

1 **Wild pollinator communities benefit from mixed cultivation**
2 **of oilseed rape and milk vetch**

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22

23 **Abstract**

24 Globally, insect pollinators that are linked to increased yields in many crops have experienced
25 severe population declines. Crop diversification is often proposed as an effective conservation
26 measure to boost pollinator populations. Here, we investigate potential benefits of mixed
27 oilseed rape / milk vetch cultivation for wild pollinator communities by comparing it with
28 oilseed rape monocultures. Studying 8 mixed and 10 monocropping fields positioned along
29 a gradient of increasing semi-natural habitat coverage in a mountainous agricultural
30 landscapes, we found that agricultural landscapes with mixed cultivation harbored higher wild
31 pollinator diversity than oilseed rape monocropping landscapes. This positive effect was
32 observed irrespective of the proportion of semi-natural habitat. Meanwhile, the pollinator
33 community composition in mixed cultivation landscapes was similar to that of oilseed rape
34 monoculture landscapes, and, contrary to expectations, mixed cultivation did not benefit
35 specific pollinator trait groups like cavity-nesting bees. Overall, we believe the higher
36 pollinator diversity linked to mixed cultivation can increase insect-pollinated crop yields, and
37 mixed oilseed rape-milk vetch cultivation might represent a potential mitigation measure for
38 the negative impacts agricultural intensification has on wild pollinator communities.

39

40 Keywords: crop diversification, wild bee, canola, pollinator diversity, pollinator conservation

41

42 **Introduction**

43 Insects provide important pollination services for many crops (Klein *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2020;
44 Layek *et al.*, 2022). However, wild pollinator communities are declining globally due to a
45 variety of stressors such as habitat loss, environmental pollution and alien species invasions
46 (Rhodes, 2018; Dicks *et al.*, 2021; Shi *et al.*, 2023). Many modern, intensive agricultural
47 practices have been linked to pollinator declines that in turn can result in insufficient
48 pollination services for insect-pollinated crops (Tscharntke *et al.*, 2012). Novel farming
49 approaches and practices are therefore required to mitigate the negative impacts of intensive
50 modern agriculture on pollinator communities in agroecosystems (Walton *et al.*, 2021).

51

52 Numerous studies have reported positive impacts of crop diversification on wild pollinator
53 communities (Aguilera *et al.*, 2020; Tamburini *et al.*, 2020; Järvinen *et al.*, 2022), but these
54 effects seem highly variable (Martínez-Núñez *et al.*, 2022). Intercropping systems involving
55 regular planting of two or more crop species on the same field are argued to maintain
56 pollinator diversity (Norris *et al.*, 2018; Brandmeier *et al.*, 2021; Dingha *et al.*, 2021; Järvinen
57 *et al.*, 2022), but the strength of their impact is contested (Campbell *et al.*, 2016; Guzman *et al.*,
58 2019). Crop diversity has also been reported to enhance pollinator diversity at the
59 landscape level (Aguilera *et al.*, 2020). Benefits of crop diversification to pollinator
60 communities have been linked to different crop flowering times and flower types that offer
61 complementary food resources with varying quality and quantity of nectar and pollen along
62 spatio-temporal gradients (Fornoff *et al.*, 2017a; Aguilera *et al.*, 2020; Walston *et al.*, 2022).
63 Due to varying flowering phenology, intercropping of flowering crops often extends the
64 overall flowering time in the agroecosystem, while monocultures of mass-flowering crops
65 may only bloom over very limited periods. This can result in a short-term oversupply of food,

66 potentially linked to low pollination rates, followed by food deficiency for local pollinator
67 communities once crop flowering ceases (Blasi *et al.*, 2021). By sustaining higher pollinator
68 abundance and diversity, crop diversification can lead to yield increases across pollinator-
69 dependent crops (Griffiths-Lee *et al.*, 2020; Layek *et al.*, 2021).

70
71 Oilseed rape-rice rotation cropping and Chinese milk vetch-rice rotation cropping are two
72 common traditional systems in Southern China's smallholder agricultural landscapes. Oilseed
73 rape (*Brassica napus*) and Chinese milk vetch (*Astragalus sinicus*) are cultivated between
74 October and May, and both species bloom jointly in spring (March to April), before being
75 replaced by rice grown between May/June and October. Both oilseed rape and milk vetch
76 serve chiefly as green manure in these rotation cropping systems (Zhang *et al.*, 2022), while
77 oilseed rape is also used by farmers to produce oil. This crop requires insect pollination to
78 reach maximum yield (Stanley *et al.*, 2013; Zou *et al.*, 2017; Perrot *et al.*, 2018). Like oilseed
79 rape, milk vetch can serve as a good nectar source for pollinators (Wang *et al.*, 2006), which
80 could benefit pollinators that rely on legumes (Woodcock *et al.*, 2019). It has been argued
81 that the traditional mixed cultivation practices including both oilseed rape and milk vetch as
82 cover crops might support an enhanced wild pollinator diversity by offering more diverse
83 floral resources to monocultures (Fründ *et al.*, 2010). However, given the similar flowering
84 periods of these two species and the significant supply of nectar offered by mass-flowering
85 rape seed, any effects might be limited - we currently lack the detailed understanding
86 required to verify the existence and quantity of benefits.

