

1 Annual high-resolution grazing intensity maps on the 2 Qinghai-Tibet Plateau from 1990 to 2020

3 Jia Zhou^{1,2}, Jin Niu³, Ning Wu¹, Tao Lu^{1*}

4 ¹Chengdu Institute of Biology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Chengdu 610213, China

5 ²University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China

6 ³Department of Economics, Brown University, Providence, 02912, USA

7 *Correspondence to:* Tao Lu (lutao@cib.ac.cn)

8 **Abstract.** Grazing activities constitute the paramount challenge to grassland conservation over the
9 Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP), underscoring the urgency for obtaining detailed extent, patterns, and
10 trends of grazing information to access efficient grassland management and sustainable development.
11 Here, to inform these issues, we provided the first annual Gridded Dataset of Grazing Intensity maps
12 (GDGI) with a resolution of 100 meters from 1990 to 2020 for the QTP. Five most commonly used
13 machine learning algorithms were leveraged to develop livestock spatialization model, which spatially
14 disaggregate the livestock census data at the county level into a detailed 100 m× 100 m grid, based on
15 seven key predictors from terrain, climate, vegetation and socio-economic factors. Among these
16 algorithms, the extreme trees (ET) model performed the best in representing the complex nonlinear
17 relationship between various environmental factors and livestock intensity, with an average absolute
18 error of just 0.081 SU/hm², a rate outperforming the other models by 21.58%~414.60%. By using the
19 ET model, we further generated the GDGI dataset for the QTP to reveal the spatio-temporal
20 heterogeneity and variation in grazing intensities. The GDGI indicates grazing intensity remained high
21 and largely stable from 1990 to 1997, followed by a sharp decline from 1997 to 2001, and fluctuated
22 thereafter. Encouragingly, comparing with other open-access datasets for grazing distribution on the
23 QTP, the GDGI has the highest accuracy, with the determinant coefficient (R^2) exceed 0.8. Given its
24 high resolution, recentness and robustness, we believe that the GDGI dataset can significantly enhance
25 understanding of the substantial threats to grasslands emanating from overgrazing activities.
26 Furthermore, the GDGI product holds considerable potential as a foundational source for other
27 researches, facilitating rational utilization of grasslands, refined environmental impact assessments, and
28 the sustainable development of animal husbandry. The GDGI product developed in this study is
29 available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13141090> (Zhou et al., 2024).

30 **1 Introduction**

31 Livestock is a crucial contributor to global food systems through the provision of essential animal
32 proteins and fats, and plays a significant role in supporting human survival and socio-economic
33 development (Gilbert et al., 2018; Godfray et al., 2018; Humpenöder et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2022).
34 However, the escalating increase in human demand for meat and dairy products over recent decades has
35 triggered a livestock boom, which in turn has increasingly threatened grassland ecosystems and placed
36 a heavy burden on the environment through overgrazing and land-use change (Tabassum et al., 2016;
37 Wei et al., 2022; Minoofar et al., 2023). It is estimated that up to 300 million hectares of land are used
38 globally for grazing and cultivating fodder crops (Tabassum et al., 2016). Grazing activities could alter
39 vegetation phenology and community structure (Dong et al., 2020), and trigger deforestation (García
40 Ruiz et al., 2020), grassland degradation (Sun et al., 2020), soil erosion (Shakoor et al., 2021), and
41 associated direct releases in greenhouse gas that lead to climate change feedback (Godfray et al., 2018;
42 Chang et al., 2021). Additionally, livestock are responsible for large-scale dispersion of pathogens,
43 organic matter, and residual medications into soil and groundwater, thereby contaminating the
44 environment (Venglovsky et al., 2009; Tabassum et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2017; Muloi et al., 2022).
45 Consequently, more and more scholars have called attention to provide reliable contemporary dataset to
46 illustrate the spatio-temporal heterogeneity and variation of livestock (Petz et al., 2014; Fetzel et al.,
47 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2021).

48 One of the major challenges in monitoring grazing activity at regional or even larger scale, is the
49 determination of the livestock distribution pattern. Despite the importance of geographical grazing
50 information, high spatio-temporal grazing dataset remain unavailable, posing the most critical challenge
51 to grassland management, particularly for vulnerable grassland ecosystems in fragile regions grappling
52 with economic and sustainable development contradictions (Meng et al., 2023; Pozo et al., 2021; Miao et
53 al., 2020; He et al., 2022). In the early 2000s, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United
54 Nations (FAO) launched the Gridded Livestock of the World (GLW) project to facilitate a detailed
55 evaluation of livestock production, aiming to provide pixel-scale livestock densities instead of traditional
56 administrative unit benchmarks (Nicolas et al., 2016). Consequently, the world's inaugural dataset of
57 livestock spatialization map (GLW1) was released in 2007, providing the first globally standardized
58 livestock density distribution map at a spatial resolution of 0.05 decimal degrees (≈ 5 km at the equator)
59 for 2002. It was not until 2014 that an updated GLW2 map with a 1 km resolution for 2006 was
60 released, by using a stratified regression approach, superior spatial resolution predictor variables, and
61 more detailed livestock census data (Robinson et al., 2014). Furthermore, an evolutionary step in
62 machine learning technology saw Gilbert et al. (2018) using random forests algorithm to forge a global
63 livestock distribution map with a 10-km resolution for 2010 (GLW3), succeeding traditional multivariate
64 regression methods and surpassing the precision of previous GLW1 and GLW2 maps. Beyond these
65 global mappings, several maps with different scales have also been published, including intercontinental,
66 national, state or provincial, and local scale (Neumann et al., 2009; Prosser et al., 2011; Van Boeckel et
67 al., 2011; Nicolas et al., 2016). However, these maps are fundamentally coarse due to constraints such as
68 the availability of fine scale and contemporary census data, the grazing spatialization method, as well as
69 the identification of appropriate indicators, thereby limiting their application to local or regional-scale
70 studies (Nicolas et al., 2016; Gilbert et al., 2018; Robinson et al., 2014). Hence, there is an emergent
71 demand for more refined grazing map products (Mulligan et al., 2020; Martinuzzi et al., 2021).

72 An exemplar of this need can be observed in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP), the world's most

73 elevated pastoral region and an important grazing area in China (Zhan et al., 2023). It was possessing
74 abundant grassland that spans 1.5 million km², accounting for 50.43% of China's total grassland area,
75 with Yak and Tibetan sheep as primary grazing livestock (Feng et al., 2009; Cai et al., 2014; Zhan et al.,
76 2023). Over recent decades, the QTP has undergone escalating grassland degradation, leading to many
77 ecological and socio-economic problems, which calls for an urgent need for detailed livestock
78 distribution dataset (Li et al., 2022a). Unfortunately, despite researchers' efforts at mapping the QTP's
79 grazing intensity, current livestock dataset still suffer from coarse spatio-temporal resolution and
80 modelling accuracy. Apart from the aforementioned global grazing dataset, several other maps also
81 cover the QTP. For instance, Liu et al. (2021) generated annual 250-m gridded carrying capacity maps
82 for 2000-2019, by employing multiple linear regressions of livestock numbers, population density, NPP,
83 and topographic features. Li et al. (2021) used machine learning algorithms to produce gridded livestock
84 distribution data at 1 km resolution for 2000-2015 in western China at five year interval, based on
85 county-level livestock census data and 13 factors from land use practice, topography, climate, and
86 socioeconomic aspects, including grassland coverage, arable land coverage, forest land coverage, desert
87 coverage, NDVI, elevation, slope, daytime surface temperature, precipitation, distance to river, travel
88 time to major cities, population density, and GDP (Li et al., 2021). A contribution from Meng et al.
89 (2023) brought forth annual longer time-series grazing maps by using random forests model, integrating
90 climate, soil, NDVI, water distance, and settlement density to decompose county-level livestock census
91 data to a 0.083° (≈10 km at the equator) grid for 1982-2015 (Meng et al., 2023). Similarly, Zhan et al.
92 (2023) also used random forests algorithm to combine eleven influence factors to provide a winter and
93 summer grazing density map at 500 m resolution for 2020 (Zhan et al., 2023).

94 However, although these maps have provided good help in understanding grazing conditions on the
95 QTP, there are currently still no maps that can satisfy the need for fine-scale grassland management
96 with a long time span. In addition, the available livestock distribution maps of the QTP still need
97 improvement in terms of modelling techniques and factor selection to obtain high-precision livestock
98 spatialization data. For example, traditional methods like multiple linear regression, while proven
99 fundamental and widely applicable for livestock spatialization (Robinson et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2022),
100 are being challenged by the development of computational science in recent years. Among them,
101 machine learning technology is providing new opportunities towards more accurate predictions of
102 livestock distribution (García et al., 2020). Random forests regression, for instance, is currently widely
103 used to construct global, national as well as regional livestock spatialization dataset, and has been proved
104 to have much better accuracy than traditional mapping techniques (Rokach, 2016; Nicolas et al., 2016;
105 Gilbert et al., 2018; Dara et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2019; Li et al., 2021). Nevertheless, other more
106 advanced machine learning methods with superior feature learning and more robust generalization
107 capabilities, remains largely untapped for modelling geographic data (Ahmad et al., 2018; Heddami et al.,
108 2020; Long et al., 2022). Thus, exploring the potential application of new advanced machine learning
109 technologies in livestock spatialization remains a critical task. Furthermore, selecting the suitable factors
110 that influencing livestock grazing preferences is also the other critical challenge for enhancing the
111 precision of grazing distribution dataset (Meng et al., 2023). Livestock grazing activities are often
112 affected by abiotic and biotic resources, including climatic and environmental factors (Waha et al.,
113 2018), herd foraging and grazing behaviours (Garrett et al., 2018; Miao et al., 2020), and
114 conservation-oriented policies (Li et al., 2021). For instance, regions exceeding elevations of 5,600 m or
115 slope greater than 40% are customarily unsuitable for grazing (Luo et al., 2013; Mack et al., 2013;
116 Robinson et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2019). Moreover, the livestock generally prefer areas abundant in

117 water and pasture resources for foraging (Li et al., 2021). Besides, ecological conservation policies also
118 exert substantial influence, significantly affecting grazing distribution relative to the level of
119 conservation priority. In addition, the health status of the grassland is an important factor influencing
120 whether livestock choose to feed or not (Li et al., 2021). Consequently, indicators related to the above
121 aspects are often employed to gauge the spatial heterogeneity of livestock distribution (Allred et al.,
122 2013; Sun et al., 2021; Meng et al., 2023). Nonetheless, some most commonly used indicators like NPP
123 or NDVI can result in misconceptions, as they may not fully characterize the grazing intensity. For
124 example, grasslands with high NPP or NDVI are often preferred by livestock, but this doesn't necessarily
125 correlate with grazing intensity in nature reserves due to strict policy restrictions (Veldhuis et al., 2019;
126 O'Neill and Abson, 2009; Zhang et al., 2021b). Conversely, areas with sparse grassland cover may
127 support considerable livestock numbers, despite evidence of degradation (Zhang et al., 2021a; Guo et al.,
128 2015). Accordingly, further investigation of novel indicators is imperative to enhance the correlation
129 between grassland and grazing intensity, thereby optimizing the integration of such influencing factors
130 into grazing spatialization models.

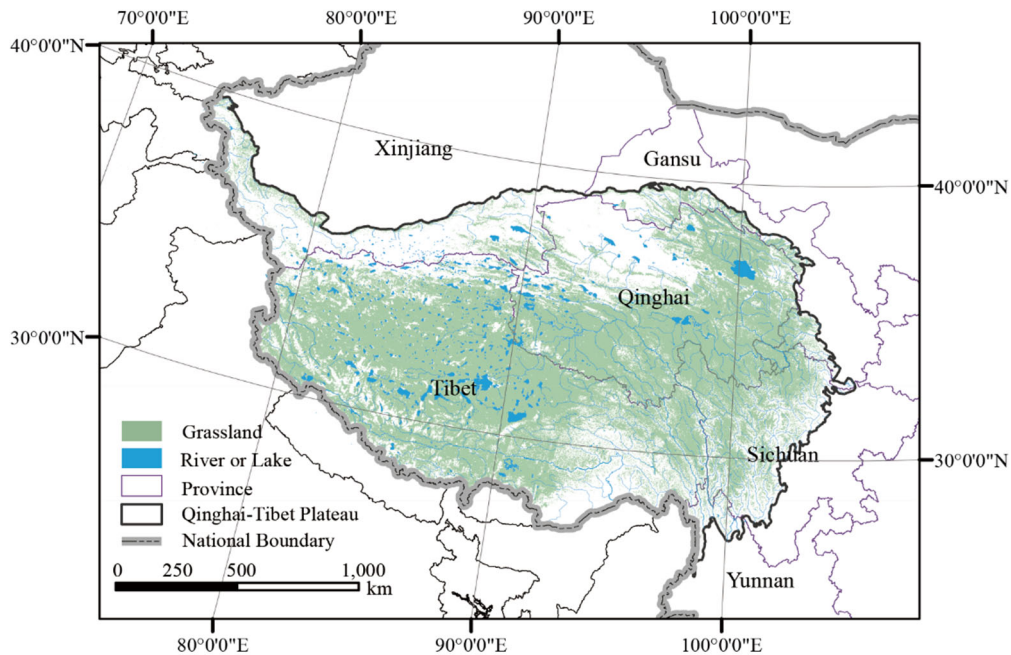
131 In summary, the QTP is in pressing need for a high spatio-temporal resolution grazing dataset to
132 address urgent and realistic challenges. But the existing livestock dataset specific to the QTP are fraught
133 with several insufficient, predominantly concerning rough resolution, relatively backward census data,
134 as well as conventional methods in livestock spatialization. Moreover, the discrepancies in predictive
135 indicators and modelling approaches within these dataset discourage their application in time-series
136 analysis. Consequently, the generation of high-resolution and high-quality grazing map products has
137 emerged as the most pressing challenge for the QTP. Here, we aim to (1) establish a methodological
138 framework by using more rational models and indicators than traditional studies to achieve fine-scale
139 livestock spatialization; (2) select the grazing spatialization model with good performance by
140 incorporating multi-source data with advanced machine learning techniques; and (3) ultimately, provide
141 an annual grazing intensity dataset with 100 m resolution spanning from 1990-2020. These maps can not
142 only provide fundamental dataset with finer spatio-temporal resolution to address the limitations of
143 existing grazing intensity maps, but enhance a better understanding of sustainable management practices
144 as well as other grassland-related issues across the QTP.

