T CORE

- 1 Crop rotation and agri-environment schemes determine bumblebee communities via
- 2 flower resources
- Riho Marja^{1,*}, Eneli Viik², Marika Mänd³, James Phillips⁴, Alexandra-Maria Klein⁵, Péter 3
- Batáry^{6,7} 4

5

- 6 ¹Estonian Environment Agency, Rõõmu tee St. 2, Tartu 50605, Estonia.
- ²Agricultural Research Centre, Teaduse St. 4/6, Saku 75501, Estonia. 7
- 8 ³Institute of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences, Estonian University of Life Sciences,
- 9 Kreutzwaldi St. 5, Tartu 51014, Estonia.
- 10 ⁴School of Environment and Technology, University of Brighton, Cockcroft Building, Lewes
- 11 Road, Brighton BN2 4GJ, United Kingdom.
- 12 ⁵Nature Conservation and Landscape Ecology, University of Freiburg, Tennenbacher 4,
- Freiburg D-79106, Germany. 13
- ⁶Agroecology, University of Goettingen, Grisebachstr. 6, Göttingen D–37077, Germany. 14
- 15 ⁷GINOP Sustainable Ecosystems Group, MTA Centre for Ecological Research, Klebelsberg
- 16 Kuno u. 3, 8237 Tihany, Hungary.

17

18 *Corresponding author: Tel.: +372 5225725. Fax: +3727 422180. E-mail: rmarja@ut.ee

19

20 Running title: Crop rotation determines bumblebee communities

- 22 Word count of main text: 4203 Word count of summary: 313
- 23 Acknowledgements word count: 126 Word count of references: 1139
- 24 Number of figures: 4 Word count of legends: 594
- 25 Number of tables: 1 Number of references: 41

Abstract

26

- 27 1. In many parts of the world, farmland pollinators decreased significantly during the last half of the 20th Century mainly due to land use changes and agricultural intensification. 28 29 2. We studied the effect of different typical crop rotations and agri-environment schemes 30 (AES) on bumblebee diversity in Estonia. We compared species abundances between four 31 crop rotation types [cereal rollover (no change from one year to the next), cereal to mass 32 flowering crops (hereafter MFC), MFC rollover, and MFC to cereal fields] where all counts 33 were conducted in the second year, and in three farming types (conventional farming, organic 34 farming and environmentally friendly management). 35 3. We surveyed bumblebees and flower cover along 401 field margins in five consecutive 36 years, and recorded twenty species and more than 6000 individuals. Abundances of long-37 tongued and threatened bumblebee species were higher at the field margins of cereal rollover 38 fields than for the other three crop rotation types. In addition, cereal rollover field margins 39 had higher abundances of medium colony species, generalists, and forest scrub species than 40 MFC rollover and MFC to cereal or cereal to MFC field margins. Bumblebee species richness 41 was higher at the field margins of both AES types than those of conventional farming. 42 However, in general the strongest driver of bumblebee presence was flower cover. 43 4. Higher bumblebee abundances in cereal rollover field margins were probably owing to a 44 concentration effect there and/or a dilution effect into MFC fields. Both AES schemes 45 supported increasing flower cover in field margins and thereby diversity of bumblebees, 46 indicating positive AES impacts upon wild pollinators.
- 5. Synthesis and applications. Crop rotation and AES determine bumblebee richness and 48 abundance via the availability of flower resources, but crop rotation constrains bumblebees 49 differently based on their traits. Therefore, future agri-environmental policy should account

- for these management options. Crop rotation could be a simple, but efficient solution to
- 51 increase the biodiversity of agricultural landscapes.

- **Keywords:** agri-environment schemes, biodiversity, bumblebee, concentration effect, crop
- rotation, dilution effect, functional traits, land use, organic management, pollinator

1. Introduction

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

Bumblebees, among other pollinating insects, contribute to wild plant and crop pollination, and therefore to plant biodiversity and food production (Kremen et al., 2007). Pollination by bumblebees is known to increase the yields of almost 40 crops (Goulson, 2010). Thirty-five percent of global crop production depends, to a degree, on pollinators (Klein et al., 2007), and the global annual economic value of insect pollination is estimated to be between 215–529 billion dollars (IPBES, 2016). Therefore, conservation of farmland pollinators is one of the key challenges of global crop production (Potts et al., 2016). Industrial agriculture has caused remarkable declines in the diversity and abundance of native flowers and semi-natural habitats, which in turn has caused decreases of wild pollinators, particularly long-tongued bumblebees (Goulson, Lye & Darvill, 2008). Based on a recent IUCN report, 46% of bumblebee species populations in Europe have declined (Nieto et al., 2014). Drivers of the decline in pollinators include landscape homogenization, land-use changes (e.g. the loss of semi-natural habitats and the increase in the area of cereal crops) and the increasing use of synthetic pesticides and fertilizers (Winfree et al., 2009; Potts et al., 2010; Bommarco et al., 2012; Goulson et al., 2015). A reduction in the number of small-scale farms has resulted in a decline in crop diversity and the loss of field margins (Sutcliffe et al., 2015), Agri-environment schemes (AES), such as set-aside semi-natural habitat, organic farming, and wildflower strips for pollinators, have been developed and introduced in the European Union since the late 1980s as a tool to address the negative environmental impacts, including declines in biodiversity, of large-scale agricultural intensification (Batáry et al., 2015). Across the EU, the effectiveness of AES in terms of species conservation has been questioned owing to goals remaining unachieved as a consequence of a lack of targeting (Hole et al., 2005; Kleijn et al., 2011). Nonetheless, there is evidence of a positive effect of

82

83

87

88

89

91

92

93

97

99

100

101

102

103

104

80 many AES upon bumblebee abundances (recently e.g., Carvell et al., 2015; Wood et al., 2015). However, AES availability and utilisation might not be enough to halt and reverse declines in bumblebees and particularly threatened species. Therefore, agricultural intensity as well as landscape structure are also important factors with regard to conservation efforts 84 (Tscharntke et al., 2005, 2012). 85 Mass-flowering crops, such as clover species and oilseed rape, are significant food 86 resources for bumblebees and at the same time benefit from being pollinated. E.g. in Northern Europe, sweet and red clover, which have deep corolla, benefit from being pollinated by longtongued bumblebee species (Westphal, Steffan-Dewenter & Tscharntke, 2003; Wood, Holland & Goulson, 2015). In addition, resource continuity (Blüthgen & Klein, 2011) is 90 important, because mass-flowering crops are not always available to bumblebees during their lifecycles. Therefore, the availability of wild flowers, especially those with deep corolla, is an important driver of bumblebee diversity and population development (Williams & Osborne, 2009; Williams et al., 2015). 94 There is a knowledge gap regarding how temporal land-use change affects bumblebees. 95 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first multi-year study to evaluate the effect of crop 96 rotation on bumblebee communities. We investigated the impact of four different common crop rotation types on bumblebee species richness and abundance, including comparisons 98 between species with different functional traits (tongue length, threat status, colony size, habitat preference), during 2010–2014. In Estonia, crops are usually rotated every second year, e.g. after being a cereal field for one or two years, there will be a rotation to mass flowering crops or grasslands and vice versa. Hence, the overarching question is how does the type of crop rotation determine the following year's bumblebee community (species richness, total abundance, and tongue-length/threat status/colony size/habitat preference group abundances)? We hypothesized that bumblebee species richness and abundance are higher in

the field margins of mass-flowering crops than in the field margins of cereal crops, regardless of the previous year's crop in those fields (illustrative photos are shown in Fig. S1, Supporting Information). In addition, we hypothesized a positive effect upon bumblebees of organic and environmentally friendly management compared to conventional farming. We collected data to test whether crop rotation and/or AES benefit bumblebees, and to identify the possible drivers of bumblebee abundances (e.g., concentration or dilution effects depending on the crop rotation type).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Monitoring areas

We sampled true bumblebees *Bombus* ssp. (hereafter bumblebees) as part of an ongoing evaluation of AES under the framework of the Estonian Rural Development Plan 2007–2013 (Agricultural Research Centre, 2015). Two regions of Estonia were studied: Põlva, Võru and Valga counties (hereafter referred to as Southern Estonia; centre coordinates 57°52′N, 26°57′E) and Lääne-Viru, Järva and Jõgeva counties (hereafter Northern Estonia; centre coordinates 59°4′N, 26°12′E; a map of the study areas is available in Fig. S2, Supporting Information). These regions were selected based on differences in agricultural yields, AES uptake, and landscape structure. Southern Estonia has a more diverse landscape and lower yields (average cereal yield over 2004–2013 was 2792 kg/ha). Northern Estonia is characterized by larger fields, a more open landscape, and high yields by Estonian standards (average cereal yield for 2004–2013 was 3011 kg/ha). Additional information about the regions, and selection of study farms, is available in Marja *et al.* (2014).

