

1 Article

2 Carbon sequestration and soil restoration potential of 3 grazing lands under enclosure management in a 4 semi-arid environment of northern Ethiopia

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16 **Abstract:** Enclosures are used to regenerate native vegetation as a way to reduce soil erosion,
17 increase rain water infiltration and provide fodder and woody biomass in degraded grazing lands.
18 Therefore, this study assessed the impact of grazing enclosure on vegetation biomass, carbon
19 sequestration and soil nutrients under five and ten years of grazing enclosures and freely grazed
20 areas in Tigray, northern Ethiopia. Vegetation biomass, carbon stocks and soil nutrients increased
21 with increasing grazing exclusion. However, open grazing lands and five years of grazing
22 enclosure did not differ in aboveground biomass, above-and-belowground carbon stocks.
23 Moreover, ten years of grazing enclosure had a higher ($P < 0.01$) grass, herb and litter carbon stocks
24 compared to five years enclosure and open grazing lands. The total carbon stock was higher for ten
25 years enclosure ($193.3 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$) than the five years enclosure ($154.0 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$) and in open grazing
26 areas ($146.6 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$). Grazing lands closed for ten years had a higher SOC, organic matter, total N,
27 available P, and exchangeable K^+ and Na^+ compared to five year's enclosure and open grazing
28 lands. Therefore, establishment of grazing enclosures had a positive effect in restoring degraded
29 grazing lands, thus improving vegetation biomass, carbon sequestration potentials and soil
30 nutrients under the changing climate and global warming.

31 **Keywords:** Above-ground carbon stock; Below-ground carbon stock; soil nutrients; enclosure

32

33 1. Introduction

34 Grazing land resources are facing challenges like intense degradation as a consequence of
35 deforestation, agricultural land expansion and continuous heavy grazing [1,2]. In arid and semi-arid
36 grazing lands, overgrazing is one of the most important destructive factors, which causes to the
37 increase of unpalatable species by destroying the most palatable species in the sward and reduce
38 plant cover and biomass, thereby increase erosion hazard and reduce the overall productivity of the
39 land [3,4].

40 The direct effect of livestock grazing includes consumption of the important plant species and
41 soil trampling, which destroy the structure and composition of plant communities [5].
42 Determination of herbivore density and proper distribution of livestock in grazing land are the most
43 important issues in grazing land management [6] since vegetation biomass, vegetation height and
44 percentage of plant cover reduced with increasing grazing intensity [7-9]. Accordingly, increasing

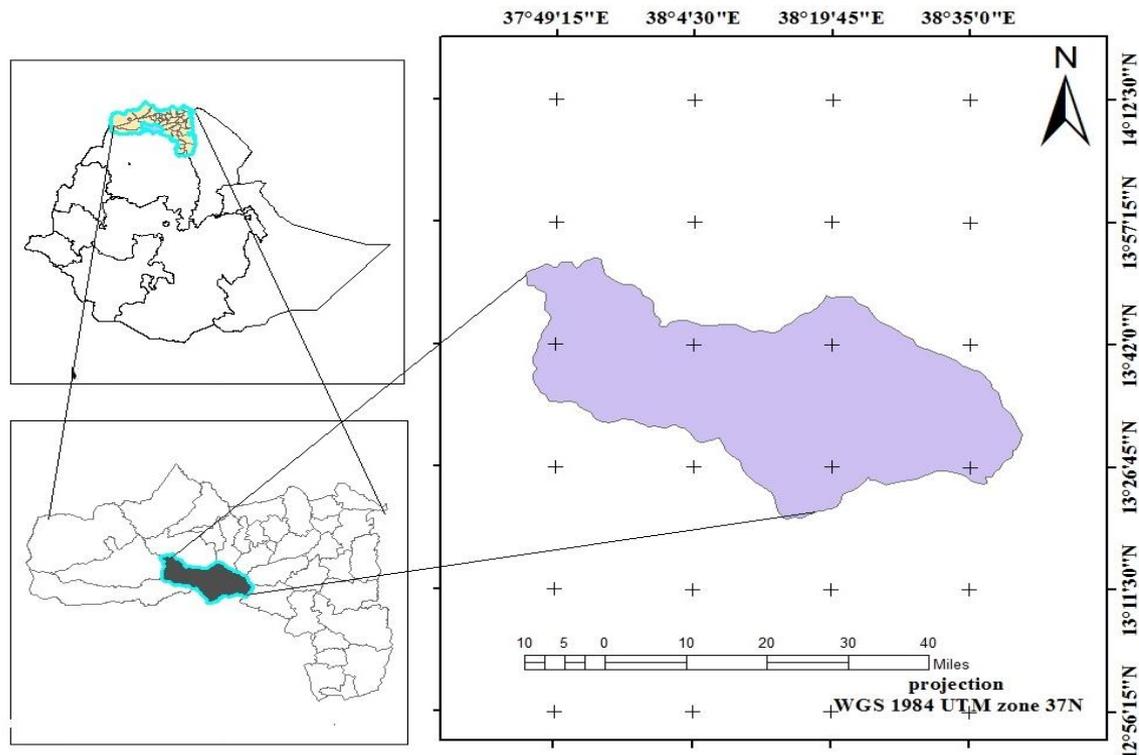
45 grazing changes the species composition and endangered the stability of the grazing lands through
46 reducing soil nutrients [10]. Light grazing increases aboveground biomass, canopy cover and height
47 of the species, but from a long-term perspective, moderate grazing would balance the production of
48 different species and livestock production [11]. Vegetation response to different grazing land
49 management practices has been investigated in several studies [5,9,12-14] in which the results
50 indicated that overgrazing of communal grazing lands causes a change in vegetation structure
51 through decreasing the vegetation density and biomass. However, continuous heavy grazing can
52 also affect the carbon sequestration potentials of grazing lands through reduction of carbon
53 accumulation in the soil systems [15-17]. According to Mekuria, *et al.* [18] soils in areas excluded
54 from grazing had a higher soil organic matter (SOM) contents compared to open grazed areas. Thus,
55 uncontrolled (open) grazing could result in severe degradation of both native vegetation and soil
56 fertility in communal grazing lands in arid and semi-arid environments [13].

