

Direct Injury, Myiasis, Forensics

Forensically Relevant Flesh Flies (Diptera, Sarcophagidae, Sarcophaginae) of Southern Brazil

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Abstract

Flesh flies comprise a large fly family distributed worldwide that has great importance for forensic entomology. A robust and updated checklist of Sarcophaginae flies recorded in Southern Brazil is presented, based on material collected in the Rio Grande do Sul state and on a literature review. The forensic importance (high, moderate, or none) of the recorded flesh flies for estimating the postmortem interval (PMI) or inferring cases of neglect was determined based on their ecological habits. A total of 2,831 specimens representing 38 taxa were collected from three studies. *Oxysarcodexia* was the most abundant and species-rich genus in all three studies. *Dexosarcophaga carvalhoi* (Lopes) was registered for the first time in Southern Brazil. The checklist for Southern Brazil comprises 91 species distributed in 19 genera, with *Oxysarcodexia*, *Peckia*, and *Lepidodexia* representing the richest genera. Considering the importance of species for PMI estimation, 10, 42, and 39 species were classified as having high, moderate, or no forensic relevance, respectively. Moreover, five myiasis-causing sarcophagine flies recorded in Southern Brazil were considered to have the potential to reveal cases of neglect or mistreatment. This study revealed that *Microcerella halli* (Engel) and *Peckia (Euboettcheria) australis* (Townsend) are the most important species for PMI estimation in Southern Brazil, as they are often found breeding in corpses in this region.

Key words: flesh fly, diptero fauna survey, forensic entomology, postmortem interval, necrophagous

Sarcophaginae (Diptera, Sarcophagidae) is the largest of three subfamilies ascribed to Sarcophagidae, and it comprises approximately 2,300 described species (Buenaventura et al. 2020). Currently, 879 sarcophaginae species are reported from the Neotropical region, including 335 from Brazil (Pape 2021).

Biological features of Neotropical sarcophagines are very diverse (Pape and Dahlem 2010). Many species are attracted to decaying organic matter, such as feces (e.g., Dias et al. 1984a, Ferrar 1987, d'Almeida and Lima 1994) and decaying carcasses (e.g., Carvalho and Linhares 2001, Barros et al. 2008, Rosa et al. 2011), including corpses (e.g., Cherix et al. 2012, Vasconcelos et al. 2014, Vairo et al. 2017, Ramos et al. 2018, Thyssen et al. 2018). These resources are used both for nutritional complementation of the adult's diet (protein) and for larval development (Mello-Patiu et al. 2014a).

The feeding habits of insects that are found associated with decomposing corpses can be classified into four ecological roles (Smith 1986): necrophagous, omnivorous, predators/parasites, and incidental species. Necrophagous species develop directly in the corpse and are the most important category for estimating the postmortem interval (PMI), which is the interval between the moment of death and the time of discovery of the corpse (Amendt et al. 2007). Omnivorous species feed on both the corpse and associated fauna. Predators/parasites feed on necrophagous and omnivorous species. Both omnivorous species and predators/parasites can interfere with corpse decomposition by depleting populations of necrophagous species. Finally, incidental species are those that use the corpse as an extension of their habitat, seeking moisture, a site to rest, or are accidentally placed there; for example, together with various materials

used in attempts to conceal a corpse. Therefore, obtaining information about the biology of sarcophagine flies can be helpful in forensic investigations, as the occurrence, activity or ecological role of insects can provide information for PMI estimation, manner and cause of death, or association of suspects with the death scene (Cherix et al. 2012, Vairo et al. 2017).

Two approaches for PMI estimation use insects: minimum post-mortem interval (PMI_{min}) – based on the time of development of immatures feeding on a corpse – and maximum postmortem interval (PMI_{max}) – based on the ecological succession of insect communities visiting and/or colonizing a corpse (Catts 1992). When estimating the PMI using insects, Amendt et al. (2007) stressed that the period of insect activity (PIA), i.e., the time from insect colonization until the discovery of the remains, should also be considered; thus, PIA and PMI are always related (Matuszewski and Mądra-Bielewicz 2016). Furthermore, geographical, environmental, and genetic characteristics can affect the developmental rates of insects used for PMI_{min} estimation (Amendt et al. 2007). A PMI_{min} insect indicator must be a ubiquitous species and one of the first species to find the corpse (Greenberg 1991) and develop on the corpse (Amendt et al. 2007) (i.e., necrophagous).

Studies in Brazil regarding Sarcophaginae have focused on surveys and species checklists (e.g., Barbosa et al. 2019), taxonomy and construction of taxonomic keys (e.g., Camargo et al. 2018), synanthropy (e.g., Souza and Von Zuben 2016), biodiversity and population fluctuation (e.g., Dias et al. 2015), molecular characterization (e.g., Oliveira et al. 2019a) and bionomy (e.g., Xavier et al. 2015). According to Anderson (2020), the habitat, vegetation, soil type, and meteorological conditions of a specific area are defined by its biogeoclimatic zone. Nevertheless, due to the high diversity of biogeoclimatic zones in Brazil, studies on sarcophagines from some regions, such as the South, remain scarce; this includes Rio Grande do Sul (RS), where few studies (Lopes 1946, Souza et al. 2008, Krüger et al. 2010, Silva et al. 2010, Ries and Blochtein 2015, Madeira et al. 2016, Souza et al. 2020a) have been conducted.

Two types of vegetation cover predominate in RS: plains (the so-called pampas), dominated by grasses (~60% of the territory), and forests consisting of both mixed broadleaved (associated with the Atlantic Forest biome) and coniferous forests. Coastal vegetation or sandbanks comprise only 5% of the total area (IBGE 2020). According to the Köppen-Geiger climatic classification (Alvares et al. 2013), RS has a predominantly humid subtropical climate, with an average annual temperature of 12–23°C, and significant rainfall throughout the year (approximately 1,300 mm per year).

Thus, considering the biogeoclimatic zone of RS and the ecological and forensic relevance of Sarcophaginae species, this study aims to answer the following questions: Which Sarcophaginae species are distributed in RS? Which species from Southern Brazil are relevant for estimating the PMI or for inferring cases of neglect?

Material and Methods

Sampling

The collecting localities mentioned for each performed study are mapped at <https://bit.ly/2PAob8p>.

Study 1: Sarcophaginae Collected Using Baited Traps

Adult flies were collected monthly during 12 mo between 2012 and 2013, using a baited trap, similar to the one used for the collecting of muscoid flies by several authors (e.g., Ferreira 1979, Linhares 1981, Moretti et al. 2009). The trap was made of two soft-drink plastic

bottles, with their bottom ends removed to receive an 80 g portion of bait (chicken gizzard, beef liver, or raw fish left to rot for 48 hr at room temperature, before exposure). Each trap was suspended by a string, approximately 150 cm above the ground, and remained exposed in the field for 72 hr.

Collecting was carried out in rural, urban, and wild environments in three municipalities of RS: Pelotas (31°46'29"S: 52°20'33 "W), Piratini (31°26'32 "S: 53°6'16 "W), and Bagé (31°19'43 "S: 56°6'26 "W). Twelve traps were used in each of the three environments, with a total of 36 traps per municipality, each arranged in a 3 × 4 grid (four parallel transects, each 100 m apart from the next; in each transect, three points spaced 50 m from the next). The 50 m minimum distance from each trap to another was chosen to ensure sample independence, as proposed by Cabrini et al. (2013). In each grid, each trap received one type of bait at random. The environments were characterized as follows: (1) *wild*, locality with null or reduced human disturbance in its surroundings; (2) *urban*, locality with high population density, i.e., 151–350 inhabitants per ha (Moreira et al. 2019); and (3) *rural*, locality with at least three farms that keep livestock in their surroundings, especially cattle and sheep.

Study 2: Sarcophaginae Collected on Pig Carcasses

This study was carried out in January and September 2014, during two seasons characterized by fluctuations in temperature and rainfall: warm/dry (mid-October–March) and cold/wet (mid-April–September) (Alvares et al. 2013), in a rural environment in the municipality of Porto Alegre (30°14'18"S: 51°07'19"W) in RS. Carcasses of six domestic male pigs (*Sus scrofa* L.), weighing approximately 12 kg each, were exposed in an open area, 30 m apart. Animals were euthanized with a single shot from a .38 cal. firearm on day 1 and at the site of the study and immediately placed inside metal frame cages to exclude large scavengers. Underneath the cages, metal trays with sawdust were placed to collect dipteran larvae leaving the carcasses to pupate. To collect adult insects, a Shannon trap, similar to the one used by Carvalho et al. (2000), was placed over each cage.

Both adults and larvae were collected daily and actively: the former from inside Shannon traps, using a hand net, and the latter from metal trays, using a tweezer. All specimens were separated and labeled by collection day and carcass decomposition stage. The decomposition stages were characterized by physical parameters according to the criteria set forth by Reed (1958). More details on the methodology can be seen in Ries et al. (2021).

All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and use of animals were followed. All procedures were performed in accordance with protocols approved by the CEEA (Ethics Committee on Animal Experimentation) of the Pontifical Catholic University of Rio Grande do Sul (#13/00369).

Study 3: Sarcophaginae Actively Collected

Adult flies, attracted by 150 g of raw beef liver, previously left to rot for 48 hr at room temperature, were collected using a hand net, in the months of March and September 2019. The collecting was carried out in a wild environment, during 6 hr and on each of three consecutive days, at the municipality of Arroio do Padre (31°26'34"S: 52°25'19"W) in RS.

Weather Conditions and Species Identification

Weather conditions in the field were measured daily during each fly collection, with a Celsius thermometer (model MM 5202-Incoterm), a humidity sensor (model 4463, Stäcker & Olms), and a rain gauge (with 203 mm). Further meteorological data were obtained from the

Brazilian National Institute for Space Research (INPE 2020). Daily data from the field and weather stations were compiled and the averages for temperature, humidity, and accumulated rainfall were calculated and presented per study in the [Supp Material \(online only\)](#).

