**Review Article**

**Open Grazing and Agricultural Decline in the Sahel: Economic Costs, Legal Challenges, and Environmental Impacts**

**Abstract**

Open grazing remains one of the most contentious land-use practices in the Sahel region, contributing to widespread agricultural, economic, and environmental instability. This manuscript investigates the economic effects of open grazing by synthesizing cross-disciplinary evidence from policy reports, empirical research, and legal documents. The study identifies key impact areas including crop destruction, reduced agricultural investment, household income loss, ecological degradation, and governance failures. It reveals that grazing-induced land conflicts and crop damage result in significant economic losses, with cascading effects on food security, labor productivity, and rural livelihoods. Furthermore, the research uncovers how weak enforcement of anti-grazing laws and absence of alternative pastoral systems hinder effective reform. Ecological assessments demonstrate that overgrazing leads to biodiversity loss, erosion, and declining soil fertility, worsening the region’s vulnerability to climate change. Legal analysis shows fragmented policies and resistance from national elites undermine local regulatory efforts. In response, the manuscript proposes multi-dimensional reform strategies including rotational grazing systems, land tenure security, legal harmonization, and inclusive conflict resolution frameworks. Through this holistic analysis, the study underscores the urgent need for policy integration and sustainable land management to address the intersecting economic, social, and environmental crises exacerbated by open grazing in the Sahel.

**Keywords:**Open Grazing; Agricultural Loss; Food Insecurity; Conflict Escalation; Sahel Region

**1. Introduction**

The Sahel, a transitional zone between the Sahara Desert and the more humid savannas to the south, is one of Africa's most ecologically fragile and socioeconomically dynamic regions. It hosts millions of pastoralists and agro-pastoralists whose livelihoods depend on the availability of pasture and water for livestock, and arable land for food production (Asresie and Zemedu, 2015). In recent decades, the region has become a hotspot for conflict, food insecurity, and ecological degradationproblems often linked to the increasing prevalence and unsustainability of open grazing practices (McGuirk and Nunn, 2020; Hiernaux et al., 2009).Traditionally, nomadic and transhumant pastoralism thrived in the Sahel through a reciprocal relationship with sedentary farming communities. Livestock grazed crop residues, fertilized farmland, and supported seasonal economic exchange (Ducrotoy et al., 2016; Jia et al., 2020). However, climate variability, expanding cultivation, and demographic growth have undermined this symbiosis. Pastoralists increasingly encroach on farmlands due to shrinking grazing corridors, leading to violent disputes and economic disruption (Kleisner et al., 2019; Chukwuemeka et al., 2018). In Nigeria alone, thousands of lives and millions of dollars in agricultural value are lost annually due to farmer-herder clashes (Fadare et al., 2024).

Simultaneously, open grazing has contributed to soil degradation, loss of biodiversity, and declining agricultural yields. High grazing intensity alters vegetation composition, depletes biomass, and accelerates erosion (Fashir et al., 2016; Gebregergs et al., 2019). In many Sahelian countries, attempts to transition to ranching or regulated systems face sociopolitical resistance and institutional fragmentation (Adejumo, 2021; Kwaja and Ademola-Adelehin, 2017). Anti-open grazing legislation has been met with opposition from groups citing constitutional rights to free movement and economic participation (Agbo, 2021; Akoni et al., 2021). Others argue that poor enforcement and political interference render such laws ineffective (Akinrefon, 2021; John et al., 2021).

This paper investigates the economic consequences of open grazing in the Sahel region by integrating ecological, institutional, and household-level perspectives. It aims to demonstrate how grazing-induced land degradation and conflict reduce food production, raise transaction costs, and destabilize livelihoods. Using a synthesis of empirical and policy literature, the study underscores the need for coordinated reforms in land governance, livestock management, and conflict resolution strategies.

**1.1. Justification for the Study**

The persistence of open grazing in the Sahel represents a critical development paradox. While livestock remains a central pillar of rural economies and nutrition, its current mode of production undermines long-term agricultural sustainability and inter-communal peace (Amole et al., 2022). Across countries like Nigeria, Mali, and Sudan, the expansion of cultivation into grazing lands and the southward shift of herders have exposed the region to escalating conflict and institutional strain (Balarabe, 2021; Mbih, 2020). Moreover, agricultural losses due to grazing-related destruction are underreported and rarely monetized in policy evaluations.This study fills a significant research gap by systematically analyzing the economic impacts of open grazing beyond the physical realm of land use. It considers income loss from crop damage, the opportunity cost of diverted agricultural labor, conflict management expenditures, ecological restoration needs, and broader market distortions. It also situates the open grazing challenge within regional and global debates on sustainable food systems, biodiversity protection, and environmental justice (Alkemade et al., 2013; Ogboru and Adejonwo-Osho, 2018).By synthesizing findings from across the Sahel and using authoritative scientific and policy references, this work provides a holistic assessment that can guide future land-use planning, agricultural policy, and livestock reform agendas.

