



1 **Changing year-round habitat use of extensively grazing cattle, sheep and pigs in East-**
2 **Central Europe between 1940-2014: Consequences for conservation and policy**

3 Varga, A.^{1*}, Molnár, Zs.¹, Biró, M.¹, Demeter, L.², Gellény, K.³, Miókovics, E.⁴, Molnár, Á.⁵, Molnár, K.⁴,
4 Ujházy, N.⁶, Ulicsni, V.³, Babai, D.⁷

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6 ¹ MTA Centre for Ecological Research, H-2163 Vácrátót Alkotmány u. 2–4, Hungary

7 ² University of Pécs, Institute of Biology, H-7625, Pécs Ifjúság útja 6, Hungary

8 ³ Department of Ecology, Faculty of Science and Informatics of the University of Szeged, H-6726 Szeged,
9 Közép fasor 52, Hungary

10 ⁴ Department of Plant Science and Biotechnology, Georgikon Faculty of the Pannon University, H-8360
11 Keszthely, Festetics u. 7, Hungary

12 ⁵ Faculties of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences of the Szent István University, H-2100 Gödöllő Páter K.
13 u. 1, Hungary

14 ⁶ Department of Environmental and Landscape Geography, Faculty of Science, ELTE, H-1117 Budapest,
15 Pázmány Péter sétány 1/C, Hungary

16 ⁷ MTA Research Centre for the Humanities, Institute of Ethnology, H-1014 Budapest Országház u. 30, Hungary

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18 * Corresponding author: MTA Centre for Ecological Research, H-2163 Vácrátót Alkotmány u. 2–4,
19 Hungary, varga.anna@gmail.com, +36-30-3392-399

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22

23 **Highlights**

- 24 • extensive grazing by cattle, sheep and pigs has decreased since the 1940s
- 25 • the number of habitat types used by cattle and pigs decreased significantly
- 26 • use of non-pasture grassland habitats decreased, especially the use of stubbles
- 27 • agricultural and conservation policies should cover all grazeable habitat types
- 28 • **sustainable extensive grazing need cooperation between various knowledge systems**

29 • **Abstract**

30 Many habitats in Europe have been managed by grazing for thousands of years. However,
31 extensive grazing systems are becoming increasingly rare in the region, and there is a lack of
32 understanding of the functioning of these systems.

33 We carried out 147 structured interviews in 38 landscapes throughout the Carpathian Basin, with 3-
34 5 informants/landscape. The number of actively grazing cattle, sheep and pigs, their year-round habitat
35 use and the proportion of herds actively tended were documented for four characteristic historical
36 periods (before, during and after socialist co-operatives and after EU Accession).

37 The numbers of grazing cattle and sheep had decreased substantially by 2010 (by 71% and 49%,
38 respectively), while pig grazing almost disappeared by the 1970s. Cattle primarily grazed habitats with
39 taller vegetation. Sheep grazed dry pastures and stubbles, while pigs were driven into marshes and
40 forests. In general, the importance of dry and wet grasslands increased, while the significance of
41 marshes, stubble fields, vegetation along linear elements, second growth on hay meadows, wood-
42 pastures and forests decreased over time. Approximately half of the grazed habitats were not typical
43 pasture grasslands, and functioned as supplementary pastures during droughts, autumn and winter. The
44 number of habitat types grazed per month per site dropped, and herding decreased substantially, in
45 particular in the case of cattle and pigs.

46 Contributing factors of the economic and social changes of the examined period included the
47 collapse of the communist-era legal framework, the intensification of livestock husbandry, EU
48 Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) regulations, and the rise of a nature conservation ethic.

49 We conclude that agricultural policies should take into account the full spectrum of habitat types
50 necessary for the effective operation of extensive grazing systems. We argue that conservation-
51 oriented extensive grazing should use the traditional wisdom of herders but adapted to the present
52 situations.

53

54 **1. Introduction**

55 Extensive grazing systems (also called large-scale grazing, Plachter and Hampicke, 2010) are
56 predominantly based on natural and semi-natural habitat types and non-intensively managed livestock

57 breeds, kept usually at relatively low stocking densities. The system is often fine-tuned to local
58 environmental and socio-economic conditions (Meuret and Provenza, 2014; Molnár, 2014; Reid et al.,
59 2008). Extensive grazing systems have played and still play an important role in maintaining
60 biological, and also cultural, diversity (Halada, 2011; Oppermann, 2014; Plachter and Hampicke,
61 2010; Rodríguez-Ortega et al., 2014; Vera, 2000). Additionally, extensive grazing systems are
62 important tools for resilient and sustainable agroecosystem management, and for ensuring food
63 security. **In addition, they contribute to the maintenance of several ecosystem services of biodiversity**
64 **such as biomass production, control of pests and disease, and pollination** (Baumgärtner, 2007; Bruun
65 and Fritzboøger, 2002; Frison et al., 2011; Heikkinen et al., 2012; Poschlod et al., 2002; Rodríguez-
66 Ortega et al., 2014). Extensive grazing is often beneficial for conservation purposes as well (Báldi et
67 al., 2013; Plachter and Hampicke, 2010; Török et al., 2014; WallisDeVries et al., 2004). A high
68 number of high nature-value habitats require extensive or transhumant grazing management in Europe
69 (Bunce et al. 2004, Halada et al., 2011; Hartel et al., 2013; Poschlod and WallisDeVries, 2002;
70 Uytvanck and Verheyen, 2014; Vera, 2000).

71 In connection with the resilient maintenance of extensive land-use systems, several authors
72 emphasize the importance of landscape scale and historical time scale (Agnoletti, 2014; Fischer et al.,
73 2012; Loos et al. 2015; Plachter and Hampicke, 2010; Vera, 2000), as well as of traditional ecological
74 knowledge (Agnoletti, 2014; Berkes et al., 2000; Cevalco et al., 2015; Molnár et al., 2008; Plieninger
75 and Bieling, 2013).

76 Extensive grazing in Europe is decreasing in many places; the associated traditional ecological
77 knowledge also is disappearing (Hernández-Morcillo et al., 2014; Oteros-Rozas et al., 2013; Varga
78 and Molnár, 2014). The main role of traditional ecological knowledge in the case of extensive grazing
79 is to optimise extensive exploitation of the biomass produced in the landscape. This is a kind of
80 workmanship in landscape ecology (cf. Johnson and Hunn, 2010). It comprises knowledge of which
81 biomass in the landscape is best for grazing, where, when, how and by which livestock (Molnár, 2012;
82 Molnár et al., 2015; Vera et al., 2007). In landscapes where biomass production has a high inter- and
83 intra-annual variability, e.g. steppe and alpine areas, extensive grazing systems must adapt to these
84 heterogeneities (Gugić, 2009; Meuret and Provenza, 2014; Molnár, 2012; Plieninger et al., 2015).

85 Beside typical pasture grassland habitat types (dry and wet grasslands, wood-pastures) a number of
86 different other habitat types (such as stubble fields, second growth hay, marshlands, forests, and
87 vegetation along linear elements) were and are still also taken advantage of (Barrantes et al., 2009;
88 Vera, 2000).

89 Much agricultural, ecological and conservation biological work has focused on the role of grazing
90 on dedicated pasture grasslands, but less research is available on grazing other habitats (e.g., marshes,
91 forests, and stubbles) (but see e.g. Andresen et al., 1990; Middleton et al., 2006; Plachter and
92 Hampicke, 2010; Poschlod et al., 2002; Roturier and Roué, 2009; Vera, 2000). Very little is known
93 about the role of reserve pastures (e.g. grazing on arable lands) in extensive grazing systems based
94 predominantly on (semi-)natural habitats (but see, e.g., Barrantes et al., 2009; Molnár et al., 2015;
95 Toro-Mujica et al., 2015; Vera et al., 2007). Current European agricultural policy also exacerbates this
96 divide by separating subsidies to grasslands, forests and croplands (Olmeda et al., 2014).

