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A global synthesis of the effects of diversified farming systems on arthropod diversity within fields and across agricultural landscapes

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A global synthesis of the effects of diversified farming systems on arthropod diversity within fields and across agricultural landscapes

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Keywords:	<p>agricultural management schemes, arthropod diversity, functional groups, landscape complexity, meta-analysis, evenness, biodiversity, organic farming</p>
Abstract:	<p>Agricultural intensification is a leading cause of global biodiversity loss, which can reduce the provisioning of ecosystem services in managed ecosystems. Organic farming and plant diversification are farm management schemes that may mitigate potential ecological harm by increasing species richness and boosting related ecosystem services to agroecosystems. What remains unclear is the extent to which farm management schemes affect biodiversity components other than species richness, and whether impacts differ across spatial scales and landscape contexts. Using a global meta-dataset, we quantified the effects of organic farming and plant diversification on abundance, local diversity (communities within fields), and regional diversity (communities across fields) of arthropod pollinators, predators, herbivores, and detritivores. Both organic farming and higher in-field plant diversity enhanced arthropod abundance, particularly for rare taxa. This resulted in increased richness but decreased evenness. While these responses were stronger at local relative to regional scales, richness and abundance increased at both scales, and richness on farms embedded in complex relative to simple landscapes. Overall, both organic farming and in-field plant diversification exerted the strongest effects on pollinators and predators, suggesting these management schemes can facilitate ecosystem service providers without augmenting herbivore (pest) populations. Our results suggest that organic farming and plant diversification promote diverse arthropod meta-communities that may provide temporal and spatial stability of ecosystem service provisioning. Conserving diverse plant and arthropod communities in farming systems therefore requires sustainable practices that operate both within fields and across landscapes.</p>

1 A global synthesis of the effects of diversified farming systems on arthropod diversity within
2 fields and across agricultural landscapes

3
4 **Running head:** Effects of diversified farming on arthropods

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133

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137 DC, CMK, CK, and EML designed the study with support from FB, PB, RB, NAB-P, LGC,
138 WES, NW, and RW; EML, DC, and CMK collected, prepared, and analyzed data and wrote
139 the manuscript; all authors except CMK and EML contributed empirical field data; all
140 authors revised the manuscript.

141 **ABSTRACT**

142

143 Agricultural intensification is a leading cause of global biodiversity loss, which can reduce
144 the provisioning of ecosystem services in managed ecosystems. Organic farming and plant
145 diversification are farm management schemes that may mitigate potential ecological harm by
146 increasing species richness and boosting related ecosystem services to agroecosystems. What
147 remains unclear is the extent to which farm management schemes affect biodiversity
148 components other than species richness, and whether impacts differ across spatial scales and
149 landscape contexts. Using a global meta-dataset, we quantified the effects of organic farming
150 and plant diversification on abundance, local diversity (communities within fields), and
151 regional diversity (communities across fields) of arthropod pollinators, predators, herbivores,
152 and detritivores. Both organic farming and higher in-field plant diversity enhanced arthropod
153 abundance, particularly for rare taxa. This resulted in increased richness but decreased
154 evenness. While these responses were stronger at local relative to regional scales, richness
155 and abundance increased at both scales, and richness on farms embedded in complex relative
156 to simple landscapes. Overall, both organic farming and in-field plant diversification exerted
157 the strongest effects on pollinators and predators, suggesting these management schemes can
158 facilitate ecosystem service providers without augmenting herbivore (pest) populations. Our
159 results suggest that organic farming and plant diversification promote diverse arthropod
160 meta-communities that may provide temporal and spatial stability of ecosystem service
161 provisioning. Conserving diverse plant and arthropod communities in farming systems
162 therefore requires sustainable practices that operate both within fields and across landscapes.

163 **INTRODUCTION**

164 Simplification of agricultural landscapes, and increased use of fertilizers and
165 pesticides, threaten arthropod communities worldwide (Matson *et al.*, 1997; Tschamtkke *et al.*,
166 2005; Potts *et al.*, 2016). This could impair agricultural sustainability because declines in
167 arthropod abundance and diversity are often associated with reduced provisioning of
168 ecosystem services including pollination, pest control, and nutrient cycling (Kremen & Miles,
169 2012; Oliver *et al.*, 2015). Two strategies purported to mitigate this ecological harm are
170 organic farming and in-field plant diversification (Table S1). We refer to these strategies as
171 farm management schemes, both of which include a host of practices that promote biological
172 diversification (Kremen & Miles, 2012; Puech *et al.*, 2014). We refer to organic farming,
173 conventional farming, high in-field plant diversification, and low in-field plant diversification
174 as separate field types. Mounting evidence indicates that arthropod communities are more
175 diverse and abundant in fields lacking synthetic fertilizers and pesticides, and in those with
176 greater plant diversity (e.g., intercropped or having non-crop vegetation like hedgerows or
177 floral strips) (Letourneau *et al.*, 2011; Crowder *et al.*, 2012; Kennedy *et al.*, 2013; Garibaldi
178 *et al.*, 2014; Batáry *et al.*, 2015; Fahrig *et al.*, 2015).

179 The benefits of diversified farming practices may manifest at different scales, such as
180 within individual fields (local diversity) or across multiple fields in a landscape (regional
181 diversity) (Table S1). One observational study of 205 farms across Europe and Africa, for
182 example, found that although organic farming provided strong benefits for local richness of
183 plants and pollinators, these benefits faded at regional scales (Schneider *et al.*, 2014). This
184 suggests that while farmers may promote local diversity on their field(s) by using organic
185 practices, their efforts may not enhance biodiversity across multiple fields. Conversely, the

186 addition of hedgerows to crop fields has been shown to increase community heterogeneity
187 and species turnover (measures of local diversity), which are important components of
188 regional diversity (Ponisio *et al.*, 2016). The effects of farm management for particularly
189 mobile arthropods, such as pollinators, may also transcend individual fields if the improved
190 quality of habitats on one field boosts abundance, with organisms spilling over to nearby
191 fields (Tscharrntke *et al.*, 2012; Kennedy *et al.*, 2013). While increases in local diversity have
192 been shown to provide the strongest benefits to individual ecosystem services (i.e.,
193 pollination and biological control), regional diversity can support the simultaneous provision
194 of multiple ecosystem services over space and time (Pasari *et al.*, 2013). Thus, to mitigate the
195 effects of biodiversity loss across agroecosystems, farm management schemes should ideally
196 benefit both local and regional diversity.

197 Research on the impacts of organic farming and in-field plant diversity has primarily
198 focused on beneficial functional groups such as natural enemies and pollinators (Crowder *et*
199 *al.*, 2010; Kennedy *et al.*, 2013) across intensively sampled regions of Europe and North
200 America (Shackelford *et al.*, 2013; De Palma *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, almost all studies rely
201 on richness (the number of taxa; Table S1) as a proxy for biodiversity but ignore metrics such
202 as evenness (the relative abundances among species; Table S1) (e.g., Bengtsson *et al.*, 2005;
203 Tuck *et al.*, 2014). Yet, richness poorly reflects overall community diversity (Duncan *et al.*,
204 2015; Loiseau & Gaertner, 2015), and its measurement is strongly confounded by abundance
205 (Chao & Jost, 2012). Variation in richness has also been shown to have minimal impacts on
206 ecosystem functioning when richness increases are driven primarily by rare species that
207 contribute little to ecosystem services (Kleijn *et al.*, 2015; Winfree *et al.*, 2015). While
208 common species may provide the majority of ecosystem services on some farms (Schwartz *et*

209 *al.*, 2000; Kleijn *et al.*, 2015), rare species can provide redundancy (Kleijn *et al.*, 2015) or
210 support provisioning of multiple ecosystem services (Soliveres *et al.*, 2016). Assessing
211 evenness can help determine whether richness increases are driven by rare or common
212 species. Richness, evenness, and abundance can also independently or interactively affect
213 ecosystem function (Wilsey & Stirling, 2006; Wittebolle *et al.*, 2009; Crowder *et al.*, 2010;
214 Northfield *et al.*, 2010; Winfree *et al.*, 2015). Thus, teasing apart the effects of farm
215 management schemes on abundance and each diversity metric is critical. While existing
216 studies find that organic farming and in-field plant diversification tend to boost abundance
217 and richness of certain taxa, whether these effects are consistent for other biodiversity
218 components such as evenness, for functional groups other than pollinators and natural
219 enemies, and for less-well studied regions of the world (e.g., the tropics and Mediterranean)
220 remains unclear.

221 Here, we present a comprehensive synthesis of studies that explore how organic
222 farming and in-field plant diversification influence arthropod communities across global
223 agroecosystems. We determine whether community responses to these management schemes
224 vary based on different metrics (abundance, local richness and evenness, regional richness
225 and evenness) and arthropod functional groups (detritivores, herbivores, pollinators, and
226 predators). We investigate if these responses depend on landscape complexity (i.e., the
227 proportion of natural and semi-natural habitat surrounding the farm; Fig. S1, Table S1),
228 because landscape heterogeneity has been shown to influence the effectiveness of farm
229 management schemes (Batáry *et al.*, 2011; Kleijn *et al.*, 2011; Kennedy *et al.*, 2013; Tuck *et*
230 *al.*, 2014). We also explore whether farm management schemes have similar impacts on
231 relatively rare compared to common taxa. Our results demonstrate whether local and regional

232 diversity and abundance of different functional groups are similarly affected by on-farm
233 management and landscape complexity, and the extent of covariance between biodiversity
234 within and across fields in a landscape. Broadly, our findings further reveal the role of farm
235 management in mitigating biodiversity loss and maintaining healthy arthropod communities
236 in agroecosystems under global change.

237

238 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

239 **Literature survey**

240 We compiled data from studies on arthropod diversity in agroecosystems that
241 compared one or both of the farm management schemes of interest: (1) organic vs.
242 conventional farming and (2) high vs. low in-field plant diversity. We defined organic
243 agriculture as fields that were organically certified or met local certification guidelines (Table
244 S1). These guidelines involve, at minimum maintaining production systems free of synthetic
245 pesticides and fertilizers. We defined conventional agriculture as fields or farms that used
246 recommended rates of synthetic, or a mix of synthetic and organic, pesticides and fertilizers.
247 Other types of farming systems, such as integrated, which fit neither category were excluded
248 from the analysis. Fields were defined as having high in-field plant diversity if they had
249 diverse crop vegetation or managed field margins to include non-crop vegetation (e.g.,
250 hedgerows, border plantings, flower strips) (Table S1). We also classified small (< 4 ha)
251 fields as diverse because they yield small-scale crop diversity (across several fields) even if
252 the target field is a monoculture (Pasher *et al.*, 2013). Fields were defined as having low in-
253 field plant diversity if they had none of these features. Studies that compared these schemes
254 were identified by (1) searching the reference lists of recent meta-analyses (Batáry *et al.*,

255 2011; Chaplin-Kramer *et al.*, 2011; Crowder *et al.*, 2012; Garibaldi *et al.*, 2013; Kennedy *et*
256 *al.*, 2013; Scheper *et al.*, 2013; Shackelford *et al.*, 2013), (2) searching ISI Web of
257 Knowledge (April and May 2013) using the terms “evenness or richness” and “organic and
258 conventional” or “local diversity”, and (3) directly contacting researchers who study
259 arthropods in agricultural systems.

260 We identified 235 relevant studies that we examined for inclusion based on five
261 criteria: (1) sampling was performed in the same crop or crop type (e.g., cereals) for organic
262 and conventional fields, or fields with high and low in-field plant diversity; (2) sampling was
263 conducted at the scale of individual crop fields rather than using plots on experiment stations;
264 (3) the study included at least two fields of each type; (4) all organisms collected were
265 identified to a particular taxonomic level (i.e., order, family, genus, species, or
266 morphospecies), such that no taxa were lumped into groups such as “other”; and (5) at least
267 three unique taxa were collected. We use “taxon” to refer to a single biological type (e.g.,
268 species, morphospecies, genus, family), determined as the finest taxonomic resolution to
269 which each organism was identified in a particular study (see examples in Table S1). A total
270 of 60 studies met our criteria, representing 43 crops, 21 countries, and 5 regions (Asia,
271 Europe, North and Central America, South America, Oceania) (Fig. S2, Table S2). For
272 studies that investigated both management scheme comparisons, we included the data in both
273 analyses only when the field types were independently assigned (Table S3); otherwise we
274 selected the scheme that the authors indicated the study was designed to address (Table S2).
275 Across these 60 studies, our meta-analysis included 110 unique data points: 81 comparing
276 organic and conventional fields and 29 comparing fields with high vs. low in-field plant
277 diversity (Fig. S2, Tables S2, S4, archived data). Among organic vs. conventional studies, the

278 number with high in-field plant diversity, low in-field plant diversity, and both levels of plant
279 diversity was independent of organic vs. conventional management ($\chi^2_2 = 0.47, p = 0.79$).

280

281 **Calculation of effect sizes**

282 Unlike traditional meta-analyses that extract summary statistics from studies, we
283 gathered and manipulated raw data, which enabled us to calculate evenness and classify taxa
284 into functional groups. For each study, we compiled data on the abundance of all taxa in each
285 field. For studies conducted across multiple years or crop types, separate values were
286 compiled for each year and crop. To avoid pseudoreplication, for multi-year studies we
287 selected a single year to analyze based on maximizing the number of (1) sites that met the
288 evenness criterion (at least three taxa), (2) fields, or (3) individuals (in decreasing priority
289 order; Garibaldi *et al.*, 2013). Each collected taxon was classified into one of four functional
290 groups: detritivore, herbivore, pollinator, or predator (see Supporting Methods for details).
291 These taxon-level data were used to calculate effect sizes for abundance, local diversity, and
292 regional diversity in paired organic vs. conventional or high vs. low in-field plant diversity
293 systems. For local and regional calculations, we defined diversity as both richness and
294 evenness, and treated each functional group separately (Fig. S1).

295 Local diversity reflects the average diversity within each field, and was calculated
296 using individual crop fields as the sampling unit (Fig. S1, Table S1). In studies with sub-
297 samples at a scale smaller than a field (i.e., plots within fields), values across these sub-
298 samples were averaged before calculating local diversity. Abundance was the number of
299 arthropods, and richness the number of unique taxa, in a field. Evenness was calculated using
300 the metric E_{var} , which ranges from 0 (one taxon dominant) to 1 (uniform abundance for all

301 taxa). This metric was chosen for its desirable statistical properties, particularly independence
302 from richness, and its use in similar previous meta-analyses (Crowder *et al.*, 2012). After
303 calculating abundance, richness, and evenness for each field, we averaged values across all
304 fields of a particular type in a study to obtain the values for effect size calculations.

305 Regional diversity values were calculated based on individuals pooled across all fields
306 in a study (Fig. S1, Table S1). Thus, regional richness and evenness are measures of diversity
307 of meta-communities across fields in a landscape, while local diversity measures
308 communities in a single field (Wang & Loreau, 2014). We note that regional diversity is not a
309 direct indication of spatial scale, as the geographical extent of sampling varied among
310 studies. Some studies were not designed to assess regional diversity specifically, and sampled
311 unequal numbers of fields of each type. To correct for this sampling bias, we used sample-
312 based rarefaction with 1,000 random samples taken from the set of fields in a given study to
313 determine pooled species assemblages (Gotelli & Colwell, 2011). For example, if a study had
314 10 conventional and 6 organic fields, regional diversity values for the conventional
315 management schemes would be based on the average pooled community taken from 1,000
316 random draws of 6 field sites. Regional abundance is simply local abundance multiplied by
317 the number of sites, thus we reported only one abundance value per study.

318 To compare effects of farm management schemes on diversity and abundance, we
319 used the log-response ratio as an effect size metric (Hedges *et al.*, 1999). We used this metric,
320 rather than a weighted effect size, for three reasons. First, weighted effect sizes could not be
321 calculated for regional diversity because these calculations were based on a single value
322 (without replication) from each study, such that there was no estimate of variability. Second,
323 our studies classified arthropods at varying levels of taxonomic resolution. Studies classified

324 at the family level had less variability than studies classified at the species level, so using a
325 weighted metric would give studies conducted at a coarser taxonomic resolution greater
326 weight. Finally, preliminary analysis showed weighted and unweighted analyses of local
327 diversity and abundance were qualitatively similar (Table S5). In the Results, we back-
328 transformed log response-ratio effect sizes to percentages.

