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4   **Authors:** Laura Yahdjian<sup>1</sup>, Sofía Campana<sup>1</sup>, Pedro Tognetti<sup>1,2</sup>, Juan Alberti<sup>3</sup> Pamela Graff<sup>1</sup>, Cecilia  
5   Molina<sup>1,4</sup>, Elizabeth Borer<sup>5</sup>, Eric Seabloom<sup>5</sup>, Suzanne M. Prober<sup>6</sup>, Andrew S. MacDougall<sup>7</sup>, Anita C.  
6   Risch<sup>8</sup>, Jodi Price<sup>9</sup>, Sally A. Power<sup>10</sup>, Isabel C. Barrio<sup>11</sup>, Erika Hersch-Green<sup>12</sup>, Philip A. Fay<sup>13</sup>,  
7   Sumanta Bagchi<sup>14</sup>, Jonathan D. Bakker<sup>15</sup>, Dana Blumenthal<sup>16</sup>, Elizabeth Boughton<sup>17</sup>, Cynthia S.  
8   Brown<sup>18</sup>, Miguel Bugalho<sup>19</sup>, Marc Cadotte<sup>20</sup>, Maria Caldeira<sup>21</sup>, Jane Catford<sup>22</sup>, Clinton Carbutt<sup>23</sup>,  
9   Qingging Chen<sup>24</sup>, Scott Collins<sup>25</sup>, Thomas Crowther<sup>26</sup>, Carla D'Antonio<sup>27</sup>, Christopher R. Dickman<sup>28</sup>,  
10   Mary Ellyn DuPre<sup>29</sup>, Kenneth J. Elgersma<sup>30</sup>, Anu Eskelinen<sup>31</sup>, Nicole Hagenah<sup>32</sup>, Yann Hautier<sup>33</sup>, Anke  
11   Jentsch-Beierkuhnlein<sup>34</sup>, Johannes M. H. Knops<sup>35</sup>, Jason P. Martina<sup>36</sup>, Rebecca McCulley<sup>37</sup>, Carly  
12   Stevens<sup>38</sup>, Lauri Laanisto<sup>39</sup>, Lydia O'Halloran<sup>40</sup>, Pablo Peri<sup>41</sup>, Petr Macek<sup>39,42</sup>, Nicholas G. Smith<sup>43</sup>,  
13   Grégory Sonnier<sup>44</sup>, Ciska G.F. Veen<sup>45</sup>, Risto Virtanen<sup>46</sup>

14

15   1. Instituto de Investigaciones Fisiológicas y Ecológicas Vinculadas a la IFEVA, CONICET; Universidad  
16   de Buenos Aires. Facultad de Agronomía, Cátedra de Ecología, Av. San Martín 4453. Ciudad  
17   Autónoma de Buenos Aires – 1417 Argentina. 2. Departamento de Métodos Cuantitativos, Facultad  
18   de Agronomía, UBA, Av. San Martín 4453. Ciudad Autónoma de Buenos Aires – 1417 Argentina.  
19   3. Instituto de Investigaciones Marinas y Costeras. 4. Cátedra de Fertlidad, Facultad de Agronomía,  
20   UBA, Av. San Martín 4453. Ciudad Autónoma de Buenos Aires – 1417 Argentina. 5. Department of  
21   Ecology, Evolution, and Behavior, University of Minnesota, St Paul, MN 55108 USA.  
22   6. CSIRO Land and Water, Wembley Western Australia, Australia. 7. Department of Integrative  
23   Biology, University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, Canada N1G2W1. 8. Swiss Federal Institute for  
24   Forest, Snow and Landscape Research WSL, Birmensdorf, Switzerland. 9. Gulbail Institute, Charles  
25   Sturt University, Albury, NSW, Australia. 10. Hawkesbury Institute for the Environment, Western  
26   Sydney University, Locked Bag 1797, Penrith, New South Wales 2751, Australia. 11. Faculty of  
27   Environmental and Forest Sciences, Agricultural University of Iceland, Árleyni 22, 112 Reykjavík,  
28   Iceland. 12. Department of Biological Sciences, Michigan Technological University, 1400 Townsend  
29   Dr., Houghton, MI, USA. 13. USDA ARS Grassland Soil and Water Research Laboratory, 808 E.  
30   Blackland Road, Temple, TX 76502 USA. 14. Centre for Ecological Sciences, Indian Institute of  
31   Science, Bangalore, India. 15. School of Environmental and Forest Sciences, University of  
32   Washington, Seattle, WA 98195. 16. USDA-ARS Rangeland Resources & Systems. Research Unit, Fort  
33   Collins, CO, 80526, USA. 17. Archbold Biological Station, Buck Island Ranch, Lake Placid, FL 33852.

