1	Meta-analysis shows that wild large
2	herbivores shape ecosystem properties and
3	promote spatial heterogeneity
4	
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32 Abstract

33 Megafauna (animals \geq 45 kg) have likely shaped the Earth's terrestrial ecosystems for millions 34 of years with pronounced impacts on biogeochemistry, vegetation, ecological communities, 35 and evolutionary processes. However, a quantitative and global synthesis of megafauna effects 36 on ecosystems and their generality is lacking. Here, we conducted a meta-analysis on 297 37 studies and 5,990 individual observations across six continents to determine how wild 38 herbivorous megafauna influence ecosystem structure, ecological processes, and spatial 39 heterogeneity and whether these impacts depend on body size and environmental factors. 40 Despite large variability in megafauna effects, we show that megafauna significantly alter soil 41 nutrient availability, promote open vegetation structure, and reduce the abundance of smaller 42 animals. Other responses (14 out of 26), including soil respiration and soil carbon, were not 43 significantly affected. Further, megafauna significantly increase ecosystem heterogeneity by 44 affecting spatial heterogeneity in vegetation structure and the abundance and diversity of 45 smaller animals. Given that spatial heterogeneity is considered an important driver of 46 biodiversity across taxonomic groups and scales, these results support the hypothesis that 47 megafauna may promote biodiversity at large scales. Megafauna declined precipitously in 48 diversity and abundance since the Late Pleistocene, and our results indicate that their 49 restoration would substantially influence Earth's terrestrial ecosystems.

50 Main text

Large mammalian herbivores (\geq 45 kg body mass^{1,2}, henceforth megafauna) have shaped Earth's ecosystems for more than 35 million years^{3,4}. However, in the Late Pleistocene and Early Holocene (50,000 - 7,000 years ago), terrestrial megafauna suffered a global wave of declines and extinctions, strongly linked to the worldwide expansion of humans^{5–8}. These extinctions led to extreme global body size downgrading to levels not seen since the extinction of dinosaurs 66 million years ago⁴ with profound consequences for ecosystem processes^{3,9–11}.

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58 Megafauna are considered disproportionately important for biosphere functioning, because of 59 their ability to access resources that are not available to smaller consumers, to digest high amounts of low-quality biomass, to shape fire dynamics and to move over very large 60 61 distances^{12–14}. This enables large animals to increase nutrient cycling, contribute to seed and nutrient dispersal15, and reshape vegetation13,16 with direct and indirect effects on soil 62 properties and processes^{17,18}, plant diversity, productivity and structure^{12,19} and animal 63 abundance and diversity^{20,21}. These effects are predicted to be modulated by body size^{22,23} and 64 environmental conditions such as nutrient availability²⁴ and productivity^{14,25}. 65

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67 One of the key hypothesized impacts of megafauna is the promotion of ecosystem 68 heterogeneity²⁶, for example by creating local nutrient hotspots^{16,27} and heterogeneity in 69 vegetation structure through physical disturbance²⁸. This can translate to increased diversity of vegetation types on landscape scales¹². In general, biodiversity increases with environmental 70 heterogeneity across spatial scales, biomes and taxonomic groups²⁹, both by increasing 71 72 available niche space (allowing more species to coexist) and by promoting species persistence via the provision of refuges during environmental fluctuations $^{29-31}$. By preventing one or a few 73 species from dominating³² and therefore enabling species with similar ecological attributes to 74 75 coexist in the same ecosystem, this heterogeneity may also lead to functional redundancies and thus promote ecosystem resilience $^{33-35}$. 76

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Although there is strong case-specific evidence and conceptual expectations that large herbivores influence soil properties, vegetation community and structure and other animal^{12–} and ¹⁴, a formal quantitative test for the generality of these impacts across ecosystems and taxonomic groups is lacking¹⁴. As megafauna are particularly affected by past, current and potential future defaunation⁹, addressing this knowledge gap is important.

Using a meta-analytic approach, we compiled and analyzed an extensive global database to quantify the effects of megafauna on ecosystems. Further, we employed a meta-analytic effect size measure that allows estimation of effects on variability, to test their effect on the heterogeneity within each ecosystem response³⁶.

