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Abstract: Domestic livestock grazing is one of the dominant forms of land use globally. However, there are variable findings concerning the impacts of different grazing regimes on soil condition. We quantified the impacts of contrasting livestock grazing regimes on soil properties within nationally endangered temperate box-gum woodlands in south-eastern Australia. We sampled total soil nitrogen, phosphorus, carbon and bulk density at 65 woodland sites with a history of either continuous, strategic or rotational livestock grazing, as well as livestock grazing exclusion. We evaluated the influence of both historical and current management practices upon soil properties in the context of broad-scale soil forming factors such as climate, geology and topography. We found evidence of a strong relationship between total soil phosphorus and nitrogen, while phosphorus also was influenced by site-scale native tree cover. Total soil phosphorus and nitrogen were related to the combined effects of pasture type and long-term fertilizer history (>10 years prior to sampling). No significant differences in soil nutrients or bulk density were detected between different grazing treatments, likely due to the importance of total grazing pressure (i.e. from all exotic and native herbivores) and the level of environmental variation between sites. However, total soil phosphorus was significantly higher in soils sampled in the season following a grazing event, irrespective of grazing intensity or duration. Total soil nitrogen and carbon exhibited a similar pattern. This is likely a result of multiple processes such as direct input of organic matter to the soil and stimulation of soil microbial communities. These findings have important implications for the strategic management of woodland understorey vegetation as soil nutrients have been identified as important drivers of native plant diversity.

Research Data Related to this Submission

There are no linked research data sets for this submission. The following reason is given:
The authors do not have permission to share data

Highlights

- Large-scale drivers of woodland soil and native vegetation management are explored
- Grazing appears to impact soil nutrients on a scale of weeks to months
- Environmental factors and fertiliser use affect nutrients in landscapes through time

1 **Environmental and grazing management drivers of soil condition**

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31 **ABSTRACT**

32 Domestic livestock grazing is one of the dominant forms of land use globally. However, there
33 are variable findings concerning the impacts of different grazing regimes on soil condition.
34 We quantified the impacts of contrasting livestock grazing regimes on soil properties within
35 nationally endangered temperate box-gum woodlands in south-eastern Australia. We sampled
36 total soil nitrogen, phosphorus, carbon and bulk density at 65 woodland sites with a history of
37 either continuous, strategic or rotational livestock grazing, as well as livestock grazing
38 exclusion. We evaluated the influence of both historical and current management practices
39 upon soil properties in the context of broad-scale soil forming factors such as climate,
40 geology and topography.

41 We found evidence of a strong relationship between total soil phosphorus and nitrogen, while
42 phosphorus also was influenced by site-scale native tree cover. Total soil phosphorus and
43 nitrogen were related to the combined effects of pasture type and long-term fertilizer history
44 (>10 years prior to sampling). No significant differences in soil nutrients or bulk density were
45 detected between different grazing treatments, likely due to the importance of total grazing
46 pressure (i.e. from all exotic and native herbivores) and the level of environmental variation
47 between sites. However, total soil phosphorus was significantly higher in soils sampled in the
48 season following a grazing event, irrespective of grazing intensity or duration. Total soil
49 nitrogen and carbon exhibited a similar pattern. This is likely a result of multiple processes
50 such as direct input of organic matter to the soil and stimulation of soil microbial
51 communities. These findings have important implications for the strategic management of
52 woodland understorey vegetation as soil nutrients have been identified as important drivers of
53 native plant diversity.

54 **KEYWORDS:** Soil nutrients; livestock grazing; agro-ecosystem; Australia

55 1. INTRODUCTION

56 Agro-ecosystems worldwide are under growing pressure due to global demand for increased
57 food production and climate change (de Marsily and Abarca-del-Rio, 2015). Soil is a
58 fundamental part of these ecosystems, and soil health is pivotal to maintaining both
59 agricultural production and levels of biodiversity needed to maintain ecosystem resilience
60 and provision of vital ecosystem services (Adhikari and Hartemink, 2016).

61 Domestic livestock grazing is the single most extensive form of land use on the planet and a
62 significant component of the global food system (Asner et al., 2004; Williams and Price,
63 2011; IPBES, 2018). Up to 60 % of global lands that contribute to food production are
64 considered either already degraded or used unsustainably (Montanarella and Vargas, 2012).
65 However, it remains unclear how grazing might be best managed to promote soil health to
66 both maintain agricultural production and conserve biodiversity (Dorrough et al., 2004;
67 House et al., 2008; Tschardt et al., 2012). Loss of native biodiversity has been linked to
68 such problems as ongoing soil erosion, nutrient leaching, salinisation and reduction in water
69 quality (Altieri, 1999; Eberbach, 2003; Tschardt et al., 2012). Soil degradation directly
70 impacts agricultural management through diminished productivity, increased management
71 input costs, and reduced resilience to climatic change, including severe weather events
72 (Adhikari and Hartemink, 2016).

73 Balancing environmental and agricultural objectives is a high priority for the management of
74 endangered box-gum grassy woodland (BGGW) ecosystems in south-eastern Australia
75 (Lindenmayer et al., 2012). These ecosystems occur on some of the most fertile agricultural
76 land in Australia, but 95 % of their original cover has been cleared, leading to widespread
77 biodiversity loss and soil degradation (Eberbach, 2003; Dorrough et al., 2004; Lindenmayer
78 et al., 2016). Conserving and restoring BGGW is essential for maintaining ecosystem

79 resilience and agricultural productivity in south-eastern Australia (Dorrough et al., 2004;
80 Prober et al., 2014).

81 Prolonged grazing by domestic livestock is a known driver of ecosystem degradation in
82 BGGW (Lunt et al., 2007). The majority of remnant BGGW patches have been utilized for
83 livestock grazing (Spooner et al., 2002; Spooner and Briggs, 2008; Fischer et al., 2009;
84 Lindenmayer et al., 2010). To promote recovery of degraded BGGW communities, it remains
85 unclear whether woodland remnants are best fenced and left undisturbed, or whether
86 controlled disturbance such as fire or episodic grazing is necessary to aid native plant
87 regeneration and recover native biodiversity (Dorrough et al., 2004; Lunt et al., 2007; Prober
88 et al., 2014). Episodic grazing may be used to control invasive exotic vegetation, promote
89 regeneration of native species, and aid soil restoration (Dorrough et al., 2004; Fischer et al.,
90 2009).

