

# 1 The use of trap-nests to support crop pollinators in agricultural areas.

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8

9 Abstract

10 Supporting and promoting invertebrate diversity within agricultural ecosystems has numerous  
11 benefits, including the provision of pollination services. Many insects, including wild  
12 pollinators, require floral resources for food and structural habitat for nesting. To support  
13 pollinators, research studies and agri-environment schemes have sought to supplement floral  
14 resources, but little is known about the value of different types of nesting habitat  
15 enhancements (e.g. trap-nests or bee hotels). We deployed eight replicates of each of three  
16 types (bamboo reed, hardwood block and sand/cement brick) of trap-nests at five orchards in  
17 two apple and cherry growing regions (Bilpin and Orange) in Australia. Both reed and  
18 hardwood block trap-nests attracted a diverse array of invertebrates, such as ants, wasps,  
19 spiders and bees, including a cleptoparasitic bee species (*Thyreus* sp) not previously recorded  
20 in the region. Interestingly, two taxa of native bees (*Megachile* (*Megachile*) and *Megachile*  
21 (*Eutricharaea*)) used the artificial nests and were also observed visiting apple crops. There  
22 were significantly more native bees using trap-nests in Orange (n = 65), where orchards are  
23 surrounded by agricultural landscapes, than in Bilpin (n = 2), where orchards are surrounded  
24 by native forests. Our findings show that artificial nest enhancements are used by native bees,  
25 as well as other non-target invertebrate taxa, some of which can be predators of bees (ants,  
26 wasps and spiders). Nesting habitat augmentation thus has potential to be used as a

27 conservation tool, especially in areas where nesting sites are limited. However, future studies  
28 should also consider measures to reduce colonisation by non-target taxa.

29 Keywords: Bee hotel; artificial nesting habitat enhancement; crop pollination; wild  
30 pollinators; wildfire.

31

32 Introduction

33

34 Pollinators provide a crucial ecosystem service for approximately 90% of plant  
35 species (Kearns et al., 1998), including many crops, such as apples (*Malus domestica*) and  
36 sweet cherry (*Prunus avium* L.), in which insect pollination is associated with high fruit  
37 quality (Garratt et al., 2014) and/or yield (Holzschuh et al., 2012). The role of native  
38 pollinators in providing pollination services to crops (Kremen et al., 2002; Garibaldi et al.,  
39 2013) is increasingly important given widespread threats to honeybees, the dominant  
40 managed pollinator worldwide (Gill et al., 2016). However, agricultural intensification  
41 generally leads to both habitat fragmentation (Ricketts et al., 2008) and increased use of  
42 agrochemicals (Iwasaki & Hogendoorn, 2021; Siviter & Muth, 2020). These stresses, along  
43 with the shift from native flowering systems to highly seasonal crop floral resources, have  
44 meant that many native pollinators are threatened (Winfrey, 2010) and, in some cases, have  
45 been lost from their natural ranges (Boyle & Philogène, 1983; Brown & Paxton, 2009; Lima  
46 & Marchioro, 2021).

47 Agricultural landscapes typically have limited native habitat and often suffer from a  
48 simplification in terms of both floral diversity and vegetation structure (Landis, 2017). Agri-  
49 environment schemes, which seek to address these deficiencies (Kohler et al., 2008), are  
50 being increasingly adopted in many areas of Europe (Albrecht et al., 2020; Mc Kerchar et al.,  
51 2020), North America (Hannon & Sisk, 2009) and Canada (Gervais et al., 2021). This can  
52 have important implications for wild insect distribution and abundance (Evans et al., 2018),

53 considering the otherwise typically reduced availability of food resources and nesting sites  
54 (Kim et al., 2006) in agricultural landscapes. The benefits of conserving invertebrate diversity  
55 within agricultural systems are several, including biological pest control and improvements to  
56 soil health through processes such as soil aeration and decomposition (New, 2005; Saunders,  
57 2018), all of which are likely to lead to more resilient and functional agro-ecosystems.

58 Crops such as apples and many sweet cherry varieties are heavily dependent on insect  
59 pollinators to set fruit, with many growers using honeybee (*Apis mellifera* L) hives during the  
60 crop flowering period to achieve pollination (Cunningham et al., 2002; Eeraerts et al., 2020;  
61 Pardo & Borges, 2020). However, there is mounting evidence that honeybees are not as  
62 effective as some wild pollinators (often native bees) for certain crops (Garibaldi et al., 2013;  
63 Rader et al., 2016), including cherry (Eeraerts et al., 2020; Holzschuh et al., 2012) and apple  
64 (Malingier & Gratton, 2014). Therefore, developing ways to enhance or retain wild insect  
65 pollinator populations within agricultural landscapes is crucial to not only ensuring that  
66 agricultural production is secure and not over-reliant on one pollinator species, but also to  
67 maintain and conserve pollinator populations more generally within these modified  
68 landscapes. This should, in turn, lead to pollination systems that are more resilient to  
69 perturbations, as each pollinator species responds differently to environmental fluctuations  
70 (Senapathi et al., 2015).

71 Currently, very little is known about the nesting habitat requirements and nesting  
72 preferences of wild native bees (Harmon-Threatt, 2020), especially for solitary bees and in  
73 countries outside of Europe and North America (Brown et al., 2020). Understanding the  
74 requirements for nest site selection and their availability within agricultural landscapes is  
75 important given the extent to which wild insect pollinators (Garibaldi et al., 2013; Rader et  
76 al., 2016), including native solitary bees, contribute to crop production (Bänsch et al., 2021;  
77 Woodcock et al., 2013). Nesting habitat support, in addition to floral resource availability, is

78 important for not only stabilising pollination services delivered to crops, but also for  
79 increasing the functional and taxonomic diversity of pollinators (Evans, et al., 2018; Kim et  
80 al., 2006; Kline & Joshi, 2020). In addition, it **may support** other invertebrate groups within  
81 agricultural systems that also assist in ecosystem function (Jankielsohn, 2018; New, 2005).  
82 Further, understanding nesting requirements is crucial for conservation initiatives within  
83 these highly altered systems, given the extent to which native vegetation is often removed  
84 and the floral landscape simplified (Landis, 2017). One way to augment wild pollinator  
85 nesting habitat, which has recently grown in popularity, is the installation of trap-nests,  
86 otherwise known as bee hotels (MacIvor & Packer, 2015).

