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**The effectiveness of flower strips and hedgerows on pest control,
pollination services and crop yield: a quantitative synthesis**

Running title: Floral plantings for ecological intensification

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89 **ABSTRACT**

90 Floral plantings are promoted to foster ecological intensification of agriculture
91 through provisioning of ecosystem services. However, a comprehensive assessment of
92 the effectiveness of different floral plantings, their characteristics and consequences
93 for crop yield is lacking. Here we quantified the impacts of flower strips and
94 hedgerows on pest control (18 studies) and pollination services (17 studies) in
95 adjacent crops in North America, Europe and New Zealand. Flower strips, but not
96 hedgerows, enhanced pest control services in adjacent fields by 16% on average.
97 However, effects on crop pollination and yield were more variable. Our synthesis
98 identifies several important drivers of variability in effectiveness of plantings:
99 pollination services declined exponentially with distance from plantings, and
100 perennial and older flower strips with higher flowering plant diversity enhanced
101 pollination more effectively. These findings provide promising pathways to optimize
102 floral plantings to more effectively contribute to ecosystem service delivery and
103 ecological intensification of agriculture in the future.

104

105 **KEYWORDS**

106 Agroecology, agri-environment schemes, bee pollinators, conservation biological
107 control, ecological intensification, farmland biodiversity, floral enhancements, natural
108 pest regulation, pollination reservoirs, sustainable agriculture, wildflower strips

109 **INTRODUCTION**

110 Meeting increasing demands for agricultural products while minimizing negative
111 impacts on biodiversity and ecosystem health is among the greatest global challenges
112 (Godfray *et al.* 2010). Intensive agricultural production and the simplification of
113 agroecosystems threaten farmland biodiversity and associated ecosystem services
114 worldwide (Foley *et al.* 2005; IPBES 2016, 2018). Concerns over loss of biodiversity
115 and associated impairment of ecosystem services have helped strengthen the
116 implementation of agri-environmental schemes and other measures to mitigate such
117 negative consequences (IPBES 2016). Beyond restoration of farmland biodiversity in
118 general, an implicit or explicit goal of such measures is to foster sustainable
119 agricultural production through ecological intensification by harnessing biodiversity-
120 based ecosystem services, such as crop pollination and natural pest control services
121 (Bommarco *et al.* 2013; Pywell *et al.* 2015; Kovács-Hostyánszki *et al.* 2017). In
122 intensively managed agroecosystems, the establishment of strips or other areas of
123 flowering herbaceous plants, hereafter “flower strips”, and hedgerows are among the
124 most commonly applied measures to achieve these goals (Scheper *et al.* 2015;
125 Tschumi *et al.* 2015; Williams *et al.* 2015; Dainese *et al.* 2017; Kremen *et al.* 2019).
126 For example, the establishment of flower strips or hedgerows is supported by the
127 Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) in the European Union and by the Farm Bill
128 (e.g., programs of the Natural Resources Conservation Service of the United States
129 Department of Agriculture) in the United States (IPBES 2016; Kovács-Hostyánszki *et*
130 *al.* 2017; Venturini *et al.* 2017a). Typically established along field edges, flower strips
131 and hedgerows offer resources for pollinators and natural enemies of crop pests such
132 as shelter, overwintering opportunities and food resources (Tschumi *et al.* 2015;
133 Holland *et al.* 2016; Kremen *et al.* 2019) and can locally increase their abundance and

134 diversity (Haaland *et al.* 2011; Scheper *et al.* 2013; M’Gonigle *et al.* 2015; Williams
135 *et al.* 2015; Tschumi *et al.* 2016; Sutter *et al.* 2017, 2018; Kremen *et al.* 2019). It is
136 less well understood whether enhanced species diversity translates to *ex situ*
137 provisioning of pollination, pest control and increased yield. The ‘exporter’
138 hypothesis (Morandin & Kremen 2013; Kremen *et al.* 2019) predicts enhanced
139 delivery of ecosystem services through functional spillover from floral plantings
140 (*sensu* Blitzer *et al.* 2012; Albrecht *et al.* 2007; Morandin & Kremen 2013; Pywell *et*
141 *al.* 2015; Tschumi *et al.* 2015, 2016; Sutter *et al.* 2017). However, according the
142 ‘concentrator’ hypothesis (Kremen *et al.* 2019; also referred to as the ‘aggregation’
143 hypothesis (Venturini *et al.* 2017a) or the ‘Circe principle’ (Lander *et al.* 2011)),
144 resource-rich floral plantings temporarily compete with flowering crops and
145 concentrate pollinators and natural enemies from the surrounding agriculture into the
146 floral plantings, potentially resulting in (transiently) reduced crop pollination and pest
147 control services (Nicholson *et al.* 2019). This may explain why plantings fail to
148 enhance crop pollination or pest control services, even if they successfully promote
149 local pollinator or natural enemy abundance in restored habitats (e.g., Phillips &
150 Gardiner 2015; Tschardtke *et al.* 2016; Karp *et al.* 2018).

151 The lack of clarity about effects of flower plantings on ecosystem service
152 provisioning and crop yield scattered in numerous case studies is a barrier to farmer
153 adoption of such measures (Garbach & Long 2017; Kleijn *et al.* 2019). A quantitative
154 synthesis of such demonstrated broad evidence may assist farmers in making the
155 decision to adopt these measures (Garbach & Long 2017; Kleijn *et al.* 2019).
156 Moreover, it is important to gain a general understanding of whether such effects are
157 restricted to the area of the crop near to the adjacent planting (Ganser *et al.* 2019) or
158 be detectable over larger distances (Tschumi *et al.* 2015). Such knowledge should be

159 considered when designing schemes with optimal spatial arrangement of plantings
160 across agricultural landscapes (Ricketts *et al.* 2008; Garibaldi *et al.* 2011), and to
161 facilitate cost-benefit assessments (Blaauw & Isaacs 2014; Morandin *et al.* 2016
162 Dainese *et al.* 2017; Haan *et al.* 2020; Williams *et al.* 2019).

