

# **Agricultural landscape simplification reduces natural pest control: a quantitative synthesis**

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26

27 **Abstract**

28 Numerous studies show that landscape simplification reduces abundance and diversity of natural  
29 enemies in agroecosystems, but its effect on natural pest control remains poorly quantified. Further,  
30 natural enemy impacts on pest populations have usually been estimated for a limited number of taxa  
31 and have not considered interactions among predator species. In a quantitative synthesis with data  
32 collected from several cropping systems in Europe and North America, we analyzed how the level and  
33 within-field spatial stability of natural pest control services was related to the simplification of the  
34 surrounding landscape. **All studies used aphids as a model species and exclusion cages to measure**  
35 **aphid pest control. Landscape simplification was quantified by the proportion of cultivated land within**  
36 **a 1 km radius around each plot.** We found a consistent negative effect of landscape simplification on  
37 the level of natural pest control, despite interactions among enemies. Average level of pest control was  
38 46 % lower in homogeneous landscapes dominated by cultivated land, as compared with more  
39 complex landscapes. Landscape simplification did not affect the amount of positive or negative  
40 interactions among ground-dwelling and vegetation-dwelling predators, or the within-field stability of  
41 pest control. Our synthesis demonstrates that agricultural intensification through landscape  
42 simplification has negative effects on the level of natural pest control with important implications for  
43 management to maintain and enhance ecosystem services in agricultural landscapes. Specifically,  
44 preserving and restoring semi-natural habitats emerges as a fundamental first step to maintain and  
45 enhance pest control services provided by predatory arthropods to agriculture.

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47 **Keywords:** crop protection, biological control, arthropods intraguild predation, ecosystem services,  
48 landscape management, spatial stability

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**1. Introduction**

Agricultural intensification since the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century has resulted in a loss of habitat heterogeneity with important implications for biodiversity and ecosystem function within agricultural landscapes (Benton et al., 2003). During this time, agricultural production increased in part by converting natural and semi-natural habitats within agricultural landscapes into arable fields and partially replacing ecological functions, originally provided by communities of beneficial organisms, with external fossil and agrochemical inputs. But this has come at the cost of negative impacts on water and soil, human and ecosystem health, biodiversity (Tscharntke et al., 2005) and thereby possibly agricultural yields (Ray et al., 2012). A healthy ecosystem and the organisms it contains underpin agricultural productivity with ecosystem services such as crop pollination, pest control, and nutrient cycling (Bommarco et al., 2013). To achieve food security and environmental well-being in the long term, we need to better understand these ecosystem services and integrate their management into modern productive and environmentally friendly crop production systems.

Control of crop pests by their natural enemies is an important ecosystem function that supports crop production and provides agriculture with a valuable, but poorly quantified, ecosystem service (Landis et al., 2008; Tschumi et al., 2015). Natural or semi-natural habitats, such as woodlands, field margins, permanent grasslands, or hedgerows, are crucial habitats for natural enemies in the agricultural landscape as they provide overwintering sites, refuge from disturbance, and alternative prey (Landis et al., 2000; Tscharntke et al., 2007; Rusch et al., 2010). Two comprehensive reviews demonstrate that landscape complexity, commonly defined as the amount of non-crop habitats in a landscape sector surrounding the crop field, generally enhance the abundance and diversity of natural enemies across a range of cropping systems and climatic conditions, but found little evidence for an effect of landscape

75 structure on pest abundance (Bianchi et al., 2006; Chaplin-Kramer et al., 2011). This suggests that the  
76 positive response of natural enemies may not necessarily translate into more effective pest control  
77 (Chaplin-Kramer et al., 2011). However, an important caveat is that relatively few studies have  
78 estimated the impact of natural enemies on the growth, and hence actual suppression, of pest  
79 populations along landscape complexity or intensification gradients. In the most recent comprehensive  
80 synthesis, Chaplin-Kramer et al. (2011) listed only four estimations from three studies of impacts on  
81 pest population growth along landscape gradients, and since then several more such studies have been  
82 conducted.

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84 In addition to influencing natural enemy abundance and diversity, landscape structure may also alter  
85 natural enemy interactions and the stability of pest suppression (Martin et al., 2013; Rusch et al., 2013).  
86 Most studies that have quantified natural enemy impacts on pests consider just one or perhaps a few  
87 parasitoid or predator taxa (e.g. ground-dwelling beetles). There is a need for multi-taxa approaches  
88 taking into account the response of each guild, as well as the overall net pest suppression resulting  
89 from positive and negative interactions among guilds. It is, furthermore, poorly known how intraguild  
90 interactions might vary with landscape simplification, and how this affects the direction and strength  
91 of predator-prey interactions across landscapes.

