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4 1 For: Biomass and Bioenergy
5 2 Special Issue on: Using the Ecosystem Services Approach to Assess Biofuel Sustainability
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9 6 **Biomass and biofuel crop effects on biodiversity and ecosystem services in the North**
10 7 **Central US**
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4 33 **1. Introduction**
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8 35 The adoption of biomass cropping systems to supply feedstocks to bioenergy and bioproducts
9 36 industries has the potential to alter the mix of ecosystem services realized from agricultural
10 37 landscapes [1]. In the North Central US, current biomass cropping systems are primarily
11 38 monocultures of the annual crops corn and soybean. However, the diversity of systems used for
12 39 biomass crops in the region is likely to be augmented in the future by dedicated crops based on
13 40 perennial plants [2]. Assessing what biomass crops to grow, where to grow them, and how they
14 41 should be managed represents a complex combination of socio-political, economic, and
15 42 ecological decisions that will determine the mix of ecosystem services we derive from
16 43 agricultural lands.

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26 45 An ecosystem services framework has been useful in evaluating the relative merits of different
27 46 bioenergy production systems. Gasparatos et al. [1] reviewed the impact of first-generation
28 47 biofuel production systems on biodiversity, and resulting provisioning, regulating and cultural
29 48 services. They found that while some provisioning (fuel) and regulating services (climate
30 49 regulation) may be enhanced, this often comes at the expense of biodiversity, and other
31 50 provisioning (food, water) and regulating (air quality, erosion control) services. Joly et al. [3]
32 51 also used an ecosystem services framework to examine the impacts of biofuel production
33 52 systems on biodiversity and ecosystem services. They conclude that the land transformations that
34 53 have taken place globally to produce biofuels have resulted in serious biodiversity declines.
35 54 However, they also conclude that the effects of biofuel production on ecosystem services is
36 55 highly context and location-specific, with some systems having the potential to enhance
37 56 ecosystem services. Indeed, a recent synthesis examining the impacts of second-generation
38 57 bioenergy cropping systems in Europe suggest that transitioning from first-generation feedstocks
39 58 to dedicated lignocellulosic feedstocks may frequently improve ecosystem services [4].
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4 64 to derive transportation fuels from cellulosic biomass, fostered a resurgence of research into
5 65 biomass cropping systems. During this time, there was also a growing consensus that a focused
6 66 national effort was needed to enable the emergence of a cellulosic biofuel industry. In 2006, the
7 67 US DOE Office of Science and the Office of Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy released
8 68 a report that outlined a 15-year strategy of research, technology development, and systems
9 69 integration aimed at supporting a cellulosic biofuels sector [6]. This report was seen as the
10 70 original research roadmap supporting the formation of three national Bioenergy Research
11 71 Centers charged with providing the fundamental science to underpin an environmentally
12 72 sustainable and economically competitive advanced cellulosic biofuels industry. In 2007, the
13 73 Great Lakes Bioenergy Research Center (GLBRC) was one of three national research centers
14 74 funded by the US DOE to pursue this mission [7, 8].
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76 Corn and soybean have long dominated the agricultural landscape of the North Central US. In
77 recent years, 35 to 40% of the US corn crop has been used to produce ethanol that is blended into
78 Nitrogen and phosphorous typically are added to these cropping systems to maintain productivity
79 and manage livestock manure. These inputs, particularly when combined with tillage can result
80 in excessive leaching of nitrogen to ground- and surface-waters and to overland movement of
81 phosphorous attached to soil particles to surface waters [9] resulting in local to continental
82 eutrophication of water bodies [10]. Also, significant amounts of the nitrogen added as inorganic
83 fertilizer can be lost via volatilization or microbe-mediated nitrification and dentirification [11,
84 12], contributing to ecosystem disservices that include excessive deposition locally and
85 accumulation of greenhouse gases globally. Largely because of high inputs, the net energy gain
86 of developing biofuels from annual crops appears to converge near zero [13]. Increasing
87 production of annual crops through intensification on existing crop land or conversion of
88 marginal lands [14] threatens other ecosystem services important to the sustainability of
89 agricultural landscapes e.g. natural pest suppression [15].
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91 Concerns about the sustainability of current biofuel cropping systems prompted research to
92 derive fuels and other bioproducts from cellulosic biomass sourced from dedicated energy crops
93 and/or food crop residues [16, 17]. However, harvesting residues of annual crops does not
94 address the environmental concerns stated above, and could exacerbate these problems by

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4 95 driving the planting of even more land to annual crops. Alternatively, the addition of dedicated
5 96 cellulosic crops significantly broadens the options for potential feedstock producing cropping
6 97 systems, providing opportunities for coupling ecosystem service improvements and ecologically
7 98 sustainable production [18]. Perennial plants such as native prairies grasses, tropical grasses, and
8 99 short rotation trees show promise as sustainable biomass crops because they minimize erosion by
9 100 covering the soil year-round and minimize energy costs of agronomic management stemming
10 101 from fossil fuel use for planting equipment and production and application of pesticides and
11 102 fertilizers [19, 20]. However, the benefits of incorporating perennials into current agricultural
12 103 landscapes as part of a sustainable biomass cropping system has received less research attention
13 104 (but see [21, 22]). Understanding how perennial biomass cropping systems – specifically those
14 105 planted with native species – could be integrated into North Central US cropping systems to
15 106 enhance multiple ecosystem services has been a focus of the GLBRC Biodiversity Team.
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108 Here, we review more than 35 studies conducted by the GLBRC Biodiversity Team, where we
109 compared the potential effects of alternative biomass cropping systems on the organisms and
110 processes that provide important supporting, provisioning, regulating and cultural services in
111 agricultural landscapes. The following central questions directed our research: 1) How does the
112 choice of biomass crop(s) influence biodiversity and the potential to provide ecosystem services
113 that can be delivered at the level of a crop field and to the overall landscape? 2) How do different
114 management practices affect the ecosystem services provided by alternative systems?, and 3)
115 How does the configuration of biomass and other crops in an agricultural landscape influence
116 ecosystem services provided to other crops? Our hypothesis was that perennial biomass cropping
117 systems, particularly those with higher plant species diversity, would provide more ecosystem
118 services and reduce associated disservices compared to annual cropping systems. We addressed
119 this hypothesis by estimating how crop yields and other ecosystem services provided by a variety
120 of cellulosic biomass crops differed and how these relationships varied when measured at plot-,
121 field-, and landscape-levels of spatial organization