145 **2 Data and methods**

146 **2.1 Study area**

147 Known as the Asia's water tower and the world's third pole, the QTP is geographically situated
148 between 73°19'~104°47' east longitude and 26°00'~39°47' north latitude, with a total area of about 2.61
149 million square kilometers (Figure 1). Its jurisdiction encompasses 182 counties within six provincial
150 regions of China, including Tibet Autonomous Region, Qinghai Province, Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous
151 Region, Gansu Province, Sichuan Province, and Yunnan Province (Meng et al., 2023). Elevation on the
152 QTP predominantly ranges between 3,000 m and 5,000 m, with an average altitude exceeding 4,000 m.
153 With grasslands constituting over half of its land cover, the QTP emerges as one of the most important
154 pastoral areas in China. Alpine steppe, alpine meadow, and temperate steppe characterize the main
155 grassland types on the QTP (Han et al., 2019; Zhai et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 2023b). The complex
156 geographical and climatic conditions of the QTP contributes to the markedly heterogeneous grassland
157 distribution, which correspondingly lead to the high heterogeneity in livestock distribution. Moreover,
158 social and economic development, coupled with policy initiatives directed towards grassland restoration,

159 have noticeably impacted the livestock numbers on the QTP over recent decades (Li et al., 2021; Li et al.,
160 2016).



161 Figure 1. The geographic zoning map of the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP) superposed with grassland vegetation.
162 Boundaries for the six provinces used for statistical analysis are also shown.

163 2.2 Data source

164 2.2.1 Census livestock data

165 The county-level census livestock data for the period between 1990 and 2020 were obtained from
166 the Bureau of Statistics of each county across the QTP (Table 1). The data includes the number of cattle,
167 sheep, horse and mule, with the exception of counties in Yunnan Province, which lack data for the
168 years from 1990 to 2007, and Ganzi Prefecture in Sichuan Province, which lack data for the years from
169 1990 to 1999, and Muli county in Sichuan Province, which lack data for the years from 1990 to 2007.
170 For these counties belonging to the same prefecture, including counties in Ganzi and Aba prefectures in
171 Sichuan Province, we used the livestock census data at the prefecture-level to carry out spatialization.
172 For these counties in Yunnan Province, since they belong to different municipalities, it is not reasonable
173 to replace them with municipal-level data. For these counties without livestock census data for some
174 years, we supplemented the missing data by linear interpolation with grazing density data in available
175 year. In total, livestock data were available for 182 counties, and 4,998 independent records were
176 finally generated. Furthermore, the respective quantities of different livestock types are converted to
177 Standard Sheep Units (SU), in compliance with the Chinese national regulations (Meng et al., 2023).

178 Due to the difficulty of collecting township-level census livestock data, the validation data at the
179 township scale collected in this study only involved these townships of Baching County (2010-2018)
180 and Gaize County (2018-2020) in Tibet, and Hongyuan County in Sichuan Province (2008). The
181 township-level census livestock data cumulatively involves 18 townships with a total of 112 records,
182 and were only used for auxiliary validation of the simulation results.

183 The validation data at the pixel scale also encompass a total of 112 records from 68 sites, which
184 were collected from literatures, questionnaires and field surveys. Specifically, 93 records at 49 sites

185 spanning the 1990-2021 period were obtained from 17 literatures, 19 records at 19 sites were obtained
 186 from the questionnaires and the field survey in 2021. The detailed information for these records can be
 187 found in the Supplementary files (Figure S3 and Table S3).

188 Table 1. Summary of the livestock data used in this study

Variables	Scale	Time	Sources
Livestock numbers	County	1990-2020	Statistical bureau
	Township	2008-2020	Statistical bureau
	Pixel	1990-2021	Literatures, questionnaires and field surveys

189 *2.2.2 Factors affecting grazing activities*

190 Livestock grazing activities are often affected by abiotic and biotic resources, including climatic
 191 and environmental factors (Waha et al., 2018), herd foraging and grazing behaviours (Garrett et al.,
 192 2018; Miao et al., 2020). For instance, high-altitude and steep hillsides are unsuitable for grazing due to
 193 terrain constraints, and the distribution of herders directly affects the grazing areas (Luo et al., 2013;
 194 Mack et al., 2013; Robinson et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2019). Moreover, the livestock generally prefer
 195 areas abundant in water and pasture resources for foraging (Li et al., 2021). Therefore, in this study,
 196 topography, climatic, environmental and socio-economic impacts were considered as influential factors
 197 on grazing activities (Li et al., 2021; Meng et al., 2023).

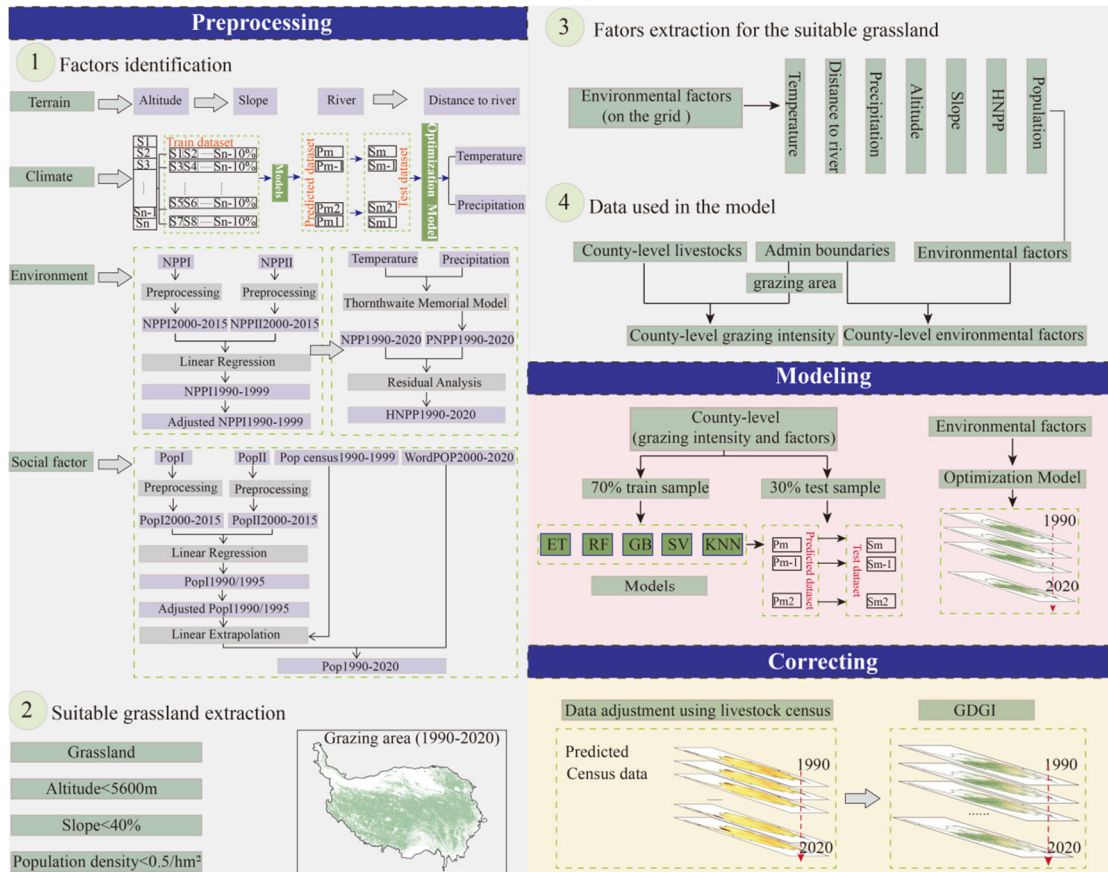
198 Table 2. Summary of factors affecting grazing activities on the QTP.

Variables	Format	Period	Time Resolution	Spatial Resolution	Source
Altitude	GeoTIFF	---	---	30m	https://www.gscloud.cn
Slope	GeoTIFF	---	---	30m	https://data.tpdac.ac.cn
Water source	Shapefile	1990-2020	Annual	---	https://data.tpdac.ac.cn
Population density	GeoTIFF	1990-2020	Annual	100m	See supplementary file
Temperature	GeoTIFF	1990-2020	Annual	100m	See supplementary file
Precipitation	GeoTIFF	1990-2020	Annual	100m	See supplementary file
HNPP	GeoTIFF	1990-2020	Annual	100m	See supplementary file

199 We utilized correlation analysis and the Random Forest importance ranking tool to eliminate
 200 redundant environmental factors and determine the contribution of each factor. Ultimately, altitude,
 201 slope, distance to water source, population density, air temperature, precipitation and human-induced
 202 impacts on NPP (HNPP) was selected as indicators (Table 2). Specifically, elevation is derived from the
 203 DEM dataset accessible via the Resource and Environmental Data Cloud Platform of the Chinese
 204 Academy of Sciences (<https://www.gscloud.cn>), which also facilitated slope calculation. Rivers and
 205 lakes were obtained from the National Tibetan Plateau Data Center (<https://data.tpdac.ac.cn>), and the
 206 nearest Euclidean distance from each pixel to rivers or lakes is calculated accordingly. Meteorological
 207 elements such as daily air temperature and precipitation were downloaded from the China
 208 Meteorological Data Service Center (<http://data.cma.cn>). For the grid dataset that is not conditionally
 209 available, including population density, temperature, precipitation and HNPP, we detailed the creation
 210 process in the Supplementary file. All datasets utilized in this study were harmonized to consistent
 211 coordinate systems and resolutions (WGS 1984 Albers, 100 m).

212 **2.3 Methodological framework**

213 We adopted a comprehensive methodological framework for mapping high-resolution grazing
 214 intensity on the QTP. Three major steps are included to predict the distribution pattern of grazing
 215 intensity: (1) identifying factors affecting grazing activities and extracting theoretical suitable areas for
 216 livestock grazing, (2) building grazing spatialization model, and (3) filtering the model and correcting
 217 the grazing map. An exhaustive explanation of each step is provided in Figure 2.



218
 219 Figure 2. Flowchart of creating grazing intensity maps using different methods and source products.

220 *2.3.1 Identifying factors and theoretical suitable areas for grazing*

221 In this study, we assumed that grazing activities are confined solely to grassland. Consequently, the
 222 potential grazing areas for each year were identified on the basis of grassland boundaries, which was
 223 extracted from the 30 m annual land cover dataset (CLCD) (Yang and Huang, 2021). Furthermore,
 224 grassland with slope over 40% and elevation higher than 5,600 m respectively, were considered
 225 unsuitable for grazing and were therefore excluded from the potential grazing area in the subsequent
 226 simulations (Robinson et al., 2014). In addition, the grassland with population density greater than 50
 227 inhabitants km⁻² were also excluded (Li et al., 2018). The remaining isolated grassland was thus
 228 categorized as theoretical feasible grazing regions.

229 The spatial patterns of abiotic and biotic resources, incorporating food availability, environmental
 230 stress, and herder preference critically affect grazing activities (Meng et al., 2023). In light of this,
 231 seven influencing factors in four aspects were selected for grazing intensity mapping (Figure 2-1).

232 2.3.2 Building grazing spatialization model

233 By performing regional statistics, the annual average values for each grazing influence factor were
234 extracted from the theoretically suitable grazing areas at the county scale, and were further used as
235 independent variables in the model construction. The dependent variable for the model was acquired by
236 determining the livestock density within each county, followed by a logarithmic transformation of the
237 values to normalize the distribution of the dependent variable. Consequently, a total of 4,998 samples
238 were derived from the aforementioned independent and dependent variables. Of these samples, 70%
239 were allocated for model training, while the remaining 30% comprised the test sets, serving to validate
240 the model's performance. Subsequently, we built grazing spatialization models using five machine
241 learning algorithms at the county scale, including Support Vector regression (SV) (Cortes and Vapnik,
242 1995; Lin et al., 2022), K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) (Cover and Hart, 1967), Gradient Boosting
243 regression (GB) (Friedman, 2001; Pan et al., 2019), Random Forests (RF) (Breiman, 2001) and Extra
244 Trees regression (ET) (Geurts et al., 2006; Ahmad et al., 2018) (see Supplementary file for details).
245 Lastly, to assess the accuracy of the spatialized livestock map, the predicted livestock intensity values
246 were juxtaposed with the livestock statistical data from each respective county.