329 We assessed funnel plot asymmetry to test for publication bias. Because we used an
330 unweighted effect size metric, we plotted effect sizes against sample sizes (i.e., number of
331 fields; Figs. S3, S4) (Sterne & Egger, 2001), and visually assessed asymmetry since formal
332 statistical tests require effect size variances (Jin *et al.*, 2015) and measures of regional
333 diversity had no variance component. Visual assessment looked for, and did not find, areas of
334 missing non-significant results, a directional bias to effects, or a strong relationship between
335 effect and sample sizes. We did not detect any sign of publication bias; funnel plots were
336 sufficiently symmetrical. Finally, we ensured the sampling method (active versus passive
337 sampling techniques) did not influence results (see Supporting Information, Table S6). We
338 calculated abundance and diversity values with R v. 3.1.1 (R Core Team, 2014), using
339 packages BiodiversityR (Kindt & Coe, 2005), doBy (Højsgaard & Halekoh, 2013), and
340 reshape (Wickham, 2007).

341

342 **Study variables**

343 We gathered data on three categorical variables and assessed whether they mediated
344 arthropod responses to farm management schemes: (1) landscape complexity (simple,
345 complex), (2) biome (boreal, Mediterranean, temperate, tropical), and (3) crop cultivation
346 period (annual, perennial). Landscape complexity (see Fig. S1, Table S1) was determined

347 from land cover data on the percentage of natural and semi-natural habitat within 1 km of
348 sampled fields. Natural and semi-natural habitat was defined as areas dominated by forest,
349 grassland, shrubland, wetlands, ruderal vegetation, or non-agricultural plantings (i.e.,
350 previously-cultivated areas where vegetation is regenerating, hedgerows, field margins, and
351 vegetation along roadways or ditches). For each study, we calculated the mean percentage of
352 natural habitats across fields using locally-relevant land cover databases. Landscapes were
353 classified as simple if they averaged $\leq 20\%$ natural habitat, and complex if they averaged $>$
354 20% natural habitat, following Tschardt et al. (2005) and common practice (e.g., Batáry *et al.*,
355 *et al.*, 2011; Scheper *et al.*, 2013) (see Supporting Methods for additional details). Biome was
356 based on the geographic location of the study. Crop cultivation periods were derived from
357 several sources (FAO AGPC, 2000; Garibaldi *et al.*, 2013). Table S4 shows the distribution
358 of data points across each of these descriptive variables.

359

360 **Data analyses**

361 Table S7 summarizes specific questions we addressed and the approach we used to
362 test each one. We first used one-sample *t*-tests (Crowder & Reganold, 2015) to determine if
363 the mean effect sizes for abundance, local richness and evenness, and regional richness and
364 evenness differed significantly from 0. For each management scheme comparison (organic
365 vs. conventional or high vs. low in-field plant diversity), these analyses were conducted for
366 the overall arthropod community and for each functional group separately. We also explored
367 correlations between local and regional richness, and between local and regional evenness, to
368 determine if these metrics responded similarly to each of the management schemes. We used
369 $\alpha = 0.10$, to describe effect sizes that appeared ecologically important but did not meet the

370 somewhat arbitrary $\alpha = 0.05$. This accords with a recent policy statement by the American
371 Statistical Association (Wasserstein & Lazar, 2016), which notes that reliance on arbitrary
372 alpha values can lead to erroneous conclusions.

373 In subsequent analyses, we used meta-regression to examine whether effect sizes
374 were influenced by functional group and other study characteristics. We excluded studies
375 lacking landscape complexity data (see archived data) from meta-regressions. For each
376 management scheme and response, we ran a linear mixed model (lme4 package; Bates *et al.*,
377 2014) that included eight fixed effect variables: (1) functional group (detritivore, herbivore,
378 predator, pollinator), (2) diversity scale (local, regional), (3) landscape complexity (simple,
379 complex), (4) biome (boreal, Mediterranean, temperate, tropical), (5) crop cultivation period
380 (annual, perennial), (6) functional group×diversity scale interaction; (7) functional
381 group×landscape complexity interaction; and (8) diversity scale×landscape complexity
382 interaction. These models included study ID as a random effect. We used information-
383 theoretic model selection to determine the set of best-fit models for each response variable
384 (MuMIn package; Barton, 2014), which contained models with AICc values within 2 of the
385 smallest value (Burnham & Anderson, 1998). We examined significance of the fixed effects
386 in each model in the best-fit set ($\alpha = 0.10$) with likelihood ratio tests, and used post-hoc
387 planned contrasts (with p -values adjusted to control the overall Type I error rate using
388 Holm's sequential Bonferroni procedure; see Supporting Methods) (phia package; Rosario-
389 Martinez, 2013) to test for (1) differences in effect size among functional groups and biomes,
390 (2) differences in effect size between the local and regional scales within each functional
391 group, and (3) landscape complexity differences between each pair of functional groups.

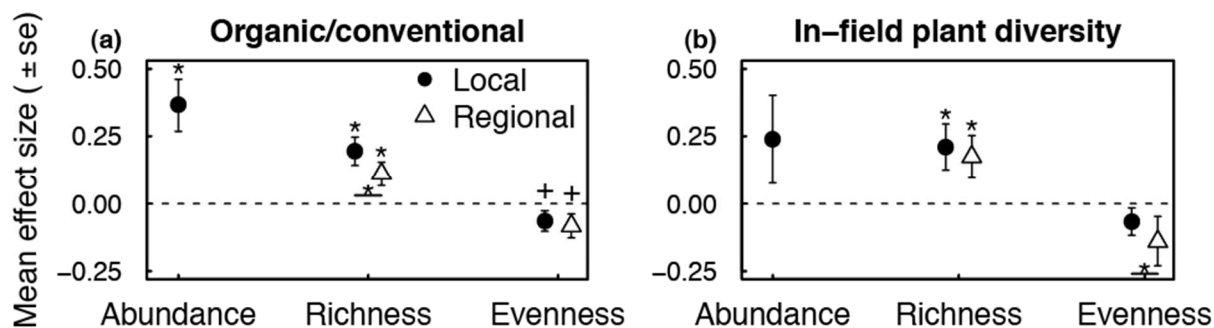
392 We also tested whether abundance and richness effect sizes differed for rare and
393 common taxa. Following Kleijn et al. (2015), within each study we classified taxa as
394 common if their relative abundance was at least 5% of the total community; other species
395 were categorized as rare. We then calculated local abundance and richness as well as regional
396 abundance and richness separately for rare and common taxa. We used one-sample *t*-tests to
397 determine if mean effect sizes differed significantly from zero, and paired *t*-tests to determine
398 whether mean effect sizes differed between rare and common taxa.

399

400 **RESULTS**

401 **Effects of management schemes on overall arthropod communities**

402 Organic farming increased arthropod abundance (45% change), local richness (19%),
403 and regional richness (11%) (Fig. 1a, Table S8). These positive effects were stronger for local
404 compared to regional richness (Fig. 1a, Tables S9, S10). Arthropod communities on organic
405 farms had significantly but only moderately lower local evenness (-6%) and regional
406 evenness (-8%) than on conventional farms (Fig. 1a, Table S8). Fields with high in-field plant
407 diversity increased local richness (23%) and regional richness (19%), with similar magnitude
408 (Fig. 1b, Tables S8, S11, S12). In-field plant diversity did not significantly affect abundance
409 (27%), local evenness (-6%) or regional evenness (-13%) (Fig. 1b, Table S8). Overall, there
410 were strong positive correlations between local and regional richness ($r = 0.87$), and between
411 local and regional evenness ($r = 0.57$; Fig. S5).



412
413

414 **Figure 1.** Effects of farm management schemes on arthropod abundance, local diversity, and
415 regional diversity. Values shown are for the entire arthropod community, and represent the
416 mean log-response ratio (\pm SE) of (a) adopting organic farming and (b) promoting in-field
417 plant diversity on abundance, richness, and evenness. A “*” ($p < 0.05$) or “+” ($0.05 \leq p < 0.1$)
418 above a mean denotes a significant difference from zero (determined via one-sample t -tests;
419 statistical details in Table S8), while one below a pair of means indicates a significant
420 difference between local and regional diversity (determined via linear mixed models; Tables
421 S9-S12).

422
423

Organic farming increased abundance and richness of both rare and common
arthropods at the local and regional scales (Fig. S6a,c, Table S13). At the local scale, organic
farming increased arthropod richness by promoting rare taxa (27% increase) more strongly
than common taxa (14% increase) (Fig. S6c, Table S14). In-field plant diversification also
had differential effects on rare and common taxa, increasing richness of both at the local
scale, but only of rare taxa at the regional scale (Fig. S6d, Table S13). Fields with higher in-
field plant diversity increased abundance of common arthropods, but not of rare arthropods
(Fig. S6b, Table S13).

431

432 Effects of management schemes on arthropod functional groups

433 Organic farming substantially increased the abundance (90%), local richness (55%),
434 and regional richness (32%) of pollinator communities, but did not impact pollinator
435 evenness (Fig. 2a, Table S15). For predator communities, organic farming increased
436 abundance (38%) and local richness (14%), lowered local (-9%) and regional (-14%)

437 evenness (Fig. 2c, Table S16), but did not affect regional richness (Fig. 2c, Table S16).
438 Organic farming also did not impact abundance, local or regional richness, or local or
439 regional evenness for herbivore (Fig. 2e, Table S17) or detritivore (Fig. 2g, Table S18)
440 communities. For all biodiversity components and functional groups, effect sizes in response
441 to organic farming did not differ between the local and regional scales (Fig. 2a,c,e,f, Tables
442 S9, S10). The diversity scale×landscape complexity interaction was never retained in a best-
443 fit model (Tables S9, S11).

444 High in-field plant diversity promoted the abundance (45%), local richness (44%),
445 and regional richness (29%) of pollinator communities, but decreased local pollinator
446 evenness (-11%) (Fig. 2b, Table S15). In-field plant diversity did not affect regional
447 pollinator evenness (Fig. 2b, Table S15). In addition, in-field plant diversity did not alter
448 abundance, local or regional richness, or local or regional evenness for predator (Fig. 2d,
449 Table S16) or herbivore (Fig. 2f, Table S17) communities. In-field plant diversity increased
450 the regional richness (69%) of detritivores and lowered regional detritivore evenness (-65%),
451 but did not impact detritivore abundance, local richness, or local evenness (Fig. 2h, Table
452 S18). The low sample size for detritivores, however, limits our ability to make inferences
453 about this group.

454

455 **Effects of landscape complexity, biome, and crop cultivation period on arthropod** 456 **communities**

457 Landscape complexity did not mediate the influences of organic farming or in-field
458 plant diversity on arthropod abundance or evenness (Fig. 3, Tables S9-S12). However, both
459 management schemes had stronger positive effects on local and regional arthropod richness

460 in complex relative to simple landscapes: organic farming 26% vs. 9%, in-field plant
461 diversification 29% vs. 11%, respectively (Fig. 3c,d, Tables S9-S12). The effects of
462 landscape complexity were similar in both direction and magnitude for local and regional
463 diversity (Fig. 3c-e, Tables S9-S12). Organic farming promoted herbivore richness to a
464 greater extent in simple than complex landscapes (Table S10), but other effects of landscape
465 complexity on abundance and diversity were similar across functional groups (Tables S9-
466 S12).

467 Stronger richness gains in complex than simple landscapes were driven
468 predominantly by rare taxa (Fig. 4). In complex landscapes, both organic farming and in-field
469 plant diversification had stronger positive effects on local richness of rare (organic 44%,
470 plant diversification 68%) than of common (organic 21%, plant diversification 18%)
471 arthropod taxa (Fig. 4c,d, Table S19). Organic farming within complex landscapes also
472 increased local abundance and regional richness of rare taxa (78% and 17%, respectively) to
473 a greater extent than common taxa (33% and 4%, respectively) (Fig. 4a, Table S19). Neither
474 management scheme differentially affected abundance or richness of rare and common taxa
475 in simple landscapes (Fig. 4, Table S19).

476 Biome mediated the impacts of in-field plant diversity on arthropod richness (pooled
477 across local and regional scales) (Tables S11, S12). Post-hoc tests failed to indicate
478 significant differences among biomes when considering all studies; but when the single
479 boreal study was removed from the analysis, high in-field plant diversity more strongly
480 promoted richness in Mediterranean (53%) than in temperate studies (-2%) (Table S12).
481 Biome did not mediate the effects of organic farming or in-field plant diversification on
482 arthropod abundance or evenness (Tables S9-S12). Organic farming increased arthropod

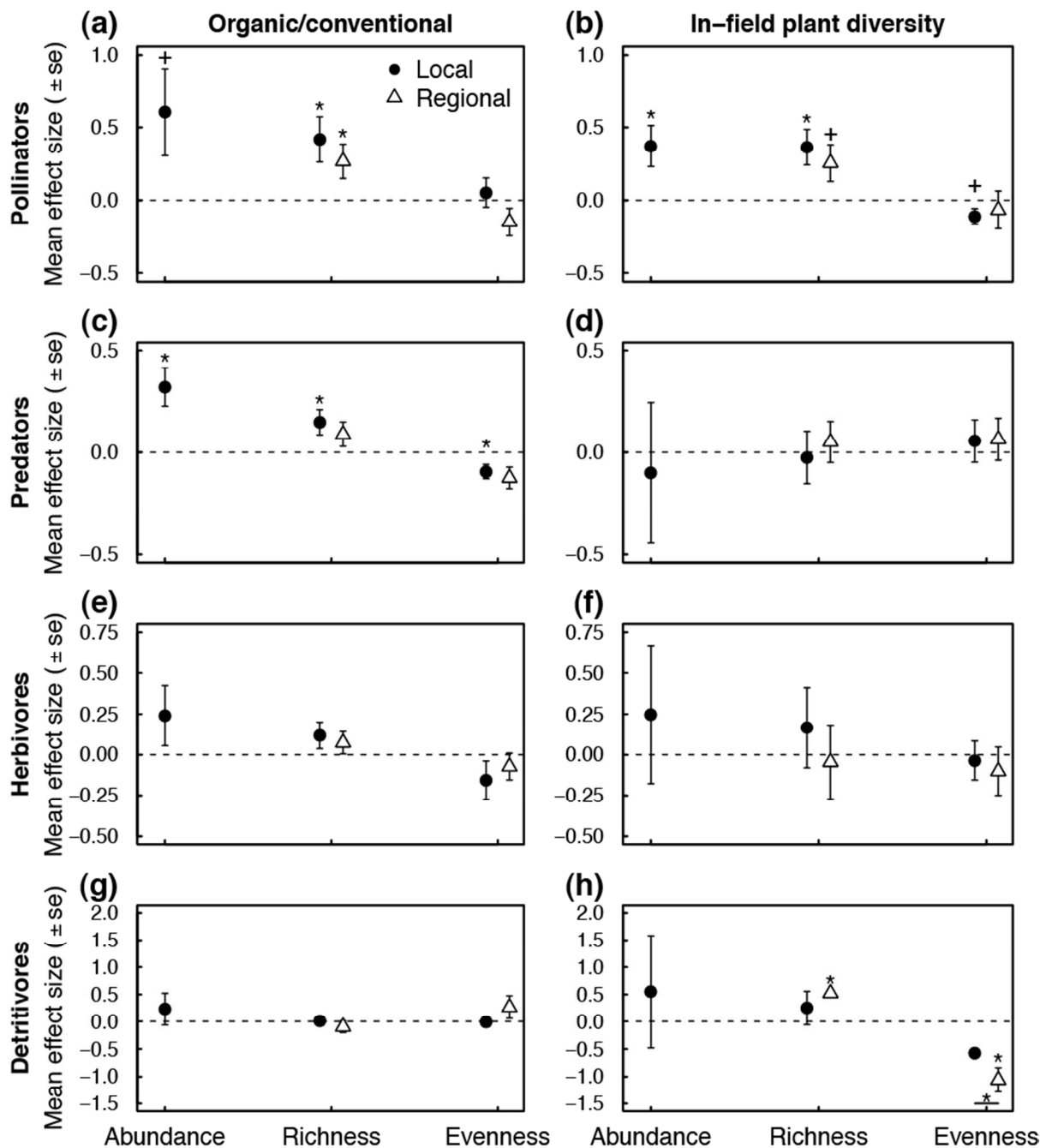
483 abundance to a greater extent in annual (70%) than in perennial (1%) crops (Tables S9, S10).

