

# Assessing the net climate benefits of improved grazing intensity in global rangelands

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**Harper Adams  
University**

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1 Assessing the net-climate benefits of improved grazing intensity in global rangelands

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3 Robert S. Powell<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Steven J. Davis<sup>3,4</sup>, David G. Encarnation<sup>1,2</sup>, Johannes Piipponen<sup>5</sup>, Jinfeng  
4 Chang<sup>6</sup>, Courtney M. Currier<sup>1,2</sup>, Karl-Heinz Erb<sup>7</sup>, Samuel Eze<sup>8</sup>, Chaopeng Hong<sup>9</sup>,  
5 Pierre Ploton<sup>10,11,12</sup>, Shuai Ren<sup>13</sup>, Pete Smith<sup>14</sup>, Jishuai Su<sup>15</sup>, Giuseppe Tempio<sup>16</sup>, Cesar Terrer<sup>17</sup>,  
6 Dominik Wisser<sup>16</sup>, Fengwei Xu<sup>17,18</sup>, and Adam F. A. Pellegrini<sup>1,2,3\*</sup>

7

8 <sup>1</sup>Department of Plant Sciences, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK

9 <sup>2</sup>Conservation Research Institute, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK

10 <sup>3</sup> Department of Earth System Science, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA

11 <sup>4</sup>Department of Energy Science and Engineering, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA,

12 <sup>5</sup> Water & Development Research Group, Aalto University, Espoo, Finland,

13 <sup>6</sup>State Key Laboratory of Soil Pollution Control and Safety, College of Environmental and Resource Sciences,  
14 Zhejiang University, Hangzhou, 310058, China

15 <sup>7</sup>Institute of Social Ecology Vienna, University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences, Vienna, Austria,

16 <sup>8</sup>Department of Agriculture and Environment, Harper Adams University, Newport, UK,

17 <sup>9</sup>Tsinghua Shenzhen International Graduate School, Shenzhen, China,

18 <sup>10</sup>AMAP Univ Montpellier, IRD, CNRS, INRAE, CIRAD, Montpellier, France,

19 <sup>11</sup>Plant Systematics and Ecology Laboratory, Higher Teachers' Training College, University of Yaoundé I, P.O. Box  
20 047, Yaoundé, Cameroon,

21 <sup>12</sup>International Joint Laboratory DYCOFAC, IRD-UYI-IRGM, P.O Box 1857, Yaoundé, Cameroon,

22 <sup>13</sup>Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA,  
23 USA,

24 <sup>14</sup>Institute of Biological and Environmental Sciences, University of Aberdeen, Cruickshank Building, Aberdeen  
25 AB24 3UU, United Kingdom,

26 <sup>15</sup>College of Life Sciences, Hebei University, Baoding, Hebei, China,

27 <sup>16</sup>Animal Production and Health Division (NSA), Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO),  
28 00153 Rome, Italy,

29 <sup>17</sup> Institute of Ecological Conservation and Restoration, Chinese Academy of Forestry, Beijing 100091, China

30 <sup>18</sup>Grassland Research Center, National Forestry and Grassland Administration, Beijing 100091, China

31 **\*Corresponding Authors: Emails: [rsp46@cam.ac.uk](mailto:rsp46@cam.ac.uk), [afapelle@stanford.edu](mailto:afapelle@stanford.edu)**

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36 **Abstract**

37 Improved rangeland grazing could mitigate climate change via CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration in soils and vegetation.  
38 However, altering grazing practices to increase ecosystem carbon storage may also decrease livestock  
39 production and/or increase greenhouse gas emissions through the supply chain, such that the net-  
40 emissions impacts remain unclear. Here we assess the global net-mitigation potential of improving  
41 grazing intensity by quantifying potential CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration alongside system-level impacts of plant-  
42 productivity changes, livestock emissions, feed requirements, and production constraints. Improving  
43 grazing intensity in global rangelands could sequester  $2.2 \pm 0.43 \text{ GtCO}_2\text{eqyr}^{-1}$  in the near term, but  
44 maintaining livestock production via supplemental feeding would reduce net mitigation by 2%-31% (to  
45  $1.8 \pm 0.45 \text{ GtCO}_2\text{eqyr}^{-1}$ ). Our results suggest that neglecting systems-level emissions impacts may  
46 substantially overestimate the global climate benefits of improved grazing.

