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2 Linear habitats across a range of farming intensities contribute differently to dipteran3 abundance and diversity

4

5 **Running Title**

- 6 Diptera and linear farmland habitats
- 7

8 Abstract

9
1. While the value of linear farm habitats for the protection and enhancement of farmland
biodiversity in general is known, less is understood about their contribution to Diptera,
especially those with different ecological requirements. In this study, we examined the
impact of a range of linear farm habitats in agricultural grassland on Syrphidae and
Sciomyzidae (Diptera) both of which are known indicators of wider aerial invertebrate
taxa.

Species richness and abundance for each family were measured across five different
 linear habitat types (dense and open hedgerows with/without adjacent watercourses and
 watercourses only). While dense hedgerows with adjacent watercourses showed the
 greatest numbers of Syrphidae individuals and species, open hedgerows with adjacent
 watercourses had significantly more Sciomyzidae individuals and species than dense
 hedgerows without watercourses or open hedgerows only.

- 3. Syrphidae species richness was significantly correlated with the flowering plant species
 richness of linear habitats, while Sciomyzidae species richness was correlated with a
 habitat quality score for grasslands adjacent to the linear habitats.
- 4. Overall, Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae species richness and community composition are
 shown, for the first time, to reflect the "Ideal High Nature Value (HNV)" on-line tool
 used in this study to categorise the farms studied as extensive, intermediate or intensive
 with significantly greater species richness for both families on extensive farms.
- 5. The implications of the results of this study are discussed in the context of how we categorise farms for their value to biodiversity and how we assess the conservation value of linear farm habitats regarding current and future agri-environmental programmes.
- 32

33 Key words

Biodiversity, farmland habitats, hedgerows, watercourses, habitat quality, Syrphidae,
Sciomyzidae, Bi-directional Malaise traps.

36

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53

54 Introduction

The global decline in biodiversity, due to anthropogenic activities, is now acknowledged 55 (Brondizio et al., 2019), with approximately 60% of global ecosystems damaged or 56 57 overexploited beyond their capacity to recover (Brickhill, 2015). Agricultural ecosystems, in particular, have been subject to significant increases in farming intensity, one of the primary 58 causes of the rapid decline in farmland biodiversity over the past two decades (Benton et al., 59 2003; Larkin et al., 2019; Robinson & Sutherland, 2002). In Europe, agricultural area accounts 60 for approximately 42% of total land (European Environment Agency, 2018) of which less than 61 62 40% is categorised as low intensity management (Eurostat, 2019). The intensification of agriculture has negatively affected not only farmland biodiversity but also associated 63 ecosystem services, including those linked to food production such as pollination and 64 biocontrol (Cole et al., 2020; Stoate et al., 2009). 65

66 Linear farm habitats (e.g. hedgerows, watercourses) have attracted considerable interest amongst conservationists in recent years due to their value as habitats for biodiversity (Brooks 67 et al., 2012; Tattersall et al., 2002) and their role as wildlife corridors (Coulthard et al., 2016). 68 69 Hedgerows in particular, provide valuable resources for wild bees (Ponisio et al., 2017; Stanley 70 & Stout, 2014), butterflies (Cole et al., 2017) and dipteran families with high mobility such as hoverflies (Garratt et al., 2017; Haenke et al., 2014). Hedgerows are also considered as one of 71 72 the most valuable semi-natural linear habitats on many farms, contributing significantly to the biodiversity of farmland (Baudry et al., 2000; Dover, 2019). On many intensive farming 73 74 landscapes, they are the only remaining semi-natural habitat that can provide a valuable habitat for wildlife and deliver essential ecosystem services (Dover, 2019; Larkin et al., 2019). For 75 this reason, hedgerows are given protection in several European countries including Ireland 76 77 (Baudry et al. 2000) where hedgerows cover 4% of the total land area (Forest Service, 2018). Hedgerows can provide important food sources for pollinators and natural enemies during 78 periods when crops are absent or not in flower (Cole et al., 2017; Dover, 2019). Moreover, 79 80 hedgerows can provide additional resources including prey/hosts, shelter, breeding sites and protection from pesticides (Dover, 2019). Dense continuous hedgerows that are diverse in 81 82 woody species and floral resources are generally considered to be good quality hedgerows and are recognised as important habitats for invertebrates with strong mobility such as bumblebees 83 (Garratt et al., 2017; Volpato et al, 2019) and hoverflies (Garratt et al., 2017). However, little 84 85 is known about the effect of dense hedgerows on flying insects with slow mobility (Burel et al., 2004) and studies on whether dense hedgerows can act as barriers to movement for weak 86 flying insects (e.g. parasitoids) are lacking (Dover, 2019), particularly in agricultural lands with 87 88 different levels of farming intensity.

Watercourses (e.g. streams, drainage ditches) on farmland can also provide valuable habitatsas well as food sources to both aquatic and terrestrial invertebrates (including rare species),

91 especially in dry and intensive farmlands where food sources are limited (Herzon & Helenius, 92 2008). In addition, they play an important role in habitat connectivity within wider landscapes and their function in regulating water flow and nutrient retention are likely to depend on the 93 biological communities of watercourses (Herzon & Helenius, 2008). However, while good 94 quality hedgerows (e.g. dense hedgerows) are known to support some invertebrate groups 95 (Garratt et al., 2017; Graham et al., 2018), less is known about terrestrial invertebrates 96 97 associated with watercourses (drains/streams) particularly the non-iconic insect groups (Kleijn & Van Langevelde, 2006). Moreover, studies evaluating the value of linear farm habitats for 98 99 invertebrates often focus on individual habitats such as hedgerows or watercourses separately (Garratt et al., 2017; Kleijn & Van Langevelde, 2006; Wolton et al., 2014), whereas studies 100 evaluating the combined effects of both habitats on farmland invertebrates are scarce (Speight, 101 102 2001).

103 While utilising invertebrates in the assessment of farm habitats for developing conservation strategies has been well investigated for some iconic insect groups such as bumblebees and 104 105 butterflies (Carvell et al., 2007; Pywell et al., 2011), less is known about the use of other 106 invertebrate groups such as Diptera in habitat assessments (Carey et al., 2017a). This is likely due to the greater abundance and diversity of Diptera, and the associated taxonomic challenges, 107 108 in comparison with other taxa (Barnard, 2011). Including wider and less studied invertebrate groups such as Diptera in the assessment of conservation strategies could help in developing 109 evidence-based measures with strong environmental effectiveness and cost-efficiency to 110 111 protect and enhance biodiversity on farms. Moreover, Diptera are one of the most abundant animals in temperate habitats (Hughes et al., 2000) with almost 50% of all dipteran families 112 113 containing flower-visiting flies or pollinators of at least 555 flowering plant species (Larson et al., 2001). Therefore, Diptera are one of the most important groups of pollinating organisms, 114 second only to Hymenoptera, with both having a major contribution to plant diversity and 115

agricultural production (Ssymank et al., 2008). In addition to pollination, Diptera have other
important ecosystem services such as decomposition (Frouz & Šimek, 2009) and biological
control of agricultural pests (Hynes et al., 2014b).