34 18. Colorado State University, Bioagricultural Sciences and Pest Management. Fort Collins, CO, 80526,  
35 USA. 19. Center for Applied Ecology "Prof. Baeta Neves" (CEABN-InBIO), School of Agriculture,  
36 University of Lisbon, Portugal. 20. Department of Biological Sciences, University of Toronto -  
37 Scarborough, Toronto, Canada. 21. Forest Research Centre, Associate Laboratory TERRA, School of  
38 Agriculture, University of Lisbon, Portugal. 22. Department of Geography, King's College London,  
39 London, WC2B 4BG, UK; Fenner School of Environment & Society, The Australian National  
40 University, Canberra, ACT 2601, Australia. 23 School of Life Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal,  
41 Scottsville 3209, South Africa; Scientific Services, Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife, Cascades 3202, South  
42 Africa. 24. Senckenberg Museum of Natural Sciences, Görlitz, Germany. 25. Department of Biology,  
43 University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM 87131, USA. 26. ETH Zürich. Universitätstrasse 16 8092  
44 Zürich. Switzerland. 27. Department of Ecology, Evolution, and Marine Biology, University of  
45 California Santa Barbara, California, USA. 28. Desert Ecology Research Group, School of Life and  
46 Environmental Sciences, The University of Sydney, NSW 2006, Australia. 29. MPG Ranch, Missoula,  
47 Montana, USA. 30. Dept. of Biology, University of Northern Iowa, 144 McCollum Science Hall, Cedar  
48 Falls, IA 50614. 31. Ecology and Genetics Unit, University of Oulu, Finland; Physiological Diversity  
49 Department, Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research UFZ, Leipzig, Germany; German Centre  
50 for Integrative Biodiversity Research iDiv, Leipzig, Germany. 32. Mammal Research Institute,  
51 Department of Zoology and Entomology, University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa. 33. Ecology  
52 and Biodiversity Group, Department of Biology, Utrecht University, Padualaan 8, 3584 CH Utrecht,  
53 The Netherlands. 34. Disturbance Ecology and Vegetation Dynamics. Bayreuth Center of Ecology and  
54 Environmental Research (BayCEER). University of Bayreuth, Universitaetsstr. 30, 95447 Bayreuth,  
55 Germany. 35. Health and Environmental Sciences Department, Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University,  
56 Suzhou, Jiangsu, China. 36. Texas State University, Department of Biology, San Marcos, TX 78666.  
57 37. Department of Plant & Soil Sciences, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY, USA. 38. Lancaster  
58 Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster, LA1 4YQ. 39. Chair of Biodiversity and Nature  
59 Tourism, Estonian University of Life Sciences, Kreutzwaldi 5, Tartu, 51006, Estonia. 40. Baruch  
60 Institute of Coastal Ecology and Forest Science, Clemson University, Georgetown, SC, USA.  
61 41. Instituto Nacional de Tecnología Agropecuaria (INTA), Universidad Nacional de la Patagonia  
62 Austral (UNPA)-CONICET, Río Gallegos, Santa Cruz, Argentina. 42. Institute of Hydrobiology, Biology  
63 Centre of the Czech Academy of Sciences, Na Sadkach 7, 370 05 Ceske Budejovice, Czech Republic.  
64 43. Department of Biological Sciences, Texas Tech University, 2901 Main St., Lubbock, TX 79409 USA  
65 44. Archbold Biological Station, 123 Main Drive Venus Florida, 33960. 45. Department of Terrestrial  
66 Ecology, Netherlands Institute of Ecology, Droevedaalsesteeg 10, 6708 PB, Wageningen, the  
67 Netherlands. 46. Ecology & Genetics, University of Oulu, 90014 Oulu, Finland.

68 **Abstract:**  
69 Rangelands are crucial to human wellbeing, but their ability to provide ecosystem services is  
70 threatened. We 1) quantified key ecosystem services provided by rangelands; 2) assessed short- and  
71 longer-term impacts of grazing exclusion and fertilization on services; and 3) identified synergies and  
72 trade-offs between services. We measured indicators of ecosystem services and plant diversity at 79  
73 rangeland sites across six continents in the global Nutrient Network experiment. Short-term grazing  
74 exclusion increased forage quantity and soil fertility but longer-term exclusion decreased them along  
75 with plant richness and pollination. Fertilization improved forage provisioning, soil stability, climate  
76 regulation, and the control of soil erosion but reduced plant diversity and related services especially  
77 after prolonged application. We found synergies between plant diversity and pollination, and soil  
78 fertility, stability, and climate regulation. Trade-offs between forage stability and quality persisted  
79 after fertilization but disappeared with grazing exclusion. Alternative management actions may  
80 sustain livestock production while maintaining rangeland ecosystem services.