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93 Increasing the stability (i.e., the inverse of variability) of ecological functions over time and space is an  
94 important motivation for the integration of ecosystem services management in mainstream crop  
95 production systems (Balvanera et al., 2006; Garibaldi et al., 2011; Bommarco et al., 2013). Increased  
96 number of service-providing species in a community increases the stability of ecosystem services such  
97 as biomass production (Weigelt et al., 2008; Cardinale et al., 2012), and crop pollination (Garibaldi et  
98 al., 2011). The diversity and community composition of natural enemies can also influence the  
99 magnitude and stability of natural pest control, but the outcomes may vary. A higher diversity of

100 natural enemies has been shown to increase overall predation rates, and to stabilize pest control  
101 through niche partitioning, facilitation, and a higher probability of having efficient predators included  
102 in a species rich community (Letourneau et al., 2009; Cardinale et al., 2012). **For example, facilitation**  
103 **has been reported between ladybeetles and carabids leading to higher aphid suppression (Losey and**  
104 **Denno, 1998).** However, increasing predator diversity can also strengthen negative interactions among  
105 predators, *e.g.* by intraguild predation and behavioral interference (Ives et al., 2005; Straub et al.,  
106 2008). **Intraguild predation between birds and flying insects, for example, has been shown to constrain**  
107 **pest control in complex landscapes (Martin et al., 2013).** Yet another possibility is that interactions  
108 among predators in a species-rich community leave pest control unaffected due to minimal interaction  
109 among predators, or because positive and negative interactions balance each other (Letourneau et al.,  
110 2009). A majority of the studies examining the relationships between biodiversity and ecosystem  
111 functioning address impacts on stability of functioning over time. How the stability of pest control  
112 across space, and ecosystem services in general, might change with increased biodiversity has received  
113 much less attention (Rusch et al., 2013). An analysis of how various predatory guilds affect pest  
114 population growth in contrasting environmental settings could reveal the relative and combined role of  
115 key components of diversity for functioning, and how this varies with land use (Martin et al., 2013).  
116  
117 We performed a quantitative synthesis of the growing field of study on natural pest control services in  
118 agroecosystems to measure the effect of landscape simplification on the magnitude and stability of  
119 natural pest control in Europe and North America. Using primary data from predator exclusion  
120 experiments that include measures of pest aphid population growth, we investigated the effect of  
121 landscape simplification on (i) the magnitude and the within-field stability of natural pest control, (ii)  
122 pest control provided by different guilds of natural enemies, and (iii) impact of interactions among  
123 guilds of natural enemies on pest population growth. **We predicted that increasing landscape**

124 simplification would reduce the magnitude and the within-field stability of natural pest control and  
125 increase the level of negative interactions among guilds of natural enemies.

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## 127 **2. Material and Methods**

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### 129 2.1 Studies and datasets

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131 Our synthesis is based on published and unpublished data from 15 studies (175 field sites) from five  
132 countries and on four crops (Table 1). All data were from manipulative experiments where ground-  
133 dwelling and vegetation-dwelling arthropod enemies were excluded from their phytophagous aphid  
134 prey with cages and compared to an open treatment. The exclusion treatments differed among studies.  
135 Some studies used two exclusion modalities (total exclusion vs. open treatment) whereas other studies  
136 used four exclusion modalities (total exclusion, exclusion of vegetation-dwelling predators, exclusion  
137 of ground-dwelling predators and open treatment) (Table 1). Experiments were generally performed in  
138 insecticide free area except for some fields in Holland et al. (2012) and in Chaplin-Kramer et al., (2012)  
139 where short persistence insecticide were used (see publications for more details). The duration of the  
140 experiment as well as the number of replicates per field also varied among studies (Table 1). However,  
141 all experiments quantified the magnitude of pest control exerted by all natural enemies, and in some  
142 cases the respective impact of vegetation-dwelling and ground-dwelling predators, by comparing  
143 growth rates of aphid populations between open and exclusion treatments.

