

**Title: Grazing and ecosystem service delivery in global drylands**

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207 **Abstract:** Grazing is the most extensive land use worldwide. Yet its impacts on ecosystem  
services remain uncertain because pervasive interactions among grazing pressure, climate, soil  
properties, and biodiversity may occur but have never been addressed simultaneously. Using a  
210 standardized survey at 98 sites across six continents, we showed that interactions among grazing  
pressure, climate, soil, and biodiversity are critical to explain the delivery of fundamental  
ecosystem services across drylands worldwide. Increasing grazing pressure reduced ecosystem  
213 service delivery in warmer and species-poor drylands, while positive effects of grazing were  
observed in colder and species-rich areas. Considering interactions among grazing and local  
abiotic and biotic factors is key for understanding the fate of dryland ecosystems under climate  
216 change and increasing human pressure.

**One-Sentence Summary:** Interactions among grazing, climate, and biodiversity explain the  
delivery of ecosystem services across drylands globally.

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**Main Text:**

222 Grazing accounts for 77% of global agricultural land (1), sustains billions of people worldwide,  
and is closely linked to 10 of 17 UN Sustainable Development Goals (2). Despite its importance,  
there is no consensus on how grazing affects ecosystem services (3–6), which may depend on the  
225 co-evolutionary history between vegetation and herbivores (3), grazing pressure (4), and local  
climatic, edaphic, and biodiversity conditions (7, 8). Most field assessments have focused on  
local to regional scales (3, 4, 6, 8), have studied a limited number of taxa –mostly plants– and  
228 single ecosystem services (3, 4, 9), and have not considered domestic and wild herbivores  
simultaneously. Another major source of uncertainty relates to interactions between grazing  
pressure and abiotic and biotic features, resulting in strong context-dependent ecological impacts  
231 of grazing (3, 4, 10, 11). Large-scale, standardized field surveys exploring how such impacts  
depend on above- and belowground biodiversity, soils, and climate to drive multiple ecosystem  
services across contrasting regions and environmental contexts are currently lacking, but sorely  
234 needed to evaluate whether general patterns emerge beyond these context-dependencies (12).

Investigating the effects of grazing pressure across global abiotic and biotic gradients is  
particularly important in drylands (areas with an aridity index [precipitation/potential  
237 evapotranspiration] < 0.65, 13) because they constitute 78% of rangelands worldwide (14) and  
support around one billion people that rely on grazing by livestock as a critical source of protein  
and income (15). While grazing may have beneficial effects by reducing fuel loads, enhancing  
240 primary production and plant diversity under certain conditions (3, 16), increasing grazing  
pressure is also considered a major driver of rangeland degradation and desertification across  
drylands worldwide (17). These contrasting effects of grazing likely depend on local climate, soil  
243 conditions, and both plant and soil diversity, which largely influence dryland functioning (18,



19). However, the interactions of these factors with grazing pressure have never been assessed.

Identifying under which environmental conditions and biodiversity levels increasing grazing  
246 pressure will favor or detract ecosystem service delivery is a crucial step towards achieving  
multiple Sustainable Development Goals (2) and other international initiatives related to dryland  
desertification and restoration (20).

249 Here, we used a standardized field survey (13) carried out at 98 sites from 25 countries  
and six continents (Fig. 1 and Movie S1) to assess how the effects of grazing pressure on nine  
essential ecosystem services depend on biodiversity, climate, and soil conditions across global  
252 drylands. Each site included a collection of three to four 45 m × 45 m plots representing local  
gradients of grazing pressure (from ungrazed or low grazing pressure to high grazing pressure;  
13), resulting in a total of 326 plots. These gradients were mostly driven by livestock (fig. S1),  
255 although wild herbivores were also present in each site and taken into account. In each plot, we  
assessed vascular plant, mammalian herbivore (accounting for domestic and wild herbivores) and  
belowground (soil bacteria, fungi, protists, and invertebrates) diversity, and multiple regulating  
258 (water regulation, soil carbon storage, organic matter decomposition, and erosion control),  
supporting (soil fertility and aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability), and  
provisioning (wood quantity, forage quantity, and quality) ecosystem services (table S1). Our  
261 survey captured most climatic conditions harboring livestock grazing in drylands, as well as a  
wide range of ecosystem types, soil properties, plant, soil, and mammalian diversities, and  
grazing pressure levels (figs. S2 to S9 and table S2). These unique features of our global study  
264 rendered grazing pressure largely independent of climate, soil, and biodiversity attributes (13,  
table S3), and allowed us to: (i) evaluate the main and interactive effects of grazing pressure,  
climate, soil properties, and biodiversity on ecosystem service delivery across global drylands;

267 (ii) identify the environmental and biodiversity conditions under which the effects of grazing  
pressure on ecosystem services are positive or negative; and (iii) simultaneously assess  
relationships among plant, soil, and mammalian herbivore diversity and multiple ecosystem  
270 services.

We fitted linear mixed models to data from all sites and grazing pressure levels, and  
applied a multimodel inference procedure based on Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) to select  
273 the set of best-fitting models (i.e., those within a  $\Delta\text{AIC} < 2$ , *13*). We also considered potential  
indirect effects of grazing through the modification of local biodiversity and soil parameters  
using confirmatory path analyses (*13*). We found that increasing grazing pressure affects  
276 ecosystem services through direct (no significant indirect effects through changes in soil  
properties or biodiversity were found; figs. S10 and S11 and tables S4 to S12) and interactive  
(grazing  $\times$  climate, grazing  $\times$  soil properties, or grazing  $\times$  biodiversity interactions were selected  
279 in 86% of the best-fitting models, Fig. 2 and tables S13 to S28) effects.

Grazing  $\times$  climate interactions were selected in 48% of the best-fitting models (fig. S12),  
with grazing primarily interacting with mean annual temperature (40% of the best-fitting models)  
282 and rainfall seasonality (20% of the best-fitting models), and to a lesser extent with mean annual  
precipitation (9% of the best-fitting models). A negative relationship between mean annual  
temperature and soil carbon storage, organic matter decomposition, and erosion control was  
285 found under high, but not under low, grazing pressure (Fig. 3A, 3B, and 3C). Our results provide  
an empirical validation of the importance of interactions among climate change drivers, grazing,  
and soil carbon storage predicted by global modeling studies (*21*). They also indicate that  
288 considering grazing pressure can improve our capacity to assess soil carbon-temperature  
feedbacks, a key process involved in climate warming (*22*).

Soil texture also regulated grazing pressure effects on multiple ecosystem services  
291 (grazing  $\times$  sand content interactions were selected in 37% of the best-fitting models; fig. S12).  
These ecosystem services include soil fertility, which declined more steeply under high grazing  
pressure (Fig. 3E), wood quantity, which increased under high but declined under low grazing  
294 pressure (Fig. 3G), and forage quality, which declined under high but increased under low  
grazing pressure (Fig. 3I), as sand content increased. These findings illustrate how increases in  
grazing pressure interact with soil properties to either increment or reduce the delivery of  
297 multiple ecosystem services.

Biodiversity impacts on ecosystem functioning and services are typically examined in  
isolation from other drivers in experimental and observational studies (23). However, we found  
300 grazing  $\times$  biodiversity interactions in 44% of the best-fitting models (Fig. 2 and fig. S12). For  
instance, increasing grazing pressure shifted the relationships between plant species richness and  
water regulation from positive to negative (Fig. 3D), and between plant species richness and both  
303 wood quantity and aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability from negative to  
positive (Fig. 3F and 3G). We also found positive relationships among plant species richness and  
soil carbon storage, organic matter decomposition, erosion control, and both forage quality and  
306 quantity (Fig. 3A, 3B, 3C, 3H, and 3I), and between belowground diversity and organic matter  
decomposition (fig. S13), irrespective of grazing pressure. These results broaden and validate  
previous findings on the relationship between biodiversity and ecosystem functioning (18, 19),  
309 and support arguments for conserving and restoring diverse plant communities to prevent land  
degradation, increase forage production, and mitigate climate change in grazed drylands (20).

Mammalian herbivore richness – selected in 33% of the best-fitting models (fig. S12) –  
312 was positively related to multiple ecosystem services. Greater herbivore richness positively

315 correlated with soil carbon storage regardless of grazing pressure (fig. S13), with aboveground  
plant biomass and its temporal stability under high grazing pressure (fig. S14), and with forage  
quality under low grazing pressure (fig. S15). Both domestic and wild herbivore species can  
exhibit strong feeding niche differences (24, 25), thus increasing their diversity can enhance  
ecosystem functioning (25). Despite a renewed interest in mixed-species grazing, studies have  
318 been conducted only at a handful of sites or with a limited suite of herbivores (25-27). Our  
findings provide empirical evidence of the potential benefits of increasing herbivore richness to  
enhance the delivery of key ecosystem services across contrasting environmental and  
321 biodiversity conditions. They also suggest that efforts to promote diverse grazing systems may  
enhance soil carbon storage and reduce negative impacts of increased grazing pressure. To date,  
such results have only been modeled or observed locally (26, 27).

324         The multiple interactions observed highlight that the effect of grazing pressure on  
ecosystem services can be positive or negative depending on local climate, soil, and biodiversity  
conditions (Fig. 4). On average, increasing grazing pressure had positive effects on ecosystem  
327 services in colder sites with high plant species richness, but negative effects in warmer sites with  
high rainfall seasonality and low plant species richness (Fig. 4E and 4I). When sets of ecosystem  
services were considered separately, responses to grazing pressure ranged from mostly neutral to  
330 positive (regulating and supporting services, Fig. 4B and 4C), and from negative to neutral  
(provisioning services, Fig. 4D). These results allow us to identify ecological conditions under  
which ecosystem services are positively or negatively associated with changes in grazing  
333 pressure (Fig. 4 and figs. S16 to S18), and to frame novel hypotheses that explore the local  
context-dependencies of grazing impacts. For instance, we observed negative effects of  
increasing grazing pressure on ecosystem services in plant species-poor drylands, as reported in

336 recent local-scale studies (e.g., *11*), while positive effects of grazing were mostly observed in  
species-rich drylands. Thus, protecting biodiversity in species-rich areas or restoring it in  
species-poor areas could minimize some of the negative effects of increasing grazing pressure on  
339 ecosystem service delivery (fig. S19).

The effects of increasing grazing pressure on ecosystem services were mostly negative in  
warmer drylands (Fig. 4 and fig. S17), where a large proportion of the human population relies  
342 heavily on livestock for subsistence (*15*). Limiting grazing pressure through livestock removal is  
neither socially nor economically feasible in these areas (*2*), yet they are expected to experience  
high warming rates and water shortages under most climate change scenarios (*17*). Our results  
345 thus suggest that grazing pressure may interact with climate change to reduce ecosystem service  
delivery in warmer drylands, with potentially devastating implications for the fate of these  
ecosystems (e.g., increased land degradation and desertification; *17*) and their inhabitants (e.g.,  
348 greater poverty, migration, and/or social unrest; *28*). Although dryland pastoralists have  
historically adopted strategies to cope with environmental uncertainty (e.g., nomadism,  
transhumance), benefits of these strategies will wane if livestock concentrates in particular areas  
351 due to resource scarcity or droughts (*29*).

In summary, our findings urge us to account for interactions among grazing and local  
abiotic and biotic factors when assessing ecosystem service delivery in drylands. They also  
354 illustrate those climate change and biodiversity loss drivers that are the most likely to interact  
with increases in grazing pressure. Understanding these drivers is critical to predict the fate of  
dryland ecosystems under increasing temperature, biodiversity loss, and demand for animal  
357 products. Our study also allowed us to overcome uncertainties in grazing assessments arising  
from the use of unstandardized data (*30*), and provides abundant ground data to validate remote

sensing products used when mapping and modeling grazing impacts at the global scale (5).

360 Finally, we deliver empirical evidence of the positive links between mammalian herbivore  
richness and the provision of multiple ecosystem services across contrasting environmental  
conditions, plant/soil diversities, and grazing pressure levels. Together, our work addresses a key  
363 knowledge gap that can lead to better management of drylands, the largest rangeland area on  
Earth.

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1251 RC, APCM, HC, IC, PCQ, RC, AAC, CMC, ADN, BC, DAD, AJD, JD, BE, CIE, AF, MF, DF,  
ASKF, LHF, LAG, ACG, EGM, RMHH, NH, EHS, FMH, OJM, FJ, AJ, KFK, MK, JEK, CVL,  
AL, PCLR, XL, PL, JL, MAL, GMK, THP, OMI, AJM, EM, JPM, GM, SMM, AN, GO, GRO,  
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- 1284 **Data and materials availability:** All the data used in this article and the R scripts employed to generate the main results of the study are available through figshare (doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.14923065). The raw sequence data generated in this study are available from figshare (doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.20131355).
- 1287

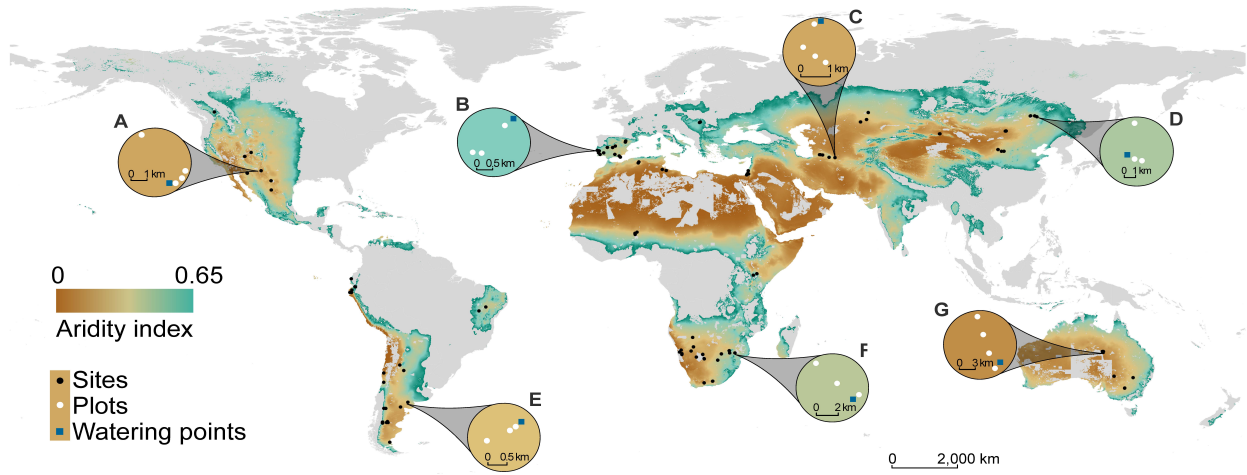
### Supplementary Materials

Materials and Methods

- 1290 figs. S1 to S19  
Tables S1 to S28  
References (31–266)
- 1293 Movie S1

## Figures

1296



1299

**Figure 1. Location of the 98 study sites with examples (insets A-G) of the local grazing**

**gradients surveyed at each site.** Each black dot represents a site with multiple plots (white dots)

1302

of  $45 \times 45$  m surveyed in situ; a total of 326 plots were surveyed across the 98 study sites.

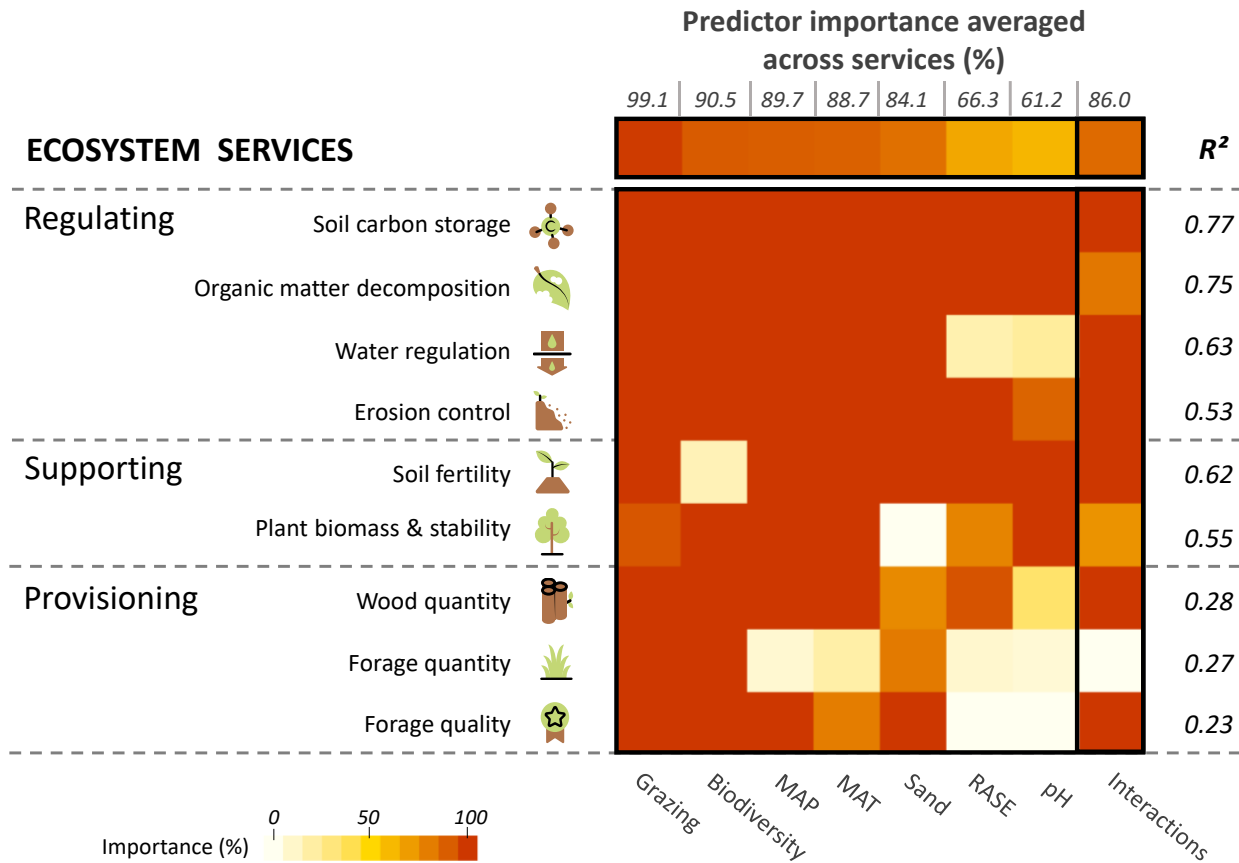
Watering points are ponds, impoundments, or drinking troughs that provide permanent sources of water for livestock in drylands; they are used in our study to create local grazing gradients

1305

(13). The background of the map indicates the extent of dryland rangeland areas. The aridity index is calculated as precipitation/potential evapotranspiration and is strongly related to mean annual precipitation in our dataset ( $R^2 = 0.82$ ). See Materials and Methods (13) for the aridity

1308

index and rangeland area data sources used.



1311

**Figure 2. Relative importance (importance) of predictors (grazing pressure, climate, biodiversity, and soil variables, and their interactions) of ecosystem services selected in the**

1314 **best-fitting models.** Importance is quantified as the sum of the Akaike weights of all models that

included the predictor of interest, considering the number of models in which each predictor appears. It is proportional to the number of times a given predictor (and its interactions with

1317 other predictors) was selected in the final set of best-fitting models (13). Interactions include all

interactions between grazing pressure and climate, biodiversity, and soil variables; the

importance of each interaction type is shown in fig. S12. In the case of biodiversity, predictor

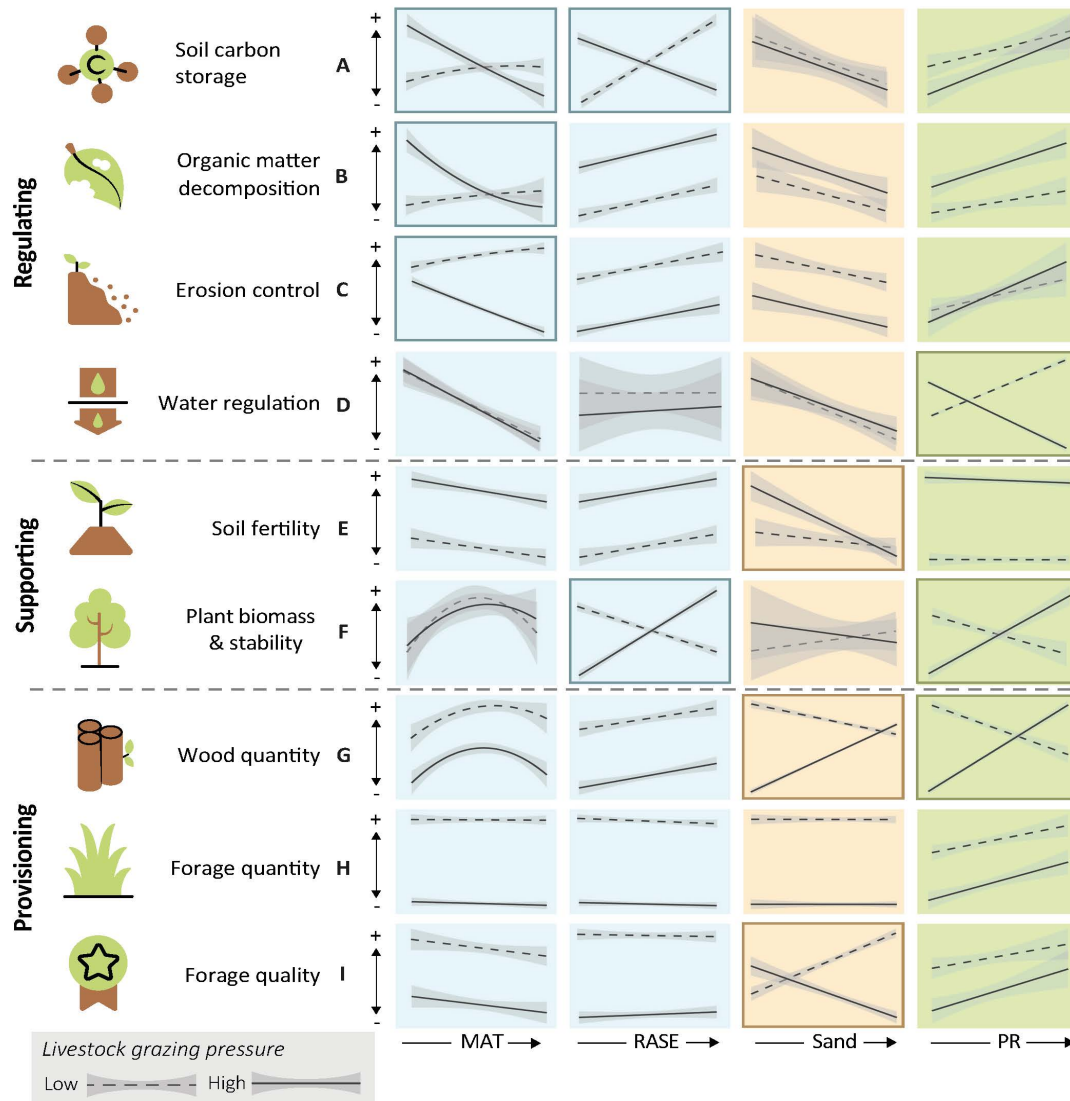
1320 importance considers the number of models that includes at least one biodiversity proxy (plant

species richness, mammalian herbivore richness, or belowground diversity). Separate results for

each biodiversity proxy are shown in fig. S12. Full details on model results, including the  
1323 number of best-fitting models, are available in tables S13 to S15. Plant biomass & stability =  
aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability, Grazing = grazing pressure, MAT = mean  
annual temperature, RASE = rainfall seasonality, and MAP = mean annual precipitation.

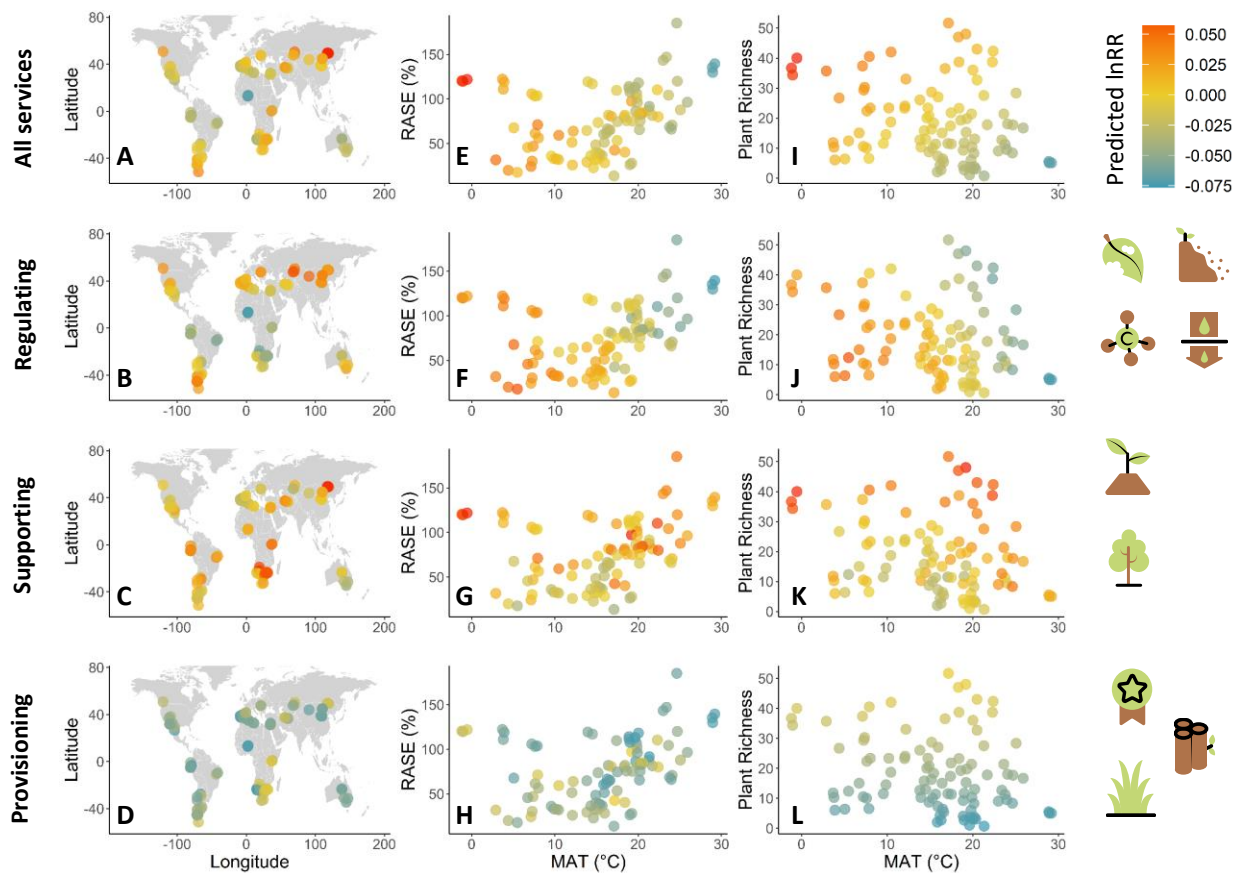
1326





1329 **Figure 3. Predicted responses of ecosystem services to changes in climate, sand content,**  
**and plant species richness at low and high grazing pressure levels.** The lines at each panel  
 1332 show model fits (using partial residuals) for each predictor selected in the final best-fitting  
 models at low and high grazing pressures for each service. Panels surrounded with a border  
 denote significant interactions between grazing and other predictors. Predicted responses of

ecosystem services to all grazing pressure levels (ungrazed, low, medium, and high) and to other  
1335 model predictors are presented in figs. S12 to S14. The complete set of statistical results and  
model fits are available in tables S13 to S15. Plant biomass & stability = aboveground plant  
biomass and its temporal stability, MAT = mean annual temperature, RASE = rainfall  
1338 seasonality, Sand = sand content, and PR = plant species richness.



1341

**Figure 4. Geographical variation in the effect of grazing pressure on ecosystem services**

**across global drylands.** For each of the 98 sites surveyed, we plot the effect of grazing pressure on ecosystem services predicted by model parameters along the wide climatic and plant species richness gradients evaluated. To do so, we first predicted each ecosystem service at low and high grazing pressures using predictor estimates of the best-fitting models (see tables S13 to S15).

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Then we calculated the predicted effect of grazing at each site as the difference between high and low grazing pressure levels using a log response ratio ( $\ln RR$ ; 13). Predictions were made using plant species richness, mean annual temperature (MAT), and rainfall seasonality (RASE); all

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other parameters were fixed at their mean value (13). For simplicity, we averaged grazing effects across all ecosystem services (A, E, I), and across regulating (B, F, J), supporting (C, G, K), and

provisioning (D, H, L) services. Blue and red dots indicate negative and positive effects of  
1353 grazing, respectively. See figs. S16 and S17 for detailed results on each service and Fig. 2 for the  
meaning of the symbols depicting each ecosystem service.

# Science



1356

## Supplementary Materials for

1359

### Grazing and ecosystem service delivery in global drylands

- 1362 Fernando T. Maestre, Yoann Le Bagousse-Pinguet, Manuel Delgado-Baquerizo, David J. Eldridge, Hugo Saiz, Miguel Berdugo, Beatriz Gozalo, Victoria Ochoa, Emilio Guirado, Miguel García-Gómez, Enrique Valencia, Juan J. Gaitán, Sergio Asensio, Betty J. Mendoza, César Plaza, Paloma Díaz-Martínez, Ana Rey, Hang-Wei Hu, Ji-Zheng He, Jun-Tao Wang, Anika Lehmann, Matthias C. Rillig, Simone Cesarz, Nico Eisenhauer, Jaime Martínez-Valderrama, Eduardo Moreno-Jiménez, Osvaldo Sala, Mehdi Abedi, Negar Ahmadian, Concepción L. Alados, Valeria Aramayo, Fateh Amghar, Tulio Arredondo, Rodrigo J. Ahumada, Khadijeh Bahalkeh, Farah Ben Salem, Niels Blaum, Bazartseren Boldgiv, Matthew A. Bowker, Donald Bran, Chongfeng Bu, Rafaella Canessa, Andrea P. Castillo-Monroy, Helena Castro, Ignacio Castro, Patricio Castro-Quezada, Roukaya Chibani, Abel A. Conceição, Courtney M. Currier, Anthony Darrouzet-Nardi, Balázs Deák, David A. Donoso, Andrew J. Dougill, Jorge Durán, Batdelger Erdenetsetseg, Carlos I. Espinosa, Alex Fajardo, Mohammad Farzam, Daniela Ferrante, Anke S.K. Frank, Lauchlan H. Fraser, Laureano A. Gherardi, Aaron C. Greenville, Carlos A. Guerra, Elizabeth Gusmán-Montalvan, Rosa M. Hernández-Hernández, Norbert Hölzel, Elisabeth Huber-Sannwald, Frederic M. Hughes, Oswaldo Jadán-Maza, Florian Jeltsch, Anke Jentsch, Kudzai F. Kaseke, Melanie Köbel, Jessica E. Koopman, Cintia V. Leder, Anja Linstädter, Peter C. le Roux, Xinkai Li, Pierre Liancourt, Jushan Liu, Michelle A. Louw, Gillian Maggs-Kölling, Thulani P. Makhalanyane, Oumarou Malam Issa, Antonio J. Manzaneda, Eugene Marais, Juan P. Mora, Gerardo Moreno, Seth M. Munson, Alice Nunes, Gabriel Oliva, Gastón R. Oñatibia, Guadalupe Peter, Marco O.D. Pivari, Yolanda Pueyo, R. Emiliano Quiroga, Soroor Rahmanian, Sasha C. Reed, Pedro J. Rey, Benoit Richard, Alexandra Rodríguez, Víctor Rolo, Juan G. Rubalcaba, Jan C. Ruppert, Ayman Salah, Max A. Schuchardt, Sedona Spann, Ilan Stavi, Colton R. A. Stephens, Anthony M. Swemmer, Alberto L. Teixido, Andrew D. Thomas, Heather L. Throop, Katja Tielbörger, Samantha Travers, James Val, Orsolya Valkó, Liesbeth van den Brink, Sergio Velasco Ayuso, Frederike Velbert, Wanyoike Wamiti, Deli Wang, Lixin Wang, Glenda M. Wardle, Laura Yahdjian, Eli Zaady, Yuanming Zhang, Xiaobing Zhou, Brajesh K. Singh, Nicolas Gross.