87         Trap-nests are typically artificial nesting structures made from wood, bamboo, reeds,  
88 paper straws, rammed earth, sand and cement mix or plastic, designed to attract cavity-  
89 nesting semi-social or solitary bees. Studies have shown that trap-nests can also provide a  
90 nesting or habitat resource for various other types of insects, including wasps (MacIvor &  
91 Packer, 2015; Staab et al., 2018) although knowledge of the degree to which crop pollinators  
92 or insects more broadly use trap-nests in agroecosystems is limited. The utilisation of trap-  
93 nests by invertebrates is influenced by many factors, including their innate nesting or habitat  
94 preferences e.g. for wood, stems or compact sand or soil. The time of year may also affect  
95 trap-nest use, with, for example, native bee activity typically more focussed in the warmer  
96 months (Dollin et al., 2016), while ants and spiders are active throughout the year.  
97 Invertebrate use of trap-nests is also likely to depend on the availability of nesting habitat  
98 within the local area.

99         Our experiment sought to determine the efficacy of trap-nests as a tool for enhancing  
100 nesting habitat and to evaluate nesting habitat preferences of insects within an agricultural  
101 setting across two apple and cherry growing regions in Australia. Specifically, we ask: 1)  
102 Which invertebrate species use artificial nesting habitat and does this change throughout the

103 year and between differing vegetation landscapes (areas with high and low amounts of native  
104 semi-natural vegetation)? 2) Do trap-nests provide a nesting habitat resource for known  
105 pollinators of apple and cherry and/or the wider bee community? We also make comment on  
106 the colonisation of artificial nests following a major wildfire.

## 107 Methods

### 108 *Experimental design*

109 Three different types of trap-nests (bamboo reed, hardwood block and sand and  
110 cement bricks) were introduced to five orchards in each of two apple and cherry growing  
111 regions - Bilpin (33.5000° S, 150.5333° E) and Orange (33.2833° S, 149.1000° E) in New  
112 South Wales, Australia (Figure 1). The three different types of trap-nests were selected based  
113 on the nesting habitat preferences of native bees (according to the Atlas of Living Australia  
114 occurrence records 2020 a and b) whose typical ranges overlap the study regions. Orchards  
115 were separated from each other by an average of 3 km  $\pm$ 0.6 with a minimum of 700 m in  
116 Bilpin and 2 km  $\pm$ 0.3 with a minimum of 860 m in Orange. All orchards in Bilpin grew  
117 apples with two also growing cherry, whilst in Orange, three orchards grew both apple and  
118 cherry, one grew only apple and one only cherry. These two regions have clear differences in  
119 vegetation types surrounding the study orchards, with Orange featuring highly altered  
120 agricultural landscapes dominated by pastoral grazing land (Figure 1). In contrast, all study  
121 orchards at Bilpin were directly adjacent to vast stands of native bushland within the Blue  
122 Mountains and Wollemi National Parks (Figure 1).

123 Within each orchard, two sites were selected, approximately 500 metres apart,  
124 ensuring they were each in a warm, sunny and elevated (so as to prevent flooding) position  
125 on the edge of the orchard, to avoid chemical sprays. Four of each trap-nest type (reed,  
126 hardwood and sand/cement) were placed in each of the two locations. Trap nests were placed  
127 out at each orchard in August 2018 and remained there until May (Bilpin) and June (Orange)

128 2020. Trap-nests at one orchard in Bilpin were destroyed in a wildfire in January 2020 and, as  
129 such, data for this location were not collected past this point. Reed and hardwood block trap-  
130 nests were placed off the ground using existing features (e.g. rocks, trees or on top of  
131 abandoned farm equipment), in an effort to minimise predation by ants and water logging,  
132 while sand and cement brick trap-nests were positioned on the ground adjacent to the reed  
133 and hardwood trap nests in an effort to best replicate the nesting habitat of ground-nesting  
134 bees (Smith & Heard, 2016).

### 135 *Trap-nest design*

#### 136 *Bamboo reed trap-nests*

137 These comprised of bamboo internode lengths (100-140 mm long) that were closed at  
138 one end. Approximately 60 lengths were bundled together using cable ties and placed within  
139 a 150 mm length of 90 mm diameter PVC pipe (see Figure 2a), with the pipe providing a  
140 protective overhang of at least 10 mm above the ends of the bamboo reeds. Each bundle  
141 contained bamboo lengths that ranged in diameter from ~3-12 mm, to ensure that they were  
142 attractive to a diverse range of bees (Smith & Heard, 2016).

#### 143 *Hardwood block trap-nest*

144 Each of the hardwood blocks (90 mm x 45 mm x 200 mm) had 9 holes (three each of  
145 three sizes of hole - 5.5 mm, 6.5 mm and 8.5 mm), with two holes of each size in one end and  
146 one in the other. Each hole was drilled to approximately 150 mm depth, as recommended by  
147 Smith & Heard, (2016). Using a blow torch, the entrance to each hole was lightly charred to  
148 remove splinters and smooth the entrance (Smith & Heard, 2016). Paper straws (5 mm, 6 mm  
149 and 8 mm diameter) were placed into each of the drilled holes to allow for nest removal in the  
150 field. Four hardwood blocks were fixed together and fitted with a corrugated plastic (corflute)  
151 roof (see Figure 2b) for protection against sun and rain.