123 **2. Materials and methods**

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4 125 Below we provide an overview of methods used in the studies we review. Details about the
5 specific sites and methods used can be found in the individual publications cited (**Table 1**).
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11 129 Research sites were located in southern Wisconsin and Michigan and consisted of a combination
12 of intensively-managed plot-level experiments, replicated scale-up fields, and a network of
13 commercial-sized fields embedded within representative agricultural landscapes (**Fig 1**). In 2008,
14 the Biofuel Cropping Systems Experiments (BCSEs) were established in each state to compare
15 and contrast 10 different cropping systems with each system planted in 30 x 40-m plots in 5
16 replicate blocks. In Michigan, the BSCE was established at the W.K. Kellogg Biological Station
17 (KBS, 42°23'47" N, 85°22'26" W, 288 m a.s.l.) and in Wisconsin at the Arlington Agricultural
18 Research Station (ARL, 43°17'45" N, 89°22'48" W, 315 m a.s.l.).
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28 138 Treatments were designed to provide a gradient of increasing plant species diversity and
29 included both annual and perennial cropping systems: continuous corn, corn-soybean-canola
30 139 rotation, switchgrass, miscanthus, hybrid poplar, mixed-species native grasses, successional
31 140 vegetation, and restored prairie (**Table 2**). Split-plot treatments included; stover removal in
32 141 continuous corn, nitrogen addition in restored prairie, and no nitrogen addition in perennial crops
33 142 (see [20] for details of cropping systems management). In 2009, “Scale-up” fields (9 to 17 ha)
34 143 were established at two sites in Michigan to measure biomass production and other ecosystem
35 144 services at scales typical of production fields with differing land use histories (see table 1 in [23])
36 145 and landscape positions. At each site, one field was planted to restored prairie, switchgrass, or
37 146 continuous corn and managed as in the BSCE.
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48 149 We also worked with local landowners and extension specialists to identify a set of commercial-
49 sized corn/soybean, switchgrass, and reconstructed prairie fields (3 to 30 ha) across varying
50 150 landscapes in southern Michigan and Wisconsin. These “Extensive sites” were selected so that
51 151 all three cropping systems were in close proximity to each other, and embedded within a range of
52 152 agricultural landscape compositions typical of southern Michigan and Wisconsin. The
53 153 landscapes surrounding these sites ranged from highly simplified landscapes (i.e., fields
54 154 surrounded by high proportions of annual cropland within 1.5 km) to moderately complex (i.e.,
55 155 surrounded by high proportions of annual cropland within 1.5 km) to moderately complex (i.e.,
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4 156 fields surrounded by a combination of croplands, grasslands, forest, or wetlands). The wide
5 spatial distribution of the Extensive sites allowed us to capture gradients in soil type, climate,
6 and overall cropping practices. Because of the current lack of a market for biomass in our states,
7 these sites did not have a history of annual harvests as would be the case in a biomass cropping
8 system, although haying and burning to promote plant diversity often occurred.
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14 162 **2.2 Plants**
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16 163 We evaluated the relationship between plant species diversity (number of species) and above
17 ground biomass production by sampling fields planted to bioenergy crops at two spatial scales –
18 the BCSE experimental plots and larger Extensive and Scale-up fields. These larger fields
19 differed in fertility, time of establishment, land use history, surrounding landscape, and a variety
20 of other factors; however our capacity to evaluate how these differences moderate the effect of
21 biodiversity on yield was limited by small sample size [23, 24].
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27 170 An initial analysis of how ecosystem services, including above-ground production, varied with
28 cropping system was done by comparing species composition and a variety of services from
29 prairie (n=10) and switchgrass (n=10) Extensive sites in Michigan. Aboveground production and
30 species composition was determined from hand harvests done at peak biomass (August-
31 September) in 2008 and 2009 [23, 24]. We also estimated productivity in the KBS and ARL
32 BCSE from hand harvests (July, corresponding to peak biomass) and by machine at the end of
33 the growing season (September-October) corresponding to the more typical time and methods for
34 biofuel harvest. Because stability in production may be an important ecosystem service, we
35 calculated how variation in aboveground biomass production (i.e. stability, calculated as mean
36 divided by the standard deviation) of the four herbaceous perennial cropping systems of the
37 BCSE representing a gradient of species richness varied (see **Table 1**). Finally, we explored if
38 harvest frequency (1 versus 2) affected biomass production in restored prairie treatments at the
39 Michigan Scale-up sites for three years [23, 24].
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43 184 **2.3 Insects**
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45 185 The adoption of biomass cropping systems is anticipated to affect insect communities and
46 resulting ecosystem functions in complex and cascading ways [25]. To evaluate the effects of
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4 187 different biomass cropping systems, as well as the influence of management and landscape
5 context on insect biodiversity responses, we sampled potential insect pollinators using water-pan
6 traps, netting at flowers, and sentinel flower observations in a subset of the Extensive sites [26-
7 189 28]. Water pan traps were also used to collect aphids colonizing different fields [28, 29]. To
8 190 measure the relative abundance of other insect taxa over the course of a growing season we also
9 191 used sweepnet sampling [30, 31], or placement of yellow sticky card traps [28, 30, 32]. We then
10 192 used data from these sampling efforts to measure the relative abundance of different taxonomic
11 193 groups, as well as family (or species-level, for pollinators and some predators), richness and
12 194 diversity.
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15 197 The choice and management of biomass crops can affect arthropods that contribute to both
16 198 pollination and insect pest suppression, two processes that support provisioning and regulating
17 199 ecosystem services. Pollination potential within the biomass crops was assayed by examining
18 200 seed mass of potted sentinel sunflowers (*Helianthus annuus*) placed within different biomass
19 201 crops [26]. Pest suppression potential was measured by the placement of sentinel prey corn
20 202 earworm eggs (*Helicoverpa zea*), or soybean aphids (*Aphis glycines*) in the field [30, 32]. Some
21 203 prey were exposed to ambient populations of naturally occurring arthropod predators while
22 204 others were shielded from the activity of predators using cages. The difference in the number of
23 205 prey remaining alive after a given period of time (24 to 72 h, depending on the experiment) was
24 206 used as an index of biological control potential.
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2.4 Birds