87
88 As a conservation approach, mixed oilseed rape-milk vetch cultivation may also benefit wild
89 pollinators differentially according to specific pollinator traits such as body size or nesting
90 habits. Links between trait differentiation and the success of conservation or restoration
91 initiatives targeting wild pollinators, and particularly wild bees, have remained scarce (Kremen
92 and M'Gonigle, 2015). As foragers, wild bees chiefly target food resources in the vicinity of
93 their nests to support their broods, making them highly susceptible to agricultural
94 intensification (Mallinger *et al.*, 2016; Klein *et al.*, 2017). Small-bodied and above ground-
95 nesting species show a particular vulnerability (Williams *et al.*, 2010; Shi *et al.*, 2022a), as
96 foraging distances of wild bees are positively linked with their body size (Zurbuchen *et al.*,
97 2010). Therefore, smaller bee species show shorter forage distances and a lower dispersal
98 capability, making them more vulnerable to environmental stressors (Wright *et al.*, 2015).
99 Above ground-nesting bees require hollow structures of dead wood or shrub stems as their
100 nests, and these materials are scarce in intensively managed fields (Williams *et al.*, 2010). In
101 contrast, the nesting substrates for ground nesters such as sweat bees that require open
102 ground on field margins, remain accessible even in intensively cropped landscapes (Williams
103 *et al.*, 2010). Thus, above ground-nesting bees are more susceptible to agricultural
104 intensification than ground nesting ones. Mixed cultivation which creates structural
105 heterogeneity therefore may be particularly beneficial for these vulnerable groups, with
106 additional benefits from the limited use of agrochemicals associated with milk vetch
107 cultivation. Considering the wide distribution of this crop mix in China (Liu *et al.*, 2022) and
108 other Asian countries (Sakai and Matsuka, 1982), understanding the potential benefits of
109 mixed cultivation practices involving milk vetch for wild pollinator diversity, and its potential

110 to mitigate the negative impacts of ongoing agricultural intensification (Shi *et al.*, 2021; Shi *et al.*, 2022a), is a high priority.

112

113 Semi-natural habitat like grassland, shrubland or even open forest patches within the
114 agricultural landscape can support wild pollinator diversity (Tscharrntke *et al.*, 2005; Zou *et al.*,
115 2017; Wu *et al.*, 2019) and mitigate negative impacts of agricultural intensification (Shi *et al.*,
116 2021) by providing safe and sustainable nesting sites and food sources (Eeraerts *et al.*, 2021).
117 For instance, Raderschall *et al.* (2021) found that both crop diversification and semi-natural
118 habitat benefits pollinators of *Faba* beans. Increasing cover of semi-natural habitat may
119 therefore further enhance wild pollinator benefits of oilseed rape-milk vetch mixed cultivation
120 in smallholder farmland. Alternatively, pollinator resource saturation linked to mixed
121 cultivation may minimize additional positive effects from semi-natural habitat coverage. The
122 positive influence of mixed cultivation furthermore may become less pronounced with
123 increasing semi-natural habitat cover, as widespread semi-natural habitats may sustainably
124 provide large amounts of floral resources to sustain wild bee communities, resulting in
125 potential interactive effects of these two factors.

126

127 In this study, we aim to assess the impact of oilseed rape-milk vetch mixed cultivation on wild
128 pollinator communities in agricultural landscapes across a semi-natural habitat gradient. We
129 address three research questions: i) Does oilseed rape-milk vetch mixed cultivation benefit
130 wild pollinator species richness and abundance? We hypothesize that in landscapes with
131 mixed cultivation, wild insect pollinator diversity and abundance is enhanced. ii) Does mixed
132 cultivation specifically benefit taxa in specific trait groups vulnerable to intensive agricultural
133 practices? We hypothesize that landscapes with mixed cultivation harbor an increased
134 abundance of small-bodied pollinators, including wild bees, while above ground-nesting
135 bees will particularly benefit from increased semi-natural habitat cover. iii) Are there
136 interactive effects between semi-natural habitat cover and mixed cultivation on wild pollinator
137 diversity? We hypothesize that significant taxon- and trait-specific interactions occur between
138 these factors.