1389

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1392 **This PDF file includes:**

1395 Materials and Methods  
figs. S1 to S19  
Tables S1 to S28  
Caption for Movie S1

1398

**Other Supplementary Materials for this manuscript include the following:**

1401

Movie S1

1404

## Materials and Methods

### 1407 Characteristics of the study sites

We carried out our study in rangelands, defined as “lands carrying natural or semi-natural vegetation that provide habitat suitable for herds of wild or domestic ungulates” (31), located in drylands (areas with an aridity index [precipitation/potential evapotranspiration [P/PET] below 0.65, 32) between January 2016 and September 2019. The area of dryland rangelands shown in Fig. 1 and fig. S1 was obtained from refs. 33 and 34. Field data and plant and soil samples were gathered at 98 sites located in 25 countries from six continents (Algeria, Argentina, Australia, Botswana, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China, Ecuador, Hungary, Iran, Israel, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Mexico, Mongolia, Namibia, Niger, Palestine, Peru, Portugal, South Africa, Spain, Tunisia, and the United States of America; fig. 1, Movie S1), including remote and traditionally poorly studied dryland regions. These include the Southeast of Tunisia, the Sechura Desert in Peru, the Golestan province in Iran, and the West Bank, to name a few. Site selection aimed to capture a wide range of grazing pressure levels and of the variety of the abiotic (climate, soil type, surface inclination) and biotic (type of vegetation, total plant cover, species richness) features characterizing dryland rangelands worldwide, and to be as geographically representative as possible while keeping the survey logistically feasible.

Standardized climatic data from all the sites were obtained from WorldClim 2.0 ([www.worldclim.org](http://www.worldclim.org)), a high resolution (30 arc seconds or ~ 1 km at equator) database based on many climate observations and topographical data for the 1970-2000 period (35). Aridity index data were obtained from the Global Aridity Index and Potential Evapotranspiration Climate Database v2 (36), which uses interpolations based on WorldClim. The range of the aridity index, mean annual precipitation, and mean annual temperature values covered by the study sites was 0.01 to 0.54, 26 mm/yr to 891 mm/yr, and -1.2 °C to 29.2 °C, respectively. All sites experienced high seasonal variability in rainfall ( $74.69\% \pm 34.61\%$ , mean  $\pm$  SD). The studied sites included 16 of the World Reference Base soil groups (37) and all major soil groups present in drylands worldwide (38). Surface inclination values ranged between 0° and 31.6°. All sites with a slope value  $> 2^\circ$  were located on SE-SW and NE-NW faces in the Northern and the Southern Hemispheres, respectively, to minimize the potential effects of different microclimates promoted by slope aspect, which can be very important in drylands (39–41). Elevation varied between 12 m and 2214 m a.s.l. The sites surveyed encompass a wide variety of representative vegetation physiognomies, including grasslands, shrublands, savannas, and open woodlands with shrubs (fig. S2). Perennial plant canopy cover ranged between 0% and 99%. Detailed information about the location and main environmental characteristics of the study sites can be found in the database that accompanies this article (doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.14923065).

### Selection of local grazing gradients and characterization of grazing pressure

At each of the 98 study sites, multiple 45 m  $\times$  45 m plots were sampled once across a local grazing gradient (including the effects of vegetation removal and trampling) with different levels of grazing pressure (low, medium, and high grazing pressure plus another plot in an ungrazed area whenever possible) by livestock and native herbivores. This gradient approach, which is frequently used in large-scale studies assessing grazing impacts (42–44), is the most appropriate

way to capture: i) potential effects of grazing, and the interactions between climate, biodiversity, and soils, on the provision of ecosystem services and ii) the large amount of environmental variability/heterogeneity across sites and to minimize this variability within sites.

To determine a grazing gradient within each site, we located plots at different distances from artificial watering points, which are ponds, impoundments, or drinking troughs that provide permanent sources of water for livestock and wild herbivores in drylands (43, 45). The distance to watering points is a valuable proxy of grazing pressure (i.e., sites closer to water are more heavily grazed; 43, 45–47), and has been widely employed (and validated multiple times) when assessing the ecological impacts of grazing pressure in drylands worldwide (43, 45–50). To ensure a correct characterization of the grazing gradient, we also conducted an expert-level heuristic assessment of plot-level grazing pressure using the best available knowledge, historical records, and prior information whenever available. While this heuristic assessment of grazing pressure combined with distance to waterpoints and expert knowledge is somewhat subjective, each survey team was familiar with current grazing intensities at their plots and sites. In eight of the 98 surveyed sites, local grazing gradients were established using paddocks grazed at different intensities, rather than distance to watering points. Nevertheless, all plots were established in areas representative of the vegetation and soil types found in the site, so the impacts of grazing pressure could be assessed at each site without confounding factors associated with differences in climate, soil type or vegetation. This is because plots within each site have identical or similar climate and parent material, so differences among them are largely due to the different grazing pressure levels they experience. Selected watering points were separated from other watering points and/or elements that could alter the movement of mammalian herbivores, such as fences, by at least 1 km to avoid confounding effects that could influence the impact of distance to water on the measured ecosystem structural and functional attributes.

Of the 98 sites surveyed, a total of 52 sites had three plots corresponding to three grazing intensities (low, medium, and high grazing pressure). In addition to these 52 sites, 35 sites had an additional ungrazed area surveyed (ungrazed, low, medium, and high grazing pressure). In eight sites, an ungrazed control plus two additional grazing levels (medium and high or low and high grazing pressure) were surveyed. Finally, in three sites, only two plots could be located because they lacked low or medium grazing pressure plots. In total, 326 plots of 45 m × 45 m (including 43 ungrazed, 88 low grazing pressure, 97 medium grazing pressure, and 98 high grazing pressure plots) were surveyed in situ as described in the following sections.

Our study needed to be standardized (so results can be comparable), and thus it was not possible to capture the wide variation in the size of fields used for managing extensive livestock grazing across dryland rangelands (51–53). This issue (i.e., a fixed plot size), which is shared by any global standardized experiment and survey conducted so far (e.g., BIOCUM (18), NutNet (54), DroughtNet (55), Darkdiv (56)), does not preclude the acquisition of representative results in our study for four main reasons. First, the spatial resolution [plot area] and actual extent [summed area of all plots] (sensu ref. 57) at which our field data were gathered (spatial resolution of 2025 m<sup>2</sup> and actual extent of 660,150 m<sup>2</sup> respectively) is substantially larger than that used in most ecological and grazing studies conducted so far (57, 58). Furthermore, the potentially represented area of the surveyed plots at each site (i.e., that covered by these plots and the distance between them) is much larger (range 1.1 - 6096.7 ha, mean size = 25.8 ha) and resembles that of (small to medium sized) paddocks typically found across rangeland drylands worldwide (51, 53, 59).



1491 Second, our plots were in areas representative of their landscapes. In dryland ecosystems such as  
those we surveyed, the spatial resolution and size of the plots we used captures information on  
1494 key ecosystem properties (e.g., perennial vegetation cover) that are both representative of those  
found at larger spatial extents (60) and can be scaled up to larger regions (61). Third, the location  
of plots of different grazing pressures within each site captures the spatial heterogeneity in  
1497 grazing that is typically found in larger paddocks (62). Finally, paddock size per se may not be a  
good proxy for grazing pressure at the scale of our study. For instance, a high density of  
herbivores in a small paddock in a subhumid environment could represent a moderate grazing  
1500 pressure for that area whereas fewer herbivores in a much larger paddock in an arid landscape  
could equate to high grazing pressure for that area. For these reasons, paddock size is not an  
attribute that we considered in our study. Certainly, paddock size would be an important  
consideration if we were looking at the same number of animals in paddocks of different sizes.

1503 We fully acknowledge that some grazing effects (e.g., on soil properties such as carbon) might  
take years to be noticeable (63). We consider that our approach is appropriate since we measured  
1506 the response variables in paddocks subjected to grazing for many years. This is one of the  
advantages of our observational study vs. experiments that are usually done over short periods of  
time. Furthermore, the time needed for some grazing impacts to be noticeable in soil variables is  
1509 not a problem to interpret our results because we are comparing the impacts of grazing pressure  
on ecosystem services across space, not across time, and because we are controlling for site-  
specific effects in our analyses (see “Statistical analyses” section below). This issue would have  
1512 been a problem if we had compared, for instance, the impacts of grazing on soil properties in a  
single site using a short temporal data series.

Overall, our study focused on the resultant grazing pressure, which is a composite of different  
types of herbivores, the location of particular plots within a paddock (close to water, far from  
1515 water), the length of time that grazing has occurred, and the type of herbivores, among other  
considerations. The resultant signature, assessed as grazing pressure (recent and historic), was  
linked to the different ecosystem services measured. In this way the type of grazing (e.g., set  
1518 stocking, time-controlled grazing, low risk stocking, transhumance, etc.) is not particularly an  
issue because we are using dung and livestock tracks to ensure that our local grazing gradients  
are properly characterized (see “Validation of grazing pressure gradients” section below).  
1521 Finally, and as shown in fig. S9, our experimental approach successfully captured the full range  
of grazing pressure that is typically observed across dryland rangelands worldwide. Our results  
are relevant, therefore, to situations where grazing pressure is greater, whether this occurs close  
1524 to watering points, or under nomadic systems, or where different densities of animals are  
constrained within paddocks. We believe that grazing pressure, rather than the assessment  
methodology or how such pressure is created, is the most important aspect when interpreting the  
1527 results of our study.

#### Validation of grazing pressure gradients

Our grazing pressure was not selected a priori, though we would expect that our plots would  
1530 represent a gradient in grazing pressure within each site. To confirm that this was the case, we  
conducted multiple validation tests of the heuristic value of grazing pressure obtained at each  
plot by: i) identifying, counting and weighing the dung or pellets of all herbivores within  
1533 quadrats, a standard approach to assess the abundance of livestock and wild herbivores (64–66),

ii) using livestock density data whenever available, iii) conducting a cluster analysis with dung/pellet data, and iv) measuring the width and depth of all livestock tracks crossing the plot to derive a total cross-sectional area of livestock tracks for each site, a surrogate of historic grazing pressure (67). Results from all validation tests conducted, presented in detail in the following paragraphs, indicated that dung mass accurately predicted the four-level categorical assessment of grazing pressure (ungrazed, low, medium, and high grazing pressure; figs. S4-S8). Increases in grazing pressure (from ungrazed to high grazing pressure) were associated with livestock density (fig. S6), dung mass (fig. S7) and area/density of livestock tracks (fig. S8).

We first conducted in situ assessments of recent grazing pressure by all herbivores in all plots by counting and identifying their dung and pellets. The assessment of dung production has been used widely to evaluate recent grazing pressure and abundance of large mammalian herbivores (66), such as cattle (65), sheep (64), deer (68, 69) and kangaroos (70). Because our aim was to investigate the impact of grazing pressure on biodiversity and ecosystem services, we limited our assessment of herbivory to mammalian, mostly large-bodied herbivores (> 20 kg e.g., Roe deer *Capreolus capreolus*). We also included grazing by the European rabbit (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*) and hares (*Lepus* spp.) because these herbivores are typically associated with environments grazed by livestock. Further, these grazers have been shown to contribute to substantial biomass reduction in rangelands (71, 72). We acknowledge, however, that smaller-bodied mammalian herbivores and omnivores, such as the Southern Mountain cavi (*Microcavia australis*) and birds such as the Greater rhea (*Rhea americana*) and Common ostrich (*Struthio camelus*), also co-occur with livestock and larger mammalian herbivores. However, we did not record the dung of these animals in field surveys because their relative grazing effects would be extremely small compared with livestock and other native herbivores, and because they are not associated with increases in grazing pressure.

To measure dung and pellets in the field, we placed a 25 m<sup>2</sup> (5 m × 5 m) quadrat, within which was nested a smaller 1 m<sup>2</sup> (1 m by 1 m) quadrat, at distances of 10 m and 30 m along each 45 m transect. Within the larger quadrat we counted the dung of large-bodied herbivores (e.g., giraffe, cattle, and horses), and in the smaller quadrat the dung or pellets of smaller-bodied herbivores (e.g., goats, sheep, lagomorphs), and classified it according to the species producing it. Experienced field operators were familiar with the dung of different herbivores and were, therefore, able to identify and separate dung in the field. This was particularly important in locations supporting high herbivore richness such as those from South Africa, where herbivore richness was the greatest ( $n = 6$ ). Field guides are available to allow operators to identify dung in different regions (e.g., antelope spp. in Africa (73) or different herbivores in Australia (74)). However, it was not possible to successfully separate the dung of sheep and goats, except where they occurred separately, largely because of the high degree of overlap in dung morphology (75).

To calculate dung/pellet (dung hereafter) mass, we used one of two approaches: i) direct measurements, or ii) estimates based on dung counts. Some survey teams made direct measurements of dung by collecting, oven drying and weighing all dung found in the quadrats and expressed it as a mass per m<sup>2</sup> for each plot and herbivore type. Direct measurements of dung mass are typically used either where dung mass is low, or where the main herbivores do not produce clearly defined pellets, such as horses (*Equus caballus*), cattle (*Bos* spp.), donkeys (*Equus africanus asinus*), giraffe (*Giraffa camelopardalis*), elephants (*Loxodonta africana*), buffalo (*Syncerus caffer*), camels (*Camelus* sp.), hartebeest (*Alcelaphus buselaphus*), wildebeest

1578 (*Connochaetes* sp.), and zebra (*Equus quagga*). Alternatively, field surveyors counted dung of  
each herbivore in all quadrats but collected it from only a subsample of the quadrats surveyed,  
generally four large (25 m<sup>2</sup>) or small (1 m<sup>2</sup>) quadrats (depending on herbivore type), to derive  
1581 relationships between dung counts and mass for separate herbivore types. This estimation  
technique is highly effective for those herbivores that produce pellets, such as goats (*Capra*  
*hirca*), sheep (*Ovis aries*), deer (*Capreolus capreolus*, *Cervus elaphus*), various antelope species  
1584 including Gemsbok (*Oryx gazella*), Springbok (*Antidorcas marsupialis*) and Greater kudu  
(*Tragelaphus strepsiceros*), various kangaroos (*Osphranter rufus*, *Macropus* spp.), European  
rabbit, and the European hare (*Lepus* sp., table S2). Typical relationships between dung counts  
1587 and mass varied among herbivore types and sites, but coefficients of determination were  
always > 0.40 (fig. S4). Although in most plots we directly measured the weight of dung, some  
sites relied on the calibration between dung count and mass. These ranged from very strong  
1590 relationships (e.g., horses in Chile:  $R^2=0.89$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $n = 27$ ; cattle in Argentina:  $R^2=0.94$ ,  $P <$   
 $0.001$ ,  $n = 12$ ) to relatively weak, often due to low sample size (cattle in Hungary:  $R^2=0.43$ ,  $P =$   
1593  $0.003$ ,  $n = 17$ ; cattle in New Mexico USA:  $R^2=0.64$ ,  $P = 0.054$ ,  $n = 5$ ). Thus, using either direct  
assessment of dung mass or estimated measures, we were able to calculate the total oven-dried  
mass of dung per hectare for each herbivore as one measure of recent grazing pressure.

As an initial test of the validity of herbivore dung as a measure of recent grazing pressure, we  
1596 examined four sites in our study (two from Argentina, one each from Australia and Iran) that  
were all grazed by sheep and from which we had data on the mass of dung collected in the field  
and empirical data on long-term stocking rates obtained from experimental studies or from  
1599 pastoralists or herders. We plotted the total dry mass of dung against livestock density, which  
was adjusted to a common scale of dry sheep equivalents (DSE·ha<sup>-1</sup>); the value of one non-  
lactating ewe without a lamb (76). Results for these four sites demonstrate a positive linear  
1602 relationship between livestock density (DSE·ha<sup>-1</sup>) and dung mass (kg·ha<sup>-1</sup>; fig. S5). Moreover,  
experimental studies of sheep grazing in arid South Australia show a strong relationship between  
the time that livestock spend grazing and the amount of dung produced (77). Other studies from  
1605 Zimbabwe (78), Kenya (79), South Africa (80) and southern Mongolia (81) have linked dung  
counts to herbivore grazing pressure. We are confident, therefore, that greater time spent grazing  
equates with more livestock dung and thus a greater amount of recent grazing.

1608 We then examined whether the reported grazing pressure (DSE·ha<sup>-1</sup>) was related to our heuristic  
measure of grazing pressure (ungrazed, low, medium, high) using data from the Australian,  
Iranian and the combined Argentinian sites described previously (fig. S6). Our results clearly  
1611 show a significant increase in grazing pressure along a grazing gradient from ungrazed to high  
grazing pressure in Argentina (One-way ANOVA:  $F_{3,7} = 4.8$ ,  $P = 0.04$ ), Australia ( $F_{3,10} = 4.51$ ,  $P$   
 $= 0.045$ ) and Iran ( $F_{3,7} = 22.3$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ).

1614 As a final test of the links between our dung measurements and current grazing pressure, we  
examined the relationship between the total mass of dung from each study (kg·ha<sup>-1</sup>) and our  
heuristic measure of grazing pressure (ungrazed and low, medium, and high grazing pressure)  
1617 using two analyses. First, we tested the relationship between these grazing pressure levels and  
dung measurements using a general linear model that considered study sites as a random effect.  
Increases in grazing pressure were associated with increasing levels of dung production ( $F =$   
1620  $37.0$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , on  $\log_{10}(x+1)$  data; fig. S7a). Tukey's *post-hoc* LSD test indicated a  
significant difference among all grazing pressure levels except medium and high, which did not

differ significantly. When dung data were separated into livestock and wild herbivores (fig. S1), this pattern was reproduced for livestock species but not for wild herbivores, as their dung mass did not increase among the different grazing levels evaluated. These results further suggest that increases in grazing pressure along our local grazing gradient were largely driven by livestock, and not by wild herbivores. Second, we performed a cluster analysis validation. In this analysis, we first standardized the dung density values by dividing them by the maximum dung density found within each site. Standardization yielded a value ranging from 1 (maximum density within a site) to 0 (minimum possible dung density). We then performed a cluster analysis, using the Elbow method (82), to identify the optimum number of clusters that can be obtained using dung data only. This analysis identified four clusters as being optimum, which is consistent with our assignment of four categorical classes under the expert-derived heuristic method (fig. S7b). To test the veracity and accuracy of this clustering approach, we assigned clusters to the plots based on the mass of dung (labeled U, L, M and H in fig. S7c) and compared the match with the classification made by individual experts (ungrazed and low, medium, and high grazing pressure). Total accuracy of expert assignment was 39.2%, with a significant association between dung-based and expert-based grazing levels ( $\chi^2 = 95.05$ ,  $df = 9$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Low accuracy was driven mainly by a similarity among low and ungrazed plots, which are not well distinguished in terms of dung clusters. When this process was repeated without ungrazed plots, the match between expert-based assignment and dung-based assignment increased to 53.2% (fig. S7d;  $\chi^2 = 46.01$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). For this reduced analysis, the greatest mismatch between expert-based and dung-based approaches occurred under medium grazing pressure plots, which sometimes had dung levels close to high grazing pressure and others close to low grazing pressure plots (fig. S7d).

The dung data gathered across all our plots showed a very wide range of variation (fig. S9), suggesting that our survey effectively captured a large range in grazing pressure levels. The comparison of these dung data with those obtained from the literature (including studies assessing a wide range of grazing pressure, from ungrazed to very high grazing, in drylands from Australia, China and Kenya) shows how the range of variation reported in these studies is very similar to that observed in our survey (fig. S9).

We also used the size and density of livestock tracks as a measure of historic grazing by livestock. These tracks are semi-permanent landscape features that are formed when livestock traverse the same path to and from water (83). These compacted tracks are clearly visible over many decades, and tracks become wider and deeper as the pressure of livestock grazing increases. The density and size of livestock tracks are therefore useful indicators of the history of livestock grazing (46, 66). These tracks, however, fail to form or persist on sandy soils, which lack the compaction created by trampling (84), so historic grazing could not be assessed at all sites.

To assess the level of historic grazing pressure, we measured the width and depth of all livestock tracks crossing each of the 45 m transects to derive a total cross-sectional area of tracks for each site. These values were then scaled to a total area per 100 m of transect. We also calculated the total number of tracks per 100 m of transect (fig. S8). Using a general linear model that considered study site as a random effect, we found a strong and significant difference in the area of livestock tracks among the four levels of grazing pressure (ungrazed and low, medium, and high grazing pressure;  $F_{3,163} = 14.95$ ,  $P < 0.001$  on  $\log_{10}(x+1)$ -transformed data; fig. S8). For

track density, we found a significant difference in density between ungrazed and the three levels of grazing pressure ( $F_{3,166} = 9.28$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ;  $\log_{10}(x+1)$ -transformed data).

1668 Overall, the comprehensive analyses conducted showed very similar trends, irrespective of  
whether we used dung mass as a measure of recent grazing pressure, track area/density as a  
1671 measure of long-term grazing pressure or the expert heuristic site classification. This gives us a  
high degree of confidence that the grazing gradients we observed are true gradients in grazing  
1674 pressure, and thus were well-suited to achieve the objectives of our study. Furthermore, the range  
of variation in dung mass observed across the surveyed sites was very similar to that observed in  
previous studies carried out in multiple dryland regions (fig. S9), suggesting that our survey  
successfully captured the full range of grazing pressure levels that is typically observed in grazed  
drylands across the globe.

### 1677 Vegetation and soil sampling

Vegetation and soil surveys were conducted following a standardized sampling protocol,  
described in full in ref. 85. The coordinates and elevation of each 45 m  $\times$  45 m plot were  
1680 recorded in situ with a portable Global Positioning System and were standardized to the WGS84  
ellipsoid for visualization and analyses. We located four 45 m transects oriented downslope  
within each plot, spaced 10 m apart across the slope, for the vegetation surveys. To minimize  
1683 potential impacts of seasonal variability within and across sites, vegetation and soil surveys took  
place just after the main vegetation growth period and in the peak of the dry season, respectively.  
This ensured that the data obtained across sites were as standardized and comparable as possible.  
1686 When required by local authorities, permissions were obtained for conducting field work. Our  
study did not involve handling or collection of endangered species.

Perennial plant presence and cover were measured in each transect using the line-point intercept  
1689 method (86). Specifically, we surveyed points located every 20 cm for a total of 225 points per  
transect (900 points per plot). Also, we placed 25 contiguous quadrats (1.5 m  $\times$  1.5 m) in each  
transect (100 quadrats per plot) and visually estimated the cover of each perennial vascular plant  
1692 present as the percentage of the quadrat covered (0-100). The cover for each species was  
calculated as the sum of the species cover for all quadrats. In addition, all identified species per  
plot were classified into three functional categories associated with their life strategy/biological  
1695 type: forbs, grasses, and woody species. The cover of each category was calculated as the  
proportion of total vegetation cover (sum of the cover for all species) that was associated with  
that category (e.g.,  $\text{cover}_{\text{grass}} = \text{sum} [\text{cover of all grass species}] / \text{sum} [\text{cover all species}]$ ). We  
1698 restricted our study to perennial plants because they are instrumental in maintaining the  
functioning of drylands (18, 87). Moreover, annual plant composition in drylands shows high  
intra- and inter-annual variability (87, 88). Thus, we did not survey annual species to avoid  
1701 confounding effects in the differences in plant species richness among study sites caused  
primarily by the timing of sampling.

We measured maximum plant height, specific leaf area, and leaf dry mass content (LDMC) on  
1704 21,106 individuals from 1,918 species, and foliar nitrogen content on 2,570 individuals from  
1,034 species following standard protocols (89). Maximum plant height (in m) measures the  
height of a plant from the ground up to the highest leaves belonging to the vegetative part of the  
1707 plant. Specific leaf area ( $\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ ) was calculated as the ratio between leaf area ( $\text{cm}^2$ ) and dry leaf

mass (g), while LDMC (unitless) was estimated as the ratio between oven-dry and water-saturated fresh mass of leaves. The selected traits were measured on the tallest individual of each perennial plant species present in 20 quadrats randomly selected among the 100 quadrats surveyed at each plot (5 quadrats per transect). For each selected plant individual, we sampled the youngest mature and undamaged leaves at the top of the plant (sampled leaf surface was always > 2 cm<sup>2</sup>). Leaves were then stored in moistened plastic bags and brought to the laboratory for rehydration. Leaf area was quantified on each individual by taking photographs of the collected leaves and analyzing them using the freeware ImageJ (90) (<https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/index.html>; see ref. 85 for additional details on the procedure followed). Leaf fresh and dry mass were obtained by weighing before and after oven drying at 60 °C for 48 h. To obtain foliar nitrogen content, leaves were grouped by species within each plot for chemical analysis. Then, oven-dried leaves were ground in a homogenizer (Precellys® 24; Bertin Technologies, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France) and analyzed for total nitrogen on a EuroEA3000 elemental analyser (EuroVector, Pavia, Italy).

Soils were sampled using a stratified random procedure. At each plot, five 50 cm × 50 cm quadrats were randomly placed under the canopy of the dominant (in terms of % cover) perennial vegetation element and in open areas devoid of perennial vegetation (10 quadrats in total). A composite topsoil sample consisting of five 145 cm<sup>3</sup> soil cores (0-7.5 cm depth) was collected from each quadrat, bulked, and homogenized in the field. After field collection, the soil samples were taken to the laboratory, where they were sieved (2 mm mesh). Once sieved, a fraction was air-dried for one month and stored for physico-chemical analyses; another was immediately frozen at -20 °C for microbial analyses (depending upon the availability of a freezer close to the field site). Dried plant and soil samples, and frozen soil samples from all the countries were shipped to the laboratory of Rey Juan Carlos University in Móstoles (Spain). These shipments were carried out according to national and international regulations; exporting permits were obtained for each country (when required) and importing permits to Spain were obtained for every shipment by the Spanish Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food. Once in the laboratory, we created a composite soil sample per microsite (vegetated and open areas) and plot using equal amounts of all the replicate soil samples collected in the field. All the laboratory analyses were carried out on these composite samples (two composite samples per plot, 648 samples in total), either at Rey Juan Carlos University or in other laboratories. By doing so, every variable was analyzed in the same laboratory by the same personnel and using the same protocol.

### Soil properties measured

Soil pH was measured in all the soil samples with a pH meter, in a 1: 1 soil to water (w:v) suspension. Soil texture (sand, clay, and silt content) was measured according to ref. 91. The three textural variables measured (sand, clay, and silt) were highly intercorrelated at both open (Spearman  $\rho_{\text{sand-silt}} = -0.969$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Spearman  $\rho_{\text{sand-clay}} = -0.796$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Spearman  $\rho_{\text{silt-clay}} = 0.677$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and vegetated (Spearman  $\rho_{\text{sand-silt}} = -0.987$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Spearman  $\rho_{\text{sand-clay}} = -0.851$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Spearman  $\rho_{\text{silt-clay}} = 0.766$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) microsites. Thus, we selected just one of these fractions (sand), to use in our data analyses because this fraction is less prone to measurement errors given the method used (91). These physico-chemical properties widely differed among the 326 plots surveyed: sand content and pH ranged from 14% to 99% and from 3.73 to 9.93, respectively.

1752 Characterization of above- and belowground biodiversity

1755 *Plant diversity* - The total plant species richness of each plot was calculated as the total number of perennial plant species found using at least one of the survey methods (transects or quadrats). Plant species richness was highly correlated with other diversity metrics such as Shannon's and Simpson's indices ( $r > 0.65$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), so we focused on species richness for this study because it represents the most widely studied component of biodiversity to date (23, 92–94), and shows positive relationships with ecosystem functions related to multiple ecosystem services in global drylands (18).

1761 *Herbivore diversity* - We used data from the in situ dung/pellet survey (see “Validation of grazing pressure gradients” section above) to estimate the richness of domestic and wild mammalian herbivores present at each site as described above. Across all sites, we recorded a total of 31 different herbivores (table S2), ranging in body size from the European rabbit encountered in Europe, Australia, and the Americas (~1.2 kg) to the African elephant in Namibia (~2,500 kg). Dung/pellet data were not available from 26 plots, so the final data set for herbivore richness includes 300 plots.

1767 *Belowground diversity* - To quantify belowground diversity, we measured the richness of soil bacteria, fungi, protists, and invertebrates by amplicon sequencing on the 16S and 18S rRNA genes, respectively. Soil DNA was extracted from 0.5 g of defrosted soil samples from vegetated microsites using the Powersoil® DNA Isolation Kit (Mo Bio Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the instructions provided by the manufacturer. The extracted DNA samples were frozen and shipped to the Next Generation Genome Sequencing Facility of the University of Western Sydney (Australia). There, they were defrosted and analyzed using the Illumina MiSeq platform. Prokaryotic 16S and eukaryotic 18S rRNA genes were amplified using the 341F/805R (95) and Euk1391f/EukBr (96, 97) primer sets, respectively. Raw reads quality control, merging and chimera detection were performed using USEARCH (98), and phylotypes (i.e., ASVs) were identified at the 100% identity level using UNOISE3 (99, 100). Representative sequences of the ASVs were annotated against the SILVA-132 SSU database for bacteria, and SILVA LSU (101) and PR2 (102) databases for eukaryotes, respectively. The ASV abundance tables were generated using QIIME (103), and then rarefied at 10,000 (16S rRNA gene) and 2,000 (18S rRNA gene) reads *per* sample to ensure even sampling depth before diversity calculation. Frozen samples were obtained for 80 sites encompassing 264 of the 326 plots surveyed. The amplification procedure failed for some samples, leaving the total number of plots available for belowground diversity analyses to 242. The richness of soil bacteria, fungi, protists, and invertebrates were scaled using the Z-score transformation and averaged to obtain a synthetic index of belowground diversity (104).

Assessment of ecosystem services

1788 In all plots, we measured a total of 36 ecosystem variables linked to nine ecosystem services (four regulating, two supporting, and three provisioning services; see table S1). The four regulating ecosystem services assessed were: i) water regulation, measured using soil porosity and water holding capacity, ii) soil carbon storage, evaluated by measuring soil organic carbon stocks, iii) organic matter decomposition, quantified using five soil extracellular enzyme activities related to the degradation of organic matter ( $\beta$ -glucosidase, phosphatase, cellobiase,  $\beta$ -

1794 N-acetylglucosaminidase and xylanase) and measurements of soil carbon and nitrogen  
 1797 mineralization and microbial biomass, and iv) erosion control, assessed by measuring total plant  
 1800 cover, soil aggregation, and the stability of soil macro-aggregates (aggregates >250 μm). The  
 1803 two supporting ecosystem services evaluated included: i) aboveground plant biomass and its  
 1806 temporal stability, estimated using the average plant biomass (APB) measured using satellite  
 data and the inverse of the CV of APB, and ii) soil fertility, evaluated using multiple proxies of  
 soil nutrient availability (contents of total N, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, dissolved organic N, total P, K, Cu,  
 Mg, Fe, Mn, and Zn). The three provisioning services included: i) forage quantity, estimated as  
 the biovolume of perennial grasses and forbs, ii) forage quality, evaluated using the SLA, the  
 LDMC, and the leaf nitrogen content of perennial grasses and forbs weighted by their relative  
 cover, and iii) wood quantity, quantified using the biovolume of woody vegetation. These soil  
 and vegetation variables have often been used as proxies of the ecosystem services evaluated  
 (105–110), which are essential for sustaining dryland livelihoods and their livestock (15, 111,  
 112). A detailed description of how each ecosystem service was quantified is given below.

1809 *Aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability.* This service, which is particularly  
 1812 important for extensive livestock production that is dependent upon native forage (113–115),  
 1815 was quantified using two variables: the average APB and the inverse of the coefficient of  
 1818 variation (CV) of APB during the 1999-2019 period. To quantify APB, we used the Normalized  
 1821 Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), obtained using images from the Landsat 7 Enhanced  
 Thematic Mapper Plus (ETM+) sensor (116). Multiple studies have shown that NDVI is a good  
 proxy of APB, particularly in areas with sparse vegetation such as drylands (117-119). Since the  
 removal of vegetation by grazing changes the amount of photosynthetically active biomass, it  
 also modifies NDVI accordingly (120). In a similar way, NDVI may also be affected by  
 differences in APB that may depend on species composition (121). However, NDVI has been  
 found to be a good proxy of APB in dryland rangelands subject to different grazing levels (121,  
 122). Finally, the resolution of Landsat data is 30 m x 30 m/pixel, thus it is suitable for  
 quantifying NDVI at our plots, which have a size of 45 m x 45 m. Indeed, Landsat data have  
 been frequently used to quantify NDVI in field plots of a size similar to that used in our study  
 (123, 124).

