

1 Landscape complexity effects on crop productivity: an assessment from space

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5 # Abstract

6 In the agricultural landscape of south-central Alberta, Canada, producers have many
7 incentives to clear small natural habitats from their fields, as this can expand their cultivated land
8 base and reduce time taken to steer equipment around those areas. However, those natural habitats
9 can provide shelter and food for beneficial arthropods which provide ecosystem services to
10 agriculture, such as pollination or natural pest control. Here we assessed the impact of marginal
11 habitats on adjacent canola (*Brassica napus*) fields at both the field-level and the subfield-level
12 using remote sensing data by measuring the “landscape complexity,” the amount and arrangement
13 of both crop and non-crop covers surrounding a canola field. At the field-level, canola fields with
14 higher landscape complexity generally had higher mean yields. However, fields surrounded mostly
15 by crop or non-crop covers had lower yields, possibly due to a lack of pollination or natural pest
16 control services or an overwhelming yield-reducing edge effect. At the subfield-level, we found
17 evidence of a boost in yield between 30 and 100 meters from the field edge towards its center.
18 There is also a plausible yield stabilizing effect at the same range.

19 # **Keywords:** landscape complexity, canola, remote sensing, precision agriculture, conservation

20 # 1. Introduction

21 The Canadian prairies are now one of the world’s most endangered ecosystems, as at least
22 70% of native grasslands have been lost due to development and conversion to agriculture (*AEP*,
23 *1997*). In addition to grasslands, about 70% of wetlands have been removed or altered since
24 European settlement (*DUC, 2006*). Drainage constitutes approximately 84% of these losses, as the
25 region has had a long history of installing ditches that drain water from wetlands so more land can
26 be farmed (*NAWMP, 2020*). The loss of wetlands and grasslands comes with the loss of their
27 beneficial ecosystem services to both people and natural systems. Some of these services include
28 providing habitat for wildlife, maintaining soil or water quality, regulating water resources, and
29 storing carbon (*Zedler & Kercher, 2005; Mitsch et al., 2013; Conant et al., 2017; Bengtsson et al.,*
30 *2019; Xu et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020*).

31 In the agricultural landscape of south-central Alberta, wetlands and other non-crop spaces
32 — such as field margins, fencerows, shelterbelts, and tree patches — are common throughout the
33 region. Producers have many incentives to clear small natural habitats from their fields, as this can
34 expand their cultivated land base and reduce time taken to steer equipment around those areas.
35 However, producers are also concerned with the sustainable crop production as well as public trust
36 in their enterprise and are interested in approaches that avoid additional land conversion.
37 Ecosystem services could further incentivize producers to retain semi-natural areas, as crop
38 production has been shown to benefit from non-crop spaces such as field margin habitats (*Blaauw*
39 *& Isaacs, 2014; Tschumi et al., 2016; Venturini et al., 2017; Rundlöf et al., 2018*). Non-crop spaces
40 can provide shelter and food for beneficial arthropods (*Garibaldi et al., 2014; Venturini et al.,*
41 *2017; Vickruck et al., 2019*), even in intensively farmed areas (*Morandin et al., 2014*). In many
42 cases, those arthropods (e.g., bees, wasps, flies, spiders, beetles) provide ecosystem services to

43 agriculture, such as pollination or natural pest control, which may help to improve yields, decrease
44 inputs, and increase overall profitability (*Albrecht et al., 2020*).

45 In general, there is a positive relationship between the diversity and abundance of beneficial
46 species and landscape complexity (the amount and land cover diversity of the non-crop spaces)
47 (*Klejin et al., 2019; Zamorano et al., 2020*). However, the relationship between landscape
48 complexity and crop yield—the main concerns of producers—is not well studied. In addition, what
49 is known about this relationship is either based on small-scale field studies (*Tschumi et al., 2016;*
50 *Rundlöf et al., 2018*) or regional analyses (*Galpern et al., 2020; Nelson & Burchfield, 2021*).
51 Existing regional analyses, e.g., using county-level yield data, cannot include sufficient field-level
52 detail to support predictions relevant to individual producers, while field studies can be labour-
53 intensive and are often limited to a few fields and/or years (limiting their generality and
54 applicability). However, adoption of precision agriculture and remote sensing technologies has the
55 potential to change this. Precision agriculture has been practiced commercially since the 1990s
56 (*Mulla, 2013*) and is now deployed widely across the North American agricultural sector. In
57 Canada, 84% of producers are currently using combine yield monitoring capability which allows
58 them to obtain much information about their fields, such as grain yield and moisture content
59 (*Steele, 2017*). Recent work has demonstrated that it is possible to reliably predict crop yield based
60 on its relationship with remote sensing imagery where field-level precision agricultural data is not
61 available (*Hunt et al., 2019; Nguyen et al., 2021*). Therefore, maps of crop yield, either directly
62 based on field data or predicted from remotely sensed data, can be potential alternatives to plot-
63 based field sampling, and present a new method of assessing the influence of landscape complexity
64 of marginal habitats (and therefore, the strength of ecosystem services) on crop productivity.

65 Our objective in this study is to assess potential impacts of marginal habitats on adjacent
66 canola field using remote sensing products. We hypothesized that (1) non-crop spaces at the field
67 edge—including both outer and inner edges—that host arthropods that provide ecosystem services
68 to canola will create a boost to yield and therefore that (2) fields with higher landscape complexity,
69 and consequently greater interface between natural habitats and the crops, would have a higher
70 average yield.

71 To test the first hypothesis, we first mapped precision canola yield and field boundaries using
72 Sentinel-2 time series. Next, distance-to-the-nearest-edge were computed for every pixel on the
73 field. Potential effects of non-crop spaces on canola yield were then modelled as the nonlinear
74 relationship between subfield-level yield and distance-to-the-nearest-edge. To test the second
75 hypothesis, we first described landscape complexity of each canola field by counting numbers of
76 non-crop and crop pixels surrounding the field within various disks (normalized by each field's
77 area). Then, for each disk, field-level yield was modelled as a function of the interaction between
78 crop and non-crop edges. This study is among very few studies assessing roles of field marginal
79 habitats and crop production and is the first, to our knowledge, to utilize remote sensing products
80 to do so.

