



1 **How Can Grazing Increase Grassland Carbon** 2 **Storage: A Mechanistic Modelling Approach**

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24 **Highlights :**

- 25 - The increase of carbon storage with grazing intensity in grassland ecosystems is more
26 an exception than the rule.
- 27 - Net primary production alone is not a reliable indicator of carbon sequestration.



28 - High herbivore-induced root exudation can contribute to increasing carbon storage at
29 low to moderate grazing intensity.

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31

32 **Abstract:** Permanent grassland soils have high carbon sequestration potential, but this
33 potential is highly dependent on environmental conditions and grazing practices. In this paper,
34 we study the impact of herbivore grazing intensity on grassland carbon storage. We present
35 and study a parsimonious stocks and fluxes model coupling carbon and nitrogen cycles and
36 including microbial decomposers, root exudates, rhizosphere priming effect and the impact of
37 grazing by domestic herbivores. Our main objective is to understand the mechanisms through
38 which herbivore grazing can contribute to increasing carbon stocks in grasslands. Analysis of
39 model outcomes shows that the bell-shaped response of carbon storage to grazing intensity,
40 as reported in the literature, is the exception rather than the rule. The study also demonstrates
41 that net primary production alone is not a reliable indicator of carbon sequestration. While
42 increasing grazing intensity can lead to an increase in grassland carbon stocks at steady state,
43 this only occurs if the increase in NPP is sufficient to compensate for the increase in carbon
44 output by herbivores. Finally, the study identifies herbivore-induced root exudation as a
45 potential yet underexplored mechanism that could be optimised to increase carbon storage. In
46 this regard, it would be interesting to identify the management practices (timing, duration,
47 intensity, and frequency of grazing) that optimize this mechanism.

48 1. INTRODUCTION

49 Grasslands, including sown pasture and rangeland, are among the largest ecosystems
50 in the world, representing up to 40% of the earth's land area (O'Mara, 2012; Panunzi, 2008;
51 White et al., 2000) and storing between 10% and 30% of global soil organic carbon (Scurlock
52 & Hall, 1998; Follett & Reed, 2010). Yet, the magnitude and direction (augmentation or
53 reduction) of this storage are highly contingent upon environmental conditions and



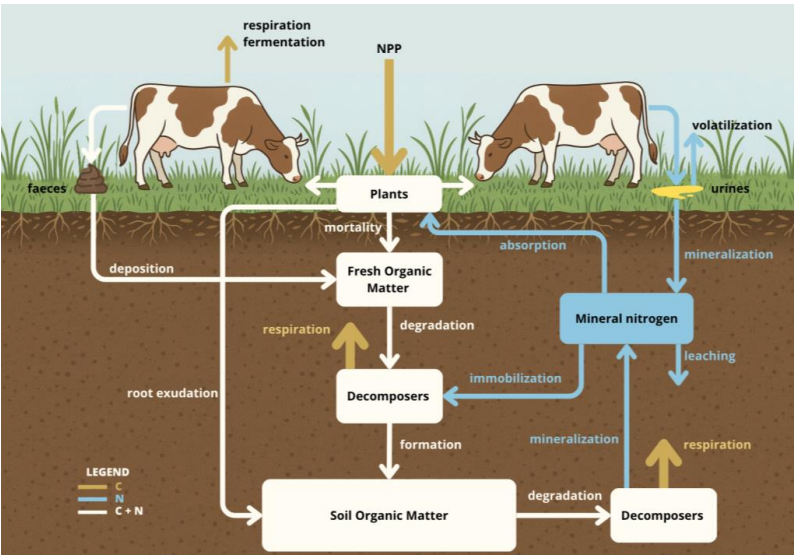
54 management practices (IPCC, 2006; Soussana et al., 2010; Klumpp et al., 2011), with grazing
55 intensity emerging as a key driver (Hao et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2017).

56 Meta-analyses report divergent responses of soil carbon stocks to grazing intensity.
57 Several studies document a consistent decline in carbon storage with increasing grazing
58 intensity (Li et al., 2024; Xu et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023; Niu et al., 2025; Abdalla et al.,
59 2018), whereas others document a nonlinear pattern characterized by carbon gains under low
60 to moderate grazing followed by losses at high intensity (Zhou et al., 2017; Lai & Kumar, 2020).
61 Collectively, these syntheses indicate that the effects of grazing intensity on soil carbon
62 storage are strongly context-dependent (McSherry & Ritchie, 2013; Maestre et al., 2022; Niu
63 et al., 2025; Abdalla et al., 2018). Specifically, the response of soil carbon to grazing intensity
64 is modulated by climatic regime (Niu et al., 2025; Maestre et al., 2022; Abdalla et al., 2018),
65 soil properties (Maestre et al., 2022; Niu et al., 2025), grassland functional composition (C3,
66 C4, or mixed C3–C4; Abdalla et al., 2018; McSherry & Ritchie, 2013), broader ecological
67 context (Marks et al., 2024), grassland type and management system (Deng et al., 2023; Niu
68 et al., 2025), and herbivore type (Su et al., 2023; Niu et al., 2025). Given the strong context
69 dependency reported in the literature, the mechanisms leading to increases in soil carbon
70 storage under low to moderate grazing remain insufficiently understood. Approaches to assess
71 the impact of grazing intensity on carbon storage have failed to converge into a cohesive
72 mechanistic understanding (Stanley et al., 2024).

73 At the ecosystem scale, changes in soil organic matter (SOM) stocks primarily reflect
74 the balance between two dominant fluxes: (i) the fraction of net primary production (NPP)
75 entering the soil via plant mortality and rhizodeposition, and (ii) heterotrophic respiration losses
76 from the soil (Bondeau et al., 2007; Don et al., 2024). The magnitude of these fluxes is
77 biologically regulated. In particular plants and microorganisms adjust their metabolism and
78 uptake fluxes to maintain near-homeostatic stoichiometric ratios under varying nutrient
79 availability (Bernard, 1865; Cannon, 1939; Sterner & Elser, 2003). Herbivores influence both
80 sides of this balance (figure 1; McNaughton, 1979; Hilbert et al., 1981; Dyer et al., 1986;



81 Stanley et al., 2024; Risch et al., 2023, Roy et al., 2023) directly by increasing plant mortality
82 and indirectly by modifying the whole ecosystem stoichiometry (Daufresne, 2021).
83



84
85 **Figure 1 : Herbivores impact on grassland carbon and nitrogen cycles**

86 Carbon fluxes are depicted in brown, nitrogen fluxes in blue, and in white are material fluxes
87 that combine carbon and nitrogen (in biomass).
88

89 Through respiration and enteric fermentation, herbivores release digestible carbon
90 (CO_2 , CH_4), while returning highly labile nitrogen to soils via urine (Soussana & Lemaire,
91 2014). Increased nitrogen availability can stimulate NPP, consistent with the grazing
92 optimization hypothesis (GOH), which predicts peak productivity under low to moderate
93 grazing intensity (McNaughton, 1979; Hilbert et al., 1981; Dyer et al., 1986; Chen et al., 2025).
94 In addition, low to moderate grazing can enhance plant belowground biomass (Zhou et al.,
95 2017; Zhan et al., 2020) and the release of root exudates (Yang et al., 2026; Zhan et al., 2020;
96 Sun et al., 2017, Hamilton et al., 2008). These low-molecular-weight, high-quality compounds
97 such as simple sugars and organic acids (Gunina & Kuzyakov, 2015; Wang & Kuzyakov, 2023)
98 can stimulate soil organic matter mineralization via the rhizosphere priming effect (RPE;



99 Kuzyakov, 2002; Pausch et al., 2024). This process simultaneously increases nitrogen
100 availability for plant uptake (Pausch et al., 2024) and carbon losses to the atmosphere.
101 Consequently, herbivore-induced changes in belowground biomass and rhizodeposition have
102 the potential to jointly regulate both NPP inputs and soil respiration outputs. However, the net
103 effect of these coupled processes on soil carbon balance under grazing remains poorly
104 quantified. In particular, it is unclear whether grazing-induced increases in root exudation can
105 offset priming-driven carbon losses and thereby promote soil carbon accumulation. Addressing
106 this gap requires a mechanistic framework explicitly linking grazing intensity, root exudates,
107 and soil carbon and nitrogen dynamics.