88

Specifically, we sought to investigate the effect of large mammalian herbivores on the diversity and abundance of different taxa (plants, birds, small mammals, invertebrates), vegetation structure and nutrient concentrations, soil nutrients and properties and biogeochemical processes. Moreover, we tested if megafauna promote spatial heterogeneity in these ecosystem responses and if these effects vary predictably with herbivore body mass and environmental covariates.

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97 Results

98 We conducted a systematic literature search to find studies investigating the impact of wild 99 large mammalian herbivores on ecosystems. Studies included contrasts in megafauna density 100 and megafauna presence/absence, with >89 % being exclosure experiments (Fig. S1). 101 Comparisons of areas with high and low megafauna density were only included if those areas 102 were adjacent and were the result of management decisions (e.g., a hunting area vs a protected 103 area). Herbivore effects were calculated as standardized mean difference (Hedges' g) while 104 within-treatment heterogeneity was estimated using the log-ratio between two coefficients of variation (lnCVR) ³⁶. The final dataset consisted of 5,990 data points from 297 studies (each 105 106 representing, for example, one comparison between an exclosure and control) representing 26 107 ecosystem responses (Table S1, Table S2). The dataset was geographically biased towards 108 Europe, North America, South Africa, and Australia (Fig. S2, Fig. S3), towards the Afrotropics 109 (Fig. S4A) and temperate forests (Fig. S4C), and against areas with low temperatures and/or 110 high precipitation (Fig. S4B).

The median area of measurement (i.e., plot size) was 1 m² [95% CI: 0.002 - 25,000 m²] (Fig. S5A), the median treatment duration was 2190 days [95% CI: 365 - 21,900 days] (Fig S5B), the median number of data points per study was 11 [95% CI: 1 - 97] and the median number of studies per response was 15 [95% CI: 6 - 108].

115 Effects of herbivorous megafauna

We used random effects meta-analytic models³⁷ to investigate the overall effect of megafauna on 26 different ecosystem responses and their heterogeneity. Despite high variability in the effects of megafauna, we found a significant impact on 50% of the investigated responses. If not stated otherwise, these are the ones presented in the results.

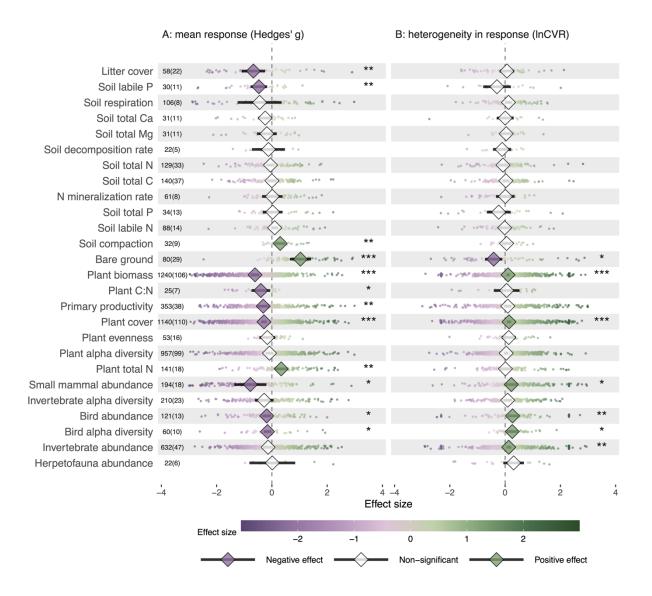
120 Effects on soil

Megafauna moderately decreased soil labile phosphorous (P) (Hedges' g of 0.2 can be
interpreted as small effect, 0.4 as medium effect and ≥0.8 as large effect³⁸; Fig. 1A, Fig 2A,
Table 1). Megafauna also slightly increased soil compaction and strongly increased bare
ground cover while strongly decreasing litter cover (Fig. 1A, Fig 2A, Table 1). Megafauna
decreased heterogeneity in bare ground cover (Fig. 1B, Fig 2B, Table 1).

