

# **Suction feeding in orchid bees (Apidae: Euglossini)**

# **Brendan J. Borrell**

*Department of Integrative Biology, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720-3140, USA* (*bborrell@uclink.berkeley.edu*)

*Recd* 18.09.03; *Accptd* 23.10.03; *Published online* 10.12.03

**Energy flux during nectar feeding is maximized at an intermediate sugar concentration, the value of which depends on the morphology of the feeding apparatus and the modality of fluid feeding. Biomechanical models predict that a shift from capillary-based lapping to suction feeding will lead to a decrease in this optimal sugar concentration. Here, I demonstrate that the four major genera of orchid bees (Apidae: Euglossini) are suction feeders and provide experimental evidence that the feeding optimum for one species,** *Euglossa imperialis***, falls below the optimum for bee taxa that lap.**

**Keywords:** foraging ecology; nectar; pollination; orchid bee; *Euglossa imperialis*; Euglossini

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

The match between floral morphology and the mouthparts of specialized pollinators includes the most celebrated and controversial examples of plant–pollinator coevolution (Darwin 1862; Müller 1873; Harder 1985; Nilsson 1988; Temeles & Kress 2003). Bees are ubiquitous nectarivores, but, curiously, the flowers most bees visit are shallow compared with those used by butterflies and moths (Grant & Grant 1965; Barth 1991). Whereas most bees use a short proboscis to consume nectar with lapping motions of their hairy tongue (Snodgrass 1956; Harder 1982*a*,*b*), the long-tongued orchid bees (Apidae: Euglossini) employ a purely suctorial feeding mode to ingest nectar from deep flowers.

One dilemma faced by nectar foragers such as orchid bees is that energy content rises linearly with nectar sugar concentration, but viscosity rises exponentially (Baker 1975). Consequently, the rate of energy intake during feeding will be optimal at an intermediate concentration that is dependent on the geometry of the feeding apparatus and the modality of fluid feeding. Kingsolver & Daniel (1995) examined the effects of viscosity on two feeding modalities: capillary-based lapping and suction feeding. They predicted that a shift from lapping to suction feeding will lead to a greater dependence on fluid viscosity, and that optimal nectar sugar concentrations for suction feeders should fall below those of 'lappers'. In the present study, I show that this type of shift in feeding modality has occurred in orchid bees, and provide a comparative test of these theoretical predictions. This study reveals how biomechanical novelties have influenced plant– pollinator interactions.

# **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

(**a**) *Maintenance and collection of the study organism*

Orchid bees are a diverse and abundant group of insects that inhabit forested areas ranging from Mexico to Argentina. Male bees from 30 species were captured using a hand-net at chemical baits of cineole, methyl salicylate, vanillin, skatole and eugenol (see electronic Appendix A available on The Royal Society's Publications Web site). Following capture, bees were brought back to a screened enclosure where they were held until they readily took artificial nectars. This process took between 30 min and 2 h for most bees. All experiments were conducted between June 2002 and April 2003 at field sites in Panama and Costa Rica.

#### (**b**) *General feeding observations*

I observed orchid bees ingesting artificial nectars to determine whether suction feeding was shared by the four major genera of orchid bee (*Eufriesea*, *Euglossa*, *Eulaema* and *Exaerete*). *Aglae*, a monotypic genus from South America, was the only genus of orchid bee not examined in this study. Before feeding trials, bees were encouraged to fly around the enclosure for at least 30 s to ensure a relatively constant state of metabolic activity. The artificial nectar solution, 35% sucrose, was placed in a 200 µl micropipette tip sealed at the small end using a drop of cyanoacrylate. This micropipette tip was inserted into a Styrofoam base, and a piece of laminated cardstock at the large end served as the drinking platform for the bee. A needle was used to extend the proboscis of the experimental animal and place it in the nectar solution. If animals were willing to drink, they extended their proboscis immediately upon contact with the solution, and they were released onto the drinking platform for observation.

#### (**c**) *Experimental observations with* **Euglossa imperialis**

To test the role of the glossa during feeding, I cold-anaesthetized five individuals of *E. imperialis* and excised the glossa at its base by using a pair of dissecting scissors (figure 1). After recovering, bees groomed their tongues and readily ingested nectar. I filmed five control individuals and five treatment individuals feeding from a 100 µl capillary tube and tracked the location of the glossa at 60 frames  $s^{-1}$ and the fluid meniscus at  $1/2$  frames s<sup>-1</sup> to simultaneously gather data on glossal movements (in control animals) and record the nectar intake rate.