27 209 Production of biomass crops is anticipated to alter bird communities at field and landscape scales
28 210 [33, 34]. To assess the likely impacts of different biomass crop types on bird diversity and
29 211 abundance, we first conducted a meta-analysis of the existing literature [35]. This meta-analysis
30 212 focused on four major biomass crops that were currently cultivated or being considered for
31 213 production in the US including corn, switchgrass, pine, and poplar. The analysis contrasted
32 214 vertebrate animal abundance or density, and diversity in potential biomass crops versus reference
33 215 habitats that these crops may replace. A second analysis contrasted the abundance of vertebrates
34 216 in annual crops versus perennial grasslands that were part of the Conservation Reserve Program
35 217 (CRP) [35]. Subsequent field studies in southern Michigan utilized the Extensive site network
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4 218 and additional sites to examine the diversity and abundance of migratory and breeding birds in
5 relation to biomass crop habitat and landscape variables [31, 36-38]. Finally, the opportunity to
6 sight rare birds was considered as a cultural service as part of an assessment of multifunctionality
7 (section 2.6) [29].
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13 223 **2.5 Microbes**
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15 224 The central role microbes play in mediating soil biogeochemical processes [39] motivated our
16 soil biodiversity research. We primarily relied on linked measurements of the microbial
17 community and biogeochemical process rates to explore these relationships [40], although we
18 also conducted laboratory measurements of soil microbial growth efficiencies from diverse
19 habitats to gain insight into how land management influences microbial communities and their
20 processes [41]. At the onset of our studies, it was unclear whether the effects of establishing
21 biomass crops on soil microbial community composition would be detectable, given the
22 variability caused by heterogeneity of soil properties and legacy effects from prior land uses
23 [42]. In most of our studies, we characterized microbial communities via extraction of
24 biomarkers such as cell membrane lipids, wall amino sugars, and DNA from soil samples. We
25 analyzed community DNA via both targeted and shotgun metagenomic sequencing. The former
26 approach was used to characterize composition of functional groups such as methane consumers
27 or nitrogen fixers in addition to the entire community. Our analyses of these data focused more
28 on community composition and dissimilarity than on diversity per se, because methods like lipid
29 profiling cannot be properly analyzed or interpreted for diversity metrics [43].
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59 248 **2.6 Multifunctionality**
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4 249 The development of a biomass-based agricultural bioeconomy has been viewed as an opportunity
5 to increase the functionality of US agriculture [50]. We assessed the multifunctionality of
6 potential biomass cropping systems for our region in a variety of ways. Initially, we used GIS-
7 enabled spatially explicit modeling to predict the effects of potential bioenergy driven land use
8 and land cover changes on bird communities [33], biological control potential [51], and
9 pollinator abundance and diversity [27]. We tested our hypotheses that more diverse, perennial
10 systems would provide a greater range of ecosystem services with an analysis exploring
11 relationships of biomass crop choice (corn, switchgrass and restored prairie) to the biodiversity
12 of multiple taxa (plants, insects, bird, and microbes) and to a subset of services those taxa supply
13 (biomass yield, pollination and pest suppression, opportunity to observe rare birds, and methane
14 consumption) [29]. Data from the establishment-phase (i.e., years 1 through 6) of the BCSE
15 provided yield comparisons to improve our understanding of the productivity potentials from a
16 wider range of biomass cropping systems [20]. Finally, using GIS layers of existing land cover,
17 coupled to models of potential biomass crop services and disservices, we developed a spatially-
18 explicit decision-support system to allow stakeholders to evaluate the multifunctionality of user-
19 defined placement of biomass crops on their farms [52, 53].
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35 266 **3. Results and discussion**
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39 268 ***3.1 Diverse and monoculture plantings of perennials were similarly productive.***
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41 In field surveys of existing plant communities in the Extensive sites, we did not find significant
42 differences in biomass production between switchgrass and prairie plantings. Although there was
43 considerable variation among sites in biomass production, this was not related to planted or
44 observed plant species richness and may reflect differences in initial management (including
45 seed mixture), site fertility, or past land use [24]. We found similar results for the BCSE fields
46 where yields were either similar across diversity gradients or higher in switchgrass monocultures
47 depending on the year and nitrogen fertilization treatment [54].
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55 277 Evidence from surveys of switchgrass plantings in SW Michigan [29] and from experimental
56 plots and extensive sites of the GLBRC [24] show that other species establish in switchgrass
57 monocultures (reflecting seed bank or colonization from surrounding landscape). Because these
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4 280 plantings are not managed to maintain a monoculture (plots not weeded or sprayed), other
5 species invade and so low diversity plots have more species than originally planted. Dickson and
6 Gross [24] show that this can occur rapidly (within 2 years). Also, experimental studies that were
7 designed to explore the relationship between species richness and productivity have shown that
8 these relationships rapidly deteriorate when intensive weeding is stopped [55]. Without a
9 'monoculture' treatment that is maintained as such, the relationship between actual (or planted)
10 species richness and productivity is not likely to be detected or maintained. This complicates
11 efforts to relate planted species richness with productivity; but there may still be positive effects
12 on other ecosystem services [29].
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15 290 Past land use can also have a significant and persistent effect on the establishment of diverse
16 perennial communities. Grman et al. [56] found that management, especially the seed mix
17 composition, was a major determinant of plant species composition across 27 restored prairies in
18 southwestern Michigan, while past land use also had some effect on composition. In particular,
19 sites restored from pasture had a higher proportion of non-native, C₃ grasses, which may have
20 inhibited establishment of sown native species [56]. Munson and Lauenroth [57] found that
21 species composition and prior land use were important determinants of productivity in CRP
22 lands, and that previously established non-native species reduced the establishment of native
23 species. Although their study did not explicitly analyze connections between species diversity
24 and productivity, they did find that a diverse community had higher productivity in a wet year,
25 but not dry years. Our results from the restored prairies in the Michigan Scale-up sites provide
26 further evidence that past land use may be an important determinant of the potential for restored
27 prairies to deliver provisioning ecosystem services. While restored prairies at both sites were
28 established at the same time, with identical seed mixes and management, the eventual species
29 composition and aboveground productivity of the two sites differed. At the site previously
30 enrolled in the Conservation Reserve Program we observed a higher species diversity, more
31 abundant forbs and lower productivity than the site more recently in row-crop agriculture, where
32 C₄ grasses dominated [23]. Because the relationships between species diversity or richness and
33 productivity can depend on species composition [58-60], some of the variation between study
34 sites and experimental settings in our results likely are the result of different plant communities,
35 despite the use of the same or similar seed mixtures.
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6 312 We also explored the effects of dual versus single harvesting on biomass production and species
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8 313 diversity in a plot-level experiment within the restored prairies of the two Michigan Scale-up
9 sites. Our results showed that at the site where a low-diversity prairie dominated by C₄ grasses
10 314 was established, single harvests produce more biomass than the sum of dual harvests; however,
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12 315 at the more diverse site, single and double harvests had similar biomass yields [23]. Double
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14 316 harvests increase light and potentially provide an opportunity for low-stature forbs, including
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16 317 annuals, to flower and so provide opportunities for supporting pollinator-based services (K.
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18 318 Gross, unpublished data).