81 # 2. Materials and Methods

82 ## 2.1. Study Area & Data

83 This study covers a 100×100 km area centered around eight canola fields in the County of
84 Vermilion River (Alberta, Canada) where a 2019 precision yield dataset was available to build a
85 yield mapping model (Figure 1). Precision yield data was recorded in segments by the combine's
86 on-board yield monitor. Each segment is characterized by a starting position of the combine, width
87 of the header bar (m), direction of travel (0-360° N), the length of a recorded segment (m), and the

88 canola yield (dry mass in tonnes/ha). We used those attributes to construct harvested segments
89 (polygons) and rasterized those polygons to create yield maps that spatially match with Sentinel-
90 2 pixels at 10-meter resolution (*Nguyen et al., 2021*, Figure 2c).

91 Sentinel-2 is a European wide-swath, high-resolution, multi-spectral imaging mission
92 designed with twin satellites to give a high revisit frequency (5 days at the Equator). Each satellite
93 carries a Multi Spectral Instrument (MSI) payload that samples 13 spectral bands: four bands at
94 10-meter (including Red, Green, Blue and NIR), six bands at 20-meter, and three bands at 60-
95 meter spatial resolution. In this study, 2019 Sentinel-2 MSI L1C scenes (top-of-atmosphere
96 reflectance product) were downloaded from the [Copernicus Open Access Hub](#). We then used the
97 SNAP v7.0.0 software ([ESA Sentinel Application Platform](#)) to generate the bottom-of-atmosphere
98 reflectance product (L2A). The generation of L2A also returned a Scene Classification (SCL) map
99 which was used to filter “bad” pixels (cloud/cloud shadow, snow, and ice). The remaining good
100 observations in each band were stacked to create a time series dataset at each pixel. Here we used
101 Sentinel-2 time series of the Apr-01-2019 to Oct-31-2019 period to map canola field boundaries
102 and to build a functional regression model for mapping canola yield at 10-meter resolution.

103 **## 2.2. Mapping Land Covers and Canola Field Boundaries**

104 We generated a land cover map of the study area (7 classes: water, wetland, grass/shrub,
105 forest, barren/urban, canola, and other crops) at 10-meter spatial resolution using statistical
106 features generated from Sentinel-2 time series and Random Forest classifier (*Nguyen & Henebry,*
107 *2019*). The sample data pool (for training and testing) was manually created based on the Annual
108 Crop Inventory (ACI, at 30-meter resolution; *AAFC, 2019*) due to its high accuracy level for crop
109 categories. The classification was repeated 100 times, and then aggregated to create a final map
110 by selecting the most popular cover at each pixel. Each time, training and testing datasets were

111 randomly drawn from the sample data pool. The average overall accuracy is 90%, and average
112 producer’s/user’s accuracy are both greater than 95% for canola. After classification, we only kept
113 canola patches between 20 and 120 hectares as a typical canola field in the study region is between
114 1 and 2 quarter sections (a quarter section is approximately 64 hectares). Retained fields were then
115 visually inspected and edited, using the World Imagery Basemap available in ArcGIS software—
116 a very high-resolution image updated typically within 3-5 years of present—and the Sentinel-2
117 natural composite images, to make sure that canola field boundaries were detected accurately. In
118 total, 757 canola fields were identified within the study area for further analysis (Figure 1). At each
119 field, we computed distance from any canola pixel to its nearest edge.

120 ## 2.3. Mapping Precision Canola Yield

121 From spectral bands, two spectral indices were computed: normalized difference vegetation
122 index (NDVI; *Huete et al., 1997*) and normalized difference water index (NDWI; *Gao, 1996*). We
123 modeled the rasterized canola yield as a function of NDVI and NDWI time series (Equation 1) in
124 R using the “fda.usc” package (*Febbraro & Oviedo de la Fuente, 2012*). This functional regression
125 model can predict canola yield to within 12-16% accuracy of actual yield, and to capture within-
126 field variation (*Nguyen et al., 2021 Preprint*; Figure 2). We then used the model to map precision
127 canola yield for all studied fields.

128 A functional linear regression (FLR) models crop yield, y , as:

$$129 \quad y = f(X, \beta) + \varepsilon = \int X(t)\beta(t)dt + \varepsilon \quad [1]$$

130 where X is the value of predictor variables at time t (NDVI and NDWI, in our case), while β is the
131 instantaneous effect (slope) of that variable on y . One way of estimating β is to present the
132 parameters (β) and the functional covariates (X_i) as a finite sum of pre-defined basis elements:

133 $\beta(t) = \sum_k \beta_k \theta_k(t) = \theta' b$; $X_i(t) = \sum_k c_{i,k} \psi_k(t) = C\Psi$. Replacing β and X of equation 1 by their new
134 forms results in equation 2—a typical multiple linear regression.

$$135 \quad y = f(X, \beta) + \varepsilon = C\Psi\theta' b + \varepsilon = Zb + \varepsilon \quad [2]$$

136 **## 2.4 Effects of field edge on subfield-level mean and variance of canola yield**

137 Here we assessed the impact of field edge (i.e., non-crop spaces at field boundary that
138 separate a field from surrounding non-crop covers or other crop fields) on subfield-level canola
139 productivity using two different approaches. First, we used an empirical “bin-yield” approach,
140 based only on simple descriptive statistics, making it suitable for a large-scale analysis of the field
141 edge impacts (regional to national scale). Secondly, we modeled the non-linear relationship
142 between pixel-level yield and proximity to the field boundary using additive models.

143 **### (a) Empirical “bin-yield” analysis**

144 At each field, we separated canola pixels into 10-meter distance bins according to their
145 distance-to-the-nearest-edge and computed descriptive statistics of canola yield (mean and
146 variance) for each bin. Using this binned dataset, impacts of field edge on subfield-level canola
147 productivity was then presented by mean and standard deviation values of “mean bin-yields” and
148 “variance bin-yields” across all distance-to-the-nearest-edge bins.