In each region 11 organic, 11 environmentally friendly managed (both had five-year AES obligations with the possibility to prolong the obligation to six years, started in 2009), and 11 conventionally managed farms (non-AES) were surveyed, i.e. 66 in total. One of the

aims of environmentally friendly management scheme is to promote farmland biodiversity, with the major requirements of farmers being to allocate a minimum of 15% of arable land (including rotational grasslands) to legumes, use diversified crop rotation, take soil samples to determine optimal fertilizer requirements and create a fertilization plan, maintain/create permanent grassland field margins (2–5 m wide), not use black fallow (fallow land with bare soil, where the height of weeds does not exceed 5 cm), protect landscape elements, and limit glyphosate applications. Organic farmers followed the Organic Farming Act by not using any synthetic pesticides or GMOs, and restricting their use of most mineral fertilizers. Detailed information about AES requirements and conventional farming rules is provided in Table S1, Supporting Information.

2.2. Biodiversity survey and study design

Fieldwork for the evaluation of AES measures was carried out during the summers of 2010–2014. Every year, each transect was surveyed three times (once in June, July, and August). The first visit was made during the 23^{rd} – 30^{th} of June, the second visit from the 15^{th} – 28^{th} of July, and the third between the 12^{th} – 23^{rd} of August. Bumblebees were surveyed by walking slowly along a 2 m wide and 500 m long transect, of which 400 m was permanent between years and located in field margins (usually permanent grassland strips between the field and a road/other field/ditch/forest etc., or if the margin was narrow, occasionally also on the edge of a cropped field), with the remaining 100 m located in a field with an insect-pollinated crop (e.g. clover) if present in the crop rotation, or if not, also in a field margin. Data from these 100 m section located in the field were not included in the analyses. Transects were divided into shorter sections differentiated by crop types. The sections were marked on a map (scale 1:5000). During each fieldwork session, flower cover was estimated on a scale of 0–3 per whole 2 m wide transect section where: 0 = no flowers suitable for bumblebees; 1 = >0 to 1/3

of the area with flowers suitable for bumblebees; 2 = 1/3 to 2/3 with suitable flowers, 3 = >2/3 covered with suitable flowers (Marja *et al.*, 2014). All flowering-plant species known to be used by bumblebees for foraging were classified as suitable (Table S2, Supporting Information).

The bumblebee counts were conducted between 11:00 and 16:00 under good weather conditions (temperature always above 15°C, and no rain or strong wind). We mainly identified bumblebees on flowers to species in the field. If identification on flowers was impossible, individuals were caught, identified, and released in the field, or on very rare occasions were retained to identify later in the laboratory. Each year the number of each bumblebee species was summed per transect over the three counts.

To test our hypotheses we included only bumblebees, flower cover, and crop rotation data of such transect sections which were located in the two most common types of field margins, those alongside cereals and mass-flowering crops. Cereal fields included rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat (hereafter cereals). The mass-flowering crop fields contained legumes (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover spp.) and oilseed rape (hereafter MFC). Crop harvest time depends on the crop and weather conditions and varies from June to September. Legumes are typically harvested in June (first cut) and August (second cut), but sometimes cut only once in July. Winter oilseed-rape is harvested at the end of July or in August, spring oilseed-rape in September, cereals typically in August or at the beginning of September (depending also if it is sown in autumn or in spring). The overall sample to test our hypotheses comprised 401 transect sections, whose lengths varied between 40–500 m (mean 226 ±SEM 6 m). Sample size for each year (number of transect sections) were as follows: 2010: 80; 2011:78; 2012: 73, 2013: 84 and in 2014: 86 transect sections (401 in total). A cross table of sample size by crop rotation and management type is given in Table 1. All other crop

rotation types, such as potato, short-term grassland, permanent grassland, and pasture were excluded from the analysis.

Part of the bumblebee dataset, the explanatory variables management type and flower cover (years 2010–2012), is already published in Marja *et al.* (2014). However, in this study we used a more comprehensive bumblebee dataset (2010–2014) that also included crop rotation types. We added management type and flower cover into the analyses, as these are important drivers of bumblebee abundances (Marja *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, the present study investigated different bumblebee variables: abundance of bumblebees sub-divided by functional groups (tongue-length, colony size, and habitat preference), and threat status.

2.3. Statistical analysis

We analysed flower cover and bumblebee variables using linear mixed-effects models in R (R Development Core Team, 2016). The 'lme4' (Bates *et al.*, 2016) package for R was used to conduct all analyses. Bumblebee response variables modelled were species richness, abundance of all bumblebee species, abundance of long-tongued species (three species: *Bombus distinguendus*, *B. hortorum*, and *B. subterraneus*), abundance of short- and mediumtongued species (all other species, hereafter short-tongued species), abundance of threatened species, and abundance of non-threatened species. We analysed long-tongued bumblebees separately due to their specific ecological niche, i.e. only these species can pollinate flowers with deep corollas, such as red clover and field bean. Species classified as vulnerable (hereafter threatened) in Europe under the recent IUCN list (Nieto *et al.*, 2014) were: *Bombus confusus*, *B. distinguendus*, *B. hypnorum*, and *B. muscorum*. We also modelled pooled bumblebee abundances based on species' colony size (large, medium, and small) and main habitat (open-land specialists, forest specialists, and generalists). We used these life-history traits, because a recent study indicated that bumblebees have trait-dependent vulnerability

based on landscape heterogeneity (Persson *et al.*, 2015). We provide a list of the bumblebee species with classification according to tongue length, colony size, preferred habitat, and threat status in Table S3, Supporting Information.

Owing to the bumblebees being over-dispersed, we used mixed-effects models with a negative binomial distribution. The explanatory variables of main interest were crop rotation type [four factors: cereal rollover fields (rollover = no change from one year to the next); cereal to MFC fields; MFC rollover fields; MFC to cereal fields], (e.g. in cereal to MFC fields, surveying was done in MFC field margin), management type (three levels: conventional; environmentally friendly management; organic farming), and flower cover (average value over the three counts per transect). Note that bumblebee response variables were always taken during the second year of crop rotation. First, we tested flower cover as a dependent variable in relation to crop rotation and management. Second, we tested all bumblebee variables against crop rotation, management, and flower cover. Since we had multiple years and the study regions had different landscape structures (Northern Estonia has a simpler landscape structure than Southern Estonia), we treated year and region as crossed random factors in the model (R command: (1|year)+(1|region). As the length of transect sections ranged from 40 to 500 m, they were treated as an offset function [R command: offset=log(transect length)]. We also calculated the variance inflation factor between explanatory variables (R package "car", Fox & Weisberg, 2011), and identified no values exceeding 1.4 for any of the models, which suggests that no collinearity occurred.

224

225

226

227

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

3. Results

We observed a total of 6092 individuals of 20 bumblebee species during 2010–2014 (see Table S3, Supporting Information). We provide mean values and standard errors of

investigated flower cover and bumblebee variables per transect sections length according to crop rotation and management type in Tables S4 and S5, Supporting Information.

Flower cover was higher in organic and environmentally friendly managed field margins, compared to the margins of conventional fields, but was not related with crop rotation types (Fig. 1). As an explanatory variable, flower cover was positively associated with all bumblebee groups (Fig. 2,3,4 and Fig. S3,S4).

Crop rotation type was not related to bumblebee species richness or abundance (Fig. S3, Supporting Information). Bumblebee species richness in the field margins of both AES management types were higher compared to the margins of conventional fields. Bumblebee abundance was significantly higher in environmentally friendly managed field margins compared to those of conventional fields; no significant difference in bumblebee abundance occurred between the field margins of organic and conventionally managed fields.

Abundances of non-threatened species did not differ between crop rotation types, but abundance of threatened species was highest in cereal rollover field margins, compared to the other three rotation types (Fig. 2). Bumblebee abundance of non-threatened species was significantly higher in environmentally friendly managed field margins compared to those of conventional field margins. Abundances of threatened species were higher in both AES management types field margins, compared to the margins of conventional fields.

Crop rotation type was associated with abundances of bumblebees of medium colony sizes (Fig. 3). Abundance of medium colony sized species was higher in cereal rollover field margins, compared to MFC rollover filed margins. Both AES management types had higher abundances of small-sized colony species.

Abundance of open land bumblebee species did not differ between crop rotation types.