119 This study aims to fill current knowledge gaps by exploring the value of different types of linear farm habitats (individually or in combination) to insects, across a gradient of farming 120 intensities, using adult Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae (Diptera), known indicators of wider 121 invertebrate taxa in agricultural grassland (Carey et al., 2017a; Carey et al., 2017b). Both taxa 122 co-exist within many of the same habitats; but have markedly different ecological 123 requirements. Syrphidae are known as strong flyers (Dover, 2019; Speight, 2020), reflecting 124 125 landscape scale effects, while Sciomyzidae appear to have limited movement (Williams et al., 2010), and reflect local scale differences. In addition, both fly families have important 126 ecosystem services linked to food production in that adult Syrphidae are pollinators while the 127 larval stages of many species act as predators of crop pests such as aphids (Speight, 2020). 128 Other Syrphidae larval species contribute to dung breakdown and nutrient cycling (Speight, 129 130 2020). On the other hand, Sciomyzidae larvae feed primarily on molluscs, some of which act as intermediate hosts of liver fluke disease, and on pestiferous slug species (Hynes et al., 131 2014a,b & c; Knutson et al., 1965; Knutson & Vala, 2011). Adults of some Sciomyzidae 132 species can also be minor pollinators (Stoffolano et al., 2015). In addition, adults of both fly 133 families are characterized by their ease of collection, identification, and their ubiquity across a 134 range of habitats (Speight, 1986). 135

136 With this in mind, the objectives of this study were to:

Evaluate different linear farm habitats (separately and in combination) in sustaining
 Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae, known indicators of dipteran diversity in agricultural
 grasslands.

140 2. Ascertain the role of habitat quality and other environmental variables in determining141 abundance, species richness and assemblages of each taxon.

3. Establish, for the first time, how these dipteran families reflect farm scale HNV
farmland identification and address current thinking on the conservation value of
farmland hedgerows.

145

146 Materials and methods

147 Site selection and classification

The study was conducted on farmland in the north-west of Ireland in County Sligo (Geographic 148 Location: 54.1553° N, 8.6065° W; Fig. S1) as part of a larger project entitled "Farming and 149 Natural Resources: Measures for Ecological Sustainability" or "FARM-ECOS". Mean annual 150 temperature and precipitation in Sligo are 9.6°C and 1260.1 mm respectively 151 (https://www.met.ie/, accessed 08/04/2020). Grassland (including rough grazing) accounts for 152 approximately 99% of the farmed area of this study (www.cso.ie). Grass-based farms 153 dominated by cattle and/or sheep grazing were classified according to land use intensity into 154 extensive, intermediate, and intensive farms. Farm classification was based on the High Nature 155 Value index (HNV) developed by Boyle, Hayes et al. (2015), which considers the area owned 156 and farmed, the stocking rate, the proportion of improved grasslands and a visual assessment 157 of the size of fields and linear habitats. The HNV score was calculated for each farm using the 158 on-line tool "Is your farm HNV?" (http://www.high-nature-value-farmland.ie/is-your-farm-159 hnv/). The HNV scores obtained allowed us to classify the farms as: extensive (HNV index > 160 5; n=5); intermediate (HNV index between 3.5 and 5; n=5); and intensive farms (HNV index 161 < 3.5; n=5). 162

163 In each of the three farming intensities, five categories of linear farm habitats were selected at field level for comparison as follows: a) Dense hedgerow with < 50% cover of gaps (DH); b) 164 Open hedgerow with > 50% gap cover (OH); c) Dense Hedgerow with < 50% cover of gaps 165 immediately adjacent to a watercourse (DH_W); d) Open hedgerow with > 50% cover of gaps 166 immediately adjacent to a watercourse (OH_W); and e) Watercourse only (W) (Table S1 in 167 Supplementary Information). For the purposes of this study, hedgerows were defined as woody 168 components of a linear habitat (often associated with banks, walls, ditches or trees) with a 169 maximum width of 4 m and with shrubs covering at least 25% of the length of a field (Foulkes 170 171 et al., 2013). Gaps were defined as any area of hedgerow where woody species were absent in addition to spaces composed of brambles, walls, fences, non-structural hedgerow species e.g. 172 climbers, and dead sections of hedgerow (Defra, 2007; Foulkes et al., 2013). Watercourses 173 174 (ditches/streams) were defined as either channels created by humans (e.g. open drains) or watercourses resulting from natural processes (e.g. streams) (after Williams et al., 2004). 175

176

177 Sample collection and identification

Invertebrate sampling was conducted from May to September 2018 using Townes style bi-178 directional (or double headed) Malaise traps (Bastola et al., 2016; Macfadyen et al., 2015; 179 Macfadyen & Muller, 2013; Samaranayake & Costamagna, 2018) protected from livestock by 180 portable electric fences. In each of the five selected linear habitats across the three farming 181 intensities, a pair of Malaise traps (as recommended by Speight et al. (2000)) were set up 2 m 182 from the linear habitat (after Wolton et al. (2014)). Within a site, each pair of traps were placed 183 20 m apart (after Carey et al., 2017a), with trap pairs between sites at least 200 m apart after 184 Gittings et al. (2006). This resulted in a total of 30 Malaise traps across farms, each with two 185 collection bottles half filled with 70% ethanol, giving a total of 60 collection bottles. Each trap 186

187 was positioned parallel to a linear habitat running in an east-west direction, with trap collection heads facing in an easterly direction thereby permitting catches from the linear habitats and 188 open fields to be collected in separate collection heads (trap side - Fig. S2). Traps were 189 activated on May 24th (2018) and insect samples were collected every two weeks until 190 September 13th (2018) resulting in a total of 8 field visits and 480 samples. Vegetation 191 immediately around the traps but inside the electric fences was cut periodically with a hand 192 shears to maintain similar vegetation heights inside and outside the electric fences (Carey et 193 al., 2017a). 194

All collected samples were stored in the laboratory for later identification. Samples were sieved 195 through a fine mesh strainer (1 mm), and the remaining insects sorted to order and family level. 196 Species of the families Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae, focal species for this study, were separated 197 and subsequently identified to genus and species level using Ball and Morris (2015) and Stubbs 198 199 and Falk (2002) for Syrphidae, and Rozkošný (1987) for Sciomyzidae. Sciomyzidae species were also compared with collected reference samples in the laboratory which were previously 200 identified by taxonomic experts. A number of female syrphids were identified to genus only 201 where identification to species level was not possible without male specimens (Table S2 & S3). 202

203

204 Environmental data

The quality of habitats was assessed using Rapid Assessment Cards (RACs) developed for each habitat type in both fields and linear habitats (Rotchés-Ribalta et al., 2020) and used to rate the ecosystem condition and provide a picture of the conservation status of habitats. Surveys of habitat quality in both grasslands and linear habitats involved the collection of several variables that were identified as indicators of environmental condition (e.g., vegetation structure, vegetation cover, height, shape of the hedgerow), habitat significance (e.g., number and cover 211 of positive/negative indicators) and management pressure (e.g., visual assessment of the level of grazing or poaching pressure). Habitat quality surveys in grasslands were conducted while 212 walking a "W" shaped route in fields, as recommended in the RBAPS assessment (Maher et 213 al., 2018b). For linear habitats, the quality surveys were conducted along 30 m length; two 214 surveys were conducted when a linear habitat was > 80 m long (Foulkes et al., 2013). From the 215 RACs, a score of quality was obtained for each habitat, which was scaled between 0 and 1, 216 with 0 being the lowest quality habitat and 1 the highest quality (see Rotchés-Ribalta et al., 217 2020). The number of flowering plant species (flowering plant species richness) in the linear 218 219 features and in the grassland was recorded at each site. Soil samples were also collected within each trap location on November 6th (2018) using a standard soil auger (Eijkelkamp) and stored 220 in a cold room (4°C) prior to processing. Soil organic matter, pH and soil moisture content 221 222 were measured within five days of sampling following British Standards protocols (BSI, 1990).