108 Mechanistic models help moving beyond correlative studies and explicitly identify the
109 processes governing grassland carbon storage under low to moderate grazing intensity.
110 Several large predictive models already exist (DayCent, Parton et al., 1998; PaSim, Riedo et
111 al., 1998; RothC, Coleman and Jenkinson, 1996), but their complexity makes the mechanisms
112 difficult to understand and disentangle. By contrast, minimal models allow examining different
113 factors in isolation by targeting the processes of interest. Furthermore, their relative simplicity
114 facilitates their mathematical analysis, giving the results a more generic scope (Levins 1966).
115 There are many minimal models attempting to characterize organic carbon dynamics in soil
116 (Perveen et al., 2014; Chertov et al., 2022; Abramoff., 2017; Chandel et al., 2023; Rocci et al.,
117 2024). These models mainly differ through the organic matter compartments that are
118 considered, the presence or absence of soil microbial decomposers (Chandel et al., 2023,
119 Zhang et al., 2021), as well as the choice of the mechanisms that link together the soil
120 compartments. Given that the main mechanisms governing carbon storage in soils are still
121 poorly understood (Sokol et al., 2022), it is difficult to integrate herbivores into these models
122 and understand their impact. Some studies have attempted to transpose aquatic models to
123 terrestrial models with herbivores (Daufresne, 2021); however these simplified models do not
124 take into account some important mechanisms that are specific to the soil, such as the
125 rhizosphere priming effect or the occurrence of root exudates (Sulman et al., 2014; Chertov et
126 al., 2022).



127 In the present paper, we present and study a stocks and fluxes model combining
128 carbon and nitrogen cycles which provides a simplified representation of a grassland
129 ecosystem, including microbial decomposers, root exudates, rhizosphere priming effect and
130 the impact of grazing by domestic herbivores. Our main objective is to understand through
131 which mechanisms and conditions low to moderate grazing intensity can cause an increase in
132 grassland carbon stocks (Bork et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2018; Abdalla and al., 2018; Zhou et
133 al., 2017).

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135 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

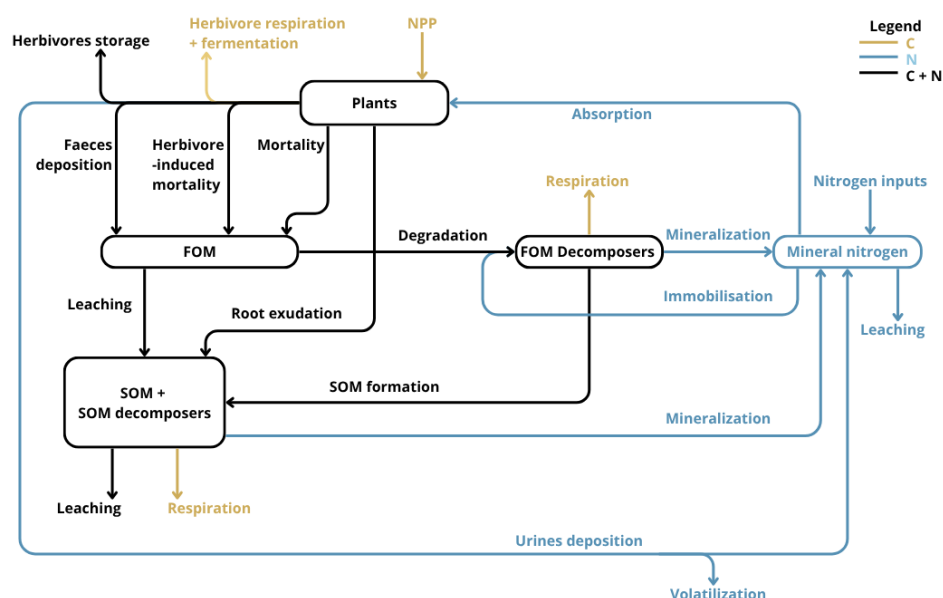
136 2.1. Model stocks and fluxes

137 Our model is based on a previous consumer-driven recycling model in a terrestrial ecosystem
138 originally developed by Daufresne (2021) and focusing on the nitrogen and phosphorus cycles.
139 In our model, we do not consider the phosphorus cycle, but we explicitly add up the carbon
140 cycle. The model is a stocks and fluxes model, whose state variables, parameters and
141 functions are summarized in Table 1. A diagram of the model is depicted in Figure 2.

142

143 In this section, we present all the stocks and fluxes represented in the model, focusing first on
144 the grassland without herbivores, and then including the carbon and nitrogen fluxes associated
145 with the impact of herbivores.

146



147

148 **Figure 2: Diagram of the grassland ecosystem model representing the carbon and nitrogen**
 149 **fluxes between plants, herbivores, FOM, FOM decomposers, SOM and its decomposers and soil**
 150 **mineral nitrogen** Carbon fluxes are depicted in brown, nitrogen fluxes in blue, and in black are material
 151 **fluxes that combine carbon and nitrogen (in biomass).**

152 1.1. Model of the grassland without herbivores

153 **Grassland compartments.** The model has five compartments : the Mineral Nitrogen (variable
 154 MN in the model), the Plants (P), the Fresh Organic Matter (FOM), the Decomposers of the
 155 FOM (D), and the Soil Organic Matter with its decomposers (SOM). In the following, SOM
 156 refers to the soil organic matter with its decomposers.

157 The mineral nitrogen compartment is a stock of nitrogen only, whereas all the other
 158 compartments represent organic matter that contains both carbon and nitrogen. In the model,
 159 the subscript "c" (respectively "n") is used to denote the carbon (respectively the nitrogen)
 160 stock of a compartment, except for the mineral nitrogen compartment. The carbon stocks in
 161 the model are therefore the plant carbon stock (variable P_c), the FOM decomposer carbon
 162 stock (D_c), the fresh organic matter carbon stock (FOM_c) and the soil organic matter carbon



163 stock (SOM_c). The nitrogen stocks are the mineral nitrogen (MN), the plant nitrogen stock (P_n),
164 the FOM decomposer nitrogen stock (D_n), the fresh organic matter nitrogen stock (FOM_n) and
165 the soil organic matter nitrogen stock (SOM_n).

166 The carbon-to-nitrogen (C:N) ratios of plants and decomposers (FOM and SOM) are
167 considered constant in this model and are denoted ρ_P and ρ_D respectively. As a consequence,
168 we can deduce the nitrogen stock of plants and FOM decomposers directly from their carbon
169 stock by: $P_n = \frac{P_c}{\rho_P}$ and $D_n = \frac{D_c}{\rho_D}$ and their dynamics is deduced from the dynamical equations
170 of P_c and D_c, respectively.

171

172 **Plant compartment fluxes :**

173 The flux of nitrogen absorption by the plants from the mineral nitrogen stock (variable MN in
174 the model) is expressed by a Monod equation (Monod, 1949), also known as "Holling Type 2".
175 This equation is classically used for vascular plants (Tilman, 1982) :

$$176 \quad g_P(MN) \times \frac{P_c}{\rho_P} = \mu_P \frac{MN}{MN+K_P} \times \frac{P_c}{\rho_P}$$

177 where μ_P is the maximal absorption rate when roots transporters are saturated and K_P is the
178 half-saturation constant, that is, the nitrogen concentration at which the absorption rate is equal
179 to half the maximal absorption rate (Monod, 1949).

180 In most temperate terrestrial ecosystems, plant growth is limited by nitrogen (Elser et al. 2007,
181 Shi et al. 2024, Fang et al. 2024). In the model, the flux of carbon assimilated by plants during
182 plant production, i.e. the flux of photosynthesis minus respiration (net primary production NPP)
183 is calculated so that the C:N ratio of plants remains constant and equal to ρ_P . Thus, it is equal
184 to the nitrogen absorption flux by the roots multiplied by the ratio ρ_P , that is $\mu_P \frac{MN}{MN+K_P} \times P_c$.

185 The flux of plant dead tissues (aerial and root), expressed by $m_P \times P_c$ with m_P the mortality
186 rate of plants, feeds the carbon stock of fresh organic matter FOM_c. The carbon flux exuded
187 by plant roots is expressed by $a_e \times P_c$ where a_e is the rate of carbon exuded by roots; this flux
188 feeds the carbon stock of soil organic matter SOM_c (Pausch et al., 2024). The additional flux



189 of carbon exuded by roots enhanced by the presence of herbivores (Sun et al., 2017) is
190 described below in the section: [Nutrient uptake and recycling by herbivores](#).

191

192 **FOM compartment fluxes:**

193 The term $l_{FOM} \times FOM_c$ represents the flux of carbon leached out from the surface soil, which
194 feeds the SOM_c stock. The corresponding nitrogen flux $l_{FOM} \times FOM_n$ feeds the SOM_n stock.

