

1 **Abstract:**

2

3 Grazing by livestock has a great influence on soil characteristics with major effects on
4 soil carbon and nitrogen cycling in grazing lands. Grazing practices affect soil properties
5 in different ways depending on the prescribed stocking rate and grazing periods. The new
6 grazing system of short intensive grazing followed by a long period of rest referred to as
7 time-controlled grazing (TC grazing) has become popular amongst many graziers in
8 Australia and elsewhere in the world. However, little research has been carried out on the
9 impacts of this grazing system on the physical and chemical health of the soil. To address
10 this issue, a comprehensive field study was carried out in a sheep grazing property of
11 Currajong in south east region of Queensland, Australia where the two grazing systems of
12 continuous and TC grazing were compared. Results obtained on the impact of grazing
13 management on soil characteristics over a five-year period (2001 – 2006) showed an
14 increase in soil organic carbon (SOC) and nitrogen (SON) in the areas with favorable soil
15 condition over the study period as compared with continuous grazing. There was also an
16 increase in ground litter accumulation over time and no compaction in TC grazing.
17 Nitrate and extractable P concentrations were reduced by higher grass growth occurring
18 under TC grazing, which in turn decreases the contamination potential for downstream
19 water bodies. This reduction was much more pronounced on a historical sheep
20 aggregation camp turned into TC system, where a large amount of fecal materials had
21 been deposited prior to the its conversion to TC grazing. The smaller size of the paddocks
22 along with the long rest period provided by TC grazing in this area recognized to be the

1 major contributors to both physical and chemical recovery of the soil after each grazing
2 operation.

3 **Key words:**

4 bulk density, ground litter, organic matter, organic carbon, organic nitrogen, extractable

5 P, NO₃-N

6

1 **Introduction:**

2

3 Grazing practices are recognized as the key drivers to manage and control soil quality in
4 grazing lands. Sustainable utilization of grazing lands requires management strategies
5 that do not compromise the capacity of soil to function over the long-term (Liebig et al.
6 2006). Depending on the ecosystem resilience and disturbance feedback, grazing causes
7 either positive or negative effects on soil properties (Franzluebbers and Stuedemann
8 2003).

9

10 A system of flexible, high-intensity, short period grazing followed by a long period of
11 rest (HI-SG) was first put forward by Savory in 1978 (Savory and Parsons, 1980) and
12 was later introduced to Australia in 1989 by Stan Parsons as “Cell Grazing” (McCosker
13 2000). The terms of “The Savory Grazing System”, “Short Duration Grazing” and more
14 specifically in this paper “Time-controlled Grazing” are the common names of the new
15 grazing system. Time-controlled grazing (TC grazing) has been increasingly popular
16 amongst graziers in Australia and the rest of the world over the past two decades.
17 However, little research has been carried out on the impacts of this grazing system on the
18 soil physical and chemical characteristics.
19 Soil organic matter (SOM) is regarded as a major determinant of ecosystem health and
20 stability and the largest reservoir of carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) in most grazing land
21 ecosystems (Brady and Weil 1999; Kumar and Goh 2000; Follett 2001). It provides a
22 primary source of many plant nutrients, improves the water-holding capacity of soil and
23 is responsible for the formation of stable aggregates that protect the soil from erosion. In

1 recent years, increase in SOM to achieve higher and sustainable productivity in grazing
2 lands is not the only objective for changing grazing strategies as it is now increasingly
3 recognized as a solution to global warming through the sequestration of a large amount of
4 atmospheric carbon dioxide into the soil organic carbon pool (Lal 2003).

5 Studies on soil organic carbon (SOC) and nitrogen (SON) accumulation in response to
6 grazing management have been mostly focused on different types of continuous grazing
7 under a variety of stocking rates. The results of such studies are inconsistent with some
8 showing a decrease (Bauer et al. 1987; Frank et al. 1995; Derner et al. 1997), no change
9 (Milchunas and Lauenroth 1993; Kieft 1994; Manley et al. 1995; Mathews et al. 1996),
10 or increase (Ruess and Mcnaughton 1987; Dormaar et al. 1990; Dormaar and Willms
11 1990a) in SOC and SON under different grazing intensity. Changes in SOC and N under
12 TC grazing however have not been well researched. Southorn (2002) is probably the only
13 researcher who reported some increase in SOM under TC grazing and attributed it to a
14 larger proportion of plant material being trampled, broken down, and incorporated into
15 soil by livestock.

16

17 A high rate of SOM decomposition that eventually decreases SOC and N is attributed to
18 intensive grazing involving excessive trampling which occurs more frequently under
19 continuous grazing with high stocking rates (Theron 1955; Du Preez and Snyman 1993).
20 Grazing-induced nutrient accumulation in soils, whilst desirable for increasing pasture
21 production, has the potential of causing environmental concerns through washing off and
22 leaching the contaminants to downstream water bodies (Correll 1996; Sharpley et al.
23 1996). This adverse impact on water quality may occur either through the rapid

1 mineralization of organic material or imbalanced distribution of urine and faeces in
2 paddocks due to the establishment of animal aggregation camps. These camp sites, which
3 threaten downstream water quality, are more likely to occur in large paddocks under
4 continuous grazing where animals are allowed to graze more selectively and deposit
5 nutrients in some specific areas of the paddock. Small paddocks however are known to be
6 more evenly grazed with evenly distributed urine and manure (Haynes and Williams
7 1993; Mueller and Green 1995). Time-controlled grazing which is basically carried out in
8 a large number of small paddocks is therefore expected to contribute to more uniform
9 distribution of urine and faeces across the paddocks by modifying animal aggregation
10 behavior and camp sites development. However no study has been carried out to test such
11 a hypothesis.

