1 Transferring biodiversity-ecosystem function research to the

2 management of 'real-world' ecosystems

3	Running title:	Transferring BEF research
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- 52 Abstract
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54 Biodiversity-ecosystem functioning (BEF) research grew rapidly following concerns that biodiversity 55 loss would negatively affect ecosystem functions and the ecosystem services they underpin. However, 56 despite evidence that biodiversity strongly affects ecosystem functioning, the influence of BEF 57 research upon policy and the management of 'real-world' ecosystems, i.e. semi-natural habitats and 58 agroecosystems, has been limited. Here, we address this issue by classifying BEF research into three 59 clusters based on the degree of human control over species composition and the spatial scale, in terms 60 of grain, of the study, and discussing how the research of each cluster is best suited to inform 61 particular fields of ecosystem management. Research in the first cluster, small-grain highly controlled 62 studies, is best able to provide general insights into mechanisms and to inform the management of 63 species-poor and highly managed systems such as croplands, plantations, and the restoration of 64 heavily degraded ecosystems. Research from the second cluster, small-grain observational studies, and 65 species removal and addition studies, may allow for direct predictions of the impacts of species loss in 66 specific semi-natural ecosystems. Research in the third cluster, large-grain uncontrolled studies, may 67 best inform landscape-scale management and national-scale policy. We discuss barriers to transfer 68 within each cluster and suggest how new research and knowledge exchange mechanisms may 69 overcome these challenges. To meet the potential for BEF research to address global challenges, we 70 recommend transdisciplinary research that goes beyond these current clusters and considers the social-71 ecological context of the ecosystems in which BEF knowledge is generated. This requires recognizing 72 the social and economic value of biodiversity for ecosystem services at scales, and in units, that matter 73 to land managers and policy makers.

74 Key words

75 BEF research; Biodiversity experiments, Ecosystem services; Grasslands; Ecosystem management,
76 Knowledge transfer

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78 Introduction

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80 Widespread concerns over the consequences of global biodiversity loss led to an explosion of 81 ecological research in the early 1990s into the relationship between biodiversity and the functioning of 82 ecosystems (hereafter BEF research) (Schulze and Mooney, 1994; Loreau et al., 2001; Hooper et al., 83 2005; Eisenhauer et al., 2019 this issue; Hines et al. 2019 this issue). Historically, most work in this 84 field has been conducted in experimental settings, especially in grasslands, where extinction is 85 simulated by randomly assembling plant communities differing in species and functional richness and 86 where other environmental drivers of ecosystem function are controlled for (Hector et al., 1999; 87 Tilman et al. 2001; Weisser et al. 2017). While this work has led to several robust conclusions 88 regarding the form of biodiversity-function relationships and the mechanisms that drive them 89 (Cardinale et al. 2012), there remain doubts regarding the capacity for experimental BEF research to 90 inform the management of biodiversity and ecosystem functions and services in the 'real world' (i.e. 91 ecosystems with communities that have not been experimentally manipulated) (Huston 1997; Lepš 92 2004, Srivistava & Vellend 2005; Wardle, 2016; Eisenhauer et al., 2016). Much of this debate 93 concerns the design of biodiversity experiments, which were established to investigate if biodiversity 94 could affect function, and via what mechanisms (Tilman et al., 1996; Loreau and Hector, 2001; 95 Schmid et al. 2002).

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A more recent generation of BEF research has been conducted in non-experimental and naturally
assembled real-world ecosystems such as natural and semi-natural (hereafter semi-natural) drylands,
grasslands and forests (e.g., Maestre et al., 2012; Grace et al., 2016; Van Der Plas et al., 2016; Duffy
et al., 2017; Fanin et al., 2018; Hautier et al.; 2018, van der Plas 2019). As they are performed in

101 naturally assembled communities, shaped by both environmental drivers and global change factors, 102 these studies are correlational and tend to rely upon statistical controls, thus limiting confident 103 inference about the functional consequences of biodiversity loss in these systems. Removal 104 experiments can help overcome this issue but, to date, relatively few have been conducted (Díaz et al 105 2003; Fry et al. 2013; Fanin et al. 2018). While a lack of confident inference may limit transfer, many 106 other knowledge gaps also limit the transferability of BEF research. For example, there is little 107 consensus regarding on how strongly biodiversity loss affects ecosystem functioning, relative to other 108 drivers (Strivistava & Vellend 2005; Hooper et al 2012; Duffy et al 2017; van der Plas 2019). 109 Moreover, the functional consequences of the non-random extinction which occurs in semi-natural 110 ecosystems have largely been estimated from correlational studies (Larsen et al. 2005; Duffy et al 111 2017; van der Plas et al 2019a, but see Lyons & Schwarz 2001 and Zavaleta and Hulvey 2004). 112 Further challenges in the knowledge transfer and application of BEF research emerge from a lack of 113 information regarding the social and economic barriers to conserving biodiversity and promoting 114 diversification (Fazey et al. 2013; Rosa et al. 2019). Filling these knowledge gaps would help in 115 providing reliable evidence to inform the management of the world's ecosystems, e.g. via the 116 Intergovernmental Science-Policy Panel on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) (Díaz et al., 117 2015; Díaz et al., 2018).

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119 In this article, we review the current understanding of the BEF relationship and discuss how BEF 120 research could inform the management of real-world ecosystems. We do this by assessing the 121 suitability of current knowledge for transfer and how this is reflected in current applied research. We 122 then identify barriers to transfer and expand on how these barriers can be overcome via future research 123 and changes to knowledge exchange mechanisms. Throughout, we emphasize the transition of BEF 124 research from a fundamental science to applied research that can inform management. By doing so we 125 assume that the promotion of certain ecosystem services is desired (e.g. carbon storage or crop 126 production).

