

The Role of Small Ruminants in Arid Zone Environments: A Review of Research Perspectives

G. Oba¹, E. Post², N.C. Stenseth³ and W.J. Lusigi⁴

¹ *Noragric, Centre for International Environment and Development Studies, Agricultural University of Norway, PO Box 5001, N-1432 Ås, Norway*

² *Department of Biology, The Pennsylvania State University, 208 Mueller Lab, University Park, PA 16802 US*

³ *University of Oslo, Department of Biology, Division of Zoology, PO 1050 Blindern N-0316 Oslo, Norway*

⁴ *The World Bank, Washington, DC 20433*

Abstract: This article provides an overview on small ruminant-environment relations in the arid zones world-wide. We review small ruminant-environment relations under extensive, intensive and very intensive land use systems. The extensive system is common in traditional pastoral production, the intensive in commercial ranching and very intensive in crop-livestock systems. The role of small ruminants in plant community dynamics and productivity of the arid zones under these systems of production is a matter of considerable controversy. Traditionally, small ruminants have been considered to have negative effects on the environment. These views grew out of equilibrium grazing models (i.e., succession, carrying capacity) that associate stocking rates with land degradation. Alternatively, non-equilibrium grazing models (i.e., state-and-transition, rangeland health, thresholds and climate-plant-herbivore interaction) assert that unpredictable climatic events exert a greater influence on the dynamics of arid zone rangelands than do stocking rates. Here, we review extensive evidence to show that equilibrium grazing models heavily influenced grazing studies that linked small ruminants to land degradation in the arid zone. The majority of the short-term studies reviewed failed to separate the effects of climatic variability from those of grazing. By contrast, the long-term grazing studies (over 5 years) consistently revealed that fluctuating climatic conditions controlled production and vegetation cover in the arid zones (i.e., in accordance with non-equilibrium grazing models). Moreover, long-term studies documented that small ruminants promoted ecosystem stability by: 1) controlling weeds, 2) constraining bush encroachment; and 3) reducing the risk of fires. Furthermore, small ruminants contribute to ecosystem functioning by mediating the distribution of seeds and soil nutrients. Results from long-term grazing experiments on stocking rates are therefore not in agreement with the preconceived negative role of small ruminants in the arid zones. Thus, claims of land degradation by small ruminants that are based on short-term fluctuations in vegetation cover, species composition, species richness and bare soil, and bush cover that do not account for rainfall variability are of highly questionable merit. In the future, research should be undertaken with a long-term perspective, and should incorporate elements of opportunism (as in non-equilibrium grazing models), which, we suggest, will be necessary to capture the spatial and temporal variability of grazing resources in the arid zones. In addition, research in the arid zones should apply non-equilibrium models to properly interpret effects of unpredictable events, such as rainfall, on small ruminant production and their

relationship to the environment. The article discusses the implications of small ruminant-environmental research for improving research technology to meet future challenges in the arid zones world-wide.

Key words: Arid zone grazing lands, equilibrium and non-equilibrium grazing models, crop-livestock integration, grazing experiments, land degradation, small ruminant-environment relations, stocking rates.

Throughout the 20th century, selective reviews of literature have created an impression that small ruminants are responsible for land degradation in arid zone grazing lands world-wide. It is estimated that about 70% of the grazing lands are affected (Squires and Glenn, 1995). In sub-Saharan Africa, where land degradation is considered an established fact (Sinclair and Fryxell, 1985; Lamprey, 1983), current estimates put the proportion at 49% (de Haan *et al.*, 1996). Land degradation is mostly blamed on goats (Staples *et al.*, 1942; Harrington, 1981; Al Martin and Huss, 1981; Malechek and Provenza, 1983). Misperception about goats is reinforced by their ability to survive in harsh environments (Silanikove, 2000) and efficiently exploit sparse vegetation (Sikosana and Gambiza, 1994). However, a proper understanding of small ruminant-environment relations in the 21st Century requires informed knowledge.

In this article, we review extensive evidence on the role of small ruminants in arid zone environments. First, we describe research themes that have implications for small ruminant-environment relations, including evidence on landscape level nutritional distribution and forage level nutrient variations. We define small ruminant-environment relations, broadly encompassing all aspects of interactions between animals and their environment through land use. Second, we provide better

understanding on misperceptions about the negative role of small ruminants in arid zone environments. The importance of discussing perspectives on small ruminant-environment relations becomes evident when it is considered that the public understanding of the role of small ruminants in the arid zone has been based on anecdotal evidence. We consider research that offered different perspectives on small ruminant-environment relations, including those that assessed changes in environmental quality such as land degradation. We define land degradation as a decline in resource quality that ultimately affects the integrity of the environment including: loss of biodiversity, adverse changes in soil structure, loss of nutrients and increase in density of grazing undesirable plant species, but we do not include temporal changes in vegetation cover and composition due to climatic fluctuations (Oba, Gufu unpublished). We review the small ruminant-environment relations from the perspectives of interactions between climate, range and small stock, grazing control, stocking rates, biological agents, and animal performance and crop-livestock integration systems.

We categorize land use under extensive, intensive and very intensive systems. The extensive systems are associated with traditional land use by nomads and transhumance pastoralists. In recent decades, the latter system of land use has been transformed into semi-intensive

sedentary systems in most countries. The intensive system is scale dependent but usually related to commercial ranches. The very intensive systems are associated with crop-livestock production systems in semi-arid and sub-humid zones.

Small Ruminant Production System in the Arid Zone

Small ruminants are among the principal livestock species managed in the arid zone grazing lands (Morand-Fehr and Boyazoglu, 1999). Their world-wide distribution could be explained by their adaptation to arid zone environments (Knights and Garcia, 1997; Lusigi *et al.*, 1986; Devendra and McLeroy, 1982). More than 40% of the sheep and 30% of the goats of the world are found in the arid zones (Harrington, 1981), supplying about 30% of the world's mutton market (Watanabe, 1992; de Haan *et al.*, 1996). In West Asia and North Africa, small ruminants account for 30% of the total income from agricultural production compared to sub-Saharan Africa where they contribute 10 to 15% (Wilson, 1988).

They are managed under extensive systems found in arid and semi-arid rangelands. In Central and Western Asia, Southern America and the Mediterranean regions in general, transhumance between resources at different altitudes is a regular pattern of land use (Squires and Bayan, 1992; Ehlers and Kreutzmann, 2000). In the extensive systems, livestock feed is mainly derived from natural pastures (Steinfeld *et al.*, 1996; Shinde *et al.*, 1998) compared to intensive systems where feed supplements are provided. Sheep and goats in the extensive and very intensive system are managed in mixed or separate herds

on the communal grazing lands. Among the mixed herds in the traditional system, sheep:goat ratios approach 1:1.5 (Field, 1986). Herders remove, on daily basis, animals for grazing that are subsequently returned to the base camp at night (Mason, 1980; Farnworth, 1986).