91 The most widely adopted form of livestock grazing in temperate Australia is continuous
92 grazing (also referred to as ‘set stocking’), where grazing occurs at relatively low densities
93 but livestock remain within a given area for extensive periods (Mavromihalis et al., 2013),
94 often resulting in degradation of soil and vegetation communities (Teague et al., 2011).

95 Prolonged continuous grazing can eventually lead to reduced livestock carrying capacity,
96 increased soil compaction, re-distribution of nutrients, reduction in deep-rooted perennial
97 grasses, and selective removal of more palatable vegetation species (Savory and Parsons
98 1980; Kemp et al. 2000; Dorrough et al., 2004; Mavromihalis et al., 2013).

99 Controlled grazing may assist restoration of degraded ecosystems by allowing land managers
100 to influence vegetation communities (Kemp et al., 1996; Fischer et al., 2009; Lindenmayer et
101 al., 2012) and cycling of organic matter at the soil surface (Teague et al., 2011; Waters et al.,
102 2017; Orgill et al., 2018). High-intensity short-duration grazing (HISD grazing), also referred

103 to as rotational grazing, cell grazing, holistic resource management or time control grazing
104 (Earl and Jones, 1996; McCosker, 2000) are all forms of controlled grazing strategies. Along
105 a gradient between continuous and HISD grazing, is the intermediate approach of strategic
106 grazing (SG), where livestock are excluded during a set period of each year (in this case,
107 spring and summer) to encourage desirable native species to set seed (Barnes and Hild 2013;
108 Massey, 2017). During the remainder of the year, stock are moved between paddocks based
109 on vegetative ground cover targets.

110 Understanding of the impacts of different grazing regimes on key aspects of soil condition is
111 currently limited. To address this knowledge gap, we established a landscape-scale study of
112 soil properties within replicated patches of BBGW. The spatial scale of our study is novel as
113 it enables the overarching question to be tested: *Which environmental and grazing*
114 *management factors influence major soil nutrients and soil bulk density?*

115 At the outset of this investigation, we made a series of predictions about soil responses.
116 These were based on findings from earlier studies regarding organic litter decomposition
117 (Post et al., 1982), fertilizer use and soil nutrients (Walker and Syers, 1976; Moir et al.,
118 1997), pasture type and grazing strategies and soil nutrients (Prober et al., 2002a, Teague et
119 al., 2011), and relationships between soil carbon and nitrogen and tree cover (Prober et al.,
120 2002b). Specifically, we hypothesized that:

- 121 • Site-specific environmental drivers would primarily control rates of organic matter
122 decomposition and therefore reflect total carbon (Post et al., 1982).
- 123 • Areas with high native tree cover would have high levels of soil organic matter due to
124 greater leaf litter and manure inputs, and that this would be reflected in increased
125 levels of total carbon and total nitrogen (Prober et al. 2002b).

- 126 • Fertilizer history followed by local geology would have a greater effect on total soil
127 phosphorus (total phosphorus) than grazing strategy (Walker and Syers, 1976; Moir et
128 al., 1997).
- 129 • Pasture type, in particular exotic-dominated pasture, would result in higher total
130 nitrogen (Prober et al. 2002a).
- 131 • Grazing strategies which focus on pasture (HISD and strategically grazed) would
132 result in higher levels of total Kjeldahl nitrogen (total nitrogen) and total soil carbon
133 (total carbon), along with lower bulk density (Teague et al., 2011).

134

135 **2. METHODS**

136 **2.1 Study Region**

137 We sampled 65 sites from 22 farms distributed over an area of 1.5 m ha in southern New
138 South Wales, south-eastern Australia. These farms were part of a long-term agro-ecology
139 study established in 2010 (TSSC, 2006; Lindenmayer et al., 2012; Barton et al., 2016; Sato et
140 al., 2016) where the dominant land use is livestock grazing (by either sheep (*Ovis aries*) or
141 cattle (*Bos taurus*)). Native vegetation cover consisted of patches of temperate box-gum
142 woodland (BBGW) with an overstorey dominated or co-dominated by yellow box
143 (*Eucalyptus melliodora* A.Cunn. ex Schauer), white box (*E. albens* Benth.), Blakely's red
144 gum (*E. blakelyi* Maiden) or grey box (*E. microcarpa* Maiden) (DEH, 2006; TSSC, 2006).

145

146 **2.2 Data Collection**

147 We gathered remotely-sensed information using ArcGIS (version 10.4.1) on elevation,
148 aspect, and percentage of woody vegetation cover within a 250 m radius of the central soil
149 sampling point at each site (see Supplementary Table A.1 for full details). Digital mapping

150 layers were sourced from the SEED portal of the New South Wales Office Planning and
151 Environment (OPE, 2017). Site elevation was deemed to represent climatic variation between
152 farms as per Badgery et al. (2014). We used local geological data sourced from digital maps
153 (OPE, 2015), and then ground-truthed using field site assessments. We assigned slope
154 position (upper, mid, lower) to each site in the field.

155 We assessed grazing management using four criteria; grazing management strategy, grazing
156 intensity, time since grazing, and pasture management. We derived these data from
157 landholder surveys. We assigned each site to one of five grazing management strategies:
158 grazing exclusion (GE), continuous grazing (CG), long-conversion rotational grazing (LCR)
159 (i.e. for c.a. 10 years prior to our study), short-conversion rotational grazing (SCR) (i.e. for
160 c.a. 5 years prior to our study) and strategic grazing (SG) (no grazing through spring and
161 summer, and vegetative groundcover of > 70 % to be maintained when grazed during the
162 remainder of the year - c.a. 2 years prior to our study).

163 We defined grazing intensity as the total daily “Dry Sheep Equivalent” (DSE) (a standardised
164 measure of feed requirements by different kinds of livestock) impacting each site during the
165 period 2010-2011, averaged by the days in which grazing occurred (i.e. excluding days when
166 the pasture was rested) (Kay et al., 2017).

167 Using information from landholder surveys, we categorized sites as either grazed or ungrazed
168 in the three months prior to soil sampling.

169 The type of pasture and the fertilization of that pasture reflects farm management strategies
170 and impacts soil properties. We assigned sites to one of three pasture management classes
171 based on the frequency of fertiliser application and the type of pasture being grown at each
172 site during the period 1991-2011 (as identified from landholder surveys). The three categories

173 were: (i) Predominantly native pasture, not fertilized within the previous 20 years, but
174 potentially receiving less than three fertilizer applications more than 20 years ago; (ii) Mixed
175 native/exotic pasture, not fertilized within the previous 10 years, but potentially receiving less
176 than three fertilizer applications more than 10 years ago; (iii) “Improved” pasture likely to
177 contain purposely sown exotic species with fertiliser applied during the previous 10 years.