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48 **Main text**

49 Improving management of grazing lands could remove substantial quantities of CO<sub>2</sub> from the  
50 atmosphere (1-6) by increasing plant biomass production and stocks and in turn driving soil organic  
51 carbon (SOC) sequestration (7, 8). Although grazing does not always decrease SOC or plant productivity  
52 (7, 9), up to 50% of global rangelands are degraded relative to their natural potential, largely attributed to  
53 overgrazing (10). Grazing intensity can be improved, whereby grazing pressure is reduced or, sometimes,  
54 increased to low-to-moderate levels to enhance plant productivity (14-16) and increase carbon  
55 sequestration and storage (7, 8, 11-13). However, the magnitude of any SOC increase depends on both  
56 how low initial levels of plant biomass and SOC stocks are relative to their maxima and the effectiveness  
57 of altered grazing practices to close such gaps (7, 17-19).

58 A series of recent studies have sought to estimate the global magnitude, spatial distribution and  
59 variability of this potential natural climate solution (NCS) (7, 8 20-21). These works have concluded  
60 there is substantial global potential for increased carbon storage through improved grazing practices,  
61 leading to countries and project developers increasingly prioritizing interventions in livestock production  
62 systems (e.g. (22, 23)). For example, roughly a third of parties to the Paris Climate Agreement named  
63 grazing lands and livestock as priorities for meeting their emission mitigation goals (24). Yet estimates of  
64 the global carbon sequestration potential of improved grazing differ markedly between studies (e.g., 0.1-  
65  $2.6 \text{ GtCO}_2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) (1-4) and comparisons between various empirical approaches and process-based models  
66 remain rare. Moreover, these studies neglect two critical complexities. First, recent estimates of global  
67 potential for this NCS are narrowly focused on increases in plant biomass and SOC (7, 17) and neglect  
68 the effect of concomitant changes in livestock production and/or associated greenhouse gas (GHG)

69 emissions to the atmosphere (7, 20). Yet livestock and agricultural supply chains are major sources of  
70 emissions (25–27), and livestock production-related trade-offs could affect food security and increase  
71 emissions via spillover effects (20, 25). Secondly, recent global grazing studies (7, 28) assume plant  
72 biomass stocks increase proportionally with decreases in grazer forage consumption and vice versa. But  
73 ecological theory predicts that aboveground net-primary productivity (ANPP) changes dynamically with  
74 grazing intensity (13, 20), such that moderate grazing can, via improved light availability (29) and  
75 nutrient cycling (30), stimulate plant growth, forage production and SOC sequestration. This could  
76 greatly alter estimates of SOC sequestration and livestock production trade-offs, thereby changing the net-  
77 climate benefit of improved grazing and pointing to an urgent need for fuller assessments of rangeland-  
78 based NCS.

79 Here, we build on previous work by systematically analyzing the potential net climate benefits  
80 (sequestration minus emissions) of improved grazing intensity as a result of simultaneous changes in: (i)  
81 ecological processes that regulate how plant biomass productivities and livestock emissions respond to  
82 changes in grazing intensity; (ii) emissions from feed required to replace forgone forage consumption;  
83 (iii) spatial and geopolitical constraints on the scales of livestock and food production. We focus on  
84 altering grazing intensity, the pathway underlying most estimates of global grazing climate mitigation  
85 potential (7, 17, 20), and not other potentially beneficial grazing practices, such as rotational grazing, for  
86 which global experimental data are limited (31).