In the laboratory, the collected male specimens were stored in absolute ethanol or pinned. Male genitalia were exposed with the aid of an entomological pin. Taxonomic keys (Carvalho and Mello-Patiu 2008, Buenaventura et al. 2009, Mulieri et al. 2010a, Vairo et al. 2011) and descriptions (Lopes 1946, 1980; Guimarães 2004) were used for species identification. Most specimens, pinned or stored in microvials with absolute ethanol from Studies 1 and 3, are deposited at the Laboratory of Integrative Entomology of the Department of Animal Biology and at the Museum of Zoology 'Adão José Cardoso' (ZUEC), both from the University of Campinas, São Paulo, Brazil. Pinned specimens from Study 2 were deposited at the scientific collection of the Entomological Forensic section of the Insect Collection of the Museum of Science and Technology (MCT) of the Pontifical Catholic University of Rio Grande do Sul (PUCRS).

Additional Information Survey

To comprehensively examine the literature on the distribution status of Sarcophaginae in Southern Brazil [comprising the states of Paraná (PR), Santa Catarina (SC), and RS], peer-reviewed literature in Portuguese, Spanish, and English published in academic journals was systematically researched in five databases: Web of Science, PubMed, SCOPUS, Google Scholar, and Scientific Electronic Library Online (SciELO). The search terms (Sarcophaginae, flesh flies, necrophagous, vectors, myiasis, attractiveness, forensic entomology, Neotropical, Southern Brazil, Paraná, Santa Catarina, Rio Grande do Sul), isolated or combined, were chosen to allow the evaluation of: (1) the number of Sarcophaginae species recorded in Southern Brazil; (2) the current knowledge on Sarcophaginae in Southern Brazil; and (3) which species are important in the context of forensic entomology. Term and search field combinations were explored by trial and error to retrieve the most comprehensive and relevant literature, excluding obviously irrelevant literature. Literature searches were conducted between April 2019 and May 2020.

Search results were systematically evaluated, and duplicate references were removed. Articles were further preselected based on title and abstract, and a thorough assessment of relevance was ascertained by reading the full texts. The full-text review excluded articles that mentioned only species of other Sarcophagidae subfamilies or did not expand the knowledge about geographic distribution or bionomic aspects. The nomenclature followed the latest taxonomic revision (Buenaventura and Pape 2013, 2015).

Sarcophaginae species were organized into ecological categories according to Ferrar (1987). This information was used to classify the species according to their value for estimating the PMI into: high (necrophagous), moderate (omnivorous or predators), and null value (detritivorous, kleptoparasite, invertebrate parasite, vertebrate parasite, and unknown ecological category). Considering that wounds in live vertebrates may attract flies that live or feed on them, data on myiasis-causing flies in vertebrates (mammals) were used to identify species with the potential to reveal cases of neglect or mistreatment.

Results

Abundance, Richness, and Weather Conditions

A total of 2,831 individuals from 38 species were collected (Tables 1–3). Although the sampling efforts, collection methodologies and temporal ranges varied, eight species were collected in all studies, 14

in at least two studies (six in Studies 1 and 2; six in Studies 2 and 3; and two in Studies 1 and 3), 14 species were collected only in Study 1 (which had a more extended temporal range and also considered different environments), and two species were collected only in Study 3. Most females, totaling 876 individuals (Tables 1 and 2), were not identified because the available taxonomic keys were for males only.

Of the 1,563 specimens collected in Study 1, *Oxysarcodexia paulistanensis* (Mattos) ($N = 241$), *Oxysarcodexia culmiforceps* Dodge ($N = 235$), *Ravinia advena* (Walker) ($N = 87$), and *Oxysarcodexia thornax* (Walker) ($N = 58$) were the most abundant species ($N > 50$) (Table 1). These species were present in all the studied environments. *Oxysarcodexia* was the most abundant (at least 788 specimens) and species-rich (10 identified taxa) genus. Regarding the environments, five, two, and five taxa with one to six individuals each were reported exclusively in rural, urban, and wild environments, respectively (Table 1). Regarding the attractiveness of baits, 12 taxa were associated with all the baits, 8 taxa with two baits (three collected in fish and liver, three in fish and gizzard, and two in gizzard and liver), and 10 taxa with only one bait type (seven, two and one taxa related to gizzard, fish, and liver, respectively) (Table 1). The highest abundance of specimens per month was recorded in November ($N = 393$), December ($N = 192$), and January ($N = 174$), with *O. culmiforceps* ($N = 164$) and *O. paulistanensis* ($N = 131$) as the most abundant species. In these months, the average temperature (approximately 22°C) and rainfall (approximately 127 mm) were the highest throughout the sampling period (12 mo) (Supp Material [online only]). May ($N = 12$), June ($N = 8$), and July ($N = 2$) had the lowest abundance of specimens and average temperatures (approximately 13°C) (Supp Material [online only]).

Of the 1,137 specimens sampled in Study 2, *O. culmiforceps* ($N = 222$), *O. thornax* ($N = 150$), *O. paulistanensis* ($N = 111$), *Microcerella halli* (Engel) ($N = 82$), *Oxysarcodexia riograndensis* Lopes ($N = 56$), *Oxysarcodexia admixta* (Lopes) ($N = 51$), and *Ravinia belforti* (Prado & Fonseca) ($N = 39$) were the most abundant species ($N > 30$) (Table 2). *Oxysarcodexia* was the most abundant and species-rich genus, with 607 specimens and nine taxa identified. *Microcerella halli* ($N = 1$ and $N = 50$ in the warm/dry and cold/wet seasons, respectively) and *R. belforti* ($N = 1$ and $N = 3$ in the warm/dry and cold/wet seasons, respectively) were found rearing on pig carcasses (Table 2). Regarding the seasons, 90.4% ($N = 1,028$) of the specimens and 19 taxa were sampled in the cold/wet season (Table 2), during which the lowest average temperature (19.3°C) combined with the highest average humidity (78.4%) and rainfall (161.4 mm) (Supp Material [online only]) contributed to the longer decomposition time of the carcasses (34 d) compared to those recorded in the warm/dry season (10 d). In the warm/dry season, the majority of taxa (8 out of 10) were associated with the bloated stage among the visiting adults, and the larvae reared in carcasses had the highest abundance ($N = 55$). In the cold/wet season, most taxa (17 out of 19) were associated with the bloated stage, and the greatest abundance ($N = 639$) was associated with the decay stage (Table 2).

Of the 131 specimens collected in Study 3, *Peckia (Sarcodexia) lambens* (Wiedemann) ($N = 21$), *O. culmiforceps* ($N = 18$), *O. admixta* ($N = 13$), and *Peckia (Pattonella) resona* (Lopes) ($N = 12$) were the most abundant species ($N > 10$) (Table 3). *Oxysarcodexia* was the most abundant and rich genus, with 57 specimens and nine taxa identified. The highest abundance ($N = 83$) and richness ($N = 17$) of specimens were recorded in September, with *P. (S.) lambens* as the most abundant species. In this month, the average temperature (14.6°C) was lower than that recorded in March (19.2°C), while rainfall was higher in September (142 mm) than in March (9.9 mm) (Supp Material [online only]).

Table 1. Abundance (*N*) of collected Sarcophaginae by locality, environment, bait, and month at Rio Grande do Sul state, using baited traps between 2012 and 2013

Taxon	Locality	Environment	Bait	Month	<i>N</i>
<i>Dexosarcophaga carvalhoi</i> Lopes, 1980	PI	R, U	F, L	II; XII	7
<i>Helicobia aurescens</i> (Townsend, 1927)	PE, PI	R, U, W	F, G, L	I; IX–XII	16
<i>Helicobia</i> spp.	PE, PI	R, U, W	G	XI	3
<i>Lipoptilocnema koehleri</i> (Blanchard, 1939)	BA	W	F, G, L	II; XI	3
<i>Lipoptilocnema lanei</i> (Townsend, 1927)	BA	W	G	VI	1
<i>Microcerella halli</i> (Engel, 1931)	BA, PE	R, U	F, G, L	I; VIII; X–XI	6
<i>Nephochaetopterix</i> spp.	BA, PE, PI	R, U, W	F, G, L	XI–II	34
<i>Oxysarcodexia admixta</i> (Lopes, 1933)	PE	R	F	VI	1
<i>Oxysarcodexia avuncula</i> (Lopes, 1933)	PI	R, W	G	XI	2
<i>Oxysarcodexia bicolor</i> Lopes, 1946	PI	U, W	G, L	I; VIII	3
<i>Oxysarcodexia culmiforceps</i> Dodge, 1966	BA, PE, PI	R, U, W	F, G, L	V–VI; VIII–III	235
<i>Oxysarcodexia injuncta</i> (Walker, 1858)	PI	R	L	X	1
<i>Oxysarcodexia paulistanensis</i> (Mattos, 1919)	BA, PE, PI	R, U, W	F, G, L	I–III; V–VI; VIII; X–XII	241
<i>Oxysarcodexia riograndensis</i> Lopes, 1946	PE	U, R	F, G, L	VI; VIII; X; XII	9
<i>Oxysarcodexia terminalis</i> (Wiedemann, 1830)	BA, PI	U	F, L	I; XII	4
<i>Oxysarcodexia thornax</i> (Walker, 1849)	BA, PE, PI	R, U, W	F, G, L	I; IV–VI; VIII–XII	58
<i>Oxysarcodexia varia</i> (Walker, 1836)	BA, PE, PI	R, U, W	F, G, L	VIII; X–XI	19
<i>Oxysarcodexia</i> spp.	BA, PE, PI	R, U, W	F, G, L	IV; VIII–II	215
<i>Peckia (Euboettcheria) australis</i> (Townsend, 1927)	PE	R	G	VI	1
<i>Peckia (Euboettcheria) collusor</i> (Prado & Fonseca, 1932)	PE	W	G	XII	1
<i>Peckia (Euboettcheria) florencioi</i> (Prado & Fonseca, 1932)	PE	W	F, G	VIII	4
<i>Peckia (Pattonella) resona</i> (Lopes, 1935)	PE	W	F, L	IV; VI; VIII; IX	6
<i>Peckia</i> spp.	BA, PE, PI	U, W	F, G	XI–II	8
<i>Ravinia advena</i> (Walker, 1853)	BA, PE, PI	R, U, W	F, G, L	I–VIII; X–XII	87
<i>Ravinia belforti</i> (Prado & Fonseca, 1932)	PE	R	F	VI; VIII	2
<i>Ravinia</i> spp.	BA, PE, PI	R, U, W	F, G, L	X–II	55
<i>Sarcophaga (Bercaea) africa</i> (Wiedemann, 1824)	PE	U	G, L	VIII–XI	3
<i>Sarcophaga</i> sp.	BA, PI	U, W	G	IV; XII–I	4
<i>Tricharaea (Sarcophagula) canuta</i> (Wulp, 1896)	PE	R	G	XI	1
<i>Tricharaea</i> spp.	BA, PE, PI	R, U	F, G	I; XI; XII	26
spp. (female)	BA, PE, PI	R, U, W	F, G, L	I–VI; VIII–XII	507
Total abundance					1,563
Total richness (taxa, not considering spp females)					30

Note: In locality, BA = Bagé, PE = Pelotas, and PI = Piratini. In environment, R = rural, U = urban, and W = wild. In bait, F = fish, G = gizzard, L = liver. In month, I = January, II = February, III = March, IV = April, V = May, VI = June, VII = July, VIII = August, IX = September, X = October, XI = November, and XII = December.