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22 321 ***3.2 Plant diversity did not have a consistent effect on yield stability.***

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24 322 Although diverse prairie plantings and switchgrass were found to produce similar amounts of
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26 323 biomass, diverse plantings may differ in their resilience to environmental fluctuations and so
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28 324 provide more consistent production from year to year. This may arise because of differences in
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30 325 traits among species in a more diverse planting that buffer against drought or other perturbations
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32 326 that can limit productivity [61, 62]. Over the first five years in the BCSE plots, species richness
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34 327 had only a small positive effect on the stability (μ/σ) of biomass production. This relationship
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36 328 was weaker at ARL (Wisconsin) compared to KBS (Michigan) (K. Stahlheber, unpublished
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38 329 data). At KBS, the two cropping systems with the highest species richness (restored prairie and
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40 330 unplanted successional field) had the highest stability in biomass production, indicating
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42 331 significantly less variation from year to year. At ARL, by contrast, the five-species native grass
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44 332 cropping system had the most consistent biomass production. This suggests that other attributes
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46 333 of the community beside species richness such as the identity and productivity of the dominant
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48 334 species may be more predictive of the stability in biomass production (K. Stahlheber,
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50 335 unpublished data).

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52 337 ***3.3 Biomass crop and landscape structure influenced pollinators and pollination.***

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54 338 Patterns of arthropod abundance and diversity were generally consistent across our different
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56 339 studies, with relatively greater abundance and diversity of arthropods in grasslands (switchgrass
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58 340 and restored prairies) than in annual cropping systems such as corn or soybean. At the local
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60 341 level, pollinators such as wild bees were two to three times more abundant in grasslands

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4 342 compared to corn [28]. At the landscape level, increasing the amount of grasslands around focal
5 fields (generally evaluated at the 1.5-km scale), increased bee species richness and abundance
6 [26]. Moreover, wild bee assemblages tended to be comprised of bees that were more specialized
7 when the landscape had more grassland, while in landscapes with more annual and wind-
8 pollinated crops, assemblages had more generalists, and honey bees (*Apis mellifera*) were
9 relatively more abundant. Variation in bee communities, which was influenced by the prevalence
10 of grassland in the landscape, was also associated with differences in pollination potential, i.e.
11 346 when wild bees were more abundant, sentinel flowers placed at our experimental sites had a
12 greater seed set [26]. We hypothesize that bee communities and their pollination potential will
13 347 vary if the prevalence of grasslands in the landscape were to change [27], as may occur if
14 growing perennial-plant biomass were to become more economically viable and thus more
15 348 widespread, or if corn-based bioenergy production were to continue to increase at the expense of
16 grasslands [14],
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3.4 Biomass crop and landscape structure influenced natural enemies and pest suppression.

A similar pattern to that of pollinators was observed with other insects in biomass production landscapes. Working in the Scale-up and Extensive sites in Michigan, Robertson et al. [31] found that switchgrass and restored prairies had 230% and 320% higher arthropod family-level diversity, respectively, than in corn, with a corresponding 750% and 2700% increase in arthropod biomass, respectively. Gardiner et al. [28] found that predatory flies and lady beetles (Coccinellidae) generally were more abundant in prairie sites compared to corn. Using a broader array of sites and different sampling techniques, Werling et al. [30] similarly found that predator biomass and family-level richness was highest in perennial grassland-based biomass crops. Moreover, within a crop type, increasing the diversity of flowering plants increased predator biomass.

At the landscape level of spatial resolution, increasing the proportion of grasslands, forest cover, or landscape diversity all had positive effects on predatory insect abundance, biomass, or diversity [28, 30, 32]. Although the overall pattern is one of higher natural enemies in either grasslands sites, or in landscapes with a significant proportion of perennial cover, there were some exceptions. For example, Gardiner et al. [28] found the relative abundance of *Coleomegilla*

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4 373 *maculata*, a pollen-feeding lady beetle was more abundant in corn and corn-dominated
5 landscapes. Similarly, Liere et al. [32] found that increasing the proportion of soybeans in the
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11 377 The mechanisms by which biomass cropping systems positively affect arthropod biodiversity at
12 local and landscape levels of spatial resolution have not been thoroughly examined. The
13
14 379 perenniability of biomass crops entails a greater persistence of these habitats through time,
15 compared to annual cropping systems that are replanted each year. This feature alone could
16 increase diversity and abundance of arthropods [63]. Moreover, increased diversity in these
17
18 381 grasslands could be due to more flowering dicots [30] supporting a greater diversity and
19 temporal continuity of prey that are used by generalist predators. In fact, a greater arthropod
20
21 382 resource base in these grasslands was proposed as a key mechanism by which a greater diversity
22 of birds was supported in biomass grasslands [37]. The studies of Gardiner et al. [28] and Liere
23
24 384 et al. [32] which show the potential of positive effects of annual crops on beneficial insects,
25 suggest that these habitats may provide limiting resources such as prey items for these
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27 386 consumers. Future studies examining the mechanisms by which perennial grasslands support
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29 388 beneficial arthropods will be essential to understand how biomass crop management and
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31 389 placement in the landscape will enhance or reduce their numbers at local and landscape scales.
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39 392 Differences in predatory arthropods among biomass crops was also associated with variation in
40 biological control potential. Werling et al. [30] found that predation of sentinel eggs was greatest
41 in perennial grasslands compared to corn, and predation rates further increased as plant diversity
42
43 394 within a habitat increased. However, this effect saturated as plant diversity reached 5 to 10
44 species. In parallel with the effects on natural enemy abundance and diversity, an increasing
45
46 396 amount of grassland or forested habitat in the landscape was also associated with increased
47 predation rates [30]. The effects of the landscape on natural enemies, and the negative effects of
48
49 398 natural enemies on prey species, raises the possibility of indirect effects of landscape on prey
50 suppression. Liere et al. [32] experimentally demonstrated this causal pathway showing that as
51
52 399 landscape diversity increased, the abundance of predatory and parasitic arthropods in soybean
53 increased, which was then associated with more intense prey suppression, and increased soybean
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55 401 yield. To our knowledge, this is one of the first studies to demonstrate this full causal pathway.
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4 404 Furthermore, this finding suggests that increasing landscape diversity by the addition of
5 dedicated biomass crops could enhance pest suppression services in associated annual crops.
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7 406 Indeed, we found that farms in more diverse agricultural landscapes in North Central US use less
8 insecticides than those in more simplified landscapes [64, 65]. Explicitly incorporating
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10 407 biocontrol services into bioeconomic models suggests that farmers may be willing to supply
11 biocontrol services into bioeconomic models suggests that farmers may be willing to supply
12 some forms of biomass (crop residues) at lower prices [66].
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17 411 **3.5 Perennial grasslands supported greater bird abundance and diversity.**