By comparison, in the intensive system, management is on commercial ranches that use modern technology to improve livestock production for the global mutton and wool markets (Turner, 1991). The management system is intensively regulated by market forces. Paddocks stocked at specified animal densities are used and grazed according to fixed schedules depending on the type of grazing system (e.g., yearlong grazing, seasonal grazing, deferred grazing, deferred rotational grazing and rest-rotation grazing). Each paddock is usually supplied with water and salt licks (Heady and Child, 1994). The animals are free ranging as opposed to being herded as in the extensive system. The regions where commercial ranching is important are Australia, Southern Africa, South America and United States.

In the developing countries (e.g., sub-Saharan Africa and Southeast Asia), a greater proportion of small ruminants is managed on crop-livestock integrated systems (Steinfeld *et al.*, 1996) or very intensive systems. As opposed to the commercial ranching system, the crop-livestock system is dominated by non-market driven economies (McIntire *et al.*, 1992). Land space is limited and forage availability from natural pastures is highly constrained. Herds are small, varying from a few individuals of both sheep and goats to a few dozen animals of each species, often mixed with large ruminants and

non-ruminants. Management is linked to household food security, use of crop residues, supplemental feed and farm manure for fertilizing croplands. The very intensive production system is also linked to Agroforestry and livestock-plantation production systems (Devendra, 1991).

An Overview of Research on Small Ruminant-environment Relations

The common small ruminant studies are those that deal with animal health, herd dynamics and productivity (These are not covered in the present review). The other studies concerned with small ruminant environment relationships are aimed at simulating the perceived negative role of small ruminants in arid zone environments or promoting systems of resource use that have strong regulatory tendencies. The studies misperceived the traditional system of land use such as pastoralism to be inappropriate and that a controlled system of resource is often preferred. The studies link livestock grazing to range degradation. The majority of them recommend controlled grazing or regulated stocking rates. The views will be discussed in greater detail later in the article; suffice it to mention that livestock grazing in the arid zone, if inappropriate, will have a lasting effect on the environment (Fanning, 1994; Jodha, 1995; Singh, 1995).

The greatest inadequacy of small ruminant-environment research in the arid zone is perhaps to treat livestock impacts without considering the greater overriding influence of the climate. Thus, the interpretation of small ruminant-environment relationship, using only a narrow window of opportunity that

corresponds with seasonal variation of forage, but ignores the bigger picture of the effects of long-term climatic variability, has led to misreading of the livestock-environment relationships (Turner, 1993). Indeed, despite the misperception that small ruminants contribute to land degradation (see later sections), there are only a few studies that directly investigated the problem. The studies assumed that if small ruminants are removed from the degraded land for, say, five years (the main treatment), and the response compared with areas that are continuously grazed (control), the impact may be assessed. This is done by comparing changes in plant growth, cover, browse production, twig growth and seedling regeneration (e.g., Oba, 1992, 1998; Oba and Post, 1999). Other studies related effects of regulating stocking rates on plant species composition and range productivity, plant species richness and changes in herbaceous cover (e.g., Pour and Ejtehadi, 1997).

Landscape level-grazing interactions in the extensive grazing systems

Among the studies, those that focused on relationships between grazing and landscape change are important (e.g., Posse *et al.*, 1996; Cammeraat and Imeson, 1999). Other studies integrated landscape processes with vegetation change linked to livestock grazing. The studies showed that exclusion of grazing from landscape would disrupt spatial patterns of vegetation, which ultimately have an adverse influence on ecosystem functions such as water yields, biodiversity and community production (McNaughton, 1979; Hearn, 1995; Oba *et al.*, 2000a). The research that links small ruminants grazing to the proper functioning of ecosystems showed (e.g., in

Mediterranean ecosystems) that in the absence of grazing, plant species that are tolerant to grazing disappeared, leading to a decline in biodiversity (Bartolome *et al.*, 2000). By contrast, other studies showed that protecting the environment from grazers promoted plant biodiversity (Shaltout *et al.*, 1996). However, the latter studies often failed to provide information on the effects of grazing as opposed to grazing exclusion on biodiversity conservation.

Nutritional demands in the extensive and intensive grazing systems

Among the studies that improved knowledge of the role of small ruminants in arid zone environment are those that used mixed livestock and wildlife species in an experimental portfolio. In both intensive commercial ranches and extensive traditional grazing systems, combining goats, sheep, cattle and wild ungulates showed increased economic returns per unit of land compared to managing single species (e.g., del Pozo *et al.*, 1998). The studies that investigated the complementary role of grazing by wild ungulates such as deer and goats (e.g., Etzenhouser-Mathew *et al.*, 1998) and mixed herds of domesticated ruminants showed that the conditions of rangelands are improved.

The studies are crucial in extensive grazing systems where mixed livestock species such as camels, cattle, sheep, goats and donkeys utilized rangelands (Schwartz, 1988). Ecologists could apportion grazing resources to each species so as to determine optimal levels of grazing without degrading the range by determining dry matter intake and by considering relative animal biomass

(Lusigi *et al.*, 1986; Nolan *et al.*, 1999). The limitation of the studies was that they seldom evaluated environmental consequences of grazing interactions (the exception being in wildlife studies where resource partitioning has been well established).

However, a few others linked small ruminant grazing to habitat alteration for avifauna in which loss of canopy cover was shown to increase rates of predation (e.g., Joubert and Ryan, 1999; Priddel and Wheeler, 1999). Others investigated interactions of small ruminants and the marsupials in terms of production performance (Edwards *et al.*, 1996). However, the most informative of all the studies are those that used grazing behavior of small ruminants (the ideas borrowed from wildlife studies) to improve knowledge of their response to spatial changes in feed distribution at landscape scales (see review by Vavra and Ganskopp, 1998).

Landscapes create heterogeneity in animal feed and individual landscapes have been considered as grazing resources, thereby giving them ratings in terms of grazing values (Ash *et al.*, 1995). The grazing value ratings helped managers to decide on periods of the year when grazing is optimal (Oba *et al.*, 2000b). Shifts in feed distribution between landscape patches and within vegetation strata influenced patterns and distribution of feeding that may be related to resource quality. The studies have greater relevance to the extensive and intensive grazing systems (Orihuela and Solano, 1999). However, less common but important are the studies that evaluated grazing interactions between

sheep and goats and showed that selective use of forage by goats made more feed available to the sheep.

The studies reviewed showed that sheep and goats have different feeding strategies (Malechek and Provenza, 1983). Sheep, in contrast to goats, feed on herbaceous vegetation and browse (Devendra and McLeroy, 1982; Schwartz, 1988; Posse *et al.*, 1996). The diet composition of sheep typically comprises 26% browses and 38% herbs in the wet season, compared to 45% and 57%, respectively, for goats (Field, 1979). Goats consume a wide-range of plant species (Obeid and Mahmoud, 1971; Knipe, 1983; Al Martin and Huss, 1981; Becker and Lohrmann, 1992; Lu, 1988; Grünwaldt *et al.*, 1994; Fajemisin *et al.*, 1996; Silanikove, 2000). Most of their diet is dominated by browse from trees and shrubs (Boudet and Toutain, 1980; Lu, 1988; Oba, 1998; Oba and Post, 1999). In the Mediterranean areas of Europe, Africa and the Middle East, browse accounts for 35 to 40% of the feed of goats, while in tropical Africa it accounts for <20% (Le Houerou, 1980). Goats are capable of switching from one source of browse to another when main browse sources decline (Oba, 1998; Oba and Post, 1999). Moreover, their ability to travel long distances to find food makes them superior survivors in the arid zone compared to sheep (Mousa and El Kalifa, 1992; Knights and Garcia, 1997).

