

1 [Permanent grasslands in Europe: land use change and intensification](#)  
2 [decrease their multifunctionality](#)

3 René L.M. Schils<sup>a</sup>, Conny Bufe<sup>a</sup>, Caroline Rhymer<sup>b</sup>, Richard Francksen<sup>b</sup>, Valentin H.  
4 Klaus<sup>c</sup>, Mohamed Abdalla<sup>d</sup>, Filippo Milazzo<sup>e</sup>, Eszter Lellei-Kovács<sup>f</sup>, Hein ten Berge<sup>a</sup>, Chiara  
5 Bertora<sup>g</sup>, Anna Chodkiewicz<sup>h</sup>, Claudia Dămățircă<sup>g</sup>, Iris Feigenwinter<sup>c</sup>, Pilar Fernández-  
6 Rebollo<sup>i</sup>, Shiva Ghiasi<sup>c\*</sup>, Stanislav Hejduk<sup>j</sup>, Matthew Hiron<sup>k</sup>, Maria Janicka<sup>h</sup>, Raoul  
7 Pellaton<sup>f</sup>, Kate Smith<sup>l</sup>, Rachel Thorman<sup>l</sup>, Tom Vanwalleghem<sup>e</sup>, John Williams<sup>l</sup>, Laura  
8 Zavattaro<sup>g\*\*</sup>, Jarl Kampen<sup>m</sup>, Ria Derkx<sup>n</sup>, Pete Smith<sup>d</sup>, Mark J. Whittingham<sup>b</sup>, Nina  
9 Buchmann<sup>c</sup>, Paul Newell Price<sup>l</sup>

10 <sup>a</sup>Agrosystems Research, Wageningen Plant Research, Droevendaalsesteeg 1, 6708 PB  
11 Wageningen, The Netherlands

12 <sup>b</sup>School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, Newcastle University, United Kingdom

13 <sup>c</sup>Department of Environmental Systems Science, Institute of Agricultural Sciences, ETH  
14 Zürich, Switzerland

15 <sup>d</sup>Institute of Biological and Environmental Sciences, University of Aberdeen, United  
16 Kingdom

17 <sup>e</sup>Department of Agronomy, ETSIAM, University of Córdoba, Spain

18 <sup>f</sup>Institute of Ecology and Botany, MTA Centre for Ecological Research, Hungary

19 <sup>g</sup>Department of Agricultural, Forest and Food Sciences, University of Torino, Italy

20 <sup>h</sup>Department of Agronomy, Faculty of Agriculture and Biology, Warsaw University of Life  
21 Sciences, Poland

22 <sup>i</sup>Department of Forestry, ETSIAM, University of Córdoba, Spain

23 <sup>j</sup>Department of Animal Nutrition and Forage Production, Mendel University, Czech  
24 Republic

25 <sup>k</sup>Department of Ecology, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Sweden

26 <sup>l</sup>ADAS, United Kingdom

27 <sup>m</sup>Biometris, Department of Plant Sciences, Wageningen University, The Netherlands

28 <sup>n</sup>Library, Wageningen University and Research, The Netherlands

29 \*Current address: Water Protection and Substance Flows Group, Agroscope Reckenholz,  
30 Switzerland

31 \*\*Current address: Department of Veterinary Sciences, University of Torino, Italy.

32

33 Corresponding author: René L.M. Schils

34 E-mail: [rene.schils@wur.nl](mailto:rene.schils@wur.nl)

## 35 Abstract

36 Permanent grasslands cover 34% of the European Union's agricultural area and are vital  
37 for a wide variety of ecosystem services essential for our society. Over recent decades,  
38 the permanent grassland area has declined and land use change continues to threaten its  
39 extent. Simultaneously, the management intensity of permanent grasslands increased.  
40 We performed a systematic literature review on the multifunctionality of permanent  
41 grasslands in Europe, examining the effects of land use and management on 19  
42 grassland ecosystem service indicators. Based on the evidence in 696 out of 70,456  
43 screened papers, published since 1980, we found that both land use change and  
44 intensification of management decreased multifunctionality. In particular, preventing  
45 conversion of permanent grasslands to croplands secured the delivery of multiple  
46 ecosystem services. A lower management intensity was associated with benefits for  
47 biodiversity, climate regulation and water purification, but impacted the provision of high-  
48 quality animal feed. Increasing the number of species in the sward enhanced  
49 multifunctionality of permanent grassland without significant trade-offs such as losses in  
50 production. Our review covered many aspects of land use, management and ecosystem  
51 services, but we also identified areas with no or only few studies. The most prominent  
52 gaps were related to comparisons between permanent and temporary grasslands, and  
53 effects of management practices on the provision of cultural values, and on erosion and  
54 flood control. We suggest that, despite apparent changes in human dietary preferences,  
55 the protection of permanent grasslands in Europe must be prioritised. At the same time,  
56 considering the need to reduce ruminant livestock's contribution to climate change, the  
57 time seems ripe to increase support for low-intensity grassland management to optimise  
58 the provision of essential ecosystem services from Europe's permanent grasslands.

59

60 **Keywords**

61 agro-ecology, ecosystem services, grassland, land use change, systematic literature

62 review

## 63 1. Introduction

64 Permanent grasslands cover 34% of the European Union's agricultural area (Eurostat,  
65 2020) and are vital for human wellbeing as they contribute to a wide variety of essential  
66 ecosystem services (O'Mara, 2012; Habel *et al.*, 2013; Bengtsson *et al.*, 2019). Thus,  
67 any change in their area or the capacity of grassland to provide ecosystem services will  
68 have significant societal impacts. For centuries, permanent grasslands have been the  
69 basis for livestock production and the main pillar of nutrient cycling on farms all over  
70 Europe (Green, 1990; Lemaire *et al.*, 2011; Hejcman *et al.*, 2013). After the Second  
71 World War, the goal of self-sufficiency in food production stimulated the improvement  
72 and intensification of management of permanent grasslands, or their conversion to  
73 temporary grasslands or croplands. In less versatile areas, like mountainous regions or  
74 wet lowlands, large areas of permanent grasslands were abandoned or afforested (Habel  
75 *et al.*, 2013; Boch *et al.*, 2020). While statistical data on the loss of permanent  
76 grasslands are fragmented, the available figures illustrate the significant loss during the  
77 last decades. For example, in the EU-6 countries (Belgium, Netherlands, Luxemburg,  
78 France, Former West Germany, Italy), permanent grassland losses have been estimated  
79 at about 30% between 1967 and 2007 (Huyghe *et al.*, 2014). Regionally, losses have  
80 been even higher, as in Upper Normandy, France, where about 50% of the permanent  
81 grassland area was lost between 1970 and 2000 (Van Den Pol-Van Dasselaar *et al.*,  
82 2019). In Eastern Europe, the political transformations at the end of the 1980s triggered  
83 large scale abandonment of permanent grasslands, as in Slovakia where 42% of  
84 permanent grasslands were left unused (Kizeková *et al.*, 2018).

85 Today, grass is still among the cheapest high-quality feed sources for efficient ruminant  
86 meat and dairy production (van den Pol *et al.*, 2018). In addition to the provision of feed,  
87 permanent grasslands sustain a broad range of additional ecosystem services, including  
88 climate regulation through carbon sequestration (Soussana *et al.*, 2010), cultural values  
89 (Hussain *et al.*, 2019), protection against erosion and flooding (MacLeod *et al.*, 2013),  
90 and pollination of food crops (Klein *et al.*, 2007; Scheper *et al.*, 2013).

91 Permanent grasslands across Europe are very diverse in appearance (Fig. 1). This is  
92 partly driven by inherent factors such as climate and soil, but also by varying intensities  
93 of grassland management, resulting in continuous gradients of fertilisation and defoliation  
94 (mowing or grazing) intensities (Blüthgen *et al.*, 2012). Some studies have addressed  
95 aspects of multifunctionality of grasslands for a specific region (Allan *et al.*, 2015) or  
96 specific experimental sites (Werling *et al.*, 2014; Meyer *et al.*, 2018). Others focused on  
97 temperate grasslands (Pilgrim *et al.*, 2010), cultivated grasslands (Sollenberger *et al.*,  
98 2019), (semi)-natural grasslands (Bengtsson *et al.*, 2019) or grazing lands (D'Ottavio *et*  
99 *al.*, 2018). For European permanent grasslands we thus have a restricted understanding  
100 of land use and management effects on multifunctionality, which limits our ability to  
101 understand and predict the effects of land use change and management intensification on  
102 the provisioning of vital grassland ecosystem services. Here, we analyse the body of,  
103 mainly monodisciplinary, studies across Europe in a comprehensive multidisciplinary  
104 systematic literature review with a focus on experimental contrasts in land use and  
105 management aspects. Our aim was to understand the effects of land use change and  
106 management intensification on the provision of several major grassland ecosystem  
107 services. We considered the “big five” grassland ecosystem services, i.e. *provision of*  
108 *animal feed, biodiversity, climate regulation, water purification, and cultural values*  
109 (Isselstein and Kayser, 2014), and added a sixth important service, *erosion and flood*  
110 *control*.

111 Our study addressed two central research questions: first, what are the reported effects  
112 of land use change, i.e. the conversion to other land uses such as temporary grassland,  
113 cropland or forest, on the delivery of grassland ecosystem services? Second, what are  
114 the reported effects of intensification and specific management options on the delivery of  
115 ecosystem services by permanent grassland? The outcomes of this review draw a  
116 comprehensive overview of ecosystem service delivery from permanent grasslands across  
117 Europe, including an integrated assessment of multifunctionality. Furthermore, we  
118 identified relevant gaps in ecosystem service research that limit the understanding of

119 land use and management effects on multifunctionality required for policy and farm

120 management decisions.

121

## 122 2. Methods

### 123 2.1 *Permanent grassland*

124 We used the European Union's definition of permanent grassland, as land used to grow  
125 grasses or other herbaceous forage that has not been included in the crop rotation of the  
126 holding for a duration of five years or longer (EU, 2004).

### 127 2.2 *Indicators of ecosystem services*

128 We selected a set of indicators (Table S2) that comprised a cross-cutting representation  
129 of biodiversity and ecosystem services of permanent grasslands. We are aware of the  
130 multiple roles of biodiversity in the delivery of ecosystem services, as a regulator of  
131 ecosystem processes, as a service in itself and as a good (Mace *et al.*, 2012). For clarity,  
132 we consider biodiversity as one of the ecosystem services.

### 133 2.3 *Search strategy – inclusion criteria*

134 In the fourth quarter of 2019, we searched the Scopus and CAB abstracts databases for  
135 grassland studies on 19 indicators of ecosystem services in Europe, published in the  
136 English language from 1980 onwards (Table S3). Scopus and CAB abstracts were used  
137 for this systematic review because both databases can effectively perform complex  
138 Boolean searches with regards to precision, recall and reproducibility, which is a  
139 prerequisite for systematic searching (Gusenbauer and Haddaway, 2020). CAB Abstracts  
140 is the leading database on applied life sciences, including crop sciences and grasslands,  
141 animal science, environmental science, and recreation/tourism. The multidisciplinary  
142 database Scopus is the largest abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature  
143 in the field of science, technology, medicine, and social sciences.

144 Search strings were evaluated and refined in several steps by assessing the relevance of  
145 the papers returned, and by checking against key papers in the field. A wide range of  
146 search terms were used to cover the diversity of methods used to assess the provision of

147 ecosystem services of permanent grasslands. We developed a search string for the  
148 concept "grass", and combined this, using an AND-operator, with the search string for  
149 each one of the 19 ecosystem service indicators.

150 We combined the 19 sets of search results into de-duplicated Endnote libraries, one for  
151 each ecosystem service. We collected a total of 70,456 papers, varying from 7,181  
152 papers for *water purification* to 16,201 papers for *biodiversity* (Table S1). These papers,  
153 including abstracts, were uploaded to the dedicated systematic review analysis software  
154 'EPPI reviewer 4 tool' (<http://eppi.ioe.ac.uk/cms/>), as six corresponding reviews.

#### 155 *2.4 Exclusion criteria*

156 Titles and abstracts were screened in two stages, using the following same set of  
157 exclusion criteria:

- 158 • Not in the English language.
- 159 • Outside these Natura 2000 biogeographic zones of interest: Alpine, Atlantic, Boreal,  
160 Continental, Mediterranean or Pannonian. Biogeographical boundaries are a  
161 combination of official delineations used in the Habitats Directive (92/43/EEC) and  
162 for the EMERALD Network under the Convention on the Conservation of European  
163 Wildlife and Natural Habitats (Bern Convention). They are independent of political  
164 boundaries of Emerald Network countries or EU Member States  
165 ([https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/biogeographical-regions-europe-](https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/biogeographical-regions-europe-3)  
166 3).
- 167 • Outside these countries in Europe: Member states of the EU-28 or Albania, Belarus,  
168 Bosnia Herzegovina, Kosovo, Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Norway, Serbia,  
169 Switzerland or Ukraine.
- 170 • Unit of study was not grassland.
- 171 • The outcome was not one of the 19 indicators of interest.
- 172 • Papers on urban amenity grasses.