87 We first compiled a geographically-diverse dataset of paired observations of grazing intensity,  
88 plant biomass and SOC: 4,257 measurements of plant biomass and SOC from 210 studies across 333 sites  
89 manipulated for 1-91 years (average 11 years; Figure S1). We then applied a random forest approach to  
90 this dataset to estimate potential carbon sequestration of improving grazing intensity with and without  
91 including dynamic effects on plant productivity over >22 million km<sup>2</sup> of global rangelands (32). We  
92 accounted for spatial autocorrelation (i.e., nearby observations behaving similarly irrespective of  
93 underlying predictors) (33, 34) and quantified starting grazing intensities using IPCC Tier 2 livestock feed  
94 demand modelling (35), livestock distributions from the Gridded Livestock of the World dataset (36) and  
95 satellite-derived ANPP measurements (Methods (37) , Figures S2-S3). These empirically estimated  
96 biophysical responses were compared with simulations from four different process-based and empirical  
97 approaches, before being combined with estimated N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from livestock excrement  
98 deposition on soils, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from enteric fermentation, and emissions related to the production of  
99 supplementary feed and displacement of livestock production (Methods (37)). Throughout, we assessed  
100 the impact of maintaining livestock production, a critical requirement for NCS (38), at either local,  
101 country, or global scales. Thus, our assessment's system boundary is greatly expanded compared to  
102 previous studies of rangeland interventions.

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## 104 **Biophysical potential for carbon sequestration**

105           Within studies, large increases in plant biomass were observed where grazing pressure decreased  
106 from high to low levels, whereas shifts from high to moderate or moderate to low grazing intensities led  
107 to variable plant biomass responses (Figure 1A). Across studies, greater increases in plant biomass led to  
108 larger SOC gains (Figure 1B). Given the lack of standardisation across field-study-defined grazing  
109 intensity categories, we incorporated the response of plant biomass to changes in grazing intensity as a  
110 predictor of SOC change into a random forest model.

111           SOC gains depended on soil characteristics, climate, and plant biomass change (Figure 1C).  
112 Control-plot SOC concentration and precipitation seasonality were the two most important predictors,  
113 with greater SOC increases in areas with greater climatic variability and lower SOC concentrations (a  
114 potential statistical artifact (39), Methods (37)). Plant biomass change was the third most important  
115 predictor, with SOC gains increasing with the response ratio of plant biomass and plateauing at high plant  
116 biomass responses (Figure S4). Thus, linking responses of SOC with plant biomass is an important  
117 advance on previous empirical studies (e.g. (40, 41)), which facilitates our upscaling below. Furthermore,  
118 we found spatial interdependence between clustered observations was important, with model performance  
119 dropping from 43% to 24% when accounting for spatial autocorrelation (Figure 1D, Methods (37)).  
120 Accounting for spatial interdependence is lacking from many global studies (8, 42–44), potentially  
121 leading to overestimates of model performance.

122           We next compared our findings with two process-based models and two alternative empirical  
123 approaches: (i) a global vegetation model adapted for managed grasslands, ORCHIDEE-GM v.3.2 (45)  
124 forced with grazing intensity changes simulated in our empirical approach and (ii) GSOCseq v.1.1 (46)  
125 forced by changes in C inputs, (iii) a recent statistical model (7) and (iv) the standard IPCC Tier 1 method  
126 (Methods (37)). Our model's prediction of SOC sequestration potential landed at the upper end of  
127 estimates (Figures 1E, S5). Both the empirical and process-based SOC models do not assess the  
128 implications of production constraints or supply chains (nor does any ecosystem model, to our  
129 knowledge); subsequently, we integrated the other modelled predictions into our systems analysis to  
130 estimate net-emission impacts.