1824 Landsat ETM+ images (pixel size of 30 m x 30 m) were atmospherically corrected using the  
 Landsat Ecosystem Disturbance Adaptive Processing System (124), and included a cloud,  
 shadow, water, and snow mask produced using the C Function of Mask, and a per-pixel  
 saturation mask (125). The NDVI was calculated as:

1827 
$$NDVI = \frac{(R_{NIR} - (R_{red}))}{(R_{NIR} + (R_{red}))}$$

1830 where R<sub>NIR</sub> and R<sub>red</sub> are the spectral reflectance near-infrared (0.77–0.90 μm) and in the red  
 (0.63–0.69 μm) bands of Landsat ETM+. The NDVI calculation produces values between -1 to  
 1, where positive values indicate areas with vegetation, and negative values are typically areas  
 devoid of vegetation cover, such as bare soil. Using NDVI data, we calculated the mean NDVI  
 (NDVI<sub>μ</sub>) and its variability (126) as:

1833 
$$NDVI_{\mu} = \frac{\sum NDVI}{n}$$



$$NDVI_{variability} = NDVI_{cv}$$

1836 where  $n$  is the number of NDVI data available with the above quality criteria ( $n = 141,863$ ) and  $NDVI_{cv}$  is the coefficient of variation of NDVI for the 1999-2019 period.

1839 It is worth highlighting that we considered the average value of 20 years when evaluating APB, perhaps the most dynamic variable among those used to quantify the ecosystem services measured. This makes variation in APB across sites/plots due to the different sampling years among the 3.7 yr window of our survey unlikely to have biased our results and conclusions.

1842 Dryland rangeland vegetation dynamics, and consequently livestock production and human livelihoods, are highly sensitive to changes in both average APB and its yearly variability (see ref. 127 and references therein). Thus, we used  $NDVI_{\mu}$  and the inverse of  $NDVI_{variability}$  to quantify a synthetic index of APB and its temporal stability. The inverse of the coefficient of variation is commonly used when estimating the temporal stability of a given ecological variable (128–131). For our calculations, we scaled and averaged  $NDVI_{\mu}$  and  $1/NDVI_{variability}$  observed within each plot. A high value of this service is indicative of productive and stable dryland ecosystems, something that is highly valued by dryland inhabitants and makes these ecosystems more functional (132) and less prone to degradation (133).

1851 *Forage quantity.* This service was quantified using the biovolume of grasses and forbs present at each plot, a variable often used as a proxy for forage available for livestock in drylands (134–137). The biovolume of each plot was calculated by multiplying the average cover of each species across all quadrats in a plot and the averaged maximum plant height of each species (m), obtained from field measurements, and then grouped and summed by plant life form (grasses and forbs). This metric is provided in  $m^3 \cdot m^{-2}$ .

1857 *Forage quality.* This ecosystem service was quantified using the specific leaf area (SLA), leaf dry mass content (LDMC) and leaf nitrogen content of grasses and forbs and weighted by their relative abundance within each plot. Both SLA and LDMC are functional markers describing one of the major axes of plant diversification observed in terrestrial systems (138). They discriminate between acquisitive and conservative growth strategies associated with leaf nutrient contents (139). The nitrogen content of plant leaves is commonly used to estimate leaf protein contents (140–143) and is strongly linked to the nutritive value of forage plants (144–146). Overall, these three plant traits are good proxies for plant palatability -leaves with higher SLA and lower LDMC are more palatable than leaves with low SLA and high LDMC (147)- and nutritional content, and thus for forage quality (147–155).

1866 To measure this service, we first averaged individual SLA, leaf nitrogen and LDMC measurements at the species level. We then quantified plot-level estimates of these variables by calculating, for grasses and forbs, the community mean trait (Mean  $j$ ) values as:

1869 
$$Mean_j = \sum_i^n p_i T_i$$

where  $p_i$  and  $T_i$  are the relative abundance and the trait value of species  $i$  in plot  $j$ , respectively. We then calculated the leaf water content (LWC) as  $1 / LDMC$ .

1872 The community mean trait values for SLA, nitrogen content and LWC were scaled and averaged  
to obtain a synthetic index of leaf palatability and nutritional value. This index was then  
multiplied by the cover of grass and forb species to obtain plot-level estimates of forage quality.  
1875 A high value of this service corresponds to plots dominated by grass and forb species  
characterized by high SLA, high nitrogen content and low LDMC, a marker of a high forage  
quality (147, 148, 151, 156).

1878 *Wood quantity.* To quantify this ecosystem service, we used the biovolume of woody vegetation,  
which is frequently used as a proxy for fuelwood and wood resources available for construction  
and other uses in dryland areas (157–159). The biovolume of woody species was quantified  
1881 following the same procedure described for grasses and herbs above (but using data from woody  
species).

*Organic matter (OM) decomposition.* To quantify this ecosystem service, we measured five soil  
1884 extracellular enzyme activities related to the degradation of OM [ $\beta$ -glucosidase, phosphatase,  
cellobiase,  $\beta$ -N-acetylglucosaminidase and xylanase], soil C and nitrogen mineralization, and  
microbial biomass. These variables are either direct measurements of OM decomposition (e.g., C  
1887 and N mineralization) (160–163) or are involved in the degradation of compounds such as  
sugars, chitin, cellulose, and hemicellulose (soil enzymatic activities) (164, 165). Therefore, they  
are good proxies for the capacity of a given ecosystem to decompose OM and return available  
1890 nutrients from organic sources to the soil (166).

The activity of phosphatase was measured by determination of the amount of p-nitrophenol  
(PNF) released from 0.5 g soil after incubation at 37 °C for 1 h with the substrate p-nitrophenyl  
1893 phosphate in MUB buffer (167) (pH 6.5). The activity of  $\beta$ -glucosidase was assayed according to  
ref. 168, following the procedure for phosphatase, but using p-nitrophenyl- $\beta$ -D-glucopyranoside  
as substrate and Trishydroxymethyl aminomethane instead of NaOH. The activities of  $\beta$ -N-  
1896 acetylglucosaminidase, cellobiase and xylanase were measured from 1 g of soil using  
fluorometry as described in ref. 169.

Carbon mineralization rate ( $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\text{ dry soil}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ ) was measured as  $\text{CO}_2$  evolved after 48  
1899 h of incubation at 25 °C and 60% of water holding capacity in soil samples from each plot. We  
waited 48 h to make sure that an equilibrium in the soil atmosphere was reached after disruption  
and water adjustment to achieve 60% of WHC (170). We measured soil  $\text{CO}_2$  exchange by  
1902 placing 10.5 g of each soil sample inside a 30 mL plastic jar with a tightly sealed lid connected to  
a portable, closed-chamber soil respiration system (EGM-4, PP systems, MA, USA) during 60 s.  
We monitored  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration every second and fitted these data to a linear model ( $R^2 > 0.95$   
1905 in all cases). Afterwards, the ideal gas law equation was used to convert and calculate the net  
 $\text{CO}_2$  increase (ppm) to mass of C (m) in the headspace of the jar:

1908 
$$m = \frac{\text{ppm} \times P \times V \times M}{R \times T}$$

where  $P$  (atm) and  $V$  (L) are, respectively, the air pressure and the known headspace volume in  
the jar,  $M$  is the atomic mass of carbon ( $\text{g mol}^{-1}$ ),  $R$  is the universal gas constant (0.08206 ATM  
1911  $\text{l mol}^{-1}\text{ K}^{-1}$ ) and  $T$  is the temperature (°K) at the measurement time. The headspace volume in

the jar ( $L$ ) was measured as the total volume of the jar minus the volume of the soil. The mass of  $\text{CO}_2$  evolved from each flask was calculated according to ref. 171 and expressed as  $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C s}^{-1}$ . Finally, we expressed soil carbon mineralization on a dry mass basis ( $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C g}^{-1}$  soil  $\text{day}^{-1}$ ).

Potential N mineralization rate was measured by determination of total  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$ -extractable  $\text{NO}_3^-$  before and after soil incubation in the laboratory at 80% of water holding capacity and 30 °C for 14 days (172).

Soil microbial biomass was assessed using an automated  $\text{O}_2$  micro-compensation system (173) by substrate-induced respiration, i.e., the respiratory response of microorganisms to glucose addition (174). To saturate catabolic microbial enzymes, 4 mg glucose  $\text{g}^{-1}$  dry soil was added as aqueous solution to the soil samples. Prior to the measurement, and to prevent a respiration peak due to water addition, the dry soil samples were rewetted 24 h before so that they reached 40% water holding capacity. The final measurements were done at 60% water holding capacity by adding a specific amount of water and glucose to reach 4 mg glucose  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil dry weight. The mean of the three lowest hourly measurements was taken as the maximum initial respiratory response (MIRR) – a period where microbial growth has not started - to calculate microbial biomass C. Microbial biomass C ( $\text{mg C}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ) was calculated as  $38 \times \text{MIRR}$  ( $\text{ml O}_2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  dry soil) according to ref. 175. All these measurements were conducted at 20 °C in an air-conditioned laboratory using the same analytical devices.

Soil extracellular enzyme activities related to the degradation of organic matter, soil carbon and nitrogen mineralization, and microbial biomass were scaled and averaged to obtain a synthetic index of OM decomposition.

*Soil carbon storage.* We used organic soil C stocks as a proxy for this ecosystem service (106, 108). We did so because soil organic C is a major terrestrial C reservoir and a major sink of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  (176–179). Soil organic C stocks were calculated as the product of soil organic C concentration, bulk density, and sampling depth. Organic C concentration was determined on ball-milled soils by dry combustion, gas chromatography and thermal conductivity detection Thermo Flash 2000 NC soil analyzer (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA), after removing carbonates by acid fumigation (180). Bulk density was measured at each plot following the cylindrical core method (181). Changes in grazing pressure did not affect bulk density across the plots surveyed (Tukey's HSD test,  $P > 0.85$ ).

*Soil fertility.* We quantified this ecosystem service by measuring the contents of total N,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , dissolved organic N, total P, K, Cu, Mg, Fe, Mn, and Zn, which are commonly used indicators of soil fertility because they are strongly related to plant growth and productivity in drylands (182–185). Total N was determined on ball-milled soils by dry combustion, gas chromatography and thermal conductivity detection using a Thermo Flash 2000 NC soil analyzer. Dissolved organic N, ammonium and nitrate concentrations were measured from a subsample of a  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  0.5 M soil extracts in a ratio 1:5 (soil:  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$ ). Soil extracts were shaken in an orbital shaker at 200 rpm for 1 h at 20 °C and filtered to pass a 0.45- $\mu\text{m}$  Millipore filter (186). The filtered extract was kept at 4 °C until colorimetric analyses, which were conducted within the 24 h following the extraction. Ammonium concentration was directly estimated by the indophenol blue method using a microplate reader (187). Nitrate was first reduced to  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  with Devarda alloy, and its concentration was determined by the indophenol blue method.

1956 Dissolved organic N was first oxidized to  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N with  $\text{K}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$  in an autoclave at  $121^\circ\text{C}$  for 55 min (171), then reduced to  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N with Devarda alloy, and its concentration was determined by the indophenol blue method. Total P, K, Mg, Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn were extracted by open-vessel nitric-perchloric acid wet digestion, re-suspended in water, and measured by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (188, 189) with a Perkin Elmer Optima 4300 DV (Perkin Elmer, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA).

The different nutrient concentrations were scaled and averaged to obtain a synthetic index of soil fertility.

1962 *Erosion control.* We quantified this ecosystem service by measuring perennial plant cover, soil aggregation and the water stability of soil aggregates. The cover of perennial vegetation is strongly (and negatively) related to soil erosion in drylands (190–193), and is a variable commonly used as a proxy of erosion control (194–196). Soil aggregation and the water stability of soil aggregates are good proxies for erosion control, as they largely determine the resistance of soils to erosive forces (197–202) and are strongly linked to soil quality (203–206).

1968 The cover of perennial vegetation (in %) was derived from the transects (line-point intercept data) laid out at each plot (see “Vegetation and soil sampling” section above). Soil aggregation was determined by measuring both the mean weight diameter of the whole sample and the water stability of the macro-aggregate fraction  $> 250 \mu\text{m}$ . Each sample was passed through a stack of sieves (1 mm,  $212 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $53 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $<53 \mu\text{m}$ ) to separate the sample into five fractions of decreasing particle size. The fraction weights were used to calculate the mean weight diameter (in mm) as:

1974 
$$\text{MWD} = \sum_{i=1}^n \underline{x}_i w_i$$

where  $\underline{x}_i$  is the mean diameter of size fraction  $i$  and  $w_i$  is the weight of the fraction  $i$  standardized by the overall sample mass. Water stability of aggregates was tested following a modified protocol from ref. 207. Following the MWD measurements, samples were carefully mixed, and 4.0 g placed on small sieves of  $250 \mu\text{m}$  mesh size. Samples were first wetted through capillary wetting before being introduced to the sieving machine (Agrisearch Equipment, Eijkelkamp, Giesbeek, Netherlands). They were then moved vertically for 3 min in deionized water to separate samples into their water-stable and water-unstable fractions. The water-stable fraction was then washed to extract sand particles and organic debris (i.e., the coarse matter fraction).

1977

1980

1983 The percentage of water-stable aggregates was calculated as follows:

$$\text{WSA} (\%) = (\text{water stable fraction-coarse matter}) / (4.0 \text{ g-coarse matter}) * 100.$$

1986 Perennial vegetation cover, soil aggregation and the water stability of soil aggregates were scaled and averaged to obtain a synthetic index of erosion control.

1989 *Water regulation.* This ecosystem service was quantified by assessing the soil water holding capacity (the amount of water that a given soil can hold), and soil porosity (the percentage of the soil volume occupied by pore spaces). Water holding capacity is relevant to many aspects of soil water management (208), is an important determinant of aboveground primary productivity in rangelands (209) and is linked to essential water-related ecosystem services such as plant-water

- 1992 provision (210). Soil porosity is also an important physical variable that controls multiple key soil hydrological properties, including infiltration and water storage capacity (211–214).
- 1995 To measure water holding capacity, we weighed 10 g of dry soil per sample and added them to a funnel with moist filter paper. We then added 10 mL of deionized water to each sample and covered every funnel with parafilm to avoid evaporation. The soils were allowed to drain for 24 h into a test tube. After 24 h, we weighed the soils to calculate their water holding capacity.
- 1998 Soil porosity was estimated as  $1 - (D_b/D_p)$ , where  $D_b$  and  $D_p$  are bulk density and particle density, respectively (215). Bulk density was estimated for every plot as described above (see description of the soil carbon storage ecosystem service). Particle density was estimated using a constant value of  $2.65 \text{ g/cm}^3$ , a typical value used when estimating soil porosity and/or soil particle properties in soils such as those surveyed here (216–220).
- 2001
- 2004 All soil-based analyses were conducted with dry samples, as commonly carried out with global surveys conducted in drylands and mesic ecosystems (18, 221–224). Previous studies have shown that in drylands such as those we studied, air drying, and further storage of soils does not appreciably alter functions such as those studied here (225, 226). It is also important to note that our sampled soils would have remained dry for a large portion of the year (227–230), and that most samples were collected when the soil was in this very dry state. Thus, the potential bias induced by our drying treatment is expected to be minimal.
- 2007
- 2010 For all soil variables used to quantify ecosystem services, we first obtained a plot-level estimate from samples collected under the canopy of vegetation and on bare ground devoid of vascular vegetation (18). These estimates were obtained using a weighted average of the values observed in bare ground and vegetated areas, weighted by their respective cover at each plot (quantified using the line-point intercept survey). All the ecosystem services were standardized between 0 and 1 before statistical analyses to facilitate the comparison between them.
- 2013
- 2016 Soil aggregate stability analyses were carried out at the laboratories of the Institute of Biology at Free University Berlin (Germany). Microbial biomass and C mineralization analyses were conducted in the laboratories of the Institute of Biology at Leipzig University (Germany). C mineralization, soil organic C and total N, P, K, Mg, Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn analyses were conducted at the laboratories of the Institute of Agricultural Sciences-CSIC (Madrid). The rest of analyses were carried out at the laboratory of the Biology and Geology Department, Rey Juan Carlos University (Móstoles, Spain).
- 2019
- 2022

### Statistical analyses

- 2025 Our overarching objectives were to evaluate the relationships between grazing pressure and the capacity of drylands to deliver key ecosystem services and to evaluate how grazing pressure interacts with climate, biodiversity, and soil properties, which are known to impact the delivery of ecosystem services across drylands worldwide. To do so, we used linear mixed effect models to evaluate how grazing pressure relates to ecosystem services, accounting for the effects of key climatic variables, soil properties, and biodiversity. Site was considered as a random factor (random effect: 1|site) allowing model intercept to vary among sites since plots belonging to the same site correspond to a local grazing gradient that has been repeated across the 98 sites
- 2028
- 2031

2034 surveyed. Grazing was treated as a continuous variable in all models ranging 0 to 3 (0 =  
ungrazed, 1 = low grazing pressure, 2 = medium grazing pressure, and 3 = high grazing  
2037 pressure). As grazing gradients were nested within sites, we also considered an alternative  
approach with a random effect nesting grazing within site (random effect: grazing|site) allowing  
both intercepts and slopes to vary across sites. However, this approach may lead to model  
2040 overfitting and singularity in some cases, i.e., a form of multicollinearity that often occurs when  
using mixed models (231, 232). Our results were robust to the approach employed (either 1|site  
or grazing|site) as both provided very similar results (see tables S13-S18). Thus, we only present  
2043 and discuss in the main text results from the simplest approach considering site as a random  
factor (random effect: 1|site). Other predictors were fixed in our models; the rationale for using  
them is described below. We conducted all statistical analyses using the statistical software R  
v.4.0.5 (233).

*Predictors included in ecosystem service models* - We used MAT, MAP, and rainfall seasonality  
(coefficient of variation of 12 monthly rainfall totals; RASE) obtained from WorldClim 2.0 (35)  
2046 to characterize the climate of all plots surveyed. We selected these variables because they: i) are  
important drivers of plant diversity in drylands (234, 235), ii) are key predictors of the global  
variation observed in dryland ecosystem functioning and stability (132, 234, 236), and iii)  
2049 describe largely independent features of climate across the study sites (bivariate correlations had  
 $r < 0.4$  in all cases). We did not consider temperature seasonality (standard deviation of monthly  
temperatures \* 100) because it was highly correlated with MAT in our dataset ( $r = 0.79$ ). We  
2052 considered quadratic terms for MAT and MAP because: i) we sampled global abiotic gradients  
for these variables (e.g., ranging from cold environments with freezing temperatures to hyper-  
arid and hot regions), and ii) ecosystem responses to changes in climate do not necessarily  
2055 change linearly along global drylands (237).

We selected for our analyses soil variables (sand content and pH) measured in samples from  
open areas to ensure that their effects on the ecosystem services measured were as independent  
2058 from those of organisms as possible. Soil sand content plays a key role in controlling water  
availability, the performance and community structure of perennial vascular plants and soil  
microorganisms, and ecosystem functioning in drylands (18, 238–241). Soil pH is also a major  
2061 driver of plant and soil diversity in drylands (19, 235, 242). A quadratic term was considered for  
pH in all models.

While biodiversity is sometimes viewed as a supporting service (243), we consider it in our study  
2064 as a driver of ecosystem functioning and associated services across dryland ecosystems (18, 23,  
93, 132, 234, 236, 244, 245). We thus included in our framework the richness of perennial plants  
occurring in each of the 326 studied plots. We also considered the diversity of soil organisms  
2067 (bacteria, fungi, protists, and invertebrates) known to influence ecosystem functions linked to  
key ecosystem services, such as OM decomposition and soil carbon storage (19, 105, 246). We  
then considered in our analyses the richness of mammalian herbivores in each plot, which has  
2070 been shown to largely impact vegetation and ecosystem functioning in drylands (25, 247, 248).

Finally, we included in our models a series of covariates that may influence the relationship  
between grazing and ecosystem services. We considered the latitude and longitude of our study  
2073 sites, as well as their elevation and topography (slope angle) in our analyses to control for these  
potential confounding effects. We used the sine and cosine of the longitude to avoid any bias due

2076 to intrinsic circularity of longitude in the statistical models (i.e., Longitude (sin) and Longitude  
(cos) hereafter, respectively) (235). All the predictors considered were weakly correlated (table  
S3).

*Model selection procedure* - We considered a full model for each ecosystem service  $i$  as:

2079  $\text{lmer}(\text{ecosystem service}_i \sim (1|\text{site}) + \text{latitude} + \text{longitude}(\sin) + \text{longitude}(\cos) + \text{slope} +$   
 $\text{elevation} + \text{MAP}*\text{grazing} + \text{MAT}*\text{grazing} + \text{RASE}*\text{grazing} + \text{MAP}^2 + \text{MAT}^2 + \text{sand}*\text{grazing} +$   
 $\text{pH}*\text{grazing} + \text{pH}^2 + \text{Biodiversity}*\text{grazing})$ .

2082 Using this full model considering all predictors, we ran a model averaging procedure to select the  
set of predictors that best explained variations in ecosystem services. To do this, we applied a  
2085 multimodel inference procedure using the "MuMIn" R package (249). This method allowed us to  
create a set of models with all possible combinations of the initial variables, which were fitted  
using a Maximum Likelihood procedure (250) and sorted according to the Akaike Information  
2088 Criterion (AIC). The AIC of each model was then transformed to  $\Delta\text{AIC}$ , which is the difference  
between AIC of each model and the minimum AIC obtained. We retained all models with an  
AIC difference ( $\Delta\text{AIC}$ )  $< 2$ , which we defined as best-fitting models.

2091 During the model selection procedure, we maintained site as a random factor in all models and  
kept model covariates (latitude, longitude [sine and cosine], slope, and elevation) to account for  
their potential confounding effects on ecosystem services. We also forced the model selection  
2094 procedure to retain the main effect when an interaction was selected in the final best-fitting  
model (i.e., the model with the lowest AIC value). We did so for two reasons: i) we used  
continuous variables to model interactions, and ii) two independent variables  $x$  and  $y$  (e.g.,  
2097 grazing and other predictor) will be correlated with the interaction term  $xy$ . By including  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  
 $xy$ , we evaluated how much the interaction involving grazing can explain beyond what grazing  
does as a main effect. Similarly, when a quadratic term was selected for a given predictor, we  
retained the linear term in the best-fitting model.

2100 For each service, we finally averaged predictor estimates selected across best-fitting models  
(those models selected within a  $\Delta\text{AIC} < 2$ ) using the conditional averaging approach in the  
function `model.avg` from the "MuMIn" R package. We fitted all models with the R package  
2103 "lme4" using the `LMER` function (251). The full results of the model averaging procedure,  
including model estimates, standard errors,  $P$  values, variable importance values, and variance  
inflation factors, are available in tables S13-S15.

2106 All predictors were standardized before analyses using the Z score to interpret parameter  
estimates on a comparable scale. Response variables were log-transformed when necessary to  
2109 normalize data distribution prior to analyses to meet the assumptions of the tests used, i.e.,  
normal distribution of residuals. For each model, we inspected the distribution of residuals and  
checked for the presence of potential outliers using the Cook's distance in the function `romr.fnc`  
from the package "LMERConvenienceFunctions" (252). If outliers were detected, they were  
2112 removed as they may bias model estimates. Models were then rerun using the same model  
averaging procedure. Across the nine services considered, we detected the presence of nine, eight  
and four outliers for water regulation, soil fertility, and aboveground plant biomass and its  
2115 temporal stability, respectively, representing 0.007% of the whole data set. We also tested for

2118 model multicollinearity using Variance Inflation Factors, checked the distribution of residuals,  
and tested for the presence of spatial autocorrelation in the residuals using Moran tests (253,  
254). Multicollinearity and spatial autocorrelation were absent in model residuals for all response  
variables considered (tables S13-S15).

2121 For each service, we calculated the relative importance of each predictor in the model selection  
procedure using the sum of weights calculated for each predictor. This sum was calculated using  
the sw function from the "MuMIn" R package (249). This function uses Akaike's weights to  
2124 define the relative importance of each predictor across the final set of best-fitting models (i.e.,  
those with a  $\Delta AIC < 2$  from the best-fitting model) by summing the Akaike weights values of all  
models that include the predictor of interest, considering the number of models in which each  
2127 predictor appears. Predictor importance is proportional to the number of times a given predictor  
(and its interactions with other predictors) was selected in the final set of best-fitting models, and  
ranges from 0 (when a given predictor is not selected in any of the best-fitting models) to 100  
(when a given predictor was selected in all of the best-fitting models). The relative importance of  
2130 predictors was also averaged across the nine ecosystem services measured to compare their  
overall importance on ecosystem service delivery (Fig. 2).

2133 Finally, and to ensure the robustness of our results, we repeated all analyses described above but  
considering dung mass and livestock track area instead of our continuous variable of grazing  
pressure (from ungrazed [0] to high grazing pressure [3]). Data of dung mass and livestock track  
areas were scaled within each site prior to analyses to reflect local grazing gradients. Dung mass  
2136 provided very similar results to those obtained using our continuous variable for all services  
except for wood quantity and APB and its temporal stability (tables S19-S21). Interestingly, the  
analyses conducted with track area well explained those two services and in a similar way to our  
2139 continuous gradient (tables S22-S24). Therefore, our results are not only robust to the approach  
employed to characterize the grazing gradient, but also show that our local grazing gradient  
encompasses complex effects of grazing on ecosystem services such as short- and long-term  
2142 effects. Because of this, we only present and discuss in the main text results from the approach  
considering grazing as a continuous variable ranging from 0 (ungrazed) to 3 (high grazing  
pressure).

2145 *Use of biodiversity data in our statistical models* - We considered the richness of perennial  
plants, mammalian herbivores (herbivore richness) and belowground organisms as biodiversity  
predictors in our models. While data for plant species richness were available for the 326 plots  
2148 surveyed, herbivore richness and belowground diversity data were available for 300 and 242  
plots, respectively. Because models with a different number of observations cannot be compared  
using AIC, we conducted a model preselection procedure to select the best set of biodiversity  
2151 predictors to be included in the model selection procedure described above. To do so, we  
considered a subset data of 242 plots where both belowground diversity and plant species  
richness were available. We compared a full model including both belowground diversity and  
2154 plant species richness together to a model including plant richness only. If models including  
belowground diversity showed lower AIC values, we considered the subset of 242 plots to  
perform the model selection procedure. If the best models only included plant species richness,  
2157 we considered the full data set of 326 plots to perform the model averaging procedure. We  
performed the same preselection for the data subset that includes the 300 plots with both plant  
and herbivore richness information. If mammalian herbivore richness improved model quality

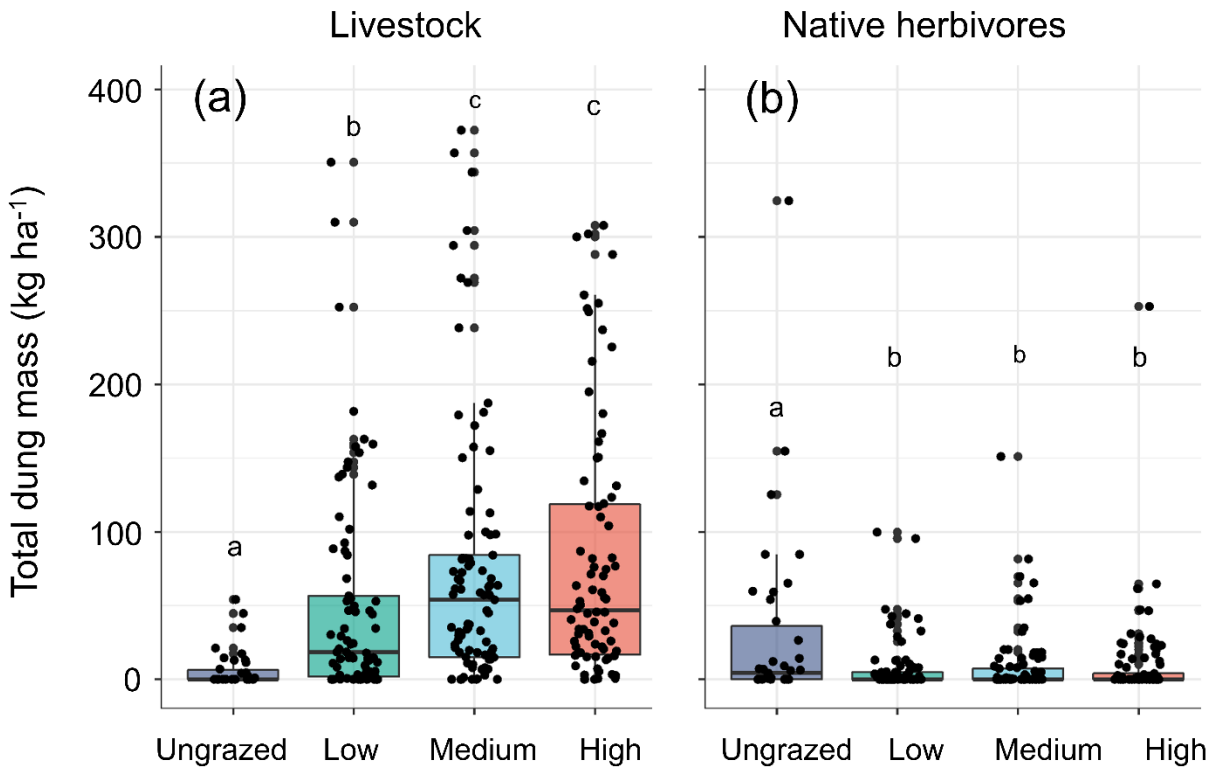


2160 compared to models with plant species richness only, we considered the subset data with  
herbivore richness for the model selection procedure. If herbivore richness did not improve  
2163 model AIC, we considered the full data set with plant species richness only. Results of the model  
pre-selection procedure are available in table S25 for analyses using 1|site as random effect, in  
table S26 for analyses using grazing|site as random effect, and in tables S27 and S28 for analyses  
using dung mass and livestock tracks as surrogates of grazing pressure, respectively.

2166 *Plotting the interactive effect of grazing with climate, soils, and biodiversity*- We graphically  
represented the results from best fitting models (tables S13-S15) in two different ways. First, we  
used model partial residuals to show how each predictor influenced ecosystem services  
2169 according to all grazing pressure levels evaluated (Fig. 3, figs. S13-S15). Second, we calculated  
the predicted values for each service in each site at low and high grazing pressure levels using  
model estimates of best-fitting models. Predictions were made using observed variability  
2172 between sites in plant species richness, mean annual temperature (MAT), and rainfall seasonality  
(RASE); all other parameters were fixed at their mean value. Then we calculated the predicted  
effect of grazing at each site as the difference between high and low grazing pressures using a  
2175 log response ratio [lnRR; Predicted lnRR = ln (predicted service at high grazing  
pressure/predicted service at low grazing pressure)]. Finally, we plotted the relationships  
between the effect of grazing pressure (Predicted lnRR) and ecosystem services across sites and  
2178 along the global gradient of abiotic conditions and plant species richness surveyed (Fig. 4).

*Indirect effect of grazing on ecosystem services* - We also tested whether grazing could impact  
ecosystem services through indirect pathways. We did so because grazing may not only impact  
2181 ecosystem services through direct and interactive effects but also through indirect pathways, e.g.  
if grazing affected local species richness or soil conditions in our models. To explore these  
potential indirect effects of grazing, we conducted a confirmatory path analysis, a form of  
2184 structural equation modeling (255), using a d-sep approach (256, 257). This approach is based on  
an acyclic graph that depicts the hypothetical relationships among predictors (links represented  
by arrows) and independence claims among variables (missing links), where the latter are tested  
2187 using the C statistic. Based on the correlation matrix of our predictors (table S3), we tested the a  
priori model that grazing pressure does not have indirect effects on ecosystem services through  
changes in soil properties and biodiversity (fig. S10). Please note that we did not test indirect  
2190 effects of grazing mediated by plant cover because this variable was used in the calculation of  
erosion control (see the “Assessment of ecosystem services” section), and thus we could not  
include it as a predictor of ecosystem services in the d-sep analyses. These analyses had the  
2193 following steps (257): i) we express the hypothesized relationships between the variables in the  
form of a directed acyclic graph (fig. S10). In our case, we hypothesized that there was no  
linkage between grazing and plant species/herbivore richness and between grazing and soils; ii)  
2196 we list each of the k pairs of variables in the graph that do not have an arrow between them. This  
list defines the missing links in our path analyses; iii) we test each missing link by comparing the  
models with and without the missing links; each link was tested using linear mixed models  
2199 similar to those explained in the “Model selection procedure” section above. When a P value is  
not significant it means that there is an independence between a given pair of variables (i.e., they  
are not related); and iv) we finally combined the k probabilities using the C statistic (257) and  
2202 compared the resulting C value to a chi-squared distribution with 2k degrees of freedom. The  
path model is valid when the result of this test is not significant ( $P > 0.05$ ).