163 To improve the effectiveness of flower strip and hedgerow plantings in
164 promoting crop pollination, natural pest control, and potentially crop production, we
165 need to better understand what determines their failure or success. We hypothesize
166 that at least three factors influence the effectiveness of floral plantings in enhancing
167 crop pollination and pest control services: plant diversity, time since establishment
168 and landscape context. First, theory predicts that higher plant species richness, and
169 associated trait diversity, promotes diverse pollinator and natural enemy communities
170 due to positive selection and complementarity effects across space and time (e.g.,
171 Campbell *et al.* 2012; Scheper *et al.* 2013; Sutter *et al.* 2017; M’Gonigle *et al.* 2017).
172 However, the role of plant diversity driving effects of floral plantings on pollination
173 and natural pest control services benefits to nearby crops is poorly understood.
174 Second, time since the establishment of floral plantings is likely to play a key role for
175 the local delivery of crop pollination and pest control services (Thies & Tschardtke
176 1999). This is of particular relevance for sown flower strips that may range from
177 short-lived annual plantings to longer-lived perennial plantings. Perennial plantings
178 should offer better overwintering and nesting opportunities for pollinators and natural
179 enemies (Ganser *et al.* 2019; Kremen *et al.* 2019) and may foster local population
180 growth over time (e.g., Blaauw & Isaacs 2014; Venturini *et al.* 2017b). Third, the
181 effectiveness of floral plantings could depend on the agricultural landscape context.
182 Highly simplified landscapes are likely depleted from source populations of
183 pollinators and natural enemies. In complex landscapes, however, the ecological

184 contrast introduced by floral plantings may not be great enough to result in strong
185 effects (Scheper *et al.* 2013). Strongest effects are therefore expected at intermediate
186 landscape complexity levels (intermediate landscape complexity hypothesis;
187 Tscharntke *et al.* 2005; Kleijn *et al.* 2011). While support for this hypothesis has been
188 found with respect to biodiversity restoration (e.g., Bártary *et al.* 2011; Scheper *et al.*
189 2013, 2015; but see e.g. Hoffmann *et al.* 2020), its validity for ecological
190 intensification and the local delivery of crop pollination and pest control services has
191 only just begun to be explored (Jonsson *et al.* 2015; Grab *et al.* 2018; Rundlöf *et al.*
192 2018).

193 Here we use data from 35 studies including 868 service-site-year combinations
194 across 529 sites in North American, European and New Zealand agroecosystems to
195 quantitatively assess the effectiveness of two of the most commonly implemented
196 ecological intensification measures, flower strips and hedgerows, in promoting crop
197 pollination, pest control services and crop production. Moreover, we aim to better
198 understand the key factors driving failure or success of these measures to suggest
199 improvement of their design and implementation. Specifically, we address: (1) the
200 extent to which flower strips and hedgerows enhance pollination and pest control
201 services in adjacent crops; (2) how service provisioning changes with distance from
202 floral plantings; (3) the role of plant diversity and time since establishment of floral
203 plantings in promoting pollination and pest control services; (4) whether
204 simplification of the surrounding landscape modifies the responses; and (5) whether
205 floral plantings enhance crop yield in adjacent fields.

206 Our synthesis reveals general positive effects of flower strips but not
207 hedgerows on pest control services in adjacent crop fields. Effects on crop pollination,
208 however, depended on flowering plant diversity and age since establishment, with

209 more species-rich and older plantings being more effective. However, no consistent
210 impacts of flower strips on crop yield could be detected, highlighting the need for
211 further optimizations of plantings as measures for ecological intensification.

212

213 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

214 *Data collection*

215 To identify datasets suitable to address our research questions, we performed a search
216 in the ISI Web of Science and SCOPUS (using the search string provided in Appendix
217 S1; records published until 31.12.2017 were considered). To minimise potential
218 publication bias (i.e., the file drawer problem, Rosenthal 1979) and to maximise the
219 number of relevant datasets we also searched for unpublished data by contacting
220 potential data holders through researcher networks. Datasets had to meet the
221 following requirements to be included in the analysis: (i) pollination and/or pest
222 control services in crops were measured in both crop fields adjacent to floral plantings
223 and control fields without planting; (ii) the replication at the field level was \geq six
224 fields per study (three fields with plantings and three without; i.e., disqualifying
225 small-scaled plot treatment comparisons within fields). We contacted data holders
226 fulfilling these requirements and requested primary data on plant species richness of
227 plantings, time since establishment, landscape context and crop yield (see below) in
228 addition to measured pollination and pest control services. Overall, we analysed data
229 from 35 studies. We here define a study as a dataset collected by the same group of
230 researchers for a particular crop species and ecosystem service (pest control or
231 pollination) in a particular region during one or several sampling years. We collected
232 18 pest control service and 17 pollination service studies, representing a total of 868
233 service-site-year combinations across 529 sites (fields with or without adjacent floral

234 planting; see Supporting Fig. S1 for a map showing the distribution of sites and
235 Supporting Table S1 for detailed information about studies). In eight of these studies
236 (122 sites) both crop pollination and pest control services were measured (Table S1).

