

Proceedings

Effect of Forest Restoration on Vegetation Composition and Soil Characteristics in North Wollo and Waghemira Zones, Northeastern Ethiopia

Melkamu Kassaye¹, Abrham Abiyu² and Asmamaw Alemu³

- ¹ Forestry and climate science lecturer in Injibara University, Injibara Ethiopia
- ² Doctor of philosophy in forest ecology and Seed sourcing officer in ICRAF, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
- ³ Doctor of philosophy in forest and livelihood; vice dean of college of Agriculture and environmental science in University of Gondar, Gondar, Ethiopia
- Correspondence: Melkam2013@gmail.com

Abstract: As a counter measure of deforestation and forest degradation, there are many forest res-12 toration practices with area exclosures. However, these restoration interventions are not yet scien-13 tifically evaluated weather successes or not. Thus, this study is to evaluate the impacts of forest 14 restoration with area exclosures on vegetation and soil property changing aspects. The method fol-15 lowed concept of forest restoration based on selected indicators and comparing against best prac-16 tices. For this purpose, three districts in three agro-ecologies were selected. In each district one ex-17 closures, adjacent church forest and adjacent grazing land were selected. Then vegetation data were 18 collected and analyzed by using different diversity indices. Biomass was computed by using al-19 lometric equations developed for forests of dryland tropical Africa. The soil sample were collected 20 from the main quadrates at 5 points in three different depth and then composite. Data was analyzed 21 by using one-way ANOVA via vegetation qualities and selected soil parameters in different land 22 uses and agro-ecologies. The soil result was compared with critical values. There was significant 23 difference in vegetation composition, biomass and soil attributes across land uses and agro-ecolo-24 gies (p < 0.03). Exclosures showed intermediate values between Church forest and grazing land in 25 vegetation composition, biomass and some soil attributes. Therefore, forest restoration with area 26 exclosures is the better tool for degraded forest restoration. Further research is required to under-27 stand ecosystem services of area exclosures and trajectory of successional changes in vegetation 28 composition and soil parameters of the area exclosures. 29

Keywords: deforestation; restoration; exclosure; church forest; grazing land; vegetation composition; and soil attributes 31

32

33

1. Introduction

In the dry land parts of Ethiopia, there are distinctive vegetation adapted to moisture 34 stress climate. These forests are mostly tropical dry forests which are dominated by 35 woody plants, primarily trees, the canopy of which covers more than 10% of the ground 36 surface, occurring in climates with a long dry season (Gumbo, 2010). Among nine forest 37 types in Ethiopia, most are classified under dry forest (IBC, 2007). The dry woodlands in 38 Ethiopia are known for their valuable non-timber forest products (NTFPs). In addition, 39 these dry forests have very crucial role for climate regulation, fodder, non-timber prod-40 ucts (gum and resin) and this increases the farmer's adaptive capacity through diversified 41 livelihoods (Alemu et al., 2015). 42

Citation: Lastname, F.; Lastname, F.; Lastname, F. Title. *Environ. Sci. Proc.* 2021, *3*, x. https://doi.org/10.3390/ xxxxx

Published: date

Publisher's Note: MDPI stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Copyright: © 2021 by the authors. Submitted for possible open access publication under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https://creativecommons.org/license s/by/4.0/).



1

2

3

4

5

6 7

8

9

Despite of this fact, now a day the dry forest are under threat and heavy pressure 43 such as clearance for firewood, expansion of cash crops and new settlements and actually, 44 they are shrinking overtime. According to Gumbo (2010) in dry lands there are high cli-45 mate variability, frequent drought and occasional floods, thus rain-fed crop production is 46 not sustained. As a result, the population overexploited the dry forests for non-timber 47 products and converts, the dry forestland to agricultural land. This is mainly due to asso-48ciated with the high population pressure and the increasing needs for new agricultural 49 land and additional sources of biomass energy. 50

This accelerated deforestation resulted in soil erosion, loss of biodiversity, disruption 51 of the way of life of forest dwellers, shortage of wood (fuelwood, timber), inadequacy of 52 non-timber products, and affects the hydrological regime of an area and the CO₂ balance 53 in the atmosphere. Generally deforestation have far reaching local and global consequences such as, climate change and biophysical changes that in turn have environmental, 55 social and economic impacts with the immediate effects on communities that depend on 56 forests for part or their entire livelihood (Yirdew *et al.*, 1996). 57

This calls urgent intervention by different approaches such as restoration, rehabilitation and reclamation of degraded forest with area exclosures, agroforestry practice and afforestation and reforestation (Yirdew et al., 1996). Habitually, the ecosystem that requires restoration has been degraded, fragmented, transformed or entirely destroyed as the direct or indirect result of human activities (Alemayehu, 2007) and (SER, 2004). 62

Ecological restoration presents complex and poorly understood implications for the 63 structure and composition of future forests, landscapes, and fauna. The outcomes of a 64 particular restoration are; restoration of soil fertility for agricultural or forestry use; pro-65 duction of timber and non-timber forest products; or recovery of biodiversity and ecosys-66 tem services (Chazdon, 2008). Ecological forest restoration is mostly practiced in the form 67 of area exclosures. Danano (2003) explain that, area exclosure and protecting an area of 68 open grazing land from human use is an important practice in Ethiopia to permit natural 69 rehabilitation, enhanced by additional vegetative and structural conservation measures. 70

Restoration of forest with area exclosure practices should be evaluated with selected 71 indicators that are in line with environmental, social and economic objectives of exclo-72 sures. This is important to realize the trajectory of vegetation change from open grazing 73 land to the reference forest mediated by exclosure. The trajectory or the status of area 74 exclosure evaluated by selected indicators may be resemblance to the reference forest or 75 open grazing land. Specific and measurable indicators are needed to help evaluation 76 weather the restoration practices success or fail. After evaluation the outcomes are (in-77 crease, decrease, maintain), the magnitude effect (plant cover, diversity, biomass etc.) and 78 the period (time) with related to reference site (SER, 2016). This information is important 79 for development practitioners for further scaling up. 80

There are many forest restoration practices with area exclosures in the northern de-81 graded lands of Ethiopia. The restoration works through area exclosures in the study area 82 are not seriously evaluated. This is because there is limited synthesis and methodological 83 research to develop indicators and evaluation criteria. Due to this the determinants for 84 successful and fail of forest restoration with area exclosures were not identified in the 85 study areas. Thus, this research was designed to evaluate the impacts of exclosures on 86 vegetation dynamics and some soil attributes after passive restoration intervention and 87 develop the conceptual framework for evaluation of forest restoration practice. 88

2. Methodology

2.1. Description of the study area

The study was conducted in Waghemira and North Wollo Zones, in Amhara region 91 on three selected districts (Lasta, Sekota and Abergele) (Figure 1). **Lasta** district is one of 92 the administrative districts in north Wollo Zone, which is geographically located between 93 12035'31'' N Latitude and 39004'30'' E longitudes. **Sekota** is one of the district of 94 Waghemira Zone located in 120 0'22'' north longitudes and 3900'58''east latitudes. 95

89

Abergele is one of the district of Waghemira Zone located in 1304'42'' north latitude and 96 38053`29`` east longitude. 97

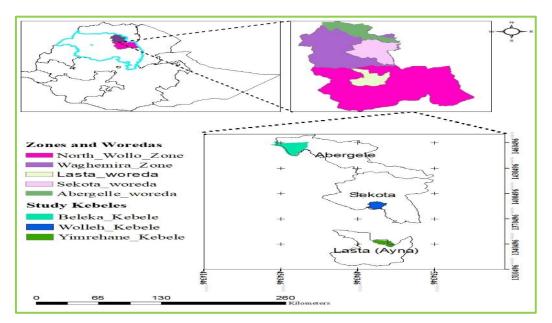


Figure 1. Map of the Study area.

