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# 1 An agent-based model for assessing grazing strategies and institutional 2 arrangements in Zeku, China

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7

## 8 Keywords

9 Grassland degradation

10 Grazing systems

11 Leaf Area Index

12 Global environmental change

13 Natural Resources Management

## 14 Abstract

15 The assessment of grassland grazing strategies and institutional arrangements is  
16 essential for ensuring the sustainable development of grassland grazing systems. By  
17 employing per-pixel grazing information derived from remote sensing data, this paper  
18 presents an agent-based model of grassland grazing (ABMGG) for Zeku, China that  
19 was designed as a framework for assessing the effects of different combinations of  
20 grazing strategies and institutional arrangements on grassland status. By calibrating  
21 the parameter values of the ABMGG to the system status values under a policy that

22 has already been implemented, the ABMGG can help us to understand grassland  
23 degradation in response to management interventions for each patch of land. In the  
24 Zeku implementation, it was found that although different grazing policy scenarios  
25 could not significantly improve or decrease the overall grassland leaf area index, a  
26 rotational group grazing scenario with a land market tenure system did produce a  
27 smaller number of severely degraded grass patches than other policy scenarios  
28 (except regional continuous grazing). This provides a new perspective on the  
29 consequences of grassland management practices where past research has  
30 concentrated more on overall grassland productivity. The ABMGG can extend the  
31 ability of policy assessment tools to a high resolution level with pixel-specific real-time  
32 remote sensing data, making the assessment results more accurate and  
33 representative.

## 34 1. Introduction

35 Grazing is the most common activity on grassland that can affect the grassland system  
36 ([Adler et al., 2001](#)). There is evidence for the impact of different grazing patterns on:  
37 the movement and persistence of other organisms ([Gonzalez et al., 1990](#); [Hahn and](#)  
38 [Höfle, 2001](#); [Qu et al., 2016](#)); plant functional traits ([Cingolani et al., 2005](#)); and, the  
39 redistribution of species composition ([Frank et al., 2016](#)) and nutrients ([Ford et al.,](#)  
40 [2016](#)). Particularly in semi-arid terrestrial grasslands, grazing plays a critical role in the  
41 continuous and directional changes of grasslands at different time-scale and  
42 compositional gradients ([Moreno García et al., 2014](#); [Porensky et al., 2016](#)).

43 For grazing grasslands that are overseen by herders or managers, grazing strategies  
44 are important management tools. Rotational and continuous grazing strategies may

45 have little effect on the frequency, severity or variation of grazing-led grass  
46 defoliation ([Hart et al., 1993](#)) and its botanical composition ([Taylor, 1989](#)) if the  
47 stocking rates remain the same. Compared to standard rotational grazing, grasslands  
48 subject to intensive rotational grazing, with a higher number of subdivisions given  
49 over to longer resting periods, preserve the storage biomass more closely to  
50 maximum yield, and therefore can maintain higher stocking rates ([Barnes et al., 2008](#);  
51 [Jakoby et al., 2014](#); [Savory and Parsons, 1980](#); [Teague et al., 2011](#)). The rotational  
52 grazing strategy increases income and improves rangeland conditions, but might  
53 demand high management costs ([Beukes et al., 2002](#)) and the risk of forage shortage  
54 if livestock stocking rates are too high ([Hart et al., 1993](#)).

55 In addition, institutional arrangements can affect grassland systems. Research on the  
56 institutional arrangements targeting grazing removal on grasslands, which have  
57 largely been implemented in Sanjiangyuan, China ([Lu et al., 2015](#); [Wang et al., 2010](#)),  
58 suggests such policies run the risk of exacerbating both poverty and degradation ([Yeh,](#)  
59 [2009](#)). Land market institutional arrangements can aggregate grazing land into larger  
60 units, which can better achieve an efficient allocation of grassland resources and  
61 economies of scale in livestock production ([Gongbuzeren et al., 2016](#)). The complex  
62 and comprehensive nature of the impact of different grazing strategies and  
63 institutional arrangements ([Briske et al., 2015](#)) on the ecological, socio-economic and  
64 climatic conditions ([Campbell et al., 2006](#)) of grassland systems should be considered  
65 before selecting robust management strategies and institutional arrangements ([Hart](#)  
66 [et al., 1993](#); [Thornton et al., 2009](#)).

67 In the last few decades, the policies and institutions have changed dramatically, and in  
68 many places, a great deal of common grasslands are being privatised to households  
69 by contract, or are being permanently redistributed ([Archambault, 2014](#); [Humphrey  
70 and Sneath, 1999](#); [Ojanen et al., 2014](#); [Wisner, 2012](#)). The initial motivation of  
71 privatisation was to create a better incentive for herders to improve the productivity  
72 of grasslands ([Conte and Tilt, 2014](#); [Fernandez-Gimenez et al., 2015](#); [Moritz et al.,  
73 2015](#)). With the privatisation of grasslands, the behaviours and decision-making of  
74 herders have changed in response to dramatic changes in the relationship between  
75 herders and institutions ([Jun et al., 2013](#)), for example, the herders can rent or lease  
76 lands from the other herders, rather than competitively maximize the use of common  
77 grasslands. The decision-making of herders can be affected by high-level institutional  
78 arrangements, which, in some places, essentially amount to group management. For  
79 example, in China's grasslands, the government has encouraged the herders to join a  
80 grazing group by investing their land or livestock ([Xiaoyi, 2007](#)). How these new  
81 institutional arrangements and grassland policies affect the performance of the  
82 grassland grazing system is an important topic in sustainable grassland development.  
83 At this point, agent-based modelling has proved to be an effective tool for evaluating  
84 the effects of different institutional arrangements on the grassland grazing system  
85 caused by herders' decision-making ([Jun et al., 2013](#)).