152 *Sand and cement brick trap-nest*

153 Brick trap-nests were made from premixed sand and cement mix, and sand (1:2 ratio)  
154 following similar methods to those described in Halcroft, (2018). After being combined with  
155 water, the mixture was placed into a mould constructed from a 150 mm length of 90 mm  
156 PVC pipe, to within approximately 20 mm of the edge of the pipe, with this overhang  
157 providing a protective roof. Using an 8 mm drill bit, three starter holes were made into one  
158 face on each of the bricks to a depth of 20 mm (see Figure 2c).

159 *Identification of trap-nest inhabitants*

160 Various inhabitants may take up occupancy in trap-nests and the most direct way to  
161 identify them precisely is by observing the adults entering or leaving the nest hole, or the  
162 subsequent offspring emerging. The former can consume a prohibitively large amount of  
163 observer time, while the latter requires a delay of months and is not always successful since  
164 nothing may emerge, or the emergent insects may be parasites of the original nest inhabitants.  
165 However, fortunately, coarse identification is relatively easy, since **invertebrates** differ in the  
166 type of nest hole covering (e.g. mud, resin, silk) that they produce (Halcroft & Batley, 2014).  
167 This provides a straightforward way to make repeat censuses of trap-nest occupancy by  
168 different **invertebrate** groups.

169 Thus, the number of nests or structures (open and closed) created in each of the trap-  
170 nests were counted approximately every 6-8 weeks to allow for colonisation between  
171 sampling events (differences were due to inclement weather, bushfires and COVID-19 travel  
172 restrictions). Nests and structures created within the trap-nests were categorised by the  
173 materials used to construct the nests/structures and were compared to reference identification  
174 guides for Australian native bees and invertebrates (Dollin et al., 2016; Halcroft & Batley,  
175 2014; Houston, 2018). Trap-nest occupancy data were then used to compare use of the

176 different trap-nest types between the study regions. Due to the non-normal distribution and  
177 upper limit to the occupancy data, analyses were undertaken using non-parametric Mann-  
178 Whitney U tests in R version 4.1.0 (R Core Team, 2021).

179         Additionally, five-minute observations of trap-nest visitors were undertaken on each  
180 sampling occasion following nest counts, with any invertebrates that were either inside, or  
181 that came into contact with, the artificial trap-nest recorded. After observations had  
182 concluded, any bamboo reeds or paper straws (in the case of the hardwood block [see  
183 methods above]) that had evidence of occupancy were removed and transported to the  
184 laboratory in an ice cooler box where they were stored individually at -20°C for later  
185 identification. Where possible, inhabitants were identified in the field or under a dissecting  
186 microscope using reference books (Dollin et al., 2016; Halcroft & Batley, 2014).

187         To determine whether trap-nests provided habitat for insects known to visit apple and  
188 cherry crops, or if they are used by other invertebrates, we compared our  
189 occupancy/visitation data to previous surveys of visitors to apple (Gilpin et al. *In review*) and  
190 cherry flowers (Gilpin et al., 2022) in the same regions and to records found in the Atlas of  
191 Living Australia (ALA) (Atlas of Living Australia, 2020 a, b). Our search of the ALA was  
192 limited to species within the four native bee families - Apidae, Colletidae, Halictidae and  
193 Megachilidae - known to inhabit either region (Bilpin or Orange). We searched for all records  
194 of each family of native bee within a 10-kilometre radius encompassing the study orchards in  
195 both Bilpin and Orange. For quality control, ALA records were limited to those validated or  
196 submitted by the Australian Museum, OZCAM (Online Zoological Collections of Australian  
197 Museums) and the Pest and Disease Image Library PaDIL Bee (PaDIL website at  
198 <http://www.padil.gov.au>). Comparisons with previously collected observation data and ALA  
199 records were limited to native bees as this could be determined through nesting structure and



200 nesting materials used, whereas other taxonomic groups could only be identified to higher  
201 levels, making it unfeasible to compare between datasets.

202

203 **Invertebrate** colonisation of trap-nests following a major bushfire

204 In December 2019 a large out-of-control wildfire swept through Bilpin, severely  
205 burning the native vegetation surrounding each of the five study orchards and, in some cases,  
206 also burning parts of the orchards (with all of the artificial nests at one site burnt).  
207 Subsequently, this provided us with a unique opportunity to observe **invertebrate** colonisation  
208 directly after the fire, although colonisation was only observed for 4 months post-fire due to  
209 the introduction of COVID-19 travel restrictions.

210

## 211 **Results**

### 212 **Identification of nest inhabitants.**

213 Nests were classified into nine categories, based upon the materials used and the colour of the  
214 nest. The categories were: red resin, masticated leaf tissue, resin/sticks, leaf, mud, sand/plant  
215 material, soil/sand, web and unknown burrow (Figure S1). Therefore the most likely  
216 inhabitants of the nests were determined to be:

- 217 1. Megachilid resin bees (subgenus *Megachile*) in the red resin, masticated leaf and the  
218 resin/stick nests,
- 219 2. Megachilid leaf-cutter bees (subgenus *Eutricharaea*) in the leaf nests,
- 220 3. Wasps (*Abispa ephippium*) in the mud nests,
- 221 4. Ants in the sand/plant material nests,
- 222 5. Spiders in the web structures

223 6. Termites in the soil/sand nests.

