1	THE EFFECT OF WOODY PLANT ENCROACHMENT ON LIVESTOCK					
2	PRODUCTION: A COMPARISON OF NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA					
3						
4						
5	José D. Anadón <sup>a, 1</sup> , Osvaldo E. Sala <sup>a,b</sup> , B. L. Turner <sup>b,c</sup> , Elena M. Bennett <sup>d</sup>					
6						
7						
8	<sup>a</sup> School of Life Sciences, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287 USA					
9	<sup>b</sup> School of Sustainability, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287 USA					
10 11	<sup>c</sup> School of Geographical Sciences & Urban Planning, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287 USA					
12	<sup>d</sup> Department of Natural Resource Sciences and McGill School of Environment, McGill					
13	University, Sainte-Anne-de-Bellevue, Ouebec, H9X3V9 Canada					
14						
15						
16						
17						
18						
19						
20	<sup>1</sup> Corresponding author: J.D. Anadón, School of Life Sciences, Arizona State University, Tempe,					
21	Arizona 85287 USA, jdanadon@asu.edu, 480-727-3728					
22						
23						
24						
25						
26	Classification: BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES/Sustainability					
27						
28						
29						
30	Keywords: woody-plant encroachment, land-cover change, livestock production, global change,					
31	food production, N and S American rangelands, net primary productivity					
32						
33						

## 34 Abstract

A large fraction of the world grasslands and savannas are undergoing a rapid shift from 35 herbaceous to woody-plant dominance. This land-cover change is expected to lead to a loss in 36 livestock production, but the impacts of woody-plant encroachment on this crucial ecosystem 37 service have not been assessed. We evaluated how tree cover has affected livestock production at 38 large scales in rangelands of contrasting socio-economic characteristics in the U.S. and 39 40 Argentina. Our models indicated that in areas of high productivity, a 1% increase in tree cover resulted in a reduction in livestock production ranging from 0.6 to 1.6 reproductive cows per 41  $km^2$ . Mean livestock production in the U.S. is 27 Rc  $km^{-2}$ , so a 1% increase in tree cover results 42 in 2.5% decrease in mean livestock production. This effect is large considering that woody-plant 43 cover is increasing at 0.5-2% per year. On the contrary, in areas of low productivity, increased 44 tree cover had a positive effect on livestock production. Our results also show that ecological 45 factors account for a larger fraction of livestock production variability in Argentinean than in 46 U.S. rangelands. Differences in the relative importance of ecological versus non-ecological 47 drivers of livestock production in Argentina and the U.S. suggest that the valuation of ecosystem 48 49 services between these two rangelands might be different. Current management strategies in Argentina are likely designed to maximize livestock production whereas land managers in the 50 51 U.S. may be optimizing multiple ecosystem services, including conservation or recreation, alongside livestock production. 52

# 54 Significance Statement

Grasslands all over the world are undergoing a rapid shift from a regime dominated byherbaceous plants to one dominated by woody plants, a phenomenon known as woody-plant

57 encroachment. The impact of this global phenomenon on livestock production, the main

58 ecosystem service provided by grasslands, remains largely unexplored. We quantified, for the

- 59 first time, the impact of woody-plant encroachment on livestock production at a large scale,
- finding a reduction of between 0.6 and 1.6 reproductive cows per  $\text{km}^2$  for each 1% increase in
- 61 tree cover. By comparing the largest rangelands of the Americas (U.S. and Argentina), we also
- 62 showed how the impact of woody-plant encroachment is mediated by social-economic factors.
- 63 Our manuscript represents a significant advance in our understanding of grasslands as complex
- 64 social-ecological systems.

65

#### 67 Introduction

Grasslands, shrublands, and savannas, collectively 'rangelands', constitute ca. 50% of the Earth's land surface (1). Although characterized by low yet highly variable annual rainfall, these areas provide 30-35% of terrestrial net primary productivity (2), contain >30% of the world's human population, and support the majority of the world's livestock production (3, 4). Besides livestock production, rangelands also provide a variety of other ecosystem services, including fiber production, carbon sequestration, maintenance of the genetic library (conservation), and recreation (5).

