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Highlights

- A simple meta-ecosystem model is proposed to represent mixed farming system
- Optimization of livestock-induced nutrient transfer from rangeland to cropland improves crop production
- Control theory provides tools that take into account the variability over time of agricultural practices
- Time-varying livestock management can lead to higher crop production

Maximization of fertility transfers from rangeland to cropland: the contribution of control theory.

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Abstract

In traditional mixed farming systems, soil fertility in cropland relies on the transfer of fertility from rangeland through the transfer of manure produced by livestock that grazes in rangeland. In this work, we introduce a simple meta-ecosystem model in which the mixed farming system is represented by a cropland sub-system connected to a rangeland sub-system by nutrient fluxes. The livestock plays the role of nutrient-pump from the rangeland sub-system to the cropland sub-system. We use this model to study how spatial organization and practices of livestock management such as the control of grazing pressure and night corralling can help optimize both nutrient transfers and crop production.

We argue that addressing the optimization of crop production requires different methods, depending on whether the agricultural practice in focus is constant or variable over time. We first used classical optimization methods at equilibrium to address optimization when the grazing pressure was as-

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sumed to be constant over time. Second, we address optimization for a more realistic configuration of our model, where grazing pressure was assumed to vary over the course of a year. In this case, we used methods developed in the field of the control theory. Classical methods showed the existence of an optimal level of constant grazing pressure that maximizes the transfers from rangeland to cropland, leading to the maximization of crop production. Control methods showed that by varying the grazing pressure adequately an additional gain of production is possible, with higher crop production and lower nutrient transfer from rangeland to cropland. This additional gain arises from the fact that the requirement of nutrient by crops is variable along the year. Consequently, a constant adjustment of the grazing pressure allows a better match between nutrient transfer and nutrient requirement over time, leading to a substantial gain of crop biomass. Our results provide new insights for a "smarter" management of fertility transfers leading to higher crop production with less rangeland surface.

Keywords: meta-ecosystem, fertility transfer, crop production, control theory

1. Introduction

- In the context of demographic growth and economic changes, modern
- agriculture is facing an increasing demand in crop production. The crop pro-
- 4 duction strongly relies on soil fertility which is usually maintained by addi-
- tion of nutrient from external sources. In intensive high-yield agriculture, soil
- fertility relies on addition of synthetic fertilizers (Tilman et al., 2002). In tra-
- ⁷ ditional mixed farming systems, exploited by most smallholders in developing

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countries (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations., 2011),
   the addition of fertilizers from external sources is usually too costly (Dugué
   et al., 2011) and soil fertility relies on the addition of organic matter from
10
   animal manure (Powell et al., 1996, Manlay et al., 2004). Therefore, increas-
   ing crop production relies mostly on the optimization of these agricultural
   practices, which are the driving forces of the agro-ecosystem functioning.
13
      Indeed, the current practice is to use livestock as a "nutrient pump",
14
   displacing nutrient from rangeland to cropland. The terminology "biological
15
   pump" comes from Longhurst and Glen Harrison (1989) which defines the
   transfer of carbon and nitrogen from the euphotic zone through the downward
   flow of various organic matters (see also the terminology "whale pump" of
   Roman and McCarthy (2010) and "nutrient pump" of Bisson et al., in review).
   Livestock is herded in rangeland during the day where it feeds and ingests
   nutrient that it partly transfers to cropland by excreting manure during night
   corralling. Many agricultural practices affect the transfer of nutrient. We
   focused on three key practices, namely, the rangeland to cropland surface
   ratio, the grazing pressure, and the fraction of nutrient consumed by livestock
   in rangeland that is effectively transferred to cropland. The first one may
   be referred to as an "organizational" practice since it transforms the spatial
   organization of the landscape. It has strong implications for the balance
27
   of nutrient at landscapes scale. The two later practices may be referred to
28
   as "interconnection" practices because they directly determine the fluxes of
   nutrient between rangeland and cropland.
      Here we propose to study these key practices through the use of a math-
   ematical model, a classical approach in theoretical ecology (DeAngelis, 1992,
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Loreau, 2010). Several dynamical systems have already been proposed to help optimize the grazing in agro-ecosystems (e.g. Noy-Meir (1975), Woodward et al. (1993). In the vein of these works, some recent studies suggest that theoretical ecology provides some valuable theoretical tools to address agronomic questions (Dieguez Cameroni and Fort, 2017, Fort et al., 2017). To take into account the patchiness of the landscape with regard to nu-38 trient, and more specifically the source-sink dynamics between rangeland 39 and cropland, we based our approach on the meta-ecosystem theory (Loreau 40 et al., 2003). We define sources and sinks according to Loreau et al. (2013) where a source (sink) sub-system is an exporter (importer) of nutrient within the whole agro-ecosystem. By construction, our model shows sources-sink 43 properties. Sources-sink dynamics simply result from the nutrient transfer by livestock from rangeland to cropland. This theory provides a convenient framework to address source-sink dynamics and its consequences for primary 46 production in natural landscapes (Loreau et al., 2013). It has been proved recently to be applicable to agro-ecosystems (Bisson et al., in review). We 48 built a simple meta-ecosystem model with two sub-systems (rangeland and cropland) to assess the optimization of crop production through the three 50 agricultural practices introduced earlier. 51 We looked for configurations and management strategies that maximized 52 crop production. Depending on whether the practices are of the "organiza-53 tional" or "interconnection" types, the optimization of crop production with respect to these practices require different methods. Therefore, for "organi-56 zational" practices, that do not change over time (at least over one year), the optimization can be addressed through the use of "classical" methods, such

as sensitivity analysis, numerical exploration or minimization of an objective function. However, such methods are not well-adapted to study practices of livestock management that may change over a year. For "interconnection" 60 practices, we advocate for the use of methods of control theory. Control the 61 ory is a mathematical framework dedicated to the control of systems (Astrom and Murray, 2008, Levine, 2010, Corriou, 2004). It has already been used for 63 agronomic and environmental issues such as the reduction of the soil sodicity (Mau and Porporato, 2016), the optimization of cutting frequency of grass-65 land (Chen, 1986, Chen and Wang, 1988), or robust management of natural resource (Anderies et al., 2007). Its objective is to propose some mathematical expressions for the inputs of a system that makes the controlled system behave as desired. The input values adapt over time according to the system state and to the constraints on the parameters values, creating a feedback loop. In this paper, we first address the optimization of crop production by using a classical method of optimization at equilibrium. Second, we no longer study the values at equilibrium but take advantage of the transient dynamics to lead the system at a given state: we address optimization of crop production when grazing pressure can vary over the course of the year with the use of methods developed in the control theory.

77 2. Ecological model of the agro-ecosystem

We model the agro-ecosystem as a simple meta-ecosystem composed of a cropland sub-system of surface s_c and a rangeland sub-system of surface s_c (figure C.1). Each sub-system (z), with z=c for cropland and z=rfor rangeland is composed of two compartments: plants (P_z) and inorganic

nutrient (N_z) . Both P_z and N_z compartment represent stocks of nutrient. For the sake of simplicity and genericity, only one limiting nutrient (for instance nitrogen, phosphorus or potassium) of primary production is represented in this model. We are aware that considering multiple nutrients instead of a single, and considering specificities of nutrient biogeochemical cycles (for instance, the symbiotic fixation for nitrogen) would carry out more outcomes. However, it would also bring complexity that would prevent the detection of generic mechanisms.

[Figure 1 about here.]

90

We used a classic formalism in ecology (DeAngelis, 1992, Loreau, 2010).
The equations of the meta-ecosystem model are:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{P}_{r} = u_{r}P_{r}N_{r}(1 - \frac{P_{r}}{K_{r}}) - m_{r}P_{r} - d_{r}P_{r} \\ \dot{N}_{r} = -u_{r}P_{r}N_{r}(1 - \frac{P_{r}}{K_{r}}) - e_{r}N_{r} + i_{r} + m_{r}P_{r} + \alpha d_{r}P_{r} \\ \dot{P}_{c} = u_{c}P_{c}N_{c}(1 - \frac{P_{c}}{K_{c}}) - m_{c}P_{c} \\ \dot{N}_{c} = -u_{c}P_{e}N_{c}(1 - \frac{P_{c}}{K_{c}}) - e_{c}N_{c} + i_{c} + m_{c}P_{c} + \underbrace{(1 - \alpha)d_{r}P_{r}}_{S_{c}} \overset{s_{r}}{\underset{s_{c}}{\sum}} \end{cases}$$

$$(1)$$

The units and definition of the model parameters are summarized in table C.1. In each sub-system (z), plants take-up nutrient from the inorganic nutrient compartment N_z following a modified logistic growth with a maximal growth rate u_z and a carrying capacity K_z . Nutrient is recycled back to the N_z compartment at a constant rate m_z through plant mortality and mineralization. Nutrient input in each sub-system is a constant flux of inorganic nutrient i_z . Losses of inorganic nutrient N_z are mainly due to erosion, leaching and are modelled by a linear term with a constant rate e_z .

In this model, we only consider livestock as a vector of nutrient from the 101 rangeland sub-system to the cropland sub-system, therefore livestock is not 102 explicitly represented. The rate of grazing pressure d_r (in d⁻¹) is proportional 103 to the amount of plants P_r . We can consider the grazing pressure d_r as an 104 aggregated parameter of livestock biomass (in kgN ha⁻¹) multiplied by the consumption coefficient of grass biomass by livestock (in ha $kgN^{-1} d^{-1}$). 106 The flux of nutrient from compartment P_r carried by livestock from the 107 rangeland sub-system is split in two parts: a fraction α is recycled directly 108 in the inorganic compartment of the rangeland sub-system (N_r) , the other 109 part $(1 - \alpha)$ is transferred to the inorganic compartment of the cropland 110 sub-system (N_c) . The term $T=(1-\alpha)d_rP_r$ is the one which connects both sub-systems. 112

In the cropland sub-system, harvest is not modelled as a continuous process along the year but as a punctual event; it consists in the removal of a percentage h of the plant compartment in the cropland sub-system every 365 days.

[Table 1 about here.]