178 **2.3 Soil sampling and laboratory analysis**

179 We collected soils between August and December in 2011. At each site, sampling was
180 undertaken at 12 points along a 200 m transect. We collected samples using mechanical
181 coring to a depth of five centimeters, then air-dried and bulked in sets of four (with the
182 samples numbered 1-4, 5-8, 9-12) to give a total of three composite samples per transect. We
183 crushed samples to reduce aggregation and then removed particulate matter > 2 mm. We
184 ground samples until particles were reduced to < 500 μm . We assessed total soil carbon (total
185 carbon) through dry combustion using an Elementar Vario Max CNS analyser. We extracted
186 total soil phosphorus (total phosphorus) and total Keldjahl nitrogen (total nitrogen) via
187 Keldjahl digestion using concentrated H_2SO_4 at 350°C in the presence of K_2SO_4 and a copper
188 catalyst. Following extraction, we determined nutrient content using flow-injection analysis
189 and colorimetry.

190 We determined bulk density using soil bulk density cores (4.6 cm diameter 5 cm high) taken
191 at 0-5 cm soil depth. Following careful removal of surface plant and litter biomass, we
192 calculated the oven dry weight of soil per unit volume using the method described in
193 Hazelton and Murphy (2007).

194 **2.4 Statistical Analysis**

195 To assess the influence of the selected environmental and management predictors on soil
196 nutrients, we constructed individual hierarchical generalised linear mixed models (HGLM) (Lee et al., 2006) fit by maximum likelihood, using total phosphorus, total nitrogen, total
197 carbon and bulk density as the response variables, and including farm and site as random
198 effects to account for the nested study design. We assumed a normal distribution with an
199 identity link for response variables, and for the random component. For each model, we
200 included, as fixed effects, five environmental factors (elevation, aspect, native woody
201 vegetation, geology and slope position) and four management factors (grazing strategy,
202 grazing intensity, time since grazing and pasture management). We used Wald tests to assess
203 the significance of each predictor variable included in the model and summarized the effects
204 of interest using predictions adjusted for all other variables in the model (i.e. all other
205 variables held at their means). We constructed all models using Genstat version 18.2.1.
206
207

208 **3. RESULTS**

209 We found that two environmental factors (geology and native woody cover in the
210 surrounding landscape) and two management factors (time since grazing and pasture
211 management) significantly altered total phosphorus and nitrogen, but not total carbon or bulk
212 density soil properties. With regards to the effects of grazing regimes, grazing strategy and
213 grazing intensity did not significantly influence soil properties. Rather, time since grazing
214 was most important grazing regime covariate.

215 **3.1 Influence of environmental factors on soils**

216 We showed that total phosphorus and total nitrogen soil properties were significantly
217 influenced by geology. Total phosphorus ($\chi^2_3 = 185.62, p < 0.001$; Table 1, Figure 1a) and

218 total nitrogen ($\chi^2_3 = 11.72, p = 0.008$; Table 1, Figure 1b) levels were highest in soils formed
219 from mafic volcanic geology and lowest in felsic and sedimentary soils.

220 Soils on sites surrounded by large amounts of native woody cover had significantly lower
221 values of total nitrogen ($\chi^2_1 = 3.90, p = 0.048$; Table 1, Figure 2). Other environmental
222 variables including elevation, aspect and slope position did not significantly influence any
223 modelled soil property (see Table 1, Supplementary Table A.2).

224 **3.2 Influence of grazing management factors on soils**

225 Time since grazing had a significant effect on total phosphorus ($\chi^2_1 = 8.70, p = 0.003$; Table
226 1), with higher total phosphorus levels in recently grazed sites (i.e. grazed during the 3-month
227 period prior to sampling or during sampling) compared with rested sites, irrespective of
228 grazing type or duration (Figure 3). This pattern also was observed for total nitrogen ($\chi^2_1 =$
229 3.60, $p = 0.058$; Supplementary Table A.2) and total carbon ($\chi^2_1 = 3.57, p = 0.059$;
230 Supplementary Table A.2) but was not significant for either soil property.

231 Predominantly native sites with fertiliser application prior to 1995 were characterized by
232 significantly lower levels of total phosphorus ($\chi^2_1 = 16.33, p < 0.001$; Table 1) and total
233 nitrogen ($\chi^2_1 = 6.64, p = 0.036$; Table 1), compared to either mixed native/exotic, or
234 predominantly exotic, sites with fertiliser application between 1995 and 2005 (Figure 4a and
235 b).

236 Other management variables including grazing strategy and grazing intensity did not
237 significantly influence any modelled soil property (see Table 1, Supplementary Table A.2).

238

239 **4. DISCUSSION**

240 Soil is critical for both natural ecosystem function and agricultural productivity (Altieri,
241 2018; Heger et al., 2018). Livestock grazing has the capacity to alter a range of soil
242 properties, yet the effects of different grazing regimes on BGGW soils have not previously
243 been investigated. We quantified the influence of both historical and current management
244 practices on the properties of soils from BGGW in the context of environmental influences
245 such as geology, landscape position, and site-scale native woody vegetation. We then
246 assessed the relative influence of livestock grazing in terms of grazing regimes (continuous,
247 strategic or rotational grazing), grazing intensity (DSE averaged over days when livestock
248 grazing occurred) and time since grazing.

249 **4.1 Environmental and management factors with the greatest influence on soils**

250 Felsic geologies studied here produce lower nutrient soils than mafic geologies (Figure 1) and
251 this conforms to other published literature (Gray and Murphy, 1999). Globally, natural
252 grassland ecosystems have evolved with lower nutrient soils and native herbivores
253 (Milchunas and Lauenroth, 1993). However, as land use shifts towards managed grazing,
254 higher fertiliser use is often used to sustain increased grazing pressure. The lower inherent
255 nutrient status of felsic soils can lead to native pastures being less resilient to often higher
256 intensity (sustained over longer durations per area) introduced grazing which can ultimately
257 lead to changes in pasture abundance and composition (Bardgett et al., 1998). This may affect
258 soil biological processes and a subsequent reduction of nutrient cycling (Brussaard et al.
259 2007). A reduction in these aspects of ecosystem function would result in less soil surface
260 protection (e.g. from raindrop impact) and soil aggregation (Tisdall and Oades, 1982). Felsic
261 soils in particular, given generally more coarse sediment textures, can be vulnerable to
262 erosion (Wischmeier and Mannering, 1969; Koch et al., 2015). Application of fertilisers and
263 sowing of exotic grass species are sometimes seen as a solution to rectify nutrient
264 deficiencies, minimise soil loss, and ultimately maintain food for domestic livestock (Kemp

265 and Dowling, 2000). Whilst not significant, this trend of higher levels of total nitrogen at
266 those sites on felsic soils which had been more recently fertilised was observed and may be
267 an outcome of complex interactions between management and underlying environmental
268 drivers.