224

## 225 **Trap-nest use, by type**

### 226 *Bamboo reed trap-nest*

227 In Bilpin, nest and structure counts revealed that bamboo trap-nests were most  
228 frequently used by ants (37 nests observed) followed by spiders (11) (Table 1). Both groups  
229 primarily created nests and structures between the reeds, rather than using the reeds  
230 themselves, commonly colonising the entire trap-nest structure. Within the reeds, we  
231 recorded wasp nests (8) and red resin megachilid bee nests (1) (Table 1). In Orange, bamboo  
232 reed nests harboured wasp nests (26), along with ants (12), red resin nests (12), masticated  
233 leaf nests (5), spider webs (8) and leaf-cutter bee nests (2) (Table 1). During the five-minute  
234 trap-nest observations conducted throughout the study period, in both Bilpin and Orange, we  
235 also observed spiders using the trap-nests. Only one megachilid bee was observed making a  
236 nest; this was in summer 2019 at Orange.

### 237 *Hardwood block trap-nest*

238 Nest and structure counts revealed that hardwood block trap-nests located in Bilpin  
239 were most frequently used by ants (101), followed by spiders (41), wasps (31), termites (12)  
240 and a single red resin megachilid bee (Table 1). In Orange, hardwood block trap-nests were  
241 again most frequently used by wasps (127), ants (113), spiders (20) and megachilid bees,  
242 including those that made nests from red resin (23) and masticated leaf (20), as well as a  
243 combination of stick and resin (3) (Table 1).

244 During trap-nest observations, ants and spiders were frequently observed within  
245 hardwood block trap-nests at both Bilpin and Orange. Native bees were only observed  
246 visiting hardwood trap-nests during summer 2019 at Orange; this included a distinctive

247 cuckoo bee (*Thyreus* sp), not previously recorded on the ALA database within this area. At  
248 two orchards in Orange, megachilid bees were observed making red resin nests.

#### 249 *Sand and cement brick trap-nests*

250 Nest and structure counts revealed that sand and cement brick trap-nests in Bilpin  
251 were mostly used by spiders (26) and wasps (3) (Table 1). There was some evidence that  
252 inhabitants had been digging entrance holes, with 8 separate tunnels observed. Only a few  
253 **invertebrates** were associated with the sand and cement brick trap-nests in Orange, with  
254 comparatively few spider webs (3) and evidence of only two burrows (Table 1). Only the  
255 occasional spider was seen using the sand and cement brick trap-nests during the five-minute  
256 observations.

257

#### 258 **How does nest occupancy change throughout the year and following fire?**

##### 259 *Bamboo reed trap-nests*

260 In Bilpin, ant nests and spider webs were recorded during observations throughout  
261 summer, winter and spring. Wasp nests were only recorded twice - once in spring and again  
262 in summer - and red resin nests were observed once in summer (February) (Figure 3a). In  
263 Orange, red resin nests were observed in spring (September), summer (January and February)  
264 and at the start of winter (May) during the 16-month survey period (Figure 3b). A similar  
265 pattern of occupancy was seen for wasp nests. Masticated leaf nests were observed during  
266 summer, autumn and at the start of winter while ant nests were recorded during late summer  
267 (February) and late spring (May; Figure 3b).

##### 268 *Hardwood block trap-nests*

269 Ant and wasp nests were generally observed year-round in the hardwood blocks at  
270 both Bilpin (Figure 3a) and Orange (Figure 3b). Red resin bee nests were recorded during

271 summer in both Bilpin and Orange and also at the beginning of winter and spring in Orange.  
272 Masticated leaf bee nests were recorded during summer, autumn and at the beginning of  
273 winter in Orange (Figure 3b). Stick and resin bee nests were observed at the start of winter  
274 and again in summer at Orange (Figure 3b), while spider webs were observed across all  
275 seasons in both regions.

#### 276 *Sand and cement brick trap-nests*

277 Very few **invertebrates** used the sand and cement bricks compared to the reed and  
278 hardwood block trap-nests. Spider webs were generally seen in the sand and cement bricks  
279 throughout the year (8 of 10 observations) in Bilpin (Figure 3a) and in summer, winter and  
280 spring in Orange (Figure 3b). Wasp nests were observed in March 2019 and January 2020 in  
281 Bilpin (Figure 3a). Both wasp nests and spider webs were restricted to the pre-drilled holes  
282 made into the bricks, with no evidence of fresh excavations.

#### 283 **Invertebrate** colonisation of trap-nests postfire in Bilpin

284 Between 14/1/2020 (first observation after the fire on 21/12/2019) and the last  
285 observation of the trap-nests (1/5/2020), there were no new nests made by native bees in any  
286 of the three trap-nest types in Bilpin. However, less than a month after the fires we observed,  
287 ant nests (14), a wasp nest (1), spider webs (13) and approximately four months later we  
288 observed structures made by termites (12) in the hardwood blocks. Four months after the fire  
289 spider webs (2) were observed in the bamboo reed trap-nests and the sand/cement blocks (1)  
290 as well as burrows made by an unidentified species (8) (Figure 3a).

#### 291 **Differences in trap-nest use between regions**

292 We found that significantly more native bees (both subgenera - *Megachile* and  
293 *Eutricharaea* combined) used both the reed ( $W=60542, p = 0.01$ ) and hardwood block trap-  
294 nests ( $W=3538, p = 0.0001$ ) in Orange compared to Bilpin (Table 1 and 2). In addition, we

295 found significantly more wasps used the reed ( $W=60196$ ,  $p = 0.02$ ) and hardwood block trap-  
296 nests in Orange compared to Bilpin ( $W=3125$ ,  $p = 0.0001$ ), while significantly more spiders  
297 used the sand and cement trap-nests in Bilpin than Orange ( $W=64213$ ,  $p = 0.0001$ ) (Table 1  
298 and 2).

299

300 **Are trap-nests occupied by species that are known visitors of apple and cherry crops or**  
301 **a wider diversity of native bees within each region?**

302 Comparing the trap-nest occupancy and observation data to our previously collected  
303 cherry (Gilpin et al., 2022) and apple (Gilpin et al., *In review*) (Table 3) flower visitor data  
304 within Bilpin, we found that megachilid bees were the only taxon to both visit apple flowers  
305 and occupy the trap-nests (both bamboo reed and hardwood block trap-nest types).