81 **In a nutshell**

82 -Rangelands provide essential ecosystem services demanded by human society, including forage  
83 provisioning, carbon sequestration, pollination, and biodiversity conservation.  
84 -By using the multiple ecosystem services approach and standardized global data, we described the  
85 worldwide provision of rangeland ecosystem services and determine management strategies that  
86 ensure the sustainability of rangeland ecosystems.  
87 -We showed that potential benefits of rangeland fertilization and grazing exclusion may entail trade-  
88 offs arising from lost plant diversity and long-term delivery of regulating ecosystem services.  
89 -Our study generated important information for rangeland sustainability and illustrates how  
90 ecological experiments can inform natural resource management.

91

92 **Keywords:** Ecosystem services, Nutrients, Livestock production, Global change, Herbivores,  
93 Grasslands

94 **Introduction**

95 Rangelands comprising grasslands, savannas, shrublands, deserts, steppes, tundra, subalpine and  
96 alpine grasslands, and marshes (Carbutt et al., 2017; Yahdjian & Sala, 2008), span all continents,  
97 occupy more than 50 % of terrestrial land, and are biologically diverse (Rangeland Atlas, 2021).  
98 Rangelands provide a wide variety of critical regulating, cultural, provisioning, and supporting  
99 ecosystem services (Sala et al., 2017). Ecosystem services (i.e., nature's contribution to people sensu  
100 Díaz et al., 2015) are the different goods and benefits that society can obtain directly or indirectly  
101 from natural ecosystems (Daily, 1997). Biodiversity at different levels (e.g., genes, species, and  
102 ecosystems) can support ecosystem processes and functions and therefore may also elevate human  
103 well-being (Soliveres et al., 2016). Even though rangelands produce multiple, varied ecosystem  
104 services (Sala et al., 2017), their utility is undervalued by society, particularly when compared with  
105 tropical or temperate forests (Bardgett et al., 2021).

106 Increasing anthropogenic pressures for food production or urbanisation are rapidly transforming  
107 rangelands, reducing biodiversity, and increasing nutrient loads, with feedback to the climate system  
108 (Díaz et al., 2015). Indeed, contemporary intensive livestock production has transformed natural  
109 grasslands, reducing wild herbivore populations, plant diversity, and ecosystem functioning (Maestre  
110 et al., 2022). Replacement of native with domestic grazers can reduce native plant diversity,  
111 especially when exotic plant species are introduced accidentally or deliberately to increase livestock  
112 production (Paudel et al., 2023). The loss of native plant species can dramatically change plant  
113 community composition as well as having negative effects on ecosystem functioning (Tilman et al.,  
114 2014). Land management practices, which sometimes result in fertilization or exclusion of grazers,  
115 often alter ecosystem processes and drivers (Allan et al., 2015; Bardgett et al., 2021). Fertilization of  
116 rangelands used to increase forage quantity and quality for livestock is not a widespread practice in  
117 arid and semi-arid lands, but this form of intensification is happening more frequently in mesic  
118 rangelands (Paudel et al., 2023) as well as contamination with nutrients from nearby cropland. The  
119 increase in nutrient loads can further contribute to biodiversity loss, although big herbivores that  
120 reduce biomass, increase light and recover or maintain diversity that would otherwise be lost under  
121 fertilized conditions may compensate this negative effects (Borer et al., 2020). Reduction in plant  
122 diversity can lead to losses of forage temporal stability (Chen et al., 2023; Hautier et al., 2020) and  
123 reduces the diversity of higher trophic levels that depend on native plant biodiversity (Maestre et al.  
124 2022).

125 Many rangelands are managed for forage production to support the production of domestic  
126 herbivores, mainly cattle, goats, horses, and sheep, and their associated marketable goods, such as

127 milk, meat, leather, or wool (Bengtsson et al., 2019; Sala et al., 2017). However, management  
128 favouring livestock production can compromise other ecosystem services (Petz et al. 2014). While  
129 currently lacking, a framework including correlations among multiple ecosystem services will reveal  
130 the ecosystem services most likely to trade-off and those most likely to provide synergies. Synergies  
131 between ecosystem services can occur when land management that improves one type of  
132 ecosystem service is associated with or in some cases leads to improvements in others (Bennett et  
133 al., 2023). These co-varying ecosystem services often share underlying ecosystem processes and  
134 biophysical drivers. For example, reducing the number of animals or implementing temporary  
135 resting times can increase soil carbon sequestration as well as soil water holding capacity and  
136 fertility (Oñatibia et al., 2015).

