### HOVERFLY NEWSLETTER

NUMBER 13 NOVEMBER 1991

Hoverfly Recording Scheme

**Biological Records Centre** 

For those not attending Dipterist's Day this year Stuart Ball and Roger Morris told us of the excellent progress they have made with the **Hoverfly Recording Scheme**. Nearly 100,000 records have been received from BRC and they are busy processing them. A report should be available for the next **Hoverfly Newsletter** and, all being well, a call for new records could be made on Dipterist's Day 1992.

This has been an unusual year for hoverflies to say the least! What with the massive immigration (see Colin Plant's article below) which made the headlines and on Arran, in Scotland, *Doros conopseus* turned up! Is this evidence of global warming or what!? Perhaps, as Colin says, we should be more organised in monitoring migrations.

Specially featured in this issue is a keynote article on flower-visiting by Francis Gilbert, his particular area of expertise. Most people, I imagine, regularly search flowers for hoverflies and Francis tells us of the many patterns in hoverfly morphology and behaviour that he, and others, have found. It is a fascinating subject and much remains in question. Francis gives us an excellent introduction to the subject!

Deadline for submissions for the next Hoverfly Newsletter 30 March 1992 to Graham E. Rotheray, Royal Museum of Scotland, Chambers Street, Edinburgh EH1 1JF.

#### CONTENTS

Colin Plant	Volucella zonaria unusually abundant in Eastern London	2
David Iliff	Sphaerophoria loewi at Leighton Moss, Lancs	2
Colin Plant	The August 1991 immigration of hoverflies	3
David Iliff	Sphaerophoria rueppellii: plant associations	5
Francis Gilbert	Feeding in adult hoverflies	5
Paul Beuk	Pollination of Flowers by Insects	11
Announcements	•	12
References		12

#### VOLUCELLA ZONARIA UNUSUALLY ABUNDANT IN EASTERN LONDON

# Colin W Plant 1991 a Passmore Edwards Museum, East Ham Nature Reserve, Norman Road, London EH6 4HN

/

Readers may be interested in the unusual abundance of *Volucella zonaria* in my area during July 1991. Both this species and *V. inanis* are "regulars" in eastern London, especially along the banks of the rivers Thames, Lea and Roding where they are most easily found by watching flowers of either buddleia or privet and, for *inanis*, flowers of bramble. However, *zonaria* is usually only seen as singletons, with occasionally three or four seen together soon after emergence from nearby nests of wasps in which the larvae live (usually *Vespula germanica* here but sometimes *V. vulgaris* and possibly other species?).

On 7th July 1991 however, in a lane at Crayford marsh, near Dartford, West Kent, up to twenty were flying rapidly along the hedges that line both sides of the track at around 8 o'clock in the morning - an unprecedented number. They were flying fast and furious, only rarely pausing to hover, but nevertheless I captured (and retained for counting before release) 11 individuals in ten minutes by standing still at the same spot with a very large net on a long pole. Seven were males and 4 were females. Two days later at East Ham Nature Reserve I observed at least 8 insects, of which at least 3 were females, flying rapidly around a flowering bush of privet. Later that same day a member of the public telephoned the museum to report hornets roosting on the rustic arch in his garden at Beckton. I visited and discovered at least 12 V. zonaria (both sexes again) visiting various flowers in his overgrown garden and inspected his rustic arch (which was covered in flowering honeysuckle) where "about a dozen" roosted on the under-side of a horizontal branch every night. The next day, 10th July, our Museum van driver reported a "hornets nest" in a garage behind the natural history stores at East Ham. These were again V. zonaria and I saw at least 5 sitting on the garage wall. Given that the garage is in a concrete yard with no vegetation, this latter observation suggested an emergence of zonaria from a wasps nest in one of the garages and suggests that the unusually large numbers I have experienced stem from local breeding and not from immigration as is frequently the case.

Just by way of contrast, the usually very common *V. pellucens* was hard to find this year. Is this just me or is it real, and if it is real, is it linked by weather or some other factor to the high numbers of *zonaria*? I should be interested to discover if my experience is truly local or whether it is more widespread.