269 At the outset of this investigation, we postulated that sites surrounded by high levels of native
270 tree cover would be characterized by relatively higher levels of soil organic matter due to
271 localised patterns in the distribution of litter and manure, and that this would be reflected in
272 increased levels of total carbon and total nitrogen (Manning et al., 2006; Prober et al., 2014).
273 Unexpectedly, we observed trends showing negative relationships between all major nutrients
274 and tree cover. This may be because timbered sites are commonly associated with less fertile
275 soils, as naturally fertile areas have over time been preferentially cleared for agriculture
276 (Fischer et al., 2010). Previous applications of fertiliser within cleared areas may have
277 resulted in comparatively higher levels of soil nutrients in pastured areas (Prober et al.,
278 2002a). Compounding this, fertiliser use encourages the growth of exotic annual species
279 which commonly lead to further increase in soil nitrogen (Prober et al. 2002b; Dorrough et al.
280 2006). Consistent with these findings, our results showed fertiliser history and pasture type
281 are important drivers of current patterns of soil nutrients. Sites fertilised in the previous 10
282 years also contained high proportions of exotic pasture species, and these sites supported
283 significantly elevated levels of total phosphorus and nitrogen. Total carbon content did not
284 follow this pattern, although sites with higher total phosphorus are commonly associated with
285 correspondingly greater levels of soil carbon (Chan et al., 2010; Orgill et al., 2014).

286 We predicted that bulk density would decline close to trees, indicating improved soil
287 structure due to a higher content of organic material (Wilson et al., 2002). The fact that bulk
288 density was not significantly affected by tree cover at our sites (and, showed a weak positive
289 relationship with tree cover) may be associated with livestock resting ('camping') beneath

290 trees. We observed that soil disturbance caused by livestock camps reduced ground cover and
291 appeared to produce harder soil surfaces, which most likely aided removal of organic surface
292 soil via water erosion processes. This livestock behaviour and subsequent negative impact on
293 both soil and vegetation community has been widely observed (Landsberg and Wylie, 1988;
294 Yates et al., 2000; Schnyder et al., 2010). Mature trees in these landscapes have been
295 identified as keystone structures and protecting them from such processes should be
296 considered a priority for land management (Manning et al., 2006). Implementing HISD
297 grazing is one strategy towards achieving this aim as livestock are restricted from camping in
298 the same places for long periods.

299 Different soil properties are affected by different processes and this was reflected in our key
300 findings. Total phosphorus is derived mainly through the process of mineral weathering or
301 fertiliser application (Dorrough et al., 2006; Rui et al., 2012), both of which were likely to
302 have had an important influence in our study. Sites associated with relatively nutrient-rich
303 mafic geology had significantly higher levels of total phosphorus, as did sites fertilised during
304 the previous 10 years.

305 Total nitrogen levels were lower at sites associated with nutrient-poor felsic geology. Soils
306 derived from felsic rock are commonly coarse in texture, low in clay content and the clays
307 that do form have low cation exchange capacity and fertility (Gray and Murphy, 1999). These
308 soils require well-functioning biological processes to drive nutrient cycling as labile forms of
309 nutrients such as nitrogen easily leach from the upper soil (Decau et al., 2003).

310 **4.2 The effects of grazing on soil properties**

311 A key finding of this study was the increase in total phosphorus in those soils which had been
312 grazed either during sampling or within the 3-month period prior to sample collection
313 ('recent grazing'). A similar pattern was found for total nitrogen and total carbon. These

314 results may be attributed to a series of concurrent processes: (i) direct input of organic matter
315 and nutrients resulting from addition of manure/urine and trampling of above-ground biomass
316 (Clegg, 2006; Semmartin et al., 2008), (ii) additional input of below-ground organic matter
317 through the process of grass root die-off in response to grazing (Guitian and Bardgett, 2000),
318 (iii) stimulation of soil microbial communities following input of organic matter and root
319 exudates (Bardgett et al., 1998, Paterson and Sim, 1999), (iv) reduced plant uptake of
320 nutrients following defoliation (Paterson and Sim, 1999), (v) redistribution of nutrients
321 between rhizosphere, plant biomass and animal biomass (Rotz et al., 2005), and (vi) transport
322 of nutrients via manure, urine or soil between paddocks either directly from stock (Oenema et
323 al., 2007) or erosion processes (Fierer and Gabet, 2002; Chappell and Baldock, 2016).

324 It is likely that a period > 2 years may be required for grazing to precipitate major changes to
325 equilibrium levels of total soil nutrients (Halvorson et al., 1997). The increases we observed
326 in total phosphorus and carbon at recently grazed sites in this study capture a specific phase
327 within the broader temporal nutrient cycle and most likely reflect a process of transitory
328 nutrient fluctuation rather than a long-term increase in baseline nutrient levels. Orgill et al.
329 (2018) concluded that while seasonal processes impact the more labile forms of carbon,
330 detection of total carbon stocks under differing grazing systems occur over longer time
331 frames (> 5 years). The cumulative effect of multiple biologically driven processes enhances
332 soil community complexity, building ecosystem function and leading to increases in soil
333 nutrients (Brussaard et al., 2007). Increased knowledge of short-term interactions between
334 nutrient cycles and grazing will allow development of more effective restoration strategies for
335 native woodland vegetation (Prober et al., 2014).