139

140 **Materials and Methods**

141 Study sites

142 This study was conducted from late February to late April 2022 in the mountainous
143 smallholder farmland in Kaihua County, Quzhou, China (118.2207°E, 29.2306°N) (Figure 1). In
144 total, 18 oilseed rape fields were investigated (Figure 1), 8 representing landscapes with
145 oilseed rape-milk vetch mixed cultivation patterns (see Appendix 1) and 10 where oilseed
146 rape is planted in monoculture. The shortest distance between neighbouring sites was 1.9km,
147 covered by mountainous terrain (Figure 1) and exceeding foraging distances of most wild
148 pollinator species (Chifflet *et al.*, 2011). All fields fell into smallholder size categories (<2 ha,
149 see Lowder *et al.* (2016), and size differences between mixed cultivation fields ($750\pm 154\text{m}^2$,
150 mean \pm SD) and monoculture fields ($800\pm 233\text{m}^2$) were not different. Study field elevations
151 ranged from 317 to 574m. The research period represented the main oilseed rape blooming
152 season, when no pesticides were applied by farmers on the study fields. Semi-natural habitats
153 encountered in the study area included forest, grassland and shrubland (Zou *et al.*, 2017; Shi

154 *et al.*, 2021). All semi-natural habitat in the landscape surrounding the study fields, as well as
155 the proportion of oilseed rape fields, was recorded in a 1100 m radius around each study field
156 using ground-truthing methods in 2022 in combination with Arcmap 10.8. This radius is
157 slightly larger than that in calculating our semi-natural habitats (i.e. 1000m), to ensure that all
158 of our sites have a full range of land use map. Since heavily wooded habitats have often been
159 reported to benefit wild pollinators in agroecosystems (Papanikolaou *et al.*, 2017; Eeraerts *et*
160 *al.*, 2021) but see also e.g. Wu *et al.* (2019), forests were included in semi-natural habitat cover.

161

162

163 **Pollinator sampling**

164 Both pan and window traps were deployed within the selected study fields to sample wild
165 pollinators, allowing the collection of large, standardized samples (Shi *et al.*, 2022b). A pan
166 trap, composed of three cups (~550ml volume) painted with UV blue, UV white and UV yellow
167 paint, respectively, was arranged on a pole at a height of 1.5m (Westphal *et al.*, 2008). Window
168 traps were composed of a transparent acrylic plate (55cm*50cm*0.3cm) fixed between two
169 wooden poles (1.7m height), with a plastic sampling tray (60cm*43cm; 11cm depth)
170 positioned beneath the plate. Saturated salt water with several drops of detergent (to break
171 the water surface tension) was used in both the pan and window traps as killing and
172 preservation agent, which follow the study of Shi *et al.* (2021). At each field, four pan traps
173 and one window trap were deployed. All pan traps were placed 2 m from the field edge, while
174 one window trap was placed at a focal field edge in order to intercept the insect pollinators
175 entering the field for foraging. Insect pollinators were collected every week, and the traps
176 were refilled. The overall sampling period from February to April covered 52 days. Insect
177 samples were kept frozen (-20°C) prior to identification. In total, 85.9% of all individuals were
178 identified to species level, with the remaining specimens identified to genus or family level
179 (Appendix 2). Wild bees were categorized into large (body length>12mm) and small (body
180 length<12mm)-bodied species following Albrecht *et al.* (2007). The details (body size and
181 nesting location of wild bees) can be found in Appendix 2. Data from both standardized
182 sampling methods was pooled for each field for further analysis to allow a good
183 representation of the overall assemblage composition at each site, and to generate sufficiently
184 large sample sizes allowing for a robust statistical analysis, following an established approach
185 in wild pollinator studies (Russo *et al.*, 2011; Rader *et al.*, 2014).

186

187 **Statistics analysis**

188 We used multiple linear models to explore the impact of introducing milk vetch into oilseed
189 rape cultivation, creating the two treatments of oilseed rape monoculture and mixed
190 cultivation, while also establishing the relative effect of the proportion of semi-natural habitat
191 and the interactive effects of these factors on wild pollinator diversity and abundance. Due to
192 the inconsistent sampling size, we used Hurlbert rarefied species richness (Hurlbert, 1971) to
193 represent pollinator biodiversity. Samples were rarefied to 91 individuals, the highest common
194 number of wild pollinator individuals collected at all sample sites. In addition, we calculated
195 the total expected species richness (TES) to evaluate sampling completeness. TES is based on
196 the asymptotic parametric approximation models for the extrapolation of individual-based
197 rarefaction that is recently developed by Zou *et al.* (2023), which is robust in estimating species

198 richness of incompletely sampled communities (Zou et al., 2023). The total number of
199 expected species (TES) for this region was 77.54 ± 34.10 . We calculated the wild pollinator
200 abundance per sampling day to standardize results and make them more easily comparable
201 with other studies (Shi *et al.*, 2021). We fitted multiple linear regressions for rarefied species
202 richness and wild pollinator abundance using the three predictors: type of landscape-scale
203 cultivation practices (oilseed rape-milk vetch mixed cultivation and oilseed rape
204 monocropping), % semi-natural habitat, and % oilseed rape cover. We then selected the best
205 model based on the corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AICc).

206

207 We furthermore used linear models to compare abundance and proportion of small-bodied
208 pollinators in pollinator communities of the agricultural landscapes between mixed cultivation
209 and oilseed rape monoculture. In the model, semi-natural habitat and oilseed rape cultivation
210 within a 1000m radius around the study field and cultivation practice types (mixed cultivation
211 and monocropping) were all included as independent variables. We then repeated this
212 approach to compare abundance and proportion of wild bees, small-bodied wild bees and
213 above-ground nesting (cavity-nesting) bees in the pollinator communities.

