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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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In their recent Tansley Review, Holdo and Nippert (2023) provide a comprehensive 34 analysis of existing models that explain tree-grass coexistence along precipitation 35 gradients in savannas. They highlight the diverse assumptions of the different models 36 proposed in the literature and conclude that none can fully explain tree-grass 37 coexistence along a rainfall gradient. Consequently, they propose essential elements 38 39 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 40 ecohydrological mechanisms in dry savannas and by disturbances in wet savannas. 41 42 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 43 of soil texture along rainfall gradients (upper boundary on tree cover is achieved with 44 lower precipitation in coarser than in fine soils). 45

Here we aimed to test the upper boundary of tree cover predicted by Holdo and 46 Nippert using data from BIODESERT (Maestre et al., 2022a,b), a global field survey 47 comprising mixed rangelands (*i.e.*, grazed areas composed of herbaceous and woody 48 49 species) and accounting for the wide rainfall gradients that can be found across global 50 drylands (Figure S1). While Holdo and Nippert propose that grass competition and 51 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 52 53 other grasslands with trees (see reviews by Scholes & Archer, 1997; Jeltsch et al., 2000; 54 House et al., 2003; Sankaran et al., 2004). If our global data support this pattern, they 55 would provide evidence for the relevance and accuracy of the mechanisms proposed by 56 Holdo and Nippert. Also, testing this pattern in rangelands with varying grazing 57 pressures, which are largely driven by domestic livestock (Maestre et al., 2022a), allows us to infer the presence and importance of disturbance-based mechanisms. 58

59 The BIODESERT survey combines comprehensive global plant type coverages of 60 various mixed dryland rangelands with highly detailed local information on grazing 61 management and multiple ecosystem structural and functional attributes. As in 62 Sankaran et al. (2005), we focused our analysis exclusively on the highest tree cover 63 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.

73 The differences in the precipitation threshold (453 mm here vs. 650 mm in Holdo & 74 Nippert, 2023) can be explained because the rainfall gradient evaluated in our study 75 differs from that of Sankaran et al. (2005) and is skewed -intentionally, as the BIODESERT 76 survey is restricted to drylands- towards drier systems (132 to 1185 mm in Sankaran vs. 77 29 to 891 mm in our dataset). Interestingly, the MAP threshold found here also matches 78 previously proposed global ecosystem threshold driven by aridity (1а 79 [Precipitation/Evapotranspiration]) that implies systemic and abrupt changes in multiple 80 functional and structural ecosystem attributes (Berdugo et al., 2020, 2022). Specifically, 81 the 0.7 aridity threshold is related to drastic changes in plant-soil feedbacks, including 82 reductions in vegetation cover and soil fertility and changes in the composition of soil 83 microbial communities (Berdugo et al., 2020, 2022).

84 We observed that the upper boundary on tree cover declined beyond the 85 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 86 87 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 88 89 between our results and the 'Sankaran curve' can be explained by a greater intensity of 90 water competition relative to light competition within the BIODESERT survey. Water is 91 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 92 93 for water, but trees are unable to exclude grasses through light limitation (Donaldson et 94 al., 2022). Second, at the global scale, biogeographical drivers may gain importance

95 compared to single continent data. For example, in the Neotropical region, the species 96 pool lacks tree species capable of effectively using excess water in high precipitation 97 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 98 sites where we would expect the opposite based on global patterns of aridity and tree 99 100 cover (Whittaker, 1975). A third possible explanation may involve fire limiting tree cover 101 in the wetter extreme of the gradient, because its occurrence and intensity increase in 102 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 103 104 gradient, most of the plots in our survey did not experience fire during the last 20 years. 105 Finally, a potential methodological explanation for the declining upper boundary on tree 106 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 107 108 similar pattern to that reported here has also been observed in South African savannas 109 (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. 110

Even if our data do not conform exactly to the 'Sankaran curve', they support the 111 three mechanisms that comprise the building blocks of the model proposed by Holdo 112 and Nippert. The first mechanism suggests that trees persist and grow due to excess 113 water infiltrating below the grass functional rooting layer, even though grasses may 114 consistently outcompete trees for water in the upper soil layers. Our results support this 115 116 mechanism based on Walter's two-layer hypothesis and functional rooting separation 117 (Walter, 1971). We found that as MAP increases, the upper boundary in fine soils 118 consistently lies beneath that of coarse soils (p<0.05, Table S1). In other words, a greater 119 amount of precipitation is required to increase tree cover in finer soils, where there is 120 greater water retention in the surface layers and less percolation to the subsoil 121 (Fensham et al., 2015). After the threshold was crossed, we found that the upper 122 boundary on tree species cover declined with MAP more rapidly in finer than coarser 123 soils. Since grasses may consistently outcompete trees for water in the upper soil layers 124 (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.