Table 1. characteristics of study area.

Attributes	Highland	Mid-altitude	Lowland
Altitude (m.a.sl.)	2129 to 3600	1340 to 2200	500 to 1300
Rainfall (mm)	500 to 1000	350 to 700	250 to 750
Temperature (°C)	24.5	16 to 27	23 to 43
Soil	Eutric Cambisols (51%)	Umbric Leptosols (52%)	Eutric Leptosols (29%)
Agro-ecology	Dega (52.7%)	Woyena-Dega (65%)	Dry Kolla (55%)
Topography		Chain of mountains, hills ad cliffs	
Vegetation	bushy	woodlands and forest only at chu	ırches

2.2. Sampling Size and Procedure

Table 2. Sample size.

S.No	District	Agro-ecology (m.a.s.l)	Area of selected exclosure	Area of selected church	Area of selected grazing	Age of exclosures
1	Lasta	Highland (2129- 3600)	9.8 ha	54 ha	8.5 ha	10 years
2	Sekota	Mid-altitude(1340- 2200)	3 ha	8.87 ha	2 ha	10 years
3	Abergele	Lowland (500-1300)	3.268 ha	11.35 ha	6.7 ha	10 years

Three districts (Lasta, Sekota and Abergele) at different agro-ecological Zones (High-103 land, mid-altitude and lowland) respectively were selected purposively. The agro-ecolog-104ical classification of the study district is based on (Azene, 2007). 105

Then in each agro-ecology (districts) one area exclosures, one adjacent grazing land 106 and one adjacent church forest (reference) were selected purposively. The criteria for se-107 lection was the presence of exclosure intervention and their accessibility at the same age (10 years). 109

101

102

98

99

100

Vegetation data were collected from quadrats, which were placed in systematic ran-110 dom sampling. The size of the quadrats was 20 m by 20 m square for tree inventory, 10 m 111 by 10 m for sapling inventory and 5 m by 5 m for seedling inventory. The distances be-112 tween the quadrates on transect was 250 m and the distance between parallel transects 113 was 200 m (Kent, 2012). 114

The soil sample were collected from the main quadrates at four corners and at the 115 middle in three different depth (0-10 cm, 10-20 cm, and 20-40 cm) with auger technique 116 and then composite with plastic bag. Then soil sample were analyzed at the laboratory 117 following appropriate laboratory procedures. 118

2.3. Methods of Data Collection

For evaluation of woody vegetation species local name, common name and scientific 120 name at each quadrate were recorded. The height of trees are measured with Hypsome-121 ter. The diameter of trees was taken at 1.3 m (DBH) and at 0.6m with caliper and diameter 122 tape. Different tree growth stages that, trees with the DBH >2.5 cm and height of >2.5 123 m, sapling with the DBH <2.5 cm and height of 1m < h< 2 m and seedling: having the DBH 124 < 2.5 cm and height of <1 m were recorded at each quadrates (Kent, 2012). 125

Soil sample was taken at four corners and at the center of the main quadrate by dis-126 turbed sampling technique with auger at different depth. Then composite all soil samples 127 by different land use and different soil depth. After that taken 1 kg soil sample from the 128 composite sample after appropriate mixing for laboratory analysis of texture, pH, soil or-129 ganic matter, available phosphorus and total nitrogen. 130

2.4. Data Analysis

The vegetation indicators analyzed by biodiversity indices such as Shannon diversity 132 index (H'), species similarity index and species evenness index (Shannon, 1948). The spe-133 cies similarity was analyzed by Sorenson's Coefficient (Gotelli, 2013). The species even-134 ness was analyzed with Evenness index = $H' / \log S$. (Pielou, 1966). The Flora of Ethiopia 135 and Eritrea books helps for species identification. The above ground biomass of woody 136 species having the DBH >-5cm calculated by (Chave et al., 2014).Wood specific density of 137 woody species taken from (Ethiopia's forest reference level submission to the UNFCCC, 138 2016) guideline. 139

To simplify the process for estimating below-ground biomass, it is recommended that) root-to-shoot ratio value of 1:5 is used; that is, to estimate below-ground biomass as 141 20% of above-ground tree biomass (Bhishma et al., 2010) and (Bazezew et al., 2015). 142

For Litter fall, Herb and Grasses (LHG) based on (IPCC, 2006)

The soil attributes were analyzed at Sekota agricultural research Center soil labor-144 atory based on the procedure of soil and plant analysis (Sahlemedhin, 2000). Then the soil 145 sample laboratory result was compared with soil critical values (Abiy, 2008; Alemu and 146Tekaligni ,2016). Then finally, all vegetation and soil attribute data were summarized and 147 tested by SPSS for one-way ANOVA (at alpha = 0.05). 148

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Vegetation Composition

3.1.1. Woody Species Density

High woody species density $(1660 - 2265 \text{ stem ha}^{-1})$ was recorded in exclosures fol-152 lowed by church forest (717 – 1440 stem ha⁻¹) and grazing land (152-850 stem ha⁻¹) (Figure 153 2). The exclosure have better in stem density than church forest and grazing land. This 154 is because of the open space, which gives favorable condition for regeneration of light 155 demander species. That means there is no competition for light due to upper strata vege-156 tation. Thus, scrub vegetation start to grow. As a result, the number of stems increase in 157 exclosures. 158

119

131

140

143

149

150

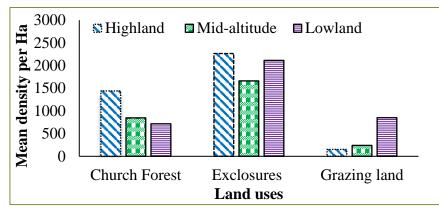


Figure 2. Woody species density.

Therefore, excluding open grazing land from livestock and human interference is a 161 better strategy for natural regeneration. The better the natural regeneration facilitates the forest restoration. This idea is similar with Birhane et al. (2007) in Tigray, northern Ethio-163 pia, Mamo (2008) in northeast Ethiopia, South Wollo and Asmamaw (2011) in central Ethi-164 opia north Shoa that, area exclosures increase the vegetation density. All above scholars 165 approved that, excluding livestock from open grazing land as area exclosure increase nat-166 ural regeneration lead to natural forest restoration. Because, overgrazing (browsing and 167 trampling) destroy the newly emerged seedling and saplings. 168

3.1.2. Species Composition

High number of species (7-16) was recorded in exclosures forest followed by church 170 forest (11-12) and open grazing land (3-5). Number of species was low at mid-altitude but similar at lowland and highland areas (Figure 3). 172

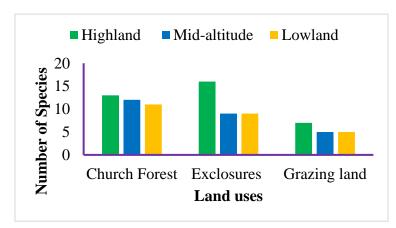


Figure 3. Species richness of different land uses at different sites.

Exclosures have the highest species richness than church forest and grazing land. 175 This is because of in exclosures there is open space. There is low trampling and other 176 disturbances. Therefore, the dormant species from soil seedbank starts to regenerate. In 177 the other hand, there is seed dispersal by wind and wild animals from near natural forest 178 or church forests. 179

Species diversity was high (0.78 - 2.27) at church forest followed by exclosures (1.1 -180 1.73) and open grazing land (0.48 - 0.8). The dominance and evenness index is high in 181 church forest followed by exclosures and open grazing lands (Table 3). 182

Table 3. Species diversity and evenness in different land use and agro-ecology.