[V. zonaria is unknown in Scotland, but pellucens was quite abundant this year in the Edinburgh area. Possibly the larger larva of zonaria "outcompetes" pellucens in wasp's nest but, such larvae will have come from eggs oviposited in 1990 so it is that year's weather that may be more important. Ed.]

#### SPHAEROPHORIA LOEWI AT LEIGHTON MOSS, LANCS

David Iliff Green Willows, Station Road, Woodmancote, Cheltenham, Glos. GL2 4HN Sphaerophoria loewi is classified as RDB 2 in Steven Falk's recent NCC publication "A review of the scarce and threatened flies of Great Britain", which states that there have only been four recent British records of the species. Alan Stubbs (British Hoverflies) writes that "little is known of this rare hoverfly."

One of the four aforementioned records was from Leighton Moss in Lancashire in 1960. I was on holiday in South Cumbria in June 1991, visiting Leighton Moss on three occasions during the period, and am happy to report that *Sphaerophoria loewi* appears to be thriving at that location.

Leighton Moss is an RSPB reserve, but includes a public right of way along a causeway that crosses the marshes. It was alongside this causeway on 15 June that I saw a hoverfly hovering above and alighting on *Filipendula* growing among the reeds at the water's edge. When perched this hoverfly looked like a typical male *Sphaerophoria* in build and posture, but the colour scheme looked wrong. The legs, scutellum and abdominal markings were deep dullish orange rather than the usual bright yellow usually characteristic of the genus. The abdominal markings appeared to be unlike those of other *Sphaerophoria* in shape and position, being narrow and somewhat triangular, and placed at the outer edges of the tergites, tapering towards the middle (not unlike those of *Melangyna triangulifera*).

I photographed the specimen, and then captured it, and was able to identify it via the key in "British Hoverflies" - it was indeed Sphaerophoria loewi. Its thoracic side stripes were interrupted as in S. rueppellii, and its antennae were black. The identification was confirmed by comparing the specimen with Steven Falk's black and white illustration of S. loewi on plate A in British Hoverflies, which has virtually identical markings. Until then, influenced by the key, I had assumed that S. loewi would look just like S. rueppellii apart from the antenna colour; in fact the appearance is very different. Verrall, who did not know it as a British species, wrote about the "remarkable" S. loewi, describing it as "distinct" and as having "peculiar markings".

I returned to Leighton Moss the following day, and had no difficulty finding further examples of the species, photographing two females (or perhaps the same female twice!). And in a further visit on 21 June I found another male.

Not only do these recent sightings suggest that the species is established and apparently flourishing at Leighton Moss, but they extend the hitherto known season for the species back to mid-June (both **British Hoverflies** and the NCC publication quote July as the earliest date). Finally, Alan Stubbs quotes a claim that one has to be on site very early in the morning to find this species. I am not normally an early riser, especially when on holiday, and am pleased to assure would-be seekers for *S. loewi* that my encounters with this species at Leighton Moss all took place between 11.30 and 2.30 pm!

THE AUGUST 1991 IMMIGRATION OF HOVERFLIES

Colin W Plant 1991 & Passmore Edwards Museum, East Ham Nature Reserve, Norman Road, London E6 4HN

Few hoverfly recorders in south-eastern England could fail to have noticed the colossal numbers of Episyrphus balteatus on waking up on the morning of Sunday 4th August! This humble hoverfly regularly visits us from abroad, but I have never personally seen such a large scale invasion as this one was. I had over 2000 at one flower bed in my garden in Bishops Stortford, Herts, of which 90% were males. These were accompanied by several male Scaeva pyrastri, another noted immigrant which has been absent from my patch for 2 or 3 years, as well as reasonable numbers of Metasyrphus corollae of both sexes. Overnight on 4th-5th August there seems to have been a second wave, probably as large as the first. A couple of quick telephone calls on the Monday morning revealed that the immigration affected us from Kent and Surrey, through Essex and Hertfordshire to at least Staffordshire. There must have been several million specimens. In the London area the immigrants seem to have been accompanied by larger than usual numbers of female Volucella zonaria, as noted above, though the absence of this species from other areas during the present immigration may suggest that the two events are unrelated? Immigrant butterflies also appeared on the same day, such as red admirals Vanessa atalanta and large whites Pieris brassicae, though none of the more immigrant moths were recorded, (which suggests a daytime rather than a nocturnal migration).