237

238 *Pollination services, pest control services and crop yield*

239 As different studies used different methods and measures to quantify pollination
240 services, pest control services and crop yield, we standardised data prior to statistical
241 analysis using *z*-scores (e.g., Garibaldi *et al.* 2013; Dainese *et al.* 2019). The use of *z*-
242 scores has clear advantages compared with other transformations or standardization
243 approaches (such as the division by the absolute value of the maximum observed level
244 of the measured response) because *i*) average *z*-scores follow a normal distribution,
245 and *ii*) the variability present in the raw data is not constrained as in other indices that
246 are bound between 0 and 1 (Garibaldi *et al.* 2013). Pollination services were measured
247 as seed set (number of seeds per fruit), fruit set (proportion of flowers setting fruit),
248 pollen deposition rate (number of pollen grains deposited on stigmas within a certain
249 time period) and, in one study, flower visitation rate (number of visits per flower
250 within a certain time period). If available, differences in pollination service measures
251 of open-pollinated flowers and flowers from which pollinators were excluded were
252 analysed. Measures of pest control services were quantified as pest parasitism
253 (proportion of parasitized pests), pest predation (proportion of predated pests),
254 population growth (see below) or crop damage by pests or pest densities (see
255 Supporting Table S2 for an overview of pollination and pest control service measures
256 across studies). Whenever possible, the pest control index based on population growth
257 proposed by Gardiner *et al.* (2009) was calculated and analysed (Supporting Table
258 S2). Note that standardized values of pest density and crop damage were multiplied

259 by -1 because lower values of these measures reflect an increased pest control service
260 (e.g., Karp *et al.* 2018). Crop yield was only considered for the analysis if a direct
261 measure of final crop yield was available. Too few studies assessed crop quality
262 which was therefore not considered further. Yield was measured as crop mass or
263 number of fruits produced per unit area. Due to a lack of studies measuring crop yield
264 in fields with and without adjacent hedgerows, the analysis of crop yield focused on
265 effects of flower strips. Crop yield measures were available from a total of 12 flower
266 strip studies and 194 fields (see Supporting Tables S1 and S2 for a detailed
267 description of study systems, crop yield measures and methods used across studies).

268

269 *Descriptors of floral plantings and landscape context*

270 Flower strips are here defined as strips or other areas of planted wild native and/or
271 non-native flowering herbaceous plants. Hedgerows are defined as areas of linear
272 shape planted with native and/or non-native at least partly flowering woody plants and
273 typically also herbaceous flowering plants. For hedgerows, information about the
274 exact time since establishment and number of plant species was not available for most
275 studies. The analyses of these drivers (question 3) therefore focus on flower strip
276 effects on pollination and pest control services. Information on plant species richness
277 was available in 12 out of 18 pest control studies and 10 out of 17 pollination studies.
278 Whenever available, the species richness of flowering plants was used. Otherwise, for
279 some flower strip studies, the number of sown, potentially flowering plant species
280 (excluding grasses) was used. Time since establishment of flower strips, i.e., the time
281 span between seeding or planting and data sampling, was available for all studies
282 ranging from 3 to 122 months.

283 The proportional cover of arable crops was available and analysed as a proxy
284 for landscape simplification (e.g., Tschardtke *et al.* 2005; Dainese *et al.* 2019) in 11
285 pest control and 12 pollination studies. Proportional cover of arable crops was
286 calculated in circular sectors of 1 km radius around focal crops, or 750 m or 500 m
287 radius (two studies for which data on a 1 km radius were not available; see Table S1;
288 results remained qualitatively identical when only considering the 1 km radius
289 datasets).

290

291 *Statistical analysis*

292 We used a mixed effect-modelling approach to address our research questions. In all
293 models, study was included as a random intercept to account for the hierarchical
294 structure of the data with field measures nested within study. To assess whether
295 flower strips and hedgerows enhanced pollination and pest control services in adjacent
296 crops (question 1) linear mixed-effect models with planting (field with or without
297 planting) were separately fitted for flower strips and hedgerows for the response
298 variables pollination service and pest control service. To test how the effects on
299 service provisioning change with distance (continuous variable; meters) from
300 plantings (question 2) and with landscape simplification (question 4) these
301 explanatory variables and their interactions with the fixed effects described above
302 were included in the models. Exploratory analyses showed that neither distance nor
303 landscape simplification effects differed between flower strips and hedgerows; i.e., no
304 significant interactive effects of planting type with any of the tested fixed effects. We
305 therefore pooled flower strip and hedgerow data in the final models, excluding
306 planting type and its two or three-way interactions as fixed effects. In addition to
307 linear relationships we tested for an exponential decline of measured response

308 variables from the border of the field by fitting $\log_{10}(\text{distance})$ in the linear mixed-
309 effect models described above. In this case, field nested within study was included as
310 a random effect. To test the intermediate landscape complexity hypothesis, we tested
311 for linear as well as hump-shaped relationships between landscape context, and its
312 interaction with local floral plantings by fitting landscape variables as a quadratic
313 fixed predictor in the models described above (second degree polynomial functions).
314 To present the ranges covered by the agricultural landscape gradients, we did not
315 standardize measures of landscape simplification within studies (e.g., Martin *et al.*
316 2019). To examine how pollination and pest control service provisioning relates to
317 flower strip plant diversity and time since establishment (question 3) plant species
318 richness and $\log_{10}(\text{number of months since establishment})$ were included as fixed
319 effects in models with study as a random effect. Using $\log(\text{months since}$
320 $\text{establishment})$ predicted the data better than establishment time as linear predictor.
321 Plant species richness and time since establishment of flower strips were not
322 correlated ($r = 0.22$). Only 10 studies measured services in several years since
323 establishment (Table S1), and we included only data from the last sampling year. To
324 assess how the presence of plantings affected the agronomic yield of adjacent crops
325 (question 5), we fitted a linear mixed-effect model with the same fixed and random
326 structure as described for question 1, but with crop yield as the response variable.
327 Statistical analyses for different models and response variables differed in sample
328 sizes as not all studies measured crop yield in addition to pollination or pest control
329 services (Tables 1, S1). In all models we initially included planting area as a co-
330 variate in an explorative analysis, but removed it in the final models, as it did not
331 explain variation in any of the models and did not improve model fit (not shown).

