Diversity and Structure of Hoverfly (Diptera: Syrphidae) Communities in Agricultural Areas in Vojvodina Province (Serbia) A Case Study on *Brassica napus* L.

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ABSTRACT

To gain some insight into the structure of the hoverfly community in fields of oilseed rape (Brassica napus L.), we conducted field experiments over three years (2011-2013) at two localities in the province of Vojvodina, northern Serbia. We recorded a total of 20 hoverfly species. Three species-Episyrphus balteatus (De Geer, 1776), Eristalis tenax (Linnaeus, 1758) and Eupeodes corollae (Fabricius, 1794)-were the most abundant in both localities and in each year. In order to determine the effect of climatic and non-climatic parameters on abundance and diversity of hoverflies, two separate PCA analyses were carried out. Multiple linear regressions were used to examine the relationships between abundance and extracted PC axes, while ordinal multinomial regressions were conducted to determine the relationships between species diversity and extracted PC axes. We did not detect statistically significant correlations between climatic and non-climatic parameters and overall hoverfly abundance. PC axes exhibited slight correlation with species diversity. The first PC axis clearly showed that overall species diversity increases with increasing temperature, relative humidity and diversity of crops surrounding the surveyed plots, whereas PC2 related species composition with monthly average rainfall and the season and year of observation. Synecological analysis of our data indicated that only a few species are major contributors to hoverfly communities on the oilseed rape crops we investigated. However, the importance of less abundant hoverfly species should not be underestimated, as sometimes these species play an important role in pollination in a specific part of the day or season, and this should be considered when creating agricultural policies and regulations, especially when it is known that abundances of hoverflies and pollinators in general are positively correlated with floral abundance and abundance flowering plant species.

Key words: Hoverflies, oilseed rape, PCA, pollinators, species diversity, synecological analysis.

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INTRODUCTION

Pollinators contribute to the sustainability and stability of ecosystems. Additionaly, ecosystem services, such as pollination, are immensely important for human prosperity. alarming declines in some pollinator groups, such as bees (Hymenoptera: Apidae), have been reported worldwide (Westrich, 1989; Buchmann & Nabhan, 1997; Allen-Wardell et al, 1998; Bacandritsos et al, 2010; Genersch et al, 2010; Potts et al, 2010a, b). Understanding the consequences of these declines has become a priority, not only because of the biodiversity loss, but also for their considerable impact on agriculture and economy (Costanza et al, 1997). About 70% of tropical crops have at least one variety that is dependent on animal pollination (Roubik, 1995). This figure is even greater for European crops, 84% of which rely on animal pollination at least to some extent (Williams, 1994).

In the U.K. and Netherlands, declining wild plant diversity is mirrored by a decline in wild bee populations, whereas this pattern was not found for hoverflies (Biesmeijer et al, 2006). Although traditionally placed in the pollinator guild and sometimes considered the second most important pollinators after wild bees (Larson, Kevan, & Inouye, 2001), hoverflies have not received much attention as such. For example, *E. tenax* (Linnaeus, 1758) has been suggested as an adequate pollinator for sweet pepper in greenhouses (Jarlan, de Oliveira, & Gingras, 1997) and for apple trees (Kendall, Wilson, Guttridge, & Anderson, 1971), but the efficiency of other hoverfly species regarding pollination of other plants and especially crops has not been assessed properly (Larson et al, 2001).

Hoverflies are a diverse group, with over 6000 species described to date (Thompson, 2013). Hoverflies include generalist and cosmopolitan species due to having different larval feeding types and the heterogeneous ecological requirements of adults (Vujić et al, 2002), occurring in various habitat types from seashores to mountains. This insect group is not only important because of its role in pollination, the larvae of many species are aphidophagous and can be used in biological control, but only few species are commercially bred for that purposes (Pineda & Marcos-García, 2008).