484 The effects of in-field plant diversification on abundance and diversity were consistent across

485 crop cultivation periods (Tables S11, S12).

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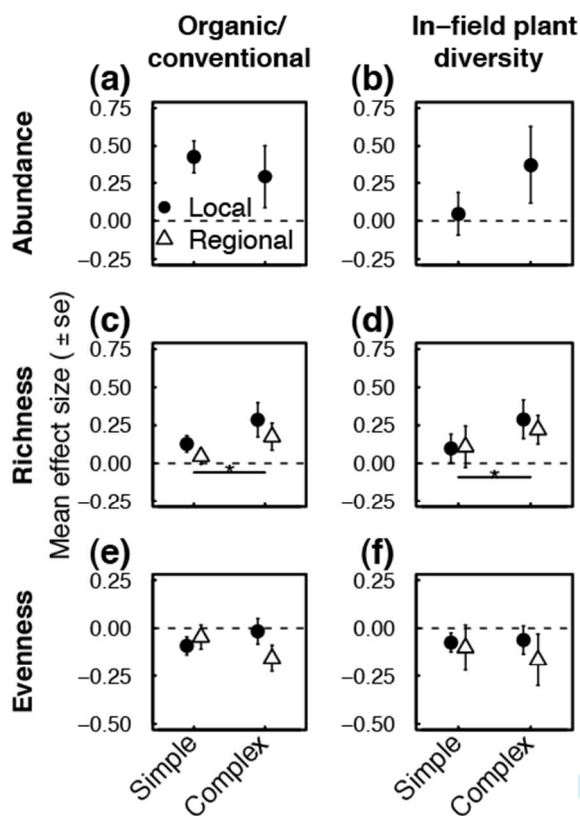
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Figure 2. Effects of farm management schemes on abundance, local diversity, and regional diversity of arthropod functional groups. Mean log-response ratios (\pm SE) of (left column) adopting organic farming and (right column) promoting in-field plant diversity for (a-b) pollinators, (c-d) predators, (e-f) herbivores, and (g-h) detritivores. A “*” ($p < 0.05$) or “+” ($0.05 \leq p < 0.1$) above a mean denotes a significant difference from zero (determined via one-sample t -tests; Tables S15-S18). Meta-regressions indicated that differences between local and regional values did not vary with functional group (Tables S9-S12).

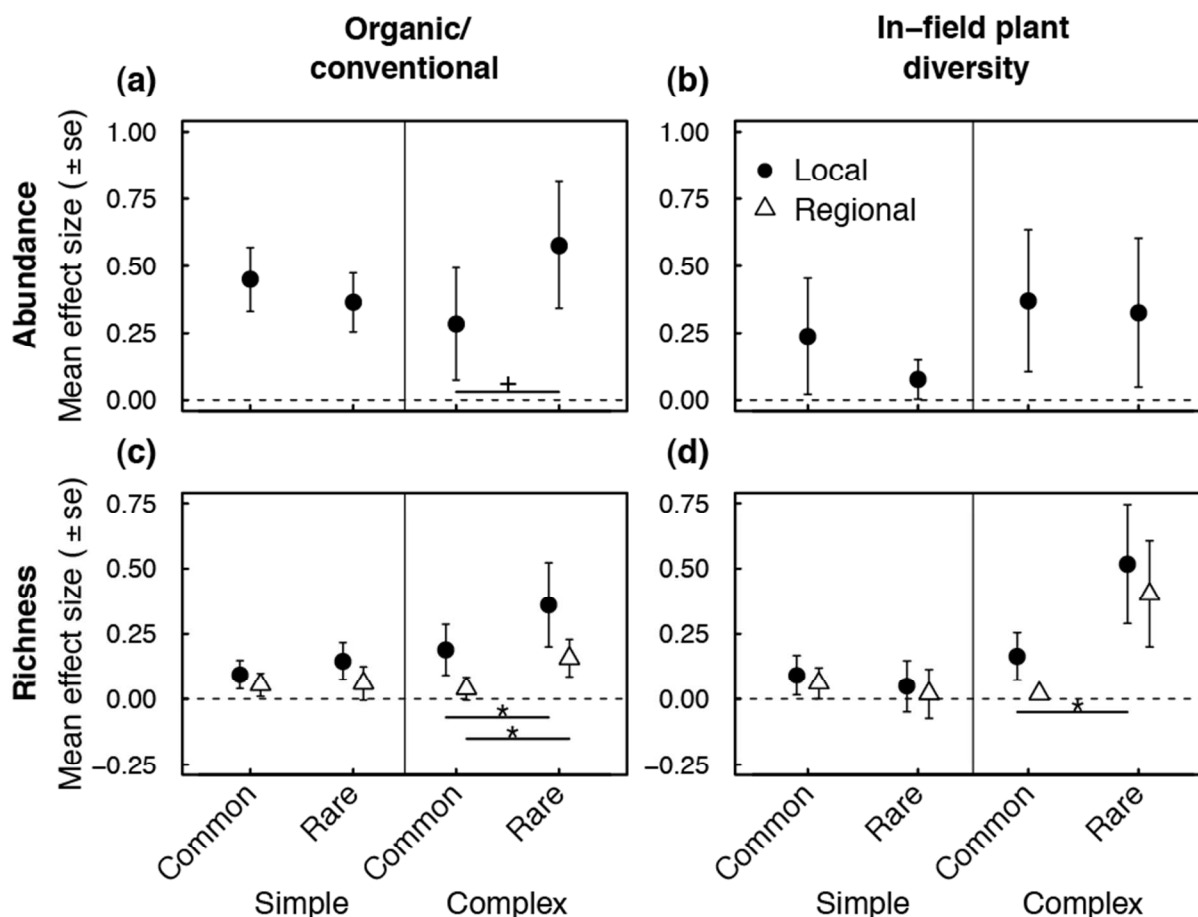


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499 **Figure 3.** Effects of landscape complexity on the entire arthropod community in organic vs.
 500 conventional farms (left column) and fields with high vs. low in-field plant diversity (right
 501 column). Each graph shows the mean log-response ratio (\pm SE) for studies in simple ($\leq 20\%$
 502 natural habitat) or complex ($>20\%$ natural habitat) landscapes for (a,b) abundance, (c,d)
 503 richness, and (e,f) evenness. A “*” ($p < 0.05$) or “+” ($0.05 \leq p < 0.1$) below a set of means
 504 indicates a significant difference between means at the habitat complexity levels (Tables S9-
 505 S12).

506



507

508

509 **Figure 4.** Effects of farm management schemes on abundance (a, b) and richness (c, d) of
 510 common vs. rare taxa in simple and complex landscapes. Mean log-response ratios (\pm SE) of
 511 (left column) adopting organic farming and (right column) promoting in-field plant diversity.
 512 A “*” ($p < 0.05$) or “+” ($0.05 \leq p < 0.1$) below a pair of means indicates a significant
 513 difference between rare and common taxa within a landscape complexity category
 514 (determined via paired t -tests; Table S19).

515

516

517 **DISCUSSION**

518

Our global meta-analysis showed that both organic farming and in-field plant

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diversification strongly increased arthropod abundance and richness, but had weaker effects

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on evenness. The minimal evenness decreases on diversified farms reflected the presence of

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more rare taxa. Emerging evidence suggests that rare taxa contribute to individual ecosystem

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services less than common taxa (Schwartz *et al.*, 2000; Kleijn *et al.*, 2015), although they

523 may be important for maintenance of multiple ecosystem services across time and space
524 (Isbell *et al.*, 2011; Soliveres *et al.*, 2016). Thus, while organic farming and plant
525 diversification promote arthropod biodiversity conservation goals, their impacts on
526 ecosystem services may be nuanced. The positive effects of both organic farming and in-field
527 plant diversification were greatest for two groups of beneficial arthropods: pollinators and
528 predators. Thus, both schemes may increase agroecosystem sustainability by promoting key
529 ecosystem service providers without boosting pest (herbivore) densities.

530 Previous meta-analyses have investigated how organic farming and, to a lesser extent,
531 in-field plant diversification, affect arthropod abundance and richness (e.g., Bengtsson *et al.*,
532 2005; Batáry *et al.*, 2011; Chaplin-Kramer *et al.*, 2011; Scheper *et al.*, 2013; Shackelford *et*
533 *al.*, 2013; Tuck *et al.*, 2014). Our study extends upon this work by (1) combining data on
534 multiple arthropod functional groups (but see Shackelford *et al.*, 2013), and (2) examining
535 the type and scale of diversity across a variety of crop types. As such, we offer a more
536 comprehensive understanding of when and how farm management schemes alter arthropod
537 biodiversity. Our findings caution that the frequent use of richness as the sole proxy for
538 biodiversity fails to reflect the full impacts of farming practices on biologic communities.
539 While multiple studies have shown that organic farming boosts richness (e.g., Bengtsson *et*
540 *al.*, 2005; Tuck *et al.*, 2014), we found that evenness decreased, an outcome that was due
541 mainly to promotion of rare species. Species richness might be increased by conservation
542 practices that target specific taxa, but the promotion of evenness requires practices that can
543 simultaneously balance the abundances of many taxa (Crowder *et al.*, 2010, 2012). Finally,
544 our results highlight the necessity of targeting farm management within the context of local
545 conditions (Cunningham *et al.*, 2013; Saunders *et al.*, 2016). For example, our results suggest

546 that farmers in Mediterranean biomes might see greater arthropod richness gains by
547 increasing in-field plant diversity than by farming organically, while farmers growing annual
548 crops may be more likely to boost arthropod abundance with organic farming.

549 Disentangling relationships between biodiversity components at local and regional
550 scales can inform patterns of community assembly and mechanisms that shape community
551 structure (Gering & Crist, 2002; Wang & Loreau, 2014). We found that regional diversity
552 positively correlated with local diversity under both management schemes. Further, organic
553 farming increased richness at both scales, although local effects were stronger than regional
554 ones. One possible explanation is that diversified farming practices increase the heterogeneity
555 of local communities (e.g., Ponisio *et al.*, 2016), which could lead to greater regional
556 diversity. Another possibility is that diversified fields serve as source habitats within a matrix
557 of crop and non-crop habitats across farming landscapes (M'Gonigle *et al.*, 2015). Further,
558 the benefits of diversification practices on local communities in fields can be strongly
559 mediated by regional species pools across farming landscapes (Gering & Crist, 2002).

560 Our results, in combination with another recent meta-analysis (Schneider *et al.*, 2014),
561 suggest that mobility of organisms can determine whether the benefits of farm diversification
562 accrue at both local and regional scales. While we show that organic farming can boost
563 arthropod diversity at local and regional scales, Schneider *et al.* (2014) found that organic
564 farming increased plant, earthworm, and spider richness at field but not regional scales.
565 These groups of organisms tend to have limited dispersal capacity, particularly plants and
566 earthworms. Thus, their local communities may be structured more by competition than long-
567 distance dispersal (Gering & Crist, 2002), which would limit the similarity between
568 communities within and across fields. At the same time, Schneider *et al.* (2014) found that

569 organic farming boosted the richness of bees, a more mobile group of organisms, by
570 approximately 25% at the local scale and 15% at the regional scale. We likewise found that
571 diversified farming increased abundance, and local and regional richness, of mobile
572 pollinators, but had less impact on detritivores that tend to have lower mobility (Sattler *et al.*,
573 2010).

574 Overall, our results are consistent with mounting evidence that farm management and
575 landscape complexity interactively affect arthropod biodiversity (e.g., Rusch *et al.*, 2010;
576 Batáry *et al.*, 2011; Kennedy *et al.*, 2013; Tuck *et al.*, 2014), although results across studies
577 have found sometimes conflicting patterns (Kleijn *et al.*, 2011; Tscharntke *et al.*, 2012; Tuck
578 *et al.*, 2014). For example, agri-environment schemes that promote low input, low
579 disturbance, and diverse farms are sometimes most effective in fostering biodiversity in
580 structurally simple landscapes (Batáry *et al.*, 2011; Scheper *et al.*, 2013). This presumably
581 occurs because simple landscapes fail to satisfy the resource needs of many species, such that
582 these species may disperse into diverse farms to seek resources (Tscharntke *et al.*, 2005;
583 Kremen & Miles, 2012). In contrast, we found that impacts of organic farming and plant
584 diversification on arthropod richness were heightened for fields embedded in complex
585 landscapes. This could occur if complex landscapes support more diverse species pools that
586 can respond positively to farm management (Duelli & Obrist, 2003; Hillebrand *et al.*, 2008;
587 Kennedy *et al.*, 2013). Consistent with this hypothesis, we showed that organic farming in
588 complex landscapes preferentially increased richness of rare taxa locally (i.e., in fields) and
589 regionally (i.e., across landscapes). Importantly, the interactive effects of landscape
590 complexity and on-farm management may differ across arthropod functional groups with
591 varying capacity to move across landscapes (Tscharntke *et al.*, 2005; Chaplin-Kramer *et al.*,

592 2011). However, the only interaction between landscape complexity and management
593 schemes we found was for richness of herbivores, a group with considerable variation in
594 mobility among taxa (Sattler *et al.*, 2010).

595 Ideally, increases in abundance and diversity of arthropods on farms would enhance
596 the provisioning of ecosystem services (Kremen & Miles, 2012). However, empirical studies
597 have provided mixed evidence. In-field plant diversification and increased landscape
598 complexity have been found to promote predator abundance and diversity with no change in
599 pest control levels (Chaplin-Kramer *et al.*, 2011; Rusch *et al.*, 2016) or reduced crop damage
600 (Letourneau *et al.*, 2011). The relationship between biodiversity and ecosystem services on
601 farms is thus likely strongly mediated by species' abundances and functional roles. For
602 example, Northfield *et al.* (2010) found that greater predator richness increased pest control,
603 but only with high predator densities where complementarity among predator species was
604 fully realized. Increases in pollinator richness can have minimal impacts on ecosystem
605 services when richness gains are associated with rare species that contribute little to
606 pollination (Kleijn *et al.*, 2015; Winfree *et al.*, 2015). Increasing wild pollinator richness on
607 large farms (> 14 ha) only increases fruit set when wild pollinator density is also high
608 (Garibaldi *et al.*, 2016). Higher predator species evenness on organic farms has also been
609 shown to translate to increased pest control, with the potential to reduce yield gaps compared
610 with conventional agriculture (Crowder *et al.*, 2010). However, models suggest that
611 decreased evenness could also lead to greater ecosystem services when abundance of
612 common species that are effective ecosystem services providers increases at the expense of
613 rare species that are functionally less important (Crowder & Jabbour, 2014), a result seen
614 with pollinators in agricultural systems (Kleijn *et al.*, 2015; Winfree *et al.*, 2015). The

615 combination of context-specific responses to farm management schemes shown by this study
616 and biodiversity-ecosystem functioning relationships that depend on species' abundances and
617 functional traits suggest that the effects of diversified farming on ecosystem services are
618 likely to depend on biome, landscape, and crop characteristics.

619 By promoting biodiversity and abundance of arthropods, diversified agriculture could
620 provide a multitude of other benefits (Oliver *et al.*, 2015). Biodiversity can help maintain
621 stability of ecosystem processes through mechanisms such as response diversity and
622 functional redundancy (Cardinale *et al.*, 2012; Mori *et al.*, 2013). Arthropod richness gains in
623 response to organic farming and plant diversification, such as those documented here, could
624 guard against the loss of ecological function by supporting multiple species that occupy
625 similar functional niches (functional redundancy) or that are functionally similar but respond
626 differentially to environmental change (response diversity; Elmqvist *et al.*, 2003). The
627 abundance and richness increases we detected for pollinators and predators but not for
628 herbivores suggest that the two former groups may benefit more from these stabilizing
629 processes. Resilient systems must also exhibit multiple ecosystem functions
630 (multifunctionality) as environmental conditions and arthropod populations fluctuate.
631 Increases in rare taxa, as detected in this study, may be critical for multifunctionality (Isbell
632 *et al.*, 2011; Soliveres *et al.*, 2016) and even for single ecosystem functions (Zavaleta &
633 Hulvey, 2004; Mouillot *et al.*, 2013). Thus, regional-scale refuges for rare species may ensure
634 resilient agricultural systems.