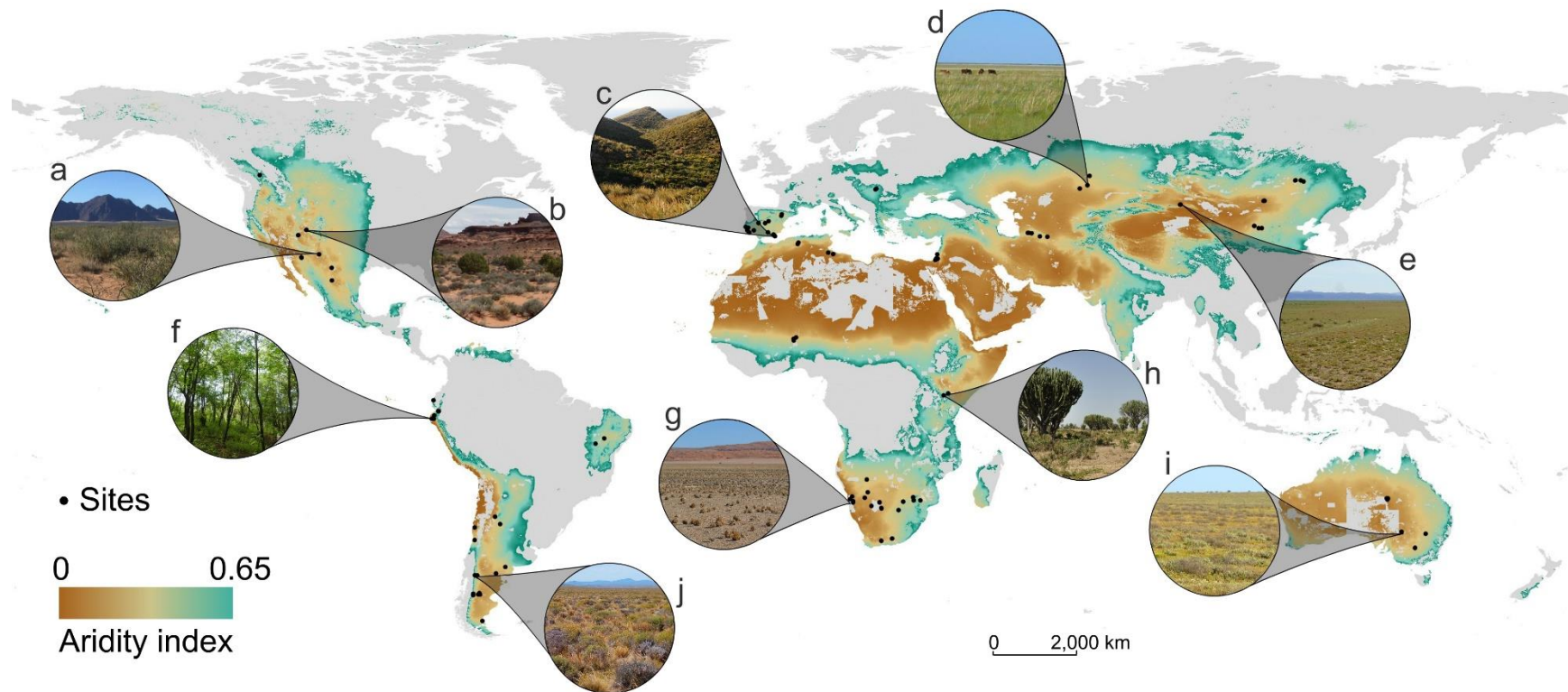
2205 Model formulas employed to test each missing link, C statistics and significance test for each  
path analysis are available in tables S4-S12. Standardized path coefficients were calculated  
following ref. 258 to measure the direct, and indirect effect of predictors for each service. For all  
2208 services evaluated, we did not detect any indirect effect of grazing through changes in soil  
properties or richness conditions (fig. S11 and tables S4-S12). These results indicate that grazing  
pressure impacted the different ecosystem services measured only through direct and interactive  
effects.  
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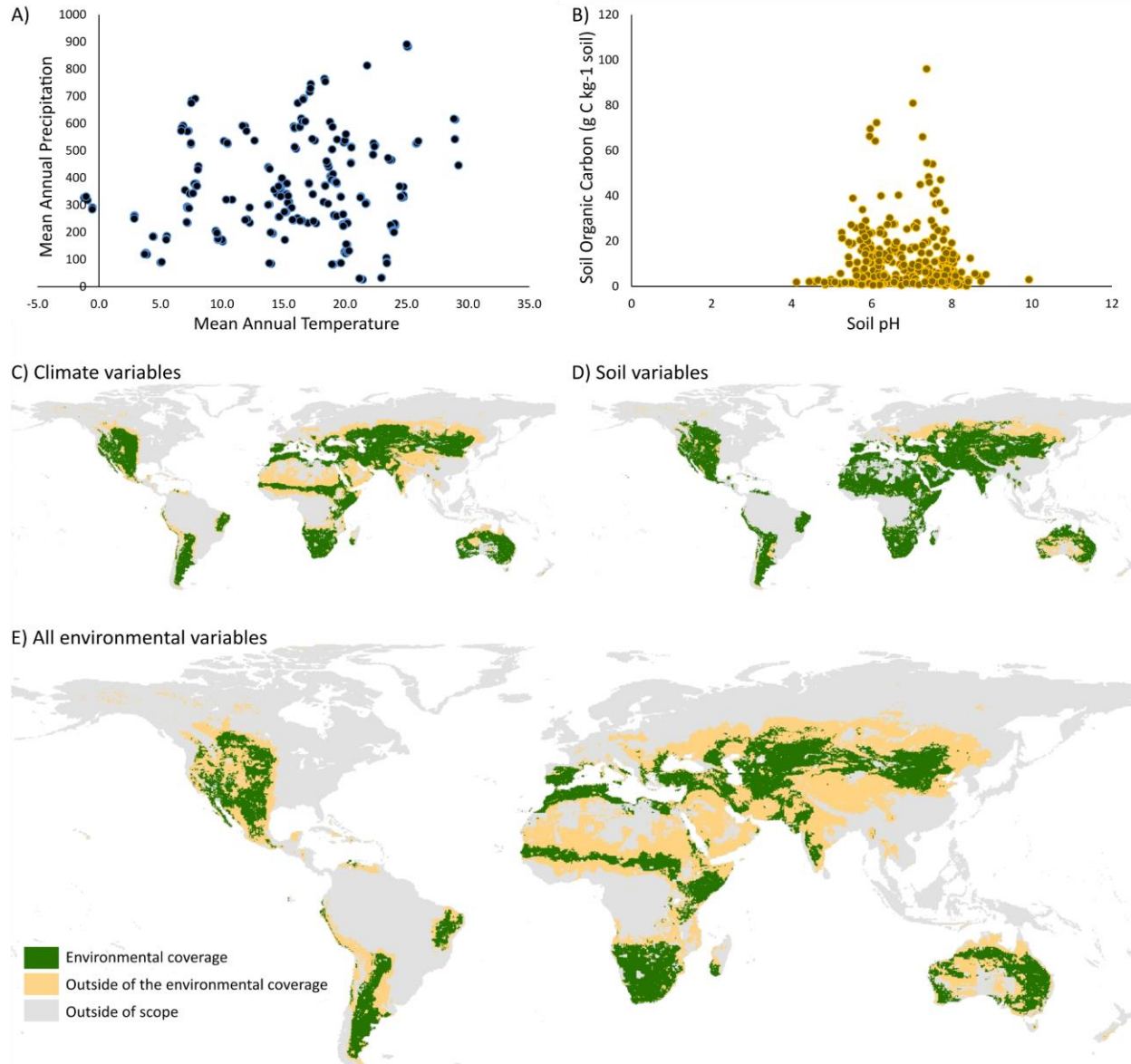
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**Fig. S1.** Box plots of the mass of dungs of livestock (a) and wild (b) herbivores for the four levels of grazing pressure evaluated. Boxes show the median, 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles. Distinct lowercase letters indicate significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between grazing pressure levels (Tukey's HSD test). The total number of plots used for these analyses was 300.



2220

2223 **Fig. S2. Examples of the vegetation present at plots surveyed in the USA (a, b), Spain (c), Kazakhstan (d), Mongolia (e),**  
 2224 **Ecuador (f), Namibia (g), Kenya (h), Australia (i) and Argentina (j).** The background map represents the extent of dryland  
 2225 rangelands. The aridity index (AI) is calculated as precipitation/potential evapotranspiration. See Materials and Methods for the AI  
 2226 and rangeland area data sources used.



2229

**Fig. S3. Range of environmental conditions covered by the surveyed drylands.** Bivariate relationships between key environmental variables (mean annual temperature and mean annual precipitation and soil pH and organic carbon) are shown in panels A and B. Panels C-E show the spatial distribution of the Mahalanobis distance regarding the environmental characteristics covered ( $<0.975$  Chi-squared threshold for outliers) by the surveyed drylands. To obtain these panels, we determined how much the parameter space of the predictors (e.g., mean annual temperature, soil organic carbon, elevation) differed from that of global drylands (259). We used the Mahalanobis distance of any multidimensional point to the center of the known distribution (calculated based on the 98 locations from the original dryland dataset) (260–262) For panel C we considered the spatial coverage of climatic conditions (number of dimensions = 7; mean annual temperature, mean annual precipitation, temperature seasonality, precipitation seasonality, temperature mean diurnal range, aridity index and evapotranspiration) using data from refs. 35 and 36. For panel D, we considered the spatial coverage of soil conditions (number

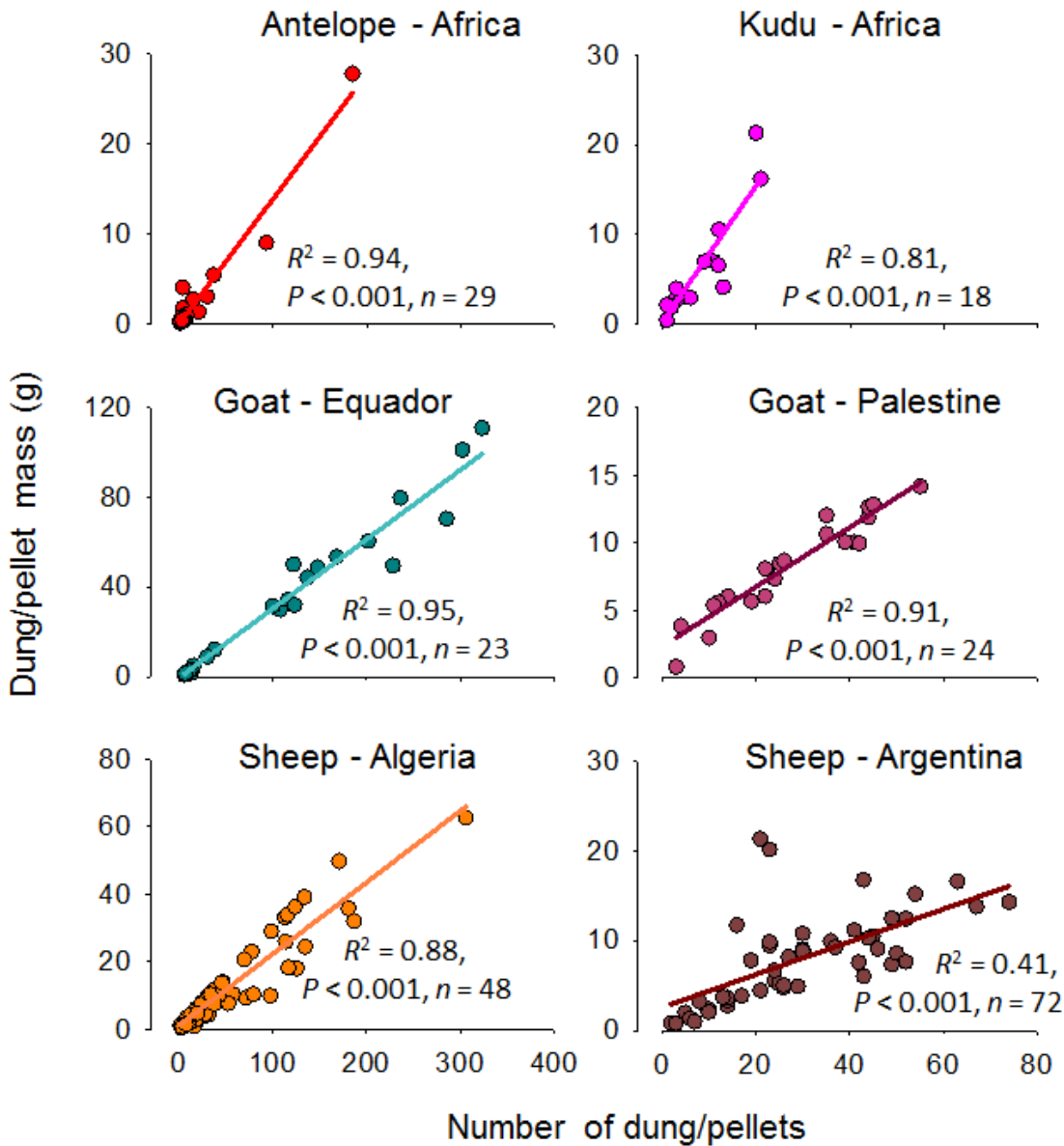
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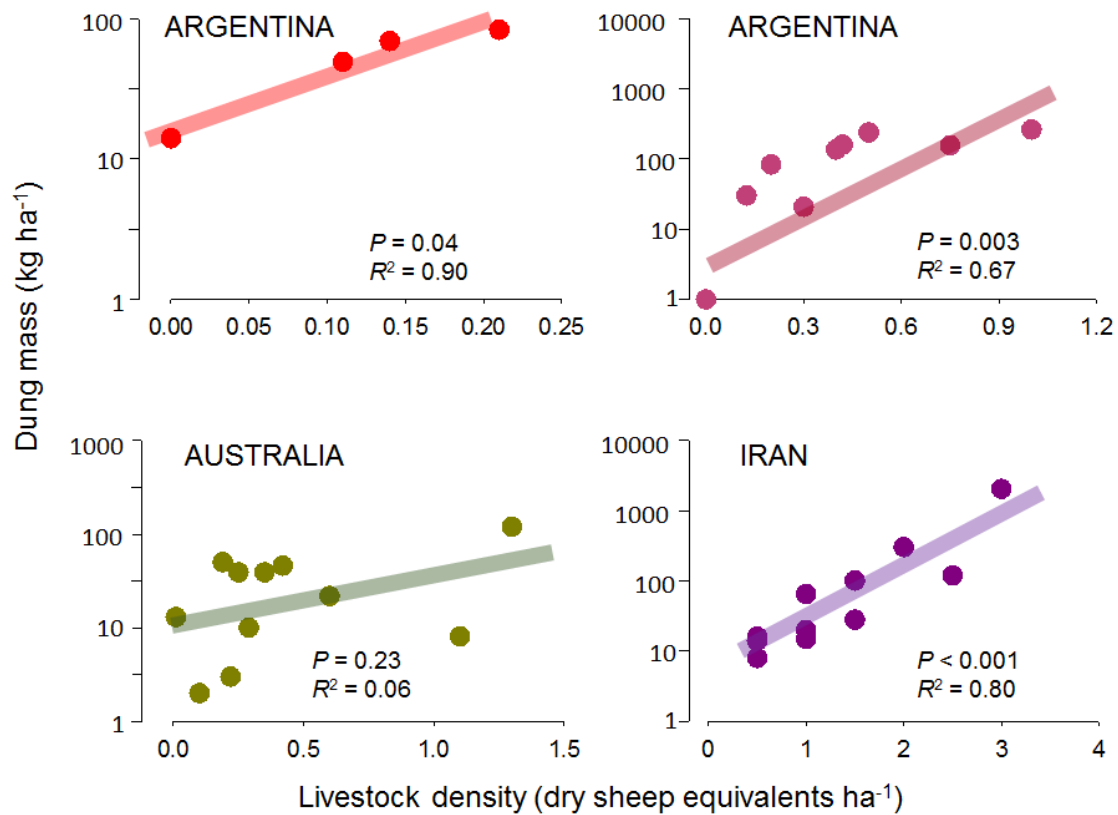
2241

of dimensions = 5; nitrogen, carbon, soil texture [% of clay and silt], soil pH and C/N ratio)  
2244 using data from ref. 263. For panel E, we considered the overall environmental coverage  
(number of dimensions = 14; vegetation [NDVI], elevation, nitrogen, carbon, soil texture [% of  
2247 clay and silt], soil pH, C/N ratio, mean annual temperature, mean annual precipitation,  
temperature seasonality, precipitation seasonality, temperature mean diurnal range, aridity index,  
and evapotranspiration).



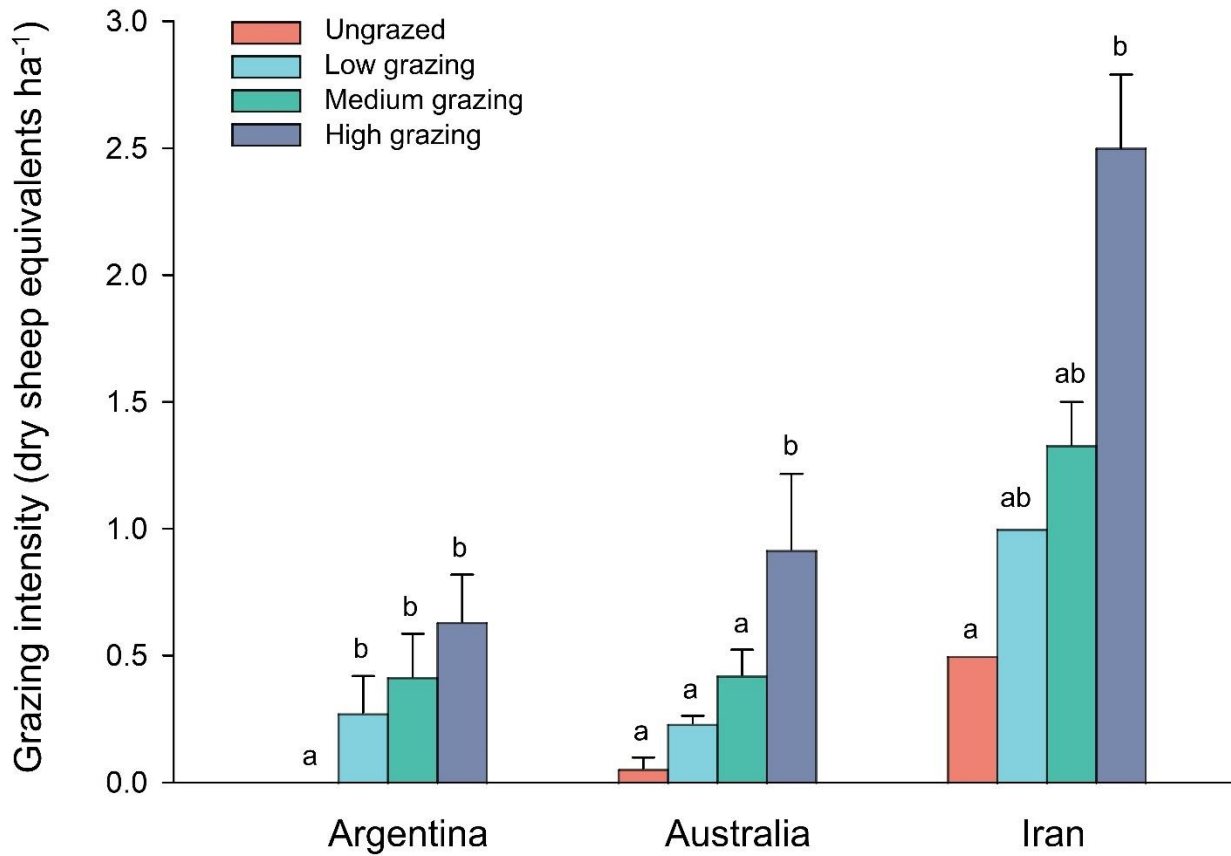
2250 **Fig. S4. Relationship between the number of dung/pellets of grazing animals and their mass**  
 (g) for six surveyed sites from Argentina, Algeria, Ecuador, Palestine, and South Africa.  
 Each data point represents data from a quadrat surveyed in the field. Antelope records are from  
 2253 Namibia ( $n = 6$ ), Botswana ( $n = 7$ ) and South Africa ( $n = 16$ ). Kudu records are from Namibia ( $n$   
 = 13) and South Africa ( $n = 5$ ).

2256



2259 **Fig. S5. Relationships between livestock density and oven-dried mass of dung for four of**  
**the surveyed countries where we had access to long-term livestock density data. Each data**  
 2262 **point represents a plot.**



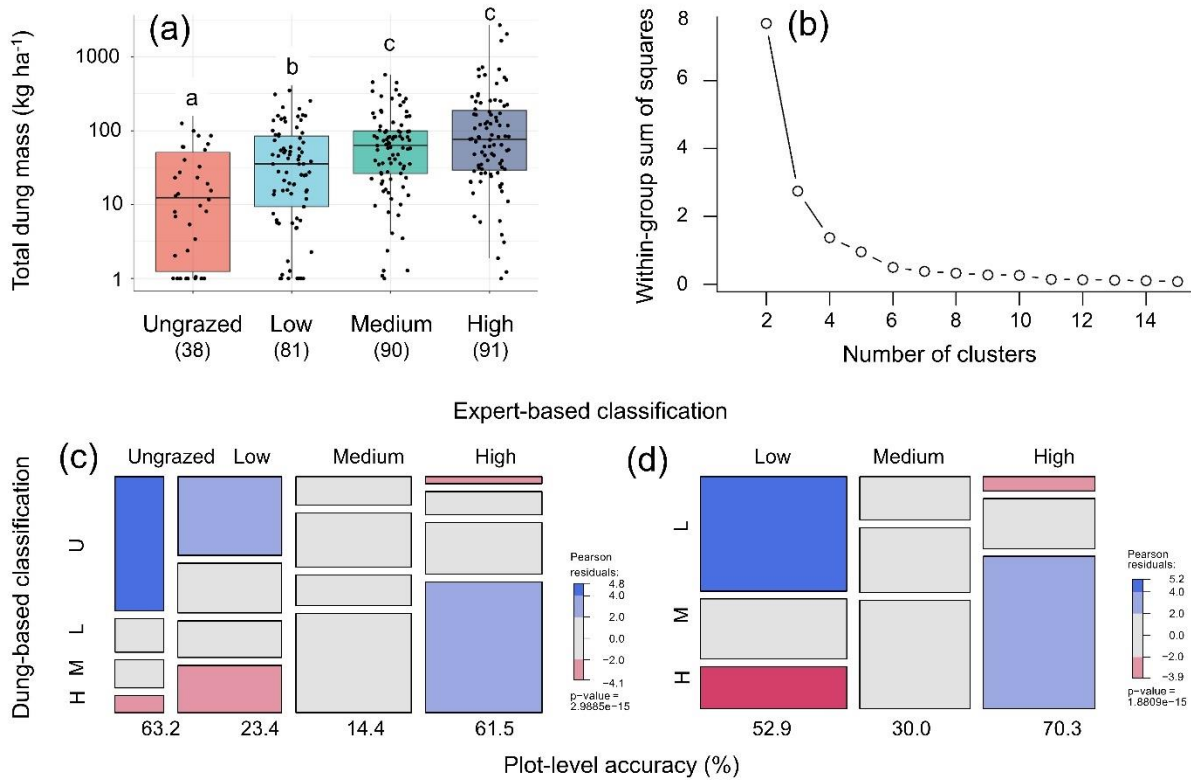


2265

**Fig. S6. Mean ( $\pm$  SE) livestock density, adjusted to a common scale of dry sheep equivalents, observed in ungrazed and low, medium, and high grazing pressure plots in Argentina ( $n = 15$ ), Australia ( $n = 11$ ) and Iran ( $n = 11$ ). Different lowercase letters indicate significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) differences between grazing pressure levels using a linear model (One-way ANOVA).**

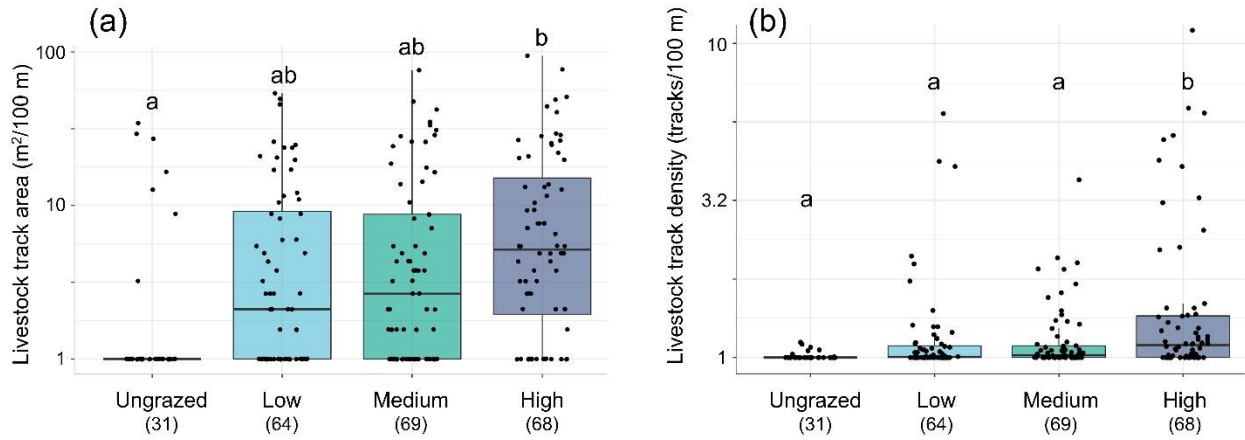
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2277 **Fig. S7. Results of a cluster analysis of dung/pellet data.** (a) Box plots of average dung mass  
 2280 (kg·ha<sup>-1</sup>) for the four levels of grazing pressure evaluated. Boxes show the median, 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup>  
 2283 significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) differences between grazing pressure levels (Tukey's HSD test); (b) Plot of within-group sum of squares in relation to the  
 2286 number of clusters. The optimal number of clusters is that from which additional clusters results  
 2289 in similar variance explained (here four clusters); (c) Mosaic plots illustrating the results of  
 2292 contingency tables between pre-inspection level of grazing pressure (ungrazed to high) in  
 2295 relation to the post-inspection assessment of dung mass on the four clusters identified in (b)  
 above. Panel (c) uses all the classifications, but panel (d) is based on the three-group cluster.  
 Edge length is proportional to the number of cases, and thus the area of each square is  
 proportional to the degree of match between the two methods of classifying grazing pressure.  
 Colour of mosaics represents over (blue) or under (red) representation of each combination of  
 classifications, measured as Pearson's residuals obtained from chi-squared tests. For a perfect  
 match, the diagonal of these mosaics (ungrazed-ungrazed; low-low; medium-medium; high-high)  
 should exhibit significant overrepresentation and the other either non-significance or  
 underrepresentation. The overall match, i.e., the sum of high to high, medium to medium, low to  
 low and ungrazed to ungrazed, is 37.3% in panel c; and 51.3% in panel d. Plot level accuracy is  
 calculated as correct matches (low-low, high-high, medium-medium, ungrazed-ungrazed)  
 divided by the total of plots classified as each grazing level according to expert classification.  
 The total number of plots used for these analyses was 300.



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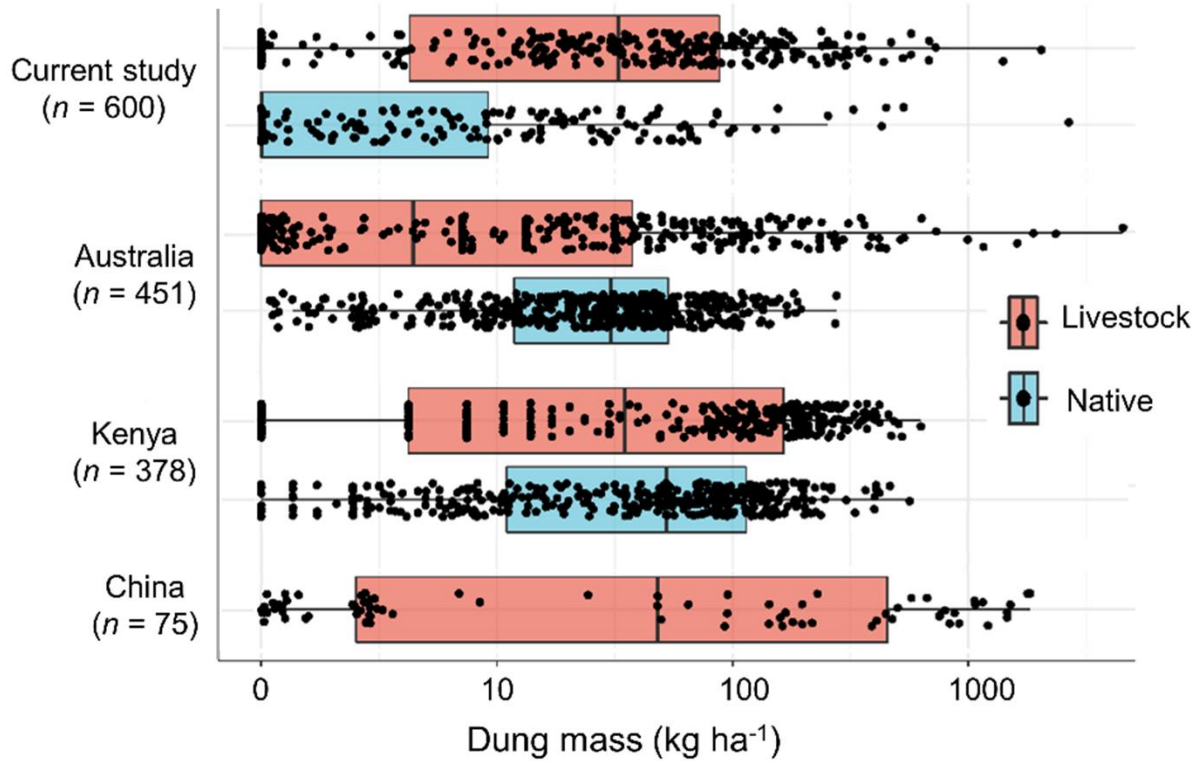
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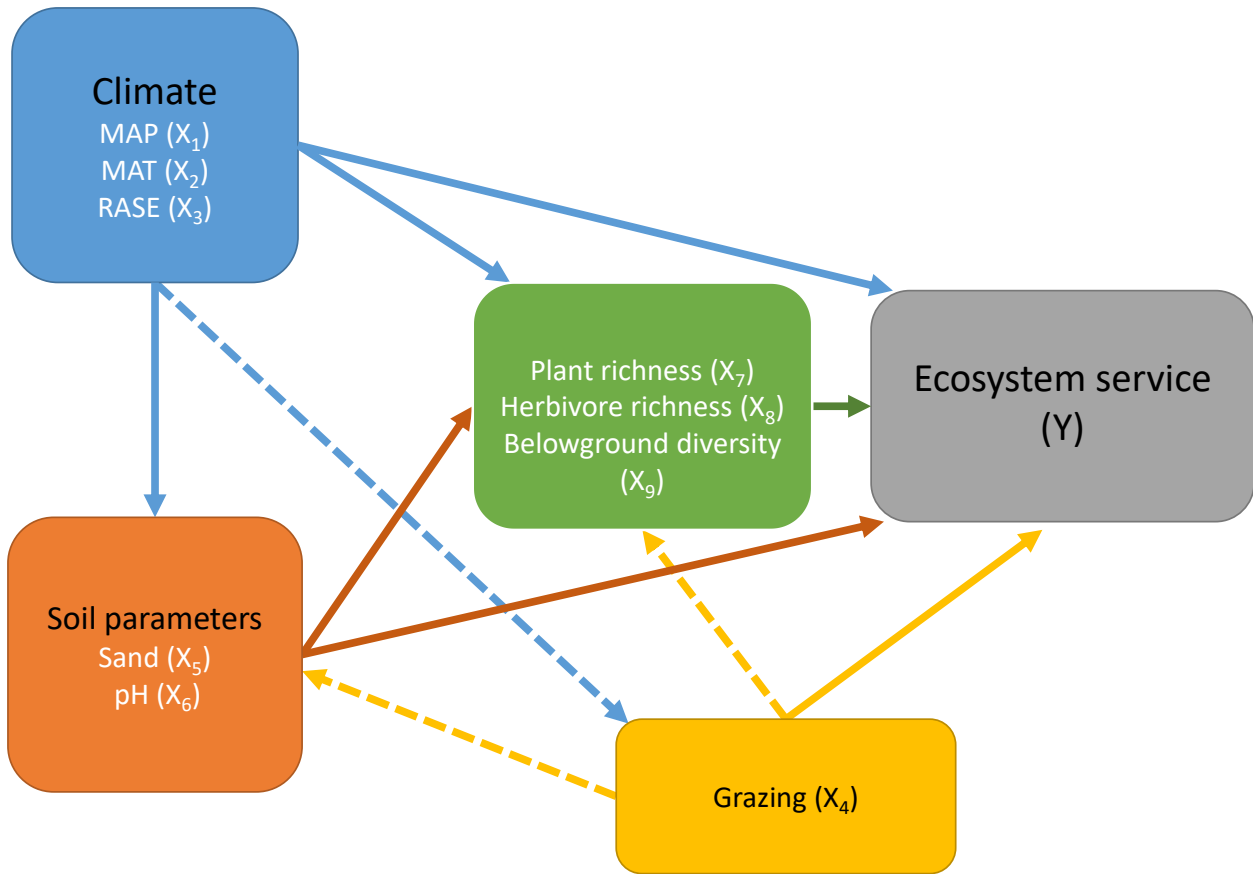
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**Fig. S8. Box plots of the area (a) and density (b) of livestock tracks for the four levels of grazing pressure evaluated.** Boxes show the median, 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles. Distinct lowercase letters indicate significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between grazing pressure levels (Tukey's HSD test). The total number of plots used for these analyses was 232.



