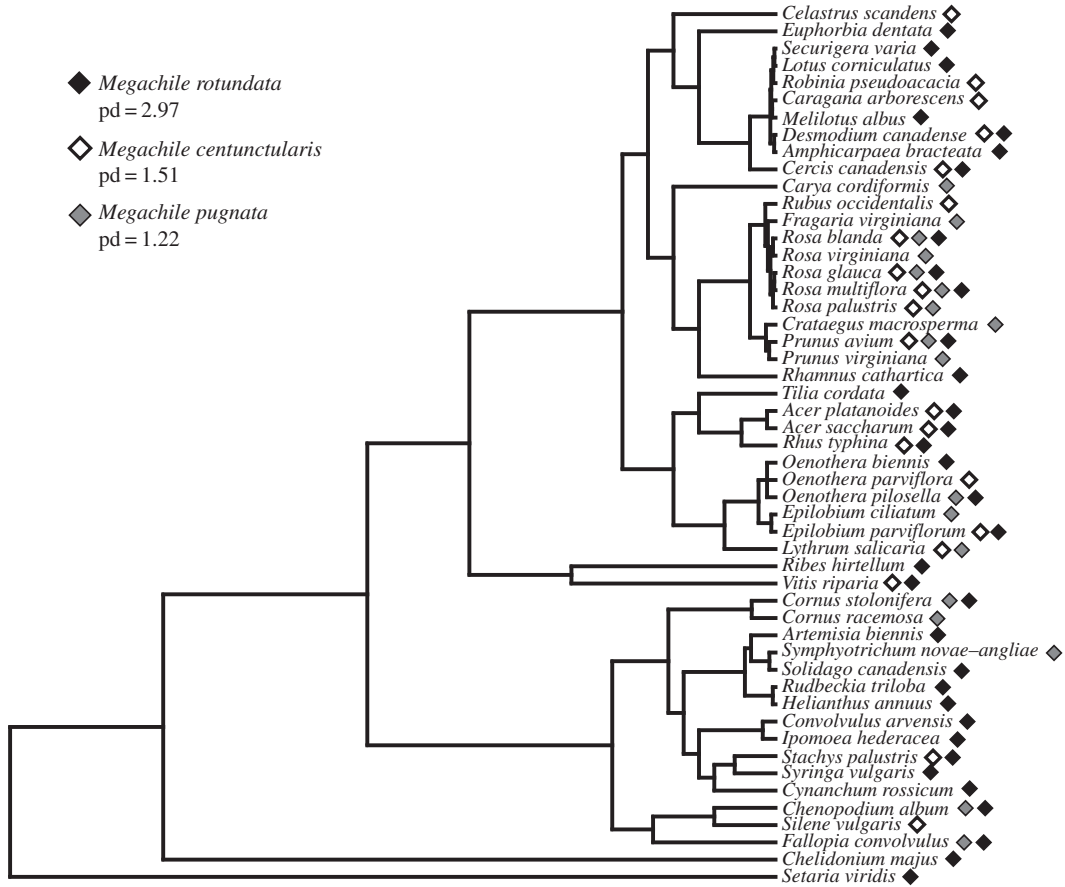


Figure 4. Phylogeny of leaf preferences by the leafcutting bee species. The diamonds indicate by which bee species the respective leaf species are selected.

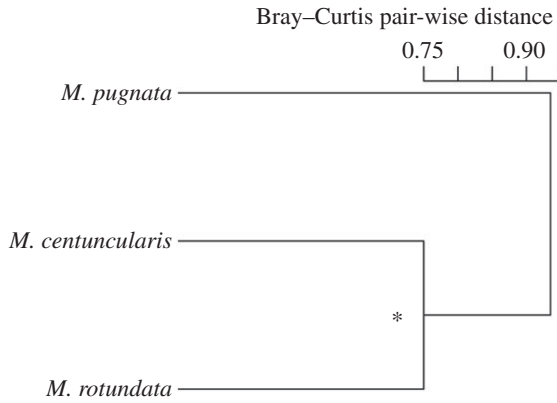


Figure 5. Bray-Curtis cluster tree showing the similarity in leaf preference between the three bee species.

