

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

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15

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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.

50

## 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 Floc'h, 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 (Olf & 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; Salemkour 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.

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

147

### 148 **2.3. Plant diversity estimation**

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

157

### 158 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

159 Statistical analysis carried out using the R software (R Core Team, 2020). First, variations in alpha  
160 diversity metrics between grazed and grazing-excluded sites were analyzed using generalized linear mixed-  
161 effects models (GLMM), for all plant species combined and for annual and perennial species, separately. The  
162 GLMMs were performed using the function "lme" of the package {nlme}. To account for spatial dependencies,  
163 site location "pseudo-replication" was included as a random effect in the models (Kouba et al., 2015), whereas  
164 steppe grazing status "grazed vs. grazing-excluded" was the fixed effect. Normality and homogeneity of  
165 variance were tested by examining the model residuals versus the fitted plots and the normal q-q plots of each  
166 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 ( $\beta_{SOR}$ ) is  
 174 defined as a Sørensen dissimilarity index which is additionally partitioned into  $\beta$  Simpson ( $\beta_{SIM}$ ) describing species  
 175 turnover and  $\beta$  nestedness ( $\beta_{SNE}$ ) 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

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

198

### 199 **3.3. Beta diversities**

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

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

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

215

## 216 **4. Discussion**

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

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

254 The analysis of diversity patterns at multiple spatial scales showed that beta-diversity contributed  
255 significantly to the overall diversity measure. All measures of beta-diversity (*i.e.*,  $q=0$ ,  $q=1$ ,  $q=2$ ) were  
256 significantly different and greater than expected by chance at both coarse and fine spatial scales. This indicates  
257 that plant species were not randomly distributed among and within scales, reflecting intraspecific aggregation  
258 (Crist et al., 2003). Our analysis also showed that the most important portion of beta-diversity is occurring at a  
259 broad scale (*i.e.*, among sites) in both management types (free grazing vs. grazing exclusion). This may be  
260 explained as all the combinations of transects beta-diversity could be well represented at the site level could  
261 leading to a higher beta-diversity (Beatty, 2014). Moreover, the fact that the values of beta-diversity were the  
262 highest when more weight is given to rare species reflects the great emphasis of rare species in patterning plant  
263 assemblages in arid steppe rangelands. In the semi-arid Mediterranean rangelands, plant diversity was found to  
264 be considerably represented by rare species (Osem et al., 2002). However, the protection from grazing increased  
265 the beta-component of the exponential Shannon diversity and the reciprocal Simpson diversity at broad scales  
266 (among sites). This can be attributed to the prevention of negative competitive interactions and the establishment  
267 of associations between plant species (Dorrough et al. 2007). The results also agree with previous studies that  
268 stressed the importance of grazing-exclusion management practice for the conservation of biodiversity in dry areas  
269 (Gao & Carmel, (2020b; Kouba et al. 2021). Such pattern of recovery in plant diversity is consistent with theory  
270 of the high resilience of Mediterranean rangelands with a long history of grazing (Perevolotsky & Seligman,  
271 1998; Golodets et al., 2011).

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

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

282

## 283 **5. Conclusion**

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

296

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

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

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519 **Table 2.** Comparing beta-diversities (*i.e.*, among-transects “Beta transects” and among-sites “Beta sites”)  
 520 between grazed and grazing-excluded areas in the steppe rangelands of Algeria. Diversity was quantified using  
 521 the Hill numbers ( ${}^qD$ ), with  $q=0$  (all species are given equal weight),  $q=1$  (greater weight is given to common  
 522 species), or  $q=2$  (greater weight is given to dominant species). Deviations from null distributions (numbers  
 523 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)

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