149 **### (b) Non-linear modeling analysis**

150 For each canola field, we modeled the relationship between yield and distance to the nearest
151 edge using a Generalized Additive Model (GAM) provided by the “mgcv” package in R (*Wood,*
152 *2017*). In a GAM, linear terms are replaced by non-parametric smooth functions of covariates and
153 can model nonlinear relationship between predictors and response variables. The structure of GAM
154 can be written as:

155
$$g(E(Y)) = \beta + s_1(X_1) + s_2(X_2) + \dots + s_n(X_n) \quad [3]$$

156 where $g(E(Y))$ is the link function that links the expected value of the response variable, Y to the
 157 basis functions used to represent predictor variables (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n). The terms $s_1(X_1), s_2(X_2), \dots,$
 158 $s_n(X_n)$ denote non-parametric smooth functions. In this study, a Gaussian location-scale GAM was
 159 used to model mean and variance of yield simultaneously. We modeled mean and variance of yield
 160 as functions of distance to the nearest edge and included a two-dimensional spatial smooth
 161 (Equations 4 & 5, family *gaulss* in *mgcv*). Spatial smoothers were used to account for the expected
 162 spatial autocorrelation in yield within the crop field.

163
$$\textit{identity}(\textit{mean Yield}) \sim s(\textit{Distance}) + s(X_{\textit{Coordinate}}, Y_{\textit{Coordinate}}) \quad [4]$$

164
$$\textit{logb}(\textit{variance Yield}) \sim s(\textit{Distance}) + s(X_{\textit{Coordinate}}, Y_{\textit{Coordinate}}) \quad [5]$$

165 For each field model, we extracted the partial effect of distance on mean and variance --
 166 $s(\textit{Distance})$ terms (Figure 3). The overall edge effect was then summarized by fitting two GAMs
 167 for all individual partial effects on mean or variance yield (Equations 6 & 7).

168
$$\textit{partial effects on "mean Yield"} \sim s(\textit{Distance}) \quad [6]$$

169
$$\textit{partial effects on "variance Yield"} \sim s(\textit{Distance}) \quad [7]$$

170 **## 2.5 Effects of landscape complexity on field-level mean and variance of canola yield**

171 The 7-category land cover mapping in section 2.3 was reclassified into only two classes:
 172 crop (other crops and canola) and non-crop (water, barren/developed, wetland, grass/shrub, tree).
 173 Using this cover map, we described landscape complexity of each canola field by counting
 174 numbers of non-crop and crop pixels surrounding the field within various disks, ranging from 10
 175 to 1000 meters (1 – 100 pixels) from the field boundary. To account for different field sizes,
 176 amounts of neighboring crop and non-crop pixels were normalized by each field’s area. For each

177 disk, we modeled field-level mean and variance as a function of the interaction between crop and
178 non-crop edges using a GAM and a full tensor product (*te*) (Equations 8 & 9), which models both
179 the main effects of these variables and their interaction.

$$180 \quad \text{identity (mean Yield)} \sim te(\text{Noncrop Edges}, \text{Crop Edges}) \quad [8]$$

$$181 \quad \text{identity (variance Yield)} \sim te(\text{Noncrop Edges}, \text{Crop Edges}) \quad [9]$$

182 # 3. Results

183 ## 3.1 *Effects of field edge on subfield-level mean and variance of canola yield*

184 Both assessment methods showed evidence of higher canola yield at an intermediate distance
185 into the field where yield-reducing “edge effects” are no longer dominant. The “edge effects” are
186 visually apparent on plots of the mean yield (i.e., a low mean at the field edge, followed by a rapid
187 increase from 0 to 30 meters; Figures 4a & 5a). While the bin-yield approach presents a subtle
188 peak at 100 meters (Figure 4a), modelled mean yield peaked at 30 meters and gradually decreased
189 toward the field center (Figure 5a). The field edge impacts on variance of yield were different
190 between the two proposed methods. The “edge effects” are also clearly present in the yield
191 variance, with much higher variance at the field boundary and a rapid decrease from 0 to 30 meters
192 toward the field center (Figures 4b & 5b). However, while the bin-yield approach showed a gradual
193 decrease of yield variance into the field (Figure 4b), the model predicted variance gradually
194 increased from 30 meter toward the field center, indicating a potential stabilizing effect of the field
195 edge on canola productivity apparent at around 30 meters into the crop.

196 ## 3.2 *Effects of landscape complexity on field-level mean and variance of canola yield*

197 Partial effects of neighboring crop and non-crop land cover on mean yield are small (percent
198 of deviance explained is only 2% to 3%) but consistently present a V-shaped pattern among all

199 significant ring sizes (10 – 30 meters) (Figure 6). The effects are lower close to the two axes
200 indicating that field-level mean yields tend to be lower if either crop or non-crop neighbors are
201 dominant in the landscape. In those situations, higher landscape complexity—either more crop or
202 more non-crop neighbors—would result in higher negative effect or lower mean yield. On the
203 other hand, positive effects of landscape complexity on field-level mean were observed at the
204 middle and right corner of the plot, indicating that canola fields have the potential to be more
205 productive where there is a balance between non-crop and crop neighbors in the landscape. In that
206 situation, higher landscape complexity would have higher positive effect on canola yield as
207 indicated by higher positive effect toward the right corner of the plot.

208 Like the effects on mean yield, landscape complexity only represents a small (percent of
209 deviance explained is only 2% to 4%) effect on field-level variance of yield across significant rings
210 (10 – 80 meters) (Figure 7). Towards the bottom of the plot (i.e., field pixels have fewer non-crop
211 neighbours), effects of landscape complexity on the variance of yield are low and negative,
212 indicating that within-field variation of canola yield is less if the field is generally surrounded by
213 crop land covers. Towards the left of the plot (i.e., field pixels have fewer crop neighbours), effects
214 of landscape complexity follow a hump-shaped pattern, or intermediate optimum, with lower
215 effects where there is either a low or high proportion of non-crop edges.

216 # 4. Discussion

217 Effects of the field edges and landscape complexity on canola productivity:

218 Here we examined potential effects of the field edge and landscape complexity on mean and
219 variance of canola yield at subfield and field-levels. Several studies have suggested a positive
220 effect of landscape complexity on crop productivity. In a study about crop yields in the same
221 temperate grassland region at a much coarser, county-level scale, *Galpern et al. (2020)* analyzed

222 the relationship between yields of multiple crops and landscape complexity—measured as the
223 amount of non-crop covers found nearby or within the field. We took that analysis further for
224 canola by examining the potential effect of both neighboring crop and non-crop covers on the
225 field-level mean canola yield. To account for effects of crop and non-crop cover simultaneously,
226 we used a tensor product to model main effects and their interactions between the two types of
227 edge. Our finding generally agreed with *Galpern et al. (2020)* that there is a plausible positive
228 effect of field marginal habitats on mean canola yield, and canola fields surrounded mostly by non-
229 crop covers may have lower yield, possibly due to the overwhelming yield-reducing “edge effect”
230 in those fields. Fields surrounded mostly by crop covers also have lower yields, possibly due to a
231 lack of ecosystem services supported by the presence of non-crop covers, such as pollination and
232 pest control. Overall, we found a positive relationship between landscape complexity and field-
233 level mean yield.