Abundance of generalist species was higher in cereal rollover field margins, compared to cereal to MFC and MFC rollover field margins (Fig. 4). Abundance of forest-scrub species

was higher in cereal rollover field margins compared to MFC to cereal and MFC rollover
field margins. Abundances of open land species and generalists did not differ between field
margins under AES and conventional farming. Organic field margins hosted a higher
abundance of forest-scrub species compared to the margins of conventional fields.

Abundances of short-tongued species were similar in all investigated crop rotation types (Fig. S4, Supporting Information). Abundance of long-tongued species was higher in cereal rollover field margins compared to the other three crop rotation types. Bumblebee abundance of short-tongued species was significantly higher in environmentally friendly managed field margins compared to those of conventional field margins. Abundances of long-tongued bumblebee species did not differ between management types.

4. Discussion

Our study shows that crop rotation has an important role in determining bumblebee community. We found that some bumblebee abundances (e.g. of long-tongued and threatened species) are higher at cereal rollover field margins than at the field margins of the other three crop rotation types. Furthermore, we found higher abundances of medium sized colony species, forest-scrub species, and habitat generalists in cereal rollover field margins than in MFC rollover and MFC to cereal or cereal to MFC field margins.

4.1. Concentration and dilution effects of bumblebees at field margins

Our study suggests that crop rotation type is an important management driver of bumblebee communities in field margins. Abundances of several bumblebee groups (e.g. long-tongued, threatened, and forest-scrub species) were higher at the field margins of cereal rollover compared to MFC rollover. This may not indicate that the *status quo* of fields remaining as

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

cereals from one year to the next has a positive effect on bumblebee abundance, or that cereal margins are more important to bumblebees than MFC margins. Our results can be interpreted in two ways. First, this might have been caused by a concentration effect in cereal field margins, similar to that found in Environmental Stewardship AES in England (Carvell et al., 2007). More flower resources are available in the margins of cereal fields than inside the fields, owing to herbicide use controlling arable weeds within crops, thus reducing nectar sources (Brittain et al., 2010). Second, a dilution effect in MFC fields (Holzschuh et al., 2011) is likely as bumblebees may disperse into MFC fields, as they have more nectar resources than cereal fields. June and July, when 2/3 of our data were collected, is the main blooming time of legumes and oilseed rape in Estonia. Therefore, dilution of bumblebee individuals from certain trait based groups onto MFC fields was probably the main reason for the differences in bumblebee abundances between cereal and MFC rollover field margins. One limitation of our investigation was that it only accounted for bumblebees at field margins, not within fields. An important potential confounding factor that needs to be mentioned vis-à-vie the concentration—dilution hypothesis of bumblebees (and other pollinators) in cereal/MFC/other field margins, is the type of crop(s) being grown in adjacent fields. For example, is there a stronger concentration effect if cereal fields are on both sides of the field margin, than if the margin is between a cereal and MFC field? We suggest that future studies test the concentration—dilution hypothesis by: i) also running flower/pollinator transects from the edge to the centre of fields; ii) taking into account adjacent fields. Our results suggest a negative temporal effect of cereal fields upon the food resources of bumblebees. Abundances of threatened, long-tongued, and forest-scrub species were lower in the field margins of MFC to cereal than cereal rollover fields. We offer the following

explanation: if cereals are grown for two consecutive years, this may already negatively

influence the flowering plant community of the field, reducing food resources for bumblebees within fields, thus making margins more attractive to bumblebees. In addition, as cereal rollover fields were mainly on conventional farms (Table 1), such field margins are less likely to: i) have MFC dispersal into the margin from the previous year; ii) be managed (including the sowing of seed mixes) for wildflowers. From a recent study (Magrach et al., 2017) it is known that honeybees spillover from mass-flowering orange groves to flower-rich woodlands after orange bloom leading to a change in wild bee community composition and lower seed set of the most common plant species. Nevertheless, for the honeybee itself this might be a benefit. In a similar way, it is possible that for at least some bumblebee species, MFC can provide a benefit the following year, as suggested by our results (MFC>cereal compared to cereal rollover). The importance of field margins is related to nectar and/or pollen continuity in agricultural landscapes (Schellhorn, Gagic & Bommarco, 2015). Owing to the seasonality and duration of nectar sources, legumes and oilseed rape fields are not fully available to bees throughout spring and summer in Northern Europe, thus bumblebees likely also use semi-natural habitats, such as field margins (Bäckman & Tiainen, 2002; Batáry et al., 2015). Therefore, flowering field margins are of high importance during periods when legumes or oilseed rape resources are not available, thus creating a resource bottleneck (Persson et al., 2015; Schellhorn, Gagic & Bommarco, 2015). In our study areas, a resource bottleneck might occur if MFC are not grown in certain years, do not flower until a certain date, or are harvested from a certain date onwards. Thus, it is highly likely that a combination of all three presented reasons affects the availability of food resources for bumblebees.

324

325

323

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

4.2. AES has a role in determining the bumblebee communities of field margins

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

We found that both organic farming and environmentally friendly management promoted bumblebee species richness in field margins. It might be possible that farming practice had a confounding effect on the results, e.g. conventional farms had a higher percentage of cereal rollover fields compared to organic and environmentally friendly management farms, but owing to the lack of collinearity, a significant bias seems to be unlikely. Nonetheless, future studies should aim to collect more balanced datasets. However, Marja et al. (2014), also demonstrated that Estonian AES promoted bumblebees, both within the fields and at their margins. Environmentally friendly management involves requirements to conserve or sow field margins with a flower mix of at least three species (including graminaceous); organic farming does not have such a requirement, but abundances of bumblebee threatened species, small-sized colony species, and forest-scrub species were still higher than per conventional farming. This was probably related to the strict management requirements (synthetic pesticides and most mineral fertilizers are forbidden) of organic farming. Our results indicate that threatened species are remarkably sensitive to agricultural management, and prefer more AES, farms; non-threatened species seemed to be less sensitive to management. We found that the abundances of species with small colonies were related to AES management types, whereas abundances of species with medium and large colonies did not

differ between management types. These results can be related to the mobility potential. Species with small colonies have more limited dispersal distances (Westphal, Steffan-Dewenter & Tscharntke, 2006). This adaptation makes them more sensitive to local environmental and agricultural conditions. It is also probable that there were more suitable habitat conditions in organic and environmentally friendly management field margins for bumblebee species with small colonies. Species with medium and large colonies are more mobile and search for resources at larger scales, and are therefore less influenced by local conditions.

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

4.3. Conservation of bumblebees Both naturally-occurring plants and the sowing of seed mixes to provide nectar-rich plants (e.g. clover) at field margins can benefit bumblebees and other pollinators in Estonia as well as in Northern Europe in general (Scheper et al., 2013). It is important when sowing nectarrich plants mixes, to use only local flora to avoid introducing alien species. The conservation of non-cropped landscape elements, such as field margins and other flower resources, is essential to support the diversity of wild pollinators and their food plants. For instance, the latest results from Estonia showed that field margins need to be at least 3 m wide to support 'high nature value' plant species intolerant of modern farming practices (Aavik & Liira, 2010). For bumblebees, these plant species are potentially of higher value and provide more temporally stable food resources than agro-tolerant plant species. Thus, non-cropped field margins at least 3–5 m wide could be a key and simple solution to improve bumblebee diversity in cereal-dominated agricultural landscapes. Furthermore, permanent field margins are important for bumblebees in terms of the continuity of resources other than food, such as nesting and wintering habitat (Bäckman & Tiainen, 2002; Batáry et al., 2015). A recent study showed that almost 80% of crop pollination is performed by a limited number of bee species, and threatened bee species contribute little (Kleijn et al., 2015). However, protecting the main, common pollinator species only is not a sustainable solution to the conservation of pollinator biodiversity. Senapathi et al. (2015) highlighted that maintaining whole pollinator species diversity, including widespread and rare species, is essential to provide ecosystem resilience and functioning in the future. Therefore, the conservation of different habitats and the whole pollinator species spectrum is crucial, because different pollinator species visit different parts of crops, or crops at different times of the day or year, and respond differently to environmental disturbances (Goulson et al., 2015).

