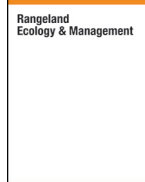




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Generation of Ecosystem Hotspots Using Short-Term Cattle Corrals in an African Savanna☆☆☆★

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ABSTRACT

Worldwide, many rangelands are managed for multiple uses, and it is increasingly important to identify 19 livestock management practices that maximize rangeland productivity, biodiversity, and wildlife conservation. 20 In sub-Saharan Africa, pastoralists and ranchers use temporary thorn-fence corrals ("bomas") to protect livestock 21 at night. Traditional boma sites (used for months or years, then abandoned) develop into productive ecosystem 22 hotspots ("glades") that attract diverse wildlife and persist for decades or even centuries. In central Kenya, 23 livestock managers have recently begun using metal-fenced "mobile bomas," which are moved after only days 24 or weeks. Although the assumption is that mobile boma sites will also develop into glades, whether or not this 25 is true remains unclear. We used a broad-scale manipulative experiment to evaluate the ecosystem-level effects 26 of mobile bomas used for 1 month. We also investigated impacts of initial boma density on glade development. 27 We randomly assigned 12 plots to one of three density treatments: one boma, two bomas 200 m apart, or two 28 bomas 100 m apart. Before the experiment and at 1, 6, 12, 18, and 32 months after boma abandonment, we 29 sampled soil nutrients, foliar nutrients, plant communities, and wildlife use (via dung counts) within abandoned 30 boma sites (experimental glades) and at paired reference sites (200 m away). After 18 months, surface soil 31 nutrient concentrations in experimental glades were similar to those in traditionally formed glades. Experimental 32 glade plant communities became dominated by a palatable, rhizomatous grass species, *Cynodon plectostachyus*. 33 After 32 months, wildlife use by browsing and mixed feeding ungulates was 9 times higher in experimental glades 34 than at paired reference sites. Boma density had few impacts on within-glade development patterns. These results 35 demonstrate that by concentrating livestock in short-term corrals, managers can create ecosystem hotspots that increase functional heterogeneity, attract wildlife, and provide palatable forage for livestock.

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Introduction

Rangelands worldwide are increasingly being managed for multiple ecosystem services, often including both livestock production and wildlife conservation. Management of the livestock that dominate many of these systems can have long-term impacts, including shifting ecosystems across thresholds into alternative ecological states. A common example is bush encroachment, wherein heavy or prolonged livestock grazing can lead to increases in woody plant cover (Scholes

and Archer, 1997; Coetzee et al., 2008). Recently, however, some attention has focused on how livestock can be used as a tool to achieve restoration and conservation objectives; for example, by rejuvenating sagebrush for sage-grouse habitat improvement (Dziba et al., 2007; Petersen et al., 2014); increasing plant diversity in ephemeral wetlands (Marty, 2005); or reducing undesirable invasive annual grass cover and associated fire risk (Diamond et al., 2009; Workgroup, 2010). In sub-Saharan Africa, centuries-long traditional livestock husbandry practices led to the creation of ecological hotspots with high nutrient availability, high productivity, unique plant communities, and preferential use by wildlife (Blackmore et al., 1990; Reid and Ellis, 1995; Young et al., 1995; Augustine et al., 2003; Treydte et al., 2006b; Muchiru et al., 2009; Söderström and Reid, 2010; van der Waal et al., 2011; Veblen, 2012; Donihue et al., 2013). Here we investigate the conditions necessary to create these hotspots and follow their initial development over 2.5 years in order to learn how livestock can be used as a tool for increasing long-term rangeland productivity and biodiversity.

Across eastern and southern Africa, livestock are traditionally kept in thorn-fence corrals, or "bomas," at night for protection against predation and theft (Western and Dunne, 1979; Blackmore et al., 1990). Traditional bomas range from 10 to more than 100 m in diameter and

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are used for months or years before being abandoned (Blackmore et al., 1990; Augustine, 2003; Muchiru et al., 2009; Söderström and Reid, 2010; van der Waal et al., 2011; Veblen, 2012). The accumulated dung layer (which can be more than 50 centimeters deep: Augustine, 2003; Muchiru et al., 2009; Veblen, 2012) results in large amounts of nitrogen, phosphorus, organic carbon, and other nutrients being concentrated at abandoned sites (Reid and Ellis, 1995; Augustine, 2003; Augustine et al., 2011; van der Waal et al., 2011; Veblen, 2012). Livestock disturbance and associated dung deposition have lasting effects on the vegetation that establishes at these sites (e.g., Stelfox, 1986; Reid and Ellis, 1995; Young et al., 1995; Muchiru et al., 2009; van der Waal et al., 2011; Veblen, 2012; Vuorio et al., 2014). Similar patterns have been observed in North America, where temporary sheep bedding sites develop

into sites with more available nutrients and distinctive plant communities (Leytem and Seefeldt, 2008; Seefeldt and Leytem, 2011).