97 The continuously present herder managed herd behaviour and daily grazing circuits, often ensuring
98 grazing optimised to the forage offered by the landscape (Meuret and Provenza, 2014; Molnár, 2014;
99 Oteros-Rozas et al., 2013). However, as a result of the socio-economic changes of the past decades,
100 the number of knowledgeable herders declined, throughout Europe and in the post-Soviet countries
101 alike (Varga and Molnár, 2014). Though pastoral grazing declined, it is still a living practice in many
102 marginal regions (Molnár, 2014; Roturier and Roué, 2009; Oteros-Rozas et al., 2013).

103 In most European countries a rich historical and ethnographic literature is available on extensive
104 grazing systems (see e.g. Bellon, 1996; Gunda, 1940; Jacobeit, 1961; Wealleans, 2013). These,
105 however, rarely document landscape ecological and habitat aspects of extensive grazing systems (but
106 see in Hungary, e.g., Andrásfalvy, 2007; Gunda, 1968; Tálasi, 1936). Missing landscape ecological
107 research is sometimes impeded by the explicit partial or total prohibition of grazing on certain habitats
108 by some national or European Community rules and legislation (for instance the forest law,
109 occasionally EU CAP; Barrantes et al., 2008; Haraszthy, 2014; Varga and Molnár, 2014).

110 The main objective of this article is to document landscape ecological features of extensive grazing
111 and their respective changes over the past few decades in the post-communist countries of the
112 Carpathian Basin. The actual research questions were raised as follows:

113 1. How many total head of cattle, sheep or pigs were and are grazed extensively in the areas of the
114 communities under investigation?

115 2. In which month on which habitat types do the livestock grazed/graze throughout the year and
116 how has the importance and number of habitat types grazed varied over the past 60-70 years?

117 3. How has the use of non-typical pasture habitat types (e.g. stubbles, marshes, forests) varied
118 across the year and over the past 60-70 years?

119 4. How was and is grazing accomplished (via herding or fencing)?

120 Research was carried out at 38 locations across the Carpathian Basin, studying four historical
121 periods between 1940 and 2014.

122

123 2. Study area and methods

124 2.1. Study area

125 Changes in the grazing system were studied in 38 landscapes of the Carpathian Basin in Central
126 Europe. Research was conducted in six post-communist countries, predominantly in Hungary, and in
127 Croatia, Serbia, Romania, Ukraine and Slovakia (Fig. 1, for name, total area of municipalities and the
128 cover and change of grasslands see Appendix 1).

129

130

131 Fig.1 Map of the 38 study sites (black dots on the map) in the Carpathian Basin, Central Europe. **Map source:**
132 **ASTER-DEM, USGS, 2009**

133

134 The climate of the study areas is typically continental with Atlantic, sub-Mediterranean and, to a
135 lesser extent, alpine influences. Annual average temperature varies around 11 °C; annual average
136 precipitation ranges up to 500-1200 mm (Condé et al., 2002). Study sites were selected to represent
137 the most typical vegetation zones and thus grazing systems in the Carpathian Basin (the zone of *Picea*
138 *abies* forests in the higher mountains (800-1200 m.a.s.l.), *Fagus sylvatica* and *Quercus petraea*, *Q*,

139 *ceris* forest regions in the mountain and hill ranges (200-800 m.a.s.l.), and loess, sand and salty forest
140 steppe landscapes in the lowlands (50-200 m.a.s.l.)).

141 Over the past several centuries, small-scale peasant and allodial land-use systems typically shaped
142 wildlife and landscape in the Carpathian Basin. Extensive livestock management played a primary role
143 in transforming the vegetation, for instance by creating wood-pastures and pastures in the place of
144 former forests, changing the species composition of primary steppes, and developing hay meadows
145 (Andrásfalvy, 2007; Babai and Molnár, 2014; Bellon, 1996; Varga et al., 2015).

146 Social and economic changes in the 20th century (for instance, socialist transformation of
147 agriculture, post-communist transformations after 1989, and then the accession to the EU) brought
148 about significant changes in the rules of grazing, number of grazing livestock and breed composition
149 (Beaufoy and Marsden, 2010; Bodó 2001). Correspondingly, the number of jobs in agriculture
150 diminished gradually, and barely reaches 4.9% in Hungary at present (Hungarian Central Statistical
151 Office, 2014).

152

153 **2.2. Materials and methods**

154 We studied the most common livestock species: cattle, sheep and pig. We included pigs in the study
155 because this species grazed on special habitats and in a distinct way. Correspondingly, a large quantity
156 of historical data is available about extensive porcine grazing (e.g. Szabadfalvy, 1991). Also,
157 documentation of now-vanished pig pasturing practices was seen as important for conservation
158 management (cf. Beinlich & Poschlod, 2002). Since horses and water buffalos were mainly used as
159 draught animals and, as a consequence, grazed on pastures only occasionally, therefore these species
160 were not studied. Grazing of goats, geese or ducks affected a relatively small area only (cf.
161 Andrásfalvy, 2007).

162 Breeds of cattle and pigs changed significantly during the study period. The percentage dominance
163 of Hungarian Simmental cattle ranged up to 83% in 1942, but now stands at only 14% (Holló and
164 Szabó, 2011). Its importance was overtaken by the Holstein-Friesian from 1972 onwards, and in the
165 last few decades in growing number by beef cattle breeds (such as Charolais, Aberdeen Angus,
166 Limousine and Hereford) (OECD-FAO, 2012). White intensive pig breeds replaced the traditional

167 Mangalitzza breed during the years between the 1960s and the 1970s, and as a consequence, pasturing
168 of pigs was abandoned (Bodó, 2001). Among sheep, Merino types are predominant throughout the
169 study period (Racka, and Tsigai were significant up until the 1930s). The meat production (total of
170 cattle, pigs and sheep in Hungary) was 1249, 460 and 697 thousand tons in 1971, 2000 and 2010,
171 respectively. Production of milk was 4.2, 1.7, 2.1, 1.6 million liters in 1935, 1971, 2000, and 2010,
172 respectively.

173 Four historical periods with typical social-economic conditions affecting the post-communist
174 countries in the Carpathian Basin as a whole – irrespective of country – were studied (Table 1).

175

176 Table 1. The periods investigated and their major features

177

178 For each site, structured indoor interviews were made with 3 to 5 respondents (147 in total, 112
179 men and 35 women; mean age of interviewees: 70.1; the youngest were 29, the oldest 96 years old; the
180 proportion of non-academic informants is 89 %). Interviews were conducted in Hungarian and
181 recorded digitally or notes were taken.

182 The first questions of the interviews concerned the number of livestock on pastures in the case of
183 the three species studied. Our questions were (3x4 questions per interview): „*How many head of*
184 *cattle/sheep/pigs were present on the pasture before/during/after the cooperatives / in the last 10*
185 *years?*” Estimates from respondents were necessary because the figures of the Central Statistical
186 Office provide only a total number of livestock for each settlement and data are not adequate to
187 determine the actual number of grazing livestock. The two figures are close to each other only in the
188 case of sheep. The change in the number of livestock was compared using Kruskal-Wallis H test, in
189 the PAST 3.08 programme package (Hammer et al., 2001).