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

5. Conclusions

Our results indicate that cereal field margins can act as refugia to forest-scrub, long-tongued, and threatened bumblebee species, such as B. hypnorum, B. distinguendus, and B. muscorum, which are vulnerable in Europe (Nieto et al., 2014). Semi-natural field margins, especially in intensively managed cropland, may be a viable option to support these species in Europe, because they represent permanent valuable landscape elements, offering places to nest and overwinter, as well as providing food resources. It is possible that the field margin requirement of Estonian AES is one of the reasons why Estonian bumblebee abundances were stable over a recent five year period (Agriculture Research Centre, 2015). Our study indicated a concentration—dilution effect of field margins upon bumblebee abundances, dependant on the type of crop being grown in the field (cereal = concentration at the margin; MFC = dilution into the field). To test the concentration-dilution hypothesis of field margins upon pollinators, future studies should account for within-field pollinator/flower abundances, and the influence of adjacent fields (or even landscape composition). Nonetheless, our results show that management of flower rich field margins, especially in cereal rollover fields, where few alternative nectar sources exist, is important and should form part of all AES targeting pollinators.

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

Acknowledgements

The census work was coordinated by the Agricultural Research Centre as part of the ongoing evaluation of AES within the framework of the Estonian Rural Development Plan 2007–2013, financed by the European Union and Estonian government under the Technical Assistance measure of the 2007–2013 Rural Development Plan of Estonia. M.M. research was partly supported by Institutional Research Funding (IUT36-2) of the Estonian Ministry of

401	Education. P.B. was supported by the German Research Foundation (DFG BA4438/2-1) and
102	by the Economic Development and Innovation Operational Programme of Hungary (GINOP-
103	2.3.2–15–2016–00019). The authors are thankful to Katrin Jõgar, Martin Jürgenson, Reet
104	Karise, Irja Kivimägi, Eha Kruus, Reelika Päädam, Eve Veromann, Kai-Riin Veromann,
105	Linda-Liisa Veromann-Jürgenson, and Peeter Veromann for their help in conducting the
106	fieldwork.
107	
408	Authors' Contributions
109	RM and PB conceived the study and designed the methodology; EV and MM coordinated
410	data collection; RM analysed the data; RM led the writing of the manuscript. All authors
411	(RM, EV, MM, JP, AMK, and PB) contributed critically to the manuscript and approved the
412	submission.
413	
414	Data accessibility
415	Data availability. The biodiversity and environmental data used in the analyses are archived at
416	the research data repository Zenodo (https://zenodo.org/record/1161431).
1 17	

418	References
419	Aavik, T., & Liira, J. (2010) Quantifying the effect of organic farming, field boundary type
420	and landscape structure on the vegetation of field boundaries. Agriculture, Ecosystems
421	and Environment, 135 , 178–186.
422	Agricultural Research Centre. (2015) Estonian Rural Development Plan 2007-2013 annual
423	report of axis 2 ongoing evaluation activities in 2014. Saku, Estonia. (in Estonian).
424	Bäckman, JP. C., & Tiainen, J. (2002) Habitat quality of field margins in a Finnish farmland
425	area of bumblebees (Hymenoptera: Bombus and Psithyrus). Agriculture, Ecosystems &
426	Environment, 89 , 53–68.
427	Batáry, P., Dicks, L.V., Kleijn, D., & Sutherland, W.J. (2015) The role of agri-environment
428	schemes in conservation and environmental management. Conservation Biology, 29,
429	1006–1016.
430	Bates, D., Maechler M., Bolker, B., Walker, S., Bojesen, R.H.C., Singmann, H., Green, P.
431	(2016) Package <i>lme4</i> : Linear Mixed-Effects Models using 'Eigen' and S4. URL:
432	https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/lme4/lme4.pdf
433	Blüthgen, N., & Klein, AM. (2011) Functional complementarity and specialisation: the role
434	of biodiversity in plant-pollinator interactions. Basic and Applied Ecology, 12, 282-
435	291.
436	Bommarco, R., Lundin, O., Smith, H.G., & Rundlöf, M. (2012) Drastic historic shifts in
437	bumble-bee community composition in Sweden. Proceedings of the Royal Society of
438	London B, 279 , 309–315.
439	Brittain, C.A., Vighi, M., Bommarco, R., Settele, J., & Potts, S.G. (2010) Impacts of a
440	pesticide on pollinator species richness at different spatial scales. Basic and Applied
441	Ecology, 11, 106–115.

442 Carvell, C., Meek, W.R., Pywell, R.F., Goulson, D., & Nowakowski, M. (2007) Comparing 443 the efficacy of agri-environment schemes to enhance bumble bee abundance and 444 diversity on arable field margins. Journal of Applied Ecology, 44, 29–40. 445 Carvell, C., Bourke, A.F.G., Osborne, J.L., & Heard, M.S. (2015) Effects of an agri-446 environment scheme on bumblebee reproduction at local and landscape scales. Basic 447 and Applied Ecology, 16, 519-530. 448 Fox, J., & Weisberg, S. (2011) Companion to Applied Regression, Second Edition. Thousand 449 Oaks CA: Sage. URL: http://socserv.socsci.mcmaster.ca/jfox/Books/Companion. 450 Goulson, D. (2010) Bumblebees. Behaviour, ecology and conservation. Second edition. 451 Oxford University Press. 452 Goulson, D., Lye, G.C. & Darvill, B. (2008) Decline and conservation of bumble bees. 453 Annual Review of Entomology, 53, 191–208. 454 Goulson, D., Nicholls, E., Botias, C., & Rotheray, E. (2015) Bee declines driven by combined 455 stress from parasites, pesticides, and lack of flowers. Science, 347, 1435–1443. 456 Hole, D.G., Perkins, A.J., Wilson, J.D., Alexander, I.H., Grice, F., & Evans, A.D. (2005) 457 Does organic farming benefit biodiversity? *Biological Conservation*, **122**, 113–130. 458 Holzschuh, A., Dormann, C.F., Tscharntke, T., & Steffan-Dewenter, I. (2011) Expansion of 459 mass-flowering crops leads to transient pollinator dilution and reduced wild plant 460 pollination. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B, 278, 3444–3451. 461 IPBES. (2016) Summary for policymakers of the assessment report of the Intergovernmental 462 Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services on pollinators, 463 pollination and food production. 464 Klein, A.-M., Vaissiere, B., Cane, J.H., Steffan-Dewenter, I., Cunningham, S.A., Kremen, C., 465 & Tscharntke, T. (2007) Importance of crop pollinators in changing landscapes for 466 world crops. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B*, **274**, 303–313.

46 /	Kleijn, D., Rundiof, M., Scheper, J., Smith, H.G., & Tscharntke, T. (2011) Does conservation
468	on farmland contribute to halting the biodiversity decline? Trends in Ecology and
469	Evolution, 26 , 474–481.
470	Kleijn, D., Winfree, R., Bartomeus, I., Carvalheiro, L.G., Henry, M., Isaacs, R., Potts, S.G.
471	(2015) Delivery of crop pollination services is an insufficient argument for wild
472	pollinator conservation. Nature Communications, 6, 7414.
473	Kremen, C., Williams, N.M., Aizen, M.A., Gemmill-Herren, B., LeBuhn, G., Minckley, R.,
474	Ricketts, T.H. (2007) Pollination and other ecosystem services produced by mobile
475	organisms: a conceptual framework for the effects of land-use change. Ecology Letters,
476	10 , 299–314.
477	Magrach, A., González-Varo, J.P., Boiffier, M., Vilà, M., & Bartomeus, I. (2017) Honeybee
478	spillover reshuffles pollinator diets and affects plant reproductive success. Nature
479	Ecology & Evolution. doi:10.1038/s41559-017-0249-9.
480	Marja, R., Herzon, I., Viik, E., Elts, J., Mänd, M., Tscharntke, T., & Batáry, P. (2014)
481	Environmentally friendly management as an intermediate strategy between organic and
482	conventional agriculture to support biodiversity. Biological Conservation, 178, 146-
483	154.
484	Nieto, A., Roberts, S.P.M., Kemp, J., Rasmont, P., Kuhlmann, M., García Criado, M.,
485	Miches, D. (2014) European Red List of bees. Luxembourg: Publication Office of the
486	European Union.
487	Persson, A.S., Rundlöf, M., Clough, Y., & Smith, H.G. (2015) Bumble bees show trait-
488	dependent vulnerability to landscape simplification. Biodiversity and Conservation, 24,
489	3469–3489.