137 Besides the exploitation of rangelands, it is also interesting to know whether short-term herbivory  
138 exclusion is a way to restore rangeland biodiversity and ecosystem services (Bradford, 2014).  
139 Biodiversity conservation can lead to indirect benefits such as reduced greenhouse gas emissions  
140 (Piñeiro-Guerra et al., 2019; Standish & Prober, 2020), increase pollination (Garibaldi et al., 2014),  
141 and control invasive species (Beaury et al., 2020; Kennedy et al., 2002). Restoring native biodiversity  
142 can also increase biomass production (Tilman et al., 2014) and biomass stability (Isbell et al., 2018),  
143 i.e. the consistency or invariability of plant biomass production over time which is particularly  
144 important for extensive livestock production that relies on native forage (Maestre et al. 2022). By  
145 understanding how livestock management such as short-term herbivory exclusion or fertilization  
146 affect the delivery of potentially related ecosystem services, it may be possible to identify alternative  
147 management strategies that minimise trade-offs (Maestre et al. 2022; Petz et al. 2024). Therefore,  
148 the conceptual framework developed under the science of ecosystem services can be adopted as a  
149 general approach to assess the consequences of human activities in rangelands (Allan et al., 2015;  
150 Tamburini et al., 2016).

151 The objectives of this study are to 1) quantify indicators of the different types of ecosystem services  
152 provided by global rangelands; 2) evaluate short and longer-term changes in these indicators in  
153 response to rangeland management practices (fertilization, herbivory exclusion, and their  
154 combination); and 3) identify synergies and trade-offs among indicators of rangeland ecosystem  
155 services and assess changes with management practices. To meet these objectives, we used data  
156 from a globally distributed experiment, the Nutrient Network, in which we measured indicators of  
157 provisioning, supporting, and regulating services, along with plant diversity at 79 rangeland sites  
158 across six continents (Borer et al., 2014; <https://nutnet.org/>). Therefore, the ecosystem services  
159 emerged from the variables commonly used as indicators to describe ecosystem services in  
160 ecological studies (i.e. Maestre et al., 2022) and that were measured at all sites in a standardized

161 manner during the experiment. For most sites, this includes a standardised experimental and  
162 sampling design of nutrient addition and exclusion of large herbivores with fences in a complete  
163 factorial experiment (Borer et al., 2014; Appendix S1: Section S1). As such, the treatments simulate  
164 rangeland management practices: fertilizer application (Paudel et al., 2023), grazing management  
165 (herbivory exclusion; Oñatibia et al., 2015), and their combination (Briske et al., 2023). To tease  
166 apart the role of domestic vs. wild grazers in the delivery of multiple ecosystem services in  
167 rangelands, we categorised sites considering the presence of domestic livestock versus wild grazers  
168 (large mammals). The herbivory exclusion in these categories can be seen as different scenarios of  
169 change in rangelands where longer-term exclusion of wild herbivores may inform the consequences  
170 of defaunation (Dirzo et al., 2014; Risch et al., 2018).

171 **Methods**

172 *Site selection and rangeland classification criteria*

173 We used data from 79 grassland sites participating in the Nutrient Network (NutNet), including  
174 herbivory exclusion and/or nutrient addition factorial experiment (Borer et al., 2014; Appendix S1).  
175 Sites span six continents (Fig 1.a), representing a wide range of climate, elevation, and management  
176 practices (Fig. 1b). All sites have wild vertebrates but some of them have domestic large vertebrate  
177 grazers. We classified sites into three categories (Fig 1.a., Appendix S1: Table S1):

- 178 a. *Current livestock*: grazed by domestic livestock.
- 179 b. *Recent livestock*: grazed by domestic livestock until the start of the experiment.
- 180 c. *Wild grazers*: grazed by wild vertebrate herbivores only. Not grazed by domestic livestock for at  
181 least 10 years before the start of the experiment.

182

183 *NutNet experimental design and site data collection*

184 Most sites (n=70) established a replicated factorial of nutrient addition (nitrogen, phosphorus,  
185 potassium, and micronutrients), and large herbivores grazing exclusion (called herbivory exclusion  
186 from now on) experiment arranged in blocks. A few sites (n=8) only conducted the nutrient addition  
187 without herbivory exclusion, and one site conducted only the herbivory exclusion treatment (see  
188 Appendix S1: Table S1). Treatments commenced at most sites in 2008 and continued through 2022  
189 (1 to 14 years of treatments when we compiled the data). Most ecosystem service indicators (see  
190 below) were measured every year, but those related to soil variables were recorded every three  
191 years. Consequently, we used 1-3 years for short and 6-8 years for longer-term responses of  
192 ecosystem services to these management practices.