included cosmopolitan plants such as lamb’s quarter (*Chenopodium album* L.), bird’s foot trefoil (*Lotus corniculatus* L.) and crown vetch (*Securigera varia* (L.) Lassen) as well as plants invasive to the Southern Ontario region, including purple loosestrife (*L. salicaria* L.) and dog-strangling vine (*C. rossicum*) (table 1). Interestingly, all native plants collected by the bees are known to have antimicrobial properties (table 1). Only six plant species collected were known to contain no antimicrobial properties: *Silene vulgaris* (Moench) Garcke, *L. corniculatus* L., *Stachys palustris* L., *Syringa vulgaris* L., *Rhamnus cathartica* L. [54] and *Ampelopsis japonica* (Thunb.) Makino [59]. All six of these plants were exotic to the study region, and none were used by the native bee, *M. pugnata* (table 1). Lastly, there was a significant difference among bees’ preference for different plant types (‘tree’, ‘shrub’, ‘perennial’, ‘annual’) ($\chi^2 = 29.61, p < 0.001$; table 2),

Table 2. The status (native or exotic) and types of vegetation collected by the three leafcutting bee species. The percentage of the total number of plants identified and their abundances (in parentheses) are given. An * indicates a significant difference in the leaf preference of *M. centuncularis* between woody and non-woody plant species.

	<i>M. pugnata</i>	<i>M. centuncularis</i>	<i>M. rotundata</i>
native	48.9% (22)	38.5% (25)	53.1% (30)
exotic	51.1% (23)	61.5% (40)	46.9% (34)
woody	64.4% (29)	75.4% (49)*	42.2% (27)
tree	15.6% (7)	35.4% (23)	23.4% (15)
shrub	48.8% (22)	40.0% (26)	18.8% (12)
non-woody	35.6% (16)	24.6% (16)	57.8% (37)
perennial	28.9% (13)	18.5% (12)	37.5% (24)
annual	6.7% (3)	6.1% (4)	20.3% (13)

with *M. centuncularis*, in particular, visiting ‘woody’ plants ($N = 49$) significantly more than ‘non-woody’ plants ($N = 13$) ($\chi^2 = 19.24$, $p < 0.001$; table 2).

4. Discussion

Leafcutting bees are reported to be selective in leaf preference, and to forage on only a few plant species [19,20]. Past studies reporting leaf preference of leafcutting bees did so using observational data [15,32,34]. In this study, I use DNA barcoding to identify leaf pieces from nests of three leafcutting bees and demonstrate that diversity in the leaves selected is far greater than previously reported. The leaf preferences of the two exotic bees overlap significantly and so I reject my first hypothesis that leaf preferences would be different among bee species. The pd and the species spectrum of selected leaves were higher in the two exotic bee species than in the native one. This is in accordance with the second hypothesis that leaf preference of the native bee is more restricted to phylogenetic groups. Finally, according to the χ^2 -tests none of the bee species exhibited a significant preference for native or exotic leaf species, indicating that the third hypothesis, e.g. that the native bee, *M. pugnata*, would prefer native plant species to exotic species, is not valid.

Dependence of the native *M. pugnata* on nesting materials that are more phylogenetically related could make this species and other native bees more susceptible to environmental change [68]. Ecologists increasingly use phylogenetic measures to inform our understanding of community assembly as well as management practices to conserve biodiversity and ecological functioning [69,70]. Some studies have used phylogenetic relatedness to describe bees and their foraging preferences [71,72] and their nesting behaviour [73]. Future work could evaluate matching (or mis-matching) in phylogenetic relationships (e.g. [74]) among bees and nesting resources. These relationships examined along gradients of environmental change could aid in determining the extent to which these eco-evolutionary relationships depend on environmental filters, such as urbanization [75].

The leaves collected belonged to a variety of plant types: trees, shrubs and flowering plants, as well as one grass species. Only *M. centuncularis* exhibited a significant preference for woody plants (e.g. trees and shrubs) (table 2). None of the bee species exhibited significant preference for native or exotic leaf types. *M. pugnata* visited many exotic species including spontaneous urban plants (e.g. lamb’s quarter (*Chenopodium album*)) and invasive species (e.g. purple loosestrife (*L. salicaria*)) (table 1). The exotic *M. rotundata* collected more exotic leaf types than the other two species (table 2), and among the 36 species recorded was the invasive dog-strangling vine (*Cyananchem rossicum*) [76] (table 1). This vine has invaded Southern Ontario, where it ‘strangles’ and suppresses the growth of native vegetation [77,78]. A number of other exotic plants were visited for nesting material by the three bee species (e.g. bird’s foot trefoil (*L. corniculatus* L.) and sweet clover (*Melilotus albus* Medik.)) (table 1). As exotic flora is abundant in urban areas [79,80], urban landscapes could provide a wider range of nest material for leafcutting bees, including native species [81,82].