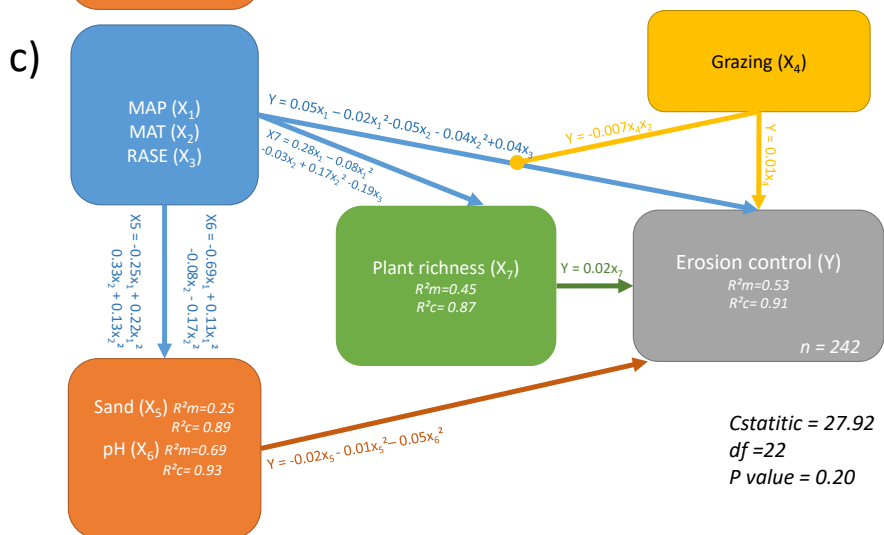
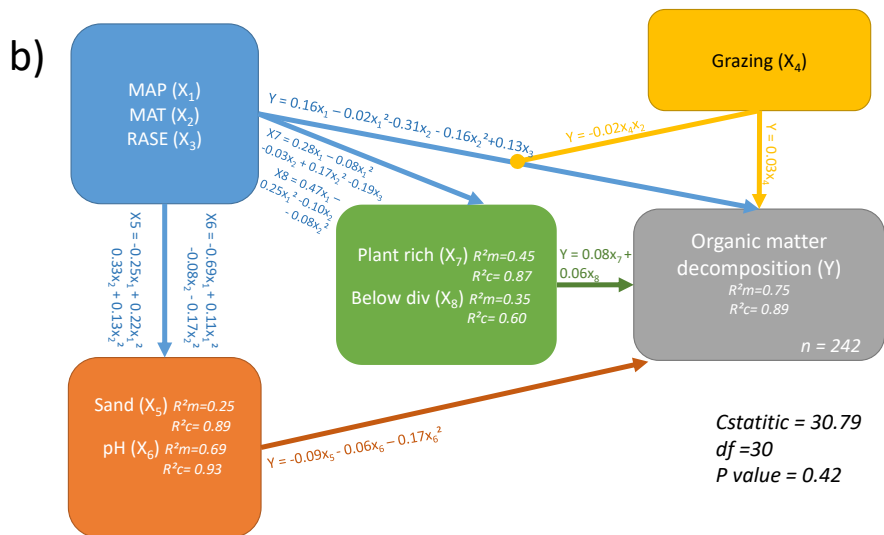
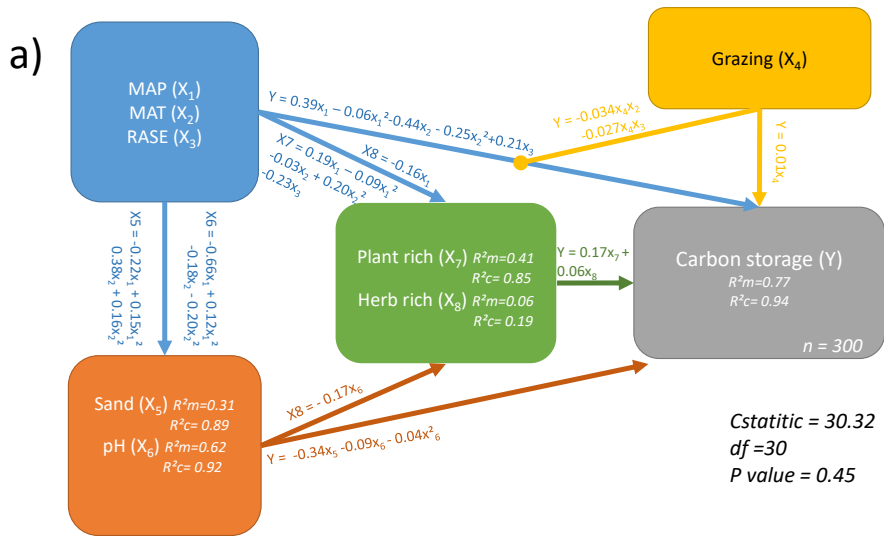
2313 **Fig. S9. Comparison of the amount of dung from livestock and native herbivores found**  
 2316 **across the surveyed plots (Current study) and in other surveys conducted in dryland**  
**rangelands from Australia, Kenya and China encompassing a wide variation in grazing**  
**pressure.** Data from Australia and China come from refs. 264 and 265, respectively; data from  
 Kenya come from refs. 266 and 78.



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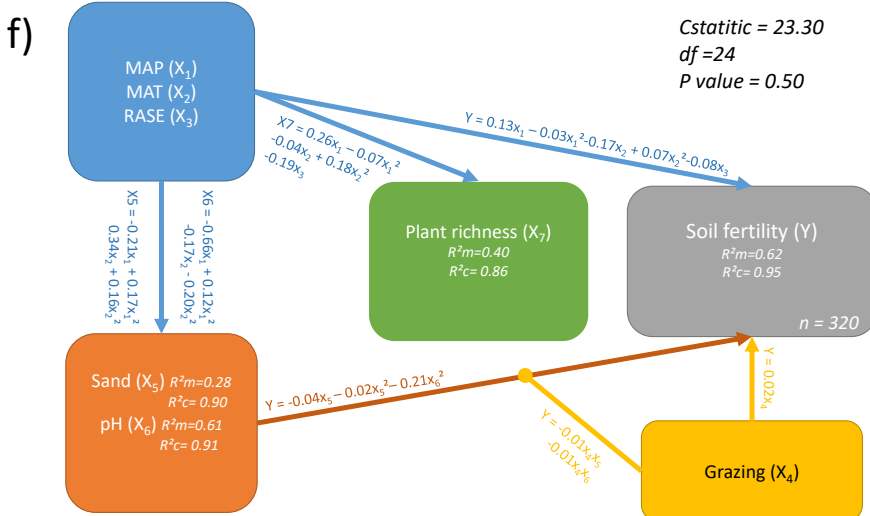
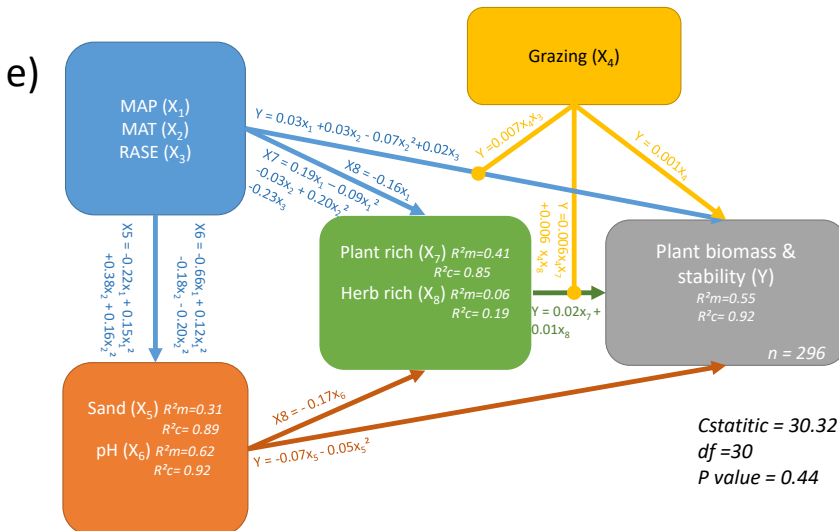
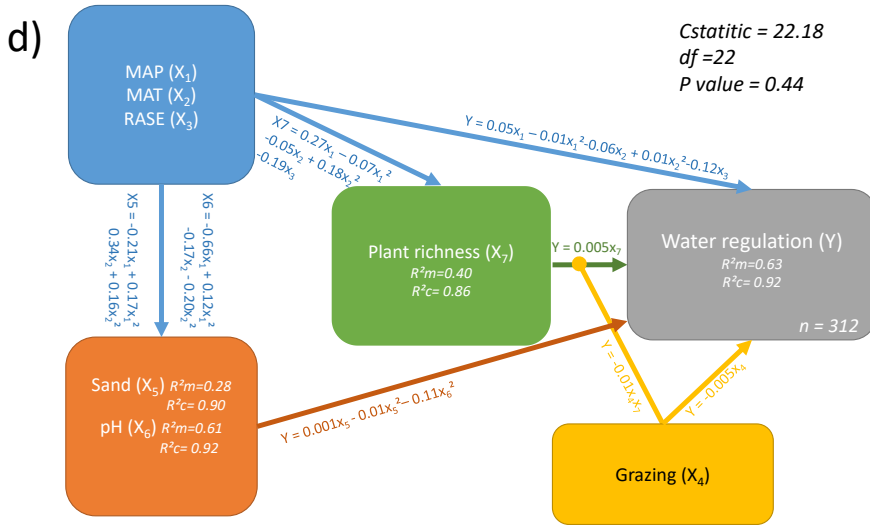
2322 **Fig. S10. A priori model used to evaluate direct and indirect effects of grazing pressure**  
 2325 **through changes in soil properties and biodiversity on the ecosystem services studied.** Our *a*  
 2328 *priori* path model considers that grazing does not have indirect effects through changes in soil  
 properties and biodiversity (null hypothesis). We explicitly tested conditional independence  
 claims (“missing links”) using a confirmatory path analysis (13). These independence claims  
 (dashed lines), include potential indirect effects of grazing on ecosystem services mediated by  
 biodiversity and soil parameters. We considered quadratic effects for mean annual precipitation  
 (MAP), mean annual temperature (MAT) and soil pH. Sand = sand content, and RASE = rainfall  
 seasonality.

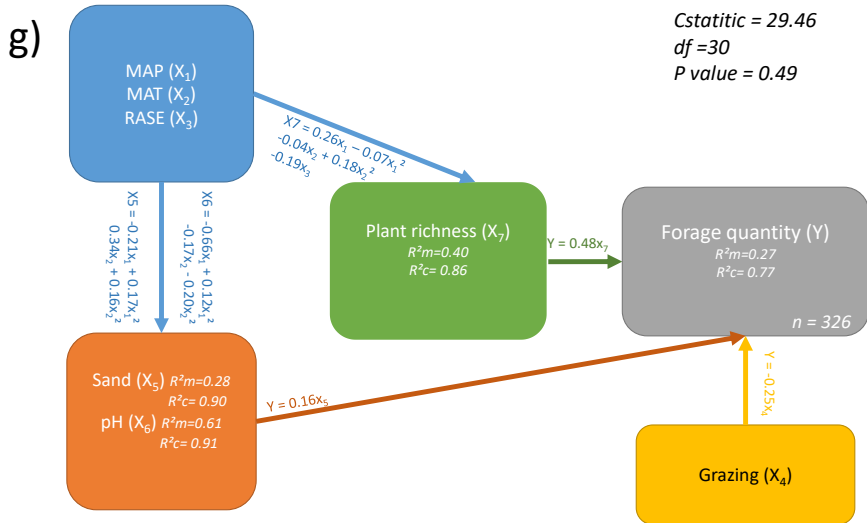
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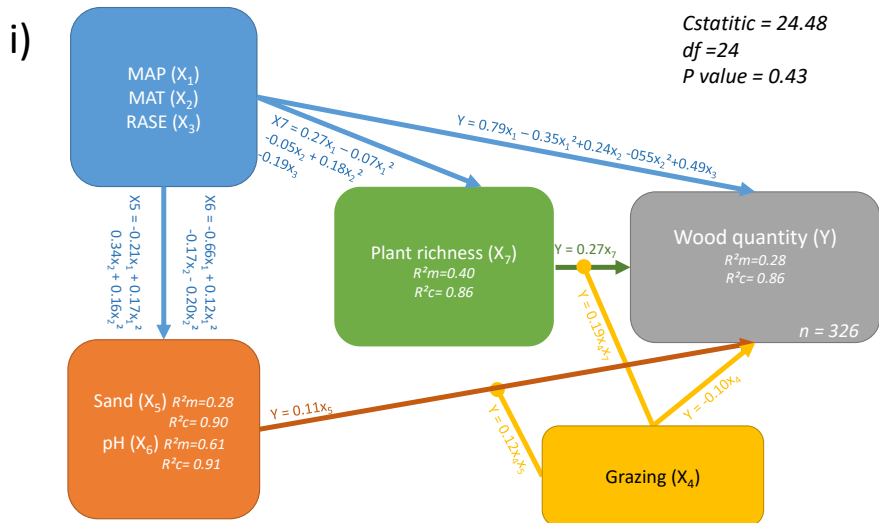
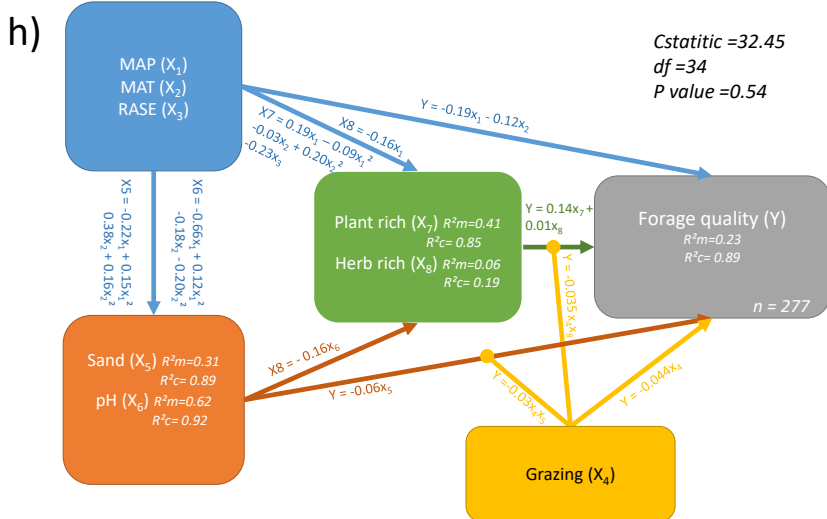
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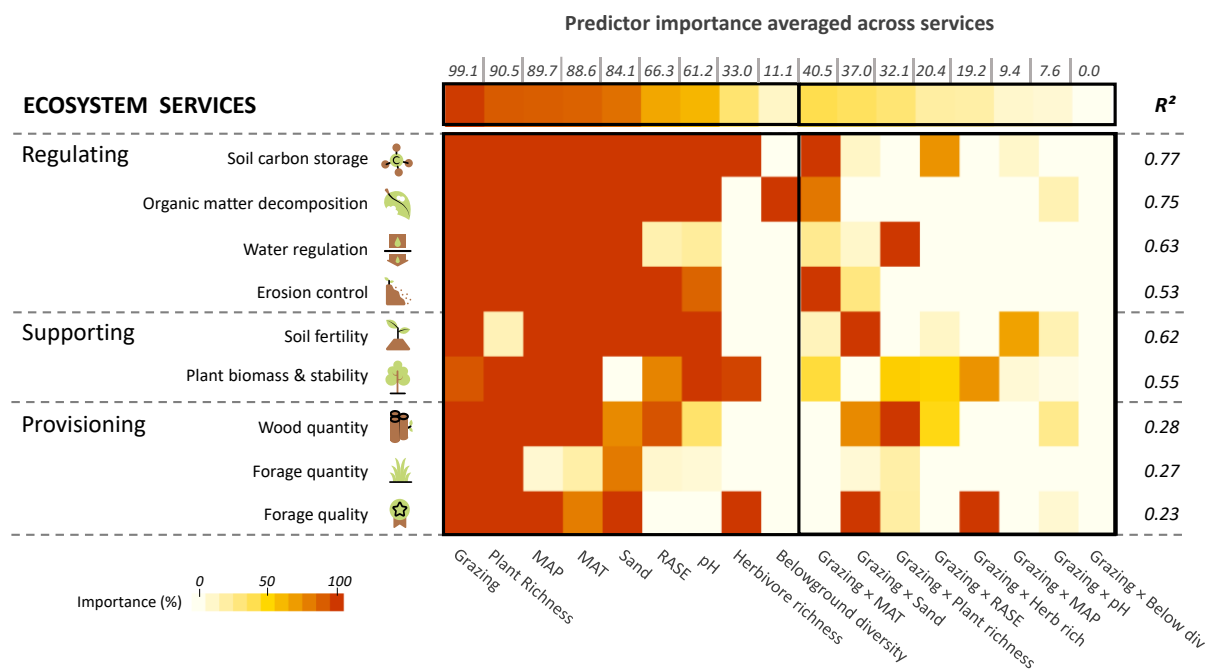


2343



2346 **Fig. S11. Results of the conditional path analyses to test for indirect effects of grazing**  
2349 **pressure.** The panels show selected path models linking climate (blue arrows), soil (orange  
2352 arrows), biodiversity (green arrows), and grazing (yellow arrows) with soil carbon storage (a),  
2355 organic matter decomposition (b), erosion control (c), water regulation (d), soil fertility (e),  
2358 aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability (f), wood quantity (g), forage quantity (h),  
and forage quality (i). For each arrow, we indicated the equations associated with each  
significant path. Since all predictors were Z-scored prior analyses, coefficient paths represent  
effect sizes. We included grazing interactive effects when selected in the final best models (see  
supplementary tables S13-S15) represented by circle-ended arrows. Plant biomass & stability =  
aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability, Sand = sand content, Plant rich = plant  
species richness, Herb rich = mammalian herbivore richness, Below div = belowground  
diversity, MAT = mean annual temperature, RASE = rainfall seasonality, and MAP = mean  
annual precipitation.

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2364

**Fig. S12. Relative importance of predictors (grazing pressure, climate, biodiversity, and soil variables, and their interactions) of ecosystem services selected in best-fitting models.**

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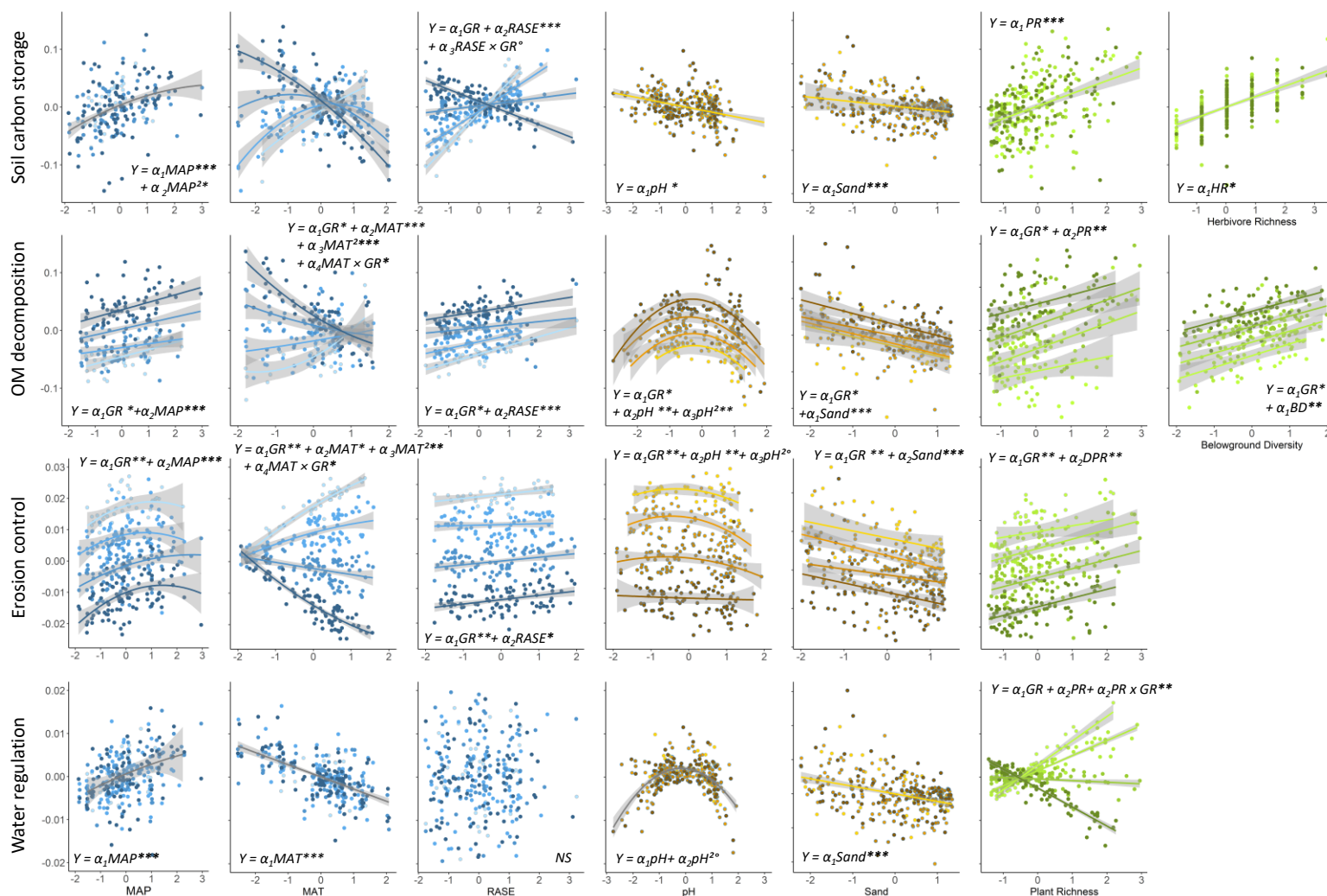
Importance is quantified as the sum of the Akaike weights of all models that included the predictor of interest, considering the number of models in which each predictor appears. It is proportional to the number of times a given predictor (and its interactions with other predictors) was selected in the final set of best-fitting models (13). In the case of biodiversity, predictor importance considers the number of models that includes at least one biodiversity proxy (plant species richness, mammalian herbivore richness or belowground diversity). Full details on model results, including the number of best-fitting models, are available in tables S13-S15. Plant biomass & stability = aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability, Grazing = grazing pressure, Herb rich = mammalian herbivore richness, Below div = belowground diversity MAT = mean annual temperature, RASE = rainfall seasonality, and MAP = mean annual precipitation.

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Partial residuals



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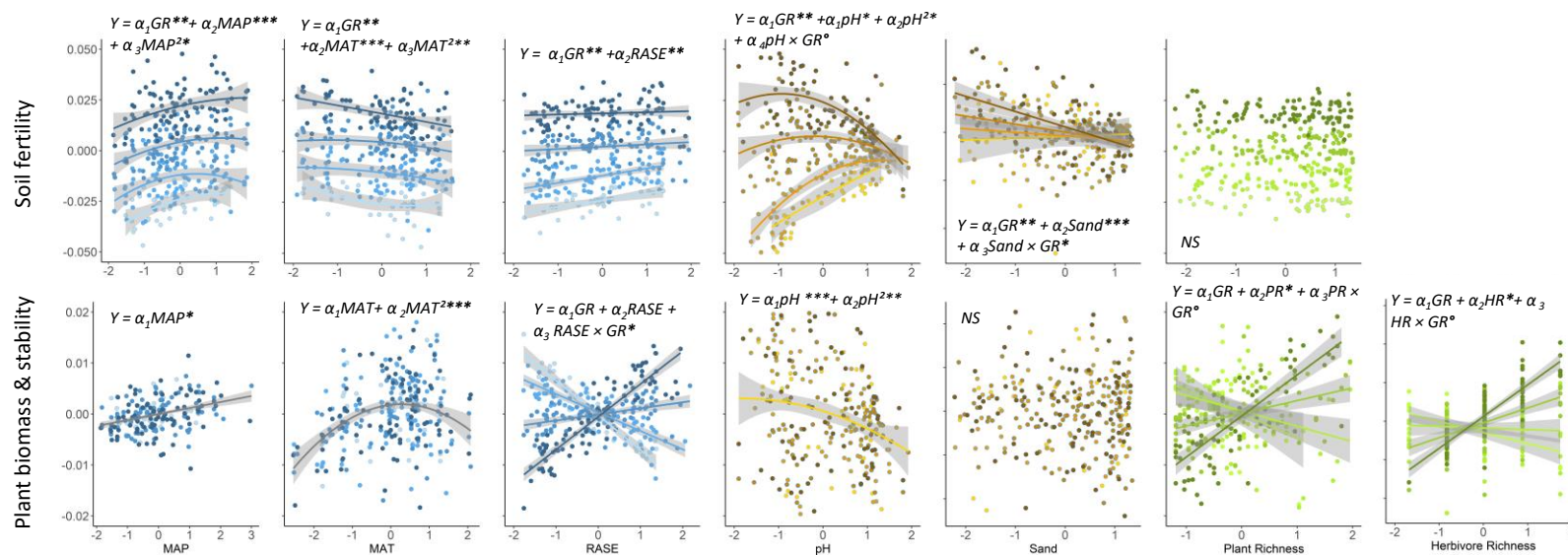
2382

**Fig. S13. Predicted responses of regulating ecosystem services to climate, sand content, and plant species richness at different levels of grazing pressure.** Dots show partial residuals and lines show model fits (using partial regressions) for each significant predictor in the final best models ( $\Delta AIC < 2$ , 13). Climatic, soil, and biodiversity predictors are represented in blue, brown, and green,

2385 respectively. When significant main or interactive effects of grazing were observed in the final set of best models, we plotted  
2388 predictions for the four levels of grazing pressure separately. The darkest dots represent partial residuals at high grazing pressure plots,  
2391 while the brightest dots represent partial residuals at ungrazed plots. Similarly, the darkest lines represent model fits for high grazing  
pressure plots, the brightest lines represent model fits for ungrazed plots. In both cases, the colour increases from lightest to darkest in  
this order: ungrazed, low grazing pressure, medium grazing pressure, and high grazing pressure. Details on model parameters are  
available on tables S13-S15. OM = organic matter, NS = non-significant predictors, GR = grazing pressure, MAP = mean annual  
precipitation, MAT = mean annual temperature, RASE = rainfall seasonality, Sand = sand content, pH = soil pH, PR = plant species  
richness, HR = mammalian herbivore richness, and BD = belowground diversity. Significance of predictors as follows: °  $P < 0.10$ , \*,  
 $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ .

2394

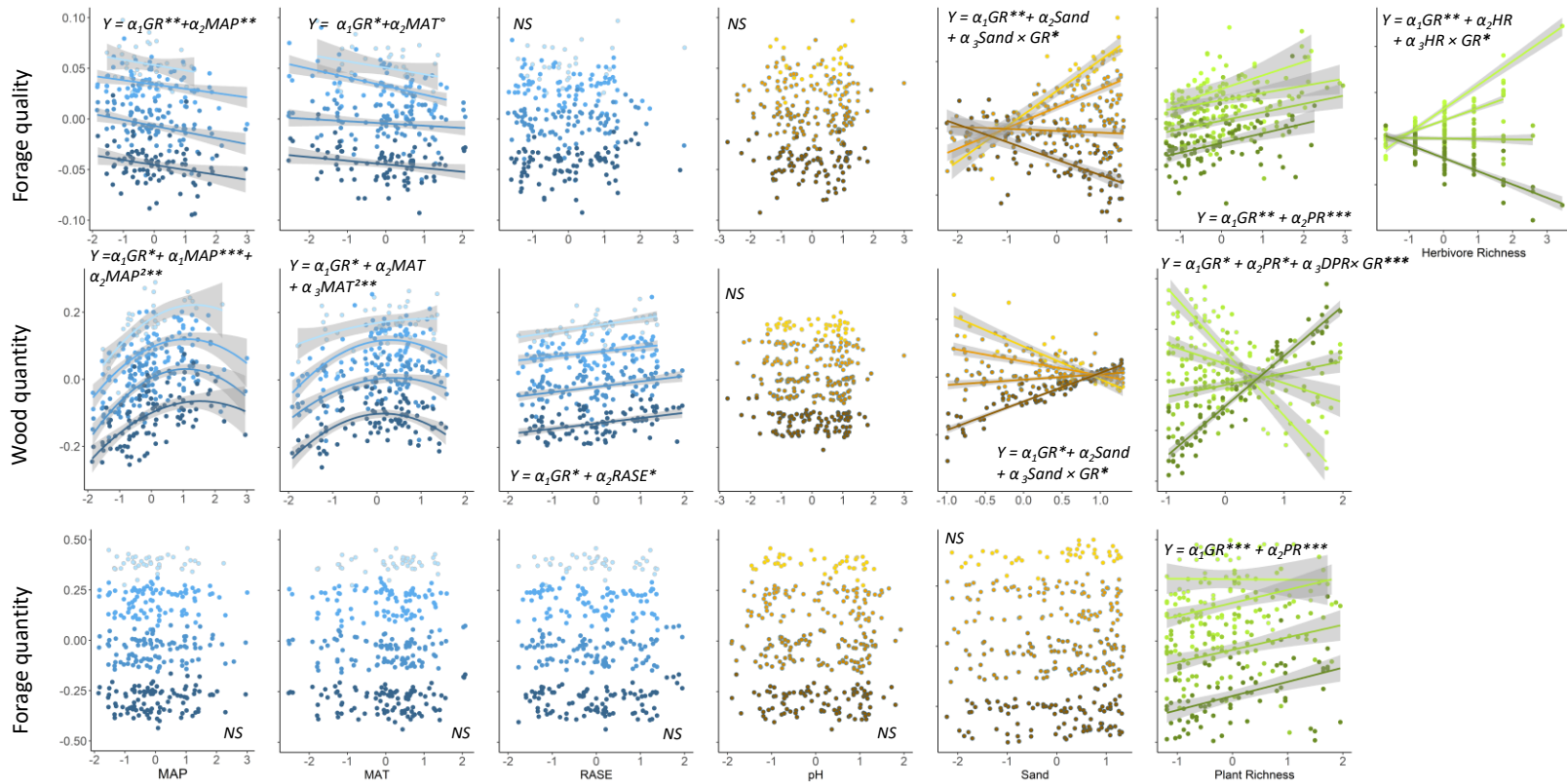
Partial residuals



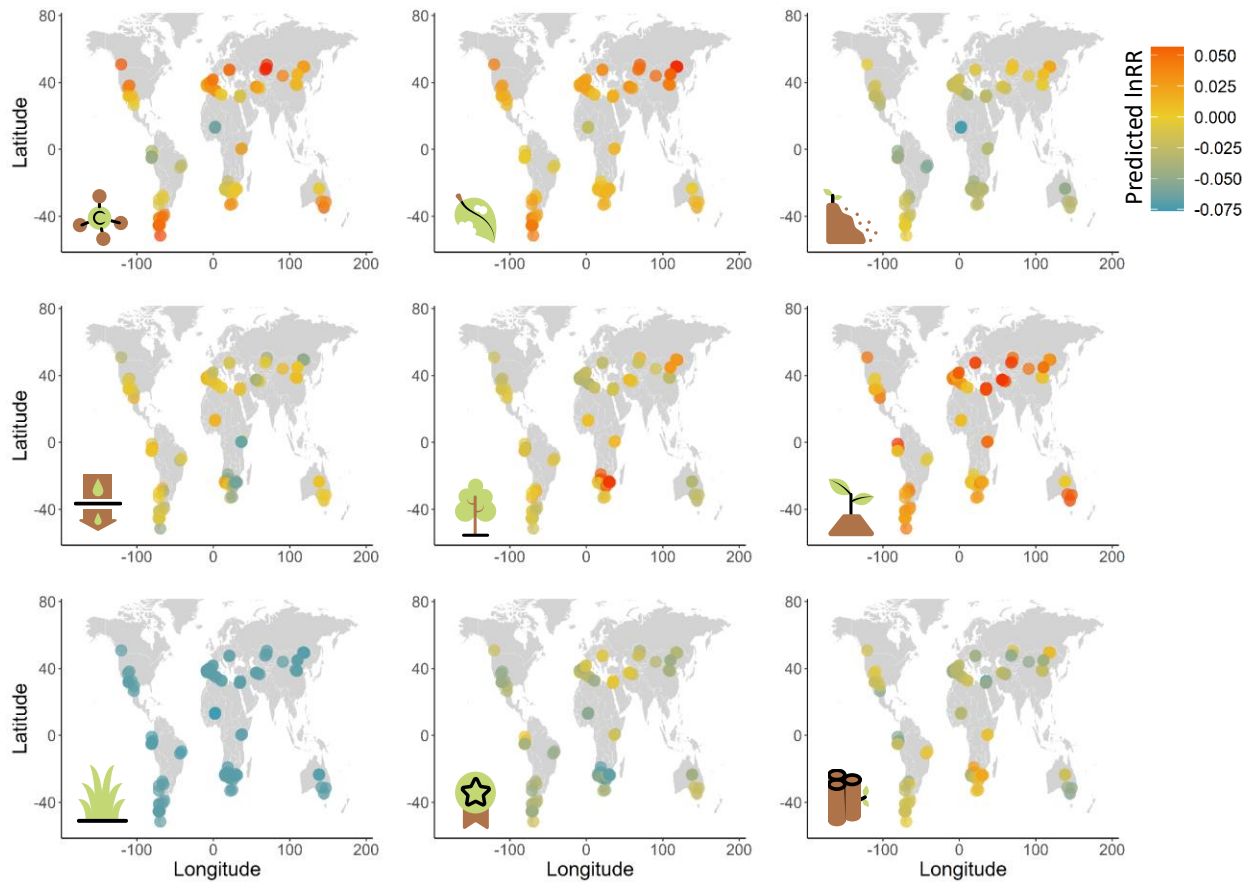
2397 **Fig. S14. Predicted responses of supporting ecosystem services to climate, sand content, and plant species richness at different levels of grazing pressure.** Plant biomass & stability = aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability. Remainder of legend as in fig. S13.