12

13 The impact of grazing systems on soil physical characteristics such as bulk density and
14 compaction is another aspect of this investigation. Grazing-induced compaction affects
15 soil bulk density at different rates depending on the amount of available plant residue on
16 the ground (Rodd et al., 1999; da Silva et al., 2003). Bulk density and porosity in turn
17 affect water and aeration status of the soil, as well as root penetration and development.
18 They are therefore important soil physical properties to be monitored on grazing lands.
19 Bulk density is also inversely related to the SOM (da Silva et al. 1997; Gifford and
20 Roderick 2003) and their interaction can become an important factor in the effectiveness
21 of grazing systems.

22 Time-controlled grazing has been shown to improve soil physical condition through
23 converting the above-ground organic matter to litter without causing soil compaction

1 (Goodloe 1969) and to increase the abundance of micro-arthropods in the 0 – 10 cm soil
2 depth (Tom et al. 2006). However, Dormaar et al. (1989) reported that TC grazing had a
3 negative effect on bulk density, due to compaction by grazing animals. This anomaly
4 highlights that further studies are clearly needed.

5

6 This paper is based on the results of a large scale field experiment carried out over a 5
7 years period on a grazing paddock in southeast Queensland. The effects of the two
8 grazing systems of TC and continuous on the physical (bulk density and ground litter)
9 and chemical (SOC, SON, NO₃⁻ and extractable P) properties of soils are reported in this
10 paper. The hypothesis tested in this study is that the TC grazing system significantly
11 improves physical and chemical properties of grazing land soils, over the continuous
12 grazing system, by reducing soil bulk density, incorporating ground litter into the top soil,
13 and increasing TOC and SON.

14

1 **Methods:**

2

3 ***Study sites***

4 The study area is located on the property of Currajong 40 km west of Stanthorpe in a
5 semi-arid region of southeast Queensland Australia (28° 33' S, 151° 33' E , altitude 675
6 m) in the headwaters of Treverton Creek in the Murray-Darling Basin. Long term mean
7 annual rainfall is 645 mm with dominant summer rain (70 percent falling in the six
8 months of October - March). Rain in the dry season (Mar - Sep) is characterised by
9 relatively small events both in magnitude and intensity associated with frontal
10 depressions, while in the wet period, there is a high frequency of moderate to large events
11 of short duration thunder storms and long duration cyclonic depressions.

12

13 Vegetation in the area is native perennial grasses dominated mostly by Queensland blue
14 grass [*Dichanthium sericem* (R. Br.) A. Camus], different wire grasses including Aristida
15 vegans and Barbed wire grass [*Cymbopogon refractus* (R.Br.) A.Camus] plus some
16 remnant native gum trees. Coolatai [*Hyparrhenia hirta* (L.) Stapf] as an introduced
17 perennial grass is spreading throughout this area.

18

19 Soils in the study area are mostly clay to clay loam in texture (Table 1). Geology
20 comprises part of the Warroo land system, generally referred to as Traprock. This is a
21 complex mixture of highly deformed sandstone, mudstone, inter-bedded conglomerate,
22 limestone and volcanics (Maher, 1996). Geomorphologic characteristics of lands in this
23 region have been described by Wills (1979).

1

2 *Treatments*

3

4 This research was conducted on a commercial pasture property which was in the process
5 of converting from long term continuous grazing system to TC grazing. It thus provided
6 us with an opportunity to study the impacts of the new grazing system on soil, water,
7 vegetation, nutrient and sediment changes in comparison with continuous grazing. In this
8 paper our focus is only on the soil responses to these two methods of grazing.

9

10 The application of TC grazing system required the large paddocks in the property to be
11 sub-divided into a number of smaller paddocks (cells) using electric fences. Two such
12 cells ranging in area from 84 to 250 hectares were used for this experiment; one for TC
13 grazing and the other for continuous grazing. The paddocks assigned to the grazing
14 treatments were divided each into two sections based on the physiographic features of the
15 land (slope and soil depth) (Table 1). C1 and C2 under TC grazing, and C3 and C4 under
16 continuous grazing, are here forth called sub-treatments. There were also some
17 physiographic similarities between C1 and C4 on the one hand and between C2 and C3
18 on the other hand, which have been useful when comparing the two grazing methods.

Approximate position of table 1

19

20 A total of 52 permanent sampling sites were allocated to the treatments, of which 8 sites
21 were on the non-grazed treatment and the rest were equally distributed between the four
22 sub-treatments of C1 to C4 located in a down-slope catenary sequence to cover all land

1 form components. These sites were used for periodic sampling of soil and ground litter
2 during the 5 years life of the project.

3

4 Stocking rate, grazing duration and rest periods in TC grazing were adjusted according
5 to the feed on offer and grass growth rate and therefore were subject to change between
6 the cells. Maximum efforts were made to keep the stock numbers close to the optimum
7 stocking rate (as decided by the grazier) within the cells. The stocking rates for the two
8 management treatments are expressed as a dry sheep equivalent (dse), and given in Table
9 2. In continuous grazing, a fixed stocking rate of around 1.6 dse/ha was applied for the
10 whole year.

11

Approximate position of table 2

12

13 *Sample analysis*

14

15 Ground litter and bulk density samples were randomly collected from around the
16 permanent sampling sites using a 0.25 m² quadrat and a long tube soil corer (44 mm in
17 diameter). For the soil depth, it was assumed that the top 10 cm of soil profile contained
18 the highest amount of organic material and this layer was most likely to change in
19 response to different grazing managements (Du Preez and Snyman 1993; Paul and Clark
20 1996). Composite samples were taken from the top 10 cm, oven dried at 40 °C, passed
21 through a 2 mm sieve to remove plant material and stored at 4 °C. These samples were
22 used for the measurement of soil TOC, TON, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, PO₄²⁻ as well as pH, EC and

1 texture. EC and pH were measured in a 1:5 soil/water suspension (Rayment and
2 Higginson 1992) and for soil particle size analysis, the hydrometer method was used
3 (Kim 1996).