Bee diversity and abundance are strongly linked to characteristics of the local environment, including the presence and quantity of foraging and nesting materials, as well as the amount of, and distance between, habitat containing these resources [83–87]. In urban landscapes containing many thousands of

individually managed gardens that together form a rich diversity of flowering plants [88,89], leafcutting bees are not limited in these areas by nesting materials. Given how diverse leaf selection was for each of the leafcutting bees in this study, it is possible that further DNA barcoding would identify even greater numbers of plant species used. Citizen science to help record leaf cuts on plants (see figure 1) with DNA barcoding could be useful for examining leaf preference and diversity along urban–rural gradients where dominant factors affecting plant species assembly change from natural to anthropogenic [75,90].

Almost all the leaves identified in the nests are known to contain antimicrobial properties (table 1). Many ground-nesting bees waterproof and sterilize their brood cells using glandular secretions from the Dufour’s glands [91,92]. These glands are significantly reduced in above-ground-nesting bees including megachilids [2], and so antimicrobial properties of leaves might inform choice [24–26]. One above-ground-nesting megachilid, *Anthidium manicatum*, collects leaf trichomes to make their nests which have antimicrobial properties [25] and their physical properties actively prevent attacking parasites [93]. One study showed leaf type and physical properties impact choice in *M. rotundata*, which preferred buckwheat unanimously over alfalfa and especially leaves greater than 1 cm² [19]. A combination of the antimicrobial and mechanical properties of leaves may inform choice among leaf types and why certain leaves are preferred over others by megachilid bees.

Missing from this study is an examination of the continuity and variability in leaf choice within single nests, which limits interpretation of the diversity of leaf types used by individual females. Identifying all leaves comprising a complete nest of individual bees (some complete nests contain greater than 100 individual leaf pieces) would contribute to knowledge on how diverse leaf preference is among individual bees, or even how it changes over a season. Knowing the identities of plants used by leafcutting bees can inform ‘complete’ pollinator gardening and broader actions supporting wild pollinators that include both foraging and nesting requirements [42,94–97].

Data accessibility. DNA sequences: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5883/DS-8669>.

Competing interests. I declare I have no competing interests.

Funding. The work was funded by an NSERC scholarship (CGS D 408565) to the author and a discovery grant awarded to his supervisor, Dr Laurence Packer.

Acknowledgements. I thank Dr Laurence Packer for helpful comments on the manuscript and Baharak Salehi, Daniel de Ocampo and Vipul Patel for help preparing the samples. I thank Dr Lanna Jin and Dr Marc Cadotte for help with preparing the phylogeny. Lastly, I thank the Biodiversity Institute of Ontario for help with DNA barcoding, in particular Dr Paul Hebert, Dr Mehrdad Hajibabaei, Dr Chris Weland and Dr Evgeny Zakharov.