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19 412 Fletcher et al. [35] showed that the diversity of vertebrates in general, and birds specifically,
20 would be negatively affected by the conversion of reference habitats to either pine, poplar, or
21
22 414 row crop production systems and that bird species of conservation concern should be most
23 negatively impacted [67]. In contrast, conversion of row crops to grasslands was predicted to
24 increase the diversity and abundance of birds at landscape scales [33] In field experiments, a
25 total of 35 bird species utilized switchgrass and restored prairies during spring migration,
26 including species of national conservation concern like Henslow's sparrow (*Ammodramus*
27
28 417 *henslowii*) [38]. During the breeding season, 29 species of birds were found in corn, 35 in
29 switchgrass, and 45 in prairie habitats [37] Field size was positively correlated with bird species
30 richness in switchgrass and restored prairies but not corn, and overall richness was lower in
31 landscapes with more forest cover. Perennial grasslands contained higher arthropod diversity and
32 biomass, potentially providing more food for grassland birds [31]. During fall migration, a total
33 of 30 species were found in switchgrass and 38 in perennial grasslands including nine species of
34 obligate grassland specialists of which four are of conservation concern [37]. Overall, these
35 studies suggested that perennial grass biomass cropping systems have considerable potential to
36 enhance bird abundance and diversity in the North Central US, particularly for grassland
37 specialist species of conservation concern [33, 67].
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52 430 **3.6 Perennial grass cropping systems were enriched in plant-associated microbes.**

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54 431 Cropping systems that promote soil fungi should rely less on nutrient inputs and result in greater
55 soil organic carbon accumulation than systems dominated by soil bacteria [68]. Biomass of
56 arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) was greater in switchgrass and restored prairie systems than
57 in the corn system across the network of Extensive sites in Wisconsin [44]. A similar difference
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4 435 was observed between the corn and restored prairie systems of the Wisconsin BCSE only two
5 years after cropping system establishment, although not in the year following establishment [46].
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7 437 These changes were likely driven by increased rhizosphere size and activity because microbial
8 lipids from these groups increased in switchgrass rhizospheres relative to bulk soil at these sites
9 [49]. These microbes, AMF and Gram-negative bacteria, have previously been reported to
10 receive more carbon from plant exudates [69], making it likely these organisms associate directly
11 with grasses. We observed that nitrogen fertilization substantially reduced the amount by which
12 biomass from these groups increased in perennial systems [47], matching previous findings from
13 other groups [70]. These results are consistent with the classical perspective of symbiotic plant-
14 microbe associations as revolving around exchanges of nutrients and energy [71], although
15 inorganic nitrogen fertilization may be directly deleterious to AMF and other soil microbes [72].
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19 447 In the Extensive sites, microbial community composition and abundance varied with plant
20 composition, with switchgrass microbial communities intermediate between corn and prairie
21 fields [44]. At the Wisconsin BCSE, switchgrass and restored prairie treatments had similar
22 microbial lipid composition under fertilization, but plant-associated microbial lipids were more
23 abundant in fertilized prairie [47]. We observed lower levels of labile nitrogen in the prairie than
24 in the switchgrass treatment [54], suggesting plant diversity may have influenced the soil
25 microbial community indirectly through regulation of soil chemistry rather than directly through
26 associations.
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30 456 Soil microbial biomass, as estimated by membrane lipids, responded to perennial biomass
31 cropping system establishment with unexpected speed and intensity [48, 73]. We observed
32 minimal differences among cropping systems the year after BCSE establishment [48], which was
33 consistent with previous reports of minimal changes to microbial community composition
34 several years after land use change [74]. By the following year, however, microbial biomass
35 clearly differed among cropping systems [46]. DNA-based estimates of community diversity
36 responded less strongly to cropping system establishment [55, 80], possibly because DNA from
37 nonviable organisms can linger in the soil [75]. That said, we observed seasonal variability in the
38 composition of rhizosphere nitrogen-fixing bacteria (B. Zhang and J. Tiedje, unpublished data),
39 and it has been proposed that soil microbial communities can turn over on much shorter time
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50 nonviable organisms can linger in the soil [75]. That said, we observed seasonal variability in the
51 composition of rhizosphere nitrogen-fixing bacteria (B. Zhang and J. Tiedje, unpublished data),
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54 465 and it has been proposed that soil microbial communities can turn over on much shorter time
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4 466 scales than previously thought [76]. It remains to be seen whether microbial community
5 function, and thus microbially-mediated ecosystem processes, respond to biomass cropping
6 system establishment with similar alacrity.
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12 470 **3.7 Carbon cycle dynamics reflect interactions among biomass crops, microbes, and soils.**
13 471 We found a variety of factors that influenced carbon cycling processes, including cropping
14 systems, microbial communities, and soil properties. The richness of methane-oxidizing
15 microorganisms increased with the removal of conventional agricultural management and was
16 correlated to higher rates of methane consumption [77]. Richness of all bacterial taxa did not
17 respond systematically to this same gradient, however, and was uncorrelated to total soil
18 respiration [77]. Overall, microbial community composition appears to be less clearly correlated
19 to carbon cycle processes conducted by taxonomically and metabolically diverse groups [77];
20 such processes include the formation and turnover of microbial residues, which are critical
21 regulators of soil carbon accumulation [78]. Across the Extensive sites, microbial residue
22 turnover, as inferred from soil neutral sugar concentrations [79], reflected abiotic soil properties
23 rather than cropping systems or microbial community composition [49]. Despite the importance
24 of abiotic factors, cropping system rhizosphere properties could also influence this process, as
25 we found lower amino sugar concentrations in switchgrass fields than in adjacent soils [49].
26 Similarly, we observed substantial differences in microbial growth efficiency across a range of
27 land use types, although it is unclear whether these reflected changes in microbial community
28 composition [45]. Our work forms part of a broader conversation on integrating microbial
29 properties into soil carbon models [80] and has led us to develop a model that provides a
30 framework for incorporating microbial physiology. Despite this progress, linking cropping
31 system properties to microbial community composition and physiology remains a major
32 challenge to understanding and modeling soil carbon cycle processes [81, 82].
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36 492 **3.8 Exploring trade-offs and synergies in biomass cropping system multifunctionality.**
37 493 Farmer decisions about whether to plant diverse or simple biomass cropping systems will depend
38 on their understanding of the relative synergies and trade-offs associated with each system. Many
39 of the potential synergies stemming from diverse or perennial biomass cropping systems can
40 only be realized by careful choice of the crop and its placement in the landscape. In a synthesis
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4 497 of our data, we found that crop choice plays a critical role in determining biodiversity and
5 ecosystem service trade-offs [29]. Corn is very productive in our region, out-yielding current
6 cultivars of switchgrass and restored prairie by approximately 2-3-fold when both the grain and
7 stover components are considered. Comparisons of perennial grass yields to corn stover showed
8 that they are quite similar [20].
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15 503 However, perennial grasslands enhanced several ecosystem services including methane
16 consumption in the soil, plant pollination, crop pest suppression, and grassland bird sightings,
17 and also decreased pest arrival into crop fields [29]. The spatial arrangement of biomass crops in
18 the landscape is critical to levels of biocontrol and abundance of grassland birds, which has
19 important ramifications for those choosing where in the landscape biomass crops should be
20 planted. For example, in the North Central US, it is estimated that production of biomass crops
21 on marginal lands – i.e., lands where the costs of crop production are not covered by the sale of
22 commodities – could provide approximately 25% of the federal renewable fuel targets while
23 mitigating greenhouse gas emissions [83]. However, using spatially explicit modeling we
24 showed that if corn were to be planted on marginal lands at the expense of existing grasslands it
25 would lead to a 7 to 65% decline in bird species richness across 20% of the region. Conversely,
26 if restored prairie plantings were to replace existing corn on marginal soils, bird species richness
27 would increase 12 to 207% [33], and similar results were found for bee abundance and diversity
28 [27]. In a related study, the expansion of corn on to marginal soil grasslands was projected to
29 result in a 10 to 64% decline in biocontrol, while expansion of grasslands on to marginal corn
30 sites could increase biocontrol 13 to 205% on over half of the annual cropland in the region [51].
31 These findings demonstrate that biomass cropping systems based on perennial grasslands have
32 the potential to enhance habitats for both grassland birds and beneficial insects.
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39 522 We have used models to compare ecosystem service outputs from different biomass cropping
40 systems and to communicate the ecosystem service trade-offs and synergies to farmers and
41 policymakers. Meehan, Gratton [52] explored trade-offs associated with switching from annual
42 crops to perennial biomass crops in 67 small watersheds in southern Wisconsin. They found that
43 strategic replacement of annual crops by perennial grasslands in riparian zones could increase
44 energy production, carbon sequestration, pollinator abundance, and biological control, while
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4 528 simultaneously decreasing phosphorus loadings, nitrous oxide emissions, and unfortunately,
5 529 farmer income. While the social benefits of making these changes are large relative to the lost
6 530 income, environmental markets and policies are not yet in place to offset these costs to farmers.
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10 532 To help stakeholders and policymakers visualize the impact of bioenergy-driven land use and
11 533 land cover change, we developed the web-based Smartscape™ decision-support system [84] that
12 534 incorporates multiple models relating land use and land cover changes to subsequent supply of
13 535 many key ecosystem services [53]. The system allows users to create spatially explicit biomass
14 536 cropping system scenarios at local (e.g., farm fields) to regional (e.g., south central Wisconsin)
15 537 levels of spatial resolution and compare their performance against a variety of ecosystem service
16 538 metrics (**Fig 2**). Axes in the radar plot are oriented such that more desirable performance outputs
17 539 are more positive and individual scaled to the maximum of each axis.
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21 541 By visualizing the direction and magnitude of tradeoffs and synergies between multiple
22 542 ecosystem services, the merits of different cropping systems and their placement in the landscape
23 543 can be more accurately understood and evaluated. Perhaps more importantly, multiple
24 544 stakeholders can engage in this modeling process, which can build trust and “buy-in” among
25 545 constituents with disparate philosophies, attitudes, and goals [85].
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28 547 **4. Synthesis**
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31 549 **4.1 Communicating our overall findings.**

