

Intercropping flowering plants in maize systems increases pollinator diversity

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1 **Title:** Intercropping flowering plants in maize systems increases pollinator diversity

2

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23

24 **Summary**

- 25 1. Maize is a poorly competitive crop, as such, soil preparation and high
26 application rates of herbicides are required to reduce early competition with
27 weeds. This leaves a large amount of bare ground with few flowering weeds,
28 providing a poor farmland habitat for pollinators.
- 29 2. This study evaluates the effect of four different maize management regimes
30 on pollinator diversity and community composition.
- 31 3. Flowering plants intercropped with maize attracted pollinators, helping to
32 support pollinator communities. Similar intercropping techniques using a grass
33 ground cover did not increase pollinator density, demonstrating that pollinator
34 richness, density and diversity is intrinsically linked to the presence of
35 flowering plants.
- 36 4. A maize system with a diverse intercrop may make it possible for pollinators
37 to thrive, however, these systems may only be attractive enough to bring
38 pollinators in temporarily from the surrounding areas.

39 **Synthesis**

- 40 5. These results show that there can be significant improvements to pollinator
41 diversity, density and community composition through modifying maize
42 cultivation practices, however, these benefits must be balanced with yield
43 penalties of ca. 60% to farmers.

44

45 **Keywords**

46 Agro-ecosystems, bee, community, density, diversity, maize, richness,

47

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Arable production, especially maize (*Zea mays* L.), adversely affects pollinator
50 biodiversity (Geiger *et al.*, 2010; Carvell *et al.*, 2011), which is in decline globally
51 (Biesmeijer *et al.*, 2006; Carvell *et al.*, 2011; Goulson, 2015). Whilst there is a need
52 to produce versatile crops, such as maize, to meet agricultural demands (Edgerton,
53 2009), these must be balanced with protecting ecosystem services, including those
54 that are facilitated by biodiversity (DeFries *et al.*, 2004; Wodika & Baer, 2015) such
55 as pollination (Delaplane *et al.*, 2000). Pollinator biodiversity depends on four main
56 characteristics of an agro-ecosystem: the diversity of vegetation within and around
57 the system, the permanence of the various crops within the system, the intensity of
58 management, and isolation of the system from natural vegetation (Altieri, 1999;
59 Holzschuh *et al.*, 2007; Batary *et al.*, 2010).

60 Maize is an increasingly important, multifunctional crop with over 184,000 ha
61 grown annually in the UK (DEFRA, 2015) being used as forage for cattle and is
62 becoming increasingly important as a feed stock for biogas generation
63 (Hochholdinger and Tuberosa, 2009; Adams, 1989; Banse *et al.*, 2008). However,
64 Maize is a poorly competitive crop; therefore intensive soil preparation and high
65 application rates of herbicide are required to reduce early competition with weeds
66 (Hall *et al.*, 1992). This leaves a large amount of bare ground, providing poor habitat
67 for biodiversity, especially for pollinators (Carvell *et al.*, 2011; Hawes *et al.*, 2009;
68 Potts *et al.*, 2006; Barbir *et al.*, 2015). Wilson *et al.* (1999) identified that these
69 reductions in the diversity and abundance of food plants leads to reduced
70 invertebrate diversity, which is a result of the combination of frequent tillage,
71 improved seed-cleaning technologies and herbicidal weed control. Unfortunately,

72 conventional maize cultivation fulfils the criteria set out by Wilson *et al.* (1999) to
73 erode pollinator biodiversity.