57 Restoration of degraded lands in arid and semi-arid environments often involves excluding
58 livestock from degraded sites [2,13,18,19]. According to Aerts, *et al.* [20] and [21] exclosures are areas
59 protected from human and domestic animal disturbances with the purpose of regenerating native
60 vegetation and reducing land degradation of the formerly degraded communal grazing lands.
61 Yayneshet, *et al.* [13] reported that exclosures can be effective in enhancing the composition,
62 diversity, and density of vegetation on degraded grazing lands. Moreover, exclosures can be
63 effective in restoring degraded soils and increase soil carbon in the highlands of Tigray [19].
64 Accordingly, rehabilitation of degraded communal grazing lands through establishing exclosures
65 has become increasingly important in Tigray region, northern Ethiopia. Hence, approximately 1.5
66 million hectares of land has been excluded from grazing in the last three decades in the highlands of
67 Tigray region [21]. However, information on carbon sequestration and soil restoration potentials of
68 degraded grazing lands after grazing exclusion in semi-arid environments of Tigray region of
69 Ethiopia is lacking under the ever-changing climate and global warming. In the study area, the
70 grazing exclosures were established in 2005 and 2010 in the lowlands of northern Ethiopia.
71 Therefore, we investigated vegetation biomass, above-and-belowground carbon stocks and soil
72 nutrients under five and ten years of grazing exclosures compared to freely (open) grazing areas and
73 along soil depths in semi-arid environment in northern Ethiopia.

74 2. Materials and Methods

75 2.1. Study Area

76 The study site was located in the semi-arid areas of Tselemti district in the northwestern Tigray
77 region of Ethiopia (Figure 1), which is located at 13°05'N Latitude and 38°08'E Longitude. The
78 landscape of the district is characterized with flat plain plateau, mountainous valley and some
79 immediate break of slope with an altitude ranged between 800 to 2870 m above sea levels.



80

81 **Figure 1:** Map of the study area, Tselemti district, in Tigray region, northern Ethiopia

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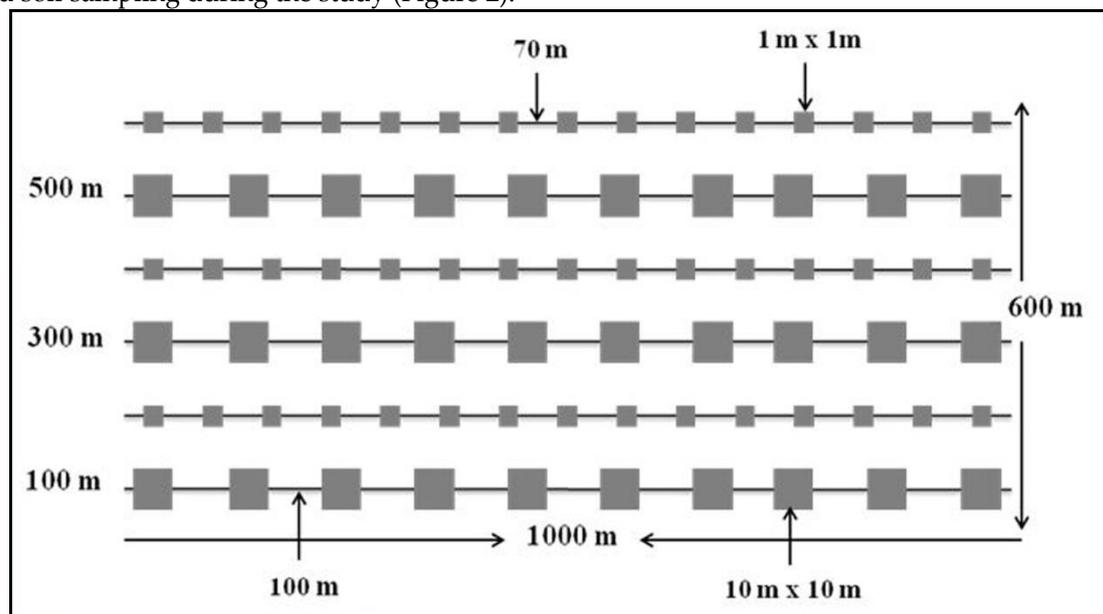
83 The mean maximum temperature varied between 33 °C in April to 41.7 °C in May, while the
 84 mean minimum temperature is between 15.8 °C in December to 21.7 °C in May. The dry season
 85 occurs from November to May, whereas, the main rainy season occurs between June to September.
 86 The vegetation cover in the district includes Combretum-Terminalia and Acacia-Commiphora
 87 Woodlands which are characterized by small to moderate-sized drought-resistant trees and shrubs
 88 with fairly large deciduous leaves. *Anogeissus leiocarpus* (DC) Guill & Perri, *Dichrostachys cinerea* (L.)
 89 Wight & Am, *Dovyalis abyssinica* (A. Rich) Warb, *Oxythenanthera abyssinica* (A. Rich) Munro, *Boswellia*
 90 *papyrifera* (Del). Hochst, *Erytherina abyssinica* (DC) and *Balanites aegyptiaca* (L) Del are some of the
 91 dominant woody species in the study area [14].