195

196 **FOM decomposers compartment fluxes:**

197 The fluxes of carbon and nitrogen uptaken by the FOM decomposers from the FOM_c are
198 represented respectively by $d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) D_c$ and $d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) \times \frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c} \times D_c$,

199 where $d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN)$ denotes the FOM_c degradation rate, whose expression is given
200 in the sequel. As $\frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c} > r_D$ (see Supplementary material) there is not enough nitrogen in the

201 FOM compared to carbon to allow the FOM decomposers to maintain their C:N ratio constant.

202 Thus, FOM decomposers take up additional nitrogen from the mineral stock of the soil, a
203 process referred to as “immobilization” (Daufresne and Loreau, 2001). This flux is represented

204 by $i_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) \times D_c$ with i_D the immobilisation rate of mineral nitrogen whose
205 expression is given in the sequel. $r_D \times D_c$ is the carbon flux released into the atmosphere

206 through decomposer respiration, where r_D characterizes the rate of carbon respired by FOM
207 decomposers. A flux of nitrogen $r_D \times \frac{D_c}{\rho_D}$ proportional to the carbon respired (in order to

208 maintain the ratio ρ_D constant) is mineralized by FOM decomposers and feeds the mineral

209 nitrogen stock. The flux $l_D \times D_c$ is the flux of carbon that feeds the SOM_c stock through biotic
210 processes operated by the FOM decomposers (e.g. decomposers necromass production,

211 exudation, excretion, and carbon transfer through bioturbation), where l_D is the rate of SOM

212 formation by the FOM decomposers. The corresponding nitrogen flux : $l_D \times \frac{D_c}{\rho_D}$ feeds the SOM_n

213 stock.



214 When the flux of carbon absorption by FOM decomposers (during the degradation of the FOM)
215 is limited by the quantity of carbon available in the FOM, the FOM_c degradation rate is
216 expressed as follows : $d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) = a_d \times FOM_c$. Conversely, when nitrogen is
217 limiting, the immobilisation rate of mineral nitrogen is expressed as follows:
218 $i_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) = a_i \times MN$. Since the C:N ratio of decomposers is considered constant
219 in this model, it should be equal to the ratio of carbon fluxes over nitrogen fluxes in the
220 decomposer compartment, that is :

221

$$222 \quad \rho_D = \frac{(d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) - r_D - l_D) \times D_c}{(i_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) + d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) \times \frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c} - \frac{r_D}{\rho_D} - \frac{l_D}{\rho_D}) \times D_c} \quad (1)$$

223 $\Leftrightarrow$

$$224 \quad i_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) = d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) \times \left(\frac{1}{\rho_D} - \frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c} \right) \quad (2)$$

225

226

227 The term $\frac{1}{\rho_D} - \frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c}$ (which is always positive as $\frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c} > \rho_D$) represents the proportion of
228 nitrogen required by the FOM decomposers to maintain the ratio ρ_D constant, minus the
229 proportion of nitrogen already uptaken from the FOM. Thanks to eq (2), when FOM
230 decomposers are limited by the nitrogen immobilization flux, the corresponding carbon flux can
231 be expressed as follows :

$$232 \quad d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) = \frac{a_i \times MN}{\frac{1}{\rho_D} - \frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c}} \quad (3)$$

233

234

235 With the Liebig's law of the minimum, we get :

$$236 \quad d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) = \min \left(a_d \times FOM_c, \frac{a_i \times MN}{\frac{1}{\rho_D} - \frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c}} \right) \quad (4)$$

237

$$238 \quad i_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) = \min \left(a_d \times FOM_c \times \left(\frac{1}{\rho_D} - \frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c} \right), a_i \times MN \right) \quad (5)$$



239

240 **Mineral nitrogen compartment fluxes:**

241 The mineral nitrogen stock is fed by a flux of nitrogen inputs denoted f_{MN}^{in} , by both atmospheric
242 deposition and fertilisation. Since the grassland is fertilised, biological fixation is considered
243 negligible (see Zheng et al., 2019). The leaching flux of nitrogen from the mineral nitrogen
244 stock is expressed by $l_{MN} \times MN$ where l_{MN} represents the leaching rate.

245

246 **SOM compartment fluxes:**

247 The soil organic matter (SOM) compartment contains all the carbon molecules in the soil that
248 are not contained in the fresh organic matter or in the FOM decomposers biomass; it includes
249 the biomass of decomposers that specifically degrade this SOM, and which are not explicitly
250 represented by a variable in the model. We assume that the biomass of the SOM decomposers
251 is simply a fraction δ of the SOM that remains constant over time. The SOM compartment is
252 fed by the total carbon flux from root exudation $e_P(h) \times P_c$ with $e_P(h)$ being the root exudation
253 rate. This flux contains molecules (including organic acids, sugars and amino acids) which
254 represent a source of high-quality nutrients for microbes, stimulating their growth (Bardgett et
255 al. 2005) and enhancing SOM decomposition (respiration and mineralization) (Pausch et al.,
256 2024) by the so-called rhizosphere priming effect (RPE). For that reason, the flux of carbon
257 respired by SOM decomposers is assumed to be proportional to the carbon flux from root
258 exudation and expressed by $r_{SOM}(h, P_c) \times \delta \times SOM_c$, where $r_{SOM}(h, P_c) = w \times e_P(h) \times P_c$ is
259 the respiration rate by the SOM decomposers and w is the factor representing the carbon
260 respired by SOM decomposers thanks to the energy received from root exudates. A flux of
261 nitrogen $\frac{1}{\rho_D} \times r_{SOM}(h, P_c) \times \delta \times SOM_c$ proportional to the flux of carbon respired is
262 mineralized by the SOM decomposers and feeds the mineral nitrogen stock. We consider that
263 the SOM decomposers have the same C:N ratio ρ_D than the FOM decomposers. We also
264 assume that the SOM decomposers select molecules that have a C:N ratio equal to ρ_D in order
265 to maintain their own ratio constant. The fluxes of carbon and nitrogen leached from the SOM



compartment are expressed by $l_{SOM} \times SOM_c$ and $l_{SOM} \times SOM_n$, with l_{SOM} being the leaching rate.

2.2. Herbivores-induced fluxes:

In the model, we assume that the grazing intensity is controlled by human management, and that the herbivores compartment H is fixed and constant over time. The C:N ratio of herbivores is therefore also considered constant and is denoted ρ_H . The impact of herbivores on the plant compartment is represented by a carbon flux leaving the plant compartment. This flux is of the form $h \times P_c$ where h is the grazing intensity, i.e. the rate at which plants are impacted by defoliation, trampling, saliva or faeces (Lefebvre & Gallet, 2017).

The part of this flux that is ingested by herbivores is $\alpha \times h \times P_c$ where α corresponds to the percentage of impacted plants ingested by the herbivores. By denoting γ the percentage of carbon ingested by herbivores that is egested in the form of faeces, the carbon flux egested by the herbivores and feeding the FOM compartment is expressed by $\gamma \times \alpha \times h \times P_c$. The flux

$\frac{\gamma \times \alpha \times h}{\rho_f} \times P_c$ represents the nitrogen flux egested by the herbivores, where ρ_f is the C:N ratio of herbivores faeces, assumed to be constant over time. The herbivores enrich the non-digestible

carbon fraction with nitrogen, which means that $\rho_f < \rho_p$ (Lecomte and al., 2002, Bloor and al.,

2012). The carbon released into the atmosphere by respiration and after fermentation in the

herbivores rumen is represented by a carbon flux of the form $\beta \times \alpha \times h \times P_c$, where β is the

percentage of carbon respired and fermented by the herbivores. The flux of carbon stored in

the herbivores biomass is $(1 - \beta - \gamma) \times \alpha \times h \times P_c$, and the flux of nitrogen stored in the

herbivores biomass to maintain ρ_H constant is $\frac{(1 - \beta - \gamma) \times \alpha \times h}{\rho_H} \times P_c$. Finally, the flux of nitrogen

excreted by the herbivores through urines $u(h)$ can be deduced from the following balance

equation:

$$\frac{(1 - \beta - \gamma) \times \alpha \times h}{\rho_H} \times P_c = \frac{\alpha \times h}{\rho_p} \times P_c - \frac{\gamma \times \alpha \times h}{\rho_f} \times P_c - u(h) \times P_c \quad (6)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$



291
$$u(h) \times P_c = \left(\gamma \times \left(\frac{1}{\rho_h} - \frac{1}{\rho_f} \right) + \frac{1}{\rho_P} - \frac{(1-\beta)}{\rho_H} \right) \times \alpha \times h \times P_c \quad (7)$$

292

293 A percentage η of the urine flux is volatilized and therefore lost from the system. We assume
294 that the mineralization rate of urine is almost instantaneous. For this reason, the urine flux that
295 has not been volatilized $u \times (1 - \eta)$ directly feeds the mineral nitrogen stock in this model.