247 2.3.3 Correcting the grazing map

248 We further used the optimal model to predict the geographical distribution of grazing density across
249 the QTP. To maintain better consistency between the predicted livestock number and the census data,
250 the estimated results were adjusted using the census livestock numbers at the county scale as a control
251 according to Equation (1). Consequently, the corrected and refined map is presented as the final grazing
252 intensity map in this study.

$$253 \quad L_{correction} = \frac{L_{CCensus}}{L_{Cgrid}} \times L_{grid} \quad (1)$$

254 where $L_{correction}$ is the predicted pixel-scale livestock number after adjustment, L_{Cgrid} represents the
255 estimated livestock number for each county, $L_{CCensus}$ is the census livestock number for each county,
256 and L_{grid} refers to the predicted livestock number at the pixel scale.

257 2.4 Accuracy evaluation

258 We used three accuracy validation indexes to evaluate the performance of five machine learning
259 algorithms, including coefficients of determination (R^2), mean absolute error (MAE), and root mean
260 square error (RMSE), by through a comparison of the predicted value with the census data. The
261 definitions of three metrics are presented in Equation (2) to (4).

$$262 \quad R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (C_i - P_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (C_i - \bar{C})^2} \quad (2)$$

$$263 \quad MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |C_i - P_i| \quad (3)$$

$$264 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (C_i - P_i)^2} \quad (4)$$

265 where C_i and P_i are the census livestock data and the predicted value for county i , respectively; \bar{C}
266 represents the mean census value for all county; and n gives the total number of counties.

267 **2.5 uncertainties evaluation**

268 Uncertainty in our grazing intensity maps can stem from multiple sources, such as the constraints of
 269 cross-scale modeling and the intrinsic inaccuracies of the input data. To quantify these uncertainties, we
 270 utilized the Monte Carlo (MC) method, conducting 100 iterations of simulation. Subsequently, we
 271 evaluated uncertainty through the Mean Relative Error (MRE) and assessed the model's robustness
 272 using the Standard Deviation (STD), following established methodologies (Yang et al., 2020;
 273 Alexander et al., 2017; Mcmillan et al., 2018). The definitions for these metrics are delineated in
 274 Equations (5) to (7).

275
$$MC = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \quad (5)$$

276
$$MRE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left| \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\bar{x}} \right| \quad (6)$$

277
$$STD = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \quad (7)$$

278 where x_i are random samples, $f(x_i)$ is the function evaluated at x_i , and n is the number of
 279 simulations. \bar{x} represents the mean value for all simulation maps.

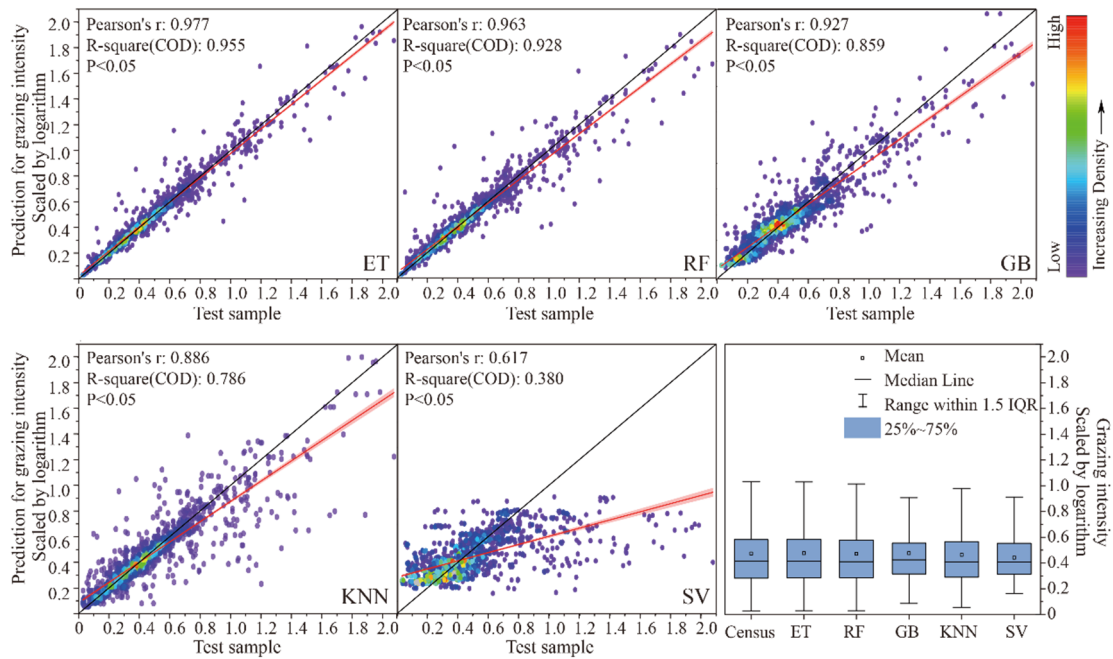
280 **3 Results**

281 **3.1 Performances of models**

282 Table 3 summarizes the efficiency of the five used machine learning models with considering all
 283 three accuracy evaluators of R^2 , MAE and RMSE. It can be seen that the ET model performs the best,
 284 with its R^2 exceeding 0.955, and MAE (0.081 SU/hm²) and RMSE (0.164 SU/hm²) significantly lower
 285 than the value of RF, GB, KNN and SVM models. Figure 3 illustrates the correlation between the
 286 census livestock data and the livestock numbers predicted by the model for each county from 1990 to
 287 2020. It demonstrated that the ET-predicted data displayed a distribution pattern consistent with that of
 288 other models, but the scatter points of the ET model were more convergent to the 1:1 diagonal line,
 289 indicating a superior fit compared to the other models. These comparisons suggest that the ET model
 290 possesses superior robustness and can, therefore, provide stable estimations of livestock intensity on
 291 the QTP.

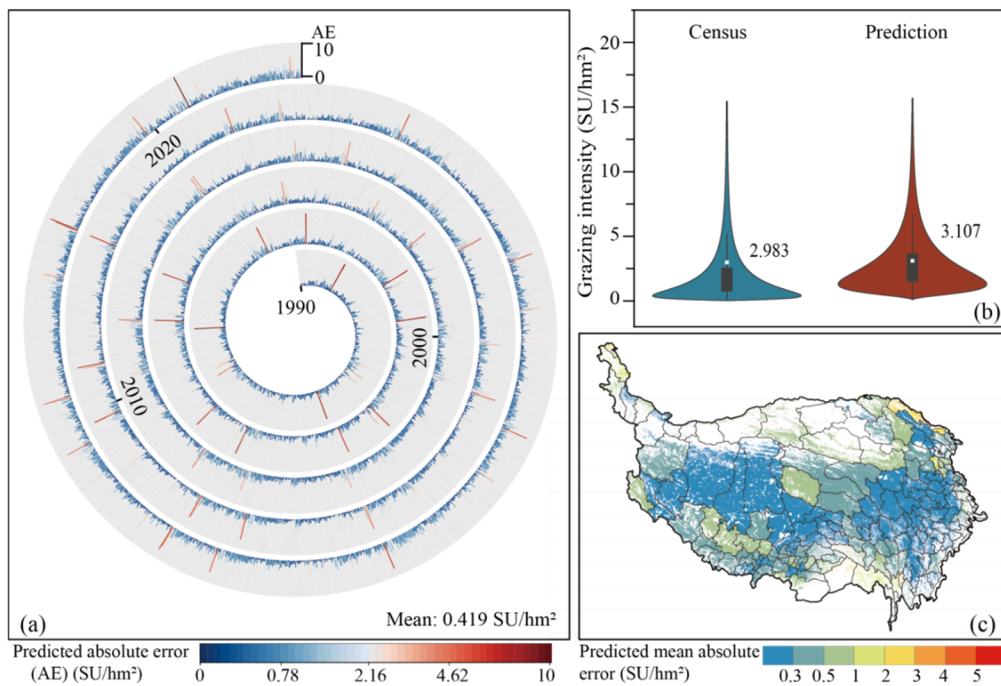
292 Table 3. Comparison of mapping accuracy for five machine learning models based on the same validation datasets

Models	R^2	MAE (SU/hm ²)	RMSE (SU/hm ²)
ET	0.955	0.081	0.164
RF	0.928	0.099	0.208
GB	0.859	0.197	0.300
KNN	0.786	0.186	0.384
SVM	0.380	0.419	0.750



293
294
295

Figure 3. Scatterplots of model-predicted livestock numbers and census grazing data at the county scale. The red solid line and the black solid line are the fitting line and the 1:1 diagonal line, respectively.



296

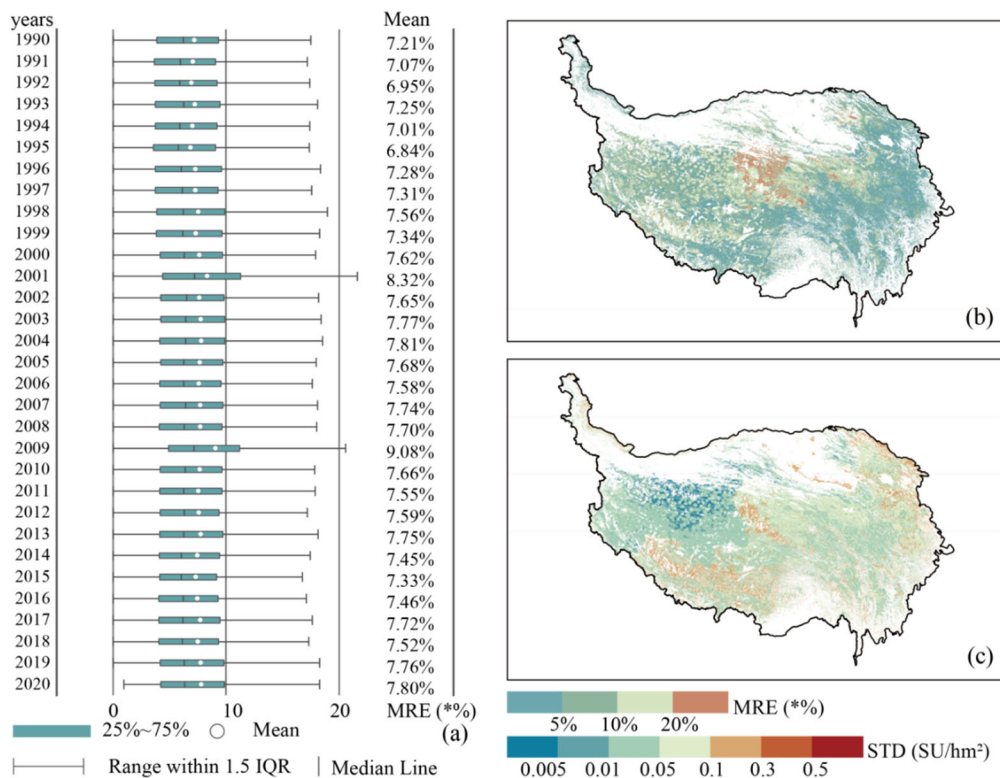
297 Figure 4. Accuracy of the ET-predicted grazing intensity results at spatial resolution of 100 m from 1990 to 2020.
298 (a) absolute error (AE) between the predicted and the census data at the county scale from 1990 to 2020; (b)
299 comparison of the predicted and census data of the whole QTP from 1990 to 2020; (c) spatial distribution of the
300 mean absolute error (MAE) during 1990 to 2020 for each county.

301 Using the ET model, we projected the spatio-temporal distribution of grazing intensity across the
302 QTP from 1990 to 2020 at a 100 m × 100 m resolution. To validate the accuracy of these predictive
303 maps, we upscaled the pixel-level predictions to the county level and compared them against livestock
304 census data (Figures 4a and 4b). The results clearly show a high degree of consistency between the

305 predicted livestock intensity and the county-level census data, especially in areas with lower grazing
 306 intensity (Figures 4a and 4b). Specifically, while the mean census data indicated 2.983 SU/hm² for
 307 livestock intensity, our county-level predictions yielded an average of 3.106 SU/hm², with a MAE of
 308 0.123 SU/hm², a RMSE of 0.580 SU/hm², and an R² value of 0.669. Additionally, 76.31% of the
 309 counties (n=3,814) exhibited data discrepancies of no more than 0.6 SU/hm², and 91.74% (n=4,585)
 310 had discrepancies under 1.0 SU/hm². Regarding spatial distribution, areas with data discrepancies of
 311 less than 0.3 SU/hm² were predominantly located in the northwest and southeast regions of the QTP. In
 312 certain counties of the northeast and southwest, the variations were even below 1.0 SU/hm² (Figure 4c).