2400

Partial residuals



2403 **Fig. S15. Predicted responses of provisioning ecosystem services to climate, sand content, and plant species richness at different levels of grazing pressure. Remainder of legend as in fig. S13.**



2406

**Fig. S16. Geographical variation in the effect of grazing on each ecosystem service measured across global drylands.**

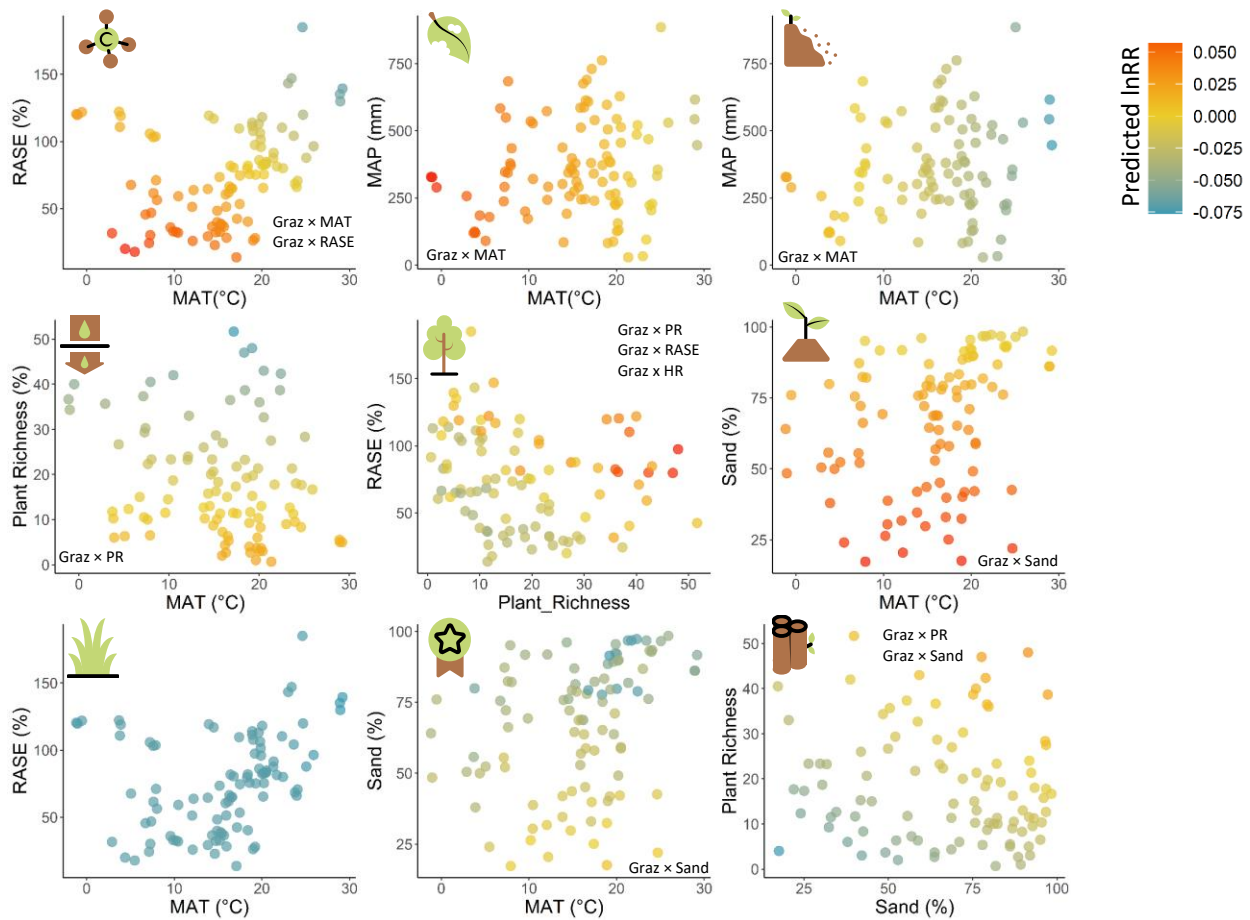
2409

For each of the 98 sites surveyed, we plot the effect of grazing predicted by model parameters along the wide climatic and plant species richness gradients evaluated. This effect was calculated using the predicted response ratio (lnRR) at each site, calculated as the lnRR between model predictions at high vs. low grazing pressure levels (see “Statistical analyses” section) and considering site parameters. These parameters included plant and mammalian herbivore richness, belowground diversity, mean annual temperature and rainfall seasonality; all other parameters were fixed at their mean value (see full model parameters in tables S13-S15). See fig. S12 for the meaning of the symbols depicting each ecosystem service.

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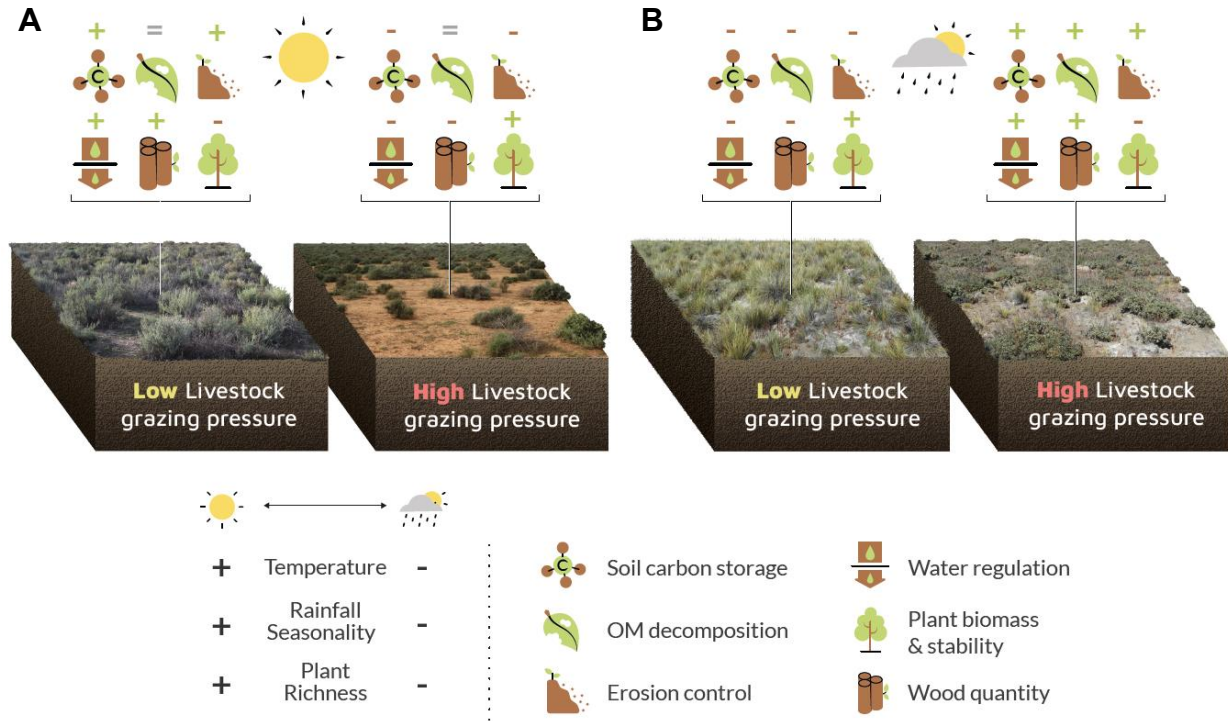


2421 **Fig. S17. Variation in the effect of grazing on each ecosystem service measured across**  
 2424 **global climatic, soil, and plant richness gradients in the drylands surveyed.** For each service,  
 2427 we plot the effect of grazing predicted by model parameters for the 98 sites surveyed along the  
 2430 wide climatic and plant species richness gradients evaluated. This effect was calculated using the  
 2433 predicted response ratio (lnRR) at each site, calculated as the lnRR between model predictions at  
 high vs. low grazing pressure levels (see “Statistical analyses” section) and considering site  
 parameters. These parameters included plant species richness (PR), mammalian herbivore  
 richness (HR), belowground diversity, mean annual temperature (MAT), mean annual rainfall  
 (MAP) and rainfall seasonality (RASE); all other parameters were fixed at their mean value. We  
 plot significant interactions for each service in each panel (see full model parameters in tables  
 S13-S15). See fig. S12 for the meaning of the symbols depicting each ecosystem service. Graz =  
 grazing and Sand = sand content.

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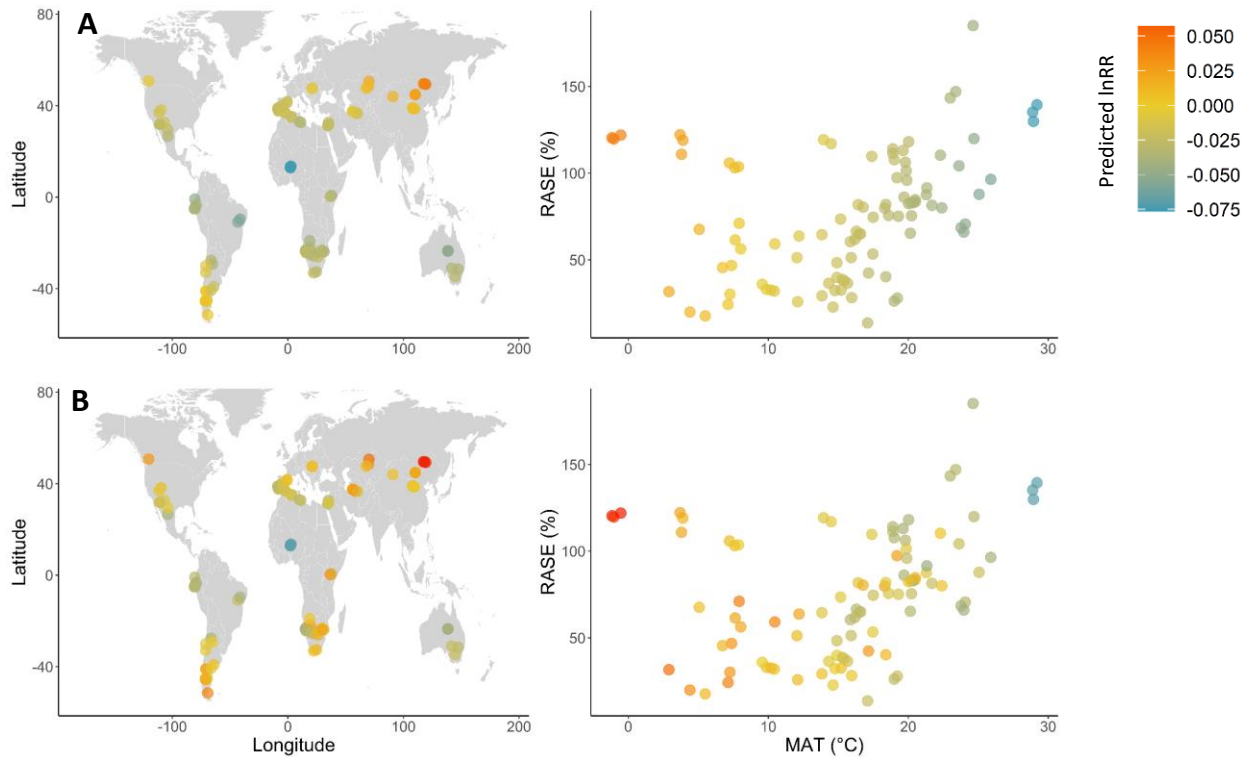
2439





2442 **Fig. S18. The effects of increased grazing pressure on ecosystem services vary across**  
 2443 **contrasting environmental contexts.** While increases in grazing pressure reduce forage  
 2444 quantity and quality and enhance soil fertility regardless of climatic conditions, such increases  
 2445 interact with temperature, rainfall seasonality and/or plant species richness to determine multiple  
 2446 ecosystem services. Panel A shows the situation in dryland areas with high temperature, rainfall  
 2447 seasonality and/or plant species richness. Panel B shows the situation in dryland areas with low  
 2448 temperature, rainfall seasonality and/or plant species richness. OM = organic matter and Plant  
 2449 biomass & stability = aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability. This figure is based  
 2450 on results shown in Fig. 2 and figs. S13-S15 and S17.

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2454

**Fig. S19. Geographical variation in the effect of grazing on ecosystem services when only climate (A) and both climate and plant richness (B) are considered.** This effect was

2457

calculated using the predicted response ratio (lnRR) at each site, calculated as the lnRR between model predictions at high vs. low grazing pressure levels. The climatic parameters selected (mean annual temperature [MAT] and rainfall seasonality [RASE]) interacted with grazing.

2460

Diversity components used include plant species and mammalian herbivore richness. For simplicity, we averaged the grazing effect at the site level across all services. The size of dots is proportional to the species richness observed at each site. Predicted grazing effects using climatic parameters ranged from neutral to mostly positive for most sites (a).

2463

When we accounted for the effects of plant and mammalian herbivore richness in addition to those of climate (b), grazing effects became negative according to model predictions in sites with a low plant species richness (small dots in b) while it remained positive in sites with a high plant and herbivore species richness (large dots in b).

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These results show that biodiversity both limits negative and promotes positive impacts of increasing grazing pressure on ecosystem services across global drylands.

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**Table S1.** Ecosystem variables used to quantify regulating, supporting, and provisioning ecosystem services.

Type	Ecosystem service	Ecosystem variable	Units
Regulating	Water regulation	Soil water holding capacity	%
		Soil porosity	%
	Soil carbon storage	Soil organic C stock	kg C·m <sup>-2</sup> soil
		Organic matter decomposition	Activity of β-glucosidase
	Activity of phosphatase		μmol PnP·g soil <sup>-1</sup> ·h <sup>-1</sup>
	Activity of cellobiase		nmol MUF·g soil <sup>-1</sup> ·h <sup>-1</sup>
	Activity of β-N-acetylglucosaminidase		nmol MUF·g soil <sup>-1</sup> ·h <sup>-1</sup>
	Activity of xylanase		nmol MUF·g soil <sup>-1</sup> ·h <sup>-1</sup>
	Soil carbon mineralization		μg CO <sub>2</sub> -C·g soil <sup>-1</sup> ·day <sup>-1</sup>
	Soil nitrogen mineralization		mg N·kg soil <sup>-1</sup> ·day <sup>-1</sup>
	Erosion control	Soil microbial biomass	μg C mic·g soil <sup>-1</sup>
		Perennial plant cover	%
		Mean weight diameter of soil aggregates	mm
Stability of macro-aggregates >250 μm		%	
Supporting	Soil fertility	Total N content	g N·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>
		NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> content	mg N·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>
		NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> content	mg N·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>
		Dissolved organic N content	mg N·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>
		Total P content	mg P·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>
		K content	mg K·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>
		Cu content	mg Cu·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>
		Mg content	mg Mg·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>
		Fe content	mg Fe·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>

		Mn content	mg Mn·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>	
		Zn content	mg Zn·kg soil <sup>-1</sup>	
	Aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability	Average aboveground plant biomass [APB]	Unitless	
		Inverse of the CV of APB	Unitless	
Provisioning	Wood quantity	Biovolume of woody vegetation	m <sup>3</sup> ·m <sup>-2</sup>	
	Forage quantity	Biovolume of grasses	m <sup>3</sup> ·m <sup>-2</sup>	
		Biovolume of forbs	m <sup>3</sup> ·m <sup>-2</sup>	
	Forage quality		Specific leaf area of grasses	cm <sup>2</sup> ·g <sup>-1</sup>
			Specific leaf area of herbs	cm <sup>2</sup> ·g <sup>-1</sup>
			Foliar nitrogen content of grasses	%
			Foliar nitrogen content of herbs	%
			Leaf dry matter content of grasses	Unitless
		Leaf dry matter content of herbs	Unitless	

2481

**Table S2.** Mammalian herbivores recorded at the sites surveyed and the number of sites where the different species were found.

Family/Subfamily	Animal	Type	Number of sites
Antelope	Gemsbok	<i>Oryx gazella</i>	14
	Roe deer	<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>	8
	Steenbok	<i>Raphicerus campestris</i>	7
	Common duiker	<i>Sylvicapra grimmia</i>	6
	Red deer	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	5
	Greater kudu	<i>Tragelaphus strepsiceros</i>	4
	Springbok	<i>Antidorcas marsupialis</i>	3
	Hartebeest	<i>Alcelaphus buselaphus</i>	3
	Gazelle	<i>Gazella</i> spp.	2
	Blue wildebeest	<i>Connochaetes taurinus</i>	2
	Waterbuck	<i>Kobus ellipsiprymnus</i>	1
Rodents	South African Springhare	<i>Pedetes capensis</i>	4
Macropod	Kangaroo	<i>Macropus</i> spp., <i>Osphranter rufus</i>	5
Leporids	Rabbit	<i>Oryctolagus cuniculus</i>	33
	Hare	<i>Lepus</i> sp.	11
	African savanna hare	<i>Lepus victoriae</i>	5
Equine	#Horse	<i>Equus caballus</i>	34
	#Donkey	<i>Equus asinus</i>	8
	Common zebra	<i>Equus quagga</i>	4
	Grevy's zebra	<i>Equus grevyi</i>	3
Suidae	Common warthog	<i>Phacochoerus africanus</i>	1
Bovinae	#Cattle	<i>Bos taurus</i> , <i>Bos indicus</i>	58
	African buffalo	<i>Syncerus caffer</i>	1
Camelids	Dromedary	<i>Camelus dromedarius</i>	2
	Bactrian camel	<i>Camelus bactrianus</i>	1
	Guanaco	<i>Lama guanicoe</i>	2
Ovids	#Sheep	<i>Ovis aries</i>	57
Caprids	#Goat	<i>Capra hircus</i>	35
Giraffid	Giraffe	<i>Giraffa camelopardalis</i>	5
Elephantidae	Elephant	<i>Loxodonta africana</i>	1

#livestock species

2484

2487

2490 **Table S3.** Correlation matrix among all studied predictors (n = 326). We show Spearman  
 2493 correlation coefficients for correlations involving grazing pressure and Pearson correlation  
 coefficients for the rest of predictors. Graz = grazing pressure, Plant rich = plant species  
 richness, Herb rich = mammalian herbivore richness, Below Div = belowground diversity, MAT  
 = mean annual temperature, RASE = rainfall seasonality, and MAP = mean annual precipitation.

	Graz	MAP	MAT	RASE	Sand	Soil pH	Plant rich	Herb rich	Below div
Graz	1								
MAP	0,006	1							
MAT	0,03	0,17	1						
RASE	0	-0,12	0,23	1					
Sand	0,02	-0,14	0,28	0,21	1				
Soil pH	-0,005	-0,56	-0,33	-0,03	-0,25	1			
Plant rich	-0,03	0,28	-0,17	-0,19	-0,08	-0,20	1		
Herb rich	0,17	-0,09	-0,09	0,12	0,09	-0,10	0,12	1	
Below div	-0,20	0,32	-0,07	-0,28	0,23	-0,28	0,21	-0,05	1

2496

2499 **Table S4.** Conditional independence claims applied in the different hypotheses of the d-sep model implied by the hypothesized path  
 models for soil carbon storage. We modeled each link using linear mixed models. Model types (lmer = linear mixed effect regression;  
 glmer = generalized mixed effect regression) and formula are provided for each link. In each model, we controlled for the latitude,  
 cos\_longitude, sin\_longitude, elevation, and slope (covariables), and used the site as a random factor (see “Statistical analyses”  
 2502 section). We present all independent claims considered in the model, provide the *P* value of each independent claim, and the *P* value  
 of the different path analyses. Variables: X1 = mean annual rainfall, X2 = mean annual temperature, X3 = rainfall seasonality, X4 =  
 Grazing, X5 = Sand, X6 = PH, X7 = plant species richness, X8 = mammalian herbivore richness, X9 = belowground diversity. Y =  
 ecosystem service, and Cov = covariables. Value of C statistic (*P* value) = 30.70 (0.42), df = 30  
 2505

Link	D-sep independence claims	Formula	Model	H0	<i>P</i> value
1	(X3,X2){Cov}	X3 ~ Cov + X2	lmer	X2 = 0	0.16
2	(X4,X1){Cov}	X4 ~ Cov + X1	lmer	X1 = 0	0.20
3	(X4,X2){Cov}	X4 ~ Cov + X3	lmer	X3 = 0	0.68
4	(X4,X3){Cov}	X4 ~ Cov + X3	lmer	X3 = 0	0.79
5	(X5,X3){Cov,X1,X2}	X5 ~ Cov+ X1+I(X1^2)+X2+I(X2^2)+X3	lmer	X3 = 0	0.89
6	(X6,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	X6 ~ Cov+ X1+I(X1^2)+X2+I(X2^2)+X5+X3	lmer	X3 = 0	0.98
7	(X5,X4){Cov,X1,X2}	X5 ~Cov+ X1+I(X1^2)+X2+I(X2^2)+X4	lmer	X4 = 0	0.28
8	(X6,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	X6 ~ Cov+ X1+I(X1^2)+X2+I(X2^2)+X5+X4	lmer	X4 = 0	0.96
9	(X7,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	X7 ~ Cov+ X1+I(X1^2)+X2+I(X2^2)+X3+X4	lmer	X4 = 0	0.56
10	(X7,X5){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	X7 ~ Cov+ X1+I(X1^2)+X2+I(X2^2)+X3+X5	lmer	X5 = 0	0.68
11	(X7,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	X7 ~ Cov+ X1+I(X1^2)+X2+I(X2^2)+X3+X6	lmer	X6 = 0	0.11
12	(X8,X2){Cov,X1,X6}	X7 ~ Cov+ X1+X6+X2	glmer (poisson)	X2 = 0	0.26
13	(X8,X3){Cov,X1,X6}	X7 ~ Cov+ X1+X6+X3	glmer (poisson)	X3 = 0	0.59
14	(X8,X4){Cov,X1,X6}	X7 ~ Cov+ X1+X6+X4	glmer (poisson)	X4 = 0	0.02
15	(X8,X5){Cov,X1,X6}	X7 ~ Cov+ X1+X6+X5	glmer (poisson)	X5 = 0	0.43

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**Table S5.** Conditional independence claims applied in the different hypotheses of the d-sep model implied by the hypothesized path models for organic matter decomposition. Value of C statistic ( $P$  value) = 30.79 (0.42),  $df = 30$ . Remainder of legend as in table S4.

Link	D-sep independence claims	Formula	Model	H0	$P$ value
1	(X3,X2){Cov}	$X3 \sim Cov + X2$	lmer	$\ X2 = 0$	0.15
2	(X4,X1){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X1$	lmer	$\ X1 = 0$	0.36
3	(X4,X2){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.51
4	(X4,X3){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.84
5	(X5,X3){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.12
6	(X6,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.48
7	(X5,X4){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.10
8	(X6,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.09
9	(X7,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.57
10	(X7,X5){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X5$	lmer	$\ X5 = 0$	0.45
11	(X7,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X6$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.33
12	(X9,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X7}	$X9 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X7 + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.94
13	(X9,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X7}	$X9 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X7 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.84
14	(X9,X5){Cov,X1,X2,X7}	$X9 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X7 + X5$	lmer	$\ X5 = 0$	0.89
15	(X9,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X7}	$X9 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X7 + X6$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.22

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**Table S6.** Conditional independence claims applied in the different hypotheses of the d-sep model implied by the hypothesized path models for erosion control. Value of C statistic ( $P$  value) = 27.08 (0.20),  $df = 22$ . Remainder of legend as in table S4.

Link	D-sep independence claims	Formula	Model	H0	$P$ value
1	(X3,X2){Cov}	$X3 \sim Cov + X2$	lmer	$\ X2 = 0$	0.15
2	(X4,X1){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X1$	lmer	$\ X1 = 0$	0.36
3	(X4,X2){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.51
4	(X4,X3){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.84
5	(X5,X3){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.12
6	(X6,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.48
7	(X5,X4){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.10
8	(X6,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.09
9	(X7,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.57
10	(X7,X5){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X5$	lmer	$\ X5 = 0$	0.45
11	(X7,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X6$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.33

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**Table S7.** Conditional independence claims applied in the different hypotheses of the d-sep model implied by the hypothesized path models for water regulation. Value of C statistic ( $P$  value) = 22.18 (0.44),  $df = 22$ . Remainder of legend as in table S4.

Link	D-sep independence claims	Formula	Model	H0	$P$ value
1	(X3,X2){Cov}	$X3 \sim Cov + X2$	lmer	$\ X2 = 0$	0.06
2	(X4,X1){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X1$	lmer	$\ X1 = 0$	0.41
3	(X4,X2){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.79
4	(X4,X3){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.93
5	(X5,X3){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.65
6	(X6,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.82
7	(X5,X4){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.08
8	(X6,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.40
9	(X7,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.62
10	(X7,X5){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X5$	lmer	$\ X5 = 0$	0.74
11	(X7,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X6$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.09

2529 **Table S8.** Conditional independence claims applied in the different hypotheses of the d-sep model implied by the hypothesized path models for soil fertility. Value of C statistic (*P* value) = 23.30 (0.50), df = 24. Remainder of legend as in table S4.

Link	D-sep independence claims	Formula	Model	H0	<i>P</i> value
1	(X3,X2){Cov}	$X3 \sim Cov + X2$	lmer	$  X2 = 0$	0.06
2	(X4,X1){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X1$	lmer	$  X1 = 0$	0.41
3	(X4,X2){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$  X3 = 0$	0.79
4	(X4,X3){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$  X3 = 0$	0.93
5	(X5,X3){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3$	lmer	$  X3 = 0$	0.65
6	(X6,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X3$	lmer	$  X3 = 0$	0.82
7	(X5,X4){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X4$	lmer	$  X4 = 0$	0.08
8	(X6,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X4$	lmer	$  X4 = 0$	0.40
9	(X7,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X4$	lmer	$  X4 = 0$	0.62
10	(X7,X5){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X5$	lmer	$  X5 = 0$	0.74
11	(X7,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X6$	lmer	$  X6 = 0$	0.09
	(Y,X7){Cov,X1,X2,X3,X4,X5,X6}	$Y \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X5 + I(X5^2) + X6 + X4 + X4:X5 + X4:X6 + X7$	lmer	$  X7 = 0$	0.57

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2535 **Table S9.** Conditional independence claims applied in the different hypotheses of the d-sep model implied by the hypothesized path  
 models for aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability. Value of C statistic (*P* value) = 30.30 (0.44), df = 30. Remainder of  
 legend as in table S4.

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Link	D-sep independence claims	Formula	Model	H0	<i>P</i> value
1	(X3,X2){Cov}	$X3 \sim Cov + X2$	lmer	$\ X2 = 0$	0.16
2	(X4,X1){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X1$	lmer	$\ X1 = 0$	0.20
3	(X4,X2){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.68
4	(X4,X3){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.79
5	(X5,X3){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.89
6	(X6,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.98
7	(X5,X4){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.28
8	(X6,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.96
9	(X7,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.56
10	(X7,X5){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X5$	lmer	$\ X5 = 0$	0.68
11	(X7,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X6$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.11
12	(X8,X2){Cov,X1,X6}	$X8 \sim Cov + X1 + X6 + X2$	glmer (poisson)	$\ X2 = 0$	0.26
13	(X8,X3){Cov,X1,X6}	$X8 \sim Cov + X1 + X6 + X3$	glmer (poisson)	$\ X3 = 0$	0.59
14	(X8,X4){Cov,X1,X6}	$X8 \sim Cov + X1 + X6 + X4$	glmer (poisson)	$\ X4 = 0$	0.02
15	(X8,X5){Cov,X1,X6}	$X8 \sim Cov + X1 + X6 + X5$	glmer (poisson)	$\ X5 = 0$	0.43

2541 **Table S10.** Conditional independence claims applied in the different hypotheses of the d-sep model implied by the hypothesized path models for wood quantity. Value of C statistic (*P* value) = 24.48 (0.43), df = 24. Remainder of legend as in table S4.

Link	D-sep independence claims	Formula	Model	H0	<i>P</i> value
1	(X3,X2){Cov}	$X3 \sim Cov + X2$	lmer	$\ X2 = 0$	0.06
2	(X4,X1){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X1$	lmer	$\ X1 = 0$	0.43
3	(X4,X2){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.79
4	(X4,X3){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.93
5	(X5,X3){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.65
6	(X6,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.82
7	(X5,X4){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.08
8	(X6,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.40
9	(X7,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.62
10	(X7,X5){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X5$	lmer	$\ X5 = 0$	0.75
11	(X7,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X6$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.09
12	(Y,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X3,X4,X5,X7}	$Y \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X5 + X7 + X4 + X4 : X5 + X4 : X7 + X6 + I(X6^2)$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.31

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**Table S11.** Conditional independence claims applied in the different hypotheses of the d-sep model implied by the hypothesized path models for forage quantity. Value of C statistic (*P* value) = 29.46 (0.49), *df* = 30. Remainder of legend as in table S4.