336 The different grazing regimes in our investigation (CG, LCR, SCR and SG) and grazing
337 intensities had no significant influence on soil properties when compared with control sites
338 where livestock had been excluded for 1-2 years. This contrasts with observations from other

339 studies describing changes following livestock grazing exclusion in grassy woodlands. For
340 example, Spooner et al. (2002) reported a small but significant reduction in soil compaction
341 2-4 years after livestock grazing exclusion, potentially reflecting natural soil rejuvenation
342 processes. Due to environmental influences discussed in Section 4.1, determining soil
343 response to long-term grazing management practices can be difficult at a landscape scale
344 (Orgill et al., 2018), particularly across a broad range of land types such as those included in
345 this study. For this reason, effects of a small magnitude (such as those resulting from a
346 relatively recent (1-3 year) change in management (Halvorson et al., 1997)) may be difficult
347 to detect. Yates et al. (2000) reported significant differences in both soil chemical and
348 physical properties in grazed versus ungrazed woodlands, however the treatments in question
349 had been in place for several decades.

350 The lack of significant difference between grazed and ungrazed sites from our study may also
351 reflect the impacts of total grazing pressure rather than only livestock grazing activity. We
352 noted during sampling that many of the 'ungrazed' control sites were acting as refuges for
353 large numbers of native herbivores, a situation indicating that grazing pressure remained high
354 despite the exclusion of domestic livestock. Previous research has shown that native
355 herbivore grazing can significantly alter vegetation attributes (Howland et al., 2016),
356 indicating that soil processes also may be affected.

357 The large spatial scale and access to property management records are key strengths of this
358 study. However, associated with this comes heterogeneity of results driven by the
359 environmental and management predictors themselves. Increasing replication across the
360 diversity of predictors (e.g. number of sites on felsic soils = 142 versus 12 on mafic soils)
361 would be preferable. However, considerable sampling logistics exist. The time required for
362 sampling prohibits studying more transient forms of soil nutrients (e.g. nitrogen). The
363 significance of total phosphorus in the study does suggest exploring plant available

364 phosphorus would be a valuable addition. Maintaining landholder engagement in the future
365 would allow for repeated sampling at decadal intervals, potentially increasing understanding
366 of management impacts.

367

368 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

369 Our results provide new information on the management of woodland soils and native
370 vegetation, emphasising the need to consider the timing of grazing events in the context of
371 restoration planning, as well as the importance of long-term research when considering
372 management impacts. We also highlighted the importance of both long- and short-term
373 management history, as well as environmental variables, as factors influencing levels of soil
374 nutrient. Our study suggests that grazing management has the potential to influence soil
375 nutrients on a scale of weeks to months, but that this may reflect short-term fluctuations in
376 nutrient levels rather than long-term trends. Our findings also emphasise the importance of
377 broad-scale environmental variation and previous fertiliser use as factors affecting nutrient
378 distribution at a landscape-scale. Grazing appears to be having a relatively immediate impact
379 on soil nutrients. This type of knowledge has potential to inform restoration strategies applied
380 to temperate grassy woodlands in south-eastern Australia.

381

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393

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601 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

602 **Figure 1.** Influence of geology on (a) total phosphorus and (b) total nitrogen. Error bars
603 represent standard errors of the mean.

604 **Figure 2.** Influence of native woody cover in the surrounding landscape on total nitrogen.
605 Error bars represent standard errors of the mean.

606 **Figure 3.** Influence of time since grazing on total phosphorus. Error bars represent standard
607 errors of the mean.

608 **Figure 4.** Influence of pasture management on (a) total phosphorus and (b) total nitrogen.
609 Error bars represent standard errors of the mean.

610 **TABLE**

611 **Table 1.** Significance of model terms testing the effects of environmental and land
 612 management on soil properties. Properties modelled include total soil phosphorus (total P),
 613 total Keldjahl nitrogen (total N), total soil carbon (total C), total bulk density (Bulk Density).
 614 Environmental variables include elevation, aspect, Native woody vegetation (Woody
 615 Vegetation), geology and slope position (Slope). Land management variables include grazing
 616 strategy, grazing intensity, time since grazing (Grazing Time) and pasture management
 617 (Fertiliser Application).

		total P	total N	total C	Bulk Density	
	df	Wald	Wald	Wald	Wald	
<i>Environmental Variables</i>						
Elevation	1	ns	ns	ns	ns	
Aspect	1	ns	ns	ns	ns	620
Woody Vegetation	1	ns	3.90*	ns	ns	
Slope	2	ns	ns	ns	ns	621
Geology	3	185.62***	11.72**	ns	ns	
<i>Management Variables</i>						622
Grazing Strategy	4	ns	ns	ns	ns	
Grazing Intensity	1	ns	ns	ns	ns	623
Grazing Time	1	8.70**	ns	ns	ns	
Fertiliser Application	2	16.33***	6.64*	ns	ns	624

* $P < 0.05$.625 05, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, ns = not significant.