332 Effect sizes provided in the text and figures are model estimates of z-
333 transformed response variables. For statistical inference of fixed effects we used log-
334 likelihood ratio tests (LRT) recommended for testing significant effects of *a priori*
335 selected parameters relevant to the hypotheses (Bolker *et al.* 2009). For all models,
336 assumptions were checked according to the graphical validation procedures
337 recommended by Zuur *et al.* (2009). All statistical analyses were performed in R
338 version 3.5.2 (R Core Team 2017) using the R-package *lme4* (Bates *et al.* 2015).

339

340 **RESULTS**

341 *Effects of floral plantings on pest control and pollination services*

342 The provisioning of pest control services in crop fields adjacent to flower strips was
343 enhanced by 16% on average compared to fields without flower strips. On average,
344 pest control services were also increased in crops adjacent to hedgerows, but effects
345 were more variable and overall not statistically significant (Fig. 1; Table 1). Pest
346 control services declined exponentially with distance from the field edge, but the
347 slopes of the distance functions between fields with and without adjacent floral
348 plantings did not differ (Fig. 2a; Table 1).

349 Crop pollination effects were more variable across studies and overall not
350 significantly different between crops with or without adjacent floral planting across all
351 studies and within-field distances (Fig 1; Table 1). However, effects of distance to
352 field edge differed for fields with floral plantings compared with control fields
353 (significant interaction between presence of planting and distance from field border;
354 Table 1). Pollination services were increased near floral plantings and decreased
355 exponentially with increasing distance from plantings, while no such effect of

356 distance to field edge was detected for control fields (Fig . 2b). The fitted distance
357 curves for fields with or without floral plantings intersected at 43 m (Fig. 2b).

358

359 *The role of flowering plant diversity and time since establishment of flower strips*

360 Crop pollination services, but not pest control services, tended to increase with
361 flowering plant species richness of the adjacent flower strip (52% predicted increase
362 in crop pollination from 1 to 25 plant species in adjacent flower strip; Fig. 3a; Table
363 1). Crop pollination services also tended to increase with time since establishment of
364 the adjacent flower strip, but showed a positive saturating relationship (Fig. 3b; Table
365 1). Pollination services increased by 27% in two year old strips compared with the
366 youngest plantings (roughly 3 months old), while the additional predicted increase
367 from two to four years or older strips was approximately 5% on average (Fig. 3b; only
368 few strips were older than four years, see Fig. 3b and explanations in figure caption).
369 Pest control services in crops adjacent to flower strips did not increase with flower
370 strip age (Table 1).

371

372 *Effects of landscape simplification*

373 The model testing for a linear relationship between service provision and landscape
374 simplification and its interaction with local flower presence fitted the data better than
375 a model testing for hump-shaped relationships (Table S3). Pollination, but not pest
376 control services, decreased linearly with landscape simplification (12% decrease from
377 50 to 100% crops in the surrounding landscape), irrespective of the presence of a
378 floral planting (no significant floral planting \times landscape simplification interaction;
379 Fig 4; Table 1).

380

381 *Effects of flower strips on crop yield*

382 Overall, no significant effect of flower strips on yield in adjacent crops was detected
383 (subset of 12 studies and 194 sites for which crop yield data was available; Fig. 5;
384 Supplementary Table S4). Furthermore, no effects of within-field distance, plant
385 species richness, time since establishment or landscape simplification, or their
386 interactions with flower strip presence on yield, were detected (Table S4).

387

388 **DISCUSSION**

389 Our quantitative synthesis demonstrates a generally positive effect of flower strips on
390 pest control services but these effects did not consistently translate into higher yields.

391 Although in most cases beneficial effects of plantings were also found for crop
392 pollination services, effects on crop pollination and final crop yield were variable and
393 overall not significant. Effects of wildflower strips on pollination services increased
394 with age and species-richness suggesting that the quality of such plantings plays a
395 pivotal role in effective service provision. Moreover, effects on crop pollination
396 declined with increasing distance to floral plantings (hedgerows and flower strips).

397 These results indicate that floral plantings have great potential to benefit ecosystem
398 service provision, but to do so will need to be carefully tailored for functioning at
399 specific spatial scales. Flower diversity and strip age are important drivers through
400 which this can be achieved and they should be considered integrally before floral
401 plantings can make a significant contribution to the ecological intensification of
402 agricultural production.

403 We found positive effects of flower strips on ecosystem service provisioning
404 in support of the ‘exporter’ hypothesis (*sensu* Morandin & Kremen 2013; Kremen *et*
405 *al.* 2019), although effects were generally variable and only significant for flower

406 strips enhancing pest control services by 16% on average. This is an important finding
407 as it provides general empirical evidence that flower strips can reduce crop pest
408 pressures across various crops, landscape contexts, and geographical regions. One
409 explanation for the more consistent positive effects on pest control services of flower
410 strips compared to hedgerows may be that in many of the studied flower strips the
411 selection of flowering plants was tailored to the requirements of the target natural
412 enemy taxa (Tschumi *et al.* 2015, 2016) while this was generally less the case in the
413 studied hedgerow plantings.

