



The impact of goats grazing on understory vegetation of cork oak woodlands

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Abstract The aim of this study is to evaluate the effects of high grazing pressure for short, intermittent periods (1–2 h per day) on fuel load management in cork oak (*Quercus suber* L.) forests in the north-eastern region of Portugal. This evaluation aims to understand the effectiveness of targeted grazing as a forest management tool, specifically in reducing fuel load accumulation and thereby potentially reducing wild-fire risk. In addition, this study extends its analysis to examine the time required for vegetation recovery in the absence of grazing, with the aim of determining the optimal grazing interval. Changes in herbaceous and shrub cover, herbaceous biomass and phytovolume were compared between grazed and ungrazed plots over a period of thirty-four months. Using a stocking rate of 400 goats per hectare for 21 cumulative hours over 12 days resulted in a 93.43% reduction in shrub phytovolume and a 76.2% reduction in shrub cover. Herbaceous biomass also decreased

from 53.80 ± 7.82 g m⁻² to 17.76 ± 6.29 g m⁻² in the grazed areas. Twenty-two months after cessation of grazing, no significant differences in plant and shrub cover or herbaceous biomass were observed. The results highlight the effectiveness of targeted grazing in managing fuel loads in cork oak woodlands, with pronounced short-term benefits. However, the rapid recovery of vegetation in the absence of grazing highlights the need for a strategic and continuous management approach to maintain the benefits of fuel reduction.

Keywords Targeted grazing · Fuel load management · Vegetation recovery · Cork oak forests

Introduction

In European Mediterranean countries, the incidence of fires has increased dramatically, with the average total area burned per year quadrupling since the 1960s (San-Miguel-Ayanz et al. 2012, cited by Tonini et al. 2018). Today, Southern Europe experiences about 47,000 fires per year, burning an average of 400,000 ha of forest and scrubland (1980–2019 period average) (San Miguel-Ayanz et al. 2021; European Commission 2022). Fire regime has changed as a result of human changes in fuel load management and climatic change (Tonini et al. 2018). In terms of human factors, societal changes affecting the occurrence of wildfires are

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those associated with the massive depopulation of European rural areas after the Second World War. The abandonment of rural areas has led to the expansion of scrublands and forests, while pastures and cropland have declined, resulting in an increase in the accumulation of combustible biomass (Mantero et al. 2020). This change in land use increases the risk of fire, especially when the understorey phytovolume exceeds $2500 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$, a threshold associated with high fire risk (Oliveira 2020).

In addition, climate change has made wildfires more dangerous than ever before, increasing in size and severity of these new types of fires, known as megafires (Alló and Loureiro 2020). Data suggests that climate change will intensify in the future, with uneven impacts in different regions of the world (IPCC 2022). Situated on the western side of the Iberian Peninsula, Portugal is particularly vulnerable to these changes. Projections point to significant increases in temperature and decreases in precipitation (Cardoso et al. 2019; Lionello et al. 2014; Soares et al. 2017; Turco et al. 2015), as well as the associated increase and severity of droughts (Hoerling et al. 2012; Spinoni et al. 2017). As a direct consequence, fires will become increasingly dangerous, with a sharp increase in their magnitude and severity (Chowdhury et al. 2022).

The FAO Voluntary Guidelines on Fire Management state that: “Fire prevention may be the most cost-effective and efficient mitigation programme than an agency or community can implement”. Preventing unwanted, damaging fires is always less expensive than fighting them (FAO 2006). It is now widely recognised that prevention is the most effective approach to dealing with wildland fires (Mauri et al. 2023). According to the same authors, prevention should focus on “sustainable forest management” and “sustainable rural areas management” to limit the risk of wildfires in the Mediterranean, especially in the context of climate change. Agroforestry, as the deliberate integration of woody vegetation (trees and/or shrubs) and any combination of livestock, pasture or agricultural crops (Mosquera-Losada et al. 2018), represents a potential strategy to effectively control fuel accumulation at both plot and landscape scales (Rodríguez-Rigueiro et al. 2021). Agroforestry is therefore in line with the strategies proposed above.