92

2.2. Study site selection and field layout

93 A field observation was made throughout the areas to be sampled prior to the field layout for
 94 vegetation and soil sampling. Accordingly, sampling sites within five years old exclosures, ten years
 95 old exclosures and open grazing lands were selected for data collection. The size/area of the selected
 96 sites varied from 60 to 105 ha for open grazing lands and from 72 to 98 ha for grazing exclosures. The
 97 exclosures and open grazing lands were assumed to have been on similar conditions before the
 98 establishment of the exclosures. To cover the variability in soil and topography, we selected three
 99 replicates for each exclosure age and open grazing land throughout the study area. The same site
 100 was divided into both exclosure and open grazing land due to the presence of high number of
 101 livestock and shortage of grazing land. Hence, the exclosure and the grazing lands were
 102 homogenous. To reduce variability as a result of distance, the design for data collection was
 103 systematic. We used systematic transect sampling technique to collect the vegetation and soil data
 104 within the three sampling sites (Figure 2) under each grazing land management. The first and the
 105 last transect lines were laid at least 100 m inside from the edge of the nearest adjacent grazing lands
 106 to avoid edge effects. The first sample plot was laid randomly and the others systematically at 100m
 107 interval for larger plots (100 m²) and 70m interval for smaller plots(1 m²) along the transect line. At
 108 each site, six parallel line transects each with 1000 m long at 200 m intervals from each other was
 109 established in each management practice. Plots measuring 10mx10m were systematically taken for
 110 woody vegetation data collection according to previous studies [22-24] and 1 m² were established for

111 grass, herbs and litter (GHL), as well as soil sampling in each transect line, a total of 270 sample
 112 quadrats were taken for sampling woody vegetation and 405 sample quadrats for measuring GHL
 113 and soil sampling during the study (Figure 2).



114
 115

116 **Figure 2:** Sampling design and plot layout of the experimental site (Key: The small quadrats in the
 117 Figure have 1 m x 1 m size and are allocated for herbaceous species as well as soil sampling. The
 118 larger squares in the Figure have 10 m x 10 m size and are allocated for woody species sampling).

119 2.3. Sampling of woody vegetation and carbon stock determination

120 Data on woody vegetation were collected during September to October 2015. In each plot, every
 121 tree and shrub having a diameter of ≥ 2.5 cm at stump height (30 cm from the ground) and breast
 122 height (1.30 cm above the ground) circumference were measured with a meter tape and converted to
 123 diameter at breast height (DBH). The diameter was measured separately and considered as
 124 individual trees when the bole was branched at breast height or below. Moreover, in cases where
 125 tree/shrub boles buttressed, DBH was measured from the point just 5 cm above the buttresses. The
 126 diameters of multi-stemmed shrubs were measured the same way as single-stemmed trees
 127 according to Eshete and Ståhl [25]. The height of woody species was measured using calibrated
 128 bamboo stick having 7 m height graduated with 10 cm markings. Trees greater than 7 m in height
 129 were measured using clinometers.

130 The biomass and carbon stock of dominant tree/shrub was estimated through allometric
 131 equations developed for each tree/shrub species according to previous studies [26,27]. The general
 132 allometric equation developed by WBISSP [28] for all woody species were also used for estimating
 133 the aboveground woody biomass carbon stocks when species-specific allometric equation is absent.
 134 Then, the above-ground woody biomass carbon is calculated from the aboveground biomass using a
 135 biomass-carbon conversion factor of 0.5 [29]. Moreover, the below-ground biomass for trees and
 136 shrubs was estimated from root-shoot ratios by taking in to account the 27% of above-ground
 137 biomass of woody species [30].

138 2.4. Sampling of herbaceous vegetation and carbon stock determination

139 The aboveground biomass of herbaceous vegetation was measured in a 1 m² quadrat from
 140 September to October 2015. Destructive sampling method was used for measuring the biomass of
 141 grasses and herbs by harvesting the whole fresh vegetation within each quadrat using hand shears.
 142 Clipped fresh samples together with litters were well-mixed and weighed in the field using sensitive
 143 balance. Sub-sample of the total weight was separated and placed in a marked bag and taken to the

144 laboratory to determine an oven-dry-to-wet mass ratio that is used to convert the total wet mass to
145 oven dry mass. The sub-sampled was air dried and latter oven-dried at Mekelle Soil Laboratory at
146 80°C for 24hr according to Rau, *et al.* [31] until constant weight was obtained and finally re-weighed
147 for their dry weight using a sensitive balance with a precision of 0.1g. Herbaceous vegetation carbon
148 stocks were calculated as 50% of oven-dried herbaceous biomass [32].