Immigration is perhaps a little neglected by us. Lepidopterists produce an annual immigration report which allows the monitoring and placing on record of immigrations. Admittedly they have enough rare immigrant species to make it interesting to them, but on a scientific level, records of hoverfly immigrations are equally valuable. [Eupeodes lundbecki, a recent addition to the BI fauna, is probably a 'rare' immigrant see Watt & Robertson Dipterists Digest No. 6 and what about others like Helophilus groenlandicus? - Ed.]

I would therefore like to propose setting up a scheme to monitor immigrations of hoverflies to Britain and accordingly offer my services to act as recorder.

As a minimum, we need to know which species migrate and which do not. Apart from the above examples, I have records of immigrant Syrphus vitripennis but have not been able to gain any data on any other of our commoner species. We also need to know how often immigrations happen - and why! Are both sexes of a species involved? We need to monitor survival rates of immigrants and their progeny and to establish source localities. Do immigrations occur at night or in the daylight? These and many other questions seem to lack answers - unless another reader can tell me otherwise.

Establishing that an abundance of hoverflies is a result of immigration rather than local breeding may be difficult in some cases. It will therefore be particularly useful to receive records of hoverflies flying in from the sea or recorded from boats as well as unusual abundances in coastal localities. It may be that pooling results is the only way of establishing the true nature of some occurrences?

So, I would welcome your cooperation and ask you all to dip into your notebooks and let me have all records of potential immigrants. This would ideally involve:

species name; date(s); time of day (to help establish if movements are at night or

day); locality; vice county; ten KM grid ref; lat/long for marine records; numbers (approx) of each sex or of unsexed; direction of travel if moving; observers name and contact number. I shall file the records on 8 x 5 record cards so feel free to send me a card of this size with the data written legibly thereon; this will minimise the risk of transcription errors creeping into the data set.

I should particularly like to assess the 1991 immigration mentioned above. In this case I would also welcome negative reports from every county in the British Isles so I can establish how far the immigration reached and in which direction it came from. Did it affect Wales, Scotland or Ireland, and if not how far across Britain did the insects travel?

#### SPHAEROPHORIA RUEPPELLII: PLANT ASSOCIATIONS

#### David Iliff Green Willows, Station Road, Woodmancote, Cheltenham, Glos. GL2 4HN

Sphaerophoria rueppellii, while not exactly a rarity, is a fairly elusive species. It does however have the distinction of being one of the few Sphaerophoria species that is easy to identify in both sexes.

Verrall reported that this species had a liking for asparagus plants, but I have no personal experience of an association with asparagus. Alan Stubbs has described *Polygonum persicaria* (Redshank) as a good lure for this species. Indeed my first ever sighting of *S. rueppellii* was on such a plant, though I have examined a great deal of redshank since without finding any more specimens.

On visits to Kew Gardens in September 1989 and September 1990, I came across several specimens of *S. rueppellii* in the area of the gardens set aside for the collections of herbaceous plants. They were on the flowers of *Chenopodium vulvaria* the larva of *S. rueppellii* has been found in aphid galls on this plant - see **Hoverfly Newsletter No.** 7 p 9 and of two species of *Amaranthus*, (A. albus, and A. retroflexus). It is perhaps of interest that *Polygonum*, *Chenopodium*, and *Amaranthus* belong to families of plants that are considered to be closely related to one another in the accepted evolutionary order.