Link	D-sep independence claims	Formula	Model	H0	<i>P</i> value
1	(X3,X2){Cov}	$X3 \sim Cov + X2$	lmer	$\ X2 = 0$	0.06
2	(X4,X1){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X1$	lmer	$\ X1 = 0$	0.41
3	(X4,X2){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.78
4	(X4,X3){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.93
5	(X5,X3){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.65
6	(X6,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.82
7	(X5,X4){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.08
8	(X6,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.40
9	(X7,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.62
10	(X7,X5){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X5$	lmer	$\ X5 = 0$	0.74
11	(X7,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X6$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.09
12	(Y,X1){Cov,X4,X5,X7}	$Y \sim Cov + X4 + X5 + X7 + X1$	lmer	$\ X1 = 0$	0.50
13	(Y,X1){Cov,X4,X5,X7}	$Y \sim Cov + X4 + X5 + X7 + X2$	lmer	$\ X2 = 0$	0.21
14	(Y,X1){Cov,X4,X5,X7}	$Y \sim Cov + X4 + X5 + X7 + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.40
15	(Y,X1){Cov,X4,X5,X7}	$Y \sim Cov + X4 + X5 + X7 + X6$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.60

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**Table S12.** Conditional independence claims applied in the different hypotheses of the d-sep model implied by the hypothesized path models for forage quality. Value of C statistic ( $P$  value) = 32.45 (0.54),  $df = 34$ . Remainder of legend as in table S4.

Link	D-sep independence claims	Formula	Model	H0	$P$ value
1	(X3,X2){Cov}	$X3 \sim Cov + X2$	lmer	$\ X2 = 0$	0.16
2	(X4,X1){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X1$	lmer	$\ X1 = 0$	0.20
3	(X4,X2){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.68
4	(X4,X3){Cov}	$X4 \sim Cov + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.79
5	(X5,X3){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.89
6	(X6,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.98
7	(X5,X4){Cov,X1,X2}	$X5 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.28
8	(X6,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X5}	$X6 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X5 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.96
9	(X7,X4){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X4$	lmer	$\ X4 = 0$	0.56
10	(X7,X5){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X5$	lmer	$\ X5 = 0$	0.68
11	(X7,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X3}	$X7 \sim Cov + X1 + I(X1^2) + X2 + I(X2^2) + X3 + X6$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.11
12	(X8,X2){Cov,X1,X6}	$X8 \sim Cov + X1 + X6 + X2$	glmer (poisson)	$\ X2 = 0$	0.26
13	(X8,X3){Cov,X1,X6}	$X8 \sim Cov + X1 + X6 + X3$	glmer (poisson)	$\ X3 = 0$	0.59
14	(X8,X4){Cov,X1,X6}	$X8 \sim Cov + X1 + X6 + X4$	glmer (poisson)	$\ X4 = 0$	0.02
15	(X8,X5){Cov,X1,X6}	$X8 \sim Cov + X1 + X6 + X5$	glmer (poisson)	$\ X5 = 0$	0.43
16	(Y,X3){Cov,X1,X2,X4,X5,X7,X8}	$Y \sim Cov + X1 + X2 + X5 + X7 + X8 + X4 + X4:X5 + X4:X8 + X3$	lmer	$\ X3 = 0$	0.66
17	(Y,X6){Cov,X1,X2,X4,X5,X7,X8}	$Y \sim Cov + X1 + X2 + X5 + X7 + X8 + X4 + X4:X5 + X4:X8 + X3$	lmer	$\ X6 = 0$	0.52

2556 **Table S13.** Results of the model selection procedure for regulating ecosystem services using site as a random effect (random intercept, 1|site). The best models for each ecosystem service and biodiversity proxy are shown. We indicate marginal and conditional  $R^2$ , the  
 2559 number of observations (n), predictor estimates, standard errors and  $P$  values, the number of times each predictor was selected in the  
 2562 set of best models ( $n$ ), predictor importance based on sum of weights (Imp.), variance inflation factors (VIF), and the results of Moran  
 2565 tests for spatial autocorrelation. These tests were performed with the residuals of the models at different spatial scales (using the 10,  
 20, and 50 closest plots); their results show no evidence for spatial autocorrelation. The VIF values obtained were below 10 in all  
 cases, hence multicollinearity was not problematic (267). pH = soil pH, and Sand = soil sand content. Results of the model selection  
 procedure for regulating ecosystem services using grazing nested within site as a random effect (random intercept, Grazing|site) are  
 available in table S16. Results of model preselection based on AIC are available on table S25.

	Soil carbon storage						Organic matter decomposition						Erosion control						Water regulation					
	$R^2_m = 0.77$			$R^2_c = 0.94$			$R^2_m = 0.75$			$R^2_c = 0.89$			$R^2_m = 0.53$			$R^2_c = 0.91$			$R^2_m = 0.63$			$R^2_c = 0.92$		
	n = 300						n = 242						n = 242						n = 317					
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.98; n = 50, p = 0.87						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.98; n = 20, p = 0.91; n = 50, p = 0.79						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.91						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.93					
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF
Latitude	0.136	± 0.046	0.003			1.42	0.082	± 0.031	0.008			1.41	0.014	± 0.013	0.261			1.32	-0.009	± 0.013	0.476			1.42
Longitude (cos)	0.026	± 0.042	0.547			1.20	-0.008	± 0.029	0.772			1.30	0.007	± 0.012	0.547			1.22	-0.010	± 0.011	0.354			1.15
Longitude (sin)	-0.018	± 0.046	0.699			1.33	0.053	± 0.031	0.083			1.44	0.028	± 0.012	0.025			1.37	0.013	± 0.012	0.287			1.30
Elevation	-0.349	± 0.048	<0.001			1.55	-0.187	± 0.033	<0.001			1.79	-0.008	± 0.013	0.555			1.55	-0.038	± 0.012	0.002			1.55
Slope	0.045	± 0.030	0.130			1.18	0.012	± 0.022	0.584			1.24	0.009	± 0.007	0.186			1.16	0.004	± 0.007	0.542			1.13
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	0.398	± 0.055	<0.001	6	1.00	2.01	0.164	± 0.040	<0.001	4	1.00	2.97	0.055	± 0.017	<0.001	6	1.00	2.33	0.048	± 0.013	<0.001	15	1.00	2.00
MAP <sup>2</sup>	-0.067	± 0.029	0.023	6	1.00	1.32	-0.029	± 0.022	0.181	1	0.28	1.75	-0.017	± 0.008	0.038	5	0.89	1.68	-0.012	± 0.008	0.118	8	0.54	1.40
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	-0.448	± 0.064	<0.001	6	1.00	2.86	-0.317	± 0.046	<0.001	4	1.00	3.17	-0.046	± 0.018	0.013	6	1.00	2.85	-0.064	± 0.014	<0.001	15	1.00	2.80
MAT <sup>2</sup>	-0.252	± 0.044	<0.001	6	1.00	2.49	-0.160	± 0.033	<0.001	4	1.00	2.98	-0.039	± 0.013	0.002	6	1.00	2.64	0.010	± 0.009	0.286	3	0.18	2.34
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	0.214	± 0.052	<0.001	6	1.00	1.96	0.132	± 0.040	<0.001	4	1.00	2.42	0.041	± 0.016	0.013	6	1.00	2.33	0.012	± 0.012	0.327	3	0.17	2.00
pH	-0.099	± 0.046	0.032	6	1.00	1.95	-0.099	± 0.037	0.008	4	1.00	2.72	-0.023	± 0.012	0.051	5	0.89	1.90	0.000	± 0.011	0.992	4	0.22	1.75
pH <sup>2</sup>	-0.038	± 0.024	0.111	4	0.62	1.29	-0.061	± 0.023	0.008	4	1.00	1.62	-0.011	± 0.007	0.093	3	0.53	1.31	-0.010	± 0.005	0.074	4	0.22	1.19
Sand content	-0.337	± 0.037	<0.001	6	1.00	1.35	-0.179	± 0.026	<0.001	4	1.00	1.41	-0.046	± 0.009	<0.001	6	1.00	1.24	-0.114	± 0.009	<0.001	15	1.00	1.28
Plant richness	0.177	± 0.037	<0.001	6	1.00	1.36	0.085	± 0.027	0.002	4	1.00	1.64	0.023	± 0.008	0.004	6	1.00	1.33	0.005	± 0.008	0.544	15	1.00	1.29
Herbivore richness	0.065	± 0.025	0.011	6	1.00	1.16																		
Belowground diversity							0.062	± 0.020	0.002	4	1.00	1.28												
Grazing pressure (Graz)	0.011	± 0.015	0.474	6	1.00	1.11	0.031	± 0.012	0.010	4	1.00	1.05	-0.009	± 0.003	0.003	6	1.00	1.07	-0.005	± 0.003	0.141	15	1.00	1.05
Graz × MAP							0.010	± 0.013	0.405	1	0.16	1.12												
Graz × MAT	-0.034	± 0.015	0.024	6	1.00	1.25	-0.026	± 0.013	0.048	3	0.82	1.09	-0.007	± 0.003	0.040	6	1.00	1.04	0.004	± 0.003	0.232	4	0.25	1.08
Graz × RASE	-0.027	± 0.014	0.059	4	0.62	1.09																		
Graz × pH	-0.010	± 0.016	0.560	1	0.10	1.22																		
Graz × Sand content	-0.010	± 0.015	0.492	1	0.10	1.12							-0.004	± 0.003	0.237	2	0.29	1.07	0.002	± 0.003	0.518	2	0.10	1.07
Graz × Plant richness																								
Graz × Herbivore richness																								
Graz × Belowground diversity																								

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**Table S14.** Results of the model selection procedure for supporting ecosystem services using site as a random effect (random intercept, 1|site). The best models for each ecosystem service and biodiversity proxy are shown. See table S17 for model results using grazing pressure nested within site (random slope and intercept, grazing|site). Plant biomass & stability = aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability. Remainder of legend as in table S13.

	Plant biomass & stability						Soil fertility					
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.56			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.92			R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.62			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.95		
	n = 296						n = 320					
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.87						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.93					
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF
Latitude	0.045 ±	0.013	0.001			1.37	-0.014 ±	0.026	0.589			1.35
Longitude (cos)	-0.014 ±	0.012	0.259			1.17	0.010 ±	0.024	0.672			1.12
Longitude (sin)	-0.006 ±	0.014	0.642			1.32	0.008 ±	0.025	0.763			1.29
Elevation	0.004 ±	0.014	0.766			1.44	-0.099 ±	0.026	<0.001			1.48
Slope	-0.009 ±	0.007	0.216			1.18	0.003 ±	0.013	0.819			1.14
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	0.033 ±	0.014	0.018	21	1.00	1.81	0.132 ±	0.029	<0.001	6	1.00	1.84
MAP <sup>2</sup>						1.35	-0.033 ±	0.015	0.030	6	1.00	1.47
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	0.028 ±	0.019	0.133	21	1.00	2.67	-0.171 ±	0.036	<0.001	6	1.00	2.69
MAT <sup>2</sup>	-0.065 ±	0.013	<0.001	21	1.00	2.31	-0.071 ±	0.024	0.003	6	1.00	2.25
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	0.025 ±	0.015	0.104	16	0.78	1.92	0.083 ±	0.030	0.006	6	1.00	1.91
pH	-0.068 ±	0.011	<0.001	21	1.00	1.70	0.043 ±	0.020	0.028	6	1.00	1.57
pH <sup>2</sup>	0.014 ±	0.005	0.009	21	1.00	1.22	-0.023 ±	0.010	0.015	6	1.00	1.17
Sand content							-0.206 ±	0.017	<0.001	6	1.00	1.24
Plant richness	0.020 ±	0.009	0.026	21	1.00	1.25	0.015 ±	0.015	0.305	6	0.15	1.23
Herbivore richness	0.013 ±	0.006	0.027	20	0.97	1.21						
Belowground diversity												
Grazing pressure (Graz)	-0.001 ±	0.003	0.843	19	0.92	1.20	0.016 ±	0.005	0.003	6	1.00	1.05
Graz × MAP	0.003 ±	0.003	0.357	1	0.03	1.55	0.008 ±	0.006	0.137	1	0.16	1.67
Graz × MAT	-0.005 ±	0.003	0.120	9	0.44	1.29	-0.006 ±	0.006	0.356	1	0.14	1.24
Graz × RASE	0.006 ±	0.003	0.074	10	0.51	1.16	-0.004 ±	0.005	0.503	1	0.11	1.11
Graz × pH	0.004 ±	0.003	0.281	2	0.07	1.73	-0.011 ±	0.006	0.064	4	0.68	1.82
Graz × Sand content							-0.014 ±	0.006	0.014	6	1.00	1.28
Graz × Plant richness	0.006 ±	0.004	0.110	11	0.53	1.20						
Graz × Herbivore richness	0.006 ±	0.003	0.059	15	0.73	1.17						
Graz × Belowground diversity												

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**Table S15.** Results of the model selection procedure for provisioning ecosystem services using site as a random effect (random intercept, 1|site). The best models for each ecosystem service and biodiversity proxy are shown. See table S18 for model results using grazing pressure nested within site (random slope and intercept, grazing|site). Remainder of legend as in table S13.

	Forage quantity							Forage quality							Wood quantity						
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.27			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.77				R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.23			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.89				R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.28			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.86			
	n = 326							n = 277							n = 326						
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.91							Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.89							Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.87						
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF		Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF		Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	
Latitude	0.033	± 0.111	0.767			1.40		0.096	± 0.064	0.135			1.33		0.331	± 0.224	0.141			1.38	
Longitude (cos)	0.154	± 0.106	0.147			1.16		-0.005	± 0.056	0.930			1.11		-0.009	± 0.203	0.966			1.13	
Longitude (sin)	0.026	± 0.107	0.811			1.30		0.032	± 0.063	0.612			1.32		-0.140	± 0.216	0.520			1.29	
Elevation	0.036	± 0.111	0.746			1.55		0.059	± 0.060	0.329			1.30		-0.182	± 0.229	0.428			1.50	
Slope	0.111	± 0.074	0.136			1.12		0.000	± 0.030	0.992			1.15		0.099	± 0.122	0.417			1.13	
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	-0.055	± 0.100	0.585	1	0.07	1.61		-0.189	± 0.061	0.002	9	1.00	1.35		0.797	± 0.238	0.001	12	1.00	1.86	
MAP <sup>2</sup>								0.057	± 0.035	0.107	5	0.58	1.41		-0.359	± 0.135	0.008	12	1.00	1.40	
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	-0.139	± 0.130	0.285	2	0.19	2.67		-0.123	± 0.065	0.061	7	0.79	1.85		0.240	± 0.308	0.439	12	1.00	2.63	
MAT <sup>2</sup>	-0.130	± 0.083	0.119	1	0.10	2.27		-0.037	± 0.044	0.404	2	0.17	1.36		-0.553	± 0.211	0.009	12	1.00	2.21	
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	-0.086	± 0.102	0.402	1	0.09	1.92								0.497	± 0.256	0.054	11	0.93	1.92		
pH	-0.047	± 0.091	0.609	1	0.07	1.82								-0.218	± 0.182	0.233	5	0.34	1.64		
pH <sup>2</sup>																					
Sand content	0.162	± 0.088	0.067	8	0.81	1.26		0.064	± 0.040	0.116	9	1.00	1.21		0.112	± 0.153	0.466	9	0.76	1.25	
Plant richness	0.486	± 0.083	<0.001	10	1.00	1.33		0.146	± 0.037	<0.001	9	1.00	1.20		0.275	± 0.141	0.052	12	1.00	1.26	
Herbivore richness								0.012	± 0.026	0.650	9	1.00	1.17								
Belowground diversity																					
Grazing pressure (Graz)	-0.254	± 0.035	<0.001	10	1.00	1.02		-0.044	± 0.014	0.002	9	1.00	1.14		-0.106	± 0.053	0.045	12	1.00	1.02	
Graz × MAP								-0.009	± 0.015	0.559	1	0.08	1.12		0.067	± 0.059	0.259	4	0.26	1.17	
Graz × MAT																					
Graz × RASE														0.084	± 0.056	0.134	6	0.49	1.09		
Graz × pH																					
Graz × Sand content	-0.016	± 0.036	0.662	1	0.07	1.02		-0.031	± 0.014	0.025	9	1.00	1.15		0.124	± 0.054	0.023	9	0.76	1.07	
Graz × Plant richness	-0.041	± 0.038	0.275	2	0.19	1.01		-0.012	± 0.015	0.423	2	0.17	1.11		0.196	± 0.059	<0.001	12	1.00	1.16	
Graz × Herbivore richness								-0.035	± 0.014	0.010	9	1.00	1.14								
Graz × Belowground diversity																					

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**Table S16.** Results of the model selection procedure for regulating ecosystem services using grazing pressure nested within site (random slope and intercept, grazing|site). The best models for each ecosystem service and biodiversity proxy are shown. Results of model preselection based on AIC are available on table S26. Remainder of legend as in table S13.

	Soil carbon storage						Organic matter decomposition						Erosion control						Water regulation					
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.77		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.94		n = 300		R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.75		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.89		n = 242		R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.53		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.91		n = 242		R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.63		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.92		n = 317	
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.98; n = 50, p = 0.87						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.97; n = 20, p = 0.90; n = 50, p = 0.82						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.91						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.91					
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF
Latitude	0.134 ± 0.046	0.004				1.42	0.083 ± 0.030	0.007				1.40	0.016 ± 0.012	0.202				1.35	-0.008 ± 0.012	0.538				1.45
Longitude (cos)	0.024 ± 0.042	0.572				1.20	-0.010 ± 0.029	0.737				1.30	0.009 ± 0.011	0.440				1.22	-0.011 ± 0.011	0.327				1.17
Longitude (sin)	-0.027 ± 0.046	0.556				1.33	0.054 ± 0.030	0.079				1.45	0.032 ± 0.012	0.008				1.37	0.012 ± 0.012	0.311				1.31
Elevation	-0.348 ± 0.048	<0.001				1.54	0.015 ± 0.021	0.473				1.83	0.010 ± 0.007	0.141				1.55	0.003 ± 0.007	0.697				1.64
Slope	0.045 ± 0.030	0.133				1.17	-0.183 ± 0.033	<0.001				1.25	-0.009 ± 0.012	0.474				1.15	-0.038 ± 0.012	0.002				1.15
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	0.396 ± 0.055	<0.001	9	1.00	2.06		0.167 ± 0.042	<0.001	4	1.00	2.95		0.054 ± 0.016	0.001	14	1.00	2.33		0.049 ± 0.013	<0.001	15	1.00	2.08	
MAP <sup>2</sup>	-0.071 ± 0.029	0.015	9	1.00	1.35		-0.031 ± 0.021	0.150	2	0.45	1.72		-0.015 ± 0.008	0.055	14	1.00	1.70		-0.013 ± 0.007	0.093	9	0.62	1.35	
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	-0.448 ± 0.063	<0.001	9	1.00	2.90		-0.311 ± 0.046	<0.001	4	1.00	3.15		-0.049 ± 0.018	0.007	14	1.00	2.94		-0.062 ± 0.014	<0.001	5	0.29	2.89	
MAT <sup>2</sup>	-0.251 ± 0.044	<0.001	9	1.00	2.50		-0.155 ± 0.033	<0.001	4	1.00	2.97		-0.040 ± 0.012	0.001	14	1.00	2.67		0.012 ± 0.010	0.205	15	1.00	2.41	
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	0.216 ± 0.052	<0.001	9	1.00	1.98		0.126 ± 0.040	0.002	4	1.00	2.40		0.041 ± 0.016	0.011	14	1.00	2.35		0.013 ± 0.012	0.277	3	0.17	1.97	
pH	-0.100 ± 0.046	0.029	9	1.00	1.95		-0.098 ± 0.037	0.009	4	1.00	2.70		-0.022 ± 0.011	0.051	14	1.00	1.91		0.002 ± 0.011	0.888	6	0.34	1.90	
pH <sup>2</sup>	-0.039 ± 0.024	0.101	6	0.64	1.30		-0.056 ± 0.023	0.015	4	1.00	1.56		-0.011 ± 0.007	0.087	7	0.54	1.34		-0.011 ± 0.006	0.050	6	0.34	1.20	
Sand content	-0.337 ± 0.038	<0.001	9	1.00	1.35		-0.183 ± 0.026	<0.001	4	1.00	1.42		-0.044 ± 0.009	<0.001	14	1.00	1.28		-0.113 ± 0.009	<0.001	15	1.00	1.35	
Plant richness	0.176 ± 0.037	<0.001	9	1.00	1.37		0.086 ± 0.027	0.001	4	1.00	1.66		0.024 ± 0.008	0.003	14	1.00	1.34		0.006 ± 0.008	0.477	15	1.00	1.36	
Herbivore richness	0.059 ± 0.026	0.022	9	1.00	1.14																			
Belowground diversity							0.058 ± 0.020	0.003	4	1.00	1.25													
Grazing pressure (Graz)	0.011 ± 0.016	0.479	9	1.00	1.10		0.032 ± 0.012	0.008	4	1.00	1.04		-0.009 ± 0.003	0.005	14	1.00	1.06		-0.004 ± 0.003	0.178	15	1.00	1.04	
Graz × MAP																								
Graz × MAT	-0.033 ± 0.016	0.043	7	0.84	1.26		-0.027 ± 0.013	0.048	2	0.68	1.04		-0.006 ± 0.004	0.080	8	0.62	1.12		0.004 ± 0.003	0.263	3	0.18	1.11	
Graz × RASE	-0.029 ± 0.016	0.068	7	0.77	1.10																			
Graz × pH	-0.014 ± 0.017	0.434	1	0.08	1.19																			
Graz × Sand content	-0.017 ± 0.017	0.313	3	0.23	1.14								-0.005 ± 0.003	0.128	8	0.53	1.08		0.002 ± 0.003	0.606	1	0.04	1.13	
Graz × Plant richness																								
Graz × Herbivore richness																								
Graz × Belowground diversity																								

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**Table S17.** Results of the model selection procedure for supporting ecosystem services using grazing pressure nested within site (random slope and intercept, grazing|site). The best models for each ecosystem service and biodiversity proxy are shown. Results of model preselection based on AIC are available on table S26. Plant biomass & stability = aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability. Remainder of legend as in table S13.

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	Plant biomass & stability							Soil fertility					
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.55			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.94				R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.62			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.95		
	n = 296							n = 320					
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.88							Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.92					
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	
Latitude	0.042	± 0.014	0.002			1.36	-0.018	± 0.026	0.499			1.39	
Longitude (cos)	-0.015	± 0.013	0.238			1.17	0.015	± 0.023	0.506			1.09	
Longitude (sin)	-0.006	± 0.014	0.668			1.32	-0.002	± 0.025	0.942			1.29	
Elevation	0.006	± 0.014	0.691			1.45	-0.106	± 0.025	<0.001			1.43	
Slope	-0.009	± 0.007	0.219			1.19	0.003	± 0.013	0.834			1.14	
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	0.035	± 0.014	0.012	13	1.00	1.86	0.133	± 0.028	<0.001	3	1.00	1.92	
MAP <sup>2</sup>	-0.006	± 0.008	0.433	1	0.06	1.42	-0.036	± 0.015	0.016	3	1.00	1.42	
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	0.029	± 0.019	0.133	13	1.00	2.67	-0.179	± 0.036	<0.001	3	1.00	2.86	
MAT <sup>2</sup>	-0.063	± 0.013	<0.001	13	1.00	2.29	-0.075	± 0.024	0.002	3	1.00	2.33	
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	0.027	± 0.015	0.079	9	0.71	1.92	0.087	± 0.030	0.004	3	1.00	1.96	
pH	-0.065	± 0.011	<0.001	13	1.00	1.66	0.043	± 0.020	0.030	3	1.00	1.72	
pH <sup>2</sup>	0.012	± 0.005	0.022	13	1.00	1.23	-0.023	± 0.010	0.020	3	1.00	1.19	
Sand content							-0.195	± 0.017	<0.001	3	1.00	1.29	
Plant richness	0.019	± 0.009	0.030	13	1.00	1.24							
Herbivore richness	0.012	± 0.006	0.028	11	0.87	1.16							
Belowground diversity													
Grazing presure (Graz)	-0.001	± 0.004	0.859	11	0.82	1.15	0.018	± 0.006	0.004	3	1.00	1.03	
Graz × MAP													
Graz × MAT	-0.005	± 0.004	0.160	3	0.24	1.27	-0.007	± 0.007	0.339	1	0.23	1.27	
Graz × RASE	0.004	± 0.004	0.260	3	0.18	1.16	-0.007	± 0.006	0.236	1	0.30	1.12	
Graz × pH	0.003	± 0.004	0.356	1	0.06	1.72	-0.016	± 0.007	0.015	3	1.00	1.21	
Graz × Sand content							-0.020	± 0.006	0.001	3	1.00	1.12	
Graz × Plant richness	0.004	± 0.004	0.253	3	0.18	1.20							
Graz × Herbivore richness	0.007	± 0.003	0.030	11	0.82	1.12							
Graz × Belowground diversity													

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**Table S18.** Results of the model selection procedure for provisioning ecosystem services using grazing pressure nested within site (random slope and intercept, grazing|site). The best models for each ecosystem service and biodiversity proxy are shown. Results of model preselection based on AIC are available on table S26. Remainder of legend as in table S13.

	Forage quantity							Forage quality							Wood quantity						
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.27			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.83				R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.23			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.91				R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.28			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.86			
	n = 326							n = 277							n = 326						
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.90							Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.91							Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.88						
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF		Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF		Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	
Latitude	0.035	± 0.112	0.756			1.40		0.096	± 0.064	0.135			1.33		0.343	± 0.224	0.128			1.38	
Longitude (cos)	0.177	± 0.105	0.093			1.16		0.000	± 0.057	0.996			1.11		-0.010	± 0.203	0.961			1.13	
Longitude (sin)	0.064	± 0.113	0.574			1.30		0.023	± 0.063	0.718			1.31		-0.138	± 0.216	0.526			1.29	
Elevation	-0.007	± 0.115	0.951			1.53		0.067	± 0.060	0.265			1.34		-0.193	± 0.229	0.402			1.50	
Slope	0.160	± 0.074	0.031			1.12		0.000	± 0.031	0.993			1.14		0.097	± 0.121	0.425			1.13	
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	-0.060	± 0.099	0.545	1	0.07	1.62		-0.198	± 0.062	0.002	15	1.00	1.39		0.796	± 0.235	0.001	11	1.00	1.86	
MAP <sup>2</sup>								0.060	± 0.035	0.087	11	0.72	1.46		-0.359	± 0.135	0.008	11	1.00	1.40	
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	-0.197	± 0.132	0.139	5	0.45	2.74		-0.121	± 0.065	0.063	11	0.77	1.88		0.253	± 0.310	0.416	11	1.00	2.64	
MAT <sup>2</sup>	-0.149	± 0.083	0.073	4	0.35	2.27		-0.041	± 0.044	0.352	1	0.06	1.36		-0.547	± 0.211	0.010	11	1.00	2.21	
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	-0.098	± 0.102	0.340	1	0.09	1.95									0.493	± 0.257	0.056	11	1.00	1.92	
pH	-0.084	± 0.096	0.380	2	0.16	1.81									-0.213	± 0.182	0.243	4	0.29	1.64	
pH <sup>2</sup>																					
Sand content	0.192	± 0.091	0.035	10	0.92	1.26		0.069	± 0.042	0.101	13	0.86	1.23		0.118	± 0.153	0.443	8	0.75	1.26	
Plant richness	0.468	± 0.083	<0.001	11	1.00	1.36		0.143	± 0.038	<0.001	15	1.00	1.21		0.283	± 0.141	0.046	11	1.00	1.26	
Herbivore richness								0.017	± 0.027	0.522	12	0.83	1.14								
Belowground diversity																					
Grazing pressure (Graz)	-0.262	± 0.042	<0.001	11	1.00	1.01		-0.040	± 0.016	0.015	15	1.00	1.11		-0.105	± 0.053	0.046	11	1.00	1.02	
Graz × MAP															0.066	± 0.059	0.260	3	0.22	1.17	
Graz × MAT	0.038	± 0.044	0.386	1	0.07	1.09		0.010	± 0.016	0.553	1	0.04	1.19								
Graz × RASE															0.085	± 0.056	0.129	5	0.46	1.09	
Graz × pH																					
Graz × Sand content								-0.030	± 0.016	0.063	10	0.67	1.14		0.124	± 0.054	0.022	8	0.75	1.07	
Graz × Plant richness	-0.036	± 0.043	0.407	2	0.14	1.07		-0.018	± 0.017	0.317	2	0.10	1.15		0.197	± 0.059	0.001	11	1.00	1.16	
Graz × Herbivore richness								-0.036	± 0.015	0.018	12	0.83	1.11								
Graz × Belowground diversity																					

2601

2604 **Table S19.** Results of the model selection procedure for regulating ecosystem services using dung mass as a proxy of grazing pressure. Results of model preselection based on AIC are available on table S27. Remainder of legend as in table S13.

	Soil carbon storage						Organic matter decomposition						Erosion control						Water regulation					
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.79			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.94			R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.79			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.92			R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.54			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.91			R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.70			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.92		
	n = 265						n = 183						n = 265						n = 253					
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.97; n = 50, p = 0.78						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.97; n = 20, p = 0.93; n = 50, p = 0.72						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.91						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.98; n = 50, p = 0.87					
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF
Latitude	0.148	± 0.048	0.002			1.59	0.095	± 0.036	0.008			1.47	0.010	± 0.013	0.422			1.55	-0.010	± 0.013	0.451			1.60
Longitude (cos)	0.024	± 0.042	0.568			1.24	0.015	± 0.034	0.668			1.47	0.007	± 0.011	0.534			1.21	-0.020	± 0.011	0.063			1.16
Longitude (sin)	-0.035	± 0.045	0.439			1.26	0.007	± 0.036	0.854			1.40	0.025	± 0.012	0.037			1.25	0.000	± 0.012	0.969			1.20
Elevation	-0.331	± 0.047	<0.001			1.53	-0.158	± 0.037	<0.001			1.77	-0.009	± 0.012	0.465			1.45	-0.039	± 0.012	0.001			1.37
Slope	0.022	± 0.031	0.472			1.19	-0.009	± 0.024	0.703			1.25	0.007	± 0.007	0.313			1.19	0.007	± 0.008	0.378			1.16
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	0.393	± 0.055	<0.001	11	1.00	2.09	0.175	± 0.044	<0.001	9	1.00	3.07	0.051	± 0.013	<0.001	12	1.00	1.87	0.039	± 0.012	0.002	13	1.00	2.05
MAP <sup>2</sup>	-0.059	± 0.029	0.041	10	0.93	1.37	-0.028	± 0.024	0.238	2	0.18	1.78	-0.017	± 0.007	0.018	12	1.00	1.45	-0.006	± 0.007	0.379	1	0.07	1.36
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	-0.392	± 0.070	<0.001	11	1.00	3.56	-0.283	± 0.063	<0.001	9	1.00	4.21	-0.042	± 0.020	0.041	11	0.91	3.44	-0.064	± 0.013	<0.001	13	1.00	1.79
MAT <sup>2</sup>	-0.222	± 0.049	<0.001	11	1.00	3.08	-0.142	± 0.046	0.002	9	1.00	4.10	-0.025	± 0.012	0.040	8	0.71	2.89						
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	0.228	± 0.050	<0.001	11	1.00	1.83	0.119	± 0.046	0.010	9	1.00	2.45	-0.024	± 0.013	0.065	9	0.77	1.79	0.008	± 0.011	0.456	3	0.19	1.28
pH	-0.106	± 0.044	0.017	11	1.00	1.86	-0.080	± 0.040	0.046	9	1.00	2.36	-0.020	± 0.009	0.036	12	1.00	1.57	-0.014	± 0.011	0.219	3	0.25	1.73
pH <sup>2</sup>	-0.020	± 0.025	0.410	3	0.19	1.18	-0.048	± 0.025	0.053	7	0.83	1.25							-0.007	± 0.006	0.221	1	0.08	1.14
Sand content	-0.371	± 0.038	<0.001	11	1.00	1.37	-0.203	± 0.029	<0.001	9	1.00	1.36	-0.049	± 0.008	<0.001	12	1.00	1.30	-0.118	± 0.010	<0.001	13	1.00	1.38
Plant richness	0.187	± 0.038	<0.001	11	1.00	1.48	0.061	± 0.032	0.059	7	0.81	1.78	0.022	± 0.008	0.006	12	1.00	1.36	0.010	± 0.009	0.301	13	1.00	1.34
Herbivore richness	0.060	± 0.025	0.015	11	1.00	1.10																		
Belowground diversity							0.079	± 0.024	0.001	9	1.00	1.34												
Grazing pressure (Graz)	-0.003	± 0.015	0.861	9	0.82	1.07	0.010	± 0.012	0.415	4	0.44	1.05	-0.007	± 0.003	0.021	12	1.00	1.07	0.000	± 0.004	0.970	13	1.00	1.09
Graz × MAP	0.025	± 0.016	0.119	5	0.45	1.97							0.003	± 0.003	0.385	2	0.13	1.97	-0.005	± 0.004	0.214	3	0.21	1.25
Graz × MAT	-0.032	± 0.015	0.033	9	0.82	1.25	-0.025	± 0.013	0.052	3	0.35	1.03	0.004	± 0.003	0.229	3	0.24	1.37	-0.007	± 0.004	0.065	9	0.72	1.34
Graz × RASE	-0.015	± 0.015	0.326	2	0.16	1.13							-0.004	± 0.003	0.121	5	0.41	1.17	0.006	± 0.004	0.085	2	0.12	1.18
Graz × pH	0.017	± 0.019	0.376	1	0.07	1.18							-0.002	± 0.003	0.543	1	0.05	1.98						
Graz × Sand content	-0.013	± 0.016	0.420	1	0.07	1.24							-0.008	± 0.003	0.013	12	1.00	1.49	0.007	± 0.004	0.064	8	0.67	1.35
Graz × Plant richness	-0.037	± 0.016	0.020	9	0.82	1.24	-0.020	± 0.012	0.105	2	0.21	1.07	-0.002	± 0.003	0.486	1	0.05	1.21	-0.011	± 0.004	0.006	13	1.00	1.19
Graz × Herbivore richness																								
Graz × Belowground diversity																								

2607

2610

**Table S20.** Results of the model selection procedure for supporting ecosystem services using dung mass as a proxy of grazing pressure. Results of model preselection based on AIC are available on table S27. Remainder of legend as in table S13.

	Aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability							Soil fertility					
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.56			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.93				R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.65			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.96		
	n = 260							n = 257					
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.88							Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.99					
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	
Latitude	0.037	± 0.016	0.024			1.52	-0.016	± 0.030	0.591			1.53	
Longitude (cos)	-0.019	± 0.014	0.168			1.17	0.010	± 0.026	0.701			1.19	
Longitude (sin)	-0.017	± 0.015	0.256			1.23	-0.009	± 0.028	0.761			1.24	
Elevation	0.019	± 0.014	0.188			1.35	-0.104	± 0.028	<0.001			1.42	
Slope	-0.006	± 0.008	0.419			1.16	0.024	± 0.014	0.093			1.17	
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	0.046	± 0.016	0.005	7	1.00	1.84	0.086	± 0.027	0.001	7	1.00	1.81	
MAP <sup>2</sup>	-0.012	± 0.009	0.149	3	0.43	1.48	-0.014	± 0.016	0.365	2	0.21	1.59	
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	0.054	± 0.022	0.015	7	1.00	3.42	-0.189	± 0.044	<0.001	7	1.00	3.38	
MAT <sup>2</sup>	-0.038	± 0.015	0.009	7	1.00	2.74	-0.090	± 0.029	0.002	7	1.00	2.78	
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	0.020	± 0.016	0.230	2	0.30	1.71	0.091	± 0.031	0.003	7	1.00	1.74	
pH	-0.059	± 0.012	<0.001	7	1.00	1.59	0.019	± 0.020	0.347	2	0.22	1.41	
pH <sup>2</sup>	0.013	± 0.005	0.014	7	1.00	1.11							
Sand content	0.006	± 0.010	0.526	2	0.18	1.22	-0.232	± 0.018	<0.001	7	1.00	1.25	
Plant richness							0.036	± 0.017	0.033	7	1.00	1.22	
Herbivore richness													
Belowground diversity													
Grazing pressure (Graz)	-0.002	± 0.003	0.605	1	0.09	1.04	0.013	± 0.006	0.026	7	1.00	1.07	
Graz × MAP							0.018	± 0.006	0.002	7	1.00	1.22	
Graz × MAT							0.005	± 0.006	0.401	1	0.11	1.32	
Graz × RASE													
Graz × pH													
Graz × Sand content							-0.010	± 0.006	0.088	4	0.61	1.29	
Graz × Plant richness							-0.019	± 0.006	0.001	7	1.00	1.14	
Graz × Herbivore richness													
Graz × Belowground diversity													

2616 **Table S21.** Results of the model selection procedure for provisioning ecosystem services using dung mass as a proxy of grazing pressure. Results of model preselection based on AIC are available on table S27. Remainder of legend as in table S13.

	Forage quantity						Forage quality						Wood quantity					
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.26		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.76				R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.20		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.88				R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.32		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.86			
	n = 258						n = 245						n = 265					
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.90						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.86						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.98; n = 50, p = 0.83					
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF
Latitude	0.049	± 0.119	0.683			1.17	0.135	± 0.064	0.037			1.51	0.084	± 0.267	0.753			1.55
Longitude (cos)	0.144	± 0.116	0.216			1.18	-0.028	± 0.061	0.652			1.08	0.036	± 0.231	0.878			1.21
Longitude (sin)	0.164	± 0.121	0.175			1.10	0.009	± 0.064	0.890			1.21	-0.162	± 0.250	0.520			1.25
Elevation	-0.044	± 0.122	0.718			1.30	0.082	± 0.063	0.195			1.24	-0.069	± 0.250	0.782			1.44
Slope	0.143	± 0.088	0.104			1.14	0.009	± 0.036	0.806			1.14	0.048	± 0.141	0.735			1.13
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	-0.107	± 0.140	0.447	11	0.92	1.85	-0.204	± 0.065	0.002	14	1.00	1.39	0.870	± 0.279	0.002	7	1.00	1.87
MAP <sup>2</sup>	-0.114	± 0.079	0.152	4	0.28	1.29	0.066	± 0.038	0.084	9	0.67	1.44	-0.274	± 0.147	0.064	5	0.76	1.43
Mean annual temperature (MAT)							-0.061	± 0.074	0.414	2	0.11	1.69	-0.074	± 0.389	0.850	7	1.00	3.43
MAT <sup>2</sup>													-0.778	± 0.267	0.004	7	1.00	2.87
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)							0.037	± 0.060	0.546	1	0.05	1.24	0.656	± 0.275	0.018	7	1.00	1.77
pH	-0.194	± 0.123	0.116	2	0.81	1.80							-0.272	± 0.200	0.176	3	0.40	1.55
pH <sup>2</sup>	0.117	± 0.067	0.081	1	0.33	1.13												
Sand content	0.176	± 0.102	0.087	11	0.02	1.31	0.049	± 0.047	0.299	4	0.22	1.26	0.117	± 0.175	0.507	1	0.10	1.27
Plant richness	0.518	± 0.100	<0.001	16	1.00	1.29	0.169	± 0.042	<0.001	14	1.00	1.20	0.460	± 0.171	0.007	7	1.00	1.29
Herbivore richness	-0.163	± 0.071	0.022	16	1.00	1.10	-0.031	± 0.030	0.314	14	1.00	1.14						
Belowground diversity																		
Grazing pressure (Graz)	-0.102	± 0.042	0.015	16	1.00	1.07	-0.015	± 0.016	0.346	14	1.00	1.07	-0.063	± 0.060	0.296	2	0.24	1.04
Graz × MAP	0.062	± 0.041	0.134	4	0.44	1.09	0.025	± 0.016	0.118	7	0.51	1.05						
Graz × MAT																		
Graz × RASE																		
Graz × pH				11	0.33	1.75												
Graz × Sand content																		
Graz × Plant richness	0.035	± 0.043	0.416	1	0.02	1.12	0.020	± 0.016	0.219	3	0.22	1.13						
Graz × Herbivore richness	-0.070	± 0.043	0.108	10	0.52	1.11	-0.047	± 0.017	0.005	14	1.00	1.16						
Graz × Belowground diversity																		

2619



**Table S22.** Results of the model selection procedure for regulating ecosystem services using livestock tracks as a proxy of grazing pressure. Results of model preselection based on AIC are available on table S28. Remainder of legend as in table S13.

	Soil carbon storage						Organic matter decomposition						Erosion control						Water regulation												
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.83		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.96		n = 202		Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.98; n = 50, p = 0.87		R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.77		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.90		n = 154		Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.97; n = 20, p = 0.92; n = 50, p = 0.81		R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.42		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.92		n = 150		Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.96; n = 50, p = 0.86		R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.67		R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.91		n = 206		Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.98; n = 50, p = 0.83
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	
Latitude	0.165	± 0.053	0.002			1.78	0.108	± 0.046	0.020			1.96	0.029	± 0.016	0.069			1.23	-0.006	± 0.015	0.668			1.69							
Longitude (cos)	0.005	± 0.042	0.911			1.20	-0.002	± 0.031	0.936			1.35	-0.001	± 0.014	0.948			1.24	-0.014	± 0.012	0.232			1.05							
Longitude (sin)	-0.061	± 0.053	0.252			1.55	-0.035	± 0.045	0.431			1.87	-0.005	± 0.018	0.783			1.32	-0.029	± 0.014	0.049			1.32							
Elevation	-0.290	± 0.054	<0.001			1.82	-0.098	± 0.041	0.016			2.63	0.019	± 0.018	0.284			1.62	-0.024	± 0.013	0.066			1.23							
Slope	0.040	± 0.029	0.171			1.19	0.004	± 0.025	0.873			1.34	0.011	± 0.008	0.160			1.18	0.007	± 0.009	0.425			1.14							
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	0.414	± 0.060	<0.001	3	1.00	2.17	0.120	± 0.050	0.017	7	1.00	4.03	0.035	± 0.018	0.056	16	0.75	2.37	0.046	± 0.017	0.006	3	1.00	2.08							
MAP <sup>2</sup>	-0.039	± 0.032	0.227	1	0.29	1.38	-0.029	± 0.025	0.251	2	0.22	2.09	-0.010	± 0.011	0.353	2	0.06	1.63	-0.018	± 0.009	0.038	3	1.00	1.33							
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	-0.310	± 0.079	<0.001	3	1.00	3.00	-0.168	± 0.070	0.016	5	0.72	4.12	-0.150	± 0.054	0.006	5	0.72	3.07	-0.065	± 0.018	<0.001	3	1.00	1.84							
MAT <sup>2</sup>	-0.234	± 0.062	<0.001	3	1.00	2.17	-0.150	± 0.054	0.006	5	0.72	3.07																			
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	0.096	± 0.056	0.086	3	1.00	1.75	0.118	± 0.054	0.030	6	0.81	2.31																			
pH	-0.084	± 0.045	0.066	3	1.00	1.81	-0.103	± 0.045	0.023	7	1.00	2.75	-0.033	± 0.016	0.040	21	0.96	1.85	0.000	± 0.013	0.970	3	1.00	1.80							
pH <sup>2</sup>	-0.043	± 0.022	0.052	2	0.77	1.21	-0.063	± 0.031	0.042	5	0.77	1.52	-0.013	± 0.008	0.110	10	0.47	1.14	-0.008	± 0.007	0.260	1	0.26	1.16							
Sand content	-0.364	± 0.039	<0.001	3	1.00	1.41	-0.221	± 0.029	<0.001	7	1.00	1.40	-0.035	± 0.010	0.001	22	1.00	1.18	-0.107	± 0.011	<0.001	3	1.00	1.33							
Plant richness	0.096	± 0.038	0.012	3	1.00	1.46	0.036	± 0.035	0.314	1	0.12	2.40	0.023	± 0.011	0.035	19	0.87	1.50													
Herbivore richness	0.076	± 0.023	0.001	3	1.00	1.10																									
Belowground diversity							0.074	± 0.025	0.004	7	1.00	1.57	0.004	± 0.007	0.540	8	0.38														
Grazing pressure (Graz)	-0.026	± 0.014	0.060	3	1.00	1.11							-0.009	± 0.003	0.007	22	1.00	1.12	-0.006	± 0.004	0.171	3	1.00	1.02							
Graz × MAP													0.004	± 0.004	0.224	3	0.10	2.39													
Graz × MAT																															
Graz × RASE	-0.034	± 0.015	0.020	3	1.00	1.16													0.007	± 0.006	0.245	1	0.28	1.47							
Graz × pH													-0.007	± 0.004	0.031	12	0.58	2.35	0.014	± 0.005	0.003	3	1.00	1.42							
Graz × Sand content																			0.012	± 0.004	0.006	3	1.00	1.17							
Graz × Plant richness	-0.034	± 0.015	0.023	3	1.00	1.14																									
Graz × Herbivore richness																															
Graz × Belowground diversity													-0.008	± 0.004	0.031	7	0.35	1.22													

**Table S23.** Results of the model selection procedure for supporting ecosystem services using livestock tracks as a proxy of grazing pressure. Results of model preselection based on AIC are available on table S28. Remainder of legend as in table S13.

	Aboveground plant biomass and its temporal stability						Soil fertility					
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.62			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.93			R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.74			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.95		
	n = 210						n = 318					
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.98; n = 50, p = 0.88						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.98; n = 50, p = 0.88					
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF
Latitude	0.037 ±	0.013	0.006			1.73	-0.033 ±	0.029	0.263			1.67
Longitude (cos)	-0.011 ±	0.012	0.385			1.19	-0.016 ±	0.023	0.491			1.07
Longitude (sin)	0.001 ±	0.013	0.934			1.55	-0.033 ±	0.030	0.267			1.45
Elevation	0.004 ±	0.013	0.773			1.71	-0.053 ±	0.025	0.038			1.26
Slope	-0.006 ±	0.007	0.360			1.14	0.024 ±	0.016	0.129			1.10
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)	0.038 ±	0.013	0.005	4	1.00	2.16	0.133 ±	0.030	<0.001	6	1.00	2.02
MAP <sup>2</sup>	-0.006 ±	0.008	0.400	1	0.19	1.46	-0.028 ±	0.018	0.122	3	0.51	1.43
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	0.022 ±	0.018	0.234	4	1.00	2.97	-0.195 ±	0.041	<0.001	6	1.00	2.42
MAT <sup>2</sup>	-0.065 ±	0.012	<0.001	4	1.00	2.09	-0.097 ±	0.032	0.003	6	1.00	1.69
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	0.025 ±	0.015	0.111	4	1.00	1.68						
pH	-0.059 ±	0.010	<0.001	4	1.00	1.75	0.015 ±	0.024	0.539	2	0.27	1.71
pH <sup>2</sup>	0.013 ±	0.005	0.008	4	1.00	1.19	-0.021 ±	0.011	0.058	2	0.27	1.17
Sand content						1.28	-0.230 ±	0.020	<0.001	6	1.00	1.29
Plant richness	0.013 ±	0.008	0.089	4	1.00	1.40						
Herbivore richness												
Belowground diversity												
Grazing pressure (Graz)	0.002 ±	0.003	0.426	4	1.00	1.02	0.008 ±	0.006	0.222	2	0.29	1.06
Graz × MAP												
Graz × MAT	-0.003 ±	0.003	0.339	1	0.21	1.38						
Graz × RASE	0.008 ±	0.003	0.005	4	1.00	1.18						
Graz × pH	0.003 ±	0.003	0.370	1	0.20	1.47						
Graz × Sand content												
Graz × Plant richness	0.008 ±	0.003	0.005	4	1.00	1.08						
Graz × Herbivore richness												
Graz × Belowground diversity												

2631

**Table S24.** Results of the model selection procedure for provisioning ecosystem services using livestock tracks as a proxy of grazing pressure. Results of model preselection based on AIC are available on table S28. Remainder of legend as in table S13.

	Forage quantity						Forage quality						Wood quantity								
	R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.34			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.87			R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.25			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.90			R <sup>2</sup> m = 0.41			R <sup>2</sup> c = 0.93					
	n = 207						n = 205						n = 203								
	Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.97; n = 50, p = 0.85						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.99; n = 20, p = 0.98; n = 50, p = 0.88						Moran test: n = 10, p = 0.98; n = 20, p = 0.99; n = 50, p = 0.86								
	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF	Est.	Std Er.	P value	n	Imp.	VIF			
Latitude	0.059	±	0.137	0.666		1.48	0.031	±	0.069	0.659		1.72	0.089	±	0.279	0.751		1.69			
Longitude (cos)	0.035	±	0.127	0.786		1.15	-0.037	±	0.062	0.556		1.12	-0.163	±	0.219	0.461		1.14			
Longitude (sin)	0.170	±	0.144	0.240		1.23	0.003	±	0.072	0.968		1.32	-0.245	±	0.264	0.357		1.30			
Elevation	0.019	±	0.142	0.892		1.51	0.159	±	0.069	0.022		1.42	-0.098	±	0.243	0.688		1.46			
Slope	0.277	±	0.080	0.001		1.10	0.024	±	0.035	0.496		1.11	0.149	±	0.118	0.210		1.13			
Mean annual precipitation (MAP)							-0.153	±	0.066	0.020	9	1.00	1.75	1.241	±	0.299	<0.001	3	1.00	2.00	
MAP <sup>2</sup>							0.051	±	0.045	0.268	2	0.19	1.37	-0.522	±	0.164	0.002	3	1.00	1.37	
Mean annual temperature (MAT)	0.143	±	0.170	0.403	1	0.17	1.66	0.097	±	0.094	0.306	1	0.10	1.95	0.141	±	0.341	0.681	3	1.00	1.97
MAT <sup>2</sup>								±													
Rainfall seasonality (RASE)	0.075	±	0.148	0.614	1	0.14	1.31	0.080	±	0.073	0.277	2	0.18	1.33							
pH													-0.336	±	0.192	0.082	3	1.00	1.60		
pH <sup>2</sup>													-0.177	±	0.086	0.042	2	0.77	1.19		
Sand content	-0.088	±	0.101	0.389	1	0.17	1.26	0.027	±	0.048	0.577	9	1.00	1.25	0.201	±	0.155	0.196	3	1.00	1.24
Plant richness	0.602	±	0.098	<0.001	5	1.00	1.29	0.186	±	0.044	<0.001	9	1.00	1.33	0.194	±	0.146	0.187	3	1.00	1.29
Herbivore richness																					
Belowground diversity																					
Grazing pressure (Graz)	-0.196	±	0.035	<0.001	5	1.00	1.01	-0.032	±	0.015	0.038	9	1.00	1.03	-0.089	±	0.047	0.061	3	1.00	1.04
Graz × MAP								0.020	±	0.016	0.200	4	0.37	1.06							
Graz × MAT															-0.179	±	0.061	0.004	3	1.00	1.49
Graz × RASE																					
Graz × pH															-0.066	±	0.056	0.244	1	0.28	1.45
Graz × Sand content								-0.051	±	0.015	0.001	9	1.00	1.06	0.324	±	0.051	<0.001	3	1.00	1.18
Graz × Plant richness	-0.025	±	0.035	0.487	1	0.15	1.04	-0.018	±	0.015	0.238	2	0.20	1.07	0.153	±	0.050	0.002	3	1.00	1.10
Graz × Herbivore richness																					
Graz × Belowground diversity																					

2634

2637 **Table S25.** Model preselection for biodiversity metrics using site as a random effect (random intercept, 1|site). We considered three  
 2640 datasets: (i) a full data set considering all plots (n = 326) with available plant species richness data; (ii) a mammalian herbivore  
 2643 richness data set (n = 300 plots with plant species and mammalian herbivore richness data; (iii) a belowground diversity data set (n =  
 242 plots with both plant species richness and belowground diversity data). For each dataset we compared models with and without  
 biodiversity metrics and compared their AICs. Bold red numbers show the best model selected for each service and used for the model  
 selection procedure (see “Statistical analyses” section). Plant biomass & stability = aboveground plant biomass and its temporal  
 stability.

Models			Soil carbon storage		Organic matter decomposition		Erosion control		Water regulation		Plant biomass & stability		Soil fertility		Forage quantity		Forage quality		Wood quantity	
			AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC
Data set	Full data set with Plant Richness	n = 326																		
Model 1	Full model without plant richness		293.4	0.0	27.1	0.0	-789.7	0.0	-587.6	0.0	-646.6	0.0	-197.7	0.0	885.1	0.0	341.1	0.0	1173.6	0.0
Model 2	Full model + Plant Richness		266.7	-26.7	11.1	-16.0	-800.9	-11.3	<b>-586.5</b>	<b>1.1</b>	-653.9	-7.3	<b>-195.9</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>857.2</b>	<b>-27.9</b>	325.8	-15.3	<b>1165.2</b>	<b>-8.4</b>
Data set	Herbivore richness	n = 300																		
Model 3	Full Model without plant richness		241.8	0.0	-4.5	0.0	-738.1	0.0	-562.2	0.0	-596.4	0.0	-175.4	0.0	813.2	0.0	312.0	0.0	1086.9	0.0
Model 4	Full model + Plant richness		223.0	-18.8	-16.2	-11.7	-745.4	-7.3	-562.1	0.1	-600.7	-4.3	-174.1	1.3	791.8	-21.4	298.2	-13.8	1079.3	-7.6
Model 5	Full model + Herbivore richness		236.7	-5.1	-2.8	1.7	-735.4	2.8	-558.8	3.4	-602.6	-6.2	-172.7	2.7	816.3	3.2	306.5	-5.5	1090.1	3.2
Model 6	Full model + Plant richness + Herbivore richness		<b>219.3</b>	<b>-22.5</b>	-14.7	-10.2	-742.5	-4.4	-558.4	3.8	<b>-604.6</b>	<b>-8.2</b>	-172.0	3.4	794.7	-18.5	<b>294.3</b>	<b>-17.7</b>	1083.0	-3.9
Data set	Belowground diversity	n = 216																		
Model 7	Full Model without plant richness		239.2	0.0	35.3	0.0	-569.4	0.0	-400.7	0.0	-452.0	0.0	-152.6	0.0	635.2	0.0	244.8	0.0	869.7	0.0
Model 8	Full model + Plant richness		223.2	-16.0	26.3	-9.0	-573.5	-4.2	-398.3	2.4	-461.0	-8.9	-150.3	2.3	616.2	-19.0	234.6	-10.2	861.4	-8.3
Model 9	Full model + Belowground diversity (BD)		240.6	1.4	26.6	-8.8	-571.4	-2.0	-399.4	1.3	-449.6	2.5	-149.7	2.9	636.7	1.5	247.4	2.6	869.5	-0.2
Model 10	Full model + Plant richness+BD.		226.4	-12.8	<b>22.1</b>	<b>-13.2</b>	<b>-574.0</b>	<b>-4.6</b>	-396.2	4.5	-459.3	-7.2	-147.7	4.9	620.0	-15.3	237.9	-6.9	864.0	-5.7

2646

**Table S26.** Model preselection for biodiversity metrics using grazing pressure nested within site (random slope and intercept, grazing|site). Rest of legend as in table S25.

Models			Soil carbon storage		Organic matter decomposition		Erosion control		Water regulation		Plant biomass & stability		Soil fertility		Forage quantity		Forage quality		Wood quantity	
			AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC
Data set	Full data set with plant richness	n = 326																		
Model 1	Full model without plant richness		284.6	0.0	25.6	0.0	-790.3	0.0	-589.1	0.0	-654.6	0.0	<b>-198.2</b>	<b>0.0</b>	876.6	0.0	338.0	0.0	1177.5	0.0
Model 2	Full model + Plant Richness		261.0	<b>-23.6</b>	7.8	<b>-17.8</b>	<b>-802.4</b>	<b>-12.1</b>	<b>-588.5</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>-657.5</b>	<b>-2.9</b>	<b>-195.6</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>852.1</b>	<b>-24.6</b>	326.2	<b>-11.8</b>	<b>1169.2</b>	<b>-8.4</b>
Data set	Herbivore richness	n = 300																		
Model 3	Full Model without plant richness		242.1	0.0	-0.6	0.0	-735.4	0.0	-558.5	0.0	-600.4	0.0	-176.0	0.0	805.1	0.0	308.2	0.0	1090.8	0.0
Model 4	Full model + Plant richness		223.7	<b>-18.4</b>	<b>-12.7</b>	<b>-12.2</b>	<b>-743.2</b>	<b>-7.8</b>	<b>-558.8</b>	<b>-0.4</b>	<b>-601.9</b>	<b>-1.5</b>	<b>-174.0</b>	<b>1.9</b>	788.5	<b>-16.7</b>	297.6	<b>-10.6</b>	1083.3	<b>-7.5</b>
Model 5	Full model + Herbivore richness		238.2	<b>-3.8</b>	1.1	1.7	<b>-732.5</b>	3.0	<b>-555.0</b>	3.4	<b>-605.3</b>	<b>-4.9</b>	<b>-173.1</b>	2.9	807.2	2.1	305.7	<b>-2.5</b>	1094.1	3.2
Model 6	Full model + Plant richness + Herbivore richness		<b>221.4</b>	<b>-20.7</b>	<b>-11.2</b>	<b>-10.6</b>	<b>-740.2</b>	<b>-4.8</b>	<b>-555.1</b>	3.4	<b>-605.5</b>	<b>-5.1</b>	<b>-171.6</b>	4.3	789.7	<b>-15.4</b>	<b>295.8</b>	<b>-12.4</b>	1087.0	<b>-3.8</b>
Data set	Belowground diversity	n = 216																		
Model 7	Full Model without plant richness		238.5	0.0	36.1	0.0	-570.8	0.0	-404.9	0.0	-455.9	0.0	-154.2	0.0	634.0	0.0	245.5	0.0	873.5	0.0
Model 8	Full model + Plant richness		223.6	<b>-14.9</b>	27.0	<b>-9.1</b>	<b>-575.2</b>	<b>-4.4</b>	<b>-402.9</b>	2.0	<b>-461.2</b>	<b>-5.3</b>	<b>-151.7</b>	2.5	612.7	<b>-21.3</b>	237.6	<b>-7.9</b>	864.9	<b>-8.7</b>
Model 9	Full model + Belowground diversity (BD)		240.2	1.7	27.9	<b>-8.2</b>	<b>-571.6</b>	<b>-0.8</b>	<b>-403.7</b>	1.2	<b>-452.7</b>	3.2	<b>-150.7</b>	3.5	635.1	1.1	248.1	2.6	873.5	0.0
Model 10	Full model + Plant richness+BD.		227.0	<b>-11.5</b>	<b>23.4</b>	<b>-12.7</b>	<b>-574.8</b>	<b>-4.0</b>	<b>-400.8</b>	4.1	<b>-458.5</b>	<b>-2.6</b>	<b>-148.4</b>	5.7	616.4	<b>-17.6</b>	241.2	<b>-4.4</b>	867.6	<b>-5.9</b>

2652 **Table S27.** Model preselection for biodiversity metrics using dung mass as a proxy of grazing pressure. Rest of legend as in table S25.

Models			Soil carbon storage		Organic matter decomposition		Erosion control		Water regulation		Plant biomass & stability		Soil fertility		Forage quantity		Forage quality		Wood quantity		
			AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC
Data set	Full data set with Plant Richness	n = 326																			
Model 1	Full model without plant richness		196.5	0.0	-20.2	0.0	-658.8	0.0	-496.6	0.0	-525.6	0.0	-144.6	0.0	740.9	0.0	296.3	0.0	968.3	0.0	
Model 2	Full model + Plant Richness		174.1	-22.4	-28.2	-7.9	-661.7	-2.8	-499.9	-3.3	-522.3	3.4	-143.3	1.4	723.7	-17.2	285.0	-11.4	965.9	-2.4	
Data set	Herbivore richness	n = 300																			
Model 3	Full Model without plant richness		196.5	0.0	-20.2	0.0	-658.8	0.0	-496.6	0.0	-525.6	0.0	-144.6	0.0	740.9	0.0	296.3	0.0	968.3	0.0	
Model 4	Full model + Plant richness		174.1	-22.4	-28.2	-7.9	-661.7	-2.8	-499.9	-3.3	-522.3	3.4	-143.3	1.4	723.7	-17.2	285.0	-11.4	965.9	-2.4	
Model 5	Full model + Herbivore richness		194.7	-1.8	-19.9	0.4	-655.4	3.4	-492.7	4.0	-525.8	-0.2	-141.6	3.1	740.6	-0.3	289.6	-6.7	972.3	4.0	
Model 6	Full model + Plant richness + Herbivore richness		172.5	-24.0	-28.1	-7.9	-658.4	0.4	-496.0	0.7	-522.0	3.6	-140.2	4.5	721.7	-19.3	279.6	-16.7	969.7	1.4	
Data set	Belowground diversity	n = 216																			
Model 7	Full Model without plant richness		150.4	0.0	-4.0	0.0	-439.5	0.0	-311.2	0.0	-329.5	0.0	-98.5	0.0	494.7	0.0	200.1	0.0	670.5	0.0	
Model 8	Full model + Plant richness		143.2	-7.3	-7.2	-3.2	-438.5	0.9	-309.0	2.1	-329.9	-0.4	-97.3	1.2	485.3	-9.4	196.4	-3.7	672.2	1.7	
Model 9	Full model + Belowground diversity (BD)		149.0	-1.5	-12.1	-8.2	-436.0	3.5	-311.9	-0.8	-325.8	3.7	-98.4	0.1	498.2	3.6	204.0	3.8	673.7	3.2	
Model 10	Full model + Plant richness+BD.		143.3	-7.1	-14.1	-10.1	-434.6	4.8	-309.6	1.6	-326.4	3.1	-98.2	0.2	489.1	-5.5	199.2	-0.9	675.7	5.3	

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2658

**Table S28.** Model preselection for biodiversity metrics using livestock tracks as a proxy of grazing pressure. Rest of legend as in table S25.

Models			Soil carbon storage		Organic matter decomposition		Erosion control		Water regulation		Plant biomass & stability		Soil fertility		Forage quantity		Forage quality		Wood quantity	
				ΔAIC		ΔAIC		ΔAIC		ΔAIC		ΔAIC		ΔAIC		ΔAIC		ΔAIC		ΔAIC
Data set	Full data set with plant richness	n = 326																		
Model 1	Full model without plant richness		121.4	0.0	-28.0	0.0	-509.2	0.0	<b>-391.7</b>	<b>0.0</b>	-443.1	0.0	<b>-144.4</b>	<b>0.0</b>	613.9	0.0	203.3	0.0	765.2	0.0
Model 2	Full model + Plant Richness		115.3	-6.1	-34.4	-6.4	-515.1	-5.9	-389.0	2.7	<b>-444.2</b>	<b>-1.1</b>	-141.7	2.6	<b>590.3</b>	<b>-23.7</b>	<b>185.0</b>	<b>-18.3</b>	<b>765.9</b>	<b>0.7</b>
Data set	Herbivore richness	n = 300																		
Model 3	Full Model without plant richness		120.0	0.0	-26.1	0.0	-493.9	0.0	-385.0	0.0	-413.6	0.0	-132.2	0.0	580.6	0.0	196.2	0.0	726.1	0.0
Model 4	Full model + Plant richness		116.3	-3.6	-31.4	-5.3	-494.3	-0.3	-383.9	1.2	-414.1	-0.5	-129.7	2.6	562.8	-17.9	180.7	-15.5	720.7	-5.4
Model 5	Full model + Herbivore richness		114.4	-5.5	-24.2	1.9	-490.1	3.9	-381.2	3.8	-416.5	-2.9	-129.8	2.4	584.4	3.7	197.8	1.6	730.1	4.0
Model 6	Full model + Plant richness + Herbivore richness		<b>111.9</b>	<b>-8.1</b>	-30.1	-4.0	-490.5	3.5	-380.7	4.3	-415.4	-1.8	-127.9	4.4	565.6	-15.0	182.7	-13.6	723.0	-3.1
Data set	Belowground diversity	n = 216																		
Model 7	Full Model without plant richness		102.3	0.0	-14.1	0.0	-354.0	0.0	-249.4	0.0	-286.5	0.0	-102.3	0.0	420.5	0.0	139.5	0.0	554.0	0.0
Model 8	Full model + Plant richness		100.7	-1.6	-16.4	-2.3	-353.6	0.4	-248.1	1.4	-287.9	-1.4	-100.2	2.1	408.9	-11.6	129.8	-9.8	553.5	-0.5
Model 9	Full model + Belowground diversity (BD)		104.6	2.3	-17.4	-3.4	-355.0	-1.0	-246.0	3.4	-282.5	4.0	-105.2	-2.9	424.1	3.5	142.7	3.2	558.0	3.9
Model 10	Full model + Plant richness+BD.		104.0	1.7	<b>-17.5</b>	<b>-3.4</b>	<b>-354.7</b>	<b>-0.8</b>	-244.6	4.9	-284.2	2.3	-102.8	-0.5	412.7	-7.9	133.5	-6.0	557.0	2.9

2661

2664 **Movie S1.** Animated video showing the location of the study sites across the globe, and the location of the plots and watering points within selected sites. The type of vegetation and some herbivores present are also shown for some of these sites.