296 Finally, the herbivores induce root exudation (Hamilton and Frank, 2001 ; Sun et al., 2017 ;
297 Wilson et al., 2018 ; Yang et al., 2026) propositional to the grazing intensity. This additional
298 root exudation rate induced by the herbivores is expressed by $e_p(h) = a_e + b_e \times h$, where a_e
299 is the nominal exudation rate and b_e is the herbivore-induced root exudation factor of plant
300 impacted at a grazing intensity h .

301



Symbol	Description	Unit
VARIABLES		
P_c	Plant carbon stock	$g\ C\ .\ m^{-2}$
FOM_c	FOM carbon stock	$g\ C\ .\ m^{-2}$
FOM_n	FOM nitrogen stock	$g\ N\ .\ m^{-2}$
D_c	FOM Decomposers carbon stock	$g\ C\ .\ m^{-2}$
MN	Mineral nitrogen stock	$g\ N\ .\ m^{-2}$
SOM_c	SOM carbon stock	$g\ C\ .\ m^{-2}$
SOM_n	SOM nitrogen stock	$g\ N\ .\ m^{-2}$
PARAMETERS		
ρ_p	C:N ratio of Plants	$g\ C\ .\ g\ N^{-1}$
μ_p	Maximal rate of carbon uptake by plants	day^{-1}
K_p	Mineral nitrogen stock in the soil for which absorption reaches half of maximum absorption	$g\ N\ .\ m^{-2}$
m	Plant mortality rate	day^{-1}
a_e	Root exudation rate	day^{-1}
l_{FOM}	Leaching rate of FOM	day^{-1}
a_d	FOM decomposition rate per FOM decomposer unit when FOM_c is limiting	$m^2\ .\ g\ C^{-1}\ .\ day^{-1}$
a_i	Mineral nitrogen immobilization rate per FOM decomposer unit when nitrogen is limiting	$m^2\ .\ g\ C^{-1}\ .\ day^{-1}$
ρ_D	C:N ratio of Decomposers	$g\ C\ .\ g\ N^{-1}$
r_D	Respiration rate of FOM Decomposers	day^{-1}
l_D	Rate of SOM formation by FOM decomposers	day^{-1}
f_{MN}^{in}	Incoming nitrogen flux	$g\ N\ .\ m^{-2}\ .\ day^{-1}$
l_{MN}	Leaching rate of mineral nitrogen	day^{-1}
l_{SOM}	Leaching rate of SOM	day^{-1}
b_e	Herbivore-induced root exudation factor	dimensionless
δ	Fraction of decomposers into the SOM	dimensionless
w	Factor of respiration and mineralization by SOM decomposers per decomposer unit	$m^2\ .\ g\ C^{-1}$
h	Grazing intensity	day^{-1}
ρ_h	Herbivores C:N ratio	$g\ C\ .\ g\ N^{-1}$
α	Fraction of plant ingested by herbivores	dimensionless
β	Fraction of plant respired and fermented by herbivores from ingested plants	dimensionless
γ	Fraction of plant excreted by herbivores from ingested plants	dimensionless
ρ_f	Herbivores faeces C:N ratio	$g\ C\ .\ g\ N^{-1}$
v	Fraction of herbivores urine volatilized	dimensionless
FUNCTIONS		
$g_p(MN)$	Net primary production rate	day^{-1}
$d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN)$	FOMc degradation rate	day^{-1}
$i_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN)$	Immobilisation rate of mineral nitrogen	day^{-1}
$e_p(h)$	Root exudation rate	day^{-1}
$r_{SOM}(h, P_c)$	Respiration rate of SOM decomposers	day^{-1}
$u(h)$	Herbivores urine deposition rate	day^{-1}

302 **Table 1 : Definition and unit of state variables, parameters and functions of the model.**

303



2.2. Model equations

The dynamical equations characterizing the evolution of each stock over time are mass balance equations; the derivative over time of each variable is the sum of the incoming fluxes minus the sum of the outgoing fluxes. Since the C:N ratios of plants and decomposers are assumed to be constant, the dynamics of nitrogen associated to these compartments is deducted from the dynamics of carbon. Therefore, only the dynamical equations of the carbon stock of these compartments are presented here. The model's dynamical equations are:

Plant carbon stock :

$$\frac{dP_c}{dt} = (g_P(MN) - m_p - h - e_P(h)) \times P_c \quad (8)$$

$$\text{with: } g_P(MN) = \mu_P \frac{MN}{MN+K_P} \text{ and } e_P(h) = a_e + b_e \times h$$

FOM carbon stock:

$$\frac{dFOM_c}{dt} = (m_p + (1 - \alpha) h + \gamma \alpha h) \times P_c - d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) D_c - l_{FOM} FOM_c \quad (9)$$

with: $d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN)$ given by equation (4)

FOM nitrogen stock:

$$\frac{dFOM_n}{dt} = \frac{1}{\rho_P} (m_p + (1 - \alpha) h) P_c + \frac{1}{\rho_f} \gamma \alpha h P_c - \frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c} d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) D_c - l_{FOM} FOM_n \quad (10)$$

FOM Decomposers carbon stock:

$$\frac{dD_c}{dt} = (d_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) - r_D - l_D) \times D_c \quad (11)$$

Mineral nitrogen stock:

$$\frac{dMN}{dt} = f_{MN}^{in} + (1 - v) u(h) + \frac{1}{\rho_D} r_D D_c + \frac{1}{\rho_D} r_{SOM}(h, P_c) \delta SOM_c - \frac{1}{\rho_P} g_P(MN) P_c - i_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN) D_c - l_{MN} MN \quad (12)$$

with: $r_{SOM}(h, P_c) = w \times e_P(h) \times P_c$ and $i_D(FOM_c, FOM_n, MN)$ given by (5)



329

330 SOM carbon stock :

331
$$\frac{dSOM_c}{dt} = l_D D_c + l_{FOM} FOM_c + e_P(h)P_c - r_{SOM}(h, P_c) \delta SOM_c - l_{SOM} SOM_c \quad (13)$$

332

333 SOM nitrogen stock:

334
$$\frac{dSOM_n}{dt} = \frac{1}{\rho_D} l_D D_c + l_{FOM} FOM_n + \frac{1}{\rho_P} e_P(h) P_c - \frac{1}{\rho_D} r_{SOM}(h, P_c) \delta SOM_c - l_{SOM} SOM_n \quad (14)$$

335

336 These equations are valid only under the following conditions :

- 337 • All the parameters are positive
- 338 • $\rho_P > \rho_f > \rho_h$ and $\rho_f > \rho_D$
- 339 • $\frac{1}{\rho_P} > \frac{FOM_n}{FOM_c} > \frac{1}{\rho_D}$ (Supplementary material)
- 340 • $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, v \in [0; 1]$

341

342 2.3. The model at steady state

343 The model has four equilibrium points (Eq1 to Eq4) whose expressions are given in the
344 supplementary material (Table S1). At Eq1, plants and FOM decomposers have null biomass;
345 at Eq2 plants have positive biomass and FOM decomposers have null biomass; at Eq3 FOM
346 decomposers and plants have positive biomass and are nitrogen limited, and at Eq4 FOM
347 decomposers and plants have positive biomass and FOM decomposers are carbon limited
348 while plants are nitrogen limited. Since Eq2 is not representative of the functioning of a
349 grassland ecosystem and Eq3 only exists for a specific set of parameters because of the
350 principle of competitive exclusion (Supplementary material), only Eq4, which is stable, will be
351 studied in this paper.

