



Sunflower–Pollinator Interaction: The Hidden Link between Bees and Seed Yield

*Adrija Bhandari, Suchismita Tripathy, Anita Mahapatra and Jyoti Rekha Patnaik

College of Agriculture, OUAT, Bhubaneswar, Odisha, India

*Corresponding Author's email: adrijabhandari261@gmail.com

Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) is among the world's most important oilseed crops, yet its productivity is shaped by a factor that rarely appears in fertilizer or irrigation schedules: insect pollination. Although modern hybrids are largely self-fertile, sunflower remains structurally adapted for cross-pollination, and its capitulum architecture continues to reward visiting bees with abundant pollen and nectar. Field studies show that excluding pollinators depresses filled-seed number, seed mass, oil content and overall crop yield, while honey bees, bumble bees, stingless bees and diverse wild bees each contribute distinct visitation patterns that jointly determine fertilization success. Pollinator activity, however, is not guaranteed: weather, landscape composition, pesticide regimes and shifting flowering phenology all influence how much pollination service a field actually receives. This article traces the pathway from floret biology to oil yield, examines the ecological and agronomic drivers of pollinator abundance, and outlines pollinator-friendly practices — from judicious pesticide timing to habitat conservation and emerging digital monitoring tools — that can help sunflower growers convert this often-overlooked ecosystem service into tangible gains at harvest.

Keywords: *Helianthus annuus*, pollination biology, honey bees, wild bees, seed set, oil yield, pollinator conservation

Introduction

Walk through a flowering sunflower field at mid-morning and the hum is unmistakable. Long before the combine enters that field, its eventual yield is already being negotiated — head by head, floret by floret — between the crop and the insects moving across it. Sunflower breeding, nutrition and water management dominate agronomic conversations, yet one input requires no purchase order and is easy to take for granted: pollination. Sunflower productivity depends on genotype, soil fertility and irrigation, but it depends just as surely on whether enough bees visit enough florets at the right time. This article follows that overlooked pathway — flower structure, bee visitation, pollen transfer, seed formation, and finally yield and oil quality — and asks what agronomists and farmers can do to protect it.

Sunflower Flowering and Pollination Biology

What looks like a single sunflower "flower" is, botanically, an inflorescence called a capitulum, composed of hundreds of florets arranged in interlocking spirals. The outer ring consists of sterile, showy ray florets whose sole function is advertisement — bright petals acting as a visual beacon for foraging insects. Inside them sit hundreds of small, bisexual disc florets, the true reproductive units. Flowering proceeds centripetally: outer rings of disc florets open first, followed by inner rings over several days, so a head may remain attractive to pollinators for a week or more. Each disc floret passes through a male (staminate) phase before becoming female (pistillate). Pollen is released early and dusted onto a structure at the tip of the still-closed style; only later does the stigma split open and become receptive.

Because a floret's own pollen is usually shed and removed before its stigma becomes receptive, self-pollination within the same floret is structurally discouraged, favouring transfer from other florets or plants. Most cultivated hybrids retain enough self-fertility to set some seed without insects, but self-pollen often performs less well than outcrossed pollen, particularly under heat stress — precisely the gap that bees are adapted to fill, moving pollen efficiently between florets and neighbouring plants as they forage.