Forensic Relevance of Sarcophaginae From Southern Brazil

An updated checklist of Sarcophaginae recorded in Southern Brazil was produced based on Studies 1–3 and the literature (Table 4). Additional information regarding substrates and collection environments, obtained from the studies developed in Southern Brazil and from other studies conducted in the Neotropical region, is shown in Table 4.

A total of 91 species distributed in 19 genera were recorded in Southern Brazil; nine species are unique records for Brazil, and eight are exclusively from the Neotropical region (Table 4). The richest genera recorded were *Oxysarcodexia* (24.7%), *Peckia* (13.5%), and *Lepidodexia* (11.2%). *Dexosarcophaga carvalhoi* (Lopes) is herein recorded for the first time in Southern Brazil. For RS, 49 species were recorded with 10 new records, and 51 and 49 species were recorded in PR and SC, respectively.

The literature searches retrieved 15 relevant peer-reviewed papers published in academic journals (Ferreira 1979; Moura et al. 1997, 2005; Moura 2004; Souza et al. 2008; Krüger et al. 2010; Silva et al. 2010, 2014; Vairo et al. 2011, 2015, 2017; Ries and Blochtein 2015; Madeira et al. 2016; Gaedke and Mougá 2017; Souza et al. 2020a). The studies from RS (*N* = 7) were carried out in the three environments (urban, rural, and wild) and in five municipalities, covering only the southern half of the state. Thus, the results

of Studies 1–3 presented here expand the number of localities and environments sampled for RS. The same number of studies (*N* = 7) on Sarcophaginae and with samplings in three environments was identified in PR; however, all of them were carried out in a single municipality. A single study from the SC was carried out in three municipalities from north of the state and near the coast.

Considering the baits used to attract and collect Sarcophaginae listed in the papers retrieved from the literature, the most (*N* = 11) employed were mammal carcasses of different animals (e.g., *Rattus norvegicus* (Berkenhout), *Sus scrofa* L., *Oryctolagus cuniculus* L., *Didelphis albiventris* Lund, *Salvator merianae* Duméril & Bibron, *Nothura maculosa* (Temminck), *Cerdocyon thous* L., and humans). Other studies used vertebrate tissues (chicken gizzard, bovine liver, bovine meat, or fish) and human feces as bait. Most of the records obtained from the catalog (Pape 1996), species checklist (Mulieri et al. 2010a), or species revisions (Buenaventura and Pape 2013, Mulieri et al. 2015) did not provide information on the collection location or biology of the species because of the nature of the study or the lack of a label on specimens retrieved from museums.

Considering the importance of the 91 Sarcophaginae species for PMI estimation, 10, 42, and 39 species were considered to have high, moderate, and no forensic relevance, respectively. Regarding their potential to assist in identifying cases of neglect or mistreatment, five

Table 2. Abundance (*N*) of Sarcophaginae associated with pig carcasses exposed in an open area in rural environment, by season and decomposition stage, at Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul state in 2014. In bold, species bred from the carcasses

Taxa	Season								<i>N</i>
	warm/dry				cold/wet				
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	
<i>Helicobia aurescens</i> (Townsend, 1927)	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
<i>Lipoptilocnema koehleri</i> (Blanchard, 1939)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
<i>Microcerella halli</i> (Engel, 1931)	0	1	1	1 ^a	0	33 ^a	41 ^a	5 ^a	82
<i>Nephoaetopteryx cyaneiventris</i> Lopes, 1936	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
<i>Oxysarcodexia admixta</i> (Lopes, 1933)	0	0	0	1	0	35	15	0	51
<i>Oxysarcodexia avuncula</i> (Lopes, 1933)	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	4
<i>Oxysarcodexia culmiforceps</i> Dodge, 1966	2	10	6	3	1	67	115	18	222
<i>Oxysarcodexia parva</i> Lopes, 1946	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2
<i>Oxysarcodexia paulistanensis</i> (Mattos, 1919)	0	4	1	1	0	48	50	7	111
<i>Oxysarcodexia riograndensis</i> Lopes, 1946	0	2	1	0	0	13	32	8	56
<i>Oxysarcodexia thornax</i> (Walker, 1849)	0	4	3	2	0	57	76	8	150
<i>Oxysarcodexia varia</i> (Walker, 1836)	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
<i>Oxysarcodexia xanthosoma</i> (Aldrich, 1916)	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	2	9
<i>Peckia (Eufoettcheria) australis</i> (Townsend, 1927)	0	0	0	0	0	5	3	2	10
<i>Peckia (Peckia) chrysostoma</i> (Wiedemann, 1830)	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2
<i>Peckia (Patonella) resona</i> (Lopes, 1935)	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	3
<i>Peckia (Sarcodexia) florencioi</i> (Prado & Fonseca, 1932)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
<i>Ravinia advena</i> (Walker, 1853)	0	3	0	0	0	3	10	0	16
<i>Ravinia belforti</i> (Prado & Fonseca, 1932)	0	2	5 ^a	3	0	8 ^a	20 ^a	1	39
<i>Tricharaea (Sarcophagula) occidua</i> (Fabricius, 1794)	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	3
spp. (female)	4	24	12	8	0	18	267	36	369
Total abundance	109					1,028			1,137
Total relative abundance (%)	9.6					90.4			100
Total richness (taxa, not considering spp females)	10					19			20

Note: From I to IV indicates the decomposition stages, where: I: fresh, II: bloated, III: decay, and IV: dry.

^aIndicates the decomposition stage where postfeeding larvae were collected.

Table 3. Abundance (*N*) of collected Sarcophaginae attracted by bovine liver using a hand net in a wild environment at Arroio do Padre, Rio Grande do Sul state, in 2019

Taxon	Month		<i>N</i>
	March	September	
<i>Lipoptilocnema koehleri</i> (Blanchard, 1939)	4	0	4
<i>Nephoaetopteryx cyaneiventris</i> Lopes, 1936	6	4	10
<i>Oxysarcodexia admixta</i> (Lopes, 1933)	10	3	13
<i>Oxysarcodexia bicolor</i> Lopes, 1946	0	1	1
<i>Oxysarcodexia confusa</i> Lopes, 1946	0	1	1
<i>Oxysarcodexia culmiforceps</i> Dodge, 1966	7	11	18
<i>Oxysarcodexia injuncta</i> (Walker, 1858)	0	3	3
<i>Oxysarcodexia parva</i> Lopes, 1946	0	3	3
<i>Oxysarcodexia paulistanensis</i> (Mattos, 1919)	1	2	3
<i>Oxysarcodexia thornax</i> (Walker, 1849)	4	2	6
<i>Oxysarcodexia xanthosoma</i> (Aldrich, 1916)	0	9	9
<i>Peckia (Eufoettcheria) australis</i> (Townsend, 1927)	6	1	7
<i>Peckia (Eufoettcheria) florencioi</i> (Prado & Fonseca, 1932)	0	4	4
<i>Peckia (Peckia) chrysostoma</i> (Wiedemann, 1830)	0	5	5
<i>Peckia (Patonella) resona</i> (Lopes, 1935)	7	5	12
<i>Peckia (Sarcodexia) lambens</i> (Wiedemann, 1830)	0	21	21
<i>Ravinia belforti</i> (Prado & Fonseca, 1932)	3	5	8
<i>Tricharaea (Sarcophagula) occidua</i> (Fabricius, 1794)	0	3	3
Total abundance	48	83	131
Total relative abundance (%)	36.6	63.4	100
Total richness	9	17	18

Table 4. List and distribution of Sarcophaginae (Diptera) species from Southern Brazil by locality, substrate (which attracted them or where they were reared), environment, and ecological category. In bold are the species registered for the first time at Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil

Species	Localities			Substrate	Environment	Ecological Category	References
	PR	SC	RS				
<i>Argoravinia (Argoravinia) rufiventris</i> (Wiedemann, 1830)	X			BV; CV; FE; FI; RO; PC; TC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Pape 1996, Barros et al. 2008; Pape and Dablem 2010; Rosa et al. 2011; Beuter et al. 2012; Alves et al. 2014; Barbosa et al. 2015, 2017, 2019; Sousa et al. 2015, 2020; Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2018; Oliveira et al. 2019b
<i>Argoravinia (Ravinioopsis) aurea</i> (Townsend, 1918)	X			KW	unknown	kleptoparasite	Evans et al. 1974, Pape 1996
<i>Argoravinia (Ravinioopsis) brasiliana</i> (Lopes, 1988)	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Blaesoxipha (Acanthodotheca) acridiophagoides</i> (Lopes & Down, 1951)	X			CL; PC	R, W	invertebrate parasite	Pape 1994, 1996, Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b, Paseto et al. 2019
<i>Blaesoxipha (Acanthodotheca) brazil</i> Pape, 1994	X			BV	W	unknown	Pape 1996, Toma et al. 2020
<i>Blaesoxipha (Acanthodotheca) denier</i> (Blanchard, 1939)	X	X	X	PC	R	unknown	Pape 1996, Ries and Blochtein 2015
<i>Blaesoxipha (Acanthodotheca) lanei</i> (Lopes, 1938)	X	X	X	RO; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Pape 1996, Rosa et al. 2011, Beuter et al. 2012, Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b, Ries and Blochtein 2015, Faria et al. 2018, Paseto et al. 2019
<i>Blaesoxipha (Acanthodotheca) paranaensis</i> (Lopes, 1990) ^a	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Blaesoxipha (Acanthodotheca) riograndensis</i> (Lopes, 1990) ^a	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Blaesoxipha (Tephromyia) americana</i> Brauer, 1898	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Boettcheria aurifera</i> Lopes, 1950	X			PC	W	unknown	Pape 1996, Vairo et al. 2011, Cavallari et al. 2015
<i>Dexosarcophagacarullhoi</i> (Lopes, 1980)	X			BV; CV; FI; RO; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Barros et al. 2008, Rosa et al. 2011, Beuter et al. 2012, Alves et al. 2014, Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b, Barbosa et al. 2015, 2017, 2019, Sousa et al. 2015, 2020, Faria et al. 2018, Paseto et al. 2019, current study
<i>Dexosarcophaga transitia</i> Townsend, 1917	X			RO; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Mello-Patiu 2002, Rosa et al. 2011, Beuter et al. 2012, Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b, Faria et al. 2018, Paseto et al. 2019
<i>Engelmyia inops</i> (Walker, 1849)	X			BV; FI; PC	W	omnivorous	Pape 1996, Amat 2010, Sousa et al. 2011, Barbosa et al. 2014, Cavallari et al. 2015, Toma et al. 2020
<i>Helicobia aurescens</i> (Townsend, 1927)	X			BV; CC; CV; FE; FI; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	necrophagous	Ferreira 1979, Moura 2004, Moura et al. 2005; Mariluis et al. 2007; Barros et al. 2008; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a, 2015; Barbosa et al. 2009, 2019; Patitucci et al. 2011, 2015; Rosa et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2014; Sousa et al. 2014a, 2015, 2016, 2020; Cavallari et al. 2015; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Faria et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Dufek et al. 2020; Souza et al. 2020a; Toma et al. 2020; current study
<i>Helicobia pilipleura</i> Lopes, 1939	X			BV; FI; RO; PC	U, W	omnivorous	Pape 1996; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Moretti et al. 2008; Barbosa et al. 2009; Sousa et al. 2015, 2016, 2020
<i>Lepidodexia (Asilidodexia) gancha</i> (Lopes, 1992) ^a	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Lepidodexia (Chlorosarcophaga) caliphorina</i> (Enderlein, 1928)	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Lepidodexia (Johnsonia) teutonia</i> (Lopes, 1991) ^b	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996

Table 4. Continued

Species	Localities			Substrate	Environment	Ecological Category	References
	PR	SC	RS				
<i>Lepidodexia (Lepidodexia) sarcophagina</i> (Townsend, 1927)	X	X		unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Lepidodexia (Notochaeta) cognata</i> (Walker, 1853)	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Lepidodexia (Notochaeta) fumipennis</i> (Lopes, 1946)	X			WD	W	vertebrate parasite	Pape 1996, D'Bastiani et al. 2020
<i>Lepidodexia (Notochaeta) souzalopesi</i> (Lehrer, 1995) ^b		X		unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Lepidodexia (Notochaetisca) Rosalie</i> (Lopes, 1974) ^b	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Lepidodexia (Notochaetisca) travassosi</i> (Lopes, 1983) ^b	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Lepidodexia (Petriana) brevivrosiris</i> (Lopes, 1946)	X	X		unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Lipoptilocenema crispina</i> (Lopes, 1938)	X	X		FI; RO; PC	R, W	unknown	Moretti et al. 2008, Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b, Mulieri et al. 2017, Ernesto et al. 2018, Pasero et al. 2019
<i>Lipoptilocenema crispula</i> (Lopes, 1938)	X			BV; CV; FE; FE; FI; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Dias et al. 1984a, b; Mendes and Linhares 2002; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Moretti et al. 2008; Rosa et al. 2011; Beuter et al. 2012; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Sousa et al. 2015, 2020; Mulieri et al. 2017; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Faria et al. 2018; Pasero et al. 2019; Dufek et al. 2020; Toma et al. 2020
<i>Lipoptilocenema koehleri</i> (Blanchard, 1939) ^a		X		BV; CV; FE; FI; SL; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Pape 1996; Mariluis et al. 2007; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a,b, 2015; Patitucci et al. 2015; current study
<i>Lipoptilocenema lanei</i> (Townsend, 1934)	X	X		BL; CV; FE; SQ; PC	U, W	omnivorous	Pape 1996; Mariluis et al. 2007; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010b, 2015, 2017; Vairo et al. 2011; Patitucci et al. 2015; Dufek et al. 2020; current study
<i>Microcerella analis</i> (Townsend, 1927)	X	X		PC	W	unknown	Pape 1996, Vairo et al. 2011
<i>Microcerella austrohartigia</i> Pape, 1990	X			BV	R, U	omnivorous	Pape 1996, Mulieri et al. 2010a, 2010b
<i>Microcerella halli</i> (Engel, 1931)	X			BM; BV; CP; CV; FE; FI; LC; RO; SN; SQ; PC	R, U, W	necrophagous	Ferreira 1979; Pape 1996; Moura 2004; Moura et al. 2005; Moretti et al. 2008, 2009; Patitucci et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011, 2017; Alves et al. 2014; Nassu et al. 2014; Silva et al. 2014; Cavallari et al. 2015; Ries and Blochrein 2015; Ernesto et al. 2018; Barbosa et al. 2019; Dufek et al. 2020; current study
<i>Microcerella pilicosa</i> (Lopes, 1972)		X		unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Microcerella pilifacies</i> (Lopes, 1983) ^b		X		unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Microcerella uygodzinskiy</i> (Lopes, 1954)		X		unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Nephochaetopteryx cyaneiventris</i> Lopes, 1936	X			BV; CV; FE; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010b; Patitucci et al. 2011, 2015; Vairo et al. 2011; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Faria et al. 2018; current study
<i>Nephochaetopteryx fuscipennis</i> Lopes, 1941 ^b	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996

Table 4. Continued

Species	Localities			Substrate	Environment	Ecological Category	References
	PR	SC	RS				
<i>Oxysarcodexia admixta</i> (Lopes, 1933)	X	X	X	BV; CV; CC; FF; FI; FE; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Lopes 1973; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1994; D'Almeida and Lima 1994; Pape 1996; Oliveira et al. 2002; Barros et al. 2008; Rosa et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011; Barbosa et al. 2014; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Cavallari et al. 2015; Dufek et al. 2015, 2016, 2020; Sousa et al. 2015, 2016, 2020; Madeira et al. 2016; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Faria et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Toma et al. 2020; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia amorosa</i> (Schiner, 1868)	X			BM; BV; CC; CR; CV; FE; FF; FI; RO; SN; PC	U, R, W	omnivorous	Lopes 1973; D'Almeida 1989, 1994; Pape 1996; Oliveira et al. 2002; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Barbosa et al. 2009, 2014, 2015, 2017, 2019; Rosa et al. 2011; Sousa et al. 2011, 2014b, 2015, 2016, 2020; Ramirez-Mora et al. 2012; Bitar et al. 2013; Alves et al. 2014; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2014; Vairo et al. 2014; Cavallari et al. 2015; Xavier et al. 2015; Carmo and Vasconcelos 2016; Vasconcelos et al. 2016; Valverde-Castro et al. 2017; Ernesto et al. 2018; Lopes et al. 2018; Leite-Júnior et al. 2019; Andrade-Herrera et al. 2020; Toma et al. 2020
<i>Oxysarcodexia angrensis</i> (Lopes, 1933)	X			BM; BV; CP; CV; FE; FF; FI; ON; RO; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Lopes 1973, Linhares 1981, D'Almeida 1994, Pape 1996, Oliveira-Costa et al. 2001, Moretti et al. 2008, Rosa et al. 2011, Sousa et al. 2011, Ramirez-Mora et al. 2012, Bitar et al. 2013, Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013, Barbosa et al. 2014, Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b, Vairo et al. 2014, Cavallari et al. 2015, Souza and Von Zuben 2016, Valverde-Castro et al. 2017, Faria et al. 2018, Paseto et al. 2019, Toma et al. 2020
<i>Oxysarcodexia augusta</i> Lopes, 1946	X			BL; CV; FF; FE; FI; RO	R, W	omnivorous	Dias et al. 1984a, b; Pape 1996; Oliveira et al. 2002
<i>Oxysarcodexia avuncula</i> (Lopes, 1933)	X	X	X	BM; BV; CV; CC; FE; FF; FI; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Dias et al. 1984a, b; Pape 1996; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Mendes and Linhares 2002; Barros et al. 2008; Barbosa et al. 2009; 2019, Rosa et al. 2011; Ramirez-Mora et al. 2012; Vasconcelos and Araújo 2012; Vasconcelos et al. 2013, 2016; Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013; Alves et al. 2014; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Sousa et al. 2014a, 2015, 2016, 2020; Dufek et al. 2015, 2016, 2020; Ries and Blochstein 2015; Madeira et al. 2016; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Valverde-Castro et al. 2017; Faria et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Toma et al. 2020; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia bicolor</i> Lopes, 1946	X	X	X	BV; CV; FE	R, U, W	omnivorous	Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a,b, 2015; Patitucci et al. 2011, 2015; Madeira et al. 2016; Souza et al. 2020b; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia confusa</i> Lopes, 1946	X	X	X	BV; CV; FE; FF; FI; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Lopes 1973; Ferreira 1979; Dias et al. 1984a, b; Pape 1996; Vairo et al. 2014; Dufek et al. 2015, 2016; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia culmiforceps</i> Dodge, 1966	X	X	X	BV; CV; FE; FI; FF; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Ferreira 1979; Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; Pape 1996, Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Oliveira et al. 2002; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Mariluis et al. 2007; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a, 2015; Patitucci et al. 2011, 2015; Rosa et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Cavallari et al. 2015; Dufek et al. 2015, 2016; Carmo and Vasconcelos 2016; Madeira et al. 2016; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Faria et al. 2018; Souza et al. 2020a; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia diana</i> (Lopes, 1933)	X			BV; CV; CC; FE; FF; FI; RO; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Lopes 1973; Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1989, 1994; D'Almeida and Lima 1994; Pape 1996; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Marchiori et al. 2001; Oliveira et al. 2002; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Barros et al. 2008; Barbosa et al. 2009; Rosa et al. 2011; Ramirez-Mora et al. 2012; Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2014; Sousa et al. 2014a; Cavallari et al. 2015; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Valverde-Castro et al. 2017; Faria et al. 2018; Lopes et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Toma et al. 2020
<i>Oxysarcodexia floricola</i> Lopes, 1975 ^a	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Oxysarcodexia grandis</i> Lopes, 1946	X			CV; FE; FI; PC	R, W	omnivorous	Pape 1996, Ramirez-Mora et al. 2012, Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013, Vairo et al. 2014