635 Overall, our results suggest that organic farming and in-field plant diversification both
636 promote biodiversity on farms. Moreover, these two schemes might have interactive effects
637 on farm productivity. Practices such as multi-cropping (plant diversification) and longer,

638 more diverse, crop rotations can reduce the yield gaps between organic and conventional
639 agriculture (Ponisio *et al.*, 2015), and increase the profitability of organic relative to
640 conventional systems (Crowder & Reganold, 2015). Diversified small farms are increasingly
641 being replaced by large, simplified, and intensive monoculture production systems
642 (Tscharntke *et al.*, 2005; Bennett *et al.*, 2012). This is problematic because intensified
643 farming reduces the long-term sustainability of agroecosystems, thereby threatening global
644 food security (Ray *et al.*, 2012). One of the greatest challenges of the 21st century is meeting
645 the food, fiber, and energy needs of a growing human population while maintaining farm
646 sustainability and ecosystem functioning (Tilman *et al.*, 2011). Our study underscores that
647 adopting organic farming or in-field plant diversification practices might aid society in
648 attaining these goals.

649

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655

656 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

657 Data and scripts available at: [insert DOI for Zenodo repository]

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For Review Only

1 SUPPORTING METHODS

3 Functional group classifications

4 Data providers determined the functional group of each taxon. When functional groups
5 were non-defined or non-standard (e.g., saprophage), or when taxa filled multiple functional
6 roles (e.g., species that serve as both pollinators and herbivores), we assigned taxa to a single
7 functional role based on their most common description in the literature. To maximize data
8 inclusion, we also (1) combined predators and parasitoids, (2) classified all carabids as predators
9 since even the herbivorous species are thought to consume some animal material (e.g.,
10 Hengeveld, 1980; Jørgensen & Toft, 1997), and (3) classified a few pollinators as herbivores in
11 studies with few pollinator taxa but many herbivores.

13 Sampling methods

14 Studies used a broad range of sampling methods, which we categorized as active or
15 passive. Active sampling methods included beating, netting bees seen at plants, hand-collecting
16 individuals off plants, observational counting, washing plants, taking soil cores, sweep-netting,
17 and vacuum sampling. Passive sampling methods were blue vane traps, light traps, visually-
18 attractive or scented lures, malaise traps, minnow traps, pan traps, pitfall traps, and sticky cards.
19 However, we did not include sampling method in our meta-regressions because preliminary
20 analyses indicated that sampling method negligibly affected effect sizes (Table S5).

22 Landscape complexity

23 The “simple” landscape complexity category combined Tscharrntke et al.’s (2005)
24 “cleared” and “simple” categories because we had only two “cleared” studies. We were unable to
25 categorize landscape complexity when we obtained data directly from published articles that
26 lacked GPS coordinates of sampling locations or information on natural habitat surrounding
27 fields (Study IDs drit01, febe01, hesl01, hokk01, and weib01). These five studies all compared
28 organic and conventional farms. In a couple of cases we based landscape complexity on
29 percentage of natural habitat within 500 m (bosq01), or the average of percentages at 500m and
30 1.5 km (leto01; percentages at the two distances strongly correlated, with $r = 0.8$).

33 SUPPORTING REFERENCES

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47 **Table S2 is in a separate file.**

48

49 **Table 1:** Definitions and descriptions of key terms.

50

Term	Definition	Notes
Organic farming	Organically certified, or meeting local certification guidelines. While guidelines vary by country, they typically involve, at minimum, maintaining production systems free of synthetic pesticides and fertilizers.	Both organic and conventional farming include a broad range of management strategies and levels of intensity (e.g., pesticide application frequency, monoculture vs. polyculture) (Kremen & Miles, 2012; Puech <i>et al.</i> , 2014).
Conventional farming	Fields or farms that used recommended rates of synthetic, or synthetic and organic, pesticides and fertilizers.	
In-field plant diversification	This includes various schemes that increase small-scale plant diversity, including intercropping, managing field margins to include non-crop vegetation (e.g., hedgerows, border plantings, flower strips), and use of small (< 4 ha) fields.	
Taxon	A single biological type (e.g., species, morphospecies, genus, family), determined as the finest taxonomic resolution to which each organism was identified.	Examples: <i>Apis mellifera</i> (species), <i>Halictus</i> sp. 1 (morphospecies), <i>Lasioglossum</i> spp. (genus), Formicidae (family). We assigned each taxon to a functional group (detritivore, herbivore, pollinator, predator), but calculated abundance and diversity from taxon-level data.
Abundance	The number of total individuals, of all taxa together, sampled.	We calculated abundance, richness, and evenness separately for each field type (e.g., conventional farming), crop, year, and arthropod functional group within each study.
Richness	The number of taxa sampled.	
Evenness	How individuals are distributed across taxa in the sample. The evenness measure that we used, E_{var} , range from 0 (completely uneven, one taxon dominates) to 1 (completely even, with each taxon represented by an equal number of individuals).	
Region	A large spatial extent that contains multiple communities and habitats. We defined each study's region as	

	all of the fields sampled in the study.	
Rare taxon	A taxon with relative abundance less than 5% of all individuals sampled across the region.	We determined rarity separately for each management scheme comparison (organic vs. conventional, high vs. low in-field plant diversity), crop, year, and function within a study, but did not further separate by field type.
Local diversity	Diversity (here, richness and evenness) of a community within a field.	We estimated local abundance and diversity by first calculating abundance and diversity values within each field, then averaging these values across fields. For example, assume species A, B, C, D, and E were found in field 1; species A, E, and F in field 2; species B, C, D, and E in field 3; and species A, B, E, F, G, and H in field 4. Each field's richness would be 5, 3, 4, and 6, respectively. Local richness would be 4.5, the average of each field's richness value.
Regional diversity	Diversity (here, richness and evenness) of the meta-community that spans all fields in a region.	We estimated regional diversity by pooling individuals sampled in all fields within a landscape, then calculating diversity of taxa in this one regional sample. In the above example, the regional species pool would include species A through H and regional richness would be 8.
Landscape complexity	The proportion of natural and semi-natural habitat (areas dominated by forest, grassland, shrubland, wetlands, ruderal vegetation, or non-agricultural plantings including previously-cultivated areas where vegetation is regenerating, hedgerows, field margins, and vegetation along roadways or ditches) surrounding a farm.	We determined landscape complexity separately for each management scheme comparison, crop, and year within a study, by averaging proportions across fields.

52 **Table S3.** Fisher exact tests for studies with variation in both management (organic vs.
 53 conventional) and in-field plant diversity (high vs. low). These tests were used to determine
 54 whether sites were assigned independently to management types across the two management
 55 schemes. I-f=in-field plant diversity
 56

Study ID	Number of sites with:				<i>p</i> -value	Management scheme(s) used
	Organic & high i-f	Organic & low i-f	Conventional & high i-f	Conventional & low i-f		
bomm01	8	16	22	53	0.80	Both
bosq01	7	10	10	10	0.74	Both
clou01	15	6	10	11	0.21	Both
danf01	2	0	3	5	0.44	Both
eige01	3	0	0	3	0.10	Organic/ conventional
ekro01	7	8	12	4	0.15	Both
frei01	0	2	2	0	0.33	I-f
frei02	2	0	0	2	0.33	I-f
holz01	16	5	10	11	0.11	Both
krem01	8	1	8	12	<0.0001	Organic/ conventional
leto01	5	0	0	5	0.0080	Organic/ conventional
ober01	3	2	0	3	0.20	Both
otie01	4	1	5	2	1.00	Both
rose01	0	12	9	0	<0.0001	Organic/ conventional
saun01	5	0	0	10	0.0003	I-f
weis01	1	6	3	22	1.00	Both

57

58 **Table S4.** Number of data points grouped by several categories used in the analysis.
59

(a) Arthropod functional group				
Management scheme	Detritivore	Herbivore	Pollinator	Predator
Organic/conventional	8	17	20	36
In-field plant diversity	3	5	13	8
(b) Landscape complexity				
Management scheme	Simple	Complex	No data	
Organic/conventional	44	30	7	
In-field plant diversity	12	17	0	
(c) Biome				
Management scheme	Boreal	Mediterranean	Temperate	Tropical
Organic/conventional	2	14	58	7
In-field plant diversity	1	9	13	6
(d) Cultivation period				
Management scheme	Annual	Perennial		
Organic/conventional	59	22		
In-field plant diversity	20	9		

60

61 **Table S5.** Correlations between unweighted (log-response ratio) and weighted (Hedges' *d*) effect
62 sizes with various metrics. Weighted metrics could not be calculated at the regional scale (see
63 Methods in main text)
64

Management scheme	Metric	Pearson's correlation coefficient	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i> -value
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	0.66	7.88	79	<0.0001
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	0.77	10.7	77	<0.0001
Organic vs. conventional	Local evenness	0.70	7.99	66	<0.0001
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	0.90	10.7	27	<0.0001
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	0.81	7.26	27	<0.0001
In-field plant diversity	Local evenness	0.83	7.01	22	<0.0001

65

66 **Table S6.** Effects of sampling method on effect size (log-response ratio) estimates. ANOVAs testing whether sampling method
 67 affected effect sizes were significant in only 4% of cases, which is within the amount expected by chance. Means are average
 68 untransformed log-response ratios comparing organic to conventional, or high to low in-field plant diversity, data. Effect sizes
 69 transformed to percentage change are in parentheses.
 70

Organic vs. conventional												
Functional group	Metric	N active	N passive	N both	Mean active	Mean passive	Mean both	SE active	SE passive	SE both	F	p-value
All	Abundance	32	39	10	0.56 (75%)	0.19 (21%)	0.43 (54%)	0.22	0.08	0.14	1.63	0.20
All	Local richness	32	39	10	0.29 (33%)	0.14 (15%)	0.11 (12%)	0.12	0.04	0.07	1.06	0.35
All	Local evenness	28	35	10	-0.07 (-6%)	-0.04 (-4%)	-0.12 (-12%)	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.22	0.80
All	Regional richness	32	39	10	0.16 (17%)	0.08 (9%)	0.07 (7%)	0.09	0.05	0.07	0.41	0.66
All	Regional evenness	32	39	10	-0.22 (-20%)	-0.00 (0%)	0.04 (5%)	0.08	0.05	0.06	3.62	0.031
Detritivore	Abundance	3	2	3	-0.37 (-31%)	0.83 (130%)	0.43 (54%)	0.51	0.63	0.29	1.70	0.27
Detritivore	Local richness	3	2	3	0.00 (0%)	0.17 (19%)	-0.09 (-9%)	0.14	0.17	0.07	1.00	0.43
Detritivore	Local evenness	3	1	3	0.20 (23%)	-0.04 (-4%)	-0.21 (-19%)	0.13	NA	0.07	4.15	0.11
Detritivore	Regional richness	3	2	3	0.00 (0%)	-0.38 (-32%)	0.00 (0%)	0.11	0.31	0.16	1.26	0.36
Detritivore	Regional evenness	3	2	3	0.22 (24%)	0.66 (94%)	0.05 (5%)	0.11	0.96	0.08	0.60	0.58
Herbivore	Abundance	8	6	3	0.29 (34%)	0.09 (10%)	0.39 (47%)	0.36	0.20	0.28	0.17	0.85
Herbivore	Local richness	8	6	3	0.04 (4%)	0.16 (17%)	0.24 (27%)	0.16	0.09	0.05	0.41	0.67

Herbivore	Local evenness	7	4	3	-0.23 (-20%)	-0.17 (-15%)	0.03 (3%)	0.21	0.19	0.09	0.32	0.73
Herbivore	Regional richness	8	6	3	-0.05 (-5%)	0.18 (20%)	0.19 (21%)	0.11	0.10	0.05	1.53	0.25
Herbivore	Regional evenness	8	6	3	-0.25 (-22%)	0.06 (6%)	0.12 (13%)	0.14	0.07	0.13	2.42	0.13
Pollinator	Abundance	12	7	1	0.98 (166%)	-0.10 (-9%)	1.06 (187%)	0.45	0.26	NA	1.56	0.24
Pollinator	Local richness	12	7	1	0.50 (64%)	0.28 (32%)	0.41 (51%)	0.25	0.15	NA	0.20	0.82
Pollinator	Local evenness	10	6	1	0.02 (2%)	0.18 (20%)	-0.39 (- 33%)	0.09	0.24	NA	0.90	0.43
Pollinator	Regional richness	12	7	1	0.26 (30%)	0.25 (29%)	0.36 (44%)	0.19	0.11	NA	0.02	0.98
Pollinator	Regional evenness	12	7	1	-0.16 (- 15%)	-0.11 (-10%)	-0.25 (- 22%)	0.15	0.11	NA	0.06	0.94
Predator	Abundance	9	24	3	0.54 (72%)	0.24 (28%)	0.27 (31%)	0.30	0.08	0.20	0.95	0.40
Predator	Local richness	9	24	3	0.32 (38%)	0.09 (10%)	0.08 (8%)	0.20	0.05	0.12	1.35	0.27
Predator	Local evenness	8	24	3	-0.13 (- 12%)	-0.08 (-8%)	-0.10 (- 9%)	0.11	0.04	0.06	0.17	0.85
Predator	Regional richness	9	24	3	0.26 (30%)	0.04 (5%)	-0.07 (- 7%)	0.17	0.06	0.09	1.63	0.21
Predator	Regional evenness	9	24	3	-0.42 (- 34%)	-0.04 (-4%)	0.06 (7%)	0.15	0.04	0.10	7.14	0.003
In-field plant diversity												
Functional group	Metric	N active	N passive	N both	Mean active	Mean passive	Mean both	SE active	SE passive	SE both	F	p-value
All	Abundance	13	11	5	0.22 (25%)	0.20 (22%)	0.37 (45%)	0.15	0.39	0.24	0.07	0.94
All	Local richness	13	11	5	0.29 (34%)	0.09 (10%)	0.26 (30%)	0.13	0.16	0.06	0.60	0.56

All	Local evenness	12	9	5	-0.03 (-3%)	-0.09 (-9%)	-0.11 (-10%)	0.07	0.11	0.05	0.25	0.78
All	Regional richness	13	11	5	0.25 (28%)	0.08 (9%)	0.19 (20%)	0.13	0.14	0.09	0.44	0.65
All	Regional evenness	13	11	5	-0.08 (-8%)	-0.25 (-22%)	-0.04 (-4%)	0.13	0.17	0.16	0.44	0.65
Detritivore	Abundance	1	2	0	0.03 (3%)	0.81 (125%)	NA	NA	1.73	NA	0.07	0.84
Detritivore	Local richness	1	2	0	-0.07 (-7%)	0.41 (51%)	NA	NA	0.45	NA	0.39	0.65
Detritivore	Local evenness	0	1	0	NA	-0.57 (-44%)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Detritivore	Regional richness	1	2	0	0.41 (50%)	0.58 (79%)	NA	NA	0.06	NA	2.55	0.36
Detritivore	Regional evenness	1	2	0	-0.84 (-57%)	-1.17 (-69%)	NA	NA	0.33	NA	0.32	0.67
Herbivore	Abundance	1	3	1	-0.04 (-4%)	0.30 (35%)	0.37 (45%)	NA	0.76	NA	0.03	0.97
Herbivore	Local richness	1	3	1	0.12 (13%)	0.15 (17%)	0.24 (27%)	NA	0.45	NA	0.01	0.99
Herbivore	Local evenness	1	2	1	0.21 (23%)	-0.17 (-16%)	0.00 (0%)	NA	0.19	NA	0.71	0.64
Herbivore	Regional richness	1	3	1	-0.06 (-6%)	-0.10 (-10%)	0.15 (16%)	NA	0.40	NA	0.05	0.95
Herbivore	Regional evenness	1	3	1	0.09 (10%)	-0.25 (-22%)	0.15 (17%)	NA	0.21	NA	0.61	0.62
Pollinator	Abundance	10	0	3	0.37 (46%)	NA	0.36 (43%)	0.15	NA	0.44	0.00	0.96
Pollinator	Local richness	10	0	3	0.40 (49%)	NA	0.26 (29%)	0.16	NA	0.12	0.22	0.65
Pollinator	Local evenness	10	0	3	-0.09 (-9%)	NA	-0.17 (-16%)	0.07	NA	0.07	0.39	0.55