214

215 We finally used Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) based on Bray-Curtis distances to
216 compare the composition of the pollinator assemblages in agricultural landscapes with mixed
217 cultivation and oilseed rape monoculture (Amy *et al.*, 2018). The one-way analysis of
218 similarities (ANOSIM) based on Bray-Curtis distance was conducted with 9999 permutations
219 for PCoA. All statistical analysis was conducted in R 4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2022). We calculated
220 rarefied species using the 'vegan' package (Oksanen et al., 2019) and the total expected
221 species richness using the R functions "TES()" (Zou *et al.*, 2023). Models were selected using
222 the "dredge()" function in the "MuMIn" package (Barton, 2019). Model residuals' spatial
223 autocorrelation was checked using Moran's I coefficient (Gittleman & Kot, 1990). We found
224 no significant spatial autocorrelation in any of our models ($p < 0.05$).

225

226

227 **Results**

228 Species composition of wild pollinators

229 A total of 2970 individuals of wild pollinators representing 53 species were collected in the
230 pan and window traps (Appendix 2). *Eucera floralia* (480), *Apis cerana* (343), *Gametis jucunda*
231 (319), *Pieris rapae* (256) and *Xylocopa tranquabarorum* (183) were the five most abundant
232 wild pollinator species across sampling sites. Wild bees accounted for 2054 individuals spread
233 across 33 species, representing 69.2% of all wild pollinators collected. Eleven pollinator species
234 were found exclusively in mixed cultivation landscapes, while ten pollinator species were
235 exclusively found in monoculture cultivation landscapes, respectively (details see Appendix 2).

236

237

238 Impact of mixed cultivation on wild pollinator communities

239 Rarefied species richness of wild pollinators in fields with mixed cultivation was significantly
240 higher than that at monocropping fields ($p=0.004$) (Figure 2A), while wild pollinator
241 abundance showed no significant difference (Figure 2B). Wild pollinator community

242 composition in landscapes with mixed cultivation similarly did not differ significantly from
243 monoculture landscapes ($p=0.396$), with the community ordination plots showing strong
244 overlaps (Figure 3). Despite the aforementioned species uniquely found in either of the two
245 landscape categories, the ordination plot indicates that assemblages found in areas with
246 mixed cultivation represent a subset of communities found in monoculture-dominated
247 landscapes. Surprisingly, small-bodied pollinator abundance and proportions in the
248 community showed no significant differences between mixed cultivation and monoculture
249 practice ($p>0.05$, Figure 4A). A lack of significant differences between mixed cultivation and
250 monoculture landscapes was also observed for the abundance of wild bees ($p>0.05$, Figure
251 4B), and for above-ground nesting bees ($p>0.05$, Figure 4C).

252
253 The proportion of semi-natural habitat at 1000m radius around the study fields was positively
254 correlated with rarefied pollinator species richness ($p<0.05$) (Table 1; Figure 5). The results
255 were consistent when a smaller radius of 500m was used (Appendix 3). In the full model, the
256 interaction between mixed cultivation and semi-natural habitat had no significant impact on
257 wild pollinator species richness and abundance ($p>0.05$). After model selection, interaction
258 terms between semi-natural habitat and farming type were not included in any of the most
259 parsimonious models. The three individual variables total semi-natural habitat cover, total
260 oilseed rape cover and farming type were also excluded in the most parsimonious models
261 explaining wild pollinator abundance and small pollinator abundance (Table 1). For wild bee
262 abundance, only semi-natural habitat was included in the most parsimonious model, with a
263 marginally significant impact ($p=0.05$; Table 1). Monoculture landscapes negatively impacted
264 on above-ground nesting bee abundance, and the interactions between oilseed rape and
265 semi-natural habitat had a significantly positive impact on above-ground nesting bee
266 abundance (Table 1).

267

268 **Discussion**

269 While oilseed rape-milk vetch mixed cultivation is commonly encountered in the agricultural
270 landscape of Southern China (Hong *et al.*, 2017), studies exploring the impact of this mixed
271 cultivation practice associated with co-blossom of two distinct flower types on the wild
272 pollinator communities have been lacking. We provide new empirical insights into the positive
273 impact that this mixed cultivation practice has on the species richness of wild pollinator
274 communities in the smallholder farmland of Southern China, but similar positive effects are
275 likely to be seen for this mixed cultivation type across Asian countries such as Japan (Sakai
276 and Matsuka, 1982) or Korea (Cho and Choe, 1999).