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## 132 **Net-emissions reduction potential**

133           Total carbon sequestration in plants and soils amounted to  $2,203 \pm 432$  MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup> ( $1,747 \pm$   
134  $392$  from soils and  $456 \pm 112$  from vegetation; Figure 2A). However, this potential was partly offset by  
135 emissions from increased feed supplementation ( $+411 \pm 418$  MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup>), while direct CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O  
136 emissions varied widely ( $+255 \pm 325$  MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup>) and livestock production increases in some areas

137 displaced emissions required to produce livestock elsewhere ( $-293 \pm 256 \text{ MtCO}_2\text{eq yr}^{-1}$ ) (Figure 2B). Net  
138 mitigation therefore totalled  $1,829 \pm 454 \text{ MtCO}_2 \text{ eq yr}^{-1}$ , which is  $16 \pm 14\%$  ( $373 \pm 343 \text{ MtCO}_2\text{eq yr}^{-1}$ )  
139 lower compared to biophysical potential alone (Figure 2C).

140 Changes in net-mitigation potential were spatially heterogenous. For example, large decreases in  
141 mitigation potential were observed in Brazil ( $-48 \pm 44\%$ ), Tanzania ( $-146 \pm 138\%$ ) and Mongolia ( $-18 \pm$   
142  $11\%$ ), while there were relatively small or uncertain changes in the U.S. ( $+3 \pm 12\%$ ) and Australia ( $-21 \pm$   
143  $38\%$ ) (Figure 2C). This assumed that ecosystem C stock changes were annualized over an 11-year  
144 intervention period (mean duration of grazing-manipulation experiments in our dataset) under an  
145 empirically supported “core” scenario: where plant productivity responds dynamically to grazing (ref.  
146 (47), Figure 1A) and where livestock production is maintained at the country level considering increasing  
147 global trade barriers (48, 49) and national food security considerations.

148 While modelled predictions of SOC change varied (Figure 1E), integrating feed and livestock  
149 emission changes and production constraints all led to mean reductions in net-emissions mitigation  
150 potential: with  $40 \pm 41\%$ ,  $32 \pm 29\%$ ,  $24 \pm 20\%$  and  $12 \pm 16\%$  reductions for the ORCHIDEE-GM,  
151 GSOCseq, Ren et al. (7) and IPCC approaches, respectively (Figure S6). Thus, the magnitude of  
152 reduction in net-mitigation potential was robust across SOC modelling approaches. We next assessed the  
153 drivers underlying these declines in net mitigation.

154

### 155 **Role of plant production in net-emissions reduction potential**

156 To assess sensitivities to grazing-plant productivity relationships, we considered two scenarios.  
157 The first approach (assumed in our “core” scenario) accounts for dynamic grazing-plant productivity  
158 responses (Plant-Dynamic), where ANPP is maximized at low-to-moderate grazing intensities (“optimal  
159 grazing hypothesis” (14-16)) (Figures S7-8). The second assumes no effects of altered grazing intensity  
160 on ANPP, meaning plant biomass changes linearly with livestock forage consumption (7, 28) (Plant-  
161 Proportional).

162 With improved grazing intensity, we observed neutral-to-positive livestock forage consumption  
163 changes ( $296 \pm 649 \text{ Mt forage yr}^{-1}$ ) assuming Plant-Dynamic responses, but large decreases in forage  
164 consumption ( $-532 \pm 169 \text{ Mt forage yr}^{-1}$ ) when assuming Plant-Proportional responses (Figure 3A). This  
165 was primarily because ANPP increased non-linearly in areas where grazing intensity declined, resulting in  
166 greater biomass production under the Plant-Dynamic scenario. Consequently, ecosystem carbon gains  
167 were 60% higher under the Plant-Dynamic scenario (Fig. 3B), contributing to its greater net-emission  
168 mitigation potential compared to the Plant-Proportional scenario ( $1,830 \pm 454$  vs.  $373 \pm 223 \text{ MtCO}_2\text{eq}$   
169  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ ; Fig. 3C). Thus, allowing ANPP to change dynamically with grazing leads to greater estimated  
170 increases in storage and net-emissions mitigation potential.