128 To aid understanding of the potential transfer of BEF research, we classify it into three clusters based 129 upon a) the degree of human control over the plant community, which in experiments manifests 130 through removal of non-target species, and in real world ecosystems through management inputs, and 131 b) the size of the study plots or area, i.e. grain (Fig. 1a). While these two axes represent continuous 132 gradients, and some studies are difficult to classify, research within each cluster shares several features 133 (described below), making a general critique possible. Furthermore, each of these clusters shares 134 features with a subset of real-world ecosystems (e.g. similar levels of human control over plant 135 community and the grain of management (Fig. 1b). Based on these similarities, we suggest 136 possibilities and challenges for knowledge transfer and applications. We then identify future research 137 needs (summarized in Table 1). Throughout our discussion, we focus on terrestrial ecosystems, 138 particularly the role of plant diversity in grasslands and that of insects in agricultural landscapes. This 139 focus is a result of our own expertise and the historical focus of much BEF research on these systems 140 (Hines et al. 2019 this issue).

141 >Figure 1 here

142 Small-grain and highly-controlled experiments (Cluster A)

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144 Since the mid 90's, more than 600 experiments have been established to explore the causal 145 relationship between biodiversity and ecosystem functioning (Cardinale et al. 2012), typically under 146 field conditions (e.g. Tilman 1996; Hector et al., 1999; Roscher et al., 2004). The primary goal of 147 these experiments was to establish whether biodiversity could affect ecosystem functioning, and so 148 they controlled for potentially confounding effects of environmental conditions, functional 149 composition, individual density, and non-random assembly and disassembly processes (Schmid et al. 150 2002, Schmid and Hector 2004, Eisenhauer et al. 2019, this issue). To achieve this, BEF experiments 151 apply a diversity treatment, where varying levels of plants species richness are sown or planted, and 152 ecosystem functioning is measured (Schmid et al. 2002: Bruehlheide et al. 2014). As such studies are highly controlled (e.g. via randomized blocking, weeding and the homogenization of growing 153

- 154 conditions), diversity effects may be ascribed with confidence and detailed inferences can be made
- regarding the identity of the mechanisms driving biodiversity effects (Loreau and Hector 2001).
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157 While these experiments act as model systems for BEF research, with generally applicable results to a 158 wide range of systems (Schmid & Hector 2004; Eisenhauer et al., 2016), the direct application of these 159 insights in the management of real-world ecosystems could be limited for several reasons. First, the 160 sown or planted community (and its species richness) is maintained through the repeated removal of 161 non-target species, which typically does not occur in real-world systems. As a result, communities 162 may be present that would not persist without human intervention. Second, the species richness 163 gradient tends to span levels of diversity (typically 1- <20 plant species) that are much lower than 164 many semi-natural communities (Wilson et al. 2012). Third, the studies tend to be conducted in 165 replicated plots smaller than 500 m² (Tilman 1996; Hector et al., 1999; Roscher et al., 2004), with a 166 median size of 3 m^2 (Cardinale et al. 2012). As such studies are labor-intensive, they also tend to be 167 unreplicated at the landscape scale (but see Hector et al 1999; Kirwan et al. 2007). However, the large 168 number of experiments with comparable designs allows meta-level, large extent analyses to be 169 conducted (Balvanera et al 2006; Isbell et al. 2015; Lefcheck et al., 2015; Verheyen et al 2016; Craven 170 et al. 2018).

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172 What can be transferred

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174 BEF experiments were designed to provide general mechanistic insights into the BEF relationship. 175 Nevertheless, the close control of plant community composition and their low species diversity means 176 that findings from BEF experiments are potentially transferable to highly managed ecosystems, e.g. 177 intensive agricultural grasslands, plantation forestry, gardens, sown communities found in urban green 178 spaces or ecosystems restored from a heavily degraded state (Fig. 1b). Such systems tend to be 179 managed intensively and at small scales, e.g. via the application of selective herbicides, weeding and 180 fertilization. As these systems typically contain fewer species than most semi-natural ecosystems, we 181 predict that BEF research is best able to inform work related to diversification, rather than the impacts of species loss. BEF experiment results suggest that diversification of such systems would lead to considerable gains in the supply of some ecosystem services, as numerous functions related to agricultural production and sustainability often increase with species diversity, including plant productivity, pollination, soil carbon storage and weed suppression (Isbell et al., 2017). Moreover, species-rich communities produce a more stable and constant yield (Isbell et al. 2015; Craven et al. 2018), which may reduce risks to farmers (Finger & Buchmann 2015).

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189 Experimental results indicate that the benefits of diversification are greater when increasing diversity 190 from low to intermediate levels (e.g. from 1 to 8 grassland species per m^2) than from medium to high 191 (e.g. from 8 to 16), as the diversity-function relationship tends to saturate (Isbell et al. 2017). As 192 species are typically grown in monocultures and in a wide range of low-diversity mixtures, data from 193 these experiments can help to identify high performing species, but also high performing mixtures, for 194 a range of ecosystem functions. Agronomists have conducted significant research on crop 195 diversification for many years (Vandermeer 1992; Brooker et al. 2015), and demonstrated that crop 196 diversification can lead to various positive outcomes, such as increased primary crop yield and 197 biocontrol (Iverson et al 2014). Moreover, intercropping can improve yield stability (Raseduzzaman & 198 Jensen 2017), and more diverse mixtures of cover crops, especially those containing legumes, lead to 199 multiple additional benefits (Storkey et al. 2015; Blesh, 2018), thus increasing their multifunctionality 200 (defined here as ecosystem service multifunctionality, the co-supply of multiple ecosystem services 201 relative to their human demand, Manning et al 2018). Similarly, crop mixtures of multiple cultivars 202 provide higher yields (Reiss and Drinkwater, 2018), and the mixing of rice varieties within a field 203 reduces disease prevalence (Zhu et al., 2000). The frameworks and fundamental insights of BEF 204 research may inform such research by identifying general rules governing complementary 205 combinations of species and varieties (Brooker et al. 2015; Wright et al. 2017).