**2. Methodology**

This study employed a scoping review approach to systematically explore the economic and ecological effects of open grazing in the Sahel. The methodology was adapted from the foundational framework of Arksey and O’Malley (2005), which emphasizes mapping the key concepts and evidence sources relevant to a research domain. The process was further guided by enhancements proposed by Levac et al. (2010) to incorporate stakeholder relevance and iterative data refinement, and by Tricco et al. (2016) to ensure rigorous reporting standards for scoping studies.The review involved identifying and retrieving literature from peer-reviewed journals, grey literature, and policy reports spanning agriculture, environment, and conflict studies. Databases such as Scopus, Google Scholar, and institutional repositories were used, with Boolean combinations of terms like “open grazing,” “pastoralism,” “Sahel,” “agricultural productivity,” and “household welfare.” Literature published between 2000 and 2025 was prioritized to ensure contemporary relevance.Inclusion criteria focused on studies that explicitly examined the intersection of grazing systems and economic, social, or ecological outcomes. Excluded were works that addressed livestock production in non-Sahelian contexts or those lacking empirical or policy-based insights. The selected literature was subjected to thematic analysis to extract patterns across dimensions such as productivity, labor use, land degradation, and legal frameworks. The methodological rigor of each source was evaluated based on transparency, relevance, and citation quality.This scoping methodology enabled the synthesis of diverse perspectives and supported the holistic framing of the research problem as presented in this manuscript.

**3.1. Economic Impacts on Agricultural Productivity**

The encroachment of livestock on cropland is a major source of economic loss in the Sahel. Open grazing facilitates uncontrolled movement of herders and animals across farmlands, leading to direct destruction of growing crops and post-harvest produce. Studies in Nigeria have shown that such destruction reduces yields by up to 35 percent in affected zones, particularly during the dry season when fodder is scarce (Gever, 2019; Fashir et al., 2012). Farmers lose not only harvests, but also future planting capacity, as compacted soils and uncollected manure inhibit regrowth and soil regeneration (Hiernaux et al., 1999; Gebrekiros and Tessema, 2018).Further compounding these losses are indirect effects on agricultural investment. Many farmers in Benue, Plateau, and Taraba states in Nigeria have abandoned cultivation or switched to less profitable crops to reduce conflict risk (Kwaja and Ademola-Adelehin, 2017). In Ethiopia and Sudan, similar trends are observed where households avoid farming plots near known grazing routes (Gebremedhn et al., 2022; Abdelrahim and Abdalla, 2015). This displacement reduces agricultural intensity and undermines national food security efforts as seen in **Table 1.**

**Table 1: Economic Impacts of Open Grazing**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Impact Category** | **Estimated Effect** | **Impact Type** | **Location/Region** | **Reference** |
| Crop Yield Losses | 10-30% reduction in yield | Agricultural Productivity | South Kordofan | Fashir et al., 2016 |
| Livestock Productivity Decline | Lower milk/meat production due to stress and disease | Livestock Health | Kachia Grazing Reserve, Nigeria | Ducrotoy et al., 2016 |
| Conflict-related Economic Losses | Millions lost annually in displaced production | Conflict Economics | Northwest Cameroon | Mbih, 2020 |
| Market Disruptions | Blockade of trade routes in conflict zones | Market Access | Nigeria | Fadare et al., 2024 |
| Household Income Reduction | Income decline in conflict-affected zones | Rural Livelihood | Nigeria | Chukwuemeka et al., 2018 |

Long-term degradation of croplands by repeated grazing can lead to desertification. In Senegal’s Sahelian plains, Miehe et al. (2010) documented a 40 percent loss in productive biomass over 27 years due to continuous livestock pressure. Vegetation becomes dominated by unpalatable forbs and invasive species, reducing both crop viability and grazing value (Gemedo-Dalle and Isselstein, 2006). Such changes undermine ecological resilience and reduce land productivity, which in turn affects regional gross domestic product from agriculture.

**3.2. Household Welfare and Labor Allocation**

Open grazing also impacts households through welfare and labor distortions. In the absence of adequate fencing or grazing regulation, rural families are often forced to patrol their farmlands, diverting labor from productive agricultural or income-generating activities (Hadush, 2019). Women and children are disproportionately affected, as they are often tasked with guarding fields or fetching water for livestock displaced by encroaching herds (Cooke et al., 2008; Tangka and Jabbar, 2005).In Ethiopia, Hadush (2019) used a two-stage least squares model to show that grazing and water scarcity negatively influence per capita food consumption expenditure. Households experiencing resource competition from livestock diverted time from food preparation and agricultural work to forage collection. In Nigeria, studies by Fadare et al. (2024) show that livestock diversification mitigates some of these impacts but does not fully shield families from the economic shocks of conflict-induced grazing disruptions.The cost of conflict-related food price inflation further reduces household purchasing power. Data from Anambra and Benue states show that food prices increased by up to 20 percent in regions affected by open grazing, largely due to damaged supply chains and increased cost of production (Muoneke and Okoli, 2020). These shifts disproportionately harm low-income households, exacerbating inequality and food insecurity.