Agro-ecology	Land use	Species diversity (H')	Evenness (E)

162

159

160

169

173 174

Environ. Sci. Proc. 2021, 3, x FOR PEER REVIEW

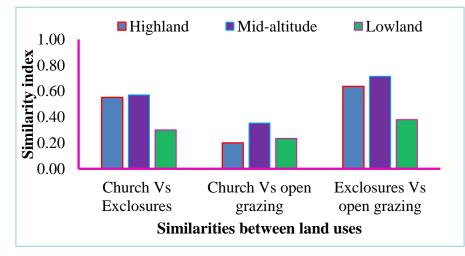
Highland	Church forest	2.04	0.3
	Exclosure area	1.2	0.16
	grazing land	0.8	0.15
Mid-altitude	Church forest	2.27	0.9
	Exclosure area	1.73	0.79
	grazing land	0.78	0.48
Low land	Church forest	2.3	0.95
	Exclosure area	1.1	0.5
	grazing land	0.48	0.3

According to Shannon (1948) species diversity index, the church forest was at good 184 range (2 to 2.4) while exclosures have medium range (1 to 1.5) but open grazing land is 185 below the minimum range (< 1) of species diversity index (Table 3). Simpson (1949) even-186 ness index ranged from zero to one, at which close to one means all species evenly distrib-187 uted, while close to zero means few dominant species control the community. In exclo-188 sures and the church forest species evenness is close to one that means the species get the 189 chance to special distribution, however in open grazing lands evenness indexes close to 190 zero at which high stress resistant few species are dominant. 191

In church forest, light demander species have no chance to germinate because of the 192 close space of upper canopy. In exclosures, there is enough open space; thus, light de-193 manders start to germinate. Therefore, exclosures have optimum species diversity and it 194 may increase with age of exclosures still upper canopy will be closed. In open grazing 195 lands, there are few dominant species presented, which resist the grazing stress. Thus, 196 species diversity is very low. Similarly, Asefa et al. (2003) conclude that in northern high-197 lands of Ethiopia, species diversity increases from open grazing land 0.5 to 1.8 after exclo-198 sures. This idea also supported by Mengistu et al. (2005) in central and northern highlands 199 that, exclosures have species diversity twice the open grazing land. Therefore, the species 200 at dormancy in open grazing land regenerate or due to seed dispersal by wildlife after the 201 area is exclosed. Thus, exclosed the open grazing land increase the species diversity and 202 species richness. 203

3.131. Species similarity index

The highest species similarity is between exclosures and open grazing land (0.4-0.8) 205 followed by church and exclosures (0.3 - 0.6). High species similarity also recorded at 206 midd-altitude areas (0.6-0.8) followed by highland (0.24 - 0.6) and lowland areas (0.24 - 0.6) 0.4) (Figure 4). 208



The similarity index ranges from 0 to 1 and; close to one means there is high similarity 211 and close to zero means there is low similarity (Gotelli, 2013). The similarity between 212

204

207

209

church forest vs. exclosures and exclosures vs. open grazing land at mid-altitude and 213 highland areas close to one. However, in the lowland areas the similarity between church 214 and exclosures close to zero. The exclosed forest have species similarity midway between church and open grazing land, as a trajectory from degraded grazing land area to 216 reference adjacent church forest in highland and mid-altitude areas but not in lowland 217 areas. 218

3.2. Population Structure and Regeneration status

3.2.1. Population structure

In highland areas, *Junipers procera* and *Olea europea* are the dominant species in 221 churches having inverted J-shaped population structure, while in exclosure *Dodonia an-222 gostifolia* and *Rhus glotinos* are the dominant species having hump-shape (unimodal) population structure. Similarly, over all church forest in the highland area, have inverted J-224 shaped population structure (Figure 5 A). There is no dominant species in grazing land. 225 However, there overall population structure shows J-shaped structure that only few big 226 trees with no seedling and sapling population. 227

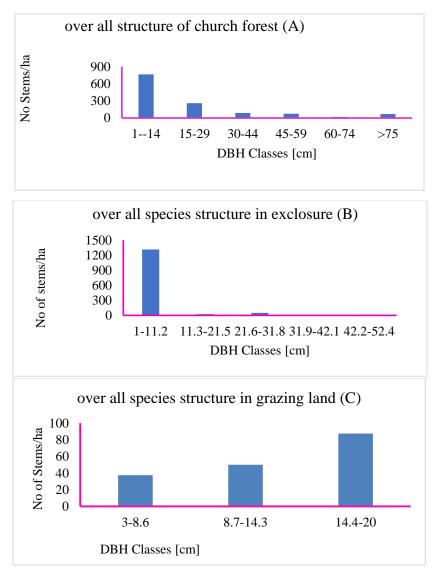


Figure 5. Population Structure of highland areas.

The lower DBH population of the species were found where there is open space, 229 while, at the dense forest inside the church forest there is low regeneration, only big trees 230 are preset. The seedlings and saplings of these species are found at the border where there 231 is open space. These species are light demanders; therefore, the regeneration is only at the 232

7 of 20

219

220

border and open space. Rhus glutinosa and Dodonia angostifolia are dominat species in 233 exclosures at highland areas. Dodonia angostifolia is a poincer species that regenerate first 234 in exclosures. This shows that the species are regenerated from soil seedbank or dispersal 235 after the area is exclosed. All species in exclosures at the highland areas have inverted J-236 shape structure that most populations are at sapling stage (Figure 5 B). this is due to open 237 space and the condition is favorable for ligh demandrs and the exclosures are young. In 238 grazing land at the highland areas there are few stressed tress in DBH range of 14-20 cm. 239 The population structure is J-shape structure indicating low regeneration (Figure 5 C). the 240 regeneration may be affected by grazing disturbances. 241

In mid-altitude areas, *Dodonia angostifolia* and *Olea europea* was dominant species in 242 churches having inverted J-shape population structure. Over all, the church forest in midaltitude areas have inverse J-shape structure. In churches, most population are found in 243 DBH range 3- 20 cm and there is few big trees (Figure 6 A). 245

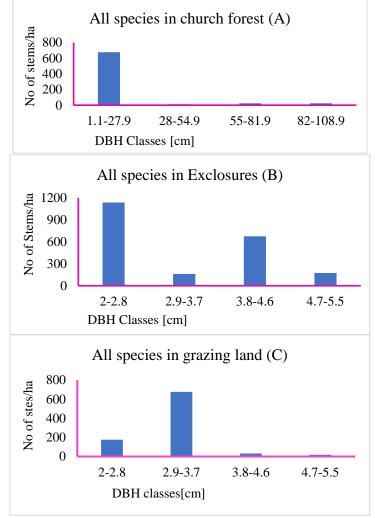


Figure 6. Population structure in mid-altitude areas.

In exclosures, only *Dodonia angostifolia* is the dominant species having J-shaped structure (Figure 6 B). In exclosure, most trees are found at 3-4 cm DBH range that are newly regenerated after area is enclosed. However, there is no dominant species in grazing land. *Acacia etbaica* and *Euclea divinorum* are remnants shrubs in grazing land, which resist the grazing and other disturbance stresses (Figure 6 C). 247

In lowland areas, *Diospyros mesifiliformis* and *Oncoba spinosa* was dominant species in 252 churches having J-shape population structure. All most all trees have in the church and 253 grazing land have DBH > 10 cm. This shows there is low regeneration in churches and 254 grazing land (Figure 7 A and B). While, in exclosures *Acacia asak and Adansonia digitata* 255

8 of 20

were the dominant species. *Acacia asak* have having inverted J-shaped structure and *Adan-* 256 *sonia digitata* have J-shape structure. 257

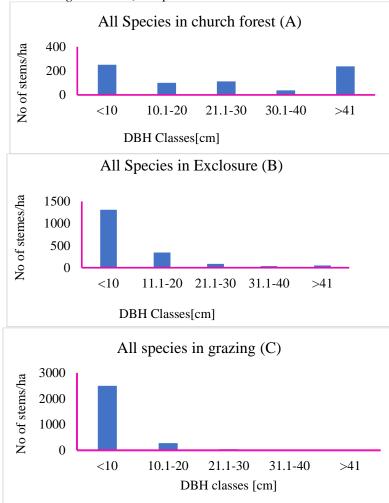


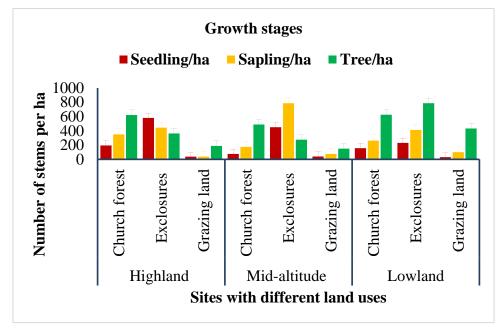
Figure 7. Population structure in lowland areas.