86 The agent-based model of the grassland grazing is usually linked to ecological and  
87 socio-economic sub-models. The ecological sub-system is a simplified version of the  
88 more comprehensive model, and the relations are usually empirically based [Gross et  
89 al. \(2006\)](#). As such, an example would be a socio-economic sub-system that typically  
90 affects the decision-making of the 'regulator' or the behaviour of pastoralists. The

91 regulator comprises the policy and institutional environment within which pastoralists  
92 make management decisions. The decision-making processes of the regulator or the  
93 pastoralists should ideally be based on theory (although *ad hoc* assumptions are  
94 widely used in ABMs) ([Abel, 1998](#)), involving cultural anthropology, economics,  
95 organisational and management practice, and political-economic background ([Levin  
96 et al., 2013](#)). [Janssen et al. \(2000\)](#) built an adaptive agent model, which included the  
97 competition between grassland shrub and heterogeneity in the vegetation growth  
98 rate, but the *ad hoc* assumptions, such as the linear relationship between stocking  
99 rate and grass biomass, assumed a threshold of good and bad conditions that limited  
100 the use of this model in other regions. Similar research was carried out by [Gross et al.  
101 \(2006\)](#), who built a conceptual framework of an adaptive ABM, trying to link climatic  
102 conditions, biophysical processes and institutional arrangements; however, the fixed  
103 stocking rate assumption, and the assumed values of the parameters in both the  
104 biophysical and pastoral sub-models made the results susceptible to uncertainties  
105 caused by such settings. [Jun et al. \(2013\)](#) analysed the socio-ecological performance  
106 of different institutional arrangement experiments using an ABM that revealed  
107 cooperation mechanisms under climate change adaptation ([Jun et al., 2013](#)), but the  
108 absence of explicit per-pixel productivity and livestock grazing data in the model make  
109 the results less convincing. [Sakamoto \(2016\)](#) developed an ABM based on remote  
110 sensing data. In this model, the movement behaviours of the pastoralists were driven  
111 by the availability of local resource, as represented by vegetation index and  
112 movement costs. The spatiotemporal patterns of land use intensity caused by  
113 movement of the pastoralists were produced; however, there were numerous *ad hoc*  
114 assumptions related to the behaviour of the pastoralists (for example, grazing range,

115 frequency and carrying capacity) that, made the model less credible when applied to  
116 a place where conditions violated those assumptions. The results of the model have  
117 not been validated, and the effects of different grazing strategies and institutional  
118 arrangements were not considered in the model. In addition, [Troost and Berger](#)  
119 [\(2014\)](#) analysed the uncertainty of the ABM at the farm level. The importance of  
120 interactions among agents was highlighted in this fully connected ABM, addressing  
121 the uncertainty in the model structure, as well as gaps and fuzziness caused by data  
122 uncertainty and *ad hoc* model assumptions, but finding that uncertainties can be  
123 reduced by cautious calibration and a comprehensive uncertainty analysis.

124 To conclude, it appears from the literature that the common characteristics of the  
125 approach and its defects in modelling of grassland grazing are:

- 126 • the biophysical parts in the ABM of grassland grazing systems are commonly  
127 empirically based, which means that the development of the vegetation is  
128 highly dependent on historically observed data, and so such ABMs share all of  
129 the defects that are present in the empirical model;
- 130 • ABMs of grassland grazing systems usually involve input from a lot of datasets,  
131 parameter values and *ad hoc* or theory-based assumptions, and they are  
132 sometimes derived from data containing uncertainties. However, there are  
133 few types of research that address such uncertainty, which is partly due to the  
134 difficulty of collecting data or carrying out experiments. It is also important to  
135 balance modelling complexity with uncertainty ([Holling, 2001](#)); and
- 136 • the aggregated overall regional/farm/site-scale dynamic of the vegetation or  
137 the livestock can be well represented in the model output, but spatial

138 distribution patterns are rarely seen in the existing research, especially models  
139 with patch-specific real-world data.

140 In summary, prior research has been limited by the absence of data on one or more  
141 of: patch-specific grazing; individual grazing strategies; and institutional  
142 arrangements. This paper presents an Agent-based Model of Grassland Grazing  
143 (ABMGG) that attempts to address the drawbacks of the current state-of-the-art. By  
144 incorporating per-pixel grazing information derived from remote sensing data, the  
145 aim is to assess land degradation status under different combination of grazing  
146 strategies and institutional arrangements based on individual interactions and  
147 decision-making centred on patch-specific grazing information. In addition, the  
148 uncertainty of the model will be explored, which will further credit the reliability of  
149 the modelling results.

## 150 2. Methods

### 151 2.1 A proxy of plant status: Leaf area index

152 As summarised above, the lack of patch-specific grazing and grassland productivity  
153 data hinders further research on grazing systems, especially large-scale studies. This  
154 study used leaf area index (LAI) as a proxy for plant status. The LAI is generally defined  
155 as the total one-sided green leaf area per unit ground area for flat broadleaf plants  
156 ([Monteith and Reifsnyder, 1974](#)) or one-half the total green leaf area per unit ground  
157 area for conifers needles ([Chen and Black, 1992](#)). In this study, the LAI after grazing  
158 was the focus because:



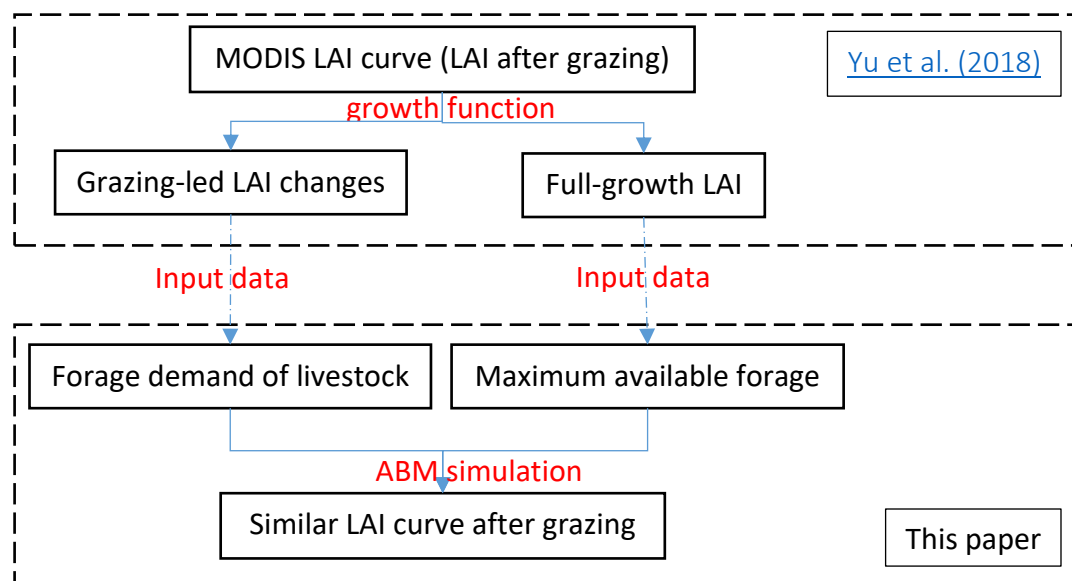
- 159 • LAI after grazing is an indicator for the evaluation of grassland status, and  
160 whether LAI after grazing is significantly different under various grazing  
161 management scenarios was to be explored through the ABMGG; and
- 162 • degraded patches (see Section 2.3) are classified based on the ratio of LAI  
163 after grazing and full-growth LAI, and the number of degraded patches is  
164 another important concern in the evaluation of overall grassland status.

165 The patch-specific grazing-led LAI changes and the full-growth LAI (theoretical LAI if  
166 no grazing happens) were calculated following [Yu et al. \(2018\)](#):

$$167 \quad L_{full\ growth} = L_m + L_0 e^{k_1 t - k_2 t^2 + C}$$

168 **Eq. 1**

169 where  $L_{full\ growth}$  is the theoretical LAI value without the effects of previous grazing  
170 or current grazing;  $t$  is the day of the year, and for example,  $t=1$  means the beginning  
171 of the calendar year (January 1st );  $L_m$  is the background LAI,  $L_0$  is the initial LAI,  $k_1$ ,  
172  $k_2$  and  $C$  are the parameters describing growth and senescence of the grass, as  
173 estimated by [Yu et al. \(2018\)](#). In this paper, the grazing-led LAI changes (direct  
174 changes in LAI caused by grazing) were used as forage demand for every eight-day  
175 period for each patch, and the full-growth LAI was used as the maximum available  
176 forage in each patch (Fig. 1). The aim was to produce a similar LAI curve after grazing  
177 (by calibration) as it has been observed in the MODIS LAI. Then, a scenario analysis  
178 was carried out in order to assess the effects of different grazing strategies and  
179 institutional arrangements on grassland status.



180

181 **Fig. 1: The patch-specific data source in the ABMGG**

182

183 **2.2 Grazing strategies and institutional arrangements in Zeku, China**

184 The ABMGG was designed to assess the effects of different combinations of grazing  
 185 strategies and institutional arrangements on grassland status. Grazing strategies  
 186 include rotational, continuous and un-grazed land use (land reserved for winter use or  
 187 other purposes). There are two institutional arrangements in Zeku—group grazing  
 188 and land market tenure. Group grazing is essentially a cooperative farming policy in  
 189 which herders share individually tenured land parcels. Rotational grazing is  
 190 ubiquitously adopted in group grazing in the case study area—Zeku, China. In land  
 191 market tenure, one herder rents or leases land from another herder at the beginning  
 192 of the year, and then they can put some of their livestock on that rented land. This is a  
 193 kind of smaller-scale group grazing, but in line with market demand. As with other  
 194 areas in China, the land market occupies only a small proportion of the overall

195 institutional arrangements due to a lack of willingness to lease land to strangers and  
196 the high costs of renting ([Wang et al., 2013](#)).

### 197 2.3 LAI after grazing in the ABMGG

198 This section provides an introduction to the key process of the ABMGG—LAI after  
199 grazing. Per-pixel grass growth and grazing data were used to assess the effect of  
200 grazing strategies and institutional arrangements on the grassland status caused by  
201 individual herders' decision-making. A detailed overview, design, concept and detail  
202 and decision (ODD+D) description of the ABMGG can be found in Appendix A, where  
203 each part of the model is introduced in a standardised way.

204 The LAI after grazing is the key proxy for evaluating grassland status after grazing in  
205 this paper. Below, we explain how it was simulated by the ABMGG before providing a  
206 detailed description of the model itself. We designed the model landscape to match  
207 the MODIS LAI maps. Each land patch in the ABMGG represents a grassland area of  
208 463×463 m<sup>2</sup>. For each continuous and rotational grazing patch, a livestock agent  
209 associated with it at the start of the year.

210 In order to simulate the group grazing behaviour of the livestock in Zeku, all the  
211 rotational grazing patches were assigned a group and sub-group identification; the  
212 livestock on the same group patches have the same group identification. The livestock  
213 can only move in and out of patches with the same group identification. For each  
214 step, the total grass feeding demand of the group was calculated by:

$$215 \quad LDT_t = \sum_{i=1}^m LDI_{i,t}$$

216

Eq. 2

217 , where  $m$  is the number of livestock agents in the group and  $t$  is the time step.  $LDI_{i,t}$   
 218 represents the grass feeding demand of the individual agent and,  $LDT_t$  is the total  
 219 grass feeding demand of the group. For continuous grazing patches,  $m = 1$ , which  
 220 means only one herder agent on the patch, and their livestock continuously graze on  
 221 those patches.