References

1. Michener CD. 1955 Some biological observations on *Hoplitis pilosifrons* and *Stelis lateralis* (Hymenoptera, Megachilidae). *J. Kans. Entomol. Soc.* **28**, 81–87.
2. Litman JR, Danforth BN, Eardley CD, Praz CJ. 2011 Why do leafcutter bees cut leaves? New insights into the early evolution of bees. *Proc. R. Soc. B* **278**, 3593–3600. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2011.0365)
3. Williams NM, Goodell K. 2000 Association of mandible shape and nesting material in *Osmia* Panzer (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae): a morphometric analysis. *Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am.* **93**, 318–325. (doi:10.1603/0013-8746(2000)093[0318:AOMSAN]2.0.CO;2)
4. Bosch J, Kemp WP. 2002 Developing and establishing bee species as crop pollinators: the example of *Osmia* spp. (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae) and fruit trees. *Bull. Entomol. Res.* **92**, 3–16.
5. Cane JH, Griswold T, Parker FD. 2007 Substrates and materials used for nesting by North American *Osmia* bees (Hymenoptera: Apoiformes: Megachilidae). *Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am.* **100**, 350–358. (doi:10.1603/0013-8746(2007)100[350:SAMUFN]2.0.CO;2)
6. Fabre JH. 1920 *Bramble-bees and others*, 2nd edn. New York, NY: Dodd, Mead, and Company.
7. Stephen WP. 1956 Notes on the biologies of *Megachile frigida* Smith and *M. inermis* Provancher (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *Pan.-Pac. Entomol.* **32**, 95–100.
8. Krombein KV. 1967 *Bees: life histories, nests, and associates*. Washington, DC: Smithsonian Press.
9. Frohlich DR, Parker FD. 1983 Nest building behavior and development of the sunflower leaf-cutter bee: *Eumegachile (Sayapis) pugnata* (Say) (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *Psyche* **90**, 193–209. (doi:10.1155/1983/28573)
10. Rozen Jr JG, özbeek H, Ascher JS, Sedivy C, Praz C, Monfared A, Müller A. 2010 Nests, petal usage, floral preferences, and immatures of *Osmia (Ozbekosmia) avosetta* (Megachilidae: Megachilinae: Osmiini), including biological comparisons with other osmiine bees. *Am. Mus. Nov.* **3680**, 1–22. (doi:10.1206/701.1)
11. Hicks CH. 1936 Nesting habits of certain western bees. *Can. Entomol.* **68**, 47–52. (doi:10.4039/Ent6847-3)
12. Stephen WP, Torchio PF. 1961 Biological notes on the leaf-cutter bee, *Megachile (Eutricharaea) rotundata* (Fabricius) (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *Pan.-Pac. Entomol.* **37**, 85–92.
13. Sheffield CS, Ratti C, Packer L, Griswold T. 2011 Leafcutter and mason bees of the genus *Megachile* Latreille (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae) in Canada and Alaska. *Can. J. Arthropod. Identif.* **18**, 1–107.
14. Baker JR, Kuhn ED, Bambara SB. 1985 Nests and immature stages of leafcutter bees (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *J. Kans. Entomol. Soc.* **58**, 290–313.
15. Armbrust EA. 2004 Resource use and nesting behavior of *Megachile prosopidis* and *M. chilopsidis* with notes on *M. discorhina* (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *J. Kans. Entomol. Soc.* **77**, 89–98. (doi:10.2317/0302.24.1)
16. MacIvor JS, Moore AE. 2013 Bees collect polyurethane and polyethylene plastics as novel nest materials. *Ecosphere* **4**, 1–6 (doi:10.1890/ES13-00308.1)
17. Bohart GE. 1972 Management of wild bees for the pollination of crops. *Ann. Rev. Entomol.* **17**, 287–312. (doi:10.1146/annurev.en.17.010172.001443)
18. Pitts-Singer TL, Cane JH. 2011 The alfalfa leafcutting bee, *Megachile rotundata*: the world’s most intensively managed solitary bee. *Annu. Rev. Entomol.* **56**, 221–237. (doi:10.1146/annurev-ento-120709-144836)
19. Horne M. 1995 Leaf area and toughness: effects on nesting material preferences of *Megachile rotundata* (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am.* **88**, 868–875. (doi:10.1093/aesa/88.6.868)
20. Kim JY. 1997 Female size and fitness in the leaf-cutter bee *Megachile apicalis*. *Ecol. Entomol.* **22**, 275–282. (doi:10.1046/j.1365-2311.1997.00062.x)