193

194 *Selection of ecosystem service indicators*

195 We used ecosystem variables to quantify three provisioning ecosystem services (forage quantity,  
196 forage chemical quality, forage physical quality), three supporting services (forage stability, soil  
197 fertility, soil stability), and eight regulating services (erosion control, control of soil acidification,  
198 regulation of water quantity and quality, carbon storage, resistance to plant invasion, pest control,  
199 pollination; Appendix S1: Table S2). In addition, we identified three plant biodiversity variables  
200 closely related to the provisioning of ecosystem services (alpha richness, beta diversity, native  
201 diversity; Appendix S1: Section S2). These 17 variables are commonly used in ecological studies to  
202 describe ecosystem services (Bardgett et al., 2021; Hautier et al., 2018; Maestre et al., 2022).

203

#### 204 *Data analyses*

205 We described the different categories of ecosystem services provided by global rangelands and  
206 examined the co-variation among the entire set of ecosystem services across sites by performing a  
207 probabilistic principal component analysis (pPCA) using data from pre-treatment and control plots of  
208 all year's data (Tipping & Bishop, 1999).

209 We used a log response ratio to evaluate how large herbivores grazing exclusion (as part of  
210 rotational grazing management) and/or fertilization can influence plot-level ecosystem service  
211 indicators and the provisioning of ecosystem services in short (1-3 years) and longer (6-8 years) time  
212 periods (Hedges et al., 2016). We performed t-tests ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) to evaluate if management practices  
213 modified ecosystem services in relation to the ambient condition.

214 We prepared radar plots according to rangeland classification for indicators measured in control  
215 plots (all years) and for the short (1-3 years) and longer-term (6-8 years) effects of excluding large  
216 herbivores with fences, fertilization, and their interaction (*fmsb* package in R library; Nakazawa M.,  
217 2022).

218 We calculated Spearman correlations between ecosystem services to identify synergies and trade-  
219 offs between ecosystem services across different management practices. All analyses were  
220 performed with R version 4.2.2 ('cor' function from *corr* package, R Core Team, 2019). The database  
221 used for this study was the NutNet January 2022 complete set of variables.

222

#### 223 **Results**

##### 224 *Ecosystem services provided by global rangelands*

225 The first two axes of the probabilistic principal component analysis (pPCA) explained 30% and 22% of  
226 the total variance in ecosystem service indicators across rangelands, respectively (Fig. 2). The three  
227 rangeland categories (current livestock, recent livestock, and wild grazing, all unfertilized) offered  
228 similar delivery of ecosystem services under ambient conditions evidenced by substantial overlap in

229 multivariate space, as represented by their 95% confidence ellipses. Axis 1 was primarily associated  
230 with supporting and regulating services, while Axis 2 was more related to provisioning services. Plant  
231 diversity metrics contributed to both axes. Forage quantity was orthogonal to alpha plant richness,  
232 native diversity, and pollination. In contrast, invasion resistance and forage stability were positively  
233 associated with plant diversity indicators. This ordination highlights that no strong gradients  
234 separate rangeland categories in terms of overall ecosystem service delivery, emphasizing the  
235 similarity of service bundles provided by these systems despite their different management  
236 histories.

237

238 *Alterations in rangeland ecosystem services in response to experimental treatments*

239 The three treatments fertilization, herbivory exclusion, and its combination affected ecosystem  
240 services both similarly and differently. For instance, the three had similar positive effects on forage  
241 quantity and negative effects on soil acidification, pollination, and alpha plant species richness,  
242 although they varied in magnitude with the combined treatments having the largest effect (Fig. 3).  
243 Soil fertility was the only supporting service that increased with herbivory exclusion, whereas  
244 fertilization alone, and combined with exclosures, significantly increased soil stability, climate  
245 regulation, water quality, and erosion control (Fig. 3b and 3c). Across these study sites, invasion  
246 resistance and plant beta diversity were unaffected by short-term fertilization or large herbivore  
247 exclusion (Fig. 3). Considering the multiple ecosystem services, In the short-term herbivory exclusion  
248 produced the smallest changes whereas fertilization produced the largest changes (Fig. 4). By  
249 contrast, fertilizing grazed rangelands significantly changed most ecosystem services, increasing  
250 seven and decreasing two (Fig. 4b). Fertilization also reduced plant richness and native diversity but  
251 had no significant effect on beta plant diversity (Fig. 4b). When fertilization was combined with large  
252 herbivore exclusion, the general effects on the delivery of multiple ecosystem services were like  
253 those for fertilization alone (Fig. 4c).