Table 4. Continued

Species	Localities			Substrate	Environment	Ecological Category	References
	PR	SC	RS				
<i>Oxysarcodexia injuncta</i> (Walker, 1858)	X	X	X	BV; FE	R, W	omnivorous	Lopes 1973, Pape 1996, current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia marina</i> (Hall, 1938) ^a	X		X	BV; FE; SQ	R, W	omnivorous	Mariluis et al. 2007; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010b; Souza et al. 2020b
<i>Oxysarcodexia morretesi</i> Tibana & Mello, 1983	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Oxysarcodexia notata</i> Soares & Mello-Patiu, 2010	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Souza et al. 2020a
<i>Oxysarcodexia parva</i> Lopes, 1946	X	X	X	BM; BV; CC; CV; FE; FF; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Lopes 1973; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1994; Barbosa et al. 2009; Vairo et al. 2011; Alves et al. 2014; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Faria et al. 2018; Dufek et al. 2020; Toma et al. 2020; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia paulistanensis</i> (Mattos, 1919)	X	X	X	BM; BV; CV; FE; FF; FI; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Lopes 1973; Ferreira 1979; Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; Pape 1996; Moura et al. 1997, 2005; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Moura 2004; Mariluis et al. 2007; Barros et al. 2008; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a, 2015; Patitucci et al. 2011, 2015; Rosa et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011, 2015; Beuter et al. 2012; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Sousa et al. 2014a; Armani et al. 2015, 2017; Cavallari et al. 2015; Dufek et al. 2016; Madeira et al. 2016; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Faria et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Souza et al. 2020a; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia petropolitana</i> Lopes, 1975	X		X	BM; FE	W	omnivorous	Lopes 1975, Pape 1996
<i>Oxysarcodexia riograndensis</i> Lopes, 1946	X	X	X	BM; CP; CV; FE; FF; FI; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Ferreira 1979; Linhares 1981; Pape 1996; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Moretti et al. 2008; Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2010; Rosa et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011, 2015; Vasconcelos et al. 2013; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Dufek et al. 2016, 2020; Madeira et al. 2016; Faria et al. 2018; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia terminalis</i> (Wiedemann, 1830)	X	X	X	BM; BV; CP; CV; FE; FF; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Ferreira 1979; Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; Pape 1996; Marchiori et al. 2001; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2001; Mendes and Linhares 2002; Oliveira et al. 2002; Mariluis et al. 2007; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a, 2015; Patitucci et al. 2011, 2015; Rosa et al. 2011; Beuter et al. 2012; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Dufek et al. 2016, 2020; Madeira et al. 2016; Armani et al. 2017; Lopes et al. 2018; Faria et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Viltte et al. 2020; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia thornax</i> (Walker, 1849)	X	X	X	BM; BV; CC; CP; CV; FE; FF; FI; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1988, 1989, 1994; D'Almeida and Lima 1994; Pape 1996; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Marchiori et al. 2001; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2001, 2014; Mendes and Linhares 2002; Oliveira et al. 2002; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Marchiori 2006, 2014; Mariluis et al. 2007; Barros et al. 2008; Moretti et al. 2008; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a; Barbosa et al. 2009, 2015, 2017, 2019; Patitucci et al. 2011, 2015; Rosa et al. 2011; Sousa et al. 2011, 2014a, b, 2015, 2016, 2020; Vairo et al. 2011, 2014; Beuter et al. 2012; Ramirez-Mora et al. 2012; Vasconcelos and Araujo 2012; Bitar et al. 2013; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Cavallari et al. 2015; Dufek et al. 2015, 2016, 2020; Ries and Blochlein 2015; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Vasconcelos et al. 2016; Ernesto et al. 2018; Faria et al. 2018; Lopes et al. 2018; Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2018; Leite-Junior et al. 2019; Paseto et al. 2019; Castro et al. 2019; Souza et al. 2020a; Toma et al. 2020; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia varia</i> (Walker, 1836)	X	X	X	BM; BV; CV; FI; FE; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Ferreira 1979; Pape 1996; Mendes and Linhares 2002; Mariluis et al. 2007; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a, 2015; Patitucci et al. 2011, 2015; Armani et al. 2015, 2017; Madeira et al. 2016; Dufek et al. 2020; Souza et al. 2020a; current study
<i>Oxysarcodexia vittata</i> (Walker, 1836)	X	X	X	unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996

Table 4. Continued

Species	Localities			Substrate	Environment	Ecological Category	References
	PR	SC	RS				
<i>Oxysarcodexia xanthosoma</i> (Aldrich, 1916)	X		X	BV; FE; FI; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	D'Almeida 1994; Oliveira et al. 2002; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Barbosa et al. 2009; Rosa et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011, 2014; Cavallari et al. 2015; Toma et al. 2020; current study Pape 1996
<i>Oxyvinia xanthophore</i> (Schiner, 1868) ^a	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	
<i>Peckia (Euboettcheria) anguilla</i> (Curran & Walley, 1934)	X			BM; BV; CV; FE; FF; FI; RO; SL; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1994; D'Almeida and Lima 1994; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Barros et al. 2008; Moretti et al. 2008; Rosa et al. 2011; Sousa et al. 2011, 2014a, 2015, 2016, 2020; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014; Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013; Cavallari et al. 2015; Carmo and Vasconcelos 2016; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Valverde-Castro et al. 2017; Camargo et al. 2018; Faria et al. 2018; Dufek et al. 2020; Toma et al. 2020
<i>Peckia (Euboettcheria) australis</i> (Townsend, 1927)	X	X	X	BM; BV; CP; CV; FI; SQ; PC	R, U, W	necrophagous	Pape 1996; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Rosa et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011, 2015; Buenaventura and Pape 2013; Cavallari et al. 2015; Dufek et al. 2015, 2016; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Gaedke and Mougá 2017; current study
<i>Peckia (Euboettcheria) collusor</i> (Prado & Fonseca, 1932)	X	X	X	BM; BV; CC; CR; CV; FE; FF; FI; FR; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1994; D'Almeida and Lima 1994; Pape 1996; D'Almeida and Almeida 1998; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Oliveira et al. 2002; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Barros et al. 2008; Moretti et al. 2008; Barbosa et al. 2009, 2014; Rosa et al. 2011; Sousa et al. 2011, 2014a, 2014b, 2015, 2016, 2020; Vairo et al. 2011, 2014; Beuter et al. 2012; Ramírez-Mora et al. 2012; Bitar et al. 2013; Buenaventura and Pape 2013; Faria et al. 2013, 2018; Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Cavallari et al. 2015; Carmo and Vasconcelos 2016; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Valverde-Castro et al. 2017; Camargo et al. 2018; Ernesto et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Dufek et al. 2020; Toma et al. 2020; current study Pape 1996, Dufek et al. 2015, 2016
<i>Peckia (Euboettcheria) pascoensis</i> (Lopes, 1990)			X	FF; SQ	R, W	unknown	
<i>Peckia (Rattonella) intermutans</i> (Walker, 1861)	X		X	BM; BV; CP; CV; FI; FE; FE; FR; RO; SN; SQ; PC	R, U, W	necrophagous	Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1988, 1989, 1994; D'Almeida and Lima 1994; Pape 1996; Carvalho et al. 2000; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Oliveira et al. 2002; Carvalho et al. 2004; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Loureiro et al. 2005; Barros et al. 2008; Moretti et al. 2008; Barbosa et al. 2009, 2010, 2014, 2015, 2017; Rosa et al. 2009, 2011; Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2010; Sousa et al. 2011, 2014a, b, 2015, 2016, 2020; Vairo et al. 2011, 2014; Ledo et al. 2012; Buenaventura and Pape 2013; Faria et al. 2013, 2018; Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Valverde-Castro et al. 2017; Camargo et al. 2018; Leite-Júnior et al. 2019; Paseto et al. 2019; Toma et al. 2020; Thyssen unpublished data
<i>Peckia (Rattonella) resona</i> (Lopes, 1935)	X	X	X	BC; BV; CC; CV; FE; FE; FI; LC; RC; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	necrophagous	Ferreira 1979; Pape 1996; Moura et al. 1997, 2005; Moura 2004; Souza et al. 2008; Krüger et al. 2010; Patitucci et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011; Buenaventura and Pape 2013; Barbosa et al. 2014; Silva et al. 2014b; Dufek et al. 2015, 2016; current study
<i>Peckia (Peckia) chrysostoma</i> (Wiedemann, 1830)	X	X	X	BM; BV; CR; CP; CV; FE; FF; FI; RO; SL; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Lopes 1969, 1973; Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1988, 1989, 1994; D'Almeida and Lima 1994; D'Almeida and Mello 1996; Pape 1996; D'Almeida and Almeida 1998; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2001, 2014; Oliveira et al. 2002; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Marchiori 2006; Barros et al. 2008; Moretti et al. 2008; Barbosa et al. 2009, 2015, 2017, 2019; Rosa et al. 2011; Sousa et al. 2011, 2014a, b, 2015, 2016, 2020; Beuter et al. 2012; Bitar et al. 2013; Buenaventura and Pape 2013; Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013; Alves et al. 2014; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Vasconcelos et al. 2014, 2016; Cavallari et al. 2015; Carmo and Vasconcelos 2016; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Valverde-Castro et al. 2017; Camargo et al. 2018; Ernesto et al. 2018; Faria et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Toma et al. 2020; current study