313 3.2 Evaluation of uncertainties

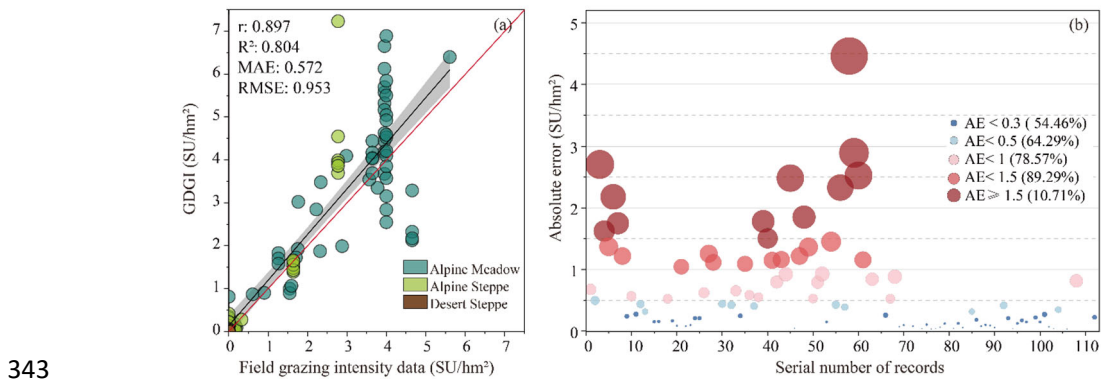
314 We have chosen the Mean Relative Error (MRE) as a key metric for evaluating the simulation
 315 accuracy of grazing intensity within the QTP. Employing Monte Carlo simulations spanning the period
 316 from 1990 to 2020, our research findings demonstrate that the average MRE for grazing intensity
 317 across the QTP ranged between 6.84% and 9.08% (Figure 5a). The spatial distribution of MRE
 318 indicates that the majority of the plateau exhibits low error margins. For example, in 2020, areas with
 319 an MRE of less than 5% accounted for 35.86% of the total grassland area, while those with an MRE
 320 below 10% constituted 75.84%. Only 3.38% of the grasslands had an MRE exceeding 20%, with these
 321 regions primarily located in the southwestern portion of the QTP (Figure 5b). Moreover, the robustness
 322 analysis suggests that the majority of regions within the QTP display relatively stable grazing intensity
 323 trends. For instance, the overall standard deviation (STD) in 2020 was 0.059 SU/hm², with the
 324 northwest region demonstrating remarkable stability, reflected in an STD of less than 0.005 SU/hm².
 325 Although some areas within the Yarlung Zangbo River Basin and the eastern part of Qinghai Province
 326 experienced higher variability, their STD was still maintained below 0.3 SU/hm² (Figure 5c).



327
 328 Figure 5. Uncertainty analysis of grazing intensity maps based on ET and Monte Carlo methods. (a) MRE of
 329 grazing intensity maps from 1990 to 2020, (b) spatial distribution of MRE, (c) spatial distribution of STD.

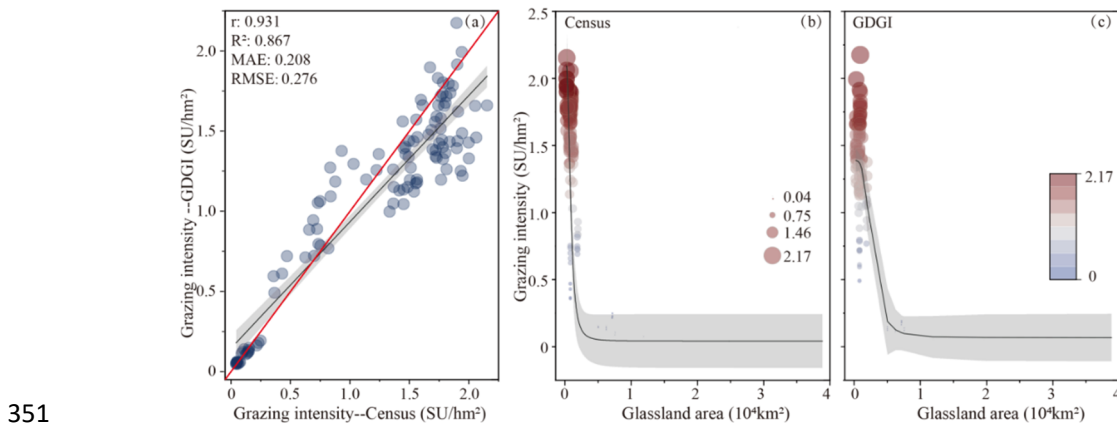
330 **3.3 Validation of the GDGI dataset**

331 After employing county-level livestock census as a benchmark for quality control, we obtained the
 332 annual Gridded Dataset of Grazing Intensity maps (GDGI) across the QTP spanning 31 years from
 333 1990 to 2020. We firstly confirmed the accuracy of the GDGI dataset based on 112 field grazing
 334 intensity records at 68 sites (see Table S3 in Supplementary file for details), which ranged from 0 to
 335 5.61 sheep unit per hectare (SU/hm²), and covered three main grasslands on the QTP: the alpine steppe
 336 (N=62), alpine meadow (N=46), and alpine desert steppe (N=4). The GDGI dataset was assessed by
 337 undertaking a comparative accuracy assessment between it and the field grazing intensity data (Figure
 338 6a). It can be seen that in general, our dataset was highly consistent with the reference ground-truth
 339 validation data, with $R^2 = 0.804$, MAE = 0.572 SU/hm², and RMSE = 0.953 SU/hm². Moreover, the
 340 absolute errors between the GDGI data and the field grazing intensity data were relatively small, with
 341 more than half of the records having an error below 0.3 SU/hm², 78.57% below 1.0 SU/hm² and 89.29%
 342 below 1.5 SU/hm² (Figure 6b).



343
 344 Figure 6. Validation of the GDGI dataset using 112 field grazing intensity records at the pixel scale: (a) linear
 345 fitting results; (b) absolute error (AE) distribution.

346 We further validated the precision of the GDGI dataset using the township-level livestock census
 347 data. Encouragingly, the evaluation results showed that the GDGI dataset has excellent performance at
 348 the township scale (Figure 7a), with R^2 of 0.867, MAE of 0.208 SU/hm², and RMSE of 0.276 SU/hm².
 349 In addition, similarly to the census data, the GDGI dataset indicated that some townships with few
 350 grasslands are still under high grazing pressure (Figure 7b and 7c).

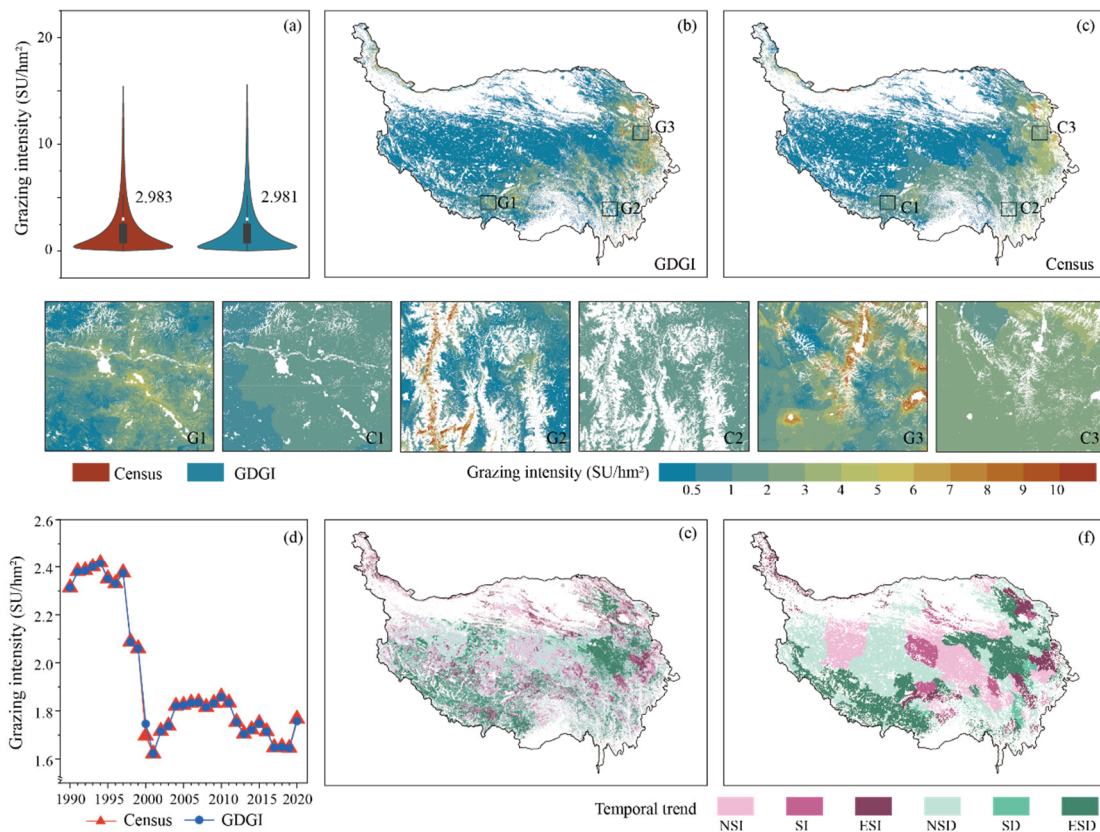


351
 352 Figure 7. Validation of the GDGI dataset using census livestock data at the township level: (a) linear fit of
 353 predicted number and census data; (b-c) logistic fit of grazing intensity data and grassland area.

354 **3.4 Spatio-temporal variations of grazing intensity**

355 In terms of the temporal trends of grazing intensity, the GDGI dataset overall exhibited consistent
 356 trends with the livestock census data (Figure 8d-f). Specifically, the census data indicated the
 357 livestock numbers remained high and largely stable from 1990 to 1997, followed by a sharp decline
 358 from 1997 to 2001, and then remained a period of fluctuation post-2001, which was successfully
 359 captured by the GDGI dataset. Moreover, the spatial heterogeneity of grazing intensity within the
 360 counties over the QTP was also effectively reflected by the GDGI dataset, a characteristic not
 361 illustrated by the census dataset. For example, areas of high grazing intensity were concentrated in the
 362 northeastern and south-central regions of the plateau, mainly including the eastern part of Qinghai
 363 Province, the southwestern part of Gansu Province, the northwestern part of Sichuan Province, and the
 364 eastern region of the Tibet Autonomous Region (Figure 8e and 8f).

365 Over the past 31 years, 63.95% of the plateau's grassland showed a decreasing trend in grazing
 366 intensity, with 49.80% showing significant decreases, primarily located in the eastern Sanjiangyuan
 367 area and the southwestern region of the QTP (Figure 8e and 8f). Meanwhile, grazing intensity was
 368 increasing in 36.05% of the grassland, but most of them (60.16%) did not reach the level of
 369 significance and were mainly distributed in the northeastern plateau (Figure 8e and 8f).



370
 371 Figure 8. Validation of the GDGI maps using the census grazing data from 1990 to 2020: (a) violin plot of the
 372 census data and the predicted value; (b-c) spatial distribution in SU per pixel; (d) temporal change in SU per year
 373 (only including 124 counties with livestock census data); (d-f) spatial distribution of SU changes tested by sen's
 374 slope and Mann-Kendall. Note: ESI for Extremely Significant Increase (slope>0 & p<0.01); SI for Significant
 375 Increase (slope>0 & p<0.05); NSI for Non-significant increase (slope>0 & p>0.05); ESD for Extremely
 376 Significant Decrease (slope<0 & p<0.01); SD for Significant decrease (slope<0 & p<0.05); NSD for
 377 Non-significant decrease (slope<0 & p>0.05).

378 4 Discussion

379 4.1 Comparison with other grazing intensity maps

380 To further assess the effectiveness and reliability of the developed GDGI dataset, the mapping
381 results were juxtaposed with seven publicly available grazing intensity maps covering the QTP (Table
382 4). It can be seen that despite their public availability, these maps lacked both in spatial and temporal
383 resolution when juxtaposed with the GDGI maps. Our analysis was extended to four openly accessible
384 gridded livestock datasets, including GI-Sun (Sun et al., 2021), ALCC (Liu, 2021), GI-Meng (Meng et
385 al., 2023) and GLWs (Gilbert et al., 2018). Among the GLW series, GLW3 and GLW4 were chosen
386 owing to their superior performances over GLW1 and GLW2, as indicated by Gilbert et al. (2018). A
387 commonality among all five maps was the consistency for the spatial patterns of grazing intensity, with
388 prevalent high and low intensities in the northeast and northwest regions, respectively (Figure 9).
389 However, these maps differed significantly in terms of accuracy. As the grazing intensity maps of
390 GLWs and ALCC were produced based on the livestock census data in 2001 and 2015, an accuracy
391 comparison for the corresponding years was conducted among the five datasets both at county and
392 township scale. Observations at the county scale indicate that all four datasets, with the exception of
393 GI-Sun, are largely in alignment with the county census data (Figure 9b). When examined at the
394 township scale, GI-Sun and GLW demonstrate the most significant discrepancies, with MRE
395 surpassing 68%. ALCC and GI-Meng follow, recording MREs of 30.69% and 38.80%, respectively.
396 Additionally, the GDGI shows the highest degree of accuracy in relation to the township census data,
397 as indicated by the lowest MAE and RMSE values (Figure 9c). Moreover, the GDGI dataset spanning
398 31 years (1990-2020) earmarked it as a more suitable choice for long-term studies in comparison to the
399 other four datasets. Regarding spatial distribution, the overall patterns of these grazing maps are largely
400 consistent, exhibiting higher density patterns in the southeast and lower in the northwest. However,
401 notable discrepancies are still apparent in the finer details. In general, in terms of visually representing
402 the spatial distribution of livestock, the GDGI maps exhibit the best performance.