4

5 Total soil organic carbon (TOC) was measured using the rapid wet oxidation method
6 (Walkley and Black 1934) modified by Sims (1976). In this method SOC content, after
7 oxidizing by potassium dichromate and sulfuric acid, was calculated from the amount of
8 chromic ion (Cr^{3+}) formed using a colorimetric procedure measuring absorbance at 588
9 nm.

10

11 Total soil organic nitrogen was determined with a semimicro-kjeldahl procedure
12 (Bremner, 1996). This involved sample digestion by concentrated sulfuric acid in the
13 presence of a copper sulfate catalyst and potassium sulfate using a block digester
14 followed by a colorimetric determination of NH_4^+ in the digests (Lachat, 1992). SON was
15 the difference between Kjeldahl-N and residual $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$. For the measurement of
16 inorganic nitrogen (NO_3^- and NH_4^+), 2M KCL solution was used for extraction, with a
17 1:10 ratio of soil to extractant (Bremner and Keeney, 1966). The mixture was shaken for
18 1 hour then centrifuged at 2000 rpm for 20 minutes and filtered through a Whatman 42
19 filter paper and analyzed using an autoanalyzer (Lachat, 2001). Orthophosphate
20 extraction was performed using Colwell method (Colwell, 1963) which is a modification
21 of the original bicarbonate procedure (Olson et al., 1954) that employs an extracting
22 solution of 0.5M NaHCO_3 adjusted to pH 8.5. The extracted phosphorous was

1 determined calorimetrically by a molybdate blue method (Murphy and Riley 1962) using
2 an auto analyzer procedure.

3

4 *Statistical analyses*

5

6 All statistical comparisons in this paper are based on 90% confident interval using SPSS
7 14 package; however p-values beyond the significant levels are also reported. Analysis of
8 variance was used to test SOC, SON, nitrate, extractable p, mulch and bulk density
9 changes over time (2001 to 2006) in different treatments (TC grazing, continuous grazing
10 and no grazed) and Sub-treatments (C1, C2, C3 and C4). Pearson correlation analysis was
11 performed to test the changes in residue and bulk density over the time.

12

13 **Results and Discussion:**

14

15 *Effect of grazing methods on residue accumulation and bulk density*

16

17 Ground litter accumulation was increased significantly under TC grazing as compared
18 with continuous grazing. Both C1 and C2 (TC grazing) showed highly significant
19 differences in mulch accumulation through time. In contrast, for the continuous grazing
20 sub-treatments, only C4 showed a positive mulch accumulation and C3 did not change
21 over the time (Table 3). Increased ground litter accumulation under TC grazing is
22 attributed to the significant enhancement of aboveground pasture production over time
23 which is presented later.

1 Based on the correlation between residue accumulation and time, a linear regression
2 model is presented in Table 3 for estimation of ground litter mass at any time over the
3 course of the study which may have application in vegetation-runoff studies under natural
4 events.

5

Approximate position of table 3

6

7 The results on bulk density indicate a significant increase under C3 of continuous grazing
8 ($p \leq 0.1$) but remained constant under all other treatments (Table 4). Similar results were
9 shown by another set of bulk density comparisons using soil cores taken at fixed times,
10 during the first and the last years of the trial, thus allowing investigation of possible
11 seasonal effect. The fixed-time comparison include samples taken on May 2001, Nov
12 2001 and July 2002 as the first year of the experiment which was repeated on July 2005,
13 Nov 2005 and May 2006 as the last year of experiment (Table 4). These results indicate
14 that soil compaction can take place under continuous grazing but not under TC grazing.
15 Bulk density in TC grazing remained unaffected (C2 & C1).

Approximate position of table 4

16

17 Lower soil compaction and damage under TC grazing in this area is basically attributed
18 to the higher accumulation of ground litter over time. Ohu et al. 1985; Gupta et al. 1987;
19 Wheeler et al. (2002) and Da Silva et al. (2003) reported that the presence of an organic
20 top layer, dissipates the force of animal hooves on soil surface resulting in less
21 compaction and lower bulk density of the soil underneath, which appears to be the case in

1 this study. Soil bulk density has been found to increase in soils with a high quantity of
2 fine soil particles (clay + silt) which make them more sensitive to animal traffic and
3 compaction (Vanhaveren 1983; Abdelmagid et al. 1987). The soils of our experimental
4 paddocks were fine in texture, mostly of clay to clay loam type. Thus the compaction
5 observed in C3 was probably more due to the grazing management which left insufficient
6 litter on the ground to protect the soil surface from animal traffic and compaction.

7

8 Under the no-grazing treatment, ground litter was accumulated ($p = 0.11$) over the time,
9 which is in agreement with Su (2003) **however** the lack of grazing animals to break it
10 down and incorporate into the top soil, resulted in a reduction in soil organic carbon and
11 nitrogen and no change in soil bulk density.

12

13 ***Soil TOC and TON responses to the grazing treatments***

14

15 As illustrated in Fig 1a & 1b an overall noticeable increase occurred in TOC ($p = 0.16$)
16 and to a lesser extent in TON ($p = 0.29$) under TC grazing treatment from 2001 to 2006,
17 but not at statistically significant level. Over the same period, no changes were observed
18 in these variables under continuous grazing treatment.