Brassica napus (common names: rapeseed, rape, oilseed rape) is a member of the family *Brassicaceae*. It has entomophilous flowers capable of both self- and cross-pollination. The open corollas of the flowers allow almost every group of pollinating insects to feed on it, and their yellow colour and the shallow, visible placement of nectar attracts bees, flies and butterflies (Kunin, 1993). Production of oilseed rape has rapidly increased in recent decades (Rathke, Behrens, & Diepenbrock, 2006). It has become the dominant flowering crop in the European Union, mostly as a result of increased demand for energy crops (van der Velde, Bouraoui, & Aloe, 2009). Due to the high oil and protein content of its seeds, oilseed rape is mainly grown for the production of vegetable oil for human consumption, as an animal food and for the production of biodiesel (Milošević et al, 2016). The area under this important crop in Serbia increased from 17860 ha in 2015 to 37500 ha in 2016 (Association for the Promotion of Production and Exports of Grains and Oilseeds, 2017).

Serbia's northern province, Vojvodina, is composed mainly of agricultural land (83%), almost half of which is high quality chernozem soil (Hadžić, Nešić, & Sekulić, 2005). This province therefore represents one of the most fertile areas in Serbia. The majority of the region's agriculture is focused on the production of cereal grains, constituting 66% of all crops, but oilseed crops have increased in the past decade (Gligorov et al, 2010). As a result of shifting production, Vojvodina now produces 96% of the oilseed crop in Serbia (Gligorov et al, 2010). Considering its great economic value, we assessed the composition of hoverfly community found in *B. napus* fields. We investigated two different localities with oilseed crops in Vojvodina (Crvenka and Rimski Šančevi), considering them as a case study for this region, in order to: 1) detect species of hoverflies found on oilseed rape crops; 2) determine the structure of established hoverfly communities; 3) examine the possible influence of climatic and non-climatic parameters on those communities and 4) gain as much information about these species and their relationship to oilseed crops in order to complement the existing knowledge, which would contribute to better management practice.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Two study areas were chosen to assess hoverfly diversity, one in the central part of Vojvodina at Rimski Šančevi, (Fig. 1A: \blacktriangle) and another in its northwestern part, in the agricultural district of Crvenka (Fig. 1A: \bullet). Both sampling locations are experimental fields of the Institute of Field and Vegetable Crops, Novi Sad. Sampling was carried out between 2011 and 2013. Specimens were collected in spring (from late February/ early March to July), and in the autumn (from September to November).





Sampling was carried out using yellow pan traps details in (Leong & Thorp, 1999). The advantage of these traps is that they are easy to use, and the data collected is independent of the weather conditions at the moment of sampling. A set of four traps was placed at each locality. The traps were set on stands, about 10 cm above crop level to prevent overshadowing by the plants (Fig. 1B). Specimens were collected every seven days, stored in 75% ethyl-alcohol and labelled (locality, date, trap number, etc.). Examination of material and species determination was conducted in the

Laboratory for Biodiversity Research and Conservation of the Department of Biology and Ecology, Faculty of Sciences, University of Novi Sad, by Zorica Nedeljković. All specimens were identified to species level, except for three individuals of the genus *Cheilosia* Meigen, 1822, that could not be identified due to damage of taxonomically important characters. We used Van Veen (2004) and Bartsch, Binkiewicz, Rådén, & Nasibov (2009) to aid identifications based on morphological characters. Specimens were examined using a Nikon SMZ 745T binocular microscope.

Assessment of ecological indices

We conducted synecological analysis on our data to detect changes in community structure between seasons and to determine the position of each species in the local assemblages. The indices used here can be divided into analytical ecological indices (abundance, dominance, constancy) and the synthetic index of ecological significance (Grall & Coic, 2005).

Abundance (A) represents the number of specimens collected from a particular species. Species constancy (C_A) represents the percentage of samples in which a particular species occurs and is calculated according to the formula:

$$C_{A} = (N_{P} A / N_{P})^{*} 100$$

Where N_pA is number of samples in which species A occurs and N_p is the total number of samples (Grall & Coic 2005). There are four classes of constancy: C₁ (1-25%)-accidental species; C₂ (25-50%)-accessory species; C₃ (50-75%)-constant species; C₄ (75-100%)-euconstant species.