75 One of the most striking land-cover changes in rangelands worldwide over the past 150 years has been the proliferation of trees and shrubs at the expense of perennial grasses (6). In the 76 77 U.S., non-forest lands undergoing woody-plant encroachment are now estimated to cover up to 335 million ha, i.e. 40% of the coterminous U.S., (7) and the increase in woody cover ranges 78 from 0.5 to 2% per year (8). The causes of this vegetation change are debated and the main 79 potential drivers include intensification of livestock grazing, changes in climate and fire regimes, 80 81 the introduction of non-native woody species, and declines (natural and human-induced) in the 82 abundance of browsing animals (9-12). Historical increases in atmospheric nitrogen deposition and atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration have also been suggested to play a role (10, 11). 83 84 Woody-plant encroachment has long been of concern to a broad range of stakeholders, from pastoralists to ranchers, because of the expected negative impact on livestock production 85 86 (13). In response, brush management has been widely used to reduce the cover of encroaching woody-vegetation on both public and private lands. For example, the U.S. Natural Resources 87 88 Conservation Service spent \$127M in brush management programs in the period 2005-2009, implemented on more than 1 million ha of rangeland (14). Despite claims about impact of 89 90 woody-plant encroachment on livestock production and the large amounts of federal, state, and private spending on brush management, the impact of woody-plant encroachment on livestock 91 production has seldom been quantified (15). Here, our objectives are i) to quantify how woody-92 plant encroachment affects livestock production at large spatial scales, and ii) to assess how this 93 impact is modified under different ecological and social-economic conditions. 94

We developed a general framework in which livestock production depends on net
primary production, woody-plant cover, and other non-biological determinants. Net primary
production sets the total amount of biomass and energy that is available to herbivores (16). The

most common view on woody-plant encroachment is that encroachment diverts herbaceous
productivity, on which cattle feed, to unpalatable woody-plant productivity, thus reducing
potential energy intake (17-19). Thus overall, primary production and woody-plant
encroachment jointly determine the livestock carrying capacity of an ecosystem.

102 In natural ecosystems from forests to deserts, there is a tight correlation among primary productivity and secondary productivity and animal biomass (16). Social and economic factors 103 104 determine how close current livestock stocking is to the carrying capacity of the site, which is determined by NPP. Oesterheld et al. (20) assessed the relationship between net primary 105 106 productivity and livestock production in managed rangelands in Argentina, where management 107 focuses on food production, and found that the link between primary and secondary productivity was even tighter than in natural ecosystems. Management practices such as providing water and 108 minerals, regulating animal distribution, and reducing parasitism, predation and diseases, 109 resulted in stocking rates that were closely associated with net primary productivity. 110

We expect that in advanced industrial societies, where the production of goods (e.g., food 111 by means of agriculture and ranching) plays a secondary role in the economy (21), landscapes 112 113 will be managed to maximize multiple ecosystem services, and thus livestock production might be less driven by ecological drivers. Ecological factors, including net primary productivity and 114 115 woody-plant cover, determine potential stocking rate but actual stocking rate is modulated by 116 manager's decisions (22). In some cases, land managers overstock rangelands leading to 117 degradation and desertification (23) while in other cases managers understock. The latter results from pursuing optimization of multiple ecosystem services of which food production is only one. 118 119 Rangelands managed for multiple purposes and ecosystem services (24) seek provisioning of 120 food, fiber, firewood, carbon sequestration, conservation or recreation.

Our hypotheses are i) that overall livestock production decreases with woody-plant encroachment, ii) the effect of woody-plant encroachment on livestock production is modulated by NPP, with a larger negative impact of woody-plant encroachment in those areas with higher net primary productivity, and iii) the role of ecological drivers (net primary productivity and tree cover) on livestock production is larger in regions where the demand for ecosystem services is concentrated exclusively on food production.

127 The scarcity of studies attempting to quantify the impact of woody-plant encroachment 128 on livestock production reflects the enormous difficulties of addressing this issue by means of

129 conventional field approaches. An experimental approach necessitates monitoring the change in livestock production in a number of locations during the encroachment process, a process that 130 might take decades (11). Our approach has been to explore how current rangeland livestock 131 production varies at a regional scale along sites with different net primary productivity and 132 woody cover. We thus assessed the consequences of the process of woody-plant encroachment 133 by evaluating the relationship between tree-cover and livestock production at a given point in 134 time across multiple locations. This approach of swapping time for space has been used to 135 predict future trajectories of species in an ecological succession (25), and more recently, the 136 expected change of organisms ranging from microbes (26) to trees (27) under a changing 137 climate. We are aware of the limitations of the approach mostly associated with the existence of 138 lags that result in different models through space and time (28). Given the limitations of 139 alternative options and the urgency of the problem, we consider our approach to be promising. 140