190 In the second part of the interviews questions on grazed habitats were posed for the three species
191 and four periods, respectively. The aim was to document the number of habitat types grazed. The
192 respective questions were as follows (3x12x4 questions / interview): „*Where did cattle/sheep/pigs*
193 *stay/graze in January/February... etc. before/during/after the cooperatives / in the last 10 years?*” To
194 make data collection uniform, 14 broad but clearly identifiable habitat categories were determined, and

195 data collectors (11 authors of this paper and 7 additional researchers; see Acknowledgements) encoded
196 primary interview data into those categories. Investigated habitat types included the following: 1. dry
197 and mesophilous grasslands including loess, saline, rocky and sandy grasslands, mostly steppe
198 grasslands dominated by *Festuca* spp.; 2. wet grasslands (such as marsh and fen meadows
199 characterised by *Alopecurion* and *Molinion* spp.); 3. wood-pastures and shrublands (with scattered
200 deciduous and coniferous trees and bushes); 4. vegetation along linear features (grasslands and shrub
201 along roads, ditches, small streams etc.); 5. hay meadows (i.e. when the second growth on these
202 meadows was grazed seasonally); 6. marshes, fens (with *Phragmites australis*, *Phalaris arundinacea*,
203 tall sedges etc.); 7. forests and forest edges (deciduous and coniferous); 8. stubble fields (e.g. wheat,
204 barley, corn, sugar beet stubbles); 9. fallows (temporarily abandoned fields); 10. cropland (e.g.
205 cereals); 11. yards; 12. stables. Due to the very low number of cases, habitats No. 9, 10 and 11 were
206 omitted from the analysis.

207 The questions of part three of the interviews concerned herding practices: “*Was/is there any*
208 *herder with the grazing livestock?*”, and “*Is/was livestock kept in permanent fencing or in portable*
209 *electric fencing?*” “*Which was/is more typical: only herding, only fencing or both?*”

210 Data from the 38 study sites were arranged in tables. Each and every occurrence of a given
211 habitat was summarised by month, livestock species and period, and the percentage ratio of how many
212 times each habitat type was mentioned was determined. Taking the number of mentions in the first
213 period as 100%, the changes in significance of each habitat type was calculated for Periods II, III and
214 IV. The number of grazed habitat types (habitat-use diversity) was determined for a monthly
215 breakdown by site and period. The p-value of differences between periods was assessed by a
216 permutation test. Diversity data were displayed using the R i386 3.2.1. programme (R Core Team
217 2015). In each figure presenting the annual cycle the most frequently mentioned initial month of the
218 grazing season (April) is shown in the first column. Data of pigs in Periods III and IV are not shown
219 on Fig. 2, because the figures would be misleading due to the small sample size of the pig grazing.

220

221 **3. Results**

222 **3.1. Number of livestock on grazing land between 1940 and 2014**

223 The number of livestock on grazing land substantially decreased for all three species from the 1940s
224 through the mid-2000s (Appendix 2). By the end of the communist period, grazing pigs vanished from
225 the Carpathian Basin almost entirely. The stock of sheep grew in the cooperative period, only to
226 decline later. From Period III to Period IV, grazing cattle increased by approximately 10% as a whole
227 but were further reduced in most sites. All in all, today about half as many sheep (51%) and a third as
228 many cattle (approximately 29%) graze on pastures in comparison to their numbers 60-70 years ago.

229

230 **3.2. Annual cycle of habitat use**

231 Monthly changes of grazed habitats across periods are shown on Fig. 3 and in the Appendix
232 (Appendix 3). Figure 2 illustrates the ratio of grazed habitats in relation to one another (as a
233 percentage value of frequencies of all sites in the month in question). Appendix 3 shows the
234 percentage of sites where the habitat concerned was used for grazing in the given month in the four
235 respective periods.

236 The most commonly grazed habitats were dry grasslands. Sheep grazed them throughout the year
237 but mainly from March on, while cattle grazed such sites from April on. Cattle and sheep grazed dry
238 grasslands up to late autumn but in a gradually diminishing ratio (30% and 20-28%, respectively).
239 Their significance in the case of pigs was less prominent.

240 Grazing on wet grassland was also significant (pigs 20-24%, cattle 18-25%, sheep 10-16%). Their
241 importance usually diminished from May through February. For pigs, wet grasslands were of greater
242 importance than dry grasslands (18% vs. 12%, respectively).

243 Wood-pastures and shrublands were grazed by all three species. Their significance increased in
244 Period IV. Grazing cattle sometimes stayed on them throughout the year. Sheep used wood-pastures
245 and shrublands across the year in all periods, but most intensively in winter and springtime (10-14% in
246 winter and 10-12% in April and May). Pigs also used wood pastures and shrublands through
247 practically the whole year.

248 Grazing along linear structures (mainly roadside grazing, banks of ditches and canals, narrow
249 riparian zones along streams) played important roles for all three species throughout the year. In

250 regions where cattle were driven out in winter months (mainly in Periods I and II), roadsides, banks of
251 ditches and canals, and riparian zones along streams represented the most important habitat (42-66%).

252 Hay meadows were used at the end of the summer, and during autumn. Second growth was
253 grazed there. The ratio reached 10-12% for cattle and sheep (somewhat higher for cattle). Spring
254 grazing on hay meadows was infrequent; it was typical only in a few locations in the Carpathian Basin
255 (such as Gyimes in Romania), mainly in Period I only. Pigs never went to hay meadows.

256 Marshes and fens were once important mainly as pastures for cattle and pigs. Their significance
257 was small and was declining in the case of sheep. The importance of marshes grew for cattle in the
258 cooperative period. However, grazing cattle in marshes during the winter and early spring period is
259 now being forced out. Pigs were driven to these habitats in Periods I and II throughout the year,
260 sometimes this was the dominant type of pig pasture (and still is today wherever extensive grazing
261 practices survive).

262 Forest grazing was widespread in all four periods for all the three species in most sites. Cattle
263 grazed in the forest mainly during the summer months. Winter month figures were very low (though
264 they showed a growing tendency recently). Forest grazing throughout the annual cycle varied between
265 8 and 14%, declining in period IV to some extent (10%). Sheep roam (or roamed) the woods
266 throughout the year, including the winter months (9-12%), with a slight peak in autumn. An autumn
267 maximum can also be observed in the case of pigs. Surviving extensive pig pasturing happens in
268 forests, for the most part.

269 Grazing of stubble fields started from mid-summer, wheat stubbles from July and corn stubbles
270 from the end of September, respectively. Stubble fields were visited by cattle on a number of sites, yet
271 they were important grazing land mainly for sheep (5% and 9 to 15% during the first three periods for
272 cattle and sheep, respectively). In winter months the ratio of stubble fields reached 10-12% and 16-
273 24% for cattle and sheep, respectively. Cattle did not graze stubbles in winter, while this happened
274 frequently for sheep (9-19%). Pigs also visited stubble fields often (9-14%), including the winter
275 months. Now grazing of just sheep is typical on stubble fields.

276 The length of the grazing season was shortened by one month for cattle and did not change for
277 sheep over the past 60-70 years. Since Period III it has become common for livestock not to spend all

278 season on grass, but to be driven into the stables every every now and then and sometimes during the
279 summer period as well (see gray colour in Fig. 2).

280

281

282 Fig. 2. The respective ratios of use for each habitat type (a percentage value of frequencies of all sites in the
283 month in question) during the annual cycle in the four historical periods studied (1940-1955, 1965-1980, 1992-
284 2000 and 2005-2014) in 38 study sites in the Carpathian Basin (as a ratio of all mentions). Data for pigs for
285 Period III and IV have extremely low sample sizes, and thus are not shown.