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An additional benefit of BEF experiments is that they often provide information on a wider range of ecosystem services than many agricultural experiments and agronomic analyses, which tend to focus on yield and its sustainability, e.g. weed control and nutrient cycling (Meyer et al. 2018). Mixtures that 210 promote the supply of multiple ecosystem services simultaneously may therefore be identified from 211 BEF studies (Storkey et al. 2015; Baeten et al. 2019). Further evidence of existing BEF transfer comes 212 from grassland studies, which indicate that there are multiple benefits of diversifying agroecosystems 213 in terms of grass yield and reduced weed abundance (Finn et al., 2013). Studies have also shown that 214 diverse grassland mixtures produce greater bioenergy yields (Khalsa et al. 2004; Tilman et al 2006). 215 However, another study of bioenergy production in grass mixtures showed that diverse mixtures were 216 not more productive than currently used monocultures, thus showing that diversification might not 217 always promote bioenergy production (Dickson and Gross, 2015). Even in the absence of positive 218 impacts of diversity on productivity, other benefits may be realized; diverse bioenergy landscapes can 219 promote the supply of other ecosystem services including greenhouse gas mitigation, pest suppression, 220 pollination, and bird watching potential (Werling et al 2014).

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222 A number of other avenues of experimental BEF research have the capacity to inform the management 223 of intensive systems. BEF experiments show that damage to plant growth and productivity from plant 224 pathogens and pests is often weaker in more diverse communities, both aboveground (Otway et al., 225 2005; Civitello et al., 2015) and belowground (Maron et al., 2011; Schnitzer et al., 2011). 226 Accordingly, information from BEF experiments on plant-soil feedbacks (e.g. Vogel et al. 2019a this 227 issue) could potentially help to devise effective crop rotation sequences, e.g. by identifying consistent 228 antagonistic or synergistic feedbacks between functional groups when grown together or in sequence 229 (Barel et al. 2018; Ingerslew 2018). The insights of BEF experiments are also applicable to the 230 gardens and green roof planting (Lundholm et al. 2010) and the restoration of highly degraded 231 ecosystems. Here it may be possible to determine species mixtures or particular functional trait 232 combinations, which, when sown or planted, deliver desired functions, such as soil aggregate stability 233 and soil organic matter accumulation (Lange et al. 2015; Gould et al. 2016; Kollmann et al. 2016; 234 Yang et al. 2019). In restoration, another promising approach would be to identify and sow mixtures 235 of species that facilitate each other as this is a key mechanism underlying biodiversity effects in harsh 236 environments (Wright et al., 2017). Finally, evidence from forests suggests that similar or higher 237 amounts of timber production can be achieved in mixed plantations of native species compared to monocultures of plantation species, and that co-benefits, e.g. to biodiversity conservation, would also
be realized (Pretzsch & Schütze 2009; Hulvey et al. 2013; Gamfeldt et al. 2013; Huang et al. 2018).
As with crops, the results of BEF studies can also be used to indicate the tree species mixtures that
best achieve this multifunctionality (Teuscher et al. 2016; Baeten et al. 2019).

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243 Barriers to transfer and directions for future research

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245 While the plant communities of BEF experiments and human-dominated ecosystems share 246 similarities, there are also marked differences. For instance, the species composition in BEF 247 experiments is randomly assembled and they are usually performed in unfertilized, pesticide-free, 248 unirrigated systems. In contrast, in intensively managed real-world systems, prior knowledge has led 249 managers to select high performing, but often low diversity, mixtures by sowing and planting species 250 that deliver high levels of desired services, and/or encouraging these via pesticide application, 251 irrigation and fertilization. The benefits of diversification therefore need to be demonstrated relative to 252 these intensive low diversity communities, rather than the random low diversity assemblages found in 253 BEF experiments. For example, in European grasslands farmers typically sow or maintain mixtures of 254 a single grass, Lolium perenne, and a single legume, Trifolium repens, to which fertilizers are also 255 applied (Peeters et al. 2014). Such a mixture clearly differs from the random species-poor mixtures of 256 grassland biodiversity experiments. It is unclear if the relatively diverse and high-functioning 257 communities of biodiversity experiments are generally able to deliver yield of a similar or higher 258 quality, quantity and reliability. However, it has been demonstrated that diversification from 1-2 to 3-4 259 species provides significant increases in grassland yield and higher resistance to weed invasion 260 (Kirwan et al. 2007; Nyfeler et al. 2009; Finn et al 2013). We hypothesize that the species-poor 261 communities found in intensively managed systems are more likely to resemble the high performing 262 species-poor communities of BEF experiments (e.g. those dominated by tall grasses of fertile 263 conditions) than the low performing communities, which may struggle to persist without regular 264 weeding and close control (e.g. those containing only a few small herbs). In contrast, the low diversity 265 situations found in experiments, where potentially dominant species are missing, could be relevant to

266 isolated habitat patches, where species cannot disperse to potentially suitable conditions and the 267 species pool is restricted.

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269 As described above, current research suggests that links between BEF and agronomic research are 270 beginning to emerge. However, current studies do not cover the wide range of situations in which 271 diversification could be beneficial to agroecosystems. To the best of our knowledge, little work has yet 272 made the transition to widespread adoption, an exception being the standard mixtures for forage 273 production in Switzerland (see Fig. 2 for details), This lack of adoption highlights knowledge 274 exchange as an important bottleneck and another future need. To enable this, future BEF experiments 275 could increase their relevance for management by drawing experimental communities from species 276 pools that contain potentially useful and manageable species, and performing experiments in settings 277 that are similar to those found in land use systems (e.g. fertilized or grazed grasslands). In this way, 278 communities that are manageable and multifunctional may also be identified, and specific mixtures 279 can be recommended (e.g. current policy in Switzerland). These should be cost-efficient and self-280 supporting and thus easily adapted and maintained by land managers.

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282 Results on the relationship between biodiversity and the stability of ecosystem functions and services 283 also require re-interpretation if they are to inform ecosystem management. While definitions of 284 stability very greatly (Wissel & Grimm 1997), BEF studies typically measure stability as the 285 coefficient of variation (e.g. Craven et al. 2018; Knapp and van der Heijden 2018), the resistance to 286 perturbations, or the rate of recovery following these (Isbell et al. 2015). In contrast, ecosystem 287 managers often perceive stability differently (Dongahue et al., 2016); while reliability is appreciated, 288 and there are minimum levels of ecosystem service supply that are acceptable and over-performance 289 (e.g. high productivity in favorable weather years, Wright et al. 2015) is often appreciated. Therefore, 290 alternative measures of stability, e.g. that measure the number of years in which the supply of services 291 exceed an acceptable threshold (Oliver et al., 2015), need to be employed if diversity-stability 292 relationships are to be determined meaningfully for agroecosystems.