To test our hypotheses, we collected information about woody-plant cover and primary 141 142 productivity from remote sensing sources and about livestock production from agricultural census data. Woody-plant encroachment occurs when there is an increase in the abundance of 143 144 trees or shrubs. The type of woody component depends on mean annual precipitation with arid 145 systems being invaded by shrubs and mesic ecosystems being invaded by trees. In our study 146 areas, the transition between shrub and tree domains occurs approximately at 600 mm of annual precipitation (Fig S2). In the present work, we focused on encroachment of trees (i.e., areas >600 147 148 mm) because current remote sensing tools assess tree cover with accuracy, but they do not adequately estimate shrub cover (29) and thus our approach is not feasible in shrublands. We 149 150 aggregated data at the county level and combined remote sensing and census data in a model that yields estimates of the impact of woody-plant cover on livestock production at large scales. To 151 152 account for the effects of socio-economic factors, we quantified the impact of tree cover on 153 livestock production in two regions of the world that have extraordinary environmental similarity 154 but have contrasting socio-economic characteristics (30, 31). The two regions are the U.S. 155 Central Grassland Region and the Argentinean Central Grassland. Both share similar temperature and precipitation gradients, yielding vegetation types that are remarkably similar (31) (Fig. 1). 156 157 These environmental similarities contrast with large socio-economic differences in the rural sector, and specifically regarding livestock production (Supplementary Information, Fig. S1). 158 159 During the last decades in the U.S., there has been a reduction of people making a living from

160 agriculture (40% reduction since 80s) and a negative trend in the number of cattle in the region (22% reduction since the 70s). At present, a large proportion of stakeholders in the U.S. are not 161 162 full-time ranchers but maintain livestock production as a source of secondary income or for cultural or recreational reasons (USDA economic service; www.ers.usda.gov). In Argentina, 163 although the relative importance of ranching has decreased due to the expansion of crop 164 products, especially soybean, the reduction in the number of cattle has been much smaller (4% 165 166 reduction since the 70s, Fig. S1); and beef is still the agricultural commodity with the largest 167 output value (28% of the total agricultural production 2005-2007) (32). As a result, we expected stocking rates in Argentina to be closer to the NPP-derived carrying capacity of the system, and 168 thus more tightly driven by ecological factors, than in the U.S. (20). 169

170

# 171 Results and Discussion

In both the U.S. and Argentina, livestock production shows a W to E gradient of increasing
reproductive density. The maximum value in the U.S. is 66 reproductive cows (Rc) per km<sup>2</sup> in
the eastern part of the region. In Argentina, this gradient is more apparent than in the U.S.,
reaching maximum values of 43 Rc km<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 2). This directional gradient is the same for NPP

and tree cover gradients in both regions, following mean annual precipitation gradients (Fig. 1). 176 177 In accordance with our first hypothesis, woody-plant encroachment in both rangelands had a negative impact on livestock production. An increase of 1% in tree cover resulted in an 178 overall decrease in livestock production ranging from 0.6 to 1.6 Rc km<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 3, Table 1). In the 179 U.S., an increase in tree cover of 1% decreased livestock production by 0.57 Rc km<sup>-2</sup>. Mean 180 livestock production in the U.S. is 27 Rc km<sup>-2</sup>, so a 1% increase in tree cover results in 2.5% 181 decrease in mean livestock production of the region. In NPP units, a 1% increase in tree cover 182 had the same impact on livestock production as an NPP decrease of 41 g C m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>. The 183 magnitude of the impact can be gauged when taking into account that, in North America, the 184

increase of woody cover ranges from 0.5 to 2% per year (8).