**3.3. Conflict, Security, and Governance Costs**

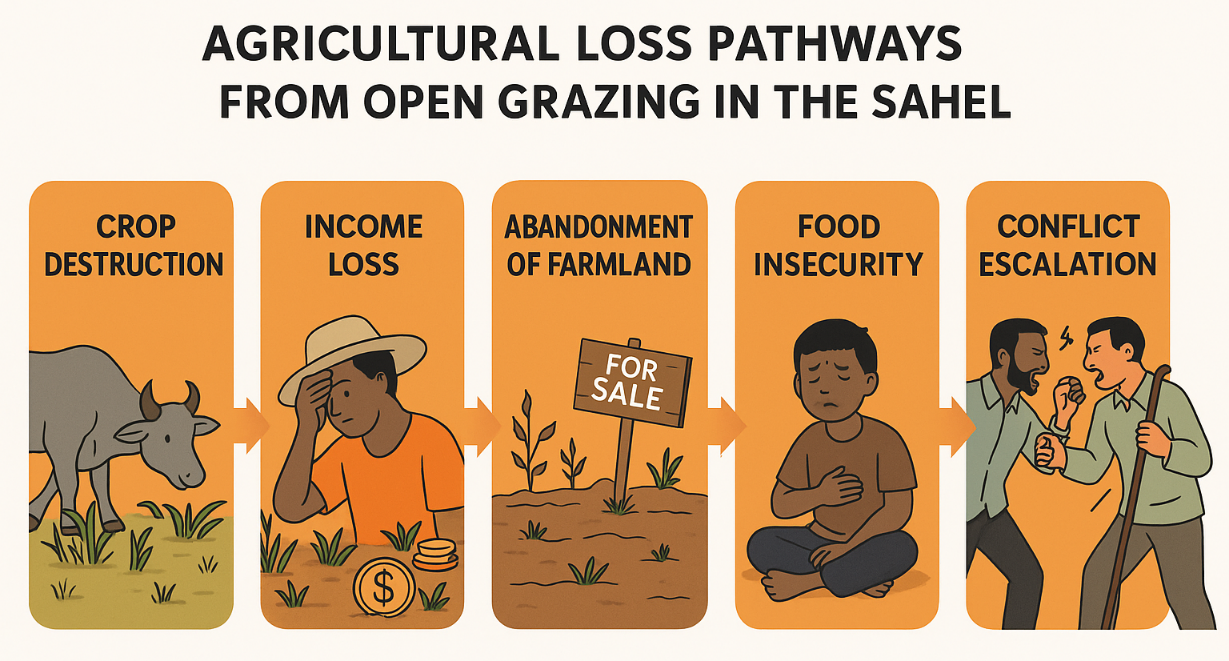
Farmer-herder conflicts linked to open grazing have become one of the deadliest and economically damaging security challenges in the Sahel. In Nigeria alone, nearly 8,000 people were killed in such conflicts between 2000 and 2016 (Usman and Nichol, 2022). Beyond human loss, these clashes destroy farm equipment, livestock assets, and local infrastructure such as storage facilities and irrigation networks (Odoh and Chilaka, 2012; Ojewale, 2021).Security expenditures in affected regions have escalated, with states deploying police and military forces to contain violence. Local governments also invest in conflict mediation mechanisms, compensation funds, and crisis relief for displaced communities (Ogo-Oluwa, 2017). In many cases, however, these interventions are reactionary rather than preventive, lacking structural solutions to land-use competition and pastoral regulation.Open grazing also fuels ethnic and political tensions. Legislative responses such as the Open Grazing Prohibition and Ranches Establishment Law in Benue State have faced constitutional challenges, resistance from herder organizations, and uneven federal support (Adejumo, 2021; Balarabe, 2021). The failure to enforce these laws or provide alternative livelihoods for pastoralists has led to widespread defiance and erosion of public trust in institutions (John et al., 2021; Akoni et al., 2021).

**3.4. Ecological Degradation and Long-term Soil Value**

Grazing pressure contributes significantly to environmental degradation across the Sahel. High livestock density compacts soil, reduces moisture retention, and alters nutrient cycling (Amiri et al., 2008; Gebregergs et al., 2019). Vegetation shifts from palatable grasses to woody plants and invasive forbs are commonly observed under high grazing pressure, leading to reduced forage quality and loss of biodiversity (Gebremedhn et al., 2023; Vesk and Westoby, 2001).Studies in Ethiopia and Mali have demonstrated that unmanaged grazing reduces the carbon sequestration potential of drylands, contributing to greenhouse gas emissions and undermining global climate goals (Gao et al., 2007; Gebremedhn et al., 2022). The Sahel is already vulnerable to desertification due to erratic rainfall and overexploitation, and open grazing accelerates these processes by stripping the land of vegetative cover (Le Houérou, 2002).Restoration of degraded rangelands through exclusion or rotation systems can reverse some of this damage, as seen in community-led initiatives in Tigray and Borana (Noulèkoun et al., 2021; Mekuria et al., 2018). However, these strategies require strong local institutions, incentives for compliance, and support from national policy frameworks.

**3.5. Legal Frameworks and Political Economy of Enforcement**

The legal and institutional responses to open grazing in the Sahel have been fragmented and politicized. In Nigeria, while several southern and Middle Belt states have enacted anti-open grazing laws, their enforcement is undermined by federal centralization of security powers and elite interests in pastoral systems (Nnamani et al., 2024; Gever, 2019). National actors often block sub-national initiatives on the grounds of ethnic discrimination or constitutional overreach (Agbo, 2021; Akoni et al., 2021).This tension reflects a broader political economy in which the state apparatus serves the interests of dominant groups, including urban-based livestock traders and powerful pastoral unions (Kwaja and Ademola-Adelehin, 2017; Opejobi, 2021). Judicial ambiguity and inconsistent messaging from federal officials worsen the policy vacuum. While courts have upheld the legality of state-level bans (Agbo, 2021), federal ministers have issued statements declaring such laws unconstitutional (Adejumo, 2021), creating uncertainty and emboldening resistance.Beyond legality, the absence of economic alternatives for pastoralists limits the viability of transition to ranching. Establishing grazing reserves, water points, and mobile veterinary systems requires investment and stakeholder buy-in. Without inclusive planning and compensation mechanisms, any enforcement is likely to provoke social unrest (Fashir et al., 2016; Ogboru and Adejonwo-Osho, 2018).



