

1 **Livestock grazing-induced large-scale biotic homogenization in arid Mediterranean steppe rangelands**

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29 Abstract

30 Despite many studies explored the effect of livestock grazing on plant communities the response of species
 31 composition and diversity to livestock grazing in arid rangelands remain ambiguous. This study examined the
 32 effects of livestock grazing vs grazing exclusion on plant communities in arid steppe rangelands of North
 33 Africa. Plant diversity of annual species perennial species and all species combined was measured and
 34 compared between grazed and grazing-excluded areas. We also verified whether the difference in plant
 35 community composition between the two management types was due to species spatial turnover or community
 36 nestedness. Besides the effects of livestock grazing on beta diversity at local among transects and landscape
 37 among sites scales were examined using the multiplicative diversity partitioning. Results revealed that livestock
 38 grazing significantly decreased the alpha diversity of all species combined and the diversity of annual plants.
 39 Livestock grazing induced a shift in plant community composition where the most of species composition
 40 variation ~74% was due to infrequent species replacement between the two management types rather than
 41 community sub setting ~26%. The analysis of beta diversity at different spatial scales revealed that livestock
 42 grazing significantly increased beta diversity at the local scale but decreased it at the landscape scale. Our
 43 findings suggest that livestock grazing in arid steppe rangelands increases the variation of plant composition at
 44 local spatial scale and engenders vegetation homogeneity at coarse spatial scale. Therefore, the implementation
 45 of appropriate management practices such as short-term grazing exclusion is mandatory to prevent these
 46 ecosystems from large scale biotic homogenization.

47
 48 **Keywords:** Mediterranean rangelands; ecological spatial-scaling; species composition dissimilarity; alpha and
 49 beta-diversity; species turnover; rangeland grazing; plant community.

51 1. Introduction

52 Mediterranean rangelands have evolved for a long time under the effect of grazing and high climatic
 53 variability (Perevolotsky & Seligman, 1998; Le Floch, 2001). These conditions contributed to the
 54 patterning of particular plant communities resilient to perturbations (Perevolotsky & Seligman, 1998;
 55 Sternberg et al. 2000). Nonetheless, the excessive use of rangeland resources by grazing and climate
 56 change can lead to land degradation (Li et al., 2013). Substantially, the relationship between plant diversity

57 and livestock grazing has been widely studied, especially in arid rangelands (Alrababah et al., 2007; Saiz &
 58 Alados, 2014; Wang et al., 2018; Lv et al., 2019). In water-limited ecosystems, grazing is considered the
 59 main driver of biodiversity loss and land degradation (Reynolds et al., 2007; Chillo & Ojeda, 2014;
 60 Rasmussen et al., 2018). Dry Mediterranean ecosystems are highly heterogeneous (Alados et al., 2006) and
 61 complex (Alrababah et al., 2007; Cortina et al., 2009), which requires appropriate and well-adapted
 62 measures for sustaining their conservation. This becomes particularly relevant to understand the effect of
 63 livestock grazing on plant species composition and diversity in arid rangelands.

64 Despite the considerable number of studies that explored this topic, the response of plant communities to
 65 livestock grazing remains controversial. In arid and semi-arid rangelands, environmental filters play a
 66 determinant role in the patterning of plant community composition (Fernandez-Gimenez & Allen-Diaz, 1999;
 67 Ahlborn et al., 2020). This paradigm is well sustained in the concept of the non-equilibrium model (Illius &
 68 O'Connor, 1999; Sullivan & Rohde, 2002). In contrast, low-productivity lands with a long evolutionary
 69 history of grazing are characterized by a decline in species diversity following grazing intensity which
 70 supports the generalized dynamic equilibrium model (Milchunas et al., 1988; Cingolani et al., 2005). The
 71 main ecological concern in the debate between the two models is the definition of the best model that fits the
 72 needs of rangeland management. Consequently, the recent development of the debate indicated that both
 73 patterns (non-equilibrium – equilibrium) could coexist in the same system (Vetter, 2005; Briske et al., 2020).
 74 Nevertheless, the prediction of the response of rangeland dynamics to grazing remains a challenging question
 75 (Anderson & Hoffman, 2007; Oñatibia & Aguiar, 2019; Pfeiffer et al., 2019; Gao & Carmel, 2020a). Given
 76 the difficulties of management practices in arid environments due to the uncertainties i.e., complex network
 77 of interactions between herbivores, environmental factors, and biodiversity, more studies would be necessary
 78 to understand thoroughly the interplay between grazers and plant diversity.