As in our second hypothesis, in Argentina, a significant interaction between NPP and tree cover as drivers of livestock production exists, although we did not find this interaction when evaluating the U.S. data (Fig. 3, Table 1). At high productivity values (900 g C m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>), an increase of 1% tree cover decreased livestock production by 1.6 Rc km<sup>-2</sup>, relative to livestock production ranging between 1 and 43 Rc km<sup>-2</sup>. However, at productivity values of less than 365

g C m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>, tree cover enhanced livestock production. In low productivity (300 g C m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>) areas 191 in Argentina, an increase in tree cover of 1% increased livestock production by 0.24 Rc km<sup>-2</sup>. 192 193 This result contradicts current understanding of the impact of woody-plant encroachment, which is thought to have a negative impact on livestock production (6, 17-19, 33). Note that the lower 194 limit of NPP in our study area in the U.S. occurs above 365 g C  $m^{-2}$  y<sup>-1</sup>, obscuring a possible 195 positive effect of tree cover on livestock production at low productivity values. Potential 196 197 explanations of this positive effect of woody-plant encroachment on livestock production at low productivity values may be found in factors other than the amount of food available for livestock 198 production. For example, most of the areas of low productivity in our study area are associated 199 with low precipitation and high temperature (Fig. 1). In these areas, tree cover might provide 200 shelter and shade or overall near-ground temperatures, decreasing animal respiration costs (34). 201

Our results showed that the effect of NPP and tree cover on productivity was larger in 202 Argentina than in the U.S. ( $R^2 = 50\%$  and 24% respectively, Table 1), indicating a strong 203 difference between the two study areas in the importance of the drivers of livestock production. 204 205 This aligns with our third hypothesis, that the role of ecological drivers (net primary productivity 206 and tree cover) on livestock production would be larger in regions where the demand for ecosystem services is concentrated exclusively on food production. The effect of tree cover on 207 livestock production relative to the effect of net primary productivity on livestock productivity 208 was similar in the two study regions, with the explanatory power of NPP being five times larger 209 than that of tree cover (U.S.:  $R^2_{NPP} = 20\%$  and  $R^2_{TC} = 4\%$ ; Argentina:  $R^2_{NPP} = 42\%$  and  $R^2_{TC} = 8\%$ , 210 being  $R^2_{NPP}$  and  $R^2_{TC}$  the percentage of variance accounted for by net primary productivity and 211 tree cover) (Fig. 4). The similarity in the relative importance of NPP and tree cover indicates 212 that, despite the difference in socio-economic differences, the underlying ecological mechanisms 213 214 driving livestock production are similar.

Differences in the relative importance of ecological vs. non-ecological (social) drivers on livestock production in Argentina and the U.S. suggest that the value of the various ecosystem services provided by rangelands may be different in these two regions. Rangelands produce a variety of ecosystem services including food and fiber production, carbon sequestration, maintenance of the genetic library (conservation), and recreation (5). Current management strategies in Argentina are likely to be designed to maximize a single ecosystem service (livestock production). On the contrary, land managers in the U.S. appear to be optimizing

222 multiple ecosystem services, including conservation or recreation alongside livestock production. 223 Therefore, it is important to measure the effects of woody-plant encroachment on the entire 224 portfolio of ecosystem services that are provided by rangelands. Most changes in ecosystem 225 services due to woody-plant encroachment remain unclear and have been identified only in a qualitative fashion (but see (33)). Future quantitative studies taking into account multiple 226 227 ecosystems services are needed in order to assist in decision making whether to implement or not brush management actions. Livestock production is currently one of the most important 228 ecosystem service provided by rangelands but the development trajectory highlighted by the 229 differences between Argentina and the U.S. point out that other ecosystem services will likely 230 231 become increasingly important as economies undergo a transition from the production of goods to the provision of services. 232

233 Our study demonstrates that livestock production is part of an integrated socio-ecological system where ecological and social-economic drivers interact along gradients of climate and 234 235 economic development (22). In high productivity regions, woody-plant cover negatively affects livestock production mainly through reductions in forage availability. The negative effect of 236 237 woody plants on forage availability is overwhelmed in low productivity regions by the positive effects of woody cover that may be linked to the amelioration temperature, a possible linkage 238 239 that requires examination. As economic development increases the demand for ecosystem services from rangelands becomes more diversified. In least developed regions, food and fiber 240 241 dominate the demand for ecosystem services. On the contrary, in developed regions there are multiple demands from rangelands beyond food production that include conservation, carbon 242 243 sequestration, water supply and recreation. As development increases and demand diversifies the importance of ecological drivers decreases while that of social-economic factors increases. The 244 245 future of woody-plant encroachment and its consequences on ecosystem services will be 246 modulated by changing climate and social and economic conditions.