- 173 • Reviews.
- 174 • Modelling studies.
- 175 • Experiments under controlled conditions: laboratories, greenhouses or pots.

## 176 *2.5 Study selection on contrasts*

177 The papers retained after the title and abstract screening contained the body of literature  
178 on European experimental studies, published after 1980 and in the English language, and  
179 on one or more of the 19 indicators for grassland. From this set of 11,619 papers, we  
180 selected papers that contained at least one of eight experimental contrasts in land use  
181 (permanent grassland versus cropland, forest or temporary grassland) or contrasts in  
182 management (sward renewal, legume presence, number of species, defoliation frequency  
183 and nitrogen input).

## 184 *2.6 Data extraction*

185 After screening for eligible contrasts, we retained 3,664 studies for full text screening.  
186 Retrieved papers were read and either extracted or excluded with reasons (Fig. S1 and  
187 Table S1). For time management reasons, we developed a stepwise sampling procedure  
188 among eligible papers within the ecosystem services *biodiversity* and *provision of animal*  
189 *feed*, which each had more than 1,000 eligible papers. We took consecutive random  
190 samples of 300 papers out of the eligible papers for data extraction until a maximum of  
191 300 extracted papers. Eventually, 510 papers out of the 1,313 papers of the *provision of*  
192 *animal feed* domain were not included in the sample.

193 Data from valid sampled full text papers were extracted using a data extraction form,  
194 developed in MS Excel, consisting of two sections (Table S4). The first form (Study) was  
195 used to extract data per paper: bibliographical identification, study type, geography,  
196 experimental contrasts, and methods for assessment of the relevant indicators. If a paper  
197 was excluded at this stage, the reason was recorded in this form as well. The second  
198 form (Contrast) was used to extract data on the experimental contrasts. Each paper

199 consisted of at least one contrast and in total the 696 papers contained 1032 eligible  
200 experimental contrasts, which we define as a 'case'. Here, we registered the outcome: no  
201 conclusion, favourable, neutral, or unfavourable (Table S5). The outcome was based on  
202 the numerical data and statistical significance in tables, figures, or text, or based on  
203 authors' claims in the text. This approach allowed us to combine the extremely  
204 heterogeneous data and metrics across ecosystem service indicators, allowing a greater  
205 number of studies to be compared for a more comprehensive answer to our research  
206 questions. Rather than simply counting which studies had outcomes in a certain direction,  
207 sometimes referred to as 'vote-counting' (Stewart, 2010), we applied strict criteria for  
208 the inclusion of studies and for the assessment of the direction of interventions on the  
209 outcome of ecosystem service indicators.

## 210 *2.7 Data analysis*

211 The outcomes from the data extraction form were tabulated per contrast. For statistical  
212 analysis, the outcomes were transformed to numerical values (favourable = 1, neutral =  
213 0, unfavourable = -1). Cases with no conclusion were discarded from the analysis. A one-  
214 sample t-test was carried out, with  $H_0$  assuming no effect (outcome = 0). The analysis  
215 was carried out with the facilities of SPSS version 25 (SPSS, 2020).

## 216 *2.8 Reviewer bias*

217 Screening and data extraction were carried out by expert teams, consisting of a lead-  
218 reviewer and at least one co-reviewer per ecosystem service. The assessment of the  
219 lead-reviewer, an expert in the field, was the benchmark against which the co-reviewers'  
220 assessments were compared. To align the scoring in screening and extraction,  
221 intermediate results including arising disputes were discussed and resolved. At least 5%  
222 of the papers were double-screened, independently by the lead-reviewer and one or  
223 more co-reviewers. We assessed the number and proportion of 'false exclusions', i.e.  
224 when the co-reviewer excluded a paper that was included by the lead-reviewer. If the  
225 proportion of false exclusions was higher than 10%, we reconciled the issues.

## 226 3. Results and Discussion

### 227 3.1 Spatial and temporal outline of the evidence

228 We considered 70,456 papers, identified for 19 indicators of grassland ecosystem  
229 services (Table S1) across Europe, published since 1980 (Fig. S1 and Table S2). After  
230 screening, we included 696 papers in the final analysis (1%). While we found papers  
231 covering almost all regions of Europe, the majority were found in a broad northwest to  
232 southeast range, roughly stretching from the British Isles to Eastern Europe (Fig. 2).  
233 Although most of the papers included in this review were identified in regions where over  
234 40% of the utilised agricultural area (UAA) was covered by permanent grasslands,  
235 regions with less than 20% permanent grasslands were also represented. Around two  
236 thirds of the extracted papers originated from the Atlantic or Continental biogeographic  
237 regions (Fig. S2). Studies on the environmental ecosystem services *water purification*  
238 and *climate regulation* were overrepresented in the Atlantic region, most likely related to  
239 the high grassland productivity (Smit *et al.*, 2008) and higher intensity of livestock  
240 farming in these areas (Leip *et al.*, 2015).

241 Over the past 40 years, the scientific literature on permanent grasslands in Europe has  
242 been dominated by studies on the *provision of animal feed* (Fig. S3). We found that the  
243 number of papers focusing on other grassland ecosystem services increased gradually, in  
244 line with developments in societal debates (Hall *et al.*, 2004) and European Union's  
245 regulations like the Nitrates Directive (EU, 1991), Birds and Habitats Directive (EU,  
246 1992), Soil strategy (EU, 2006), climate change policies (Jordan and Rayner, 2010) and  
247 greening measures in the Common Agricultural Policy (Hauck *et al.*, 2014). Despite the  
248 change in policy priorities, permanent grasslands' role as provider of animal feed  
249 remained among the top priorities of the research agenda.

250 While our review allowed us to cover many important aspects of land use, management  
251 and ecosystem services, some study topics were underrepresented such as the  
252 comparison between permanent and temporary grasslands, effects of species diversity on

253 climate regulation, the relation between grassland management and cultural values, and  
254 the topics erosion and flood control (Fig. S5 and S7). Moreover, we did not find any  
255 eligible papers on pesticides leaching into ground and surface water from permanent  
256 grasslands.

### 257 *3.2 Preserving permanent grasslands secures vital ecosystem services*

258 We found that most studies reported favourable outcomes for permanent grasslands  
259 compared to croplands across all ecosystem service indicators, except for forage yield  
260 and energy content (Fig. 3a, Fig. S4 and Fig. S5 ). A significantly high proportion of  
261 studies reported favourable outcomes for permanent grasslands on threatened species  
262 (e.g. Bretagnolle *et al.*, 2011), carbon sequestration (e.g. Gregory *et al.*, 2016) and  
263 nitrogen losses to water (e.g. Webster *et al.*, 1999). Furthermore, the favourable  
264 outcomes of all indicators for *climate regulation, water purification, erosion and flood*  
265 *control, and cultural values* were supported by at least five cases.

266 Only a few studies compared permanent to temporary grasslands, with the outcomes  
267 generally supported by less than five cases. We found no consistent evidence, with only  
268 seven cases available, of higher grass yields from temporary grasslands compared to  
269 permanent grasslands, contrary to the common expectation when converting permanent  
270 grasslands into temporary grasslands (Søegaard *et al.*, 2007). Temporary grasslands are,  
271 by definition, always part of a rotation with other crops. This implies that the outcomes of  
272 the comparison with croplands are also relevant for the assessment of the conversion  
273 from permanent to temporary grassland.

274 Even though permanent grasslands are extremely diverse across Europe, a common  
275 denominator is that the livelihood of farms with permanent grasslands depends to some  
276 extent on ruminant animal production. Therefore, the current feed-food debate (Tilman  
277 and Clark, 2014; Di Paola *et al.*, 2017) and the interlinked urgency to reduce methane  
278 emissions from ruminant livestock (Gerber *et al.*, 2013) is highly relevant for the future  
279 of permanent grasslands. So, while in some areas there may be arguments for

280 conversion of suitable permanent grassland to cropland for direct human food production,  
281 such conversion would clearly come with an impact on vital ecosystem services such as  
282 carbon sequestration, *biodiversity and water purification*.

283 The European Union's Common Agricultural Policy recognises the value of the ecosystem  
284 services provided by permanent grasslands (EU, 2013). Under the current policy, a so-  
285 called "green direct payment" is provided. The measure aimed to limit declines in the  
286 ratio of permanent grassland to total utilised agricultural area to less than 5%, and to  
287 protect the most environmentally sensitive permanent grasslands from conversion. In  
288 future, these payments will fall under the new conditionality element of the post-2020  
289 Common Agricultural Policy (EU, 2019). Enhanced management of permanent grasslands  
290 will be promoted under the new eco-schemes in which national authorities have more  
291 flexibility and can be more ambitious to direct and extend these measures.

292 When permanent grasslands were compared to forests, the reported outcomes suggest  
293 trade-offs between the studied ecosystem services (Fig. 3b). We found consistent  
294 evidence of studies reporting a better performance of forests regarding all indicators for  
295 *erosion and flood control* (Fig. S4 and Fig. S5). In contrast, most studies reported higher  
296 levels of *biodiversity and cultural values* for permanent grasslands compared to forests,  
297 in particular for the indicators threatened species and aesthetic value. The reported  
298 outcomes on *climate regulation and water purification* did not show a consistent effect. A  
299 small majority of cases (9 versus 6; Fig. S5) showed higher soil carbon sequestration in  
300 forests (e.g. Prescher *et al.*, 2010). However, our assessment did not include the overall  
301 ecosystem carbon sequestration of forests which is typically higher than in permanent  
302 grasslands due to the long term build-up of above ground biomass (Schulze *et al.*, 2009).  
303 For harvested woodlands, the timing of harvest and the fate of the harvested wood  
304 determines its overall carbon sequestration effect (Ciais *et al.*, 2008).

305 Our findings on the comparison between permanent grasslands and forests are also  
306 relevant for the broader land use debate. Withdrawal of permanent grasslands from  
307 agriculture and subsequent afforestation, as suggested for example by the Bonn

308 Challenge could reduce the environmental impacts of livestock, if dietary demand by  
309 consumers declined in parallel. However, such conversion to forest would not be able to  
310 sustain the high multifunctionality provided by permanent grasslands under reduced or  
311 extensive management (Temperton *et al.*, 2019). To integrate the advantages of forestry  
312 in agricultural land use, there is also a role for silvopastoral systems in conserving  
313 biodiversity and enhancing broad ecosystem service provision, including animal feed  
314 (Torralba *et al.*, 2016).

315 We identified a lack of studies that compared permanent to temporary grasslands,  
316 especially across the whole spectrum of non-feed ecosystem services (Fig. S5). These  
317 research gaps can be addressed by either long-term plot experiments under controlled  
318 conditions or monitoring campaigns at the scale of fields or landscapes, depending on the  
319 targeted ecosystem service indicator.

### 320 *3.3 Reduced management intensity benefits multifunctionality*

321 We found consistent trade-offs in the reported outcomes between indicators for feed and  
322 non-feed ecosystem services for three types of management options that represent  
323 increasing management intensity, i.e. nitrogen input, increasing defoliation frequency  
324 and grass renewal (Fig. 4a). For nitrogen input, we found significantly unfavourable  
325 effects on all indicators for *biodiversity*, *water purification*, and *climate regulation*, except  
326 carbon sequestration (Fig. S6 and Fig. S7). In contrast, there were significantly  
327 favourable effects of nitrogen on forage yield and protein content. Yield and quality were  
328 oppositely affected by defoliation frequency. With increasing frequency, we found a  
329 significant improvement of forage quality, but a significantly lower forage yield (e.g.  
330 Hopkins *et al.*, 1990; Nerusil *et al.*, 2008). There were few studies on the effect of  
331 defoliation frequency on the non-feed ecosystem services. We found a limited number of  
332 studies for *climate regulation* (7) and *water purification* (6) but no cases for *erosion and*  
333 *flood control* or *cultural values*. However, the overall negative effects of increasing  
334 defoliation frequency on all indicators of *biodiversity* and on nitrogen losses to water were  
335 supported by at least five cases. Finally, grass renewal showed significant favourable

336 effects on forage yield, but no consistent effect on forage quality, across 30 cases for  
337 energy content and 28 cases for protein content (e.g. Badia *et al.*, 1994; Butkuvienė and  
338 Butkute, 2007). In contrast, we found that grassland renewal significantly increased  
339 nitrous oxide emissions (e.g. Merbold *et al.*, 2014) and nitrogen losses to water (e.g.  
340 Velthof *et al.*, 2010). It is remarkable that only 40% of the studies stated the sward age  
341 at renewal. Of these, the dominant sward age at renewal was between 5 and 25 years,  
342 while only 10% were younger than 5 years (e.g. Vliegheer and Carlier, 2007) and 20%  
343 older than 25 years (e.g. Bommele *et al.*, 2006).

344 In addition to the above interventions which relate to intensity of management,  
345 diversification of the sward was studied as a separate category of management options,  
346 which we do not consider as a dimension of intensity. The reported outcomes of  
347 increased number of species in the sward showed mainly favourable effects on the  
348 indicators for *biodiversity*, *cultural values* and *water purification* and mixed effects on  
349 *provision of animal feed* (Fig. 4b). An increased number of species significantly increased  
350 the number of pollinators and threatened species. There were less than five cases for  
351 *cultural values* and *water purification*, but they consistently reported a favourable effect  
352 of number of species in the sward. An increased number of species significantly increased  
353 yield, but decreased the energy content, and showed no consistent effect on protein  
354 content.