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The meta-ecosystem model has a particular structure hereafter named "cascade structure" (Seibert and Suarez, 1990). Indeed, the rangeland subsystem (r), composed of the equations of P_r and N_r , does not depend on the dynamics of the cropland sub-system (c), that is composed of the equations of P_c and P_c and P_c . This cascade structure enables to study independently the two sub-systems. Moreover, the two sub-systems have the same organization and

both can be written under the following form:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{P} = uPN(1 - P/K) - mP - dP \\ \dot{N} = -uPN(1 - P/K) - eN + i + mP + \beta dP \end{cases}$$
 (2)

- with $P=P_r$ and $N=N_r$ for the state variables and $u=u_r, K=K_r, m=m_r, e=e_r, i=i_r, \beta=\alpha$ and $d=d_r$ for the parameters of the rangeland sub-system,
- with $P=P_c$ and $N=N_c$ for the state variables and $u=u_c, K=129$ $K_c, m=m_c, e=e_c, i=i_c+T\frac{s_r}{s_c}, \beta=0$ and d=0 for the parameters of the cropland sub-system.
- 2.1. Equilibrium points of the generic sub-system model and their stability

 Let us study the generic sub-system (2). For biological relevance, both

 plant biomass and inorganic nutrient stocks have to be positive $(P, N \ge 0)$.

 Furthermore the model is built such that plant biomass cannot exceed the

 carrying capacity K. We therefore only look at the equilibrium points that

 are inside the set $[0, K] \times \mathbb{R}^+$: it represents the set of (P, N) values of the

 dynamical system (2) that are biologically acceptable.
- We show that the system (2) always admits one and only one stable equilibrium point whose value depends on the parameters. By definition, the equilibrium points (P^*, N^*) of the system (2) are the solutions of the following equations:

$$\begin{cases} uPN(1-P/K) - mP - dP &= 0\\ -uPN(1-P/K) - eN + i + mP + \beta dP &= 0 \end{cases}$$
 (3)

The trivial equilibrium point E_0 corresponds to the case where there is no plant in the sub-system. E_0 exists whatever the parameter values and is

144 given by:

$$E_0 := \left(P^* = 0, N^* = \frac{i}{e}\right)$$
 (4)

The equilibrium point E_0 is locally stable if and only if $\frac{i}{e} < \frac{m+d}{u}$ (see Appendix A.1) that is if the inputs of nutrient and the growth rate are not high enough to balance inorganic losses and plant mortality.

Let us now consider the case where $P \neq 0$. In this case, if $(\beta - 1)d < 0$ then the system (3) can be written:

$$\begin{cases}
P = K \frac{uN - c - d}{uN} =: F_1(N) \\
P = \frac{eN - i}{(\beta - 1)d} =: F_2(N)
\end{cases}$$
(5)

Finding the solution of (5) amounts to find the intersection points of the curves F_1 and F_2 , which is done graphically in the sequel. The two functions F_1 and F_2 are differentiable on $\mathbb{R}^+\setminus\{0\}$ and we have, $\forall N\in\mathbb{R}^+\setminus\{0\}$:

$$F_1'(N) = \frac{K(m+d)}{uN^2} > 0$$
 and $F_2'(N) = \frac{e}{(\beta-1)d} < 0$ (6)

We deduce from (6) that F_1 is strictly increasing whereas F_2 is decreasing on $\mathbb{R}^+\setminus\{0\}$. Moreover we have: $\lim_{N\to 0^+} F_1(N) = -\infty$, $\lim_{N\to +\infty} F_1(N) = K$, $F_2(0) = -\frac{i}{(\beta-1)d} > 0$ and $\lim_{N\to 0^+} F_2(N) = -\infty$.

Let us now find the conditions for which this intersection point is biologically

acceptable. We have: $F_1(N) = 0 \Leftrightarrow N = \frac{m+d}{u}$ and $F_2(N) = 0 \Leftrightarrow N = \frac{i}{e}$.

The relative position of $\frac{m+d}{u}$ and $\frac{i}{e}$ of the N-axis determines if the intersection point is above or below the N-axis. Indeed, as we can see on the figure C.2, if $\frac{i}{e} > \frac{m+d}{u}$ then the intersection point of F_1 and F_2 is above the N-axis: it is therefore a biologically acceptable equilibrium point

 $E_1 := (P_1^*, N_1^*) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times [0, K]$. On the contrary, if $\frac{i}{e} < \frac{m+d}{u}$ then the intersection of F_1 and F_2 is below the N-axis and it does not exist any positive equilibrium point on $[0, K] \times \mathbb{R}^+$. Note that in this case the trivial equilibrium point E_0 is stable.

[Figure 2 about here.]

167

The analytic expression of the positive equilibrium point E_1 can be obtained by solving the equation $F_1(N) = F_2(N)$ which leads to a second degree polynomial equation (see Appendix A.1). The positive equilibrium point $E_1 := (P_1^*, N_1^*)$ is finally given by:

$$E_1 := \left(P^* = \frac{1}{2}(K - a\frac{i}{e} + a\frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{u}), N^* \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{i}{e} + \frac{K}{a} + \frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{u}\right)\right)$$
 (7)

for $(\beta-1)d \neq 0$ with $a = \frac{e}{(\beta-1)d}$ and $\Delta = u^2(\frac{i}{e} + \frac{K}{a})^2 - 4u\frac{K}{a}(m+d)$ and only exists if $\frac{i}{e} > \frac{m+d}{u}$. The analysis of its stability shows that when it exists, E_1 is always locally stable (see Appendix A.1).

In the particular case where $(\beta - 1)d = 0$, $F_2(N)$ is a vertical line with a x coordinate $N = \frac{i}{e}$. The equilibrium point E_1 becomes:

$$E_1 := \left(P^* = K\left(1 - \frac{e(m+d)}{ui}\right), N^* = \frac{i}{e}\right) \tag{8}$$

Finally, there are two cases: the case where $\frac{i}{e} > \frac{m+d}{u}$, for which only E_1 is stable and for which living conditions are met for plants to settle and the case where $\frac{i}{e} < \frac{m+d}{u}$, for which only E_0 is stable and for which plants cannot survive.

3. Methods: optimization of the system at equilibrium and contribution of control theory

In this section, we detail the optimization methods used to maximize the flux of crop production. This flux is represented by the term:

$$C = s_c P_{c,t_b}, \tag{9}$$

where s_c is the surface of the cropland sub-system and P_{c,t_h} the crop biomass in the cropland sub-system at the end of the year, at harvest time t_h .

In this paper, we will first apply a classical approach used in ecology, which consists in finding the constant values of parameters that optimize one or several quantities at equilibrium. We hereafter refer to the classical method of optimization at equilibrium with constant parameters simply as the optimization at equilibrium. The values of the optimal parameters will be obtained analytically if possible or numerically in other cases. To use this approach we have to assume that the biomass of plant has reached an equilibrium when the harvest occurs.

The optimization at equilibrium is well adapted to "organizational" prac-195 tices which are constant over time or at least fixed for a whole year, as it 196 is the case for the rangeland to cropland surface ratio. These practices can 197 be mathematically represented by setting constant values to parameters. On 198 the other hand, this optimization at equilibrium is not adapted to study "in-199 terconnection" practices that may change over a year as it is the case for 200 herbivory pressure. It is the very purpose of the control theory to take into 201 account the fact that some input variables can vary over time. Secondly, we will thus study how performances of the agro-ecosystem may change if

grazing pressure change over the year by applying some methods developed in control theory.

206 3.1. Optimization at equilibrium method (constant parameters)

The cropland sub-system dynamics directly (and so the value of P_c and N_c at equilibrium) depends on the rangeland sub-system management through the inputs term $i=i_c+T\frac{s_r}{s_c}$ where $T=(1-\alpha)d_rP_r$. Regarding the "interconnection" practices, we will focus on livestock management, which is a driver of the amount of nutrient per unit of surface that is transferred each day by livestock from the rangeland to the cropland sub-system:

$$T = (1 - \alpha)d_r P_r \tag{10}$$

Two parameters of the rangeland sub-system, the grazing pressure d_r and the recycled fraction α are under farmer influence and may be used as driving 214 forces to optimize the transfer T (and maximize the crop production). Both 215 d_r and α influence crop production C through the term T. Thanks to the cascade structure of the meta-ecosystem model, we can study this indirect 217 impact in three steps. First we will study the variation of crop production C with T Second, we will focus on the variation of T with α and d_r . 219 Finally we will also study the variation of crop production C with respect to the "organizational" practice in focus: the ratio between the surfaces of the 221 cropland sub-system and the rangeland sub-system s_r and s_c . This ratio has 23 an impact on both the crop biomass in cropland sub-system (in kgN ha⁻¹) and the crop production at the scale of the agro-ecosystem (in kgN).

25 3.2. Control method (varying herbivory pressure)

The aim is to propose a mathematical expression of the grazing pressure 226 d_r that makes the controlled system behave as desired. We want the crop 227 production C to reach a given value \tilde{C} , which corresponds to a value \tilde{P}_c 228 of the crop biomass at harvest time. The mathematical expression of d_r 229 will depend on the current state of the system and will take into account 230 the constraints on the parameters values: in our case, d_r is positive and $\alpha \in [0,1]$. Contrary to the previous optimization at equilibrium (section 232 3.1), we do not assume that crop biomass has reached equilibrium when the harvest occurs. Following the cascade structure of the system, we use a 234 control strategy composed of two feedback control loops (see figure C.3): a first loop controlling P_c with T, the amount of nutrient transferred from the 236 rangeland to the cropland sub-system, and a second one controlling T with the grazing pressure d_r . We use feedback linearizing control laws (Isidori, 238 1995) for the two loops and we choose some control parameters values that fulfill the constraints on the inputs. 240

[Figure 3 about here.]

3.2.1. First loop; controlling P_c with T

241

Let first design the feedback control law of the first loop. Remind that \tilde{P}_c is the value of P_c that we expect P_c to reach at the end of the year: it is the set-point. Assume that T can be modified by the farmer all over the year: T is the control input.