247

#### 248 Methods Summary

# 249 Study areas

250 We modeled the impact of woody plant encroachment on livestock production at a county

resolution for both U.S. and Argentinean rangelands (Fig. 1). Both areas share a similar

252 latitudinal temperature gradient and a longitudinal precipitation gradient, with precipitation

253 increasing from W to E. These similar climatic patterns yield vegetation types that are

remarkably similar (31). These similarities contrast with large social-economic differences (see

- Introduction and Figure S1), which make them a perfect study system to address the impact of
- woody-plant encroachment on livestock production at a regional scale and the variation of this
- 257 impact between different socio-economic regions.

The U.S. and Argentinean rangelands constitute, together with the Brazilian Cerrado, the 258 259 two main rangelands of the Americas (35). Here, we used rangelands in a very broad sense; our two study areas comprise the transition between the desert and the forest biomes. We defined our 260 study areas in the U.S. and Argentina as those encompassing the prairie, savanna, and temperate 261 and subtropical desert and steppes divisions and regimen mountain divisions, according to 262 Bailey's ecoregions (1). Within those areas, we excluded those counties with mean annual 263 precipitation values below 600 mm, thus focusing on the tree dominion (Fig S2) and excluding 264 woody cover due to shrubs. The resulting areas in the U.S. and Argentina had the same 265 precipitation lower limit (600mm) but differed in their upper limit (U.S.=1260 mm, Argentina= 266 267 2270 mm). In order to make the analysis of both areas fully comparable we limited the upper 268 precipitation limit of Argentina to that of the U.S. (i.e., 1260 mm). Taking into account also 269 those counties excluded due to low representation of non-crop lands (see below), the resulting 270 number of sampling units (i.e., counties in the U.S., departments in Argentina) was 242 for the U.S. and 125 for Argentina. 271

272

## 273 Livestock production data

274 Data on livestock production were obtained from the USDA Census Database

(www.agcensus.usda.gov) and Argentinean Food and Agriculture Administration (SENASA;

http://www.senasa.gov.ar) (Fig. 2). In both cases, we used the last available livestock data (2007

for the U.S., and 2010 for Argentina). We focused on cattle, which is the main livestock type in

both areas. For comparability, we used the number of reproductive animals, a metric present in

both data bases. This metric corresponded to the class 'Cows incl. calves' in the USDA Census

- data and to the class 'Cows' in the SENASA database (range: 1.5-66.4 and 0.5-43.2 animals per
- $km^2$  for the U.S. and Argentina respectively). In the U.S. we subtracted the number of cows on
- feedlots, also available in the U.S. Census Database, from the total number of cows.

#### 284 Environmental data

Net primary productivity, tree cover, and land uses per county were quantified by using 285 286 Moderate-resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) products (Fig. 2). All environmental variables were characterized by the mean annual values of the year of the livestock data (2007 287 for the U.S., and 2010 for Argentina) and the four previous years. The value of the Net primary 288 productivity was assessed using the Photosynthesis and Net Primary Productivity algorithm 289 290 MOD17A3 (36). Here, production is determined by first computing a daily net photosynthesis 291 value which is then composited over an 8-day interval of observations over a year, to produce a net primary productivity measure. Tree cover was assessed by means of MODIS Vegetation 292 293 Continuous Fields product MOD44B (29). This product represents Earth's terrestrial surface as a proportion of three surface cover components: percent tree cover, percent non-tree cover, and 294 295 percent bare ground. Land uses were assessed by the MODIS product MCD12Q1 (37). This land-use remote sensing data allowed us to exclude crops and urban areas in our analysis, and 296 297 thus to obtain a more accurate measure of the net primary productivity available for livestock consumption per county. Additionally, in order to remove those counties with low sampling size, 298 we also excluded from our analyses those counties with less than 1000  $\text{km}^2$  or 25% of 299 rangelands. 300

Mean annual precipitation values were obtained from Earth observations and climatic models. Specifically, annual precipitation values for the study periods in Argentina were obtained from the Tropical Measuring Mission (TRMM; www.trmm.gsfc.nasa.gov) at a 0.25° resolution. In the U.S., annual climatic data at a 2.5' resolution were obtained from the PRISM Climate Group (Oregon State University; www.prism.oregonstate.edu).