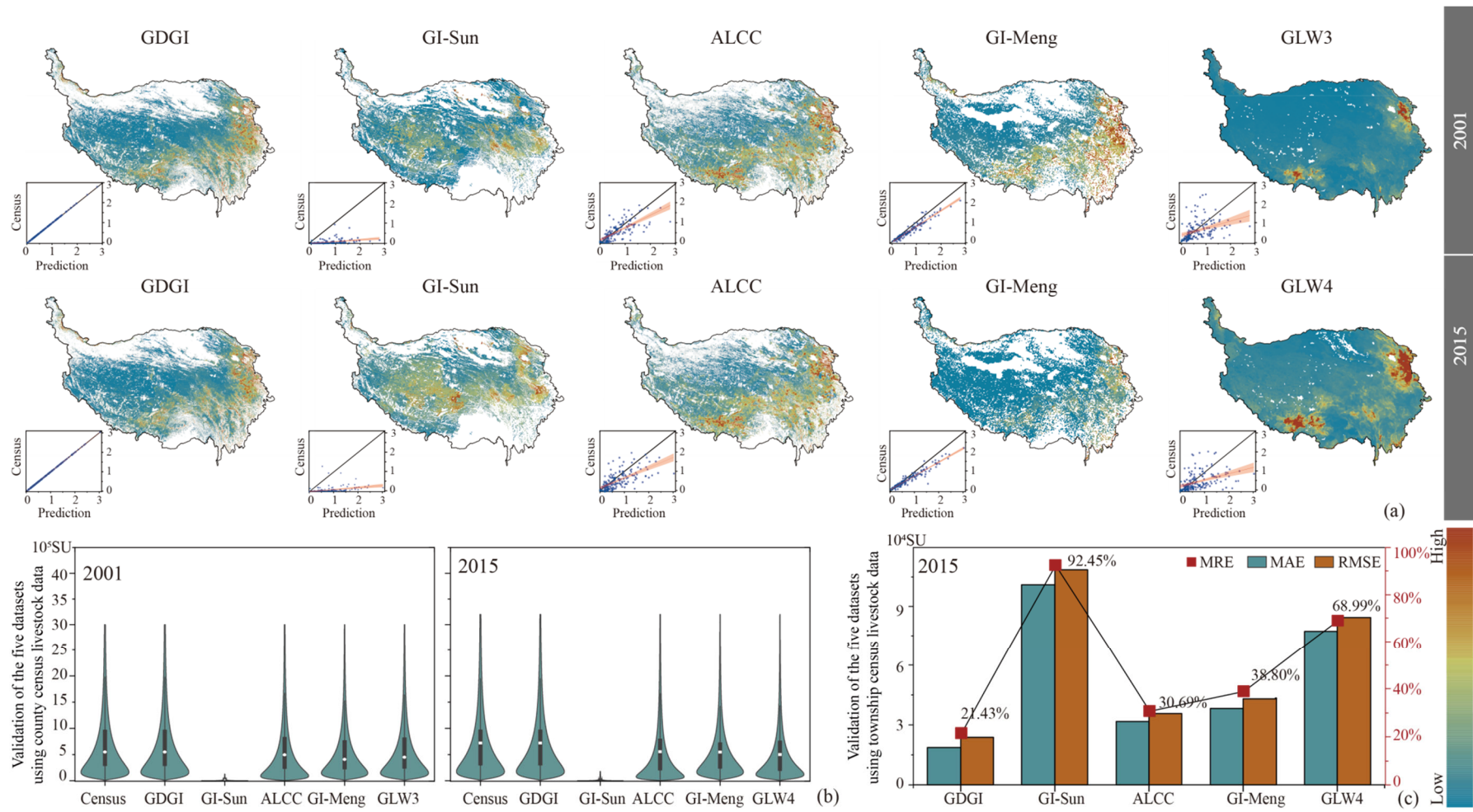
403 The above advantageous of the GDGI dataset are understandable. First, the livestock census data
404 used in GDGI is more detailed, aiding in enhancing the accuracy of the estimation results. Specifically,
405 GI-sun, ALCC, GI-Meng and GDGI all use county-level livestock statistics to map grazing intensity,
406 whereas GLW3 and GLW4 are based on provincial-level census data to map, which results in their
407 accuracy lagging significantly behind the four other datasets (Nicolas et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2021).
408 Second, grazing densities are estimated by dividing the number of livestock from the statistical data,
409 after a mask excluding theoretical unsuitable grazing areas. However, these maps differ in their
410 definitions of suitable grazing areas. In this study, as with the GI-sun and GI-Meng maps, we
411 considered grazing to occur only on grasslands, and further excluded unsuitable areas such as high
412 elevations and steep slopes. This kind of definition is clearly more reasonable than the GLW series,
413 which removed only water bodies, urban core areas, and protected areas with relatively tight
414 regulations of human activity (Mcsherry and Ritchie, 2013; He et al., 2022). However, the GI-Meng
415 dataset considers the core areas of protected areas as grazing-free region, it does not match the actual
416 situation on the QTP (Jiang et al., 2023; Li et al., 2022b; Zhao et al., 2020). Those different thresholds
417 for the definition of suitable grazing areas are account for the fact each map has different theoretical
418 grazing regions. Third, these maps decompose the livestock census data to pixels based on different
419 mathematical theories, which also leads to differences in prediction accuracy across maps. Specifically,

420 ALCC used a multivariate linear regression algorithm to predict grazing intensity, which has been
421 shown to be significantly inferior to the RF machine learning method employed by GI-Meng, GLW3
422 and GLW4 (Nicolas et al., 2016; Li et al., 2021). In this study, we used the ET model to predict
423 livestock numbers and achieved higher accuracy accordingly. Finally, differences in the selection of
424 factors affecting livestock distribution across maps may also lead to differences in map accuracy.
425 Specifically, GI-sun only used the NPP as indicator, but it is not simply linearly related to grazing
426 intensity (Sun et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2022; Gilbert et al., 2018). ALCC considered the population
427 density, NPP, and terrain as indicators, which are also incomplete considerations of the influencing
428 factors. On the other hand, GLW series dataset considered 12 factors, such as NDVI, EVI, population
429 distribution and elevation. GI-Meng dataset incorporated 14 factors including NDVI, soil PH, available
430 nitrogen, available phosphorus, and available potassium. However, GLWs and GI-Meng ignored the
431 decrease in the prediction accuracy due to redundancy among the factors. In this study, we selected
432 factors related to grazing activities including terrain, climate, environment and social factor, and
433 constructed a prediction model with seven factors including population density, elevation, climate, and
434 HNPP. Unlike other livestock products, this study used HNPP for the first time to replace the
435 commonly used NPP, or NDVI, or EVI as indicator, which has be proved to be more accurately
436 expressed the relationship between livestock and grassland (Huang et al., 2022).

437 Table 4. Summary of map-derived parameters for this study and other seven public gridded livestock datasets covering the QTP.

Dataset	Accessibility	Census	Temporal resolution	Spatial resolution	Period (years)	Method	Livestock type
GDGI	Yes	County	annual	100 m	1990-2020 (31)	ET	Standard SU
GLW3	Yes	Province/sub-Province	annual	0.083°(≈10 km)	2001 (1)	RF	Cattle, ducks, pigs, chickens,
GLW4	Yes	Province/sub-Province	annual	0.083°(≈10 km)	2015 (1)	RF	sheep, goats
GI-Sun	Yes	County	five-year interval	1 km	1990-2015 (6)	LRA	Standard SU
ALCC	Yes	Province/sub-Province	annual	250 m	2000-2019 (20)	MLR	Standard SU
GI-Meng	Yes	County	annual	0.083°(≈10 km)	1982-2015 (34)	RF	Standard SU
GI-Li	No	County	five-year interval	1 km	2000-2015 (4)	DNN	Cattle and sheep
GI-Zhan	No	County	season	15" (≈500 m)	2020 (2)	RF	Standard SU

438 Note: LRA is the abbreviation of linear regression analysis.



439

440 Figure 9. Comparisons of different grazing datasets for the years 2001 and 2015: (a) spatial patterns; (b) predicted livestock number and census data at county scale;

441 between predicted livestock number and census data at township scale.

442 4.2 Spatial heterogeneity of grazing intensities

443 In general, the multiyear average grazing intensity on the QTP increased from west to east during
444 1990 to 2020, with broad spatial heterogeneity (Figure 8). Highest grazing intensity was found mainly
445 in the northeastern and south-central regions of the Plateau (mostly higher than 5.0 SU/hm²), while
446 they were lowest in the northwest (mostly less than 1.0 SU/hm²). Over the past 31 years, the average
447 grazing intensity decreased across most of the Plateau, but 36.05% of the entire QTP grassland still
448 encountered continuous grazing intensity increase, especially in the northeastern regions (Figure 8).

449 The spatial heterogeneity of grazing intensities on the QTP may be attributed to the following
450 reasons. First, complex geographic and climatic conditions on the QTP determine the heterogeneity of
451 grassland, which in turn affects livestock distribution (Wang et al., 2018; Wei et al., 2022). In general,
452 the grazing intensity patterns shown in the GDGI maps are basically consistent with the stocking rate
453 threshold patterns in the QTP grasslands, both decreased from east to west (Zhu et al., 2023a). This
454 phenomenon partially reflects the heterogeneity of the grasslands, as the alpine meadows and the
455 steppes mainly distributed in the east and the west, respectively. Second, the dynamics of
456 socio-economic development are obviously another important factors determining grazing intensity. In
457 areas falling behind in terms of the socio-economic indicators, herders prefer to increase livestock in
458 efforts to improve household incomes, leading to greater pressure on grasslands in these regions (Fang
459 and Wu, 2022). In addition, the perceived increases in human population also resulted in the
460 considerably increased need to more livestock (Wei et al., 2022).

461 The grazing intensity dynamics across the QTP are partly reflective of the impacts of various
462 management policies that have been implemented over distinct periods. For example, a significant
463 increase in grazing intensity on the QTP was observed in the early 1990s, potentially a direct result of
464 the introduction of the household contract responsibility system. Moreover, the grazing intensity
465 experienced a pronounced decline from 1997 to 2001, as illustrated in Figure 8d, indicative of the
466 adverse effects of natural disasters. Notably, the severe snowstorms that struck Naqu in the central QTP
467 during 1997-1998 are documented to have caused the mortality of over 820,000 livestock (Ye et al.,
468 2020). Figure 8d further delineates a considerable upsurge in grazing intensity on the QTP between
469 2000 and 2010, aligning with the trends reported by Sun et al. (2021) and Li et al. (2021). This
470 observed increase may be attributed to a rebound in grazing activity following the aforementioned
471 natural disasters. In addition, Figure 8d indicates a sustained decrease in grazing intensity post-2010
472 across the plateau, which can be predominantly ascribed to the implementation of extensive ecological
473 conservation projects.

474 4.3 Implications for grazing management

475 Nearly half of the grasslands on the QTP have been reported to be degraded over the past four
476 decades (Wang et al., 2018; Dong et al., 2020), with some reports even indicating that the degraded
477 grassland has reached 90% (Wang et al., 2021). It is widely recognized that overgrazing is the
478 predominant and most pervasive unsustainable human activity continuing to drive grassland
479 degradation on the QTP (Wang et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019). Generally, these degraded grassland on
480 the QTP can be effectively restored by adaptive management (Wang et al., 2022). However, better
481 management of grasslands requires a deeper understanding of the anthropogenic activities, which still
482 remain an important challenge and can be effectively addressed by the GDGI dataset.

483 According to the GDGI maps generated in this study, high-intensity grazing activities are mainly
484 concentrated in the northeastern as well as the south-central part of the QTP, with the grazing intensity
485 in some areas even nearly more than ten times than the average value of the entire plateau (Figure 6b),
486 and have exceeded the stocking rate threshold of these grasslands (Zhu et al., 2023a). Population
487 growth and the related increasing livelihood demands is one of the main reasons for this increase. To
488 meet daily needs and enhance household income, the herders have endeavored to increase livestock,
489 thereby intensifying grazing pressures on the grasslands over the QTP (Fang and Wu, 2022; Abu
490 Hammad and Tumeizi, 2012). Although the current average grazing intensity in the northwest QTP
491 (around 1.0 SU/hm²) is below their average stocking rate threshold (around 1.5 SU/hm²) (Zhu et al.,
492 2023a), the grassland management should still be given adequate attention. Because as the most arid
493 areas with low stocking rate threshold on the QTP, the grazing intensity in this region has been
494 increasing in recent years. Nevertheless, it must be noted that the stocking rate threshold may exceed
495 the carrying capacity, because it is predicted to lead to an extreme grassland degradation (Zhu et al.,
496 2023a). The GDGI dataset also showed a similar pattern between the grazing intensity data and the
497 WorldPop data near the built-up areas, indicating higher grazing intensity around settlements than other
498 regions on the QTP. In addition, the GDGI dataset also indicate that from 1990 to 2020, although the
499 grazing intensity of the Plateau has generally decreased, the hotspot areas for grazing activities have
500 remained almost unchanged. This implies that these regions should be the focus of adaptive grassland
501 management to effectively prevent grassland degradation, mainly based on the grass–livestock balance
502 which varies by time and space.