355 We found that papers comparing swards with and without legumes, with similar nitrogen  
356 fertiliser inputs, reported significant favourable effects of legumes on yield and protein  
357 content, whereas energy content was not affected. Papers on the non-feed ecosystem  
358 services of legume presence were relatively underrepresented. A consistent favourable  
359 effect of legumes, based on eight cases, was reported for the abundance of pollinators  
360 (e.g. Woodcock *et al.*, 2014). The papers on nitrogen losses to water showed a small  
361 unfavourable effect of the presence of legumes (e.g. De Vries *et al.*, 2006).

362 Our findings on the key role of grassland management in regulating the provision of  
363 ecosystem services are in line with earlier non-systematic reviews, limited to temperate

364 grasslands in lowland Europe (Pilgrim *et al.*, 2010) or cultivated grasslands (Sollenberger  
365 *et al.*, 2019). Over the past 60 years, the average management intensity of European  
366 grasslands has clearly increased (Hopkins and Wilkins, 2006). In many regions  
367 permanent grasslands also experienced increasing livestock densities, received higher  
368 nutrient inputs, and were subjected to higher cutting frequencies, modulated by  
369 drainage, irrigation, resowing and oversowing with improved cultivars, as well as weed  
370 control with herbicides (Peeters, 2009). We found that an increased management  
371 intensity of permanent grasslands substantially decreased multifunctionality and  
372 especially had unfavourable impacts on *biodiversity*, *climate regulation* and *water*  
373 *purification*. Therefore, we argue that a low or reduced management intensity of  
374 permanent grasslands can help to better strike the balance between the environmental  
375 impact of ruminants and the utilisation of herbage on these areas. First, in regions like  
376 Eastern Europe where intensification is still ongoing in some areas (Török *et al.*, 2020),  
377 the main aim should be to identify options to support management that enables securing  
378 the current level of all ecosystem services and avoid drastic intensification. Second, in  
379 regions with predominantly intensive grasslands, simply reducing management intensity  
380 will not lead to an immediate recovery of all ecosystem services as the extensification  
381 pathway is not the exact inverse of the intensification pathway (Bakker and Berendse,  
382 1999). While, for instance, greenhouse gas emissions would decrease relatively fast, the  
383 response of biodiversity will be rather slow, and might require active measures of  
384 ecological restoration (Isselstein *et al.*, 2005; Klaus *et al.*, 2016). Besides technical  
385 innovations, effective restoration requires integrated socio-economic solutions including  
386 recognition of grasslands in global policy and enhancing knowledge transfer and data  
387 sharing on restoration experiences (Bardgett *et al.*, 2021).

388 Prioritising non-feed ecosystem services comes at a cost of the *provision of animal feed*.  
389 While this trade-off is clear for reducing nitrogen input, other management interventions  
390 show mixed or even synergistic outcomes and thus should be implemented more  
391 frequently. For instance, we found that a higher number of species in the sward is  
392 favourable for *biodiversity* and *provision of animal feed*, albeit with predominantly lower



393 herbage energy content. Introduction of multiple species in species-poor swards,  
394 including legumes, will however require some form of sward renewal, which itself can  
395 have unfavourable effects on *climate regulation* and *water purification*. Grassland renewal  
396 should thus only be carried out infrequently, with as little soil disturbance as is  
397 manageable to achieve the seeding objective and when conditions are favourable to  
398 maximise the probability of successful establishment. The proposed shift from feed to  
399 non-feed ecosystem services will come with a reduced stocking rate and thus lower milk  
400 or meat production per hectare with potential negative effects on farm income, as long as  
401 payments for public goods are widely lacking (Pe'er *et al.*, 2020). However, increasing  
402 the number of species in the sward for example, can also have positive effects on  
403 magnitude and stability of economic revenues, in particular for risk-averse farmers  
404 (Binder *et al.*, 2018; Schaub *et al.*, 2020).

405 With regard to management interventions, we identified several options with a limited  
406 number, or even a complete lack, of studies (Fig. S7). Especially, clarification of  
407 management effects on indicators of *cultural values*, and on *erosion and flood control* will  
408 require additional research efforts in the future. Furthermore, we found  
409 underrepresentation of studies looking into effects of plant richness in the sward,  
410 defoliation frequency and legume presence on indicators of *climate regulation*.

### 411 *3.4 Outlook for permanent grassland*

412 In this extensive systematic review of the literature on permanent grasslands across  
413 Europe, we found that preventing the conversion of permanent grassland to cropland or  
414 temporary grassland secures the provision of multiple ecosystem services. In addition,  
415 we found that intensification of existing permanent grasslands threatens  
416 multifunctionality. These findings are important for the future of permanent grasslands in  
417 view of the impact of our food system, and especially ruminant livestock, on  
418 environmental change.

419 When addressing the question of land use change, it is important to consider that  
420 permanent grasslands are not by default without alternatives for other land uses (Van  
421 Zanten *et al.*, 2018). As such, non-agricultural options, for instance re-wilding and  
422 afforestation, may be viable alternatives as well, though come with their own social and  
423 ecological implications (Navarro and Pereira, 2015). In areas where other agricultural  
424 land uses are possible as alternatives for permanent grassland, many factors need to be  
425 considered when planning the most sensible and beneficial land use. Societal  
426 developments, including the changing demand for red and white meats, but also an  
427 increasing shift towards vegetarian and vegan diets will exert pressures that may shift  
428 the ratio between grassland and cropland (Garnett *et al.*, 2017), and thereby affect  
429 biodiversity (Crenna *et al.*, 2019), and the overall land footprint of food production (Rizvi  
430 *et al.*, 2018). The need to mitigate global warming prompts action to protect carbon  
431 stocks that have meanwhile accumulated in permanent grasslands. In the light of climate  
432 change, permanent grasslands' significant role in reducing erosion and flooding risk is  
433 also likely to increase, as the frequency of extreme events is expected to rise (Tabari,  
434 2020). Livestock numbers play a key role in the total greenhouse gas budget of  
435 grasslands, including methane (Chang *et al.*, 2021). Although grassland-based ruminant  
436 livestock production systems contribute a minority to the total ruminant livestock  
437 emissions (Garnett *et al.*, 2017), they still produce a potent greenhouse gas, which  
438 should be evaluated within the widely acknowledged need to stabilise or reduce total  
439 ruminant livestock numbers (Gerber *et al.*, 2013). Finding the optimal role for permanent  
440 grassland in sustainable land use configurations requires systemic analyses at regional  
441 scales that include consideration of land capability, consumer preferences, farmer  
442 livelihoods and environment, but also biodiversity and cultural values (Poux and Aubert,  
443 2018; Le Clec'h *et al.*, 2019).

444

445 Our review showed that, in general, a lower management intensity allows for a higher  
446 multifunctionality. At the same time, we identified that prioritising non-feed ecosystem

447 services comes at a cost for the provision of animal feed. Here, we need to emphasise  
448 that there is no simple general blueprint for the implementation of a reduced  
449 management intensity. Extensification is more than just reducing inputs and may require  
450 some kind of ecological restoration including the supply of affordable seed mixtures for  
451 diverse grasslands (Schaub *et al.*, 2021). Moreover, multifunctionality is likely to be  
452 optimised differently depending on the local context (Text S1). An optimal configuration  
453 on a farm in the Italian Alps might not work for farms on the west coast of Ireland. That  
454 level of detail has not been drawn out in this assessment. However, many farmers are  
455 locked in production-orientated systems, influenced by persistently low prices for milk  
456 and meat (Erisman *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, a wide-scale transition to more reliance on  
457 extensively managed permanent grasslands requires a multifaceted approach, including  
458 knowledge transfer, policy development and alternative payment schemes for ecosystem  
459 service delivery. Runhaar (2021) reasoned that these types of regime changes are only  
460 possible if four conditions are met, (i) concrete goals or actions, (ii) political and societal  
461 pressure, (iii) a broad coalition for change, and (iv) institutions to support and sustain  
462 the regime change. The presence of these conditions will vary widely in different contexts  
463 across Europe. Furthermore, different stakeholders hold different views towards  
464 permanent grassland which may affect their priorities and goals (Tindale *et al.*, 2020).

465 Over recent decades, the permanent grassland area suffered significant losses. The  
466 outcomes of our review suggests that, in spite of apparent changes in dietary  
467 preferences, the protection of permanent grasslands in Europe has to be prioritised to  
468 prevent further losses of the area and thus the provision of multiple ecosystem services.  
469 At the same time, in view of the need to reduce ruminant livestock's impact on climate  
470 change, the time seems ripe to increase support for low-intensity management on  
471 existing permanent grasslands. The combined approach of protection and extensification  
472 will help secure multiple benefits from Europe's permanent grasslands.

473

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## 478 Data availability

479 The data that support the findings of this study are available at  
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481

## 482 Author Declarations

483 The authors declare no conflicts of interest or competing interests.

484

## 485 Author Contributions

486 RS, CBu, CR, RF, VK, MA, FM, EL, HB, TV, RD, JK, PS, MW, NB, PN designed research.

487 RS, CBu, CR, RF, VK, MA, FM, EL, HB, CBe, AC, CD, IF, PF, SG, SH, MH, MJ, RP, KS, RT,  
488 TV, JW, LZ performed research.

489 RS, CBu, CR, RF, VK, MA, FM, EL, JK analyzed the data.

490 RS, CBu, CR, RF, VK, MA, FM, EL, HB, TV, PS, MW, NB, PN wrote the paper.

491

492

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787

788

FIGURE 1 (tif attached separately)



Fig. 1: Permanent grasslands still dominate the agricultural areas in many European regions, especially in places where growth conditions are unfavourable as in mountainous regions (A, Switzerland). Historically, grasslands were relatively nutrient-poor and extensively managed (B, Poland, and C, Germany), but a significant extent of grasslands experienced either intensification of management (D, United Kingdom) or were lost due to conversion to cropland (E, Czech Republic) or abandonment (F, Switzerland). Pictures by V. Klaus (A, C, F), M. Janicka (B), ADAS (D), S. Hejduk (E).



FIGURE 2 (tif attached separately)

