

# **Upper boundary on tree cover at global drylands**

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## 1 **Upper boundary on tree cover at global drylands: a comment on "Linking resource-**

2 **and disturbance-based models to explain tree–grass coexistence in savannas"**

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- 30 **Brief Heading:** Testing the upper boundary on tree cover at global drylands
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- 33 **Key words:** coexistence, tree cover, drylands, rangelands, grazing, soil texture, aridity

 In their recent Tansley Review, Holdo and Nippert (2023) provide a comprehensive analysis of existing models that explain tree-grass coexistence along precipitation gradients in savannas. They highlight the diverse assumptions of the different models proposed in the literature and conclude that none can fully explain tree-grass coexistence along a rainfall gradient. Consequently, they propose essential elements that a synthetic model should incorporate to solve the '*treeness conundrum'* (*sensu* House *et al.* 2003). Holdo and Nippert assert that tree dominance is mainly limited by ecohydrological mechanisms in dry savannas and by disturbances in wet savannas. These concepts and mechanisms are summarized in their Figure 1, where they modify the *'Sankaran curve'* estimated for Africa (Sankaran *et al.*, 2005) to account for the effect of soil texture along rainfall gradients (upper boundary on tree cover is achieved with lower precipitation in coarser than in fine soils).

 Here we aimed to test the upper boundary of tree cover predicted by Holdo and Nippert using data from BIODESERT (Maestre *et al.*, 2022a,b), a global field survey comprising mixed rangelands (*i.e.,* grazed areas composed of herbaceous and woody species) and accounting for the wide rainfall gradients that can be found across global drylands (Figure S1). While Holdo and Nippert propose that grass competition and disturbance are the mechanisms that determine the upper boundary of tree cover in arid- and humid-savannas, respectively, we expect similar mechanisms to operate in other grasslands with trees (see reviews by Scholes & Archer, 1997; Jeltsch *et al.*, 2000; House *et al.*, 2003; Sankaran *et al.*, 2004). If our global data support this pattern, they would provide evidence for the relevance and accuracy of the mechanisms proposed by Holdo and Nippert. Also, testing this pattern in rangelands with varying grazing pressures, which are largely driven by domestic livestock (Maestre *et al.*, 2022a), allows us to infer the presence and importance of disturbance-based mechanisms.

 The BIODESERT survey combines comprehensive global plant type coverages of various mixed dryland rangelands with highly detailed local information on grazing management and multiple ecosystem structural and functional attributes. As in Sankaran et al. (2005), we focused our analysis exclusively on the highest tree cover values, specifically the 99th percentile, omitting shrubs from consideration. Following

 Holdo and Nippert (2023), we denote this as the upper boundary for tree cover. Details of the methodology and statistical analysis conducted are presented in Methods S1.

 We found that the upper boundary on tree cover in dryland rangelands increased with mean annual precipitation (MAP) before reaching a threshold of 453 mm (Figure 1, Table S1; the threshold corresponds to the vertex of the quadratic functions fitted to the data). These results suggest that the general pattern proposed by Holdo and Nippert (i.e., increase, threshold, and no-increase phases) also hold for global drylands. However, we found some specific differences to this pattern: a lower precipitation threshold and a declining tree cover beyond the threshold.

 The differences in the precipitation threshold (453 mm here vs. 650 mm in Holdo & Nippert, 2023) can be explained because the rainfall gradient evaluated in our study differs from that of Sankaran *et al.*(2005) and is skewed -intentionally, as the BIODESERT survey is restricted to drylands- towards drier systems (132 to 1185 mm in Sankaran vs. 29 to 891 mm in our dataset). Interestingly, the MAP threshold found here also matches a previously proposed global ecosystem threshold driven by aridity (1- [Precipitation/Evapotranspiration]) that impliessystemic and abrupt changes in multiple functional and structural ecosystem attributes (Berdugo *et al.*, 2020, 2022). Specifically, the 0.7 aridity threshold is related to drastic changes in plant-soil feedbacks, including reductions in vegetation cover and soil fertility and changes in the composition of soil microbial communities (Berdugo *et al.*, 2020, 2022).