At low land areas, there is low regeneration in exclosures. The lowland grazing have 259 inverted J-shape structure (Figure 7 C). There are only few big trees without seedling and 260 sapling population in grazing lands. That means there is no regeneration in open grazing 261 land. 262

3.2.2. Regeneration status

In terms of regeneration, exclosures have high seedling and sapling population while 264 church forest and grazing land have low seedling and sapling population. At highland 265 areas, church forest have J-shaped, exclosures forest have inverted J-shaped and open 266 grazing land have J-shape population structure. At midd-altitude areas, same trend to 267 highland areas but at exclosures there is high sapling population. At lowland areas, the 268 regeneration status is very low; that means very low seedling population and thus population structure is J-shaped Figure 8). 270

258



272

Figure 8. Regeneration status of woody species across different land uses.

At churches, the upper canopy affects the regeneration, so the population are only 273 competent trees. It is an indicator of unbalanced community. Junipers procera and Olea eu-274 ropean are a dominant species in most church forests in the highlands of Ethiopia. How-275 ever, there is low regeneration because of low open space and high trampling effect of 276 livestock. This idea is similar with Haile (2006) that in highland parts of North Wollo, 277 Junipers procera and Olea european are common dominant species having J-shaped struc-278 ture. There is only big trees in dense and there is low seedling and sapling population. 279 While in exclosures the population structure is inverted J-shape structure that means there 280 is high population of seedling and sapling. It is an indicator of healthy community. Exclo-281 sure was open grazing land before establishment. After exclosures, the stressed vegetation 282 starts to grow and support natural regeneration as a nurse tree. The space is open helping 283 to regenerate the light demanders. Thus, population of exclosure is in the order of seedling 284 > sapling > tree. This idea is supported by Mengistu et al. (2005) in degraded hillsides of 285 central and northern Ethiopia, Birhane et al., (2007) in northern Ethiopia, Mamo (2008) in 286 northeast Ethiopia that, the population structures is inverted J-shape if there is no live-287 stock interferences, that means properly protected and managed as area exclosures. 288 Therefore, area exclosure restore the normal and healthy community after the open com-289 mon grazing land is exclude from livestock and human interference. 290

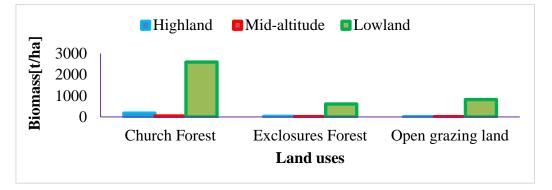
3.3. Biomass

3.3.1. Woody species biomass

The highest WBM (613 -2594 ton ha⁻¹) recorded in lowland followed by highland (8.7 293 - 148.5 ton ha-1) and at mid-altitude 9.9-47.13 ton ha-1). In terms of land uses, the WBM was 294 high at church forest $(47.13 - 2594.5 \text{ ton ha}^{-1})$ followed by exclosures $(12.3 - 613.4 \text{ ton ha}^{-1})$ 295 and grazing land (8.7 - 821.3 ton ha⁻¹) (Figure 9). 296

10 of 20

291



297

298

Figure 9. Mean woody biomass of different land uses at different sites.

The highest biomass at lowland area is due to big trees like *Adansonia digitata* L. hav-299 ing high diameter up to 178 cm. This tree increase the basal area and biomass at grazing land and exclosures. Additionally, *Acacia asak* dominantly grown in exclosures and open grazing land having the thorn in the lowland contribute to high biomass in the lowland.302

In highland and mid-altitudes, the area is much degraded, that almost no big trees 303 remain at open grazing land; after exclosures Dodonia angostifolia as a pioneer species start 304 to grow having less diameter and then low biomass. Even if in this condition, the woody 305 biomass in exclosures is intermediate between church and grazing land. That means ex-306 closing open grazing land contribute for restoration of biomass flow from vegetation to 307 soil. Yaynshet (2009), in northern Ethiopia stated the same findings that, the aboveground 308 biomass measured inside the exclosures was more than twice that of the adjacent grazed 309 areas and more biomass produced from the young than the old exclosures. Mekuria (2013) 310 also stated similar idea that Woody biomass increased with exclosures age while grass 311 biomass carbon slightly decreased because of canopy cover after well-developed commu-312 nity. Mekuria et al. (2015) also stated aboveground biomass and carbon increased follow-313 ing the establishment of exclosures on communal grazing land. Qasim et al. (2017) ex-314 plained that aboveground vegetation biomass across sites in the order of area exclosures 315 > open grazing land. 316

3.3.2. Litter, grass and Herbaceous biomass

The highest litter, grass and herb biomass $(1.35 - 2.3 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$ recorded in church forests 318 followed by exclosures $(1.42 - 1.96 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$ and grazing land $(0.57 - 0.99 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$. In terms of 319 agro-ecology, the highest LHG was recorded in highland $(0.57 - 2.3 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$ followed by 320 mid-altitude $(0.99 - 2.1 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$ and lowland areas $(0.75 - 1.35 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$ (Figure 10). 321

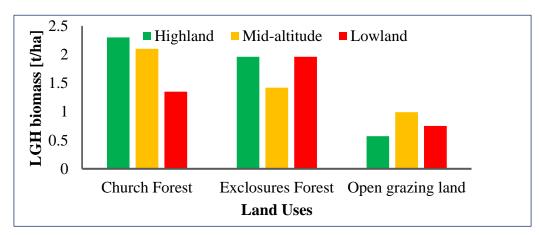


Figure 10. LGH biomass of different land uses at different sites.

In exclosures the grass and herbaceous species contribute for high LHG biomass, 324 while in church forests litter fall contribute to the biomass. However, in open grazing land 325 the grass, litter and herbs browsed by livestock, thus the biomass is less in highland and 326

322

323

midd-altitude areas. Descheemaeker et al. (2006) get similar findings that litter biomass 327 increase with exclosures age in Northern Ethiopia, Tigray after the open grazing land ex-328 clude from livestock and human interferences. 329

3.4. Soil Attributes of Area Exclosures

3.4.1. Soil particles

There was highly significant difference of sand (p = 0.008), clay (p = 0.000) and loam 332 (p = 0.000) contents between different land uses. However, there was no significant differ-333 ence of sand, clay and loam contents of soil at different agro-ecologies. The highest mean 334 clay content was record in church forest (6.8 %) followed by exclosures (6 %) and grazing 335 land (4 %). The highest mean sand content was record in grazing land (88.3 %) followed 336 by exclosures (87.4 %) and church forest have the least sand content (79.56 %). The highest 337 mean loam content was record in church forest (13.5 %) followed by grazing land (7.2 %) 338 and exclosures (6.5 %) (Table 4). 339

Table 4. soil particle content of the study site +- Standard error of the mean n = 9).