222 For each rotational grazing patch in the sub-group, the LAI decrease caused by grazing  
 223 was assumed to be proportional to its current available LAI, which means that  
 224 selective foraging behaviour of the livestock was not considered in the model. That is,  
 225 the greater the currently available LAI of the patch, the bigger the LAI decrease  
 226 caused by grazing. This can be expressed by:

$$227 \quad LGI_{i,t} = LDT_t \times LCI_{i,t} / \sum_{i=1}^n LCI_{i,t}$$

228 Eq. 3

229 , where  $LGI_{i,t}$  is the LAI decrease of a grazed patch in the sub-group,  $LCI_{i,t}$  is the  
 230 current LAI before current grazing of each patch in the sub-group,  $\sum_{i=1}^n LCI_{i,t}$  is the  
 231 total available LAI in the sub-group and,  $n$  is the total number of patches in the sub-  
 232 group. For continuous grazing patches,  $LGI_{i,t}$  is the LAI decrease of the individual  
 233 patch, and is not affected by the other patches.

234 The current LAI before grazing ( $LCI_{i,t}$ ) for each patch was calculated as the  
 235 subtraction of the effect of previous grazing on LAI from the full-growth LAI:

$$236 \quad LCI_{i,t} = L_{full\ growth} - LAI_{previous\ effect}$$

237 Eq. 4

238 , where  $LAI_{i,t}$  is the current LAI before grazing, and  $LAI_{previous\ effect}$  is the effect of  
239 previous grazing on the LAI.

240 Finally, the LAI after grazing was calculated by taking the difference between the  
241 current available LAI and the grazing-led LAI changes (the grazing demand on the LAI,  
242 or the effect of current grazing). The effect of current grazing is the total livestock  
243 consumption during the eight-day period, which can be calculated by Eq. 3. The  
244 livestock will eat forage production on grassland, and the LAI of the grassland will  
245 change accordingly. The effect of previous grazing was calculated through averaging  
246 of previous LAI after grazing and full-growth LAI from the next iteration (average of  
247 the two neighbouring LAI time-series). At the beginning of each simulation year, the  
248 effect of both previous and current grazing is 0 (no grazing happening); while for  
249 continuous or rotational grazing patches where previous grazing had occurred, the  
250 effect of previous grazing could be calculated by:

$$251 \quad LAI_{previous\ effect} = L_{full\ growth} - (LAI_{after\ grazing-1} + LAI_{full\ growth+1})/2$$

252 Eq. 5

253 , where  $LAI_{after\ grazing-1}$  is the  $LAI_{after\ grazing}$  value at its previous iteration and  
254  $LAI_{full\ growth+1}$  is the  $L_{full\ growth}$  value at the next iteration. At the beginning of  
255 each simulation year, the effect of both previous and current grazing is 0 (that is,  
256  $LAI_{previous\ effect} = 0$ , no grazing is happening). The rest of work was then to make  
257 sure that  $LAI_{after\ grazing}$  derived from ABMGG matched the LAI observed from the  
258 MODIS LAI dataset and to examine how  $LAI_{after\ grazing}$  changed with different policy  
259 scenarios.

260 One model iteration (step) accounted for eight days of simulated time (this is the  
261 temporal resolution of the MODIS LAI data). Simulations lasted for 46 time steps,  
262 representing the years for which data was available (2011). The livestock owned by  
263 rotational herder agents could move from one sub-group of patches to another sub-  
264 group of patches. For continuous grazing land, once livestock entered the land patch,  
265 they did not move to other land patches. The LAI decreased accordingly after  
266 livestock grazing, with the LAI after grazing for each patch at each time step being  
267 calculated by (variables introduced in Eq. 3 and Eq. 4):

$$268 \quad \mathbf{LAI}_{after\ grazing} = \mathbf{LCI}_{i,t} - \mathbf{LGI}_{i,t}$$

269 **Eq. 6**

270

#### 271 2.4 Policy assessment criteria: Grassland degradation under grazing

272 In this paper, we focus on the degradation status of patches. Land degradation is  
273 defined as a long-term loss of functionality and productivity ([Bai et al., 2008](#)).

274 Although grassland degradation is a synthesis of results from multiple criteria relating  
275 to the soil and plants ([Akiyama and Kawamura, 2007](#)), it can be measured using  
276 remotely sensed data. As a proxy, we used a decrease in LAI to measure grassland  
277 degradation. The number of degraded patches were simply counted, according to one  
278 of the Chinese national criteria in the 'Parameters for degradation, sandification and  
279 saltification of rangelands' ([Su et al., 2003](#)). That is, if the decrease in LAI is less than  
280 10% of expected LAI, it will be classified as an unaffected grassland type ('no effect' in  
281 this paper), which means the patch has not been degraded. If it is between 10% and  
282 20%, the land patch is classified as slightly degraded type; with medium degraded