Approximate position of Figure 1

19

20 The results of the sub-treatments (Fig 2a & 2b), showed more variation in soil responses
21 to TC and continuous grazing systems, depending on differences in geomorphology
22 features of land and soil properties. Under TC grazing, C1 showed a significant increase

1 in TOC ($p \leq 0.10$) and TON ($p = 0.18$) over the time however, but this factor remained
2 constant under C2. On the other hand, continuous grazing under C4 experienced small
3 increase in soil carbon ($p = 0.31$) and nitrogen ($p = 0.39$) while in C3 showed a small
4 decline in SOC ($p = 0.33$) and no change in SON.

Approximate position of Figure 2

5

6 It appears that the 6 years period of this study hasn't been long enough to clearly show
7 the difference between the two methods of grazing for all the factors considered.
8 However the results clearly indicate a relative increase in SOM through time under TC
9 grazing over the continuous grazing. The main reasons for such an increase in SOM
10 under TC grazing system appears to be the higher rate of grass growth and longer rest
11 periods. The same two factors also contributed to the higher accumulation of ground litter
12 under TC grazing, which was reported earlier.. These results appear to be consistent with
13 those of Southorn (2002). He attributed the accumulated soil carbon to the larger
14 proportion of plant material being incorporated into the soil under TC grazing over
15 continuous grazing. Gillen et al. (1991) suggested that the long period of rest is a key
16 driver in the recovery of grazed species and this has played a major role to substantially
17 increase the above ground organic material followed by its subsequent incorporation into
18 the soil resulting in increased SOM.

19

20 Root decay, even though not measured in this experiment, appears to be another reason
21 for increasing SOM under TC grazing. It has been reported that the intensive defoliation
22 under a single grazing event after a rest period (common in TC grazing), results in

1 ceasing respiration leading to the death of a large amount of roots within a few hours
2 after grazing in order to equalize the biomass (Richards 1993). The quantity of root
3 pruned in this way depends on grazing intensity and the total root mass which is the main
4 source of below ground soil organic matter (Jones 2000). Root mass which is mostly
5 reported to be more than twice that of above-ground biomass (Ross 1977; Hall and Lee
6 1980; Christie 1981; Montani et al. 1996) provides a large amount of vertically oriented
7 pores after dying off, facilitating better infiltration.

8

9 Less animals treading under TC grazing have probably had a positive indirect effect on
10 soil carbon and nitrogen providing a faster soil physical and biological recovery
11 following each grazing period. Abdelmagid et al. (1987) showed the maximum distance
12 traveled by grazing animals under continuous grazing is around 4.8 km/day, while this
13 distance under the short period grazing (i.e. TC grazing) is 1.6 km/day for the same
14 stocking rate. Taking the average hoof print size of the grazing animal into
15 consideration, the above figures suggest that around 22% of the pasture area is trampled
16 on under the continuous grazing system while this fraction is only 7% for TC grazing.

17

18 The results of sub-treatment comparisons appear to indicate that TC grazing causes larger
19 increase in soil carbon and nitrogen over time as compared with continuous grazing when
20 the soil physical properties are relatively favorable (C1 vs. C4). Conversely, when the
21 soil is shallow or on a steep slope, as it's the case for C2 and C3, SOC tend to decline in
22 continuous grazing (C3) while TC grazing appeared to maintain its level of SOC over the
23 time (C2).

1 The increased SOC in TC grazing treatment reported in this study has an added
2 dimension of carbon sequestration. Our results show that on average 1.37 ton/ha extra
3 carbon is locked up in the top 10cm of the soil under TC grazing compared with the
4 continuous grazing . This figure was as high as 3.13 tons/ha in C1 where the soil
5 condition was more favorable for plant growth and SOC increased significantly over
6 time.

7

8 The enclosures, which were kept ungrazed for the entire 6 years period of the study,
9 experienced a slight decline in both soil carbon and nitrogen over time (Figures 1a & 1b).

10 While this decline over time is not statistically significant, the trend shows a possible
11 negative effect of long term animal exclusion on soil organic matter. Grazing animals
12 appear to positively contributing to nutrient cycling, plant growth, and soil biological
13 activities of the paddock. Increased ground litter in the enclosures zone as compared
14 with the grazed areas is can be the reason for the decline in soil organic matter in this
15 zone since they would not be trampled on, broken down and incorporated with the top
16 soil by grazing animals.. Under non-grazed treatment, another part of plant residue
17 referred to as standing residue also does not contribute to soil organic materials. This
18 fraction which accounts for 8 – 16% of the total above ground dry matter in our
19 experiment is possibly one of the reasons for the reduction of SOC and SON in the
20 ungrazed area. The important role of grazing animals in converting surface litter into
21 SOC and incorporating it with the top soil has also been reported by Naeth et al. (1991).
22 Schuman (1999) also reported a reduction in soil organic carbon and nitrogen in soils
23 under grazing exclusion zones as compared with grazed areas.

1

2 *Effects of grazing on soil C:N ratio, available nitrogen and phosphorus*

3

4 The C:N ratio of soil organic matter varied between the treatments and over time, ranging
5 from 11 to 15 (Fig 3). This ratio increased slightly over time in soils under TC grazing
6 treatment, which was more noticeable in C1 ($p = 0.26$). A similar level of increase is
7 observed in un-grazed treatment ($p = 0.21$). In contrast, the C:N ratio declined (C3) or
8 remained unchanged (C4) under continuous grazing treatment. The C:N ratio remained
9 unaffected over time in the less productive paddocks of C2 from TC grazing and C4 from
10 continuous grazing. None of the above changes are statistically significant, suggesting
11 that a longer period of study might be required for the effect of treatments on C:N ratio to
12 become unequivocal. C:N ratio as an indicator of soil mineralization (Vallejo 1993) has
13 been reported to increase in grazing lands with good management and decrease in the
14 soils with poor management (Theron 1955; Du Preez and Snyman 1993). It has been also
15 shown that excessive trampling decreases soil C:N ratio through more finely breaking
16 down the organic material facilitating better litter-soil contact and more rapid
17 decomposition by microorganisms (Naeth et al. 1991), which eventually decreases soil
18 organic carbon and nitrogen resources.