Agro-ecology	land use	Sand (%)	Clay (%)	Silt (%)	Texture classes
	church	82.6 <u>+</u> 1.2 ^A	5.4 <u>+</u> 0.74 ^A	12.3 <u>+</u> 1.1 ^A	loamy sand
Highland	exclosures	84.6 <u>+</u> 1.2 ^B	6 ± 0.74^{AB}	$9.4 \pm 1.1^{\text{B}}$	loamy sand
	grazing land	86.3 <u>+</u> 1.2 ^B	4 ± 0.74^{BC}	9.6 <u>+</u> 1.1 ^B	loamy sand
	church	74.6 <u>+</u> 1.2 ^A	$7.4 \pm 0.74^{\text{A}}$	$18 \pm 1.1^{\text{A}}$	Sandy loam
Mid-altitude	exclosures	91.3 <u>+</u> 1.2 ^в	4.6 ± 0.74^{AB}	4 ± 1.1^{B}	Sandy
	grazing land	88.3 <u>+</u> 1.2 ^в	3.3 <u>+</u> 0.74 вс	$8.4 \pm 1.1^{\text{B}}$	Sandy
	church	81.3 <u>+</u> 1.2 ^A	8 <u>+</u> 0.74 ^A	10.7 <u>+</u> 1.1 ^A	loamy sand
Lowland	exclosures	86.4 <u>+</u> 1.2 ^в	7.3 <u>+</u> 0.74 ^{AB}	6.3 <u>+</u> 1.1 ^в	sand
	grazing land	90.4 <u>+</u> 1.2 ^в	5.6 <u>+</u> 0.74 ^{BC}	4 ± 1.1^{B}	Sandy

Based on clay, sand and loam content proportion of the soil at highland areas in all 341 land uses have loam sand textural class. Church forests have loamy sand textural class in 342 all agro-ecologies. In mid-altitude and lowland areas, area exclosures and grazing land 343 have sandy textural class. Sand Clay and loam content of the soil increase from grazing 344 land to church forest. However, the sand content of the soil decreased from grazing land 345 to church forest. This tell us the exclosure practices increase the soil clay and loam content 346 from its litter fall and under vegetation decomposition. This is because of organic matter 347 increment in vegetation covered area church and area exclosures. This idea is similar with 348 Prasad & Power (1997) that soil organic matter have a habit of to increase the clay and silt 349 content the soil under vegetation covered area. This is due to two mechanisms. At the 350 first, unions between the surface of clay particles and organic matter delay the decompo-351 sition process. Then soils with higher clay content increase the potential for aggregate for-352 mation. Under similar climate conditions, the organic matter content in fine textured 353 (clayey) soils is two to four times that of coarse textured (sandy) soils (Prasad & Power, 354 1997). Based on Mekuria & Aynekulu (2011) findings in northern parts of Ethiopia the 355 sand content was reduced after area exclosure but the clay and silt contents of soil were 356 increased slightly when the age of exclosure increased. Temesgen et al. (2014) in Northern 357 Ethiopia also conclude similar idea that sand content of the soil reduced by area exclosures 358 practice while, silt and clay content was increased after the area is enclosed. 359

3.4.2. Soil pH

There was significant difference in pH across land uses and agro-ecologies (p > 0.05) 361 (Appendix Table 2). However, not significant difference between soil depths. The highest 362 pH recorded in lowland areas (6.9 - 8.4) followed by highland areas (6.6 -7.6) and mid-363 altitude (5.6 -7.6 (Figure 11). 364

12 of 20

330

331

340

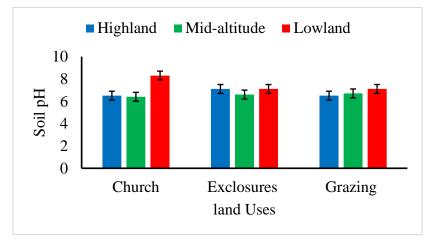


Figure 11. Soil pH in different soil depth and land uses.

Exclosures forest have high pH than others in highland areas. This is supported by 367 Mekuria et al. (2017) at which after 7 years exclosures soil pH increases 6 to 7.3. This idea 368 is disproved by Endale (2016) that, closed area have lower pH than open grazing land, 369 this is because vegetation cover. Vegetation cover allows litter decomposition, which will 370 lead to high infiltration because of improved soil organic matter and physical characteris-371 tics. These leached bases percolate down deep in to the soil and the top soil remains acidic 372 and the pH become lower. However, high pH up to 8.4 recorded in churches having good 373 vegetation cover at lowland areas. This is because of the presence of buffering compounds 374 such as carbonates. Based on Gomez (2016), at which carbonate compounds increases the 375 soil pH to 8.5. This is why in high vegetation cover areas, there is high organic carbon 376 having negative charges. This negative charges attract the positive cations (basic com-377 pounds) like calcium and then make carbonate compound. 378

Based on Alemu and Tekaligni (2016) soil critical value, the soil pH at church forest, 379 exclosures, and open grazing land is almost neutral at which pH range from 6.8 to 7.3. 380 Therefore, there is no soil pH change with area exclosures in all agro-ecologies. This is 381 may be due to the age of exclosures. May be it needs more time to moderate soil pH. Vogt 382 et al. (2015) proven three soil pH ranges. These are a pH < 4 indicates the presence of free 383 acids, generally from oxidation of sulfides; a pH < 5.5 suggests the likely occurrence of 384 exchangeable Al; and a pH from 7.8 to 8.2 indicates the presence of CaCO₃. Based on this our result have on under the third (7.8 to 8.2) range i.e. the soil of the study areas ranged 386 from neutral to slightly alkaline. 387

3.4.3. Soil Organic Carbon and Organic Matter

Church forests show significant difference (p = 0.02) in soil organic carbon and soil 389 organic matter across depth in all agro-ecologies. There was significant difference in SOC 390 between lands uses (p = 0.003) in all agro-ecologies (Appendix Table 2). The highest SOC 391 recorded at church forest (0.58 - 2.9%) followed by exclosures (0.13 - 2.27%) and open 392 grazing land (0.5 - 1.1%) (Figure 12). 393

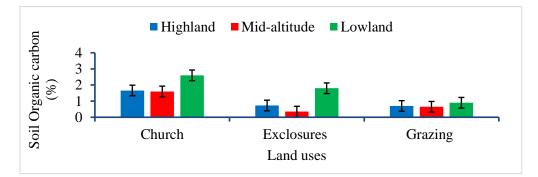


Figure 12. soil organic carbon in different soil depth and land uses.

365 366

Based on Abiy (2008) and Alemu and Tekaligni (2016) soil critical values, our SOC 396 and SOM at church forest have medium organic carbon (2.1-4.2 %) at highland and mid-397 altitude areas but, high at lowland areas (4.3 to 5). Exclosures have low SOC and SOM in 398 all agro-ecologies. Open grazing land have very low SOC and SOM in all agro ecologies. 399 This shows exclosure have SOM and SOC contents, which is a transitional between church 400 forest and open grazing land. Therefore, exclosure contributes for the development of soil 401 organic matter important for soil fertility and soil biology. This idea is alike with Endale 402 (2016) in West Hararghe Zone of Oromia that there is high soil organic carbon in exclo-403 sures. Thus, exclosure practice substitute the loss soil by erosion, overexploitation and 404 aboveground biomass deduction by consequent grazing. 405