I determined the optimal nectar concentration for *E. imperialis* by timing bees as they drank from 5, 15, 25, 35, 45, 55, 65 and 75% sucrose solutions. I measured the mass consumed from the difference in the bee's mass before and after feeding trials (±1 mg), and I calculated the rate of sucrose consumption by multiplying mass intake rate by sucrose concentration. A total of 71 individuals were used in these trials and no individuals were used more than once.

### (**d**) *Nectar collection in nature*

Nectar stored in a bee's crop is not diluted or modified in any way, and is thus representative of nectars actually collected during foraging (Roubik *et al.* 1995). I extracted nectar into 25 µl capillary tubes by gently squeezing the abdomens of individuals of *E. imperialis* that arrived at the chemical baits. Equivalent sucrose concentrations were determined using a temperature-corrected pocket refractometer (0– 62%; samples greater than 62% were diluted). Owing to the presence of amino acids in floral nectars, these readings are likely to be several per cent higher than true sugar concentrations (Inouye *et al.* 1980).

## **3. RESULTS**

Suction feeding is shared by the four major genera of orchid bees (*Eufriesea*, *Euglossa*, *Eulaema* and *Exaerete*), a conclusion based on over 735 feeding observations with individuals of 30 species (see electronic Appendix A). Even when offered low nectar volumes (less than  $10 \mu l$ ), orchid bees were never observed lapping nectar.

During ingestion, the glossa of *E. imperialis* was always fully extended and stationary, reaching *ca*. 6 mm beyond the apical end of the feeding tube formed by the galeae and the labial palps (see figure 1). In fact, not only could *E. imperialis* feed after surgical removal of the glossa, but this treatment had no effect on the rate of nectar intake  $(t_9 = 0.333, p = 0.7469)$ , indicating that the glossa is not an essential component of nectar transport in these bees under these experimental conditions.

In drinking trials with *E. imperialis*, the rate of sucrose intake was significantly different among sucrose concentration



Figure 1. Lateral view of the head and proboscis of *E. imperialis* and a cross-section of the proboscis indicating the glossa (gl), galea (ga), and labial palps (lp). The symmetrical elements are excluded in the lateral view. Orchid bees suck nectar through the tube formed by the galeae and labial palps.



Figure 2. Sucrose intake rate is optimal between 30 and 40% sucrose for *Euglossa imperialis* feeding on artificial flowers at  $29.8 \pm 9.2$  °C (range of 27.6–31.6). Error bars show 95% CIs for treatment means. The fitted least-squares regression line is  $y = 17.0x - 0.387x^2 + 0.002x^3 - 49.109$ . The grey rectangles depict the energy intake optima derived from other studies for suction feeders and lapping bees (see § 4 for references).

treatments (ANOVA:  $F_{7,63} = 13.0, p \le 0.0001$ ), with the 35% solution giving the highest rate of sucrose intake (figure 2). The mean nectar sugar concentration collected by *E. imperialis* in Costa Rica, 38.3 ± 1.59% (mean ± 95% CI,  $n = 108$ ), closely matched the optimum derived from drinking trials.

## **4. DISCUSSION**

The present study demonstrates that a shift from capillary-based lapping to suction feeding in orchid bees has led to a decrease in the nectar sugar concentration that maximizes the rate of energy intake. Orchid bees maximize their rate of energy intake by feeding on nectars with sugar concentrations between 30 and 40%. This optimal concentration coincides with the optima found for suction-feeding butterflies (May 1985; Pivnick & McNeil 1985; Boggs 1988), hawkmoths ( Josens & Farina 2001)

and flies (Kingsolver & Daniel 1995), whereas the optima for bees that lap lie between 50 and 60% sucrose (Roubik & Buchmann 1984; Harder 1986). The field portion of this study confirms that *E. imperialis* harvests nectars matching this feeding optimum. Previously, Roubik *et al.* (1995) showed that *E. imperialis* and 12 other species of orchid bees collect more dilute nectars than sympatric, lapping bees.