**Fig 1. Flow diagram illustrating how open grazing affects the Sahel Region**

**(reference)**

**4. Proposed Strategies for Reform and Transition**

Addressing the economic and environmental consequences of open grazing in the Sahel requires multi-level, interdisciplinary reforms that combine legal regulation, infrastructural investment, and socio-cultural transformation. The following strategic directions are proposed:

**4.1. Institutionalizing Rotational and Enclosed Grazing Systems**

One of the most practical pathways toward sustainable livestock production is the shift from open grazing to managed, rotational, or enclosed systems. Research has shown that such practices restore soil structure, improve vegetation regrowth, and enhance carbon sequestration (Gebremedhn et al., 2022; Mekuria et al., 2018). In countries like Ethiopia, the use of grazing enclosures has increased soil organic carbon stocks and improved biodiversity (Noulèkoun et al., 2021). Rotational grazing also reduces herd migration distances, minimizing contact with croplands and decreasing conflict risk (Amole et al., 2022).To institutionalize this, governments must provide subsidies and incentives for communities and private investors to establish ranches, paddocks, and community-managed pastures. Technical support for fodder cultivation, water harvesting, and disease control will enhance uptake, particularly if embedded in broader rural development frameworks (Ash et al., 2011; Oba et al., 2000).

**4.2. Strengthening Land Tenure and Land-Use Zoning**

Ambiguity in land rights is a root cause of farmer-herder conflict in the Sahel. In many regions, pastoralists move based on customary routes without formal recognition, while sedentary farmers cultivate on unregistered or communally held land. This lack of codified land tenure leads to disputes and complicates enforcement of grazing bans (Ogo-Oluwa, 2017; Ogboru and Adejonwo-Osho, 2018).Land-use zoning and mapping of transhumance corridors, combined with digital land registries, can clarify ownership and permissible use. In regions such as northern Ghana and Niger, participatory land-use planning has improved cooperation between user groups (Seid et al., 2016; Gebremedhn et al., 2023). Such initiatives should be scaled across the Sahel and integrated with regional frameworks like the ECOWAS Transhumance Protocol.

**4.3. Legal Harmonization and Intergovernmental Coordination**

Conflicting messages from different arms of government undermine effective regulation. In Nigeria, for example, state-level grazing bans face obstruction from federal ministries citing constitutional guarantees of free movement (Adejumo, 2021; John et al., 2021). This contradiction emboldens herders to defy laws and encourages forum shopping for favorable jurisdictions.To overcome this, a harmonized national policy on grazing and livestock management must be negotiated through stakeholder consultations. This policy should clarify federal and state responsibilities, align with constitutional provisions, and reflect regional realities. It must also be supported by enabling legislation, conflict resolution mechanisms, and penalties for non-compliance (Balarabe, 2021; Akoni et al., 2021).

**4.4. Economic Diversification for Pastoralists**

Without viable alternatives, pastoralist communities will resist any restriction on their movement. Government and development agencies must prioritize education, livestock value chain development, and access to credit to enable transition. Support for milk processing, leather production, and veterinary service entrepreneurship can open non-pastoral income streams (Ducrotoy et al., 2016; Asresie and Zemedu, 2015).Moreover, incorporating pastoralists into early warning systems for drought and market prices can reduce their vulnerability and reliance on long-distance migration. Information and communication technologies (ICTs) such as mobile-based herd tracking, e-vouchers for fodder, and GPS-enabled grazing maps can support this integration (Gebremedhn et al., 2023; Koerner et al., 2018).

**4.5. Environmental Restoration and Monitoring**

Restoring degraded lands is not only environmentally necessary but economically beneficial. Exclusion zones, tree planting, erosion control, and reseeding of native grasses can enhance land productivity and reduce downstream effects on food systems (Miehe et al., 2010; Fashir et al., 2016). Monitoring through satellite imagery, ecological surveys, and community reporting should be institutionalized in national environmental management systems (Zainelabdeen et al., 2020; Hayes and Holl, 2003).International partners should also support these efforts through climate adaptation funds and biodiversity offset schemes. Given the global importance of the Sahel as a climate-vulnerable region, such investments serve both local and planetary interests (Alkemade et al., 2013; Le Houérou, 2002).

**5. Discussion**

The findings of this manuscript indicate a multi-dimensional burden imposed by open grazing on the socio-economic and environmental systems of the Sahel. From reduced crop yields to heightened inter-communal conflicts, the cumulative impacts threaten regional food security and sustainable land use. Gebremedhn et al. (2022) demonstrated that unregulated grazing significantly deteriorates soil organic matter and lowers vegetation cover, thereby compounding yield losses. Moreover, the labor diversion from agricultural activities to conflict mitigation and asset protection further undermines household economic resilience (Mbih, 2020).An additional consequence lies in the failure of governance mechanisms. While laws banning open grazing exist in several states, their implementation is weak due to federal-state conflicts and lack of political will (Adejumo, 2021; Akoni et al., 2021). The legal vacuum exacerbates the problem, as enforcement remains fragmented and inconsistent, often shaped by elite capture and ethnic biases (Kwaja and Ademola-Adelehin, 2017; Opejobi, 2021). The case of Benue State illustrates that despite strong anti-open grazing laws, the herder defiance continues (John et al., 2021), leading to violent flashpoints and declining agricultural investment.