On the other hand, at the plot scale, grazing is recognised as an ecological approach to create fuel discontinuities, especially within the shrub layer, thus preventing fuel accumulation. Therefore, it has been adopted as a fire prevention tool in different countries, including Spain, Italy, France, Greece and United States (Lovreglio et al. 2014; Moinardeau et al. 2019; Paut et al. 2021; Varela et al. 2018). However, in many rural areas of the Mediterranean, grazing pressure is below the level required for fuel management through traditional grazing (Castro et al. 2020). Consequently, targeted grazing has emerged as a viable alternative to fill this gap.

Targeted grazing is used strategically to achieve specific vegetation management objectives, such as reducing the presence of invasive plants and reducing fuel loads to minimise fire risk (Launchbaugh et al. 2006). The scientific literature highlights the importance of grazing activities characterised by optimal density and seasonal timing (DiTomaso et al. 2008; Rathfon et al. 2014; Bailey et al. 2019; Fuhlendorf et al. 2009). A targeted approach can reduce fuel loads, connectivity and the frequency of fire events (Davies et al. 2017; Schmelzer et al. 2014).

The main objective of this study was to evaluate the impact of high intensity grazing by goats for short periods of time, i.e. targeted grazing, on the reduction of fuel loads within *Q. suber* forests in the Northeast region of Portugal. To achieve this, the study examined changes in herbaceous and shrub cover, herbaceous biomass, and phytovolume in grazed cork oak plots compared to ungrazed plots.

Specific research questions include: (1) whether targeted goat grazing is an effective way of removing phytovolume from oak woodlands; (2) how long it takes for vegetation to recover after grazing.

Material and methods

Study area

The research was carried out in the north-eastern region of Portugal ($41^{\circ}48' \text{ N}$ and $6^{\circ}45' \text{ W}$), Fig. 1, at an altitude of 755 m above sea level, in a 30-years-old *Q. suber* plantation.

The climate is Mediterranean, with an average annual temperature of 12.5°C and total annual rainfall of 607.2 mm (data for 1981–2010, IPMA). During the



Fig. 1 Location of the experimental area

study period, annual rainfall varied between 789 mm (2020) and 563.6 mm (2021), thus highlighting the strong inter-annual variability typical of Mediterranean climates (see climate graphs in the supplementary material).

The Afforestation was carried out under the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) initiative in 1992, in accordance with the provisions of the “set-aside” legislation. During the first two decades after planting, the understorey was mechanically cleared at regular intervals of three to five years. After this period,

which coincides with the end of the program contract, understorey clearance ceased (2016).

The density of the cork oak stand is 666 trees per hectare, with a spatial arrangement defined by a 5×3 m grid. The understorey consisted of a dense layer of shrubs, mainly of *Cistus ladanifer* L., *Cytisus scoparius* (L.) Link., and *Lavandula stoechas* L. and a sparse layer of herbs, mainly annual grasses. The experimental area consisted of two fenced plots of 2500 m² each, one grazed and the other ungrazed. A private herd of 100 Serrana goats (approximately

two-thirds pregnant and one-third non-pregnant) extensively reared for meat production, was used. The goats weighed between 45 and 50 kg. The stocking rate was therefore 400 animals per hectare, used sporadically and at short intervals from October 2020 to July 2021. The animals stayed on the plot for only 1–1.5 h per day, over 12 non-consecutive days, for a total of 21 h of grazing activity. During the grazing period, the herd received 20 kg of high energy concentrate in the form of pellets per day (approximately 200 g per goat). This was distributed among the tallest and densest bushes, which not only facilitated consumption but also disturbed the vegetation as the goats jumped in search of the supplementary feed.

Field sampling, and data collection

Data collection took place from July 2020 to April 2023 and included four soil cover assessments and three herbaceous biomass assessments.

The structural characteristics of the vegetation were assessed using the line-intercept method (Canfield 1941). Vegetation cover was estimated on the basis of growth forms (shrubs and grasses). In each treatment (grazed and ungrazed), five 20 m transects were established and the length occupied by each shrub and herb species was recorded. In Addition, the modal height of each shrub species was measured to assess phytovolume (Fig. 2).