Consider the functions G_1 and G_2 defined by:

$$G_1(P_c, N_c) = u_c P_c N_c (1 - P_c/K_c) - m_c P_c,$$
 (11)

$$G_2(P_c, N_c) = -u_c P_c N_c (1 - P_c/K_c) - e_c N_c + i_c + m_c P_c,$$
 (12)

that are such that system (23) can be written:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{P}_c = G_1(P_c, N_c) \\ \dot{N}_c = G_2(P_c, N_c) + T \frac{s_r}{s_c} \end{cases}$$
 (13)

The equation of P_c has a relative degree equal to 2 with respect to the control input T: it means that we need to derivate two times P_c to make appear explicitly the control input T in the equation of P_c . We thus get:

$$\ddot{P}_c = G_1 \partial_1 G_1 + \left(G_2 + T \frac{s_r}{s_c} \right) \partial_2 G_1. \tag{14}$$

To obtain a second order dynamics for P_c , that is, an equation of the form $\ddot{P}_c + 2\xi\omega\dot{P}_c + \omega^2P_c = \omega^2\tilde{P}_c$ where ω is the cutoff frequency and ξ the damping factor, we have to consider the following expression of T:

$$T = \frac{u - G_1 \delta_1 G_1 - G_2 \delta_2 F}{\frac{s_r}{s_s} \delta_2 G_1} \tag{15}$$

with $u = -2\xi\omega\dot{P}_c + \omega^2(\tilde{P}_c - P_c)$. The expression (15) of T is called a "linearizing control law" as it enables to get a linear dynamics of the closed loop system. To be biologically acceptable, the value of T has to be positive; we so define the quantity \tilde{T} by:

$$\tilde{T} = max \left(0, \frac{-2\xi\omega G_1 + \omega^2(\tilde{P}_c - P_c) - G_1\delta_1 G_1 - G_2\delta_2 F}{\frac{s_r}{s_c}\delta_2 G_1} \right)$$
(16)

259 3.2.2. Second loop: controlling T with the grazing pressure d_r

Contrary to what was assumed in the previous paragraph, T can not be directly modified by the farmer. \tilde{T} has to be viewed as a set-point for T, that is a value that we expect T to be close of at any time. Note that, unlike the first loop, the value of the set-point \tilde{T} varies over the time.

There are 2 driving forces in the agro-ecosystem which may control the value of T: d_r and α . In the sequel, we assume that α is fixed and we consider d_r as the control input. The objective of the second control loop is therefore to control T with d_r . The quantity T is given by $T = (1 - \alpha)d_r P_r^*$. After derivation, we get:

$$\dot{T} = (1 - \alpha)\dot{d_r}P_r + (1 - \alpha)d_r\dot{P_r} \tag{17}$$

The equation of T is therefore of relative degree equal to 1 with respect to the control input d_r . To obtain a first order dynamics for T in closed loop, that is, an equation of the form $\dot{T} = k(\tilde{T} - T) = k(\tilde{T} - (1 - \alpha)d_rP_r)$ with ka control parameter, we have to use the following control law for d_r :

$$\dot{d}_r = \frac{k(\tilde{T} - (1 - \alpha)d_r P_r) - (1 - \alpha)d_r \dot{P}_r}{(1 - \alpha)P_r}.$$
(18)

In practice, we add a saturation to this control law in order to ensure that the applied value of d_r is realistic, that is non negative. The applied control law is so:

$$d_r = \max(0, d) \text{ with } \dot{d} = \frac{k(\tilde{T} - (1 - \alpha)dP_r) - (1 - \alpha)d\dot{P}_r}{(1 - \alpha)P_r}.$$
 (19)

3.2.3. Choice of the control parameters values

The values of the control parameters $(\omega, \xi \text{ and } k)$ are chosen to make the system stabilize after about 365 days. To ensure that, we consider the tow loops independently.

The first loop is the slowest one: it will impose its stabilization time to 280 the whole system. The closed loop equation of P_c is a second order one, 281 with parameters ξ and ω . For such systems, an approximation of the 1% 282 settling time, that is the time necessary for the response to reach and remain 283 in the interval $\left|0.99\tilde{P}_c, 1.01\tilde{P}_c\right|$ (with \tilde{P}_c the set-point), is given by Goodwin and Sin (1984) $\frac{4.6}{\varepsilon \omega}$. The value of ξ will also determine whether the output 285 will oscillate before stabilizing or not. For values of ξ greater than 0.7, the 286 response is very damped, there is almost no oscillations. For this reason, we 287 chose to take a value of ξ equal to 0.9. To get a 1% settling time smaller 288 than 365 days, we have to consider a value of ω that is such that: 289

$$\frac{4.6}{\xi\omega} < 365 \Leftrightarrow \omega > \frac{4.6}{365\xi} \simeq 0.014 \text{ (with } \xi = 0.9)$$
 (20)

We chose to take a value of ω equal to 0.015 that is a little bit greater than 0.014: it ensures that the system will have reached the set-point at the 291 harvest time. For $\omega=0.015$ and for $\xi=0.9$, we indeed have $\frac{4.6}{\xi\omega}\simeq341$ days. 292 The second loop, which is the internal loop, has to be faster than the first one in order to ensure the stability of the first loop. In general, we try to 294 have a settling time at least 1000 times faster in the internal loop, which in 295 our case corresponds to a maximum value of 0.34 days. The equation of T is 296 a first order system with time constant $\frac{1}{k}$. For such systems, the 1% settling 297 time is about $\frac{5}{k}$ (Corriou, 2004). We therefore have: 298

$$\frac{5}{k} < 0.34 \Leftrightarrow k > \frac{5}{0.34} \simeq 14.7 \tag{21}$$

We chose to take a value of k equal to 20 that is a little bit greater than 14.7. So finally, the values of the control parameters used for the control strat-

go egy are the following ones:

$$\omega = 0.015, \, \xi = 0.9 \,\text{and} \, k = 20.$$
 (22)

302 4. Results

4.1. Cropland sub-system as a sink: the greater the transfers, the greater the crop production

We first focus on the sub-system (c) that corresponds to cropland and look at the variation of the crop production with respect to the nutrient transfer T.

Remind that the equations of the cropland sub-system are of the form (2) with $P=P_c$ and $N=N_c$ for the state variables and $u=u_c, K=K_c, m=m_c, e=e_c, i=i_c+T\frac{s_r}{s_c}, \beta=0$ and d=0 for the parameters (with $T=(1-\alpha)d_rP_r$):

$$\begin{cases}
\dot{P}_c = u_c P_c N_c (1 - P_c / K_c) - m_c P_c \\
\dot{N}_c = -u_c P_c N_c (1 - P_c / K_c) - e_c N_c + i_c + m_c P_c + T \frac{s_r}{s_c}
\end{cases} (23)$$

From section 2.1, the cropland sub-system always admits one stable equilibrium point which depends on the parameter values and on the value P_r^* reached by P_r at equilibrium. If $\frac{i_c + T^* \frac{s_r}{s_c}}{e_c} \leq \frac{m_c}{u_c}$, this equilibrium point is given by:

$$E_{0,c} := \left(P_c^* = 0, N_c^* = \frac{i_c + T^* \frac{s_r}{s_c}}{e} \right)$$
 (24)

and if $\frac{i_c + T^* \frac{s_r}{s_c}}{e_c} > \frac{m_c}{u_c}$, it is given by:

$$E_{1,c} := \left(P_c^* = K_c \left(1 - \frac{m_c}{u_c} \frac{e_c}{i_c + (1 - \alpha) d_r P_r^* \frac{s_r}{s_c}} \right), N_c^* = \frac{i_c + T^* \frac{s_r}{s_c}}{e_c} \right)$$
(25)

As explained in section 3, the parameters d_r and α impact on the crop production C through the quantity $T^* = (1 - \alpha) d_r P_r^*$. We therefore study the variation of C with respect to T^* in order to determine the value of T^* that maximizes C.

[Figure 4 about here.]

From section 2.1, we know that, when $\frac{i_c + T^* \frac{s_r}{s_c}}{e_c} > \frac{m_c}{u_c}$, P_c^* is given by the intersection point between the curve of $F_1: N_c \mapsto K_c \frac{u_c N_c - m_c}{u_c N_c}$ and the vertical line of equation $N_c = \frac{i_c + T^* \frac{s_r}{s_c}}{e_c}$. When T^* increases, the curve of F_1 stays at the same place whereas the vertical line is shifted to the right (figure C.4). Consequently the equilibrium point moves to the right on the curve of F_1 . As F_1 increases, P_c^* increases.

This can also be shown analytically because we have:

321

328

$$\frac{dP_{1,c}^*}{dT^*} = \frac{d}{dT^*} \left(K_c \left(1 - \frac{m_c}{u_c} \frac{e_c}{i_c + T^* \frac{s_r}{s_c}} \right) \right) = \frac{K_c m_c}{u_c} \frac{s_r}{s_c} \frac{e_c}{(i_c + T^* \frac{s_r}{s_c})^2} > 0. \quad (26)$$

Finally, as $\frac{dC}{dT^*} = s_c \frac{dP_{1,c}^*}{dT^*}$, we show that the crop production C is increasing with T^* and therefore reaches its maximal value for the maximal value T_{max}^* that T^* can take in $\left[\max(0, \frac{s_r}{s_c}(\frac{e_c u_c}{u_c} - i_c)), +\infty\right)$. However, it is important to notice that the relationship between $C := s_c P_{1,c}^*$ and T^* is nonlinear. The closer $P_{1,c}^*$ is to K_c , the less profitable is the increase of T^* . For example, as we can see on the figure C.4, for a same increase of T^* between T_2^* and T_3^* and between T_1^* and T_2^* (i.e $T_3^* - T_2^* = T_2^* - T_1^*$), the increase of crop biomass $P_c^{*,3} - P_c^{*,2}$ is inferior to $P_c^{*,2} - P_c^{*,1}$. This non-linearity in the efficiency of the inputs impacts the optimization of the cropland sub-system to rangeland sub-system surfaces ratio (see 4.3).

339 4.2. Rangeland sub-system as a source: maximizing the transfers without
340 jeopardizing plant biomass

After studying the variation of crop production with T^* , we now look at the variation of T^* with the two driving forces α and d_r ; we search for the values of α and d_r that maximize the amount $T^* = (1-\alpha)d_rP_r^*$ of transferred nutrient.