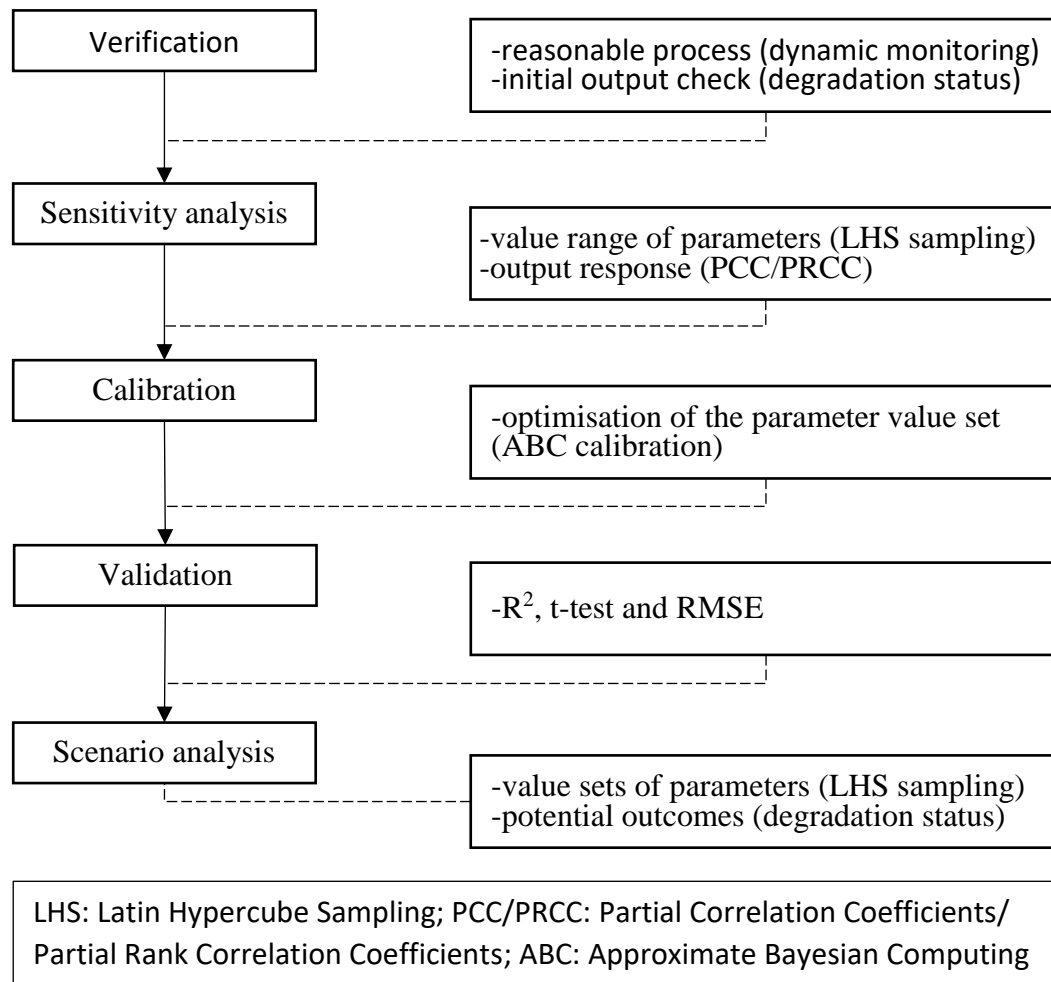
283 land patch involving a decrease of LAI of between 20% and 50%, and a severely  
284 degraded land exceeding 50%. While more sophisticated multiple criteria approaches  
285 could be used, this gives a solid, policy-orientated metric.

286 To demonstrate how grazing strategies and institutional arrangements affect  
287 grassland status (measured by LAI after grazing, and by the number of degraded  
288 patches), we first calibrated the model by ensuring that the output matched the  
289 remote sensing derived grazing pattern (degraded patches) well. Following this, we  
290 then explored the impact of different combinations of group grazing, and the moving  
291 and marketing behaviours of herders, on the model outputs. To begin with, we  
292 explain the simulated the patch-specific LAI after grazing (the most important model  
293 output).

## 294 2.5 Model evaluation

295 After building the ABMGG, the rest of the work involved making sure it worked  
296 reasonably well; that is, to ensure the parameter values, interactions, process and  
297 output were working in the same manner as the real grassland grazing system,  
298 thereby allowing the policy assessment to proceed. In fact, the process of policy  
299 assessment was intimately tied to the validation and scenario analysis of the ABMGG  
300 (Fig. 2). The evaluation process consisted of model verification, a Partial (Rank)  
301 Correlation Coefficient (PCC/PRCC) sensitivity analysis and Approximate Bayesian  
302 Computing (ABC) calibration; detailed descriptions of these processes can be found in  
303 Appendix B. After calibration, the  $R^2$  between simulated and observed grazing-led LAI  
304 changes is 0.978, and the p-value of the T-test is 0.66, which indicates they are still  
305 statistically similar.

306 Following the evaluation, the policy scenario analysis proceeded through analysis of  
 307 the outputs by changing the value sets of the model parameters.



309 **Fig. 2: Validation and scenario analysis framework for policy assessment**

310

## 311 2.6 Scenario analysis of different grazing strategies and institutional 312 arrangements

313 The scenario analysis was intended to explore the potential outcomes of the  
 314 combination of different grazing strategies and institutional arrangements at the  
 315 study site (see Section 2.2). The experiments in the scenario analysis simulated how



316 the number of degraded patches changes under different strategies. Are the current  
 317 grazing strategies and institutional arrangements the best choice, or is there an  
 318 alternative? Eight experiments were conducted in order to answer these questions,  
 319 involving varying the behaviour of the herder agents. For each scenario, the model  
 320 was run for 50 replicates. The combinations of all these rules are listed in Table 1.

321 **Table 1: Combinations of different grazing strategies and institutional arrangements**

ID	grouping	moving	marketing	explanation
TTT	√	√	√	<b>Current choice scenario (group rotational grazing scenario):</b> parameter values exactly the same as validation experiment (mean value of parameter values after calibration). Grazing groups are formed on rotational grazing patches, and the livestock can move from one sub-group to another sub-group during grass growth period; herders on the continuous grazing patches can rent/lease land from/to other continuous grazing herders.
TTF	√	√	×	<b>No market scenario:</b> similar to TTT, but there is no leasing/renting behaviour among continuous grazing herders.
TFF	√	×	×	<b>Group continuous grazing without market scenario:</b> grazing groups are formed on rotational grazing patches, but livestock

				owned by the rotational grazing herders cannot move from one land patch to another, and they continuously graze on the land in the group; there are no land market behaviours.
<b>FTT</b>	×	×	√	<b>Regional continuous grazing with market scenario:</b> herders can lease/rent land from other herders on continuous grazing lands; there are no grazing groups, and the livestock does not move among patches; herders on the continuous grazing lands can lease/rent lands.
<b>FTT</b>	×	√	√	<b>Random moving with market scenario:</b> there are no grazing groups, but the livestock owned by rotational grazing herders can move randomly among all the rotational grazing patches;
<b>TFT</b>	√	×	√	<b>Group continuous grazing with market scenario,</b> it is similar to TFF, but the herders on the continuous grazing lands can rent/lease lands from the other continuous grazing herders.
<b>FTF</b>	×	√	×	<b>Random moving without market scenario:</b> similar to FTT, but the herders on the continuous grazing lands can rent/lease

				lands from the other continuous grazing herders.
<b>FFF</b>	x	x	x	<b>Regional continuous grazing without market scenario:</b> there are grazing groups on the rotational grazing patches, and also no leasing/renting behaviours of the herders on continuous grazing patches.