306 Meanwhile, there was no overlap recorded in the native bee visitors to cherry and nest  
307 occupants in Bilpin. Occurrence records from the Atlas of Living Australia show that there is  
308 a wide variety of cavity-, wood- and ground-nesting native bees in the Bilpin area (Table S1),  
309 including two species of megachilid bees (*Megachile hackeri* and *M. heliophila*) (Table S1),  
310 which may have been the species nesting within the reed and hardwood trap-nests.

311 In Orange, there was no overlap in the pollinator assemblage observed visiting apple  
312 or cherry and the **invertebrates** using the trap-nests. However, ALA occurrence records show  
313 that, in the local area, there is a wide variety of native bee species with potential to use these  
314 three trap-nest types given their preference for nesting within cavities made from wood and  
315 sand/soil (Table S1). Based upon ALA records of known bees in the area and the construction  
316 of red resin and masticated leaf nests that we observed within the bamboo and hardwood  
317 block trap-nests, we conclude that it is likely that one or more of three species of *Megachile*  
318 bees (*M. apicata*, *M. ordinaria*, *M. sequior*) created these nests.

319

320 **Discussion**

321

322 We investigated the uptake and use of three types of popular trap-nests by flower  
323 visitors of apple and cherry crops and the wider assemblage of invertebrates within  
324 agroecosystems in NSW, Australia. Reed and hardwood block trap-nests had greater  
325 **invertebrate** activity than sand and cement brick trap-nests in both crop growing regions  
326 (Bilpin and Orange). Overall, significantly more native bees used the reed and hardwood  
327 block trap-nests in Orange than in Bilpin. Although known colloquially as bee hotels, in  
328 addition to attracting Megachilid resin and leaf-cutter bees, the reed and hardwood trap-nests  
329 also attracted ants, spiders and wasps. There was some overlap in the native bees using the  
330 trap-nests in Bilpin and those observed visiting apple flowers, but no overlap in the nest  
331 occupants and flower visitors of cherry in either Bilpin or Orange or for apple in Orange.  
332 However, ALA occurrence records (Atlas of Living Australia, 2020 a and b) did show that, in  
333 both Bilpin and Orange, there are a variety of native bee species that could potentially use the  
334 trap-nests.

335 Our finding that hardwood and reed trap-nests had greater numbers of both **wild bee**  
336 **and other invertebrate inhabitants** than sand and cement trap-nests may be due to: (1) low  
337 abundance of ground-nesting bees that are commonly associated with sand and cement nest  
338 types (Halcroft & Batley, 2014; Halcroft, 2018); (2) **potentially a longer time is** required for  
339 these bees to become aware of the nesting opportunity; (3) less demand for new nest sites  
340 within these areas due to the relative abundance of such micro-sites. Indeed, Brown et al.,  
341 (2020) documented a positive association between ground-nesting bee abundance and the  
342 amount of open agricultural pastureland in south-east Australia, therefore it is possible that in  
343 our study locations there may already be sufficient nesting habitat and thus low demand for  
344 additional sites.

345           Our study also found significant differences between Bilpin and Orange regions in the  
346 total number of native bees and wasps using the trap-nests, with far more recorded at Orange.  
347 This may reflect a lack of pre-existing nesting opportunities within the highly altered  
348 agricultural environments of Orange in contrast to the diverse, habitat rich, native plant  
349 communities found at Bilpin. Our findings are, however, confounded by differences between  
350 the regions in terms of their invertebrate and plant community compositions, so it would  
351 require additional study of paired sites to determine the implications of these differences.

352           According to ALA records, numerous native bee species have been observed in both  
353 Bilpin and Orange that have the potential to use artificial nest enhancements. In Bilpin, there  
354 are records of *Xylocopa aeratus*, *Amegilla asserta* and *Amegilla pulchra*, all bees that can  
355 nest in sandy, compacted soil similar to that mimicked by the sand and cement bricks.  
356 Similarly, *Exoneura bicolor*, *Megachile hackeri* and *Megachile heliophila*, as well as  
357 numerous colletid bees, have also been recorded in the Bilpin region and may use hardwood  
358 block and artificial reed trap-nest enhancements (Halcroft & Batley, 2014). However, the use  
359 of artificial nests is potentially more likely in areas that are lacking suitable habitat following  
360 disturbances, including anthropogenic land-use changes and fire, although studies which  
361 monitor occupancy over a longer period post-disturbance are needed to determine their  
362 potential use.

363           In Orange, blue-banded bees, *Amegilla chlorocyanea* and *A. asserta* (both potential  
364 sand and cement brick trap-nest occupants) have been recorded on the ALA database. While  
365 these were not observed during the apple or cherry flower-visitor observations, they have  
366 been recorded using sand and cement brick trap-nests (Halcroft & Batley, 2014; Smith &  
367 Heard, 2016). In contrast, ground-nesting *Lassioglossum* spp. and *Homalictus* spp. native  
368 bees were observed visiting apple and cherry flowers but were not recorded in sand and  
369 cement trap-nests. It is likely that the firmness of these trap-nests does not suit the nesting

370 preferences of these bees as they typically prefer sandy loam soil (Smith & Heard, 2016).  
371 ALA records (Atlas of Living Australia, 2020 a and b) also showed that *Megachile apicata*,  
372 *M. sequiior* and *M. ordinaria*, as well as numerous colletid bees, had been previously  
373 observed in Orange and these could potentially use the hardwood/reed trap-nests. The  
374 discrepancy between the species documented in the ALA records and those observed using  
375 the trap-nests may be due to generally low abundance of these bee species in the study area,  
376 competition or predation between **invertebrate** species within the trap-nests, location of the  
377 trap-nests in terms of the ideal amount of sun/shade or heat/cold exposure or the time frame  
378 of nest deployment being too short for the bees to recognise the nesting opportunity. The  
379 diversity of native bees and their intrinsic nesting preferences observed during this study and  
380 on the ALA database highlight the need to consider a range of different artificial nest  
381 enhancements in order to cater for resident communities of native bees.