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### **Role of direct livestock emissions in net-emission mitigation potential**

Improving grazing intensity changed the quantity and composition of feed consumed and digested by livestock, thereby shifting direct livestock emissions via enteric fermentation (CH<sub>4</sub>) and manure deposition (CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O). Globally, livestock emissions slightly increased under our “core” scenario (+255 ± 325 MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup>) but exhibited high variability across space (Figures 3D, S8). In some areas, improved grazing increased plant ANPP nonlinearly, and thus increased forage consumption and livestock production, thereby raising livestock emissions (Figure 3C). When decreases in forage consumption were required (all areas assuming Plant-Proportional responses) and livestock were supplemented with more digestible feed, enteric methane and manure emissions decreased by 188 ± 62 MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 3D). Thus, the greatest declines in direct livestock emissions were in areas where livestock production and forage consumption decreased or feed supplementation replaced low digestibility forage (e.g. mid-western U.S, southern Brazil), while the greatest increases occurred where forage consumption rose due to gains in ANPP (e.g. southern Africa, northern Australia) (Figure S8-S10).

### **Feed emissions regulated by plant productivity and embodied in global trade**

Emissions from producing supplemental feed required to maintain livestock production where forage consumption decreased were large (411 ± 418 MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup>), and comprised the greatest single contributor to reducing net-emission mitigation potential. However, differences in emissions associated with feed production across space meant that emissions from feed supplementation in one area depended on where that feed was produced, requiring an understanding of trade (Figure S11A). Accounting for trade between high and low emissions intensity countries shaped feed emissions, with trade leading to 14–40% reductions in Asia, Oceania, and Africa, and 10% increases in Europe (Figures 3E, S11A-B) compared to if all feed was domestically sourced. If countries relied solely on domestic production, global feed emissions would be 50 MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup> (12%) greater than if countries traded feed. Thus, feed emissions were an important driver of total mitigation potential, but were mediated by global trade.

### **Conservation of food production changes net-emission mitigation potential**

We evaluated how constraints on shifting livestock production limited net-mitigation potential by assessing scenarios where production shifts freely with changes in livestock forage consumption “globally,” production is conserved “nationally” at the country level, or “locally” at the pixel level while incorporating the aforementioned emissions pathways. Conserving production nationally yielded a net-mitigation potential of -1,829 ± 454 MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup>, 21% greater than at the ‘local’ level (-1,514 ± 396 MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup>) but 10% less than the scenario allowing for freely shifting global production (-2,017 ± 615

205 MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 3F, Figure S12). Discrepancies were largely due to: (i) whether feed  
206 supplementation was required where forage consumption decreased, and (ii) how increased livestock  
207 production in some areas displaced production emissions elsewhere. Although the greatest net-emission  
208 mitigation potential resulted from freely shifting global production, smaller scales of production  
209 conservation are thought to be more realistic (e.g., within countries (25)).

210

### 211 **Mitigation potential and grazing carbon projects**

212 To assess the relevance of our findings for grazing NCS implementation, we compared our maps  
213 of net-emissions mitigation with the locations of 56 grazing-based carbon credit projects from the  
214 Verified Carbon Standard Registry (50) (Methods (37)), comprising 955 MtCO<sub>2</sub>eq of listed credit  
215 generation potential. Of these, 60% saw a reduction in net-emissions mitigation potential (mean decrease  
216 of 36%) compared to biophysical potential alone (Figure 4). Yet this discrepancy varied spatially, ranging  
217 from little change for projects in the U.S. and China (where feed emissions were low) to a predicted  
218 increase in net-emissions (+26%) for projects in Tanzania (where production trade-offs and feed  
219 emissions intensities are high) (Figures 4, S13). While project design varied widely, often including  
220 multiple interventions for grazing (intensity/stocking density n=32, rotational grazing n=52) and  
221 grassland management (fire management, seeding, pest control etc.), two points are cause for concern:  
222 most projects are in regions with predicted reductions in net-mitigation potential, and future projects are  
223 skewed towards regions where emissions mitigation potential is lower than biophysical potential alone  
224 (Figure 4).