Pollinator	Regional richness	10	0	3	0.28 (32%)	NA	0.17 (18%)	0.16	NA	0.16	0.13	0.73
Pollinator	Regional evenness	10	0	3	-0.05 (-5%)	NA	-0.10 (-10%)	0.15	NA	0.28	0.03	0.88
Predator	Abundance	1	6	1	-0.87 (-58%)	-0.05 (-5%)	0.40 (50%)	NA	0.44	NA	0.37	0.71
Predator	Local richness	1	6	1	-0.22 (-20%)	-0.05 (-5%)	0.30 (36%)	NA	0.16	NA	0.47	0.65
Predator	Local evenness	1	6	1	0.40 (49%)	0.01 (1%)	-0.03 (-3%)	NA	0.13	NA	0.71	0.54
Predator	Regional richness	1	6	1	0.08 (8%)	0.01 (1%)	0.27 (31%)	NA	0.13	NA	0.30	0.75
Predator	Regional evenness	1	6	1	0.23 (25%)	0.06 (6%)	-0.04 (-4%)	NA	0.14	NA	0.17	0.85

71 **Table S7:** Questions investigated in this study, and statistical tests that addressed each one. Q2,
 72 Q4, Q7, and Q8 were tested with the same meta-regression.
 73

Question	How tested
(Q1) Does diversified farming differentially alter abundance, richness, and evenness?	One sample <i>t</i> -tests: Does each metric's mean effect size differ from zero?
(Q2) Diversified farming differentially alters local and regional diversity (richness, evenness).	(a) One-sample <i>t</i> -tests: Are patterns of difference from zero the same at the local and regional scales? (b) Meta-regression: Does scale affect mean effect size?
(Q3) Diversified farming differentially alters abundance and diversity of arthropods in different functional groups	One-sample <i>t</i> -tests: Within each functional group (detritivores, herbivores, pollinators, predators), does each metric's mean effect size differ from zero?
(Q4) Landscape complexity mediates responses of arthropod communities to diversified farming.	Meta-regression: Do effect sizes differ in simple and complex landscapes?
(Q5) Diversified farming differentially affects the abundance and diversity of relatively rare and relatively common taxa.	(a) One-sample <i>t</i> -tests: Does each metric's mean effect size for a given rarity category (rare, common) differ from zero? (b) Paired <i>t</i> -tests: Within a metric, do mean effect sizes for rare taxa differ from those of common taxa?
(Q6) Landscape complexity mediates the degree to which diversified farming differentially affects the abundance and diversity of rare vs. common taxa.	Paired <i>t</i> -tests: Within each metric and landscape complexity category (simple, complex), do mean effect sizes for rare taxa differ from those of common taxa?
(Q7) A crop's cultivation period (annual, perennial) mediates responses of arthropod communities to diversified farming.	Meta-regression: Do effect sizes differ for crops grown as annuals and perennials?
(Q8) Biome mediates responses of arthropod communities to diversified farming.	Meta-regression: Do effect sizes differ among boreal, Mediterranean, temperate, and tropical biomes?

74

75

76 **Table S8.** Results of one-sample *t*-tests testing whether organic farming and in-field plant
 77 diversification impacted overall arthropod communities (pooled across functional groups).
 78 Means are average untransformed log-response ratios comparing organic to conventional, or high
 79 to low in-field plant diversity, data. Effect sizes transformed to percent change are in
 80 parentheses.
 81

Management scheme	Metric	N	Mean	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	81	0.36 (45%)	0.10	3.76	0.0003
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	81	0.19 (21%)	0.05	3.75	0.0003
Organic vs. conventional	Local evenness	73	-0.06 (-6%)	0.04	-1.69	0.095
Organic vs. conventional	Regional richness	81	0.11 (10%)	0.04	2.52	0.014
Organic vs. conventional	Regional evenness	81	-0.08 (-9%)	0.04	-1.87	0.065
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	29	0.24 (27%)	0.16	1.48	0.15
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	29	0.21 (23%)	0.08	2.49	0.019
In-field plant diversity	Local evenness	26	-0.07 (-6%)	0.05	-1.31	0.20
In-field plant diversity	Regional richness	29	0.17 (19%)	0.08	2.24	0.033
In-field plant diversity	Regional evenness	29	-0.14 (-13%)	0.09	-1.51	0.14

82

83

84 **Table S9.** Best-fit models, with $\Delta AICc < 2$, and global models explaining arthropod abundance,
 85 richness, and evenness in fields managed organically vs. conventionally. K is the number of
 86 estimated model parameters (fixed plus random effects). Parameters are: F=functional group,
 87 D=diversity scale (local, regional), LC=landscape complexity (simple, complex), A=cultivation
 88 period (annual, perennial), B=biome. A “*” indicates an interaction and both of its main effects.
 89 Detritivores were excluded from meta-regressions due to low sample size.
 90

Abundance					
Model ID	Parameters	K	AICc	$\Delta AICc$	weight
2	A	4	178.1	0	0.40
6	F + A	6	178.6	0.41	0.32
14	F + A + LC	7	178.8	0.69	0.28
Global	F×D + F×LC + D×LC + A + B	12	191.4	13.26	
Richness					
Model ID	Parameters	K	AICc	$\Delta AICc$	weight
61	D + F×LC	9	148.1	0	0.57
45	F×LC	8	148.6	0.54	0.43
Global	F×D + F×LC + D×LC + A + B	16	163.2	15.1	
Evenness					
Model ID	Parameters	K	AICc	$\Delta AICc$	weight
1	intercept only	3	82.5	0	0.52
17	D	4	84.0	1.5	0.25
2	A	4	84.0	1.5	0.24
Global	F×D + F×LC + D×LC + A + B	16	102.7	20.2	

91 **Table S10.** Regression details for best-fit models listed in Table S7 that explain arthropod abundance, richness, and evenness in fields
 92 managed organically vs. conventionally. We significance of fixed effects with likelihood ratio tests (LRTs), and used post-hoc planned
 93 contrasts (with *p*-values adjusted via Holm's sequential Bonferroni procedure) to test for (1) differences in effect size among
 94 functional groups, and (2) differences in effect size between the local and regional scales within each functional group. Parameters
 95 are: F=functional group (h=herbivore, po=pollinator, pr=predator), D=diversity scale (r=regional), LC= landscape complexity
 96 (c=complex, s=simple), A=cultivation period (p=perennial), B=biome (b=boreal, M=Mediterranean, te=temperate, tr=tropical). A “:”
 97 indicates an interaction. Detritivores were excluded from meta-regressions due to low sample size.
 98

Abundance (detritivores excluded)									
Model ID	Parameter	Coefficient (SE)	LRT χ^2	LRT df	LRT <i>p</i>-value	Contrast	Contrast χ^2	Contrast df	Contrast <i>p</i>-value
2	Intercept	0.54 (0.13)	NA						
	A, p	-0.50 (0.24)	4.48	1	0.034				
6	Intercept	0.41 (0.24)	NA			F, h-po	2.96	1	0.18
	F, po	0.52 (0.30)	4.36	2	0.11	F, h-pr	0.01	1	0.91
	F, pr	0.03 (0.28)				F, po-pr	3.51	1	0.18
	A, p	-0.62 (0.24)	6.11	1	0.014				
14	Intercept	0.09 (0.33)	NA			F, h-po	4.87	1	0.075
	F, po	0.75 (0.34)	6.41	2	0.041	F, h-pr	0.23	1	0.63
	F, pr	0.14 (0.28)				F, po-pr	5.04	1	0.074
	LC, s	0.36 (0.25)	2.22	1	0.14				
	A, p	-0.57 (0.24)	5.68	1	0.017				
Richness (detritivores excluded)									
Model ID	Parameter	Coefficient (SE)	LRT χ^2	LRT df	LRT <i>p</i>-value	Contrast	Contrast χ^2	Contrast df	Contrast <i>p</i>-value
61	Intercept	-0.46 (0.21)	NA			F, h-po	10.23	1	0.004
	F, po	0.88 (0.20)	18.46	4	0.001	F, h-pr	8.14	1	0.009
	F, pr	0.68 (0.20)				F, po-pr	1.81	1	0.18
	S, r	-0.09 (0.06)	2.85	1	0.092	F:LC, c-s in h	6.88	1	0.026
	LC, s	0.61 (0.23)	10.66	3	0.014	F:LC, c-s in po	0.31	1	1
	F:LC, po	-0.75 (0.32)	10.64	2	0.005	F:LC, c-s	0.42	1	1

						in pr			
	F:LC, pr	-0.72 (0.22)							
45	Intercept	-0.51 (0.21)	NA			F, h-po	10.13	1	0.004
	F, po	0.88 (0.20)	17.95	4	0.001	F, h-pr	7.94	1	0.010
	F, pr	0.68 (0.21)				F, po-pr	1.82	1	0.18
	LC, s	0.61 (0.24)	10.30	3	0.016	F:LC, c-s in h	6.77	1	0.028
	F:LC, po:s	-0.75 (0.32)	10.27	2	0.006	F:LC, c-s in po	0.32	1	1
	F:LC, pr:s	-0.72 (0.23)				F:LC, c-s in pr	0.41	1	1
Evenness (detritivores excluded)									
Model ID	Parameter	Coefficient (SE)	LRT χ^2	LRT df	LRT <i>p</i>- value				
17	Intercept	-0.08 (0.05)	NA						
	S, r	-0.04 (0.05)	0.65	1	0.42				
2	Intercept	-0.12 (0.06)	NA						
	A, p	0.07 (0.10)	0.61	1	0.43				

100 **Table S11.** Best-fit models, with $\Delta\text{AICc} < 2$, and global models explaining arthropod
 101 abundance, richness, and evenness in fields managed with high vs. low in-field plant diversity. K
 102 is the number of estimated model parameters (fixed plus random effects). Parameters are:
 103 F=functional group, D=diversity scale (local, regional), LC=landscape complexity (simple,
 104 complex), A=cultivation period (annual, perennial), B=biome. A “*” indicates an interaction and
 105 both of its main effects.
 106

Abundance					
Model ID	Parameters	K	AICc	ΔAICc	weight
1	intercept only	3	70.4	0	0.67
2	A	4	71.7	1.4	0.33
Global	F×D + F×LC + D×LC + A + B	14	96.7	26.3	
Richness					
Model ID	Parameters	K	AICc	ΔAICc	weight
5	F	6	42.2	0	0.36
45	F×LC	10	42.2	0.04	0.36
7	F + B	9	42.7	0.5	0.28
Global	F×D + F×LC + D×LC + A + B	19	54.1	11.9	
Evenness					
Model ID	Parameters	K	AICc	ΔAICc	weight
85	F×D	10	21.8	0	1
Global	F×D + F×LC + D×LC + A + B	19	48.5	26.7	

107 **Table S12.** Regression details for best-fit models listed in Table S9 that explain arthropod abundance, richness, and evenness in fields
 108 managed with high vs. low in-field plant diversity. We significance of fixed effects with likelihood ratio tests (LRTs), and used post-
 109 hoc planned contrasts (with *p*-values adjusted via Holm's sequential Bonferroni procedure) to test for (1) differences in effect size
 110 among functional groups, (2) differences in effect size between the local and regional scales within each functional group, and (3)
 111 landscape complexity differences among each pair of functional groups. Parameters are: F=functional group (d=detrivore,
 112 h=herbivore, po=pollinator, pr=predator), D=diversity scale (l=local, r=regional), LC= landscape complexity (c=complex, s=simple),
 113 A=cultivation period (p=perennial), B=biome (b=boreal, M=Mediterranean, te=temperate, tr=tropical). A “:” indicates an interaction.

Abundance									
Model ID	Parameter	Coefficient (SE)	LRT χ^2	LRT df	LRT <i>p</i>-value				
2	Intercept	0.06 (0.20)	NA						
	A, p	0.40 (0.36)	1.33	1	0.25				
Richness									
Model ID	Parameter	Coefficient (SE)	LRT χ^2	LRT df	LRT <i>p</i>-value	Contrast	Contrast χ^2	Contrast df	Contrast <i>p</i>-value
5	Intercept	0.25 (0.16)	NA			F, d-h	6.24	1	0.075
	F, h	-0.30 (0.12)	9.57	3	0.023	F, d-po	0.10	1	1
	F, po	0.06 (0.19)				F, d-pr	4.13	1	0.21
	F, pr	-0.24 (0.12)				F, h-po	4.02	1	0.21
						F, h-pr	0.31	1	1
						F, po-pr	3.17	1	0.23
45	Intercept	0.19 (0.20)	NA			F, d-h	10.37	1	0.008
	F, h	-0.03 (0.14)	20.36	6	0.002	F, d-po	0.07	1	1
	F, po	0.19 (0.25)				F, d-pr	7.16	1	0.037
	F, pr	-0.21 (0.14)				F, h-po	2.74	1	0.39
	LC, s	0.32 (0.34)	11.00	4	0.027	F, h-pr	0.43	1	1
	F:LC, h:s	-0.67 (0.23)	10.57	3	0.014	F, po-pr	1.82	1	0.53
	F:LC, po:s	-0.49 (0.40)				F:LC, c-s in d	0.93	1	1
	F:LC, pr:s	-0.18 (0.23)				F:LC, c-s in h	1.28	1	1
						F:LC, c-s in po	0.52	1	1

						F:LC, c-s in pr	0.24	1	1
7	Intercept	0.30 (0.38)	NA			F, d-h	6.54	1	0.064
	F, h	-0.31 (0.12)	11.30	3	0.010	F, d-po	0.29	1	0.84
	F, po	0.10 (0.18)				F, d-pr	3.49	1	0.19
	F, pr	-0.23 (0.12)				F, h-po	5.67	1	0.086
	B, M	0.17 (0.40)	7.61	3	0.054	F, h-pr	0.65	1	0.84
	B, te	-0.28 (0.39)				F, po-pr	3.93	1	0.19
	B, tr	0.09 (0.41)				B, b-M	0.18	1	1
						B, b-te	0.51	1	1
						B, b-tr	0.05	1	1
						B, M-te	5.54	1	1
		B, M-tr				0.14	1	1	
					B, te-tr	3.56	1	1	
Richness, boreal data excluded									
Model ID	Parameter	Coefficient (SE)	LRT χ^2	LRT df	LRT <i>p</i> - value	Contrast	Contrast χ^2	Contrast df	Contrast <i>p</i> -value
7	Intercept	0.47 (0.20)	NA			F, d-h	6.36	1	0.070
	F, h	-0.31 (0.12)	10.90	3	0.012	F, d-po	0.29	1	0.85
	F, po	0.10 (0.19)				F, d-pr	3.40	1	0.20
	F, pr	-0.23 (0.12)				F, h-po	5.45	1	0.087
	B, te	-0.45 (0.19)	7.23	2	0.027	F, h-pr	0.64	1	0.85
	B, tr	-0.08 (0.22)				F, po-pr	3.92	1	0.19
						B, M-te	5.54	1	0.056
						B, M-tr	0.14	1	0.71
					B, te-tr	3.56	1	0.12	
47	Intercept	0.41 (0.22)	NA			F, d-h	10.56	1	0.007
	F, h	-0.03 (0.14)	21.29	6	0.002	F, d-po	0.01	1	0.95
	F, po	0.18 (0.27)				F, d-pr	6.55	1	0.052
	F, pr	-0.19 (0.14)				F, h-po	4.04	1	0.18
	LC, s	0.31 (0.36)	10.55	4	0.032	F, h-pr	0.68	1	0.82
	B, te	-0.43 (0.21)	7.07	2	0.029	F, po-pr	2.55	1	0.33