For that, we now focus on the rangeland sub-system (r) only. Remind that the equations of this sub-system are written under the form (2) with $P = P_r$ and $N = N_r$ for the state variables and $u = u_r$, $K = K_r$, $m = m_r$, $e = e_r$, $i = i_r$, $\beta = \alpha$ and $d = d_r$ for the parameters:

$$\begin{cases}
\dot{P}_r = u_r P_r N_r (1 - P_r / K_r) - m_r P_r - d_r P_r \\
\dot{N}_r = -u_r P_r N_r (1 - P_r / K_r) - e_r N_r + i_r + m_r P_r + \alpha d_r P_r
\end{cases} (27)$$

From the section 2.1 and similarly to the cropland sub-system, the rangeland sub-system always admits one stable equilibrium, which depends on the parameter values. If $\frac{i_r}{e_r} \leq \frac{m_r + d_r}{u_r}$, this equilibrium point without plant is given by

$$E_{0,r} = \left(P_r^* = 0, N_r^* = \frac{i_r}{e_r}\right)$$
 (28)

and if $\frac{i_r}{e_r} > \frac{m_r + d_r}{u_r}$, it is given by:

$$E_{1,r} = \left\{ \left(P_r^* = \frac{1}{2} \left(K_r - \frac{i_r}{e_r} a + \frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{u_r} a \right), N_r^* = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{i_r}{e_r} + \frac{K_r}{a} + \frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{u_r} \right) \right\}$$
(29)

with $\Delta = u_r^2 (\frac{i_r}{e_r} + \frac{K_r}{a})^2 - 4u_r \frac{K_r}{a} (m_r + d_r)$ and $a = \frac{e_r}{(\alpha - 1)d_r} < 0$ if $(\alpha - 1)d_r \neq 0$.

The case $(\alpha - 1)d_r = 0$ corresponds to an absence of grazing pressure or a case where all the uptake by livestock is recycled in the rangeland sub-system.

In this case, the equilibrium point $E_{1,r}$ becomes:

$$E_{1,r} = \left\{ \left(P_r^* = K_r \left(1 - \frac{e_r(m_r + d_r)}{u_r i_r} \right), N_r^* = \frac{i_r}{e_r} \right) \right\}$$
 (30)

Let's now look at how the nutrient transfer $T^*=(1-\alpha)d_rP_r^*$ varies with α and d_r .

360 4.2.1. Minimizing the recycled fraction (α) to increase the transferred amount (T^*)

The first driving force that we consider is the parameter α , which represents the percentage of the grazed part of P_r which, after transformation by livestock, is recycled to the inorganic nutrient compartment N_r . The other fraction $(1 - \alpha)$ is exported to the cropland sub-system. α can vary from 0 (all nutrient is transferred to the cropland sub-system) to 1 (all nutrient is recycled within the rangeland sub-system). We are looking for the value of α that maximizes the amount T^* of nutrient transferred.

When $\frac{i_r}{e_r} \leq \frac{m_r + d_r}{u_r}$, there is no positive equilibrium point whatever the value of α : $P_r^* = 0$ for all $\alpha \in [0,1]$. If we consider the case where $\frac{i_r}{e_r} > \frac{m_r + d_r}{u_r}$, as depicted in figure C.5, $P_{1,r}^*$ and $N_{1,r}^*$ increase with α . Indeed when α increases from 0 to 1, the curve of F_1 does not move but the slope of F_2 goes from $-\frac{e_r}{d_r}$ to $-\infty$ by rotating around the point $(\frac{i_r}{e_r}, 0)$ clockwise (see figure C.5a). The intersection point between F_1 and F_2 moves therefore to the right on the curve of F_1 : thus $P_{1,r}^*$ and $N_{1,r}^*$ increase with α . The mathematical proof is given in Appendix B.1

[Figure 5 about here.]

Let us consider the function $\alpha \in [0,1] \mapsto T^* = (1-\alpha)d_r P_r^*$ and let us denote T_{max}^* the maximal value taken by T^* on [0,1].

If $\frac{i_r}{e_r} \leq \frac{m_r + d_r}{u_r}$, then $P_r^* = 0$ for all $\alpha \in [0,1]$. The function $\alpha \in [0,1] \mapsto$ $T^* = (1 - \alpha)d_r P_r^*$ is therefore null on [0, 1] and $T_{max}^* = 0$. Let us now consider the case where $\frac{i_r}{e_r} > \frac{m_r + d_r}{u_r}$. We showed earlier 382 that the quantity of biomass produced in the rangeland sub-system $(P_{1,r}^*)$ 383 increases with α . The less we transfer, the higher this biomass is. However, we can wonder how the quantity $T^* = (1 - \alpha)d_r P_{1,r}^*$ varies with α . Indeed, 385 whereas $P_{1,r}^*$ increases with α , the quantity $1-\alpha$ decreases. This could lead to a trade-off between the biomass produced $P_{1,r}^*$ and the fraction $(1-\alpha)$ of 387 nutrient transferred to the cropland sub-system. From (27), we can show that the amount of transferred nutrient T is 389 written: 390

$$T^* = (1 - \alpha)d_r P_{1,r}^* = i_r - e_r N_{1,r}^*$$
(31)

From this equation (31), we deduce that T^* is maximal for the minimal value of $N_{1,r}^*$. Yet, we saw that both $N_{1,r}^*$ and $P_{1,r}^*$ increase with α . As a consequence, the quantity T^* is maximal for $\alpha = 0$: it corresponds to the case where all nutrient is transferred to the cropland sub-system. So there is no trade-off and we have

$$T_{max}^* = T(\alpha = 0) = d_r P_{1,r}^* \tag{32}$$

Finally, we showed that it is necessary to minimize the recycled fraction α of livestock uptake into rangeland sub-system to maximize the total amount of nutrient transferred to the cropland sub-system.

4.2.2. Maximizing the transferred amount T^* with an intermediate grazing pressure d_r

The second driving force that we can consider in this system is the grazing pressure d_r , a parameter which takes into account the size of the herd 402 multiplied by the time spent by the herd on the rangeland sub-system. Theoretically d_r can vary from 0 (no livestock) to ∞ . In practice, there exists a 404 bound for d_r which corresponds to the maximal herd size that can graze on 405 the rangeland sub-system multiplied by the maximum of time that the herd 406 can spend in the rangeland sub-system. The grazing pressure is also bounded by the capacity of rangeland to produce enough biomass to feed the livestock, 408 and by the resistance of rangeland to overgrazing. In the model, the conditions of existence of the positive equilibrium $E_{1,r}$ that lead to a non-zero 410 value of the transfer T^* require that d_r must be smaller than $\frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r$. If $d_r \geq \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r$, there is not enough nutrient left in the rangeland sub-system to maintain the plant biomass; in that case of overgrazing, the rangeland 413 sub-system goes to the equilibrium point $E_{0,r}$.

[Figure 6 about here.]

415

We are looking for the value of d_r in $(0, \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r)$ that maximizes the transferred amount T^* . We set α to 0, since it is the value of α for which T^* is maximal whatever the value of d_r . However, we obtain similar results for a non-zero value of α . As in section 4.2.1, we deduce from the expression (31) of T that T^* is maximal for the minimal value of N_r^* . Moreover, we know that $T^* = 0$ for $d_r = 0$ and for $d_r = \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r$ (case of overgrazing that implies $P_r^* = 0$). As T^* is a continuous and positive function of d_r on

```
(0, \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r), we deduce that the amount of nutrient transferred depends
    on a trade-off between the grazing pressure and the plant biomass in the
424
    rangeland sub-system.
425
        Therefore, there exists a value d_r^{opt} \in (0, \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r) of d_r for which T^* is
426
    maximal on (0, \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r). It also means that T^* and N_r^* are not strictly
427
    monotonic on (0, \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r). Figure C.6 shows the variation of P_r^*, N_r^* and T^*
428
    with d_r \in (0, \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r) for \alpha = 0. We see that on the interval (0, \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r), P_r^*
429
    decreases with d_r. Indeed, when d_r increases from 0 to \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r, the curve of
430
    F_1 moves to the right and the slope of F_2 goes from -\infty to \frac{e_r^2}{(\alpha-1)(u_ri_r-m_re_r)}<0
    by rotating anticlockwise around the point \binom{i_r}{e_r}, 0) (see figure C.5b). The
432
    intersection point between F_1 and F_2 moves therefore to the left on the curve
    of F_1: so P_{1,r}^* decreases with d_r. However, as the curve of F_1 is shifted to the
434
    right when d_r increases, the variation of N_{1,r}^* is not easily noticeable. We see
    on Figure C.6 and C.5 that N_r^* first decreases and then increases with d_r: it
436
    therefore admits a global minimum on d_r^{opt} \in (0, \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r).
        As we deduced earlier from equation (31), we also observe that the value
438
    d_r^{opt} \in (0, \frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r) of d_r which minimizes N_r^* is the same as the one which
    maximizes the transfer T^* = (1 - \alpha)d_r P_r^* from the rangeland sub-system to
440
    the cropland sub-system.
        Among the set of grazing pressure values that do not compromise the
442
    plant production in the rangeland sub-system, there is a value that optimizes
443
    the amount of nutrient transferred to the cropland sub-system. Moreover,
444
    we observe that this value d_r^{opt} is a low value among the set of possible values
of grazing pressure (0, d_r^{max}).
```

4.3. Surface ratio of cropland:rangeland sub-systems affects the trade-off between plan biomass in cropland sub-system and production at the scale of the agro-ecosystem

We now look at the variation of the crop production with respect to the 450 respective surfaces of cropland and rangel and sub-systems (s_c for cropland sub-system and s_r for rangeland subsystem). At the agro-ecosystem scale, 452 the maximization of crop production C does not depend on the absolute value of the surface of the subsystems but depends on the relative surface area of 454 each subsystem in relation to the total surface area of the agro-ecosystem. 455 When the surface of cropland sub-system s_c increases (at the expense of 456 the rangeland sub-system), a positive effect comes from the increase of the surface devoted to crop production (equation 9) whereas a negative effect 458 comes from the dilution effect on the amount of transferred nutrient $(T^*\frac{s_r}{s_c})$. 459 Let $\gamma = \frac{s_c}{s_r + s_c}$ be the fraction of the agro-ecosystem surface $S := s_r + s_c$ 460 occupied by the cropland sub-system and $1-\gamma=\frac{s_r}{s_r+s_c}$ the fraction occupied by the rangeland sub-system. The fraction occupied by cropland/rangeland 462 impacts the crop production directly as $C := s_c P_c^* = \gamma S P_c^*$ and indirectly 463 through the quantity $T^*\frac{s_r}{s_c} = T^*\frac{1-\gamma}{\gamma}$ on which depends the value P_c^* . 464