223

224 Data analysis

A total of 420 samples from 7 collections were included for data analysis (excluding 60 samples from 21st of June due to trap damages by Storm Hector). Prior to performing statistical analysis, abundance and species richness data were combined for all the 7 sampling periods (separately for the linear and field side of the traps). Species area curves calculated for Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae showed adequate trapping effort for both species (Fig. S3).

Univariate analysis (IBM, SPSS Statistics v.24) was undertaken using Generalized Linear
Mixed Models (GLMMs) with Poisson distribution and log link function to examine the effects
of linear habitat type, farming intensity and trap side on species richness and abundance of
Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae. To account for the nonindependence of trap side and trap numbers
per site, trap side was nested within the random factor trap ID, and trap numbers nested within

235 site ID in all the models. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons were conducted thereafter to determine the individual effects of linear habitat types and farming intensity on Syrphidae and 236 Sciomyzidae (abundance and species richness). Model fitness were validated by analysing and 237 verifying normality of residuals. We excluded the interaction terms between linear habitats and 238 farming intensity in the models (after Volpato et al., 2019) due to the low number of linear 239 habitat types per farming intensity category (n = 1). Given that the environmental variables did 240 not follow a normal distribution, we used nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test followed by 241 Bonferroni's pairwise comparison corrected for multiple ties to compare environmental 242 243 variables measured across categories of farming intensities and farm linear habitats. In addition, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used to determine the correlations 244 between taxa abundance, richness and environmental variables. All univariate data were 245 246 analysed at the P < 0.05 standard level of significance.

247

Prior to multivariate analysis, species data was log10(x + 1) transformed to reduce the influence 248 of very abundant species (Carey et al., 2017a; Schirmel et al., 2018). Moreover, an outlier 249 analysis was performed in PC-ORD v.6 and no faunistic outliers with > 2.0 standard deviations 250 were detected. Samples (traps) were also examined for extreme outliers with standard 251 deviations > 3.0 using the Sørensen distance measure (after Carey et al., 2017a) and no 252 potential outliers were detected among the samples in each site. Permutation-based 253 254 Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) was utilised to test the effects linear habitat type and farming intensity on the similarity within both taxa communities using 255 PRIMER (v.7.0.13) with the PERMANOVA add-on (Anderson et al. 2008). Trap sides nested 256 257 within the random factor trap ID, and trap ID within site ID in the analysis and we used Sørensen as a distance measure with 999 permutations. Non-metric multidimensional scaling 258 (NMS) ordinations (McCune et al., 2002) of samples was undertaken to understand the 259

260 community structure of both taxa at each farming intensity using the Sørensen distance in PC-ORD v.6 (McCune & Mefford, 2011). The number of significant axes was determined through 261 250 runs of real data to 250 runs with randomised data. An orthogonal principal axis output 262 was selected for each NMS to illustrate maximum community variation along axis 1. 263 Environmental data were utilised as a second explanatory matrix and variables with Pearson 264 R^2 values > 0.2 overlain as a biplot (McCune and Mefford, 2011). Multi Response Permutation 265 Procedures (MRPP), which are also non-parametric procedures for testing the hypothesis of no 266 difference between two groups, were utilized to test for significant difference between habitat 267 268 types based on the species composition of each assemblage (McCune and Mefford, 2011).

269

270 **Results**

271 *General results*

A total of 9,047 adult Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae insects were captured during the study 272 (excluding June 21st samples), representing a total of 8,774 individuals of Syrphidae and 273 273 Sciomyzidae. Seventy-six species of Syrphidae representing 41.3% of all known Irish species 274 and 17 species of Sciomyzidae representing 28.3% of all known Irish species (Chandler et al., 275 2008; Maher et al., 2018a) were captured. The dominant syrphid species were Helophilus 276 pendulus (L.), 1758 (13%), Platycheirus clypeatus (Meigen), 1822 (12%), Platycheirus 277 granditarsus (Forster), 1771 (11%) and Eupeodes latifasciatus (Macquart), 1829 (10%) 278 comprising 46 % of the total syrphid catches. The dominant sciomyzid species were 279 280 Tetanocera arrogans (Meigen), 1830 (21%), Renocera pallida (Fallén), 1820 (18%), Tetanocera elata (Fabricius), 1781 (15%), and Tetanocera ferruginea (Fallén), 1820 (13%) 281 comprising 67% of total sciomyzid catches (Tables S2 & S3 in Supplementary Information). 282

283 *Taxa response to linear habitats and farming intensity*

284 Overall Sciomyzidae abundance and species richness across all farming intensities (Fig. 1; Tables 1/S4) were greatest in open hedgerows with adjacent water courses (OHw). While 285 Sciomyzidae abundance and species richness were significantly greater in open hedgerows 286 with adjacent watercourses (OHw) and watercourses only (W) than in either dense hedgerows 287 (DH) or open hedgerows (OH), there were no significant differences between dense hedgerows 288 289 with adjacent watercourses (DHw) and dense hedgerows (DH) / open hedgerows (OH) (see Table S4 for P values). In contrast, while Syrphidae abundance and species richness was 290 greater in dense hedgerows with adjacent watercourses (DHw), no significant differences 291 292 across categories of linear habitat types were detected (Fig. 1; Table 1).

A comparison of farming intensities (Tables 1/S5, Fig. 2) showed that Sciomyzidae and Syrphidae species richness were significantly greater in extensive than in either intermediate (P < 0.01; P < 0.001 respectively) or intensive farms (P < 0.001; P < 0.001 respectively). In addition, Syrphidae abundances, while following a similar pattern, were not significantly different across farming intensities but Sciomyzidae abundances (Tables 1/S5, Fig. 2) were significantly greater on extensive than on either intermediate (P < 0.001) or intensive (P < 0.001) farms.