294 Finally, the transfer of BEF research findings to the real world may be limited by the uncertainties 295 related to the profitability and management associated with diversifying species-poor communities and 296 maintaining high species richness. For example, in many agricultural grasslands, plant species loss and 297 dominance by a few nitrophilous species has occurred due to fertilization (Gaujour et al. 2012; 298 Gossner et al., 2016). Reducing nutrient availability and reversing these biodiversity declines can be 299 difficult (Smith et al., 2008; Clark and Tilman, 2010; Storkey et al., 2015). Moreover, species-rich 300 seed mixtures may prove expensive to create, and it remains to be seen if diverse and high functioning 301 grasslands can be created and maintained cost-effectively over large areas. In croplands, multispecies 302 mixtures might pose challenges to harvesting and sorting, as most modern agricultural machinery 303 specializes in managing and cropping monocultures, and the harvesting of mixtures is relatively costly 304 and labor-intensive (Magrini et al., 2011). We therefore need to know if, and under which conditions, 305 encouraging diversity in agricultural systems is efficient and feasible, especially compared to 306 management practices that deliver similar benefits (e.g. the promotion of productivity via 307 diversification versus fertilization) (Kleijn et al. 2019). A key part of this may be to acknowledge 308 additional benefits of diversity (e.g. pest control, pollination or higher yield stability) and to factor this 309 multifunctionality into comparisons. To better inform the management of agroecosystems and 310 potentially lead to their diversification, a new generation of more applied and social-ecological BEF 311 research is required (Geertsema et al., 2016). In this new work, comparisons should be made between 312 the 'high performing low-diversity systems' that are the current norm and multifunctional 'sustainable 313 high-diversity systems' that can be established and maintained at an equivalent cost to current 314 systems, or which provide additional benefits that justify greater cost (e.g. carbon storage or avoided 315 emissions) (Binder et al., 2018). Alternatively, evidence that high diversity systems can be intensified 316 without negative environmental impacts, e.g. as demonstrated for biofuel grasslands (Yang et al. 317 2018). Clearly, such approaches require transdisciplinary research involving economic and/or multiple 318 stakeholder-based assessments of the value of the diverse systems relative to current and future 319 systems and practices (Jackson et al. 2012; Geertsema et al., 2016; Bretagnolle et al. 2018; Kleijn et 320 al. 2019) (Table 1).

323 The second cluster contains small-grain observational studies that investigate natural- or human-324 induced gradients of plant diversity in less intensively managed systems (e.g. Kahmen et al. 2005a; 325 Maestre et al., 2012; Soliveres et al., 2016a; van der Plas et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2016) (Fig. 1). In this 326 cluster, we also consider experiments in which particular species or functional groups are removed 327 from intact ecosystems, often according to simulated global change scenarios (Smith & Knapp 2003; 328 Cross & Harte, 2007; Suding et al., 2008, Fry et al. 2013; Pan et al. 2016; Fanin et al. 2018), and those 329 which boost diversity in established communities or disturbed sites, e.g. via seeding (van der Putten et 330 al. 2000; Bullock et al 2007; Stein et al. 2008; Weidlich et al. 2018). Finally, we also consider global 331 change driver experiments, where biodiversity change is treated as a co-variate and used to explain 332 observed changes in function (e.g. Grace et al., 2016; Hautier et al., 2018). Plot sizes are similar to 333 those in cluster A (i.e. $<500m^2$) and diversity levels vary greatly, from inherently species-poor 334 ecosystems (e.g. Suding et al., 2008) to species-rich communities (Allan et al., 2015). Therefore, in 335 contrast to most of the experiments of cluster A, studies from cluster B tend to contain more mature 336 communities with higher species richness, fewer monocultures, less or no weeding, and species 337 compositions and management regimes that are more similar to real-world low management intensity 338 systems. In most of these studies, and in contrast to most BEF experiments that manipulate random 339 community assembly, diversity loss occurs as non-random disassembly in response to environmental 340 drivers. Observational studies of cluster B often statistically control for co-varying factors that may 341 also drive ecosystem functions. These may include biotic covariates, such as functional composition 342 and the abundance of different functional groups (Maestre et al., 2012; Allan et al., 2015; Soliveres et 343 al., 2016a; Soliveres et al., 2016b; Van Der Plas et al., 2016), which strongly co-vary with diversity in 344 many communities (Allan et al., 2015; Barnes et al. 2016; Soliveres et al., 2016).

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The design of studies in this cluster limits interpretation about the cause of biodiversity effects as data for monoculture performances are usually unavailable, meaning that the mechanisms underlying biodiversity effects cannot be estimated (Loreau and Hector 2001). This is unfortunate as these processes may differ in their strength compared to biodiversity experiments. For example, in mature communities, species may show higher levels of niche differentiation at both between and within species levels (Zuppinger-Dingley et al., 2014; Guimarães-Steinicke et al. 2019, this issue). A final property differentiating cluster B studies from those of cluster A is that variation in the diversity of other trophic levels is a complex product of responses to environmental drivers and concurrent changes in all trophic levels (Tscharntke et al., 2005; Soliveres et al. 2016a,b), rather than primarily driven by variation in the diversity of primary producers (Scherber et al. 2010).

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357 What can be transferred

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359 Because they are conducted in unmanipulated real-world ecosystems, cluster B results are directly 360 transferable to semi-natural ecosystems, which experience species loss and compositional change due 361 to global environmental change. Cluster B studies provide direct estimates of the real-world impacts of 362 global change drivers on diversity, and the corresponding impact of these changes on ecosystem 363 function. However, most cluster B studies are observational, so patterns remain correlational, despite 364 statistical controls. Nevertheless, due to their greater realism, syntheses of cluster B results (van der 365 Plas 2019a), can provide statistical estimates of where different components of biodiversity play their 366 greatest role, and estimates may be used as an evidence base for both local managers and in global 367 assessments.

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The experimental studies of cluster B can provide information on how diversification can boost ecosystem functioning in restored or enriched communities. For example, several studies show that sowing into intact communities can increase both species richness and ecosystem functioning, including community productivity and carbon storage (Bullock et al 2007; Stein et al. 2008; Weidlich et al. 2018).