Dominance reveals the degree to which each species contributes to biomass production in biocenosis and is indicative of relative abundance (Grall & Coic, 2005). Species dominance can be calculated according to the formula:

$D_{A} = (N_{A}/N_{1})^{*}100$

Where N_A is total number of individuals of a particular species, and N_1 is the total number of individuals of all species. Species can be divided into five categories of dominance: D1 (<1%)-subrecedent, D2 (1-2%)-recedent, D3 (2-5%)-subdominant, D4 (5-10%)-dominant, D5 (>10%)-eudominant.

The index of ecological significance (W) represents the relationship between the structural and productive indicators, showing more clearly the position/importance of each species in the assemblage. We calculated the ecological significance index according to the formula:

W_A=(C_A*D_A)*100/10000

Where C_A is the constancy of species A, and D_A is the dominance of species A. There are five categories of ecological significance: W1 (<0.1%)-accidental species, W2 (0.1-1%)-accessory species, W3 (1-5%)-accompanying species, W4 (5-7%)-constant species, W5 (>10%)-edifying species (Grall & Coic, 2005). Calculation of ecological indices was done using Microsoft Office Excel.

We also calculated the Shannon-Wiener (H') index according to the formula:

$$H'=-\sum p_i \ln p_i$$

Where pi is the proportion of individuals belonging to a certain species in the dataset.

The H' index accounts for both species abundance and evenness. Values of this index range from 0 to 4, with the index increasing as both richness and evenness of the community increases and higher values indicating that richness is evenly distributed among species.

Variation in the abundance and composition of hoverfly species

Climatic variables were represented as monthly averages for temperature, relative humidity, insolation, cloudiness/cloud cover, rainfall, and wind velocity. This information was obtained from the Meteorological Yearbook for each year of our research, available from the Hydrometeorological Service of the Republic of Serbia (RHMZ, 2011-2013). Non-climatic parameters included season (spring and autumn), year of observation, sampling locality and crop diversity around the sampling locality.

The influence of both climatic and non-climatic variables on species diversity and abundance was assessed by principal component analysis (PCA) to reduce observed variables into a smaller number of principal components (PC axes) accounting for most of the variance. PCA was carried out by applying a normal varimax rotation of factor loadings. PCs with eigenvalues >1 were retained as predictor variables. Variables with factor loadings >0.8 were interpreted as meaningfully correlated with the PC axes. PCA analysis was carried out in Statistica (StatSoft, Inc. v. 13.2).

In order to examine the effect of interacting climatic and non-climatic parameters on species abundances, we carried out multiple regression analysis on extracted PCs. To inspect the effect of analysed parameters on species diversity, we conducted ordinal multinomial logistic regression on PCs. Analyses were conducted using the R statistical platform (version 3.3.1., R Core Team, 2016).

RESULTS

Species composition

In total, 294 specimens of 20 species were detected in our two oilseed rape field locations. At Crvenka, 13 out of 20 (65%) species were recorded, whereas 14 out of 20 species (70%) were present in Rimski Šančevi.

Calculation of the ecological indices

The most abundant species at both localities was *Eupeodes corollae* (Fabricius, 1794), followed by *Eristalis tenax* (Linnaeus, 1758), and *Episyrphus balteatus* (De Geer, 1776) (Table 1).

Overall species abundance ranged from 1 to 80 individuals per species. In the first year of study (2011), the most abundant species in Crvenka was *E. balteatus* (24 individuals, 35% of all registered species), whereas *E. corollae* was the most numerous

in Rimski Šančevi with 16 individuals (94%). In 2012, *E. tenax* was the most abundant species in Crvenka (5 individuals, 24%), and two species were most abundant in Rimski Šančevi (*E. tenax* n=37 (30%) and *E. corollae* n=55 (34%)). In 2013, the most abundant species in Crvenka were *Eristalis arbustorum* (Linnaeus, 1758) and *E. tenax* (each with 3 individuals, 37.5%), and in Rimski Šančevi it was *E. tenax* (21 individuals, 49%).

Table 1. List of species and their abundances recorded in two Brassica napus fields in Vojvodina province, Serbia.