503 Encouragingly, the GDGI dataset show that the grazing intensity for two-thirds of the entire QTP
504 grassland decreased over the past 31 years, which is also consistent with other studies (Sun et al., 2021;
505 Li et al., 2021). Recent decades of biodiversity protection, active restoration projects as well as
506 management measures, such as nature reserves, grazing exclusion, part grazing ban combined with
507 fencing enclosure, are believed to have driven these decrease (Deng et al., 2017; Li and Bennett, 2019).
508 In addition, most grassland in the eastern Sanjiangyuan, the mid-eastern Changtang, and the northern
509 foothills of the Himalayas, showed a significant decrease with grazing intensity (Figure 6e), indicating
510 the importance of protected areas on preventing overstock and grassland degradation. Meanwhile, the
511 GDGI maps also show that the grazing density varies greatly among protected areas, possibly owing to
512 the difference in policy implementation. For instance, it can be seen from the GDGI maps that grazing
513 intensity are increasing in some protected areas, especially several wetland nature reserves on the Zoige
514 plateau (Figure 6e). Moreover, the average grazing intensity in all nature reserves on the QTP has
515 overall increased from 1990 to 2020, although their increase rate is much lower than the non-protected
516 areas (0.0125 SU/hm²·10a vs 0.0304 SU/hm²·10a), which implies that grassland management in
517 protected areas still needs to be strengthened on the QTP.

518 The grazing initiatives in alignment with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) on the QTP
519 can benefit from the GDGI dataset. Firstly, determination a reasonable stocking rate is vital to prevent
520 overstocking of the pastures, which will possibly induce extreme grassland degradation (Zhu et al.,
521 2023a). Stocking rate determination can be optimized by using our grazing intensity maps and the
522 stocking rate threshold maps of the QTP. Secondly, the GDGI maps can contribute to strategic
523 placement of fence, which is a common practice adopted to prevent grassland degradation on the QTP.
524 Building fences in areas with high grazing intensity and exceeding the carrying capacity can improve
525 the effectiveness of fence construction (Zhou et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023). Thirdly, the GDGI

526 dataset can provide a solid support for promoting effective nature reserve management, which in total
527 covering nearly one third of the entire QTP. For example, the GDGI maps showed that grazing
528 activities still exist in most nature reserves on the Plateau, although most of them have significantly
529 lower grazing intensities compared with their adjacent non-protected areas. By using the GDGI maps,
530 the conflict between ecological protection and grazing activities in nature reserves can be alleviated.
531 Finally, our grazing intensity maps can act as a basic dataset to support other grassland-related policies.
532 Currently, these policies on the QTP often adopt a one-size-fits-all approach to determine the carrying
533 capacity and carry out ecological compensation, which may lead to overstock or unfair financial
534 distribution (Wang et al., 2022). The grassland management strategies balancing carrying capacity and
535 stocking rates are more likely to result in optimal management choices for policymakers and
536 stakeholders, and our GDGI maps can contribute to this decision-making processes.

537 **4.4 Uncertainties and limitations**

538 Although this study has collected as reliable datasets as possible, users of the GDGI products
539 should be cognizant of inherent uncertainties and limitations within these datasets. Notably, the mean
540 relative error of the GDGI dataset spanning 1990 to 2020 was recorded at 4.2% (Figure 4a), calculated
541 from the average errors across 182 counties within the QTP that had accessible livestock census data.
542 Furthermore, approximately 8.26% of grassland areas exhibited a relative error exceeding 1.0 SU/hm²
543 (Figure 4b). Such discrepancies arise from several limitations that were subsequently propagated to the
544 final grazing intensity maps, thereby contributing to the dataset's overall uncertainties.

545 Firstly, the estimations of grazing intensities were fundamentally conservative, primarily due to the
546 lack of comprehensive input data. Livestock numbers, derived from year-end data at the county level,
547 inadvertently led to underestimations of grazing intensity by not accounting for livestock off-take rates.
548 Likewise, the evaluation focused solely on livestock grazing intensity, excluding wild herbivores and
549 forage-dependent livestock, which potentially underestimate actual grazing pressures on the QTP.
550 Additionally, despite identifying seven main factors influencing livestock distribution, the study did not
551 encompass all potential factors, such as fencing, forage availability, road proximity, and season
552 transformation in grazing practices. Moreover, to align with county-scale livestock census data, we
553 averaged the environmental factors at the county-scale. Although this approach have been widely used
554 on the hypothesis that a consistent causal relationship between livestock intensity and environmental
555 factors persists across various scales (Robinson et al., 2014; Nicolas et al., 2016; Li et al., 2021; Meng
556 et al., 2023), it might oversimplify the intricate dynamics between grazing intensity and lead to a
557 certain degree of estimation inaccuracies. In addition, the reliance on linear extrapolation to
558 Supplementary missing gridded 100-m population density data from 1990-1999 introduced further
559 uncertainties due to the limited resolution (1-km) and interval (5-year) of the ChinaPop dataset.

560 Secondly, the modeling process for mapping grazing intensity also suffered from several challenges.
561 For instance, the ET model was trained with a limited sample size of 4,998 and applied to a vast area
562 consisting of 150 million pixels, which could compromise the model's accuracy. In addition, despite the
563 ET model's design to reduce overfitting risks by using randomly selected features and partition decision,
564 the potential for overfit effects still remained, particularly when faced with a high number of output
565 classes or insufficient sample sizes (Geurts et al., 2006; Galelli and Castelletti, 2013). In fact, this
566 limitation was evident in this study, as the generalization capability of the ET model was restricted by
567 the disparity between the number of training samples and the total number of pixels, leading to
568 predictions that often exceeded actual livestock census (Figure 4a).

569 Thirdly, our methodological framework for high-resolution gridded grazing dataset mapping was
570 developed based on the assumption that all grassland were accessible to livestock. However, in reality,
571 the amount of available grassland was less due to fencing and grazing bans on the QTP (Zhan et al.,
572 2023). Moreover, transhumant herders generally follow a seasonal calendar for summer pastures and
573 winter pastures on the QTP. However, we did not consider this seasonal movements due to data
574 limitations, which further restrict the analysis of seasonal livestock distribution patterns (Kolluru et al.,
575 2023). Additionally, the model's reliance on human population as a proxy for livestock locations
576 overlooked the possibility of high grazing intensity in areas with low human populations on the QTP,
577 particularly in regions designated for summer pastures.

578 Finally, it is important to note that gathering livestock census data in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau
579 presents significant challenges, leading to a scarcity of livestock validation data in this study,
580 particularly at the township and pixel scales. This limitation may, to some extent, impact the reliability
581 of the grazing intensity data we have presented.

582 In summary, all these limitations associated with input data, the modeling process, and the
583 methodological framework collectively contribute to the uncertainties and potentially reduce accuracy
584 of the GDGI maps. We henceforth recommend that future research should aim to incorporate more
585 detailed data, consider additional influential factors, enhance key dataset's time-series consistency, and
586 refine the methodological framework to improve the accuracy of grazing intensity mapping.

587 **5 Data availability**

588 The annual gridded grazing intensity maps of the QTP spanning from 1990 to 2020 are accessible
589 at the following link: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13141090> (Zhou et al., 2024). Each map is
590 catalogued by year and recorded in GeoTIFF format, with values represented in SU/hm² per year.
591 These datasets, with a spatial resolution of 100 m and annual temporal resolution, utilize the
592 WGS-1984-Albers geographic coordinate system. To streamline data transfer and download processes,
593 the comprehensive 31-year dataset has been compressed into a ZIP file, readily available for download
594 and compatible with Geographic Information System (GIS) software for viewing.

595 **6 Conclusions**

596 In this study, we introduce a framework utilizing ET machine learning algorithms to achieve
597 fine-scale livestock spatialization, subsequently generating the GDGI dataset across the QTP. The
598 GDGI has a spatial resolution of 100 m and expands 31 years from 1990 to 2020. It is consistent with
599 livestock census data of the QTP, and has a relatively higher precision than previous datasets with
600 MAE of 0.006 SU/hm² based on 4,998 independent test samples. In addition, the accuracy evaluations
601 at both pixel-level and township-level underscore the outstanding reliability and applicability of the
602 GDGI dataset, which can successfully capture the spatial heterogeneity and variation in grazing
603 intensities in greater details. Moreover, comparisons between the GDGI dataset and other existing
604 grazing map products further proved the robust and efficient of our dataset, and demonstrate the
605 validity of the proposed framework in the research of livestock spatialization. The GDGI dataset
606 presented in this study can address existing limitations and enhance the understanding of grazing
607 activities on the QTP. This, in turn, can aid in the rational utilization of grasslands and facilitate the
608 implementation of informed and sustainable management practices.

609 **Supplementary.**

610 For gridded datasets influencing grazing that are not directly available, or that do not meet
611 spatio-temporal resolution requirements—such as those pertaining to population density, temperature,
612 precipitation, and HNPP—we have delineated the processing or creation procedures in the
613 Supplementary file.

614 **Author contributions.**

615 T.L. conceived the research; J.Z. and J.N. performed the analyses and wrote the first draft of the
616 paper; N.W. and T.L. reviewed and edited the paper before submission. All authors made substantial
617 contributions to the discussion of content.

618 **Competing interests.**

619 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

620 **Acknowledgements.**

621 We would like to thank the Bureau of Statistics of each county over the QTP for providing the
622 census livestock data.

623 **Financial support.**

624 This research was supported by the Second Tibetan Plateau Scientific Expedition and Research
625 Program (STEP), Ministry of Science and Technology of the People's Republic of China (grant no.
626 2019QZKK0402) and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant no. 42071238).

627 **References**

628 Abu Hammad, A. and Tumeizi, A.: Land degradation: socioeconomic and environmental causes and
629 consequences in the eastern Mediterranean, *Land. Degrad. Dev.*, 23, 216-226,
630 <https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.1069>, 2012.

631 Ahmad, M. W., Reynolds, J., and Rezgui, Y.: Predictive modelling for solar thermal energy systems: A
632 comparison of support vector regression, random forest, extra trees and regression trees, *J. Clean.*
633 *Prod.*, 203, 810-821, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.08.207>, 2018.

634 Alexander, P., Prestele, R., Verburg, P. H., Arneth, A., Baranzelli, C., Batista e Silva, F., Brown, C.,
635 Butler, A., Calvin, K., and Dendoncker, N.: Assessing uncertainties in land cover projections, *Glob.*
636 *Chang. Biol.*, 23, 767-781, 2017.

637 Allred, B. W., Fuhlendorf, S. D., Hovick, T. J., Dwayne Elmore, R., Engle, D. M., and Joern, A.:
638 Conservation implications of native and introduced ungulates in a changing climate, *Glob. Chang.*
639 *Biol.*, 19, 1875-1883, <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12183>, 2013.

640 Breiman, L.: Random Forests, *Mach. Learn.*, 45, 5-32, <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1010933404324>,
641 2001.

642 Cai, Y. J., Wang, X. D., Tian, L. L., Zhao, H., Lu, X. Y., and Yan, Y.: The impact of excretal returns

643 from yak and Tibetan sheep dung on nitrous oxide emissions in an alpine steppe on the
644 Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Soil. Biol. Biochem.*, 76, 90-99,
645 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2014.05.008>, 2014.

646 Chang, J. F., Ciais, P., Gasser, T., Smith, P., Herrero, M., Havlík, P., Obersteiner, M., Guenet, B., Goll,
647 D. S., Li, W., Naipal, V., Peng, S. S., Qiu, C. J., Tian, H. Q., Viovy, N., Yue, C., and Zhu, D.: Climate
648 warming from managed grasslands cancels the cooling effect of carbon sinks in sparsely grazed and
649 natural grasslands, *Nat. Commun.*, 12, 118, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-20406-7>, 2021.

650 Chen, Y. Z., Ju, W. M., Mu, S. J., Fei, X. R., Cheng, Y., Propastin, P., Zhou, W., Liao, C. J., Chen, L. X.,
651 Tang, R. J., Qi, J. G., Li, J. L., and Ruan, H. H.: Explicit Representation of Grazing Activity in a
652 Diagnostic Terrestrial Model: A Data - Process Combined Scheme, *J. Adv. Model. Earth. Sy.*, 11,
653 957-978, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018ms001352>, 2019.

654 Cortes, C. and Vapnik, V.: Support-vector networks, *Mach. Learn.*, 20, 273-297,
655 <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00994018>, 1995.

656 Cover, T. and Hart, P.: Nearest neighbor pattern classification, *Ieee. T. Inform. Theory.*, 13, 21-27,
657 <https://doi.org/10.1109/TIT.1967.1053964>, 1967.