As Mekuria et al. (2007) soil organic matter increases with age of exclosures after ex-406 closures in Northern Ethiopia. That means vegetation restoration lead biomass production 407 increased and then the soil productivity increases. This idea is showed by Vogt et al. (2015) 408that, many soils specifically those under forest, have good organic soil materials at the 409 surface (defined as containing > 20% organic carbon) called forest floor or litter fall. This 410 why, the most recently deposited, relatively undecomposed foliage, twig, etc. on the sur-411 face. In general, SOM is a large and active component of the global carbon cycle, contain-412 ing three times the carbon that is contained in terrestrial and twice the carbon that is con-413 tained in the atmosphere. 414

3.4.4. Soil Total Nitrogen

There was highly significant difference (p = 0.000) in Total Nitrogen (TN) between 416 land uses and agro-ecologies (Appendix Table 2). Nevertheless, there was no significant 417 difference of TN between soil depths in all agro-ecologies. The highest TN was recorded in highland followed by lowland and mid-altitude. In terms of land uses, church forest 419 have high TN followed by exclosures and open grazing land (Figure 13). 420

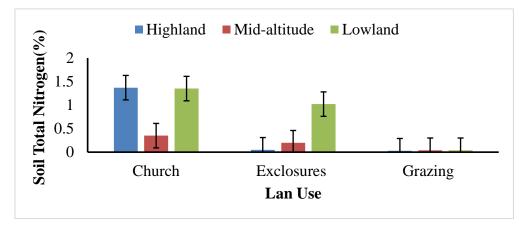


Figure 13. Soil total Nitrogen in different soil depth and land uses.

Based on Alemu and Tekaligni (2016) soil critical value, church forests have very high TN in highland and mid-altitude areas, but very high TN in lowland areas. On the other hand, exclosures have low TN in all agro-ecologies. Compared to church forest and exclo-425 sure, open grazing land have very low TN in all agro-ecologies. This shows that after ex-426 closures there was Nitrogen fixation in the soil. This idea is similar with Endale (2016) 427 that TN is increased slightly after exclosures. Thus, enclosed forest have TN in the inter-428 mediate of open grazing and church forests. 429

Mekuria et al. (2017) discussed that TN and SOC in the exclosures forest have no dif-430 ference with open grazing land in 7 years exclosures in northern Ethiopia. This is why, 431 regain of these type of element in the soil needs more time after area exclosure. 432

3.4.5. Available Phosphorus

There was no significant difference in available phosphorus (AvaP) across land uses 434 and soil depth in all agro-ecologies. Nevertheless, there was significance difference in 435

415

418

423 424

433

421

AvaP across different agro-ecologies (p < 0.05) (Appendix Table 2). The highest AvaP rec-436 orded in in church forests (6.3 - 38.81 ppm) followed by exclosures (2.46 - 14.9 ppm) and 437 open grazing lands (3.1 - 14.6 ppm). In terms of ago-ecology, highland areas had highest 438 (4.36 – 38.81 ppm) followed by mid-altitude (3.22 – 24.6 ppm) and lowland areas (2.46 – 439 21.8 ppm) (Figure 14). 440

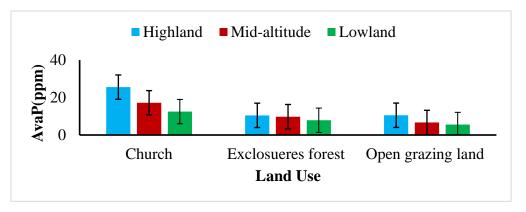


Figure 14. Soil available phosphorus in different soil depth and land uses.

Based on Alemu and Tekaligni (2016) soil critical value, AvaP (ppm) in church forest 443 is low at highland, optimum at mid-altitude and very low in lowland areas. In exclosures, 444 AvaP (ppm) is low in highland areas, very low in mid-altitude and lowland areas. Exclosures exhibited a trajectory of nutrient build from open grazing to church (reference) in soil restoration. This is similar to Descheemaeker et al. (2006) in northern highlands of Tigray the AvaP in enclosed forest (2.95 ppm) is increased from open grazing land (1.28 ppm) to church forests (10 ppm). However, according to Mekuria et al. (2017) when the area exclosures age increased there is high nutrient cycling then, AvaP decrease with soil 450and accumulates at the wood growing system. 451

Finally, the conceptual framework for Evaluation of forest landscape restoration was develop as (Figure 15).

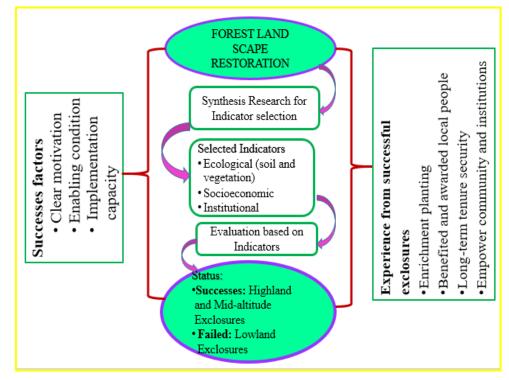


Figure 15. Conceptual framework for Forest Landscape Restoration.

441 442

452

4. Conclusion and Recommendation

Exclosure is a best strategy for increasing species diversity, number of stems, regeneration and biomass of a given degrade forest. This resulted in natural forest restoration. 458 The exclosure also have species similarity in between church and open grazing land, as a trajectory from degraded grazing land to reference adjacent church forest. Thus, degraded 460 and cleared forest starts succession; develop to its climax community and get-up-and-go to its former state after exclosures. This leads to the sustainable ecosystem goods and services for the community those their livelihood is depend on forest. 463

Exclosure improves soil nutrients after the area is exclude from livestock and human 464 interferences. The soil nutrient improvement is because of litter fall, grass residue and 465 herbaceous vegetation decomposition. This is why in exclosures livestock and fuelwood 466 collectors do not collect and browse litter, grasses residue and herbaceous vegetation. The soil nutrients facilitate the trajectory of degraded and cleared forest to its former state as 468 close as possible. Thus, exclosures practice substitute the loss soil by erosion, overexploi-469 tation and aboveground biomass deduction by consequent grazing. 470

In low land study area the natural regeneration was very low. Therefore, enrichment 471 plantation with indigenous tree and shrub species is required. In all study areas, there is 472 extreme disturbance during harvesting of grass for cut and carry grass at regeneration 473 period. Thus, awareness should be given for user groups to care for regenerated seedlings. 474 In mid-altitude study areas the local by-law have allowed to seasonal cropping. There is 475 high regeneration loss by trampling of livestock enter in to the exclosures for farming 476 practices. Therefore, the local by-law should be revised to limit the number of livestock 477 and awareness should be given for user groups during farming period. Further research 478 is required that for evaluation of restoration trajectory by establishing permanent plots for 479 well understanding of forest succession after restoration intervention. 480

Area exclosure is the best strategy for soil reclamation and restoration for degraded 481 areas of North Wollo and Waghemira zone degraded areas. It is very essential tool for 482 recovery of soil and sustainable and integrated soil fertility management in degraded hill 483 lands in in the areas where the lad is out of production or farming practices. Thus for 484 sustainable and integrated soil fertility and other natural resources management area ex-485 closure is a vital tool. Further research is required to understand soil dynamics at exclo-486 sure and trajectory of changes in soil property dynamics of the area exclosure by estab-487 lishing permanent plot. 488

Appendix

Land uses	Sites	Density [ha]	Richness	Woody Biomass [ton/ha]	LHG biomass [t/ha]	Diversity[H ']	Evenness	Dominance
Church	Highland	1440	11	184.5	2.3	2.04	0.3	0.8
Church	Mid-altitude	845	12	47.13	2.1	2.27	0.9	0.87
forest	Lowland	717	11	2594.8*	1.35	2.3	0.9	0.87
	Mean	1001	11	942.14	1.9	2.2	0.7	0.84
	Highland	2265	14	31.7	1.96	1.2	0.2	0.43
Exclosures	Mid-altitude	1660	7	12.3	1.42	1.73	0.8	0.78
	Lowland	2114	16	613.4	1.96	1.1	0.5	0.46
	Mean	2013	12	219.1	1.76	1.34	0.5	0.55
0	Highland	152	5	8.7	0.57	0.8	0.2	0.45
Open	Mid-altitude	240	3	9.9	0.99	0.78	0.5	0.38
grazing land	Lowland	850	5	821.6	0.75	0.48	0.3	0.2
Μ	lean	414	4	280.07	0.77	0.68	0.33	0.34
Total	Mean	1143	9	637.7	1.48	1.48	0.5	0.58
C	CV	32.3	30	13.8	27.9	26	32.8	41.37
L	SD	694.4	5.08	1124	0.77	0.49	0.19	0.29
Significa	nce [0.05]	**	*	*	**	**	*	*

Table A1. Vegetation compotation.