306

## 307 Hypotheses testing

- 308 Our first two hypotheses describe the impact of net primary productivity and tree cover on
- 309 livestock production and were tested by means of the model LP =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * NPP + \beta_2 * TC + \beta_2 * TC$
- 310  $\beta_3$ \*NPP\*TC, where LP is livestock production, NPP is net primary productivity and TC is tree
- 311 cover. The sign and significance of  $\beta_2$  and  $\beta_3$  in the models fitted for the two study areas (U.S.
- and Argentinean rangelands) tested first and second hypotheses.
- 313 The third hypothesis, that states that the role of ecological drivers (net primary productivity and
- tree cover) on woody-plant encroachment on livestock production would be larger in regions

315 where the demand for ecosystem services is concentrated exclusively on food production, was tested by means of examining model results in the U.S. and Argentinean rangelands separately. 316 317 In particular, we examined the explained variance of the model in each country. The relative explanatory power of NPP and tree cover was assessed by means of a variance partitioning 318 analysis (38, 39), which allowed us to break down the total explained variance in four fractions: 319 pure effects of NPP, pure effects of TC (i.e., variance exclusively explained by NPP or TC), join 320 321 effect of NPP and TC (i.e., variance explained simultaneously by NPP and TC) and the effect of the synergistic interaction between the two drivers (variance explained by NPP\*TC). 322

The model LP =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * NPP + \beta_2 * TC + \beta_3 * NPP * TC$  was fitted with three candidate sets 323 of variables describing NPP and TC considering one, three or five years of previous information: 324 a) variables describing NPP and TC values for the year of census (2007 for the US and 2010 for 325 Argentina), b) variables describing the average NPP and TC values of the year of the census and 326 the two previous years and c) the average NPP and TC values of the year of the census and the 327 four previous years. For both the U.S. and Argentina, the three candidate set of variables yielded 328 very similar patterns, although the models with largest values of explained variance, and thus 329 330 those presented here, were those with independent variables describing NPP and TC the year before the livestock census data. 331

332

## 333 Acknowledgements

- This work has been supported by the National Academies Keck Futures Initiative award 025512
- (NAKFI), and by NSF DEB 09-17668 and DEB 1235828. K. Havstad, S. Archer and G. Ruyle,
- E. Jobággy and C. Rueda provided valuable suggestions during the development of the project.
- F. Maestre kindly reviewed a previous draft of the manuscript. X. Li and Y. Zhang
- 338 (Environmental Remote Sensing and Geoinformatics Lab, Global Institute of Sustainability,
- ASU) assisted with the processing of MODIS data.
- 340

#### 341 **REFERENCES**

- Bailey RG Ropes L (1998) *Ecoregions: the ecosystem geography of the oceans and continents* (Springer New York).
   Field CB, Behrenfeld MJ, Randerson JT, Falkowski P (1998) Primary production of
- Field CB, Behrenfeld MJ, Randerson JT, Falkowski P (1998) Primary production of the
   biosphere: integrating terrestrial and oceanic components. *Science* 281(5374):237-240.