Bees and Sunflower Seed Formation

Sunflower fields typically host a mixed community of pollinators. Managed honey bee (*Apis mellifera*) colonies are the most familiar visitors and, in many production regions, the dominant ones, but bumble bees, stingless bees and a wide range of solitary wild bees also work sunflower heads, often with foraging behaviour that complements rather than duplicates that of honey bees. As a bee moves across a capitulum collecting pollen and nectar, its body brushes against the receptive stigmas of florets it did not previously visit, depositing pollen carried from other plants and driving cross-fertilization. The consequences are measurable. In pollinator-exclusion experiments on hybrid sunflower, caging out insect visitors reduced fully filled seed formation by roughly a fifth, cut seed dry mass by over a tenth, and lowered total crop yield by around 30%, with a measurable drop in seed oil content, even though the sunflower cultivar tested was capable of self-pollination and self-fertilization (Amarilla et al., 2025). Related exclusion work found that bee-pollinated heads produced seed roughly 91% heavier than self-pollinated ones, alongside a modest rise in unsaturated fatty acid content, consistent with bee pollination significantly increasing seed weight and the proportion of unsaturated fatty acids (Silva et al., 2018). Follow-up fatty-acid analyses on a separate cultivar likewise found that sunflowers pollinated by honeybees show significantly higher oil content and oil yield compared with self-pollinated ones (Wang et al., 2025). Beyond honey bees, trials in central India found that stingless bee pollination significantly enhanced pod and seed set, seed weight, and oil content in major crops such as sunflower, mustard, sesame, and groundnut, showing that yield benefits are not confined to one pollinator species (Bhelawe et al., 2025). Together, these findings show pollination shaping seed set, filled seeds per head, seed weight and, ultimately, both seed yield and oil yield.

What Determines Pollinator Activity in Sunflower?

Bee visitation to sunflower heads is not constant; it responds to weather, flowering duration and the surrounding landscape. Water-stressed plants have been shown to alter floral traits and pollinator visitation, with knock-on effects on seed yield: the plant modifications induced by sowing months and water-deprived conditions may alter pollinator behavior and may ultimately affect sunflower yield (Ali et al., 2024). Because sunflower heads remain attractive over an extended flowering period, weather during just a few peak-bloom days can disproportionately affect final seed set. Landscape composition matters just as much as conditions within a field. A study across 36 sunflower fields found that a greater area and spatial dispersion of herbaceous semi-natural habitat nearby enhanced visitation by every pollinator group, while fields surrounded mainly by other flowering sunflower monoculture — a diluted, competing resource — received fewer wild bee visits: an increasing edge density of neighbouring sunflower fields resulted in considerably lower visiting frequencies of wild bees (Lajos et al., 2021). Similar patterns appear where narrow strips of semi-natural vegetation border sunflower fields: wild bee visitation and seed set were both higher close to these habitat remnants, while honey bee visitation, being less dependent on nearby nesting habitat, changed little with distance. Recent landscape-scale work in Bavaria found that freely pollinated sunflower fields yielded roughly 25% more than caged, insect-excluded controls regardless of farming system, with wild pollinators and honey bees responding to different landscape features (Bertleff et al., 2025). Field size, isolation from natural refuges, and the share of landscape under simultaneous mass-flowering crops together cap how much pollination service any field can attract.

Pesticides: A Major Challenge

Insecticide use, particularly with neonicotinoids, is one of the most consistent threats to pollinator activity in sunflower systems. Field trials comparing imidacloprid, clothianidin and thiamethoxam against untreated controls found that all three reduced visitation by honey bees, wild bees and butterflies, translating into lower fruit mass and reduced seed oil content at harvest (Saleem et al., 2023). Sublethal exposure does not need to be lethal to be damaging: neonicotinoids interfere with bee foraging efficiency, communication, navigation and memory, effects that can persist across a season. Even where seed-applied neonicotinoids are not detected in the nectar or pollen bees collect, paired-field trials found significantly lower crop yield alongside altered wild bee foraging, suggesting harm through indirect pathways beyond direct residue exposure (Ward et al., 2023). Residue-monitoring on Indian sunflower fields similarly recorded stronger forager activity in untreated plots than treated ones: foraging activity significantly improved in the control plots, with increased incoming nectar and outgoing forager activity (Chandrasekar et al., 2025). Integrated Pest Management — scouting, economic thresholds, biological control and targeted rather than calendar-based spraying — offers a practical route to protecting pest management without sacrificing pollination.