144

145 Using regionally available digital land cover maps, we calculated the proportion of cultivated land (all  
146 type of crops) in the 1 km radius around the centre of each crop field (Table 1). This measure  
147 represents a relatively simple and robust parameter for characterizing landscape simplification  
148 (Persson et al., 2010; Roschewitz et al., 2005; Rundlöf and Smith 2006) and is often correlated with  
149 other indicators of complexity, such as habitat-type diversity (e.g., Roschewitz et al., 2005; Tscharrntke

150 et al., 2005). Moreover, this measure can also be interpreted as a more general proxy for agricultural  
151 intensification, as it is often correlated with factors such as pesticide use at the field to landscape scale  
152 (Meehan et al., 2011). The 1 km spatial extent was selected because it has been identified as a relevant  
153 scale to understand trophic interactions and population dynamics for a range of organisms including  
154 natural enemies of crop pests (Thies and Tschardtke 1999; Thies et al., 2005). Land use information  
155 was provided by each author or data owner and included all crop and non-crop habitat types. Original  
156 data sources were either digitalization based on aerial imagery and field inspection or administrative  
157 data available at national scales.

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## 159 2.2 Pest control

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161 To calculate the mean level of natural pest control for each site, we measured the difference in growth  
162 rates of aphids between the total exclusion treatment and the open treatment for all 15 datasets.

163 Because the initial numbers of aphids as well as the duration of the experiment differed markedly  
164 among sites and studies, we calculated the aphid population rate of increase  $r$  (expressed as aphid x  
165 aphid<sup>-1</sup> x day<sup>-1</sup>) for each replicate of each experimental treatment,

$$166 r = [\ln(N_t + 1) - \ln(N_0 + 1)]/t$$

167 where  $N_0$  = initial number of aphids,  $N_t$  = number of aphids at time  $t$  and  $t$  = the duration of the  
168 experiment in days. This calculation allows for comparisons among sites and studies (McCallum 2000;  
169 Costamagna et al., 2007; Latham and Mills 2010). For each replicate at each site, the difference in the  
170 rate of increase (between the total exclusion treatment and the open treatment) reflects the net  
171 mortality of aphids. Based on our experimental design, this mortality is assumed to be mainly due to  
172 natural enemies. In addition, we analyzed the spatial variation in the level of aphid control exerted by  
173 all natural enemies per site using the coefficient of variation (CV) calculated by dividing the standard

174 deviation of the sample with its mean (Garibaldi et al., 2011). This allows us to explore how the  
175 within-field stability in pest control is affected by landscape simplification.

176

177 To distinguish between the magnitude of pest control provided by ground-dwelling predators alone, or  
178 by vegetation-dwelling predators alone, we used a subset of seven datasets where either ground-  
179 dwelling, or vegetation-dwelling predators were partially excluded. We calculated the differences in  
180 aphid growth rates between the total exclusion and partial exclusion treatments for each replicate at  
181 each site, and calculated the CV for each site.

182

183 Finally, to characterize interactions between ground-dwelling and vegetation-dwelling predators, we  
184 calculated the difference between the overall pest control exerted by all natural enemies (using the  
185 open and total exclusion treatments), and the sum of pest control by ground-dwelling predators only,  
186 and vegetation-dwelling predators only (using the partial exclusion, and total exclusion treatments  
187 respectively). A positive result, with a higher overall pest control than the additive effect of control  
188 exerted by ground-dwelling and vegetation-dwelling predators, indicates facilitation between ground-  
189 dwelling and vegetation-dwelling predators. For instance, higher predation rates of aphids by carabids  
190 were found in the presence of ladybeetles due to increased number of living aphids falling to the  
191 ground due to ladybeetle foraging (Losey and Denno, 1998). A negative result indicates that there are  
192 negative interactions among predators in the community, such as intraguild predation, or behavioral  
193 interactions. For instance, a recent study reported high levels of spider predation by carabids in winter  
194 wheat fields and clear evidence of prey choice (Davey et al., 2012).