286

287 **3.3. Changing frequency of habitat use**

288 Taking period I as a baseline (100%), Figure 3 provides frequencies of mention of each habitat type in
289 the other three periods. Grazing of cattle on most habitat types declined continuously during the past
290 60-70 years. Fewer and fewer animals utilised the biomass from fewer and fewer habitat types.
291 Grazing was reduced mainly on more fragmented, non-pasture grasslands, such as along linear
292 features, second growth, marshland, and mostly stubble fields. Wood-pastures and forests represent an
293 exception: their proportion increased to a slight extent in the period following the political transition
294 (Periods III and IV), after a decline during the cooperative period (Period II). Habitat use by sheep was
295 transformed during the cooperative period to a major extent. Use of dry grasslands, stubble fields and
296 linear features increased and that of hay meadows and marshes decreased. Period III showed signs of
297 reset. In Period IV certain trends took another turn. Grazing with pigs decreased on all habitats during
298 the cooperative period and vanished practically completely by Period III (not shown on Fig. 3).

299

300

301 Fig. 3 Trends in changes of habitat use over the past 60-70 years, taking levels of Period I (1940-1955) as the
302 reference (100%), Period II (1965-1980), Period III (1992-2000) and Period IV (2005-2014)

303

304 **3.4. Diversity of habitat use by grazing livestock during the annual cycle**

305 Habitat-use diversity by cattle was reduced significantly in the period between April and October
306 during the past 60-70 years, but this decline stopped in most months between Period III and IV (Fig.
307 4). No significant differences were found across historical periods in the months between November
308 and March. Diversity of habitat use in the case of sheep was also reduced slightly in the past 60-70
309 years between May and August, but these reductions were not statistically significant. Decline was
310 significant in the case of pigs in each month (Apr $p < 0$, May $p < 0.00001$, Jun $p < 0.00001$, Aug $p <$
311 0.00001 , Sep $p < 0.00001$, Oct $p < 0.00001$, Nov $p < 0.00001$, Dec $p = 0.00001$, Jan $p = 0.00004$, Feb
312 $p = 0.00002$, Mar $p < 0.00001$. Level of significance: $P < 0.05$).

313

314

315 Fig. 4. Diversity in habitat use (number of different habitat types used as pastures in any given month in the 38
316 study sites) by cattle across the annual cycle in the Carpathian Basin. Boxes represent the four historical periods
317 (I.1940-1955, II.1965-1980, III.1992-2000 and IV.2005-2014). Cattle: Apr $p = 0.01447$, May $p = 0.00063$, Jun $p =$
318 0.00004 , Jul $p = 0.00001$, Aug $p = 0.00002$, Sep $p = 0.00001$, Oct $p = 0.00028$, Nov $p = 0.06601$, Dec $p =$
319 0.59593 , Jan $p = 0.83531$, Feb $p = 0.77312$, Mar $p = 0.31694$; sheep: Apr $p = 0.51592$, May $p = 0.32481$, Jun $p =$
320 0.25967 , Jul $p = 0.28205$, Aug $p = 0.33726$, Sep $p = 0.67905$, Oct $p = 0.59882$, Nov $p = 0.56988$, Dec $p =$
321 0.75851 , Jan $p = 0.72672$, Feb $p = 0.67319$, Mar $p = 0.81177$.

322

323 **3.5. Contribution of non pasture-grassland habitats throughout the year**

324 The ratio of non pasture-grassland habitats (e.g. second growth on hay meadows, marshes, vegetation
325 along linear features, forests and stubble fields) was slightly reduced in the past 60-70 years, but
326 remained significant to date (Fig. 5). Dominance of pasture-grassland habitats (dry grasslands, wet
327 grasslands, and wood-pastures) was most typical in May-June and in April-June in the case of cattle
328 and sheep, respectively. Use of other habitat types increased from mid-summer, most dramatically in

329 the case of sheep. Their use reached a maximum in late autumn and during the winter in all four
330 historical periods.

331

332

333 Fig. 5. Proportion of non pasture-grassland habitats (e.g. second growth on hay meadows, marshes, vegetation
334 along linear features, forests, and stubble fields) during the year across the four periods (1940-1955, 1965-1980,
335 1992-2000, 2005-2014) in the 38 study sites in the Carpathian Basin.

336

337 **3.6. Herded vs. fenced grazing**

338 In Period I all three species were herded almost exclusively (Fig. 6.). In the cooperative period fenced
339 grazing emerged, mainly with cattle, but it has never become a dominant practice. In the past ten years
340 enclosures (mostly by electric fencing) has increased, but pasturing by herders is still the dominant
341 form of extensive grazing in the studied region.

Fig. 6. The ratio of herded livestock vs. fenced livestock in the four historical periods (1940-1955, 1965-1980,
1992-2000 and 2005-2014) in the Carpathian Basin.

342

343 **4. Discussion**

344 **4.1. Changing number of extensively grazing livestock**

345 At the 38 study sites investigated the number of cattle, sheep and pigs kept in extensive grazing
346 systems has decreased from the 1940s up to date. The main cause for reduced numbers has been
347 intensification of management, the extent of which depended on the species concerned. The swine
348 industry could most readily be intensified, cattle to a lesser extent and sheep hardly at all (Bodó, 2001;
349 Keszei et al., 2000). Area of grazeable land has not changed considerably during this period
350 (Appendix 2), so this cannot be the cause of the drastic changes in livestock numbers.

351 The number of cattle kept extensively declined gradually and significantly. The underlying cause
352 might be the statutory breed change imposed on cooperatives and farmers in Period II in Hungary

353 (Hungarian Simmental had to be replaced by Holstein Friesian, Bodó, 2001). With the spread of
354 intensive dairy farms, village herds have disappeared in Hungary by Period IV. At the same time the
355 number of grazing meat cattle, albeit growing, remained low. Due to a lack of studies, no information
356 is available on which impacts various cattle breeds have on pastures of the Carpathian Basin (but cf.
357 Rook et al. 2004). Average body weight of breeds increases, but less so of grazing cattle than of cattle
358 kept in intensive farms. Sheep stock grew in Period II (48%), but declined again in Period III
359 following the disintegration of cooperative farms. The declining trend slowed down in Period IV. The
360 latter might have been caused by a growing demand for lamb from abroad and the increased rate of
361 financial support from the state and EU (Niznikowski et al., 2006). The avoidance of a dramatic
362 decline might have also been caused by land managers' tendency to use this species to utilize large and
363 extensive dry, saline, and sandy grasslands and abandoned fields, which could not be put to more
364 intensive use.

365 Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, extensively grazed pigs vanished almost completely from the
366 region studied (only surviving in Serbia; cf. Zingstra et al., 2009). Besides this, pigs are grazed at one
367 locality in Croatia (Lonsko Polje at the Sava river - Beinlich and Poschlod, 2002; Gugič, 2009), and on
368 an occasional basis in the mountainous areas of Romania. Outdoor pig grazing disappeared in Western
369 Europe from the 19th century onward (Beinlich and Poschlod, 2002), except the *dehesa* and *montado*
370 systems on the Iberian Peninsula (Toro-Mujica et al., 2015). At the same time, grazing pigs for
371 conservation purposes is gaining ground (Beinlich and Poschlod, 2002; Putman, 2012). Extensive
372 grazing of pigs for conservation purposes is being raised ever more often in the Carpathian Basin
373 recently. For instance, it could be used to suppress *Bolboschoenus maritimus* in marshes, or the native
374 breed Mangalitza could be put to masting, because of the growing market for high quality, acorn
375 feeded Mangalitza pig (Péter Tóth, pers. comm.).