277

278 The observed increased wild pollinator species richness in mixed cultivation landscapes when
279 compared to monocropping landscapes is consistent with previous studies exploring the
280 impact of crop diversification on wild pollinator diversity (Aguilera *et al.*, 2020; Dingha *et al.*,
281 2021; Raderschall *et al.*, 2021). Aguilera *et al.* (2020) found that crop diversity in a 1000m
282 radius in the agricultural landscape was positively linked with pollinator diversity in Southern
283 Sweden. Dingha *et al.* (2021) found that pollinator diversity and abundance in the cowpea
284 intercropping with pollinator dependent crops (squash, watermelon and okra) were both
285 higher than in the monocropping fields. Brandmeier *et al.* (2021) reported that cereal-legume

286 intercropping can both increase pollinator abundance and richness in a three-year study in
287 western Germany. One possible reason is that milk vetch, as a nectar source for wild pollinator
288 communities (Wang *et al.*, 2006), attracts a different set of pollinators to oilseed rape, given
289 differences in flower color (yellow vs. purple), morphology, odor and height (oilseed rape 1.6-
290 1.7m, milk vetch ~11cm). Milk vetch is generally considered as providing supplementary food
291 resources for pollinators. Previous studies have shown that different color (Freitas Moreira *et al.*
292 *et al.*, 2016), odor (Pombal *et al.*, 2000), morphology and flower height (Fornoff *et al.*, 2017b) do
293 attract different pollinator species. In addition, pesticide usage was rarely observed on
294 Chinese milk vetch, while pesticides have been widely applied on Chinese oilseed rape fields
295 (Wen *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, Chinese milk vetch may provide a food resource low in
296 pesticides, although pesticides applied to oilseed rape may easily drift to nearby non-target
297 species like milk vetch within the small-grained agricultural landscape mosaic present in our
298 study area (Ward *et al.*, 2022). Future studies are herein suggested to verify this by analyzing
299 the pollen and nectar from nearby apiaries.

300

301 Mixed cultivation did not increase pollinator abundance compared to monocropping, which
302 is in contrast with previous results (Gowton *et al.*, 2021). The possible reason for this lack of a
303 significant response could be that, despite offering an alternative nectar and pollen source,
304 mixed cultivation did not increase the overall food resources in the fields on a landscape scale,
305 with the abundance of flower visitors generally assumed to be directly linked to the overall
306 abundance of flowers in the fields (Feltham *et al.*, 2015). Considering the fact that pollinator
307 abundance is a vital factor determining pollination services (Woodcock *et al.*, 2019; Wu *et al.*,
308 2021), mixed cultivation may not increase the yield of oilseed rape or other insect-pollinated
309 crops in the wider landscape through abundance-related effects. Instead, it could be argued
310 that co-blooming of multiple pollinator-dependent crops within a landscape may even lead
311 to pollinator competition, and hence to reduced yields of targeted crops (Grab *et al.*, 2017).
312 It therefore remains unknown if milk vetch grown close to oilseed rape can facilitate the latter's
313 pollination, or compete with oilseed rape for similar wild pollinator cohorts. Future studies are
314 required to evaluate the impact of mixed cultivation on the specific pollination services, and
315 therefore overall yield of oilseed rape (Stanley *et al.*, 2013). In addition, wild pollinators in this
316 study were sampled using passive traps (pan traps and flight interception traps), rather than
317 observing direct flower visitations. As samples collected in pan traps might not fully represent
318 flower visitation (Shi *et al.*, 2022b), it is possible that some of the pollinators recorded may
319 not actually pollinate oilseed rape. To better evaluate the impact of mixed cultivation on wild
320 bee communities and their pollination services, future studies should integrate direct
321 observation on flowering oilseed rape plants in pollinator sampling (Tronstad *et al.*, 2022).

322

323 While there were unique taxa associated with mixed-cultivation landscapes, we furthermore
324 did not find mixed cultivation to benefit specific trait groups such as small-bodied pollinators
325 or cavity-nesting bees. The lack of an abundance signal in all studied taxonomic and trait
326 groups might be related to two factors: First of all, the flowering period of both crop species
327 is very similar, meaning that a temporal differentiation in resource provisioning will be very
328 limited. Furthermore, sampling was conducted only at the main flowering time for both crops,
329 further limiting the visibility of any temporal effects relating e.g. to different lengths in

330 flowering periods. Secondly, both crops, but particularly oilseed rape, show an extremely high
331 concentration of nectar resources for the short flowering period (Pierre *et al.*, 1999; Carruthers
332 *et al.*, 2017). It is hence unlikely that at this time, the actual provisioning of nectar and/or
333 pollen is a limiting factor for the overall abundance of pollinators using this resource, since
334 communities will struggle to respond to the very sudden and time-limited spike in resource
335 availability by, for example, building up their populations or recruiting from the wider
336 landscape where neighbouring oilseed rape or mixed cultivation fields will be similarly
337 attractive to regional pollinator assemblages.

338

339 The lack of differences encountered between the pollinator community composition of
340 monoculture and mixed cultivation landscapes again contrasts previous results (Norris *et al.*,
341 2018; Järvinen *et al.*, 2022). This lack of distinction may be due to the fact that all of our study
342 locations are situated in environments with a sizable amount of semi-natural habitat coverage
343 (49%–92% at a 1000m radius). Even for the lowest relative cover values, these semi-natural
344 habitats in the agricultural landscape can be assumed to already significantly improve the
345 overall structure of the pollinator community (Shi *et al.*, 2022a). This can mask any additional
346 potential positive effects of mixed cultivation practices. This effect can also explain the lack of
347 any significant trends observed for the abundance of small bodied pollinators, wild bees, small
348 bodied bees and above-ground nesting bees.