300 *Taxa response to environmental variables and habitat quality*

The environmental variables measured throughout the study differed across categories of farming intensities. Mean percentage soil moisture was significantly greater in extensive farms in comparison to intermediate (P = 0.03) and intensive farms (P = 0.04; Tables 2 & S6). Moreover, mean percentage soil organic matter was also significantly greater in extensive than intensive farms (P = 0.03; Tables 2 & S6). Of all environmental variables, Syrphidae species richness was significantly correlated (P = 0.04) with linear habitat flowering plant species 307 richness only (Table 3). Sciomyzidae, on the other hand, were correlated with adjacent grassland flowering plant species richness (P = 0.04 abundance) and the grassland habitat 308 quality score (P < 0.01 abundance; P = 0.03 species richness). Structural elements contributing 309 310 to the grassland habitat score which had significant positive correlations with Sciomyzidae (Table 3) included vegetation structure (abundance, P < 0.001; richness, P = 0.02), encroaching 311 scrub (abundance, P < 0.01) and plant litter (abundance, P = 0.04). Sciomyzidae abundance 312 and richness were also significantly correlated with percentage soil moisture (P < 0.001, P < 0.001, P313 0.01 respectively) and soil organic matter (P < 0.01, P = 0.01 respectively). 314

315

316 *Community Analysis*

Permutation-based Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) showed that farming 317 318 intensity and linear habitat types had a significant effect on the similarity of both taxa communities (Table 4). NMS ordination biplots (Figs. 3a & b) show a two-dimensional 319 solution for both taxa with stress values less than 11, where values of about 10 are known to 320 indicate a good ordination with little chance of false inferences (McCune and Mefford, 2011). 321 Environmental variables with Pearson R^2 values of > 0.2 are shown as biplots (Fig. 2). MRPP 322 analysis showed significant differences in community structure for both taxa in relation to 323 farming intensity. Farming intensity was a significant grouping variable in both the Syrphidae 324 and Sciomyzidae species matrices (A = 0.08, P = 0.008; A = 0.07, P = 0.046 respectively). In 325 addition, the community composition of Syrphidae was positively ($R^2 > 0.02$) correlated with 326 327 the grassland habitat score, percentage soil moisture and percentage soil organic matter in extensive farms while the species composition of intermediate and intensive farms was similar 328 329 with some degree of overlap (Fig. 3a). For Sciomyzidae communities, however, there was some overlap between all three farm types but with positive correlations ($R^2 > 0.02$) with grassland habitat score (Fig.3b).

332

333 Discussion

While the incorporation of linear habitats to counteract biodiversity decline on farmland has 334 already been proposed (Brooks et al., 2012; Garratt et al., 2017; Schirmel et al., 2018; Tattersall 335 et al., 2002), much remains unknown about its impact on specific insect species and 336 communities, particularly on livestock-based grassland systems of different intensities. 337 Moreover, the conservation of invertebrate diversity in agricultural lands requires that 338 invertebrate indicators (particularly non-iconic groups which generally receive less attention) 339 be incorporated in assessment methodologies at field and farm level to understand and predict 340 341 biodiversity (Plantureux et al., 2005). This study was designed to examine the response of adult Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae, indicator species with different ecological requirements and 342 ecosystem functions, to different linear farm habitats and to ascertain whether levels of farming 343 intensity classified primarily on the basis of physical features and farming practices also reflect 344 these insect indicator species. 345

346

347 *Taxa response to linear habitats*

The results of this study demonstrate that different types of linear habitats contribute differently to selected dipteran abundance and diversity in agricultural grassland. Both taxa demonstrated different responses to linear habitat types with mean Sciomyzidae species richness being significantly greater at open hedgerows with an adjacent watercourse than dense hedgerows or open hedgerows only. In contrast, there was no significant difference between dense hedgerows 353 with an adjacent watercourse and dense / open hedgerows only. This finding is particularly important in the context of current advice on best practice for hedgerow maintenance, i.e. 354 keeping the shrub layer dense ((Hedgelink leaflet (2013) - www.hedgelink.org.uk)) or in 355 356 hedgerows being assessed as less favourable on the basis of increased gappiness (Foulkes et al., 2013). In the case of Sciomyzidae which are relatively sedentary (Williams et al., 2010), it 357 is possible that dense hedgerows could inhibit their movements across habitats as has been 358 359 suggested for other weak flying insects, particularly parasitoids (Dover, 2019) although this would need to be substantiated for Sciomyzidae using suitable mark-recapture methods 360 361 (Williams et al., 2010).

362 While Sciomyzidae (abundance and species richness) showed no significant correlations with linear habitat quality in this study, significant correlations were detected with overall grassland 363 habitat quality and good vegetation structure in adjacent grassland fields (i.e. >50% of the field 364 365 having a heterogeneous vegetation structure). This is supported by previous studies where Sciomyzidae (as well as other dipteran families of grassland – Ryder et al., 2005) have been 366 shown to demonstrate positive correlations with vegetation structure, particularly taller 367 vegetation (Maher et al., 2014; Ryder et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2009a; Williams et al., 368 2009b). In this study, heterogeneous vegetation structure is likely to be a result of the less 369 370 intensively managed, wetter fields carrying lower stocking densities than the more improved fields with drier soils. In addition, the positive correlations with longer flooding periods of 371 many Sciomyzidae species (Maher et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2009b) which feed on aquatic 372 / semi-aquatic snails during the larval stage, further substantiates the need for wetter conditions 373 (including adjacent watercourses) for many species of this family. The significant correlation 374 of Sciomyzidae abundance with plant litter probably reflects the greater litter depths commonly 375 found in wetter, seasonally flooded grasslands. In addition, the correlation of Sciomyzidae 376 abundance with scrub encroachment likely reflects similar conditions to those of open 377

hedgerows, i.e. providing some shelter but with gaps for ease of movement. Since dense
hedgerows adjacent to watercourses in this study do not have significantly greater Sciomyzidae
species richness/abundances than dense/open hedgerows while open hedgerows with adjacent
watercourses/watercourses only do, further work is required to fine tune the advice currently
given to landowners on the maintenance of hedgerows, particularly those adjacent to water
bodies.

384 In contrast to Sciomyzidae, the abundance and species richness of Syrphidae captured were greater (although not significantly) in dense hedgerows adjacent to watercourses than in other 385 linear habitat types. Dense continuous hedgerows, which are diverse in plant species and 386 387 structure, have been shown to provide valuable resources to Syrphidae as for other strong flying insects such as bumblebees (Garratt et al., 2017). They are unlikely to inhibit Syrphidae 388 movement across habitats since Syrphidae are capable of long-distance migrations (Dover, 389 390 2019). This may explain why Syrphidae abundance and species richness showed no significant differences between linear habitat types including dense hedgerows. However, it is noteworthy 391 392 that dense hedgerows adjacent to watercourses are likely to provide multiple resources for Syrphidae, particularly standing water in addition to dead wood, litter, sap runs, host plants and 393 damp holes important for larval development (e.g. saprophagous species) (Schirmel et al., 394 395 2018), explaining, at least in part, greater (albeit non-significant) Syrphidae abundance and species richness in dense hedgerows adjacent to watercourses. In addition, the proportion of 396 Syrphidae captured on the linear habitat side on intensive farms (27% greater than on the field 397 398 side) was comparatively larger than that on intermediate and extensive farms (< 15%), indicating the likely importance of linear habitats on intensive farms where less nectar 399 resources would be available in the adjacent intensive grasslands. Linear habitats would also 400 play an important role by providing shelter (Sutherland et al., 2001), overwintering sites 401

402 (Hondelmann & Poehling, 2007) and protection from agrochemical applications (Schirmel et403 al., 2018), particularly on intensive farms.