376 There are only limited data available in the Carpathian Basin on how Common Agricultural Policy
377 impacted the number of livestock grazed extensively. However, CAP has been a decisive driving force
378 behind key sectors in agriculture for the past 10 years or so, and it also has an impact on nature
379 conservation. There are countries in Europe where CAP reduced the number and ratio of sheep, and

380 others, where it has increased (e.g., in Spain, the number of sheep dropped to the benefit of pigs, in
381 Greece sheep became more numerous at the cost of cattle, Toro-Mujica et al., 2015).

382

383 **4.2. Changes in the annual grazing cycle of extensively grazed habitats**

384 Cattle primarily grazed areas with longer grasses. Sheep grazed dry pastures and stubbles, and pigs
385 were driven into marshes and forested areas. The portfolio of grazed habitats has been rearranged
386 during the 60-70 years studied: the role of dry grasslands and wet grasslands increased somewhat,
387 while the significance of marshes, stubble fields, vegetation along linear elements, second growth on
388 hay meadows, wood-pastures and forests decreased. The importance of stubble fields dropped most
389 dramatically. Several underlying causes are suspected: land owners refrain from granting permission
390 to grazing; it has become a dangerous practice because of the use of pesticides; and also, stubble fields
391 are usually ploughed over after harvest because the allergenic *Ambrosia artemisiifolia* must be
392 controlled on a statutory basis. Beside industrialisation of farming practices, the reduced use of
393 marshes may be caused by draining of wetland habitats. According to our data the role of grazing in
394 marshes, wood-pastures and forests increased to some degree in the last decade, partly as a result of
395 habitat reconstruction efforts for nature conservation purposes (Mérő et al., 2015; Mosquera-Losada et
396 al., 2009; Putman, 2012; Varga et al., 2014).

397 Forests played an important role in all four periods and all three species. Grazing in forests was
398 typical mainly in the summer (cattle) or from spring until autumn (sheep and pigs). Grazing in forests
399 used to be an important non-timber forest product on the continent up to the period before World War
400 II (Johann, 2007; Hartel et al., 2015). It is still an important source of biomass, even though grazing in
401 forests is an activity which is forbidden or subject to permission throughout Europe (it is completely
402 forbidden in Slovakia and Hungary and subject to permission in Romania, Serbia and Ukraine - Cirelli
403 et al., 2001).

404 According to our data, the frequency of grazing was reduced in the case of several habitat types
405 over the past 60-70 years. Abandonment of grazing may be harmful from a conservation point of view
406 in many cases, since it may result in decreasing species diversity both in pasture grasslands, and non

407 pasture-grassland habitats, for instance due to light-demanding species being suppressed by the
408 closing canopy (Lasanta et al., 2015; Paltto et al., 2011; Vera, 2000).

409 We showed that approximately half of the grazed habitats in these extensive grazing systems were
410 not typical pasture grasslands, but some other type of habitat. A number of situations were
411 documented as extremes (e.g. in sand regions), where grazing was restricted almost exclusively to non
412 pasture-grassland habitats, being based mainly on stubble fields, fallow land, vegetation along linear
413 elements and forest plantations. Grazing on these ‘other’ types of habitats has become more frequent
414 mainly after July (cf. Etienne, 2005; Kerven et al., 2006), when they functioned as supplementary
415 pastures during the late summer and early autumn drought periods. The particularities of the
416 continental climate (such as the low precipitation in the July-August period) cause systematic
417 shortages in forage biomass on classical pasture grasslands between July and September (Molnár,
418 2014). Thus, in spite of a decline in livestock the biomass of these other habitats is required. Their
419 grazing has conservation benefits as well, because grazing may – among other effects – suppress
420 invasive species, increase dispersal of propagules or regeneration of secondary habitats, such as old-
421 fields (Bruun and Fritzboøger, 2002; Haraszthy, 2014; Mosquera-Losada et al., 2009; Uytvanck and
422 Verheyen, 2014).

423

424 **4.3. Decreasing diversity of grazed habitats**

425 Extensive grazing is a culturally and ecologically relatively conservative land-use system adapted to
426 the needs of the animals and the conditions of the landscape (Meuret and Provenza, 2014). This might
427 be the main reason why – in spite of dramatic social and economic changes – the number of habitat
428 types grazed per month per site often did not drop drastically over the four periods investigated. In the
429 case of cattle and the pigs the reduction was significant from April to October and during the first two
430 periods, respectively, while number of habitats and sites used by grazing sheep did not change as
431 much, and the decline was not significant. In other words, grazing of sheep was found to have the
432 most conservative attitude, hardly changing activity.

433 The reduction in the numbers of habitat types grazed can be explained by reduced micromobility in
434 the landscape. That is, livestock stays on any given pastureland longer. The underlying causes may

435 include the ongoing slow intensification of management practices on the one hand and the busy road
436 network on the other, which makes mobilisation of animals increasingly difficult (cf. Luick, 2008;
437 Oteros-Rozas et al., 2013). One of the most important ecological consequences of reduced mobility is
438 that a key vector of seed dispersal is lost, which may have serious economic, ecological and
439 conservation implications (cf. Agnoletti, 2014; Bruun and Fritzboøger, 2002; Poschlod et al., 2002).

440 Unfortunately, no similar data are available on the diversity of habitat use within extensive grazing
441 systems of other European countries, although they would be essential for the maintenance, set-up and
442 support of sustainable grazing systems. CAP does not directly affect the diversity of grazed habitats.
443 However, if farmers use reed beds for grazing, they do not get the the same payment for these areas as
444 for grasslands. Arable land is not allowed to be grazed in areas under agri-environmental schemes.
445 Forest grazing – subject to national regulation – is not affected by the CAP.

446

447 **4.4. Decrease of herding**

448 Herding decreased substantially over the past 60-70 years, in particular that of cattle and pigs.
449 Nonetheless, herding is still quite common in these post-communist East-Central European countries,
450 especially the herding of sheep. The average age of herders, however, is increasing, while their
451 number declines as in other European regions (Bernués et al., 2011). One consequence is that there are
452 not enough people with the appropriate skills and competence to herd the livestock (Oteros-Rozas et
453 al., 2013; Molnár et al., ined.). In fact, the knowledge of herding is being lost at an even more rapid
454 rate than the number of herders, because there are many ‘compelled’ herders who are not qualified for
455 the job. However, preservation of herding is an important social and conservation value because
456 conscious herding of grazing animals contributes to the maintenance of many ecosystem services (e.g.
457 plant diversity, agricultural productivity, mitigate climate change impacts) and to the implementation
458 of a number of conservation measures (cf. Heikkinen et al., 2012; Meuret and Provenza, 2014;
459 Molnár, 2014; Rodríguez-Ortega et al., 2014). CAP should motivate farmers to maintain herding by
460 providing them financial reward and recognition for their work.

461

462 **5. Conclusions**

463 Extensive grazing systems based on traditional (landscape-)ecological knowledge are culturally and
464 ecologically relatively conservative land-use systems. Ratios of utilization among various habitats are
465 set by harmonising the interests of livestock and the biophysical conditions of the landscape. As a
466 consequence the impacts of socio-economic and political changes are sometimes less explicit than in
467 the case of intensive systems.