	Sampling localities		
Species	Crvenka	Rimski Šančevi	
Cheilosia grossa (Fallen, 1817)	3	0	
Cheilosia latifrons (Zetterstedt, 1843)	1	0	
Cheilosia sp.	3	0	
Dasysyrphus friuliensis (van der Goot, 1960)	1	0	
Episyrphus balteatus (De Geer, 1776)	26	17	
Eristalinus aeneus (Scopoli, 1763)	2	3	
Eristalis arbustorum (Linnaeus, 1758)	7	9	
Eristalis pertinax (Scopoli, 1763)	1	0	
Eristalis similis (Fallen, 1817)	0	3	
Eristalis tenax (Linnaeus, 1758)	28	59	
Eupeodes corollae (Fabricius, 1794)	22	80	
Eupeodes luniger (Meigen, 1822)	0	1	
Helophilus trivittatus (Fabricius,1805)	1	3	
Melanostoma mellinum (Linnaeus, 1758)	0	5	
Melanostoma scalare (Fabricius, 1794)	0	1	
Myathropa florea (Linnaeus, 1758)	0	1	
Parhelophilus versicolor (Fabricius, 1787)	1	0	
Sphaerophoria scripta (Linnaeus, 1758)	4	7	
Syritta pipiens (Linnaeus, 1758)	0	2	
Syrphus vitripennis (Meigen, 1822)	0	3	
Total	100	194	

Slight changes in species composition were recorded throughout the seasons at both localities. The most noticeable difference occurred in the first year of our field study. The most common species (E. balteatus, E. arbustorum, E. tenax, E. corollae) were all detected at Crvenka, whereas only two species were recorded (E. tenax, E. corollae) at Rimski Šančevi. At Crvenka, species were evenly distributed among the different categories of all three indices (dominance, constancy, and ecological significance index), whereas at Rimski Šančevi only edifying species were detected. In the second year of the study, the gap in species abundance and composition between the two localities was smaller, with Crvenka exhibiting its greatest abundance (10 out of 20 species). Even so, most of the species were in the lower categories of constancy (accidental and accessory species), dominance (subrecedent, recedent, subdominant), and ecological significance (accidental, accessory, accompanying species). Eristalis arbustorum and E. tenax made a significant contribution to species constancy, while Cheilosia grossa (Fallen, 1817) and Cheilosia sp. contributed to species dominance. The pattern of species composition at Rimski Šančevi was similar to the previous year. Sphaerophoria scripta (Linnaeus, 1758) and Syritta pipiens (Linnaeus, 1758) contributed

to dominance and ecological significance, along with the three most common species (*E. balteatus, E. tenax* and *E. corollae*). This scenario was reversed for the final year of the study. Crvenka exhibited lower species abundance compared to Rimski Šančevi, it had fewer species in higher categories (e.g. no edifying species), and only one species (*Parhelophilus versicolor* (Fabricius, 1787)) was detected apart from the three most typical species (*E. balteatus, E. tenax, E. corollae*). In the final year, Rimski Šančevi exhibited both its greatest number of species and number of individuals per species. Almost every category of all indices was detected over the course of the three years. The results of our synecological analyses are detailed in Tables 2, 3 and 4.

Shannon-Wiener's index of diversity values ranged from 0.22 to 2.14. The lowest value was recorded in 2011 for Rimski Šančevi, and the highest in 2012 in the same locality. However, overall, Crvenka presented higher values of the Shannon-Wiener index than Rimski Šančevi (Table 5).

Effects of climatic and non-climatic parameters on species assemblage structure

In order to identify factors that influence species composition and abundance, we conducted PCAs. The first PCA generated two PC axes, and the second one generated three PC axes, all with eigenvalues >1 (Table 6). None of the extracted PCs were related to abundance at the significance level of p<0.05 (p=0.4305, r=0.0552) based on multiple linear regressions.