In contrast to the short flowers frequented by most bees (Barth 1991), many orchid bees visit deep flowers in the families Bignoniaceae, Costaceae and Marantaceae (Ackerman 1985). Harder (1985) and Ranta & Lundberg (1980) found that although bumble-bee species with long tongues can access deep flowers, they also frequently visit shorter flowers. In fact, such asymmetric specialization also occurs in long-tongued guilds of hawkmoths (Nilsson *et al.* 1987; Haber & Frankie 1989), nemestrinid flies (Manning & Goldblatt 1997) and orchid bees (Ackerman 1985). Because insects with long tongues have a wide selection of flowers from which to choose, but the deepest flowers often depend on a single pollinator, these flowers are expected to evolve nectars at optimal sugar concentrations for their primary pollinator. Indeed, *E. imperialis* visits a wide variety of flowering plants, but the understorey herbs, *Costus laevis* and *Costus allenii*, are entirely dependent on female *E. imperialis* for their pollination (Schemske 1981; Ackerman 1985). Not only do the nectar spurs of *C. laevis* and *C. allenii* match the 30 mm tongues of their exclusive visitors, but these plants provide nectars with sugar concentrations between 30 and 40% (Schemske 1981).

Orchid bees possess a derived feeding mode, as outgroups in both short-tongued and long-tongued bee families lap nectar (Harder 1982*a*). One probable evolutionary scenario is that as proboscis length evolved in concert with floral morphologies, anatomical constraints on glossal reciprocation would have rendered nectar transport via lapping less effective than suction feeding. This type of functional shift in feeding modality appears to have occurred independently in orchid bees, butterflies (Krenn & Kristensen 2000), pollen wasps (Krenn *et al.* 2002) and long-tongued bee-flies (Szucsich & Krenn 2002), representing a general trend among nectarivorous insects that use deep flowers. Nectarivorous insects first appear in the fossil record as early as the Late Jurassic, but suction feeding from deep, funnel-shaped flowers is more likely to be post-Cretaceous in origin (Labandeira 1997). The present study adds a biomechanical perspective to the evolutionary history of these interactions: deeper flowers exerted selection for longer tongues, and insects with longer tongues selected for more dilute nectars.

#### **Acknowledgements**

The author thanks M. Medeiros for assistance during the course of this study. He also thanks R. Dudley, R. Hill, R. Srygley and two anonymous reviewers for comments, which greatly improved this manuscript. He is indebted to the Organization for Tropical Studies and the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute for providing logistical support. This study was supported by the Department of Integrative Biology at UC Berkeley and a Graduate Research Fellowship from the US National Science Foundation.

Ackerman, J. D. 1985 Euglossine bees and their nectar hosts. In *The botany and natural history of Panama* (ed. W. G. D'Arcy & M. D. Correa), pp. 225–233. St Louis, MO: Missouri Botanical Garden.

Baker, H. G. 1975 Sugar concentrations in nectars from hummingbird flowers. *Biotropica* **7**, 37–41.