456

489

Agro- ecologies	Land use type	Depth	рН	OC[%]	OM[%]	TN[%]	AvaP [ppm]
		0-10 cm	6.1	1.28	2.2	1.55	22.4
	Church	10-20 cm	6.6	1.78	3.01	1.39	19.39
		20-40 cm	6.7	1.92	3.31	1.17	21.81
Highland		0-10 cm	6.6	0.84	1.44	0.06	14.9
-	Exclosures	10-20 cm	7.1	0.66	1.3	0.05	14.55
		20-40 cm	7.6	0.69	1.2	0.04	10.23
		0-10 cm	6.5	0.94	1.61	0.05	12.7
	Grazing	10-20 cm	6.5	0.61	132	0.03	11.65
	-	20-40 cm	6.5	0.6	1.03	0.02	10.32
		0-10 cm	6.6	2.03	3.5	0.18	38.81
	Church	10-20 cm	5.6	2.07	3.46	0.41	24.6
		20-40 cm	7.1	0.78	3.23	0.45	9.39
		0-10 cm	6.7	0.44	0.75	0.04	5.04
Mid-altitude	Exclosures	10-20 cm	6.9	0.50	0.56	0.47	4.55
		20-40 cm	6.3	0.13	0.23	0.10	2.46
		0-10 cm	5.6	0.50	0.86	0.05	4.36
	Grazing	10-20 cm	6.8	0.51	0.87	0.04	3.22
	-	20-40 cm	7.6	0.95	0.83	0.04	3.43
		0-10 cm	8.2	2.06	3.55	1.01	15.48
	Church	10-20 cm	8.3	2.90	5.00	1.50	7.54
		20-40 cm	8.4	2.83	4.88	1.54	6.33
		0-10 cm	6.9	2.27	3.91	1.44	11.53
Lowland	Exclosures	10-20 cm	7.2	1.53	2.64	0.83	10.44
		20-40 cm	7.3	1.73	2.98	0.78	10.92
		0-10 cm	6.9	0.85	1.47	0.04	14.59
	Grazing	10-20 cm	7.2	1.1	1.48	0.05	5.2
		20-40 cm	7.1	0.75	1.46	0.03	3.1
	Mean		6.92	1.23	6.99	0.49	11.813
	CV		8.6	26.2	13.15	32.8	31.7
	LSD		1.04	0.92	1.6	0.52	16.2
Si	gnificance[0.0	5]	*	*	*	**	*

Table A2. soil chemical properties across different agro-ecologies, land uses and soil depth.

 Table A3. Soil texture across different agro-ecologies, land uses and soil depth.

Agro-ecology	land use	Depth (cm)	Sand (%)	Clay (%)	Silt (%)	Texture classes
Highland	church	0-10	80	6	14	loamy sand
		10-20cm	84	4	12	loamy sand
		20-40	84	6	10	loamy sand
	exclosures	0-10	86	6	8	loamy sand
		10-20cm	84	6	10	loamy sand
		20-40	84	6	10	loamy sand
	grazing land	0-10	87	4	9	loamy sand
		10-20cm	86	4	10	loamy sand
		20-40	86	4	10	loamy sand
Mid-altitude	church	0-10	76	6	18	Sandy loam
		10-20cm	76	6	18	Sandy loam
		20-40	72	10	18	Sandy loam
	exclosures	0-10	90	6	4	sandy
		10-20cm	92	4	4	sand
		20-40	92	4	4	sandy
	grazing land	0-10	89	4	7	Sandy
		10-20cm	87	2	11	sandy
		20-40	89	4	7	loamy sand

491

loamy sand	12	6	82	0-10	church	Lowland
loamy sand	10	8	82	10-20cm		
Sandy loan	10	10	80	20-40		
sand	2	8	90	0-10	exclosures	
loamy sand	10	8	82	10-20cm		
loamy sand	7	6	87	20-40		
sandy	1	6	93	0-10	grazing land	
sandy	5	5	90	10-20cm		
sandy	5	6	88	20-40		

References

- Alemayehu, W. (2007). *Ethiopian Church Forests: Opportunities and Challenges For Restoration*. 498 Wageningen University. 499
- Alemu, B., Eshetu, Z., Garedew, E., & Kassa, H. (2015). Assessment of vegetation characteristics and production of Boswellia papyrifera woodlands in north western lowlands of Ethiopia. *Sky* 501 *Journal of Agricultural Research*, 4(1), 8–13. 502
- Alemu Lelago, Tekaligni Mamo, W. H. and H. S. (2016). Assessment and Mapping of Status and
 Spatial Distribution of Soil Macronutrients in Kambata Tembaro. Advances in Plants & 504
 Agriculture Research Assessment, 4(4). https://doi.org/10.15406/apar.2016.04.00144
- Asefa, D. T., Oba, G., Weladji, R. B., & Colman, J. E. (2003). An assessment of restoration of 506 biodiversity in degraded high mountain grazing lands in Northern Ethiopia. *Land Degradation* 507 & *Developmen*, 14, 25–38. https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.505 AN 508
- Azene, Bekele, T. (2007). Useful trees and shrubs of Ethiopia : Identification, Propagation and Management 509 for 17 Agroclimatic Zones (1st ed.; S. D. and P. M. Bo Tengnäs, Ensermu Kelbesa, Ed.). Nairobi, 510 Kenya: RELMA in ICRAF Project World Agroforestry Centre, East Africa Region, Nairobi 511 Kenya.
- Bazezew, M. N., Soromessa, T., & Bayable, E. (2015). Above- and Below-Ground Reserved Carbon 513
 in Danaba Community Forest of Oromia Region, Ethiopia : Implications for CO 2 Emission 514
 Balance. American Journal of Environmental Protection, 4(2), 75–82. 515
 https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ajep.20150402.11 516
- Bhishma P. Subedi, Shiva Shankar Pandey, Ajay Pandey, Eak Bahadur Rana, Sanjeeb Bhattarai, 517
 Tibendra Raj Banskota, Shambhu Charmakar, R. T. (2010). Forest Carbon Stock Measurement 518
 Guidelines for measuring carbon stocks in community management forest (p. 66). p. 66. Nepal: 519
 FECOFUN, ICIMOD, NORAD. 520
- Birhane, E., Teketay, D., & Barklund, P. (2007). Enclosures to Enhance Woody Species Diversity in the Dry Lands of Eastern Tigray, Ethiopia. *East African Journal of Sciences*, 1, 136–147.
- Chave et al. (2014). Improved allometric models to estimate the aboveground biomass of tropical 523 trees. *Global Change Biology*, 20, 3177–3190. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12629 524
- Chazdon Robin L. (2008). Beyond Deforestation : Restoring Degraded Lands. *Science*, 320, 1458–1460. 525 https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1155365 526
- Daniel Danano. (2003). Area closure for rehabilitation Ethiopia Meret mekelel Enclosing.
- Descheemaeker, K, Nyssen, J., Poesen, J., Haile, M., Muys, B., Raes, D., ... Deckers, J. (2006). Soil and Water Conservation Through Forest Restoration in Exclosures of the Tigray Highlands. *Journal* 529