Both PC axes of the first PCA showed a slight correlation with species diversity (PC1: Wald statistic=5.8616, df=1, p=0.01547; PC2: Wald statistic=9.8790, df=1, p=0.00167). The first PC axis was negatively correlated with monthly average temperature and insolation, and positively correlated with monthly relative humidity, wind velocity, cloud cover, locality and surrounding crop diversity. The second PC axis was correlated with monthly average rainfall, season, and year of observation (Table 6, Fig. 2).



Fig. 2. Projection of analysed variables onto the PC1 and PC2 ordinations. ▲ represents variables significantly correlated with PC1; • represents variables significantly correlated with PC2.

Table 2. Values of ecological indices for the hoverfly community in Crvenka and Rimski Šančevi in 2011.

	Constancy		Dominance		Significance			
Species	%	Category	%	Category	%	Category		
Crvenka, 2011								
Cheilosia latifrons (Zetterstedt, 1843)	50	C3	0.95	D1	0.48	W2		
Episyrphus balteatus (De Geer, 1776)	100	C4	24.65	D5	24.65	W5		
Eristalis arbustorum (Linnaeus, 1758)	100	C4	3.89	D3	3.89	W3		
Eristalis pertinax (Scopoli, 1763)	50	C3	0.95	D1	0.48	W2		
Eristalis tenax (Linnaeus, 1758)	100	C4	22.03	D5	18.26	W5		
Eupeodes corolla (Fabricius, 1794)	100	C4	38.85	D5	38.6	W5		
Helophilus trivittatus (Fabricius,1805)	50	C3	0.95	D1	0.48	W2		
Sphaerophoria scripta (Linnaeus, 1758)	100	C4	7.74	D4	7.74	W4		
Rimski Šančevi, 2011								
Eristalis tenax (Linnaeus, 1758)	50	C3	10	D4	5	W5		
Eupeodes corolla (Fabricius, 1794)	100	C4	95	D5	95	W5		

Table 3. Values of ecological indices for the hoverfly community in Crvenka and Rimski Šančevi in 2012.

	Con	stancy	Dominance		Significance			
Species	%	Category	% Category		% Category			
Crvenka, 2012								
Cheilosia grossa (Fallen, 1817)	16.6	C1	4.63	D3	0.77	W2		
Cheilosia sp	16.6	C1	4.63	D3	0.77	W2		
Dasysyrphus friuliensis (van der Goot, 1960)	16.6	C1	1.52	D2	1.53	W3		
Episyrphus balteatus (De Geer, 1776)	33.34	C2	7.07	D4	2.36	W3		
Eristalinus aeneus (Scopoli, 1763)	16.6	C1	3.03	D3	0.5	W2		
Eristalis arbustorum (Linnaeus, 1758)	33.34	C2	4.85	D3	1.62	W3		
Eristalis tenax (Linnaeus, 1758)	33.34	C2	18.19	D5	6.3	W4		
Eupeodes corollae (Fabricius, 1794)	16.67	C1	5.56	D4	0.93	W2		
Eupeodes luniger (Meigen, 1822)	16.67	C1	16.67	D5	2.78	W3		
Myathropa florea (Linnaeus, 1758)	16.67	C1	16.67	D5	2.78	W3		
Rimski Šančevi, 2012								
Episyrphus balteatus (De Geer, 1776)	50	C3	10.34	D5	5.15	W4		
Eristalinus aeneus (Scopoli, 1763)	16.67	C1	0.48	D1	0.08	W1		
Eristalis arbustorum (Linnaeus, 1758)	33.34	C2	0.86	D1	0.27	W2		
Eristalis similis (Fallen, 1817)	33.34	C2	1.15	D2	0.21	W2		
Eristalis tenax (Linnaeus, 1758)	33.34	C2	9.37	D4	9.37	W4		
Eupeodes corollae (Fabricius, 1794)	33.34	C2	32.13	D5	10.72	W5		
Helophilus trivittatus (Fabricius,1805)	16.67	C1	0.95	D1	0.16	W2		
Melanostoma mellinum (Linnaeus, 1758)	16.67	C1	0.6	D1	0.09	W1		
Melanostoma scalare (Fabricius, 1794)	16.67	C1	0.2	D1	0.03	W1		
Sphaerophoria scripta (Linnaeus, 1758)	83.34	C4	0.98	D1	0.51	W2		
Syritta pipiens (Linnaeus, 1758)	33.34	C2	8.33	D4	8.86	W3		
Syrphus vitripennis (Meigen, 1822)	33.34	C2	0.86	D1	0.29	W2		