79 In the prospect of sustainable resource management, the understanding of the effect of livestock grazing at
 80 different spatial scales on plant diversity is needed. Consistently, it has also been reported that grazing changes
 81 the distribution of soil nutrients and water, resulting in changes in spatial patterns of the distribution of
 82 vegetation (Adler et al., 2001). Therefore, the effects of herbivores on plant diversity, particularly beta-diversity,
 83 need to be considered at different spatial scales (Olff & Ritchie, 1998). The application of the multiscale
 84 approach is suitable to identify at which scale management practices should be applied (Gabriel et al., 2006;

85 Koyama et al., 2018). Spatial scales with high heterogeneity (beta-diversity) are crucial for the implementation
 86 of plant diversity conservation. For example, in dryland ecosystems, Hanke et al. (2014) indicated that
 87 functional groups (annuals, perennials) were effective indicators for environmental conservation, and on the
 88 landscape scale the vegetation was more heterogeneous. In semi-arid Mediterranean grasslands, however, both
 89 local and landscape scales are important for the management of grassland biodiversity (Golodets et al., 2011).

90 North African rangelands extend along the northern edges of the Sahara Desert, which makes these
 91 ecosystems subjected to severe effects of the hot-dry desertic climate. These climatic conditions promoted the
 92 existence of a specialized plant community (Quézel & Santa, 1963; Slimani et al., 2010; Fatmi et al., 2020).
 93 Previous studies on plant communities carried out in these rangelands have mainly focused on the
 94 measurement of diversity using species richness, Shannon diversity, and evenness to explain the relationship
 95 between livestock grazing and plant diversity (e.g., Amghar et al., 2012; Gamoun et al., 2015; Salemhour et
 96 al., 2016; Merdas et al., 2017). However, little information is available on the multi-spatial effects of
 97 livestock grazing on community composition, and beta-diversity in these water-limited ecosystems (but see
 98 Kouba et al. 2021).

99 Therefore, the main aim of this study is to investigate how livestock grazing affects plant species
 100 composition and diversity (alpha- and beta-diversity) in the arid Mediterranean steppe rangelands at fine- and
 101 coarse-spatial scales. The detailed objectives of the study are (i) understanding how livestock grazing affects
 102 rare, common, and dominant species (*i.e.*, alpha diversities) of annual and perennial plants (ii) assessing the
 103 effects of livestock grazing on the composition of plant assemblages, and (iii) detecting the effect of livestock
 104 grazing on beta-diversity at different spatial scales.

105

106 **2. Materials and methods**

107 **2.1. Study area**

108 The study was conducted, approximately 150 km southeast of the Capital Algiers, in the arid steppes
 109 located in Central Algerian rangelands (Fig. 1). The elevation ranges between 621 m a.s.l. in the high plateau
 110 region and 980 m in piedmont near the Saharan Atlas, with a mean value of 842 m (\pm 94.33). Soils of the study
 111 area are dominated by Calcimagnesian, carbonated, and encrusted gypsum soils (Halitim, 1988).

112 The climate data obtained from the nearest meteorological station of Bou-Saâda (M'sila Province), for the
 113 period of 1988–2014 showed that the climate is arid Mediterranean. The mean annual rainfall was 184 mm with
 114 peaks in spring and fall. Only 103 mm of rainfall was recorded during the monitoring year (2014). The average
 115 temperature was 32.30°C for July, indicating the hottest month, while January is the coldest month with 8.88°C.