404

405 *Taxa response to farming intensity*

406 Species richness of both taxa showed a significant decline with increasing farming intensity; suggesting that farming intensification is a primary driver in reducing species richness of both 407 families. Syrphidae are known to be positively influenced by pollen and nectar as food sources 408 (Ricarte et al., 2011) and this is likely reflected by greater (albeit non-significant) flowering 409 410 plant species richness in extensive farm grasslands. Sciomyzidae, on the other hand, are more likely to be influenced by the vegetation structure (i.e. taller plants) and wetter soils, found on 411 the extensive farms (Maher et al., 2014; Ryder et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2009a; Williams et 412 413 al., 2009b). A similar trend was observed in terms of the number of individuals captured for both families, but only Sciomyzidae abundance showed significant declines in abundance with 414 increasing farming intensity. More than 70% of total Sciomyzidae species found in this study 415 are hygrophilous in their larval stages, feeding on either on freshwater snails at or below water 416 surface and/or semi-terrestrial snails, or on fingernail calms and pea mussels beneath the water 417 418 surface (Knutson & Vala, 2011; McDonnell et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2007). This, coupled with the limited distances (up to 25 m) adult Sciomyzidae may travel (Williams et al., 2010), 419 is likely to reflect their overall preferences, at a local scale, for grassland fields with good 420 421 habitat quality (particularly good structural condition and low management pressure), wetter 422 and more organic soils associated with the grasslands of more extensive farms. Many Syrphidae, on the other hand, are strong flyers (Dover, 2019; Speight, 2020) and polylectic as 423 424 adults (Speight, 2020) visiting flowers in a wide range of habitats that can be far from their breeding sites (Ball & Morris, 2015; Speight, 2020). This may explain why Syrphidae 425

426 abundance showed no significant response to farming intensity and associated environmental427 variables at a local scale.

428

429 *Community analysis*

In addition to abundance/species richness, farming intensity also showed a significant effect 430 on the similarity of both fly family communities as explained by MRPP analysis. Moreover, 431 NMS analysis shows that extensive farms are characterised by specific environmental 432 conditions that are likely to play important roles in shaping the community composition of each 433 434 family. NMS analysis indicates that grassland quality score, % soil moisture and % organic matter are important environmental variables playing a role in shaping Syrphidae species 435 assemblages. This is in line with previous studies that showed intensively managed fields with 436 437 poor-quality habitats are unlikely to provide valuable resources to sustain insect pollinators (Cole et al., 2020) including Syrphidae (Rotheray, 1993). In addition, other studies have also 438 demonstrated that drainage along with high stocking rates and fertilizer inputs in intensive 439 farms result in reduced soil moisture and organic matter (Plantureux et al., 2005) with intensive 440 grazing causing habitat loss through the removal of ground vegetation and organic matter as 441 442 well as soil compaction (Yadamsuren et al., 2015). Practices such as these coupled with greater levels of agrochemical inputs in intensive farms have also been shown to limit resource 443 availability for many invertebrates (McMahon et al., 2012) and reduce plant and invertebrate 444 species richness in general (Klimek et al., 2007; Zechmeister et al., 2003). On the other hand, 445 446 Sciomyzidae communities were positively correlated with the grassland habitat score. Moreover, there were overlaps in Sciomyzidae species assemblages between all farm 447 448 categories that can be explained by some extensive fields being located within a farm classified overall as intensive or intermediate. This demonstrates that the retention of extensive or wet 449

grassland fields even within intensive farms can provide valuable habitats to sustain
Sciomyzidae assemblages at small spatial scales. This agrees with the study by Carey et al.,
(2017a) who have demonstrated that Sciomyzidae communities in grassland habitats can vary
at small scales of up to 20m.

454

455 Management implications

Overall, our results indicate that both taxa species richness reflect the broad scale HNV farm 456 classification used in this study to categorise farms as extensive, intermediate, and intensive 457 458 farms with greater species richness for both fly families on extensive farms. This reinforces the importance of HNV farms for biodiversity conservation in general and is particularly important 459 for dipteran conservation on farmland. Nevertheless, since HNV farm classification considers 460 461 not only farm management but also a visual assessment of the size of fields and linear habitats, careful considerations should also be taken at smaller scales since different linear habitats 462 within fields/farms seem to contribute differently to dipteran abundance and diversity. While 463 it is known that dense continuous hedgerows are generally considered as good quality 464 hedgerows with valuable resources for insect pollinators (Garratt et al., 2017; Volpato, 2019), 465 466 other, less mobile aerial invertebrates with important ecosystem functions, appear to have different requirements. Hence, hedgerows, irrespective of perceived quality, and particularly 467 those deemed 'gappy' adjacent to watercourses, appear, in this study, to be of value to 468 469 biodiversity. This is particularly important in the context of current agricultural Environmental 470 Impact Assessment (EIA) regulations in Ireland which allow for up to 500m of boundary to be removed without assessment ((Environmental Impact Assessment) (Agriculture) Regulations 471 472 2011)). Under current regulations, therefore, hedgerows with significant value to biodiversity are likely to be lost if such regulations are not improved to protect these valuable habitats. 473

474 Discussions, based on the sound scientific evidence of multiple studies, regarding advice to farmers in Ireland under the current Agri-Environment Scheme (Green, Low-carbon Agri-475 Environment Scheme (GLAS)) to maintain dense hedgerows, will be required to infom future 476 477 schemes under the new EU common agricultural policy (2021-2027) to facilitate those less mobile species (including those with conservation value) adversely affected through habitat 478 loss and resource decline (Graham et al., 2018). It is likely that consideration to supporting a 479 480 mixture of both open and dense hedgerows adjacent to watercourse is required (diversity within and between habitats), with particular attention given to spatial scales and management 481 482 heterogeneity over both time and space (Graham et al., 2018).

483

484 Conclusions

485 Our results indicate that linear habitats irrespective of perceived quality, particularly those hedgerows deemed 'gappy' adjacent to watercourses, are of significant value to biodiversity. 486 This could have important implications for future design and implementation of agri-487 environment schemes by considering the heterogeneity of linear habitats (i.e. not only dense 488 hedgerows but also a diverse range of boundary types) across different farming intensities. In 489 addition, our results show that farmland intensity as indicated by the HNV score is an important 490 driver of overall pattern and community composition of both dipteran families investigated in 491 492 this study. Nevertheless, enhancing habitat quality within and between farms appears to be a key message for conservation of dipteran diversity in farmland and in supporting their 493 494 ecosystem functions. Thus, future agri-environment schemes should also incentivise low intensity farming since it is likely to generate favourable conditions to promote habitat quality 495 496 and subsequently support invertebrate diversity in agricultural lands.

498 Acknowledgements

499	Special thanks to the farmers for their collaboration throughout the study. We would like to
500	thank Owen Doherty, Maurice Martyn, Allison Bistline-East, Manon Larrouquere, Aoife
501	Hughes, Alexander Megerle, and Niamh Gernot for their assistance during the field and lab
502	work. This project is part of the FARM_ECOS project funded by the Department of
503	Agriculture, Food, and the Marine under the Research Stimulus Fund (Project 15/S/619).
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750	Table 1: Overall effects of farming intensity, linear habitat type and trap side on the abundance

species richness of Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae. Bold numbers indicate significant differences (GLM
and independent sample t test, P<0.05)¹.