349

350 Despite the already high amount of semi-natural habitat coverage (>50%) found across the
351 investigated landscapes, wild pollinator diversity still increased with the proportion of semi-
352 natural habitat and did not show signs of saturation. This trend is consistent with previous
353 studies of smallholder farmland in Southern China (Zou *et al.*, 2017; Shi *et al.*, 2021). We found
354 that semi-natural habitat, rather than mixed cultivation, had a significant positive impact on
355 wild bee abundance, which is consistent with Wu *et al.* (2019). We also found that there was
356 no interaction between semi-natural habitat proportion and oilseed rape farming type on
357 wild pollinator communities, which contradicts our initial hypothesis. This indicates that mixed
358 cultivation can effectively support wild pollinator species richness in both, landscapes with a
359 high or a low coverage of semi-natural habitats. This cropping practice may hence be
360 applicable as a general pollinator-friendly approach to mitigate negative impacts of farmland
361 consolidation projects for example in the mountainous farmlands in Western Zhejiang, where
362 high cover of semi-natural habitat remains on mountain slopes, or in the cropland-
363 dominated landscapes in China's Eastern delta regions (Shi *et al.*, 2021). We also strongly
364 encourage studies in agricultural landscapes with low semi-natural habitat coverage to
365 further test the potential interactions between mixed cultivation and semi-natural habitat on
366 wild pollinator communities in landscapes where complementarity might be much more
367 strongly developed than in our study landscapes.

368

369 In conclusion, at least in our mountainous agricultural study region with relatively high levels
370 of semi-natural habitat coverage, mixed cultivation appears to boost wild pollinator species
371 richness irrespective of the actual proportion of actual semi-natural habitat in the respective
372 study landscape. However, the overall pollinator assemblage composition in mixed cultivation
373 landscapes and oilseed rape monoculture landscapes remains surprisingly similar. In addition,

374 mixed cultivation did not increase wild pollinator abundance, and nor did the amount of semi-
375 natural habitat. Mixed cultivation furthermore did not benefit specific vulnerable pollinator
376 trait groups such as cavity-nesting bees. This appears to indicate limited benefits of co-
377 blooming pollinator-dependent plant species, even where their flower structure differs widely,
378 while such a joint planting might even lead to pollinator competition, potentially lowering the
379 yield of targeted crops (Grab *et al.*, 2017). This nonetheless warrants further investigation, for
380 example using experimental studies of differing mixed cultivation settings, to explore under
381 which conditions the current mixed system facilitates or decreases pollination outcomes and
382 associated yields in oilseed rape.

383

384

385 Data availability statement

386 All of our data used in this study can be downloaded in repository figshare:
387 https://figshare.com/articles/dataset/data_of_Shi_et_al_2023_xlsx/23542548

388

389 Author Contribution Indication

390 **Xiaoyu Shi**: Conceptualization (lead), Software (lead), Investigation (lead), Writing - Original
391 Draft (lead), Methodology (lead). **Jan Christoph Axmacher**: Conceptualization (equal),
392 Visualization (equal), Methodology (equal), Writing - Reviewing and Editing (equal). **Arong**
393 **Luo**: Methodology (equal), Writing - Reviewing and Editing (equal). **Changsheng Ma**: Writing
394 - Reviewing and Editing (equal), Visualization (equal). **Mingqiang Wang**: Methodology
395 (equal), Investigation (equal). **Rui Cheng**: Methodology (equal), Investigation (equal). **Zeqing**
396 **Niu**: Investigation (equal), Resources (equal). **Qingsong Zhou**: Investigation (equal),
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400