19

Approximate position of Figure 3

20

21 The results of soil available nitrogen measurement revealed a sharp significant decrease
22 in NO_3^- concentration in C1 and non-grazed treatments and to a lesser extent in C2 and

1 C4 during the study period ($p \leq 0.01$)(Fig 4c). However, nitrate concentration increased
2 significantly under continuous grazing in C3 ($p \leq 0.01$) which is consistent with the
3 results of Baron et al. (2001), Haynes and Williams (1993) and Whitehead (1995). The
4 ratio of $\text{NO}_3\text{:TON}$ which shows the soil nitrate as a proportion of total organic nitrogen
5 pool, declined significantly in 2006 as compared to 2001 by a factor of 14, 1.3, 2.2 and
6 23 in C1, C2, C4 and no grazed enclosures respectively. However, this ratio increased in
7 C3 by a factor of 2 ($p \leq 0.01$) (Fig 4b).

8

Approximate position of Figure 4

9

10 A marked reduction in soil nitrate concentration in C1 (Fig 4c) along with an increase in
11 C:N ratio (Fig 3) over time probably indicate that nitrogen and carbon immobilization by
12 plants and micro-organisms have been the dominant process over mineralization,
13 contributing to the higher soil organic matter accumulation under TC grazing practice (Fig
14 1). In continuous grazing treatment however, decrease in the C:N ratio and increase in
15 $\text{NO}_3\text{:TON}$ ratio under C3 indicates that mineralization has been probably the dominant
16 process resulting in a decrease in soil organic matter.

17

18 Soils from the non-grazed treatment showed the lowest nitrate concentration (0.17 mg/kg
19 soil) after 5 years of grazing exclusion (Fig 4c) which is in agreement with the findings of
20 Dormaar et al. (1990). This result, along with the small reduction in soil organic matter
21 reported earlier, indicate that the grazing animals may play an important role in nutrient
22 cycling and pasture fertility. Grazing animals use only a small proportion of the nutrient

1 they ingest and 60- 99% of the ingested nutrients are returned to the pasture in the form
2 of dung and urine (Barrow 1987). Therefore a pasture with long term grazing exclusion is
3 subject to a lower productivity through decline in available soil nutrients. Unlike nitrate
4 which declined under grazing exclusion (Fig 4c), soil ammonium concentration
5 increased significantly from 4.56 in 2001 to 13.69 mg/kg in 2006. This result supports the
6 concept that NH_4^+ concentration increases from a minimum in the first successional stage
7 to a maximum in the climax and vice versa for $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ (Rice 1984). In other words, under
8 grassland ecosystems when herbivores are left out of pasture for a long time, soil
9 available nitrogen is kept more in the form of ammonium which is less subject to
10 leaching than nitrate.

11

12 Extractable P fell markedly in all treatments over the study period ($p \leq 0.01$) (Fig 4a) at
13 different rates. This reduction occurred by a factor of 3.5 under TC grazing and 1.3 under
14 continuous grazing treatments. Decrease in extractable P under TC grazing can be an
15 indication of higher P uptake by plants, thus producing better ground litter cover and
16 higher P lock up. As phosphorous is excreted only in faeces by animals and is not mobile
17 (Haynes and Williams 1993), losses of organic P through water erosion might be the
18 main reason for the decrease in the extractable P concentration under continuous grazing.

19

20 ***Effect of the grazing methods on animal aggregation camps***

21

22 Grazing practices appear to reduce and control animal aggregation behavior which leads
23 to an imbalance distribution of faeces and urine across the paddocks that is potentially of

1 environmental concern for the contamination of downstream water bodies. Unlike
2 continuous grazing, TC grazing practice which encourages livestock to graze more
3 uniformly and therefore deposit feces and urine more evenly throughout the paddocks is
4 expected to reduce the possibility of animal aggregation camp establishment. To ascertain
5 the extent to which TC grazing can reduce the negative effects of animal aggregation
6 camp, a large hilltop sheep camping site was identified within the area converted to TC
7 grazing in 2001. A long soil sampling transect which passed through this site was
8 identified and nitrate and extractable P were measured on the samples taken along this
9 transect. This sampling and sample analysis were carried out on May 2001 and repeated
10 on May 2006 (only the samples taken from the top 10 cm of soil were analysed). As
11 shown in fig 5 nitrate and extractable P concentrations decreases with distance from the
12 sheep camp in both 2001 and 2006. The result highlights the large amount of nutrients
13 available on sheep camp on 2001 and the subsequent levels in 2006, as compared with
14 the immediate surrounding areas of the transect. Moreover, the high levels of nitrate and
15 available P concentration measured in 2001, as representative of the long term sheep
16 aggregation under continuous grazing, dropped markedly in 2006, some 5 years after its
17 conversion to TC grazing.

18

Approximate position of Figure 5

19

20 The large amount of nutrient consumed by Couch grass [*Agropyron repense* (L.)
21 P.Beauv] as the dominant sheep camp's vegetation over the rest periods is probably the
22 first reason for the reduction of nitrate and extractable P concentrations in the soil

1 solution with time. This grass under TC grazing has an exceptional opportunity for a
2 rapid re-growth producing high amount of palatable herbage after each grazing period
3 soon after the soil moisture condition becomes favorable. An example of 2650 and 3685
4 kg/ha dry matter re-growth recorded in our experiment within 16 and 60 days rest periods
5 respectively show clearly the ability of this grass to take up large quantities of the
6 available nutrients from the camping site over the rest periods. Under continuous grazing
7 however, the yearlong presence of animals in the paddock inhibit such a re-growth
8 resulting in less nutrient consumption by the vegetation. The second reason is the effect
9 of smaller paddock size under TC grazing compared with continuous grazing, which
10 reduces the uneven distribution of the fecal materials across the paddocks (Haynes and
11 Williams 1993; Mueller and Green 1995).