#### FEEDING IN ADULT HOVERFLIES

## Francis Gilbert Dept of Life Science, Nottingham University, Nottingham NG7 2RD

Hoverfly collectors know well that the best place to find adults is on flowers. There are exceptions, of course, but overwhelmingly the adults feed from flowers of many different types. In the literature there are numerous papers that record the flowers on which adult hoverflies were caught: the series of papers by Parmenter in the 1950s is an obvious example. Surprisingly there are rather few studies of how syrphids choose which flowers to visit, what they actually feed on, and how they interact with other flower visitors. We know from rearing studies that females emerge with undeveloped ovaries, and need pollen in order to mature the eggs. Some species can mature a few eggs without taking pollen (e.g.

#### Merodon).

In this review I start by looking at the structure of the feeding apparatus, and how it is used and then look at selectivity in the diet. I then outline some of the techniques used in establishing the diets of hoverflies.

#### Feeding structures: the mouthparts

The structures used to take food have not been well described, with the exception of an amazingly detailed study of *Eristalis* by Schiemenz (1957), and another on several species by Schuhmacher & Hoffmann (1982). Unfortunately these papers are rather inaccessible to many syrphidologists since they are written in german, and very indigestible german at that! In spite of this, we are lucky that they exist, and are so detailed.

The mouthparts that Schiemenz describes are rather similar to those of the blowfly exhaustively described by Graham-Smith in 1930. However, it is easy to be misled into assuming that they are identical, and several writers have been caught out. For example, Percival in her book on floral biology states that the mouthparts of hoverflies have teeth, like blowflies: however, there are no signs of these teeth in syrphids. Instead, as might be expected, the mouthparts of hoverflies show a wonderful range of structures adapted to their feeding habits. We cannot interpret them fully yet, since we have no idea what are the function of some of the structures: for example, there is a set of mysterious projections on the end of the labrum.

In essence the mouthparts consist of two tubes at the end of which is a pair of flattened fleshy lobes (the labella) joined together. The labral sucking tubes are joined end to end, hinged at the joint. The labella have numerous narrow canals on their inner surfaces (the pseudotracheae) that guide food back to the entrance of the labral sucking tube. There are pumps operating in each tube, and coordinated pumping conveys fluid up the labral tube, into the cibarial tube, and thence out of the proboscis and into the gut.

It is easy to imagine what happens when flower nectar is sucked up the proboscis. The fly slides the proboscis down into the corolla of the flower until its labella touch the surface of the nectar. This brings the pseudotracheal canals into play since they usually extend over the edge of the labella. Nectar rushes into them by both capillary and a pumping action of the labella to the entrance of the labral sucking tube, and thence to the crop or the gut. The inner surfaces of the labella are hydrophillic, which also encourages nectar to move into the canals by capillary action.

The action of the mouthparts when feeding on pollen is not nearly so obvious, and many previous accounts are incorrect. What actually happens was worked out in 1982 by Schuhmacher and Hoffmann. They found that on the inner surfaces of the labella are soft inter-canal folds that form food-furrows over the top of the pseudotracheal canals. When the two labella are put together, these furrows form a new set of channels overlying the canals. It is these channels that are used when feeding on pollen.

If you have watched hoverflies taking pollen from the anthers of flowers, you will have seen that the operation involves a twisting motion, rubbing the labella together. What is actually

happening is that, together with saliva, this twisting action disperses pollen from the anthers into the channels. The grains can then be sucked up in the saliva in the same way as nectar. These observations help to interpret data from other studies, which show that species specialising mainly on pollen have more pseudotracheal canals than species that take more nectar. This only makes sense if the canals are involved in collecting pollen. The width of the canals may be adapted to pollen grains of particular sizes, but this is not yet established.