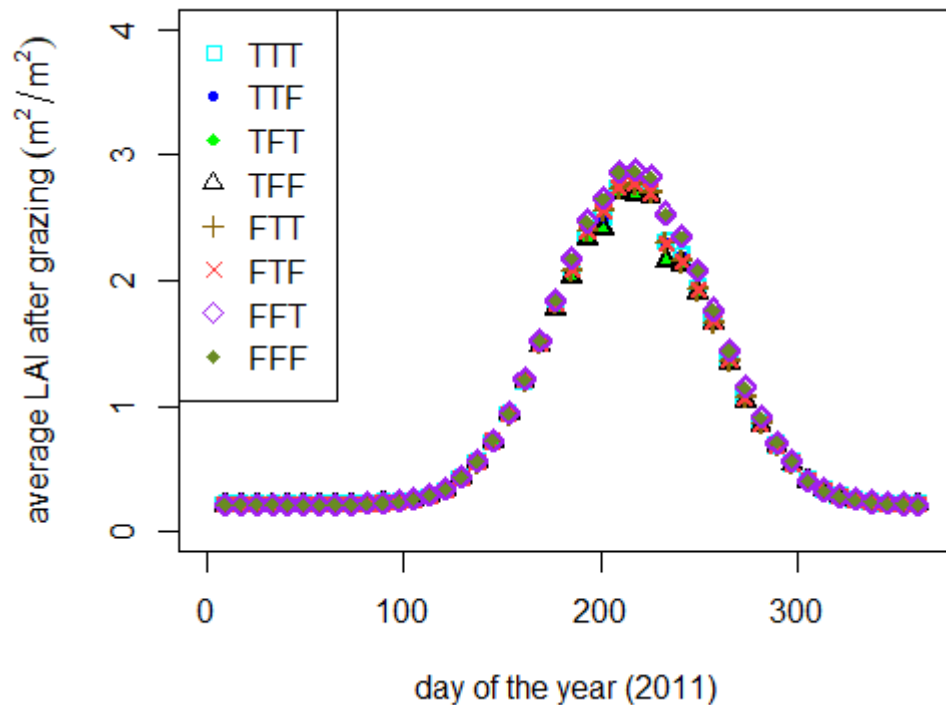
322 *Note: ✓ means scenario include that behaviour, while x means it does not; grouping—*  
323 *whether agents on rotational grazing lands form local grazing groups; rotation—*  
324 *whether livestock owned by herder agents on rotational grazing lands will move in/out*  
325 *based on a pre-defined order, which is randomized; marketing—whether the*  
326 *leasing/renting relationship of herders exists in the model, and there is an overall*  
327 *percentage of marketing herders, but the herders are randomly selected.*  
328

### 329 3. Results of the scenario analysis

#### 330 3.1. LAI after grazing under different scenarios

331 The regional average (continuous and rotational grazing patches) of the LAI after  
332 grazing is shown in Fig. 3. The average LAIs after grazing under FFF (regional  
333 continuous grazing without market scenario) and FFT (regional continuous grazing  
334 with market scenario) were the highest among all the scenarios; TFT (group  
335 continuous grazing with market scenario) and TFF (group continuous grazing without  
336 market scenario) gave the lowest average LAIs after grazing among all the scenarios.  
337 The standard deviation of the 50 simulations for each scenario was too small to be

338 presented in Fig. 3Error! Reference source not found., and did not significantly affect  
 339 the statistical analysis later.



340

341 **Fig. 3: The LAI after grazing for all combinations of grazing strategies and**  
 342 **institutional arrangements**

343

344 Although the t-test can report the significance level of the difference, it is only  
 345 suitable for two-sample comparisons. In order to know whether these differences  
 346 among the eight scenarios were statically significant, Tukey's honest significance  
 347 (TukeyHSD) test was employed. It has been designed for multiple comparisons (more  
 348 than three samples). The TukeyHSD test showed they were statistically the same,  
 349 where the zero difference line is within the range of all 99% confidence levels of the  
 350 difference pairs. This is similar to previous studies ([Jerrentrup et al., 2015](#); [Woodward](#)  
 351 [et al., 1995](#)) that showed that different grazing strategies or institutional

352 arrangements cannot improve or decrease the productivity of the grassland (herein,  
353 the productivity of the grassland is represented by the LAI) significantly.