	Constancy		Dominance		Significance		
Species	% Category		%	Category	%	Category	
Crvenka, 2013	Crvenka, 2013						
Eristalis arbustorum (Linnaeus, 1758)	20	C1	20	D5	4	W3	
Eristalis tenax (Linnaeus, 1758)	20	C1	15	D5	3	W3	
Eupeodes corollae (Fabricius, 1794)	20	C1	20	D5	4	W3	
Parhelophilus versicolor (Fabricius, 1787)	20 C1		5	D3	1	W2	
Rimski Šančevi, 2013							
Episyrphus balteatus (De Geer, 1776)	40	C2	8.71	D4	3.47	W3	
Eristalinus aeneus (Scopoli, 1763)	20	C1	1.21	D3	0.24	W2	
Eristalis arbustorum (Linnaeus, 1758)	20	C1	3.64	D3	0.73	W2	
Eristalis tenax (Linnaeus, 1758)	60	C3	35.3	D5	21.18	W5	
Eupeodes corollae (Fabricius, 1794)	40	C2	12.43	D5	2.5	W3	
Helophilus trivittatus (Fabricius,1805)	20	C1	0.61	D1	0.12	W2	
Melanostoma mellinum (Linnaeus, 1758)	20	C1	1.21	D3	0.24	W2	
Sphaerophoria scripta (Linnaeus, 1758)	40	C2	3.11	D3	1.24	W3	

Table 4. Values of ecological indices for the hoverfly community in Crvenka and Rimski Šančevi in 2013.

Table 5. Values of Shannon-Wiener's index of diversity in two Brassica napus fields from Vojvodina, Serbia.

	Shannon-Wiener's index			
Year of observation	Crvenka	Rimski Šančevi		
2011	1.51	0.22		
2012	2.14	1.98		
2013	1.25	1.68		

Table 6. Principal component analysis of 10 climatic and non-climatic variables associated with hoverfly species diversity and abundance in oilseed rape fields from Vojvodina, Serbia. Significant factor load-ings are in bold.

	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC1	PC2
Variables	Spec	ies abunc	Species diversity		
Monthly average temperatures	-0.18	0.87	0.17	-0.80	0.29
Monthly relative humidity	0.05	-0.19	-0.97	0.94	-0.11
Monthly insolation	0.14	-0.27	0.94	-0.96	0.16
Monthly cloud cover	0.99	0.14	0.00	0.87	0.38
Monthly rainfall	0.99	0.04	-0.02	0.07	0.90
Monthly wind velocity	0.41	0.89	0.20	0.92	0.23
Sampling locality	0.09	0.90	-0.31	0.80	0.29
Year of observation	0.91	0.33	0.12	0.45	0.84
Season of observation	-0.73	0.16	-0.65	0.21	-0.86
Surrounding crop diversity	0.34	0.84	-0.28	0.87	0.21
Eigenvalue	4.44	3.14	1.91	5.94	2.57
Total variance %	44.40	31.37	19.14	59.49	25.75
Cumulative variance %	44.40	75.77	94.91	59.49	85.25

The influence of variables related with PC1 and PC2 on species diversity is illustrated in Fig. 3. Overall, species diversity increases with increasing temperature, relative humidity and surrounding crop diversity. The left part of the PC1 ordination represents lower surrounding crop diversity (i.e. Crvenka: maize and sugar beet), whereas the right part represents species occurring at the sampling locality with higher crop diversity (Rimski Šančevi: maize, sunflower, sugar beet, wheat, soybean, vegetables, field pea and alfalfa).