490 Potts, S.G., Biesmeijer, J.C., Kremen, C., Neumann, P., Schweiger, O., & Kunin, W.E. (2010) 491 Global pollinator declines: trends, impacts and drivers. Trends in Ecology and 492 Evolution, 25, 345–353. 493 Potts, S.G., Imperatriz-Fonseca, V., Ngo, H.T., Aizen, M.A., Biesmeijer, J.C., Breeze, T.D., 494 & Vanbergen, A.J. (2016). Safeguarding pollinators and their values to human well-495 being. *Nature*, **540**, 220–229. 496 R Development Core Team. (2016) R: A language and environment for statistical computing. 497 R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. ISBN 3-900051-07-0, URL: 498 http://www.R-project.org 499 Schellhorn, N.A., Gagic, V., & Bommarco, R. (2015) Time will tell: resource continuity 500 bolsters ecosystem services. Trends in Ecology and Evolution, 30, 524–530. 501 Scheper, J., Holzschuh, A., Kuussaari, M., Potts, S.G., Rundlöf, M., Smith, H.G., & Kleijn, D. (2013) Environmental factors driving the effectiveness of European agri-environmental 502 503 measures in mitigating pollinator loss – a meta-analysis. Ecology Letters, 16, 912–920 504 Senapathi, D., Biesmeijer, J.C., Breeze, T.D., Kleijn, D., Potts, S.G., & Carvalheiro, L.G. 505 (2015) Pollinator conservation – the difference between managing for pollination 506 services and preserving pollinator diversity. Current Opinion in Insect Science, 12, 93– 507 101. 508 Sutcliffe, L., Batáry, P., Kormann, U., Báldi, A., Dicks, L., Herzon, I., ... Tscharntke, T. 509 (2015) Harnessing the biodiversity value of Central and Eastern European farmland. 510 *Diversity and Distributions*, **21**, 722–730. 511 Tscharntke, T., Klein, A.-M., Kruess, A., Steffan-Dewenter, I., & Thies, C. (2005) Landscape 512 perspectives on agricultural intensification and biodiversity-ecosystem service 513 management. Ecology Letters, 8, 857–874.

514 Tscharntke, T., Tylianaskis, J.M., Rand, T.A., Didham, R.K., Fahrig, L., Batáry, P., ... 515 Westphal, C. (2012) Landscape moderation of biodiversity patterns and processes-eight 516 hypotheses. Biological Reviews, 87, 661–685. 517 Westphal, C., Steffan-Dewenter, I., & Tscharntke, T. (2003) Mass flowering crops enhance 518 pollinator densities at a landscape scale. *Ecology Letters*, **11**, 961–965. 519 Westphal, C., Steffan-Dewenter, I., & Tscharntke, T. (2006) Bumblebees experience 520 landscapes at different spatial scales: possible implications for coexistence. *Oecologia*, 521 **149**, 289–300. 522 Williams, N.M., Ward, K.L., Pope, N., Isaacs, R., Wilson, J. & May, E.A., ... Peters, J. 523 (2015) Native wildflower plantings support wild bee abundance and diversity in 524 agricultural landscapes across the United States. Ecological Applications, 25, 2119– 525 2131. 526 Williams, P.H., & Osborne J.L. (2009) Bumblebee vulnerability and conservation world-527 wide. Apidologie, 40, 367–387. 528 Winfree, R., Aguilar, R., Vazquez, D.P., LeBuhn, G., & Aizen, M.A. (2009) A meta-analysis 529 of bees' responses to anthropogenic disturbance. *Ecology*, **90**, 2068–2076. 530 Wood, T.J., Holland, J.M., & Goulson, D. (2015) A comparison of techniques for assessing 531 farmland bumblebee populations. *Oecologia*, 177, 1093–1102. 532 Wood, T.J., Holland, J.M., Hughes, W.O.H., & Goulson, D. (2015) Targeted agri-533 environment schemes significantly improve the population size of common farmland 534 bumblebee species. *Molecular Ecology*, **24**, 1668–1680.

Table captions

536

535

Table 1 Cross-table of sample sizes by crop rotation and management types. Cereal (all rye,
 oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields), MFC = mass-flowering crops (pea, bean, clover,

alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed rape).

Management type/ Crop rotation	Conventional farming	Environmentally friendly management		Crop rotation total
Cereal→cereal	86	22	9	117
Cereal→MFC	17	46	24	87
MFC→cereal	28	36	19	83
MFC→MFC	17	31	66	114
Management type total	148	135	118	401

540

541

·			4 •
н	α 111 r_c	cor	MINNE
	7 III C		tions
	5 •		

Fig. 1. Comparison of flower cover in field margins between different crop rotation and
management types. The figure shows results from linear mixed-effects models (p-value, lower
and upper boundary of 95% CI). Indicated are effect sizes (y-axis) compared to the crop
rotation type control group (cereal rollover field margins) and management type control group
(conventional farming). The effect size is significantly different if the CIs do not overlap with
zero. Asterisk symbols represent statistically significant p-values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001
(*, **, and ***, respectively). Cer = cereals (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields),
MFC = mass flowering crops (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed
rape), Environmental = environmentally friendly management, Organic = organic farming.

Fig. 2. Comparison of bumblebee abundances in field margins between different crop rotation
types, management types, and effect of flower cover for (a) non-threatened and (b) threatened
bumblebee species. The figure shows results from linear mixed-effects models (p-value,
lower and upper boundary of 95% CI). Indicated are effect sizes (y-axis) compared to the crop
rotation type control group (cereal rollover field margins) and management type control group
(conventional farming). The effect size is significantly different if the CIs do not overlap with
zero. Asterisk symbols represent statistically significant p-values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001
(*, **, and ***, respectively). Cer = cereals (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields),
MFC = mass flowering crops (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed
rape), Environmental = environmentally friendly management, Organic = organic farming,
Flowers = flower cover.

Fig. 3. Comparison of bumblebee abundances in field margins between different crop rotation types, management types, and effect of flower cover for species based on their colony size, i.e. (a) large, (b) medium and (c) small colonies. The figure shows results from linear mixed-effects models (p-value, lower and upper boundary of 95% CI). Indicated are effect sizes (y-axis) compared to the crop rotation type control group (cereal rollover field margins) and management type control group (conventional farming). The effect size is significantly different if the CIs do not overlap with zero. Asterisk symbols represent statistically significant p-values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 (*, ** and, ***, respectively). Cer = cereals (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields), MFC = mass flowering crops (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed rape), Environmental = environmentally friendly management, Organic = organic farming, Flowers = flower cover.

Fig. 4. Comparison of bumblebee abundances in field margins between different crop rotation
types, management types, and effect of flower cover for species based on their habitat
preference, i.e. (a) open land, (b) generalists, and (c) forest-scrub. The figure shows results
from linear mixed-effects models (p-value, lower and upper boundary of 95% CI). Indicated
are effect sizes (y-axis) compared to the crop rotation type control group (cereal rollover field
margins) and management type control group (conventional farming). The effect size is
significantly different if the CIs do not overlap with zero. Asterisk symbols represent
statistically significant p-values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 (*, ** and, *** respectively). Cer
= cereals (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields), MFC = mass flowering crops (pea,
bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed rape), Environmental =
environmentally friendly management, Organic = organic farming, Flowers = flower cover.

591	Supporting Information
592	
593	Table S1. Requirements of conventional farming and the two agri-environment schemes.
594	
595	Table S2. Flowering plant species known to be used by bumblebees for foraging.
596	
597	Table S3. Bumblebee species' traits based on tongue length, threat status, colony size and
598	main habitat type.
599	
600	Table S4. Investigated plant and bumblebee variables depending on crop rotation type (mean
601	values and standard error of mean).
602	
603	Table S5. Investigated plant and bumblebee variables depending on management type (mean
604	values and standard error of mean).
605	
606	Figure S1. Illustrative photos of field margins.
607	
608	Figure S2. Study areas in the two regions of Northern and Southern Estonia.
609	
610	Figure S3. Comparisons of bumblebee species richness and abundance in field margins
611	between different crop rotation types, management types, and effect of flower cover.
612	
613	Figure S4. Comparisons of bumblebee abundance of short- and long-tongued bumblebee
614	species in field margins between different crop rotation types, management types, and effect
615	of flower cover.