225

### 226 **Discussion**

227 Considering emissions directly from livestock (CH<sub>4</sub> & N<sub>2</sub>O) and feed supplementation (which  
228 varied widely but reduced mitigation potential by, on average, 13% and 20%, respectively, (Figures 2B,  
229 S8-S9)), is key to not overestimating the net-mitigation potential of improved grazing intensity. We go  
230 beyond prior empirical estimates of biophysical NCS potential (e.g. (7, 9, 17, 41)) by explicitly coupling  
231 estimates of CO<sub>2</sub> removal with livestock productivity and supply-chain emissions. Regions experienced  
232 increased mitigation potential where feed emissions intensities were low (e.g. midwestern U.S.) or  
233 improved local production displaced emissions elsewhere (e.g. northern Australia) (Figure 2B). However,  
234 there was a reduction in global mitigation potential, which was observed across multiple approaches for  
235 modelling SOC change (Figure S6). Thus, quantifying the biophysical potential of NCS alone is  
236 insufficient to inform the true net-emissions outcomes of climate mitigation strategies.

237 Allowing ANPP to respond dynamically to grazing intensity is a key compensatory mechanism  
238 globally. While our analysis accounts for uncertainties associated with different fire histories and plant-

239 grazer coevolutionary contexts (47), further work is needed to better parameterize localized plant  
240 productivity responses to grazing changes (Figure 1A), the mechanisms leading to ANPP compensation  
241 (increased light and/or nutrient availability) ((29, 30) and their interactions with environmental conditions  
242 (Figure 1C). Prior mechanistic modelling captured dynamic ANPP and livestock emissions (20) but  
243 omitted feed-related emissions and spatial production constraints. However, these considerations were  
244 key, shifting mitigation potential across extremes by 781 and 503 Mt CO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Fig. 3F;  
245 Fig. S12).

246 While it is known that feed and supply chains are important sources of emissions from livestock  
247 production (e.g. (26)), how they interact with potential mitigation from grazing NCS has never been  
248 shown. For example, a systems-level spatial optimization of cattle production (25) did not account for the  
249 emissions impacts of grazing management, which we show could mitigate 2,203 Mt CO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup>.  
250 Furthermore, we found that trade was important: many countries relied on feed imports to sustain  
251 livestock production, but increases in feed emissions depended on where feed was sourced and widely  
252 varying intensities across countries (Figure 3E, Figure S11). Thus, our findings add to the literature on the  
253 complex interplay between climate mitigation policies, trade and leakage (i.e., displacement of emissions-  
254 generating activities (51)), by being the first to quantify these impacts for any improved grazing  
255 intervention.

256 Several limitations apply to our analysis. Performance of our empirical SOC model was lower  
257 than previous studies (e.g. (7)) and process-based SOC simulations (46) predicted more conservative  
258 estimates of global SOC potential (potentially driven by lower plant C inputs, see Methods (37), Figure  
259 1E). Our empirical modelling illustrates the limitations arising from spatial autocorrelation, which can be  
260 important (52), but have not been incorporated in prior estimates of grazing or other NCS (e.g. (7, 43,  
261 53)). Furthermore, SOC gains are expected to saturate over longer timescales based on biogeochemical  
262 theory and observations (54, 55), leading to lower sequestration rates beyond our 11-year simulation.  
263 However, we and others (7) did not observe a clear saturating relationship between SOC gains and  
264 duration of study (Figure S14). The potential saturation of biophysical storage contrasts with the  
265 immediate and persistent changes in emissions from feed and livestock. Yet, our feed emission intensities  
266 are conservative, accounting only for land use and land cover change while excluding other lifecycle  
267 emissions (e.g. transport, Methods (37)) (27). Although improved grazing yielded near-term benefits,  
268 longer term mitigation remains uncertain as climate change impacts soil carbon storage and plant  
269 productivity (56), as well as feed (57) and livestock (58) production efficiencies. Furthermore, future  
270 patterns of trade are uncertain (e.g. tariffs (49)), meaning regional feed intensities could vary.