In central Kenya, abandoned boma sites develop into treeless, lawn-grass-dominated, highly productive and nutrient-rich “glades” that persist for at least 50 years (Augustine, 2003; Augustine et al., 2003, 2011; Veblen, 2012) through a combination of legacy effects and animal-mediated feedbacks (e.g., Augustine et al., 2003; Veblen and Young, 2010; Porensky and Veblen, 2012; Veblen, 2012). In this region, novel livestock management practices have prompted increased interest in the process of glade development. Livestock managers have recently developed metal-fenced bomas (Fig. 1A and B) designed to better protect livestock against lion predation. These metal-fenced bomas have the added advantage of being highly

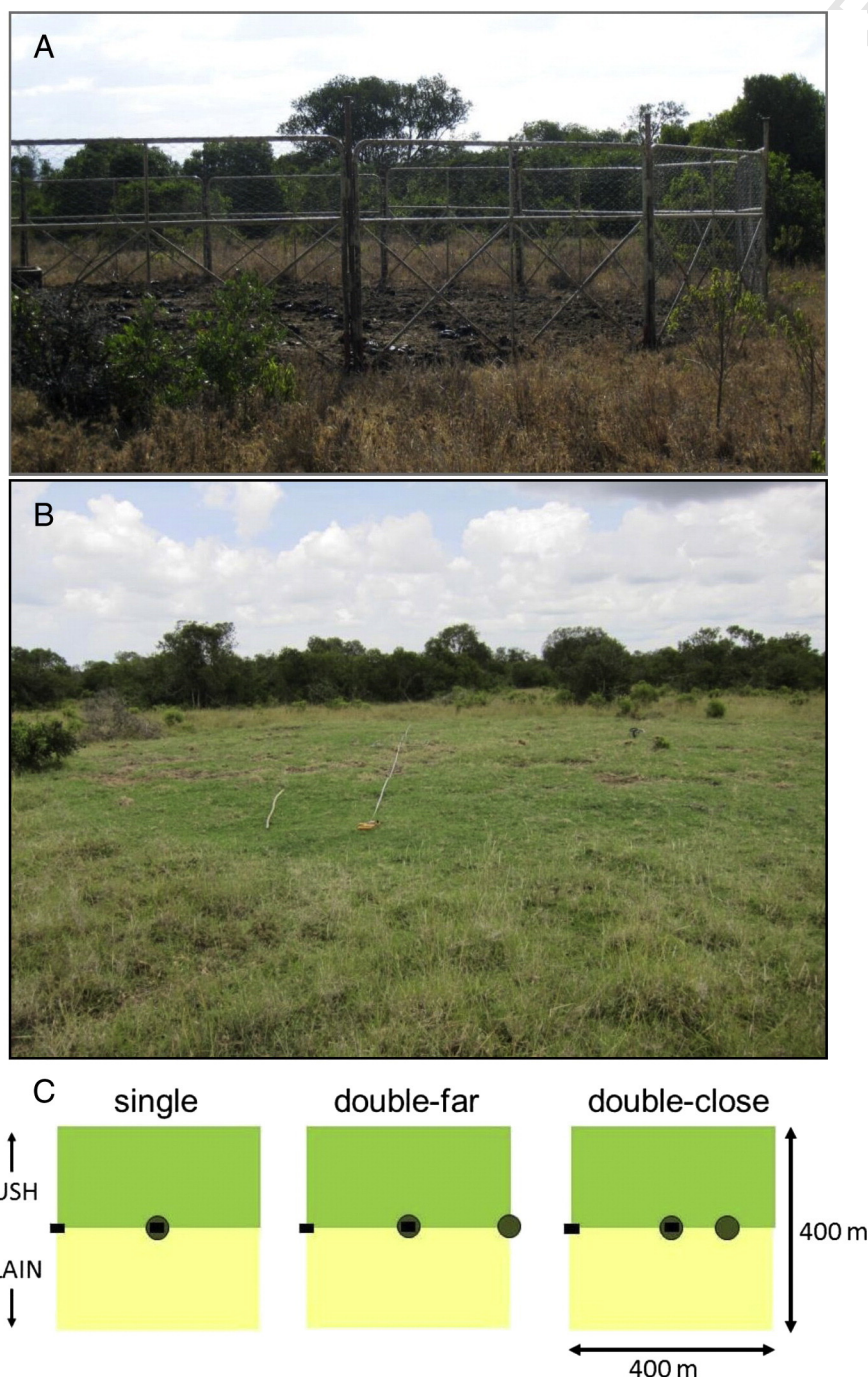


Fig. 1. A, Metal-fenced bomas protect livestock from predators and are easy to move. B, Experimental boma site 32 months after abandonment. C, Sampling design. Circles represent experimental boma sites (17.4 ± 0.7 m in diameter), and small rectangles represent 8×14 m sampling subplots.

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