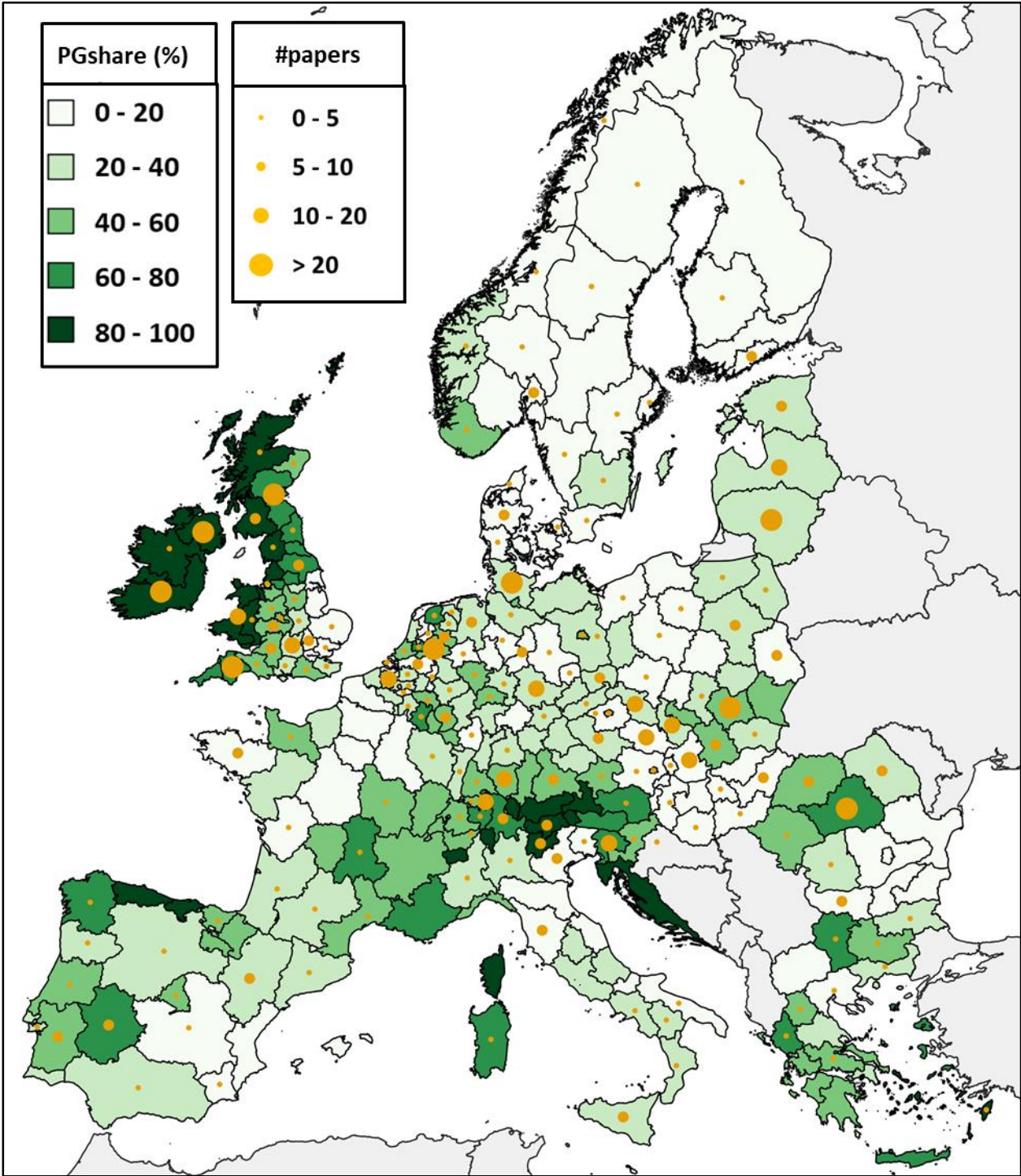
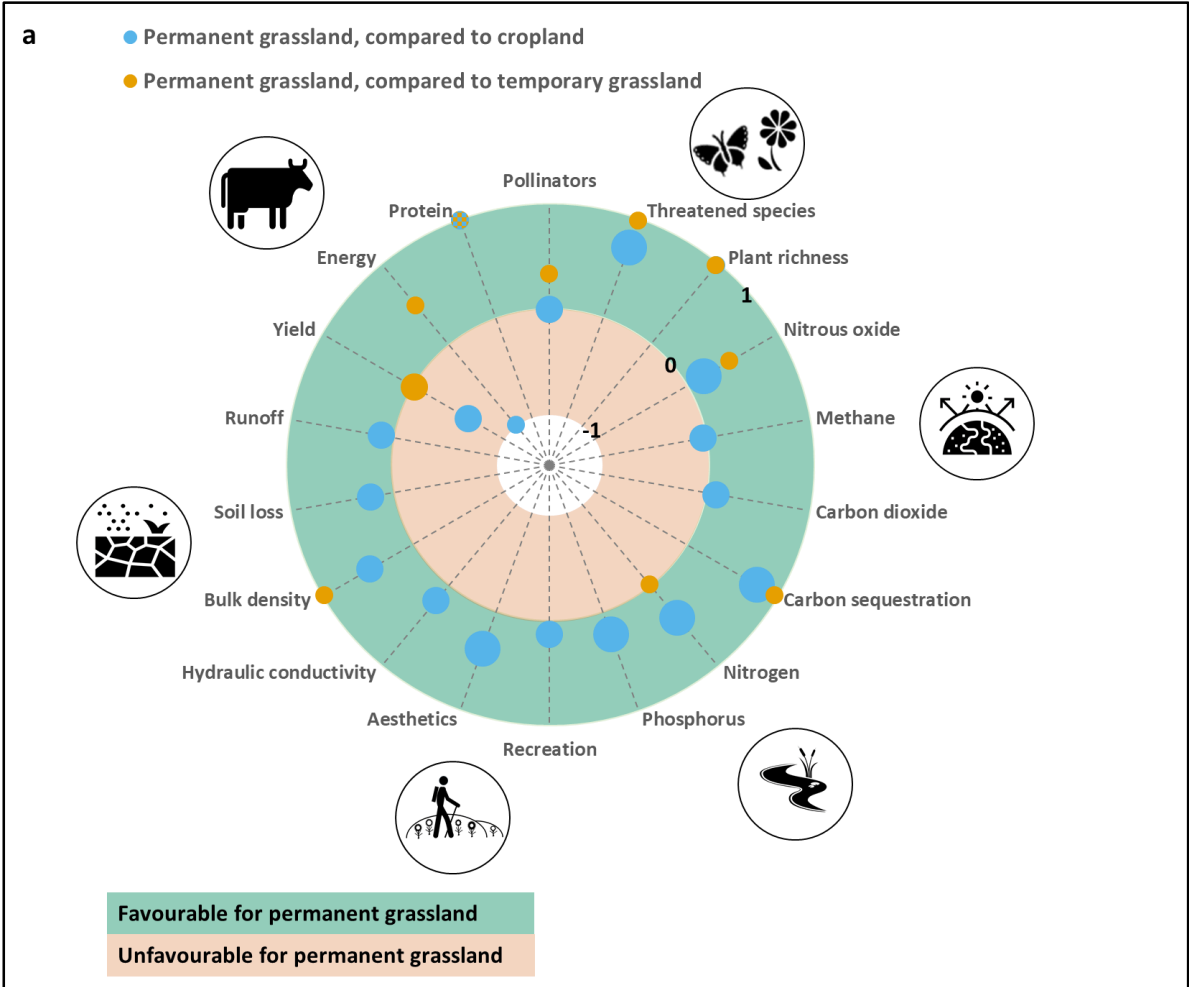


Fig. 2: Geographical distribution, across NUTS2 regions in Europe, of included papers (#papers), published since 1980, and the share of permanent grassland (PGshare) in the total utilised agricultural area (UAA); data from 2016, except Norway and Macedonia from 2013 (Eurostat, 2020); grey areas indicate no data.

FIGURE 3A (tif attached separately)



[Figure caption on next page]

FIGURE 3B (tif attached separately)

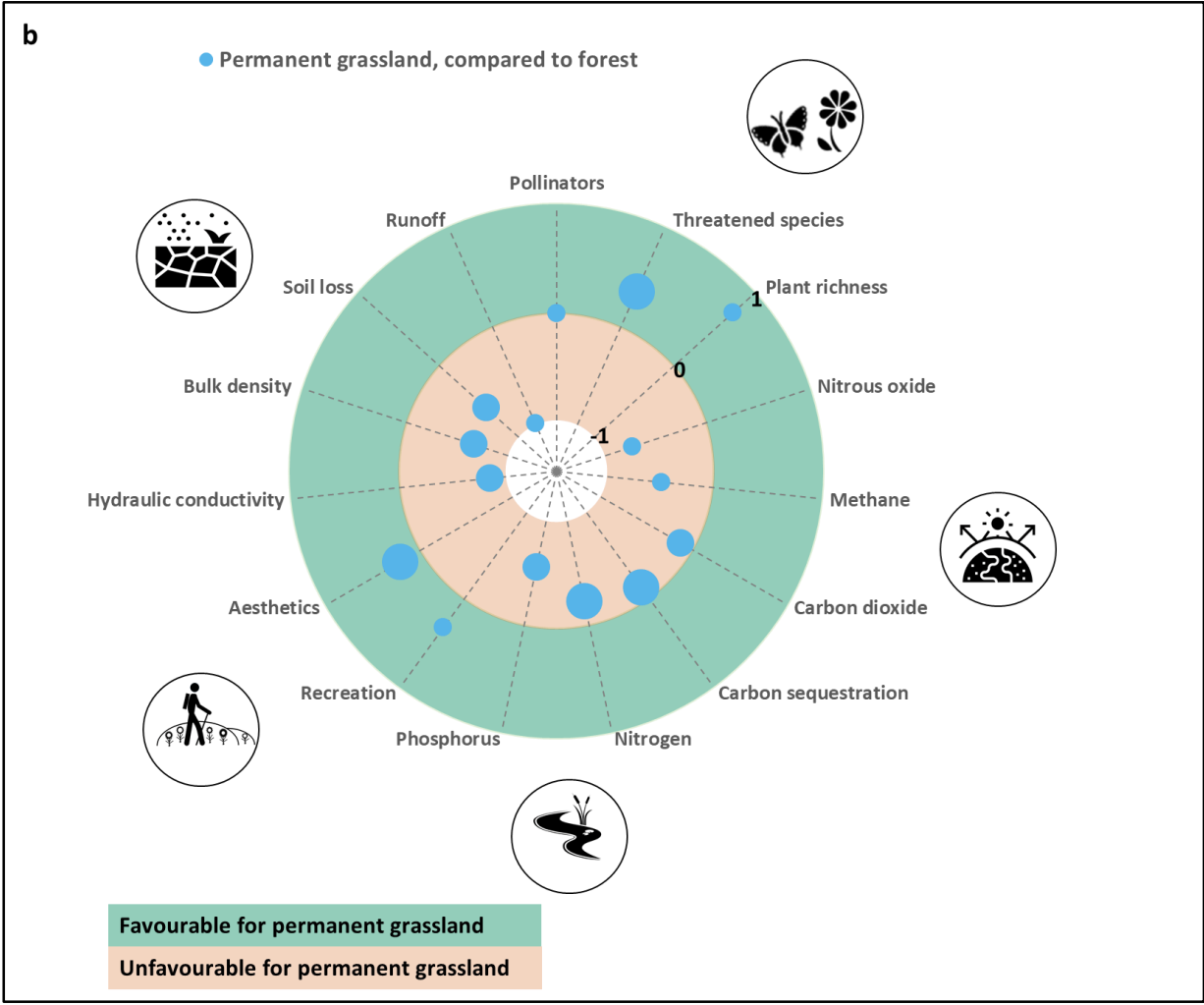
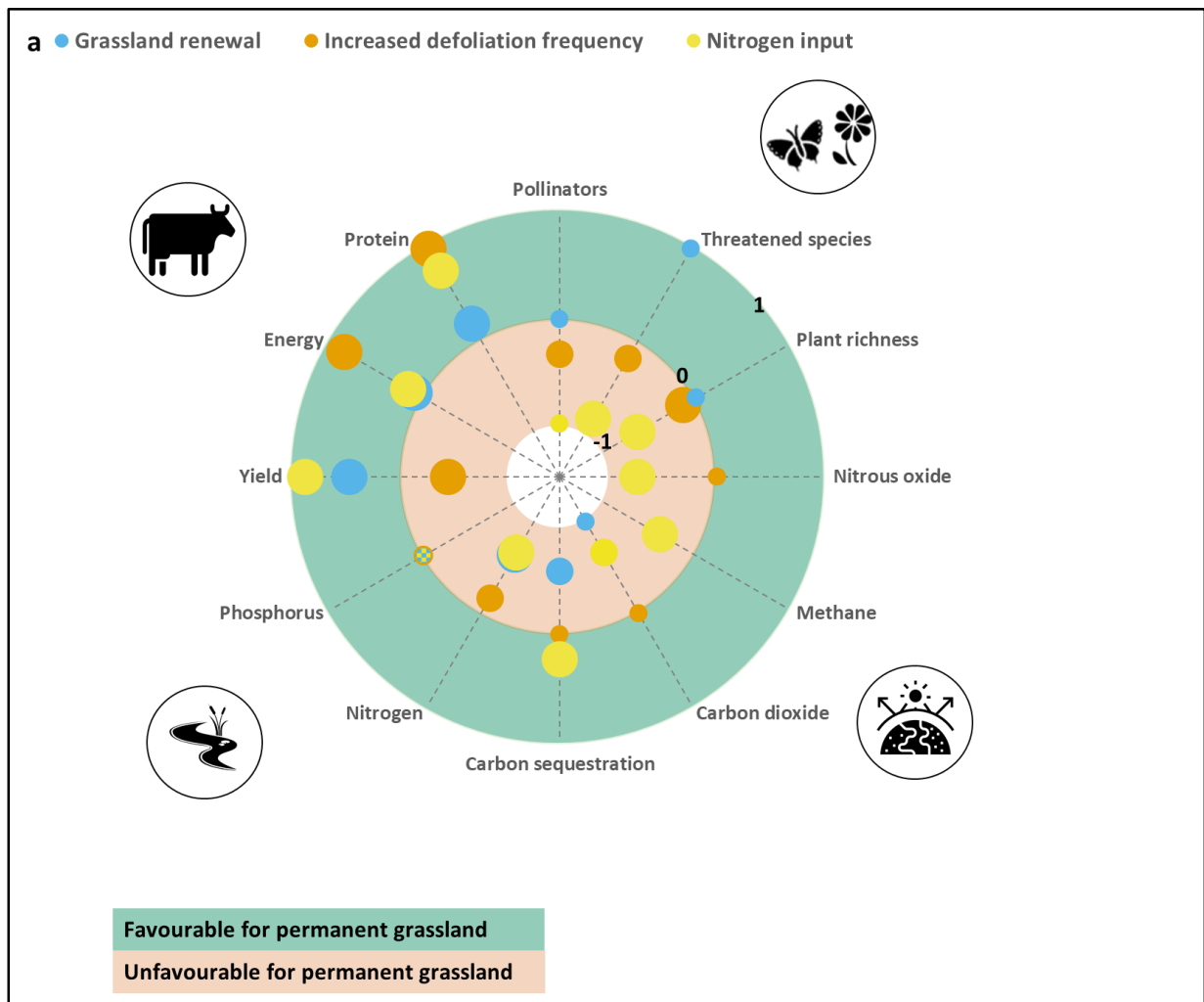


Fig. 3: Comparison between land use types for indicators of ecosystem services, (a) permanent grassland compared to cropland and temporary grassland, (b) permanent grassland compared to forest. The boundary between the outer and inner shaded zones represents a mean score of 0. The shaded outer zone represents a favourable score for permanent grassland (moving outwards, the mean score increases from 0 to 1), the shaded inner zone represents an unfavourable score (moving inwards, the mean score decreases from 0 to -1). Dot size indicates number of underlying cases (small: <5 cases, medium: 5-9 cases. Large: >9 cases). Full statistical data are presented in Fig. S4.