Ecologically, open grazing acts as a stressor that interacts with climate variability to accelerate desertification. Le Houérou (2002) emphasizes that vegetation loss reduces carbon sequestration, aggravating climate vulnerability. Gao et al. (2007) also suggest that reduced vegetative cover increases albedo and soil erosion, leading to long-term ecological degradation. These ecological changes feed back into the economic system by diminishing land value, increasing the costs of rehabilitation, and restraining the recovery of ecosystem services (Gebrekiros and Tessema, 2018).Finally, the resilience strategies available to households and communities remain insufficient. While some adapt through livestock diversification or seasonal migration, these strategies only partially mitigate economic risks. The study by Ducrotoy et al. (2016) showed that even in grazing reserves, livestock production is hindered by inadequate infrastructure and lack of veterinary services. For long-term sustainability, a coordinated multi-stakeholder framework that integrates local knowledge with institutional support is essential (Fadare et al., 2024; Gever, 2019).

**6. Conclusion**

The economic effects of open grazing in the Sahel region represent a multidimensional crisis that undermines agricultural productivity, disrupts household welfare, exacerbates land-use conflict, and accelerates environmental degradation. This manuscript has critically examined how the continuation of open grazing practices has contributed to declining crop yields, reduced investment in agriculture, rising insecurity, and the deterioration of community livelihoods. The intricate interplay between pastoral mobility, land scarcity, and weak institutional governance has created a system of recurring conflict that jeopardizes both human security and economic stability.Moreover, the unregulated movement of livestock across farmlands without clearly defined grazing corridors or enforceable legal boundaries has introduced new layers of vulnerability for sedentary farming communities. These vulnerabilities manifest as crop destruction, loss of labor hours, and migration from rural areas, all of which result in reduced agricultural output and weakened regional food systems. In addition to immediate economic losses, the degradation of rangeland and farmland ecosystems caused by overgrazing contributes to long-term climate instability and biodiversity loss, further compounding the structural challenges of development in the region.What emerges from this analysis is the realization that the open grazing crisis is not simply a pastoralist-farmer issue, but a broader structural problem rooted in governance deficits, historical neglect of pastoralist needs, and the absence of sustainable land-use policies. It calls for a transformative approach that considers the socio-political, legal, and ecological complexities that shape the region's agricultural systems.

(It should be reduced to 100-150 words)

**7. Future Prospects and Way Forward**

Moving forward, addressing the challenges associated with open grazing in the Sahel requires a paradigm shift in policy, governance, and rural development strategies. First, there must be a clear and enforceable transition from open grazing to regulated, sustainable pastoralism. This involves investing in the development of ranches, grazing reserves, and pastoral infrastructure that support the mobility and productivity of herders without infringing upon the rights of crop farmers. Such investments should also include veterinary services, water access, and extension programs tailored to local ecological realities.Second, land tenure and property rights must be clarified and strengthened across the region. In many cases, the absence of secure land rights has led to contestations and the breakdown of traditional conflict resolution mechanisms. Community-based land management systems should be supported with legal recognition and institutional backing to enable local ownership and peaceful coexistence between land users.

Third, governments and civil society organizations must prioritize conflict mitigation strategies that go beyond military responses. Dialogue platforms, peacebuilding initiatives, and early warning systems are essential to prevent violence and create an atmosphere of mutual trust between pastoralist and farming communities. These mechanisms should also involve traditional rulers, women, and youth in conflict-sensitive development planning.Fourth, climate-smart agricultural practices and restoration of degraded lands should be promoted through public-private partnerships and donor support. The Sahel's vulnerability to climate shocks makes it essential to implement adaptive strategies that combine reforestation, soil management, rotational grazing, and crop diversification to improve ecosystem resilience.

Lastly, effective governance, inclusive policymaking, and transparent enforcement mechanisms are key. Policymakers must ensure that laws such as anti-open grazing legislations are not only passed but are properly implemented, monitored, and evaluated. This calls for harmonization between national, state, and local authorities, as well as collaboration with international partners to create a coherent policy environment conducive to peace, growth, and sustainability.Through these integrated and inclusive strategies, it is possible to transform the open grazing crisis into an opportunity for ecological restoration, rural transformation, and long-term regional stability.

Note- Please mention clear future prospects in short

**(Please follow the style of journal inn reference)**

**References**

Abdelrahim, A. O., & Abdalla, N. I. (2015). Assessment of rangelands in semi-arid areas of Sudan—South Kordofan State (Eldebeibat Area). Journal of Science and Technology, 5(2), 117–124.