401

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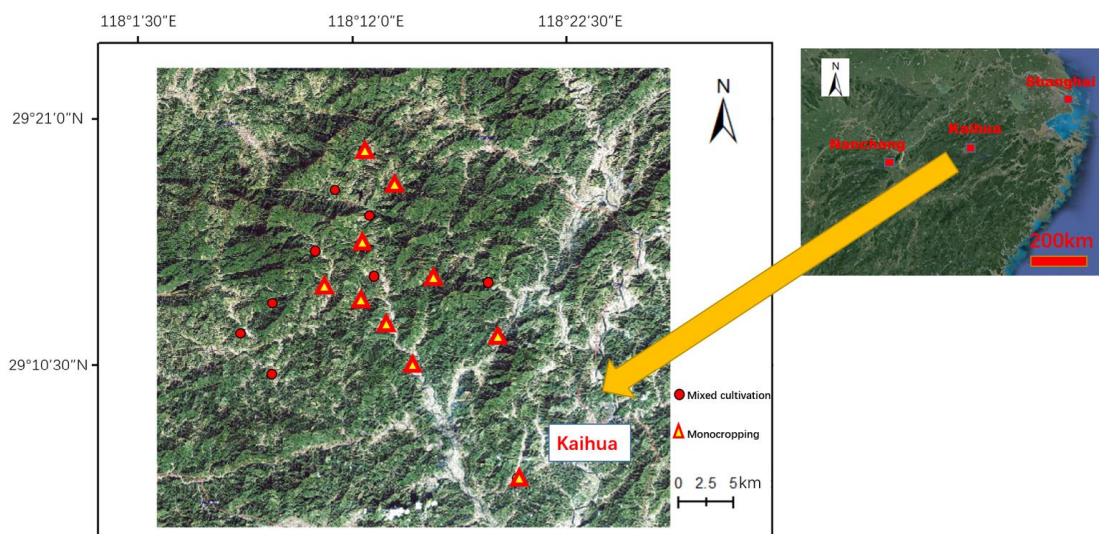
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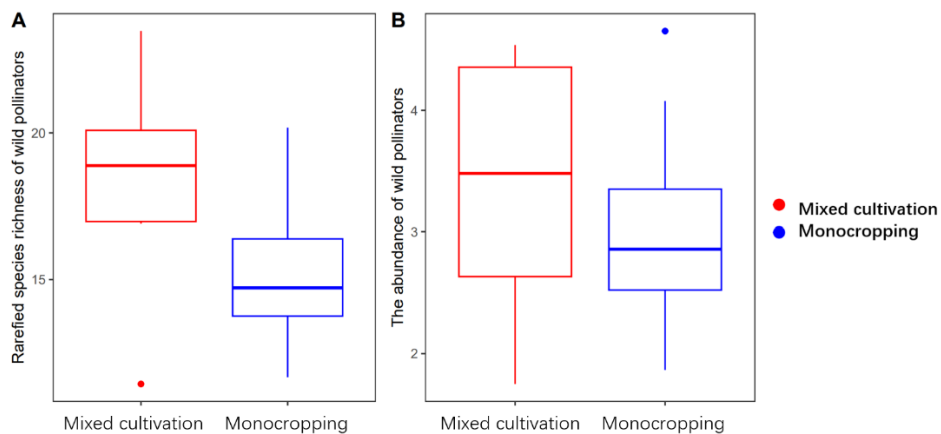
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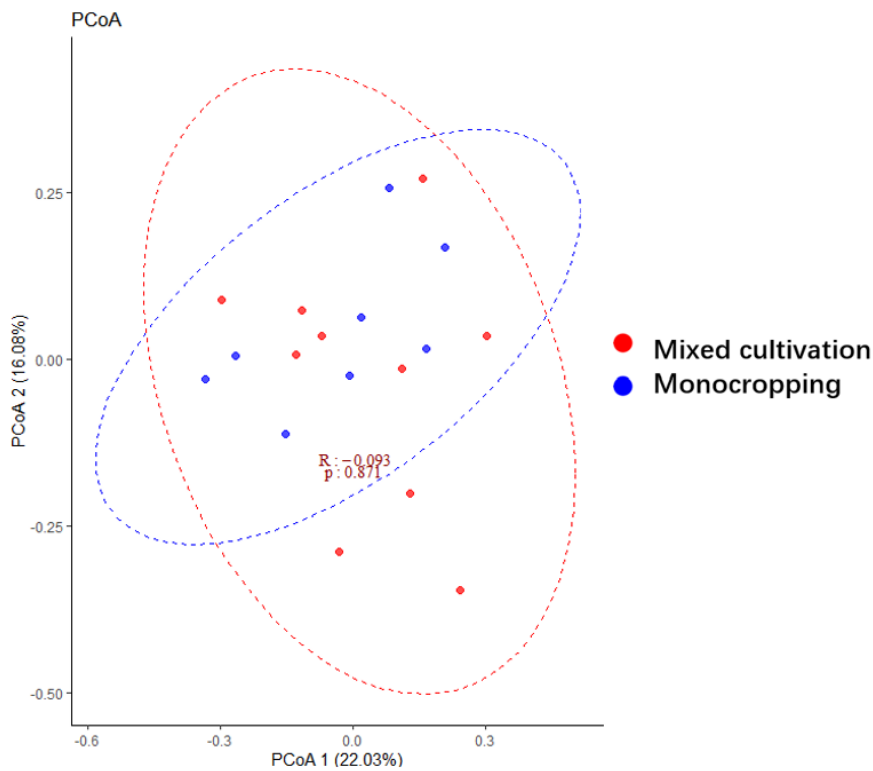