116 The studied plant community is characteristic of the steppe vegetation of North Africa, where Halfah grass
 117 *Macrochloa tenacissima* (L.) Kunth (syn. *Stipa tenacissima* L.) dominated. Other common species were shrubs
 118 (*Artemisia herba-alba* Asso, *Artemisia campestris* L., *Helianthemum lippii* (L.) Dum. Cours., and *Noaea*
 119 *mucronata* (Forssk.) Asch. & Schweinf.), forbs (*Anacyclus monanthos* subsp. *cyrtolepidioides* (Pomel)
 120 Humphries, *Atractylis serratuloides* Sieber ex Cass., *Helianthemum salicifolium* (L.) Mill., and *Malva aegyptia*
 121 L.) and grasses (*Stipa capensis* Thunb., *Koeleria pubescens* P. Beauv., *Stipa lagascae* Roem. & Schult., and
 122 *Poa bulbosa* L.) (Le Houérou, 1995).

123 Lands of the study area are used mainly for livestock grazing where rangelands are subjected to free
 124 continuous grazing (all around the year), principally by sheep. The pastoralists are semi-nomadic populations
 125 (Slimani et al., 2010). The estimated stocking rate in the study area was 3.77 sheep units/ha, based on the data
 126 provided by the agricultural services of M'sila Province; this represents a high-grazing intensity (Merdas et al.,
 127 2017). All sampled sites within this region had similar topographic and climate conditions (Kouba et al., 2021).
 128 Short-term grazing-exclusion is a management strategy implemented by the High Commission for the
 129 Development of the Steppe (HCDS) to maintain the rangelands in a healthy state and avoiding land degradation.
 130 The grazing-exclusion areas are open for grazing after pastoral carrying capacity assessment carried out by
 131 HCDS technicians. The short-term grazing-exclusion is defined as a period of 3 - 4 years of protection from
 132 grazing activity (Sullivan & Rohde, 2002; Amghar et al., 2012; Gamoun, 2014; Gamoun et al., 2015).

133

134 **2.2. Data collection**

135 In spring 2014, during the period of peak vegetation growth (April-May), the vascular plant species were
 136 sampled in ten sites dominated by the Halfah grass (*M. tenacissima*) in the rangelands of Central Algeria. Five
 137 sampled sites were freely grazed for decades, whereas five other sites were protected from livestock grazing
 138 “grazing-excluded” for the last three years. Within each site, three 200-m linear transects were carried out, which
 139 means 15 transects in grazed areas and 15 transects in grazing-excluded areas. Overall, 30 transects were sampled.

Plant relative abundance and richness within each transect were estimated using the Point Intercept sampling method (Goodall, 1952), which consists of recording, at every 20 cm intervals, the identity of all individuals that are in contact with a vertical nail (Kouba et al., 2014). The relative abundance of each species in each transect was estimated from the number of individuals recorded along the same transect. Plant species that could not be identified with certainty in the field were collected, pressed, and brought to the laboratory for identification. The plant nomenclature was based on the African Plant Database (www.ville-ge.ch/musinfo/bd/cjb/africa) and the E-flora Maghreb website (<https://efloramaghreb.org/>).

2.3. *Plant diversity estimation*

Measures of plant diversity, namely, alpha- and beta-diversity were quantified using Hill numbers (qD). Hill's q -metrics reflecting the sensitivity of the diversity index to relative abundances of species. The analysis included the following q values: (i) $q=0$ reflects species richness, which is not sensitive to species abundances (ii) $q=1$ is equivalent to the exponential of Shannon entropy index; here, species are weighted in proportion to their frequency in the sampled community, and therefore, it can be interpreted as the number of "typical species" in the community, and (iii) $q=2$ is the equivalent of the inverse of Simpson's concentration index, which can be interpreted as the number of "very abundant species" in the community (Chao et al., 2012; Gossner et al., 2013; Chao et al., 2014).

2.4. *Statistical analysis*

Statistical analysis carried out using the R software (R Core Team, 2020). First, variations in alpha diversity metrics between grazed and grazing-excluded sites were analyzed using generalized linear mixed-effects models (GLMM), for all plant species combined and for annual and perennial species, separately. The GLMMs were performed using the function "lme" of the package {nlme}. To account for spatial dependencies, site location "pseudo-replication" was included as a random effect in the models (Kouba et al., 2015), whereas steppe grazing status "grazed vs. grazing-excluded" was the fixed effect. Normality and homogeneity of variance were tested by examining the model residuals versus the fitted plots and the normal q-q plots of each model.