Herbaceous biomass was assessed using samples of 0.25 m², cut at ground level, stored at 4 °C and then dried in an oven at 60 °C. The dry matter (DM) was weighed to the nearest 0.1 g. The data were calculated and the units converted to kg DM ha⁻¹. Herbaceous cover, which included several species, was assessed as a whole, while shrub cover was assessed by species. Five replicates were used for each treatment, similar to the procedure used for the transects.

The assessment schedule was as follows: The first assessment took place before the introduction of animals in July 2020 (Time 0). The second assessment took place after the end of grazing in July 2021 (Time 1). A third assessment was carried out in April 2022, eight months after grazing (Time 2), and the fourth and final assessment was carried out in April 2023 (Time 3), twenty months after the end of grazing.

Variables estimation

On the basis of the ground cover, the shrub and herbaceous cover, litterfall and the phytovolume were calculated. Total vegetation cover represents the area of land covered by vegetation expressed as a percentage and is calculated using the following Eq. (1):

$$\text{Plant cover(\%)} = (100 - (\text{bare soil} + \text{forest litter biomass})) \quad (1)$$

Bare soil: Percentage of visible soil surface not covered by plants or litter. **Forest litter biomass:** Dead organic matter, such as fallen leaves and small twigs, covering the ground. This formula subtracts the area of bare soil covered by litter from the total cover (100%) to estimate the proportion of soil actually occupied by plants.

The cover of a given species corresponds to the area projected horizontally by the plant onto the ground, indicating the extent of the surface covered by the plant's canopy. This value is expressed as a percentage and calculated as follows (Eq. 2):

$$\text{Cover Spp(\%)} = \frac{\text{Total distance(SppA)}}{\text{Total distance of line}} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

The understorey phytovolume was calculated, by shrub species, by multiplying the modal height (the most common) of the shrub by its canopy cover for

Fig. 2 Line intercept method and method used to measure modal heights



each plant (Eq. (3)); the phytovolume in each transect was obtained by summing the volumes of each plant.

$$\text{Phytovolume}(m^3) = \text{Cover}Sppi(\%) \times \text{Modal height}(m) \tag{3}$$

Finally, the pytovolume was estimated based on the assumption that a 50 percent shrub cover on a hectare corresponds to 5000 m² are occupied by the shrubs (Eq. 4).

$$50\% \text{ coverage} = \frac{10.000m^2}{100\%} \times 50\% \tag{4}$$

Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was performed using two-way analysis of variance ANOVA — Type III SS, with sampling date and treatments as sources of variation. Tukey’s honestly significant difference test was used for pairwise comparisons between groups (*p* < 0.05). Means and standard deviations by group (treatment and sampling date) were calculated. All statistical analyses were performed using the SISVAR® 5.6 software package.

Results

Prior to the start of the grazing period (time 0), there were some differences, not statistically

significant, in the values of the ground cover variables between treatments. Following the introduction of grazing, significant statistical differences in these variables emerged between treatments and persisted for up to two years (time 3, Table 1).

At time 1, at the end of the grazing period, the herbaceous cover in the grazed plots was 6.09% (± 2.85 SD), while it was significantly lower in the ungrazed plots at 0.8% (± 0.4 SD). Shrub cover averaged values of 9.28% (± 3.55 SD) in the grazed plots compared to 45.30% (± 5.76 SD) in the ungrazed plots. Litter cover varied from 51.43% (± 4.81 SD) between the grazed plots to 34.00% (± 3.80 SD) in the ungrazed plots, with statistically significant differences (*p* < 0.001). At time 2 (eight months after the end of the grazing period), shrub cover was 16.91% (± 2.89 SD) and 42.80% (± 5.47 SD) and herbaceous cover of 3.09% (± 0.86 SD) and 5.52% (± 1.08 SD) between grazed and ungrazed plots, respectively (*p* < 0.001) (Table 1).

At time 3 (twenty months after the end of the grazing period), the shrub cover was similar between treatments, averaging around 50%. Meanwhile, the herbaceous cover in the grazed plots was 11.00% (± 4.59 SD), the highest values observed in the study, while the ungrazed plots showed 1.85% (± 0.76 SD), the highest values observed in the study. Litter cover averages of 47.10% (± 9.70 SD) and 32.00% (± 9.48 SD) for the ungrazed and grazed plots, respectively (Table 1).