74 Novel maize cultivation techniques such as sowing the crop into an
75 understorey of legume mixes or grasses have been shown to reduce negative
76 environmental impacts such as nutrient and soil loss by promoting rainfall infiltration,
77 improving soil stability and reducing run-off (Hartwig & Ammon, 2002; Manevski *et*
78 *al.*, 2015). These techniques have also been shown to support the farmland
79 biodiversity by providing resources for many species (Pywell *et al.*, 2005; Norris *et*
80 *al.*, 2016). However, because maize is a poor competitor in its early stages of growth
81 it is easily outcompeted by intercrops. As such, intercrops must be controlled to
82 maintain maize yield (Nakamoto & Tsukamoto, 2006). Mowing, grazing or spraying
83 with a herbicide have all been shown to maintain crop yield similar to that found in
84 conventional cropping systems, whilst maintaining the above benefits (Nakamoto &
85 Tsukamoto, 2006). However, contrasting studies have shown that even with control
86 of intercrops by mowing, maize yields can be significantly reduced due to root
87 system competition (Liedgens *et al.*, 2004; Norris *et al.*, 2016).

88 Supporting pollinator diversity in arable systems is currently a hot topic
89 (Goulson, 2015). Colonisation by invertebrates is generally dependent on natural
90 dispersal from the regional species pool (Chateil, 2015), which can be highly
91 fragmented (Hilderbrand *et al.*, 2005), and where there are greater numbers of
92 flowering plant species there will be greater richness, density and diversity of
93 pollinators. In arable systems, a disturbance such as ploughing or tillage disrupts
94 this colonisation process, and although biotic and abiotic conditions can be restored
95 to these systems, community assemblages sometimes cannot (Hilderbrand *et al.*,
96 2005). Despite this, recent work by Wodika & Baer (2015) has shown that this is not

97 necessarily the case, even with soil fauna, which have lesser dispersal efficiency
98 compared with pollinators (Giller, 1996). Wodika & Baer (2015) showed that after
99 disturbance there can be a recolonisation by taxa comprising of a similar community
100 assemblage to the pre-disturbance state, if the vegetative community is restored.
101 Sadly, in conventional maize cultivation systems, there are often few flowering non-
102 crop plants, which limits forage resources for pollinators (Hawes et al., 2009; Potts et
103 al., 2006). As maize is wind pollinated, increasing pollinators in maize systems would
104 not directly benefit the maize crop, however, supporting pollinators at the farm or
105 landscape scale would benefit other crops such as *Brassica napus* L. as well as wild
106 flora.

107 In this study, we investigated the effect of four contrasting maize cultivation
108 and ground cover management practices on pollinator density, diversity and
109 community composition and maize yields, to identify sustainable maize production
110 techniques. We hypothesized that where greater numbers of flowering plants were
111 sown in the strip tillage biodiverse seed mix cultivation methods, larger populations
112 of pollinators would be encountered.

113

114 **2. Materials and methods**

115 **2.1. Site description**

116 Field experiments were established in a conventionally ploughed maize crop
117 at two study sites over two cultivation seasons in April 2013; the first site was in the
118 South West of England near Bow, Devon and the second in the east of the UK, near
119 Fakenham, Norfolk. The study sites were selected for the freely draining, slightly
120 acidic loam soil at Bow and freely draining slightly acid but base-rich soil at
121 Fakenham (Driessen, 2001), which is typical of land under maize cultivation in the