3. Safriel U Adeel Z (2005) Dryland systems. Ecosystems and human well-being, current 346 347 state and trends, eds Hassan R, Scholes R, & Ash N (Island Press, Washington), Vol 1, pp 625-658. 348 349 4. Reynolds JF, et al. (2007) Global desertification: building a science for dryland development. Science 316(5826):847-851. 350 Sala O Paruelo J (1997) Ecosystem services in grasslands. Nature's services: Societal 351 5. dependence on natural ecosystems, ed Daily GC (Island Press, Washington, D.C.), pp 352 353 237-251. Archer SR (2010) Rangeland conservation and shrub encroachment: new perspectives on 354 6. an old problem. Wild rangelands: Conserving wildlife while maintaining livestock in 355 semi-arid ecosystems, eds du Toit JT, Kock R, & C DJ (John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, 356 Chichester, UK), pp 53-97. 357 Pacala SW, et al. (2001) Consistent land-and atmosphere-based US carbon sink 358 7. estimates. Science 292(5525):2316-2320. 359 Barger NN, et al. (2011) Woody plant proliferation in North American drylands: a 360 8. synthesis of impacts on ecosystem carbon balance. Journal of Geophysical Research 361 362 116(G00K07). 9. Archer S (1995) Tree-grass dynamics in a Prosopis-thornscrub savanna parkland: 363 reconstructing the past and predicting the future. *Ecoscience* 2(1):83-99. 364 Van Auken OW (2000) Shrub invasions of North American semiarid grasslands. Annual 365 10. Review of Ecology and Systematics 31:197-215. 366 Briggs JM, et al. (2005) An ecosystem in transition: causes and consequences of the 367 11. conversion of mesic grassland to shrubland. BioScience 55(3):243-254. 368 12. Naito AT Cairns DM (2011) Patterns and processes of global shrub expansion. Progress 369 in Physical Geography 35(4):423-442. 370 Scholes R Archer S (1997) Tree-grass interactions in savannas. Annual Review of 371 13. Ecology and Systematics 28:517-544. 372 14. Tanaka JA, Torell LA, Brunson MW, Briske DD (2011) A social and economic 373 374 assessment of rangeland conservation practices. Conservation benefits of rangeland practices: assessment, recommendations, and knowledge gaps, ed Briske DE (US 375 Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service, Washington, DC), 376 pp 371-422. 377 Dalle G, Maass BL, Isselstein J (2006) Encroachment of woody plants and its impact on 378 15. pastoral livestock production in the Borana lowlands, southern Oromia, Ethiopia. African 379 Journal of Ecology 44(2):237-246. 380 McNaughton SJ, Oesterheld M, Frank DA, Williams KJ (1989) Ecosystem-level patterns 381 16. of primary productivity and herbivory in terrestrial habitats. Nature 341(6238):142-144. 382 Ethridge D, Dahl B, Sosebee R (1984) Economic evaluation of chemical mesquite control 383 17. using 2, 4, 5-T. Journal of Range Management 37(2):152-156. 384 Hedrick DW, Hyder DN, Sneva FA, Poulton CE (1966) Ecological response of 18. 385 sagebrush-grass range in central Oregon to mechanical and chemical removal of 386 Artemisia. Ecology 47(3):432-439. 387 Hyder DN Sneva FA (1956) Herbage response to sagebrush spraying. Journal of Range 388 19. Management 9(1):34-38. 389 390 20. Oesterheld M, Sala OE, McNaughton SJ (1992) Effect of animal husbandry on herbivorecarrying capacity at a regional scale. Nature 356(6366):234-236. 391

21. Bell D (1973) The coming of post-industrial society: a venture in social forecasting. 392 393 (Basic Books, New York), p 507. Díaz S, et al. (2011) Linking functional diversity and social actor strategies in a 22. 394 395 framework for interdisciplinary analysis of nature's benefits to society. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 108(3):895-902. 396 23. Geist HJ Lambin EF (2004) Dynamic causal patterns of desertification. BioScience 397 54(9):817-829. 398 399 24. Pratt D Gwynne MD (1977) Rangeland management and ecology in East Africa (Hodder and Stoughton). 400 Clements FE (1916) Plant succession: an analysis of the development of vegetation 401 25. (Carnegie Institution of Washington, Washington, DC) p 512. 402 Garcia-Pichel F, Loza V, Marusenko Y, Mateo P, Potrafka RM (2013) Temperature 403 26. Drives the Continental-Scale Distribution of Key Microbes in Topsoil Communities. 404 Science 340(6140):1574-1577. 405 27. Thuiller W, Lavorel S, Araújo MB, Sykes MT, Prentice IC (2005) Climate change threats 406 to plant diversity in Europe. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the 407 United States of America 102(23):8245-8250. 408 Sala OE, Gherardi LA, Reichmann L, Jobbágy E, Peters D (2012) Legacies of 28. 409 precipitation fluctuations on primary production: theory and data synthesis. Philosophical 410 Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 367(1606):3135-3144. 411 29. Hansen MC, et al. (2003) Global percent tree cover at a spatial resolution of 500 meters: 412 First results of the MODIS vegetation continuous fields algorithm. Earth Interactions 413 7(10):1-15. 414 30. Paruelo JM, et al. (1995) Regional climatic similarities in the temperate zones of North 415 and South America. Journal of Biogeography 22(4/5):915-925. 416 417 31. Paruelo JM, Jobbágy EG, Sala OE, Lauenroth WK, Burke IC (1998) Functional and structural convergence of temperate grassland and shrubland ecosystems. Ecological 418 Applications 8(1):194-206. 419 420 32. Lence SH (2010) The agricultural sector in Argentina: major trends and recent developments. The shifting patterns of agricultural production and productivity 421 worldwide, eds Alston JM, Babcock BA, & Pardey PG (The Midwest Agribusiness Trade 422 Research and Information Center, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa), pp 409-448. 423 424 33. Eldridge DJ, et al. (2011) Impacts of shrub encroachment on ecosystem structure and functioning: towards a global synthesis. *Ecology Letters* 14(7):709-722. 425 34. Tucker CB, Rogers AR, Schüzt KE (2008) Effect of solar radiation on dairy cattle 426 behaviour, use of shade and body temperature in a pasture-based system. Applied Animal 427 Behaviour Science 109(2-4):141-154. 428 Wint W Robinson TP (2007) Gridded livestock of the world 2007 (Food and Agriculture 429 35. Organization of the United Nations Rome). 430 Heinsch FA, et al. (2003) User's Guide GPP and NPP (MOD17A2/A3) Products NASA 431 36. MODIS Land Algorithm. pp 1-57. 432 Friedl MA, et al. (2010) MODIS Collection 5 global land cover: Algorithm refinements 433 37. and characterization of new datasets. Remote Sensing of Environment 114(1):168-182. 434 Borcard D, Legendre P, Drapeau P (1992) Partialling out the spatial component of 435 38. 436 ecological variation. Ecology 73(3):1045-1055.