12

13 According to Ewanek (1995) and Johnson and Eckert (1995), concern about losses of P
14 and N by overland flow and the resulting contamination of down stream water, arises
15 when nitrate and available P concentrations in soil profiles exceed 160 kg/ha and 330
16 kg/ha respectively. The total available nutrient measured from the soil profile inside the
17 camp showed the concentration of nitrate decreased sharply from 126 in 2001 to 17.6
18 kg/ha in 2006 and similarly available P declined from 222 in 2001 to 79.3 kg/ha in 2006.
19 Although the results indicate that the nutrient concentrations obtained in 2001 in
20 particular for nitrate are a little below the thresholds quoted by Ewanek and Johnson
21 nevertheless, the environmental concerns about continuous grazing still remain, as many
22 animal aggregation sites are normally established around feed lots, water trough and in
23 unproductive areas where no vegetation exists to uptake even minimum amounts of

1 available nutrients. On the other hand, much lower nutrient concentrations measured on
2 2006 under the sheep camp, once again showed that TC grazing is able to reduce the
3 animal aggregation behavior, which in turn significantly decreases the potential for the
4 contamination of downstream water bodies.

5

6 ***Effect of grazing methods on herbage production***

7

8 A full report on the results of our investigation into the impact of grazing methods on
9 herbage mass and grazing land production is beyond the scope of this paper. As the paper
10 concentrates on the impact of grazing on soil characteristics however some of the results
11 obtained on herbage production are given in fig 6 as further supporting evidence for the
12 overall superiority in herbage production of TC grazing over continuous grazing in the
13 region, and to show that the noticeable improvement in the physical and chemical
14 properties of soil under TC grazing translates directly into higher herbage production. Fig
15 6 shows the changes of herbage production under the two grazing management systems
16 over time. Although herbage mass accumulation is strongly influenced by the variation in
17 rainfall, TC grazing has shown a relatively higher overall trend (dotted line) of herbage
18 mass compared with continuous grazing through time. This aspect of the research work is
19 still in progress and the full results, once completed, will be presented separately.

20

Approximate position of Figure 6

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1 **Conclusion**

2

3 Time-controlled grazing which involves short periods of intensive grazing followed by
4 long rest periods under a flexible regeme, increases above ground organic materials and
5 protects the soil from hoof damage over continuous grazing in the region. This practice
6 also reduces the potential for contamination of downstream water quality through up
7 taking by grass of larger quantities of soluble nutrients. In relation to soil carbon, TC
8 grazing increases soil organic materials significantly only in the areas with a better soil
9 characteristic however, longer time period of monitoring may be needed to draw firm
10 conclusion about the positive impact of TC on SOC. Continuous grazing which excludes
11 rest periods however increases soil damage through reducing soil protection caused by
12 less above ground organic material accumulation and more frequent trampling. Sheep
13 aggregation camps under continuous grazing are more of environmental concern when
14 they are established in unproductive areas with no vegetation. In summary the results of
15 this study appear to suggest that TC grazing, under the prevailing conditions of the study
16 area, is superior to the continuous grazing as far as improving physical and chemical
17 quality of soil, organic material and nutrient accumulation and plant re-growth are
18 concerned. However, a longer period of data collection is needed for the differences
19 between the two grazing practices become more pronounced or statistically significant.

20

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2

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2 **Figure legends:**

3

4 Figure. 1. Changes with time in TOC and TON of soils under different grazing treatments.

5 Error bars represent standard error (se)

6

7 Figure. 2. Changes in TOC and TON levels of soils in the sub-treatments of time-controlled and
8 continuous grazing systems over the study period. Error bars represent standard error (se)

9

10 Figure. 3. Changes with time in C:N ratio of soils organic matter under different grazing
11 treatments. Error bars represent standard error (se)

12

13 Figure 4 Changes in the available nitrogen and phosphorus of soils under different grazing
14 systems during the study period. Error bars represent standard errors (se)

15

16 Figure. 5. Decline in nitrate and extractable P concentration as a result of the change in grazing
17 management over time and distance from the sheep aggregation camp.

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19 Figure. 6. Changes in herbage production in response to time-controlled and continuous grazing
20 practices and the total rain prior to the sampling dates

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Table. 1. A summary of soil characteristics in the study area

Grazing treatments	Soil depth cm	Slope %	Size fraction (%)			pH	EC mS
			sand	silt	clay		
TC grazing							
C1	40	10.2	34.6	28.7	36.7	5.9	0.07
C2	28	15.3	28.1	34.0	38.0	5.4	0.03
Continuous grazing							
C3	27	14.8	45.6	25.3	29.1	5.1	0.06
C4	42	10.0	31.6	31.0	37.4	5.9	0.08
Not grazed	35	13.0	37.1	30.0	32.9	5.6	0.04

Table. 2, Summary of stocking details for the two grazing treatments

Grazing Treatments	Grazing periods (days)	Rest periods (days)	Stocking rate (dse/ha)	Total stocking rate† dse.day/ha
TC grazing	14 ± 9‡	(101 ± 60)‡	12.6 ± 6 ‡	3608
Continuous grazing	365	0	1.6 ± 0.2	3529

‡- Means ± SD †- Total dse days per hectare (DDH) using the original data of individual grazing operations over the whole study period of 2001 to 2006

Table. 3. Statistical analysis of ground litter accumulations in the grazing treatments over time