414 Wildflower plantings have been heralded as one of the most effective
415 measures to enhance the provision of ecosystem service to crops (Kleijn *et al.* 2019)
416 with many studies showing positive effects on service provisioning (e.g., Blaauw &
417 Isaacs 2014; Tschumi *et al.* 2015, 2016; included in this quantitative synthesis). Our
418 synthesis shows, however, that although general significant effects of flower strips
419 were found for pest control service provisioning, effects of plantings on crop
420 pollination services were highly variable. This highlights the need to better understand
421 these conditions and drivers of success or failure of floral plantings to promote
422 pollination services. Our synthesis identifies several drivers explaining this variability
423 in delivered services and therefore offers pathways to enhance the effectiveness of
424 these measures in the future.

425 First, the success of flower strips to promote crop pollination services
426 increased with their age. The strongest increase was detected up to roughly three years
427 since the planting date. Pollination services also appeared to continue to increase with
428 establishment time beyond three years. This trend needs to be interpreted with caution
429 as only three studies assessed four years old or older flower strips highlighting that
430 scarcity of long-term data on the effects of floral plantings on services provisioning

431 and yield, which represents an important knowledge gap. We found no evidence that
432 this increase in effectiveness with age is driven by floral abundance, as flower
433 abundance did not increase with flower strip age. Case studies of Central and
434 Northwestern Europe suggest that abundance and species richness of flowering
435 herbaceous plants in sown flower strips on the highly fertilized soils in these
436 agroecosystems often even decline with increasing age after the second or third year
437 as grasses take over (Steffan-Dewenter & Tscharntke 2001; Ganser *et al.* 2019). The
438 observed positive effect of flower strip age is, however, in agreement with the
439 expectation that the build-up and restoration of local crop pollinator populations need
440 time (Blaauw & Isaacs 2014; Buhk *et al.* 2018; Kremen *et al.* 2018). It may also be
441 explained by greater provision of nesting and overwintering opportunities in older
442 floral plantings (Kremen *et al.* 2019) which are likely scarce in short-lived annual
443 flower strips that could even be ecological traps for overwintering arthropods (Ganser
444 *et al.* 2019). In fact, Kremen & M’Gonigle (2015) found higher incidence of above-
445 ground cavity nesting bees compared to ground-nesting bees with hedgerow
446 maturation; Ganser *et al.* (2019) reported increased overwintering of arthropod
447 predators and pollinators of perennial compared to annual flower strips.

448 Second, our findings reveal that higher species richness of flowering plants
449 tends to enhance pollination service delivery in adjacent crops. This is an important
450 finding as it indicates that restoring plant diversity can not only promote rare
451 pollinator species and pollinator diversity (cf. Scheper *et al.* 2013; Kremen &
452 M’Gonigle 2015; Sutter *et al.* 2017; Kremen *et al.* 2018), but also crop pollination
453 services. Flowering plant diversity likely promotes complementary floral resources
454 for numerous pollinator taxa with different resource needs and continuity of floral
455 resource availability throughout the season (Schellhorn *et al.* 2015; M’Gonigle *et al.*

456 2017). The identification of species or traits contributing particularly strongly to such
457 effects is a promising area of research (Lundin *et al.* 2019). Moreover, appropriate
458 management, such as an extensive cutting regime of hedgerows, is an important factor
459 to ensure such high availability and diversity of floral resources (Staley *et al.* 2012).
460 Our synthesis reveals that floral plantings enhance pollination services, but only in the
461 part of adjacent crops near to plantings, while declining exponentially with distance to
462 plantings (Fig. 2). In fact, the exponential decline function predicts pollination service
463 provisioning of less than 50% at 10 m and slightly more than 20% at 20 m compared
464 to the level of service provisioning directly adjacent to plantings, partially explaining
465 the overall non-significant benefits when considering all measured distances across
466 the entire field (Fig. 2). This may also explain part of the high variability observed
467 across studies and reconcile some of the contrasting findings with respect to
468 pollination service provisioning in studies measuring services relatively near plantings
469 (e.g. up to 15 m; Blaauw & Isaacs (2014), or up to larger distances, e.g. up to 200 m;
470 Sardiñas *et al.* (2013)). We found no indication that the degree of the dependency of a
471 crop on insect pollination significantly contributed the observed variability in effects
472 of plantings on crop pollination services or yield (Supporting Table S5).

473 Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Dainese *et al.* 2019), landscape
474 simplification was associated with decreased pollination services, irrespective of the
475 presence of floral plantings. In contrast, no such effects were detected for pest control
476 services, in agreement with recent studies (Karp *et al.* 2018; Dainese *et al.* 2019; but
477 see Veres *et al.* 2013; Rusch *et al.* 2016; Martin *et al.* 2019). The effect of adding a
478 flower strip or hedgerow was, however, independent of landscape context. Although
479 individual case studies (Jonsson *et al.* 2015; Grab *et al.* 2018; included in this
480 synthesis) found support for the intermediate landscape hypothesis, enhanced

481 ecosystem services associated with floral plantings were not generally limited to
482 moderately complex landscape contexts, which should encourage farmers to adopt
483 these measures irrespective of the type of landscape in which they are farming.