468 Due to the prevailing continental climate in the Carpathian Basin, the quantity and quality of
469 biomass fit for grazing is subject to substantial intra- and interannual variability. Adapted to these
470 conditions, extensive grazing systems utilised and are utilising still a number of non pasture-grassland
471 habitat types even at the cost of violating laws and regulations presently in effect. As opposed to this,
472 the majority of agricultural and conservation research and policies concerning the support of farming
473 on high nature-value habitats focus on classical pasture grasslands (Chang et al., 2015; Haraszthy,
474 2014; Olmeda et al., 2014). EU-level (CAP) and national agricultural policies should take into account
475 not only pasture grasslands but also the full spectrum of habitat types (e.g. forests, marshes) necessary
476 for the effective operation of extensive grazing systems. CAP should promote grazing in forests and
477 marshes, on stubble fields, the second growth on hay meadows and vegetation alongside linear
478 landscape features, ensuring the necessary legislative and financial framework. These habitats are all
479 required in order to successfully maintain sustainable extensive grazing systems (cf. Meuret and
480 Provenza, 2014).

481 We argue however that conservation-oriented extensive grazing cannot be built only on traditional
482 herder wisdom; it also needs to be adapted to the current socio-ecological environment. To do so we
483 need new mechanisms to generate and transfer knowledge and experiences and an efficient
484 cooperation between various knowledge systems--science, traditional knowledge, and conservation
485 practice (Molnár et al., 2008; Tengö et al., 2014). The biggest opportunity may lie with cooperation
486 among local farmers, herders and conservation rangers (Erny and Salmon, 2014; Varga et al., ined.).

487 Traditional extensive grazing systems have generally been operated by village communities, which
488 organised the utilization of ecosystem services, usually within the community boundaries. For these
489 purposes, livestock was grazed in a number of different habitats with strictly regulated but annually
490 adapted spatial and temporal patterns (Molnár et al., 2015; Vera, 2000). Unfortunately, little is known

491 currently about the ecological aspects of former extensive grazing systems: for instance, the
492 spatiotemporal pattern of grazing intensity, the impact of extensive grazing on various vegetation
493 types if grazed in a network, and the herder knowledge used in various habitats and various seasons.
494 All these would be highly necessary in order to make extensive grazing systems built on the mosaics
495 and networks of semi-natural habitats truly sustainable.

496

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511

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731 **Appendix**

732

733 Appendix 1 Basic data of the 38 study sites: Name, total area of municipalities, proportional cover of
734 grasslands in the 1970s, and change of the area of grasslands between 1935 and 2010. Official
735 statistical (KSH) data were used. Legend: \approx did not change significantly (+/- max. 20%); $\downarrow\downarrow$
736 proportion of grasslands decreased significantly (by more than 50%); \downarrow decreased moderately (21-
737 49%); \uparrow increased moderately (21-49%); $\uparrow\uparrow$ increased significantly (by more than 50%).

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741 Appendix 2. Number of livestock turned out to pasture in the 38 study sites investigated during the
742 four periods (1940-1955, 1965-1980, 1992-2000, and 2005-2014). Cattle $p=0.000000109$, H: 35.11;
743 sheep $p=0.07851$, H: 6.744; pigs $p=2,07E-17$ H:64,3

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749 Appendix 3. The percentage of different habitat types mentioned in the 38 study sites in the
750 Carpathian Basin, during the annual cycle in the four historical periods studied (1940-1955, 1965-
751 1980, 1992-2000 and 2005-2014). For the annual cycle the most frequently mentioned initial month of
752 the grazing season (April) was included in the first column.

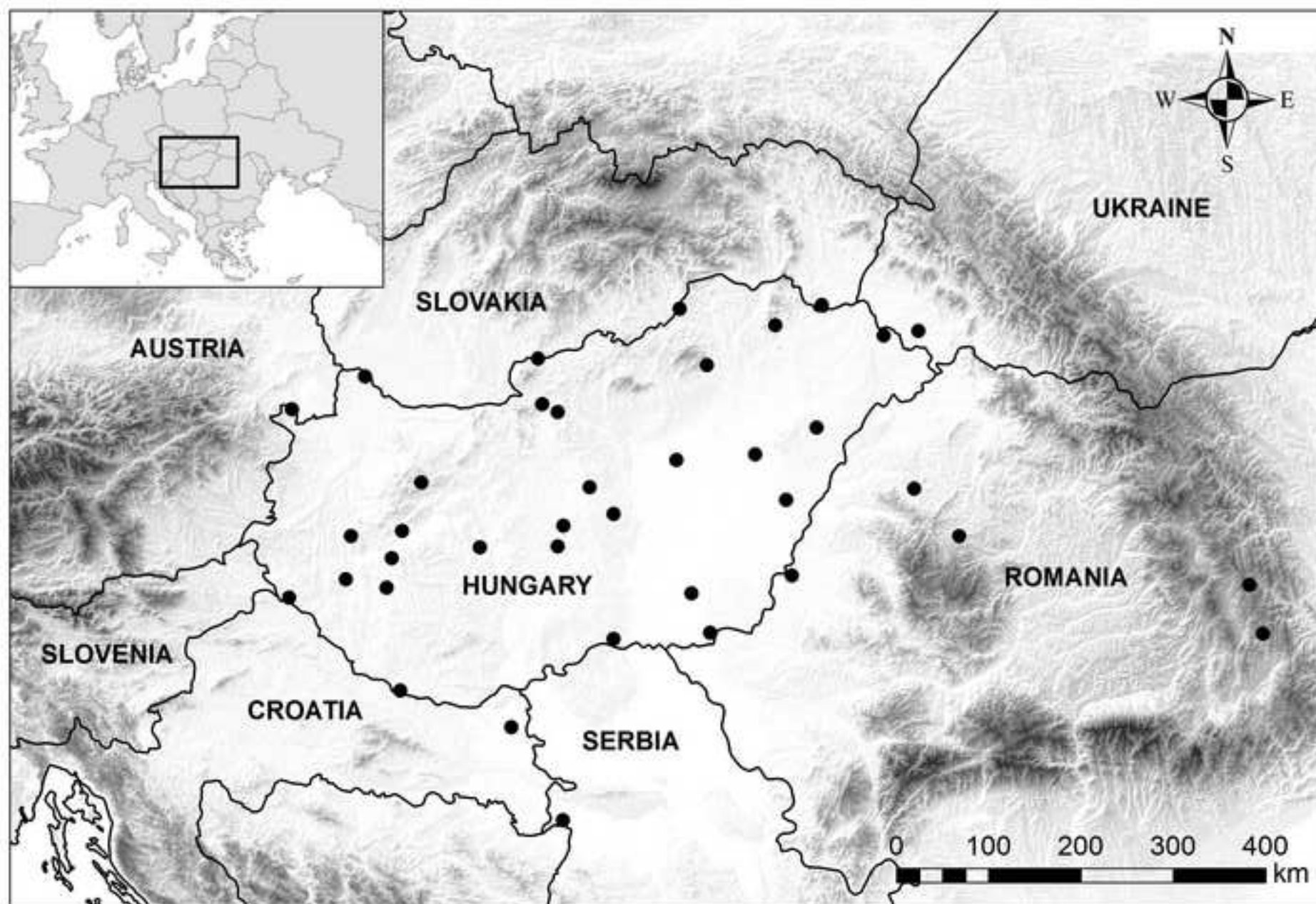
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	Period	Years	Main features of the period
I.	Before cooperatives	1940-1955	The so-called traditional period of agriculture before the socialist transformation, including mainly smallholder farms and landlord estates
II.	During cooperatives	1965-1980	Heyday of socialist agriculture, including forced mechanisation, use of synthetic fertilisers and chemicals
III.	After the political transition in 1989	1992-2000	The period after the political transition (1989) with re-organised capitalist farming practices but limited financial support for farmers
IV.	The last ten years (after EU-accession)	2005-2014	The period after EU accession (2004); significant agricultural subsidies, effects of CAP