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## 196 2.3 Statistical Analyses

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198 Linear mixed models were used to evaluate the effects of landscape simplification within a 1 km radius  
199 on several response variables: the mean level of overall natural pest control (calculated as the mean



200 difference in the rate of increase  $r$  between exclusion and open treatment per site) and its within-field  
201 stability (calculated as the CV per site), the mean level of natural pest control by vegetation-dwelling  
202 and ground-dwelling natural enemies and their within-field variability, and the type and amount of  
203 interactions between vegetation-dwelling and ground-dwelling predators. In each model, the  
204 proportion of cultivated land in a 1 km radius around the study site was included as a fixed effect. For  
205 each response variable, we fitted a random intercept and slope model which included datasets as a  
206 random effect and allowed each datasets to have a unique intercept and a unique slope. Dataset defined  
207 here a set of field experiments performed in a given location in a given year (see Table 1). The overall  
208 slope of the model represents a weighted average over studies, where the relative influence of a study  
209 increased with the precision of each studies' model fit and sample size. To quantify the variation  
210 among studies in the influence of the fixed landscape effect on each response variable, we estimated  
211 intercepts and slopes for each study (Qian et al., 2010). Normality and homoscedasticity assumptions  
212 were assessed using graphical tools and these assumptions were valid in all models. Statistical analyses  
213 were performed using the statistical program R, version 2.15 (R Development Core Team 2012) and  
214 the lme4 package (Bates et al., 2015).

215

### 216 3. Results

217

218 The mean level of natural pest control decreased linearly with the proportion of cultivated land in the  
219 surrounding landscape ( $F_{1,157} = 9.77$ ,  $P = 0.002$ , Figure 1). A simplification of the landscape from 2%  
220 to 100% of cultivated land reduced the level of aphid control by about 46 % (Figure 1). Estimated  
221 slopes for individual studies were consistent with this pattern (Figure 1). The proportion of cultivated  
222 land in the 1 km radius did not affect the within-field spatial variation in the overall level of natural  
223 pest control ( $F_{1,136} = 0.25$ ,  $P = 0.61$ ) (Figure S1).

224

225 Analyses of a subset of seven datasets that used partial exclusion experiments revealed that the  
226 proportion of cultivated land in a 1 km radius did not affect aphid control by ground-dwelling  
227 predators ( $F_{1,58} = 0.06$ ,  $P = 0.79$ ), or vegetation-dwelling predators ( $F_{1,58} = 0.0007$ ,  $P = 0.97$ ).  
228 Similarly, the proportion of cultivated land in the 1 km radius did not affect the within-field spatial  
229 variation in aphid control resulting from ground-dwelling ( $F_{1,58} = 1.42$ ,  $P = 0.23$ ), or flying predators  
230 ( $F_{1,58} = 0.87$ ,  $P = 0.35$ ) (Figure S2 and S3).

231  
232 We found both positive and negative interactions among predators (Figure 2). The proportion of  
233 cultivated land in the 1 km radius did not affect the level of interactions between ground-dwelling and  
234 vegetation-dwelling predators ( $F_{1,58} = 0.65$ ,  $P = 0.42$ ) suggesting little interaction among predators, or  
235 a balance between negative and positive interactions in the community. Estimated slopes for individual  
236 datasets were consistent with this pattern (Figure 2).

237

#### 238 **4. Discussion**

239 Although it is well recognized that populations of natural enemies are strongly influenced by landscape  
240 context (Bianchi et al., 2006; Tschardt et al., 2007; Chaplin-Kramer et al., 2011), our study is the  
241 first quantitative analysis assessing the effect of landscape simplification on natural pest control and  
242 natural enemy interactions based on experimental exclusion approaches. We found a negative effect of  
243 landscape simplification within a 1 km radius on the magnitude of pest control by natural enemies, but  
244 detected no influence of landscape simplification on the within-field variability of pest control. The  
245 negative relationship between landscape simplification and overall natural pest control was consistent  
246 across crops and countries, suggesting that landscape simplification generally reduces top-down  
247 control. Our results complement recent findings where both generalist and specialist enemies  
248 responded positively to landscape complexity in terms of abundance and diversity (Chaplin-Kramer et

249 al., 2011). Thus, maintaining or increasing natural and semi-natural habitat in the landscape both  
250 benefit natural enemies and lead to higher effective pest control.