#### What do they feed on?

It seems obvious that the adults feed on nectar and pollen. While this is clearly true, it is not the whole story, since some species are nearly always seen taking pollen from flowers, whereas others are more often seen taking nectar. In addition, particular flowers are visited, whereas others may be ignored. These sorts of patterns only become apparent after many observations on different hoverfly species. Female Syrphus ribesii, for example, are almost always feeding on pollen when you see them on the wide range of flowers that they visit: I have seen them taking nectar from only a few flowers, such as Hogweed. I have never seen Pipiza austriaca feeding on nectar, but always on pollen from Ranunculus. On the other hand, when I have seen male Eristalis tenax on flowers, more often than not they have been taking nectar, dipping their mouthparts deep into flower corollas.

There are some oddities in feeding behaviour, even among common species of hoverfly. The obvious examples of this are species of Xylota. These flies are rarely at flowers, but instead are frequently seen running erratically about over leaves. Looked at closely, you can see that they have their labella pressed down on the leaf surface, and they are clearly feeding. The contents of their guts reveal large amounts of pollen, and a close look at the leaves shows that they too have a great deal of pollen lying on them. Xylota specialize in picking pollen up from leaf surfaces. It is interesting that the old genus Xylota has recently been split into several different genera, including Xylota s.s. In both the USA and in Europe, species of Xylota always feed in this highly distinctive manner from leaves, whereas the related species of Chalcosyrphus (until recently placed in the genus Xylota) do not, but instead take pollen from flowers in the usual way. This indicates that the leaf feeding method evolved when the genus Xylota evolved; recent work shows that Xylota is one of the advanced of syrphid genera.

What are we to make of these differences? I interpret them as showing that the diets of hoverfly species are different: some species in general take more nectar than others. Looked at across species, there are other regular patterns too. The inferred dietary differences are related to body size and relative proboscis lengths of the different species. The larger the species, the more nectar it takes: this seems reasonable since larger species have a higher energy demand. Over and above the body size effect, the longer the proboscis, the more nectar is taken.

These patterns seem to make sense: the size and shape of hoverflies should be adapted to their ecology, and food is an important part of the ecology of a species. There is more nectar in flowers with deeper corollas, so it is appropriate to have a longer proboscis if more nectar is taken in the diet. The channels above the labellar canals are used for feeding on pollen, and so it makes sense to have more canals if pollen is the main food.

While my interpretation might seem reasonable, there are other ways of looking at it: John Haslett in particular feels that because he is able to find large amounts of pollen in the guts of species that I categorize from their behaviour as 'mostly nectar-feeders', then my interpretation must be incomplete. Only new data can resolve this basic difference. I suspect that the difference in interpretation is due to the different methods used to investigate hoverfly diets (see below).

In addition to the overall differences between species that I have described, there are sex and individual differences too. While female Syrphus ribesii are nearly always seen taking pollen from flowers, males are most often to be seen hovering in swarms, or resting on leaves while they are waiting for mates. When males are seen feeding, they are usually taking aphid honeydew that coats the leaves of trees such as sycamores. Again, this is reasonable. Males have a high energy demand, and thus need the sugars in nectar. However, they only have a very short proboscis suitable for only the most open of flowers. We don't know exactly how much sugar there is on honeydew-encrusted leaves, but it is probably considerable.

Individuals also feed on different foods during various phases of their lives. John Haslett has documented such a pattern in *Rhingia campestris*. In my experience, this species is predominantly a nectar-feeder, since it is most often seen taking nectar from deep flowers such as Ground Ivy. However, when maturing eggs, females need the protein they can only get from pollen. It comes as no surprise, therefore, to find that you can find substantial amounts of pollen in the gut and crop only during those times when eggs are developing in the ovaries.

#### Choosing a flower to visit

How do hoverflies choose between flowers? An analysis of the pollens in their guts, and behavioural data, show that some species are rather choosy in the face of the range of pollens available to them in the habitat. Other species are not very selective. How do they make this choice?

In the case of nectar feeding, species tend to select flowers on the basis of corolla depth, although they probably manage this choice by selecting on the basis of colour or some odour cue. From census data we can show that species with long mouthparts tend to go for flowers with deep corollas, whereas those with short mouthparts are restricted to more open flowers. Thus the rather long proboscis of *Eristalis* species allows them to make nectar from the deeper yellow or white flowers of plants such as the larger types of Compositae. The amazingly long proboscis of *Rhingia* is useful for getting the deeply hidden nectar from flowers such a Bugle; this species tends to visit blue or purple flowers.