We are looking for the value of γ in (0,1] that maximizes the crop production C. We can show (see Appendix B.2 for mathematical proofs) that there exist two different situations depending on if the inputs i_c are greater or smaller than a threshold value i^+ defined as:

$$i^{+} = \frac{e_c m_c + \sqrt{e_c m_c (e_c m_c + 4u_c T)}}{2u_c} > 0.$$
 (33)

If $i_c > i^+$, then the inputs i_c are high enough to ensure a good production in the cropland sub-system without any transfer. In that case, the transfer

is no more interesting for crop production, and it becomes more profitable to cultivate the maximum available surface ($\gamma = 1$). The maximal value C_{max} of C is then given by:

$$C_{max} = SP_{1,c}^*(\gamma = 1) = SK_c \left(1 - \frac{m_c e_c}{u_c i_c}\right).$$
 (34)

If $i_c < i^+$, then the inputs i_c are not high enough and there exists an optimal value γ^{opt} of γ for which the crop production C is maximal. In that case, the optimal value γ^{opt} depends on the trade-off between the crop biomass and the surface of the cropland sub-system (see figure C.7).

[Figure 7 about here.]

 γ^{opt} is given by:

478

s given by:
$$\gamma^{opt} = \frac{T}{P^{opt} + e_c N^{opt} + T - i_c} \text{ with } N^{opt} = \frac{K_c m_c}{u_c (K_c - P^{opt})}$$
(35)

where P^{opt} , the value of P_c^* for which the crop production C is maximal, is expressed:

$$P^{opt} = K_e \left[1 - \frac{-e_c m_c + \sqrt{e_c m_c \left[e_c m_c + u_c (T - i_c) \right]}}{u_c (T - i_c)} \right] \in [0, K_c].$$
 (36)

The maximal value C_{max} of C is then given by:

$$C_{max} = \gamma^{opt} S P^{opt}. (37)$$

When atmospheric depositions and other inputs independent of livestock are not sufficiently high in the cropland sub-system compared to the capacity of transfer of the rangeland sub-system, it is adequate to keep both rangeland and cropland surfaces in the agro-ecosystem to optimize crop production.

487 4.4. Changing functioning of the agro-ecosystem by changing grazing pressure
488 over the year

In this section, we give the results obtained with the control strategy described in section 3.2, that corresponds to the case where the grazing pressure can vary over the year.

492 4.4.1. A same production with less transfer, a higher production with as
493 much?

494

[Figure 8 about here.]

We first look at the maximal crop production value that the system can 495 reach with the control strategy. Figures C.8a, C.8b and C.8c represent the 496 average stock of plant in rangeland over a year $(\frac{1}{t_h}\int_0^{t_h} P_r(t)dt)$, the stock of plant in cropland at harvest time (P_{c,t_h}) and the total amount of nutrient 498 transferred over a year $(\int_0^{t_h} T(t)dt)$ with respect of the value of the set-point \tilde{P}_c . The values obtained with the optimization at equilibrium (that is with a constant value $d_r = d_r^{opt}$) are represented by the horizontal straight lines. The black and gray vertical straight lines mark the values of P_c^{opt} and of the 502 maximal crop production value reached with the control strategy respectively. The set-point \tilde{P}_c is reached in all the cases until $\tilde{P}_c = 1.085 \times P^{opt}$. Above this 504 point the feedback control fails to make P_c reach the set-point: the cropland sub-system "collapses" and we get $P_c = 0$. As the value of the set-point 506 \tilde{P}_e increases from 0 to $1.085 \times P^{opt}$, the average stock of plant in rangeland $\int_{t_h}^{t_h} \int_0^{t_h} P_r(t)dt$ decreases and the total amount of nutrient transferred over a year $(\int_0^{t_h} T(t)dt)$ increases. By simulations, we observe that the total amount of nutrient transferred over a year obtained for the highest crop production

value ($\tilde{P}_c = 1.085 \times P^{opt}$) with the control strategy is equal to the total amount of nutrient transferred over a year $(t_h \times T^*_{max})$ obtained with the optimization at equilibrium (that is for a constant value of $d_r = d_r^{opt}$).

514 4.4.2. Comparison of scenarios

Let us now compare the different optimization strategies, through the simulated trajectories of 3 different scenarios.

The first scenario (1) consists in the application of the optimal values 517 of d_r , α and γ that have been calculated with the classical approach of 518 optimization at equilibrium as constant values. We set $\alpha = 0$ (see section 519 4.2.1) and get the optimal value of d_r^{opt} by simulation (see section 4.2.2). From the so-obtained value of T^* , we compute the optimal value γ^{opt} (see equation 521 35) of γ that determines the surfaces s_r and s_c for which C is maximal (see equation 34). This scenario is our "control sample" to be compared with 523 two other scenarios (2) and (3) obtained with the control theory for different values of the set point \tilde{P}_c . For scenario (2), \tilde{P}_c is defined as the optimal value 525 of crop biomass obtained with the optimization at equilibrium $(\tilde{P}_c = P^{opt})$ and for scenario (3), \tilde{P}_c is defined as the maximal value reached numerically 527 with the feedback control (see C.8). \tilde{P}_c is equal to 1.085 times the optimal value obtained with the optimization at equilibrium ($\tilde{P}_c = 1.085 P^{opt}$). There 529 is no difference in the parametrization of the scenarios (1), (2) and (3) except for the expression of the grazing pressure d_r . 531

Figures C.9a, C.9b, C.9c and C.9d represent the dynamics of plant and inorganic nutrient in the cropland sub-system and the rangeland sub-system over five years for the 3 scenarios. Scenarios (1), (2) and (3) are plotted in black lines, dotted black lines and grey lines respectively.

In the scenario (1), only the stocks of the cropland sub-system change over the year and the equilibrium point is reached each year. These changes are due to the harvest event that occurs at the end of each year. In this scenario, both scenarios 2 and 3 reach their set-point \tilde{P}_c . We observe that the growth of plants is slower with feedback than without feedback (figure C.9b). Note that in scenario (2) and (3), we are no longer looking for the solution at equilibrium but instead we used the transient dynamics to reach the set-point at the time of the harvest.

With the feedback control, the dynamics of nutrient in the rangeland subsystem becomes dependent of the state of the cropland sub-system and varies 545 over time following the dynamics of d_r . In both scenarios, levels of plant and inorganic nutrient in the rangeland sub-system are always higher than for 547 scenario 1. Considering that the end of the year matches with the harvest event, we observe in scenarios (2) and (3) that the value of d_r is minimal in the 540 middle of the year (figure C.9e). The low value of d_r promotes the increase of plant biomass in the rangeland sub-system P_r and as a consequence, the 551 increase of the inorganic nutrient level N_r (figure C.9b,d). Note that in the scenario (3), the value of d_r is a bit higher that d_r^{opt} but much lower than the 553 value above which there is overgrazing $(\frac{u_r i_r}{e_r} - m_r)$

These higher values of P_r and N_r allow a higher transfer of nutrient for the growth of cropland plants during the second part of the year. Indeed, as depicted in figure C.9f the amount of nutrient transferred over time decreases slightly at the beginning of the year and then increases to be maximal at the end of the year. The calculation of the total amount of nutrient transferred during a year gives 237.3 kgN y⁻¹ for scenario (1), and respectively 216.1 and

 $_{61}$ 234.7 kgN y⁻¹ for scenarios (2) and (3).

In scenario (2) and (3), losses are lower in the rangeland sub-system and 562 higher in the cropland sub-system compared to scenario (1). At the scale 563 of the agro-ecosystem the lowest losses are obtained for scenario (2) (249.1) 564 kgN y⁻¹). Losses are a bit higher in scenario (3) (254.1 kgN y⁻¹) than in scenario (1) (253.7 kgN y⁻¹). In scenario (3), higher losses associated with a 566 larger biomass at the end of the year are due to the fact that loss rates are 567 much lower in the rangeland sub-system than in the cropland sub-system, 568 and that the average biomass (over a year) in the cropland sub-system is lower in scenario (3) than in scenario (1). 570

[Figure 9 about here.]

Hence, by constantly adjusting the grazing pressure over a year, one can promote a higher crop production, thanks to the transient dynamics. Indeed, as we showed, bringing nutrient to crops at the right time when they require it for growth maximizes the overall crop production over a year.

576 5. Discussion

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We addressed the optimization of crop production in a mixed farming system, using a simple meta-ecosystem model. Our purpose was to find the optimal values of three quantities of interest to maximize crop production, namely, the fraction of the agro-ecosystem occupied by the cropland subsystem γ , the grazing pressure in rangeland d_r and the fraction of nutrient transferred to cropland by livestock $(1 - \alpha)$. We first used the classical method of optimization at equilibrium to maximize the production when

these quantities are constant over time. Second, we used methods from the control theory to optimize crop production when the grazing pressure d_r can be constantly adjusted, α and γ being kept constant.

With the optimization at equilibrium, our results suggest that maximizing crop production is obtained by maximizing the flux of nutrient transferred by livestock from rangeland to cropland. To maximize this flux, the following conditions must be met:

- 1. the fraction α of nutrient ingested by livestock and recycled within the rangeland must be minimal, the best strategy being to transfer all the nutrient ingested by livestock to cropland.
- 2. the grazing pressure d_r cannot be higher than a threshold value that leads to the overgrazing of the rangeland, with the extirpation of plants at steady-state. Hence, there is a trade-off between exporting as much nutrient as possible from cropland and avoiding overgrazing.
- 3. Once the driving forces d_r and α related to livestock are optimized, it is possible to determine the optimal value of the rangeland to cropland surface ratio $\gamma/(1-\gamma)$. This ratio strongly depends on the quantity of inputs independent from livestock in the cropland sub-system i_c compared to the capacity of transfer of the rangeland sub-system T.