126 Effect on vegetation

- 127 Megafauna had moderate positive effects on plant nitrogen (N) content (Fig. 1A, Fig 2, Table
- 128 1), moderately reducing plant carbon (C):N ratios (Fig. 1A, Fig 2, Table 1). Moreover, they
- 129 moderately reduced plant cover and plant biomass and slightly reduced primary productivity
- 130 (Fig. 1A, Fig 2A, Table 1). Further, megafauna increased heterogeneity in plant cover and plant
- 131 biomass (Fig. 1B, Fig 2B, Table 1).
- 132 Effect on other animals
- Megafauna strongly reduced the abundance of small mammals and had weak negative effects on bird alpha diversity and abundance (Fig. 1A, Fig 2A, Table 1). They also increased heterogeneity in the abundance of small mammals, invertebrates, and birds, as well as in bird alpha diversity (Fig. 1B, Fig 2B, Table 1).

137



139 Fig. 1 Effects of herbivorous megafauna on mean ecosystem responses and heterogeneity 140 within these responses. Model estimates (\pm 95% confidence intervals) for the different 141 response categories, derived from random-effects meta-analytic models³⁷; see methods for details. Purple symbols indicate a significant negative impact, green symbols a significant 142 143 positive impact, and white symbols a non-significant impact of large herbivores. Stars indicate 144 different significance thresholds: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001. Each point in the 145 background indicates a data point (i.e., a pairwise comparison in a study such as exclosure vs 146 control) used in the analysis of the respective response. The numbers after each label on the y 147 axis provide information about the sample size of the measured response: number of data points (number of studies). A: effect on mean response (Hedges g); B: effect on heterogeneity in 148 149 response (lnCVR).

- 150
- 151
- 152 Notable null results

153 We found no significant mean effect of megafauna on the 14 of 26 tested responses, and on

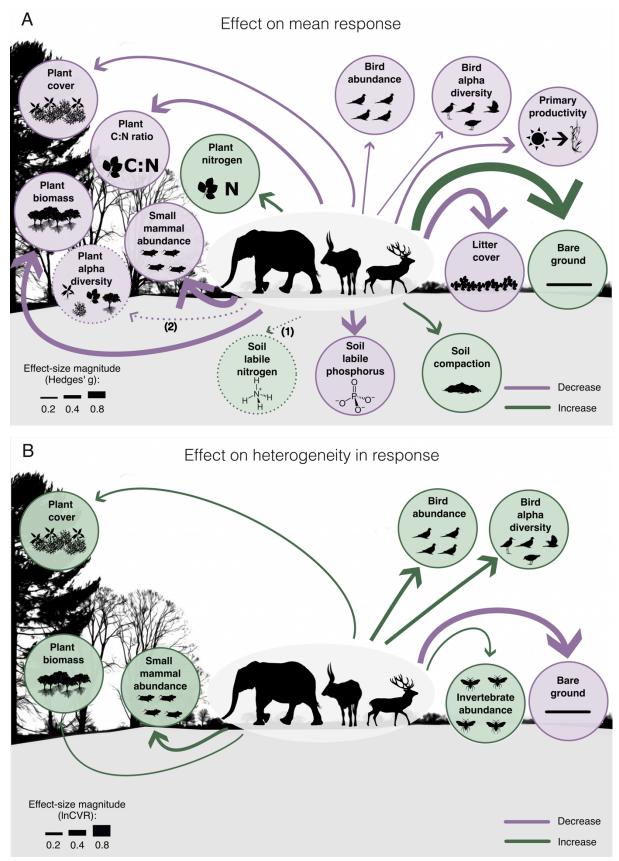
154 the heterogeneity of 19 tested responses ([min, max]: Hedges' g=[-0.27, 0.14], lnCVR=[-0.23,

155 0.23], p=[0.06, 0.96], Fig. 1). Among the more notable responses for which we detected no

156 statistically significant effect on the overall mean response (but see Fig. 2a and Results:

157 Influence of body mass and environmental variables on megafauna impacts) were total and

158 labile soil N and N mineralization rate, soil total C, and plant alpha diversity and evenness.