Figure 1
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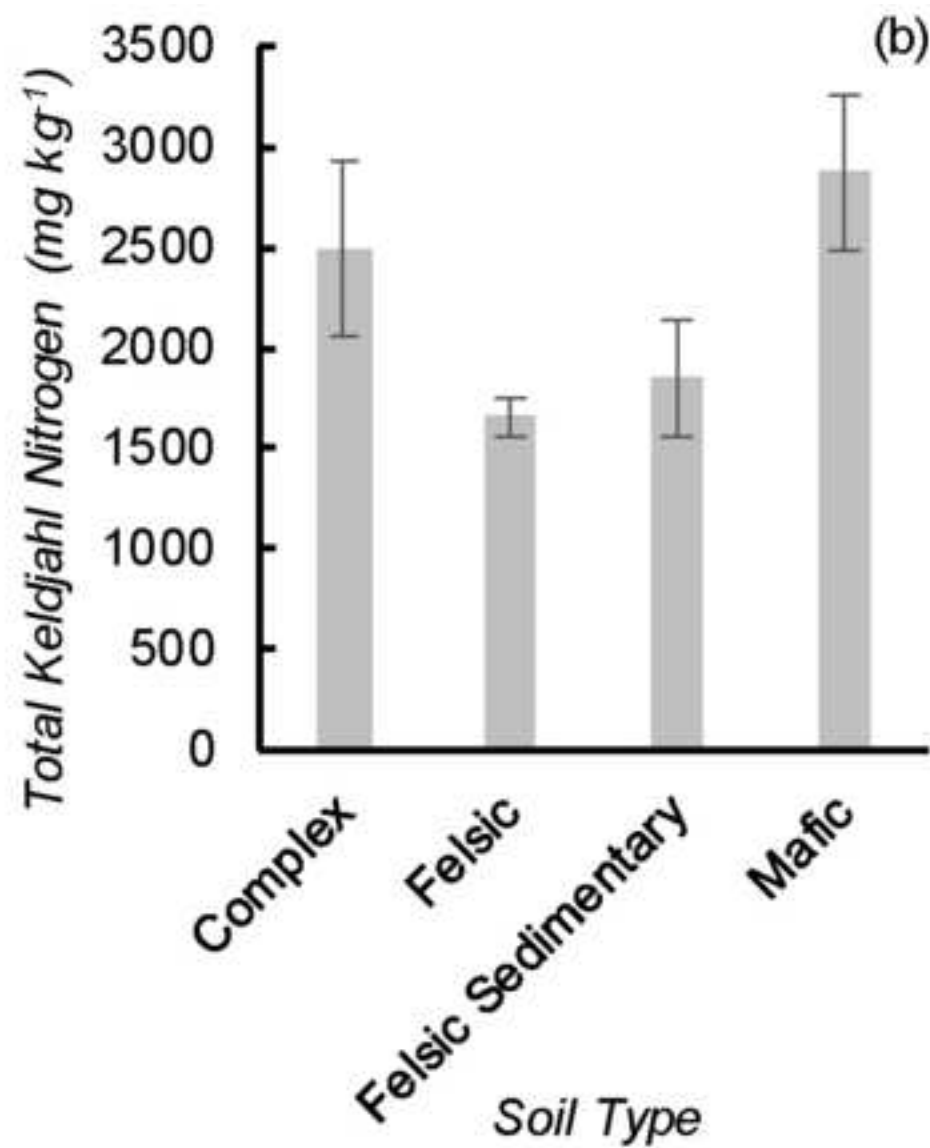
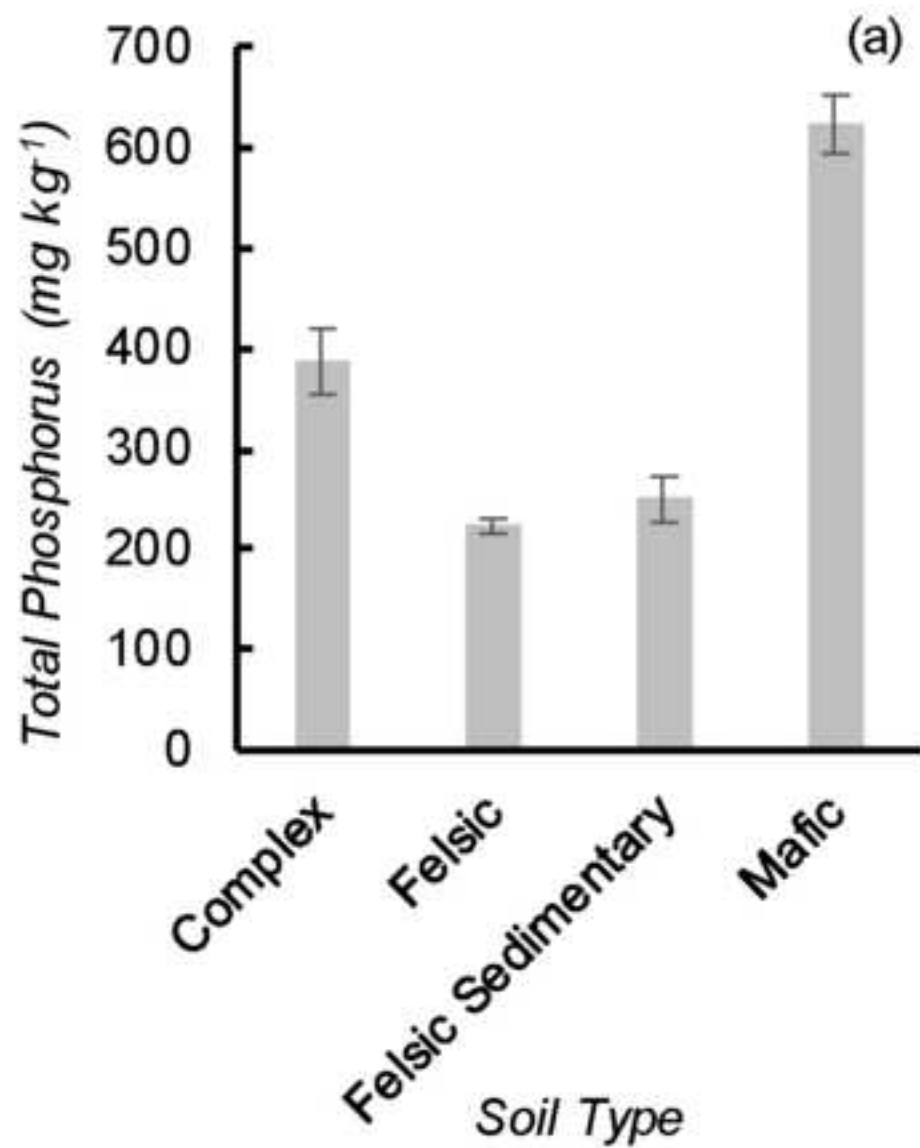