167 To test for a significant difference in plant species composition between grazed and grazing-excluded areas,
 168 PERMANOVA analysis and non-metrical multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination were performed using
 169 the functions “adonis” and “metaMDS” of the {vegan} package, respectively. NMDS was run based on Bray-
 170 Curtis similarities using 4th-root transformation to reduce the weight of the most abundant species. Furthermore,
 171 to assess whether the difference in plant species composition was due to species replacement or nestedness, the
 172 additive partitioning of the total beta-diversity method (Baselga, 2010) was performed using “beta.sample”
 173 function of the package {betapart} (Baselga & Orme, 2012). In this analysis, the total beta-diversity (β_{SOR}) is
 174 defined as a Sørensen dissimilarity index which is additionally partitioned into β Simpson (β_{SIM}) describing species
 175 turnover and β nestedness (β_{SNE}) which measures community subsetting [$\beta_{SOR} = \beta_{SIM} + \beta_{SNE}$].

176 The effect of grazing on beta-diversity at multiple spatial scales was assessed using multiplicative diversity
 177 partitioning (Whittaker, 1972; Jost, 2006, 2007, 2010). This method was mainly employed to quantify among-
 178 transects and among-sites beta-diversities for grazed and grazing-excluded steppes. This analysis was
 179 performed using the “multipart” function from the {vegan} package.

180

181 3. Results

182 3.1. Species composition and relative abundance

183 A total of 101 plant species were recorded (Appendix 1) and classified into 81 genera and 26 families. Most
 184 species were annuals, *i.e.*, 62 species against 39 perennial species. The grazing-excluded steppes included more
 185 species ($S=93$ species) compared to grazed sites ($S=61$ species). Plant species occurring exclusively in grazing-
 186 excluded steppes were dominated by annual species (28 out of 40 species). Also, annual species represented 31
 187 out of 53 for common species (shared species) whereas they represent 3 out of the 8 species exclusive of grazed
 188 steppes (Fig. 2). The most frequent species were *M. tenacissima* (33.25%), *Anacyclus monanthos*
 189 *cyrtolepidioides* (11.50%), *Stipa capensis* (7.89%), *Malva aegyptia* (7.67%), and *Artemisia herba-alba*
 190 (5.58%).

191

192 3.2. Alpha diversities

193 When all species were included in the analysis, all measures of alpha diversity using Hill numbers (qD)
 194 ($q=0$, $q=1$, $q=2$) were significantly higher in grazing-excluded sites than in grazed areas. The same results were

observed for the annual species, except values of the inverse of Simpson concentration ($q=2$) which were not significantly different between steppes. For the perennial species, estimates of plant diversity were not significantly different between grazed and grazing-excluded steppes (Fig. 3).

3.3. *Beta diversities*

The PERMANOVA analysis revealed that plant species composition differed significantly between grazed and grazing-excluded sites ($P < 0.001$). Livestock management type (free grazing vs. grazing-exclusion) explained almost 60% of the variation in the composition of plant communities in arid rangelands. The compositional difference was clear in the plot determined using the NMDS analysis that revealed a clear separation between the grazed and grazing-excluded sites (Fig. 4).

Results indicated also that beta-diversity generated from grazed and grazing-excluded sites contributed greatly (54.2%) to the total diversity. Furthermore, the additive partitioning of the overall beta-diversity (β_{SOR}) indicated that 74.11% of the compositional dissimilarity was due to species turnover whereas 25.89% resulted from nestedness (Table 1). This result reflects that a large part of the compositional differentiation is due to species replacement instead of plant community sub-setting.

The multiplicative diversity partitioning also indicated that beta-diversity measures expressed by values of q -metrics were higher than expected by chance (Table 2). Among transects, beta-diversity (Beta transects) was higher in grazed areas than in grazing-excluded areas. Whereas, among sites, beta-diversity (Beta sites) was lower in grazed sites compared to grazing-excluded areas. Furthermore, beta-diversity decreased with the increasing of q values in both management types.