Nutritional demands in crop-livestock systems

On a broader scale, regional analyses of feed resources were linked to climatic variability and nutritional preferences by different ruminants (Coppock *et al.*,

1986a,b). By contrast, in the intensive systems, the studies were aimed at promoting feed banks as contingency against shortages during the dry season or winter months (Nsahlai *et al.*, 1998). Most of the studies dealing with nutritive evaluations were those concerned with feed resources in crop and agroforestry-livestock systems (see review by Nasahlai *et al.*, 1998). The studies were concerned with evaluation of feed acceptance and feed quality in relation to animal body performance. Animal productive performance such as changes in body weights, milk yield, wool production and in a few cases dressed mutton, were evaluated (Hamadeh *et al.*, 1996; Rommey *et al.*, 1996; Mishra *et al.*, 1997; Ahmed and Nour, 1997; Rai *et al.*, 1998; Rasool *et al.*, 1998; Reddy and Reddy, 1999; Ramirez, 1999; Omar *et al.*, 1999; Dutta *et al.*, 2000). Similarly, in agroforestry-related research, nutritional evaluation of browse resources was linked to small ruminant performance (Ormazabal, 1991; Roothaert and Paterson, 1997; Shahjalal and Topps, 2000). A few of the studies related nutritional variability, animal genetic performance and production of mohair and cashmere (e.g., McGregor, 1998). The studies did not, however, link small ruminants to environmental change in crop-livestock systems with the exception of a few on crop residue grazing systems that provided linkages between crop-rangeland production systems (cf. Hirata *et al.*, 1998).

Small Ruminants and Land Degradation

Positive environmental roles of small ruminants in the arid zone have often been ignored, while negative views dominated the media. Furthermore, we shall suggest

that land degradation analysis has been to apportion blame to pastoralists, farmers and livestock, especially goats. Misperceptions about livestock in general, and goats in particular, have adversely influenced livestock development policy in the developing countries. Such misperceptions as overgrazing in arid lands and subsequent recommendations of de-stocking were prompted by equilibrium grazing models (such as succession and carrying capacity), which postulate a strong relationship between range productivity and animal density. Due to the ceiling placed on carrying capacity of the range (i.e., total animal biomass the range is capable of supporting without showing signs of degradation), stocking rates beyond the threshold are presumed to result in degradation as greater animal numbers compete for limited grazing resources (Caughley, 1979). Inherent in the equilibrium models is predictability in the system that allows managers to exploit rangelands by adjusting animal population against the available plant biomass to avoid population crashes (Heady and Child, 1994).

The non-equilibrium grazing models (such as state-and-transition, rangeland health and thresholds, and climate-plant herbivore interactions), by contrast, suggest that conditions in arid environments, which are under a strong influence of stochastic weather, cannot be predicted. According to the non-equilibrium grazing models, climate is the main driving force in the arid zones, influencing episodic fluctuations in animal feed and constraining animal numbers below plant production; hence, animal populations are forced to track the fluctuating range production (Sandford, 1983; Ellis and Swift, 1988). The two

opposing grazing models and their ecological perspectives have been reviewed (Ellis and Swift, 1988; Westoby *et al.*, 1989; Friedel, 1991; Laycock, 1991; George *et al.*, 1992; Behnke and Scoones, 1993; NCR, 1994; Dodd, 1994; Oba *et al.*, 2000a), but suffice it to add that whereas in the past the equilibrium grazing models influenced range development thinking, the failed projects, especially in developing countries, have forced scientists and decision makers to rethink (see Behnke and Scoones, 1993; Oba *et al.*, 2000a). We reviewed evidence in support of the non-equilibrium grazing models that show that the arid zones are highly resilient. This is reflected by production fluctuations from year to year and rapid recovery on the return of above-average rainfall. The inherent resilience of the arid zones provides an improved understanding of the impact on the environment over the prevailing views that suggest equilibrium tendencies between grazers and plants.

Interaction between Climate, Range and Small Ruminants

The common characteristics of the arid zones are the great annual variability of rainfall and recurrent drought. Intra-annual rainfall variability may exceed yearly variability by a large margin. Thus, soil moisture and rainfall are the main driving factors of the ecosystems. The year-to-year rainfall fluctuations induce a high variability in plant production. Land use in response to the fluctuating plant community production is by livestock grazing, which is highly opportunistic. The arid zone maintains a high diversity of landscapes and discloses diverse vegetation communities despite the harsh climatic conditions. Understanding interactions

between climate, range and effects of grazing on the environment will be more rewarding than trying to separate out the role of small ruminants in arid zone environments (Oba *et al.*, 2000a). Interactions between climate and range production provides a clear picture of yearly variation (Lamprey, 1978; Breman and de Wit, 1983; Gutman and Seligman, 1995), and changes in plant species composition and richness (Omar, 1991; Oba *et al.*, 2000a). For the same reason, vegetation cover and production are highly dynamic (Breman and de Wit, 1983) with or without grazing (Ickowicz and Dassering, 1995; Hiernaux *et al.*, 1994; O'Connor and Roux, 1995; Allen *et al.*, 1995). In the deserts of Kuwait, Omar (1991) showed that high variation in vegetation cover and composition in protected areas was influenced by rainfall variability. Similarly, in Australia, changes in cover and density of *Atriplex* spp. grazed by cattle, sheep and kangaroos were influenced more by rainfall variability than by grazing (Eldridge *et al.*, 1990). Yet, because of the rarity of regeneration of the *Atriplex* bush, sheep grazing induced greater mortality than was evident in the absence of grazing (Crisp, 1978). In North African rangelands, sheep and goat grazing did not reduce range production alone, but the decline was mostly related to rainfall variation (Gintzburger, 1986).

Small Ruminant Grazing and Vegetation Change

The effects of grazing are most commonly investigated by comparing centres of intensive use to those of less use (Thurow and Hussein, 1989; Lamprey and Yussuf, 1981). Environmental impact is assessed in terms of changes in vegetation

cover, bare ground, litter, soil erosion, soil bulk density, and nutrient distribution (Oba, 1992; Harrison and Shackleton, 1999; Turner, 1998). Among the studies we reviewed, only a few are sufficiently long-term (i.e., >5 years) to reliably provide an understanding of the role of small ruminants in the arid zone. The following case studies illustrate the points, bearing in mind the conflicting viewpoints between the equilibrium and non-equilibrium grazing models that inherently influence interpretations of grazing studies in the arid zones. The majority of the studies are based on assumptions of equilibrium grazing models, even though responses to treatments reflect the explanations of non-equilibrium models.