122 UK. Maize is often grown in the same field year after year in the UK, as such the
123 intercrops were established in 2013 and the maize in the subsequent two cropping
124 seasons, drilled into the rows that the previous year's crop occupied. Twelve study
125 plots at each site, 10 m wide and 60 m in length, with a 1 m gap between plots, were
126 established in a randomised replicated block design with three replicates of each
127 treatment. Four contrasting maize cultivation techniques were selected to test the
128 effects on pollinator diversity and community structure: 1) conventional plough and
129 subsoiled (PGH), 2) minimum tillage (MNT), 3) strip tillage into perennial ryegrass
130 that was sown at a rate of 35kg ha⁻¹ (RGS) in June 2012, and 4) strip tillage into a
131 biodiverse seed mix (BSM). The BSM strip crop was over sown with a commercially
132 available seed mix in June 2012 at 15 kg/ha⁻¹ containing *Medicago lupulina* L. 20%,
133 *Onobrychis viciifolia* L. 25%, *Trifolium hybridum* L. 20% *Trifolium incarnatum* L.
134 *subsp. Incarnatum* 20%, *Lotus corniculatus* L. 10%, *Malva moschata* L. 5%. For a
135 full experimental design and agronomic details please refer to Norris *et al.*, (2016). At
136 Fakenham in 2013, pre-emergence application of herbicides were 4.5 l ha⁻¹ Stomp®
137 (a.i Pendimethalin) to all treatments; 150ml ha⁻¹ Reglone® (a.i Diquat) to the two
138 strip tillage treatments and 3.5 l ha⁻¹ of Hoedown® (a.i Glyphosate) was applied to
139 the ryegrass treatment. Post-emergence application of herbicides were 1 l ha⁻¹
140 Touchdown® (a.i Glyphosate) applied to the ryegrass plots; Callisto® (a.i
141 Mesotrione) at a rate of 1 l ha⁻¹ was applied to PGH and RGS and to the BSM
142 treatment at a rate of 0.5 l ha⁻¹. At Bow in 2013, Pendimethalin (Stomp ©) was
143 applied to all plots except the BSM treatment at application rate of 3.0 l ha⁻¹, with an
144 additional 1.0 l ha⁻¹ Samson applied to the perennial ryegrass plots. At Fakenham,
145 in 2014, to reduce intercrop competition and improve yields additional herbicides
146 were applied to the strip-tillage treatments compared with 2013; 5 l ha⁻¹ Wing P®

147 (a.i Pendimethalin) was applied to all treatments. Touchdown® at 1 l ha⁻¹ (a.i
148 Glyphosate) was applied to all treatments except BSM where Touchdown® was
149 applied at a half rate of 0.5 l ha⁻¹. Post-emergence, Callisto® was applied at a rate
150 of 2 l ha⁻¹ to all treatments. At Bow, in 2014 Gallup® was applied to the BSM
151 treatment at a rate of 1.5 l ha⁻¹, Non-inversion at a rate of 3.0 l ha⁻¹, Conventional at
152 a rate of 3.0 l ha⁻¹ and Ryegrass at a rate of 0.75 l ha⁻¹. After the maize was sown
153 at Devon Wing-P® was applied at a rate of 4 l ha⁻¹ with an additional later spraying
154 of Calaris® at 1 l ha⁻¹ and Samson at 0.5 l ha⁻¹ to reduce competition from the
155 existing plant cover.

156 At both sites 150 kg N ha⁻¹ of ammonium nitrate (a.i nitrogen) was applied to
157 all treatments in 2013. At Fakenham in 2014 potash (175 kg ha⁻¹) was applied to all
158 treatments. At Bow in 2014 100kg N ha⁻¹ in the form of Urea and 20 kg N ha⁻¹ in the
159 form of monoammonium phosphate (MAP) was applied to all cultivation methods,
160 and at Norfolk N-fertiliser applications remained the same as in 2013.

161

162 **2.2. Pollinator survey**

163 Pollinators were counted using the line-transect method developed for the UK
164 butterfly-monitoring scheme (Pollard & Yates, 1993), which has been adapted as a
165 standard method for bee surveys (Roy *et al.*, 2003; Banaszak, 1980). Pollinator
166 transects were walked on a weekly basis during June and July in both field trial
167 years, coinciding with the legume flowering period. Pollinator transects were carried
168 out by walking 60 m along the intercrop area, but excluding the outermost 1 m of
169 each plot. Surveyors used transect recording sheets to score the pollinators foraging
170 on each plot. Given the need to identify bees while on the wing, counts were made
171 for groups of bumble-bee (*Bombus*) species based on colour type, and Apis were

172 also noted (Prys-Jones and Corbet, 1991). Walks were performed between 10.00
173 and 17.30 when weather conformed to UK butterfly monitoring scheme standards
174 (wind speed less than 5.5 m s^{-1} , not raining, temperature greater than $17 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ if sky
175 overcast or greater than $13 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ if sky at least 60% clear) (Pollard & Yates, 1993; Roy
176 *et al.*, 2003). The order in which transects were walked was randomised (Roy *et al.*,
177 2003; Haughton *et al.*, 2003), using a random number generator. The time taken for
178 each transect depended on crop stage, but observers walked at approximately 12 m
179 per minute (Banaszak, 1980; Roy *et al.*, 2003; Westphal *et al.*, 2007).