	B, tr	-0.05 (0.29)				B, M-te	4.39	1	0.11
	F:LC, h:s	-0.69 (0.23)	10.30	3	0.016	B, M-tr	0.03	1	0.86
	F:LC, po:s	-0.39 (0.47)				B, te-tr	2.40	1	0.24
	F:LC, pr:s	-0.22 (0.23)				F:LC, c-s in d	0.73	1	1
						F:LC, c-s in h	1.23	1	1
						F:LC, c-s in po	0.12	1	1
						F:LC, c-s in pr	0.08	1	1
5	Intercept	0.24 (0.17)	NA			F, d-h	6.04	1	0.084
	F, h	-0.30 (0.12)	9.21	3	0.027	F, d-po	0.12	1	1
	F, po	0.07 (0.20)				F, d-pr	4.02	1	0.22
	F, pr	-0.25 (0.12)				F, h-po	3.84	1	0.22
						F, h-pr	0.29	1	1
						F, po-pr	2.98	1	0.25
Evenness									
Model ID	Parameter	Coefficient (SE)	LRT χ^2	LRT df	LRT <i>p</i>- value	Contrast	Contrast χ^2	Contrast df	Contrast <i>p</i>-value
85	Intercept	-0.08 (0.21)	NA			F, d-h	17.99	1	0.0001
	F, h	0.14 (0.21)	46.79	6	<0.0001	F, d-po	6.45	1	0.045
	F, po	-0.04 (0.23)				F, d-pr	21.60	1	<0.0001
	F, pr	0.13 (0.20)				F, h-po	0.59	1	0.89
	S, r	-0.88 (0.21)	16.44	4	0.003	F, h-pr	0.18	1	0.89
	F:S, h:r	0.79 (0.24)	16.13	3	0.001	F, po-pr	1.21	1	0.81
	F:S, po:r	0.92 (0.22)				F:S, l-r in d	17.44	1	0.0001
	F:S, pr:r	0.89 (0.23)				F:S, l-r in h	0.55	1	1
						F:S, l-r in po	0.44	1	1
						F:S, l-r in pr	0.01	1	1

114 **Table S13.** Results of one-sample *t*-tests testing whether organic farming and in-field plant
 115 diversification impacted overall arthropod communities (pooled across functional groups) for
 116 rare and common taxa. We classified taxa as common if their relative abundance was at least 5%
 117 of the total community; other species were categorized as rare. Means are average untransformed
 118 log-response ratios comparing organic to conventional, or high to low in-field plant diversity,
 119 data. Effect sizes transformed to percent change are in parentheses.
 120

Management scheme	Metric	Relative abundance category	N	Mean	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	Rare	77	0.44 (55%)	0.45	4.16	<0.0001
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	Common	82	0.37 (45%)	0.51	3.64	<0.0001
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	Rare	77	0.24 (27%)	0.38	3.29	0.002
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	Common	82	0.13 (14%)	0.31	2.75	0.007
Organic vs. conventional	Regional richness	Rare	73	0.12 (12%)	0.31	2.52	0.014
Organic vs. conventional	Regional richness	Common	78	0.05 (6%)	0.29	1.80	0.076
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	Rare	25	0.23 (25%)	1.31	1.33	0.19
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	Common	30	0.31 (37%)	1.10	1.79	0.084
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	Rare	25	0.33 (39%)	0.68	2.24	0.035
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	Common	30	0.13 (14%)	0.31	2.17	0.038
In-field plant diversity	Regional richness	Rare	24	0.24 (28%)	0.69	1.89	0.071
In-field plant diversity	Regional richness	Common	25	0.04 (4%)	0.18	1.45	0.16

121

122 **Table S14.** Results of paired *t*-tests testing whether organic farming and in-field plant diversification impacted arthropod abundance
 123 and richness differentially for rare and common taxa. Means are average untransformed log-response ratios comparing organic to
 124 conventional, or high to low in-field plant diversity, data. Effect sizes transformed to percent change are in parentheses.
 125

Management scheme	Metric	N common taxa	Mean common taxa	SE common taxa	N rare taxa	Mean rare taxa	SE rare taxa	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	82	0.37 (45%)	0.10	77	0.44 (55%)	0.11	-0.76	0.45
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	82	0.13 (14%)	0.05	77	0.24 (27%)	0.07	-2.40	0.019
Organic vs. conventional	Regional richness	78	0.05 (6%)	0.03	73	0.12 (12%)	0.05	-1.63	0.11
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	30	0.31 (37%)	0.17	25	0.23 (25%)	0.17	1.02	0.32
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	30	0.13 (14%)	0.06	25	0.33 (39%)	0.15	-1.61	0.12
In-field plant diversity	Regional richness	25	0.04 (4%)	0.02	24	0.24 (28%)	0.13	-1.48	0.15

126

127 **Table S15.** Results of one-sample *t*-tests testing whether organic farming and in-field plant
 128 diversification impacted pollinator communities. Means are average untransformed log-response
 129 ratios comparing organic to conventional, or high to low in-field plant diversity, data. Effect
 130 sizes transformed to percent change are in parentheses.
 131

Management scheme	Metric	N	Mean	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	20	0.61 (90%)	0.30	2.01	0.058
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	20	0.42 (55%)	0.16	2.68	0.015
Organic vs. conventional	Local evenness	17	0.05 (5%)	0.10	0.52	0.61
Organic vs. conventional	Regional richness	20	0.27 (32%)	0.12	2.25	0.036
Organic vs. conventional	Regional evenness	20	-0.15 (-15%)	0.10	-1.58	0.13
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	13	0.37 (45%)	0.14	2.62	0.023
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	13	0.36 (44%)	0.12	2.97	0.012
In-field plant diversity	Local evenness	13	-0.11 (-11%)	0.05	-2.07	0.061
In-field plant diversity	Regional richness	13	0.25 (29%)	0.13	2.01	0.068
In-field plant diversity	Regional evenness	13	-0.07 (-6%)	0.13	-0.51	0.62

132

133 **Table S16.** Results of one-sample *t*-tests testing whether organic farming and in-field plant
 134 diversification impacted predator communities. Means are average untransformed log-response
 135 ratios comparing organic to conventional, or high to low in-field plant diversity, data. Effect
 136 sizes transformed to percent change are in parentheses.
 137

Management scheme	Metric	N	Mean	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	36	0.32 (39%)	0.09	3.41	0.0020
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	36	0.15 (14%)	0.06	2.42	0.021
Organic vs. conventional	Local evenness	35	-0.09 (-9%)	0.03	-2.69	0.011
Organic vs. conventional	Regional richness	36	0.09 (6%)	0.06	1.50	0.14
Organic vs. conventional	Regional evenness	36	-0.12 (-14%)	0.05	-2.35	0.024
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	8	-0.10 (-10%)	0.34	-0.29	0.78
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	8	-0.03 (-3%)	0.13	-0.19	0.85
In-field plant diversity	Local evenness	8	0.06 (6%)	0.10	0.54	0.61
In-field plant diversity	Regional richness	8	0.05 (5%)	0.10	0.51	0.63
In-field plant diversity	Regional evenness	8	0.07 (7%)	0.10	0.63	0.55

138

139 **Table S17.** Results of one-sample *t*-tests testing whether organic farming and in-field plant
 140 diversification impacted herbivore communities. Means are average untransformed log-response
 141 ratios comparing organic to conventional, or high to low in-field plant diversity, data. Effect
 142 sizes transformed to percent change are in parentheses.
 143

Management scheme	Metric	N	Mean	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	17	0.24 (23%)	0.18	1.30	0.21
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	17	0.12 (10%)	0.08	1.44	0.17
Organic vs. conventional	Local evenness	14	-0.16 (-14%)	0.12	-1.33	0.21
Organic vs. conventional	Regional richness	17	0.07 (5%)	0.07	1.06	0.30
Organic vs. conventional	Regional evenness	17	-0.07 (- 7%)	0.08	-0.89	0.39
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	5	0.25 (28%)	0.42	0.58	0.59
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	5	0.17 (18%)	0.25	0.67	0.54
In-field plant diversity	Local evenness	4	-0.04 (-4%)	0.12	-0.30	0.78
In-field plant diversity	Regional richness	5	-0.04 (-4%)	0.23	-0.20	0.85
In-field plant diversity	Regional evenness	5	-0.10 (-10%)	0.15	0.68	0.53

144

145 **Table S18.** Results of one-sample *t*-tests testing whether organic farming and in-field plant
 146 diversification impacted detritivore communities. Means are average untransformed log-response
 147 ratios comparing organic to conventional, or high to low in-field plant diversity, data. Effect
 148 sizes transformed to percent change are in parentheses.
 149

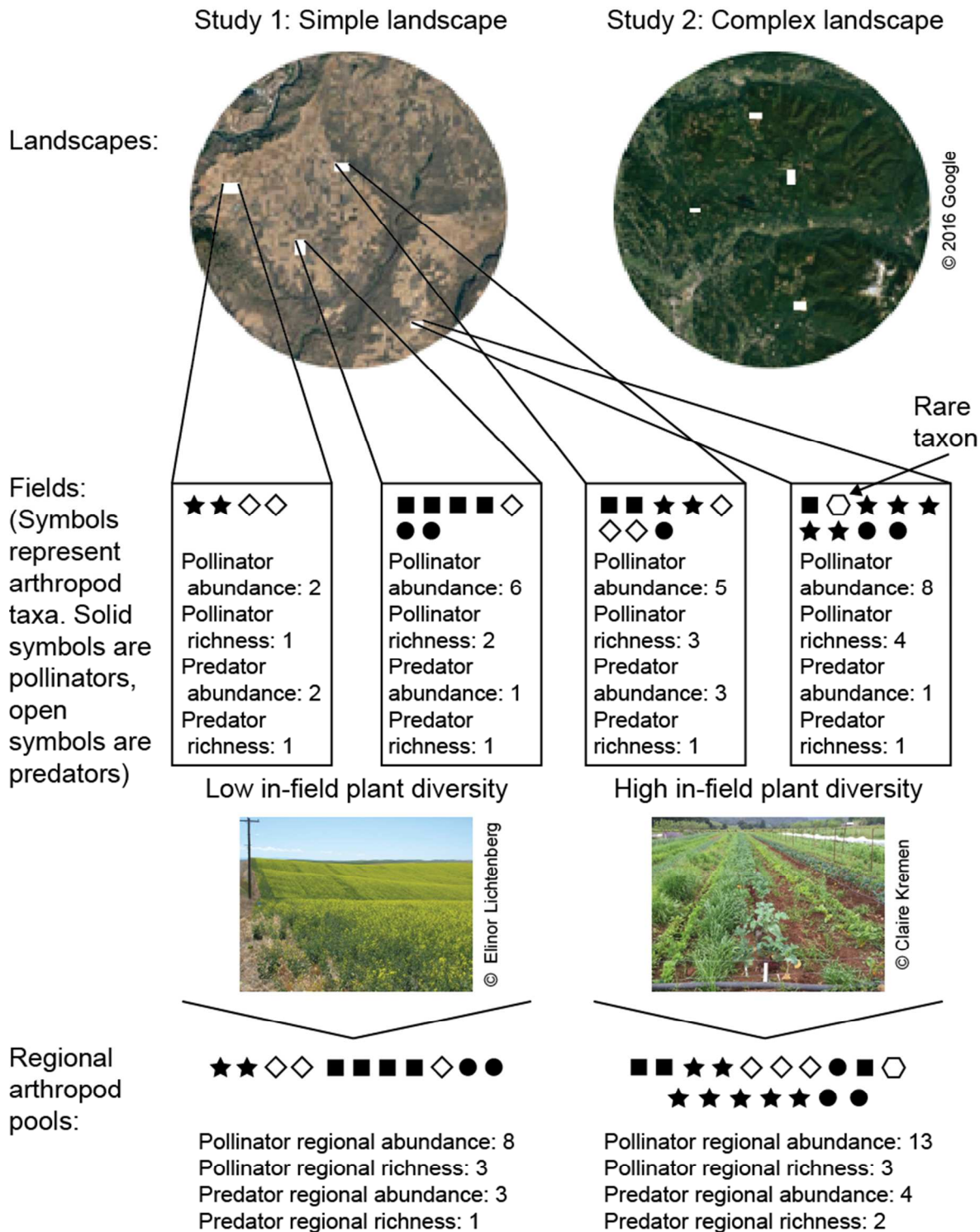
Management scheme	Metric	N	Mean	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	8	0.23 (26%)	0.29	0.79	0.46
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	8	0.01 (1%)	0.07	0.15	0.89
Organic vs. conventional	Local evenness	7	-0.01 (-1%)	0.09	-0.06	0.95
Organic vs. conventional	Regional richness	8	-0.10 (-9%)	0.11	-0.91	0.39
Organic vs. conventional	Regional evenness	8	0.26 (30%)	0.21	1.28	0.24
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	3	0.55 (74%)	1.03	0.54	0.65
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	3	0.25 (28%)	0.31	0.82	0.50
In-field plant diversity	Local evenness	1	-0.57 (-44%)	NA	NA	NA
In-field plant diversity	Regional richness	3	0.52 (69%)	0.07	7.51	0.017
In-field plant diversity	Regional evenness	3	-1.06 (-65%)	0.22	-4.80	0.041

150

151 **Table S19.** Results of paired *t*-tests testing whether organic farming and in-field plant diversification impacted arthropod abundance
 152 and richness differentially for rare and common taxa, in simple and complex landscapes. Means are average untransformed log-
 153 response ratios comparing organic to conventional, or high to low in-field plant diversity, data. Effect sizes transformed to percent
 154 change are in parentheses.
 155

Management scheme	Metric	Landscape complexity	N common taxa	Mean common taxa	SE common taxa	N rare taxa	Mean rare taxa	SE rare taxa	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	Simple	45	0.45 (57%)	0.12	43	0.36 (44%)	0.11	0.51	0.61
Organic vs. conventional	Abundance	Complex	30	0.28 (33%)	0.21	28	0.58 (78%)	0.24	-1.90	0.068
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	Simple	45	0.09 (10%)	0.05	43	0.15 (16%)	0.07	-0.88	0.39
Organic vs. conventional	Local richness	Complex	30	0.19 (21%)	0.10	28	0.36 (44%)	0.16	-2.35	0.027
Organic vs. conventional	Regional richness	Simple	42	0.05 (6%)	0.04	41	0.06 (6%)	0.06	0.10	0.92
Organic vs. conventional	Regional richness	Complex	29	0.04 (4%)	0.04	26	0.16 (17%)	0.07	-2.33	0.028
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	Simple	13	0.24 (27%)	0.22	10	0.08 (8%)	0.07	1.58	0.15
In-field plant diversity	Abundance	Complex	17	0.37 (45%)	0.27	15	0.33 (39%)	0.28	0.05	0.96
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	Simple	13	0.09 (10%)	0.08	10	0.05 (5%)	0.10	1.00	0.35
In-field plant diversity	Local richness	Complex	17	0.16 (18%)	0.09	15	0.52 (68%)	0.23	-2.22	0.044
In-field plant diversity	Regional richness	Simple	10	0.06 (6%)	0.06	10	0.02 (2%)	0.09	-0.04	0.97
In-field plant diversity	Regional richness	Complex	15	0.02 (2%)	0.01	14	0.40 (50%)	0.20	-1.59	0.14

157 **Fig. S1.** Data structure and major factors used in the meta-analysis. Each study consisted of a
 158 collection of fields (white rectangles, not to scale) situated in simple or complex landscapes. We
 159 classified each field as having low or high in-field plant diversity, or being managed organically
 160 or conventionally (not shown). Within each study, we divided sampled taxa by functional group
 161 (detritivore, herbivore, pollinator, predator). For each sub-group, we calculated local abundance
 162 and diversity from field-level taxon pools, and regional diversity from the regional pool.
 163