Table 4. Continued

Species	Localities			Substrate	Environment	Ecological Category	References
	PR	SC	RS				
<i>Peckia (Peckia) enderleini</i> (Engel, 1931)	X			BV; FF; SQ	R, U, W	omnivorous	Pape 1996; Dufek et al. 2015, 2016, 2020; Toma et al. 2020
<i>Peckia (Sarcodexia) aequata</i> (Wulp, 1895) ^y	X			CV; FI	R, W	unknown	Ramírez-Mora et al. 2012, Buenaventura and Pape 2013
<i>Peckia (Sarcodexia) florencioi</i> (Prado & Fonseca, 1932)	X	X		BM; BV; CV; FE; FF; FI; RO; SQ; PC	R, W	necrophagous	Lopes 1973; Ferreira 1979; Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1994; D'Almeida and Lima 1994; Pape 1996; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Mulieri et al. 2010a; Rosa et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011, 2015; Buenaventura and Pape 2013; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Sousa et al. 2014a; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Camargo et al. 2018; Faria et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Dufek et al. 2020; Toma et al. 2020; current study
<i>Peckia (Sarcodexia) lambens</i> (Wiedemann, 1830)	X	X	X	BM; BV; CC; CP; CR; CV; FE; FF; FI; FR; LP; RC; RO; SL; SQ; PC; WD	R, U, W	omnivorous; invertebrate parasite; vertebrate parasite	Lopes 1969, 1973; Ferreira 1979; Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1989, 1994; Leão et al. 1996; Pape 1996; D'Almeida and Almeida 1998; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2001; Oliveira et al. 2002; Moura 2004; Hagman et al. 2005; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Moura et al. 2005; Marchiori 2006; Barros et al. 2008; Moretti et al. 2008; Barbosa et al. 2009, 2014, 2015, 2017, 2019; Bermúdez et al. 2010; Mulieri et al. 2010b; Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2010; Rosa et al. 2009, 2011; Sousa et al. 2011, 2014a, b, 2015, 2016, 2020; Vairo et al. 2011, 2014; Beuter et al. 2012; Ramírez-Mora et al. 2012; Ledo et al. 2012; Bitar et al. 2013; Buenaventura and Pape 2013; Faria et al. 2013, 2018; Yepes-Gauris et al. 2013; Alves et al. 2014; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2014; Barbosa and Vasconcelos 2015; Cavallari et al. 2015; Paritucci et al. 2015; Vasconcelos et al. 2015, 2016; Xavier et al. 2015; Carmo and Vasconcelos 2016; Dufek et al. 2016, 2020; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Gaedke and Mougá 2017; Toma et al. 2017, 2020; Valverde-Castro et al. 2017; Camargo et al. 2018; Ernesto et al. 2018; Leite-Júnior et al. 2019; Paseto et al. 2019; D'Almeida et al. 2020; Vilté et al. 2020; current study
<i>Peckia (Squamotodes) ingens</i> (Walker, 1849)	X			BM; BV; CC; CP; CV; FE; FI; RO; PC	R, U, W	necrophagous	D'Almeida 1994; Pape 1996; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Barros et al. 2008; Moretti et al. 2008; Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2010; Pastrana and Wolff-Echeverry 2011; Rosa et al. 2011; Sousa et al. 2011, 2014a, b, 2015, 2016, 2020; Buenaventura and Pape 2013 Vasconcelos et al. 2013; Alves et al. 2014; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Vairo et al. 2014; Yepes-Gauris et al. 2013; Valverde-Castro et al. 2017; Camargo et al. 2018; Ernesto et al. 2018; Faria et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Toma et al. 2020
<i>Ravinia advena</i> (Walker, 1853)	X	X	X	BV; CC; CV; FE; FF; FI; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Ferreira 1979; Dias et al. 1984a, b; Pape 1996; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Mendes and Linhares 2002; Guimarães 2004; Mulieri et al. 2010b; Rosa et al. 2011; Alves et al. 2014; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Dufek et al. 2016 2020; Faria et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Souza et al. 2020a; Toma et al. 2020; Vilté et al. 2020; current study
<i>Ravinia almeidai</i> (Lopes, 1946)	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Ravinia aureopyga</i> (Hall, 1928)	X			BV; FE; SQ; PC	R, U; W	omnivorous	Pape 1996; Armani et al. 2015, 2017; Barbosa et al. 2019; Castro et al. 2019; Dufek et al. 2020
<i>Ravinia beforti</i> (Prado & Fonseca, 1932)	X		X	BM; BV; CC; CP; CV; FE; FF; FI; PO; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Ferreira 1979; Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida 1988, 1989; D'Almeida and Lima 1994; D'Almeida and Mello 1996; D'Almeida and Salviano 1996; Pape 1996; Pape 1996; D'Almeida and Almeida 1998; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Marchiori et al. 2001; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2001; Mendes and Linhares 2002; Oliveira et al. 2002; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Barros et al. 2008; Moretti et al. 2008; Barbosa et al. 2009, 2015, 2017, 2019; Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2010; Rosa et al. 2011; Beuter et al. 2012; Bitar et al. 2013; Alves et al. 2014; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2014; Sousa et al. 2014a, 2015, 2016, 2020; Vairo et al. 2014; Cavallari et al. 2015; Ries and Blochtein 2015; Vasconcelos et al. 2015, 2016; Carmo and Vasconcelos 2016; Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2018; Souza and Von Zuben 2016; Ernesto et al. 2018; Faria et al. 2018; Paseto et al. 2019; Dufek et al. 2020; Toma et al. 2020; current study

Table 4. Continued

Species	Localities			Substrate	Environment	Ecological Category	References
	PR	SC	RS				
<i>Ravinia sueta</i> (Wulp, 1896) ^a	X			BV; CV; FE; IP	R, U, W	predator	Hernandez 1992; Pape 1996; Mariluis et al. 2007; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a, 2015; Patitucci et al. 2011, 2015
<i>Sarcophaga (Bercaea) africa</i> (Wiedemann, 1824)	X			BM; BV; CP; CV; FE; FF; FI; RO; PC; WD	R, U, W	necrophagous; vertebrate parasite	Ferreira 1979; Linhares 1981; Dias et al. 1984a, b; D'Almeida and Lima 1994; Pape 1996; Barbosa et al. 2009; Mulieri et al. 2010b, 2015; Vairo et al. 2011, 2015; Cherix et al. 2012; Durtto et al. 2013; Abdel-Hafeez et al. 2015; Patitucci et al. 2015; Armani et al. 2017; Moemenbellah-Fard et al. 2018; Vilte et al. 2020; current study
<i>Sarcophaga (Liopygia) argyrostoma</i> (Robineau-Desvoidy, 1830)	X			BV; CP; FE; PC; WD	R, U, W	necrophagous; vertebrate parasite	Burgess and Spragg 1992; Pape 1996; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a; Cherix et al. 2012; Graffi et al. 2013; Armani et al. 2015, 2017; Patitucci et al. 2015; Severini et al. 2015; Giangaspero et al. 2017; Pezzi et al. 2017; Leite-Júnior et al. 2019; Ayalon et al. 2020
<i>Sarcophaga (Liopygia) crassipalpis</i> Macquart, 1839 ^a	X			BV; CP; CV; SC; FE; RC; PC; WD	R, U, W	necrophagous; vertebrate parasite	Ali-Khan and Ali-Khan 1974; Mariluis et al. 2007; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a, 2015; Souza et al. 2008; Krüger et al. 2010; Silva et al. 2010, 2014b; Bonacci et al. 2014; Hiraoka et al. 2015; Farrel et al. 2015; Patitucci et al. 2015; Armani et al. 2017; Toukairim et al. 2017
<i>Sarcophaga (Neobellieria) polistenis</i> (Hall, 1933)	X	X		BV; CV; PC	R, U, W	invertebrate parasite	Pape 1996; Giroux and Wheeler 2009; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Sousa et al. 2015, 2016, 2020; Paseto et al. 2019; Vilte et al. 2020
<i>Titanogrypa (Sarconeuva) fimbriata</i> (Aldrich, 1916)	X	X		FI; RO; SQ; SN; PC	R, U, W	detritivore	Lopes 1940 1973; Pape 1996, Leandro and D'Almeida 2005, Rosa et al. 2011, Vairo et al. 2011, Beuter et al. 2012, Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b, Cavallari et al. 2015, Barbosa et al. 2019, Paseto et al. 2019, Dufek et al. 2020
<i>Tricharaea (Sarcophagula) canuta</i> (Wulp, 1896)	X			BV; CV; FE; FI	R, U, W	omnivorous	Ferreira 1979; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013; Barbosa et al. 2015, 2017, 2019; Sousa et al. 2015, 2016, 2020; current study
<i>Tricharaea (Sarcophagula) occidua</i> (Fabricius, 1794)	X			BV; CV; FE; FE; FI; RO; SQ; PC	R, U, W	omnivorous	Ferreira 1979; D'Almeida 1988, 1989; D'Almeida and Almeida 1998; Marchiori et al. 2001; Mendes and Linhares 2002; Leandro and D'Almeida 2005; Mariluis et al. 2007; Barros et al. 2008; Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010a, 2015; Barbosa et al. 2009, 2014, 2015, 2017, 2019; Patitucci et al. 2011, 2015; Rosa et al. 2011; Sousa et al. 2011, 2015, 2016, 2020; Beuter et al. 2012; Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013; Alves et al. 2014; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Marchiori 2014; Oliveira-Costa et al. 2014; Armani et al. 2015; Carmo and Vasconcelos 2016; Vasconcelos et al. 2016; Valverde-Castro et al. 2017; de Faria et al. 2018; Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2018; Castro et al. 2019; Dufek et al. 2020; current study
<i>Tripanurga albicans</i> (Wiedemann, 1830)	X			unknown	unknown	unknown	Pape 1996
<i>Udamopyga malacophila</i> Lopes, 1940		X		SL	unknown	detritivore	Lopes 1940, Pape 1996
<i>Udamopyga peralta</i> (Lopes, 1938)	X			BM; BV; CV; FE; RO; SL; PC	W	detritivore	Lopes 1940, 1969, 1973; Mulieri et al. 2010a; Vairo et al. 2011; Beuter et al. 2012; Sousa et al. 2014a; Patitucci et al. 2015; Santos and Mello-Patiu 2018; Toma et al. 2020
<i>Udamopyga setigena</i> (Enderlein, 1928)	X	X		BV; RO; SL	W	detritivore	Lopes 1940, Pape 1996, Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2018, Toma et al. 2020

^aUnique records in Brazil.^bExclusive records in Neotropical region.