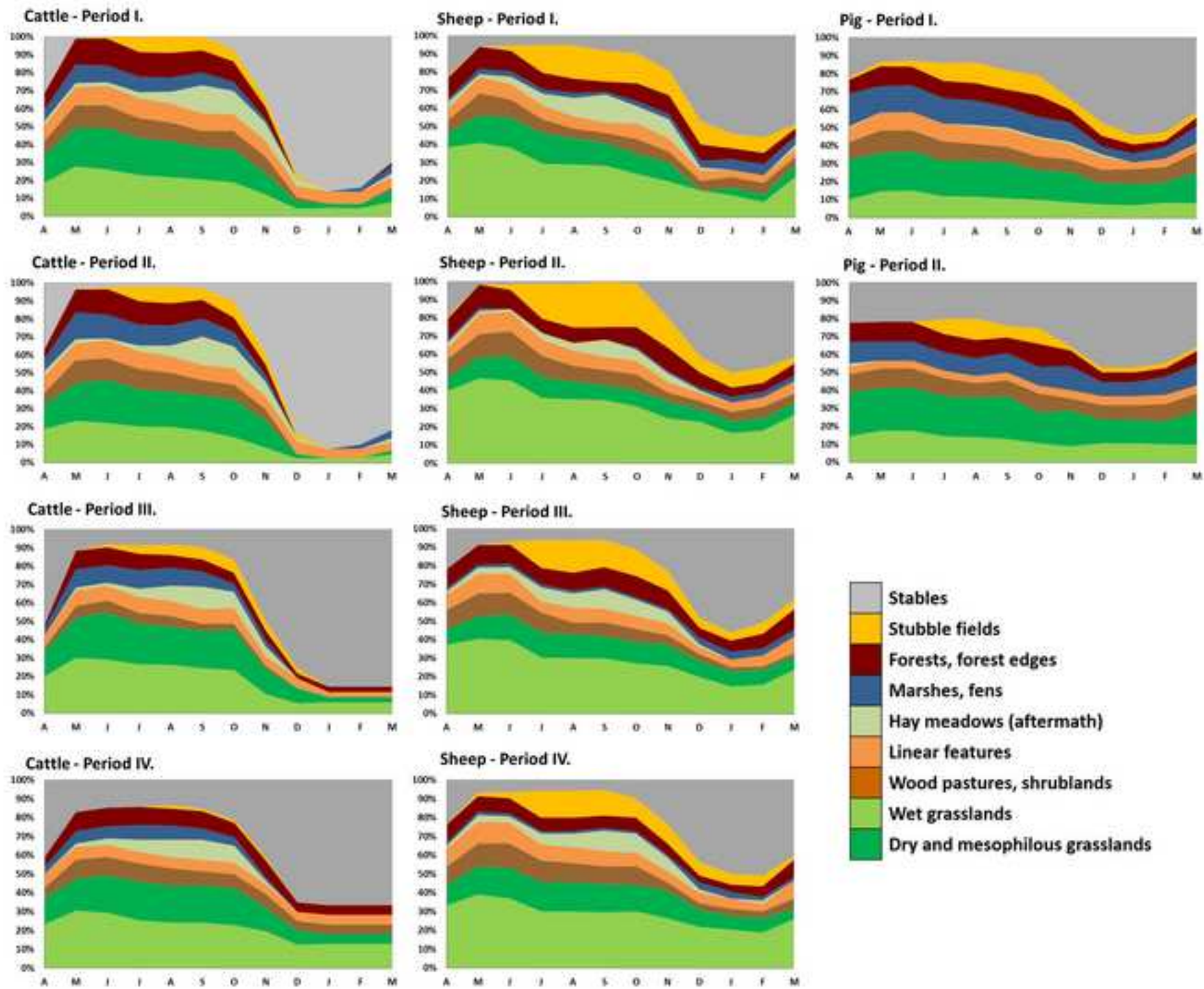
Name of village	Total area (ha) of municipality (1970s)	Proportional cover of grasslands (1970s) (%)	Trend – change of the area of grasslands between 1935 and 2010
Balatonmagyaród	3158	29	↓↓
Csanádpalota	7763	16	≈
Dánszentmiklós	3801	8	↓↓
Dörgicse	1913	17	↓
Drégelypalánk	2221	23	↓↓
Dunasziget	3589	6	↓
Erdőbénye	4579	14	≈
Felsőszentmárton	1945	22	↓↓
Fertőrákos	3969	5	↓
Furta	4285	35	↑
Fülöpszállás	9127	39	↑↑
Gömörszőlős	855	32	↑
Hajdúsámson	6952	7	≈
Kisgyőr	7116	16	≈
Kopačevo (HR)	450	50	↓
Kunadacs	8997	30	≈
Lunca de Jos (RO)	5906	60	≈
Mezőszilas	6497	4	↓↓
Mórahalom	8314	21	≈
Muraszemenye	1550	14	↓
Nádudvar	22591	40	↓
Nagykőrös	22786	12	↓
Nuşfalău (RO)	5131	8	↑
Olaszfalu	2184	16	↑
Ordacsehi	2262	30	↓↓
Plăieşii de Jos, P. Sus, Imper (RO)	30250	35	↑↑
Pusztakovácsi	4339	11	↓
Somotor (SK)	1631	10	↑
Stana (RO)	1400	15	↑↑
Székkutas	12400	21	≈
Tahitótfalu	3921	11	↓
Tiszasüly	9182	5	↓
Vácrátót	1815	11	↓↓
Vámosatya	2429	26	≈
Višnjićevo (SRB)	6800	7	≈
Zalaszántó	3773	20	↓
Zerind (RO)	5088	23	↓
Великі Береги - Veliki Berehi (UKR)	550	25	↑