Grazing treatments	Values range kg/ha	Model equation†	R-Square	Correlation coefficient	<i>p</i> -value
C1	1618 ± 562	Y = 0.766X + 860	0.93	0.9639	0.0005***
C2	865 ± 239	Y = 0.293X + 567	0.75	0.865	0.012 **
C3	680 ± 99	Y = -0.025X + 705	0.03	-0.1762	0.7055 <i>ns</i>
C4	716 ± 187	Y = 0.196X + 522	0.55	0.742	0.0562*
No grazed	1702 ± 601	Y = 0.561X + 114	0.44	0.6596	0.107 <i>ns</i>

*- $p \leq 0.10$ **- $p \leq 0.05$ ***- $p \leq 0.01$ ns – no significant different

† - X shows the number of days from May 2001 and Y represents the litter mass in kg/ha

Table. 4. Soil bulk density (g/cm^3) responses to the grazing treatments over the study period and the correlation (Pearson) analysis between bulk density and time

Treatments	First year †	Last year †	Difference	Correl cf	<i>p</i> -value
Mean TC grazing	1.18 ± 0.02	1.19 ± 0.02	0.01 ns		
C1	1.20 ± 0.04	1.17 ± 0.02	-0.03 ns	-0.2201	0.4891
C2	1.16 ± 0.01	1.19 ± 0.05	0.02 ns	0.2852	0.4569
Mean Continuous grazing	1.22 ± 0.04	1.26 ± 0.03	0.04 ns		
C3	1.19 ± 0.03	1.28 ± 0.04	0.09 *	0.6051	0.0843*
C4	1.25 ± 0.08	1.25 ± 0.04	0.00 ns	-0.142	0.7155
Not grazed	1.15 ± 0.01	1.16 ± 0.01	0.01 ns	0.4119	0.2706