234 While a positive relationship between landscape complexity and crop productivity is
235 measurable at the regional scale (can boost corn and wheat yields up to 20% as reported in *Nelson*
236 *& Burchfield, 2021*), its economic importance to crop producers remains unclear. Thus, *Galpern*
237 *et al. (2020)* suggested the potential benefits of landscape complexity be explored at a finer scale
238 to determine how different types of field edges contribute to yield and to estimate the limits of any
239 effect. That valuable information would help producers to manage or redesign their fields. To
240 support this objective, we assessed the potential impacts of field edge to subfield-level yield. We
241 found evidence of a boost in yield between 30 and 100 meters from the field edge towards its
242 center. There is also a plausible yield stabilizing effect at the same range. Although both potential
243 boosting and stabilizing effects are quite small, these two effects together may offer enough benefit

244 for producers to add small amounts of different land covers within or nearby their fields or, equally
245 provide incentive to retain the current configuration of non-crop covers within or near their fields.

246 Limitations and future directions:

247 Our study relies heavily on an accurate land cover map to identify precisely both field
248 boundaries and their neighboring land covers. Here we generated a land cover map of the study
249 area from Sentinel-2 imagery using the ACI layer as training and testing dataset. The overall
250 accuracy of our land cover map is quite high (about 90%), especially for canola with both
251 producer's and user's accuracy of above 95%). However, there remain potential issues with that
252 cover map. Although locations and overall shapes of canola fields were often detected correctly,
253 precise field boundaries and neighboring covers are much less accurate because misclassifications
254 are more likely to occur at edges between different cover classes due to the mixed pixel problem.
255 In addition, we mapped land cover at 10-meter resolution which is larger than many edge features,
256 such as small roads, shelterbelts, and some wetlands, etc. Thus, those features may not be presented
257 correctly in the map. To reduce classification errors, we manually inspected every individual field
258 to make sure that its boundary and neighboring land covers were properly mapped. This manual
259 inspection, however, cannot be done easily over a large area. Higher resolution imagery (< 5-meter
260 resolution) should be investigated to provide more accurate land cover maps for future studies.

261 A solution to reduce the likelihood of misclassification at the field edge that we adopted is
262 to merge land cover types to broader categories. Here we only considered two types of edges: crop
263 versus non-crop covers. Although this solution helps to improve accuracy of land cover map (e.g.,
264 *Galpern et al 2020*), it also prevented us from analyzing the effects of different edge types. It is
265 possible that we would expect different effects associated with roads, shelterbelts, hedgerows,
266 wetlands, and other non-crop covers found in agricultural landscape, as the different vegetation,

267 soil and moisture characteristics of these features may influence the amount and type of ecosystem
268 service provided. Future studies using land cover maps with higher thematic resolution are
269 necessary to explore the effects of different edge types.

270 Our analysis also relies on precision canola yield maps derived from Sentinel-2 imagery and
271 another precision yield dataset. Although, our yield model performed reasonably well with
272 prediction accuracy within 12-16% accuracy of reference yield and be able to capture within-field
273 variation. It is still worth noting that our model was built using training data from only 8 canola
274 fields—a very small number given the much large study area (100×100 km). This training dataset
275 might not fully capture canola growth dynamics and its corresponding spectral response. Future
276 studies should try to use a large training dataset to build a more accurate yield model which, from
277 a data acquisition perspective, is feasible given that precision agriculture has been long used in
278 Canada and up to 85% of producers have yield monitor with their machines. In the yield model,
279 we also did not use any ancillary data which are common inputs of crop yield mapping, such as
280 soil moisture, climatic conditions, crop variety, or agricultural practices, in any of our models.
281 Those variables are available as remote sensing products and could be considered in future studies
282 to improve the predictive accuracy of yield models.

283 This study focused on a single crop (canola) for only one year (2019) over a relatively small
284 study area (given that this crop is grown across a continuous footprint $\sim 500,000$ km² in area;
285 estimated from *AAFC, 2019*). Thus, although our findings are promising, they may not hold true
286 in other crops, years, or sub-regions of the Canadian Prairies. To confirm the validity of our
287 findings, more studies conducted in regions with contrasting environmental conditions are needed.
288 In addition, to make those findings more meaningful for crop producers, future research needs to
289 translate a plausible positive effect of the field edge to economic value, such as profitability.

290 # 5. Conclusion

291 This study is the first to utilize remote sensing imagery and a precision agricultural dataset
292 to assess impacts of field edges on crop productivity. Research on this topic using the conventional,
293 controlled experiment has been rather limited and has occurred chiefly in a few small-scale studies,
294 likely due to the high cost of field campaigns. The remote sensing approach we demonstrate
295 provides many more opportunities to assess the potential impacts of field edges on crops. The
296 method can be implemented at low cost across a large area, capturing a variety of landscape
297 conditions and for multiple crop-years using readily available satellite images and precision
298 agricultural datasets.

299 Our results suggested that neighboring non-crop spaces not only create a boost in canola
300 yield but also help to stabilize crop productivity. Although the boosting and stabilizing effects of
301 the field edge may be subtle, retaining non-crop spaces near the field could still be a beneficial
302 option for producers, especially given the cost of removing non-crop spaces and current efforts
303 and incentives for the conservation of natural habitats in the region. While the idea of adding non-
304 crop features, such as wildflower strips, or hedgerows, to help increase crop productivity is
305 receiving more attention, our findings about the effects of the field edge on subfield-level canola
306 productivity suggest that producers already benefit from these features and contribute to
307 discussions about the optimal design of fields and for increasing landscape complexity.

308 # Acknowledgements

309 This research has been made possible by Alberta Canola Producers Commission, Manitoba
310 Canola Growers Association, and Eyes High Postdoctoral Research Program at University of
311 Calgary. We thank producers who provided us with the precision canola yield dataset and valuable
312 insight into the underlying subfield-level patterns of yield. We elect not to name them to maintain

313 confidentiality. We also thank Laurel Thompson at Lakeland College in Vermillion, Alberta,
314 Canada.