Table 1 Evolution of vegetation and litter cover over time in treatments

Time		Cover (%)			
		Shrub	Herbaceous	Plant	Forest litter biomass
0	grazed	39.00 A (± 8.12)	4.07 A (± 2.75)	43.00 A (± 6.23)	42.00 A (± 9.70)
	ungrazed	29.27 A (± 4.48)	4.50 A (± 0.66)	33.77A (± 5.75)	44.52 A (± 4.62)
1	grazed	9.28 B (± 3.55)	6.09 A (± 2.85)	15.37 B (± 4.64)	51.43 A (± 4.81)
	ungrazed	45.30 A (± 5.76)	0.80 B (± 0.40)	46.10 A (± 7.01)	34.00 B (± 3.80)
2	grazed	16.91 B (± 2.89)	3.09 B (± 0.86)	20.00 B (± 5.43)	53.74 A (± 3.59)
	ungrazed	42.80 A (± 5.47)	5.52 A (± 1.08)	48.32 A (± 6.12)	38.2 B (± 3.25)
3	grazed	49.30 A (± 8.90)	11.00 A (± 4.59)	60.30 A (± 5.68)	32.00 B (± 9.48)
	ungrazed	51.05 A (± 10.13)	1.85 B (± 0.76)	52.90 A (± 9.69)	47.10 A (± 9.70)

Means followed by different letter indicate significant difference among treatments (grazed and ungrazed) for each timing (0, 1, 2 and 3) and variable (Shrub cover, Herbaceous cover and litter) according to the Tukey Test at 5% probability, while values within parentheses represent the standard deviation

Phytovolume

C. ladanifer, *C. scoparius*, and *L. stoechas* were the most abundant in the study area. The initial mean phytovolume (time 0) in the grazed area was $2879.31 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for *C. ladanifer*, followed by *C. scoparius* with $1635.94 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$, and *L. stoechas* with $272.92 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$. In the ungrazed area the values were $1972.54 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for *C. ladanifer*, $1411.56 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for *C. scoparius*, and $198.12 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for *L. stoechas*. These species were dominant in both areas, with *C. ladanifer* being the most frequent.

The effect of grazing was most evident in the phytovolume, which decreased by 93.43% from time 0 to time 1. At time 1, phytovolume was $276.84^{\text{B}} \pm 93.64 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for grazed plot and $5741.05^{\text{A}} \pm 865.17 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for ungrazed plot ($p < 0.001$).

At time 2, in 2022, the phytovolume values were $1001.14^{\text{B}} \pm 118.66 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for the grazed plot and $5832.75^{\text{A}} \pm 1078.29 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for the ungrazed plot. At time 3, in 2023, the differences between the plots were no longer significant. The values recorded were $5459.95^{\text{A}} \pm 536.22 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for the grazed plot and $6760.95^{\text{A}} \pm 1080.79 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for the ungrazed plot.

The grazed plot showed an increase in phytovolume over time (Fig. 3), but at different rates, $1001.14 \pm 118.66 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ in the first year and $5459.95 \pm 536.22 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ in the second. After two

years of grazing, there was no significant difference between the plots.