*For example, the aesthetics score in the green shaded outer zone (Figure b) indicates a preference of people for permanent grassland over forest but the score was 0.21 which means that some cases showed opposite outcomes, but the overall score favoured permanent grasslands. The large size of the dot indicates the aesthetics score was underpinned by at least 10 cases.*

FIGURE 4A (tif attached separately)



[Figure caption on next page]

FIGURE 4B (tif attached separately)

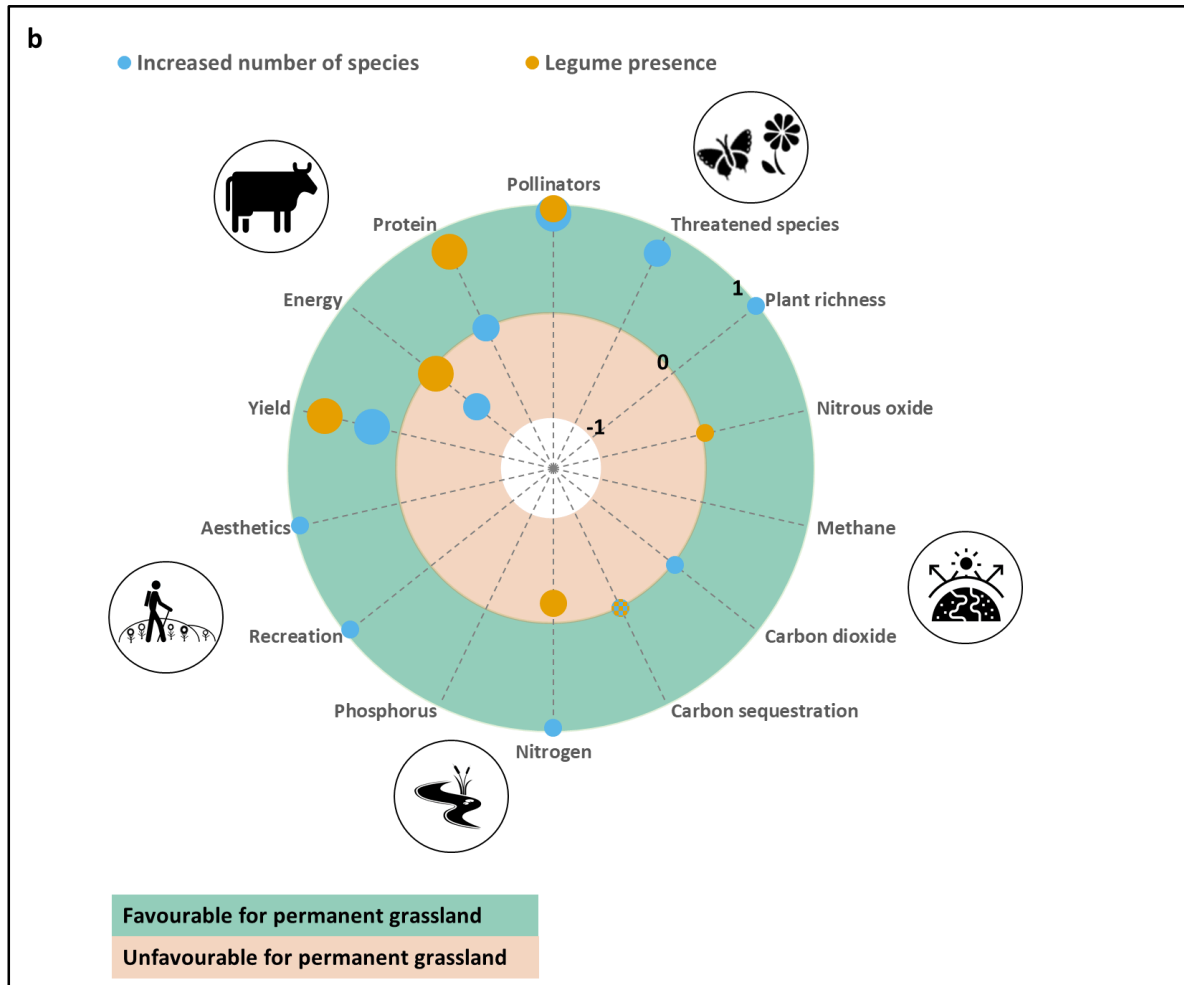
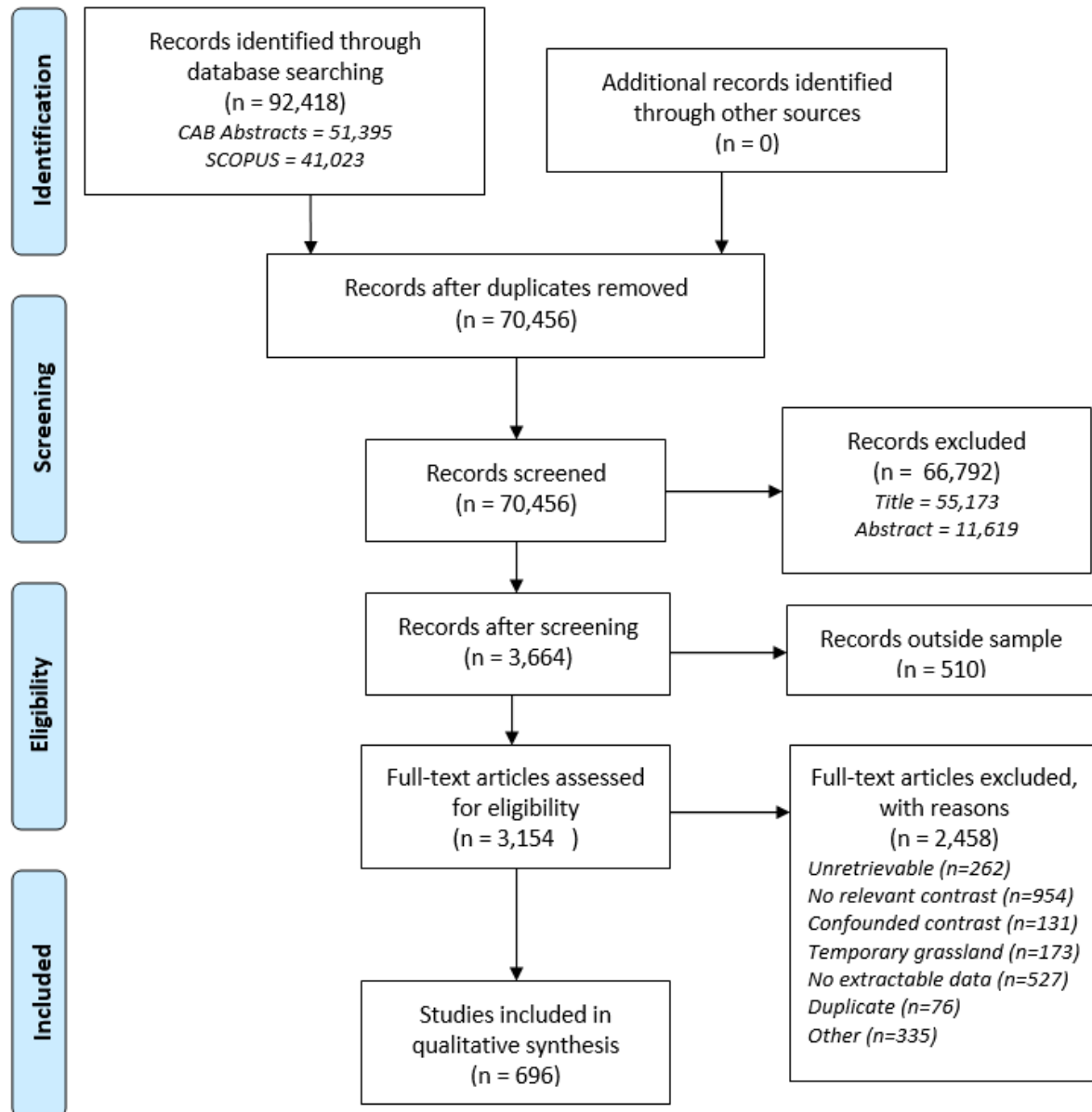


Fig. 4: Effects of management options on indicators for ecosystem services; (a) management interventions related to intensification, (b) management interventions on species in the sward. The boundary of the outer and inner shaded zones represents a mean score of 0. The shaded outer zone represents a favourable score (moving outwards, the mean score increases from 0 to 1), the shaded inner zone represents an unfavourable score (moving inwards, the mean score decreased from 0 to -1). Dot size indicates number of underlying cases (small: <5 cases, medium: 5-9 cases. Large: >9 cases). Full statistical data are presented in Fig. S6.

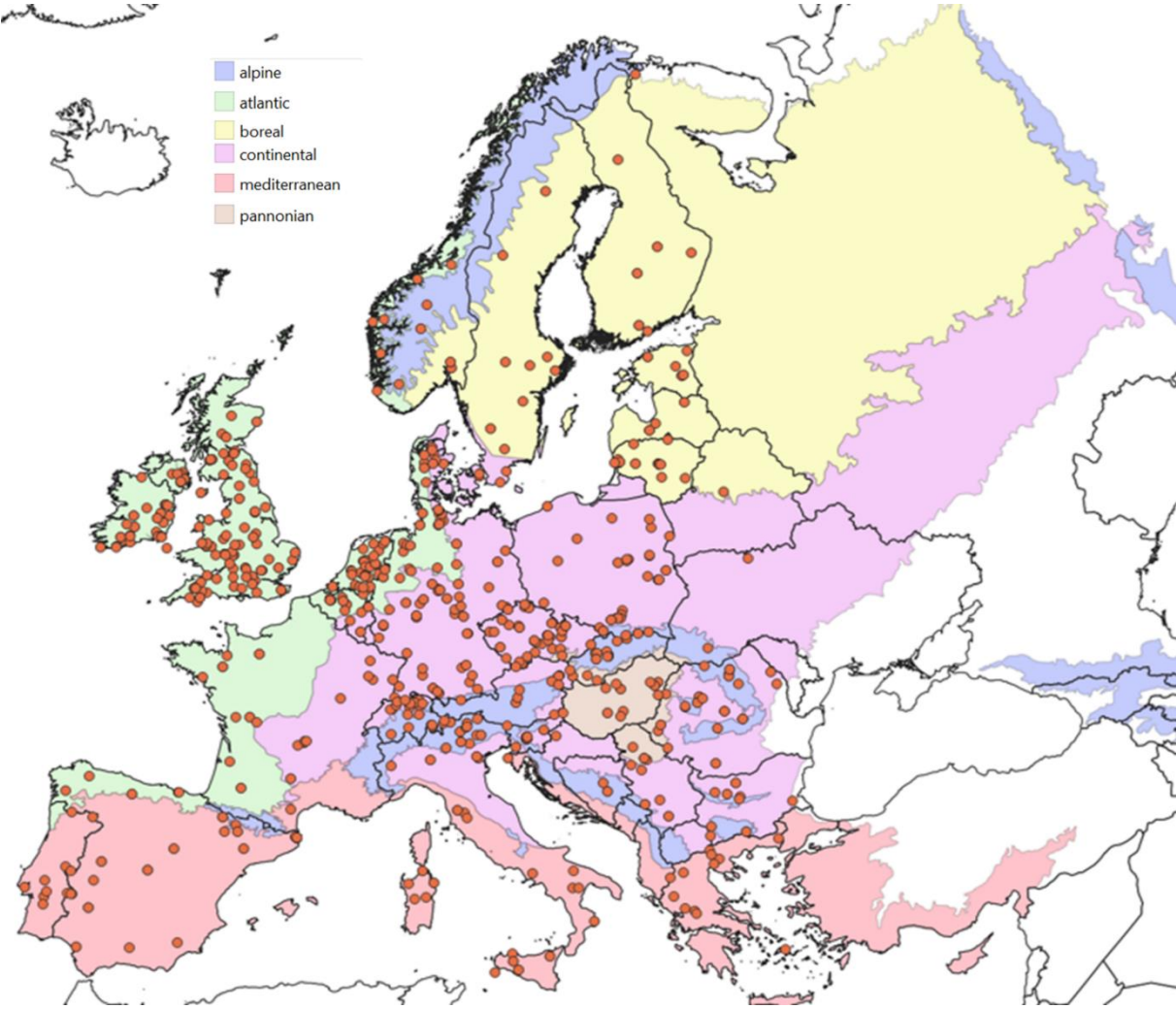
*For example, the threatened species score in the green shaded outer zone indicates a favourable effect of the number of species. The score was 0.95 which means that most cases showed consistent favourable outcomes. The medium size of the marker indicates the score was underpinned by 5 to 9 cases.*

Supporting information Figure S1. PRISMA flow chart (Moher *et al.*, 2009).