For example, in the arid zone rangelands of Somalia, a 2-year rest from grazing failed to increase forage productivity compared to areas where grazing was continuous (Thurow and Hussein, 1989). After protecting pastures against grazing for 18-19 years in southern Arizona, no significant effects on range condition and trends (i.e., direction of the vegetation change) were reported (Chew, 1982). Similarly, a 20-year grazing exclusion of sheep in the Australian Mediterranean region revealed no significant effect on vegetation dynamics (Austin *et al.*, 1981), while sheep grazing control for 59 years in the salt Desert, Great Basin (USA), did not influence plant species diversity (Kitchen and Hall, 1995). Furthermore, in controlled sheep grazing experiments monitored for 17 years, greater herbaceous species richness was recorded in grazed compared to ungrazed paddocks (Thre'mont and Whalley, 1995). In the Mojave Desert (USA), no significant differences in terms of plant diversity and

species richness were observed in areas trampled by sheep relative to untrampled areas (Webb and Stielstra, 1979).

Other studies also seemed to support the non-equilibrium grazing models. For example, in Somalia, a greater number of grasses and forbs were found under moderate short duration grazing and exclosure system compared to communal grazing (Thurrow and Hussein, 1989; Fig. 1). The study concluded that grazing pressure decreased species diversity of grasses relative to forbs and sedges, which were influenced more by climatic variability than by grazing. No differences in terms of relative basal cover of grass, sedge and

forbs along grazing gradients were disclosed, while greater grass basal cover was recorded at the very heavy grazing (79%) than at medium (48%) intensities (Herlocker and Ahmed, unpublished manuscript). Sheep grazing at moderate regimes promoted grasses compared to shifts in species composition and cover that were climate-induced (Hiernaux and Fernandez-Rivera, 1995; Alzërreca-Angelo *et al.*, 1998). In a Botswana study, Skarpe (1990) found comparable total vegetation cover between moderately grazed, ungrazed and heavily grazed pastures, while no relationship was found between shrub cover and sheep grazing intensity in a Patagonian

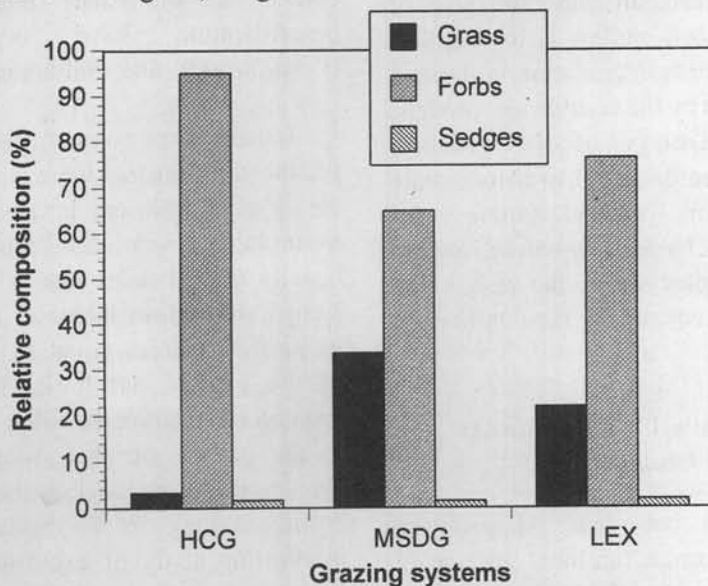


Fig. 1. Relative composition and species diversity of Heavily Communal Grazed pasture (HCG), the moderately grazed short duration pastures (MSG) and the livestock exclosure (LEX) in Somalia (Data from Thurrow and Hussein, 1989). The study showed that relative composition of grass was reduced in heavily grazed communal pastures, but the fact that the exclosure composition failed to exceed those at moderate grazing intensity might suggest that grazing might have had a beneficial role. Patterns of rainfall influenced relative composition of forbs and sedges as opposed to grasses.

study (Perelman *et al.*, 1997). In Zimbabwe, no significant difference in plant basal cover was found between paddocks stocked with cattle and goats. However, differences were observed between goat grazing at light, moderate and heavy regimes. Peak biomass production showed that the changes were more related to rainfall variability rather than to grazing control (Sikosana and Gambiza, 1994). These and other studies showed that small ruminants were not responsible for widespread loss of plant biodiversity; instead grazing at moderate levels may be contributing to the persistence of arid zone vegetation (Dalibard, 1995; Perevolotsky and Seligman, 1998; Oba *et al.*, 2000a). Indeed, an important goal of the aforementioned studies is to establish criteria under which degradation in the arid zone is predicted by the equilibrium models. Thus, the majority of the grazing experiments were designed to demonstrate the link between livestock grazing and environmental change. However, as the following examples show, the results are not always as predicted by the equilibrium grazing models.

Role of Small Ruminants in Environmental Change

Investigations of land degradation associated with small ruminant grazing in extensive systems are frequently done in and around centres of livestock concentrations (Obeid and Mahmoud, 1971; Oba, 1998; Oba and Post, 1999). The centres carry animal populations that exceed average stocking densities on the range (Lamprey and Yussuf, 1981; Perevolotsky, 1991). Vegetation cover and density declined near settlements, while they

increased with distance from the centre (Fig. 2a,b). In the vicinity of settlements and watering points, overgrazing removed the grass cover compared to the shrub cover, which might be increased (Harrington, 1981; James *et al.*, 1999). However, in southern Australia, reduction of *Atriplex* saltbush in and around water points resulted in soil erosion and expansion of degraded lands (Hunt, 1995). By comparison, in the Mediterranean areas of Europe and the Middle East, where small ruminants have grazed for over two millennia (Noy-Meir and Seligman, 1979; Menjli and Papanastasis, 1995), the cultural landscapes may have been transformed by grazing but claims that the small ruminants caused desertification have been disputed (Perevolotsky and Seligman, 1998).

Indeed, some controlled grazing studies produced results that were inconsistent with views of equilibrium grazing models. For example, a 5-year monitoring study of a heavily grazed range site in north-western Kenya showed an increase in bare ground in protected areas equal to that observed in the grazed paddock. The cover of *Indigofera cliffordiana* Gillet was sustained in the grazed site but disappeared from the ungrazed paddock (Oba, 1992; Oba *et al.*, 2000a). In the Sudan, a 14-year monitoring study of exclosures compared to open grazed areas showed decline in plant cover from 20% to 14% on average (Fig. 3). Bare areas increased in exclosure and open grazed treatments showing that changes in ground cover could not be attributed to livestock grazing alone but presumably to climatic variability (Suliman, 1988). Another feature of environmental impact observed is changes in soil quality.