494 495

Abiy Tsetargew. (2008). Area closure as as a strategy for land management: A case study at Kelala Dalcha496enclosures in the central rift valley of southern Ethiopia. Addiss Ababa, Addis Ababa.497

of the Drylands, 1(2)*, 118–133.*

- Descheemaeker, Katrien, Muys, B., Nyssen, J., Poesen, J., Raes, D., Haile, M., & Deckers, J. (2006).
 Litter production and organic matter accumulation in exclosures of the Tigray highlands ,
 Ethiopia. Jornal of Forest Ecology and Manangment, 233, 21–35.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2006.05.061
- EBC. (2007). *forest ecosystem of Ethiopia*. Addis Ababa, Ethiopian institute of biodiversity 535 conservation. 536
- Endale, T. (2016). Dynamics of soil physico-chemical properties in area closures at Hirna watershed
 of west Hararghe zone of Oromia region, Ethiopia. *International Journal of Soil Science*, 11(1), 1–
 8. https://doi.org/10.3923/ijss.2016.1.8
- Ethiopia's forest reference level submissionto the UNFCCC. (2016). Addis Ababa.
- Gomez, A. D. and J. A. (2016). The Soil. Physical, Chemical and Biological Properties. In *Principles* 541 *of Agronomy for Sustainable Agriculture* (1st ed.). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-46116-8 542
- Gotelli Nicholas J., and C. A. (2013). Measuring and Estimating Species Richness, Species Diversity, 543
 and Biotic Similarity from Sampling Data. In *Encyclopedia of Biodiversity* (second edi, Vol. 5). 544
 https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-384719-5.00424-X
- Gumbo, E. N. C. and D. J. (2010). *The Dry Forests and Woodlands of Africa: managing for products and* 546 *services*. London nad Washington DC: Center for International Forestry Research. 547
- Haile Adamu. (2006). Study on Indigenous Tree and Shrub Species of Churches, and Monasteries of Wag-Lasta District. In Yihenew G.Selassie Enyew Adgo Zewudu Ayalew Abrham Abiyu
 Belay Tseganeh (Ed.), Proceedings of the 1st Annual Regional Conference on Completed Research on Natural Resources Management (p. 119). Bahir Dar: Amhara Agricultural ReseArch Institute.
- IPCC. (2006). Guidelines for National Greenhous Gas Inventoris (T. N. and K. T. Simon Eggleston, Leandro Buenndia, Kyoko Miwa, Ed.). IGES, Japan.: The intergovenmental pannel on climate change.
- Kent, M. (2012). Vegetation Description and Data Analysis: Apractical approach (Second). Atrium, 555
 Southern Gate, Chichester, West Sussex: A John Wiley & Sons, Ltd., Publication. 556
- Mamo, K. (2008). Enclosure as a vibale option for rehabilitation of degraded lands and biodiversity 557 conservation: the case of Kallu Woreda, Southern Wollo. Addiss Ababa University. 558
- Mekuria, W, & Aynekulu, E. (2011). Exclosure land management for restoration of the soils in 559 degraded communal grazing lands in Northern Ethiopia. *Land Degradation & Development*. 560
- Mekuria Wolde, E. Veldkamp, Mitiku Haile, J. Nyssen, B. Muys, K. G. (2007). Effectiveness of sexclosures to restore degraded soils as a result of overgrazing in Tigray, Ethiopia. *Jornal of Arid Environement*, 69, 270–284. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaridenv.2006.10.009
- Mekuria, Wolde. (2013). Changes in Regulating Ecosystem Services following Establishing 564
 Exclosures on Communal Grazing Lands in Ethiopia : A Synthesis. *Journal of Ecosystem*, 2013, 565
 12.
- Mekuria, Wolde, Langan, S., Johnston, R., Belay, B., Gashaw, T., Desta, G., ... Belay, B. (2015).
 Restoring aboveground carbon and biodiversity : a case study from the Nile basin , Ethiopia.
 Forest Science and Technology, 11(2), 86–96. https://doi.org/10.1080/21580103.2014.966862
- Mekuria, Wolde, Langan, S., Noble, A., & Johnston, R. (2017). Soil Restoration after seven Years of
 Exclosure Management in Northwestern Ethiopia. Land Degradation and Development, 28(4),
 1287–1297. https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.2527

Mengistu, A. (2011). The Role of Area Closures for Soil and Woody Vegetation The Role of Area Closures 573

530 531

for Soil and Woody Vegetation Rehabilitation in Kewot District, North Shewa. ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY.

- Mengistu, T., Teketay, D., Hulten, H., & Yemshaw, Y. (2005). The role of enclosures in the recovery 576 of woody vegetation in degraded dryland hillsides of central and northern Ethiopia. Journal of 577 Arid Environments, 60(2), 259–281. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaridenv.2004.03.014 578
- Naidu, M. T., & Kumar, O. A. (2016). Tree diversity, stand structure, and community composition 579 of tropical forests in Eastern Ghats of Andhra Pradesh, India. Journal of Asia-Pacific Biodiversity, 580 9(3), 328–334. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.japb.2016.03.019 581
- Pielou. (1966). The Measurement of Diversity in Diflerent Types of Biological Collections. Journal of 582 Theory of Biology, 13, 131–144. 583
- Prasad, R., & Power, J. F. (1997). Soil Fertility Management for Sustainable Agriculture. In America. 584 https://doi.org/10.1201/9781439821985 585
- Qasim, S., Gul, S., Shah, M. H., Hussain, F., Ahmad, S., Islam, M., ... Shah, S. Q. (2017). Influence of 586 grazing exclosure on vegetation biomass and soil quality. International Soil and Water 587 Conservation Research, 5(1), 62-68. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iswcr.2017.01.004 588
- Sahlemedhin Sertsu, T. B. (2000). Procedures for soil and plant analysis (No. 74). Addis Ababa.
- SER. (2004). The SER International Primer on Ecological Restoration. In Society for Ecological 590 Restoration International Science & Policy Working Group (Vol. 2). SER. 591
- SER. (2016). International standards for the practice for ecological restoration including principles 592 and key concepts. Society of Ecological Restoration, (December). 593
- Shannon. (1948). A Mathematical Theory of Communication. The Bell System Technical Journal, 27, 594 379-423. 595
- Simpson. (1949). Measurment of Diversity. Nature, 163, 688.
- Temesgen Abebe, D. H. F. and E. K. (2014). Area Exclosure as a Strategy to Restore Soil Fertility 597 Status in Degraded Land in Area Exclosure as a Strategy to Restore Soil Fertility Status in 598 Degraded Land in. An International Journal of Life Sciences and Chemistry, 31(482). 599
- Vogt, D. J., Tilley, J. P., & Edmonds, R. L. (2015). Soil and Plant Analysis for Forest Ecosystem 600 Characterization. In J. C. H. A. K. A. Vogt (Ed.), Ecosystem Science and Applications (p. 242). Berlin: 601 Higher Education Press and Walter de Gruyter GmbH. 602
- Yaynshet Tesfaye. (2009). The effects of exclosures in restoring degraded semi-arid vegetation in 603 communal grazing lands in northern Ethiopia. Journal of Arid Environments, 73(4-5), 542-549. 604 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaridenv.2008.12.002 605
- Yirdew Eshetu. (1996). Deforestation in tropical Africa. In Matti Palo & Gerardo Mery (Eds.), 606 Sustainable Forestry Challenges for Developing Countries (1st ed., p. 375). Helsinki, Finland: Kluwer 607 Academic Publishers. 608

609

20 of 20

574

575

589