Agronomic Strategies for Pollinator-Friendly Sunflower

Several field-level practices can help reconcile pest control with pollinator conservation. Avoiding insecticide application during peak flowering, when bee activity on the crop is highest, removes the period of greatest exposure risk. Where spraying cannot be deferred, applying products in the early morning or late evening, when foraging activity is lowest, reduces direct contact. Choosing selective, short-residual products over broad-spectrum, persistent ones — and rotating modes of action rather than relying on repeated neonicotinoid use — further limits harm. At the landscape scale, maintaining flowering field margins, hedgerows and grass strips supplies the nesting and forage resources that sustain wild bee populations between crop bloom periods, while stationing honey bee colonies at recommended stocking rates along field edges supplements pollination where wild bee density is limited. None of these measures require sacrificing yield; the evidence above suggests they protect it.

Climate Change and the Future of Sunflower–Pollinator Interactions

A less immediate but growing concern is the risk that climate change decouples sunflower flowering from pollinator activity. Rising temperatures, altered rainfall and heat stress can shift the timing of flowering, while pollinator emergence and foraging respond to a different, not always identical, set of cues. A 19-year monitoring study of a spring-flowering plant and its bumblebee pollinator found that when the synchrony of flowering and pollinator emergence is disturbed by climate change, seed production may be restricted due to insufficient pollination success (Kudo & Cooper, 2019). Broader analyses across latitudes similarly find that differing climate sensitivities between plants and pollinators are widening phenological gaps in some regions even as synchrony holds in others (Peng et al., 2025). For a crop grown across a wide range of sowing windows and agro-climatic zones, this makes local flowering–pollinator timing an increasingly relevant part of variety choice and sowing-date planning, not just a topic for ecologists.

Future Perspectives

Emerging digital tools promise to make pollination itself something growers can monitor rather than assume. Camera- and drone-based systems using computer vision and deep learning can already detect, count and track flying insects across a field, offering a scalable alternative to labour-intensive manual observation. A purpose-built tracking algorithm, Polytrack, follows multiple insects simultaneously in complex field conditions using deep learning and background segmentation, since traditional sampling techniques used in insect monitoring have several drawbacks, including that they are labour intensive and potentially

unreliable (Ratnayake et al., 2022). Drone platforms with RGB and multispectral sensors are also being adapted more broadly across agriculture for imaging and targeted intervention (Yumnam et al., 2025). These technologies remain more developed in orchard and protected-cropping systems than in open-field oilseed production, but the underlying sensing approaches are readily transferable to large sunflower blocks, potentially letting agronomists flag under-pollinated zones much as satellite imagery already flags nutrient or water stress.

Conclusion

Sunflower yield formation is not decided by soil, seed and sky alone. From the moment a capitulum begins to open, its ultimate seed number, seed weight and oil content are being shaped by whether — and how well — bees find it. The evidence is consistent across geographies and cultivars: pollinator exclusion depresses yield and oil quality, while abundant, diverse bee visitation supports both. Because pollinator activity itself depends on landscape structure, weather, pesticide regimes and flowering synchrony, protecting it is squarely an agronomic responsibility, not merely an environmental one. Integrating pollinator-conscious decisions — on spray timing, field margins, colony placement and variety choice — into routine sunflower agronomy is a low-cost way to defend a yield component that is otherwise easy to overlook until it is missing.

Key Takeaways for Farmers

- Avoid insecticide spraying during peak sunflower flowering; if unavoidable, spray early morning or late evening when bee activity is lowest.
- Favour selective, short-residual pesticides over persistent, broad-spectrum neonicotinoids wherever pest pressure allows.
- Maintain flowering field margins, bunds and grass strips as season-long forage and nesting habitat for wild bees.
- Where wild bee density is low or fields are isolated from natural habitat, supplement with managed honey bee colonies at recommended stocking rates.
- Time sowing to avoid peak flowering coinciding with extreme heat or water stress, which can depress both floral attractiveness and pollinator activity.
- Avoid large, isolated blocks of simultaneously flowering sunflower with no nearby semi-natural habitat, which can dilute pollinator visitation per field.
- Monitor pollinator activity across the flowering period using simple visual counts, or camera-based tools where available, to catch pollination shortfalls early.