 We observed that the upper boundary on tree cover declined beyond the precipitation threshold in our global dataset, rather than stabilizing as expected according to the 'Sankaran curve' (see table S2 for an AIC comparison of different models fitted to the data, including quadratic functions and functions that include a plateau). The patterns observed may be driven by several mechanisms. First, the differences between our results and the 'Sankaran curve' can be explained by a greater intensity of water competition relative to light competition within the BIODESERT survey. Water is the most important limiting resource for organisms in dryland ecosystems (Noy-Meir, 1973). Consequently, a reduction in tree cover is expected if grasses outcompete trees for water, but trees are unable to exclude grasses through light limitation (Donaldson *et al.*, 2022). Second, at the global scale, biogeographical drivers may gain importance

 compared to single continent data. For example, in the Neotropical region, the species pool lacks tree species capable of effectively using excess water in high precipitation areas (Wiens & Graham, 2005; Chaneton *et al.*, 2012). These two mechanisms may act simultaneously to explain lower values of the upper boundary on tree cover observed in sites where we would expect the opposite based on global patterns of aridity and tree cover (Whittaker, 1975). A third possible explanation may involve fire limiting tree cover in the wetter extreme of the gradient, because its occurrence and intensity increase in wetter and productive regions (Pausas & Paula, 2012; Devine *et al.*, 2015). However, Figure S2 shows that even though the probability of fire increases along the precipitation gradient, most of the plots in our survey did not experience fire during the last 20 years. Finally, a potential methodological explanation for the declining upper boundary on tree cover observed may be the low number of sites with MAP greater than 600 mm surveyed, limiting the ability to detect sites with higher tree cover values. However, a similar pattern to that reported here has also been observed in South African savannas (see Figure 5 in Stevens et al. (2016), ranging from 302 mm to 1134 mm) which casts doubt on whether a higher "sampling effort" would yield a different pattern.

 Even if our data do not conform exactly to the 'Sankaran curve', they support the three mechanisms that comprise the building blocks of the model proposed by Holdo and Nippert. The first mechanism suggests that trees persist and grow due to excess water infiltrating below the grass functional rooting layer, even though grasses may consistently outcompete trees for water in the upper soil layers. Our results support this mechanism based on Walter's two-layer hypothesis and functional rooting separation (Walter, 1971). We found that as MAP increases, the upper boundary in fine soils consistently lies beneath that of coarse soils (p<0.05, Table S1). In other words, a greater amount of precipitation is required to increase tree cover in finer soils, where there is greater water retention in the surface layers and less percolation to the subsoil (Fensham *et al.*, 2015). After the threshold was crossed, we found that the upper boundary on tree species cover declined with MAP more rapidly in finer than coarser soils. Since grasses may consistently outcompete trees for water in the upper soil layers (Holdo & Nippert, 2023), coarser soils, which retain less water and allow more water 125 infiltration to deeper layers, can sustain greater tree cover at higher precipitation values.

 However, it is also interesting to note that the maximum tree cover achieved in our study (ca. 45%) is similar for finer and coarser textures at the middle of the rainfall gradient evaluated. This feature of equal maximum tree cover for both soil textures is also represented in Figure 1 of Holdo and Nippert (2023), and our data suggest that along this precipitation window tree cover is no longer constrained by water availability. We did not find support for the inverse texture hypothesis in relation to the upper boundary on tree cover (Noy-Meir, 1973), similar to previous studies on African savannas (Bucini & Hanan, 2007).

 The second mechanism proposed by Holdo and Nippert hypothesizes that trees are unable to exclude grasses at drier sites through light limitation due to water availability constraining leaf area. Our data accords with this assertion because the upper boundary on tree species cover is lower in drier sites. Furthermore, the upper limit of leaf area in woody species along the rainfall gradient exhibits a similar trend to that of woody cover (Figure S3). In addition, there is an increase in the upper boundary on grass cover with higher mean annual precipitation, indicating that interactions among trees and grasses at the drier side of the rainfall gradient (<453 mm) may be neutral or positive (*i.e.,* facilitation), rather than negative (see inset of Figure 1).

 The third mechanism proposed by Holdo and Nippert posits that grass competition allows for demographic bottlenecks in trees, leading to a decline in their cover. In our dataset, demographic bottlenecks may primarily occur due to grazing because fire is almost absent in our sampled sites (Figure S2). Our results show that increasing grazing pressure is associated with a lower upper boundary on tree cover (Figure 2). This deleterious effect of grazing may result from multiple mechanisms, including indirect effects on vital rates of tree species due to increases in the cover of non-palatable grasses and direct effects due to browsing, trampling, and a lower consumption selectivity of grazers at higher grazing pressures (Augustine & McNaughton, 1998; Sankey, 2012; Lezama & Paruelo, 2016; Oñatibia & Aguiar, 2019). Distinct variations in the upper boundary on tree cover between low and medium grazing pressure levels become apparent at intermediate levels of mean annual precipitation (MAP) and beyond. This suggests that water availability is a stronger constraint than disturbance under low precipitation values. Rather, when grazing pressure is high, the upper

 boundary on tree cover is lower across the entire rainfall gradient. Hence, we observed an interplay between resource-based and disturbance-based mechanisms of coexistence, as their relative importance depends on water availability and grazing pressure.