382         The reed and hardwood block trap-nests not only attracted a range of native bees, but  
383 also provided nesting habitat for a wide range of other **invertebrate** functional groups,  
384 including scavengers and predators of bees, such as ants, spiders, wasps and a cleptoparasitic  
385 cuckoo bee. Diverse invertebrate assemblages can provide a wide variety of ecosystem  
386 services in agro-ecosystems, from pollination through to pest-control and nutrient cycling  
387 (Saunders 2018), with the latter often being overlooked but no less crucial elements of  
388 healthy, functional ecosystems. The capacity of trap-nests to support the diversity and  
389 fecundity of solitary, cavity-nesting bees in trap nests located in natural environments and  
390 apple orchards in Nova Scotia, Canada was demonstrated by Sheffield et al., (2008). Their  
391 study documented similar uptake in trap-nests deployed in paired locations (natural and apple  
392 orchards), and they concluded that trap-nests can be used as a tool to increase and maintain  
393 cavity-nesting bee populations within apple orchards. For these findings to be tested within  
394 an Australian context, further research should consider locally paired (natural and



395 agricultural) comparisons to test the degree of overlap in the assemblage of **invertebrates** that  
396 use the trap-nests.

397         The capacity for trap-nests to support a diverse **invertebrate** assemblage has also been  
398 shown in a study of 600 trap-nests over three years in Toronto, Canada, by McIvor & Packer,  
399 (2015). These authors found that native wasps were the most abundant insect group using the  
400 trap-nests, occupying 75% of these each year and far outnumbering native and introduced  
401 bees. McIvor & Packer, (2015) also found that native bees were parasitised significantly  
402 more than introduced bees. Trap-nests may therefore increase the risk of parasitism and  
403 potentially even disease, as well as creating an environment for bee predators and competitors  
404 due to the aggregational nature and potentially high density and proximity of nests (**McIvor &**  
405 **Packer, 2015**). However, more research is needed to understand whether the incidences of  
406 disease, predation and competition are higher for native bees that use these artificial nests  
407 compared to more natural alternatives.

408         Although not an initial goal of the study, the wildfire that affected Bilpin in December  
409 2019 provided an opportunity to gain insight into colonisation of trap-nests by invertebrates  
410 before and, albeit for a limited time, after the fire. The wildfire dramatically impacted the  
411 native vegetation surrounding the orchards of the region, although the majority of the  
412 orchards were successfully defended by fire-fighting operations. Perhaps unsurprisingly,  
413 **invertebrates** that inhabit the orchard, such as ants, spiders and termites, and which therefore  
414 presumably were not impacted directly by the fire, were found to recolonise the trap-nests in  
415 the early months post-fire. Although we did not observe any native bee nests after the  
416 wildfire, this may be due to the limited time (4 months) that the study continued post-fire  
417 before being impacted by COVID-19 travel restrictions, as well as the generally low  
418 occupancy by bees in the region overall. The study of bee responses to fire regimes by  
419 Lazarina et al., (2016) found an increase in ground-nesting bee abundance post-fire, which

420 the authors attribute to an increase in the availability of bare earth habitat. Importantly, the  
421 temporal scale of their study was greater than ours, with “recently burnt’ sites categorised as  
422 those impacted by fire within a 4-year period. Future studies should be conducted over the  
423 longest practical time-frame to gain a true indication of the colonisation of trap-nests by  
424 native bees post-fire.

## 425 **Conclusions**

426 Our research highlights the potential of trap-nests to support crop-pollinating native bees and  
427 other **invertebrates** in agricultural landscapes. Trap-nests may therefore have the capacity to  
428 be an important conservation tool in areas with low nest site availability or following  
429 disturbance such as bushfire.

430

## 431 **Authors’ contributions**

432 A-MG, and LEB conceived the ideas and designed the methodology, A-MG and LEB  
433 collected the data, A-MG and LEB analysed the data; A-MG, LEB, JMC and SAP wrote the  
434 manuscript. This work was supported by the “Healthy bee populations for sustainable  
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#### 450 Conflict of Interest

451 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

452

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617 **Tables.**

618 **Table 1.** Nesting material used and associated insect presumed to have made the nest, based  
619 upon reference identification (Halcroft and Batley 2014; Dollin et al., 2016; Houston 2018),  
620 for three different trap-nest types (bamboo reed, hardwood block and sand and cement brick)

621 placed into apple and or cherry orchards in Bilpin (August 2018-April 2020) and Orange  
622 (August 2018- June 2020), NSW.

623 **Table 2.** Mann-Whitney U test results comparing the total number of native bees (*Megachile*  
624 subgenera and *Megachile* (*Eutricharaea*)), wasps, ants and spiders that used each of the three  
625 trap-nests (bamboo reed, hardwood block and sand and cement brick) at Bilpin and Orange.

626 **Table 3.** Observations of native bees, identified to family, genus or species level, visiting  
627 apple and cherry during early/king, peak and late bloom in 2017 and 2018 in the same study  
628 orchards as the trap-nest experiment, in Bilpin and Orange, NSW.

629

### 630 **Figures.**

631 **Figure 1.** Map of the two study locations, Bilpin and Orange located in NSW, Australia. Map  
632 created by Laura Lopresti, source (ESRI World Imagery basemap, 2022).