251

252 While the positive effect of landscape simplification on natural pest control by some guilds, such as  
253 parasitoids, has been previously suggested (Thies and Tschardtke 1999; Bianchi et al., 2005), these  
254 results indicate that this relationship holds at the community level when examining the overall top-  
255 down control resulting from the combined effects of all arthropod enemies on pest populations. **The**  
256 **fact that a relative increase of cultivated land from 2% to 100% in the 1 km radius (based on combined**  
257 **datasets) reduced the level of natural pest control by about 46 % suggests** that landscape is a major  
258 determinant of pest control functioning and insect pest outbreaks in agriculture (Tschardtke et al., 2005;  
259 Meehan et al., 2011). Factors leading to reduced natural pest control in simplified landscapes may  
260 include the lower availability of alternative hosts or prey, and of overwintering habitats and refuges  
261 from disturbance for natural enemies (Landis et al., 2000; Tschardtke et al., 2007, Schellhorn et al.,  
262 2015). Moreover, other aspects of agricultural intensification that are correlated with landscape  
263 structure, such as pesticide use, can add pressure on natural enemies and reduce pest control in  
264 simplified landscapes (Meehan et al., 2011).

265

266 The hypothesis that more simple landscapes strengthen negative interactions among natural enemies  
267 was not supported. There were similar occurrences of negative and positive interactions along the  
268 landscape simplification gradients. Although simple landscapes generally support less diverse and  
269 abundant communities of natural enemies (Chaplin-Kramer et al., 2011), this result suggests that  
270 negative interactions between predators may also occur in species-poor communities. Further,  
271 investigations will be needed to understand the relationships between predator community structure  
272 and the occurrence and strength of negative interactions.

273

274 Surprisingly, landscape simplification did not affect the within-field variability in overall natural pest  
275 control. Stability of ecosystem functions is thought to increase with species richness due to niche  
276 complementarity, facilitation, or sampling effects (Hooper et al., 2005); a positive relationship that has  
277 been found for a variety of ecosystem functions including biomass production, crop pollination, and  
278 pest control (Garibaldi et al., 2011; Isbell et al., 2009; MacFadyen et al., 2011). Studies linking natural  
279 enemy diversity to pest control services have focused on temporal stability, while spatial stability  
280 remains largely unexplored although considerable spatial heterogeneity in terms of abundance of  
281 natural enemies and their prey have been observed within fields (Holland et al., 2004; Winder et al.,  
282 2005; MacFadyen et al., 2011). Because landscape complexity is known to enhance natural enemy  
283 diversity and abundance, we expected to find a lower within-field stability (higher variability) in pest  
284 control in simple compared with more complex landscapes. The lack of this relationship in our study  
285 might be a result of the low number of within-field replicates and the limited duration of experiments  
286 used to measure pest control (five to 14 days for CV in pest control). This time span might be  
287 sufficient to detect landscape effect on pest control due to higher abundance of natural enemies, but too  
288 short to detect complementarity effects emerging from species-rich assemblages.

289  
290 We found an effect of the proportion of cultivated land on the level of natural pest control by all  
291 natural enemies, but not on the level of pest control by ground-dwelling and vegetation-dwelling  
292 predators alone. This may be due to the relative importance of natural enemy guilds varying among  
293 regions (Thies et al., 2011) making general effects of landscape simplification on each guild difficult  
294 to perceive. Moreover, the scale and the habitat characteristics affecting each guild might vary  
295 considerably, making it more challenging to detect any effect of landscape simplification on a subset  
296 of seven case studies.

297  
298 The aim of this study was to synthesize the knowledge about the effect of landscape simplification on  
299 natural pest control services. However, all the cage experiments used aphids as a model system

300 because they are major pest for numerous crops, have relatively low mobility during the growth phase,  
301 and are known to be consumed by a variety of enemies (Schmidt et al., 2003; van Emden and  
302 Harrington, 2007). To enable broader conclusions on effects of land use on natural pest control, future  
303 experimental assessments need to consider additional predator and pest taxa with different functional  
304 attributes and life cycle requirements. **Moreover, the density of prey occurring in fields may be another**  
305 **important determinant of the level of pest control, affecting the population dynamics of natural**  
306 **enemies and the services they deliver (Costamagna et al., 2004; Rusch et al., 2015), and should be**  
307 **taken into account in future study.**

308

309 In conclusion, our analysis revealed that landscape simplification reduced levels of natural pest control  
310 irrespective of positive or negative interactions among natural enemies. These findings affirm that  
311 conserving natural habitat or re-diversifying agricultural landscapes using natural or semi-natural  
312 habitats provides viable control of crop pests that can be further supported and complemented with  
313 more directed measures (Schellhorn et al., 2015).

314

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table

450 **Table 1:** Summary of the exclusion experiment studies for the quantitative synthesis on the effect of landscape simplification on natural pest  
 451 control.