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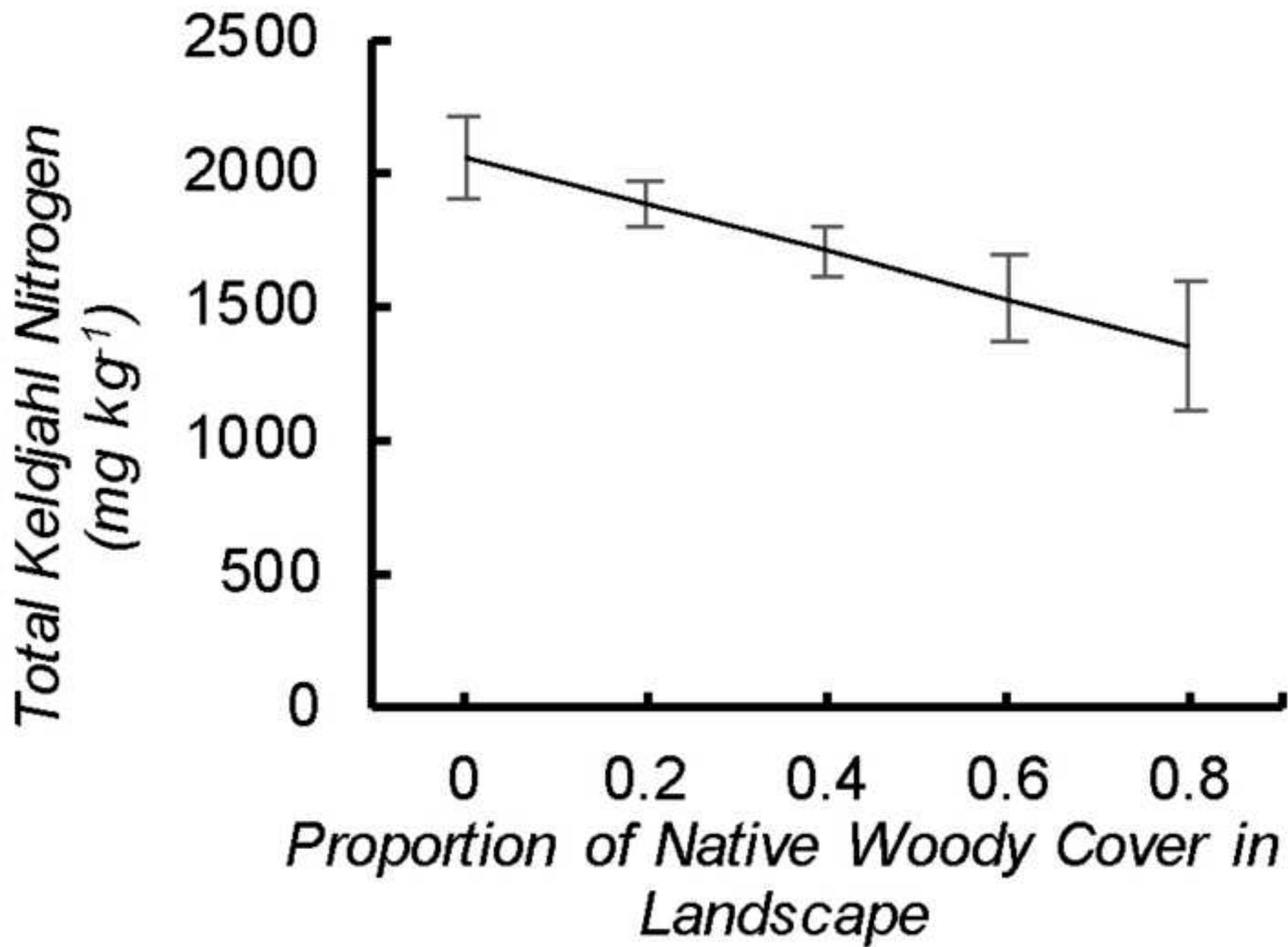