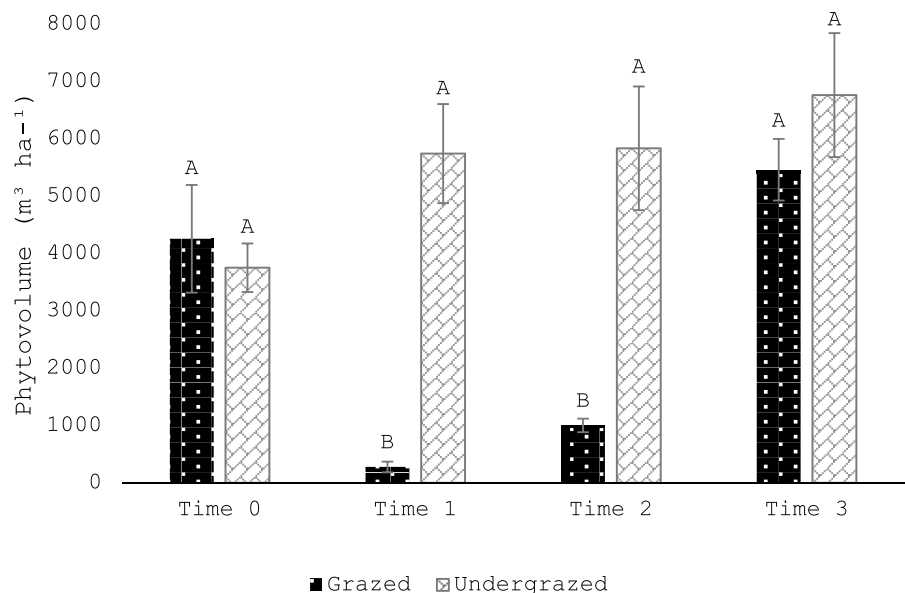
On the basis of the results it was possible to establish mathematical models to estimate the phytovolume over time in plots with and without grazing. For the grazed plot: $y = 2109.3x^2 - 10112x + 12,210$, with an R^2 of 0.9975. For the ungrazed plot: $y = -265.45x^2 + 2239.4x - 1913.9$, with an R^2 of 0.9223. In the equation, the variable x represents the time in years with or without grazing.

The increase in forest litter biomass and the decrease in plant phytovolume were inversely proportional, highlighting the impact of goat grazing. At time 1, a decrease in plant cover was observed, reaching 15.37% (± 4.64 SD), while forest litter biomass cover increased to 51.43% (± 4.81 SD). This pattern was maintained at time 2, when forest litter biomass reached 53.74% (± 3.59 SD). Subsequently, the percentages began to decrease as the plots no longer showed significant differences and the plant cover began its recovery process.

Herbaceous biomass

Herbaceous biomass showed a significant difference between the grazed and ungrazed treatments ($p < 0.001$). At the first observation (time 1), the herbaceous biomass ranged from $1244.64^{\text{A}} \pm 130.90 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ in the grazed plots to

Fig. 3 Phytovolume development from July 2020 to April 2023. Bars represent the mean \pm SD



177.60^B ± 67.90 kg ha⁻¹ in the ungrazed plots. In the subsequent observation (time 2), although the values remained different, the difference was no longer statistically significant, with grazed plots at 242.96^A ± 69.50 kg ha⁻¹ and ungrazed plots at 319.20^A ± 67.90 kg ha⁻¹ (Fig. 4).

Discussion

Plant cover

Grazing caused significant changes in vegetation structure, with a reduction in shrub cover of over 75%. However, there was a very rapid regeneration of shrub cover two years after animal removal, with no differences between grazed and ungrazed plots. Our study highlights the rapid regeneration of shrub vegetation after grazing cessation in cork oak ecosystems located in northern Portugal, in agreement with previous studies (e.g. Bar Massada et al. 2008; Agra and Ne'eman 2011; Dias et al. 2016).

The development of the herbaceous cover was significantly greater in the grazed plot, and this effect persisted for more than two years after the end of grazing. Studies carried out in Mediterranean oak forests (López-Sánchez et al. 2016) confirm our results, indicating that the introduction of livestock in these ecosystems leads to an increase in herbaceous cover. Fernández-Lugo et al. (2013) and Díaz et al. (2007) report a positive effect of grazing on the increase of annual species in Mediterranean climates worldwide.