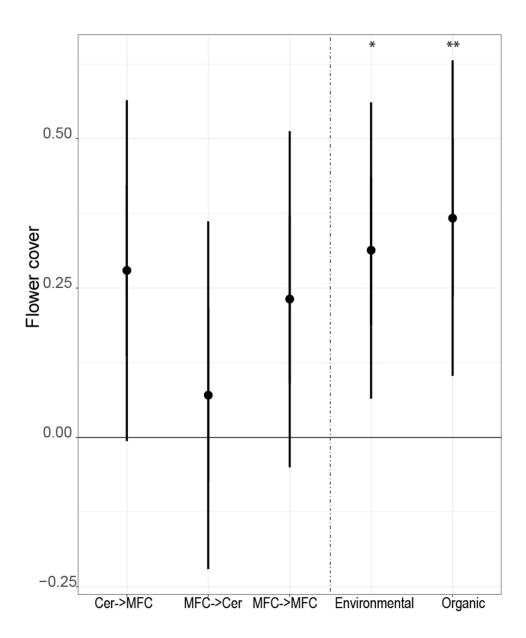


Fig. 1. Comparison of flower cover in field margins between different crop rotation and management types. The figure shows results from linear mixed-effects models (p-value, lower and upper boundary of 95% CI). Indicated are effect sizes (y-axis) compared to the crop rotation type control group (cereal rollover field margins) and management type control group (conventional farming). The effect size is significantly different if the CIs do not overlap with zero. Asterisk symbols represent statistically significant p-values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 (*, ***, and ****, respectively). Cer = cereals (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields), MFC = mass flowering crops (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed rape), Environmental = environmentally friendly management, Organic = organic farming.

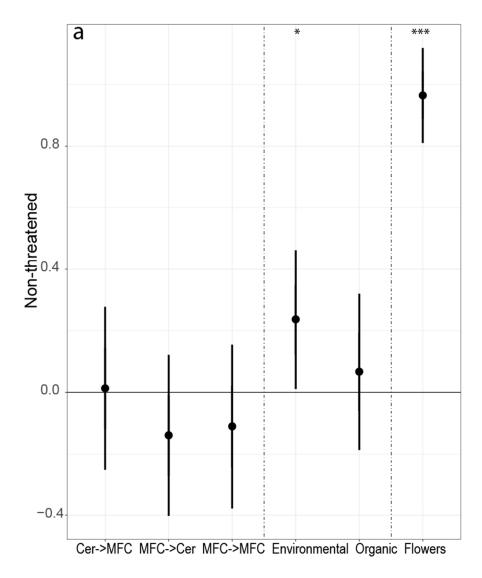


Fig. 2. Comparison of bumblebee abundances in field margins between different crop rotation types, management types, and effect of flower cover for (a) non-threatened and (b) threatened bumblebee species. The figure shows results from linear mixed-effects models (p-value, lower and upper boundary of 95% CI). Indicated are effect sizes (y-axis) compared to the crop rotation type control group (cereal rollover field margins) and management type control group (conventional farming). The effect size is significantly different if the CIs do not overlap with zero. Asterisk symbols represent statistically significant p-values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 (*, ***, and ****, respectively). Cer = cereals (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields), MFC = mass flowering crops (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed rape), Environmental = environmentally friendly management, Organic = organic farming, Flowers = flower cover.

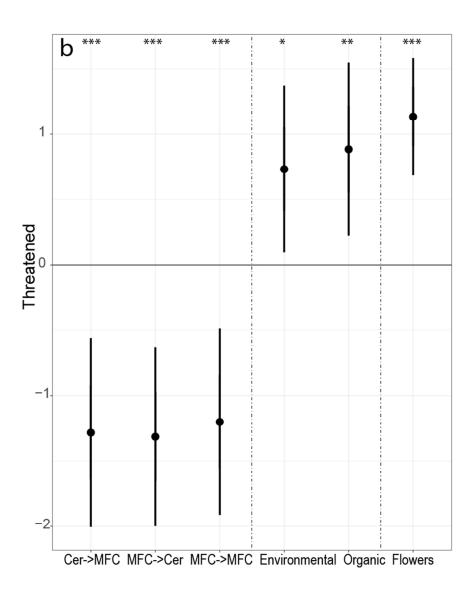


Figure 2 B 253x279mm (90 x 90 DPI)

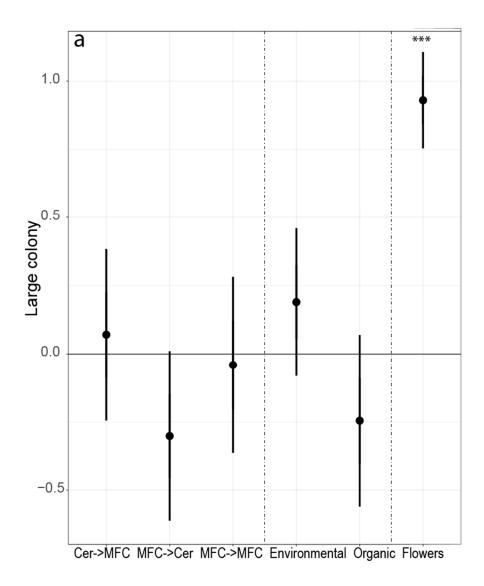


Fig. 3. Comparison of bumblebee abundances in field margins between different crop rotation types, management types, and effect of flower cover for species based on their colony size, i.e. (a) large, (b) medium and (c) small colonies. The figure shows results from linear mixed-effects models (p-value, lower and upper boundary of 95% CI). Indicated are effect sizes (y-axis) compared to the crop rotation type control group (cereal rollover field margins) and management type control group (conventional farming). The effect size is significantly different if the CIs do not overlap with zero. Asterisk symbols represent statistically significant p-values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 (*, ** and, ***, respectively). Cer = cereals (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields), MFC = mass flowering crops (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed rape), Environmental = environmentally friendly management, Organic = organic farming, Flowers = flower cover.

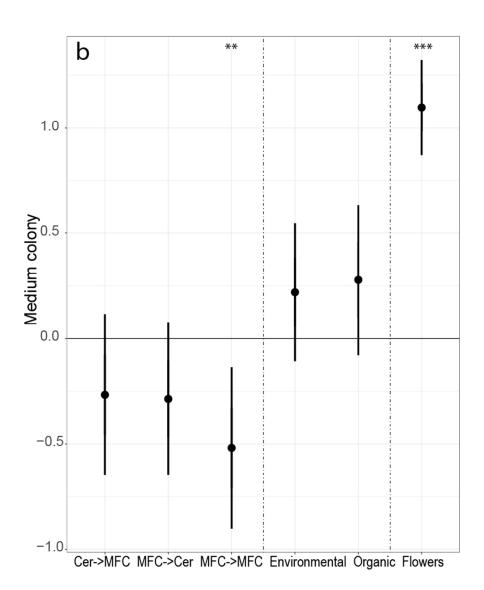


Figure 3 b 253x279mm (90 x 90 DPI)

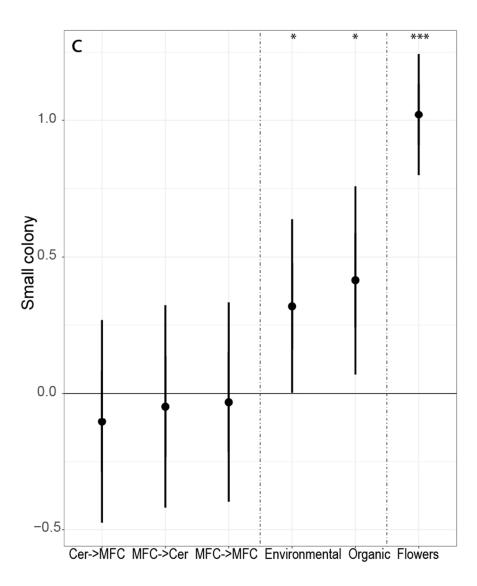


Figure 3 c 253x279mm (90 x 90 DPI)

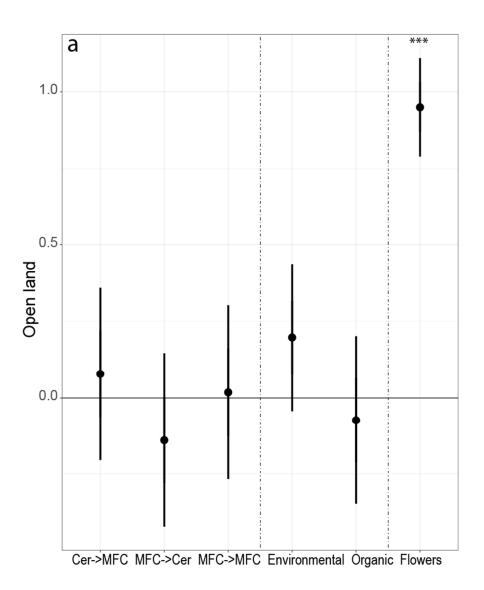


Fig. 4. Comparison of bumblebee abundances in field margins between different crop rotation types, management types, and effect of flower cover for species based on their habitat preference, i.e. (a) open land, (b) generalists, and (c) forest-scrub. The figure shows results from linear mixed-effects models (p-value, lower and upper boundary of 95% CI). Indicated are effect sizes (y-axis) compared to the crop rotation type control group (cereal rollover field margins) and management type control group (conventional farming). The effect size is significantly different if the CIs do not overlap with zero. Asterisk symbols represent statistically significant p-values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 (*, ** and, *** respectively). Cer = cereals (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields), MFC = mass flowering crops (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed rape), Environmental = environmentally friendly management, Organic = organic farming, Flowers = flower cover.