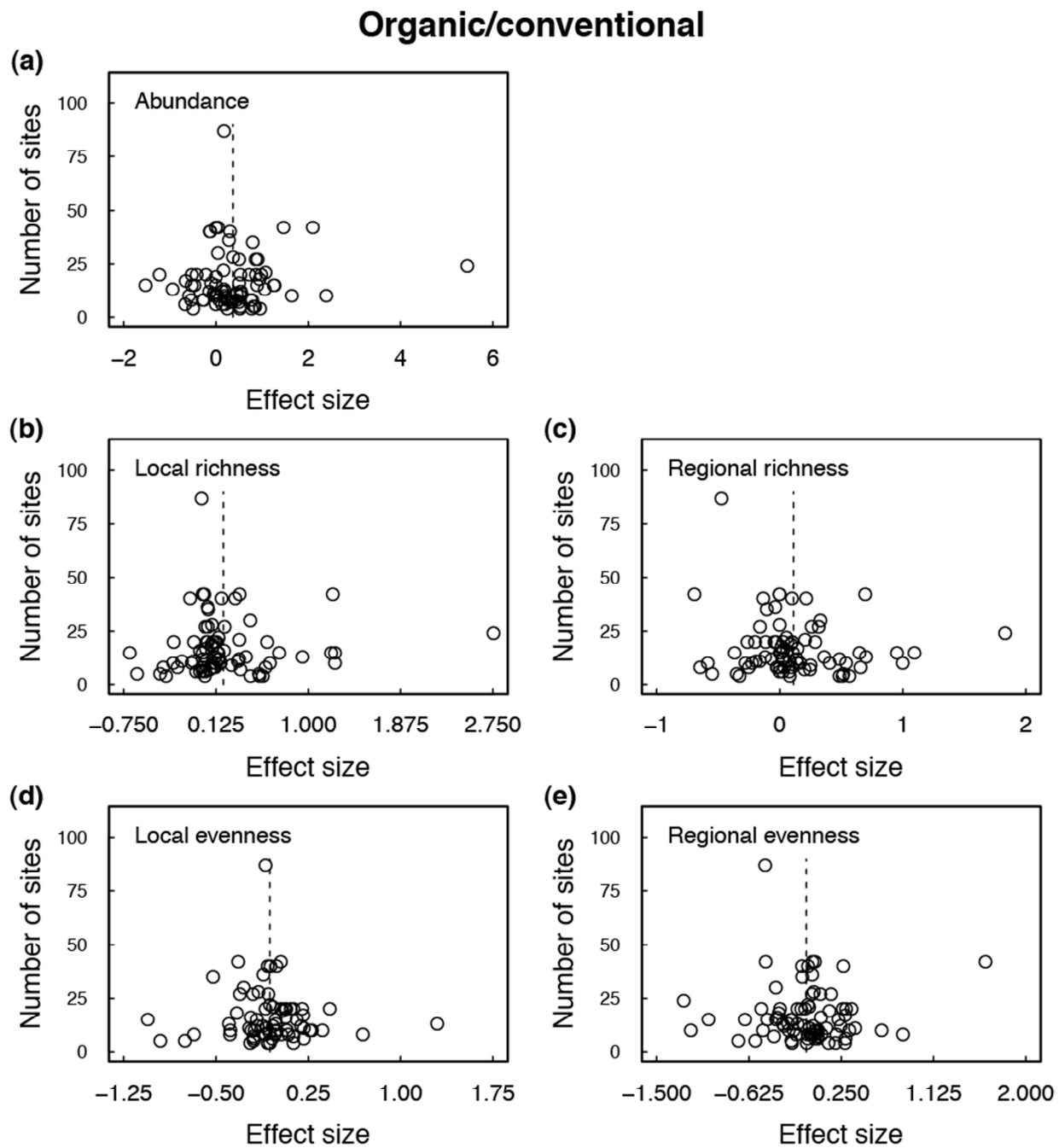


165 **Fig. S2.** Map of study sites.
166



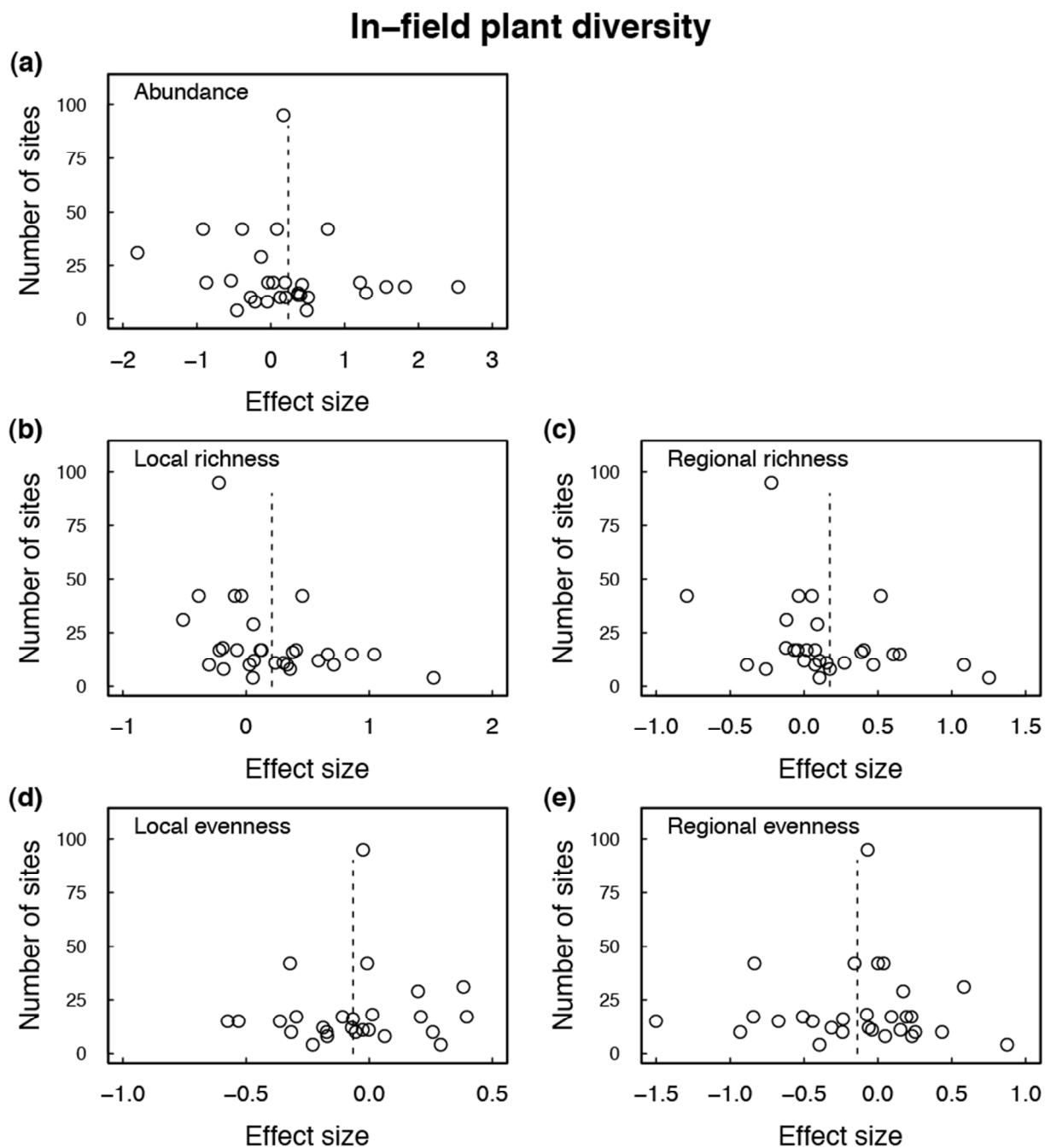
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169 **Figure S3.** Funnel plots for studies assessing organic vs. conventional farming. All plots are
170 sufficiently symmetrical about their mean (visually assessed) to indicate no publication bias.
171 Effect sizes are log-response ratios.
172



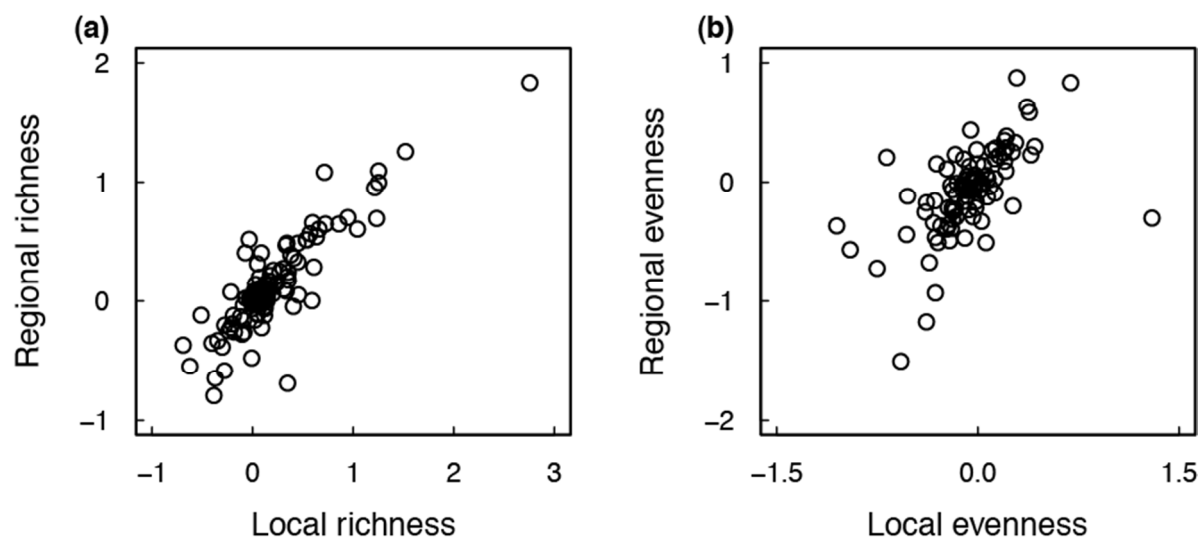
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175 **Figure S4.** Funnel plots for studies assessing in-field plant diversification. All plots are
176 sufficiently symmetrical about their mean (visually assessed) to indicate no publication bias.
177 Effect sizes are log-response ratios.
178



179
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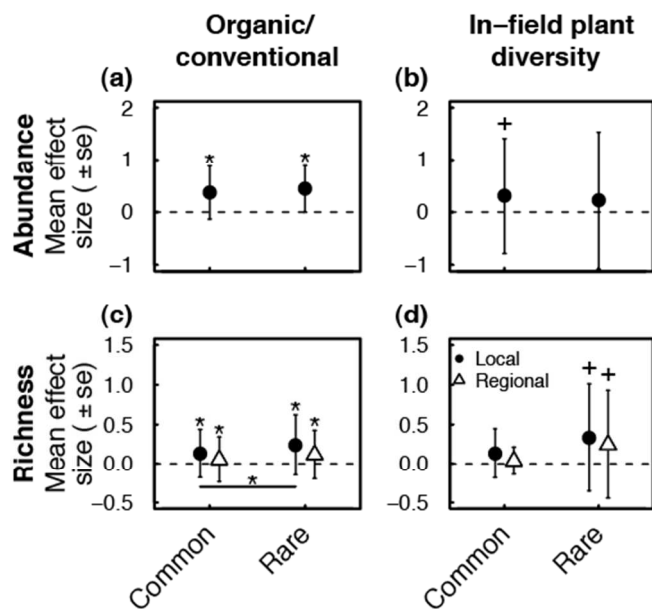
181 **Figure S5.** Diversity effects (log-response ratios) strongly correlated at the local and regional
182 scales for both richness (Pearson's correlation: $r = 0.87$, $t_{108} = 18.41$, $p < 0.0001$) and evenness (r
183 $= 0.81$, $t_{97} = 5.83$, $p < 0.0001$).
184



185
186

Review Only

187 **Figure S6.** Effects of farm management schemes on abundance (a, b) and richness (c, d) of
 188 common vs. rare taxa. Mean log-response ratios (\pm SE) of (left column) adopting organic farming
 189 and (right column) promoting in-field plant diversity. A “*” ($p < 0.05$) or “+” ($0.05 \leq p < 0.1$)
 190 above a mean denotes a significant difference from zero (determined via one-sample t -tests),
 191 while one below a pair of means indicates a significant difference between rare and common
 192 taxa (determined via paired t -tests).
 193



194

Table S1. Data holders and studies participating. We were unable to categorize landscape complexity when we obtained data directly from published articles that lacked GPS coordinates of sampling locations or information on natural habitat surrounding fields (Study IDs drit01, febe01, hesl01, hokk01, and weib01). These studies were excluded from meta-regressions.

Study ID	Reference or data holder	Crop(s)	Study location	Functional group(s)	Management scheme(s)	# sites (o=organic/ conventional, i- f=in-field plant diversity)	Year(s)
arms01	(Armstrong, 1995)	potato	Scotland	predators	organic/ conventional	4	1992
bata01	(Batáry <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	wheat	Germany	predators	organic/ conventional	18	2008
benj01	(Cariveau <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	blueberry	USA	pollinators	in-field plant diversity	16	2012
bere01	(Winqvist <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	wheat	Netherlands	predators	organic/ conventional	35	2007
bomm01	(Winqvist <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	wheat	Sweden	predators	organic/ conventional, in-field plant diversity	95	2007
bosq01	Bosque-Perez, Nilsa; Ramos, Mariangie	coffee	Costa Rica	herbivores	organic/ conventional, in-field plant diversity	18 (o), 19 (i-f)	2005
carv01	(Carvalho <i>et al.</i> , 2010, 2012)	mango	South Africa	herbivores, pollinators, predators	organic/ conventional	15	2009

chap01	(Chaplin-Kramer <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	broccoli	USA	detritivores, herbivores, predators	in-field plant diversity	17	2008
clou01	(Clough <i>et al.</i> , 2005, 2007a, 2007b)	wheat	Germany	detritivores, herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional, in-field plant diversity	42 (o), 17 (i-f)	2003
conn01	(Connelly <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	strawberry	USA	pollinators	organic/ conventional	13	2012
danf01	(Russo <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	apple	USA	pollinators	organic/ conventional, in-field plant diversity	10	2009
diek01	(Diekötter <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	wheat	Germany	detritivores, herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	12	2007
drit01	(Dritschilo & Erwin, 1982)	corn	USA	predators	organic/ conventional	8	late 1970s?
eige01	Eigenbrode, Sanford	coffee	Costa Rica	predators	organic/ conventional	6	2001
ekro01	(Ekroos <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	various grains (combined)	Finland	predators	organic/ conventional, in-field plant diversity	28 (o), 29 (i-f)	1998
febe01	(Feber <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	wheat	England	predators	organic/ conventional	6	1995
frei01	Freitas, Breno	acerola	Brazil	pollinators	in-field plant diversity	4	2010

frei02	Freitas, Breno	cotton	Brazil	pollinators	in-field plant diversity	4	2010
fuku01	(Fukuda <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	pasture	New Zealand	detritivores, herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	20	2009
gain01	Gaines, Hannah; Gratton, Claudio	cranberry	USA	pollinators	organic/ conventional	15	2008
hesl01	(Hesler <i>et al.</i> , 1993)	rice	USA	herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	6	1988
hokk01	(Hokkanen & Holopainen, 1986)	cabbage	Germany	herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	4	1982
holz01	(Holzschuh <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	wheat	Germany	pollinators	organic/ conventional, in-field plant diversity	42	2003
isaa01	(Isaacs & Kirk, 2010)	blueberry	USA	pollinators	in-field plant diversity	12	2008
isai01	(Isaia <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	grape	Italy	predators	organic/ conventional	5	2003
jha01	(Jha & Vandermeer, 2010)	coffee	Mexico	pollinators	organic/ conventional	7	2006
jona01	(Jonason <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	various grains (combined)	Sweden	herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	36	2011