The control theory allows a further gain of optimization, based on a better fit
of the driving forces to the transient dynamics of the system. By constantly
adjusting the grazing pressure over time, we showed that it is possible to obtain the same yearly crop production with a lower yearly amount of nutrient
transferred by livestock. We even show that it is possible to reach higher
values of crop biomass.

Our model allows a better understanding of the mechanisms that lead 609 to optimization. First, we note that the maximal flux of nutrient trans-610 ferred corresponds to the case where the stock of inorganic nutrient in the 611 rangeland is minimal, a result similar to what has been shown in previous 612 models (Boudsocq et al., 2009, Loreau, 1998). Indeed, these studies showed 613 that primary productivity was maximized when the inorganic resource was 614 minimized. Since T^* is proportional to the primary productivity obtained 615 in rangeland, our result is consistent with these other nutrient cycling mod-616 els. This arises from the fact that the inputs of nutrient in the rangeland sub-system are independent on plant biomass. Second, note that there are 618 two output fluxes of nutrient from the rangeland sub-system: one in organic 619 form, through the grazing of plant biomass followed by an exportation to 620 cropland, and one in inorganic form through erosion and leaching of the 621 inorganic stock. Therefore, maximizing the flux of nutrient transferred by 622 livestock consists in minimizing the inorganic losses in favors of the organic 623 output. 624

With our model, when the grazing pressure is adjusted over time, we observe that to maximize the crop biomass at the moment of harvest, one must boost the growth of crops during the second part of the year. This unexpected result comes from the fact that both the plant growth function and the mortality rate stay constant all along the year. In reality, the deposition of manure on the one hand, and the growth of plants, on the other hand, are decoupled over the year. For instance, in West Africa, manure deposition occurs during the dry season, when the livestock is corralled at night in the cropland, whereas growth occurs during the wet season. During the dry

season, the livestock is kept in rangeland to protect the crops (Manlay et al., 2004, Guerin and Roose, 2015).

With the control method, we obtain a grazing pressure curve (figure C.9e) 636 and a plant biomass curve in the rangeland sub-system (figure C.9b) whose 637 shapes are similar to the ones obtained by Chen and Wang (1988). In their work, these authors used optimal control theory to determine the maximal 639 potential productivity of grassland under grazing over a year. In our study, 640 we showed that maximizing the integral of the transfers over a year does 641 not guarantee to get the maximal crop production at harvest time. Indeed, for the same yearly average, a time-varying transfer can lead to greater crop 643 production than a constant one. Note that using time-varying inputs to improve the performance of a system is a well-known practice (see for example 645 (Ruan and Chen, 1996) in the case of a fermentation process).

Thanks to the control method which allows to implement a time-varying 647 grazing pressure and with the set of parameters used in our simulation, we 648 succeeded to reach a crop production (set-point \tilde{P}_c) 1.085 times higher (8.5% 649 increase) than the optimal crop production obtained with optimization at equilibrium. Above this value, the grazing pressure calculated by the feed-651 back linearizing control law (equation 19) does not allow plants to subsist in the rangeland sub-system (overgrazing) and the dynamical system does not 653 reach the desired crop production. In both the "classical" scenario (1) and the scenario where time-varying grazing pressure is applied and the optimal 655 crop production value is reached (3), the total annual amount of transferred nutrient was almost the same. It suggests that the control on d_r has almost no effect on the transfer capacity of the rangeland sub-system.

In this study, we only applied the control theory to the grazing pressure d_r . 659 Yet, we could have applied it as well to the fraction of nutrient recycled in the 660 rangeland sub-system over a year α . In this case, as suggested by simulations 661 (not shown), we would observe similar dynamics but with a lower maximal 662 value of crop production. This result is partly due to the constraints on the 663 value of the fraction of recycled nutrient that is bounded between 0 and 1, 664 but it also arises from the fact that to maximize nutrient transfer, it is more 665 profitable to minimize α than to maximize d_r . 666

We could as well apply the control theory on both d_r and α . In this case, possibilities of control are numerous, and some of them might allow a higher crop production \tilde{P}_c than the one obtained with only one parameter as control input. However, in the simulations we performed, the recycled fraction always went to 0 after a few years (simulations not shown), which finally amounts to control the system with the grazing pressure as the only control input.

In the paper, we assume that farmers have the full control on the three driving forces in focus. We know however that depending on the context, some constraints may restrict this control. Initially, our model was built to represent traditional mixed farming systems. In these systems, α is not really a driving-force: it depends on the time passed (day/night) in the rangeland by livestock and on its metabolism. However the model is generic enough to be used for other systems or at different scales. For instance in areas where the crop production and the livestock production are decoupled at the scale of the farms (cattle fattening), our model can be used to couple them at the scale of the landscape. In that case, the rangeland sub-system is in fact

a field in which fodder is cultivated and used to feed the livestock: α can therefore be considered as a full leverage.

686

The model presented in this paper is rather simple, which serves our capa-

bility to extract the basic mechanisms underlying the optimization process, 687 but which bears some limitations. For instance, we assumed that the input 688 of nutrient to the rangeland is independent on plant biomass. This may be 689 relevant for phosphorus but not for nitrogen, which is often subject to sym-690 biotic fixation by legumes, plants that are present in most rangeland. The 691 quantity of nitrogen fixed depends on the biomass of legumes, which relieves the assumption of independence between nitrogen inputs and plant biomass. 693 Without this assumption, some of the results presented earlier may not hold. 694 Overall, we are fully aware of the theoretical nature of our results. The 695 results obtained by the study of our model are qualitative more than quanti-696 tative. These results are not meant to be straightforward recommendations 697 to farmers but rather, to allow a better understanding of the different possi-698 bilities that exist to optimize crop production. These results also show the 699 relevance of both the meta-ecosystem and the control theory to address optimization in agricultural systems. Indeed, agricultural systems are by essence 701 highly dynamics, and are usually very patchy in terms of biogeochemistry, 702 with source-sink dynamics. Our results suggest that both the patchiness and 703 the dynamics provide a set of unexplored ways to optimize the production of crops, meat, or other goods. 705

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710 Appendix A. Model

712

 711 Appendix A.1. Equilibrium points of generic model (2) and their stability

• Equilibrium points

Consider the case where $(\beta-1)d\neq 0$ and let us solve the equation $F_1(N)=F_2(N)$ with $F_1(N)=K\frac{uN-m-d}{uN}, F_2(N)=a(N-\frac{i}{e})$ and $a=\frac{e}{(\beta-1)d}$. We have, for all $N\in\mathbb{R}^+\backslash\{0\}$:

$$F_1(N) = F_2(N) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{P}(N) = 0$$
 (A.1)

with $\mathcal{P}(N) = uN^2 - uN(\frac{i}{e} + \frac{K}{a}) + \frac{K}{a}(m+d)$. The discriminant of \mathcal{P} is written:

$$\Delta = u^2 \left(\frac{i}{e} + \frac{K}{a}\right)^2 - 4u\frac{K}{a}(m+d); \tag{A.2}$$

in the case where $\frac{i}{e} > \frac{m+d}{u}$ and as a < 0 we have $\Delta > 0$. Therefore, there exists two roots that are given by:

$$N^* = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{i}{e} + \frac{K}{a} \right) \pm \frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{2u} \tag{A.3}$$

the corresponding value of $P^* = s(N^* - \frac{i}{e})$ being:

$$P^* = \frac{K}{2} - \frac{ia}{2e} \pm a \frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{2u}.$$
 (A.4)

Among these two points, only one is positive in the sense $(P^*, N^*) \in (\mathbb{R}^+)^2$; it is given by:

$$E_1 = \left(\frac{1}{2}\left(K - \frac{ia}{e} + a\frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{u}\right), \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{i}{e} + \frac{K}{a} + \frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{u}\right)\right) \tag{A.5}$$

In the case where $(\beta - 1)d = 0$, system (3) leads to $N = \frac{i}{e}$ and $uP^{i}_{e}(1 - \frac{P}{K}) - mP - dP = 0 \Leftrightarrow P = 0 \text{ or } P = K\left(1 - \frac{e(m+d)}{ui}\right)$.

• Stability of the equilibrium points:

The Jacobian matrix of the system (2) at the point E_0 is given by:

$$J(E_0) = J\left(0, \frac{i}{e}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} u_{\overline{e}}^i - m - d & 0\\ -u_{\overline{e}}^i + m + \beta d & -e \end{pmatrix}$$
(A.6)

This matrix has two eigenvalues that are $u_{\overline{e}}^{i} - m - d$ and -e < 0. As a consequence, E_{0} is stable is and only if $u_{\overline{e}}^{i} - m - d < 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{m+d}{u} > \frac{i}{e}$.

The equilibrium point E_1 exists when $\frac{i}{e} > \frac{m+d}{u}$; it is such that:

$$uN_1^* \left(1 - \frac{P_1^*}{K} \right) = m + d \text{ and } uP_1^* N_1^* \left(1 - \frac{P_1^*}{K} \right) = i + mP_1^* + \beta dP_1^* - eN_1^*.$$
(A.7)

By using these relationships, we get the following expression of the Jacobian matrix of system (2) at the point E_1 :

$$J(E_1) = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{uP_1^*N_1^*}{K} & uP_1^* \left(1 - \frac{P_1^*}{K}\right) \\ \frac{uP_1^*N_i^*}{K} + (\beta - 1)d & -uP_1^* \left(1 - \frac{P_1^*}{K}\right) - e \end{pmatrix}$$
(A.8)

The real part of the eigenvalues of a 2×2 matrix are strictly negative if and only if the trace of the matrix is strictly negative and the determinant of the matrix is strictly positive. Here we have:

$$Tr(J(E_1)) = -\frac{uP_1^*N_1^*}{K} - uP_1^* \left(1 - \frac{P_1^*}{K}\right) - e \tag{A.9}$$

which is always strictly negative, because $N_1^* > 0$ and $0 < P_1^* < K$. More-

over, after simple calculations, we have:

$$det(J(E_1)) = \frac{uP_1^*}{K} \left(i + \frac{e}{a} (2P_1^* - K) \right)$$
(A.10)

The equilibrium point E_1 is therefore stable if and only if:

$$det(J(E_1)) > 0 \Leftrightarrow i + \frac{e}{a}(2P_1^* - K) > 0 \Leftrightarrow P_1^* < \frac{1}{2}\left(K - i\frac{a}{e}\right) \text{ (as } a < 0),$$
(A.11)

which is always true as $P_1^* := \frac{1}{2}(K - \frac{ia}{e} + a\frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{u})$ and a < 0. When it exists,

the equilibrium point E_1 is therefore always stable.