DISCUSSION

The most abundant species at both localities over all three years of the study were E. corollae, E. tenax and E. balteatus. This is not surprising, considering that all of these species are anthropophilic and almost ubiquitous (Speight, 2017). Additionally, these species occur over a wide temperature range (with a tolerance to lower temperatures), and are not conditioned by the diversity of surrounding crops (Fig. 2). Similar findings were noted in a recent study of oilseed rape pollinators in Ireland (Stanley, Gunning, & Stout, 2013). In that study, alongside bumblebees (Bombus, Latreille, 1802) and honeybees (Apis mellifera Linnaeus, 1761), Eristalis Latreille, 1804 hoverflies were one of the most important pollinators of winter crops of oilseed rape based on the amount of pollen they carried, visitation rates and their abundance. Moreover, E. tenax is recognised as an efficient pollinator of various cultivated plants (vegetables, fruits, crops), including oilseed rape (Solomon & Kendall, 1970; Kendall et al, 1971; Nye & Anderson, 1974; Jarlan et al, 1997; Schittenhelm, Giadis, & Rao, 1997; Jauker et al, 2012). This species visits a wide range of flowers, and it can be active even in extremely cold conditions (Speight, 2017). Additionally, it is an anthropophilic species, often found in different types of farmland due to saprophagous larvae (Rotheray & Gilbert, 2011).



Fig. 3. Scatter plot of factor loadings for the two PC axes, showing the positions of the investigated hoverfly species in the environmental space.

Suitable microhabitats for these larvae are present throughout Vojvodina, so it is not surprising that *E. tenax* is present in the studied area.

It is somewhat expected that two of the most abundant species in our study localities were *E. corollae* and *E. balteatus* since they are predatory hoverflies commonly associated with agricultural habitats (Bergen, Soudhof, & Poehling, 1998; MacLeod, 1999; Sutherland, Sullivan, & Poppy, 2001; Jauker, Diekötter, Schwarzbach, & Wolters, 2009). Larvae of these species can be very useful as biocontrol agents as they feed on aphids, but as adults they are also pollinators for some crops (Hickman & Wratten, 1996). In addition, Jauker et al (2009) recorded that flowers of oilseed rape visited by *E. balteatus* produced significantly more seeds per pod. These authors proposed that apart from pollen transfer, *E. balteatus* enhanced plant self-pollination due to its characteristic behaviour on the flowers.

Our synecological analysis indicated that only a few species (*E. balteatus, E. tenax* and *E. corollae*) make a major contribution to constituting the hoverfly communities on oilseed rape crops. These species, along with *E. arbustorum* and *S. scripta*, may be characterized as the dominant hoverfly visitors of *B. napus*.

It is possible that relatively small number of species recorded is due to use of pan traps as the sampling method. This method has its limitations, since hoverflies are good fliers and do not fall into traps that easily. On the other hand, using pan traps allows simultaneous sampling of multiple locations, coverage of large number of sites, and laboratory identification of specimens (Westphal et al, 2008)

The importance of less abundant hoverfly species should not be underestimated. Gibson, Nelson, Hopkins, Hamlett, & Memmott (2006) found that even though *Platycheirus albimanus* was the least abundant species on their surveyed plots. it carried the highest percentage of pollen. In the same study, they concluded that S. scripta was not the most abundant species, but had the highest pollen fidelity. Some species like Eristalinus aeneus (Scopoli, 1763) have been found to be better pollinators of B. napus than E. balteatus and E. corollae due to their larger size and their foraging preference for nectar and pollen (Ali, Saeed, Sajjad, & Whittington, 2011). Another such example is Melanostoma mellinum (Linnaeus, 1758) that has been found foraging on flowers of Rosa carolina L. before sunrise, so it could contribute to pollination during parts of the day when most other pollinators are inactive (Morse, 1981). In our case, only few specimens of these two species were found, but this could be due to methodological limitations of pan trap, or relatively small sample size. Despite certain environmental constraints (solar radiation, temperature, cloud cover, etc.), hoverflies are known to forage under conditions when bees and butterflies are not active (Levesque & Burger, 1982). Thus, even non-abundant hoverfly species should be taken into account when creating agricultural policies and regulations, especially since it is known that abundance of hoverflies (and pollinators in general) is positively correlated with floral abundance and abundance of flowering plant species (Kleijn & van Langevelde, 2006; Meyer, Jauker, & Steffan-Dewenter, 2009; Sajjad et al, 2010). However, in modern agroecosystems, hoverflies face considerable challenges