- Barth, F. G. 1991 *Insects and flowers: the biology of a partnership*. Princeton University Press.
- Boggs, C. L. 1988 Rates of nectar feeding in butterflies: effects of sex, size, age and nectar concentration. *Funct. Ecol.* **2**, 289–295.
- Darwin, C. 1862 *On the various contrivances by which British and foreign orchids are fertilized by insects*. London: Murray.
- Grant, V. & Grant, K. A. 1965 *Flower pollination in the phlox family*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Haber, W. A. & Frankie, G. W. 1989 A tropical hawkmoth community: Costa Rican dry forest Sphingidae. *Biotropica* **21**, 155–172.
- Harder, L. D. 1982*a* Functional differences of the proboscides of short- and long-tongued bees (Hymenoptera, Apoidea). *Can. J. Zool.* **61**, 1580–1586.
- Harder, L. D. 1982*b* Measurement and estimation of functional proboscis length in bumblebees (Hymenoptera: Apidae). *Can. J. Zool.* **60**, 1073–1079.
- Harder, L. D. 1985 Morphology as a predictor of flower choice by bumble bees. *Ecology* **66**, 198–210.
- Harder, L. D. 1986 Effects of nectar concentration and flower depth on flower handling efficiency of bumble bees. *Oecologia* **69**, 309– 315.
- Inouye, D. W., Favre, N. D., Lanum, J. A., Levine, D. M., Meyers, J. B., Roberts, M. S., Tsao, F. C. & Wang, Y.-Y. 1980 The effects of nonsugar nectar constituents on estimates of nectar energy content. *Ecology* **61**, 992–996.
- Josens, R. B. & Farina, W. M. 2001 Nectar feeding by the hovering hawk moth *Macroglossum stellatarum*: intake rate as a function of viscosity and concentration of sucrose solutions. *J. Comp. Physiol.* A **187**, 661–665.
- Kingsolver, J. G. & Daniel, T. L. 1995 Mechanics of food handling by fluid-feeding insects. In *Regulatory mechanisms in insect feeding* (ed. R. F. Chapman & G. de Boer), pp. 32–73. New York: Chapman & Hall.
- Krenn, H. W. & Kristensen, N. P. 2000 Early evolution of the proboscis of Lepidoptera (Insecta): external morphology of the galea in basal glossatan moths lineages, with remarks on the origin of pilifers. *Zool. Anz.* **239**, 179–196.
- Krenn, H. W., Mauss, V. & Plant, J. 2002 Evolution of the suctorial proboscis in pollen wasps (Masarinae, Vespidae). *Arthropod. Struct. Dev.* **31**, 103–120.
- Labandeira, C. C. 1997 Insect mouthparts: ascertaining the paleobiology of insect feeding strategies. *A. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* **28**, 153–193.
- Manning, J. C. & Goldblatt, P. 1997 The *Moegistorhynchus longirostris* (Diptera: Nemestrinidae) pollination guild: long-tubed flowers and a specialized long-proboscid fly pollination system in southern Africa. *Plant Syst. Evol.* **206**, 51–69.
- May, P. G. 1985 Nectar uptake rates and optimal nectar concentrations of two butterfly species. *Oecologia* **66**, 381–386.
- Müller, H. 1873 Proboscis capable of sucking the nectar of *Angraecum sesquipedale*. *Nature* **8**, 223.
- Nilsson, L. A. 1988 The evolution of flowers with deep corolla tubes. *Nature* **334**, 147–149.
- Nilsson, L. A., Jonsson, L., Ralison, L. & Randrianjohany, E. 1987 Angraecoid orchid and hawkmoths in central Madagascar: specialized pollination systems and generalist foragers. *Biotropica* **19**, 310–318.
- Pivnick, K. A. & McNeil, J. N. 1985 Effects of nectar concentration on butterfly feeding: measured feeding rates for *Thymelicus lineola* (Lepidoptera: Hesperiidae) and a general feeding model for adult Lepidoptera. *Oecologia* **66**, 226–237.
- Ranta, E. & Lundberg, H. 1980 Resource partitioning in bumblebees: the significance of differences in proboscis length. *Oikos* **35**, 298–302.
- Roubik, D. W. & Buchmann, S. L. 1984 Nectar selection by *Melipona* and *Apis mellifera* (Hymenoptera: Apidae) and the ecology of nectar intake by bee colonies in a tropical forest. *Oecologia* **61**,  $1-10.$
- Roubik, D. W., Yanega, D., Aluja, S. M., Buchmann, S. L. & Inouye, D. W. 1995 On optimal nectar foraging by some tropical bees (Hymenoptera: Apidae). *Apidologie* **26**, 197–211.
- Schemske, D. W. 1981 Floral convergence and pollinator sharing in two bee-pollinated tropical herbs. *Ecology* **62**, 946–954.
- Snodgrass, R. E. 1956 *Anatomy of the honey bee*. Ithaca, NY: Comstock.
- Szucsich, N. U. & Krenn, H. W. 2002 Flies and concealed nectar sources: morphological innovations in the proboscis of Bombyliidae (Diptera). *Acta Zool.* (*Stockholm*) **83**, 183–192.
- Temeles, E. J. & Kress, W. J. 2003 Adaptation in a plant–hummingbird association. *Science* **300**, 630–633.

Visit www.journals.royalsoc.ac.uk and navigate to this article through *Biology Letters* to see the accompanying electronic appendix.