References

1. Ali, Q., Ali, M., Khan, F. Z. A., Noureldeen, A., Alghamdi, A., Darwish, H., Fatima, A., Jalali, A. I., Prendergast, K., & Saeed, S. (2024). Water deprivation and sowing times alter plant–pollination interactions and seed yield in sunflower, *Helianthus annuus* L. (Asteraceae). *Plants*, 13(22), 3194.
2. Amarilla, L. D., Grilli, G., Huais, P. Y., Labuckas, D., Maestri, D., Ferrarese, M., Tourn, E., Szawarski, N., Grandinetti, G., Ferreira, M. F., Torres, C., Vesprini, J. L., Maggi, M., & Galetto, L. (2025). Pollinators significantly enhance seed set, yields and chemical parameters of oil seed in sunflower crops. *Field Crops Research*, 322, 109736.
3. Amir, M. A., et al. (2026). Oleosin-coated nanocarriers enhance mycorrhizal-mediated pollinator forage and sunflower productivity under neonicotinoid stress. *Plant Growth Regulation*, 106, 41.
4. Bertleff, D., Vey, V., Birnbeck, S., Volz, H., Fiedler, J., Sauer, N., Zhang, J., Steffan-Dewenter, I., & Holzschuh, A. (2025). Wild pollinators and honeybees respond differently to landscape-scale organic farming and increase sunflower yields. *Journal of Applied Ecology*. Advance online publication.
5. Bhelawe, R., Jha, A. K., Roy, J., Acharya, R., Qureshi, S. O., Ghonmode, S., & Kale, M. C. (2025). Stingless bee-assisted pollination improves yield and oil content in oilseed crops of central India. *International Journal of Environmental Sciences*.

6. Chandrasekar, S., Marimuthu, M., Angappan, S., Pernamallur, S. A., Kaithamalai, B., & Pagalahalli, S. S. (2025). Effects of neonicotinoid residues in *Apis cerana indica* bees and bee products: LC-MS/MS analysis and dietary risk assessment in a sunflower field study. *Ecotoxicology*, 34(4), 606–621.
7. Kudo, G., & Cooper, E. J. (2019). When spring ephemerals fail to meet pollinators: Mechanism of phenological mismatch and its impact on plant reproduction. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 286(1904), 20190573.
8. Lajos, K., Samu, F., Bihaly, Á. D., Fülöp, D., & Sárospataki, M. (2021). Landscape structure affects the sunflower visiting frequency of insect pollinators. *Scientific Reports*, 11, 8147.
9. Peng, S., Ellison, A. M., & Davis, C. C. (2025). Climate change intensifies plant–pollinator mismatch and increases secondary extinction risk for plants in northern latitudes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 122(40), e2506265122.
10. Ratnayake, M. N., Dyer, A. G., & Dorin, A. (2022). Novel pollination drone for agricultural assistance. *International Journal for Research in Applied Science & Engineering Technology*, 10(6).
11. Saleem, M. S., Akbar, M. F., Javed, M. A., & Sultan, A. (2023). Neonicotinoid pesticide applications affect pollinator abundance and visitation, leading to implications for sunflower production (*Helianthus annuus* L.). *Cogent Food & Agriculture*, 9(1), 2258773.
12. Silva, C. A., Godoy, W. A., Jacob, C. R., Nunes, F. M. F., Malaquias, J. B., & Camillo, M. C. F. (2018). Bee pollination highly improves oil quality in sunflower. *Sociobiology*, 65(4), 583–588.
13. Wang, Y., et al. (2025). Fatty acid composition, oil yield, and oil content of sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) across different pollination treatments. *Journal of Biosciences*, 50, 34.
14. Ward, L. T., Hladik, M. L., & Guzman, A. (2023). Neonicotinoid sunflower seed treatment, while not detected in pollen and nectar, still impacts wild bees and crop yield. *Agrochemicals*, 2(2), 279–295.
15. Yumnam, A., et al. (2025). Utilising drones in agriculture: A review on remote sensors, image processing and their application. *Modern Agriculture*.