484 Crop yield is affected by a complex interplay of a multitude of agricultural
485 management practices such as fertilization, level of pesticide use, pest pressures, soil
486 cultivation and other factors such as local soil and climatic conditions (e.g.,
487 Bartomeus *et al.* 2013; Gagic *et al.* 2017), which can potentially mask benefits from
488 improved natural pest regulation or pollination services (Sutter *et al.* 2018). Positive
489 effects of floral plantings have been shown by some case studies included in this
490 synthesis (e.g., Tschumi *et al.* 2016; see also Pywell *et al.* 2015), although sometimes
491 only several years after the establishment of plantings (Blaauw & Isaacs 2014;
492 Morandin *et al.* 2016; Venturini *et al.* 2017b), but we did not detect consistent effects
493 on crop yield associated with adjacent floral plantings. The identified drivers of the
494 effectiveness of floral plantings to enhance crop pollination services, such as age and
495 flowering plant diversity, could provide promising pathways towards optimizing
496 plantings as measures contributing to ecological intensification. Future optimizations
497 should also consider the potential for synergistic interactions of enhanced pollination
498 and pest control services by “multi-service” designs of plantings (Sutter & Albrecht
499 2016; Morandin *et al.* 2016), temporal dynamics (Blaauw & Isaacs 2014; M’Gonigle
500 *et al.* 2015), optimized ratios of floral planting (contributing to ecosystem service
501 supply) to crop area (affecting service demand; Kremen *et al.* 2019; Williams *et al.*
502 2019), and the distance-dependency of services quantified by this synthesis. However,
503 floral plantings are also established for other goals than yield increase. From an
504 environmental and health perspective, keeping crop yields constant despite reductions
505 of insecticide input, achieved through a replacement of insecticides by enhanced

506 natural pest control services, should be considered as a great achievement (e.g.,
507 Tschumi *et al.* 2015). Moreover, floral plantings, if of sufficient ecological quality
508 e.g. in terms of native plant species diversity, contribute also to further ecosystem
509 services, especially biodiversity conservation (e.g. Haaland *et al.* 2011; Scheper *et al.*
510 2013); but farmers are often reluctant to adopt such measures due to concerns of
511 negative effects on crop yield e.g. due to spillover of pests. Our findings of similar
512 crop yield in fields with and without plantings can dispel such concerns.

513

514 *Conclusions and implications*

515 Our synthesis demonstrates enhanced natural pest control services to crops adjacent
516 flower strips plantings, across a broad suite of regions, cropping systems and types of
517 flower strips studied. However, it also reveals inconsistent and highly variable effects
518 of flower strips and hedgerows on crop pollination services and yield. This highlights
519 a strong need to identify the key factors driving this variability and the effectiveness
520 of different types of floral plantings in contributing to ecosystem service delivery.
521 Informed by such improved understanding, the design, implementation and
522 management of floral plantings can increase their effectiveness as measures for
523 ecological intensification. This synthesis identifies several promising pathways
524 towards more effective floral plantings for the provision of ecosystem services and
525 ecological intensification: the modelled exponential distance-decay function of
526 pollination service provisioning by floral plantings into crop field helps to predict
527 service provision in crop fields; together with the lack of a strong planting area effect,
528 our findings suggest that a dense spatial network of relatively small plantings will be
529 more effective than a few large ones to optimize pollination service provisioning.
530 Moreover, it identifies important drivers of the effectiveness of floral plantings for

531 delivery of crop pollination services: flowering plant diversity and age. Based on
532 these findings we strongly encourage the establishment as well adequate management
533 and restoration of already established perennial floral plantings that ensure the
534 availability of high floral diversity across several years as promising pathways
535 towards optimized measures for ecological intensification.

536

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TABLES AND TABLE LEGENDS

Table 1. Summary of results of linear and generalized linear mixed-effects models testing the effects of presence and type of floral plantings (flower strips and hedgerows) on crop pollination and natural pest control services, and how effects are influenced by in-field distance, local planting characteristics and landscape context. Response variables, explanatory variables, estimates, numerator degrees of freedom and denominator degrees of freedom (Df), differences in log-likelihood for chi-squared tests (LRT) and *P* values (*P* < 0.05 in bold; *P* ≥ 0.05 < 0.10 in bold italic) are shown for each model. Note that effects of local drivers (i.e., flowering plant species richness and time since establishment) considered only crops adjacent to flower strips.