By locality, where: PR= Paraná; SC= Santa Catarina; and RS= Rio Grande do Sul states. By substrates, where:

BC = bird carcass; BM = bovine meat; BV = bovine viscera; CC = canid carcass (domestic dog or crab-eating fox); CL = Coleoptera parasitoidism; CP = corpse; CR = decaying crustaceans (shrimp or crab); CV = chicken viscera; FE = feces (of human or dog); FF = fermented fruits; FI = fish carcass; FR = frog carcass; IP = insect predator; KW = lizard carcass; LC = lizard carcass; LP = Lepidoptera parasitoidism; ON = decaying onion; PC = pig carcass (*Sus scrofa*); PO = pork meat; RC = rabbit carcass (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*); RO = rodent carcass (*Rattus norvegicus* or *Mus musculus*); SC = skunk carcass (*Didelphis albiventris*); SL = decaying snail; SN = snake carcass; SQ = decaying squid; TC = turtle carcass; WD = wounds (i.e., myiasis in anurans, birds and mammals – cats or humans).
By environment, where: R = rural; U = urban; and W = wild.

myiasis-causing flies were selected based on previously recorded behavior, as shown in Table 4.

Discussion

Abundance and Richness of Sarcophaginae From RS

The use of decomposing baits, such as animal tissues or feces, to attract and collect Sarcophaginae of forensic importance is a good sampling strategy because necrophagous and omnivorous fly species look for these types of resources to address dietary or progeny needs – for ovarian development and larval growth, respectively (Ferrari 1987, Mendes and Linhares 1993) – or to select a mating site (Pape and Dahlem 2010). Moreover, the use of small decomposing carcasses has been shown to be efficient for collecting and documenting representative dipterofauna of forensic importance (Kuusela and Hanski 1982, Hewadikaram and Goff 1991). However, small carcass sizes tend to reduce the abundance of collected species (Hewadikaram and Goff 1991). The time sampling, i.e., sampling during a long time ranging, seems to exert more influence on species abundance, as observed in the comparison of Studies 1–3.

For qualitative analysis, hand nets are considerably easier to use than other methods; however, this method requires multiple interrupted sampling sessions and can cause disruption in arriving flies that do not readily return to the substrate (Cruise et al. 2018). This may explain the lower species abundance in Study 3. The highest species abundance and richness observed in Study 1 probably resulted from longer and more varied (urban, rural, and wild) sampling compared to the other two studies. As observed in Study 2, using experimental models such as pig carcasses for collecting flies of forensic importance generally results in one or two predominant species, comprising about two-thirds of the total abundance (Kuusela and Hanski 1982), with the other species presenting lower abundances.

Oxysarcodexia culmiforceps was the only species that was most abundant in both the warm and cold seasons in the three studies. Previous studies in Southern Brazil have shown that this species is quite abundant throughout the year, and it can be found in all environments, although it presents a preference for rural and wild environments (Ferreira 1979, Souza et al. 2020a). This pattern differs from that found in other Brazilian regions and Neotropical countries, where this species is generally of low abundance (Linhares 1981, Dias et al. 1984a, Mariluis et al. 2007, Mulieri et al. 2008) or rare (Oliveira et al. 2002, Leandro and D’Almeida 2005, Rosa et al. 2011, Souza and Von Zuben 2016, de Faria et al. 2018). *Oxysarcodexia culmiforceps* is endemic to the southern region of South America and is distributed only in the southern half of Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Argentina (Souza et al. 2020b), probably due to physiological adaptation to low temperatures.

Oxysarcodexia paulistanensis and *O. thornax* also showed high abundance in at least two of the three studies. Like *O. culmiforceps*, *O. paulistanensis* is distributed in the southern half of South America and has a high abundance in Southern Brazil (Ferreira 1979, Souza et al. 2020a) and Argentina (Mulieri et al. 2008, 2010b, 2015). *Oxysarcodexia thornax* has a wider distribution, from Guyana to Argentina, and is frequently found in greater abundance in sites with higher average temperatures (Linhares 1981, Oliveira et al. 2002, Rosa et al. 2011, Sousa et al. 2011, Marchiori 2014, Souza and Von Zuben 2016, de Faria et al. 2018, Paseto et al. 2019). Both species are synanthropic, i.e., well adapted to live in environments modified by humans (Souza et al. 2020a).

Studies in Brazil using pig carcasses to survey the necrophagous fauna have reported that the bloated and dry decomposition stages

present the greatest species richness and abundance of flesh flies (Barros et al. 2008, Cavallari et al. 2015, Ries et al. 2015, Paseto et al. 2019). In Study 3, the greatest abundance during the warm season was registered in the bloated stage as well as observed by Barros et al. (2008). Conversely, the greatest abundance was registered in the decay stage in the cold season, as in Cavallari et al. (2015) and Ries et al. (2015). It is worth noting that a considerable number of studies fail to report the exact association between flesh flies and the decomposition stages of corpses under experimental conditions, hampering PMI estimates that consider entomological succession. It would be important for researchers to be more attentive in detailing their experimental designs to ensure more standardized access to the results obtained.

Forensic Relevance of Sarcophaginae from Southern Brazil

Considering the four ecological categories (necrophagous, predators/parasites, omnivorous, and incidental) that can occur on a carrion/corps, Sarcophaginae species can be important for forensic entomology (Smith 1986). Necrophagous species, generally blowflies and flesh flies, are the most important for estimating the PMI because of their developmental time (Catts and Goff 1992). For this reason, the necrophagous species recorded in Southern Brazil are considered to have high forensic relevance. Only six of the ten necrophagous species had already been collected from corpses: *M. balli* in Brazil (Vairo et al. 2017); *Peckia (Euboettcheria) australis* (Townsend) in Brazil (Gaedke and Mougá 2017); *Peckia (Patonella) intermutans* (Walker) in Brazil (larvae recorded in Thyssen et al. (2018), although the species was identified after that paper was published, Thyssen pers. comm.); *Sarcophaga (Bercaea) africa* (Wiedemann) in Switzerland (Cherix et al. 2012) and Iran (Moemenbellah-Fard et al. 2018); *Sarcophaga (Liopygia) argyrostoma* (Robineau-Desvoidy) in Switzerland (Cherix et al. 2012); and *Sarcophaga (Liopygia) crassipalpis* Macquart in Italy (Bonacci et al. 2014), Australia (Farrell et al. 2015), and Japan (Toukairin et al. 2017). The other four necrophagous species (*Helicobia aurescens* (Townsend), *Peckia (Patonella) resona* (Lopes), *Peckia (Sarcodexia) florencioi* (Prado e Fonseca), and *Peckia (Squamotodes) ingens* (Walker)) were already recorded as reared from decomposing carcasses of other mammals (Lopes 1973; Moura et al. 1997, 2005; Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Moura 2004; Moretti et al. 2008; Souza et al. 2008; Rosa et al. 2009; Krüger et al. 2010; Faria et al. 2013; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b), so they have a huge potential for PMI estimation, as they are proven to colonize corpses. Furthermore, some of these necrophagous species were recorded only from corpses outside of Brazil (Cherix et al. 2012, Bonacci et al. 2014, Farrell et al. 2015, Toukairin et al. 2017, Moemenbellah-Fard et al. 2018), but it is likely that these species are capable of colonizing corpses in Brazil as well.

Microcerella halli and *P. (E.) australis* can be considered the most important species for PMI estimation in Southeastern Brazil, where they have already been collected and bred from corpses (Gaedke and Mougá 2017, Vairo et al. 2017). *Microcerella halli* is restricted to the Neotropics (Pape 1996), appears to have acclimatized to temperatures at 6–24°C (Ferreira 1979, Moretti et al. 2008, Silva et al. 2014), and has been associated with the final stages (decay and dry) of carcass decomposition (Ries and Blochtein 2015). *Peckia (E.) australis* is also a Neotropical species (Buenaventura and Pape 2013) that has been collected in periods with average temperatures of approximately 25°C (Rosa et al. 2011) and is restricted to forested areas (Souza and Von Zuben 2016).

The great richness of *Oxysarcodexia* and *Peckia* in the Neotropical region (Buenaventura and Pape 2013, Souza et al.

2020b) can be observed in the collections of the present study as well as in most studies conducted in Brazil (e.g., Dias et al. 1984a, Barros et al. 2008, Barbosa et al. 2015, Paseto et al. 2019) and other Neotropical countries (e.g., Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013, Valverde-Castro et al. 2017, Dufek et al. 2020). Furthermore, these genera are highly attracted by decomposing animal matter (e.g., Dias et al. 1984b, Mariluis et al. 2007, Yepes-Gaurisas et al. 2013, Barbosa et al. 2015), which explains the great abundance recorded in our collections.