352 **At equilibrium 4**, we have :

353
$$D_c^* = \frac{(m_P + (1-\alpha) h + \gamma \alpha h) P_c^* - l_{FOM} \times FOM_c^*}{r_D + l_D} \quad (15)$$



354 that is : $\frac{FOM_c \text{ input fluxes} - FOM_c \text{ output fluxes}}{D_c \text{ output rates}}$

355

$$356 FOM_c^* = \frac{r_D + l_D}{a_d} \quad (16)$$

357 that is : $\frac{D_c \text{ output rates}}{D_c \text{ input rates}}$

358

$$359 FOM_n^* = FOM_c^* \times \frac{\frac{m_P}{\rho_P} + \frac{(1-\alpha) \times h}{\rho_P} + \frac{\gamma \times \alpha \times h}{\rho_f}}{m_P + (1-\alpha) h + \gamma \alpha h} \quad (17)$$

360

$$361 MN^* = \frac{(m_P + h + e_P(h)) \times K_P}{\mu_P - (m_P + h + e_P(h))} \quad (18)$$

362

$$363 SOM_c^* = \frac{l_{FOM} \times FOM_n^* + l_D \times D_c^* + e_P(h) \times P_c^*}{l_{SOM} + r_{SOM}(h, P_c^*) \times \delta} \quad (19)$$

364

365 that is : $\frac{SOM_c \text{ input fluxes}}{SOM_c \text{ output rates}}$

366

$$367 SOM_n^* = \frac{l_{FOM} \times FOM_n^* + l_D \times \frac{D_c^*}{\rho_D} + e_P(h) \times \frac{P_c^*}{\rho_P} - r_{SOM}(h, P_c^*) \times \delta \times \frac{SOM_c^*}{\rho_D}}{l_{SOM}} \quad (20)$$

368

369 where P_c^* is the smallest strictly positive solution of a polynomial of degree 2 (supplementary
370 material) which depends on all the parameters, including h . Since P_c^* depends on h , the
371 equation of P_c^* gives an upper limit for h .

372

373 3. RESULTS

374 To examine whether herbivore-induced increases in root exudation followed by
375 rhizosphere priming effect can enhance carbon storage, we explored two key parameters:
376 grazing intensity (h) and the herbivore-induced root exudation factor (b_e). For a given grazing
377 intensity, different grazing regimes—varying in timing, duration, frequency— (Stanley et al.,
378 2024) may differentially affect the root exudation rates. For instance, Sun et al. (2017) showed
379 that introducing rest periods following herbivores defoliation increases root exudation.
380 Consequently, it is essential to consider a range of exudation responses associated with the
381 same nominal grazing intensity. We therefore varied both h and b_e independently to assess
382 their respective influence on grassland carbon stocks at steady state (equilibrium 4), while
383 keeping all the other model parameters constant.



384 Carbon storage responses were evaluated at the ecosystem level with the total carbon
385 stock, defined as the sum of all carbon stocks at steady state ($P_c^* + D_c^* + FOM_c^* + SOM_c^*$). We
386 also examined the nitrogen storage responses at the ecosystem level with the total nitrogen
387 stock, defined as the sum of all nitrogen stocks at steady state ($P_n^* + D_n^* + FOM_n^* + SOM_n^* +$
388 MN^*).

389 Note that with this model our objective is not to generate quantitative predictions but
390 rather to provide a mechanistic framework for understanding the underlying processes that
391 can lead to increased carbon storage. Accordingly, we chose parameter values to produce
392 qualitative outcomes—i.e., values that reproduce realistic orders of magnitude rather than site-
393 specific predictions (see Tables S2 and S3 in supplementary materials for the parameter
394 values).

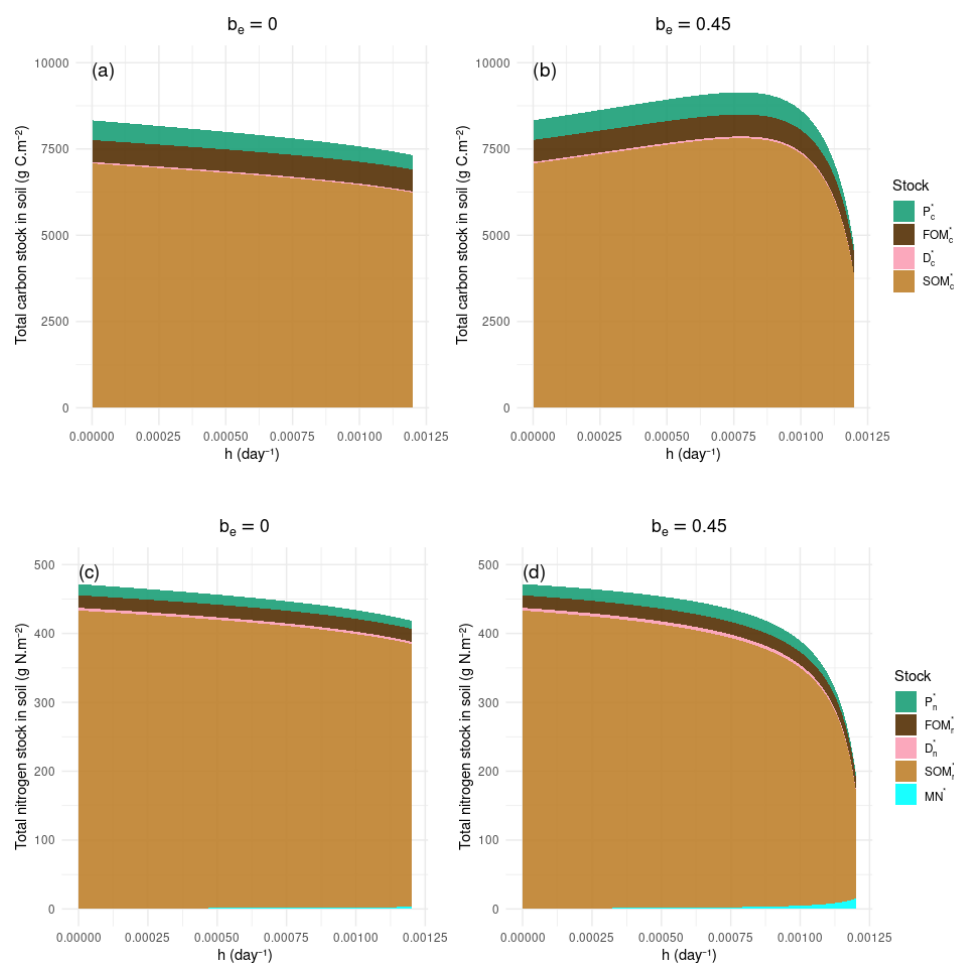


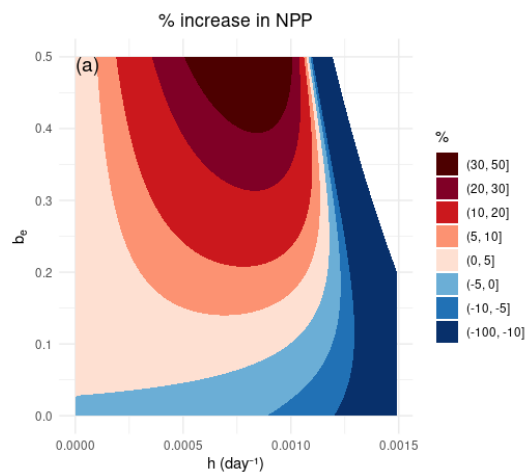
Figure 3 : Grassland carbon and nitrogen stocks at steady state as a function of grazing intensity (h) at two levels of herbivore-induced root exudation rate (b_e).

3.1. Evolution of the carbon and nitrogen stocks as a function of the grazing intensity (h) and the herbivore-induced root exudation rate (b_e)

The values of carbon and nitrogen stocks at steady state for different values of grazing intensity (h) and herbivore-induced root exudation rate (b_e) are shown in figures 3 and 4. In figure 3,



two contrasting responses of total carbon and nitrogen stocks (at steady state) to increasing grazing intensity (h) are presented. In the absence of herbivore-induced root exudation ($b_e = 0$), the total carbon and nitrogen stocks decline monotonically with increasing h (Figs. 3a and 3c). These declines are primarily driven by a decrease in SOM_c^* and SOM_n^* , which represent the dominant ecosystem carbon and nitrogen stocks respectively. In contrast, when the herbivore-induced root exudation is strong ($b_e = 0.45$), the total carbon stock peaks at moderate grazing intensity (Fig. 3b), a pattern largely driven by a corresponding bell-shaped response of SOM_c^* . This result indicates that herbivore-induced root exudation can promote carbon storage at moderate grazing intensity. Concerning the total nitrogen stock, it decreases more with $b_e = 0.45$ than with $b_e = 0$ due to a strong decrease of SOM_n^* (Fig. 3d). In this case, the mineral nitrogen stock MN^* increases with grazing intensity, indicating that herbivores promote the transfer of nitrogen from soil organic matter (SOM) to the mineral nitrogen stock.