180

181 **2.3. Vegetation survey**

182 Visual assessments of vegetation were carried out in late July in 2013 and
183 2014. Six vegetation samples were located within the inter-row areas of each plot
184 with a rectangular quadrat ($1.0 \text{ m} \times 0.25 \text{ m}$) placed at different locations, parallel to
185 the rows of maize. Percentage cover by vegetation, litter and bare ground, together
186 with vegetation richness (number of plants 0.25 m^2) were recorded for each plot. At
187 Fakenham, a conventional maize harvester was used to measure crop yield, with the
188 harvested area of each plot being $7.5 \text{ m} \times 0.60 \text{ m}$. At Bow, maize yields were
189 measured from each plot from a $10 \text{ m} \times 2 \text{ m}$ area, and each maize plant within the
190 demarcated area was harvested by cutting approximately 15 cm above the soil
191 surface. Maize plants from both sites were chopped using secateurs before
192 analysis. Harvested samples were oven dried at $60 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 24 hours and the dry
193 weight recorded. Dry weights were multiplied to give a total dry matter per plot and
194 are reported on a tons per hectare basis.

195

196 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

197 All statistical analyses were conducted using R v3.0.1 (R Core Team, 2013). The
198 plant community measurements and total numbers of pollinators observed over six
199 sampling weeks in each sampling year were used to test for differences in richness,
200 density and Shannon diversity using analysis of variance on Box-Cox transformed
201 data (Højsgaard 2006). Density was expressed as the total number of pollinators
202 observed over the six transect walks performed at each site in 2013 and 2014, with
203 field site being used as a random effect. Once data were normalised, Tukey HSD
204 tests were used to test for significant differences between cultivation methods and
205 field trial years. The diversity for each of the cultivation methods was determined
206 using the Shannon-Weiner diversity index (H') calculated using the R package
207 'vegan' (Oksanen *et al.*, 2007; Norris *et al.*, 2016).

208 Pollinator community counts were Wisconsin square root transformed using
209 Euclidian distances among sites and years to measure species that were associated
210 with changes in vegetation, using two-dimensional non-metric multidimensional
211 scaling (NMDS) which was selected using stress vs. dimensionality to identify the
212 number of axes that best represented the community. The vegetative variables and
213 plant species count data were fitted to the NMDS species scores using the function
214 'envfit' (Oksanen *et al.*, 2007) based on 999 permutations. Vegetative variates and
215 plant species with a significant influence on pollinator community composition ($P <$
216 0.05) were plotted based on the results from 'envfit'. As pollinators were
217 predominantly observed in BSM plots (Table 1), further statistical analysis was
218 performed by separating this cultivation method from the other three cultivation
219 methods and assessing the influence plant species composition had on pollinator
220 communities.

221

222 3. Results

223 The richness, density, and diversity of pollinator communities were
224 significantly greater in the strip tillage into a biodiverse seed mix cultivation method
225 compared to the other three cultivation methods (Table 1). Although some pollinators
226 were encountered in the other cultivation methods, a majority of pollinators were
227 observed in the strip tillage into a biodiverse seed mix cultivation method (Table 2).

228 In 2014, the increase in herbicide application reduced the richness of
229 vegetation in the biodiverse seed mix cultivation method (Table 1 and Table S1).
230 However, the overall richness, density, and diversity of the pollinator community was
231 not significantly reduced (Table 1).