315 # Figure Captions

316 FIGURE 1. Study area: selected canola fields (in yellow) on top of the 2019 Sentinel-2 RGB image
317 (median values). A sample field (in red box) and its “distance-to-nearest-edge” raster are shown
318 in panel A and B.

319 FIGURE 2. Outputs of functional regression model to map precision canola yield for all studied
320 fields (a and b) and observed versus predicted yield for a sample field (c and d).

321 FIGURE 3. Partial effects of distance on mean (a) and variance (b) yield for a sample canola field.
322 Numbers within the y-axis labels are effective degrees of freedom - a proxy for the degree of non-
323 linearity in predictor-response relationship where 0 implies no relationship, 1 implies linearity,
324 and >1 implies non-linearity.

325 FIGURE 4. Mean (a) and variance (b) bin-yield of various distance bins for all canola fields (black
326 dots). The overall impacts of field edge on subfield-level canola productivity are presented by
327 mean $\pm 1\sigma$ lines across all distance bins.

328 FIGURE 5. Partial effects of distance (black lines) on mean (a) and variance (b) subfield-level
329 yield and the overall impacts of field edge (blue lines) captured by GAMs.

330 FIGURE 6. Partial effects of neighboring crop and non-crop spaces on field-level mean yield. The
331 effects are no longer significant for 40-meters and larger rings. Values shown in the titles are ring
332 size, p-value, and percent of deviance explained. Each black dot presents an individual canola
333 field. Black arrows show directions of increasing landscape complexity.

334 FIGURE 7. Partial effects of neighboring crop and non-crop spaces on field-level variance yield.
335 The effects are no longer significant for 90-meters and larger rings. Values shown in the titles are
336 ring size, p-value, and percent of deviance explained. Each black dot presents an individual canola
337 field. Black arrows show directions of increasing landscape complexity.

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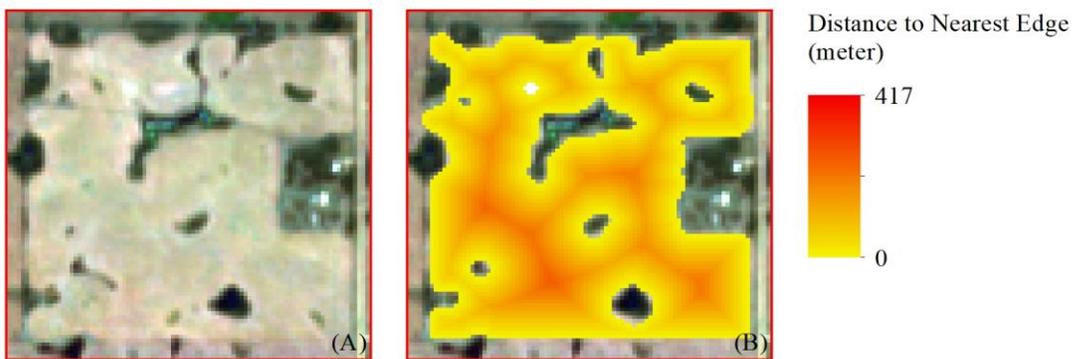
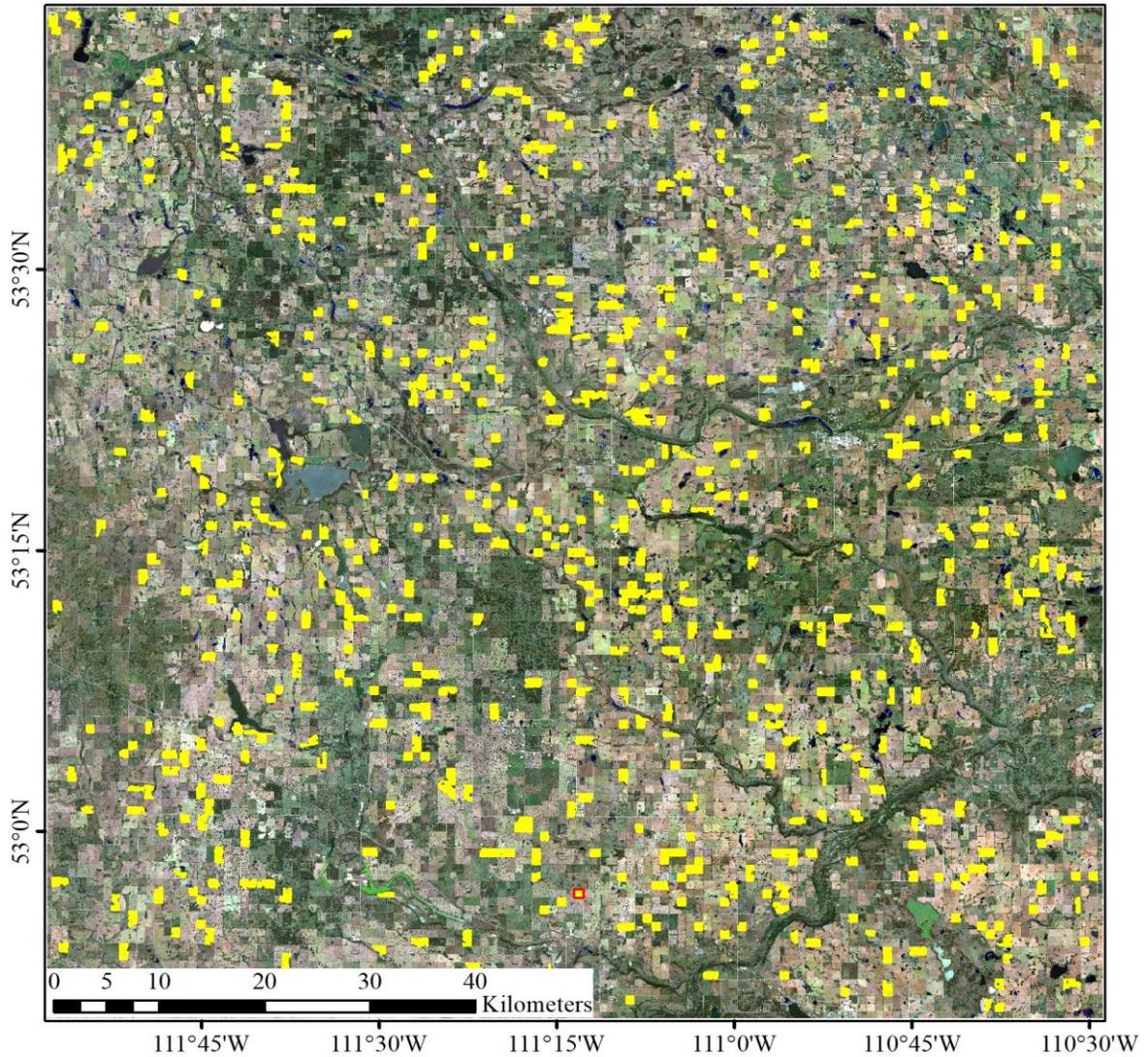
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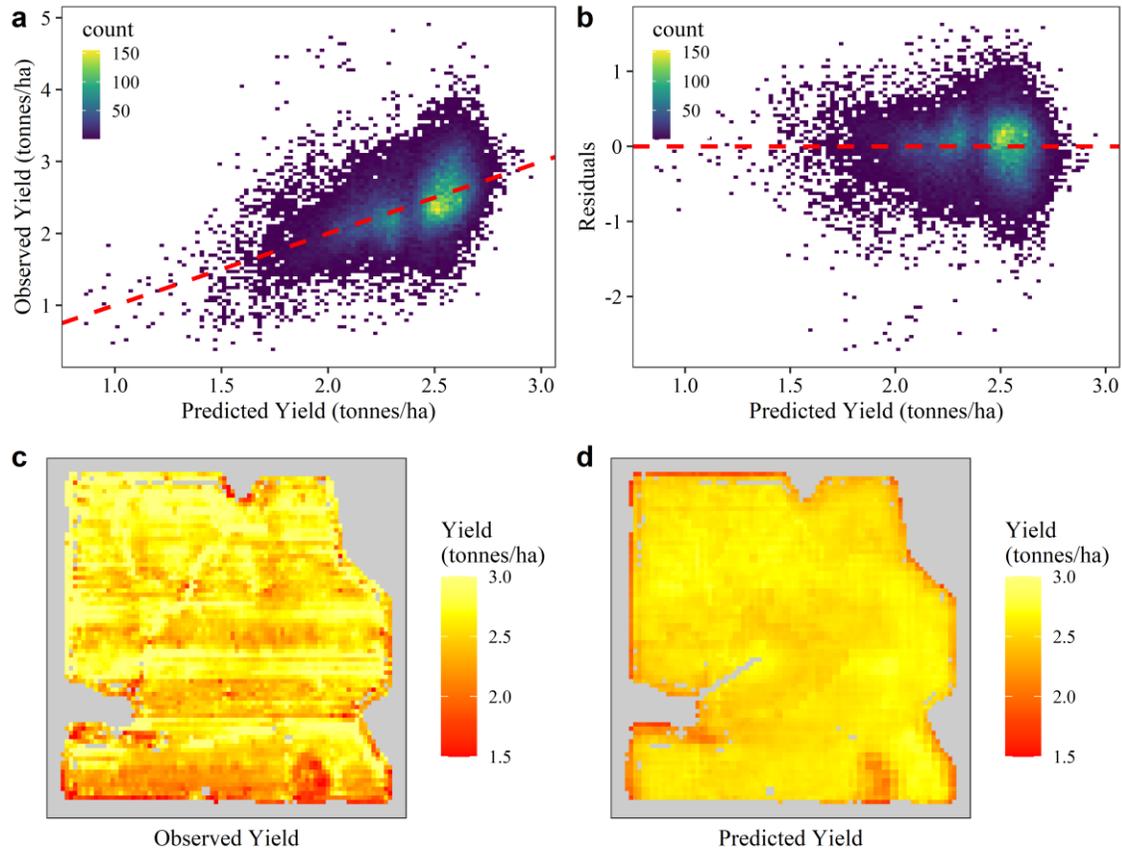