 While we found evidence for the key elements of a definitive savanna model proposed by Holdo and Nippert, we believe that these elements may differ or vary in importance under future global change scenarios. Global change drivers have the potential to modify tree cover patterns and the importance of the three coexistence mechanisms proposed by Holdo and Nippert (Venter *et al.*, 2018). For instance, changes in features beyond mean annual precipitation, such as its variability, seasonality or frequency of extreme events, may influence tree-grass interactions (Kulmatiski & Beard, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2022). Also, land-use change may have an important role, as the effect of grazing pressure on the upper boundary on tree cover may differ between herbivore species: browsers often exert a negative impact on tree species, while grazers exert a positive effect because of reductions in grass biomass (Manier & Hobbs, 2007; Donaldson *et al.*, 2022). Furthermore, drivers currently considered less important in explaining coexistence in savannas, such as temperature regime or nutrient dynamics (*e.g.,* nitrogen deposition), may become more significant in a more human-dominated world (Yahdjian *et al.*, 2011; Brandt *et al.*, 2017). And finally, changes in community composition due to biological invasions can alter the general patterns observed in our results. For example, the invasion of tree species with traits that effectively use water surplus in high precipitation sites and exclude grasses through light limitation could modify currently observed patterns (Mazia *et al.*, 2001; Chaneton *et al.*, 2012).

 Overall, our findings validate several patterns proposed by Holdo and Nippert (2023) to explain the upper boundary pattern of tree cover in savannas. They also highlight some features that may be specific for water-limited rangelands, including a lower precipitation threshold, a declining tree cover beyond the threshold, and an interplay between resource- and disturbance-based mechanisms. By doing so, our study sets the stage for building a more comprehensive and definitive tree-grass coexistence model that fully accounts for the characteristics of drylands, the largest rangeland area on our planet (Asner *et al.*, 2004).



 **Figure 1.** Tree species cover (%) along the mean annual precipitation (mm) gradient 190 captured by the BIODESERT global survey. Orange and grey full lines represent  $99<sup>th</sup>$  quadratic quantile regression adjustment for coarse- and fine-soil textures, respectively (n = 283: coarse-textured soils n = 213, fine-textured soils, n = 70). **Inset:** Grass cover (%) along a mean annual precipitation (mm) gradient until the 453 mm threshold. The fitted 194 line represents the 99<sup>th</sup> quadratic quantile regression adjustment.



 **Figure 2.** Tree species cover (%) under different grazing pressure along the mean annual precipitation (mm) gradient described by the BIODESERT global survey. The curves fitted 200 represent  $99<sup>th</sup>$  quadratic quantile regression adjustment for low (n=88, blue line), medium (n=97, yellow line), and high (n=98, pink line) grazing pressure levels.

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### **Author contributions**

 LB, MRA and FTM conceived the original idea. FTM, HS, DJE, NG, YLBP coordinated and conducted fieldwork and data acquisition. LB analyzed data. MRA, HS, YLBP, NG, DJE and FTM contributed to data interpretation and additional ideas. LB and FTM wrote the manuscript. MRA, DJE, YLBP, NG, HS reviewed and improved the first version of the manuscript. All authors contributed equally to the final revision of the article based on reviewers' comments.

### **Data availability**

 The data that supports the findings of this study is available as a supplementary material of this article (Dataset S1).

#### **Competing interests**

None declared.

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## **Supporting information.**

- Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Methods S1 section.
- Fig. S1. Location of the 98 sites surveyed for this study.
- Fig. S2. Predicted probabilities of fire occurrence along the precipitation gradient for the 326 plots surveyed.
- Fig. S3. Community weighted mean for leaf area of woody species at each plot across the precipitation gradient surveyed.
- Table S1. Coefficients of the quadratic quantile regression models.
- Table S2. Comparison of the different quantile regression models used.