Adejumo, K. (2021). Ban on open grazing by southern governors unconstitutional – Malami. Premium Times. https://www.premiumtimesng.com/news/headlines/462727-ban-on-open-grazing-by-southern-governors-unconstitutional-malami.html

Agbo, C. (2021). States can enforce anti-grazing laws – Court. 21st Century Chronicle. https://21stcenturychronicle.com/states-can-enforce-anti-grazing-laws-court/

Akinrefon, D. (2021). Anti-open grazing law: Don’t frustrate enforcement, Afenifere warns FG. Vanguard News. <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2021/08/anti-open-grazing-law-dont-frustrate-enforcement-afenifere-warns-fg/> (rechecked)

Akoni, O., Sessou, E., & Alu, N. (2021). Why we oppose anti-open-grazing law in Lagos—Miyetti-Allah. Vanguard News. https://www.vanguardngr.com/2021/09/why-we-oppose-anti-open-grazing-law-in-lagos-miyetti-allah/

Alkemade, R., Reid, R. S., van den Berg, M., de Leeuw, J., & Jeuken, M. (2013). Assessing the impacts of livestock production on biodiversity in rangeland ecosystems. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 110(52), 20900–20905. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1011013108

Amiri, F., Ariapour, A., & Fadai, S. (2008). Effects of livestock grazing on vegetation composition and soil moisture properties in grazed and non-grazed range sites. Journal of Biological Sciences, 8, 1289–1297. https://doi.org/10.3923/jbs.2008.1289.1297

Amole, T., Augustine, A., Balehegn, M., &Adesogoan, A. T. (2022). Livestock feed resources in the West African Sahel. Agronomy Journal, 114(1), 26–45. https://doi.org/10.1002/agj2.20955

Arksey, H., & O’Malley, L. (2005). Scoping studies: Towards a methodological framework. International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 8(1), 19–32. https://doi.org/10.1080/1364557032000119616

Ash, A. J., Corfield, J. P., McIvor, J. G., &Ksiksi, T. S. (2011). Grazing management in tropical savannas: Utilization and rest strategies to manipulate rangeland condition. Rangeland Ecology & Management, 64(3), 223–239. https://doi.org/10.2111/REM-D-09-00111.1

Asresie, A., &Zemedu, L. (2015). The contribution of livestock sector in Ethiopian economy: A review. Advances in Life Science and Technology, 29, 79–90.

Balarabe, K. (2021). Open grazing legislations and the protection of ethnic minority rights in Nigeria. The International Journal of Human Rights, 25(10), 1835–1856. https://doi.org/10.1080/13642987.2021.1895762

Chukwuemeka, E. E. O., Aloysuis, A., & Eneh, M. I. (2018). The logic of open grazing in Nigeria: Interrogating the effect on sustainable development. International Journal of Family Business and Management, 2(1), 1–17.

Cooke, P., Köhlin, G., & Hyde, W. F. (2008). Fuelwood, forests, and community management—Evidence from household studies. *Environment and Development Economics, 13*(1), 103–135.

Ducrotoy, M. J., Majekodunmi, A. O., Shaw, A. P. M., Bagulo, H., Musa, U. B., Bertu, W. J., Gusi, A. M., Ocholi, R. A., Bryssinckx, W., & Welburn, S. C. (2016). Fulani cattle productivity and management in the Kachia Grazing Reserve, Nigeria. Pastoralism, 6(1), 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13570-016-0072-y

Fadare, O., Srinivasan, C., & Zanello, G. (2024). Livestock diversification mitigates the impact of farmer-herder conflicts on animal-source foods consumption in Nigeria. Food Policy, 122, 102586. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodpol.2023.102586

Fashir, G. A., Mohammed, A. A., & Salih, E. M. (2012). Impacts assessment of open grazing system on vegetation attributes and biomass productivity, El Dilling locality—South Kordofan State, Sudan. Journal of Science and Technology: Agricultural and Veterinary Sciences, 13(2), 106–118.

Fashir, G. A., Salih, E. M., & Abdesalam, M. I. (2016). The impacts of high grazing pressure on plant species diversity with focusing on native forbs species—Case study of Dilling locality, South Kordofan State, Sudan. International Journal of Innovative Science, Engineering & Technology, 3(3), 328–339.

Gao, Y. H., Luo, P., Wu, N., Chen, H., & Wang, X. G. (2007). Grazing intensity impacts on carbon sequestration in an alpine meadow on the Eastern Tibetan Plateau. Research Journal of Agriculture and Biological Sciences, 3(6), 642–647.

Gebregergs, T., Tessema, Z. K., Solomon, N., & Birhane, E. (2019). Carbon sequestration and soil restoration potential of grazing lands under exclosure management in a semi-arid environment of northern Ethiopia. Ecology and Evolution, 9(11), 6468–6479. https://doi.org/10.1002/ece3.5223

Gebrekiros, M. G., & Tessema, Z. K. (2018). Effect of Senna obtusifolia (L.) invasion on herbaceous vegetation and soil properties of rangelands in the western Tigray, northern Ethiopia. Ecological Processes, 7(1), 9. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13717-018-0121-0

Gebremedhn, H. H., Ndiaye, O., Mensah, S., et al. (2023). Grazing effects on vegetation dynamics in the savannah ecosystems of the Sahel. *Ecological Processes, 12*, 54. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13717-023-00468-3>

Gemedo-Dalle, M. B. L., &Isselstein, J. (2006). Rangeland condition and trend in the semi-arid Borana lowlands, southern Oromia, Ethiopia. African Journal of Range & Forage Science, 23(1), 49–58. https://doi.org/10.2989/10220110609485886

Gever, C. V. (2019). When solution triggers more conflicts: Frames and tone of media coverage of the anti-open grazing law of Benue State, Nigeria. Media, War & Conflict, 12(4), 468–482. https://doi.org/10.1177/1750635218810908

Gonnet, J. M. (2001). Influence of cattle grazing on population density and species richness of granivorous birds (Emberizidae) in the arid plain of the Monte, Argentina. Journal of Arid Environments, 48(4), 569–579. https://doi.org/10.1006/jare.2000.0768