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375 Barriers to transfer and directions for future research

377 For research in cluster B to become more directly transferable to the management of semi-natural 378 ecosystems, greater confidence in the mechanisms underlying real-world BEF relationships is needed. 379 While management recommendations may be drawn from selected case studies such as those 380 presented above, a general understanding of the relative and interacting roles of environmental 381 covariates, direct effects of global change drivers and various facets of diversity and compositional 382 change is lacking (van der Plas 2019a). Biodiversity could play an important role in maintaining 383 ecosystem function in real world ecosystems. Yet, whether loss of a few species at this scale makes a 384 strong contribution to function, relative to these other drivers, has been only been tested in a limited 385 number of cases (e.g. Manning et al. 2006; Allan et al. 2015; Winfree et al. 2015; Grace et al., 2016), 386 and inconsistently, making generalization difficult (van der Plas 2019a). To address this issue, 387 observational studies need to ensure that factors such as abundance and functional composition are 388 properly controlled for statistically. Predictions of the impacts of drivers on ecosystem services can be 389 made by combining a) estimates of expected biodiversity change according to different global change 390 drivers across a range of conditions (e.g. Grace et al., 2016; Hautier et al., 2018; Bjorkman et al. 391 2018), b) knowledge of how great a difference to functions and services such changes will make (e.g. 392 Craven et al. 2018), and c) ecosystem service production functions (Isbell et al. 2015). This in turn 393 allows for estimates of where ecosystem service-based arguments for conservation are strongest. Such 394 predictions, if verified, could then form a sound basis for management decisions.

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396 Transfer would also be enabled by a new generation of experiments. These could include a wider 397 range of non-random extinction scenarios, assessments of the relative importance of abiotic drivers of 398 function and biodiversity (e.g. Manning et al., 2006; Isbell et al., 2013), and the reduction of diversity 399 from high to intermediate levels (Zobel et al. 1994), in order to verify, or refute the results of 400 observational studies. To do this, manipulations such as the manipulation of dominance and functional 401 composition, trait dissimilarity, or other aspects of biodiversity could be employed (Smith and Knapp, 402 2003; Manning et al., 2006; Cross and Harte, 2007). Manipulations that simulate the homogenization 403 of biota (i.e. the loss of beta diversity, while alpha diversity remains unchanged), may also prove 404 informative, as this may be as, or more, common than alpha diversity loss in real-world ecosystems

405 (Flohre et al., 2011; Vellend et al., 2014; Dornelas et al., 2014; Gossner et al., 2016; Wardle 2016).
406 Finally, it may be possible to link community assembly mechanisms (e.g. founder effects and habitat
407 filtering) and functional BEF research to identify how to increase species richness and promote certain
408 ecosystem functions, information that would be particularly useful in ecosystem restoration (Bullock
409 et al. 2007; Stein et al. 2008; Kirmer et al. 2012; Weidlich et al. 2018) (Table 1).

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411 Work is also needed in converting the measures of ecosystem function commonly taken in ecological 412 studies into measures of ecosystem services that are of relevance to stakeholders (Mace et al. 2012; 413 Kleijn et al. 2019). This requires the development of new metrics, e.g. trait measures that link to 414 nutritional quality or cultural services such as aesthetic appeal. Applied studies could explicitly 415 measure relevant ecosystem services, e.g. by involving stakeholders, assessing which services are 416 most important to them, and adapting function measures to quantify these (Martín-López et al. 2012; 417 King et al. 2015; Manning et al. 2018). This approach, and many of the others outlined above requires 418 inter- and transdisciplinary research involving stakeholders and researchers from other disciplines e.g. 419 with farmers, local governments, agronomists and economists.

420 Large-grain studies without experimental control (Cluster C)

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422 The third cluster (C) contains BEF studies that cover large areas (from 100 m^2 to landscapes) (e.g. 423 Larsen et al. 2005; Garibaldi et al. 2013; Winfree et al., 2018). Due to the huge efforts required to 424 manipulate diversity at a large spatial and temporal grain (Teuscher et al., 2016), such studies tend to 425 be observational, comparative, and of low replication, although the large number of such studies has 426 allowed for meta-level analyses to be conducted (Lichtenberg et al. 2017). The focal study organisms 427 also tend to be invertebrates, particularly pollinators, instead of plants. The measurement of 428 biodiversity (e.g. species richness and functional diversity) is also often limited in these studies due to 429 the effort required to measure it directly over large areas. As a result, it is often landscape variables, 430 such as landscape configuration and the proportion of different land uses that are related to function, 431 rather than diversity (e.g. Bosem Baillod et al 2017; Hass et al., 2018). These landscape properties

may influence the dispersal, abundance and diversity of organisms within the landscape, and may also
correlate with management factors and abiotic drivers of ecosystem function (Gámez-Virués et al.,
2015; Dominik et al., 2018; Lindborg et al., 2017). As a result of these covariances, the role of
biodiversity in driving ecosystem functioning cannot always be confidently ascribed (Tscharntke et al
2016).

437

438 Within this cluster, we also place remote sensing studies (e.g. Oehri et al., 2017) and national and 439 regional correlational studies (e.g. Anderson et al., 2009). In these, biodiversity can only be measured 440 using proxies or with presence/absence data within large grid cells (e.g. 10 x 10 km), e.g. from 441 national monitoring schemes. These coarse biodiversity measures are then correlated with ecosystem 442 service proxy measures such as carbon storage and recreational use. These studies often lack a strong 443 mechanistic basis, and focus instead on how biodiversity co-varies with ecosystem services (e.g. 444 Anderson et al., 2009; Maskell et al., 2013). Even where covariates are included and mechanistic 445 relationships postulated (e.g. Oehri et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2017), causal links are hard to infer due 446 to the strong covariance between biodiversity and other drivers, and the high probability of missing, or 447 improperly measuring, important covariates.

448

Another common type of BEF study at this scale are those showing that functional biodiversity covaries or differs across environmental gradients and management regimes (Rader et al., 2014, Gámez-Virués et al., 2015). While there is significant evidence that functional traits do relate to ecosystem processes and properties at landscape and national scales (e.g. Lavorel et al. 2011; Garibaldi et al. 2015; Manning et al. 2015), evidence for a mechanistic link between the functional diversity of traits to the supply of ecosystem services at these scales is generally limited.