32 550 The choice of biomass crop, and the methods by which they are established and maintained, are
33 551 key drivers of biodiversity across multiple taxa and the ecosystem services they support. As our
34 552 results show, the outcomes of these management decisions are complex and yet some
35 553 stakeholders desire simple guidance. For example, the questions we most often hear are: Are
36 554 biofuels good or bad? or Which cropping system is the “best” for biofuel production? Our
37 555 research supports only one answer to these simple questions: it depends. In our region, perennial
38 556 biomass crops, particularly those based on native perennial grasses, show significant promise to
39 557 enhance multiple ecosystem services. However, corn (grain + stover) is two to three times more
40 558 productive than the relatively unimproved and unfertilized cultivars of switchgrass and restored
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4 559 prairie plantings we examined [29]. We also found benefits of mixed stands of grasses and forbs
5 in contrast to monocultures of grasses, in particular for reducing variability in yield, the
6 abundance of natural enemies, pollinators, and overall arthropod populations supporting bird
7 communities [29]. However, mixtures of grasses and forbs may also present limitations in
8 processing depending upon pretreatment, deconstruction, and conversion technologies.
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15 565 Moreover, the importance of where biomass crops will be grown on the landscape has also
16 emerged as a major theme from our research. For example, the overall amount of grasslands in
17 the landscape was shown to be an important factor influencing both pollinator and natural enemy
18 communities [27, 51], as well as bird communities [33]. Land use history will also have strong
19 effects on the establishment and species composition of mixed-species cropping systems [23,
20 569 24]. In addition strategic placement of perennial grasslands could be utilized to reduce soil
21 erosion and nutrient loss, although many of these scenarios also showed trade-offs with farmer
22 income based on current prices and support programs [52]. The ability to visually portrait these
23 573 tradeoffs via the SmartscapeTM output has been helpful in our outreach work.
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27 575 To communicate our findings in a way that captures the nuances of these key dimensions,
28 members of the GLBRC Sustainability leadership team developed a simple mnemonic device
29 576 called the “4-P’s”, which we characterize as *strategically Placed, Productive, Perennial,*
30 577 *Polycultures* [86]. Although this shorthand has some limitations, it has proved useful in
31 578 translating our complex results for diverse stakeholder audiences, including researchers from
32 579 disparate scientific disciplines within the GLBRC. With the 4-P’s we can highlight the need to
33 580 understand where and under what conditions we might expect particular plant production
34 581 (*Productive*), the value of perennial systems such as native grasslands in reducing disturbance
35 582 and maintaining soil processes and wildlife (*Perennial*), the role that species or genetic diversity
36 583 plays in our systems (*Polycultures*) and how benefits of biomass crops affect processes at the
37 584 landscape scale and how they in turn are influenced by their landscape surroundings (strategic
38 585 *Placement*). We expect that in the future we may also include additional dimensions including
39 586 considerations for how cropping systems are managed.
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4.2 Implications for implementation.