Study code	Crop	Prey species	Exclusion treatment: open & total exclusion	Exclusion treatment: open, partial & total exclusion	Duration of the experiment	Location	Number of fields	Replicates per field	Landscape gradient (range of % of cultivated land in 1 km radius)	References
Study 1a	<i>Brassica oleracea</i>	<i>Brevicoryne brassicae</i> (Linnaeus)	Yes	No	12 days	USA, California	9	3	02 - 94 %	Chaplin-Kramer and Kremen (2012)
Study 1b	<i>Brassica oleracea</i>	<i>Brevicoryne brassicae</i> (Linnaeus)	Yes	No	12 days	USA, California	10	2	02 - 94 %	Chaplin-Kramer and Kremen (2012)
Study 1c	<i>Brassica oleracea</i>	<i>Brevicoryne brassicae</i> (Linnaeus)	Yes	No	12 days	USA, California	10	2	02 - 94 %	Chaplin-Kramer and Kremen (2012)
Study 2	<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	<i>Metopolophium dirhodum</i> (Walker), <i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i> (Linnaeus)	No	Yes	13 or 14 days	Germany, Göttingen	8	2	26 - 93 %	Thies et al., (2011)
Study 3a	<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	<i>Sitobion avenae</i> (Fabricius)	No	Yes	14 days	UK, Dorset and Hampshire	14	2	33 - 87 %	Holland et al., (2012)
Study 3b	<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	<i>Sitobion avenae</i> (Fabricius)	No	Yes	14 days	UK, Dorset and Hampshire	12	2	27 - 87 %	Holland et al., (2012)
Study 4	<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	<i>Sitobion avenae</i> (Fabricius), <i>Metopolophium dirhodum</i> (Walker), <i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i> (Linnaeus)	No	Yes	11 - 23 days	Germany, Jena	8	2	48 - 98 %	Thies et al., (2011)
Study 5	<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	<i>Sitobion avenae</i> (Fabricius), <i>Metopolophium dirhodum</i> (Walker), <i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i> (Linnaeus)	No	Yes	16 - 19 days	Poland	8	2	39 - 94 %	Thies et al., (2011)
Study 6	<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	<i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i> (Linnaeus)	Yes	No	5 days	Sweden, Scania	31	4	14 - 88 %	Rusch et al., (2013) ; unpublished data
Study 7	<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	<i>Sitobion avenae</i> (Fabricius), <i>Metopolophium dirhodum</i> (Walker), <i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i> (Linnaeus)	No	Yes	20 - 22 days	Sweden, Uppsala	8	2	56 -100 %	Thies et al., (2011)
Study 8	<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	<i>Sitobion avenae</i> (Fabricius), <i>Metopolophium dirhodum</i> (Walker), <i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i> (Linnaeus)	No	Yes	21 - 27 days	Sweden, Scania	8	2	48 - 100 %	Winqvist C. unpublished data
Study 9a	<i>Glycine max</i>	<i>Aphis glycines</i> (Matsumura)	Yes	No	7 - 14 days	USA, Michigan	12	4	9 - 79 %	Woltz et al., (2012) ; unpublished data
Study 9b	<i>Glycine max</i>	<i>Aphis glycines</i> (Matsumura)	Yes	No	7 - 14 days	USA, Michigan	12	4	16 - 89 %	Woltz et al., (2012) ; unpublished data
Study 10a	<i>Glycine max</i>	<i>Aphis glycines</i> (Matsumura)	Yes	No	14 days	USA, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Minnesota	12	4	39 -92 %	Gardiner et al., (2009)
Study 10b	<i>Glycine max</i>	<i>Aphis glycines</i> (Matsumura)	Yes	No	14 days	USA, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Minnesota	13	4	32 - 97 %	Gardiner et al., (2009)