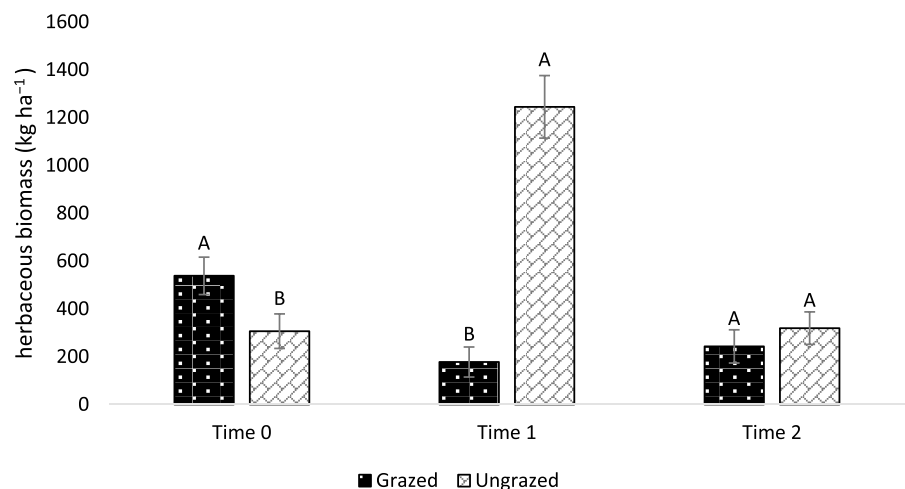
The response of graminoid and herbaceous cover to grazing varies along gradients of productivity after shrub removal (Lezama et al. 2014), and these species may emerge at later stages as the ecosystem recovers. Grazing has several effects on ecosystem dynamics, including an increase in relative humidity. This increase in humidity, as stated by Dovrat et al. (2021) and Oikonomou et al. (2023), facilitates seed germination by breaking dormancy. This process contributes to the enrichment of the vegetation cover.

On the other hand, as shown in this study, grazing promotes a significant increase in litter accumulation in the soil, due to the overturning and trampling of shrubs and faeces deposition. This contributes to an increase in surface organic matter concentrations (0–5 cm), mainly due to the incorporation of animal excreta and the humification of trampled plant components. This soil enrichment is supported by studies by Herrero et al. (2016), Fonseca and Figueiredo (2018) and Fielding (2022), which highlight the role of grazing in soil and vegetation health.

Phytovolume

A grazing strategy with a stocking density of 400 goats per hectare effectively reduced the phytovolume by more than 90%, from 4.255.03 m³ ha⁻¹ to 276.84 m³ ha⁻¹. This result is consistent with the findings of Carreira et al. (2023), who demonstrated that grazing systems could reduce phytovolume by 50% or more, depending on the grazing intensity and the management practices used. Ameray et al. (2022) found that grazing 3.88 sheep ha⁻¹ in an open *Quercus* forest

Fig. 4 Evolution of herbaceous biomass over time in grazed and ungrazed plots. Bars represent the mean ± SD



in north-eastern Portugal reduced phytovolume by 45.29%. The variation in results between studies highlights the importance of grazing intensity, as suggested by Tohiran et al. (2023), which is directly related to the effectiveness of vegetation management in silvopastoral systems.

This targeted grazing study used high grazing pressure for short, scattered periods (1–2 h per day), making it difficult to compare with traditional extensive grazing. For example, Etienne et al. (1993) in southern France recommended a grazing density of 0.6 to 1.4 sheep ha⁻¹ in open landscapes, with a higher density of up to 1.65 sheep ha⁻¹ in forest ecosystems. Similarly, in Spain, Evlagon et al. (2010) documented grazing densities between 1.25 and 2.01 goats per hectare in areas dominated by woody vegetation and 0.98–1.40 goats per hectare in regions characterised by herbaceous vegetation. In comparison, both studies represent a pressure four times lower than that observed in the present study when considering the number of days per year.

In Portugal, in the northeast of Trás-os-Montes, studies by Castro et al. (2022) showed good results with a pressure of 35 animals ha⁻¹ combined with mechanical treatments. These studies show that livestock can play a crucial role in controlling fuel development, as other studies have shown (Mosley and Roselle 2006; Thornes 2005; Davies et al. 2010). The determination of optimal grazing pressure is therefore highly context dependent, influenced by factors such as ecosystem type, local environmental conditions and the desired outcomes of its application (Ameray et al. 2022). This dependency highlights the integral relationship between grazing strategies and their primary objective: the effective reduction of fuel loads. The selection of appropriate grazing intensities therefore requires a nuanced understanding of the specific ecological context and management objectives to ensure that the desired level of biomass removal is achieved (Firn et al. 2013; Díaz-Pereira et al. 2020; Fernández et al. 2020).