21. Goodell K. 2003 Food availability affects *Osmia pumila* (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae) foraging, reproduction, and brood parasitism. *Oecologia* **134**, 518–527. (doi:10.1007/s00442-002-1159-2)
22. Pitts-Singer TL, Bosch J. 2010 Nest establishment, pollination efficiency, and reproductive success of *Megachile rotundata* (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae) in relation to resource availability in field enclosures. *Environ. Entomol.* **39**, 149–158. (doi:10.1603/EN09077)
23. Nugent SP, Wagner MR. 1995 Clone and leaf position effects on populus defoliation by leaf-cutting bees (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *For. Ecol. Manage.* **77**, 191–199. (doi:10.1016/0378-1127(95)03513-A)
24. Messer AC. 1985 Fresh dipterocarp resins gathered by megachilid bees inhibit growth of pollen-associated fungi. *Biotropica* **17**, 175–176. (doi:10.2307/2388512)
25. Müller A, Topfl W, Amiet F. 1996 Collection of extrafloral trichome secretions for nest wool impregnation in the solitary bee *Anthidium manicatum*. *Naturwissenschaften* **83**, 230–232.
26. Cane JH. 1996 Nesting resins obtained from *Laeara pollen* host by an oligolectic bee, *Trachusa larreae* (Cockerell) (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *J. Kans. Entomol. Soc.* **69**, 99–102.
27. Vesev-Fitzgerald D. 1941 Some insects of economic importance in Seychelles. *Bull. Entomol. Res.* **32**, 153–160. (doi:10.1017/S0007485300005368)
28. Hobbs GA. 1956 Ecology of the leaf-cutter bee *Megachile perihirta* Kll. (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae) in relation to production of alfalfa seed. *Can. Entomol.* **88**, 625–631. (doi:10.4039/Ent88625-11)
29. Michener CD. 1962 Observations on the classification of the bees commonly placed in the genus *Megachile* (Hymenoptera: Apoidea). *J. N. Y. Entomol. Soc.* **70**, 17–29.
30. Eickwort GC, Matthews RW, Carpenter J. 1981 Observations on the nesting behavior of *Megachile rubi* and *M. texana* with a discussion of the significance of soil nesting in the evolution of megachilid bees (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *J. Kans. Entomol. Soc.* **54**, 557–570.
31. Donovan BJ, Read PEC. 1988 The alfalfa leafcutting bee, *Megachile rotundata* (Megachilidae), does not pollinate kiwifruit, *Actinidia deliciosa* var. *deliciosa* (Actinidiaceae). *J. Apicult. Res.* **27**, 9–12.
32. Strickler K, Scott VL, Fischer RL. 1996 Comparative nesting ecology of two sympatric leafcutting bees that differ in body size (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *J. Kans. Entomol. Soc.* **69**, 26–44.
33. Rau P. 1928 The nesting habits of the pulp-making bee, *Alcidamea producta* Cress. *Psyche* **35**, 100–107. (doi:10.1155/1928/84370)
34. Williams HJ, Strand MR, Elzen GW, Vinson SB, Merritt SJ. 1986 Nesting behavior, nest architecture, and use of Dufour's gland lipids in nest provisioning by *Megachile integra* and *M. mendica* (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *J. Kans. Entomol. Soc.* **59**, 588–597.
35. Medler J. 1959 A note on *Megachile centuncularis* (Linn.) in Wisconsin (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *Can. Entomol.* **91**, 113–115. (doi:10.4039/Ent91113-2)
36. Hebert PD, Cywinska A, Ball SL. 2003 Biological identifications through DNA barcodes. *Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B* **270**, 313–321. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2002.2218)
37. Ratnasingham S, Hebert PD. 2007 BOLD: the barcode of life data system (<http://www.barcodinglife.org>). *Mol. Ecol. Notes* **7**, 355–364. (doi:10.1111/j.1471-8286.2007.01678.x)
38. Ratnasingham S, Hebert PD. 2013 A DNA-based registry for all animal species: the barcode index number (BIN) system. *PLoS ONE* **8**, e66213. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0066213)
39. Joly S, Davies TJ, Archambault A, Bruneau A, Derry A, Kembel SW, Peres-Neto P, Vamosi J, Wheeler TA. 2014 Ecology in the age of DNA barcoding: the resource, the promise and the challenges ahead. *Mol. Ecol. Res.* **14**, 221–232. (doi:10.1111/1755-0998.12173)
40. Sheffield CS, Hebert PD, Kevan PG, Packer L. 2009 DNA barcoding a regional bee (Hymenoptera: Apoidea) fauna and its potential for ecological studies. *Mol. Ecol. Res.* **9**, 196–207. (doi:10.1111/j.1755-0998.2009.02645.x)
41. Winter M et al. 2009 Plant extinctions and introductions lead to phylogenetic and taxonomic homogenization of the European flora. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **106**, 21721–21725. (doi:10.1073/pnas.0907088106)
42. Kearns CA, Inouye DW, Waser NM. 1998 Endangered mutualisms: the conservation of plant–pollinator interactions. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* **29**, 83–112. (doi:10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.29.1.83)