149 2.4. Sampling of soil parameters and laboratory analyses

150 Soil samples were collected in each plot at three soil depths (0-10, 11-20 and 21-30 cm). One soil
151 core sample was also taken from the center of each transect line for soil bulk density (SBD)
152 determination. Equal weights of each sample from a given transect line were pooled and mixed
153 together according to their depth, air dried and passed through a 2 mm sieve to separate debris and
154 gravel. Finally, composite samples were divided into four equal parts, of which one was randomly
155 chosen and stored in plastic bags, labelled, sealed and transported to the soil laboratory for physical
156 and chemical analyses. In the laboratory, soil samples were dried in an oven at 105°C for 24 hours for
157 bulk density analysis. Bulk density was measured using the core method [33] and soil organic
158 carbon was determined by Walkley–black method [34]. Soil texture was analyzed by hydrometer
159 method, pH using a pH-meter in a 1:2.5 soils: water ratio. The percent soil organic matter (SOM) was
160 calculated by multiplying the percent organic carbon by a factor of 1.724 [35]. Total nitrogen was
161 determined by the Kjeldahl method [36], Available K and P were analyzed using ammonium acetate
162 method and Olsen method [37], respectively. Mg and Ca were determined using Atomic Absorption
163 Spectrophotometer and Flame Photometer was used for K and Na [38]. EC was determined using
164 the sodium saturation ratio [39] and cation exchange capacity (CEC) was determined using
165 ammonium acetate method [40]. Soil organic carbon stocks ($t\ C\ ha^{-1}$) in the 0 -10, 11 - 20 and 21 - 30
166 cm depths were calculated according to Pearson, *et al.* [41].

167 2.5. Estimation of total carbon stocks

168 The total carbon stock from various carbon pools was calculated by aggregating the carbon
169 stock densities of the individual carbon pools using the equation given by Subedi, *et al.* [42]. The total
170 carbon stock is then converted to tons of CO₂ equivalent by multiplying it by 44/12, or 3.67 [32].

171 2.5. Estimation of total carbon stocks

172 A General Linear Model (GLM) was applied, to test for differences in all data recorded, with
173 enclosure land management, soil depth and their interactions, as independent factors, and
174 replications, as a random factor. Data were analyzed using SAS Software (SAS Inc., 2002), and
175 results are presented as mean \pm S.E. Tukey HSD test was employed to investigate significant
176 differences between means at $P \leq 0.05$. However, mean comparison of the interaction effects between
177 enclosure land management and soil depths were not performed for vegetation biomass,
178 above-and-belowground carbon stocks due to the lack of significant effects. Dependent proportional
179 data were arcsine transformed to meet the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance.

180 3. Results

181 3.1. Vegetation biomass across grazing land management practices

182 The mean aboveground herbaceous biomass was significantly higher ($P < 0.001$) in the ten years
183 of grazing enclosure than the five years enclosure and the open grazing lands (Table 1). The mean
184 herbaceous dry biomass yield in area enclosures was four times higher than the open grazing lands.
185 However, the lowest GHM biomass was recorded from open grazing land (0.56 dry matter (DM) t
186 ha^{-1}), while the highest biomass (3.08 DM t ha^{-1}) was from the ten years of grazing enclosure (Table
187 1). Age of grazing enclosure had significantly ($P < 0.001$) affected aboveground vegetation biomass as
188 grazing lands excluded from the interference for five years had a lower mean vegetation biomass
189 compared to grazing lands excluded for ten years in the present study.

190 Woody biomass production varied between 37.2 t ha⁻¹ of DM under ten years of grazing
 191 enclosure and 17.6 DM t ha⁻¹ in open grazing lands (Table 1). The mean aboveground woody biomass
 192 (AGB) significantly (P<0.001) varied across enclosure land management practices, for instance, the
 193 ten years of grazing enclosure had a higher woody biomass (P<0.001) compared to the five years of
 194 grazing enclosure and open grazing lands. Belowground biomass significantly differ (P<0.05)
 195 between the grazing land management practices being the ten years of grazing enclosure had the
 196 highest (10.1 t ha⁻¹) belowground biomass, whereas, the open grazing land had the lowest mean
 197 belowground biomass (4.74 t ha⁻¹) in our study. However, belowground biomass did not
 198 significantly vary (P>0.05) between the five years grazing enclosure and the open grazing lands in
 199 the present study.

200 **Table 1:** Least square mean of vegetation biomass (DM t ha⁻¹; mean ±SE) under the five and ten
 201 years of grazing enclosures and open grazing lands in Tselemti district of Tigray region, northern
 202 Ethiopia (n = 270 for woody vegetation aboveground biomass and belowground biomass and n =
 203 405 for grasses, herbs and litter biomass).