Herbaceous biomass

Under Mediterranean conditions, herbaceous biomass typically ranges from 500 kg ha⁻¹ and 5000 kg ha⁻¹ dry mass varies throughout the growing season depending on the type of pasture and whether the area is open or wooded. This variation is influenced

by factors such as climate, grazing patterns and landscape characteristics (Pssyllos et al. 2022).

In this study, the herbaceous biomass value was 1.244.60 kg ha⁻¹, which is consistent with values reported by different researchers in different ecosystems. For example, Castro et al. (2009) found a range from 1.773.30 kg ha⁻¹ to 445.30 kg ha⁻¹ in *Q. pyrenaica* woodlands in northern Portugal. Similarly, Fernández-Moya (2011) observed 1.552.50 kg ha⁻¹ in *dehesas* (scattered tree systems), a value confirmed by López-Carrasco et al. (2015), both in the province of Toledo, central Spain.

In addition, a higher value of 1.975 kg ha⁻¹ was observed in *montado* ecosystems in the southern regions of Portugal, which can be attributed to the presence of more widely spaced trees (Serrano et al. 2022). However, two years after the cessation of grazing, there was a significant decrease in these values to 243.00 kg ha⁻¹ for the grazed plot and 319.20 kg ha⁻¹ for the ungrazed plot.

The reduction in biomass availability in the ungrazed plot between times 1 and 2 is mainly due to the lower precipitation recorded during the winter and spring. From January to April 2022, the accumulated precipitation of 89.6 mm was significantly lower than the 336.3 mm recorded during the same period in 2021. Furthermore, the increase in the average maximum temperature in January and February 2022 may have contributed to this decline. Studies carried out in Mediterranean wooded pastures confirm that herbaceous availability is strongly dependent on precipitation and temperature, with biomass declines commonly observed in summer and autumn in similar studies (Chebli et al. 2017; Rigueiro-Rodríguez et al. 2009; Schlecht et al. 2006). Furthermore, the process of ecological succession suggests that as the shrub layer expands, there is a reduction in the herbaceous layer (Díaz-Villa et al. 2003; Castro et al. 2010).

Vegetation management

Over the last four decades, forest fires have emerged as a major environmental challenge in European Mediterranean countries (San Emeterio et al. 2016). Several studies have highlighted the role of accumulated fuel loads in increasing the frequency and severity of fires (Serra et al. 2008a, b; Santana et al. 2010; Villar et al. 2016; Lasanda et al. 2018). However, fire policies in European Mediterranean countries have

traditionally prioritised firefighting over prevention, a trend that has only recently begun to change (Biro 2009; San-Miguel-Ayanz et al. 2013). The current study is in line with previous research (Ruiz-Mirazo et al. 2011; Etienne 2001) on the temporary effect of grazing in reducing flammable material to levels considered safe to minimise the risk of ignition and fire spread. Specifically, understory phytovolume values greater than $2500\text{m}^3\text{ha}^{-1}$ are associated with increased fire risk (Oliveira 2020).

Livestock grazing management, including timing, frequency and intensity, as well as type of grazing animals, plays an important role in shaping silvopastoral strategies that improve both fuel management and farm profitability.

Studies have shown that integrated crop-livestock-forestry systems provide significant benefits for both environmental sustainability and smallholder profitability (Vinholis et al. 2022). It is therefore essential that future research focuses on assessing grazing pressure and establishing sustainable grazing intervals to ensure effective understory control. Furthermore, integrating economic evaluations of these methods will provide land managers with the necessary decision-making tools to efficiently manage biomass fuels and achieve their objectives.

Conclusion

The study shows that high grazing pressure, specifically a stocking rate of 400 goats per hectare for 12 non-consecutive days, can significantly reduce wild-fire risk by reducing fuel loads and altering vegetation structure, achieving over 90% reduction in shrub volume and 25% reduction in shrub cover in Mediterranean cork oak forests. However, without annual grazing, these effects diminish rapidly, with vegetation recovering within one year and nine months after grazing; highlighting the transient nature of grazing's effects on fuel reduction. Further research is needed to identify the ideal grazing patterns- duration and intensity, species, class to suit the specific vegetation dynamics of each area.

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Data availability No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

Declarations

Competing interests The authors declare no competing interests.

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