	Farn	ning inter	nsity		Linear type	habitat		Trap side		
	df	Wald	Р	df	Wald	Р	df	f	Р	
Abundance										
Syrphidae	2	4.127	0.127	4	3.984	0.408	1	1.309	0.236	

and

Sciomyzidae	2	29.507	<0.001	4	8.312	0.081	1	0.049	0.652
Richness									
Syrphidae	2	14.136	0.001	4	8.404	0.078	1	0.923	0.476
Sciomyzidae	2	12.777	0.002	4	20.636	<0.001	1	0.334	0.573

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⁷⁵⁴ ¹Due to the low number of linear habitat types per each farming intensity (n=1), it was not

possible to include the interacting effects of farming intensity and linear habitat types in themodel.

Table 2: Environmental variables (mean \pm SD) measured throughout the study across categories of farming intensities and farm linear habitats. Linear habitat types are categorised as: Dense hedgerow (DH), Open hedgerow (OH), Dense hedgerow with adjacent watercourse (DH_w), Open hedgerow with adjacent watercourse (OH_w) and watercourse only (W). Different letters indicate significant differences (p<0.05) between each category using the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Bonferroni's pairwise comparison corrected for multiple ties (see Table S7 for *P* values).

		Linear habitat score	Grassland habitat score	Flowering plant species richness/linear habitat	Flowering plant species richness/grassland habitat	% Soil moisture	% Soil organic matter	рН
		$Mean \pm SD$	Mean \pm SD	Mean \pm SD	Mean ± SD	Mean \pm SD	$Mean \pm SD$	Mean \pm SD
nsity	Extensive (n=5)	0.34 ± 0.16	0.69 ± 0.07	15.20 ± 9.01	20.40 ± 8.91	61.90 ± 12.09^{a}	$25.36\pm13.15^{\mathrm{a}}$	5.7 ± 0.88
ig inte	Intermediate (n=5)	0.59 ± 0.12	0.40 ± 0.37	11.20 ± 3.42	14.20 ± 10.26	36.32 ± 9.41^{b}	12.58 ± 4.44^{ab}	6.3 ± 0.84
Farmin	Intensive (n=5)	0.48 ± 0.15	0.34 ± 0.27	10.00 ± 0.71	9.20 ± 5.72	$\textbf{36.95} \pm \textbf{9.41}^{b}$	10.01 ± 3.04^{b}	6.2 ± 0.93
pe	DH (n=3)	0.42 ± 0.07	0.22 ± 0.34	12.33 ± 2.88	15.67 ± 10.05	34.61 ± 7.94	12.35 ± 5.12	5.38 ± 0.46
oitat ty	DH _W (n=3)	0.63 ± 0.07	0.48 ± 0.35	10.00 ± 0.89	8.67 ± 3.72	44.13 ± 10.82	14.17 ± 4.28	7.24 ± 0.82
ar hat	OH (n=3)	0.42 ± 0.06	0.42 ± 0.25	12.33 ± 1.37	10.33 ± 2.25	40.50 ± 21.25	9.50 ± 4.05	5.66 ± 0.39
Line	OHw (n=3)	0.50 ± 0.15	0.37 ± 0.20	15.67 ± 11.91	16.67 ± 5.82	48.58 ± 12.88	19.35 ± 10.43	6.18 ± 0.62
	W (n=3)	0.39 ± 0.28	0.74 ± 0.16	10.33 ± 1.37	22.33 ± 14.38	57.43 ± 14.91	24.56 ± 15.99	5.82 ± 0.65

Table 3: Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between Syrphidae / Sciomyzidae abundance / species richness and environmental variables. Numbers in bold indicate significant correlations (P<0.05). Variables for the grassland habitat quality score subcategory (structural condition) are presented in italics.</th>

	Syrphidae				Sciomyzidae			
	Abundance		Richness		Abundance		Richness	
	Corr. Coef.	Р	Corr. Coef.	Р	Corr. Coef.	Р	Corr. Coef.	Р
Flowering plant species richness/linear habitat	0.417	0.122	0.532	0.041	0.254	0.362	0.063	0.822
Flowering plant species richness/grassland habitat	0.014	0.959	0.060	0.830	0.537	0.039	0.380	0.162
Linear habitat score	0.068	0.810	0.039	0.889	-0.261	0.348	-0.140	0.619
Grassland habitat score	0.151	0.591	0.389	0.151	0.777	0.001	0.562	0.029
Vegetation structure	0.160	0.570	0.471	0.077	0.851	<0.001	0.060	0.018
Cover of ground flora	-0.253	0.364	-0.206	0.460	-0.262	-0.345	0.040	0.888
% Encroaching scrub	0.264	0.342	0.407	0.132	0.725	0.002	0.418	0.121
Plant litter	0.191	0.496	0.331	0.228	0.524	0.045	0.429	0.111
% Soil moisture	0.236	0.398	0.335	0.193	0.863	<0.001	0.698	0.004
% Soil Organic matter	0.225	0.420	0.390	0.164	0.739	0.002	0.714	0.003
Soil pH	0.261	0.348	0.264	0.342	-0.059	0.834	0.025	0.928

Table 4: PERMANOVA results testing the effects of farming intensity, linear habitat type and trap side with their interactions on the similarity of Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae communities. Numbers in

³ bold indicate significant differences (P<0.05).

Source	<i>d.f.</i>	SS	MS	F	Р
Syrphidae					
Farming intensity	2	0.89191	0.44595	3.5722	0.0008
Trap side	1	0.13401	0.13401	1.0734	0.3438
Interactions	2	0.12276	0.61382E-01	0.4917	0.9612
Residual	24	2.9962	0.12484		
Total	29	4.1449			
Linear habitat	4	0.52236	0.13059	0.80583	0.7466
Trap side	1	0.13401	0.13401	0.82691	0.5476
Interactions	4	0.24735	0.61838E-01	0.38158	1.0000
Residual	20	3.2412	0.16206		
Total	29	4.1449			
Sciomyzidae					
Farming intensity	2	1.7353	0.86766	2.6517	0.0018
Trap side	1	0.13E-01	0.13E-01	0.39E-01	0.9998
Interactions	2	0.22045	0.11022	0.33686	0.9976
Residual	24	7.8530	0.32721		
Total	29	9.8216			
Linear habitat	4	2.0696	0.51740	1.4484	0.0678
Trap side	1	0.13E-01	0.13E-01	0.36E-01	1.0000
Interactions	4	0.59475	0.14869	0.41623	0.9998
Residual	20	7.1444	0.35722	5.11020	5.7776
Total	29	9.8216			

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- **Table 5:** Indicator Species Analysis showing significant (P<0.05) Syrphidae species response to
- 15 farming intensity.

	Farming intensity	Maxgrp Value	IV	Mean	SD	Р
	Eristalis arbustorum	Intermediate	66.7	28.6	12.16	0.0352
	Leucozona lucorum	Intensive	55.6	34.3	10.63	0.0456
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41 Figures

Fig. 1 Mean total abundance and species richness of Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae collected per site at each of the five categories of linear habitat type*: (a) Syrphidae abundance, (b) Syrphidae species richness, (c) Sciomyzidae abundance and (d) Sciomyzidae species richness. Columns annotated with the different letters are significantly different within each separate category (GLM followed by LSD pairwise comparisons, P < 0.05).