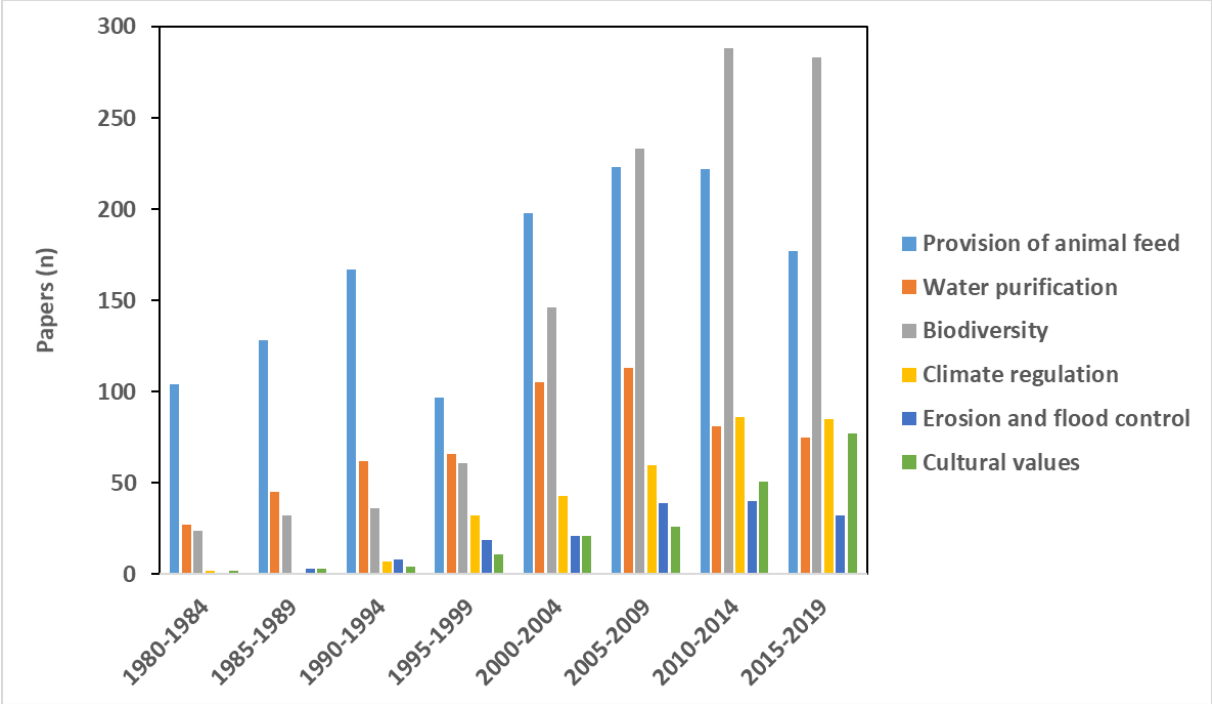


PRISMA flow data per ecosystem service presented in Table S1.

Supporting information Figure S2. Geographical distribution of included papers across biogeographic zones.

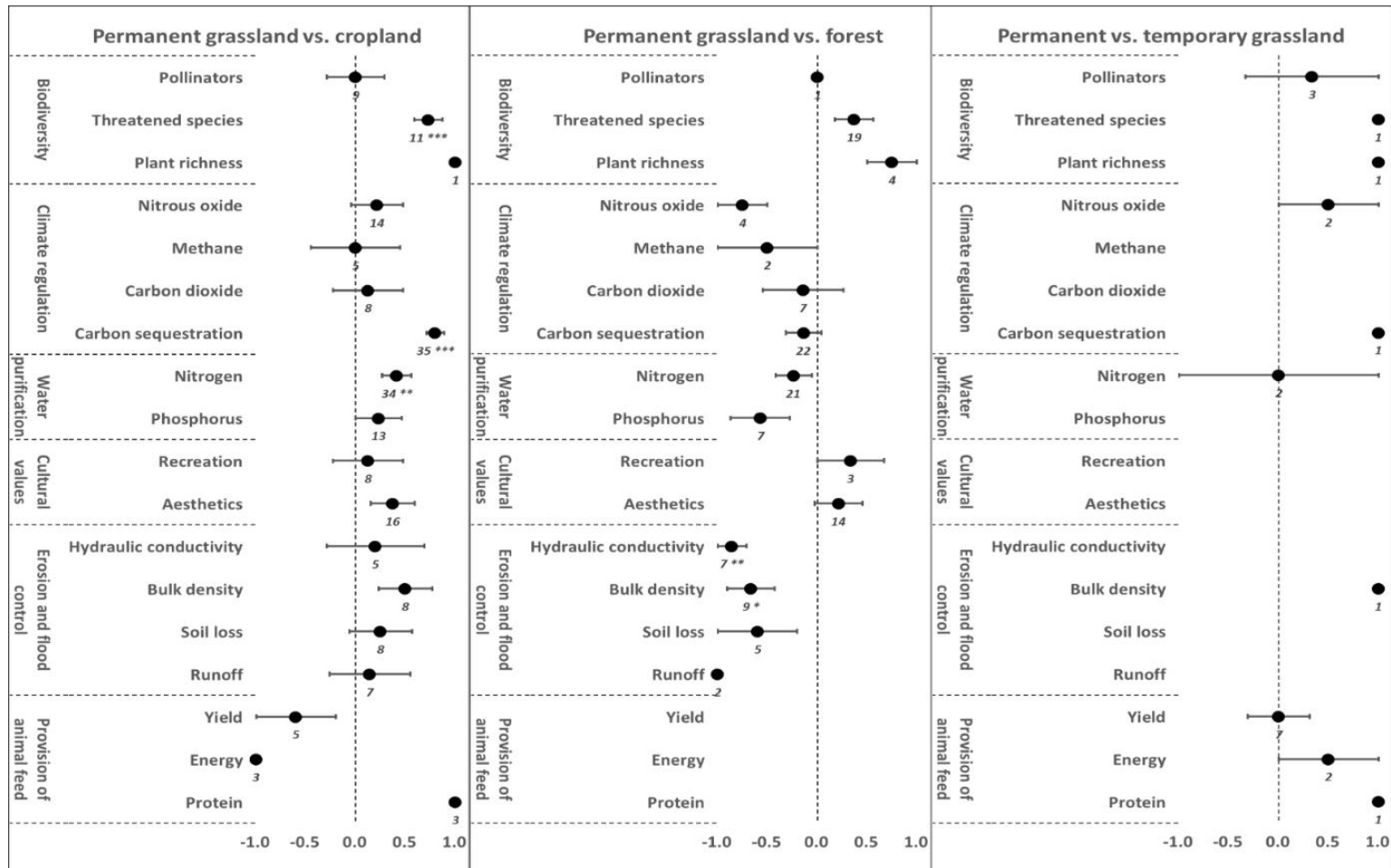


Supporting information Figure S3. Temporal trend in the number of included papers per ecosystem service.

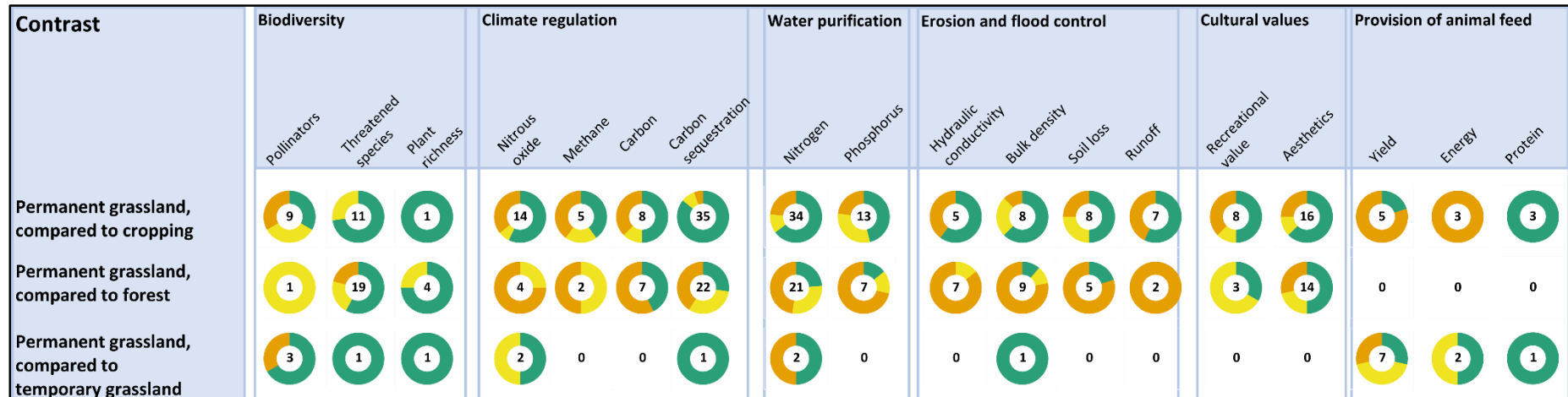




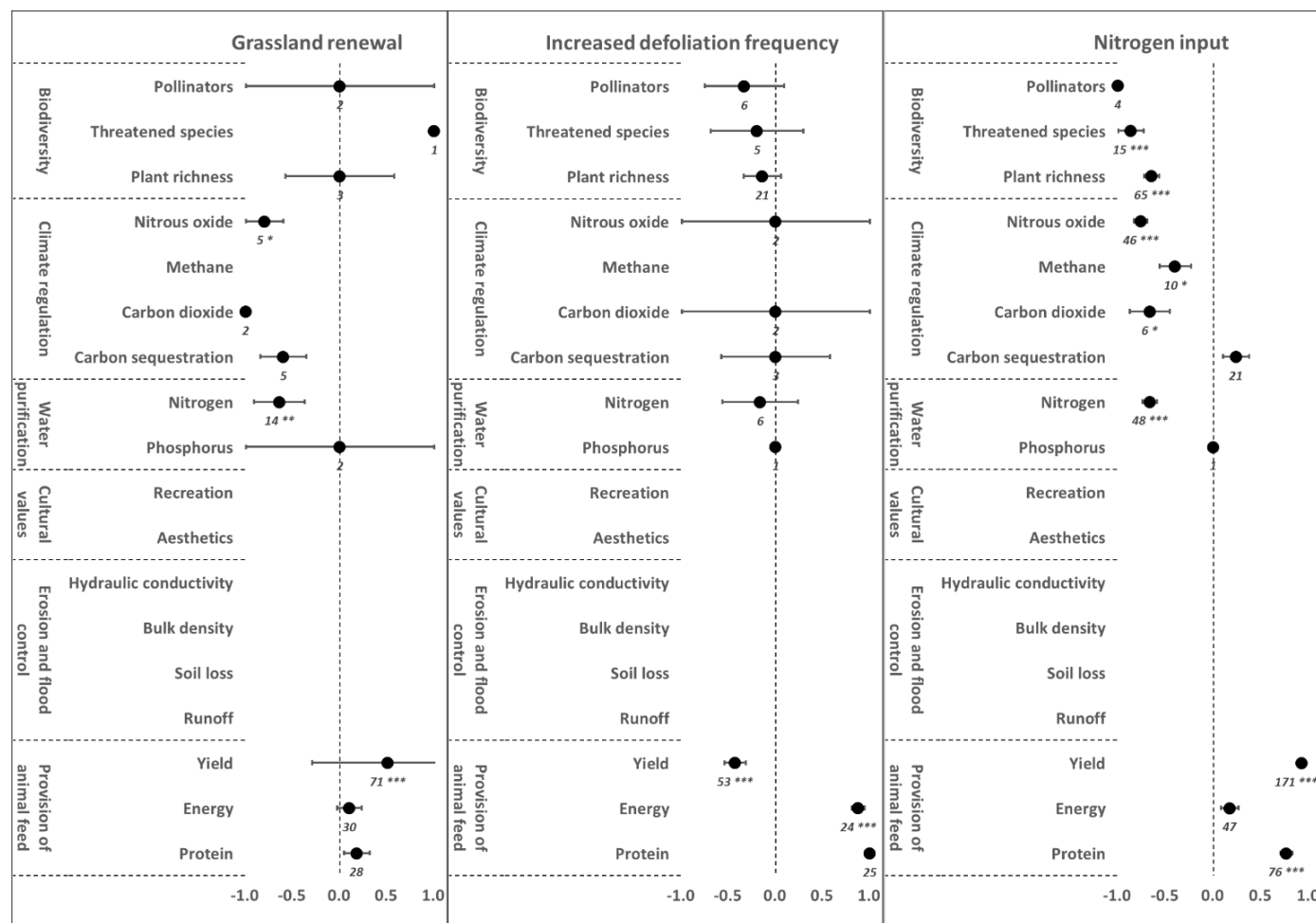
Supporting information Figure S4. Mean and standard error of outcomes (Favourable = +1, Unfavourable = -1, Neutral = 0) of studies that report on the effect of land use on the delivery of ecosystem services. Significance levels indicated with \* (P<0.05), \*\* (P<0.01), \*\*\* (P<0.001).