4. Discussion

Finding from this study highlight the strong connection of plant community diversity to herbivore activity. Plant species diversity of arid steppe rangelands of Algeria decreased significantly in grazed sites where it declined by 30%. Shifts in plant species diversity due to grazing have been previously reported in steppe rangelands of North Africa (Aidoud et al., 2006; Hirche et al., 2011; Salemkour et al., 2016; Kouba et al., 2021). Recently Gao & Carmel (2020b) conducted a meta-analysis on the relationship between grazing and plant diversity and the results showed that in arid environments, diversity responded negatively to grazing intensity.

223 Additionally, in arid Patagonian steppes, intensive grazing stocking rate decreased drastically plant diversity
 224 (Oñatibia & Aguiar, 2019). These findings strengthen the assumptions of the generalized dynamic equilibrium
 225 model (Milchunas et al., 1988) where grazing intensity decreases plant diversity in more dry conditions.

226 Although we found more perennial species in grazing-excluded areas, livestock grazing had not significant
 227 effects on rare, frequent, and abundant perennial species. This is mainly due to the fact that the recorded
 228 perennial species were among the highly specialized and well-adapted species to specific conditions prevailing
 229 in these environments, *i.e.*, recurrent drought events and continuous livestock grazing. Particularly, *M.*
 230 *tenacissima*, which is considered a grazing-resistant species, was notably abundant in grazed areas in Algerian
 231 steppe rangelands (Slimani et al., 2010) and Cabo de Gata Nijar, Spain (Saiz & Alados, 2012).

232 This study showed that the richness of annual species in grazing-excluded areas is more important than
 233 in grazed steppes. This result is consistent with previous studies carried out in arid Mediterranean rangelands,
 234 which reported a high abundance of ephemeral herbaceous species inside the protected areas (Amghar et al.,
 235 2012; Louhaichi et al., 2012). Similarly, Neffar et al. (2018) stressed that the rehabilitation of arid steppe
 236 rangelands produces more herbage under protection with a high frequency of therophytic annual plants.
 237 Overall, it is well acknowledged that the species composition of the Mediterranean rangelands is mainly
 238 determined by annual plants with a few numbers of high abundant perennial species such as *M. tenacissima*
 239 (Aidoud et al., 2006; Osem et al., 2007; Salemkour et al., 2016).

240 Many annual plants found in the protected areas (e.g., *Scorzonera undulata* Vahl, *Medicago laciniata* (L.)
 241 Mill., *Lolium rigidum* Gaudin, *Medicago minima* (L.) L., *Hippocrepis multisiliquosa* L.) are considered as
 242 forage species (Le Houérou, 1995), while non-protected areas exposed to free grazing were dominated by
 243 undesirable plant species (Oñatibia et al., 2020). This could be attributed to the fact that sheep consume the
 244 most nutritious species, which reduces their abundance and even led to their disappearance (Milton & Hoffman,
 245 1994; Tarhounin et al., 2010; Oñatibia & Aguiar, 2019). In line with this, Olff & Ritchie (1998) stressed that
 246 under the effect of herbivores, grazing-intolerant species can disappear from the community resulting in low
 247 diversity.

248 Our findings revealed that livestock grazing act as a non-random filter changing significantly the
 249 composition of plant assemblages, where the compositional divergence was mainly due to species
 250 replacement rather than community sub-setting. On the other hand, our analysis indicated that species

turnover affected essentially less frequent species, which means that rare species are the mostly affected ones by livestock overgrazing. Similarly, Li et al. (2015) reported a decrease in the overall plant species richness because the majority of rare species were highly grazed by animals.

The analysis of diversity patterns at multiple spatial scales showed that beta-diversity contributed significantly to the overall diversity measure. All measures of beta-diversity (*i.e.*, $q=0$, $q=1$, $q=2$) were significantly different and greater than expected by chance at both coarse and fine spatial scales. This indicates that plant species were not randomly distributed among and within scales, reflecting intraspecific aggregation (Crist et al., 2003). Our analysis also showed that the most important portion of beta-diversity is occurring at a broad scale (*i.e.*, among sites) in both management types (free grazing vs. grazing exclusion). This may be explained as all the combinations of transects beta-diversity could be well represented at the site level could leading to a higher beta-diversity (Beatty, 2014). Moreover, the fact that the values of beta-diversity were the highest when more weight is given to rare species reflects the great emphasis of rare species in patterning plant assemblages in arid steppe rangelands. In the semi-arid Mediterranean rangelands, plant diversity was found to be considerably represented by rare species (Osem et al., 2002). However, the protection from grazing increased the beta-component of the exponential Shannon diversity and the reciprocal Simpson diversity at broad scales (among sites). This can be attributed to the prevention of negative competitive interactions and the establishment of associations between plant species (Dorrough et al. 2007). The results also agree with previous studies that stressed the importance of grazing-exclusion management practice for the conservation of biodiversity in dry areas (Gao & Carmel, (2020b; Kouba et al. 2021). Such pattern of recovery in plant diversity is consistent with theory of the high resilience of Mediterranean rangelands with a long history of grazing (Perevolotsky & Seligman, 1998; Golodets et al., 2011).