437 39. Cushman SA McGarigal K (2002) Hierarchical, multi-scale decomposition of species438 environment relationships. *Landscape Ecology* 17(7):637-646.

<b>Table 1.</b> Models assessing the effect of ecological drivers (net primary productivity and tree)
cover) on livestock production in the U.S. and Argentinean rangelands. $R^2 = \%$ of explained
variance. N.s. = non-significant effect (not included in the final model).

	U	U.S.		Argentina	
	Estimate	p-value	Estimate	p-value	
Intercept	-40.8044	0.8424	-22.75	0.6015	
NPP	0.133	< 0.0001	0.09796	< 0.0001	
Tree cover	-0.5754	0.0005	1.1360	0.0006	
NPP*Tree cover	-	n.s.	-0.003	0.0001	
$R^2$	24.01		50.26		

**Figure 1.** Main environmental gradients (mean annual precipitation and mean annual temperature) in the U.S. and Argentinean rangelands. Rangelands are defined in this work as those areas encompassing the prairie, savanna, and temperate and subtropical desert, steppes and mountain divisions, according to Bailey's ecoregions (1). Within these areas our work focused on those counties with mean annual precipitation values between 600 and 1260 (see Methods Section and Fig. 2). For both areas, national (bold lines) and county (thin lines) borders are drawn. In the US state borders are also drawn (bold lines).



**Figure 2.** Livestock production, net primary productivity (NPP) and tree cover for our study counties. Rangelands not included in the analyses (in grey) are those counties with annual precipitation less than 600 mm or larger than 1260 mm (light gray) or those counties with less than 1000 km<sup>2</sup> in rangelands or less than 25% of their total area in rangelands (dark gray; see Methods).



**Figure 3.** Response models of livestock production to net primary productivity and tree cover in the U.S. and Argentinean rangelands. Equations for response models are shown in Table 1. The red area indicates the NPP range where the impact of tree cover on livestock production is negative. The green area indicates positive effect. Rc km<sup>-2</sup> = Number of reproductive cows per km<sup>2</sup>.



**Figure 4.** Explanatory power of net primary productivity (NPP) and tree cover (TC) on livestock production in the U.S. and Argentinean rangelands as assessed by a variance partitioning analysis. This analysis breaks down the explained variance of the model into a) the pure effects of NPP or TC (i.e. the portion of the variance explained exclusively by one this factors), b) the join effects of NPP and TC (i.e. the portion of the variance explained jointly by NPP and TC, due to, for example collinearity between them), and c) the interaction between NPP and TC.



# SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

**Figure S1.** Evolution of the number of cattle (top) and agricultural population (bottom) by fiveyear periods in the U.S. and Argentina. Source: FAOSTAT (*http://faostat.fao.org/*; last accessed Jul 13<sup>th</sup>, 2013).





**Figure S2.** Mean annual precipitation range (600-1260 mm) in relation to tree cover in the U.S. The lower limit of our study area was set at 600 mm, thus excluding those areas where tree cover is marginal (<10%). 1260 mm equals the maximum annual precipitation value for a county in our study area. Annual precipitation from WorldClim database (<u>http://www.worldclim.com/</u>), tree cover from MODIS (see Methods section).