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because agricultural intensification negatively affects the heterogeneity and quantity of hoverfly resources at various spatial scales (Benton, Vickery, & Wilson, 2003). In this era of increasing agricultural production, ecologically important habitats are being progressively eroded. Even if the increased area under crops could benefit certain species adapted to this type of habitat, in general it influences negatively the diversity of hoverflies and other pollinators. Therefore, it is of great importance to enhance overall plant species richness through crop rotation and, more importantly, by enlarging field margins and preserving patches of natural habitat within fields. Such areas have been shown to act as important population sources from which pollinators can disperse and thereby contribute to higher densities and species richness of pollinators in adjacent agricultural areas (Duelli & Obrist, 2003; Öckinger & Smith, 2007).

We did not find a statistically significant correlation between climatic parameters and overall abundance of hoverfly species, perhaps due to a lack of variation in the climatic parameters we measured, or relatively small sample size. However, it is possible that these parameters still affected some species or certain stages of their development (e.g. low temperatures at the beginning of the flight period, excessive rainfall at the peak flight period, not enough sunlight, etc.). Also, many factors other than climate can affect species diversity and seasonal patterns, such as food abundance and predation (Wolda, 1988; Abrahamczyk, Kluge, Gareca, Reichle, & Kessler, 2011). Despite the lack of a correlation for overall abundance, our PCA analysis showed that increased surrounding crop diversity contributed to higher numbers of individuals of *E. tenax, E. balteatus, E. corollae* and *S. scripta* (Fig. 2). Furthermore, the PCA indicated that variation in abundance is also related with temperature range for these four species (Fig. 2).

Focusing on species richness, it is clear that relative humidity and insolation (variables very strongly correlated with PC1) have a major influence on species composition. These variables, together with monthly average temperature, had the greatest impact on species diversity, describing 59.5% of total environmental variation (PC1). Species that can tolerate lower temperatures (up to approximately 10° C) are *Dasysyrphus friuliensis* Goot, 1960, *C. grossa, E. tenax, E. arbustorum, Eristalis similis* (Fallen, 1817), *E. balteatus, E. corollae, Eupeodes luniger* (Meigen, 1822), *S. scripta, Syrphus vitripennis* (Meigen, 1822) and *Melanostoma scalare* (Fabricius, 1794). Species only occurring at temperatures above 20° C are *Cheilosia latifrons* (Zetterstedt, 1843) and *Eristalis pertinax* (Scopoli, 1763).

Our results also highlight the importance of surrounding crop heterogeneity for species diversity. Some species such as *S. pipiens*, *S. vitripennis*, *M. mellinum*, *M. scalare*, *Myathropa florea* (Linnaeus, 1758), *E. similis* and *E. luniger* were recorded only at Rimski Šančevi (Table 1, Fig. 2). There, unlike in Crvenka, surrounding crops were changed annually, amounting to eight different crops over the three-year study period (maize, sunflower, sugar beet, wheat, soybean, vegetables, field pea and alfalfa).

The relatively recent discovery that Diptera can be a very important component of temperate pollinator communities (Inouye, Larson, Ssymank, & Kevan, 2015), especially at high altitudes, indicates the potential for further investigation. Even though

honeybees are considered one of the most efficient pollinators, their presence can sometimes depend on the proximity of hives since their populations are often managed. Thus, their richness and diversity can be low or they can be completely absent from some fields. In such cases, the Syrphidae, solitary bees and other pollinators can be very important. It is crucial that the importance of other pollinator groups is recognized so that they can be taken into consideration when certain agricultural regulations and policies are made. We assert that the significance of Diptera as pollinators should engender the same concern about their conservation that has been raised for pollinators in general (Kearns & Inouye, 1997; Kearns, Inouye, & Waser, 1998; Kearns, 2001) and for pollinators of crops in particular (Allen-Wardell et al, 1998).

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