417

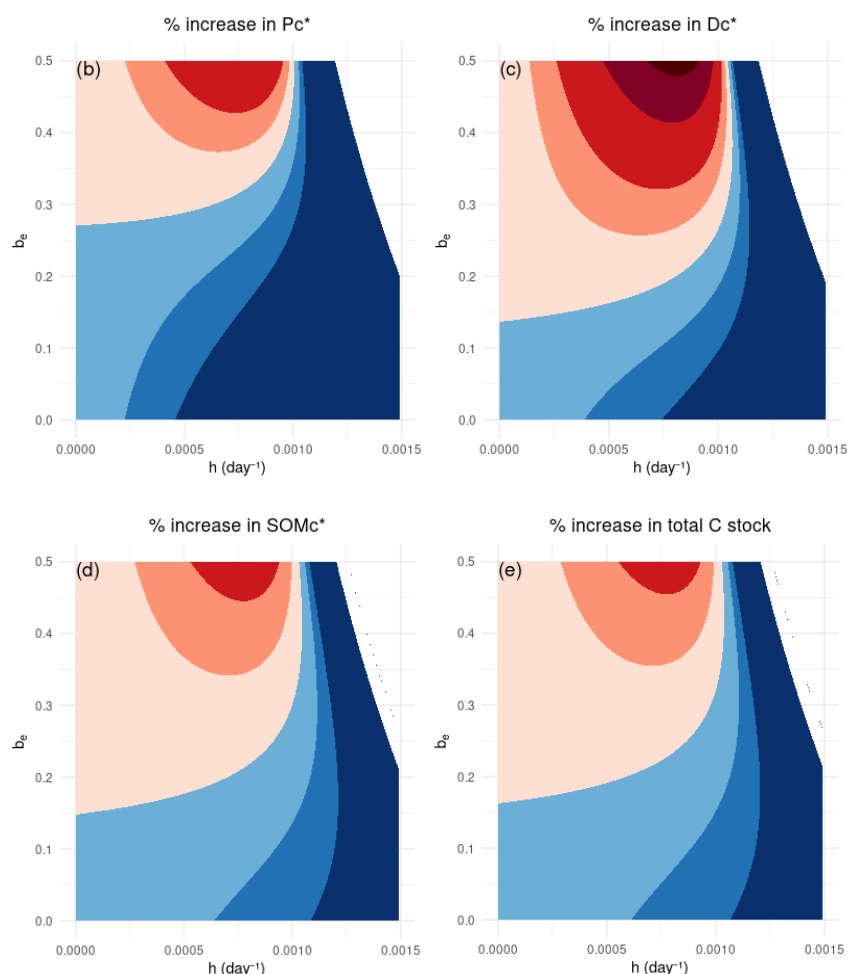


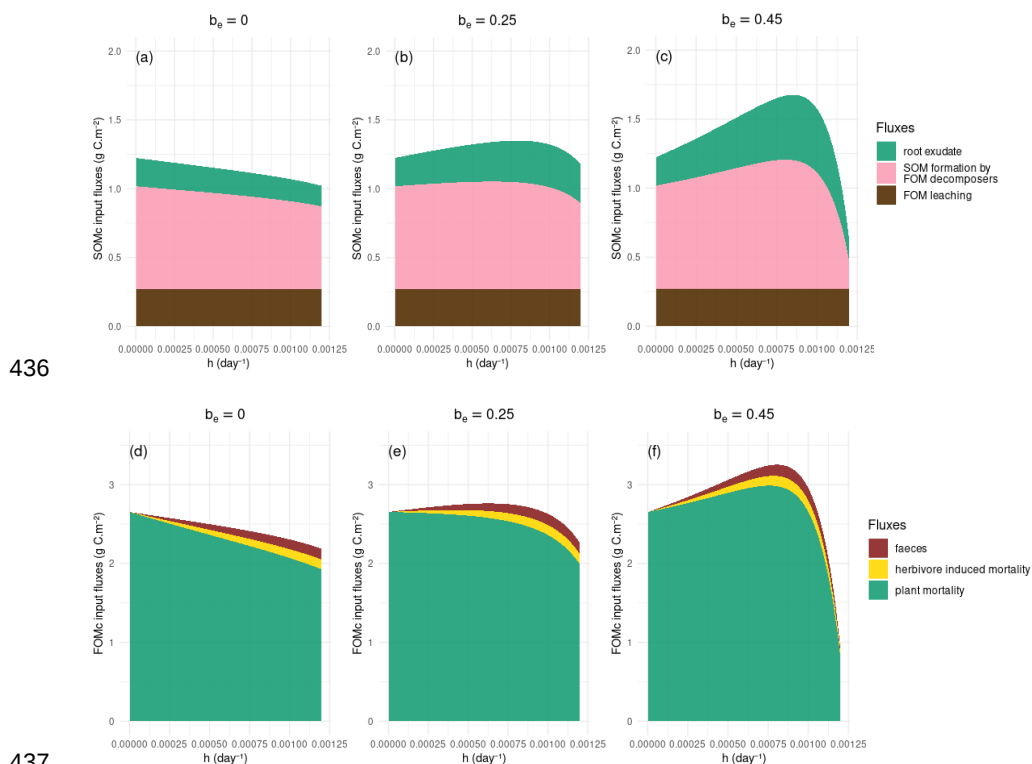
Figure 4 : Evolution of NPP, plants carbon stock (P_c^*), FOM decomposers carbon stock (D_c^*), SOM carbon stock (SOM_c^*) and total carbon stock at steady state as a function of grazing intensity (h) and the herbivore-induced root exudation rate (b_e). Blue shades denote decreases (%) and red shades denote increases (%) relative to the $h = 0$ baseline.

The percentage of increase or decrease in NPP and carbon stocks at steady state compared with the scenario without herbivores ($h=0$) are presented in figure 4. At very low values of herbivore-induced root exudation rate ($b_e < 0.03$), all carbon stocks and NPP decline with increasing grazing intensity. For intermediate values of herbivore-induced root exudation rate



429 $(0.03 < b_e < 0.135)$, NPP increases at low to moderate grazing intensity, but this stimulation
430 does not propagate to the carbon stocks. D_c^* starts to increase (still at low to moderate grazing
431 intensity) when $b_e > 0.135$, SOM_c^* when $b_e > 0.145$, the total carbon stock when $b_e > 0.16$ and
432 P_c^* when $b_e > 0.275$. These results indicate that herbivore-induced root exudation must be
433 sufficiently strong to increase total carbon stock under low to moderate grazing intensity, a
434 response consistently associated with increases in NPP, D_c^* , and SOM_c^* , but not in P_c^* .

435



437

438 **Figure 5 : SOM_c^* and FOM_c^* input fluxes at steady state as a function of grazing intensity (h) at**
439 **three levels of herbivore-induced root exudation rate (b_e).**

440



441 3.2. Mechanisms responsible for the increase in SOM_c^* ,
442 D_c^* and NPP.

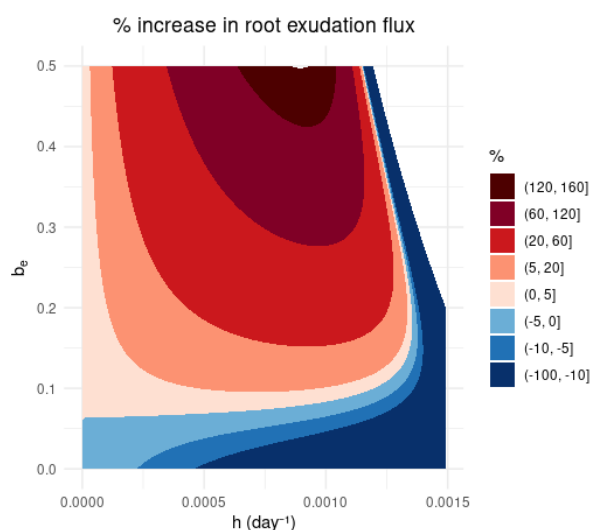
443 The input fluxes of SOM and FOM carbon stock at steady state as a function of grazing
444 intensity and for three different herbivore-induced root exudation rate (b_e) are shown in figure
445 5. In the former paragraph we have seen that changes in total carbon stocks are primarily
446 driven by changes in SOM_c^* . An increase in SOM_c^* can be achieved by increasing its carbon
447 input fluxes, namely (1) FOM_c leaching, (2) root exudation and (3) SOM_c formation by FOM
448 decomposers (Eq. 19), which is what is observed for $b_e = 0.25$ and for $b_e = 0.45$ for example
449 (Figs. 5b, 5c). In the model, FOM leaching remains constant across grazing intensity whatever
450 the value of b_e (Figs. 5a, 5b, 5c): indeed it is proportional to the stock of fresh organic matter
451 at steady state FOM_c^* which is independent of grazing intensity (h) (Eq. 16), as it is primarily
452 regulated by decomposer dynamics.