633 **Figure 2.** The three different types of trap-nests deployed in apple and cherry orchards in  
634 Bilpin and Orange - bamboo reed trap-nest (a), hardwood block trap-nest (b), sand and  
635 cement brick trap-nest (c). (d) Laura Brettell inspects a hardwood block trap-nest and extracts  
636 a paper straw in which insects are nesting, in an apple orchard in Orange.

637 **Figure 3.** Heatmap showing the number of nests/structures made by each insect group  
638 observed in three types of trap-nests (bamboo reed, hardwood block and sand and cement)  
639 throughout 2019 to 2020 in apple and cherry orchards in Bilpin, (a) and Orange, NSW,  
640 Australia (b). Warmer colours represent higher numbers of nests/structures observed.  
641 Abbreviated insect groupings are based on nest material or the observed insect known to  
642 inhabit the nest, abbreviations include; Leaf = Leaf-cutter bee, Mast leaf = Resin bee  
643 (Masticated leaf), Resin (R) = Resin bee (Red Resin), Resin (S) = Resin bee (Resin and

644 sticks), Misc = burrow holes made by unknown insect. Note the sampling dates differ  
645 between Bilpin and Orange, this is due to the geographic distance between the locations,  
646 meaning sampling on the same day was not possible.

647

648

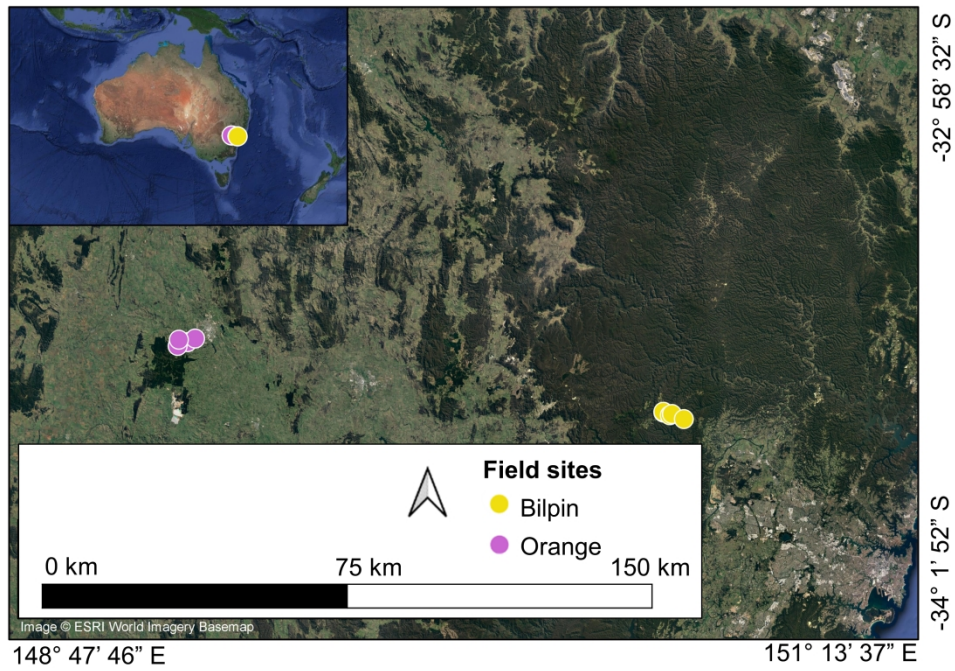


Figure 1. Map of the two study locations, Bilpin and Orange located in NSW, Australia. Map created by Laura Lopresti, source (ESRI World Imagery basemap, 2022).

287x190mm (300 x 300 DPI)

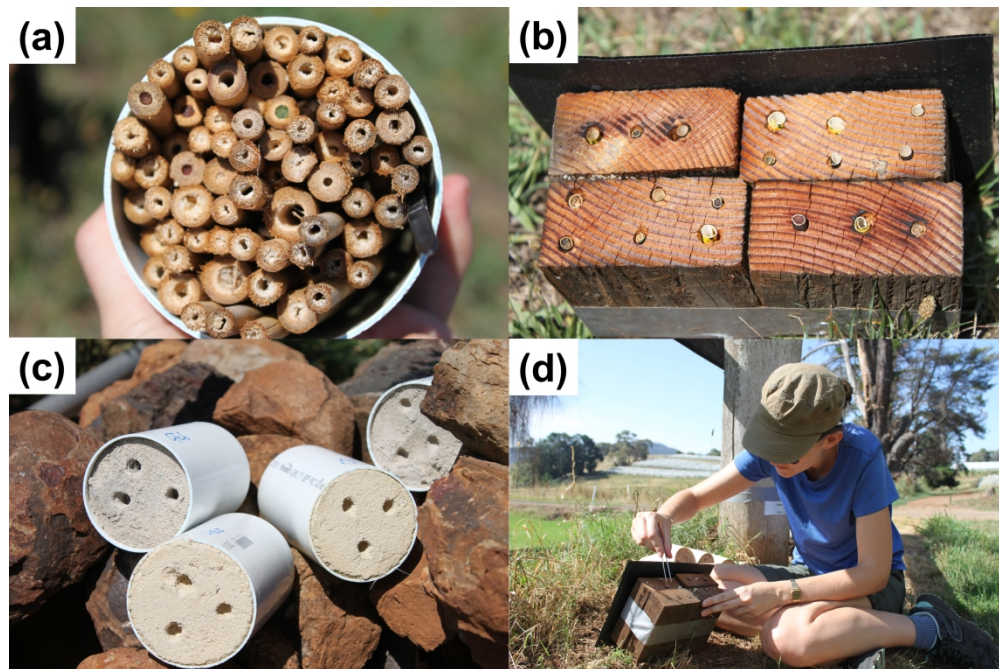


Figure 2. The three different types of trap-nests deployed in apple and cherry orchards in Bilpin and Orange - bamboo reed trap-nest (a), hardwood block trap-nest (b), sand and cement brick trap-nest (c). (d) Laura Brettell inspects a hardwood block trap-nest and extracts a paper straw in which insects are nesting, in an apple orchard in Orange.