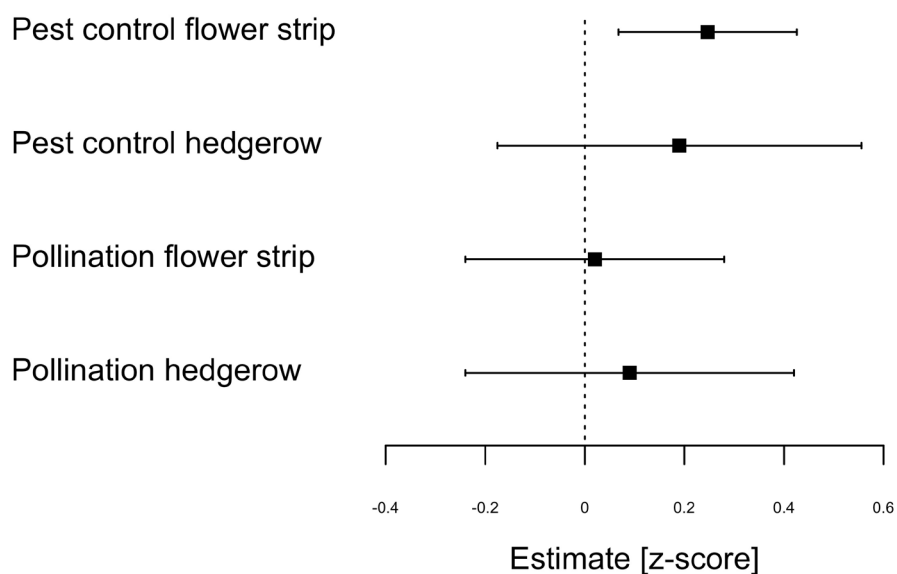
Response variable	Explanatory variable	Estimate	Df	LRT	<i>P</i> -Value
Effects of plantings					
Natural pest control service	Flower strip	0.254	1,316	7.26	0.007
	Hedgerow	0.196	1,60	1.06	0.303
Crop pollination service	Flower strip	0.032	1,170	0.06	0.808
	Hedgerow	0.097	1,106	0.28	0.595
Distance effects					
Natural pest control service	Planting x log(distance)	-0.051	1,590.9	1.35	0.245
	Planting	0.199	1,590.4	5.92	0.015
	Log(distance)	-0.052	1,618.5	5.62	0.018
Crop pollination service	Planting x log(distance)	-0.082	1,445.3	5.73	0.017
	Planting	0.315	1,420.8	2.40	0.121
	Log(distance)	-0.014	1,453.3	2.64	0.104
Effects of local drivers (flower strips)					
Natural pest control service	Flowering plant species richness	-0.013	1,49.3	0.47	0.494
	Log(time since establishment)	0.104	1,16.1	1.32	0.251
Crop pollination service	Flowering plant species richness	0.036	1,49.8	3.39	0.066
	Log(time since establishment)	0.276	1,10.9	3.47	0.062
Effects of landscape context					
Natural pest control service	Planting x landscape simplification	-0.004	1,274.2	0.10	0.754
	Planting	0.171	1,286.2	1.28	0.257
	Landscape simplification	-0.007	1,181.9	1.81	0.179
Crop pollination service	Planting x landscape simplification	-0.003	1,278.9	0.91	0.340
	Planting	0.198	1,278.9	0.00	0.950
	Landscape simplification	-0.011	1,145.9	4.03	0.045

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829 **FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS**



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831 **Figure 1.** Forest plot showing effects of flower strips and hedgerows on pollination
832 and pest control service provisioning in adjacent crops compared to control crops
833 without adjacent floral plantings. Squares illustrate predicted mean effects (z-score
834 estimates), bars show 95% confidence intervals (CIs). On average, pest control
835 services were enhanced by 16% (z-score: 0.25) in fields with adjacent flower strip
836 compared to control fields.

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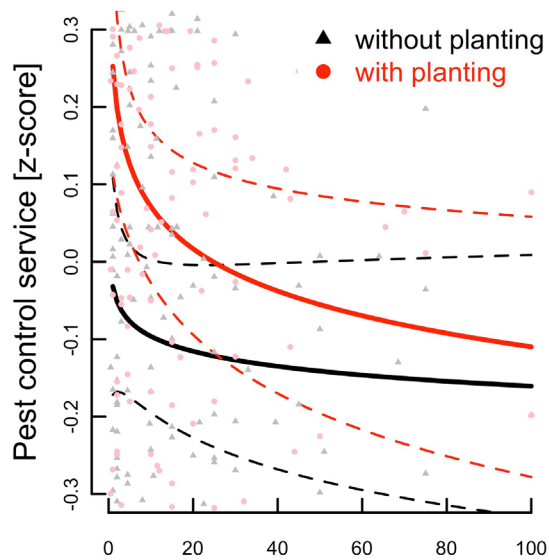
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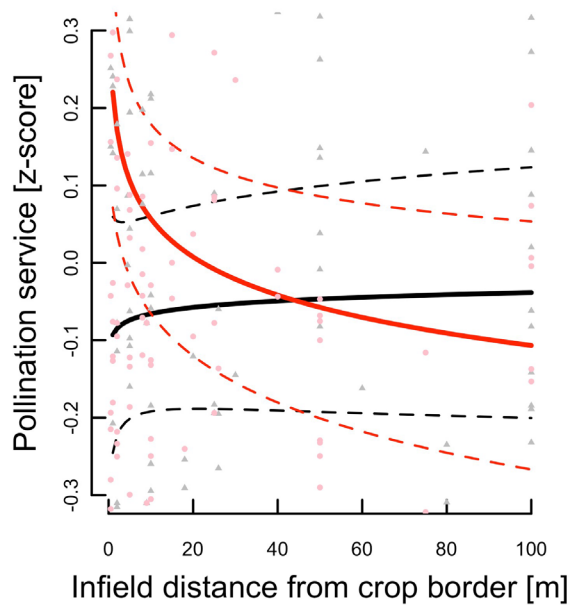
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(a)



(b)