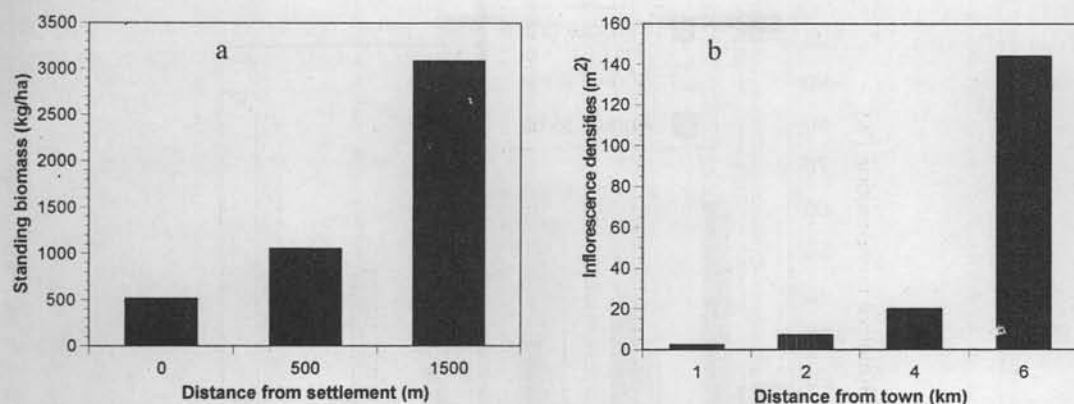


Fig. 2. (a) Above ground biomass along grazing distance from settlements showing impact of small ruminants (Data from Perevolotsky, 1991). Gradient had visible impact on vegetation cover and standing biomass from the sites of intensive use to areas of less use. This type of data has usually been used to illustrate existence of land degradation. However, such sacrifice areas as those found near water points and settlements could not be used to make generalizations about land degradation in the arid zone. (b) Inflorescence density (m^2) progressively sampled from the highly degraded centre of the town, Northern Kenya (Data from Lewis, 1977). Heavy grazing by livestock reduced plant inflorescence density in the proximity of the town, while the density increased with increasing distance.

In South Africa's communal grazing lands, significant differences between grazed and protected areas in terms of changes in soil bulk density and nutrients were not found, while differences were related to conditions within individual landscapes (Harrison and Shackleton, 1999). In other studies, goat grazing had no effects on soil bulk density, but affected the litter cover (Severson and Debano, 1991). By contrast, heavy grazing was reported to reduce soil fertility and organic matter content (Steinfeld *et al.*, 1996) and water infiltration was greater in undegraded (6.1 cm h^{-1}) compared to degraded soils (0.8 cm h^{-1}) (Rostagno, 1989).

Other roles of small ruminants on the environment were positive such as breaking soil crusts and improving soil water and seed micro-sites (Knipe, 1983; Steinfeld *et al.*, 1996), seed dispersal and nutrient distributions (Shayo and Uden, 1998; Reid and Ellis, 1995). Small ruminants may influence soil quality in other ways. In centres of intensive use such as around settlements and watering points, livestock imported nutrients from the range (Steinfeld *et al.*, 1996), but only a few studies have analyzed nutrient budgets between areas of extraction and deposition (ILCA, 1988; Turner, 1998). Jusoff (1988) showed greater concentrations of total N

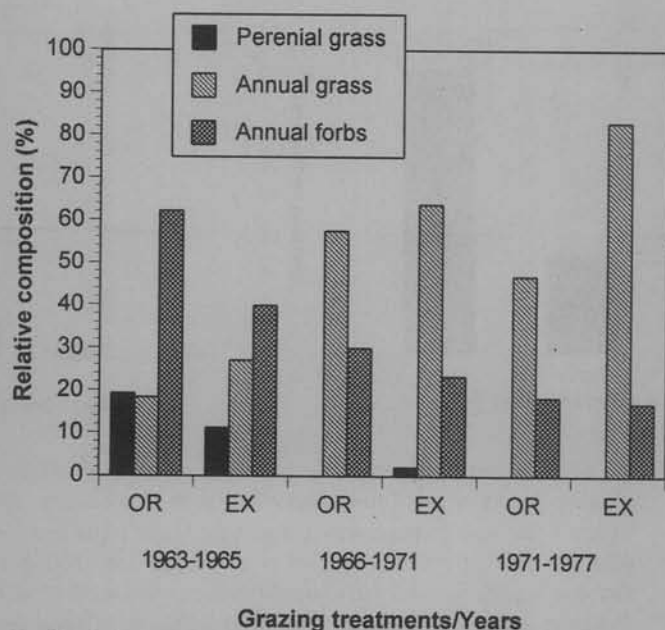


Fig. 3. Total botanical composition of protected and grazed pastures in Sudan monitored from 1963-1977 (Data from Suliman, 1988). The vegetation data clearly showed annual variability both in the open range and enclosure sites. Disappearance of grass both in enclosure and open areas in 1971-1977 showed that climatic variability was more important than grazing. Annual forbs and annual grasses were eruptive clearly related to erratic rainfall in Sudan.

and available P in grazed compared to ungrazed areas. The evidence shows that the roles of small ruminants on the environment were beneficial, even though researchers usually interpreted effects more negatively, especially at high stocking rates relative to medium or low stocking rates. These equilibrium viewpoints might have influenced range development but have not demonstrated permanent decline in range productivity in the arid zone.

Effects of Grazing Control and Stocking Rates on Vegetation

In extensive systems that functioned in accordance with non-equilibrium grazing models, stocking rates may vary from 130

animals km^{-2} (Cornelius and Schultka, 1997) to 15 animals km^{-2} (Lusigi *et al.*, 1986), while in intensive systems stocking rates were regulated according to management goals (i.e., according to equilibrium grazing models). However, in the dry lands variability in stocking rates was a feature of fluctuating rainfall. For example, in northern Kenya, greater variability in available browse during a dry compared to a wet year caused fluctuations in stocking rates due to fluctuating forage production (Fig. 4a) (Lusigi *et al.*, 1986). Small ruminant stockings at a density of 25 Tropical Livestock Unit km^{-2} (1TLU = 250 kg bovine which is equivalent to 11 goats or 12 sheep) did not show clear relationships