- * DH=dense hedgerow, OH=open hedgerow, DHw=dense hedgerow + watercourse, OHw= open
 hedgerow + watercourse and W=Watercourse only.
- **Fig. 2** Mean total abundance and species richness of Syrphidae and Sciomyzidae collected per site at each of the three-farming intensities: (a) Syrphidae abundance, (b) Syrphidae species richness, (c) Sciomyzidae abundance and (d) Sciomyzidae species richness. Columns annotated with the different letters are significantly different within each separate category (GLM followed by LSD pairwise comparisons, P < 0.05; Table S5 & S6).
- 54 Fig. 3 Non-metric multi-dimensional scaling ordination of traps in (a) Syrphidae and (b) Sciomyzidae species-space. For Syrphidae: first two axes explain 94.2 % of the variation (75.4% 55 56 axis 1 and 18.8% axis 2) with an orthogonality of 100%. Farming intensity is a significant grouping variable (P = 7.5×10^{-3}) and explains approximately 8 % of the variation in the species matrix 57 (MRPP chance-corrected within-group agreement A). For Sciomyzidae: first two axes explain 58 89.2% of the variation (49.6% axis 1 and 39.6% axis 2) with an orthogonality of 100%. Farming 59 intensity is a significant grouping variable ($P = 4.6 \times 10^{-2}$) and explains approximately 6.7 % of the 60 variation in the species matrix (MRPP chance-corrected within-group agreement A). 61
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---- Fig. 3

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Table S1: Site description and classification based on farming intensity (extensive, intermediate, intensive) and linear habitat types¹. The overall habitat quality scores (0-1) are calculated for both linear and adjacent grassland habitats based on several variables including physical structure (e.g. width, height), vegetation structure (profile, how many layers of vegetation, cover of trees, shrubs), management pressure (grazing pressure, poaching) and number and cover of plant species indicators.

	Parcel				Linear	Grassland habitat score
Site no.	area (ha)	LU/ha	HNV	Linear habitat 1	type habitat score	
Extensive						
1	18.30	0.59	6.90	DH	0.37	0.65
2	3.12	0.24	7.50	DHw	0.55	0.80
3	3.91	0.24	7.50	ОН	0.36	0.70
4	7.83	0.59	6.90	OHw	0.32	0.60
5	45.05	0.36	8.20	W	0.11	0.70

Intermediate

6	12.31	1.18	3.80	DH	0.51	0.00	244	¹ Linear habitat types are categorise	dac
7	7.73	0.78	4.10	DHw	0.62	0.50	245	Dense bedgerow (DH): Open bedge	u as.
	-		-				240	(OH): Dense bedgerow with adia	
8	7.47	1.00	4.60	ОН	0.43	0.40	247	watercourse (DLL): Open bedgerour	
0	1.05	1 1 0	2.00		0.00	0.15	248	watercourse (DH _W); Open nedgerow	with
9	1.95	1.18	3.80	OHw	0.66	0.15	249	adjacent watercourse (OH _w);	and
10	15.61	0.74	3.90	W	0.73	0.95	250	watercourse only (W).	
Intensive							251		
intensive							252		
11	3.05	0.75	3.40	DH	0.39	0.00	252		
12	10 40	0 75	3 40	DHw	0 71	0.60	253		
12	10.10	0.75	5.10	DIIW	0.71	0.00	254		
13	9.22	1.02	3.30	ОН	0.48	0.15	254		
11	5 29	1 11	2 20	OH	0.51	0.25	255		
14	5.56	1.11	5.50	Onw	0.51	0.35	256		
15	10.40	0.75	3.40	W	0.315	0.60	250		
							257		

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 Table S2: Syrphidae species recorded on farms in Co. Sligo, Ireland

Species	Total Abundance	% Total Abundance
Anasimyia contracta Claussen & Torp, 1980	2	0.02
Anasimyia lineata (Fabricius, 1787)	8	0.09
Arctophila superbiens (Müller, 1776)	3	0.03
Baccha elongata (Fabricius, 1775)	29	0.33
Chalcosyrphus nemorum (Fabricius, 1805)	18	0.21
Cheilosia albipila Meigen, 1838	1	0.01
Cheilosia albitarsis (Meigen, 1822)	14	0.16
Cheilosia spp.	1	0.01
Chrysogaster cemiteriorum (Linnaeus, 1758)	3	0.03
Chrysotoxum bicinctum (Linnaeus, 1758)	28	0.32
Chrysotoxum festivum (Linnaeus, 1758)	1	0.01
Dasysyrphus albostriatus (Fallén, 1817)	1	0.01
Dasysyrphus venustus (Meigen, 1822)	4	0.05
Epistrope eligans (Harris, 1780)	50	0.57
Epistrophe nitidicollis (Meigen, 1822)	1	0.01
Episyrphus balteatus (De Geer, 1776)	183	2.09
Eristalis abusiva Collin, 1931	3	0.03
Eristalis arbustorum (Linnaeus, 1758)	6	0.07
Eristalis horticola (De Geer, 1776)	11	0.13
Eristalis intricaria (Linnaeus, 1758)	41	0.47
Eristalis nemorum (Linnaeus, 1758)	41	0.47
Eristalis pertinax (Scopoli, 1763)	94	1.07
Eristalis tenax (Linnaeus, 1758)	16	0.18
Eupeodes corollae (Fabricius, 1794)	342	3.90
Eupeodes latifasciatus (Macquart, 1829)	889	10.13
Eupeodes luniger (Meigen, 1822)	12	0.14
Helophilus hybridus Loew, 1846	41	0.47
Helophilus pendulus (Linnaeus, 1758)	1160	13.22
Lejogaster metallina (Fabricius, 1781)	83	0.95
Leucozona lucorum (Linnaeus, 1758)	9	0.10
Melangyna lasiopthalma (Zetterstedt, 1843)	6	0.07
Melangyna sp.	4	0.05
Melanogaster hirtella (Loew, 1843)	11	0.13
Melanostoma [melanic]	10	0.11
Melanostoma mellinum (Linnaeus, 1758)	679	7.74
Melanostoma scalare (Fabricius, 1794)	778	8.87
Meligramma sp.	1	0.01
Meliscaeva cinctella (Zetterstedt, 1843)	3	0.03
Meliscaeva auricollis (Meigen, 1822)	1	0.01
Mvathropa florea (Linnaeus, 1758)	2	0.02
Neoascia obligua Coe. 1940	3	0.03
Neoascia podagrica (Fabricius, 1775)	62	0.71
Neoascia tenur (Harris 1780)	15	0.17
Orthonevra nobilis (Fallén, 1817)	1	0.01
Parasyrphus punctulatus (Verrall. 1873)	$\frac{1}{2}$	0.02