Although *Lepidodexia* has been frequently reported, there is little information about the biology and behavior of its species (Mulieri et al. 2018). Some species have been reported as parasites of anurans (e.g., Mello-Patiu and Luna-Dias 2010, Mulieri et al. 2018, D’Bastiani et al. 2020), lizards (Dodge 1955), snails (e.g., Neck and Lopes 1973, Lopes 1983), or Oligochaeta (Lopes 1942), occasionally found in nature. Among the species recorded in Southern Brazil, information on behavior was found only for *Lepidodexia* (*Notochaeta*) *fumipennis* (Lopes), which is known to cause myiasis in the anuran *Bokermannohyla circumdata* (Cope) (D’Bastiani et al. 2020).

Dexosarcophaga carvalhoi has been recorded in the Southeast (Rosa et al. 2011, Beuter et al. 2012, Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b, de Faria et al. 2018, Paseto et al. 2019), Northeast (Alves et al. 2014; Barbosa et al. 2015, 2017; Sousa et al. 2015, 2020), and Midwest of Brazil (Barros et al. 2008) and is attracted by decaying animal bait and mammal carcasses. Although the literature suggests that *D. carvalhoi* is typical of the Cerrado (savanna-like) biome (Barros et al. 2008), the first record of this species in the South of Brazil is herein presented. This indicates a possible lack of sampling in other regions of the country, which should be further investigated.

Although *R. belforti* was bred in the present study, this species was not considered to have high forensic importance. There are no other records of this species breeding on decomposing carcasses or corpses. Furthermore, *R. belforti* has been reported to prefer laying larvae on feces (D’Almeida and Salviano 1996), and this genus is recognized mostly as coprophage (Pape 1996). Thus, more studies are necessary to better understand this necrophagy record and the species’ importance in PMI estimation. Nevertheless, coprophagous species, such as *R. belforti*, can be of forensic importance in cases of abuse or neglect as shown by Benecke (2010).

The forensic importance of carrion-visiting species can vary, and even for the frequent ones, this value can be low or nonexistent; thus, a thorough analysis of a species’ biological characteristics is mandatory before confirming its application for forensic purposes (Matuszewski et al. 2010). However, Grzywacz et al. (2017) have pointed out the possible occurrence of these species of moderate or low forensic importance is relevant for researchers, which justifies listing these species.

Regarding the omnivorous species, Barros et al. (2008) reported that the carrion-visiting Sarcophaginae were mostly collected in the bloated stage on pig carcasses, while Beuter et al. (2012) pointed out that carrion-breeding sarcophagine species were collected in the decay stage of rat (*R. norvegicus*) carcasses; however, neither of these studies presented a species-specific correlation with the decomposition stage. Unfortunately, the lack of information on the correlation between Sarcophaginae species and the decomposition stage or the presentation of this information for only some of the collected species is common in many studies regarding forensic entomology using experimental models (mainly pigs and rats) (e.g., Carvalho and Linhares 2001; Moura 2004; Moura et al. 2005; Barros et al. 2008; Moretti et al. 2008; Rosa et al. 2011; Vairo et al. 2011; Beuter et al. 2012; Mello-Patiu et al. 2014b; Armani et al. 2015, 2017; de Faria et al. 2018; Toma et al. 2020).

Information on omnivorous species versus the decomposition stage is valuable for providing data for entomological analyses as PMI estimates. In the bloated and decay decomposition stages, Oliveira and Vasconcelos (2018) reported the presence of *Argoravinia* (*Argoravinia*) *rufiventris* (Wiedemann). *Tricharaea* (*Sarcophagula*) *occidua* (Fabricius) was found only in the bloated stage in Study 3, but Oliveira and Vasconcelos (2018) collected this species in the bloated and decay stages, Oliveira-Costa et al. (2014) and Castro et al. (2019) in the fresh, bloated, and decay stages, Paseto et al. (2019) in the bloated, decay, and dry stages, and Vasconcelos et al. (2016) in all decomposition stages. These findings highlight *T. (S.) occidua*’s potential for collection during the entire decomposition process. Ries and Blochtein (2015) reported *Blaesoxipha* (*Acanthodthea*) *lanei* (Lopes) in the dry stage, while Paseto et al. (2019) collected this species also in the bloated and decay stages. *Dexosarcophaga carvalhoi*, *Oxysarcodexia terminalis* (Wiedemann), *Peckia* (*Euboettcheria*) *anguilla* (Curran) and *R. advena* have been reported in the bloated, decay, and dry stages; *Peckia* (*Peckia*) *chrysostoma* (Wiedemann) in the decay and dry stages; and *Lipoptilocnema crispula* (Lopes) only in the decay stage (Paseto et al. 2019). *Peckia* (*S.*) *lambens* was reported by Leite-Júnior et al. (2019) in all decomposition stages, except the dry stage, although the presence in all decomposition stages was already recorded (Vasconcelos et al. 2016, Paseto et al. 2019). *Peckia* (*Euboettcheria*) *collusor* (Prado & Fonseca) was reported in the bloated and decay stages by Cavallari et al. (2015) and at all stages by Paseto et al. (2019). *Ravinia aureopyga* (Hall) was collected during the bloated and decay stages (Castro et al. 2019). *Ravinia belforti* was reported to be present in the bloated, decay, and dry stages (Oliveira-Costa et al. 2014, Cavallari et al. 2015, Ries and Blochtein 2015, Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2018, Paseto et al. 2019), as in the present study.

Several *Oxysarcodexia* species were reported in all stages of decomposition, as mentioned by de Faria et al. (2018) for 17 collected species, although they did not name all of them. Cavallari et al. (2015) collected *Oxysarcodexia amorosa* (Schiner) and *Oxysarcodexia diana* (Lopes) in all stages of decomposition, except the dry stage; this result was also found by Leite-Júnior et al. (2019) for *O. amorosa*, while Oliveira-Costa et al. (2014) collected *O. diana* in the decay and dry stages, and Lopes et al. (2018) collected *O. amorosa* and *O. diana* in the bloated, decay, and dry stages, as well as Paseto et al. (2019) for *O. diana*; Paseto et al. (2019) collected *Oxysarcodexia angrensis* (Lopes) and *Oxysarcodexia avuncula* (Lopes) in all stages of decomposition, and *O. admixta* in the bloated, decay, and dry stages, whereas Ries and Blochtein (2015) collected *O. avuncula* only in the dry stage. The same was found for *O. admixta* in Study 3, but *O. avuncula* was recorded in the bloated, decay, and dry stages. *Oxysarcodexia paulistanensis* was collected in the bloated and decay stages (Moura et al. 1997) and in the fresh, bloated, and decay stages by Cavallari et al. (2015), while Paseto et al. (2019) and the present study collected this species in the bloated, decay, and dry stages, also corroborating the possibility of this *Oxysarcodexia* species to be collected in all decomposition stages. A similar situation occurs with *O. thornax*, which was collected in the bloated stage of decomposition of a rat carcass (Oliveira and Vasconcelos 2018), contrasting with the collection of this species in the bloated and decay stages (Ries and Blochtein 2015), the bloated, decay and dry stages (Cavallari et al. 2015, Paseto et al. 2019, Lopes et al. 2018, present study), the decay and dry stages (Oliveira-Costa et al. 2014) and in all decomposition stages (Vasconcelos et al. 2016, de Faria et al. 2018, Castro et al. 2019, Leite-Júnior et al. 2019).

With regard to myiasis, *M. halli*, *P. (P.) chrysostoma*, *P. (S.) lambens*, and *S. (L.) argyrostoma* were the only species in this study with records of parasitism in humans, cattle, cats, porcupines, and/or

snakes (Almeida 1933, Mazza and Basso 1939, Calero 1949, Leão et al. 1996, Severini et al. 2015, Pezzi et al. 2017). Other cases of myiasis by flesh flies in the Neotropical region have been reported; however, these were nonspecific identifications, such as *Sarcophaga* spp. in Argentina (Mazza et al. 1930, Lacey and George 1981) or simply ‘Sarcophagidae’ in Brazil (Bozzo et al. 1992), which may hinder the establishment of prophylactic measures for the hosts or the control of the fly population to reduce or eradicate myiasis-causing agents. It is noteworthy that these myiasis-causing flies can only produce facultative myiasis; that is, parasitism only occurs when there is a previous injury of any etiology in the hosts. Thus, health professionals should be alert to patients who undergo surgical interventions such as tracheostomy (e.g., Severini et al. 2015) or even dental treatments (e.g., Bozzo et al. 1992), as these situations make humans more vulnerable to opportunistic parasitism. It is important to consider targeting myiasis in investigations (e.g., Lord and Rodrigues 1989, Goff et al. 1991), as larvae of myiasis-causing flies can be used to reveal cases of neglect or mistreatment.

The fragmented existing information, the challenges of collecting at nonsampled localities, and the difficulties associated with the identification of flesh fly specimens make it difficult to gather knowledge about this family. The present study addressed these aspects by gathering information on Sarcophagidae distributed in Southern Brazil. In this way, it is possible to visualize the current knowledge on the species found in this region, and to design future research to fill the gaps.

Conclusions

The results obtained in the present study expand our knowledge on the Sarcophaginae fauna in Southern Brazil and show the high diversity of flesh flies in this biogeoclimatic zone. The use of different sampling methods, periods of collection, and collection in different areas are important strategies to increase this knowledge. However, these records can be further expanded by targeting unsampled areas in PR and SC and in the northern part of RS in future surveys.

Microcerella halli and *P. (E.) australis* are considered the most important species for PMI estimation in Southeastern Brazil. *Peckia (P.) intermutans*, *S. (B.) africa*, *S. (L.) argyrostoma*, *S. (L.) crassipalpis*, *H. aurescens*, *P. (P.) resona*, *P. (S.) florencioi* and *P. (S.) ingens* are necrophagous species with the potential to colonize corpses and provide evidence in criminal investigations. Additionally, biological information about a species enables its categorization for aiding PMI estimation or revealing cases of neglect or mistreatment. Thus, it is important to stress that studies in the forensic field with corpses or carcasses should also provide information on omnivorous species, besides necrophagous species, regarding the decomposition stage, to improve the databases that can be used when considering entomological evidence.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary data are available at *Journal of Medical Entomology* online.

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