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4 590 From the outset, our work was informed by a research plan designed to compare alternative
5 biomass cropping systems and determine their biodiversity responses, while others in GLBRC
6 studied the biogeochemistry and economics of these systems. Our long-term goal is to provide
7 science-based information to decision makers to aid in the development of bioenergy policies
8 that facilitate the design of optimal biomass production systems supporting a range of ecosystem
9 services that society values. Whether biomass crops will become an integral part of our
10 agricultural landscapes remains to be seen. Despite attempts at creating a national energy policy
11 that supports renewable sources of energy, demand for cellulosic biomass has been low. There
12 are various reasons for this situation, not the least of which is that current fossil fuel prices are
13 very low because of novel sources of natural gas production. In addition, we continue to be
14 dependent on annual crops for fuel production because these crops have alternative markets, are
15 familiar to farmers, and are usually profitable under current economic policies [19, 87-89].
16 Moreover, development of infrastructure for using cellulosic feedstocks for ethanol production
17 has only recently begun in our region [90]. Another way to improve adoption perennial biomass
18 feedstocks is to tie biomass production to alternative uses beyond biofuels. For example,
19 cellulosic biomass pre-treatments can be used as sources of high protein feed for ruminant
20 animals [91]. In this way, even in the initial absence of a market for biofuels, demand for high
21 value intermediate products or co-products, such as sugars or protein, can jump start an
22 integrated food-energy system that also supports desirable environmental goals [92].
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26 610 Recognizing the ecosystem service needs and demands of a diverse stakeholder community may
27 be one way to enhance the use of perennial biomass crops in agricultural landscapes. For
28 example, the advantages of perennial grasslands have long been recognized by land managers
29 working to reduce soil erosion and eutrophication of waterbodies in agricultural landscapes [21,
30 93]. Planting of perennial grasses, strategically placed in the landscape, has the potential to
31 improve downstream water quality [21], which could offset economic losses from reduced
32 production of corn, soybeans, or other annual crops planted close to riparian areas. While
33 grassland-based biomass cropping systems alone may not be economically competitive with
34 corn, the ability to take advantage of other ecosystem services they provide makes them a
35 superior choice compared to annual crops. Finding other similar synergies between the benefits
36 of perennial grasslands (e.g., carbon sequestration, greenhouse gas reduction, year-to-year
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4 621 stability and wildlife habitat improvement), and stakeholder groups working toward their own
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6 622 goals (e.g., flood reduction, climate stabilization, hunting opportunities), can make these
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8 623 cropping systems more compelling.
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12 625 In addition to obvious technical, logistical and economic challenges with implementing and
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14 626 integrating biofuel cropping systems into our existing agricultural landscapes, there are
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16 627 remaining gaps in our ecological knowledge that also need to be addressed [4]. For example, it
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18 628 is unclear what the environmental consequences of increasing intensification of biomass crop
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20 629 production as demand higher productivity becomes paramount (e.g., fertilizer use, annual
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22 630 harvests) [94]. Also, until now dedicated biomass crops have largely been restricted to small
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24 631 areas, in localized parts of the US. Widespread adoption could transform areas that had
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26 632 previously had small amounts of perennial land to a larger fraction, with consequences for
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28 633 biodiversity-related responses that are area dependent (e.g. [33, 95]). How these effects actually
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30 634 scale-up will be valuable tests of landscape models at realistic scales [27, 51, 52]. As biofuel
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32 635 crops are adopted and managed for production at widespread scales, the long-term consequences
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34 636 of dedicated biofuel production systems will become clearer. Until then, we must extrapolate
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36 637 from relatively small-scale work, modeling and general principles to build an understanding of
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38 638 the ecosystem service tradeoffs of different biofuel cropping systems.
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42 640 **5. Conclusions**
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Funding by the US DOE has allowed the GLBRC Biodiversity Team to examine the implications of planting cellulosic biomass crops on biodiversity and ecosystem services in the North Central US. By combining results from research conducted at different spatial scales and studying multiple taxa, we have developed an understanding of how selection of biomass crops and their management can affect ecosystem services in future agricultural landscapes. Our work shows that there is potential for selected biomass crops – especially those that mimic the species diversity and composition of native grasslands – to provide multiple ecosystem services. While there are synergies among some services and biomass production, there are also trade-offs that need to be communicated to stakeholders and policymakers [53]. Our work has also shown that management practices, particularly establishment techniques, fertilization and harvesting regimes

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4 652 can alter biodiversity the biodiversity in a biomass crop and consequently the ecosystem services
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6 653 that can be provided. Management practices that limit soil disturbance and fertilization and
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8 654 promote plant diversity are likely to result in more and sustained ecosystem services.
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10 655 Additionally, the landscape surrounding individual fields is an important determinant of the
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12 656 types of ecosystem services that are provided from biomass crops. Marginal lands, where soil
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14 657 fertility or other factors limit crop production may offer opportunities to support renewable fuel
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16 658 goals, without reducing food production [83]. Our research suggests that for the North Central
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18 659 US, bioenergy cropping systems based on – strategically-Placed, Productive, Perennial,
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20 660 Polycultures – are the most likely to ensure delivery of a balanced set of ecosystem services and
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22 661 should be incentivized.
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27
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36 668 Remaining authors (in alphabetical order) contributed to writing and editing the manuscript.
37
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46 673 AgBioResearch.
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4 936 **Figure captions**
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8 938 **Figure 1.** Locations of GLBRC Biofuel Cropping System Experiments (BCSE's), Scale-up
9 fields, and a subset of the Extensive site network.
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14 941 **Figure 2.** Examples of SmartscapeTM (dss.wei.wisc.edu) output.
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Table 1. GLBRC studies covered in this review categorized by taxonomic focus, ecosystem function/process measured or modeled, and the related ecosystem service.

Ecosystem service	Taxonomic focus	Ecosystem function/process	Reference(s)
Nutrient cycling (supporting)	Microbes	Nitrogen fixation	[48, 49]
Biomass (provisioning)	Plants	Above ground productivity	[20, 23, 24, 54]
	Plants	Herbivory/Disease	[25, 32, 66, 94]
	Plants	Regional productivity	[83]
Pest suppression (regulating)	Arthropods	Predation	[15, 25, 28, 30, 32, 51, 52, 64, 65]
Pollination (regulating)	Arthropods	Pollination	[25-28]
Climate stabilization (regulating)	Microbes	Methane consumption	[40]
	Microbes	CO ₂ production and consumption	[40, 41, 96]
	Plants/ Microbes	Nitrous oxide emission	[47, 54, 73]
	Plants/ Microbes	Soil organic matter accumulation	[45, 49]
Biodiversity appreciation (cultural)	Birds	Habitat occupancy, community composition	[31, 33, 35-38, 67]
Multiple services	Multiple	Multiple	[18, 29, 52, 53, 63, 87-89, 97]

Table 2. Cropping systems established at the Great Lakes Bioenergy Research Center's Bioenergy Cropping System Experiment (BCSE) at Arlington, Wisconsin and Hickory Corners, Michigan¹.