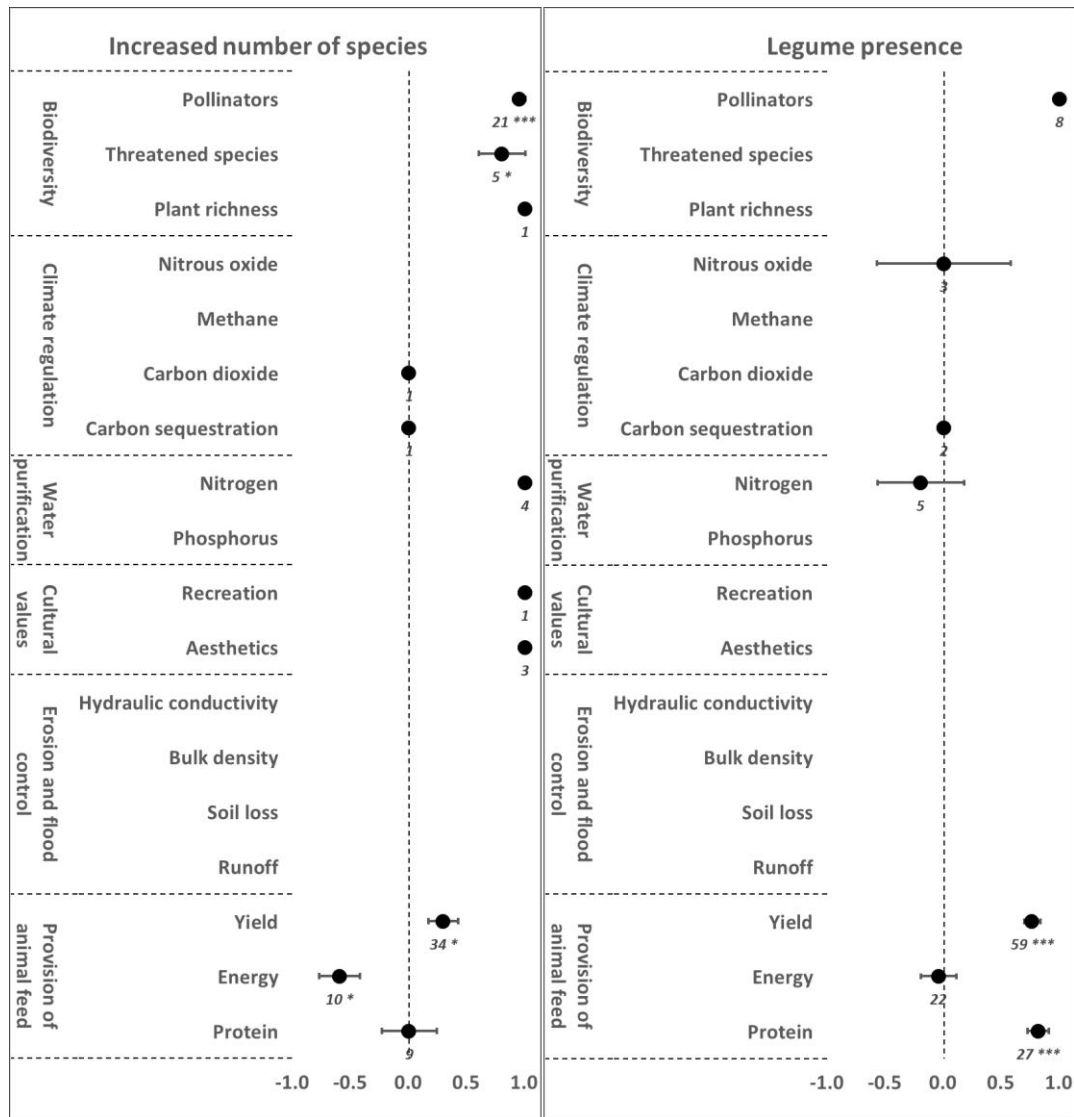
Supporting information Figure S5. Outcomes of studies that report on the effect of land use on the delivery of ecosystem services. Green = favourable, yellow = neutral, orange = unfavourable; number of cases inside doughnuts.



Supporting information Figure S6. Mean and standard error of outcomes (Favourable = +1, Unfavourable = -1, Neutral = 0) of studies that report on the effect of management on the delivery of ecosystem services. Significance levels indicated with \* (P<0.05), \*\* (P<0.01), \*\*\* (P<0.001).



Supporting information Figure S6 continued.



Supporting information Figure S7. Outcomes of studies that report on the effect of management on the delivery of ecosystem services. Green = favourable, yellow = neutral, orange = unfavourable; number of cases inside doughnuts.

Contrast	Biodiversity			Climate regulation				Water purification		Erosion and flood control				Cultural values		Provision of animal feed		
	Pollinators	Threatened species	Plant richness	Nitrous oxide	Methane	Carbon	Carbon sequestration	Nitrogen	Phosphorus	Hydraulic conductivity	Bulk density	Soil loss	Runoff	Recreational value	Aesthetics	Yield	Energy	Protein
Grassland renewal					0					0	0	0	0	0	0			
Increased number of species				0	0				0	0	0	0	0					
Presence of legumes		0	0		0	0			0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
Increased defoliation frequency					0					0	0	0	0	0	0			
Nitrogen input										0	0	0	0	0	0			

Supporting information Table S1. Flow of information through the different phases of the review (Moher *et al.*, 2009)

	Provision animal feed	Climate regulation	Water purification	Erosion flood control	Cultural values	Biodiversity	Total
Identified through database searching	17145	10973	9391	14203	17979	22727	92418
- Scopus	5412	4740	4136	7482	9337	9916	41023
- CAB Abstracts	11733	6233	5255	6721	8642	12811	51395
<b>After removal of duplicates</b>	<b>13971</b>	<b>8331</b>	<b>7181</b>	<b>11053</b>	<b>13719</b>	<b>16201</b>	<b>70456</b>
Screened for title	13971	8331	7181	11053	13719	16201	70456
- Excluded based on title	9951	7219	5252	10309	10309	12133	55173
Screened for abstract	4020	1112	1929	744	3410	4068	15283
- Excluded based on abstract	2707	796	1355	581	3215	2965	11619
Eligible studies	1313	316	574	163	195	1103	3664
- Excluded after sampling	510	0	0	0	0	0	510
<b>Full text article assessed</b>	<b>803</b>	<b>316</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>163</b>	<b>195</b>	<b>1103</b>	<b>3154</b>
- Excluded with reasons:	514	205	459	137	178	965	2458
-> Unretrievable	61	11	84	5	18	83	262
-> No relevant contrast	146	68	157	117	124	342	954
-> Confounded contrasts	86	6	26			13	131
-> Temporary grassland	78	33	35	2		25	173
-> No extractable data	43	14	52		3	415	527
-> Duplicate	43	6	12	2		13	76
-> Other reasons	57	67	93	11	33	74	335
<b>Studies included</b>	<b>289</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>138</b>	<b>696</b>

Supporting information Table S2. Indicators of ecosystem services.

Ecosystem service	Indicator	Description
Biodiversity	Pollinators	The presence, abundance, diversity or species composition of any pollinating invertebrate community/population, or the pollinator visitation rate.
	Threatened species	The presence, abundance, survival or breeding success of any threatened species. 'Threatened' status included species listed as 'vulnerable', '(critically) endangered', or 'red listed' at a global, national or regional level.
	Plant richness	The richness of vascular plant species on a specific area, expressed as the number of species or a diversity index (Shannon, Simpson). Thus, only part of the values included here utilised information on the abundance of the individual species of the respective plant community. Plant richness is the results of (visual) assessments of the aboveground vegetation and does not include soil seed banks or other measures of dark diversity.
Climate regulation	Nitrous oxide	Nitrous oxide emission from soils and ecosystems. It is a powerful greenhouse gas with a global warming potential (GWP) of 265 compared to 1 for carbon dioxide. It contributes to climate change due to its positive radiative forcing effect. Nitrous oxide can be measured using manual/automatic chambers or eddy covariance methods and expressed, among others, in nmol/m <sup>2</sup> /s or in kg/ha/yr.
	Methane	Methane fluxes (emission and uptake) from soils and ecosystems. It is a potent greenhouse gas with a GWP of 28 compared to 1 for carbon dioxide. It contributes to climate change due to its positive radiative forcing effect. Methane can be measured using manual/automatic chambers or eddy covariance methods and expressed, among others, in nmol/m <sup>2</sup> /s or in kg/ha/yr.
	Carbon dioxide	Carbon dioxide fluxes from soils and ecosystems. It is the primary driver of global climate change with a GWP of 1. Carbon dioxide can be measured using manual/automatic chambers with portable infrared gas analyzers or eddy covariance methods and expressed, among others, in μmol/m <sup>2</sup> /s or in kg/ha/yr.
	Carbon sequestration	Carbon sequestration is the long-term removal of carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and storage in the soil. It can slowdown or reverse atmospheric CO <sub>2</sub> pollution and mitigate or reverse global warming. Carbon sequestration can be measured using direct soil sampling at two time points and analytical carbon measurements and is expressed in t/ha.
Water purification	Nitrogen	Grasslands receive nitrogen via biological N <sub>2</sub> fixation from legumes, fertiliser, manure, or feces and urine

Ecosystem service	Indicator	Description
		deposition during grazing. Residual soil nitrogen or nitrate is water soluble and can leach to ground and surface water. An indicator of surface and groundwater pollution is the nitrate concentration or the nitrogen load.
	Phosphorus	Grasslands receive phosphorus via fertiliser application or via manure deposition during grazing. Phosphate can leach to ground and surface water. An indicator of water pollution is the phosphorus load or phosphorus concentration in ground and surface water.
	Pesticides*	Pesticides are diverse chemical substances used for pest control, such as herbicides, insecticides and fungicides. Pesticides can be water soluble. Others persist in the soil and breakdown products may leach to surface and ground waters. Indicators of surface and ground water pollution are the measured concentrations of these chemical substances in ground or surface water.
Cultural values	Recreational value	Evaluation of recreational value by inhabitants or visitors, or scoring motivation for visit of an area, expressed in questionnaires of different structure; amount of money that a participant is willing to pay for the maintenance of a grassland landscape against any land use change (Willingness To Pay)
	Aesthetics	Evaluation of aesthetic value by inhabitants, visitors or land users, expressed in questionnaires of different structure; willingness to pay for the maintenance of a grassland landscape against any land use change; species abundance evaluated as a proxy for aesthetic value impact.
Erosion and flood control	Hydraulic conductivity	Hydraulic conductivity (mm/h) is the ease with which water moves through porous spaces in the soil and it is inversely related to the bulk density. It was measured by infiltrometer or laboratory methods.
	Bulk density	Bulk density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> ) reflects soil compaction, thus the soil pore space. It influences the water and air movement through the profile and was measured by Kopecky rings generally at 20 cm depth.
	Soil loss	Soil loss by water flow (t/ha) is usually assessed using a runoff plot (large > 1 m <sup>2</sup> , small <1m <sup>2</sup> ). It represents the quantity of soil loss after a rainfall event.
	Runoff	Runoff (mm) is the laminar and superficial water flow, that occurs when rainfall intensity is higher than the infiltration into the soil. It is assessed using a runoff plot (large > 1 m <sup>2</sup> , small <1m <sup>2</sup> ).
Provision of animal feed	Yield	Above-ground dry matter yield of herbage, usually expressed in t/ha/year. The dry matter yield was predominantly measured by cutting at around 5 cm stubble height, weighing and sampling for dry matter analysis. Other reported methods were sward height, grazing days, leaf length or energy yield.
	Energy	The energy content of harvested or grazed herbage, usually expressed in MJ/kg dry matter.



Ecosystem service	Indicator	Description
		The most used measurements were digestible organic or dry matter and crude fibre. Other reported methods were acid detergent fibre, metabolisable energy or net energy for lactation.
	Protein	The protein content of harvested or grazed herbage, usually expressed in g/kg dry matter. The most used measurements are based on the determination of nitrogen-Kjeldahl or total nitrogen.

\* We searched the literature on 19 indicators. During screening all papers on pesticides were excluded. Therefore, pesticides were not included in the results.

## Supporting information Table S3. Search strings.

Searches were carried out in CAB Abstracts (shown below) and Scopus (not shown). The ecosystem services *water purification* and *provision of animal feed* used some additional concepts, marked with a hashtag (#).

CAB Abstracts is the leading database on applied life sciences with over 10.4 million records. Amongst many others, topics include crop sciences and grasslands, animal science, environmental science, and recreation/tourism. It includes serials, books, conference proceedings, theses, reports, and bulletins and is a valuable source both for peer-reviewed literature and grey literature. The controlled vocabulary of the CAB Thesaurus with about 2.8 million terms allows comprehensive and specific retrieval, which makes CAB Abstracts a recommended source for literature searches for systematic reviews. The multidisciplinary database Scopus is the largest abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature in the field of science, technology, medicine, and social sciences. Scopus includes over 75 million records, including peer reviewed journals, books, trade publications and articles-in-press. Scopus meets all the necessary performance requirements for systematic reviews (Gusenbauer and Haddaway, 2019).