658 Dara, A., Baumann, M., Freitag, M., Hölzel, N., Hostert, P., Kamp, J., Müller, D., Prishchepov, A. V.,
659 and Kuemmerle, T.: Annual Landsat time series reveal post-Soviet changes in grazing pressure,
660 *Remote. Sens. Environ.*, 239, 111667, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2020.111667>, 2020.

661 Deng, L., Zhou, S. G., Wu, P., Gao, L., and Chang, X.: Effects of grazing exclusion on carbon
662 sequestration in China's grassland, *Earth-Sci. Rev.*, 173, 84-95,
663 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2017.08.008>, 2017.

664 Dong, S. K., Shang, Z. H., Gao, J. X., and Boone, R. B.: Enhancing sustainability of grassland
665 ecosystems through ecological restoration and grazing management in an era of climate change on
666 Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 287, 106684,
667 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2019.106684>, 2020.

668 Fang, X. N. and Wu, J. G.: Causes of overgrazing in Inner Mongolian grasslands: Searching for deep
669 leverage points of intervention, *Ecol. Soc.*, 27, <https://doi.org/10.5751/es-12878-270108>, 2022.

670 Feng, R. Z., Long, R. J., Shang, Z. H., Ma, Y. S., Dong, S. K., and Wang, Y. L.: Establishment of
671 *Elymus natans* improves soil quality of a heavily degraded alpine meadow in Qinghai-Tibetan
672 Plateau, China, *Plant. Soil.*, 327, 403-411, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-009-0065-3>, 2009.

673 Fetzel, T., Havlík, P., Herrero, M., Kaplan, J. O., Kastner, T., Kroisleitner, C., Rolinski, S., Searchinger,
674 T., Van Bodegom, P. M., Wirseniuss, S., and Erb, K. H.: Quantification of uncertainties in global
675 grazing systems assessment, *Global. Biogeochem. Cy.*, 31, 1089-1102,
676 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016gb005601>, 2017.

677 Friedman, J. H.: Greedy function approximation: a gradient boosting machine, *Ann. Stat.*, 29,
678 1189-1232, <https://doi.org/10.1214/aos/1013203451>, 2001.

679 Galelli, S. and Castelletti, A.: Assessing the predictive capability of randomized tree-based ensembles
680 in streamflow modelling, *Hydrol. Earth. Syst. Sc.*, 17, 2669-2684,
681 <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-17-2669-2013>, 2013.

682 García, R., Aguilar, J., Toro, M., Pinto, A., and Rodríguez, P.: A systematic literature review on the use
683 of machine learning in precision livestock farming, *Comput. Electron. Agr.*, 179, 105826,
684 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compag.2020.105826>, 2020.

685 García Ruiz, J. M., Tomás Faci, G., Diarte Blasco, P., Montes, L., Domingo, R., Sebastián, M., Lasanta,
686 T., González Sampériz, P., López Moreno, J. I., Arnáez, J., and Beguería, S.: Transhumance and

687 long-term deforestation in the subalpine belt of the central Spanish Pyrenees: An interdisciplinary
688 approach, *Catena.*, 195, 104744, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2020.104744>, 2020.

689 Garrett, R. D., Koh, I., Lambin, E. F., le Polain de Waroux, Y., Kastens, J. H., and Brown, J. C.:
690 Intensification in agriculture-forest frontiers: Land use responses to development and conservation
691 policies in Brazil, *Global Environ. Chang.*, 53, 233-243,
692 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2018.09.011>, 2018.

693 Geurts, P., Ernst, D., and Wehenkel, L.: Extremely randomized trees, *Mach. Learn.*, 63, 3-42,
694 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10994-006-6226-1>, 2006.

695 Gilbert, M., Nicolas, G., Cinardi, G., Van Boeckel, T. P., Vanwambeke, S. O., Wint, G. R. W., and
696 Robinson, T. P.: Global distribution data for cattle, buffaloes, horses, sheep, goats, pigs, chickens and
697 ducks in 2010, *Sci. Data.*, 5, 180227, <https://doi.org/10.1038/sdata.2018.227>, 2018.

698 Godfray, H. C. J., Aveyard, P., Garnett, T., Hall, J. W., Key, T. J., Lorimer, J., Pierrehumbert, R. T.,
699 Scarborough, P., Springmann, M., and Jebb, S. A.: Meat consumption, health, and the environment,
700 *Science.*, 361, 243, <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aam5324>, 2018.

701 Guo, Z. L., Li, Z., and Cui, G. F.: Effectiveness of national nature reserve network in representing
702 natural vegetation in mainland China, *Biodivers. Conserv.*, 24, 2735-2750,
703 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-015-0959-8>, 2015.

704 Han, Y. H., Dong, S. K., Zhao, Z. Z., Sha, W., Li, S., Shen, H., Xiao, J. N., Zhang, J., Wu, X. Y., Jiang,
705 X. M., Zhao, J. B., Liu, S. L., Dong, Q. M., Zhou, H. K., and Yeomans, J. C.: Response of soil
706 nutrients and stoichiometry to elevated nitrogen deposition in alpine grassland on the
707 Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Geoderma.*, 343, 263-268, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2018.12.050>,
708 2019.

709 He, M., Pan, Y. H., Zhou, G. Y., Barry, K. E., Fu, Y. L., and Zhou, X. H.: Grazing and global change
710 factors differentially affect biodiversity - ecosystem functioning relationships in grassland
711 ecosystems, *Glob. Chang. Biol.*, 28, 5492-5504, <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.16305>, 2022.

712 Heddam, S., Ptak, M., and Zhu, S. L.: Modelling of daily lake surface water temperature from air
713 temperature: Extremely randomized trees (ERT) versus Air2Water, MARS, M5Tree, RF and
714 MLPNN, *J. Hydrol.*, 588, 125130, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2020.125130>, 2020.

715 Hu, Y., Cheng, H., and Tao, S.: Environmental and human health challenges of industrial livestock and
716 poultry farming in China and their mitigation, *Environ. Int.*, 107, 111-130,
717 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2017.07.003>, 2017.

718 Huang, X. T., Yang, Y. S., Chen, C. B., Zhao, H. F., Yao, B. Q., Ma, Z., Ma, L., and Zhou, H. K.:
719 Quantifying and Mapping Human Appropriation of Net Primary Productivity in Qinghai Grasslands
720 in China, *Agriculture.*, 12, 483, <https://doi.org/10.3390/agriculture12040483>, 2022.

721 Humpenöder, F., Bodirsky, B. L., Weindl, I., Lotze Campen, H., Linder, T., and Popp, A.: Projected
722 environmental benefits of replacing beef with microbial protein, *Nature.*, 605, 90-96,
723 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-022-04629-w>, 2022.

724 Jiang, M. J., Zhao, X. F., Wang, R., Yin, L., and Zhang, B. L.: Assessment of Conservation
725 Effectiveness of the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau Nature Reserves from a Human Footprint Perspective
726 with Global Lessons, *Land.*, 12, 869, <https://doi.org/10.3390/land12040869>, 2023.

727 Kolluru, V., John, R., Saraf, S., Chen, J. Q., Hankerson, B., Robinson, S., Kussainova, M., and Jain, K.:
728 Gridded livestock density database and spatial trends for Kazakhstan, *Sci. Data.*, 10, 839,
729 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-023-02736-5>, 2023.

730 Kumar, P., Abubakar, A. A., Verma, A. K., Umaraw, P., Adewale Ahmed, M., Mehta, N., Nizam Hayat,

731 M., Kaka, U., and Sazili, A. Q.: New insights in improving sustainability in meat production:
732 opportunities and challenges, *Crit .Rev. Food. Sci.*, 1-29,
733 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2022.2096562>, 2022.

734 Li, M. Q., Liu, S. L., Wang, F. F., Liu, H., Liu, Y. X., and Wang, Q. B.: Cost-benefit analysis of
735 ecological restoration based on land use scenario simulation and ecosystem service on the
736 Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, *Glob. Ecol. Conserv.*, 34, e02006,
737 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gecco.2022.e02006>, 2022a.

738 Li, P. and Bennett, J.: Understanding herders' stocking rate decisions in response to policy initiatives,
739 *Sci. Total. Environ.*, 672, 141-149, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.03.407>, 2019.

740 Li, Q., Zhang, C. L., Shen, Y. P., Jia, W. R., and Li, J.: Quantitative assessment of the relative roles of
741 climate change and human activities in desertification processes on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau based
742 on net primary productivity, *Catena.*, 147, 789-796, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2016.09.005>,
743 2016.

744 Li, S., Wu, J., Gong, J., and Li, S.: Human footprint in Tibet: Assessing the spatial layout and
745 effectiveness of nature reserves, *Sci Total Environ*, 621, 18-29,
746 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.11.216>, 2018.

747 Li, T., Cai, S. H., Singh, R. K., Cui, L. Z., Fava, F., Tang, L., Xu, Z. H., Li, C. J., Cui, X. Y., Du, J. Q.,
748 Hao, Y. B., Liu, Y. X., and Wang, Y. F.: Livelihood resilience in pastoral communities:
749 Methodological and field insights from Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Sci. Total. Environ.*, 838, 155960,
750 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2022.155960>, 2022b.

751 Li, X. H., Hou, J. L., and Huang, C. L.: High-Resolution Gridded Livestock Projection for Western
752 China Based on Machine Learning, *Remote. Sens.*, 13, 5038, <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs13245038>,
753 2021.

754 Lin, G. C., Lin, A. J., and Gu, D. L.: Using support vector regression and K-nearest neighbors for
755 short-term traffic flow prediction based on maximal information coefficient, *Inform. Sciences.*, 608,
756 517-531, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ins.2022.06.090>, 2022.

757 Long, S. J., Wei, X. L., Zhang, F., Zhang, R. H., Xu, J., Wu, K., Li, Q. Q., and Li, W. W.: Estimating
758 daily ground-level NO₂ concentrations over China based on TROPOMI observations and machine
759 learning approach, *Atmos. Environ.*, 289, 119310, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2022.119310>,
760 2022.

761 Luo, J. F., Hoogendoorn, C., van der Weerden, T., Saggarr, S., de Klein, C., Giltrap, D., Rollo, M., and
762 Rys, G.: Nitrous oxide emissions from grazed hill land in New Zealand, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 181,
763 58-68, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2013.09.020>, 2013.

764 Ma, C., Xie, Y., Duan, H., Wang, X., Bie, Q., Guo, Z., He, L., and Qin, W.: Spatial quantification
765 method of grassland utilization intensity on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau: A case study on the Selinco
766 basin, *J. Environ. Manage.*, 302, 114073, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2021.114073>, 2022.

767 Mack, G., Walter, T., and Flury, C.: Seasonal alpine grazing trends in Switzerland: Economic
768 importance and impact on biotic communities, *Environ. Sci. Policy.*, 32, 48-57,
769 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2013.01.019>, 2013.

770 Martinuzzi, S., Radeloff, V. C., Pastur, G. M., Rosas, Y. M., Lizarraga, L., Politi, N., Rivera, L., Herrera,
771 A. H., Silveira, E. M. O., Olah, A., and Pidgeon, A. M.: Informing forest conservation planning with
772 detailed human footprint data for Argentina, *Glob. Ecol. Conserv.*, 31, e01787,
773 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gecco.2021.e01787>, 2021.

774 McMillan, H. K., Westerberg, I. K., and Krueger, T.: Hydrological data uncertainty and its implications,

775 Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Water, 5, e1319, 2018.

776 McSherry, M. E. and Ritchie, M. E.: Effects of grazing on grassland soil carbon: a global review, *Glob.*
777 *Chang. Biol.*, 19, 1347-1357, <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12144>, 2013.

778 Meng, N., Wang, L. J., Qi, W. C., Dai, X. H., Li, Z. Z., Yang, Y. Z., Li, R. N., Ma, J. F., and Zheng, H.:
779 A high-resolution gridded grazing dataset of grassland ecosystem on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau in
780 1982-2015, *Sci. Data.*, 10, 68, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-023-01970-1>, 2023.

781 Miao, L. J., Sun, Z. L., Ren, Y. J., Schierhorn, F., and Müller, D.: Grassland greening on the Mongolian
782 Plateau despite higher grazing intensity, *Land. Degrad. Dev.*, 32, 792-802,
783 <https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.3767>, 2020.

784 Minoofar, A., Gholami, A., Eslami, S., Hajizadeh, A., Gholami, A., Zandi, M., Ameri, M., and Kazem,
785 H. A.: Renewable energy system opportunities: A sustainable solution toward cleaner production and
786 reducing carbon footprint of large-scale dairy farms, *Energ. Convers. Manage.*, 293, 117554,
787 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enconman.2023.117554>, 2023.

788 Mulligan, M., van Soesbergen, A., Hole, D. G., Brooks, T. M., Burke, S., and Hutton, J.: Mapping
789 nature's contribution to SDG 6 and implications for other SDGs at policy relevant scales, *Remote.*
790 *Sens. Environ.*, 239, 111671, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2020.111671>, 2020.