160 Fig. 2. Impacts of herbivorous megafauna on different ecosystem responses and their

161 heterogeneity. Shown here are the statistically significant impacts of megafauna. All tested 162 responses and their estimates can be found in Fig. 1. Numeric results of the significant models

163 can be found in Table 2. Green indicates an increase and violet a decrease of the mean response

164 or the heterogeneity in the response; arrow widths are scaled by effect-size magnitude. Note

165 that (1) the positive effect on soil labile N is only significant in megafauna communities with

species ≥ 100 kg body mass (Fig. S7) and (2) the negative effect in plant alpha diversity is only significant in megafauna communities without species ≥ 100 kg body mass (Fig. S7).

As a rule of thumb, a hedges' g of 0.2 can be interpreted as small effect, 0.4 as medium effect

169 As a rule of multi, a nedges g of 0.2 can be interpreted as small effect, 0.4 as medium effect 169 and 0.8 as large effect³⁸. A: Mean effect of megafauna herbivores on ecosystem responses. B:

- 170 Effect of megafauna herbivores on spatial heterogeneity in these ecosystems.
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- 172

173**Table 1: Results of significant models.** Model estimates (\pm 95% confidence intervals) for the174different significant response categories, derived from random-effects meta-analytic models³⁷.175Here we used intercept only models which provide a mean estimate of the effect size weighted176by the inverse of the sampling variance and under consideration of the included random177structure (see method for details). The effect size type 'Hedges g' refers to the standardized178mean difference between low and high megafauna herbivore density (or presence/absence)179while lnCVR quantifies differences in spatial heterogeneity. CI = 95 % confidence interval

Measured response	Effect size type	Estimate	Lower CI	Upper CI	p value
Litter cover	Hedges g	-0.67	-1.10	-0.25	0.004
Soil labile P	Hedges g	-0.47	-0.78	-0.17	0.006
Soil compaction	Hedges g	0.30	0.11	0.49	0.006
Bare ground	Hedges g	1.03	0.65	1.41	<0.0001
Bare ground	lnCVR	-0.41	-0.73	-0.10	0.01
Plant biomass	Hedges g	-0.61	-0.77	-0.45	0.0001
Plant C:N	Hedges g	-0.40	-0.73	-0.06	0.0002
Primary productivity	Hedges g	-0.31	-0.51	-0.11	0.003
Plant cover	Hedges g	-0.29	-0.38	-0.19	< 0.0001
Plant total N	Hedges g	0.34	0.11	0.56	0.0005
Plant biomass	lnCVR	0.11	0.05	0.16	0.0002
Plant cover	lnCVR	0.14	0.06	0.22	0.0001
Small mammal abundance	Hedges g	-0.78	-1.36	-0.19	0.01
Bird alpha diversity	Hedges g	-0.15	-0.29	-0.02	0.03
Small mammal abundance	lnCVR	0.23	0.02	0.43	0.03
Bird abundance	Hedges g	-0.19	-0.35	-0.03	0.02
Bird alpha diversity	Hedges g	-0.16	-0.30	-0.02	0.03
Bird abundance	lnCVR	0.27	0.08	0.45	0.008
Bird alpha diversity	lnCVR	0.26	0.05	0.47	0.02
Invertebrate abundance	lnCVR	0.13	0.05	0.2	0.003

181 Influence of body mass and environmental variables

The effects of megafauna are predicted to be dependent on body size^{22,23} and environmental 182 conditions such as nutrient availability²⁴ and productivity²⁵. Therefore, we added body mass 183 (both mean and maximum body size of the community, weighted by relative biomass per 184 185 species for responses with sufficient sample size (>10 studies); see methods for details) and a variety of environmental factors (Table S3) as variables to our models. We added each 186 187 covariate as a single variable and compared the single-term model to its intercept only model, 188 using a likelihood ratio test (LRT). If the covariate significantly improved model quality, we 189 considered it as explaining some of the variability in the effects of megafauna. Moreover, for 190 those responses with sufficient sample size, we divided our data in communities including megaherbivores (≥1000 kg) vs communities without megaherbivores (Fig. S6) and 191 192 communities including herbivores ≥ 100 kg vs without those species (Fig. S7) and analyzed 193 their impact separately.