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413 FIGURE 1. Study area: selected canola fields (in yellow) on top of the 2019 Sentinel-2 RGB

414 image (median values). A sample field (in red box) and its “distance-to-nearest-edge” raster are

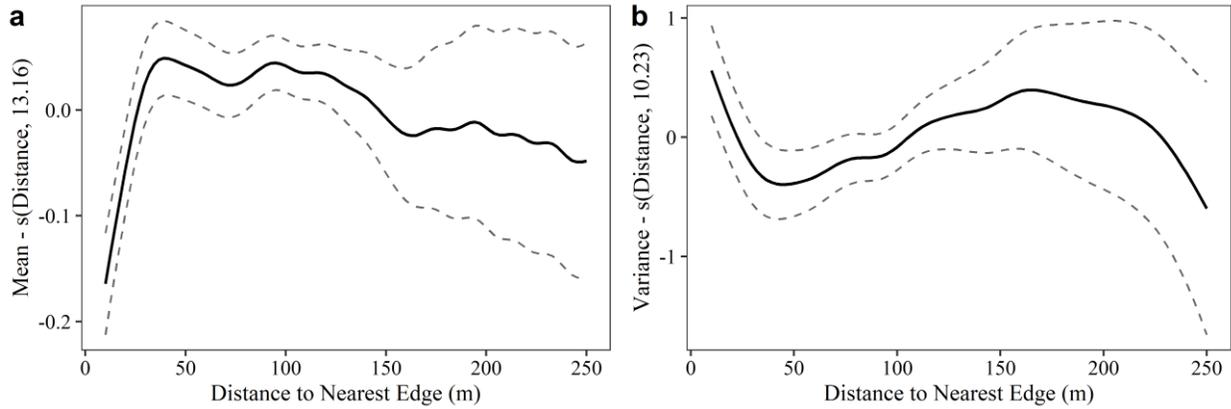
415 shown in panel A and B.