271 While socio-cultural (59), financial (60) and informational barriers (61) can impede  
272 implementation of improved grazing practices, feed costs in areas where supplementation was required

273 averaged \$33 per-tonne CO<sub>2</sub>eq ecosystem carbon sequestered (using FAOSTAT prices (62)), which is  
274 higher than current agricultural carbon credit prices (63), but well below thresholds for NCS cost-  
275 effectiveness (\$100) (6, 64). Furthermore, this NCS could only mitigate approximately 4% of global  
276 anthropogenic emissions (65), underscoring its limited, but potentially meaningful, contribution to  
277 climate mitigation. Finally, we recognize the mitigation potential of improved grazing could be increased  
278 by reducing demand for livestock products (i.e., lower meat consumption (66))

279         We demonstrate the importance of systems-level assessments of NCS by accounting for  
280 emissions and food production ramifications. Although targeted interventions could reduce near-term net  
281 emissions in many regions and efforts to reduce the impacts of food production should be explored (25),  
282 win-win scenarios for improved grazing intensity at the global scale appear more elusive and uncertain  
283 than previously thought.

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**Author Contributions Statement:**

Conceptualization: RSP, AFAP, SJD

Methodology: RSP, AFAP, DGE, PP, JC, CH, SJD, JP, CMC, GT, DW, PS, CC

Investigation: RSP, CH, JC, SJD, FX, SE, SR, JS, KHE, SE, CT

Visualization: RSP, SJD

Funding acquisition: RSP, AFAP

Project administration: RSP

Supervision: AFAP

Writing – original draft: RSP, AFAP

Writing – review & editing: All authors

**Competing Interests:** S.J.D. is an advisor to Watershed Technology, Inc., a company that sometimes brokers sales of carbon credits generated by others' improved grazing projects, and have an ownership stake in the form of shares and/or options in the company.

**Data, code, and materials availability:**

All code and data to reproduce and extend this analysis can be found in the linked Dryad repository (67).

The repository contains code used to analyse the data to produce our results as well as code to process the raw data. Processed and raw data inputs are included in the repository except where raw dataset size is very large (>10 GB), but download sources and/or instructions for downloading these raw data are provided. No new materials were created in this study.

929 **Supplementary Materials**

930 This PDF file includes:

931 Materials and Methods

932 Figs. S1 to S28

933 Tables S1 to S11

934 References (68-203)

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942 **Figure 1. Observed and modelled changes in soil carbon.** Violin plots show the distribution of observed  
943 changes in total plant biomass due to categorical changes in grazing intensity (A) and the distribution of  
944 observed changes in soil organic carbon (SOC stocks n=677, SOC concentrations n=109) in top soils (0-  
945 30cm) among different quartiles of changes in total plant biomass (B) with grey points indicating median  
946 values and black points indicating response sizes from linear mixed effect models and whiskers extending to  
947 95% confidence intervals. Sites that experienced greater increases in plant biomass often correspond to those  
948 with larger gains in SOC (e.g., -1.4% vs. +19.5% changes in SOC for the lowest and highest quartiles of  
949 plant biomass change, respectively). Variable importance for 10 ‘ecologically important’ predictors  
950 (Methods (37)) for a spatially cross-validated random forest machine learning (ML) model with colours  
951 indicating variable type (C). Changes in SOC predicted by a random forest model with random cross-  
952 validated (log change ratios, gray squares, n=786) fitting observations better than predictions using a spatial  
953 buffered leave-one-out cross-validation approach (SBLOO-CV, red circles, n=530):  $R^2=0.43$  and  $R^2=0.24$ ,  
954 respectively, with dashed lines showing least squares regressions (D). Finally, bars in (E) compare our ML  
955 model predictions of SOC change (orange) with IPCC Tier 1 estimates (red) (35), statistical estimates from  
956 Ren et al. 2024 (yellow) (7), outputs of the GSOCseq v1.1 model (light blue) (46) and simulations of the  
957 ORCHIDEE-GM model (45) forced with changes in grazing intensity from our empirical model (Methods  
958 (37)). Error bars show standard deviations across Monte Carlo simulations (n=200).  
959