453 The flux of root exudation accounts for less than 35% of the SOM_c^* input fluxes (Figs. 5 and
454 S2), and increase with grazing intensity when $b_e > 0.06$ (Fig. 6). However this increase alone
455 is not sufficient to increase SOM_c^* , since SOM_c^* decrease at low to medium grazing intensity
456 when $b_e < 0.145$.

457 The flux of SOM_c formation by FOM decomposer accounts for more than half of the SOM_c^* input
458 fluxes (Figs. 5 and S2). It is proportional to D_c^* which increases with FOM_c^* input fluxes (Eq.
459 15, Fig. 5) as FOM_c^* output fluxes and D_c^* output rates are constant. We can thus distinguish
460 two configurations which leads to an increase of FOM_c^* input fluxes. In the first configuration,
461 plant carbon stock increase with grazing intensity (see case where $b_e = 0.45$, figs. 5c and 5f),
462 leading to an increase of all FOM_c^* input fluxes: plant mortality, inputs from faeces and
463 herbivores induced mortality (Eq. 15; Fig. 5f). In the second configuration, plant carbon stock
464 decreases with grazing intensity (see case where $b_e = 0.25$, figs. 5b and 5e) reducing plant
465 mortality. To obtain an increase of FOM_c^* input fluxes in that case, the increased inputs from
466 faeces and herbivores induced mortality must offset the reduction in inputs associated with



467 lower basal plant mortality (Eq. 15; Fig. 5e). Then the decline in plant biomass cannot be too
 468 pronounced, otherwise, the increase in herbivore-derived inputs would be insufficient to
 469 compensate for the reduced contribution from plant mortality. For plant biomass not to
 470 decrease too strongly, the NPP has to increase more than 5% with increasing grazing intensity.
 471 One mechanism that supports such an increase in NPP in this model is the enhancement of
 472 herbivore-induced root exudation, which plays a pivotal role by amplifying belowground
 473 nitrogen mineralization by the rhizosphere priming effect (Eq. 12), allowing the increase of the
 474 mineral nitrogen stock and of the NPP with grazing intensity. This process increases carbon
 475 inputs to the fresh organic matter (FOM) stock, thereby stimulating decomposer growth and
 476 SOM formation.



477

478 **Figure 6 : Evolution of the root exudation flux as a function of grazing intensity (h) and the**
 479 **herbivore-induced root exudation rate (b_e).** *Blue shades denote decreases (%) and orange shades*
 480 *denote increases (%) relative to the $h = 0$ baseline.*

481



3.3. Focus on the case with strong herbivore-induced root exudation (b_e)

We now only consider the case where root exudation is strongly stimulated by the herbivores: $b_e = 0.45$. We focus here on the percentage of increase or decrease in root exudate flux and carbon stocks at steady state compared with the scenario without herbivores ($h=0$). Under low grazing intensity ($h = 0.000375 \text{ day}^{-1} \approx 0.5 \text{ LU} \cdot \text{ha}^{-1} \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$), the total flux of root exudate increases by 56.64% (Fig. 5), the total carbon stock by 5.42%, SOM_c^* by 5.77%, D_c^* by 12.45% and P_c^* by 6.64% (Fig. 4). At medium grazing intensity ($h = 0.00075 \text{ day}^{-1} \approx 1 \text{ LU} \cdot \text{ha}^{-1} \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$), the total flux of root exudate increases markedly (+118.16%; Fig. 6), resulting in substantially larger carbon stocks. Total soil carbon increases by 9.7%, with concomitant increases in SOM_c^* (+10.24%), D_c^* (+24.7%), and P_c^* (+12.6%) (Fig. 4). In contrast, under high grazing intensity ($h = 0.001125 \text{ day}^{-1} \approx 1.5 \text{ LU} \cdot \text{ha}^{-1} \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$), the increase in root exudate flux (+66.32%; Fig. 6) is associated with pronounced carbon losses. Total soil carbon decreases by 14.68%, alongside declines in SOM_c^* (− 14.62%), D_c^* (− 33.45%), and P_c^* (− 30.88%) (Fig. 4).

4. DISCUSSION

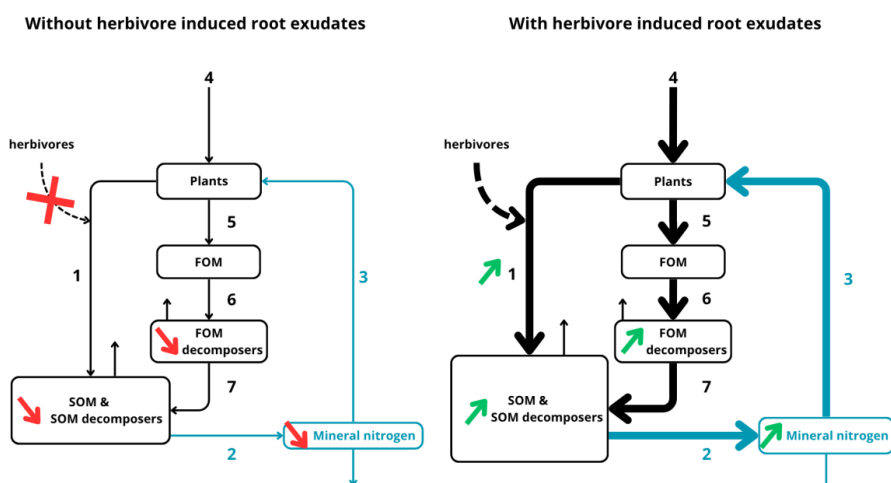
The main objective of the model was to understand the mechanisms through which increasing grazing intensity could contribute to increasing carbon stocks at steady state in grasslands. Our results shows that a key mechanism appears to be the increase in herbivore-induced root exudation following defoliation by the herbivores. Indeed, the increase in root exudation enhances SOM decomposition by the rhizosphere priming effect which can then increase net primary production (NPP) that can compensate for the carbon losses caused by increased grazing intensity. In the following parts we will then discuss the impact of herbivore-induced root exudation on soil carbon stock with increasing grazing intensity, the necessity of



507 increasing NPP to increase carbon stocks with grazing intensity and the impact of grazing
508 intensity on nitrogen cycle.

509 4.1. Evolution of soil carbon stock and root exudates with 510 grazing intensity

511 In a few metanalysis studies, increasing grazing intensity leads to a bell-shaped curve
512 of the variation of the ecosystem carbon stock (Lai & Kumar, 2020; Abdalla and al., 2018; Zhou
513 et al., 2017). The exploration of our model's outcomes with different realistic parameter sets
514 suggests that such a bell curve can indeed occur (Fig. 3b), but that is more the exception than
515 the rule. The most frequent trend is a monotonous decrease of carbon stocks at steady state
516 with the increase in grazing intensity (Fig. 3a). Our model suggests that the bell-shaped
517 response of carbon storage to grazing intensity may strongly depend on the impact of herbivory
518 on root-exudation. Previous approaches suggest that herbivore-induced root exudate can
519 increase carbon stocks of the ecosystem (Wilson et al., 2018) by modifying belowground
520 microbial transformations of organic matter (Gavrichkova et al., 2008; Hamilton et al., 2008;
521 Stanley et al., 2024). Our model suggests that, if herbivores substantially increase root
522 exudates, the resulting exudation flux enhances SOM mineralization by rhizosphere priming
523 effect and plant nutrient uptake, allowing NPP to increase sufficiently to offset the carbon
524 losses associated with higher grazing intensity. This process increases carbon inputs to the
525 fresh organic matter (FOM) stock, thereby stimulating decomposer growth. As a consequence,
526 SOM formation by FOM decomposers and root exudation both increase, ultimately promoting
527 the accumulation of persistent soil carbon (Fig. 7).



528

529 **Figure 7 : Chain of mechanisms that can lead to an increase in carbon storage with increasing**
 530 **grazing intensity. On the left :** grazing inducing low root exudates (either directly by low plant
 531 stimulation, or indirectly by reducing plant biomass) lead to a decrease of total carbon stock. **On the**
 532 **right :** grazing enhancing root exudates (1), allow the increase in the mineralization flux from the SOM
 533 through rhizosphere priming effect (2) and the absorption flux by plants (3), allowing the NPP to increase
 534 (4) sufficiently for the FOM inputs (5), FOM degradation (6), and SOM formation by FOM decomposers
 535 to increase (7), leading to the increase in the persistent carbon stock.