Management practices	AGB	BGB	GHLB	TAGB
Open grazing land	17.57±2.46 ^b	4.74±0.67 ^b	0.56±0.38 ^c	18.13±2.22 ^b
Five years enclosure	17.83±1.49 ^b	4.82±0.41 ^b	2.67±0.07 ^b	20.50±1.35 ^b
Ten years enclosure	37.23±2.40 ^a	10.10±0.65 ^a	3.08±0.06 ^a	40.31±1.93 ^a
P value	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001

204 Means with the same superscripts along columns are not significantly different at P≤0.05. DM = Dry
 205 matter; AGB = Aboveground biomass; BGB = Belowground biomass; GHLB = Grasses, herbs and
 206 litter biomass; TAGB = Total aboveground biomass; t ha⁻¹ = tone per hectare; SE = Standard error

207 3.2. Aboveground carbon stocks

208 Aboveground carbon stocks increased with duration of grazing exclusion; however, the open
 209 grazing lands and five year enclosures did not differ significantly (P>0.05) while the grazing lands
 210 closed for ten years differs significantly (P<0.05) with both the five years enclosure and open grazing
 211 land (Table 2). The mean aboveground carbon stock under the open grazing lands, five and ten years
 212 grazing enclosures were 8.78, 8.92 and 18.62 t C ha⁻¹, respectively.

213 3.3. Belowground carbon stocks

214 The estimated mean belowground carbon stocks for the ten years grazing enclosure (5.05 t C
 215 ha⁻¹) was significantly higher (P<0.001) than five year gazing enclosure (2.41 t C ha⁻¹) and open
 216 grazing lands (2.37 t C ha⁻¹). However, the mean belowground carbon stocks between the five years
 217 grazing enclosure and the open grazing lands did not significantly (P>0.05) differ in the present
 218 study (Table 2).

219 3.4. Grasses, herbs and litters carbon stocks

220 Grass, herb and litter (GHL) carbon stocks significantly vary (P<0.001) between open grazing
 221 lands, five and ten years grazing enclosures (Table 2). Accordingly, the highest GHL carbon stocks
 222 were obtained under the ten years grazing enclosure (1.54 t C ha⁻¹), whereas the lowest GHL carbon
 223 stock (0.28 t C ha⁻¹) was recorded under the open grazing lands.

224 3.5. Soil organic carbon stocks

225 Soil organic carbon (SOC) stocks showed a significant variation (P<0.01) between the three
 226 grazing land management practices in our study. The highest SOC (168.1 t C ha⁻¹) was obtained
 227 under the ten years of grazing enclosure and the lowest SOC stocks (135.2 t C ha⁻¹) under the open

228 grazing lands (Table 2). However, there was no significant ($P>0.05$) difference in SOC between the
229 five years grazing enclosure and the open grazing lands in our study.

230 3.6. Total carbon stocks across the grazing land management practices

231 The total carbon stock was significantly higher ($P<0.001$) under the grazing enclosures
232 compared to the open grazing lands. Accordingly, the total carbon stocks for open grazing lands,
233 five and ten years of grazing enclosures were 146.6, 154.0 and 193.3 t C ha⁻¹, respectively (Table 2). A
234 higher total carbon stocks were stored in the soil than in the aboveground vegetation across all
235 management practices. Accordingly, soil carbon stock of open grazing areas, five and ten years of
236 grazing enclosures accounted for 92.2%, 91.8% and 87% of the total carbon stocks, respectively.
237 Hence, the estimated ratios between the mean SOC and aboveground biomass carbon stocks were
238 11.8, 11.2 and 6.7 for open grazing areas, five and ten years of grazing enclosures, respectively.

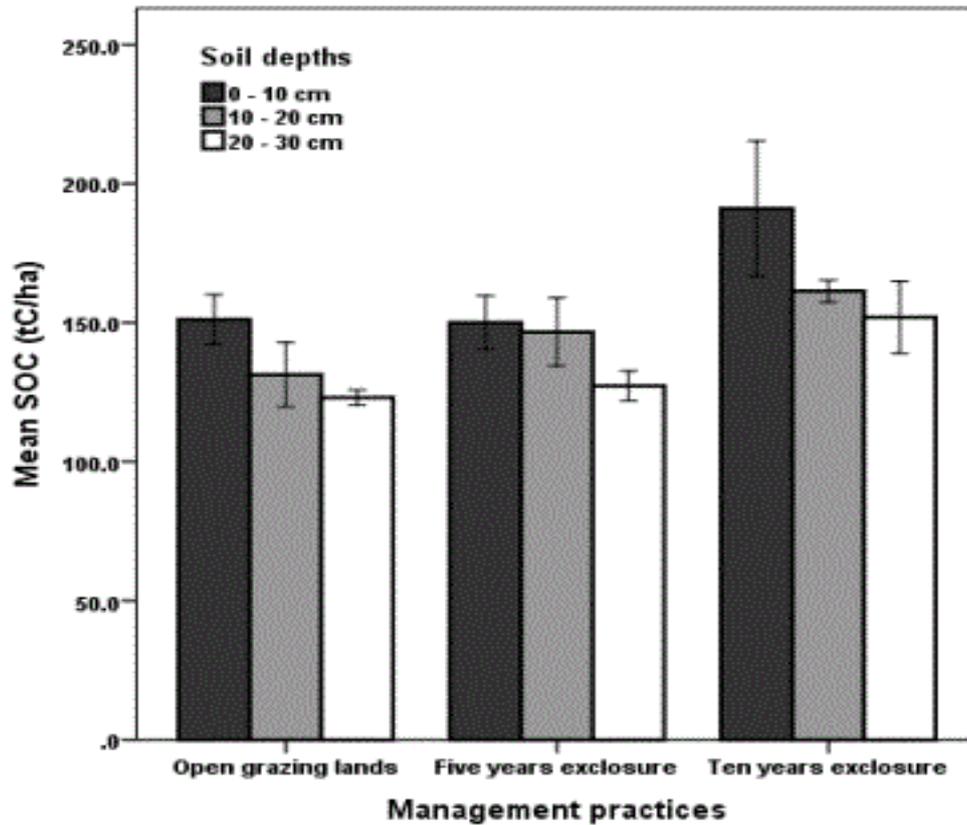
239 **Table 2:** Carbon stocks in ton per hectare(mean \pm SE) under the five and ten years of grazing
240 enclosures and open grazing lands in Tselemti district of Tigray region, northern Ethiopia(n= 270
241 for woody vegetation aboveground and belowground woody carbon stocks, n=405 for grasses,
242 herbs and litter carbon stocks as well as for soil carbon stock).