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Table S2 continued

Species name	Total abundance	% Total Abundance
Parhelophilus versicolor (Fabricius, 1794)	1	0.01
Pipiza sp.	1	0.01
Pipiza noctilucaa (Linnaeus, 1758)	3	0.03
Platycheirus [melanic]	2	0.02
Platycheirus albimanus (Fabricius, 1781)	421	4.80
Platycheirus angustatus (Zetterstedt, 1843)	238	2.71
Platycheirus clypteatus (Meigen, 1822)	1071	12.21
Platycheirus granditarsus (Forster, 1771)	939	10.70
Platycheirus manicatus (Meigen, 1822)	1	0.01
Platycheirus peltatus (Meigen, 1822)	13	0.15
Platycheirus rosarum (Fabricius, 1787)	94	1.07
Platycheirus scambus (Staeger, 1843)	1	0.01
Platycheirus scutatus (Meigen, 1822)	14	0.16
Rhinga campestris Meigen, 1822	698	7.96
Riponnensia splendens (Meigen, 1822)	21	0.24
Scaeva pyrastri (Linnaeus, 1758)	50	0.57
Sericomyia silentis (Harris, 1776)	212	2.42
Sphaerophoria interrupta (Fabricius, 1805)	38	0.43
Sphaerophoria scripta (Linnaeus, 1758)	5	0.06
Sphaerophoria philanthus (Meigen, 1822)	4	0.05
Syritta pipiens (Linnaeus, 1758)	3	0.03
Syrphus torvus Osten Sacken, 1875	1	0.01
Syrphus ribesii (Linnaeus, 1758)	48	0.55
Syrphus vitripennis Meigen, 1822	4	0.05
Trichopsomyia flavitarsis (Meigen, 1822)	20	0.23
Tropidia scita (Harris, 1780)	142	1.62
Volucella bombylans (Linnaeus, 1758)	17	0.19
Volucella pellucens (Linnaeus, 1758)	10	0.11
Xylota jakutorum Bagachanova, 1980	3	0.03
Xylota segnis (Linnaeus, 1758)	21	0.24
Xylota sylvarum (Linnaeus, 1758)	5	0.06

Species name	Total abundance	% Total abundance
Coremacera marginata (Fabricius, 1775)	11	4.0
Elgiva cucularia (Linnaeus, 1767)	1	0.4
Ilione albiseta (Scopoli, 1763)	4	1.5
Ilione lineata (Fallen, 1820)	19	7.0
Limnia paludicola Elberg, 1965	4	1.5
Limnia unguicornis (Scopoli, 1763)	2	0.7
Pherbina coryleti (Scopoli, 1763)	4	1.5
Renocera pallida (Fallén, 1820)	50	18.3
Renocera striata (Meigen, 1830)	2	0.7
Sepedon spinipes (Scopoli, 1763)	1	0.4
Tetanocera arrogans Meigen, 1830	57	20.9
Tetanocera elata (Fabricius, 1781)	40	14.7
Tetanocera ferruginea Fallén, 1820	35	12.8
Tetanocera fuscinervis (Zetterstedt, 1838)	13	4.8
Tetanocera hyalipennis Roser, 1840	11	4.0
Tetanocera robusta Loew, 1847	17	6.2
Trypetoptera punctulata (Scopoli, 1763)	2	0.7

Table S3: Sciomyzidae species recorded on farms in Co. Sligo, Ireland

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Table S4: *P* values for the mean total species richness of Sciomyzidae collected for each linear

- habitat type¹. Numbers in bold indicate significant *P* values (GLMM followed by LSD pairwise
- 275 comparisons, P < 0.05).

Boundary type	Sciomyzidae abundance			Sciomyzidae richness		
	d.f	t	Р	d.f.	t	Р
$DH \times DH_{\rm W}$	1	1.81	0.08	1	1.40	0.17
$\mathrm{DH} imes \mathrm{OH}$	1	1.03	0.31	1	0.04	0.97
$\text{DH}\times\text{OH}_W$	1	2.83	0.01	1	2.56	0.01
$\mathrm{DH} imes \mathrm{W}$	1	3.22	<0.001	1	2.51	0.02
$DH_W \! \times OH$	1	0.84	0.40	1	1.44	0.16
$DH_W \! \times OH_W$	1	1.26	0.21	1	1.19	0.24
$DH_W\!\times W$	1	1.72	0.09	1	1.14	0.26
$OH \times OH_W$	1	2.02	0.04	1	2.60	0.01
$\mathrm{OH} imes \mathrm{W}$	1	2.45	0.02	1	2.54	0.01
$OH_W \times W \\$	1	0.49	0.63	1	0.06	0.95

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¹Linear habitat types are categorised as: Dense hedgerow (DH); Open hedgerow (OH); Dense
hedgerow with adjacent watercourse (DHw); Open hedgerow with adjacent watercourse

280 (OH_W) ; and watercourse only (W).

	Farming intensities				Linear habitat types			
Parameter	п	t	d.f	Р	n	t	d.f	Р
Flowering plant species								
richness/linear habitat	15.00	1.86	2.00	0.39	15.00	3.22	4.00	0.52
Flowering plant species								
richness/grassland habitat	15.00	3.29	2.00	0.19	15.00	2.73	4.00	0.60
Linear habitat quality score	15.00	5.47	2.00	0.07	15.00	3.97	4.00	0.41
Grassland habitat quality score	15.00	5.60	2.00	0.06	15.00	5.48	4.00	0.24
% Soil moisture	15.00	8.66	2.00	0.01	15.00	3.60	4.00	0.46
% Soil Organic matter	15.00	7.02	2.00	0.03	15.00	4.53	4.00	0.34
Soil pH	15.00	1.82	2.00	0.40	15.00	7.47	4.00	0.11

282 Table S5: P values for the mean total abundance and species richness of Syrphidae and

283 Sciomyzidae collected per site at each of the three-farming intensities. Numbers in bold indicate

significant *P* values (GLMM followed by LSD pairwise comparisons, P < 0.05).

286	Table S6a: Results of Kruskall-Wallis test to determine differences between environmental
287	variables across three farming intensities and linear habitat types. Numbers in bold indicate
288	significance.

				Syrphidae		
Farming intensity		Abun		Richness		
	d.f	t	Р	d.f	t	Р
Extensive × Intermediate	1	1.31	0.20	1	3.25	<0.01
Extensive × Intensive	1	1.81	0.08	1	4.19	<0.001
Intermediate \times Intensive	1	0.53	0.60	1	0.67	0.51

			Sci	iomyzidae		
Farming intensity		Abu		Richness		
	d.f	t	Р	d.f	t	Р
Extensive × Intermediate	1	4.66	<0.001	1	3.86	<0.001
Extensive × Intensive	1	5.26	<0.001	1	4.69	<0.001
Intermediate × Intensive	1	1.13	0.26	1	0.91	0.37

Table S6b: Pairwise comparisons for % soil moisture and soil organic matter between the three
farming intensity categories using Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. Numbers in
bold indicate significance (P<0.05).

Composison	% Soil r	noisture	% Soil or	% Soil organic matter			
	t	Р	t	P 302			
Extensive × Intermediate	7.40	0.03	5.40	1.69			
Extensive × Intensive	7.00	0.04	7.20	0.03			
Intermediate × intensive	-0.04	1.00	1.80	1.00 304			



Fig. S1: A map showing location of the study sites in County Sligo, Northwest of Ireland (left).
Farming intensity categories are denoted with different numbers (right). Extensive = 1-5;
Intermediate = 6 -10; and Intensive = 11-15)







Figure S3: Species area curves for Syrphide (a) and Sciomyzidae (b). Dotted lines
represent ±2SDs. First-order jackknife estimates of total species richness were 90.75
(Syrphidae) and 18.9 (Sciomyzidae).