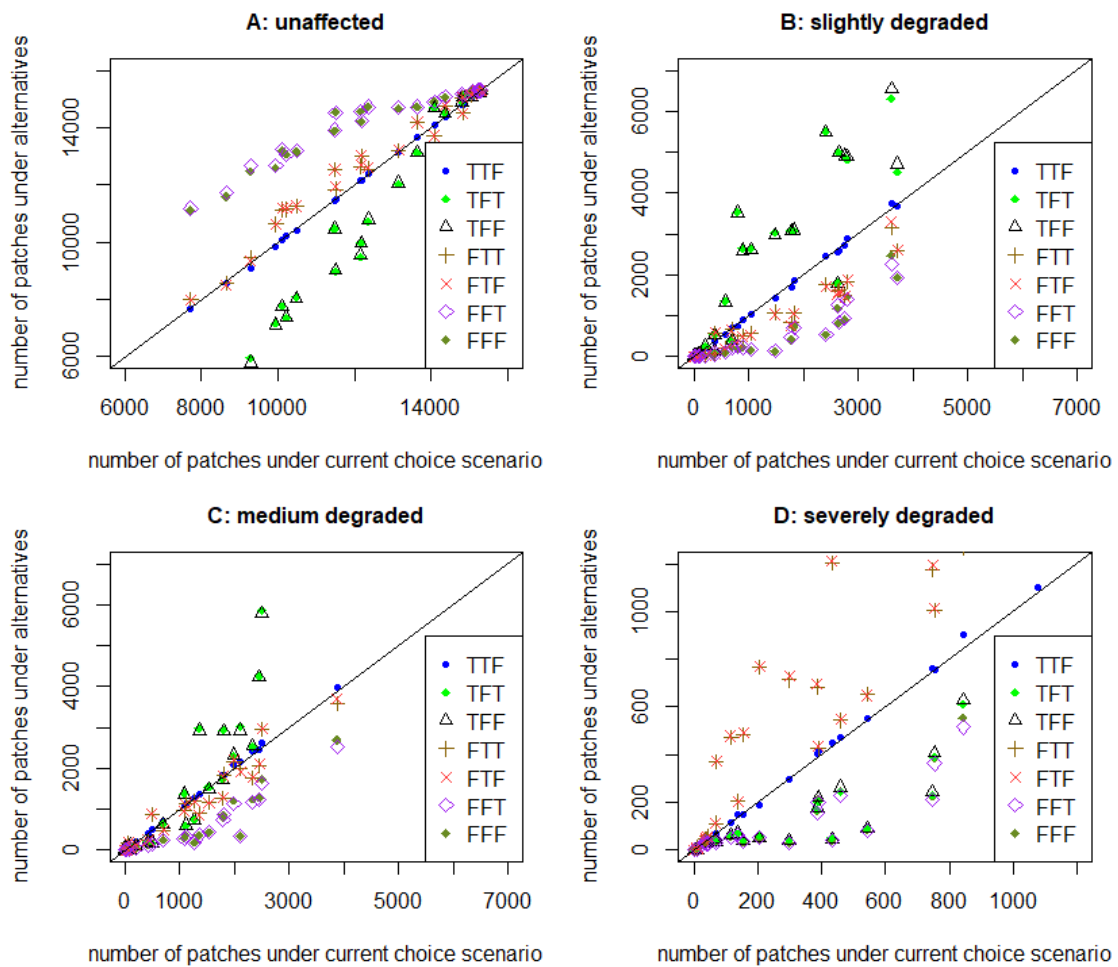
354

### 355 3.2. Number of degraded patches

356 Another important output of the ABMGG was the number of degraded patches,  
357 which were calculated for each time step for all 50 replicates. The mean values for  
358 each time step were plotted against the current choice scenario (Fig. 4). The standard  
359 deviations of those 50 simulations, however, were too small to be presented in Fig. 4,  
360 indicating that the stochastic uncertainties in the ABMGG had limited effect on the  
361 results of the scenario analysis.

362 Overall, the regional continuous grazing scenarios (FFF and FFT) produced the  
363 smallest average number of severely degraded patches and the largest number of  
364 unaffected patches. The land market could have a positive effect on the number of  
365 unaffected patches, but a negative effect on the number of slightly, medium and  
366 severely degraded patches, which indicates that an appropriate land market strategy  
367 could improve the grassland status under grazing, as it produces fewer slightly,  
368 medium and severely degraded patches, and the greater number of unaffected  
369 patches. Group continuous grazing scenarios (TFF and TFT) can produce a smaller  
370 number of severely degraded patches than that of the current choice scenario (TTT),  
371 but they also produce a higher number of the slightly and medium degraded patches,  
372 and a smaller number of unaffected patches than the current choice scenario (TTT).  
373 Regional randomly moving scenarios (FTT and FTF) produced the largest number of  
374 severely degraded patches compared to all the other scenarios, but also produced a

375 smaller number of slightly and medium degraded patches, and a greater number of  
 376 unaffected patches compared to the current choice scenario.



377

378 Fig. 4: Effects of different combination of grazing strategies and institutional  
 379 arrangements on number of degraded patches (unit for all axes is: number of  
 380 degraded patches)

381

## 382 4. Discussion

383 Policy assessment is critical for successful policy development and implementation,  
 384 especially in the complex grassland grazing system. However, assessment of such

385 natural resource related policies has usually been neglected and a substantial gap is  
386 emerging between theory and practice ([Wallace et al., 1995](#)), which may lead to  
387 unsuccessful or harmful policy implementations ([Sallis et al., 1998](#); [Sarewitz et al.,](#)  
388 [2000](#)). An example can be seen in the effect of long-term exclusion policies, which  
389 have been implemented to improve grassland productivity, but infact have caused  
390 loss of plant cover and diversity in arid regions ([Oba et al., 2000](#)). The same is true for  
391 institutional changes in Inner Mongolia, where market and protection policies have  
392 actually suppressed local incentives for grassland conservation ([Robinson et al., 2017](#)).

393 Existing methods and models for the assessment of the coupled human and natural  
394 system have not provided an integrated evaluation that is sensitive to household  
395 decision-making, policy/institutional arrangements and natural constraints ([Bellamy](#)  
396 [et al., 2001](#)). The bottom-up ABM discussed in this paper accounts for the  
397 heterogeneity in grassland resources, individual herder' decision-making and plant-  
398 livestock interactions. After calibration with real grassland situations, the ABMGG has  
399 the capability to assess the effect of different policies on grassland status. This  
400 provides a new perspective through which to undertake policy assessment for  
401 grassland grazing system.