232 *B. lapidarius* and *B. terrestris/lucorum* were the most frequently observed,
233 predominately found foraging in the strip tillage into a biodiverse seed mix cultivation
234 method (Table 2). Despite the increased application of herbicides in 2014, and the
235 subsequent reduction in plant richness (Table 1) the number of *B. hortorum*
236 observed increased (Table 2, $P = 0.008$). However, the abundance of *B. pascuorum*
237 was significantly reduced in 2014 ($P = 0.008$).

238 Plant communities were composed of different species in the different
239 treatments ($P < 0.001$), which explained 50% of the variation (Table 3). Community
240 composition between the two sites was significantly different ($P < 0.001$), although
241 these differences only explained 11% of the variation in overall pollinator
242 composition (Table 3).

243 Vegetation richness had a significant influence ($P < 0.001$) on pollinator
244 community composition, explaining 32% of the overall variation (Table 3). Bare
245 ground, negatively correlated with vegetation cover, had a significant influencing

246 effect on community composition ($P < 0.001$) explaining 15% and 26% of the
247 variation respectively (Table 3).

248 Separating the BSM pollinator community for more detailed analysis showed
249 that field site and sampling year had a significant effect ($P < 0.001$) on pollinator
250 community composition, which explained 88% of the variation (Table 3, Fig. 1).
251 Vegetation cover also explained a significant ($P = 0.044$) amount of variation (49%) in
252 pollinator community composition (Table 3, Fig. 1).

253 Plant species composition also influenced the composition of pollinators ($F^{1,10}$
254 $= 7.54$, $P = 0.020$, slope = 15.29), Fig 1). The plants that were sown in the BSM
255 cultivation method established well, however the plant species that influenced
256 difference in composition between plots and sites were the opportunistic weed
257 species that re-emerged after ploughing (Norris *et al.*, 2016). *Urtica urens* L.
258 correlated with greater observed numbers of *Apis*. (Table 6, Fig 1). In contrast,
259 *Epilobium ciliatum* Raf., *Matricaria recutita* L., *Senecio vulgaris* L. and *Trifolium*
260 *repens* L. were found to be associated with greater observed numbers of *B.*
261 *terrestris/lucorum* and *B. pratorum* (Fig 1).

262 Although cultivation year did not significantly effect ($P = 0.775$) community
263 composition (Table 3) when considering both sites and all cultivation methods, there
264 were significant interaction differences in community composition associated with the
265 two sites which changed between the two years in the strip tillage into a biodiverse
266 seed mix cultivation method (Fig. 1, $r^2 = 0.88$, $P = 0.001$). *B. hortorum* was associated
267 with Bow in 2014, however, in 2013 the community observed at the Bow site was
268 more associated with greater densities of *B. terrestris/lucorum* (Fig. 1). *B.*
269 *pascuorum* and *B. lapidarius* were associated with the Fakenham site in 2014.

270 Unlike at Bow, there was no significant difference in community composition
271 between the two years at Fakenham (Fig. 1).

272

273 **4. Discussion**

274 Understanding how to manipulate agrosystems to promote ecosystem
275 services such as pollination is a key goal of agro-ecology (Altieri, 1999). This study
276 has shown that a flowering plant ground cover is important for supporting pollinators.
277 There is strong evidence to suggest that having a number of flowering plants in the
278 biodiverse seed mix ground cover significantly increased the richness, density and
279 diversity of pollinators. (Table 1 and Table S1).

280 Maize in the UK is often grown year after year in the same field. As such, the
281 experiment mimics conventional practice by performing the field trials for two
282 consecutive years in the same fields using the previous year's maize crops as a
283 guide for where to drill the subsequent crop. Although the maize yield was reduced
284 in the two strip tillage cultivation methods compared with the conventional and
285 minimum tillage cultivation methods (Table 1), in the second year early competition
286 of the intercrops with maize was reduced, increasing maize yields without
287 significantly reducing the richness, density or diversity of pollinators (Table 1). This
288 result confirms that flowering plant availability is a key driver of pollinator abundance
289 and diversity. At the landscape scale, increasing the density of flowering species
290 within arable systems could provide greater resource complexity and stratification to
291 help support pollination and pollinator communities (Roy *et al.*, 2003; Potts *et al.*,
292 2006).