254 Changes in ecosystem services delivered in global rangelands in the longer-term (>6 years) were  
255 consistent although magnified from those observed in the short-term, particularly for fertilization  
256 (Table 1, Appendix S1: Fig. S2). For the herbivory exclusion, several short-term effects disappeared in  
257 the longer-term, such as forage provisioning, soil fertility, and the reduction in soil acidification and  
258 pollination. Radar plots also showed similarities between the short and longer-term effects, with  
259 exclosures producing smaller changes in ecosystem services than fertilization alone or combined  
260 with exclosures (Appendix S1: Fig. S3).

261 *Alterations in synergies and trade-offs of ecosystem services in response to experimental treatments*

262 Under ambient conditions (control), we identified synergies among plant-focussed services related  
263 to alpha plant species richness, native plant diversity, and pollination, and the supporting services of  
264 soil fertility, soil stability, and climate regulation (Fig. 5a). We also identified trade-offs between  
265 forage stability and the physical and chemical quality of the forage (Fig. 5a). The treatments did not  
266 significantly change this pattern, although herbivory exclusion reduced the trade-offs and even  
267 reversed the correlations among forage chemical quality, climate regulation, and supporting services  
268 (Fig. 5b). In contrast, with fertilization the positive relationship among pollination and native plant  
269 diversity disappeared (Fig. 5c). The combination of herbivory exclusion and fertilization reduced the  
270 trade-offs between forage quality and forage stability, maintaining the negative correlation with the  
271 physical but not chemical quality of forage (Fig. 5d).

272 **Discussion**

273 Rangelands provide a wide variety of ecosystem services (Appendix S1: Panel S1) and are thus  
274 important to human well-being. Here we used a standardized global experiment to quantify multiple  
275 ecosystem services in rangeland worldwide. We found that sites with the greatest forage provision  
276 differed from those with the highest stability of forage and services related to plant diversity, such as  
277 pollination and invasion resistance. We also show that rangelands grazed by wild as opposed to  
278 domestic livestock delivered similar assemblages of ecosystem services and were similarly affected  
279 by herbivory exclusion and fertilization, treatments that simulate rangeland management actions  
280 (Paudel et al., 2023). Fertilization modified more ecosystem services than herbivory exclusion and  
281 when combined, fertilization remained the dominant effect (Table 1). The effects of these  
282 treatments were mostly positive for provisioning services, negative for plant diversity, and variable  
283 for regulating services, with few effects on supporting services (Table 1). The longer-term application  
284 of treatments generally intensified effects, and when long-term exclusion of grazers produced a  
285 change, it only reduced ecosystem services (Table 1).

286 The patterns identified in our study expand on the known negative correlation between forage  
287 production and diversity in rangelands. Fertilization clearly shifts rangelands towards the  
288 productivity side of that trade-off. Management actions that promote biomass production not only  
289 reduce plant diversity, but also pollination, resistance to invasion, and to a lesser extent forage  
290 stability.

291 Therefore, this study describes trade-offs and synergies that can inform management practices  
292 designed to meet the priorities for ecosystem services for multiple stakeholders. The insight can be  
293 helpful to take informed actions to maintain and enhance landscape-scale multifunctionality and  
294 meet societal needs beyond food production.

295

296 *Ecosystem services provided by global rangelands*

297 Our standardized assessment of multiple variables in a wide range of physical and biogeographic  
298 gradients and rangeland categories provided a unique opportunity to generalize patterns at global  
299 scales (Borer et al., 2014). Contrary to our expectations, the three categories of rangelands provide  
300 similar ecosystem services under ambient conditions. The lack of differences among them may be  
301 explained by the fact that they had similar mean grazing scores and that each category showed  
302 significant variability in grazing intensity. Most natural and semi-natural grasslands are grazed at low  
303 densities by wild herbivores (Dirzo et al., 2014) and by livestock, probably because they have low  
304 primary productivity, and due to technological barriers hindering agricultural improvement of  
305 grasslands and land conversion (Bardgett et al., 2021). The desirable rangeland management should  
306 be the one that maximizes the provision of multiple ecosystem services as discuss below.