402 It was found that different grazing management scenarios have no effect on the LAI  
403 after grazing, that is, different grazing management scenarios could not significantly  
404 improve or decrease grassland LAI. This is similar to findings from previous studies  
405 ([Jerrentrup et al., 2015](#); [Woodward et al., 1995](#)), suggesting that grazing intensity,  
406 rather than grazing strategy, is the main factor in changes in grassland productivity.  
407 Importantly, however, the grassland *status* was different under those scenarios.

408 Although the regional continuous grazing scenario performed best, with more  
409 unaffected patches and fewer slightly, medium and severely degraded patches,  
410 compared to the other scenarios, the proportionally spatial distribution assumption of  
411 the livestock grazing intensity to the available forage on the patches in the regional  
412 continuous grazing scenario could make it quite difficult to be implemented, due to  
413 potentially high management costs. Compared to the group continuous grazing  
414 scenario and regional randomly moving scenario, the group rotational grazing  
415 (current choice scenario) was a reasonable grazing management implementation for  
416 Zeku; it is a group level management strategy, which involves subdividing the land  
417 patches in the groups.

418 The grassland degradation status was different under different policy scenarios,  
419 however. group grazing with land market tenure was the best with regard to fewer  
420 severely degraded patches and more unaffected patches. It reduced the spatial  
421 heterogeneity of forage distribution. The livestock on low-productivity land with a  
422 relatively high stocking rate could move to high-productivity land rather than  
423 continuously graze on that land. Compared to standard rotational grazing, grasslands  
424 with intensive rotational grazing, with a higher number of subdivisions that have  
425 longer resting periods, preserve storage biomass closer to maximum yield, and  
426 therefore can maintain higher stocking rates ([Barnes et al., 2008](#); [Jakoby et al., 2014](#);  
427 [Savory and Parsons, 1980](#); [Teague et al., 2011](#)). The rotational grazing strategy  
428 increases income and improves rangeland conditions, but might demand high  
429 management costs ([Beukes et al., 2002](#)), and the risk of forage shortage if livestock  
430 stocking rates are too high ([Hart et al., 1993](#)). However, although rotational and  
431 continuous grazing strategies may have little effect on the frequency, severity or



432 variation of the grazing-led defoliation of grass ([Hart et al., 1993](#)) and its botanical  
433 composition ([Taylor, 1989](#)) if maintained at the same stocking rates, this research  
434 reported similar results (see Fig. 3), although the degradation structure of the land  
435 would change with different grazing strategies and institutional arrangements (see  
436 Fig. 5).

437 Under the current grazing intensity in Zeku, regional continuous grazing appears to be  
438 the best choice, as it can produce a greater number of unaffected patches and a  
439 smaller number of slightly, medium and severely degraded patches. However, such  
440 continuous grazing assumes that all the land patches are being grazed proportionally  
441 according to their available forage. This is a quite strong assumption that all the  
442 livestock are also distributed proportionally, according to the available forage of the  
443 land patches, which is difficult to manage in reality. One of the key parts of grassland  
444 management is to manage the heterogeneity (both the grass resources and  
445 herbivores) of the grassland ([Bonari et al., 2017](#); [Stewart and Pullin, 2008](#)); although  
446 regional continuous grazing scenario could reduce such heterogeneity, but there are  
447 also other difficulties such as dealing with the local land tenure systems across villages  
448 in the whole region.

449 Group continuous grazing was worse than the current choice with regard to the  
450 grassland status, indicating a rotational grazing strategy would be more suitable than  
451 continuous grazing at the group level for Zeku. That is, compared with group  
452 continuous grazing, group rotational grazing with the land market (current choice  
453 scenario, TTT) is a reasonable choice, with regard to fewer slightly, medium and  
454 severely degraded patches, and more unaffected patches. This reduces the spatial

455 heterogeneity of forage distribution. Livestock on low productivity land with a  
456 relatively high stocking rate can move to high-productivity land rather than  
457 continuously graze on one land patch. This also supports field experiments in north-  
458 central Texas, USA, where evidence suggested that, for large paddocks, rotational  
459 grazing allowed recovery from, and reduced degradation caused by, patch  
460 overgrazing ([Teague and Dowhower, 2003](#)).

461 The behaviours of the agents herein were estimated from regional aggregated  
462 statistical properties, but these could hide the influence of kinship, community and  
463 the individual interactions among herders, which are potentially important elements  
464 in the complexity of the grazing system. Another possible improvement would be  
465 integration with other models, such as climate, solar radiation, vegetation  
466 distribution, productivity and even economic models, which could improve the  
467 flexibility of ABMGG. However, such integration should be pursued with caution, as  
468 more detailed models for some of the simple abstracted parameters in the current  
469 ABMGG model would dramatically increase the complexity of the model, and this  
470 could cause the problem of “more is different” (Anderson, P.W., 1972). The more  
471 detailed components in the model, the less relevance the science behind such overly  
472 detailed structure of it. In addition, using more detailed models as a replacement for  
473 simple abstracted parameters in the current ABMGG would dramatically increase the  
474 complexity of the model, which would surely be more computationally expensive to  
475 evaluate.

476

## 477 5. Conclusions

478 A novel ABM, which was integrated with near real-time remote sensing data for the  
479 assessment of various grazing policies, was presented. Although there are some  
480 drawbacks, ABMs constitute an ideal methodology for grassland grazing systems that  
481 are characterised by individual interactions, and contain hierarchical grazing  
482 strategies and institutional arrangements. Eight combinations of grazing strategies  
483 and institutional arrangements were evaluated. The model was able to estimate the  
484 number of degraded patches based on individual-level interactions under those  
485 combinations. It was found that different grazing management scenarios had no  
486 effect on the LAI after grazing; that is, different grazing management scenarios could  
487 not significantly improve or decrease grassland LAI. The assessments highlighted,  
488 however, that rotational group grazing performs best in terms of producing a smaller  
489 number of degraded patches. The results can be used as tools to assess the impact of  
490 policies on grassland grazing systems, in turn contributing to the sustainable  
491 development of grassland grazing systems.

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495 

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