960 **Figure 2. Net-emissions mitigation potential with improved grazing intensity:** Bars show the ecosystem  
961 carbon sequestration potential of improved grazing intensity potential by continent and the map shows  
962 ecosystem carbon sequestration potential (soil organic carbon (SOC) plus plant biomass) in global  
963 rangelands with improved grazing intensity (assuming dynamic responses of plant ANPP to grazing) (A),  
964 bars show the changes in ‘other emissions’ (feed emissions, livestock emissions and production emissions  
965 displacement) with improved grazing intensity broken down by flux type and the map shows total changes  
966 in other emissions (summed) (B), bars show a comparison of ecosystem carbon sequestration potential (soil  
967 organic carbon plus plant biomass) and net-emissions changes or net-mitigation (negative emissions change  
968 values indicate an emissions sink or positive mitigation potential) and the map shows the difference or  
969 change in mitigation potential (%) between ecosystem carbon and net-emissions mitigation, with bar chart  
970 comparisons for countries at the extremes of mitigation potential change (negative % change values indicate  
971 net-emissions mitigation potential is lower than ecosystem carbon potential and vice versa), (C). All figures  
972 show emissions and sequestration annualized over an 11-year intervention period assuming livestock  
973 production is maintained at the country level and plant productivity responded dynamically to changes in  
974 grazing intensity (output of our ‘core’ scenario, see Methods (37)). Maps show median values, bars show  
975 mean values and error bars show standard deviations across Monte Carlo simulations (n=200).  
976

977 **Figure 3. Sensitivities to plant productivity response, spatial scales and trade assumptions:** The effect  
978 of assumed grazing plant-productivity responses on distributions of plant-biomass consumed by livestock  
979 (A), ecosystem carbon sequestration potential (B), net-emissions changes (C), and livestock emissions  
980 changes (D), with improved grazing intensity globally across Monte Carlo simulations (n=200) (See  
981 Methods (37)). The Plant-Dynamic scenario assumes plant productivity is maximized at low-moderate  
982 grazing intensities, while the Plant-Proportional scenario assumes plant productivity remains constant across  
983 grazing intensities, with plant biomass stocks increasing or decreasing proportionally with changes in forage  
984 consumption. (See Figure S7 for further explanations of grazing-plant productivity relationships). The  
985 continent-level distributions of feed emissions changes when accounting for trade versus only considering  
986 the emissions intensity of domestic feed production (E), and the distribution of net-emissions changes across  
987 simulations when production is maintained at different spatial scales (local, country-level and global) (F).  
988 Vertical colored bars show the mean of the distributions for Figures A-D, F and medians for Figure E, which  
989 span across Monte Carlo simulations (n=200) and are truncated for visualization.  
990

991 **Figure 4. Change in emissions mitigation potential across global grazing carbon credit projects:** Map  
992 of change in emissions mitigation potential assuming livestock production is maintained under our ‘core’  
993 scenario (Methods (37)) overlain with grazing carbon credit projects extracted from the Verified Carbon  
994 Standard Registry (50) (methodologies VM0032, VM0026, VM0042) where the size of points are scaled to  
995 the project-reported annual emissions reduction potential (carbon credit potential) and the shape of points

996 correspond with project status. Outset country values represent the change in emissions mitigation potential  
997 across a 100km radius buffer surrounding the centroid of Verified Carbon Standard grazing projects  
998 averaged across projects within each country and weighted by reported project emissions mitigation  
999 potential.  
1000