307

308 *Impact of management on the delivery of ecosystem services*

309 The multiple ecosystem services provided by rangelands changed only slightly with herbivory  
310 exclusion, particularly in the initial years, which might be because in some sites some natural grazers  
311 that were historically present in high density now have very reduced populations. So, these  
312 outcomes may be strongly influenced by grazing intensity. By contrast, the application of fertilizers  
313 significantly changed the multiple ecosystem services as it increased provisioning services although  
314 reduced plant diversity, both well-documented impacts (Hautier et al. 2018). Also, fertilizers seemed  
315 to benefit several regulating and supporting services at least in the short-term. Differences among  
316 sites in biomass responses to fertilization depend on the degree of nutrient limitation (Fay et al.  
317 2015) and differences in plant species composition and phenology. Factors that improve productivity  
318 can also increase carbon storage (Swain et al., 2013) with implications for climate regulation and the  
319 control of soil erosion (Maestre et al., 2022). We identified both synergies and trade-offs among  
320 ecosystem services (Bennett et al., 2009), however the management practices analysed here did not  
321 change the trends of these correlations. Here, we expanded on the known negative correlation  
322 between forage production and diversity (Koerner et al. 2018 ) and the fertilization-induced diversity  
323 loss, as we included several soil ecosystem services and forage stability.

324

325 *Short- vs longer-term management actions on ecosystem services*

326 Our study shows small advantages of short-term herbivores exclusion but no additional (and  
327 sometimes negative) effects of longer-term enclosure. Considering wild and domestic animals, here  
328 we showed that ecosystem services that increased after short-term herbivore removal, such as  
329 forage quantity, reverted to baseline in the longer-term. Longer-term herbivory exclusion not only

330 reduced plant species richness but also soil fertility and water quality. Removing domestic  
331 herbivores has been proposed as a conservation practice. However, previous studies showed  
332 contradictory effects of livestock exclusion on plant species diversity (Koerner et al., 2018; Price et  
333 al., 2022). Also, previous long-term herbivory exclusion in semiarid grasslands found reductions in  
334 vegetation cover, with older exclosures not always providing clear benefits to plants relative to  
335 newer exclosures (Sun et al., 2020; Velasco Ayuso et al., 2024).

336 Similarly, we found that the use of fertilizers, which is happening more frequently in mesic  
337 rangelands (Paudel et al., 2023), should be evaluated with caution. We found that some of the  
338 positive effects of fertilization on regulating services diminished with longer-term application, when  
339 negative effects on pollination and invasion resistance and stronger reductions in plant species  
340 richness became evident (Table 1). The increase in plant production resulting from fertilizer use  
341 might be considered an improvement by pastoralists but associated losses of plant species diversity  
342 may concern conservationists or other stakeholders (Bardgett et al., 2021). In addition to ecological  
343 concerns, limited water availability and low cost-effectiveness often constrain fertilizer use in native  
344 rangelands. Considering our analysis, we believe it is important to carefully analyse prior to use  
345 fertilizers due to the negative effects of longer-term application on ecosystem services.

346

347 Besides assisting researchers and stakeholders in identifying a robust set of indicators and methods  
348 to use for rangeland ecosystem service assessments, our study identified positive and negative  
349 relationships among the respective indicators and facilitate a synthesis of ecosystem service and  
350 multifunctionality studies. Although many studies calculate multifunctionality indices (Allan et al.,  
351 2015; Velasco Ayuso et al., 2024), we prefer to assess multiple individual ecosystem services so  
352 decisions can be made according to the services of interest to different stakeholders. Insights into  
353 the relationships between management practices and ecosystem services allow decision-makers to  
354 adapt grassland management to support desired ecosystem services at a given site. It is vital that all  
355 stakeholder groups are represented, and the full range of relevant ecosystem services considered,  
356 including cultural services (Yahdjian et al., 2015). Alternatively, prior planning on a regional scale  
357 may suggest which proportion of very productive land should be allocated for forage production and  
358 which proportion should be allocated for ecosystem services less dependent on production (Boesing  
359 et al. 2024). Although the approach applied in this study simplifies the processes of ecosystem  
360 service supply, our study provides a global overview of the consequences of excluding grazers and  
361 fertilizing for biodiversity and ecosystem services. We believe that our study represents a step  
362 forward in applied ecosystem service research, which is needed to assure human well-being in the  
363 future.

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534

535 Figure captions

536 Figure 1.a. NutNet experimental sites classified into the three rangeland categories defined in this  
537 study, current livestock (pink), recent livestock (green), and wild grazing (blue). The experimental  
538 sites are plotted using the biomes considered as rangelands as background. Source: **Rangeland Atlas**  
539 **ILRI, IUCN, FAO, WWF, UNEP and ILC. (2021)**. 1.b. Distribution of NutNet rangeland sites in the mean  
540 annual temperature and annual precipitation space in Whittaker diagram behind that show biome  
541 distribution. Forms of dots in panel are according to the six continental masses covered by the  
542 experimental NutNet sites. See Table S1 for the list of sites and the main climate parameters.