System #	Rotation	Crop	Common and Scientific Names
1	Continuous	corn	corn (<i>Zea mays</i> L.)
2	Annual	corn ²	corn
3	rotation	soybean	soybean (<i>Glycine max</i> [L.] Merr.)
4	of:	canola	canola (<i>Brassica napus</i> L.)
5	Continuous	switchgrass	switchgrass (<i>Panicum virgatum</i> L.)
6	Continuous	miscanthus	<i>Miscanthus x giganteus</i>
7	Continuous	native grass mix	big bluestem (<i>Andropogon gerardii</i> Vitman) Canada wild rye (<i>Elymus Canadensis</i> L.) indiangrass (<i>Sorghastrum nutans</i> [L.] Nash) little bluestem (<i>Schizachyrium scoparium</i> [Michx.] Nash) switchgrass, "Southlow"
8	Continuous	poplar	NM-6 hybrid poplar (<i>Populus nigra</i> x <i>Populus maximowiczii</i>)
9	Continuous	old field	plant community defined by pre-existing seed bank and novel recruitment
10	Continuous	restored prairie	grasses big bluestem Canada wild rye indiangrass junegrass (<i>Koeleria cristata</i> [Ledeb.] Schult.) little bluestem switchgrass, "Southlow"
			leguminous forbs roundhead bushclover (<i>Lespedeza capitata</i> Michx.) showy tick-trefoil (<i>Desmodium canadense</i> (L.) DC.) white wild indigo (<i>Baptisia leucantha</i> Torr. & Gray)
			non-leguminous forbs black-eyed susan (<i>Rudbeckia hirta</i> L.) butterfly weed (<i>Asclepias tuberosa</i> L.) cup plant (<i>Silphium perfoliatum</i> L.) meadow anemone (<i>Anemone canadensis</i> L.) New England aster (<i>Sympyotrichum novae-angliae</i> [L.] G.L. Nesom) pinnate prairie coneflower (<i>Ratibida pinnata</i> [Vent.] Barnhart) showy goldenrod (<i>Solidago speciosa</i> Nutt.) stiff goldenrod (<i>Solidago rigida</i> L.) wild bergamot (<i>Monarda fistulosa</i> L.)

¹For full details see [20] Table S1, and GLBRC BCSE agronomic protocol
<http://lter.kbs.msu.edu/protocols/122>

²System numbers refer to the entry point crop at the start of the rotation. In 2012, the corn-soybean-canola system was replaced by a continuous corn + cover crop system and a corn-soybean + cover crop system with two entry points.

Figure 1

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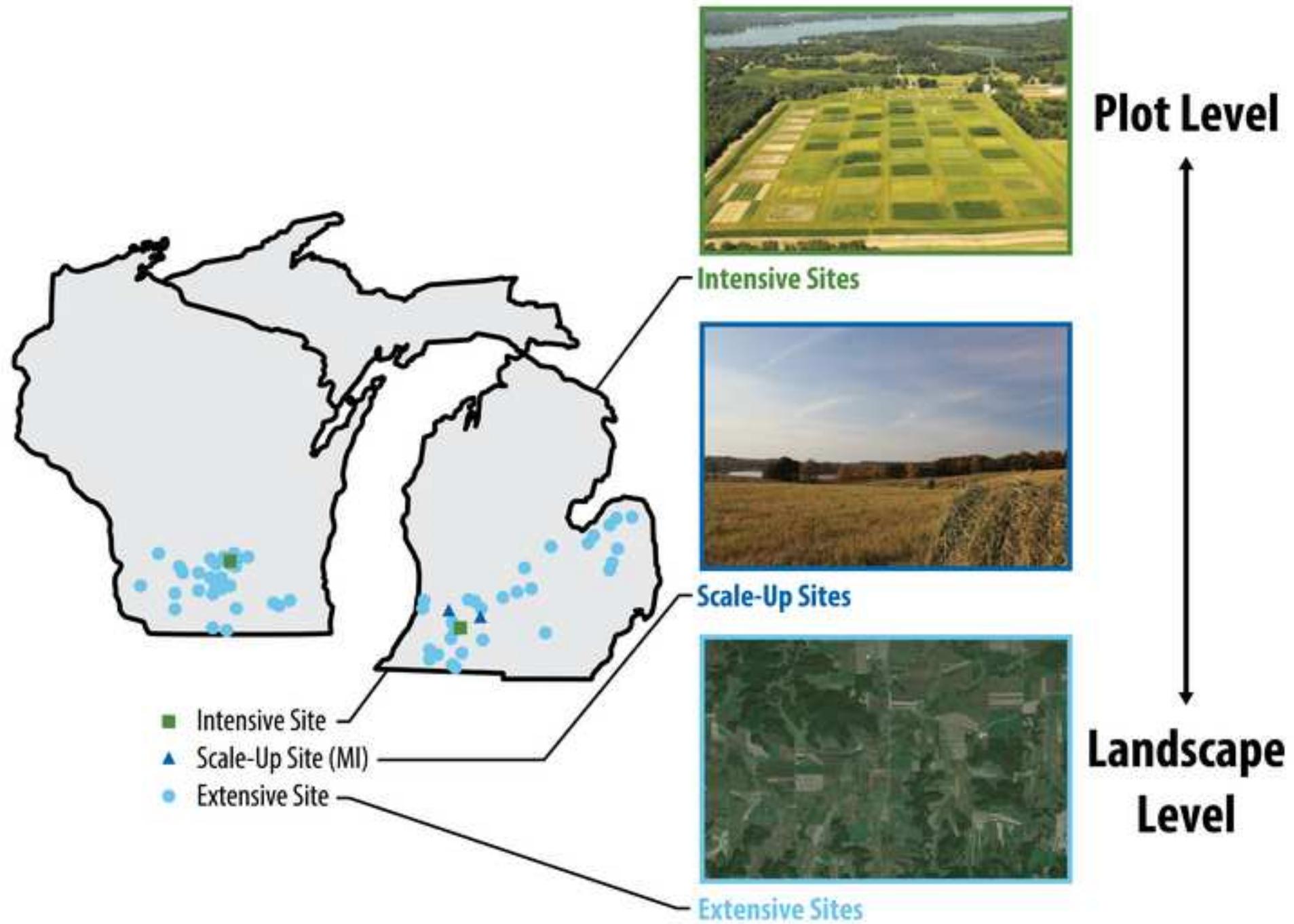


Figure 2

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