When feeding on pollen, again some species are highly selective, whilst others are generalists. At least part of this selectivity comes again from selecting flowers of a particular colour. For example, *Cheilosia albitarsis* feeds exclusively on buttercup pollen, and adults prefer the particular yellow of this flower. Incidentally, the larvae are also restricted to feeding in the roots of buttercup, and thus the species is completely specialized to this plant. Similarly, *Volucella pellucens* prefers white flowers, explaining in part its pollen selectivity.

Pollen specialization in some species cannot be due to responses to flower colour, since these

syrphids take mainly pollen from wind-pollinated flowers. The fact that *Melanostoma* and some *Platycheirus* (e.g. *clypeatus*) species feed mainly on grass, sedge and plantain pollens is well known. Axel Ssymank in Germany has recently looked at the feeding behaviour and gut pollen of various early-season hoverfly species, with some interesting results. In particular he finds that several of these early-season syrphids specialize in taking the pollen of wind-pollinated trees and shrubs. *Melangyna* species are a case in point. Most of the *M. barbata* individuals dissected had empty guts, but others had guts packed with alder pollen; one individual has only hazel pollen. *M. lasiophthalma* had a wide range of pollen types from trees and shrubs, from elder and honeysuckle to alder and anemone. *M. quadrimaculata* had a mixture of pollen types from shrubs and herbs.

#### Why do hoverflies visit different flowers?

I have described some of the basic differences between the feeding behaviour of various hoverfly species. Why should they differ? 'Why' questions are the hardest to answer, since so many factors might be involved. Thus it might be that hoverflies compete for nectar and pollen, and so natural selection has resulted in different diets in order to minimise the effects of competition. Alternatively, preferences may have evolved randomly. Finally, diets may be optimal for each species, and since species probably differ in their physiology, then optimal diets will also differ.

The simplest explanation is that preferences evolve randomly. It is only when this explanation is untenable that some other explanation must be devised. However, in order to test this we need to know the evolutionary tree of syrphids. Thus, experiments to test whether preferences evolve randomly have yet to be done!

#### Methods of discovering adult feeding patterns

Basically there are two main methods for studying diet in hoverflies. Neither is wholly satisfactory; rather, each illuminates a different aspect of feeding ecology. This bias in each method means that care is always needed in interpreting the results, as I have already described. The best studies also estimate the availability of flowers in the habitat independently (e.g. by regular counting of flowers of each species that are open on the sampling dates).

The first method uses behavioural observation. Regular recording of what hoverflies are feeding on gradually builds up into a picture of their diet. This can be done in several different ways. One method is to walk along standard census paths for a set period of time (say, two hours), recording what flowers are being visited at the instance you first seen each hoverfly. The best type of data here includes the sex and species of every hoverfly seen, together with the flower species, and whether it was taking nectar or pollen. Obviously this means that each hoverfly must be looked at pretty closely. With practice, most hoverflies can be identified without capture.

Alternatively one could watch individual hoverflies for set periods of time, noting how long they spend feeding on nectar/pollen from each flower visited. Given enough data, either type of data leads to an estimate of the length of time each sex of each species spends feeding on

nectar and pollen from each type of flower available in the habitat. This is a good method for species that visit herb-layer flowers, but is not very good for those visiting the flowers of trees or tall shrubs (since they are very difficult or impossible to see). In addition, a major weakness is that, in order to estimate what the average diet is for a hoverfly species, one must assume that the proportion of time spent feeding on one food represents the proportion of that food in the diet. This may not be a good assumption in some cases.