455

456 What can be transferred

457

458 As the studies of cluster C are performed in real landscapes, and as management is often conducted at 459 large scales (e.g. by farmers or foresters), research findings from this cluster are potentially of high 460 relevance to policy and large-scale management, e.g. via payments for ecosystem service schemes. In 461 recent years, a number of studies have demonstrated large-scale benefits of landscapes with high 462 diversity of crops and non-crop habitats, which support higher biodiversity (Gardiner et al., 2009; 463 Redlich et al., 2018). These benefits include more effective pollination and biological pest control 464 (Garibaldi et al. 2013; Winfree et al., 2018). By showing how diversity and diversification practices 465 influence ecosystem service delivery, these practices can then be incorporated into agronomic 466 considerations (Rosa et al., 2019) and into agri-environment policy (Garibaldi et al. 2014). Studies at 467 this scale also complement those of the other clusters by showing that biodiversity not only promotes 468 ecosystem function and services at the plot scale but also via spillover effects into the surrounding 469 landscape, with ecosystem service benefits including pest suppression, pollination, and bird watching 470 potential (Blitzer et al 2012; Werling et al 2014). However, biodiversity does not always promote 471 function at these scales. For example, natural enemy diversity does not always relate to pest 472 abundance, nor higher crop yields (Tscharntke et al. 2016), and in some cases biodiversity does not 473 control pests as effectively as pesticides (Samngegard et al. 2018).

474

475 Barriers to transfer and directions for future research

476

477 The observational nature of most research in this cluster means that the exact role of diversity in 478 driving ecosystem function and providing ecosystem services at these scales is hard to ascertain. This 479 general limitation is compounded by several other barriers which can prevent transfer to landscape 480 management and policy. First, several processes could drive BEF relationships at landscape scales that 481 do not operate at the smaller grain size of clusters A and B, and as a result are little acknowledged in 482 BEF research, outside of theory (Loreau et al., 2003; Tscharntke et al., 2012; Lindborg et al., 2017). 483 These include the spatial processes that maintain diversity, the matching between species and 484 environmental conditions in which they perform well (Leibold et al. 2017; Mori et al 2018), and the 485 potential for different species to provide different functions and services in different patches of the 486 landscape, thus boosting landscape multifunctionality (van der Plas et al. 2016, 2019b). The strength 487 and role of such mechanisms clearly needs to be demonstrated. Another key problem in transferring

BEF research to large scales is that landscape managers typically seek to simultaneously promote multiple ecosystem services, i.e. the multifunctionality of landscapes, not single ecosystem functions at the plot scale (Manning et al., 2018; Kremen & Merenlender 2018). A focus on single functions is problematic if they trade-off and the components of diversity that boost some ecosystem services diminish others. For example, the maintenance of biodiversity-rich habitats may add resilience to multiple ecosystem functions at the landscape scale, but also occupies land that could be used for crop production.

495

496 New research approaches are required to overcome the difficulties in identifying how biodiversity 497 controls ecosystem functioning at large scales, and how biodiversity may be conserved and promoted 498 to increase the supply of ecosystem services. First, to ensure that service measures are of relevance to 499 stakeholders, we require a better understanding of which services are demanded by different 500 stakeholders, and at which different temporal and spatial scales, so that relevant indicator variables or 501 ecosystem service production functions can be used (Tallis 2011). A more holistic approach, which 502 accounts for the relative demand for different ecosystem services and how this changes with socio-503 economic context, is therefore required, e.g. to assess how much land can be returned to a high 504 biodiversity condition while maintaining desired levels of food production and other ecosystem 505 services (Clough et al. 2011; Kremen & Merenlender 2018; Manning et al. 2018). Such studies should 506 also identify what drives patterns of land use and management and hence biodiversity loss, so that 507 appropriate interventions can be identified (Grass et al. 2019).

508

To consider landscape multifunctionality and its dependence on biodiversity, multiple ecosystem services need to be scaled up in space and time, which is challenging. Some of the functions that can be measured at the plot scale can be 'linearly' scaled up, e.g. by using remote sensing proxies of diversity and functional traits, and interpolated maps, e.g. of climate and soil properties (Manning et al., 2015; van der Plas et al., 2018). Others, however, require an understanding of spatial interactions that makes their upscaling more complex, e.g. pollination and nutrient leaching (Koh et al. 2016, Lindborg et al. 2017.). Furthermore, some services that operate at large scales (e.g. flood control, 516 landscape aesthetics) cannot be predicted and scaled up from small-scale measures. Therefore, new 517 procedures and methods are needed to quantify large-scale multifunctionality and the role of 518 biodiversity in driving it. There have been calls for landscape-scale experiments to address these 519 issues (Koh et al., 2009; Landis 2017). One example is the recent EFForTS project in which "tree 520 islands" of varying size and tree diversity (0-6 species) have been planted in oil-palm clearings 521 (Teuscher et al., 2016). Initial results indicate no economic trade-off: the islands generate yield gains 522 which compensate for the reduced number of oil palms (Gerard et al., 2017). However, the high 523 financial cost and/or logistical effort of such experiments means it may be more realistic to use 524 biophysical models in most cases. Unfortunately, such models do not currently fully represent the 525 complexity of biodiversity or its relationship with ecosystem functions and services (Lavorel et al. 526 2017).