This study demonstrated that livestock grazing in arid rangelands of Algeria increased the compositional divergence in plant communities at fine-scales. This result supports the notion that increased intensity of grazing may surge the spatial variation in species assemblages at the local scale (Zhang et al., 2013). Besides, Golodets et al. (2011) stressed that herbivores increase small scale heterogeneity of soil nutrients (impact of excreta), which may increase plant diversity. Interestingly, our results revealed that livestock grazing reduces compositional divergence and contributes to vegetation homogenization at the landscape scale (*i.e.*, at coarse spatial scale). This finding is in line with other studies that reported a generalization of vegetation

homogenization as a result of overgrazing (Dorrough et al., 2007; Li et al., 2015), in particular in arid Mediterranean ecosystems (Jauffret, 2001; Alados et al., 2003, 2004). This biotic homogenization can result in the loss of biodiversity and ecosystem functions (Mori et al. 2018).

5. Conclusion

This study highlights the effects of livestock grazing on plant community composition and diversity in arid steppe rangelands, where the land degradation process is complex due to the synergetic interactions between severe climatic conditions and human activities. Our findings suggest that increasing livestock grazing intensity in arid rangelands could decrease plant alpha diversity and induces a shift in plant community composition because of the spatial turnover of less frequent species. Our analysis indicates also that livestock-induced changes in beta-diversity are scale-dependent: at a local scale, these changes are characterized by the increasing variation in species composition, while at the landscape scale they are represented by a large-scale biotic homogenization. We recommend that the improvement of the grazing management system in arid steppe rangelands is mandatory to prevent further land degradation due to biodiversity loss and large-scale biotic homogenization. The implementation of “short-term grazing exclusion” in many sites at the same time and the application of appropriate sheep stocking rates in the surrounding areas could enhance the ecological value of protected steppes.

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Table 1. Additive partitioning of the overall beta-diversity generated from grazed and grazing-excluded areas (β_{SOR}) to spatial turnover (β_{SIM}) and nestedness (β_{SNE}) components ($\beta_{SOR} = \beta_{SIM} + \beta_{SNE}$). β_{SIM} : the value of the turnover component, measured as Simpson dissimilarity; β_{SNE} : the value of the nestedness component, measured as the nestedness-resultant fraction of Sørensen dissimilarity; β_{SOR} : the value of the overall beta-diversity, measured as Sørensen dissimilarity.

	β_{SIM}	β_{SNE}	β_{SOR}
Values	0.40	0.14	0.54
Percentage of the total	74.12	25.88	100

Table 2. Comparing beta-diversities (*i.e.*, among-transects “Beta transects” and among-sites “Beta sites”) between grazed and grazing-excluded areas in the steppe rangelands of Algeria. Diversity was quantified using the Hill numbers (qD), with $q=0$ (all species are given equal weight), $q=1$ (greater weight is given to common species), or $q=2$ (greater weight is given to dominant species). Deviations from null distributions (numbers within brackets) are expressed by dividing the observed values by the expected values.

q -metrics	Free grazed steppes		Grazing-excluded steppes	
(Hill numbers)	Beta transects	Beta sites	Beta transects	Beta sites
$q = 0$	1.68 (1.22)	1.88 (1.43)	1.66 (1.20)	1.98 (1.45)
$q = 1$	1.23 (1.18)	1.40 (1.37)	1.15 (1.10)	1.49 (1.46)
$q = 2$	1.18 (1.18)	1.10 (1.10)	1.04 (1.04)	1.31 (1.31)