536

537 When a sufficiently high herbivore-induced root exudation rate is considered in the
 538 model, simulated increases in soil carbon storage under low and moderate grazing fall within
 539 the range reported in empirical meta-analyses. Specifically, SOM_c^* increased by 5.77% under
 540 low grazing intensity, which lies between the +0.78% reported by Zhou et al. (2017) and the
 541 +10.8% reported by Lai and Kumar (2020). At moderate grazing intensity, SOM_c^* increased by
 542 10.24%, slightly below the +16.1% observed under dry climates in Abdalla et al. (2018). In
 543 contrast, SOM_c^* declined by 14.62% under high grazing intensity, somewhat exceeding the
 544 average reductions reported in meta-analyses (− 7.5% in Hao et al., 2024; − 9.92% in Zhou et



545 al., 2017; – 10.8% in Lai and Kumar, 2020). Our simulated root exudation responses to grazing
546 intensity are also broadly consistent with empirical estimates. In the model, root exudation
547 increased by 56.64%, 118.16%, and 66.32% under low, moderate, and high grazing intensity,
548 respectively. These values are slightly lower than the average increases reported by Yang et
549 al. (2026) (+82%, +146%, and +70%, respectively). This difference suggests that the effect of
550 herbivores on root exudation could be slightly underestimated in our model. However, because
551 empirical data on grazing-induced changes in root exudation are still limited, more studies are
552 needed to better quantify this mechanism.
553

554 4.2. Grazing optimization and carbon storage

555 Our model provides a mechanistic framework to disentangle one of the cascading
556 processes through which carbon storage can increase with grazing intensity (h) (Fig. 7). It
557 suggests that for such an increase to occur, NPP has to increase by more than 5% with grazing
558 intensity (Fig. 4). The grazing optimization hypothesis (GOH) predicts a bell-shaped response
559 of grassland NPP to increasing grazing intensity under certain conditions (McNaughton, 1979;
560 Hilbert et al., 1981; Dyer et al., 1986; Chen et al., 2025). While several mechanisms have been
561 proposed to explain such responses, the role of root exudation has received little attention so
562 far. Our results (Fig. 3a) indicate that the emergence and magnitude of this bell-shaped
563 response strongly depends on the herbivore-induced root exudation and its impact on SOM
564 decomposition by rhizosphere priming effect. In line with de Mazancourt et al. (1998), grazing
565 can enhance plant production when it effectively imports or mobilizes a limiting nutrient. In our
566 model, plant growth is nitrogen-limited, such that NPP depends on nitrogen uptake from the
567 mineral stock. Herbivore-induced increases in root exudation stimulate microbial activity and
568 SOM decomposition, thereby enhancing nitrogen mineralization and making additional
569 nitrogen available to plants. This pathway effectively constitutes an indirect nutrient input



570 providing a mechanistic basis for grazing-induced increase in NPP. However, consistent with
571 recent studies (e.g., Zhang et al., 2025), increased NPP does not necessarily translate into
572 higher carbon storage (Figs. 4a, 4e). In our model, increase in NPP arises primarily as a
573 compensatory response required to maintain plant carbon stock at steady state. Because plant
574 carbon inputs and outputs must be equal at steady state, grazing-induced increase in plant
575 carbon losses induce a corresponding increase in NPP. Consequently, elevated NPP does not
576 inherently imply greater carbon sequestration; rather, it may simply reflect an acceleration of
577 the carbon cycling through the ecosystem. NPP alone is therefore an insufficient indicator of
578 ecosystem carbon sequestration. Overall, our results point out herbivore-induced root
579 exudation as a potential, yet underexplored, mechanism contributing to grazing optimization.
580 They also highlight the fact that NPP and soil carbon storage have different dynamics, hence,
581 NPP is not a valuable proxy for soil carbon storage.

582

583 4.3. Evolution of soil nitrogen stock with grazing intensity

584 In our model, the increase of the total carbon stock is associated with the decrease of
585 the total nitrogen stock (Fig. 3b, 3d) resulting in an increase in the soil C:N ratio at low to
586 medium grazing intensities. Interestingly, this pattern is consistent with empirical evidence.
587 Two meta-analyses reporting a bell-shaped response of ecosystem carbon stocks to grazing
588 intensity also observed increases in soil C:N ratios under low to moderate grazing intensity
589 (Zhou et al., 2017; Lai & Kumar, 2020). However, these studies found that total nitrogen stocks
590 either increased or remained unchanged under light grazing, contrasting with our model
591 simulations. This discrepancy likely arises from processes not represented in our model. For
592 grazing to have a neutral or positive effect on nitrogen stocks, the additional losses generated
593 by grazing (e.g. urine volatilization, nitrogen storage, enhanced leaching caused by enhanced
594 mineral nitrogen) must be compensated by increased nitrogen inputs or reduced outputs. Such
595 compensatory mechanisms may include enhanced biological nitrogen fixation (e.g., via



596 increased legume abundance) or improved synchrony between nitrogen mineralization and
597 plant or microbial uptake (Fontaine et al., 2024), which reduces nitrogen leaching. Because
598 these processes are not included in our model, nitrogen losses associated with enhanced
599 mineralization are not offset, leading to a systematic decline in total nitrogen stocks with
600 increasing grazing intensity. This suggests that incorporating additional nitrogen input and
601 retention pathways would be necessary to capture the full range of observed ecosystem
602 responses to grazing.

603 4.4. Perspectives

604 Herbivore-induced root exudation, which allows carbon stocks to increase with grazing
605 intensity in our model, operates only under the assumption that decomposers are carbon-
606 limited. This condition is required for plants and decomposers to coexist at a stable steady
607 state. Under alternative conditions where decomposers are nitrogen-limited, increased root
608 exudation and enhanced nitrogen mineralization from soil organic matter (SOM) by
609 rhizosphere priming effect could stimulate decomposer growth by alleviating nitrogen
610 limitation. Because nitrogen limitation of decomposers is not represented in the current model
611 structure, this mechanism cannot be evaluated here. Incorporating nitrogen limitation would
612 therefore represent an important extension of the model. However, doing so would likely
613 require revisiting the temporal framework. In particular, introducing seasonal dynamics may be
614 necessary to avoid unrealistic competitive exclusion between plants and decomposers
615 (Daufresne and Loreau, 2001) and to better capture temporal niche partitioning in nutrient
616 uptake. Some studies (e.g., Soussana and Lemaire, 2014; Stanley et al., 2024) suggest that
617 herbivores may also influence decomposer growth, and thus carbon storage, by altering the
618 C:N ratio of fresh organic matter (FOM). However, under carbon-limited conditions, changes
619 in FOM C:N ratio associated with increasing grazing intensity do not directly affect decomposer
620 growth in our model, and therefore do not contribute to increased carbon storage. For this
621 reason, this pathway is not explicitly represented. In addition, the carbon use efficiency (CUE)



622 of decomposers is assumed to be constant. While this assumption simplifies the model,
623 empirical evidence linking grazing intensity to variations in microbial CUE remains limited,
624 preventing robust parameterization of such dynamics.

625 5. CONCLUSION

626 Our exploration of the model's outcomes with different realistic parameter sets
627 suggests that the increase in carbon storage at steady state with increasing grazing intensity
628 can occur, but that it is more of an exception than the rule. Increasing grazing intensity can
629 lead to an increase in grassland carbon stocks at steady state if the increase in NPP is
630 sufficient to compensate for the increase in carbon output by herbivores. As a result, net
631 primary production alone is not a reliable proxy for carbon sequestration. One pathway that
632 could lead to a sufficient increase in NPP is the increase in herbivore-induced root exudation
633 following defoliation by the herbivores. The increase in root exudates can increase nitrogen
634 mineralization from the soil by rhizosphere priming effect allowing plants to grow. When NPP
635 compensates for the carbon losses caused by increased grazing intensity, the increased flow
636 of fresh organic matter to the soil stimulates the growth of soil decomposers, which eventually
637 leads to an increase of the SOM formation by FOM decomposers. Ultimately, the increase in
638 root exudate and SOM formation by FOM decomposers generates an increase in the
639 persistent carbon stock of the grassland ecosystem. To conclude, our model suggests that
640 increasing carbon storage through grazing is possible in ecosystems in which grazers promote
641 root exudation and so mineralization by rhizosphere priming effect. It is then necessary to
642 identify grazing management practices (timing, duration, intensity, frequency of grazing) that
643 maximize these mechanisms.

644



645 Code availability

646 The R script used to produce the manuscript's figures in the paper can be found at
647 https://forge.inrae.fr/emma.escoffier/grassland_publi_1

648 Author contributions

649 Emma Escoffier : Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Writing - Original Draft
650 Céline Casenave : Methodology, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision
651 Tanguy Daufresne : Methodology, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition

652 Competing interests

653 The authors declare there are no conflicts of interest for this manuscript.

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