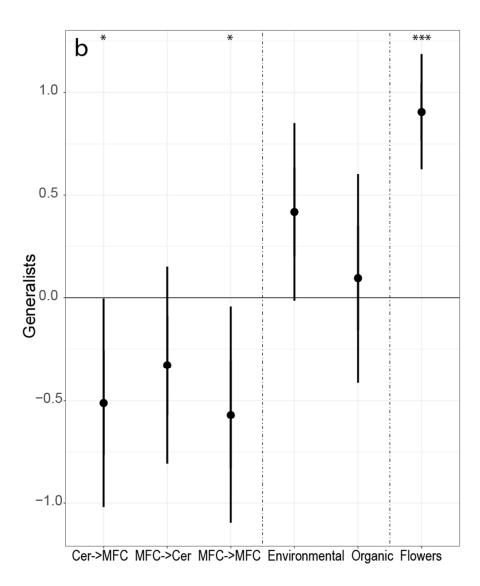


Figure 4 b 253x279mm (90 x 90 DPI)

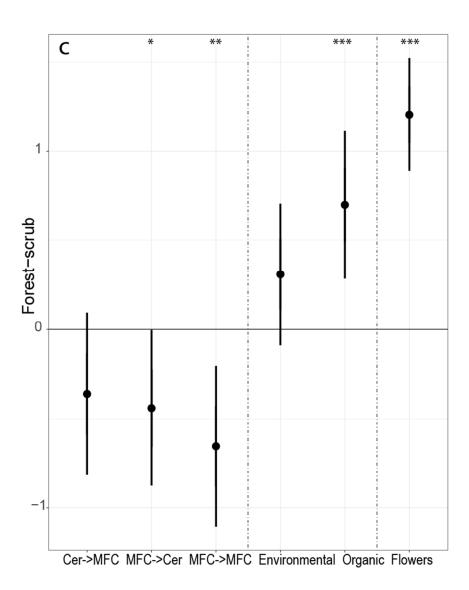


Figure 4 c 253x279mm (90 x 90 DPI)

Crop rotation and agri-environment schemes determine bumblebee communities via flower resources

Riho Marja, Eneli Viik, Marika Mänd, James Phillips, Alexandra-Maria Klein, Péter Batáry

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Table S1. Requirements of conventional farming (single area payment scheme) and two agri-environment schemes (environmentally friendly management, and organic farming), of the Estonian Rural Development Plan 2007–2013 (Estonian Rural Development Plan 2007–2013, 2010).

Management type	Pre-requisites of applying for support	Baseline requirements for obtaining agri- environment support	Additional requirements for obtaining agri-environment support, specific to each scheme
Conventional farming	Cross-Compliance requirements. Minimum 1 ha of agricultural land entered into the register of agricultural support and agricultural parcels.		
	Cross-Compliance requirements. Minimum requirements for the application of fertilizers and plant protection products. Self-employed person engaged in agriculture or a legal person. Minimum 1 ha of arable land entered into the register of agricultural support and agricultural parcels (permanent grassland is not eligible). 5-year obligation.	Compiling a cropping or crop rotation plan. Plant protection equipment have to pass a technical inspection after every three years. Agricultural crops are sown or planted by the 15 th of June (spread of weeds avoided) or the agricultural land is kept as black fallow. In certain parishes, at least 30% of the agricultural land must remain under winter cover. Restrictions on using nitrogen.	Basic scheme requirements: Compiling a standard fertilization plan. Requirement of a cropping or crop rotation plan (e.g. 1 st November to 31 st March at least 30% under winter vegetation). At least 15% of agricultural crops sown with certified seed. Collection of soil samples once during the obligation period, and in the case of manure storage facilities, manure samples. To leave or establish a 2-5 m wide grassland strip with perennial vegetation or other kind of landscape element between the field and public road if the arable land area is larger than 20 ha (also some more detailed requirements). Cultural heritage sites and other valuable landscape elements

		field.	cannot be damaged or destroyed.
		Valuable landscape elements cannot be damaged or destroyed.	Basic + additional scheme requirements:
		Compulsory training (6+6 hours). I e p	Basic scheme requirements.
			At least 15% of the eligible land is under leguminous crops.
			The application of glyphosates is prohibited from the time of the emergence of cultivated plants until harvesting. It is also prohibited on grasslands used as green manures.
			Plant growth regulators can only be used in case of growing winter cereals.
			Black fallow is prohibited.
			The amount of nitrogen fertilization is restricted.
Organic farming	Cross compliance requirements.	Keeping a field book.	Requirements for organic plant production and for organic
	Minimum requirements for the usage of fertilizers and plant protection products.	Grasslands and orchards must be mowed once or grazed before 31st July and mowed grass removed or chopped.	
	Self-employed person engaged in agriculture or a legal person.		
	Minimum 1 ha of agricultural land entered into the register of agricultural support and		
	agricultural parcels.	Destruction or spoiling of natural protected	
	The enterprise must be approved according to	objects is prohibited. Damaging of semi-natural habitats is prohibited.	
	To follow the Organic Farming Act.	Compulsory training (12+12 hours).	
	5-year obligation.		

Estonian Rural Development Plan 2007–2013 (2010. URL: http://www.agri.ee/mak).

Table S2. Flowering plant species known to be used by bumblebees for foraging in Estonian agricultural landscapes based on our 2014 unpublished survey.

Plant species	Plant species	Plant species	
Aegopodium podagraria	Galopsis tetrahit	Symphytum officinale	
Anchusa arvensis	Geranium pratense	Trifolium hybridum	
Anchusa officinalis	Hieracium spp	Trifolium medium	
Arctium lappa	Hypericum maculatum	Trifolium pratense	
Arctium minus	Hypericum perforatum	Trifolium repens	
Arctium tomentosum	Knautia arvensis	Veronica longifolia	
Bunias orientalis	Lamium album	Vicia cracca	
Campanula cervicaria	Lamium hybridum	Vicia sepium	
Campanula glomerata	Lamium purpureum	Vicia villosa	
Campanula latifolia	Lathyrus pratensis		
Campanula medium	Linaria vulgaris		
Campanula persicifolia	Lonicera xylosteum		
Campanula rapunculoides	Lotus corniculatus		
Capsella bursa bastoris	Lupinus polyphyllus		
Carduus crispus	Lythrum salicaria		
Centaurea cyanus	Medicago lupulina		
Centaurea jacea	Centaurea jacea Medicago sativa		
Centaurea phrygia	Medicago varia		
Centaurea scabiosa	Melampyrum nemorosum		
Cirsium arvense	Melilotus albus		
Cirsium heterophyllum	Mentha arvensis		
Cirsium palustre	Odontites serotina		
Consolida regalis	Odontites verna		
Echium vulgare	Origanum vulgare		
Epilobium angustifolium	Phacelia tanacetifolia		
Fragaria vesca	Rubus idaeus		
Galega orientalis	Silene alba		
Galeopsis bifida	Silene vulgaris		
Galeopsis speciosa	Sonchus oleraceus		
Galeopsis tetrahit	Stachys palustris		
Galium album	Symphytum asperum		

Table S3. Bumblebee species' traits based on tongue length, threat status, colony size, and main habitat type, and their abundance in our sample. Colony size information is based on Benton (2006), Pawlikowski (2008), von Hagen & Aichhorn (2014), del Castillo *et al.* (2015), Weronika Banaszak-Cibicka (pers. comm.), and our unpublished data. Main habitat classification is based on Bäckman & Tiainen (2002), Diaz-Forero *et al.* (2011), and our own unpublished data. Threatened species at a European scale were classified as vulnerable under the recent IUCN list (Nieto *et al.*, 2014).