739 Appendix B. Results

Appendix B.1. Impact of α on $P_{1,r}^*$ and $N_{1,r}^*$

 $N_{1,r}^*$ is solution of the equation $F_1(N) = F_2(N,\alpha)$ where $F_1: N \mapsto$

 $K_r \frac{u_r N - m_r - d_r}{u_r N}$ is a strictly increasing concave function defined on $\mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \{0\}$

and $F_2(N,\alpha) = a(\alpha)(N - \frac{i_r}{e_r})$ with $a(\alpha) = \frac{e_r}{(\alpha - 1)d_r} < 0$. It only exists if

 $\frac{i_r}{e_r} > \frac{m_r + d_r}{u_r}$, so we only consider this case. We then have:

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha}\left(F_1(N_{1,r}^*)\right) = \frac{d}{d\alpha}\left(F_2(N_{1,r}^*,\alpha)\right) \Leftrightarrow \frac{dN_{1,r}^*}{d\alpha}F_1'(N_{1,r}^*) = \frac{dN_{1,r}^*}{d\alpha}\frac{\partial F_2}{\partial N}(N_{1,r}^*,\alpha) + \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial \alpha}(N_{1,r}^*,\alpha).$$
(B.1)

(B. As $\frac{\partial F_2}{\partial N} = a(\alpha)$ and $\frac{\partial F_2}{\partial \alpha} = a'(\alpha)(N - \frac{i_r}{e_r})$ with $a'(\alpha) = \frac{-e_r}{(\alpha - 1)^2 d_r} < 0$, we get:

$$\frac{dN_{1,r}^*}{d\alpha} = \frac{a'(\alpha)(N_{1,r}^* - \frac{i_r}{e_r})}{F_1'(N_{1,r}^*) - a(\alpha)}$$
(B.2)

As $a(\alpha) < 0$ and $a'(\alpha) < 0$, we know that $N_{1,r}^* < \frac{i_r}{e_r}$, so $a'(\alpha)(N_{1,r}^* - \frac{i_r}{e_r}) > 0$.

Moreover, $F_1'(N_{1,r}^*) = \frac{K_r(m_r + d_r)}{u_r(N_{1,r}^*)^2} > 0$ and $a(\alpha) < 0$, so $F_1'(N_{1,r}^*) - a(\alpha) > 0$.

We so have $\frac{dN_{1,r}^*}{d\alpha} > 0$.

The derivative of $P_{1,r}^*$ with respect to α can then be deduced; we indeed have $P_{1,r}^* = F_1(N_{1,r}^*)$ which leads to:

$$\frac{dP_{1,r}^*}{d\alpha} = \frac{dN_{1,r}^*}{d\alpha} \underbrace{F_1'(N_{1,r}^*)}_{>0} > 0.$$
(B.3)

Appendix B.2. Impact of γ on C

Impact of
$$\gamma$$
 on $P_{1,c}^*$

The equilibrium point $E_{1,c} = (P_{1,c}^*, N_{1,c}^*)$ exists if and only if $\frac{i_c + T}{e}$

and for $\gamma \in (0,1]$. We have:

$$\frac{i_c + T \frac{1-\gamma}{\gamma}}{e_c} > \frac{m_c}{u_c} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases}
\gamma < \frac{T}{\frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c + T} & \text{if } \frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c + T > 0 \\
\gamma > \frac{T}{\frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c + T} & \text{if } \frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c + T < 0
\end{cases}$$
(B.4)

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{755} & \text{If } \frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c + T > 0, \text{ then } \frac{T}{\frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c + T} > 0 \text{ and } \frac{T}{\frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c + T} \leq 1 \Leftrightarrow \frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c \geq 0. \\ \\ \text{756} & \text{If } \frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c + T < 0 \Rightarrow \frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c < -T < 0, \text{ then } \frac{T}{\frac{m_c e_c}{u_c} - i_c + T} < 0. \end{array}$$

756 If
$$\frac{m_c e_c}{v_c} - i_c + T < 0 \Rightarrow \frac{m_c e_c}{v_c} - i_c < -T < 0$$
, then $\frac{T}{m_c e_c - i_c + T} < 0$

To Points of $P_{1,c}^*$ only exists for values of γ included in a domain Ω_γ given by:

$$\bullet \ \Omega_{\gamma} = \left(0, \frac{T}{\frac{e_c}{u_c}m_c - i_c + T}\right] \subset [0, 1] \text{ if } \frac{i_c}{e_c} \le \frac{m_c}{u_c} \ ;$$

$$\bullet \ \Omega_{\gamma} = (0,1] \text{ if } \frac{i_c}{e_c} > \frac{m_c}{u_c}.$$

The second Telescope Tele

$$\frac{dP_{1,c}^*}{d\gamma} = -K_c \frac{m_c e_c T}{u_c \gamma^2} \frac{1}{(i_c + T^{\frac{1-\gamma}{\gamma}})^2} < 0.$$
 (B.5)

The function $\gamma \mapsto P_{1,c}^*$ is therefore strictly decreasing on Ω_{γ} .

Impact of
$$\gamma$$
 on C

The crop production defined by $C=\gamma SP_c^*$ is positive only when $P_c^*=P_{1,c}^*$,

that is when $P_{1,c}^*$ exists, i.e $\forall \gamma \in \Omega_{\gamma}$. After simple computations, we can show from (3) that C is given on Ω_{γ} by:

$$C := \gamma S P_{1,c}^* = \frac{T}{e_c N_{1,c}^* + T - i_c} S P_{1,c}^*$$
(B.6)

766 with

$$N_{1,c}^* = \frac{m_c}{u_c} \frac{K_c}{K_c - P_{1,c}^*}.$$
 (B.7)

767 We then get:

$$\forall \gamma \in \Omega_{\gamma}, \frac{dC}{d\gamma} = S \frac{dP_{1,c}^*}{d\gamma} \frac{T}{(e_c N_{1,c}^* + T - i_c)^2} \frac{\rho(K_c - P_{1,c}^*)}{u_c (K_c - P_{1,c}^*)^2}$$
(B.8)

where $\rho(x)=a_2x^2+a_1x+a_0$ with $a_2=u_c(T-i_c),\ a_1=2e_cK_cm_c>0$ and $a_0=-e_cK_c^2m_c<0$. The discriminant of polynomial ρ is given by $a_1^2-4a_2a_0=4e_cK_c^2m_c\left[e_cm_c+u_c(T-i_c)\right]$ which leads to the following cases:

- if $\frac{e_c m_c}{u_c} + T < i_c$, then $\rho(x) < 0$, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\frac{dP_{1,c}^*}{d\gamma} < 0$ for $\gamma \in [0,1]$ so $\frac{dC}{d\gamma} > 0$ for all $\gamma \in [0,1]$ and C is therefore maximal for $\gamma = 1$.
- if $\frac{e_c m_c}{u_c} + T > i_c$, then the polynomial ρ has two roots. After simple computations (not detailed here for simplicity), we can show that, whatever the value of a_2 is, among these two roots only the root given by $x^+ = \frac{-a_1 + \sqrt{a_1^2 4a_2 a_0}}{2a_2}$ corresponds to a value $P^{opt} = K_c x^+$ of $P_{1,c}^*$ that belongs to $[0, K_c]$. We also easily show that for all $P_{1,c}^*(\gamma) \in (0, P^{opt})$, $\frac{dC}{d\gamma} < 0$ and for all $P_{1,c}^*(\gamma) \in (P^{opt}, K_c)$, $\frac{dC}{d\gamma} > 0$. By denoting $\gamma_0 = \frac{T}{\frac{e_c m_c}{u_c} i_c + T}$ the value of γ such that $P_{1,c}(\gamma_0) = 0$, and because $\frac{dP_{1,c}^*}{d\gamma} < 0$ for $\gamma \in \left[0, \min\left(\frac{T}{\frac{e_c}{u_c} m_c i_c + T}, 1\right)\right]$, we can finally deduce the variations table of the function $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_0] \mapsto C$ that is given in figure C.10.

783

[Figure 10 about here.]

We then have to consider two cases. If $\gamma_0 > 1$ and $P_{1,c}^*(\gamma = 1) > P^{opt}$,
then the maximal value of C on (0,1] is reached for $\gamma = 1$. If $\gamma_0 < 1$ or
if $\gamma_0 > 1$ and $P_{1,c}^*(\gamma = 1) < P^{opt}$, then the maximal value of C on (0,1]is reached for the value γ^{opt} of γ such that $P_{1,c}^*(\gamma = \gamma^{opt}) = P^{opt}$. From
(B.6) and (B.7), γ^{opt} is given by:

$$\gamma^{opt} = \frac{T}{e_c \frac{K_c m_c}{u_c (K_c - P^{opt})} + T - i_c}$$
(B.9)

790 with:

784

$$P^{opt} = K_c - \frac{-a_1 + \sqrt{a_1^2 - 4a_2a_0}}{2a_2} = K_c \left[1 - \frac{e_c m_c}{e_c m_c + \sqrt{e_c m_c \left[e_c m_c + u_c (T - i_c) \right]}} \right]$$
(B.10)

We finally get two cases: C is maximal either for $\gamma=1,$ or for $\gamma=\gamma^{opt}$.

 $_{792}$ Let us now express the different conditions that lead to these cases in terms

of values of i_c .