Hadush, M. (2019). Economic implication of grazing and water resource scarcity on households’ welfare and food security in Tigrai, Ethiopia. *Agricultural and Resource Economics Review, 48*(1), 170–198. https://doi.org/10.1017/age.2018.17

Hayes, G. F., & Holl, K. D. (2003). Cattle grazing impacts on annual forbs and vegetation composition of mesic grasslands in California. Conservation Biology, 17(6), 1694–1702. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2003.00281.x

Hejcmanová, P., Hejcman, M., Camara, A. A., & Antonínová, M. (2019). Exclusion of livestock grazing and wood collection in dryland savannah: An effect on long-term vegetation succession. African Journal of Ecology, 48(2), 408–417. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2028.2009.01130.x

Hickman, K. R., Hartnett, R. C., & Owensby, C. E. (2004). Grazing management effects on plant species diversity in tallgrass prairie. Journal of Range Management, 57(1), 58–65.

(Missing in manuscript)

Hiernaux, P., Bielders, C. L., Valentin, C., Bationo, A., & Fernández-Rivera, S. (1999). Effects of livestock grazing on physical and chemical properties of sandy soils in Sahelian rangelands. Journal of Arid Environments, 41(3), 231–245. https://doi.org/10.1006/jare.1998.0475

Jia, P., Caspari, G., Betts, A., Mohamadi, B., Balz, T., Cong, D., Shen, H., & Meng, Q. (2020). Seasonal movements of Bronze Age transhumant pastoralists in western Xinjiang. PLOS ONE, 15(11), e0240739. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0240739

John, T., Uzoaru, S., Agwu, C., Odogwu, O., Dada, L., Raheem, L., Sampson, O., & Ojo, O. (2021, August 30). Anti-open grazing law: Herders defiant, dare Southern govs. Sun News Online. https://www.sunnewsonline.com/anti-open-grazing-law-herders-defiant-dare-southern-govs/

Kassahun, A., Snyman, H. A., & Smit, G. N. (2008). Impact of rangeland degradation on the pastoral production systems, livelihoods and perceptions of the Somali pastoralists in Eastern Ethiopia. Journal of Arid Environments, 72(7), 1265–1281. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaridenv.2008.01.002

Kleisner, K., Pokorný, Š., Čížková, M., Froment, A., & Černý, V. (2019). Nomadic pastoralists and sedentary farmers of the Sahel/Savannah Belt of Africa in the light of geometric morphometrics based on facial portraits. American Journal of Physical Anthropology, 169(4), 632–645. https://doi.org/10.1002/ajpa.23845

Koerner, S. E., Smith, M. D., Burkepile, D. E., Hanan, N. P., Avolio, M. L., Collins, S. L., Knapp, A. K., Lemoine, N. P., Forrestel, E. J., Eby, S., Thompson, D. I., Aguado-Santacruz, G. A., Anderson, J. P., Anderson, T. M., Angassa, A., Bagchi, S., Bakker, E. S., Bastin, G., Baur, L. E., &Wilcox, K. R. (2018). Change in dominance determines herbivore effects on plant biodiversity. Nature Ecology & Evolution, 2(12), 1925–1932. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-018-0696-y

Kwaja, C. M., & Ademola-Adelehin, B. I. (2017). The implication of Open Grazing Prohibition & Ranches Establishment Law on farmer-herder relations in the Middle Belt of Nigeria. Search for Common Ground. https://www.sfcg.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/02/Open-Grazing-Prohibition-Law-in-Benue-State-December-2017.pdf

Le Houérou, H. N. (2002). Man-made deserts: Desertization processes and threats. *Arid Land Research and Management, 16*(1), 1–36. https://doi.org/10.1080/153249802753365296

Levac, D., Colquhoun, H., & O’Brien, K. K. (2010). Scoping studies: Advancing the methodology. Implementation Science, 5(1), 69. https://doi.org/10.1186/1748-5908-5-69

Mbih, R. A. (2020). The politics of farmer–herder conflicts and alternative conflict management in Northwest Cameroon. *African Geographical Review, 39*(4), 324–344. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19376812.2020.1720755>

McGuirk, E. F., & Nunn, N. (2020). Nomadic pastoralism, climate change, and conflict in Africa (Working Paper No. 28243). National Bureau of Economic Research. https://www.nber.org/papers/w28243

McIntyre, S., &Lavorel, S. (2001). Livestock grazing in subtropical pastures: Steps in the analysis of attribute response and plant functional types. Journal of Ecology, 89(2), 209–226. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2745.2001.00535.x

Mekuria, W., Wondie, M., Amare, T., Wubet, A., Feyisa, T., &Yitaferu, B. (2018). Restoration of degraded landscapes for ecosystem services in North-Western Ethiopia. Heliyon, 4(9), e00764. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2018.e00764

Miehe, S., Kluge, J., von Wehrden, H., & Retzer, V. (2010). Long-term degradation of Sahelian rangeland detected by 27 years of field study in Senegal. Journal of Applied Ecology, 47(3), 692–700. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2664.2010.01815.x

Milchunas, D. G., & Noy-Meir, I. (2002). Grazing refuges, external avoidance of herbivory and plant diversity. Oikos, 99(1), 113–130. https://doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-0706.2002.990112.x

Mohammed, S., Shtayeh, A., &Salahat, A. G. M. (2010). The impact of grazing on natural plant biodiversity in Al-Fara’a area. Biodiversity & Environmental Sciences Studies Series, 5(1), 1–17.