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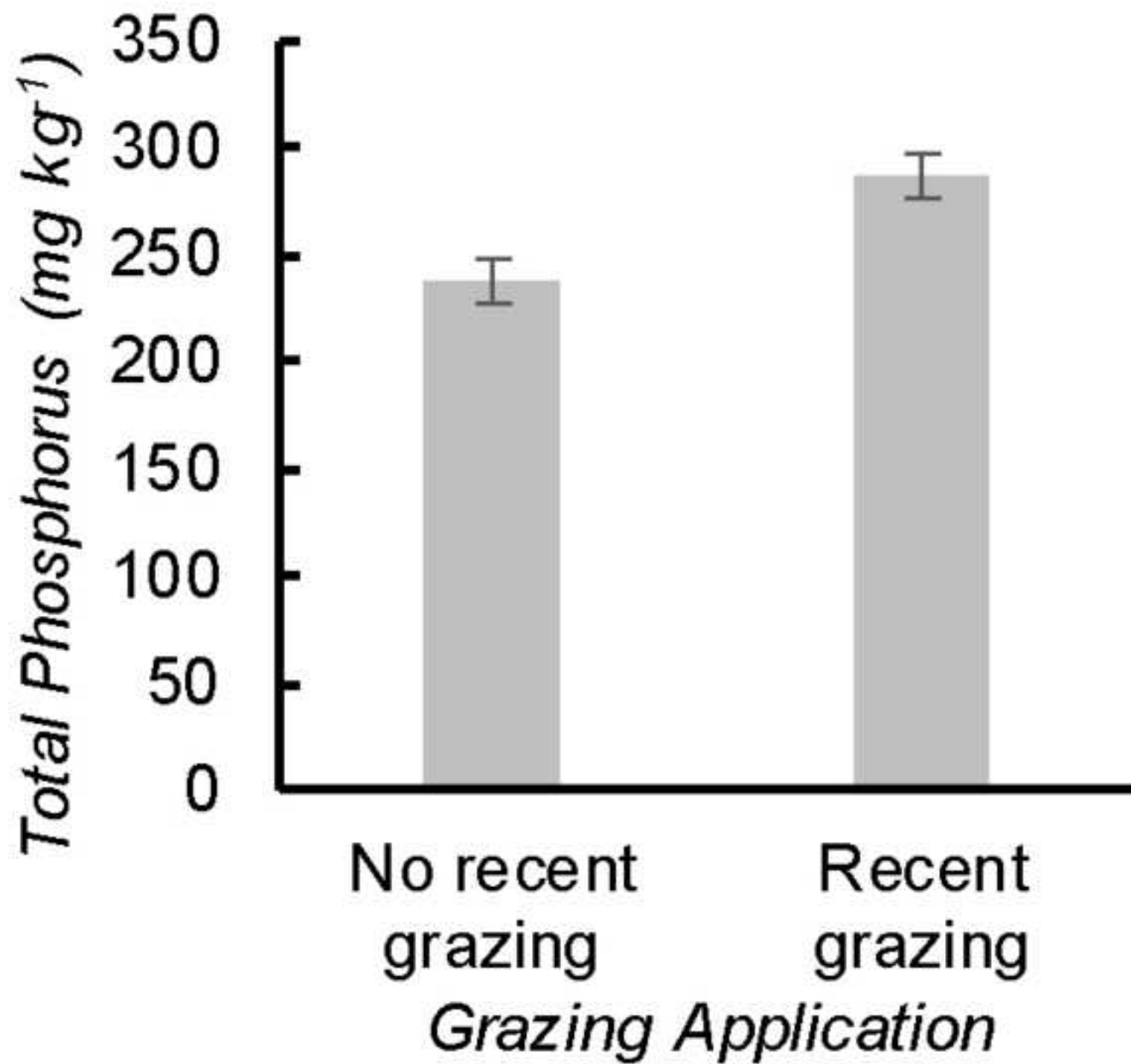
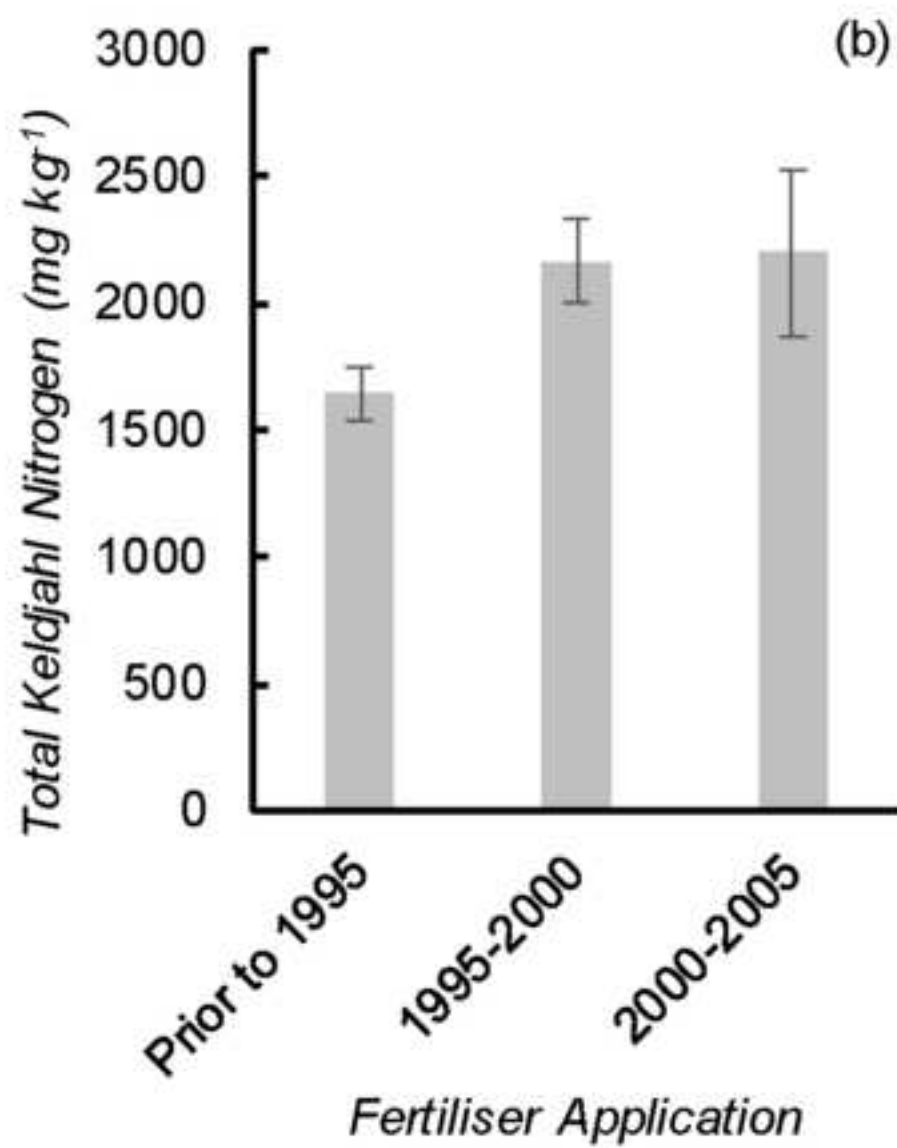
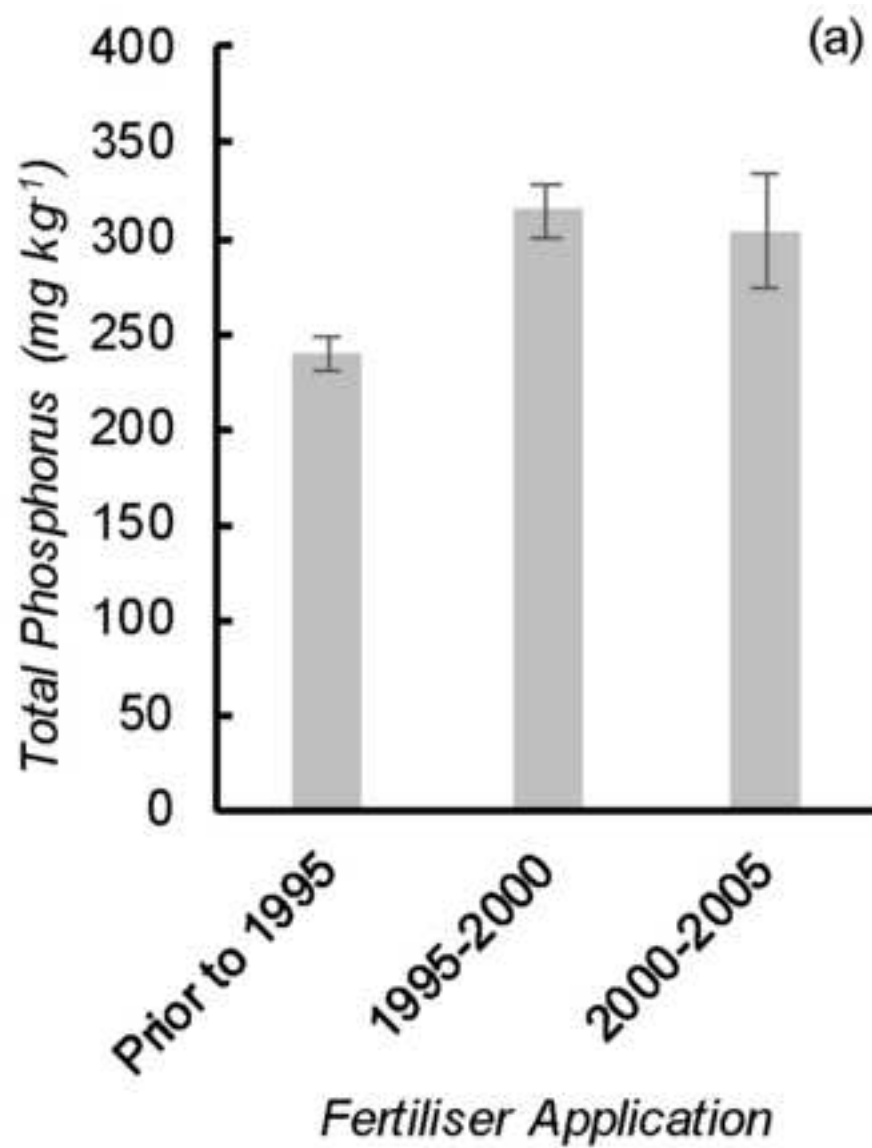


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