Case 1: C is maximal for $\gamma=1$ if $\frac{e_c m_c}{u_c}+T < i_c$ OR if $\frac{e_c m_c}{u_c}+T > i_c, \, \gamma_0 > 1$

and $P_{1,c}^*(\gamma=1)>P^{opt}$. We first have $\gamma_0>1\Leftrightarrow \frac{T}{\frac{e_cm_c}{u_c}-i_c+T}>1\Leftrightarrow T>$

796 $\frac{e_c m_c}{u_c} - i_c + T \Leftrightarrow \frac{e_c m_c}{u_c} < i_c$. For the condition $P_{1,c}^*(\gamma = 1) > P^{opt}$, we can show

797 that:

$$P_{1,c}^*(\gamma = 1) > P^{opt} \Leftrightarrow 0 < \underbrace{u_c i_c^2 - e_c m_c i_c - e_c m_c T}_{\mathcal{P}(i_c)}. \tag{B.11}$$

The polynomial ${\mathcal P}$ has two roots, one negative and one positive:

$$i^{-} = \frac{e_c m_c - \sqrt{e_c m_c (e_c m_c + 4u_c T)}}{2u_c} < 0 \text{ and } i^{+} = \frac{e_c m_c + \sqrt{e_c m_c (e_c m_c + 4u_c T)}}{2u_c} > 0,$$
(B.12)

which leads to $\mathcal{P}(i_c) > 0 \Leftrightarrow i_c > i^+$ or $i_c < i^-$. As we only consider positive values of i_c , the condition $P_{1,c}^*(\gamma = 1) > P^{opt}$ is simply rewritten $i_c > i^+$.

After computations, we can show that:

$$\frac{e_c m_c}{u_c} < i^+ < \frac{e_c m_c}{u_c} + T.$$
 (B.13)

The conditions for which C is maximal at $\gamma = 1$ can be therefore reduced to

803 $i_c > i^+$.

Case 2: C is maximal for $\gamma = \gamma^{opt}$ if $e_c m_c + u_c (T - i_c) > 0$ and $\gamma_0 < 1$ OR

if $e_c m_c + u_c (T - i_c) > 0$, $\gamma_0 > 1$ and $P_{1,c}^*(\gamma = 1) < P^{opt}$. In the same way as

for case 1, we can show that these conditions reduced to $i_c < i^+$.

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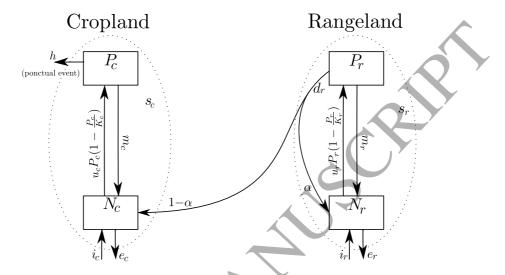


Figure C.1: Model of the main limiting nutrient cycle in a simplify agro-ecosystem. Representation of all stocks and fluxes presents in the model. See the table C.1 for the parameters description and units.

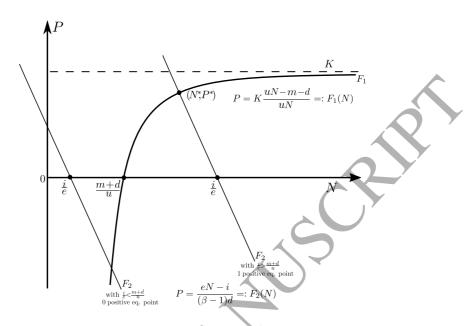


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Figure C.3: Scheme of the two loops control strategy.

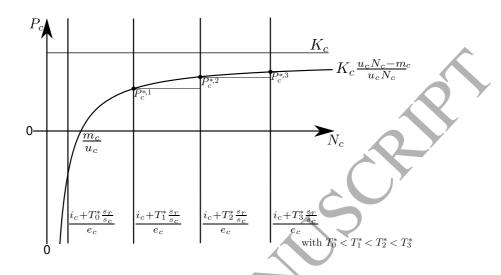


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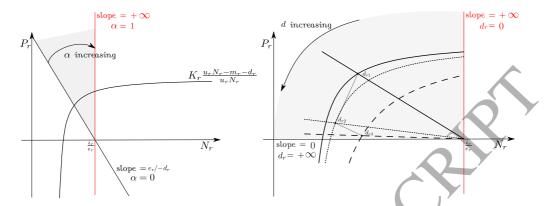


Figure C.5: (left) Evolution of $F_2(N) = \frac{eN-i}{(\alpha-1)d_r}$ when α goes from 0 to 1. (right) Evolution of $F_2(N) = \frac{eN-i}{(\alpha-1)d_r}$ when d_r goes from 0 to $+\infty$. Graphical method of determination of equilibrium points for 3 values of d_r with $d_r^1 \leq d_r^2 \leq d_r^3$. $P_{1,r}^*$ decreases with d_r but the variation of $N_{1,r}^*$ is not monotonous.

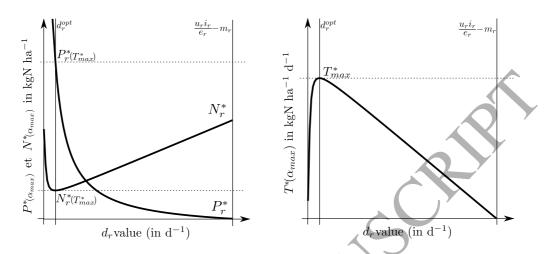


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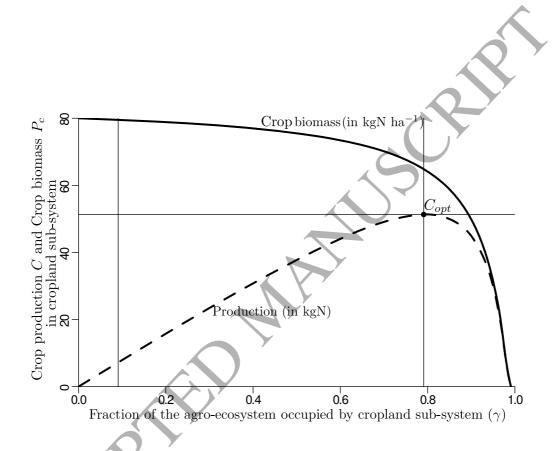


Figure C.7: Variation of crop biomass P_c^* and the production C^* of the cropland subsystem with the fraction of the agro-ecosystem surface occupied by the cropland subsystem (γ)

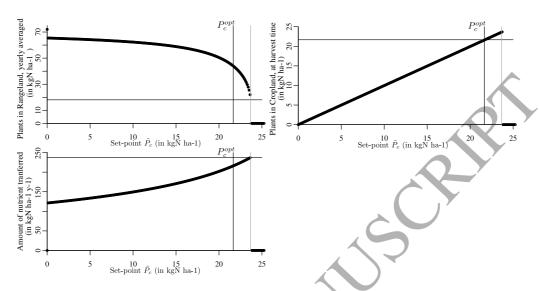


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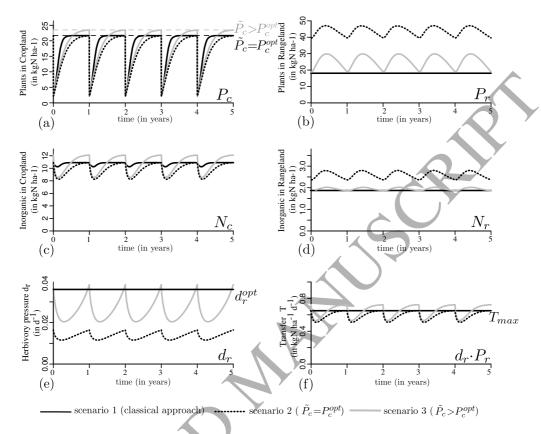


Figure C.9: Dynamic over time of stocks of plants (a) and (b) and inorganic nutrient (c) and (d) in the cropland sub-system and the rangeland sub-system respectively. Dynamic of grazing pressure d_r (e) and transfer of inorganic nutrient T (f). The optimal scenario obtained with the optimization at equilibrium (scenarios 1), and the scenario obtained with the control theory (scenario (2), $\tilde{P}_c = P^{opt}$ and scenario (3), $\tilde{P}_c > P^{opt}$) are plotted in black lines, dotted black lines and grey lines respectively. In the subfigure (a), black and gray dashed lines respectively represent the value of the set point $\tilde{P}_c = P^{opt}$ and $\tilde{P}_c > P^{opt}$ The set of parameters used is $u_r = 0.08$, $u_c = 0.01$,

γ	0 γ ⁺ γο
dP/dγ	
P	$K \longrightarrow p^+ \longrightarrow 0$
dC/dγ	+ 0 -
С	$0 \longrightarrow C^+ \longrightarrow 0$

Figure C.10: Variations table of the function $\gamma \mapsto C$ in the case when $\frac{e_c m_c}{u_c} + T - i_c > 0$.

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972 Tables

variable	dimensions	description
P_z	kgN ha ⁻¹	Stock of nutrient in the plant compartment
N_z	${ m kgN~ha^{-1}}$	Stock of nutrient in the inorganic nutrient compartment
parameter	dimensions	description
$\overline{u_z}$	$\mathrm{ha\ kgN^{-1}\ d^{-1}}$	nutrient uptake rate of plants
K_z	${ m kgN~ha^{-1}}$	carrying capacity of plant
m_z	d^{-1}	mortality rate of plants
e_z	d^{-1}	losses (ex: leaching) of inorganic nutrient
i_z	$\mathrm{kgN}\ \mathrm{ha^{-1}}\ \mathrm{d^{-1}}$	inputs of inorganic nutrient (ex: atmospheric deposition)
$S_{\mathcal{Z}}$	ha	surface of the sub-system
γ		fraction of agro-ecosystem occupied by cropland
d_r	d^{-1}	grazing pressure in rangeland
α		fraction of uptake by livestock recycled into rangeland
$1-\alpha$		fraction of uptake by livestock transferred to cropland
h	%	harvest in cropland in the end of each year
\overline{T}	$kgN ha^{-1} d^{-1}$	nutrient transferred from rangeland to cropland
		$T = (1 - \alpha)d_r P_r$, (see equation 10)

Table C.1: Nomenclature of model parameters. The subscript z stands for either r or c depending on the sub-system considered (rangeland or cropland).