Muoneke, C. V., & Okoli, U. V. (2020). Economic impact of open grazing policy in Anambra State. *Social Sciences Research, 6*(1), 67–84.

Nnamani, K. E., Ononogbu, D. C., Okafor, N. I., Ohabuenyi, J., & Anichebe, O. J. (2024). Open grazing prohibition law, political economy of centralized law enforcement mechanism, and nomadic pastoralist-sedentary farmer relations in Nigeria. *Cogent Social Sciences, 10*(1), 2414869. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311886.2024.2414869

Noulèkoun, F., Birhane, E., Kassa, H., Berhe, A., Seyoum, Y., & Mengistu, T. (2021). Grazing exclosures increase soil organic carbon stock at a rate greater than “4 per 1000” per year across agricultural landscapes in Northern Ethiopia. Science of the Total Environment, 782, 146821. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.146821

Noy-Meir, I., Gutman, M., & Kaplan, Y. (1989). Responses of Mediterranean grassland plants to grazing and protection. Journal of Ecology, 77(1), 290–310. https://doi.org/10.2307/2260930

Oba, G., Stenseth, N. C., &Lusigi, W. J. (2000). New perspectives on sustainable grazing management in arid zones of sub-Saharan Africa. BioScience, 50(1), 35–51. [https://doi.org/10.1641/0006-3568(2000)050[0035:NPOSGM]2.3.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1641/0006-3568(2000)050%5b0035:NPOSGM%5d2.3.CO;2)

Odoh, S. I., & Chilaka, F. C. (2012). Climate change and conflict in Nigeria: A theoretical and empirical examination of the worsening incidence of conflict between Fulani herdsmen and farmers in Northern Nigeria. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (Oman Chapter), 1*(5), 1–15.

Ogboru, T., &Adejonwo-Osho, O. (2018). Towards an effective cattle grazing and rearing legal framework: An imperative for environmental protection. Journal of Sustainable Development Law and Policy, 9(1), 58–79. https://doi.org/10.4314/jsdlp.v9i1.4

Ogo-Oluwa, S. O. (2017). Anti-grazing policy and conflict resolution between Fulani herdsmen and farmers in Ekiti State. *Asian Research Journal of Arts & Social Sciences, 4*(1), 1–13.

Ogunsi, W. (2018). Why we are against Benue’s anti-open grazing law – Miyetti Allah. Daily Post. https://dailypost.ng/2018/01/30/benues-anti-open-grazing-law-miyetti-allah/

Ojewale, O. (2021). Rising insecurity in northwest Nigeria: Terrorism thinly disguised as banditry. Brookings Institution. https://www.brookings.edu/blog/africa-in-focus/2021/02/18/rising-insecurity-in-northwest-nigeria-terrorism-thinly-disguised-as-banditry/

Opejobi, S. (2021, August 30). Open grazing ban: Don’t frustrate enforcement from September 1 – Afenifere tells Buhari govt. Daily Post. <https://dailypost.ng/2021/08/30/open-grazing-ban-dont-frustrate-enforcement-from-september-1-afenifere-tells-buhari-govt/>

Seid, M. A., Kuhn, N. J., & Fikre, T. Z. (2016). The role of pastoralism in regulating ecosystem services. Revue Scientifique et Technique (International Office of Epizootics), 35(2), 435–444. https://doi.org/10.20506/rst.35.2.2534

Stahlheber, K. A., & D’Antonio, C. M. (2013). Using livestock to manage plant composition: A meta-analysis of grazing in California Mediterranean grasslands. Biological Conservation, 157, 300–308. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2012.09.008

Sternberg, M., Gutman, M., Perevolotsky, A., Ungar, E. D., & Kigel, J. (2000). Vegetation response to grazing management in a Mediterranean herbaceous community: A functional group approach. Journal of Applied Ecology, 37(2), 224–237. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2664.2000.00491.x

Tangka, F. K., & Jabbar, M. A. (2005). Implications of feed scarcity for gender roles in ruminant livestock production (Working Paper No. 182872). International Livestock Research Institute.

Tricco, A. C., Lillie, E., Zarin, W., O’Brien, K. K., Colquhoun, H., Levac, D., Moher, D., Peters, M. D. J., Horsley, T., Weeks, L., Hempel, S., Akl, E. A., Chang, C., McGowan, J., Stewart, L., Hartling, L., Aldcroft, A., Wilson, M. G., Garritty, C.,&Straus, S. E. (2016). A scoping review on the conduct and reporting of scoping reviews. BMC Medical Research Methodology, 16(1), 15. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12874-016-0116-4>

Trlica, M. J., & Rittenhouse, L. R. (1993). Grazing and plant performance. Ecological Applications, 3(1), 21–23. https://doi.org/10.2307/1941783

Usman, M., & Nichol, J. E. (2022). Changes in agricultural and grazing land, and insights for mitigating farmer–herder conflict in West Africa. *Landscape and Urban Planning, 222*, 104383. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landurbplan.2022.104383>

Vesk, P. A., & Westoby, M. (2001). Predicting plant species’ responses to grazing. Journal of Applied Ecology, 38(5), 897–909. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2664.2001.00646.x

Zainelabdeen, Y. M., Yan, R., Xin, X., et al. (2020). The impact of grazing on the grass composition in temperate grassland. *Agronomy, 10*(9), 1230. https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy10091230