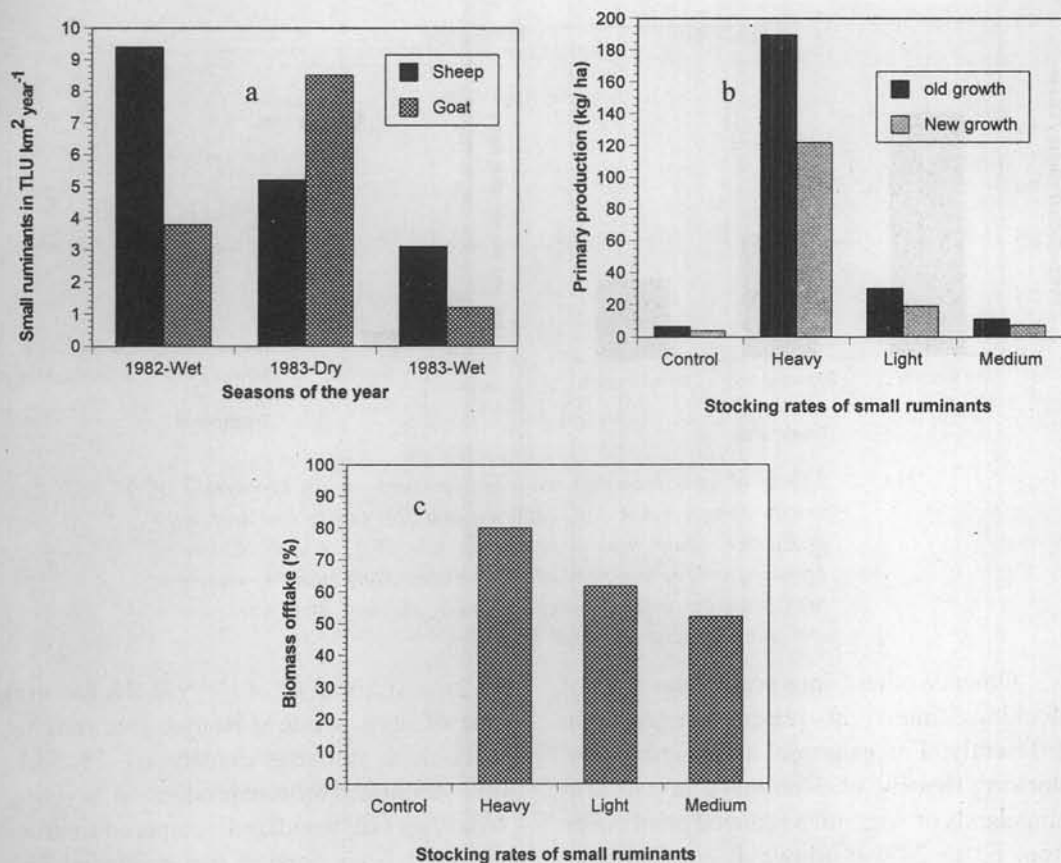


Fig. 4. (a) Small ruminants stocking variations on communal rangelands in northern Kenya showing that stocking rates were in response to fluctuating range production. In controlled grazing effects of small ruminant stocking rates on (b) primary productivity and (c) biomass offtake in arid range sites in Northern Kenya (Data from Lamprey and Yussuf, 1981). The greater offtake at the heavy stocking rate may have reflected greater availability of the forage. Lower production at the light and control sites was a reflection of landscape variation than grazing. Thus, studies of this nature might falsify the results if the conclusions are that the heavy stocking demonstrated desertification.

with standing vegetation (Fig. 4b). The study used biomass offtake (Fig. 4c) measured before and after grazing as evidence of desertification (Lamprey and Yussuf, 1981). The results regarding the contribution of stocking rates to desertification were,

however, inconclusive. Rather, greater primary productivity was found at high stocking density in that study, implying that greater biomass offtake was due to greater availability before treatments as opposed to being the product of treatments.

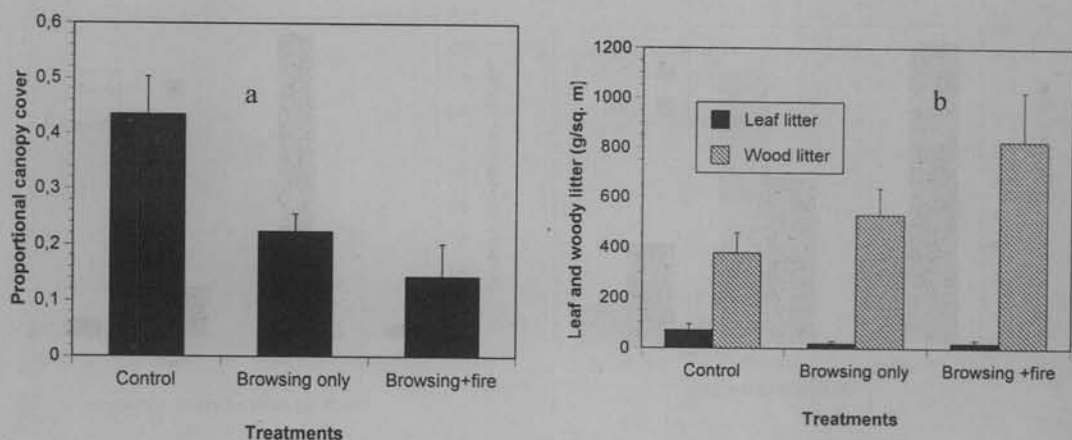


Fig. 5. Effects of goat browsing and fire treatment on (a) proportion of woody canopy cover (M^2) affected and (b) woody and leaf litter production (Data from Scogings *et al.*, 1995). A combination of browsing and fire was more effective in controlling bush encroachment than browsing alone. However, woody and leaf litter were not in any way reduced by goat browsing.

Other workers interpreted the role of stocking rates in range degradation differently. For example, a four-year goat stocking density of 3 animals ha^{-1} in arid rangelands of Argentina reduced plant cover from 62 to 24% (Grünwaldt *et al.*, 1994), while in California stocking rates of 600 Spanish goats ha^{-1} in a single day reduced vegetation cover by 48%, fuel by 33% and litter by 27% (Tsiouvaras *et al.*, 1989). Similarly, grazing small ruminants at stocking levels of 47 animals ha^{-1} led to drastic decline in herbage production (Ndamukong *et al.*, 1994). Yet, none of the studies showed that the changes were permanent. On the contrary, in cattle grazing experiments mixed with goats, Staples *et al.* (1942) did not observe adverse effects on vegetation that could be attributed to goat browsing. Further, in grazing experiments comparing effects of different stocking rates, no clear trends in canopy cover of *Acacia berlandieri* Benth was

reported (Ekblad *et al.*, 1993). In the arid zone of north-western Kenya, free ranging goats at a stocking density of 13 TLU km^{-2} stimulated browse production in young *Acacia tortilis* woodland compared to areas protected from grazing that produced less browse over a period of 5 years (Oba, 1998; Oba and Post, 1999). Goat-stocking rates were not related to mortality of *Eremophila forrestii*, which is unpalatable, whereas mortality of the palatable *E. mairlandii* was greater in grazed treatments. However, shrub mortality was influenced more by rainfall variability than goat herbivory (Watson *et al.*, 1997). Furthermore, goat-stocking rates had no significant effects on perennial herbs (Michalk *et al.*, 1976), relative to year-to-year variations in composition, which was controlled by rainfall (Hiernaux and Fernandez-Rivera, 1995). Nevertheless, the effects of small ruminants on vegetation may be directly related to above-and-below

ground biomass dynamics (Michalk *et al.*, 1976; Dagar, 1987). Another interpretation of the effects of stocking rates was in terms of tree, shrub and grass regeneration. The studies produced varied results from none to negative effects.