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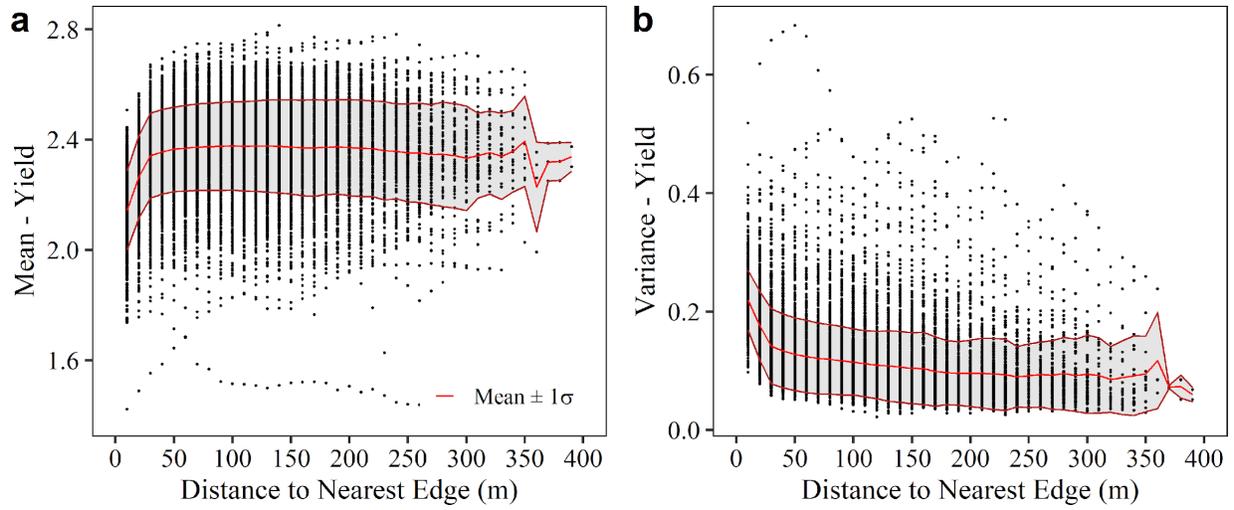
417 FIGURE 2. Outputs of functional regression model to map precision canola yield for all studied

418 fields (a and b) and observed versus predicted yield for a sample field (c and d).



419

420 FIGURE 3. Partial effects of distance on mean (a) and variance (b) yield for a sample canola
 421 field. Numbers within the y-axis labels are effective degrees of freedom - a proxy for the degree
 422 of non-linearity in predictor-response relationship where 0 implies no relationship, 1 implies
 423 linearity, and >1 implies non-linearity.



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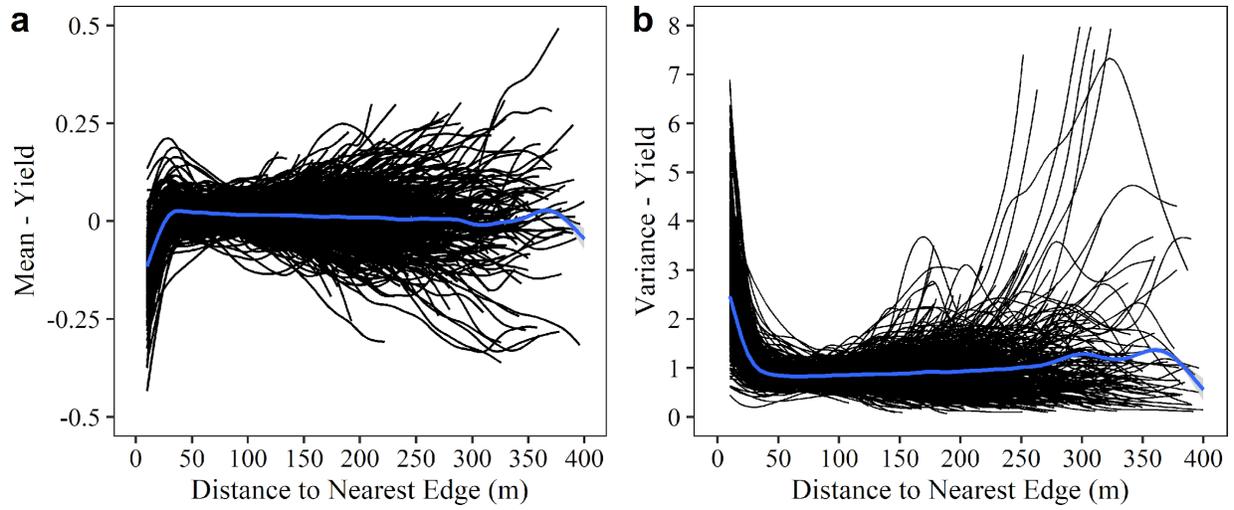
FIGURE 4. Mean (a) and variance (b) bin-yield of various distance bins for all canola fields

426

(black dots). The overall impacts of field edge on subfield-level canola productivity are