Management practices	AGWCS	BGCS	GHLCS	SOC	TCS
Open grazing land	8.78 \pm 1.23 ^b	2.37 \pm 0.34 ^b	0.28 \pm 0.19 ^c	135.18 \pm 5.98 ^b	146.6 \pm 1.42 ^c
Five years enclosure	8.92 \pm 0.75 ^b	2.41 \pm 0.20 ^b	1.34 \pm 0.35 ^b	141.31 \pm 5.95 ^b	154 \pm 0.85 ^b
Tenyears enclosure	18.62 \pm 1.20 ^a	5.05 \pm 0.33 ^a	1.54 \pm 0.03 ^a	168.12 \pm 9.98 ^a	193.33 \pm 1.22 ^a
P value	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0075	0.0001

243 Means with the same superscripts along columns are not significantly different at $P\leq 0.05$. AGWCS =
244 Aboveground woody carbon stocks; BGCS = Belowground carbon stocks; GHLCS = Grasses, herbs
245 and litter carbon stocks; SOC = soil carbon stocks; TCS= total carbon stock; SE = Standard error

246 3.7. Soil organic carbon stocks along soil depths

247 The SOC significantly differ ($P<0.05$) between the three soil depths in each grazing land
248 management practices, as the SOC significantly reduced with increasing soil depths in our study.
249 Accordingly, the higher soil depth (0-10 cm) had a higher SOC compared to the other soil depths (11
250 -20 and 21 -30 cm) across the grazing land management practices (Figure 3).



251

252 **Figure 3:** Soil organic carbon stocks (t C ha⁻¹) across grazing land management practices and three
 253 soil depths (0-10, 10–20 and 20-30 cm) in Tselemti district of Tigray region, northern Ethiopia.

254 3.7. Soil nutrients between land management practices and soil depths

255 The soil textural class for the five and ten years of grazing enclosures was clay loam, while open
 256 grazing lands had a sandy clay loam textural classes (Table S1). The mean percentage of sand
 257 recorded in open grazing lands, five and ten years of grazing enclosures were 49.1, 41.3 and 41.3,
 258 respectively, while their corresponding mean clay and silt values were 25.2, 24.9, 30.3 and 25.7, 33.8,
 259 28.3, respectively. The silt and sand particle size fractions were higher in the topsoil layer than in the
 260 middle and lower soil depths across the grazing land management practices. In contrast, the clay
 261 particle was slightly higher in the middle soil depth compared to the top and lower soil depths
 262 across the grazing land management practices (Table S1).

263 Age of enclosure, soil depth and their interactions had no significant ($P > 0.05$) effect on the sand
 264 and clay contents of the soil in our study. The silt content was not significantly ($P > 0.05$) affected by
 265 the soil depth and its interaction with grazing land management practices, whereas, the silt content
 266 in the five years of grazing enclosure had significantly ($P < 0.05$) higher percentage of silt content
 267 compared to the ten years of grazing enclosure and open grazing lands (Table S1). Moreover, bulk
 268 density had significantly varied ($P < 0.001$) across the soil depths and grazing land management
 269 practices in the present study.

270 Available P showed significant variations ($P < 0.001$) with grazing land management practices,
 271 soil depths and their interaction (Table S1). Available P across soil depth ranged from 4.69 ppm for
 272 the topsoil depth (0-10 cm) to 2.7 ppm for the lower soil depth (21-30cm). Available P varied
 273 significantly across management practices from 3.03 ppm in the open grazing lands to 4.68 ppm in
 274 the ten years of grazing enclosure. Soil organic carbon and exchangeable K⁺ were significantly
 275 ($P < 0.001$) affected by soil depth and enclosure land management practices. Total nitrogen (TN)

276 highly significantly varied ($P < 0.001$) between the grazing management practices, as low as to 0.06%
277 in the open grazing lands to as high as 0.15% for the ten years of grazing enclosure (Table S1). Soil
278 pH and EC did not significantly vary ($P < 0.05$) across the soil depths, grazing land management
279 practices and their interactions.