jone01	(Jones <i>et al.</i> , In press, In pressb; Mills <i>et al.</i> , In press)	apple	USA	herbivores, pollinators, predators	organic/ conventional	8	2011
klat01	Klatt, Björn; Tschamtko, Teja	strawberry	Germany	pollinators	in-field plant diversity	8	2010
klei01	Brittain, Claire; Klein, Alexandra	almond	USA	pollinators	organic/ conventional	13	2009
krau01	(Krauss <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	triticale	Germany	pollinators	organic/ conventional	24	2008
krem01	(Kremen <i>et al.</i> , 2002, 2004)	watermelon	USA	pollinators	organic/ conventional	21	2000
let01	(Drinkwater <i>et al.</i> , 1995; Letourneau & Goldstein, 2001; Letourneau & Bothwell, 2007; Letourneau <i>et al.</i> , 2012, 2015)	broccoli, brussel sprouts	USA	predators	organic/ conventional, in-field plant diversity	10	2006
mall01	(Mallinger <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	apple	USA	pollinators	organic/ conventional	17	2012
mart01	(Martin <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	potato, daikon radish, rice, soybean	South Korea	predators	organic/ conventional	7 (radish), 8 (other crops)	2009

memm01	(Gibson <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Macfadyen <i>et al.</i> , 2009a, 2009b, 2011a, 2011b)	grains, brassicas, legumes	England	herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	20 (grains), 5 (brassicas), 10 (legumes)	2005 (grains, legumes), 2006 (brassicas)
mora01	(Morandin & Winston, 2005, 2006)	canola	Canada	pollinators	organic/ conventional	16	2002
neam01	Elle, Elizabeth; Neame, Lisa	winter squash	Canada	pollinators	organic/ conventional	9	2010
ober01	(Öberg, 2007; Öberg <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	various grains (combined)	Sweden	predators	organic/ conventional, in-field plant diversity	8	2003 (i-f), 2004 (o)
otie01	(Otieno <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	pigeonpea	Kenya	pollinators	organic/ conventional, in-field plant diversity	12	2009
pfif01	(Pfiffner & Luka, 2003)	various grains (combined)	Switzerland	predators	organic/ conventional	12	1996-8
poco01	(Pocock & Jennings, 2008)	various grains (combined)	England	detritivores, herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	40	2003
ponc01	(Ponce <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	wheat, barley	Spain	detritivores, herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	27 (wheat), 11 (barley)	2008
pott01	(Carré <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	field bean	England	pollinators	in-field plant diversity	10	2005

pove01	(Poveda <i>et al.</i> , 2012); Martinez, Eliana	potato	Colombia	herbivores, predators	in-field plant diversity	11	2007
rose01	(de Valpine & Rosenheim, 2008)	cotton	USA	herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	15	1993
rund01	(Bommarco <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	red clover	Sweden	pollinators	in-field plant diversity	17	2010
sard01	(Sardiñas & Kremen, 2015)	sunflower	USA	pollinators	in-field plant diversity	10	2011
saun01	(Saunders & Luck, 2013)	almond	Australia	detritivores, herbivores, predators	in-field plant diversity	15	2010
scho01	(Schon <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	pasture	New Zealand	detritivores, herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	10	2007
scil01	Sciligo, Amber	strawberry	USA	pollinators	in-field plant diversity	17	2012
sidh01	(Sidhu, 2013)	squash	USA	pollinators	organic/ conventional	8	2011
snyd01	Crowder, David; Snyder, William	potato	USA	detritivores, herbivores, predators	organic/ conventional	20	2010
vese01	(Veselý & Šarapatka, 2008)	wheat, barley	Czech Republic	predators	organic/ conventional	4 (wheat), 4 (barley)	2001 (wheat), 2005 (barley)

weib01	(Weibull <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	cereals, clovers, grasses (combined)	Sweden	pollinators	organic/ conventional	16	1997-8
weis01	(Winqvist <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	wheat	Germany	predators	organic/ conventional, in-field plant diversity	30 (o), 31 (i-f)	2007
will01	Williams, Neal	watermelon	USA	pollinators	in-field plant diversity	10	2010
wils01	(Tuell <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	blueberry	USA	pollinators	organic/ conventional	15	2005
winf01	(Winfree <i>et al.</i> , 2007, 2008; Lonsdorf <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Rader <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	watermelon	USA	pollinators	organic/ conventional	10	2010
winf02	(Winfree <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	pepper, tomato	USA	pollinators	organic/ conventional	22 (pepper), 13 (tomato)	2004 (pepper), 2005 (tomato)

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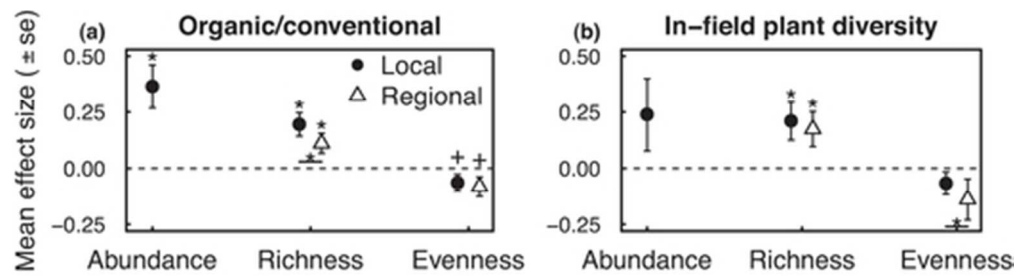
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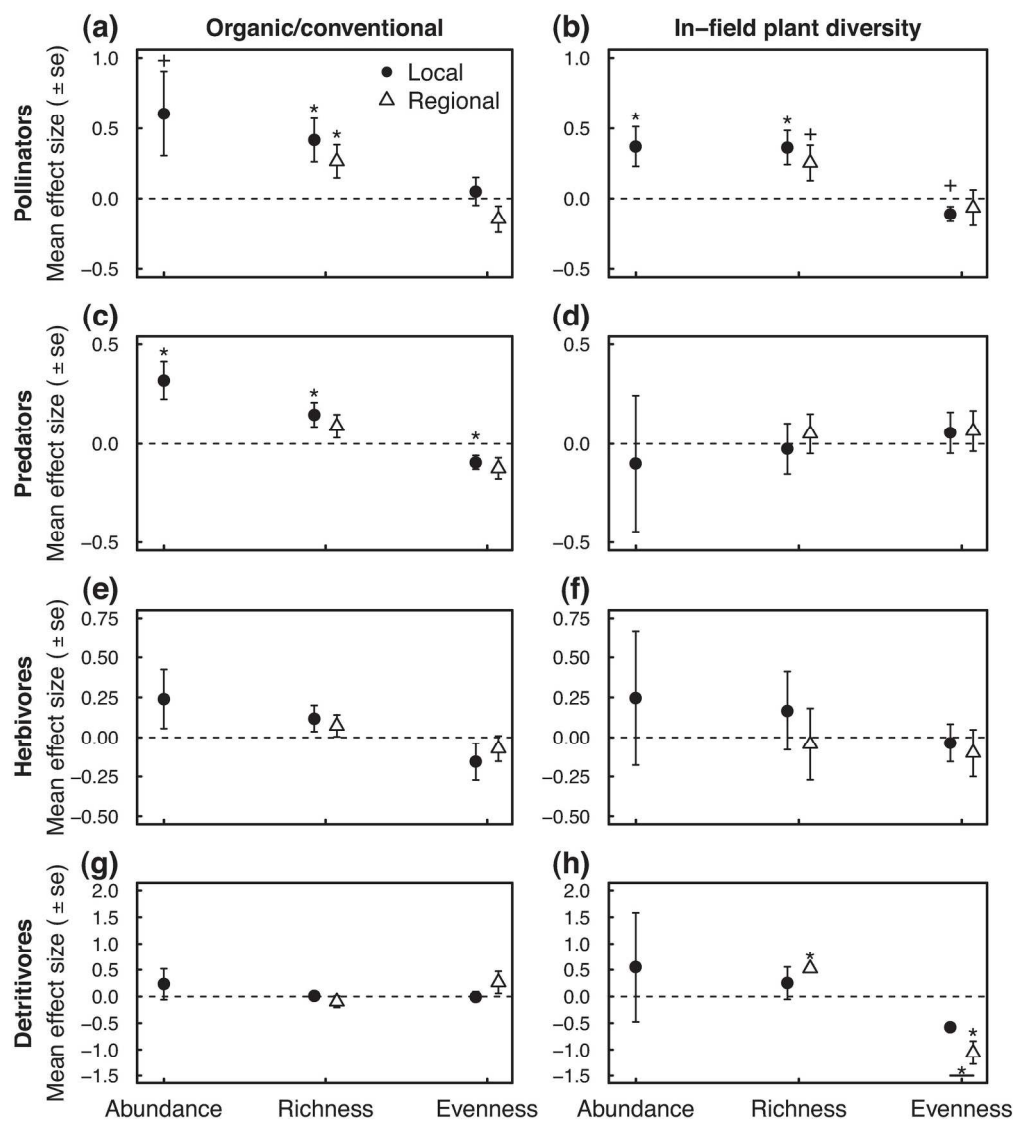


Effects of farm management schemes on arthropod abundance, local diversity, and regional diversity. Values shown are for the entire arthropod community, and represent the mean log-response ratio (\pm SE) of (a) adopting organic farming and (b) promoting in-field plant diversity on abundance, richness, and evenness. A "*" ($p < 0.05$) or "+" ($0.05 \leq p < 0.1$) above a mean denotes a significant difference from zero (determined via one-sample t-tests; statistical details in Table S8), while one below a pair of means indicates a significant difference between local and regional diversity (determined via linear mixed models; Tables S9-S12).

Fig. 1

44x12mm (300 x 300 DPI)

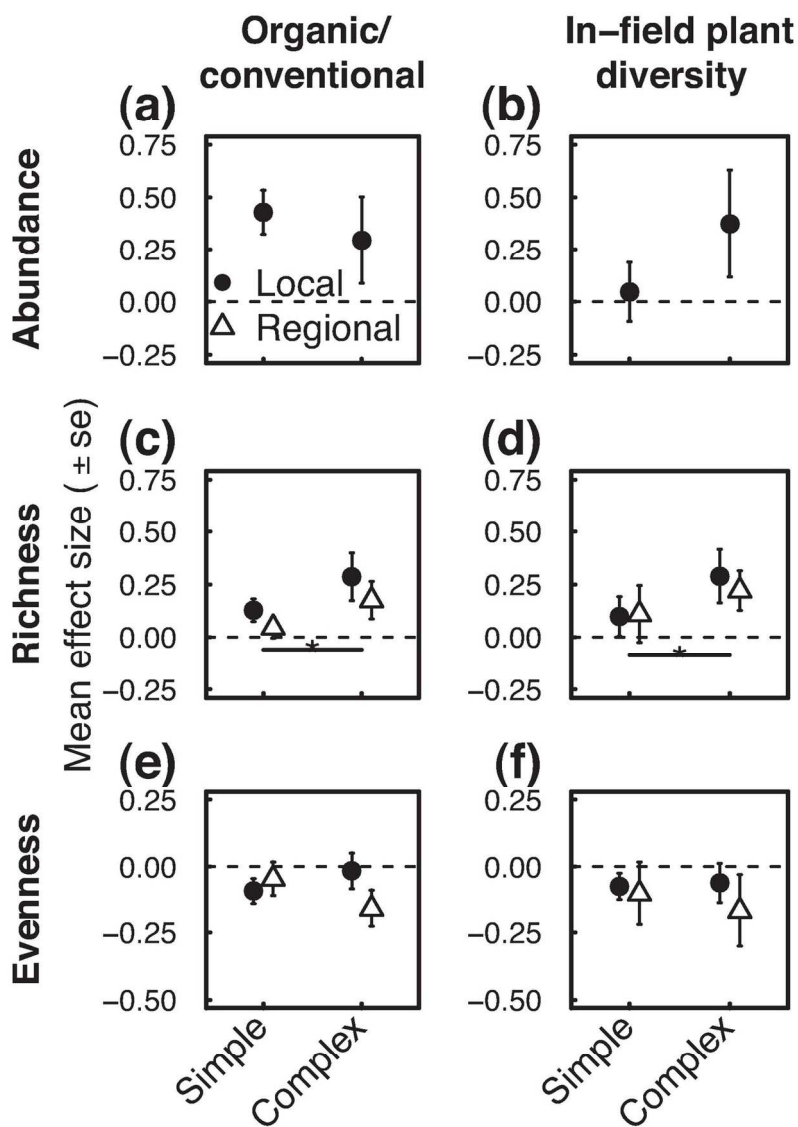
Review Only



Effects of farm management schemes on abundance, local diversity, and regional diversity of arthropod functional groups. Mean log-response ratios (\pm SE) of (left column) adopting organic farming and (right column) promoting in-field plant diversity for (a-b) pollinators, (c-d) predators, (e-f) herbivores, and (g-h) detritivores. A "*" ($p < 0.05$) or "+" ($0.05 \leq p < 0.1$) above a mean denotes a significant difference from zero (determined via one-sample t-tests; Tables S15-S18). Meta-regressions indicated that differences between local and regional values did not vary with functional group (Tables S9-S12).

Fig. 2

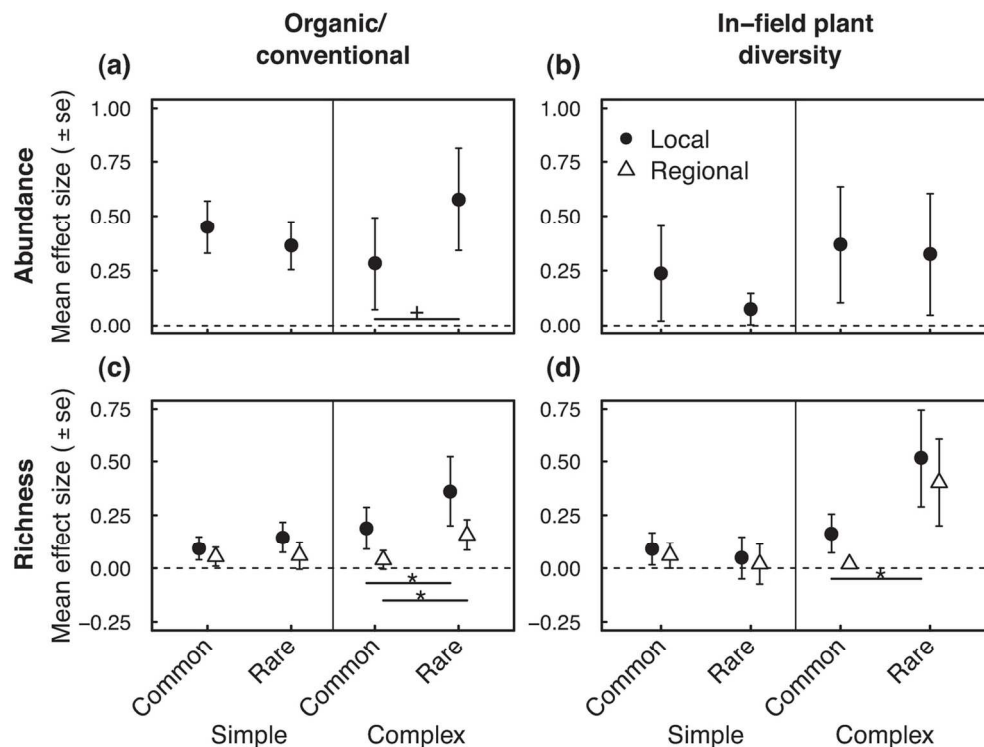
190x218mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Effects of landscape complexity on the entire arthropod community in organic vs. conventional farms (left column) and fields with high vs. low in-field plant diversity (right column). Each graph shows the mean log-response ratio (\pm SE) for studies in simple ($\leq 20\%$ natural habitat) or complex ($>20\%$ natural habitat) landscapes for (a,b) abundance, (c,d) richness, and (e,f) evenness. A "*" ($p < 0.05$) or "+" ($0.05 \leq p < 0.1$) below a set of means indicates a significant difference between means at the habitat complexity levels (Tables S9-S12).

Fig. 3

114x174mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Effects of farm management schemes on abundance (a, b) and richness (c, d) of common vs. rare taxa in simple and complex landscapes. Mean log-response ratios (\pm SE) of (left column) adopting organic farming and (right column) promoting in-field plant diversity. A "*" ($p < 0.05$) or "+" ($0.05 \leq p < 0.1$) below a pair of means indicates a significant difference between rare and common taxa within a landscape complexity category (determined via paired t-tests; Table S19).

Fig. 4

125x93mm (300 x 300 DPI)