Bumblebee species	Tongue length	Threat status	Colony size	Main habitat	Total number of individuals
Bombus confusus	short- or medium-tongued	threatened	small	generalist	2
B. cryptarum	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	medium	generalist	11
B. distinguendus	long-tongued	threatened	small	forest-scrub	160
B. hortorum	long-tongued	non-threatened	medium	open	526
B. humilis	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	small	open	32
B. hypnorum	short- or medium-tongued	threatened	large	generalist	240
B. jonellus	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	small	forest-scrub	24
B. lapidarius	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	large	open	1006
B. lucorum	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	large	open	1150
B. muscorum	short- or medium-tongued	threatened	small	forest-scrub	61
B. pascuorum	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	medium	forest-scrub	785
B. pratorum	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	small	forest-scrub	165
B. ruderarius	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	small	open	486
B. schrencki	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	small	forest-scrub	50
B. semenoviellus	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	small	open	4
B. soroeensis	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	medium	generalist	405
B. subterraneus	long-tongued	non-threatened	small	open	46
B. sylvarum	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	small	open	419
B. terrestris	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	large	open	213
B. veteranus	short- or medium-tongued	non-threatened	small	open	307

References

Benton, T. (2006) Bumble bees: the natural history and identification of the species found in Britain. Collins, London.

Bäckman, J.-P. C. & Tiainen, J. (2002) Habitat quality of field margins in a Finnish farmland area of bumblebees (Hymenoptera: Bombus and Psithyrus). *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, **89**, 53–68.

- del Castillo, R.C., Sanabria-Urbán, S. & Serrano-Meneses, M.A. (2015) Trade-offs in the evolution of bumblebee colony and body size: a comparative analysis. *Ecology and Evolution*, **18**, 3914–3926.
- Diaz-Forero, I., Kuusemets, V., Mänd, M., Liivamägi, A., Kaart, T. & Luig, J. (2011) Effects of forest habitats on the local abundance of bumblebee species: a landscape-scale study. *Baltic Forestry*, **17**, 235–242.
- Nieto, A., Roberts, S.P.M., Kemp, J., Rasmont, P., Kuhlmann, M., García Criado, M. *et al.* (2014) European Red List of bees. Luxembourg: Publication Office of the European Union.
- Pawlikowski, T. (2008) A distribution atlas of bumblebees in Poland. Toruń. (in Polish).
- von Hagen, E. & Aichhorn, A. (2014) Hummeln: bestimmen, ansiedeln, vermehren, schützen. Fauna Verlag. (in German).

Table S4. Investigated plant and bumblebee variables depending on crop rotation type (mean values and standard error of mean per transect section) and transect sections length mean values and standard error of mean. Cereal (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields), MFC = mass-flowering crops (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed rape). Scale of flower cover 0-3: 0 = no flowers suitable for bumblebees; 1 = >0 to 1/3 of the area with flowers suitable for bumblebees; 2 = 1/3 to 2/3 with suitable flowers, 3 = >2/3 covered with suitable flowers.

_	Cereal → cereal	Cereal → MFC	MFC→cereal	MFC→MFC
Plants				
Flower cover	0.85 ± 0.05	1.32 ± 0.06	1.03 ± 0.06	1.36 ± 0.06
Bumblebees				
Species richness	3.92 ± 0.25	5.18 ± 0.33	4.31 ± 0.29	5.19 ± 0.32
Abundance	12.19 ± 1.16	18.64 ± 2.42	12.10 ± 1.36	17.89 ± 1.67
Short-tongued abundance	10.53 ± 1.03	16.69 ± 2.11	10.88 ± 1.22	15.55 ± 1.47
Long-tongued abundance	1.66 ± 0.24	1.95 ± 0.40	1.22 ± 0.22	2.34 ± 0.38
Non-threatened abundance	10.91 ± 1.04	17.53 ± 2.22	11.47 ± 1.31	16.46 ± 1.53
Threatened abundance	1.28 ± 0.21	1.11 ± 0.29	0.63 ± 0.14	1.44 ± 0.28
Large colony abundance	5.46 ± 0.64	8.45 ± 1.23	4.61 ± 0.60	7.47 ± 0.92
Medium colony abundance	3.68 ± 0.41	5.47 ± 0.96	3.61 ± 0.48	4.57 ± 0.53
Small colony abundance	3.05 ± 0.40	4.72 ± 0.78	3.87 ± 0.54	5.85 ± 0.67
Open land abundance	7.93 ± 0.82	12.91 ± 1.66	8.10 ± 0.97	12.86 ± 1.30
Generalists abundance	1.63 ± 0.23	1.87 ± 0.34	1.36 ± 0.26	1.68 ± 0.26
Forest-scrub abundance	2.62 ± 0.36	3.86 ± 0.92	2.64 ± 0.43	3.36 ± 0.46
Transect sections length	227.5 ± 11.7	208.7 ± 13.5	223.6 ± 13.7	224.0 ± 11.2

Table S5. Investigated plant and bumblebee variables depending on management type (mean values and standard error of mean per transect section) and transect sections length mean values and standard error of mean. Scale of flower cover 0-3: 0 = no flowers suitable for bumblebees; 1 = >0 to 1/3 of the area with flowers suitable for bumblebees; 2 = 1/3 to 2/3 with suitable flowers, 3 = >2/3 covered with suitable flowers.

	Conventional farming	Environmentally friendly management	Organic farming
Plants			
Flower cover	0.84 ± 0.04	1.23 ± 0.05	1.39 ± 0.06
Bumblebees			
Species richness	3.61 ± 0.21	5.19 ± 0.26	5.31 ± 0.30
Abundance	10.26 ± 0.88	18.88 ± 1.70	17.16 ± 1.69
Short-tongued abundance	9.01 ± 0.79	16.61 ± 1.48	15.13 ± 1.49
Long-tongued abundance	1.25 ± 0.18	2.27 ± 0.34	2.03 ± 0.31
Non-threatened abundance	9.47 ± 0.81	17.70 ± 1.59	15.58 ± 1.51
Threatened abundance	0.78 ± 0.15	1.19 ± 0.20	1.58 ± 0.29
Large colony abundance	4.69 ± 0.46	8.67 ± 0.97	6.31 ± 0.77
Medium colony abundance	3.02 ± 0.35	5.13 ± 0.53	4.98 ± 0.68
Small colony abundance	2.55 ± 0.34	5.09 ± 0.53	5.86 ± 0.69
Open land abundance	7.14 ± 0.66	13.34 ± 1.28	11.28 ± 1.15
Generalists abundance	1.26 ± 0.20	2.11 ± 0.27	1.58 ± 0.23
Forest-scrub abundance	1.86 ± 0.24	3.43 ± 0.43	4.30 ± 0.73
Transect sections length	236.0 ± 10.9	223.2 ± 11.0	201.8 ± 9.8

Fig. S1. Illustrative photos of studied field margins.









SWEDEN

FINLAND

ESTONIA

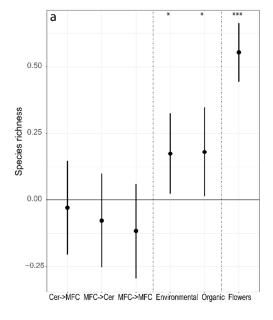
LATVIA

0 100 200km

LITHUANIA

Fig. S2. Study sites (black dotes) in the two regions of Northern and Southern Estonia.

Fig. S3. Comparisons of bumblebee (a) species richness and (b) abundance in field margins between different crop rotation types, management types, and effect of flower cover. The figure shows results from linear mixed-effects models (p-value, lower and upper boundary of 95% CI). Indicated are effect sizes (y-axis) compared to the crop rotation type control group (cereal rollover field margins) and management type control group (conventional farming). The effect size is significantly different if the CIs do not overlap with zero. Asterisk symbols represent statistically significant p-values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 (*, **, and ***, respectively). Cer = cereals (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields), MFC = massflowering crops (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed rape). Environmental = environmentally friendly management, Organic = organic farming, Flowers = flower cover.



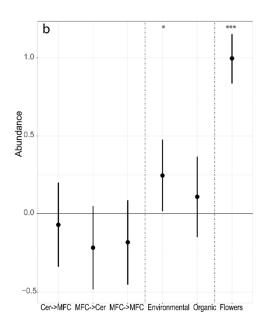


Fig. S4. Comparisons of bumblebee abundance in field margins between different crop rotation types, management types, and effect of flower cover for (a) short- and (b) longtongued bumblebee species. The figure shows results from linear mixed-effects models (p-value, lower and upper boundary of 95% CI). Indicated are effect sizes (y-axis) compared to the crop rotation type control group (cereal rollover field margins) and management type control group (conventional farming). The effect size is significantly different if the CIs do not overlap with zero. Asterisk symbols represent statistically significant p-values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 (*, **, and ***, respectively). Cer = cereals (all rye, oat, barley, triticale, and wheat fields), MFC = mass-flowering crops (pea, bean, clover, alfalfa, sweet clover species, and oilseed rape). Environmental = environmentally friendly management, Organic = organic farming, Flowers = flower cover.