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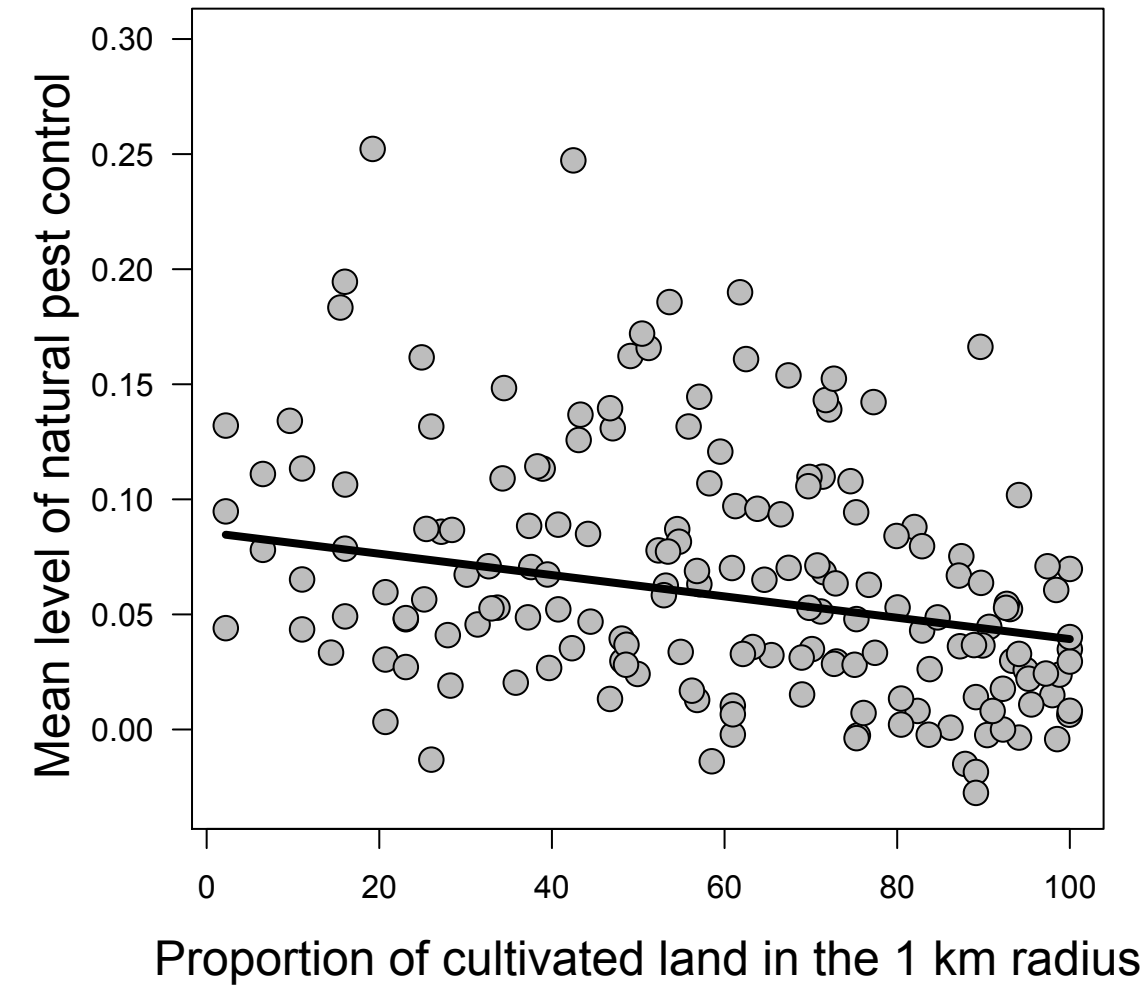
454 **Figure legends**

455 **Figure 1:** Mean level of overall natural pest control in relation to the proportion of cultivated  
456 land in a 1 km radius around fields. The level of pest control was measured by the difference  
457 in growth rates of aphids ( $r$ ) between the total exclusion treatment and the open treatment per  
458 day (aphid x aphid<sup>-1</sup> x day<sup>-1</sup>) (see text for details). On the left, each point represents a field site  
459 within a study and the line represents the overall regression estimated from the linear mixed  
460 effect model. On the right, each point represents the slope of the model for each study (grey)  
461 and overall mean slope for all models (black), resulting from the random intercept and slope  
462 model.

463

464 **Figure 2:** Magnitude and direction of interactions between ground-dwelling and vegetation-  
465 dwelling predators in relation to the proportion of cultivated land in a 1 km radius. On the left,  
466 each point is a field site within a study. On the right, points represent the slopes of models for  
467 each study (grey) and the overall mean (black), resulting from the random intercept and slope  
468 model. Interactions between the two functional groups were calculated as the difference  
469 between natural pest control exerted by all natural enemies, and the sum of natural control by  
470 ground-dwelling and vegetation-dwelling predators together. Positive values indicate  
471 facilitation between the two groups whereas negative values indicate negative interactions  
472 such as intraguild predation or behavioral interactions.

Figure1



figures