791 Muloi, D. M., Wee, B. A., McClean, D. M. H., Ward, M. J., Pankhurst, L., Phan, H., Ivens, A. C.,
792 Kivali, V., Kiyong'a, A., Ndinda, C., Gitahi, N., Ouko, T., Hassell, J. M., Imboma, T., Akoko, J.,
793 Murungi, M. K., Njoroge, S. M., Muinde, P., Nakamura, Y., Alumasa, L., Furmaga, E., Kaitho, T.,
794 Öhgren, E. M., Amany, F., Ogendo, A., Wilson, D. J., Bettridge, J. M., Kiiru, J., Kyobutungi, C.,
795 Tacoli, C., Kang'ethe, E. K., Davila, J. D., Kariuki, S., Robinson, T. P., Rushton, J., Woolhouse, M. E.
796 J., and Fèvre, E. M.: Population genomics of *Escherichia coli* in livestock-keeping households across
797 a rapidly developing urban landscape, *Nat. Microbiol.*, 7, 581-589,
798 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41564-022-01079-y>, 2022.

799 Neumann, K., Elbersen, B. S., Verburg, P. H., Staritsky, I., Pérez-Soba, M., de Vries, W., and Rienks, W.
800 A.: Modelling the spatial distribution of livestock in Europe, *Landscape. Ecol.*, 24, 1207-1222,
801 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10980-009-9357-5>, 2009.

802 Nicolas, G., Robinson, T. P., Wint, G. R., Conchedda, G., Cinardi, G., and Gilbert, M.: Using Random
803 Forest to Improve the Downscaling of Global Livestock Census Data, *Plos. One.*, 11, e0150424,
804 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0150424>, 2016.

805 O'Neill, D. W. and Abson, D. J.: To settle or protect? A global analysis of net primary production in
806 parks and urban areas, *Ecol. Econ.*, 69, 319-327, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2009.08.028>,
807 2009.

808 Pan, Y. J., Chen, S. Y., Qiao, F. X., Ukkusuri, S. V., and Tang, K.: Estimation of real-driving emissions
809 for buses fueled with liquefied natural gas based on gradient boosted regression trees, *Sci. Total.*
810 *Environ.*, 660, 741-750, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.01.054>, 2019.

811 Petz, K., Alkemade, R., Bakkenes, M., Schulp, C. J. E., van der Velde, M., and Leemans, R.: Mapping
812 and modelling trade-offs and synergies between grazing intensity and ecosystem services in
813 rangelands using global-scale datasets and models, *Global. Environ. Chang.*, 29, 223-234,
814 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2014.08.007>, 2014.

815 Pozo, R. A., Cusack, J. J., Acebes, P., Malo, J. E., Traba, J., Iranzo, E. C., Morris-Trainor, Z.,
816 Minderman, J., Bunnefeld, N., Radic-Schilling, S., Moraga, C. A., Arriagada, R., and Corti, P.:
817 Reconciling livestock production and wild herbivore conservation: challenges and opportunities,
818 *Trends. Ecol. Evol.*, 36, 750-761, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2021.05.002>, 2021.

819 Prosser, D. J., Wu, J., Ellis, E. C., Gale, F., Van Boeckel, T. P., Wint, W., Robinson, T., Xiao, X., and
820 Gilbert, M.: Modelling the distribution of chickens, ducks, and geese in China, *Agric Ecosyst*
821 *Environ*, 141, 381-389, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2011.04.002>, 2011.

822 Robinson, T. P., Wint, G. R., Conchedda, G., Van Boeckel, T. P., Ercoli, V., Palamara, E., Cinardi, G.,
823 D'Aiotti, L., Hay, S. I., and Gilbert, M.: Mapping the global distribution of livestock, *Plos. One.*, 9,
824 e96084, <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0096084>, 2014.

825 Rokach, L.: Decision forest: Twenty years of research, *Inform. Fusion.*, 27, 111-125,
826 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.inffus.2015.06.005>, 2016.

827 Shakoor, A., Shakoor, S., Rehman, A., Ashraf, F., Abdullah, M., Shahzad, S. M., Farooq, T. H., Ashraf,
828 M., Manzoor, M. A., Altaf, M. M., and Altaf, M. A.: Effect of animal manure, crop type, climate
829 zone, and soil attributes on greenhouse gas emissions from agricultural soils-A global meta-analysis,
830 *J. Clean. Prod.*, 278, 124019, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.124019>, 2021.

831 Sun, J., Liu, M., Fu, B. J., Kemp, D., Zhao, W. W., Liu, G. H., Han, G. D., Wilkes, A., Lu, X. Y., Chen,
832 Y. C., Cheng, G. W., Zhou, T. C., Hou, G., Zhan, T. Y., Peng, F., Shang, H., Xu, M., Shi, P. L., He, Y.
833 T., Li, M., Wang, J. N., Tsunekawa, A., Zhou, H. K., Liu, Y., Li, Y. R., and Liu, S. L.: Reconsidering
834 the efficiency of grazing exclusion using fences on the Tibetan Plateau, *Sci. Bull.*, 65, 1405-1414,
835 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scib.2020.04.035>, 2020.

836 Sun, Y. X., Liu, S. L., Liu, Y. X., Dong, Y. H., Li, M. Q., An, Y., and Shi, F. N.: Grazing intensity and
837 human activity intensity data sets on the Qinghai - Tibetan Plateau during 1990 - 2015, *Geoscience.*
838 *Data. Journal*, 9, 140-153, <https://doi.org/10.1002/gdj3.127>, 2021.

839 Tabassum, A., Abbasi, T., and Abbasi, S. A.: Reducing the global environmental impact of livestock
840 production: the minilivestock option, *J. Clean. Prod.*, 112, 1754-1766,
841 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2015.02.094>, 2016.

842 Van Boeckel, T. P., Prosser, D., Franceschini, G., Biradar, C., Wint, W., Robinson, T., and Gilbert, M.:
843 Modelling the distribution of domestic ducks in Monsoon Asia, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 141, 373-380,
844 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2011.04.013>, 2011.

845 Veldhuis, M. P., Ritchie, M. E., Ogutu, J. O., Morrison, T. A., Beale, C. M., Estes, A. B., Mwakilema,
846 W., Ojwang, G. O., Parr, C. L., Probert, J., Wargute, P. W., Hopcraft, J. G. C., and Han, O.:
847 Cross-boundary human impacts compromise the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem, *Science.*, 363,
848 1424-1428, <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aav0564>, 2019.

849 Venglovsky, J., Sasakova, N., and Placha, I.: Pathogens and antibiotic residues in animal manures and
850 hygienic and ecological risks related to subsequent land application, *Bioresour. Technol.*, 100,
851 5386-5391, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2009.03.068>, 2009.

852 Waha, K., van Wijk, M. T., Fritz, S., See, L., Thornton, P. K., Wichern, J., and Herrero, M.: Agricultural
853 diversification as an important strategy for achieving food security in Africa, *Glob. Chang. Biol.*, 24,
854 3390-3400, <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14158>, 2018.

855 Wang, R. J., Feng, Q. S., Jin, Z. R., and Liang, T. G.: The Restoration Potential of the Grasslands on the
856 Tibetan Plateau, *Remote. Sens.*, 14, 80, <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs14010080>, 2021.

857 Wang, Y. F., Lv, W. W., Xue, K., Wang, S. P., Zhang, L. R., Hu, R. H., Zeng, H., Xu, X. L., Li, Y. M.,
858 Jiang, L. L., Hao, Y. B., Du, J. Q., Sun, J. P., Dorji, T., Piao, S. L., Wang, C. H., Luo, C. Y., Zhang, Z.
859 H., Chang, X. F., Zhang, M. M., Hu, Y. G., Wu, T. H., Wang, J. Z., Li, B. W., Liu, P. P., Zhou, Y.,
860 Wang, A., Dong, S. K., Zhang, X. Z., Gao, Q. Z., Zhou, H. K., Shen, M. G., Wilkes, A., Mieke, G.,
861 Zhao, X. Q., and Niu, H. S.: Grassland changes and adaptive management on the Qinghai-Tibetan
862 Plateau, *Nat. Rev. Earth. Env.*, 3, 668-683, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-022-00330-8>, 2022.

863 Wang, Y. X., Sun, Y., Wang, Z. F., Chang, S. H., and Hou, F. J.: Grazing management options for
864 restoration of alpine grasslands on the Qinghai - Tibet Plateau, *Ecosphere.*, 9, e02515,
865 <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecs2.2515>, 2018.

866 Wei, Y. Q., Lu, H. Y., Wang, J. N., Wang, X. F., and Sun, J.: Dual Influence of Climate Change and
867 Anthropogenic Activities on the Spatiotemporal Vegetation Dynamics Over the Qinghai-Tibetan
868 Plateau From 1981 to 2015, *Earth's Future.*, 10, 1-23, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021EF002566>, 2022.

869 Yang, J. and Huang, X.: The 30 m annual land cover dataset and its dynamics in China from 1990 to
870 2019, *Earth. Syst. Sci. Data.*, 13, 3907-3925, <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-13-3907-2021>, 2021.

871 Yang, Y. J., Song, G., and Lu, S.: Assessment of land ecosystem health with Monte Carlo simulation: A
872 case study in Qiqihaer, China, *J. Clean. Prod.*, 250, 119522, 2020.

873 Ye, T., Liu, W. H., Mu, Q. Y., Zong, S., Li, Y. J., and Shi, P. J.: Quantifying livestock vulnerability to
874 snow disasters in the Tibetan Plateau: Comparing different modeling techniques for prediction,
875 *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction*, 48, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijdr.2020.101578>,
876 2020.

877 Zhai, D. C., Gao, X. Z., Li, B. L., Yuan, Y. C., Jiang, Y. H., Liu, Y., Li, Y., Li, R., Liu, W., and Xu, J.:
878 Driving Climatic Factors at Critical Plant Developmental Stages for Qinghai-Tibet Plateau Alpine
879 Grassland Productivity, *Remote. Sens.*, 14, 1564, <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs14071564>, 2022.

880 Zhan, N., Liu, W. H., Ye, T., Li, H. D., Chen, S., and Ma, H.: High-resolution livestock seasonal
881 distribution data on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau in 2020, *Sci. Data.*, 10, 142,
882 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-023-02050-0>, 2023.

883 Zhang, B. H., Zhang, Y. L., Wang, Z. F., Ding, M. J., Liu, L. S., Li, L. H., Li, S. C., Liu, Q. H., Paudel,
884 B., and Zhang, H. M.: Factors Driving Changes in Vegetation in Mt. Qomolangma (Everest):
885 Implications for the Management of Protected Areas, *Remote. Sens.*, 13, 4725,
886 <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs13224725>, 2021a.

887 Zhang, R. Y., Wang, Z. W., Han, G. D., Schellenberg, M. P., Wu, Q., and Gu, C.: Grazing induced
888 changes in plant diversity is a critical factor controlling grassland productivity in the Desert Steppe,
889 Northern China, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 265, 73-83, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2018.05.014>,
890 2018.

891 Zhang, W. B., Li, J., Struik, P. C., Jin, K., Ji, B. M., Jiang, S. Y., Zhang, Y., Li, Y. H., Yang, X. J., and
892 Wang, Z.: Recovery through proper grazing exclusion promotes the carbon cycle and increases
893 carbon sequestration in semiarid steppe, *Sci. Total. Environ.*, 892, 164423,
894 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.164423>, 2023.

895 Zhang, Y., Hu, Q. W., and Zou, F. L.: Spatio-Temporal Changes of Vegetation Net Primary Productivity
896 and Its Driving Factors on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau from 2001 to 2017, *Remote. Sens.*, 13, 1566,
897 <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs13081566>, 2021b.

898 Zhao, X. Q., Xu, T. W., Ellis, J., He, F. Q., Hu, L. Y., and Li, Q.: Rewilding the wildlife in
899 Sangjiangyuan National Park, Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Ecosyst. Health. Sust.*, 6, 1776643,
900 <https://doi.org/10.1080/20964129.2020.1776643>, 2020.

901 Zhou, W. X., Li, C. J., Wang, S., Ren, Z. B., and Stringer, L. C.: Effects of grazing and enclosure
902 management on soil physical and chemical properties vary with aridity in China's drylands, *Sci.*
903 *Total. Environ.*, 877, 162946, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.162946>, 2023.

904 Zhu, Q., Chen, H., Peng, C. H., Liu, J. X., Piao, S., He, J. S., Wang, S. P., Zhao, X. Q., Zhang, J., Fang,
905 X. Q., Jin, J. X., Yang, Q. E., Ren, L. L., and Wang, Y. F.: An early warning signal for grassland
906 degradation on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Nat. Commun.*, 14, 6406,

907 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-023-42099-4>, 2023a.
908 Zhu, Y. Y., Zhang, H. M., Ding, M. J., Li, L. H., and Zhang, Y. L.: The Multiple Perspective Response
909 of Vegetation to Drought on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Remote. Sens.*, 15, 902,
910 <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs15040902>, 2023b.
911 Zhou, J., Niu, J., Wu, N., Lu, T. Annual high-resolution grazing intensity maps on the Qinghai-Tibet
912 Plateau from 1990 to 2020 [Dataset]. Zenodo. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13141090>, 2024.