*- $p \leq 0.10$; ns – no significant different; † - Mean ± SD

Figure 1

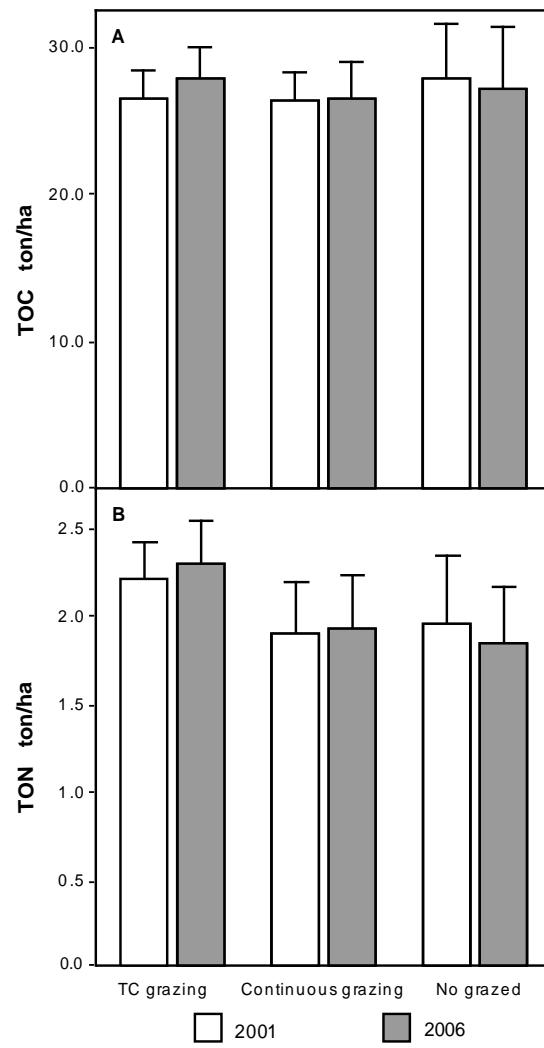


Figure 2

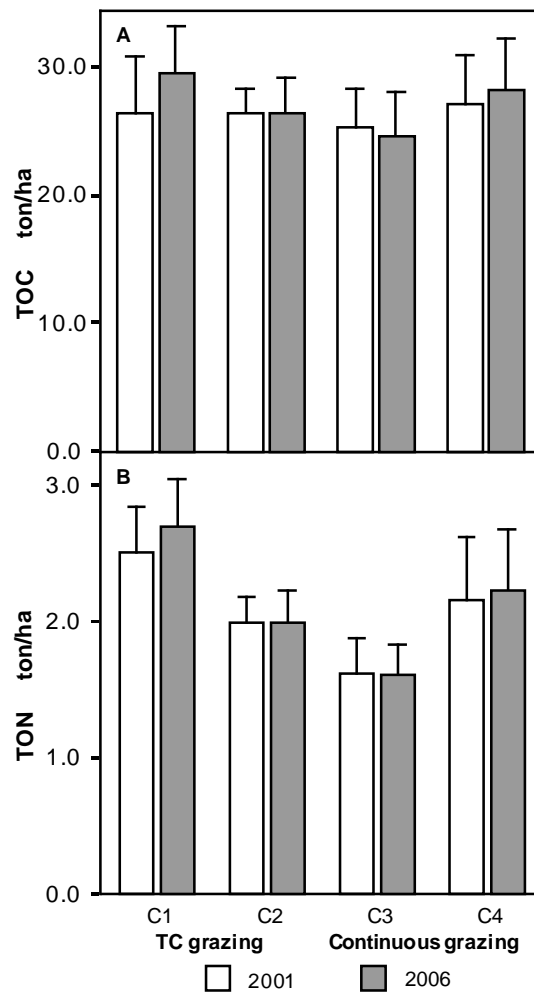


Figure 3

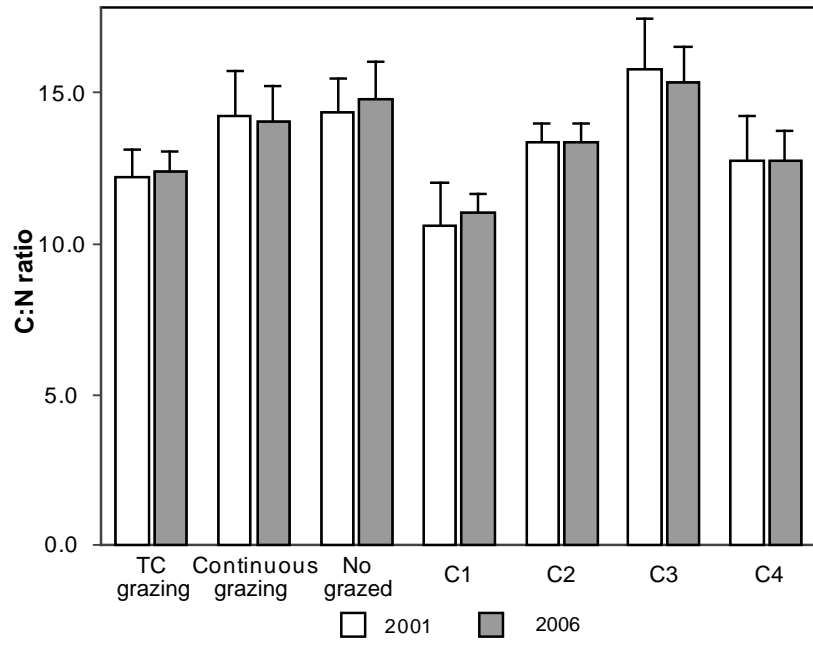


Figure 4

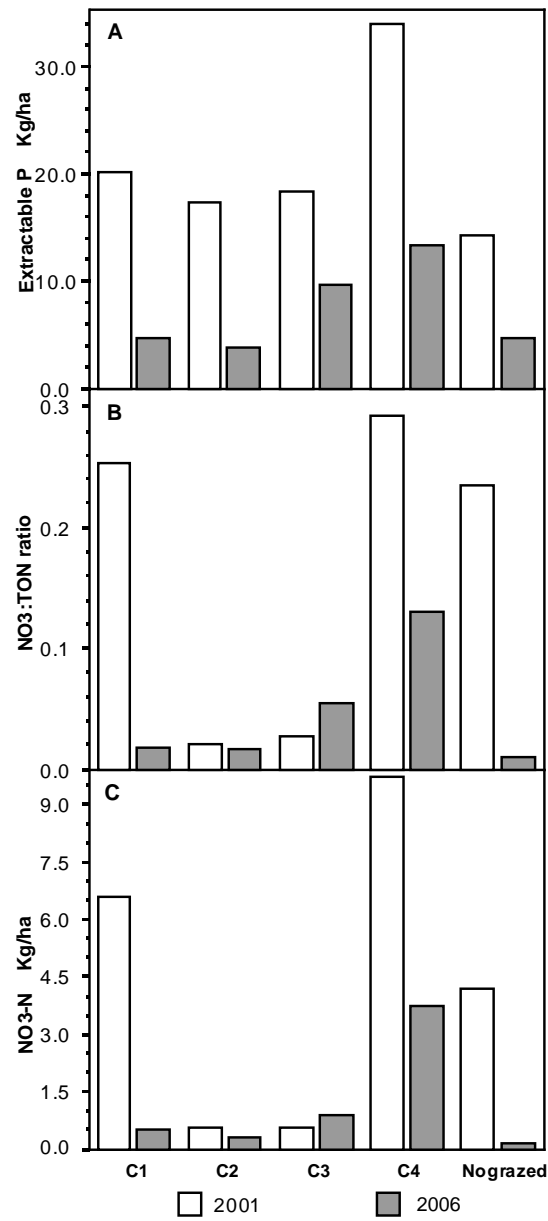


Figure 5

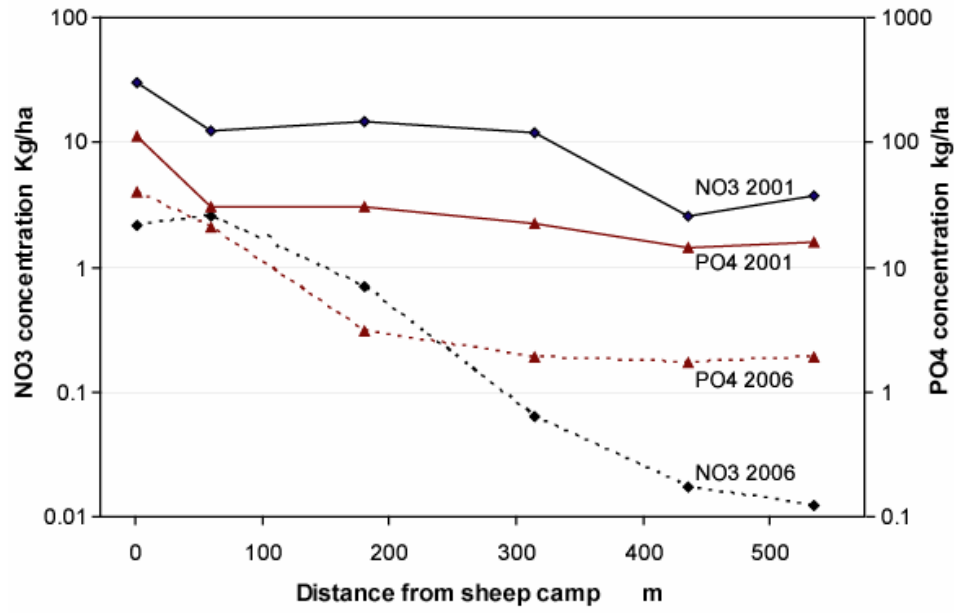


Figure 6