280 However, cation exchange capacity and exchangeable bases varied significantly ($P < 0.01$) across
281 soil depths and management practices in our study (Table S1). Open grazing lands had a lower
282 exchangeable Ca^{++} , Mg^{++} and K^{+} compared with the five and ten years of grazing enclosures (Table
283 3). Moreover, the ten years of grazing enclosure had a higher exchangeable Na^{+} (0.41 C mol (+)/kg)
284 compared with five years grazing enclosure (0.31 C mol (+)/kg) and the open grazing lands (0.29
285 Cmol (+)/kg). In terms of soil depth, OC, OM, TN%, AP, exchangeable K^{+} and Na^{+} reduced with
286 increasing soil depths, whereas, pH, EC, Ca^{++} , Mg^{++} and CEC increased with increasing soil depth
287 in the present study (Table S1).

288 4. Discussion

289 4.1. Biomass yield of aboveground vegetation

290 The lowest vegetation biomass in open grazing lands compared to the five and ten years of
291 grazing enclosures in our study could be due to continuous heavy grazing, which negatively affects
292 the growth of plant species. This finding is in line with Yayneshet, *et al.* [13] who reported that more
293 than double aboveground biomass has been produced under grazing enclosures than open grazing
294 lands in the highlands of Tigray region of Ethiopia. Besides, Snyman [43] and Li, *et al.* [44] also
295 reported that accumulation of aboveground vegetation biomass declined with grazing land
296 degradation, reduction in basal cover and root biomass, and change in species composition, leading
297 to a less aboveground biomass production at higher grazing pressure compared to a lower grazing
298 pressure.

299 The extent of woody vegetation biomass variation across grazing land management practices in
300 our study could be due to the variation in the size of tree species, as the interference herbivores (both
301 grazers and browsers), as well as human disturbances in the open grazing lands could lead to a
302 significant reduction of total woody plant density. Five years of grazing enclosure had lower woody
303 biomass than the ten years of grazing enclosure due to the difference in the size of trees. Hence,
304 higher distribution and proportion of sapling and seedling stages in the five years of grazing
305 enclosure had a lower contribution for aboveground woody biomass reported in our study [14].
306 According to Witt, *et al.* [45], aboveground woody biomass increases with grazing exclusion due to
307 the regeneration potentials of tree and shrub species. Likewise, some studies in semi-arid Kenya
308 [46], in semi-arid Azerbaijan [47], and in southern Mongolian desert steppes [48] showed that
309 aboveground biomass increased following the establishment of grazing enclosure on communal
310 grazing lands, which might be due to the higher abundance and density of woody vegetation, which
311 had more potential to produce larger quantities of above-and-belowground biomass compared to
312 the open grazing lands.

313 4.2. Carbon stocks

314 The highest aboveground carbon stock in ten years enclosures might be due to the availability
315 of higher aboveground biomass in ten year enclosures as compared with five years enclosure and
316 open grazing lands. The lowest aboveground carbon stocks in open grazing lands could be due to
317 loss of carbon stocks as a result overcutting and trimming of trees/shrubs by local people for fences,
318 charcoal production and other purposes. The mean aboveground carbon stocks for the ten years of
319 grazing enclosure recorded in our study is similar within the tropical forests [49] and deciduous
320 woodlands in the north-western lowlands of Ethiopia [15]. However, the aboveground carbon
321 stocks found in this study was lower compared to the aboveground carbon stocks reported from

322 rangelands enclosed for about 20 years in the southern parts of Ethiopia [12]. Moreover, the mean
323 carbon stock in our study was higher than the carbon stocks reported in the Nile basin [5], in
324 highlands of Tigray region of Ethiopia [17] and in the shrublands of northern Kenya [24].

325 The mean belowground carbon stocks of the ten years of grazing enclosure were higher than the
326 five years of grazing enclosure and open grazing lands, which might be due to the higher biomass of
327 woody species in grazing enclosures. The belowground carbon stock in our study is similar to
328 belowground root carbon stocks reported from the deciduous woodlands in the lowlands of
329 Ethiopia [15]. However, the belowground carbon stocks found in this study was higher compared to
330 the belowground carbon stocks reported in the semi-arid pastoral areas of northern Kenya [24].

331 A higher grass, herbs and litters (GHL) carbon stocks were found in the ten years of grazing
332 enclosure compared to the five years of grazing enclosures and open grazing lands in our study. This
333 might be due to the fact that continuous heavy grazing in open grazing lands inhibits the growth of
334 herbaceous layers and decrease aboveground herbaceous biomass through direct removal, leading
335 to the depletion of GHL carbon stocks and soil nutrients. Our result is in agreement with previous
336 studies [12,16,17] who reported a significant difference in herbaceous carbon stocks between grazing
337 land enclosures and open grazing lands. Moreover, the herbaceous carbon stocks reported in our
338 study under the open grazing lands is almost similar to herbaceous carbon stocks in the untapped
339 *Boswellia* woodlands in the north-western lowlands of Ethiopia [15]. Our result indicated that
340 exclusion of eroded and degraded grazing lands from animal interferences had a positive effect on
341 the accumulation of herbaceous vegetation and litter carbon stocks.