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 608 Figure 1. 18 research sites in Kaihua County, Quzhou, China. Red circular points represent
 609 sites with oilseed rape monoculture while yellow triangles with red edges represent oilseed
 610 rape-milk vetch mixed cultivation.
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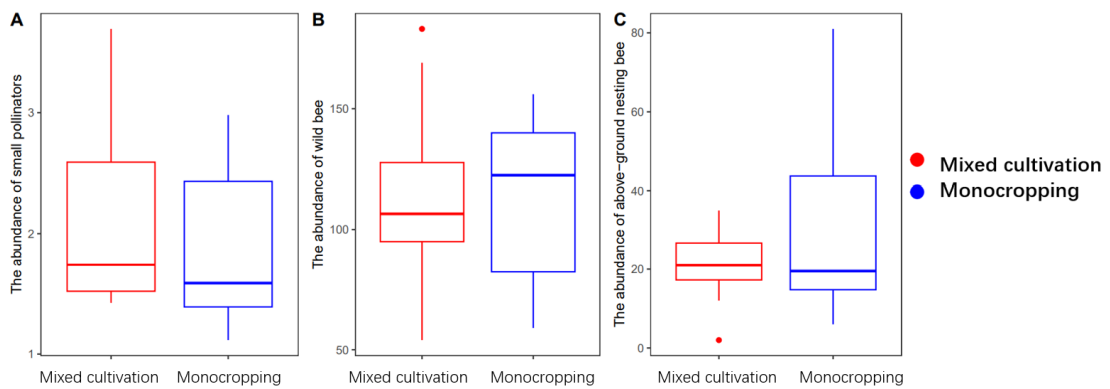
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 615 Figure 2. The impact of oilseed rape-milk vetch mixed cultivation on wild pollinator rarefied

616 species richness (A) and abundance (B).
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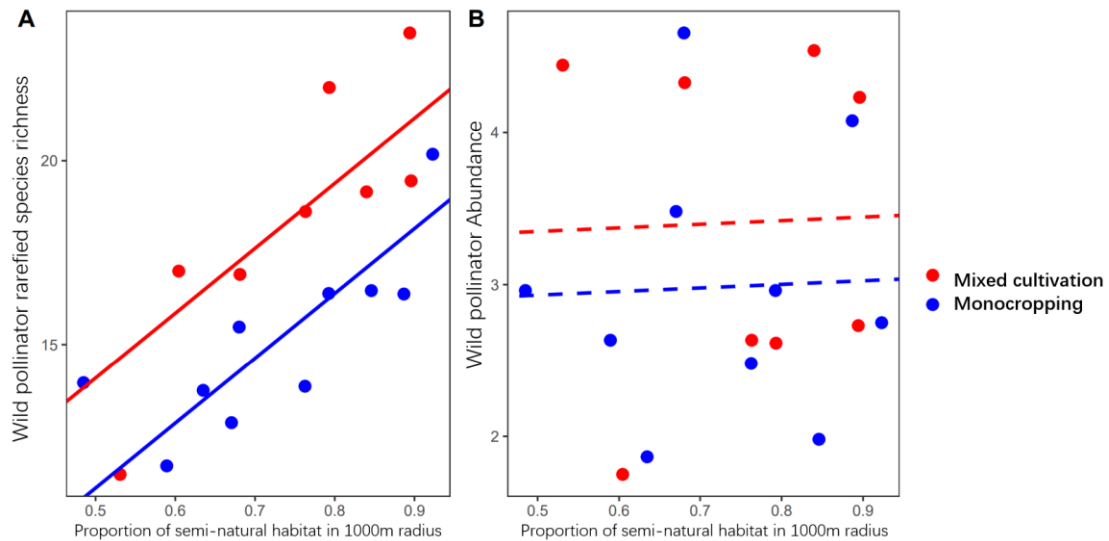
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Figure 3. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) ordination based on Bray-Curtis distances of two types of farming practices (red: monocropping; blue: mixed cultivation). Ellipses indicate the 95% confidence intervals of locations categorized by farming practices.



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Figure 4. Comparison of landscapes with oilseed rape-milk vetch mixed cultivation vs monocropping of oilseed rape on the abundance (A) of small-bodied wild pollinators; the abundance (B) of wild bees; and the abundance (C) of above-nesting bees.



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632 Figure 5. The relationships between the proportion of semi-natural habitat in 1000m radius
 633 and wild pollinator rarefied species richness (A) and abundance (B).

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636 Table 1. The results of the most parsimonious models selected to explain rarefied species
 637 richness and abundance of wild pollinators in response to mixed cultivation practice (Oilseed
 638 rape-milk vetch mixed cultivation and oilseed rape monoculture; based on oilseed rape
 639 monoculture areas), proportion of semi-natural habitat at 1000m spatial scales. Values show
 640 the model estimate with standard error. The symbol “/” shows that this explanatory variable
 641 was not included in the selected model. Asterisks indicate the significance levels in the models
 642 (*' p < 0.05, '**' p < 0.01 and '***' p < 0.001). The interactions between semi-natural habitat,
 643 farming type and oilseed rape was not included in any of the selected models.

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Explanatory variable	Rarefied species richness	Wild pollinator abundance	Small pollinator abundance	Wild bee abundance	Above-ground nesting bee abundance
Farming type	3.00±0.88**	/	/	/	/
Semi-natural habitat	17.67±3.36***	/	/	2.50 ± 1.18 (p=0.05)	-0.45±1.02
Oilseed rape	/	/	/	/	-204.6±84.82*
Semi-natural habitat* Oilseed rape	/	/	/	/	371.99±125.99*

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