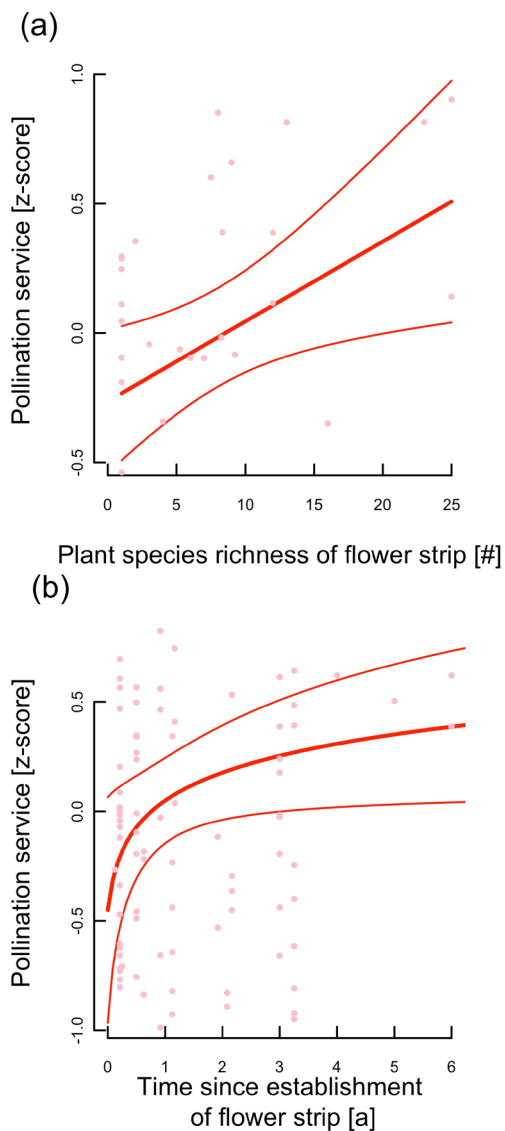
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847 **Figure 2.** Predicted relationships between (a) mean natural pest control service and

848 (b) mean crop pollination service (z-scores (solid lines) \pm 95% CI (dashed lines)) and

849 in-field distance to field border for field with (red lines; dots) or without adjacent
850 floral planting (black lines, triangles).



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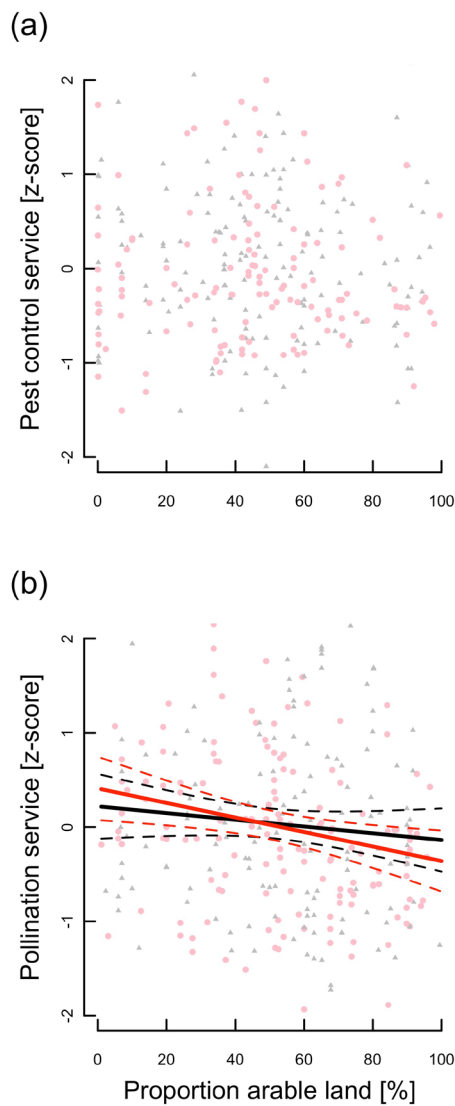
853 **Figure 3.** Predicted relationships between mean crop pollination service (z-scores (fat
854 solid lines) \pm 95% CI (fine solid lines)) and (a) flowering plant species richness and
855 (b) time since establishment of adjacent flower strips. Predicted relationship and
856 results of an analysis without the points representing flower strips older than four
857 years were qualitatively identical.

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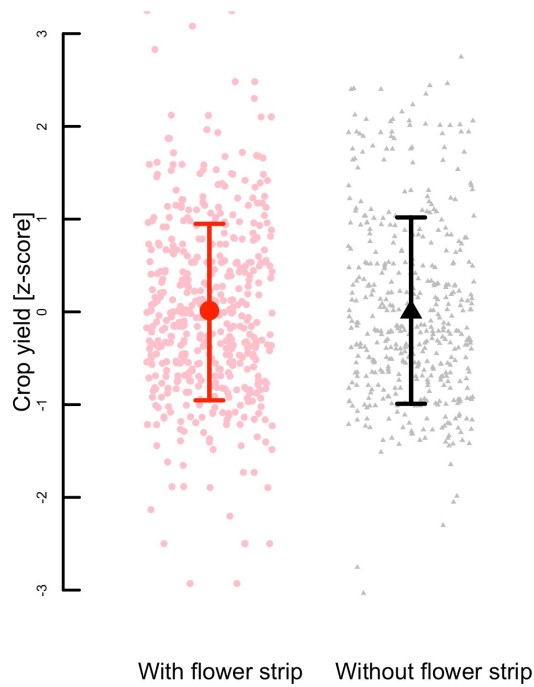
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864 **Figure 4.** Predicted relationship between mean (a) pest control and (b) crop
865 pollination service (z-scores (solid lines) \pm 95% CI (dashed lines)) and landscape
866 simplification (percentage of arable crops in the landscape) in fields with adjacent
867 floral planting (red line; red circles) or without planting (black line; black triangles).
868 Pollination services, but not pest control services, declined with landscape
869 simplification; the slight differences in slopes for pollination-landscape simplification

870 relationships of fields with or without adjacent plantings were statistically not
871 significant.

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875 **Figure 5** Mean predicted crop yield (z-scores; \pm 95% CI) of fields with adjacent
876 flower strips (red circles) and control fields without adjacent flower strip (black
877 triangles). The dataset includes a subset of 12 studies and 194 sites.

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