543 Figure 2. Probabilistic principal component analysis of ecosystem services organized by categories  
544 (provisioning in yellow, supporting in purple, regulating in brown, and plant diversity in dark green)  
545 for the three categories of rangelands defined in this study, current livestock (pink), recent livestock  
546 (green), and wild grazers (blue). Ellipses indicate 95% confidence biplot space for each rangeland  
547 type. The data from initial conditions (pre-treatment) and control plots were averaged along all  
548 experimental years and normalized (uv or Z transformation) to perform the pPCA with the 'ppca'  
549 method (pca function from the PCA tools package in R version 4.2.2: Blighe and Lun, 2023).

550 Figure 3. Natural log response ratios (LRR) describing the general response across rangelands of  
551 short-term (1-3 years) exclusion of large herbivores (blue, Fence), fertilization of the grazed  
552 grassland (red, Fert), and the combination of both (purple, Fert + Fence). (a) provisioning (b)  
553 supporting (c) regulating ecosystem services, and (d) plant diversity. The LRR was calculated as: LRR  
554 =  $\ln(\text{treatment}/\text{control})$ , in control is the ambient condition, (i.e., the unfertilized plot with grazers,  
555 located within the same experimental block). Dots are mean  $\pm$  95% confidence intervals; “\*” shows  
556 that LRR was different from zero (t-test,  $\alpha = 0.05$ ). Numbers in grey at the bottom refer to the  
557 number of sites included in the calculation of each LRR.

558 Figure 4. Radar plots describing the general response of short-term (1-3 years) effects of (a)  
559 herbivory exclusion with fences, (b) NPK fertilizing grazed rangelands, and (c) the combination of  
560 both (fertilization + fence) in the multiple ecosystem services assessed across rangelands. In each  
561 radar plot, the ambient condition (i.e., control unfertilized with grazers) is shown in grey. We  
562 standardized within sites, using the quotient transformation as  $st = xi/\text{maxsite}$ , in which  $xi$  is the  
563 value observed in each plot and  $\text{maxsite}$  is the maximum value observed for the variable across all  
564 treatments at each experimental site (Byrnes et al., 2014; Hautier et al., 2018). The average values  
565 were scaled from minimum (values close to the centre) to maximum (values close to the outside of  
566 the radar plot) to facilitate visualization of the different responses. Therefore, the minimum value

567 means that the provision of the ecosystem service is lower than in the other treatments. Asterisks  
568 indicate a significant effect of the treatment based on the LRR (t-test,  $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

569 Figure 5. Synergies and trade-offs among ecosystem services across all rangelands in control (a), and  
570 short-term (1-3 years) changes with herbivory exclusion with fences (b), fertilization (c), and  
571 fertilized plots inside exclosures (d). Blue and red lines refer to significant positive (synergies) and  
572 negative (trade-offs) correlations respectively (Pearson correlation coefficient, P-values < 0.05).

573  
574

575 **Table 1.** Comparison of short (1-3 years) and longer-term (6-8 years) effects in provisioning,  
 576 supporting, and regulating ecosystem services of rangelands and plant community diversity with  
 577 NPK fertilization, herbivory exclusion with fences, and the combination of both. For each ecosystem  
 578 service, the significant increase (blue arrows) or decrease (red arrows) compared with the ambient  
 579 condition is shown for the short and longer-term manipulations. The range of effect size are 0.01–  
 580 0.30 for lightest colour, 0.31–0.60 medium colour, and 0.61–1.00 darkest colours. Horizontal lines  
 581 indicate no significant changes. See Fig. 3, and Appendix S1: Fig. S2 for details of short- and long-  
 582 term effects, respectively.

Type of ecosystem service	Fence		Fertilization		Fert + Fence	
	Short-term	Long-term	Short-term	Long-term	Short-term	Long-term
PROVISIONING	Forage quantity	↑	—	↑	↑	↑
	Forage physical	—	—	↑	↑	—
	Forage chemical	—	—	↑	↑	↑
	Forage stability	—	—	—	—	—
	Soil fertility	↑	↓	—	—	—
	Soil stability	—	—	↑	↑	—
REGULATING	Climate regulation	—	—	↑	↑	—
	Soil acidification	↓	—	↓	↓	—
	Erosion control	—	—	↑	—	↑
	Water quality	—	↓	↑	↑	—
	Pollination	↓	—	—	↓	—
	Invasion Resistance	—	—	—	↓	—
DIVERSITY	Alpha richness	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
	Beta diversity	—	—	—	—	—
	Native diversity	—	—	↓	↓	↓

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