The second method is to study the pollen types in the gut. Pollen is almost indestructible, and many flower species have distinctive pollens that can be identified using a high-power microscope. Counting the pollen grains of each type in the gut will give a quantitative estimate of the relative importance of different pollen types in the diet. Given enough data, this will give an estimate of the diet in terms of different flowers used, and can be used on museum specimens too (although only destructively!). It is a very time consuming method, however, and needs a good deal of equipment and experience to get accurate data. Identifying pollen types can be difficult, too. A major drawback is that nectar feeding is ignored. In addition, the spectrum of pollen types in the guts can be misleading. For example, Xylota guts are full of pollen, sometimes only of a few types (e.g. Wild Garlic pollen), but this does not imply any specialization to this flower, as we have seen. Some eristaline species have special body hairs that pick up pollen, and then these grains are cleaned off and eaten, either at rest or in flight. Thus here again pollen in the gut may not imply feeding from the relevant flower.

#### Conclusion

Hoverflies have varied diets, from specialized to generalized. We know too little about these differences, and need much more information to make valid statements about them. Once we have this information, then discovering the way in which dietary evolution has happened will be fascinating!

#### References for further reading

Gilbert F (1981) The foraging ecology of hoverflies: the morphology of the mouthparts in relation to feeding on nectar and pollen in some common urban species. **Ecological Entomology** 6: 245-262

Gilbert F (1986) Hoverflies. Cambridge Naturalists Handbooks 5.

Haslett I (1983) A photographic account of pollen digestion by adult hoverflies. Physiological Entomology 8: 167-171

Haslett J (1989a) Interpreting patterns of resource utilization: randomness and selectivity in pollen feeding by adult hoverflies. Oecologia 78: 433:442.

Haslett J (1989b) Adult feeding by holometabolous insects: pollen and nectar as complementary nutrient sources of *Rhingia campestris*. Oecologia 81: 361-3.

Holloway B (1976) Pollen feeding by hoverflies. New Zealand Journal of Zoology 3:339-350.

Morse D (1981) Interactions between syrphid flies and bumblebees on flowers. **Ecology** 62: 81-88.

Schiemenz H (1957) Comparative functional-anatomical studies on the head musculature of *Theobaldia* and *Eristalis*. Deutsche entomologische Zeitung (N.F.) 4: 268-331.

Schuhmacher H & Hoffmann H (1982) Functional analysis of the mouthparts of hoverflies

when feeding Entomologia generalis 7: 327-342.

Stelleman P (1978) The possible role of insect visits to reputedly anemophilous plants, exemplified by *Plantago lanceolata* and syrphid flies. In AJ Richards (ed) The Pollination of Flowers by Insects. Linnean Society Symposium 6: 41-6.

#### **REVIEW**

Flower visiting and pollination ecology of hoverflies (Diptera, Syrphidae) in particular for Belgium by N De Buck Studiedocumenten K.B.I.N./Documents de Travails de 1'I.R.Sc.N.B. Price 450 Belgian Francs, postage not included. Orders: K.B.I.N., Vautierstraat 29, B-1040 Brussels, Belgium

Paul L Th Beuk c/o National Museum of Natural History, PO Box 9517, NL-230 RA Leiden, The Netherlands

The author of this work compiled more than 8,000 records of flower visiting hoverflies, including 3,500 by the author himself. He also carried out research on mouthpart structure and subjected gut contents and faeces of flies to microscopic examination. Almost 5,000 records were obtained from the literature and from other dipterists.

Following the introduction the first part of the work gives a compilation of all these records. This results in an extensive list of flowers visited per hoverfly species and a list of flower visiting hoverflies per plant species. In the second part, these data are shown in a table only covering Belgian species with some additional information for each species.

The introduction gives a general impression of flower visiting behaviour and mentions the main reference works. Fortunately, the Dutch introduction is also presented in English. Unfortunately some information is not translated into English.

The whole work is concluded with a table presenting data on the (Belgian) species (size, distribution class, type of flower visited and flower visiting frequency and a chapter on pollination ecology. The latter is, unfortunately, not translated into English.

The list of references gives most literature on identification of Western European Syrphidae and, of course, many titles on flower visiting behaviour and pollination.