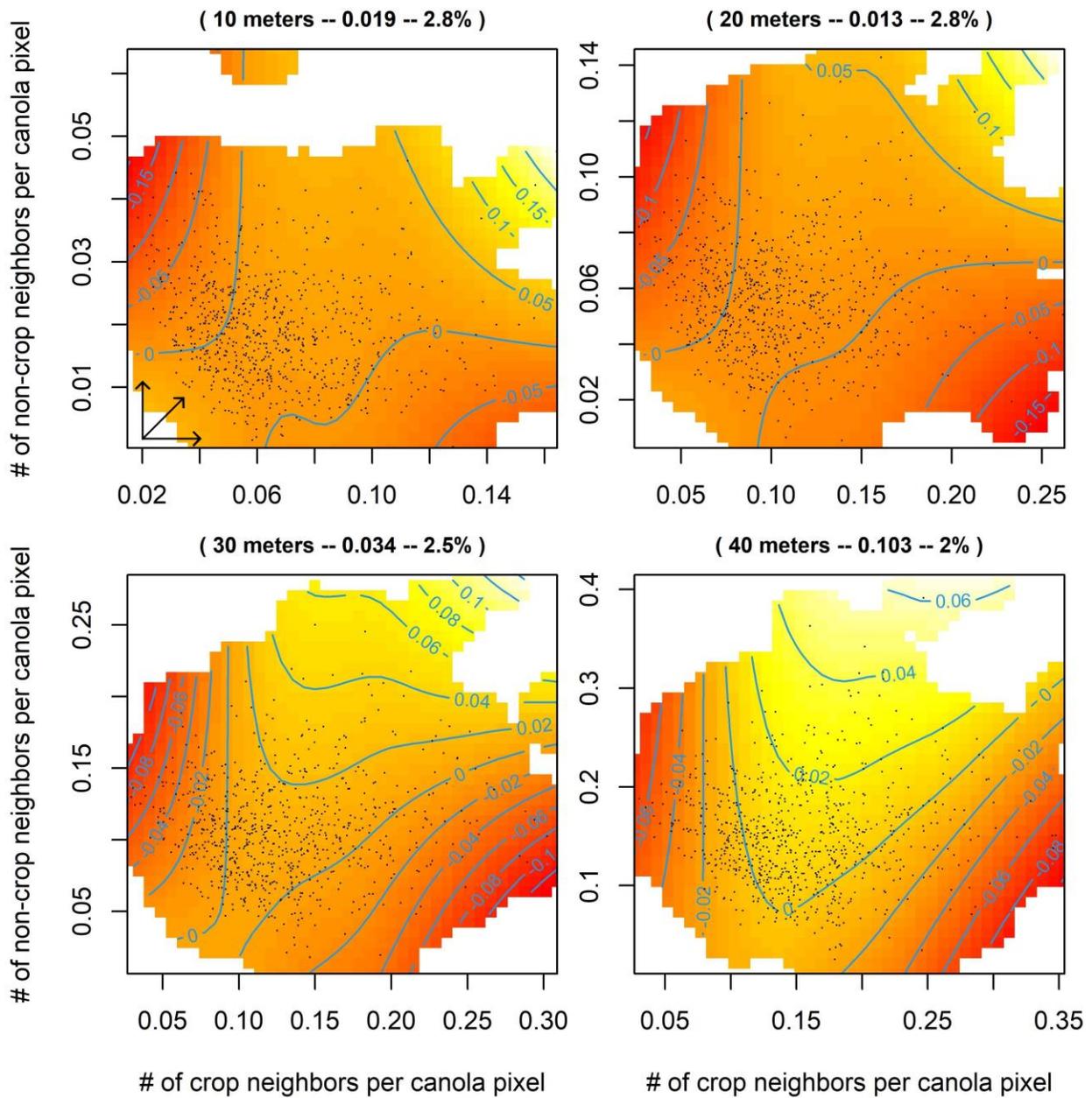
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presented by mean $\pm 1\sigma$ lines across all distance bins.



428

429 FIGURE 5. Partial effects of distance (black lines) on mean (a) and variance (b) subfield-level
430 yield and the overall impacts of field edge (blue lines) captured by GAMs.



431

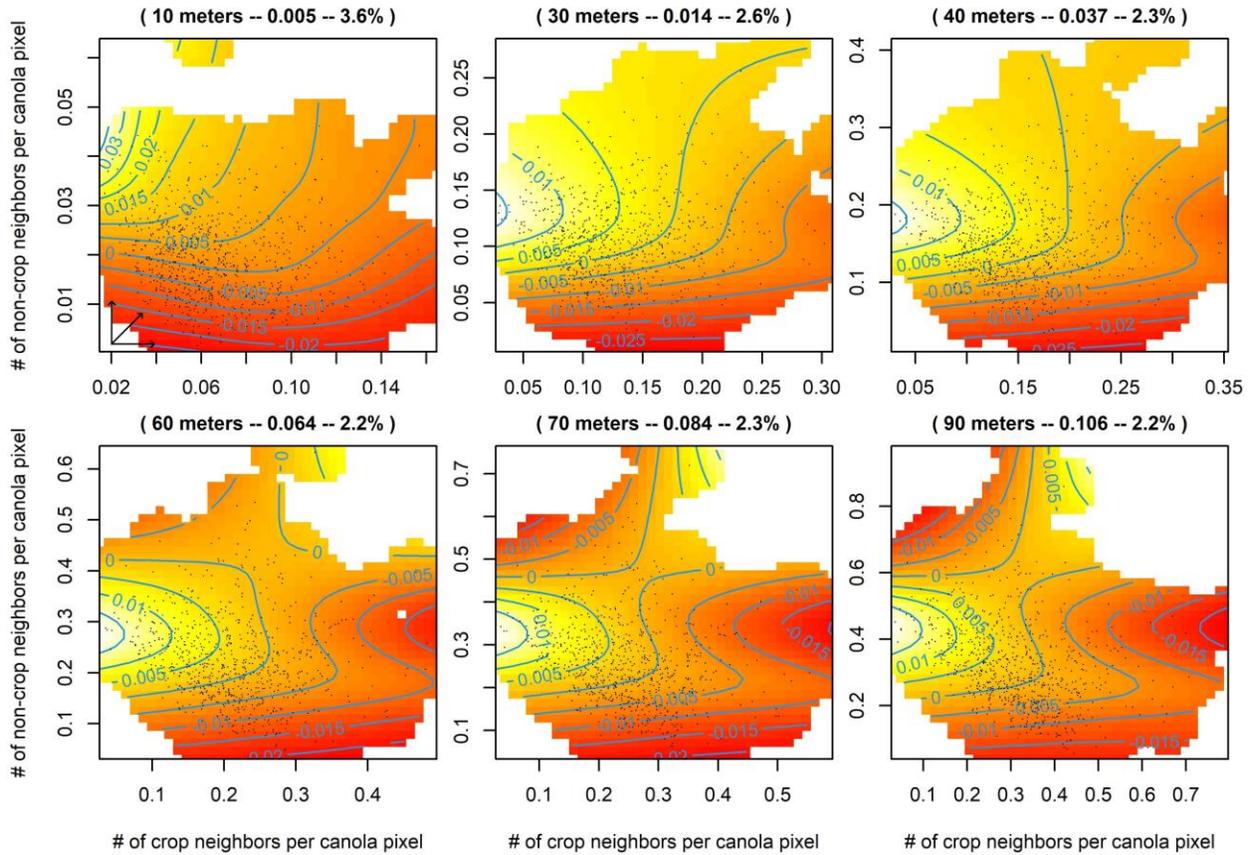
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FIGURE 6. Partial effects of neighboring crop and non-crop spaces on field-level mean yield. The effects are no longer significant for 40-meters and larger rings. Values shown in the titles are ring size, p-value, and percent of deviance explained. Each black dot presents an individual canola field. Black arrows show directions of increasing landscape complexity.



436

437 FIGURE 7. Partial effects of neighboring crop and non-crop spaces on field-level variance yield.

438 The effects are no longer significant for 90-meters and larger rings. Values shown in the titles are

439 ring size, p-value, and percent of deviance explained. Each black dot presents an individual

440 canola field. Black arrows show directions of increasing landscape complexity.