527

528 To understand biodiversity-landscape multifunctionality relationships, a greater knowledge of which 529 aspects of diversity underpin different ecosystem services is also required. While knowledge exists 530 regarding the drivers of many ecosystem service provider groups at the landscape scale (e.g. plants, 531 birds, butterflies and pollinators, Roschewitz et al. 2005; Rösch et al. 2015; Kormann et al 2015; Grab 532 et al. 2019), this understanding needs to be extended to other groups, including soil microbes and soil 533 fauna. Similarly, understanding of how spatial biodiversity dynamics affect functions and the services 534 they underpin needs to be extended to taxa involved in services other than pest control and pollination 535 (Table 1). In some cases, there may be trade-offs between services, e.g. if the conditions that 536 maximize the diversity of one taxa do not favor another (van der Plas 2019b). This research may also 537 demonstrate that when it comes to real-world ecosystem services and landscape-level 538 multifunctionality, biodiversity effects are not easily generalizable, but depend on the context. Thus, 539 the rules of this context-dependency need to be identified (Allan et al 2015; Birkhofer et al., 2018; 540 Samnegard et al 2018). Doing this will limit uncertainty; managers could be less reluctant to manage 541 for biodiversity when the degree to which it provides ecosystem service benefits at larger scales has 542 been clearly demonstrated. In semi-natural ecosystems the promotion of the biodiversity components 543 underpinning ecosystem services are most likely to be achieved via management options that are

544 simple and effective over large areas, and so the practices that would promote the desired facets of 545 biodiversity, e.g. mowing or the introduction of selective grazers, may need to be identified.

546 Conclusion

547

548 A vast array of BEF studies has taught us much about the complex relationship between biodiversity 549 and ecosystem functioning. In this article, we argue that with some re-analysis and re-interpretation, 550 some of this research could be directly transferred to policy and management, where practitioners 551 could use its insights to guide the diversification of agricultural and other human-dominated 552 ecosystems, and inform the conservation of biodiversity in semi-natural ecosystems. However, there 553 are numerous challenges to the transfer of BEF research to more applied research and practice, and we 554 argue that these challenges differ depending on the spatial grain of the study and the degree of 555 community manipulation. While acknowledging the differences in transferability between these 556 clusters of BEF research may help resolve the ongoing debate about relevance of BEF findings a new 557 generation of BEF research is also required. This would involve the merging and connecting research 558 between the current clusters, e.g. the setup of a new generation of biodiversity experiments that bridge 559 the gap between current BEF experiments and observational studies. These should be complemented 560 by new observational studies which more comprehensively account for covarying factors and which 561 better acknowledge the link between ecosystem function and ecosystem services (Table 1).

562

It should be noted that the main message transferred from BEF research may simply be a stronger and more confident argument that it is important to conserve the diversity that is already present in seminatural systems. In some cases BEF research may also show that not every species plays a positive or strong role in driving certain ecosystem functions, and that a small number of species dominate the supply of certain services (Kleijn *et al.* 2015). In such cases, acknowledging the non-market benefits of species and returning to more traditional ethical arguments will help promote biodiversity conservation (e.g. Hill et al 2019). 570 Finally, to make BEF research more applied, large-scale studies that utilise novel approaches to 571 investigate the role of diversity in providing the desired ecosystem services at the landscape scale are 572 required (Table 1). Accordingly, key considerations in applied BEF research are to acknowledge when 573 research is fundamental or applied, and to clarify when services, rather than functions, are being 574 considered, thus making it transparent which services and functions are focal and why, and 575 acknowledging which stakeholder groups may benefit. In many respects, the technical solutions to the 576 challenges addressed in this article are already being investigated. However, if the potential for BEF 577 research to address global challenges is to be fully realized, future BEF must also be transdisciplinary, 578 and include the main stakeholders of the ecosystem collaboratively from their inception. By 579 considering social-ecological context, BEF research should be better able to demonstrate the social 580 and economic value of biodiversity at the scales that matter to land managers and policy makers.

581

582 Acknowledgements

583

584 This work was funded by Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft; DFG, German Research Foundation 585 Grant Ei 862/13 to MF, NB, AK, NE and TT. The Jena Experiment is funded by the Deutsche 586 Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation; FOR 1451), the Friedrich Schiller 587 University Jena, the Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry in Jena, and the Swiss National Science 588 Foundation. NE ADB and MJ acknowledge support by the German Centre for Integrative Biodiversity 589 Research (iDiv) Halle-Jena-Leipzig (DFG FZT 118). DAL acknowledges support from Great Lakes 590 Bioenergy Research Center, U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Science, Office of Biological and 591 Environmental Research (Awards DE-SC0018409 and DE-FC02-07ER64494), by the National 592 Science Foundation Long-term Ecological Research Program (DEB 1637653) at the Kellogg 593 Biological Station, and by Michigan State University AgBioResearch. CW is grateful for funding by 594 the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) (Project number 405945293).

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1290	Table 1. Research required to enable the real-world application of BEF research
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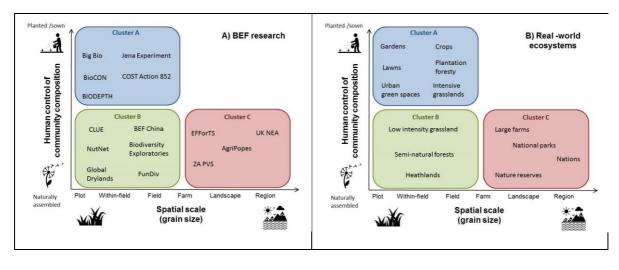
Research need and approach Potential benefit to Examples or foundational	
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	transfer	studies
Cluster A		
Identify mechanistic general rules	Suggested combinations of	Zuppinger-Dingley et al.
governing complementary species	species for restoration,	(2014)
combinations in existing	intercropping and crop	Brooker et al. (2015)
biodiversity experiments	rotation, mixed plantations	
	etc.	
Demonstrate the biodiversity-	Could be used to design	Baeten et al. (2019)
multifunctionality relationship in	multifunctional species	Finn et al. (2013)
sown or planted ecosystems, e.g. by	mixtures that provide	
identifying mixtures that provide	benefits to a range of	
multiple desired services	stakeholder groups	
Compare multispecies mixtures to	Without realistic comparison	Binder et al (2018)
the high performing species-poor	to current management	
systems of current management	alternative option will not be	
	adopted	
Perform BEF experiments with	High performing mixtures	Kirwan et al (2007)
species pools that contain potentially	identified can be managed in	Finn et al (2013)
useful and manageable species (e.g.	a cost-effective manner	
self-sustaining mixtures)		
Generate measures of stability that	To show relationship	Donohue et al (2016)
are relevant to managers	between biodiversity and the	Oliver et al. (2015)
	stability sought by	
	stakeholders	
Demonstrate the cost effectiveness	Unless clear benefits are	Finger & Buchmann (2015)
of multispecies mixtures compared	demonstrated diversification	Blaauw & Isaacs (2014)
to existing management and develop	may not be adopted	