285x190mm (300 x 300 DPI)

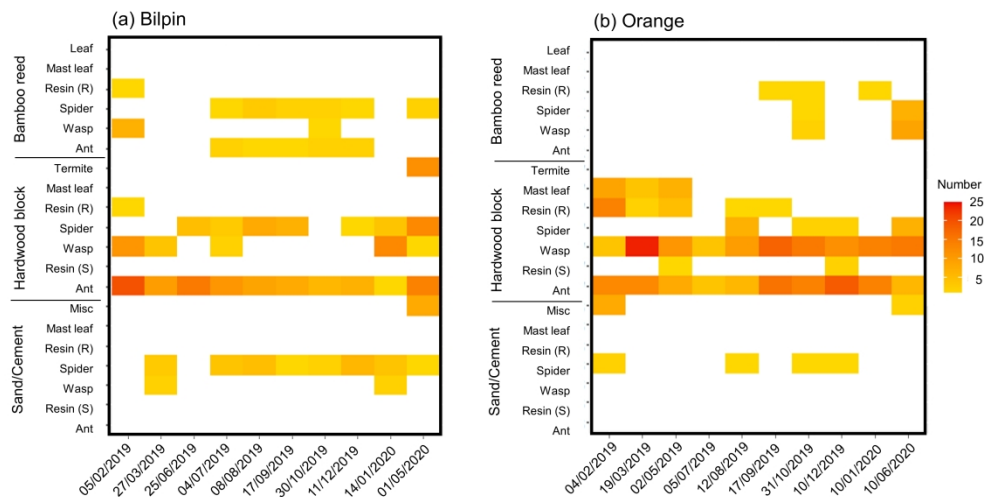


Figure 3. Heatmap showing the number of nests/structures made by each insect group observed in three types of trap-nests (bamboo reed, hardwood block and sand and cement) throughout 2019 to 2020 in apple and cherry orchards in Bilpin, (a) and Orange, NSW, Australia (b). Warmer colours represent higher numbers of nests/structures observed. Abbreviated insect groupings are based on nest material or the observed insect known to inhabit the nest, abbreviations include; Leaf = Leaf-cutter bee, Mast leaf = Resin bee (Masticated leaf), Resin (R) = Resin bee (Red Resin), Resin (S) = Resin bee (Resin and sticks), Misc = burrow holes made by unknown insect. Note the sampling dates differ between Bilpin and Orange, this is due to the geographic distance between the locations, meaning sampling on the same day was not possible.

338x190mm (300 x 300 DPI)

**Table 1.** Nesting material used and associated insect presumed to have made the nest, based upon reference identification (Halcroft and Batley 2014; Dollin et al., 2016; Houston 2018), for three different trap-nest types (bamboo reed, hardwood block and sand and cement brick) placed into apple and or cherry orchards in Bilpin (August 2018-April 2020) and Orange (August 2018- June 2020), NSW.

		Nest structure material / insect								
		<i>Megachile</i> (Megachile) Resin bee			<i>Megachile</i> (Eutricharaea) Leaf-cutter bee	Wasp spp	Ant spp	Spider spp	Termite spp	Miscellaneous
Trap-nest type	Region	Red resin	Resin and stick	Green masticated leaf tissue	Leaf nest	Mud	Plant debris and soil	Web	Soil/sand	Unknown insect burrow
Bamboo reed	Bilpin	1	0	0	0	8	37	11	0	0
	Orange	12	0	5	2	26	12	8	0	0
Hardwood block	Bilpin	1	0	0	0	31	101	41	12	0
	Orange	23	3	20	0	127	113	20	0	0
Sand and cement brick	Bilpin	0	0	0	0	4	0	26	0	8
	Orange	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	2



**Table 2.** Mann-Whitney U test results comparing the number of native bees (Megachile subgenera and Megachile (Eutricharaea)), wasps, ants and spiders that used each of the three trap-nests (bamboo reed, hardwood block and sand and cement brick) at Bilpin and Orange.

Trap-nest type	Test statistic			
	Total native bees	Wasp	Ant	Spider
Bamboo Reed	W=60542, <i>p</i> = 0.01	W=60196, <i>p</i> = 0.02	W= 60897, <i>p</i> =0.08	W=60905, <i>p</i> = 0.11
Hardwood block	W=3538, <i>p</i> = 0.0001	W=3125, <i>p</i> = 0.0001	W=4078, <i>p</i> = 0.63	W=3768, <i>p</i> = 0.05
Sand and cement brick	na	W= 67344, <i>p</i> = 0.16	-	W=64213, <i>p</i> = 0.0001

na = indicates no insects were observed. - indicates insufficient data to perform analysis.

**Table 3.** Observations of native bees, identified to family, genus or species level, visiting apple and cherry during early/king, peak and late bloom in 2017 and 2018 in the same study orchards as the trap-nest experiment, in Bilpin and Orange, NSW.

Family/Genus/ Species	Bilpin		Orange	
	Native bees visiting apple	Native bees visiting cherry	Native bees visiting apple	Native bees visiting cherry
Megachilidae spp	•			
Lassioglossum spp	•		•	•
Exoneura spp	•			
Homalictus spp	•		•	•
Meroglossa spp	•			
<i>Tetragonula carbonaria</i>	•	•		•

- = The family/genus or species was observed visiting either the apple or cherry flowers during observations conducted throughout the early (or king for apple), peak or late crop flowering period in 2017 or 2018 (Data sources from Gilpin et al., In review a, b).