Searches in CAB Abstracts were done in title, abstract and all key word fields (.mp). The wild card character '?' was used in CAB Abstracts to substitute for one or no characters. The adjacency operator ADJ was used to indicate the maximum number of words between two search terms, e.g. "threatened adj8 species" means that a hit is included when threatened and species are within eight words of each other, in any order. The explode command EXP was used in CAB's hierarchical list of thesaurus terms. It tells Ovid to search for the thesaurus term itself, including all its narrower terms, down to all levels, e.g. "exp europe" not only searches for "europe" in the different keyword fields, but also for underlying terms.

Concept	Search string for CAB Abstracts
Grass	(dryland? or grass* or grazed or grazing or hayfield? or hay field? or haymeadow? or herbaceous or herbage? or meadow? or pasture? or rangeland? or range land? or ryegrass* or silvopast* or steppe or steppes or sward? or woodpast*)
Europe	exp europe/ or (albania or andorra or austria or belarus or belgium or bosnia or british isles or bulgaria or croatia or cyprus or czech republic or czechia or czechoslovakia or denmark or england or estonia or estonian soviet socialist republic or estonian ssr or europe* or finland or flanders or france or german democratic republic or german federal republic or germany or great britain or greece or hercegovina or herzegovina or hungary or iceland or ireland or irish republic or italy or kosovo or latvia or latvian ssr or liechtenstein or lithuania or lithuanian soviet socialist republic or lithuanian ssr or luxemb?urg or macedonia or moldova or monaco or montenegro or netherlands or norway or poland or portugal or romania or san marino or scotland or serbia or slovakia or slovenia or spain or sweden or switzerland or uk or ukraine or united kingdom or wales or wallonia or walloon or yugoslavia) not (new england or new south wales)
Pollination	(pollinat* or pollini?er?)
Threatened species	((threatened or endangered) adj8 species) or ((threatened or endangered) adj8 taxa) or red list? or red book? or threatened biodiversity or endangered biodiversity
Plant richness	((plant? adj3 composition?) or (plant? adj3 diversit*) or (plant? adj3 richness) or (botanical adj3 composition? or (botanical adj3 diversit*) or botanical richness or (floristic adj3 composition?) or (floristic adj3 diversit*) or (floristic adj3 richness) or (species adj4 composition?) or (species adj3 diversit*) or (species adj3 richness) or (vegetation? adj3 composition?) or (vegetation? adj 3 richness) or biodiversity or agrobiodiversity) not (anti oxidant? or anti-oxidant? or biochemical composition or biofuel or chemical composition or extract* or medical or medicinal or pharmaceut*)
Nitrous oxide	(Nitrous oxide? or N2O or denitrificat* or nitrificat*)
Methane	(methane or CH4)
Carbon dioxide	(carbon dioxide or CO2)
Carbon sequestration	((carbon adj6 sequestrat*) or (c adj4 sequestrat*) or organic matter or SOM or soil organic carbon or soil organic C or SOC or carbon sink? or c sink? or (carbon adj6 turnover) or (c adj4 turnover) or (carbon adj4 budget?) or (c adj4 budget?))
Water quality <sup>#</sup>	((water or groundwater or freshwater or drainwater) adj4 quality) or ((water or groundwater or freshwater or drainwater) adj4 protection) or ((water or groundwater or freshwater or drainwater) adj4 status)
Nitrate in water <sup>#</sup>	(water or groundwater or freshwater or drainwater or leach*) AND (nitrate* or NO3 or nitrogen or (nutrient? adj3 load*) or (N adj3 load*) or (nutrient? adj3 runoff) or (nutrient? adj3 run-off))
Nitrate in soil <sup>#</sup>	(residu* adj3 nitrogen) or (residu* adj3 nitrate?) or post-harvest mineral nitrogen or post-harvest mineral N or (soil adj4 mineral nitrogen) or (soil adj4 mineral N)
Phosphate	(phosphate? or PO4 or phosphor?us or phosphourus or orthophosphate? or ortho-phosphate? or (P adj3 load*))
Pesticides	(pesticide? or herbicide? or insecticide? or fungicide? or residue? or contamin* or pollut* or active ingredient? or weedicide? or weedkiller? or weed killer?)

Hydraulic conductivity	(hydraulic conductivit* OR k value? OR Ksat OR inundat* OR permeab* OR infiltrat*)
Bulk density	(bulk densit* OR porosit* OR compaction? OR traml* OR crust* OR biocrust? OR seal*)
Soil loss	(soil loss* OR erosion* OR sediment* OR landslide? OR rill? OR gullies or gully OR wash* OR erod* OR erosivity)
Runoff	(run-off? OR runoff? OR flood* OR overland flow?)
Recreation	ecotouris* or leisur* or recreati* or touris* or outdoor? or cultural or bicycle? or bike? or biking or birding or birdwatch* or (bird? adj1 watch*) or climb* or cyclist? or geocach* or hiker? or hiking or hunting or nature trail? or relax* or riding or rider? or travel* or trekker? or trekking or walk* or sport* or physical activit* or social activit*
Aesthetic value	aesthetic* or esthetic* or beauty or landscape? or photo? or photograph? or photographer? or scenery or sceneries or visitor? or social media or facebook or twitter or instagram or snapchat or pinterest or tumblr or whatsapp or youtube
Yield	(yield? OR producti* OR growth) AND (dry matter OR dry-matter OR drymatter OR DM OR dry weight OR dry-weight OR dryweight OR DW)
Yield-in-TITLE#	(yield? OR producti* OR growth)
Protein	((protein? OR nitrogen?) adj5 (content? OR concentration?)) OR N content? OR N concentration?)
Energy	(gross energy OR net energy OR metaboli* energy OR digestib* OR dom OR omd OR domd OR dmd OR ivdom OR ivomd OR ivdomd OR ivdmd OR vem OR ufl OR sfu OR nel)

Supporting information Table S4. Data extraction form.

## STUDY

Attribute	(predefined) values
Nr	Unique number for each study
Include	Yes No
Review	Biodiversity Climate regulation Water purification Erosion and flood control Cultural values Provision of animal feed
Reviewer	Name of reviewer
ID_Import	Unique Eppi ID within a review
Author	Family name of first author
Year	Year of publication
Country	Full name of country where experiment took place
Study_type	Field experiment Farm experiment Regional study Other Unknown
Sites	Number of sites
Location	Name of place, region or country
Lon	Longitude (decimal degrees)

<b>Attribute</b>	<b>(predefined) values</b>
Lat	Latitude (decimal degrees)
Biogeoregion	Alpine Atlantic Boreal Continental Mediterranean Pannonian Multiple Unknown
Start year	First year of experiment
Duration	Number of years
Indicator	Pollinators Threatened species Plant richness Nitrous oxide Methane Carbon dioxide Carbon sequestration Nitrogen Phosphorus Pesticides Recreational value Aesthetics Hydraulic conductivity Bulk density Soil loss Runoff Yield Energy Protein
Reason for exclusion	Text
Remarks	Text

## **CONTRAST**

<b>Attribute</b>	<b>(predefined) values</b>
Study_nr	Unique number for each study
Contrast_nr	a b c ...
Code	number+letter, combined from Study_nr and Contrast_nr
Contrast	Permanent grassland - Cropland Permanent grassland - Temporary grassland Permanent grassland - Forest Undisturbed - Resown or oversown No legumes - Legumes present Number of species Defoliation frequency Nitrogen input
Outcome	No conclusion Increases Does not change Decreases

<b>Attribute</b>	<b>(predefined) values</b>
Evaluation	Numerical, based on statistics Numerical Text
Remarks	any relevant comments

## Supporting information Table S5. Appreciation of outcomes.

Indicator	Increase is ...	Decrease is ...
Pollinators	Favourable	Unfavourable
Threatened species	Favourable	Unfavourable
Plant diversity	Favourable	Unfavourable
Nitrous oxide	Unfavourable	Favourable
Methane	Unfavourable	Favourable
Carbon dioxide	Unfavourable	Favourable
Carbon sequestration	Favourable	Unfavourable
Nitrate	Unfavourable	Favourable
Phosphate	Unfavourable	Favourable
Hydraulic conductivity	Favourable	Unfavourable
Bulk density	Unfavourable	Favourable
Soil loss	Unfavourable	Favourable
Runoff	Unfavourable	Favourable
Recreation	Favourable	Unfavourable
Aesthetics	Favourable	Unfavourable
Dry matter yield	Favourable	Unfavourable
Energy content	Favourable	Unfavourable
Protein content	Favourable	Unfavourable

## 1 Supporting information Text S1: Reflection on method

2

### 3 *Approach*

4 We used a systematic review protocol to assess the effects of land use and management  
5 intensity on the provision of ecosystem services of permanent grasslands. Our approach  
6 was unique in several ways. First, we used an extensive approach covering permanent  
7 grasslands across Europe and including 19 indicators for different ecosystem services.  
8 Second, unlike other reviews that used "ecosystem service" and its synonyms as the  
9 main search terms (Hauck *et al.*, 2014; Zhao *et al.*, 2020), we spelt out the underlying  
10 vocabulary for each indicator, thereby collecting a larger set of relevant studies. Third, to  
11 assess the effect of land use and management interventions we focused on studies with  
12 direct comparisons of relevant treatments within a similar context.

13

### 14 *Definition of permanent grassland*

15 We used the definition of Eurostat to identify which grasslands are permanent  
16 grasslands: 'grassland that has not been included in the crop rotation for at least five  
17 years'. Studies with temporary grasslands were excluded, except for the contrast  
18 permanent versus temporary grassland. It was however surprising to see that the  
19 definitions and description used in literature are far from uniform or consistent. For  
20 instance, the term 'temporary grassland' is often used to refer to permanent grasslands  
21 that were resown. Therefore, we used the contextual information from the method  
22 section of the papers to establish whether the studied grassland was permanent or  
23 temporary.

24 Furthermore, we realise that permanent grasslands is a concept which partly overlaps  
25 with other European concepts like natural, semi-natural and improved grasslands, or  
26 American concepts like prairies or rangelands.

27



28 *Variability in land use*

29 The land uses cropland, forests, permanent and temporary grassland comprise different  
30 types and species. Within the management contrasts, legumes comprise mainly white  
31 clover and red clover, but also other legumes. The number of species varies from  
32 monocultures to multi-species swards with more than 40 species. Moreover, the variety  
33 in species may be the result of sowing or from other historical management practices.  
34 The latter types of studies were also included as long as the effect of the number of plant  
35 species on the indicator had been isolated from other practices.

36

37 *Field studies*

38 We used a strict selection protocol for field studies, that excluded laboratory and  
39 modelling studies (empirical data in modelling papers were not excluded), greenhouse or  
40 pot experiments (lysimeter experiments were not excluded). For some indicators, such as  
41 yield and nitrous oxide we only included experiments with year-round measurements.  
42 This approach improved the overall robustness of the review but may have reduced the  
43 strength of the evidence for indicators with a relatively low number of underlying cases.

44

45 *System boundaries*

46 Our review focused on the direct provision of ecosystem services of the plant-soil  
47 compartment. We did not include effects that occur upstream or downstream in the  
48 production chain, such as nitrous oxide emissions during fertiliser production, or notably,  
49 methane emissions from enteric fermentation which has large impacts on environmental  
50 change by permanent grasslands.

51

52 *Publication bias*

53 Our evidence is subject to publication bias, as less effective studies might not have been  
54 published. Furthermore, our review is biased towards studies published in the English  
55 language. The language bias is particularly important for the relatively older publications  
56 as many countries like Spain or France had peer reviewed journals in their native  
57 language. Some of the language bias may be offset by the inclusion of many papers  
58 published at the European Grassland Conferences which have a less strict peer review  
59 protocol.

60

### 61 *Context*

62 The prospects for the provision of ecosystem services by permanent grasslands cannot  
63 be assessed without taking the specificity of site contexts into account. We used a pre-  
64 defined protocol to search, select and include studies with comparable experimental  
65 contrasts. Nevertheless, it is not surprising that the context of the collected evidence is  
66 quite diverse across Europe. Obviously, there is variation between climates and soils, but  
67 also between more detailed features like elevation, slope, defoliation type or animal type.  
68 Moreover, even within our definitions of land use contrasts, a single term like 'cropland'  
69 comprises many different crop types from monocultures like forage maize or arable  
70 rotations to fruit or olive orchards. Likewise, permanent grasslands can have a sward age  
71 of just five years or more than 50 years. The same goes for definitions of management  
72 contrasts. Grassland renewal may involve ploughing and re-seeding, or direct sowing into  
73 existing swards, with or without spraying off the old sward with herbicides. Moreover, the  
74 number and type of sown species are not necessarily the same as the number and type  
75 of existing species. Experiments with continuous variables like nitrogen input or  
76 defoliation frequency show many different setups. For example, the range of nitrogen  
77 inputs varied from 0 to 900 kg N per ha per year and the contrast between the highest  
78 and lowest nitrogen input varied from 40 to 600 kg per ha per year. In this paper, we  
79 only reported outcomes as favourable or unfavourable, ignoring the type of response  
80 (linear, non-linear).