43. Tschamtker T, Gathmann A, Steffan-Dewenter I. 1998 Bioindication using trap-nesting bees and wasps and their natural enemies: community structure and interactions. *J. Appl. Ecol.* **35**, 708–719. (doi:10.1046/j.1365-2664.1998.355343.x)
44. Pardee GL, Philippot SM. 2014 Native plants are the bee's knees: local and landscape predictors of bee richness and abundance in backyard gardens. *Urb. Ecosyst.* **17**, 641–659. (doi:10.1007/s11252-014-0349-0)
45. Sheffield CS, Kevan PG, Westby SM, Smith RF. 2008 Diversity of cavity-nesting bees (Hymenoptera: Apoidea) within apple orchards and wild habitats in the Annapolis Valley, Nova Scotia, Canada. *Can. Entomol.* **140**, 235–249. (doi:10.4039/n07-058)
46. MacIvor JS, Packer L. 2015 'Bee hotels' as tools for native pollinator conservation: a premature verdict? *PLoS ONE* **10**, e0122126. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0122126)
47. MacIvor JS, Cabral JM, Packer L. 2014 Pollen specialization by solitary bees in an urban landscape. *Urb. Ecosyst.* **17**, 139–147. (doi:10.1007/s11252-013-0321-4)
48. Ivanova N, Kuzmina M, Fazekas A. 2015 Glass fiber plate DNA extraction protocol for plants, fungi, echinoderms and mollusks: manual protocol employing centrifugation. For CCDB protocols, see http://ccdb.ca/docs/CCDB_DNA_Extraction-Plants.pdf (accessed 16 December 2015).
49. Kress WJ, Wurdack KJ, Zimmer EA, Weigt LA, Janzen DH. 2005 Use of DNA barcodes to identify flowering plants. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **102**, 8369–8374. (doi:10.1073/pnas.0503123102)
50. Li X, Yang Y, Henry RJ, Rossetto M, Wang Y, Chen S. 2015 Plant DNA barcoding: from gene to genome. *Biol. Rev.* **90**, 157–166. (doi:10.1111/brv.12104)
51. Benson DA, Clark K, Karsch-Mizrachi I, Lipman DJ, Ostell J, Sayers EW. 2015 GenBank. *Nucl. Acids Res.* **43**, D30–D35. (doi:10.1093/nar/gku1216)
52. Zhang Z, Schwartz S, Wagner L, Miller W. 2000 A greedy algorithm for aligning DNA sequences. *J. Comp. Biol.* **7**, 203–214. (doi:10.1089/10665270050081478)
53. Nickell LG. 1959 Antimicrobial activity of vascular plants. *Econ. Bot.* **13**, 281–318. (doi:10.1007/BF02885664)
54. Borchardt JR, Wyse DL, Sheaffer CC, Kauppi KL, Fulcher RG, Ehlike NJ, Boisboer DD, Bey RF. 2008 Antimicrobial activity of native and naturalized plants of Minnesota and Wisconsin. *J. Med. Plants Res.* **2**, 98–110.
55. Mogg C, Petit P, Cappuccino N, Durst T, McKague C, Foster M, Yack JE, Arnason JT, Smith ML. 2008 Tests of the antibiotic properties of the invasive vine *Vincetoxicum rossicum* against bacteria, fungi and insects. *Biochem. Syst. Ecol.* **36**, 383–391. (doi:10.1016/j.bse.2008.01.001)
56. Cappuccino N, Arnason JT. 2006 Novel chemistry of invasive exotic plants. *Biol. Lett.* **2**, 189–193. (doi:10.1098/rsbl.2005.0433)
57. Hayes LE. 1947 Survey of higher plants for presence of antibacterial substances. *Bot. Gaz.* **108**, 408–414. (doi:10.1086/335424)
58. Madson GC, Pates AL. 1952 Occurrence of antimicrobial substances in chlorophyllose plants growing in Florida. *Bot. Gaz.* **113**, 293–300. (doi:10.1086/335721)
59. Amadou I, Le GW, Amza T, Sun J, Shi YH. 2013 Purification and characterization of foxtail millet-derived peptides with antioxidant and antimicrobial activities. *Food. Res. Int.* **51**, 422–428. (doi:10.1016/j.foodres.2012.12.045)
60. Chen J, Zhang C, Zhang M. 2010 Chemical constituents from aerial parts of *Fallopia convolvulus*. *Zhongguo Zhong Yao Za Zhi* **35**, 3165–3167.
61. Chao A, Jost L. 2012 Coverage-based rarefaction and extrapolation: standardizing samples by completeness rather than size. *Ecology* **93**, 2533–2547. (doi:10.1890/11-1952.1)
62. Hsieh TC, Ma KH, Chao A. 2013 iNEXT online: interpolation and extrapolation (version 1.0). See <http://chao.stat.nthu.edu.tw/blog/software-download/>.
63. Goslee SC, Urban DL. 2007 The 'ecodist' package for dissimilarity-based analysis of ecological data. *J. Stat. Softw.* **22**, 1–19. (doi:10.18637/jss.v022.i07)
64. R Core Team. 2014 *R: a language and environment for statistical computing*. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. (<http://www.R-project.org/>)
65. Revell LJ. 2012 Phytools: an R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other things). *Methods Ecol. Evol.* **3**, 217–223. (doi:10.1111/j.2041-210X.2011.00169.x)
66. Jin L. 2015 A spatio-temporal phylogenetic approach to community ecology. PhD dissertation, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada.
67. Kembel SW, Cowan PD, Helmus MR, Cornwell WK, Morlon H, Ackerly DD, Blombery SP, Webb CO. 2010 Picante: R tools for integrating phylogenies and ecology. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 1463–1464. (doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btq166)
68. Hoiss B, Krauss J, Potts SG, Roberts S, Steffan-Dewenter I. 2012 Altitude acts as an environmental filter on phylogenetic composition, traits and diversity in bee communities. *Proc. R. Soc. B* **279**, 4447–4456. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2012.1581)