Effects of stocking rates on plant regeneration

Small ruminants reduced understorey herbaceous vegetation cover, but they did not influence the regeneration and mortality of eucalypt plantations (Couto *et al.*, 1994). Moreover, removing grazing from *Atriplex* shrub pastures did not influence shrub population dynamics, recruitment and mortality, suggesting that a shrub population under grazing or in the absence of grazing was highly dynamic (Eldridge *et al.*, 1990). In Patagonia, sheep grazing did not influence survival of mature shrubs, while seedling mortality resulted from environmental desiccation (Fernández *et al.*, 1992). In comparison to these studies, some workers have reported reduced plant basal areas in grasses (e.g., Orr and Phelps, 1995) as well as lowered regeneration rates in chenopod shrub lands that were heavily grazed by goats (e.g., Tiver and Andrew, 1997), while browsing by feral goats hindered tree regeneration compared to protected management (Scowcroft and Hobdy, 1987). In arid Karoo, sheep grazing reduced shrub canopy cover, but had no influence on survival (Milton, 1994). By comparison, grazing by sheep and goats promoted tillering in grass (Hiernaux *et al.*, 1994) relative to those of cattle grazing that produced less tillers (O'reagain and Grau, 1995).

Small Ruminants as Biological Control Agents of Noxious Weed

Grazing by small ruminants is often used as part of a wider biological control programs aimed at removing undesirable plant species from the range (Kirby *et al.*, 1997; Lym, 1998; Lunginbuhl *et al.*, 1999; Gardner *et al.*, 1999). Control of noxious weeds is usually done in intensive systems linked to commercial ranches. The treatments combined grazing with clearing or, grazing in mixed herds of small ruminants and cattle. In the extensive systems, pastoralists combined fire and grazing to control noxious weeds. The strategy uses small ruminants' dietary preferences (O'reagain and Grau, 1995; Fajemisin *et al.*, 1996) but the studies we review produced varied results. For example, eradication of leafy spurge (*Euphorbia esula* L.), a common noxious weed in North American rangelands, is usually achieved by sheep and goat grazing (Olson *et al.*, 1997; Kronberg and Walker, 1999). However, because the sheep eat seeds of leaf spurge they are responsible for dispersing them and, consequently spreading the weeds (Olson *et al.*, 1997). Thus, the effectiveness of sheep control of leafy spurge might be increased if the grazing was done before plants produced seeds (Popay and Field, 1996). In comparison, goats were effectively used in weed control (Walker *et al.*, 1995). In the Karoo, sheep grazing reduced seed production of the shrub *Pteronia emetifolia* relative to the noxious *P. pallens*, which was unaffected (Milton, 1995). In weed grazing, therefore, the critical factor concerns decisions to adjust grazing periods to correspond with time of phenology that

could be used to effectively control the noxious plant species (Popay and Field, 1996).

Control of bush-encroachment

Bush cover poses a serious threat to grazing lands in the tropics (Oba *et al.*, 2000b). Generally, goat browsing is more effective in bush control than is sheep grazing (Holmgren and Hutchins, 1972; Knipe, 1983; Riggs *et al.*, 1988; Casey and Van Niekerk, 1988; El Aich and Waterhouse, 1999). However, the treatments are more effective when mixed herds of sheep, cattle and goats are used, rather than any of them alone (Papachristou, 1997; del Pozo *et al.*, 1998). In Californian shrub lands, Tsouvaras *et al.* (1989) reported that heavy goat grazing reduced fire hazard and promoted current shrub growth, thereby increasing browse productivity on wildlife range (Riggs and Urness, 1989).

Goats break shrub canopy and promote vegetation patchiness, which increases herbaceous vegetation in their diets (Papachristou and Nastis, 1993). The scheme has been widely used in Mediterranean *Quercus coccifera* bush lands where fire is a recurrent problem (Papanastasis and Liacos, 1980; Papatheodorou *et al.*, 1993). In the semi-arid savannah of South Africa, a 12-year period of grazing by goats combined with or without fire modified the structure of bushes and grass fuels (Scogings *et al.*, 1995). The combination of goat and fire treatments showed significantly greater responses unapparent in treatments of either of them alone. By comparison, goat grazing did not alter wood and leaf litter (Figs. 5a,b).

Goats have, however, been shown to degrade some plant communities that resource managers wished to conserve. For example, in the Addo Elephant National Park in South Africa where the endemic succulent *Portulacaria afra* is protected, goat browsing adversely affected the shrub cover (Stuart-Hill, 1992; Moolman and Cowling, 1994). In Kiboko, Kenya by contrast, herbaceous cover, but not woody cover, was reduced at heavy goat browsing intensity (Stuth and Kamau, 1990). Overall, the studies on bush control showed that goat browsing promoted ecosystem stability in arid zone landscapes through seed dispersal (Perevolotsky, 1991; Schutka and Cornelius, 1997), increased environmental heterogeneity (El Aich and Waterhouse, 1999) and reduced fire hazards (Knipe, 1983; Hulme *et al.*, 1999). The studies were concerned less with improving animal performance, but more on understanding the impacts of small ruminants on the environment.

Conversely, it is usual to expect (i.e., according to the equilibrium grazing models) that animal performance and stocking rates are interrelated (Galina and Russel, 1994; Sikosana and Gambiza, 1994; Grünwaldt *et al.*, 1994; de Pozo *et al.*, 1998). Destocking is advocated to manage "quality" animals due to the perceived links between range stocking rates and animal performance. However, as the following examples show, empirical evidence is lacking to support such views. It is, therefore, important to realize that animal performance is the sum of environment and management as opposed to stocking rates alone.

Assessment of Animal Performance in Response to Stocking Rates

Some of the studies we reviewed reported greater goat weight losses at heavy stocking rates than at medium and/or low stocking rates (Sikosana and Gambiza, 1994; Grünwaldt *et al.*, 1994). By contrast, dwarf ewes (Ndamukong *et al.*, 1994) and goats grazed at light or heavy stocking rates showed no significant differences in weights (Riggs *et al.*, 1988), even though pasture contamination by helminth increased with stocking rates (Ndamukong *et al.*, 1994). Moreover, weanling production by goats was greater at moderate stocking densities than at heavy stocking rates in goat-cattle mixed production systems (Sikosana and Gambiza, 1994). However, dry-matter intake and the amount of water consumed by yankasa sheep (Aganga *et al.*, 1988) and sheep and goats fed on *Atriplex halimus* L. showed no significant differences under different stocking rates (Valderra'bano *et al.*, 1996). Other workers showed that increased stocking rates were followed by increased dry-matter consumption from unpalatable forage species (e.g., Malechek and Provenza, 1983). The correlative relationship between animal performance and stocking rates have greater relevance to crop-livestock production systems in semi-arid and sub-humid zones than in grazing of natural pastures in the arid zones. These will be briefly highlighted in the following sections.

Crop-livestock Systems in the Semi-arid Zones

On-farm research rarely focused on environmental impacts while nutritional

improvements in animal feed and nutrient transfers linked to crop-livestock production were emphasized (Devendra, 1991; Peters, 1999). In the developing countries, a greater proportion of small ruminants are produced in crop-livestock mixed systems (Tiedeman *et al.*, 1998). These are of two types; first, the agro-pastoralists allowed livestock on their land for part of the year to use livestock manure to fertilize cropland while the livestock used crop residues (Means, 1997). Second, farmers maintained small herds of sheep and goats as a source of meat and milk and to transfer nutrients on garden plots (Otchere *et al.*, 1987; McIntire *et al.*, 1992). In the crop-livestock systems, because of the direct relation between management of crop residues and transfer of animal manure, changing one system affected the other (Bayer *et al.*, 1999). Thus, the greatest source of environmental impact is when exhaustion of crop residues leads to nutrient depletions (Ehui *et al.*, 1998).