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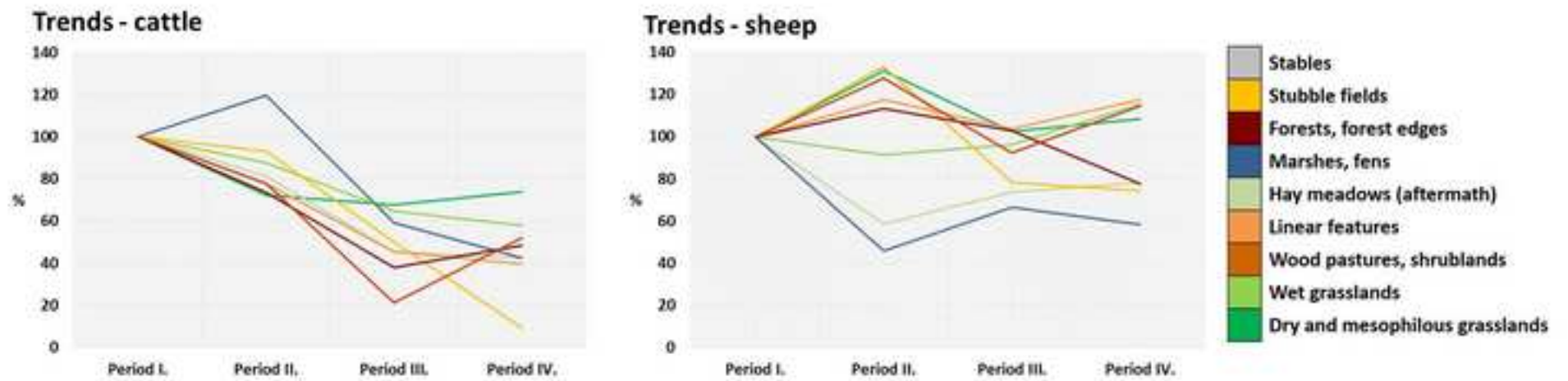
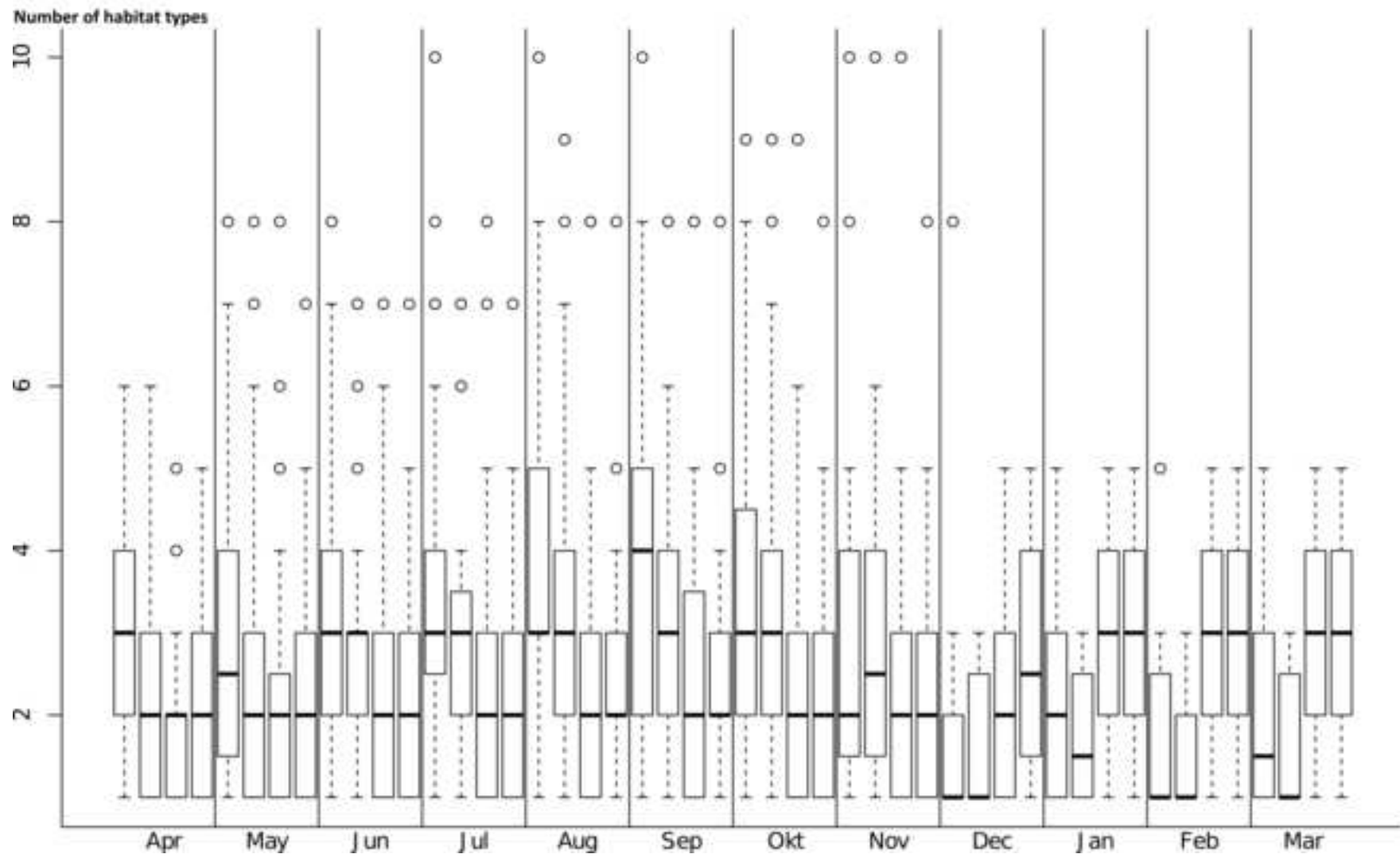
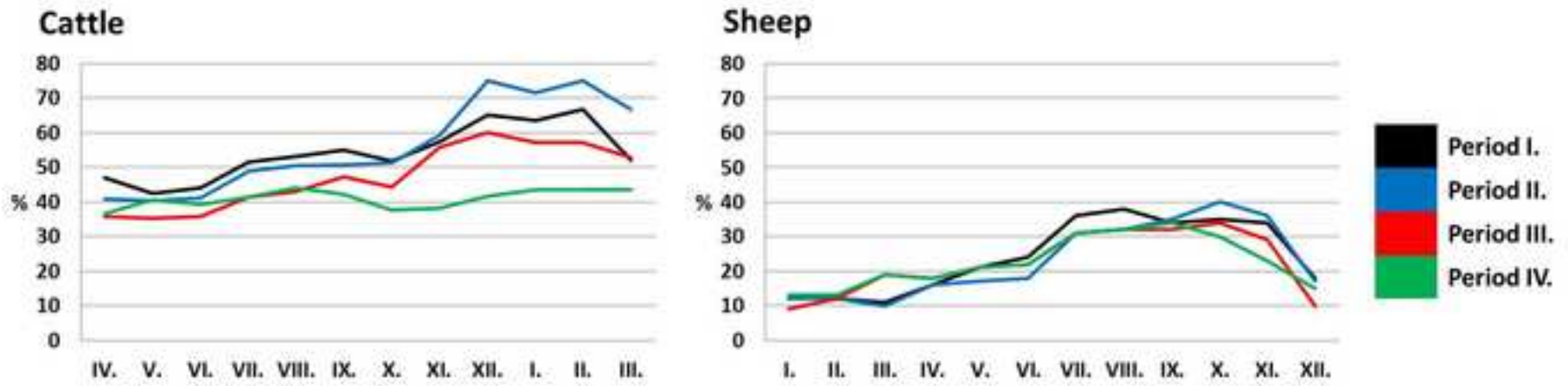


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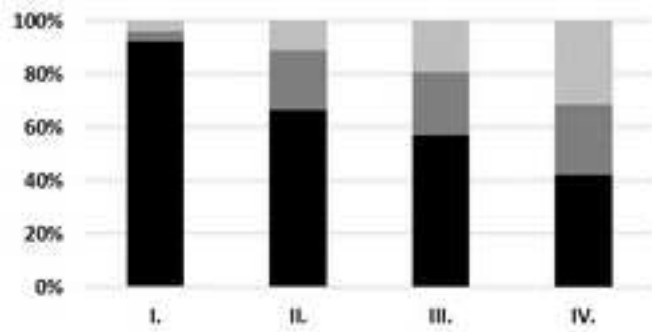
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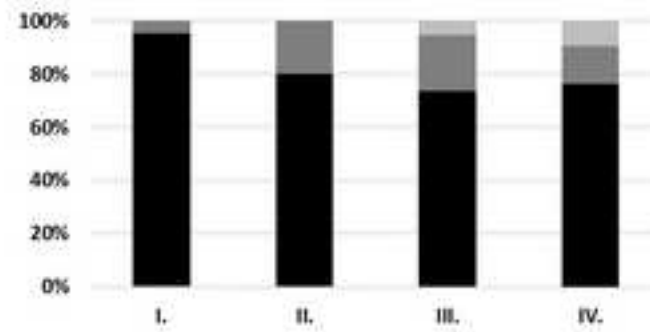
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Cattle



Sheep



Appendix

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