69. Cadotte MW, Dinnage R, Tilman D. 2012 Phylogenetic diversity promotes ecosystem stability. *Ecology* **93**, S223–S233. (doi:10.1890/11-0426.1)
70. Mouquet N *et al.* 2012 EcoPhylogenetics: advances and perspectives. *Biol. Rev.* **87**, 769–785. (doi:10.1111/j.1469-185X.2012.00224.x)
71. Patiny S, Michez D, Danforth BN. 2008 Phylogenetic relationships and host-plant evolution within the basal clade of Halictidae (Hymenoptera, Apoidea). *Cladistics* **24**, 255–269. (doi:10.1111/j.1096-0031.2007.00182.x)
72. Haider M, Dorn S, Sedivy C, Müller A. 2014 Phylogeny and floral hosts of a predominantly pollen generalist group of mason bees (Megachilidae: Osmiini). *Biol. J. Linn.* **111**, 78–91. (doi:10.1111/bij.12186)
73. Bosch J, Maeta Y, Rust R. 2001 A phylogenetic analysis of nesting behavior in the genus *Osmia* (Hymenoptera: Megachilidae). *Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am.* **94**, 617–627. (doi:10.1603/0013-8746(2001)094[0617:APAONB]2.0.CO;2)
74. Rezende EL, Jordano P, Bascompte J. 2007 Effects of phenotypic complementarity and phylogeny on the nested structure of mutualistic networks. *Oikos* **116**, 1919–1929. (doi:10.1111/j.0030-1299.2007.16029.x)
75. Williams NS *et al.* 2009 A conceptual framework for predicting the effects of urban environments on floras. *J. Ecol.* **97**, 4–9. (doi:10.1111/j.1365-2745.2008.01460.x)
76. Sheeley SE, Raynal DJ. 1996 The distribution and status of species of *Vincetoxicum* in eastern North America. *Bull. Torrey Bot. Club* **123**, 148–156. (doi:10.2307/2996072)
77. Kirk M. 1985 *Vincetoxicum* spp. (Dog-Strangling Vines): alien invaders of natural ecosystems in southern Ontario. *Plant Press* **3**, 130–131.
78. Miller GC, Kricsfalussy VV, Moleirinho P, Hayes S, Krick R. 2008 Dog-strangling vine—*Gynanchemum rossicum* (Kleopow) Borhidi: a review of distribution, ecology and control of this invasive exotic plant. Toronto, ON: Toronto and Region Conservation Authority. (http://www.rougepark.com/unique/reports/RP_DSV_Report_Dec07.pdf).
79. Reichard SH, White P. 2001 Horticulture as a pathway of invasive plant introductions in the United States: Most invasive plants have been introduced for horticultural use by nurseries, botanical gardens, and individuals. *BioScience* **51**, 103–113. (doi:10.1641/0006-3568(2001)051[0103:HAAP0]2.0.CO;2)
80. Smith RM, Thompson K, Hodgson JG, Warren PH, Gaston KJ. 2006 Urban domestic gardens (IX): composition and richness of the vascular plant flora, and implications for native biodiversity. *Biol. Conserv.* **129**, 312–322. (doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2005.10.045)
81. Fortel L *et al.* 2014 Decreasing abundance, increasing diversity and changing structure of the wild bee community (Hymenoptera: Anthophila) along an urbanization gradient. *PLoS ONE* **9**, e104679. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0104679)
82. Threlfall CG, Walker K, Williams NSG, Hahs AK, Mata L, Stork N, Livesley SJ. 2015 The conservation value of urban green space habitats for Australian native bee communities. *Biol. Conserv.* **187**, 240–248. (doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2015.05.003)