technology that increases this (e.g.				
multicrop harvesters)				
Cluster B				
Form general predictions of how	Accurate and general	Bjorkman et al (2018)		
biodiversity and other drivers of	estimates and predictions of	Grace et al (2016)		
ecosystem function changes in	biodiversity loss are the			
response to global change drivers	foundation of accurate and			
	general assessments of their			
	impacts			
Develop mechanistic understanding	Would increase confidence	Grace et al (2016)		
of biodiversity in real world	in correlational BEF			
systems, e.g. by using new	relationships and allow their			
quantitative tools to disentangle	causes to be understood			
biodiversity effects				
Systematically assess the relative	Would lead to more precise	Allan et al (2015)		
role of alpha and beta diversity,	estimates of the relative role	Winfree et al (2015)		
functional composition, abundance	of biodiversity in semi-	van der Plas et al (2016)		
and other covariates including	natural systems and its			
abiotic factors and understand the	relationship with other			
feedbacks and relationships between	factors			
these drivers				
Establish a new generation of	Would allow causation to be	Smith & Knapp (2003)		
experiments that varies the above	inferred for the above	Manning et al (2006)		
factors, across realistic gradients	relationships			
Assess the role of biodiversity in	Most diversity loss occurs	Soliveres et al. (2016b)		
species rich communities, including	between high and	Klein et al (2003)		
that of rare species	intermediate levels and rare	Lyons & Schwartz (2001)		

	species are more likely to be	
	lost	
Dread to statistical activistics of		(2010-)
Provide statistical estimates of	Can be used in regional and	van der Plas (2019a)
where different components of	global assessments and	
biodiversity play their greatest role	projections of the expected	
and test these estimates	impacts of biodiversity loss	
Explore the BEF relationship within	The restoration of semi-	Bullock et al. (2007)
the context of ecosystem restoration,	natural habitats may be more	Weidlich et al. (2018)
and link this to community assembly	effective if a high diversity	
mechanisms	of species is used	
Cluster C		
Understand the strength and role of	Biodiversity may play a	Loreau et al (2003)
mechanisms linking biodiversity to	different role at large scales	Mori et al (2018)
ecosystem function at spatial and	to that established in	
temporal scales (e.g. species	experiments	
matching to site conditions,		
dispersal processes)		
Upscale ecosystem functions to	Would allow the relationship	Clough et al (2016)
large scales and link these to	between biodiversity,	Lindborg et al (2017)
ecosystem services	ecosystem functions and	LeClec'h et al. (subm.)
	ecosystem services to be	
	evaluated at management	
	relevant scales	
Use upscaled measures to	Would allow important	Van der Plas et al (2018)
understand which taxa drive	ecosystem service providers	Winfree et al (2018)
ecosystem services and disservices	to be identified and managed	Grass et al (2019)
at landscape scales, and what factors	appropriately	

Would allow the impact of	Van der Plas et al (2018)		
biodiversity on a range of	Manning et al (2018)		
stakeholders and wider			
society to be communicated			
Knowledge exchange (all clusters)			
Non-academic approaches	Activities of:		
are required for BEF	Forum for the Future of		
research findings to reach	Agriculture (FFA)		
potential end-users users	European Landowners		
	Organisation (ELO)		
	F.R.A.N.Z.		
	Conservation evidence website		
	RSPB Hope Farm		
This could inform applied	Geertstema et al (2016)		
BEF research, ensuring that	Walter et al. (2017)		
it meets the needs of			
potential end-users			
	biodiversity on a range of stakeholders and wider society to be communicated Non-academic approaches are required for BEF research findings to reach potential end-users users Detential end-users users This could inform applied BEF research, ensuring that it meets the needs of		





1294 Figure 1. Clusters of BEF research and their relation to real world ecosystems. a) selected research 1295 projects, b) selected 'real-world' ecosystems. Note that, as spatial scale increases, the user of 1296 research findings changes from individual local scale managers to governments and 1297 institutions and the form of transfer changes from management practice recommendations to 1298 policy change, though these are clearly interrelated. Example references for the studies shown 1299 are: Jena experiment (Weisser et al 2017), BigBio (Tilman et al. 2001), BioCON (Reich et al. 1300 2001), COST Action 852 (Kirwan et al 2007), BIODEPTH (Hector 1999), BEF-China (Huang et al. 2018), CLUE (van der Putten et al. 2000), NutNet (Grace et al., 2016), 1301 1302 Biodiversity Exploratories (Allan et al. 2015), Global Drylands (Maestre et al 2012), FunDiv 1303 (Van der Plas et al 2016), EFForTS (Teuscher et al. 2016), AgriPopes (Emmerson et al. 1304 2016), ZA PVS (Bretagnolle et al 2018), UKNEA National Ecosystem Assessment (2011). 1305



1307 Figure 2. Swiss grassland diversification. In Switzerland species rich semi-natural grasslands 1308 (left) can decline to a more species-poor state (right) if fertilized and mown frequently. To 1309 counteract this loss many species rich sites are maintained via agri-environment policy 1310 schemes (Kampmann et al. 2012) and Swiss researchers have developed diversified seed 1311 mixtures suitable for a wide range of conditions that have been adopted by many Swiss 1312 farmers (Agrarforschung Schweiz 2019). We postulate that this adoption is likely to be 1313 attributable to a range of factors including: a strong cultural valuation of grassland, a clear 1314 mandate of agriculture to manage sustainably (in Swiss Constitution, article 104), generous 1315 agri-environment compensation schemes for a range of grassland types, and a strong focus on 1316 applied grassland research that has investigated which mixtures work over different time 1317 horizons (e.g. annual to permanent) and environmental conditions (moisture and elevational 1318 gradients) (e.g. Suter et al. 2015). Finally, there is effective communication from both 1319 researchers (e.g. Agroscope) and the Swiss grassland society (AGFF, 2019), which contains many farmers as members. Future BEF transfer work could investigate the role of such 1320 1321 factors in successful transfer. Photo credits Peter Manning.