293 Separate analysis of the BSM cultivation technique showed that vegetation
294 richness and cover are positively correlated under BSM and vegetation cover was a

295 key factor influencing the composition of pollinators utilising these resources (Table
296 3) suggesting that where there was a greater cover and richness there was greater
297 variety of plant species for pollinators to forage upon.

298 The separate analysis of the data from the BSM plots (Table 3) showed that
299 the composition of the pollinator community differed between the two sites. Others
300 studies have shown that this may be attributed to natural variation in the surrounding
301 local pollinator populations from which communities were able to recruit (Baur *et al.*,
302 1996; Tsiafouli *et al.*, 2015). Although not measured in this study, differences
303 between communities over large spatial scales have been shown to be linked to the
304 surrounding vegetation and the extent of isolation from natural vegetation (Altieri,
305 1999; Roy *et al.*, 2003). Despite the differences in community composition at the two
306 sites (Table 3), greater richness, density and diversity of pollinators was associated
307 with an increase in the cover of flowering plants (Table 1). Of all the observed
308 pollinators, *Apis* was found to be particularly sensitive to increases in vegetation
309 cover, which correlated with greater numbers of *U. urens* (Fig 1). In contrast, *B.*
310 *terrestris/lucorum* abundance was correlated with greater numbers of *T. repens* (Fig
311 1). These results suggest that different pollinators may be associated with different
312 plant species, altering foraging strategies among pollinator species; supported by
313 evidence of site choice by pollinators being related to the number, size, colour, scent
314 of flowers present (Schlinkert *et al.*, 2015) as well as morphological traits of pollinator
315 species such as tongue length (Hegland *et al.*, 2005).

316 These results show that it is possible to support greater pollinator populations
317 than are currently supported under conventional maize systems by including only a
318 few species of flowering plants (Table 3). However, plots with greater cover of

319 flowering plants supported more diverse pollinator communities (Fig 1; Schlinkert *et*
320 *al.*, 2015).

321 Although this study shows that it is possible to increase the biodiversity of
322 pollinators in maize systems by increasing the number of flowering plants (Goulson,
323 2015), these benefits to pollinators must be balanced with the yield penalties to
324 farmers. At both sites, the greatest dry matter yields were measured on the
325 conventional and non-inversion cultivation methods, with a mean dry matter yield of
326 c.11 t/ha. However, yields from the strip tillage-ryegrass (RGS) and strip tillage-
327 biodiverse mix (BSM) were as much as 80% and 90% lower than the conventional
328 treatment at Norfolk and Devon respectively (Table 1). Increased herbicide
329 application rate to the intercrop in 2014 reduced early competition with maize and
330 improved yields (Table 1), however, yields on the strip tillage-ryegrass and strip
331 tillage-biodiverse mix were still approximately 45% lower compared to the
332 conventional treatment. Despite reductions in yield, this study suggests that even a
333 relatively low richness of flowering plants will attract pollinators, supporting
334 populations and the services they facilitate. Despite increases in pollinator richness
335 and diversity a maize system with diverse intercrops may make it possible for
336 pollinators to thrive, however, these systems may only be attractive enough to bring
337 pollinators in temporarily from the surrounding areas. Agricultural schemes to secure
338 the important ecosystem services such as pollination are critically important for
339 sustainable crop production. Further work should focus on investigating the
340 proportions of the cultivated area that needs to be sown with flowering plants to
341 support greater numbers of pollinators in arable systems, how this affects pollinator
342 diversity on a landscape scale and the longevity of these effects.

343

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349

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485

486 **Abbreviations**

487 Conventional plough-based maize cultivation (PGH), minimum tillage maize
488 cultivation (MNT), strip tillage into a biodiverse seed mix ground cover (BSM), strip

489 tillage into a perennial ryegrass ground cover (RGS), Non-metric multidimensional
490 scaling (NMDS).