83. Cane JH. 2001 Habitat fragmentation and native bees: a premature verdict? *Conserv. Ecol.* **5**, 3.
84. Potts SG, Vulliamy B, Roberts S, O'Toole C, Dafni A, Ne'eman G, Willmer P. 2005 Role of nesting resources in organising diverse bee communities in a Mediterranean landscape. *Environ. Entomol.* **30**, 78–85. (doi:10.1111/j.0307-6946.2005.00662.x)
85. Winfree R, Aguilar R, Vázquez DP, LeBuhn G, Aizen MA. 2009 A meta-analysis of bees' responses to anthropogenic disturbance. *Ecology* **90**, 2068–2076. (doi:10.1890/08-1245.1)
86. Kennedy CM *et al.* 2013 A global quantitative synthesis of local and landscape effects on wild bee pollinators in agroecosystems. *Ecol. Lett.* **16**, 584–599. (doi:10.1111/ele.12082)
87. Schüepp C, Herzog F, Entling MH. 2014 Disentangling multiple drivers of pollination in a landscape-scale experiment. *Proc. R. Soc. B* **281**, 20132667. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2013.2667)
88. Gaston KJ, Warren PH, Thompson K, Smith RM. 2005 Urban domestic gardens (IV): the extent of the resource and its associated features. *Biodiv. Conserv.* **14**, 3327–3349. (doi:10.1007/s10531-004-9513-9)
89. Goddard MA, Dougill AJ, Benton TG. 2010 Scaling up from gardens: biodiversity conservation in urban environments. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **25**, 90–98. (doi:10.1016/j.tree.2009.07.016)
90. McDonnell MJ, Pickett ST, Groffman P, Bohlen P, Pouyat RV, Zipperer WC, Parmalee RW, Carreiro MM, Medley K. 1997 Ecosystem processes along an urban-to-rural gradient. *Urb. Ecosyst.* **1**, 21–36. (doi:10.1023/A:1014359024275)
91. Michener C. 1964 Evolution of the nests of bees. *Am. Zool.* **4**, 227–239. (doi:10.1093/icb/4.2.227)
92. Cane JH, Gerdin S, Wife G. 1983 Mandibular gland secretions of solitary bees (Hymenoptera: Apoidea): potential for nest cell disinfection. *J. Kans. Entomol. Soc.* **56**, 199–204.
93. Eltz T, Küttner J, Lunau K, Tollrian R. 2015 Plant secretions prevent wasp parasitism in nests of wool-carder bees, with implications for the diversification of nesting materials in Megachilidae. *Front. Ecol. Evol.* **2**, 86. (doi:10.3389/fevo.2014.00086)
94. Potts SG, Vulliamy B, Dafni A, Ne'eman G, Willmer P. 2003 Linking bees and flowers: how do floral communities structure pollinator communities? *Ecology* **84**, 2628–2642. (doi:10.1890/02-0136)
95. Tuell JK, Fiedler AK, Landis D, Isaacs R. 2008 Visitation by wild and managed bees (Hymenoptera: Apoidea) to eastern US native plants for use in conservation programs. *Environ. Entomol.* **37**, 707–718. (doi:10.1603/0046-225X(2008)37[707:VBWAMB]2.0.CO;2)
96. Garbuzov M, Ratnieks FL. 2014 Listmania: the strengths and weaknesses of lists of garden plants to help pollinators. *BioScience* **64**, 1019–1026. (doi:10.1093/biosci/biu150)
97. Salisbury A, Armitage J, Bostock H, Perry J, Tatchell M, Thompson K. 2015 Enhancing gardens as habitats for flower-visiting aerial insects (pollinators): should we plant native or exotic species? *J. Appl. Ecol.* **52**, 1156–1164. (doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12499)