126 However, it is also interesting to note that the maximum tree cover achieved in our 127 study (ca. 45%) is similar for finer and coarser textures at the middle of the rainfall 128 gradient evaluated. This feature of equal maximum tree cover for both soil textures is 129 also represented in Figure 1 of Holdo and Nippert (2023), and our data suggest that 130 along this precipitation window tree cover is no longer constrained by water availability. 131 We did not find support for the inverse texture hypothesis in relation to the upper 132 boundary on tree cover (Noy-Meir, 1973), similar to previous studies on African 133 savannas (Bucini & Hanan, 2007).

134 The second mechanism proposed by Holdo and Nippert hypothesizes that trees are 135 unable to exclude grasses at drier sites through light limitation due to water availability 136 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 137 woody species along the rainfall gradient exhibits a similar trend to that of woody cover 138 (Figure S3). In addition, there is an increase in the upper boundary on grass cover with 139 140 higher mean annual precipitation, indicating that interactions among trees and grasses 141 at the drier side of the rainfall gradient (<453 mm) may be neutral or positive (i.e., 142 facilitation), rather than negative (see inset of Figure 1).

143 The third mechanism proposed by Holdo and Nippert posits that grass competition 144 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 145 almost absent in our sampled sites (Figure S2). Our results show that increasing grazing 146 147 pressure is associated with a lower upper boundary on tree cover (Figure 2). This 148 deleterious effect of grazing may result from multiple mechanisms, including indirect 149 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 150 151 selectivity of grazers at higher grazing pressures (Augustine & McNaughton, 1998; 152 Sankey, 2012; Lezama & Paruelo, 2016; Oñatibia & Aguiar, 2019). Distinct variations in 153 the upper boundary on tree cover between low and medium grazing pressure levels 154 become apparent at intermediate levels of mean annual precipitation (MAP) and 155 beyond. This suggests that water availability is a stronger constraint than disturbance 156 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.

161 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 162 163 importance under future global change scenarios. Global change drivers have the 164 potential to modify tree cover patterns and the importance of the three coexistence 165 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 166 167 frequency of extreme events, may influence tree-grass interactions (Kulmatiski & Beard, 168 2013; Wang et al., 2022). Also, land-use change may have an important role, as the 169 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 170 171 exert a positive effect because of reductions in grass biomass (Manier & Hobbs, 2007; 172 Donaldson et al., 2022). Furthermore, drivers currently considered less important in explaining coexistence in savannas, such as temperature regime or nutrient dynamics 173 174 (e.g., nitrogen deposition), may become more significant in a more human-dominated 175 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 176 results. For example, the invasion of tree species with traits that effectively use water 177 178 surplus in high precipitation sites and exclude grasses through light limitation could 179 modify currently observed patterns (Mazia et al., 2001; Chaneton et al., 2012).

180 Overall, our findings validate several patterns proposed by Holdo and Nippert (2023) 181 to explain the upper boundary pattern of tree cover in savannas. They also highlight 182 some features that may be specific for water-limited rangelands, including a lower 183 precipitation threshold, a declining tree cover beyond the threshold, and an interplay 184 between resource- and disturbance-based mechanisms. By doing so, our study sets the 185 stage for building a more comprehensive and definitive tree-grass coexistence model 186 that fully accounts for the characteristics of drylands, the largest rangeland area on our 187 planet (Asner et al., 2004).



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Figure 1. Tree species cover (%) along the mean annual precipitation (mm) gradient captured by the BIODESERT global survey. Orange and grey full lines represent 99th 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 line represents the 99th quadratic quantile regression adjustment.

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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
 represent 99th quadratic quantile regression adjustment for low (n=88, blue line),
 medium (n=97, yellow line), and high (n=98, pink line) grazing pressure levels.

202

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204

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221 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.

228 Data availability

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

231 Competing interests

232 None declared.

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324 Supporting information.

- Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Methods S1 section.
- 326 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 acrossthe precipitation gradient surveyed.
- Table S1. Coefficients of the quadratic quantile regression models.
- Table S2. Comparison of the different quantile regression models used.

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