Furthermore, in semi-arid zones, management of small ruminants is linked to agroforestry, both in mixed fodder-livestock systems (Jabbar *et al.*, 1996) and livestock-plantation management systems (Hussain *et al.*, 1983; Devendra, 1991). Small ruminants utilized the under-canopy vegetation in tree plantations without adversely affecting tree fruit production (Peters and Deichert, 1984). The effects are beneficial to the plantations because of increased soil fertility and weed control (Devendra, 1991; Sa'nchez, 1995). However, in the semi-arid zone, where cropping has taken over the key resources from grazing, conflicts between the two systems have adversely influenced animal performances during drought years. Thus,

intensification of resource use may require balancing livestock needs on the one hand and introducing technologies to protect the environment on the other hand (Peters, 1999). We might add that under conditions of altered land use the management features in the very intensive crop-livestock systems reflect those described by equilibrium grazing models. However, because of the paucity of data on small ruminant-environment interactions in crop-livestock systems, it remains to be seen if the role of small ruminants in cropping systems is viewed in negative perspectives similar to those in the extensive systems.

Implications for Technology Transfer

In this article, we have reviewed wide-ranging studies that have implications for small ruminant-environment relations. Despite the myths about their negative role in the arid zone, scientific evidence to support the notion that small ruminants degrade grazing lands is lacking. What is needed is to properly understand that small ruminants' grazing is only part of a larger land use system in the arid zones world-wide (Bayer *et al.*, 1999). But under changing land use systems induced by population pressures, impact on the arid zones will be greater in the future. The changes would demand that researchers become more imaginative to tackle environmental issues. Research on small ruminant-environment relations in the future should, therefore, be focused on the central role of livestock-range production, bearing in mind the global climate change scenarios. For example, what is the contribution of grazing land to carbon sinks (i.e., carbon sequestration) as mitigation to global warming? What will

be the effects of livestock grazing on carbon sequestration? If overgrazing as perceived contributes to land degradation, then how would it affect the capacity of grazing lands to sequester carbon? Or what would be the effects of intensifying livestock production on increased emissions of methane and other green house gases? In northern environments, for example, it is estimated that the contribution of large herbivores to carbon sequestration, acting through nitrogen fertilization of grazed and browsed habitats, far exceeds the annual response of vegetation to rising CO₂ and temperatures (Post *et al.*, unpublished). These are issues that future research needs to investigate by using appropriate models in the arid zones world-wide.

Moreover, the shifts from research preoccupied with the "overgrazing syndrome" (i.e., the view that herbivore grazing leads to deterioration of the range) to that of understanding sustainable land use systems and taking into consideration the dynamic nature of the arid zones is needed. However, research on small ruminant-environment relations in the arid zones should be aware that common approaches would not necessarily be appropriate for all the arid zones. Rather, the arid zones being highly diverse and local conditions being more important than global, research on small ruminant-environment relations needs to work towards diversity of ideas. The type of research will vary according to the system of grazing and priorities of the countries concerned (Fitzhugh, 1998). Research should be more applied and adaptive by evolving new ideas to confront the challenging environmental and production problems in the future (Gibson *et al.*, 1995).

Indeed, traditional field-based range science techniques are inadequate to capture the production dynamics over huge areas while the development of remote sensing and the use of Geographical Information System (GIS) has made it possible to link the ground-based to the remotely sensed monitoring. The techniques are sufficiently sensitive to allow monitoring of small ruminant-environment relations over extensive areas of the range. Time series data on vegetation greenness index (NDVI) are currently available for all the arid zones of the globe. The data can be downloaded and analysed to understand changes in range productivity in long-term perspectives (Tueller, 1995).

More importantly, future technology transfer needs to be aware of the indigenous knowledge of the resource users, especially the pastoralists. Furthermore, research should recognize the human environmental complex, which exists in the arid zones, and concentrate on how to accommodate inevitable changes in environment and society (e.g., loss of territory, population increase, climate change, change in societies socio-political structure, globalization, etc.) without being disruptive to long-standing fabrics of the traditional pastoral production systems. Research should, therefore, look at the environmental perceptions of pastoral societies and their outlook towards the landscape as key resources. In this regard, we shall suggest that research in the future establishes local perceptions of the optimal conditions of landscapes and try to define resource value in these terms. For example, stocking levels of the range in the arid zones must take these perceptions into account, as the landscape is not dominated by a single vegetation type.

Another important factor that future research should take cognizance of is that the small ruminants are a part of complex livestock management system that includes large ruminants such as cattle and camels. However, their specific role within the complex system should be appreciated both in terms of landscape use, culture and survival. Small ruminant is contributing to more than just the normal survival and become the main exchangeable commercial product of the arid zones. These evolving roles of the small ruminants are also influencing the producers' perceptions of environment and how to manage it best. Moreover, technology transfer should look at the inevitable need for intensification of land use due to reduction in land resources and population growth. Appropriate technologies must exist but the producers need to be given a chance to reflect on these technologies in terms of their needs and perceptions. This means that appropriate technologies should be developed "with" them, rather than "for" them.

Conclusions

In this article we have reviewed wide-ranging research themes directly or indirectly related to the role of small ruminants in the arid zones world-wide. Small ruminants were preferred in grazing experiments, even though their role in environmental degradation has been exaggerated. The equilibrium grazing models that greatly influenced range science during the previous century prompted the controversy about the role of small ruminants in arid zone environments. The theories have been influential in attracting research funding and subsequently affecting

policy in range development, especially in the developing countries.

The equilibrium as opposed to the non-equilibrium grazing models failed to acknowledge the fact that rainfall variability controlled events in the arid zones and influenced range production more than livestock populations. Another failure was that of relying on short-term findings to generalize conditions in the arid rangelands. The short-term studies failed to capture cycles of wet and dry years that characterize the arid zones. Indeed, research done during years of exceptional rainfall might show one pattern while that done during a dry year shows another. Since scientists relied on glimpses of climatic cycles, which are unpredictable, the conclusions from such studies were incomplete and any reliance on single event may mislead development. The studies reviewed in this article were in support of the non-equilibrium grazing models. The studies showed that stocking rates did not by themselves influence range production; plant cover, diversity and animal performance, rather interactions with rainfall had greater influence in majority of the cases. The equilibrium grazing models on the other hand advocated rigid systems where controlling stocking rates was the guiding principles, but they resulted in project failures. In the future, research in arid zones needs to apply non-equilibrium grazing models that incorporate elements of opportunism and climatic variability in grazing experiments and test hypotheses that might improve understanding of the role of small ruminants in the arid zone world-wide.

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