342 The ten years of grazing enclosures had the highest SOC, whereas, the lowest SOC was
343 recorded in the open grazing lands (135.2 t C ha⁻¹) in our study. The differences in SOC stocks
344 between the ten years of grazing enclosure and open grazing lands could be as a result of the
345 increased vegetation biomass and the subsequent production and decomposition of litterfall from
346 this vegetation that would add OM into the soil systems. Thus, grazing lands with more
347 aboveground vegetation biomass contribute more to the soil carbon sequestration potential as
348 compared to grazing lands having less aboveground vegetation biomass. This finding is in
349 agreement with Bikila, *et al.* [12] and Mekuria [17] who reported that SOC was markedly higher for
350 enclosures than the open grazing areas. Sheikh, *et al.* [50] and Fynn, *et al.* [51] also reported that high
351 SOC mass was recorded in the protected areas.

352 The contribution of area enclosures to SOC improvement is controlled by several factors that
353 include level of land degradation, composition of plants, climatic factors, duration of grazing
354 enclosures, as well as land use type and management practices of the areas. In our study, the overall
355 belowground carbon pool was greater than the corresponding overall aboveground carbon pool in
356 each grazing land management practice.

357 The total carbon stocks were highest in the ten years of grazing enclosure compared to the five
358 years of grazing enclosure and open grazing lands in this study. Moreover, across the grazing land
359 management practices, a higher total carbon stock was stored in soil than in the aboveground
360 vegetation. According to Girmay, *et al.* [52] more than 90% of the total carbon stocks were
361 contributed from SOC in wooded grassland of northern Ethiopia. In our study, the ratio between the
362 mean SOC and aboveground carbon stock were 11.81, 11.15 and 6.66 for open grazing areas, five and
363 ten years of grazing enclosure, respectively. This is in agreement with Sheikh, *et al.* [50] and Fynn, *et al.*
364 [51] who reported that the soil contains about three times more organic carbon than the
365 aboveground vegetation. The decrease in SOC with increasing soil depths in our study was in line
366 with Bikila, *et al.* [12].

367 4.3. Soil nutrients between land management practices and soil depths

368 The lowest silt percentage in the open grazing lands might be due to wind and water erosion as
369 a result of higher bare-ground and low basal cover due to the low aboveground biomass through
370 continuous heavy grazing. However, exclusion of grazing lands from grazing and trampling for five
371 years had a positive effect on silt percentage but not for sand and clay percentage. Areas excluded
372 from grazing had a lower soil bulk density than open grazing lands while there is no significant
373 variation between young and old exclosures in our study, indicating that excluding of livestock from
374 degraded grazing areas had a significant effect on soil bulk density.

375 The higher available P and TN% recorded from the ten years of grazing exclusion could be due
376 to the higher accumulation and decomposition of litters into the soil. The results for the OC, TN%
377 and AP was in agreement with the reports of Yimer, *et al.* [53] who stated that the relative increase in
378 the soil parameters in exclosures is due to the management establishment and subsequent increased
379 organic matter accumulation derived from litterfall from the trees/shrubs and herbaceous species
380 biomass and from reduced soil erosion through effective ground cover. Besides, the increases in
381 canopy cover with the increase in exclosure duration could decrease soil nutrient losses by reducing
382 the erosive impact of raindrops and soil erosion [54,55].

383 5. Conclusions

384 The establishment of area exclosures on degraded communal grazing lands had positive effect
385 in restoring vegetation biomass, carbon sequestration potentials and soil nutrients of eroded
386 communal grazing lands. The aboveground biomass and carbon stocks increased with duration of
387 grazing exclusion; however, the open grazing lands and five years of grazing exclosure did not differ
388 significantly in our study. A similar pattern was observed for belowground carbon stocks and soil
389 organic carbon stocks that the grazing lands excluded for ten years from grazing differed
390 significantly with both the five years closed area and the open grazing lands. The grass, herbs and
391 litter carbon stocks were the highest in the ten years of grazing exclosure, amounting almost more
392 than five times the value recorded in the open grazing lands. Similarly, the overall total carbon stock
393 was highest for the ten years of grazing exclosure followed by the five years of grazing exclosure and
394 open grazing areas. In the present study, higher total carbon stock was stored in soil than in the
395 aboveground vegetation across all grazing land management practices. Therefore, establishment of
396 area exclosures needs to be widely practised in the semi-arid areas of the region to enhance
397 vegetation biomass, carbon sequestration potentials and soil nutrient contents. Moreover, further
398 studies on temporal and spatial vegetation biomass and carbon stocks need to be thoroughly
399 investigated to capture the whole dynamics of the grazing land ecosystems under various regimes of
400 grazing exclosures in arid and semi-arid environments.

401

402 **Supplementary Materials:** The following are available online at www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1, **Table S1:**
403 Physical and chemical soil properties under the five and ten years of grazing exclosures and open
404 grazing lands (n = 405) in Tselemti district of Tigray region, northern Ethiopia, with statistical
405 results of GLM (F, P values).

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412 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

413

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