It is generally thought that flower colour is of the utmost importance for the flower visiting behaviour of hoverflies. De Buck gives for every flowering plant included in the list whether it is a white-yellow-green flower or a red-blue flower. Nevertheless he gives us in the introduction a warning (only in the Dutch version!) that the shape of the flower may be of more importance than its colour. In the corresponding English paragraph he elaborates on the possibilities of UV spectral diagrams in which UV-pictures of flowers display an even more striking "HERE I AM" star shape than the colours visible to us.

De Buck presents a valuable review which will be most helpful in further studies. Particularly, because hoverflies seem to be gaining ground as indicator species. This work is important for anyone interested in the relationship between flowers and hoverflies.

#### **ANNOUNCEMENTS**

Dipterists Digest - is a must for hoverfly enthusiasts! For example the latest issue, Dipterists Digest 10, is devoted to hoverflies including important papers on Callicera and garden hoverflies. Subscription information from Derek Whiteley, 17 Rustlings Road, Sheffield S11 7AA.

174 Hoverflies in Essex - Provisional Atlas of Essex hoverflies obtainable at £2.30 (includes p&p) from R G Payne, Central Museum, Victoria Avenue, Southend-on-Sea, Essex SS2 6EW.

Hoverfly Records Wanted from Gloucestershire - for booklet on the county fauna David Iliff, Green Willows, Station Road, Woodmancote, Cheltenham, Glos. GL2 4HN.

Hoverfly Records Wanted from Scotland - badly needed for computer based mapping scheme (see Hoverfly Newsletter 12) Ken Watt, Dept Zoology, University of Aberdeen, Tillydrone Avenue, Aberdeen AB9 2TN.

#### REFERENCES

- C Claussen, 1989. The hitherto undescribed male of *Cheilosia rodgersi* Wainwright from southern Spain (Diptera: Syrphidae). *Entomol. Z.* 99: 283-288.
- S J Falk, 1991. Scaeva selenitica (Meigen) records in March with discussion on the overwintering status of Scaeva species in Britain. Dipterist Digest 8: 36.
- S J Falk and A E Stubbs, 1991. Further records and observations of *Platycheirus* species (Syrphidae) recently added to the British list, with discussion on the identification of *P. ramsarensis*. *Dipterists Digest* 10: 40-45.
- S Finch, R H Collier and M S Elliott. Biological studies associated with forecasting the timing of attacks by the large narcissus fly, *Merodon equestris*. Brighton Crop Protection Conference Pests and Diseases 1990, volume 1. Published by British Crop Protection Council, Farnham (UK), 1990, pp111-116.
- L Hedström, 1991. Swedish insect records report 7. Entomologisk Tidskrift 112: 133-146
- S Y Kuznetsov, 1989. Morphology of the eggs of hoverflies. *Entomological Review (Washington)* 68: 67-90.
- BR Laurence, 1991. Syrphidae in the Northern Isles. Dipterists Digest 8: 15.
- M A Marcos-Garcia, 1989. New species of *Cheilosia* (Meigen, 1811) for the Iberian entomofauna (Diptera, Syrphidae). *Fragm. Entomol.* 21: 145-151.
- N O M Ravenscroft et al, 1991. Some hoverflies (Diptera; Syrphidae) of Rhum National Nature Reserve, Western Scotland. Dipterists Digest 8 25-28.
- G E Rotheray, 1991. Larval stages of 17 rare and poorly known British hoverflies (Diptera: Syrphidae). Journal of Natural History 25: 945-969.
- M C D Speight, 1991. Callicera aenea, C. aurata, C. fagesii and C. macquartii redefined, with a key to and notes on the European Callicera species (Diptera: Syrphidae). Dipterists Digest 10: 1-25.
- M C D Speight, 1991. A key to W. European Parasyrphus species. Dipterists Digest 8: 3-5.
- A E Stubbs, 1991. A method of monitoring garden hoverflies. Dipterists Digest 10: 26-39.