194 Body mass

Larger-bodied megafauna communities were more likely to increase heterogeneity in total soil N (Fig 3A, Table 2). In this case, the body mass variable here reflects the body size of the biggest animal in the community (i.e., not weighted by relative biomass). Megafauna communities comprising larger-bodied species (body mass weighted by relative biomass per species) were also more likely to increase plant alpha diversity (Fig. 3B, Table 2). None of the other tested effects on ecosystem responses were significantly affected by megafauna body mass (Likelihood ratio test [LRT]=[0.00, 5.97], p=[0.10, 0.99]).

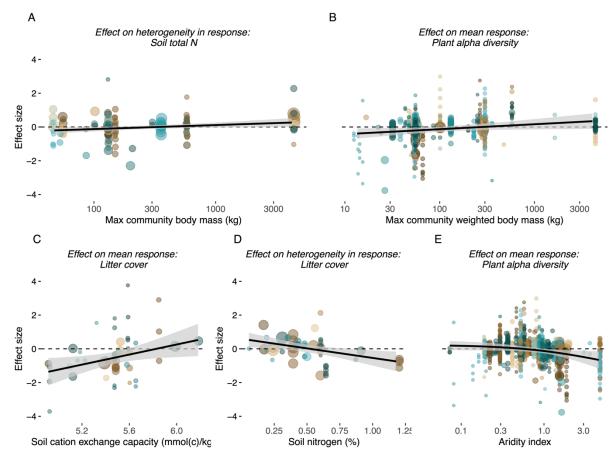
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203 Moreover, megafauna communities that included herbivores ≥100 kg significantly increased
204 soil labile N (Fig. S7) and communities without herbivores ≥100 kg significantly decreased
205 plant alpha diversity (Fig. S7).

206 Environmental covariates

207 Negative effects on litter cover were observed mainly in soils with lower cation exchange
208 capacity (Fig 3C, Table 2), while positive effects on heterogeneity in litter cover occurred
209 more frequently in soils with lower nitrogen content (Fig 3D, Table 2).

- 211 The response of plant alpha diversity was slightly more negative in more humid areas (Fig. 3E,
- Table 2). None of the other tested effects on ecosystem responses was significantly affected by
- 213 our environmental covariates (Likelihood ratio test [LRT]=[0.00, 3.76], p=[0.06, 1.00]).
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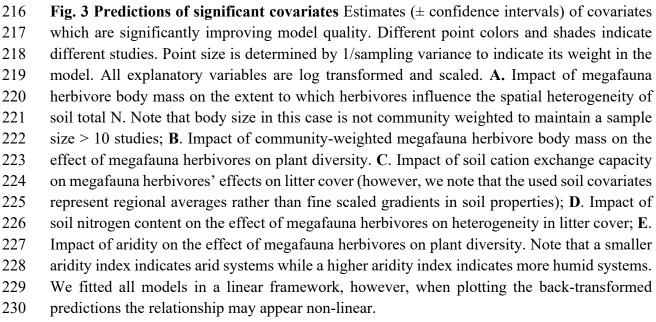


Table 2: Model results of significant covariates. The p-value here refers to the likelihood ratio test which compares the null model with the univariate model in terms of model quality (i.e., explanatory power). p < 0.05 indicates significant improvement of the assembly model compared to the intercept only null model; test is one-sided. CI = 95 % Confidence interval.

Measured	Effect	Tested	Estimat	Lower CI	Upper CI	LRT	p value
response	size type	covariate	е				
Influence of body mass							
Soil total N	lnCVR	Body mass	0.13	-0.03	-0.23	5.40	0.02
Plant alpha diversity	Hedges g	Weighted body mass	0.14	0.01	0.29	4.30	0.04
Influence of environmental covariates							
Litter cover	Hedges g	Soil cation exchange capacity	0.40	0.07	0.72	5.20	0.02
Litter cover	lnCVR	Soil nitrogen content	-0.29	-0.49	-0.09	6.42	0.01
Plant alpha diversity	Hedges g	Aridity index	-0.18	-0.33	-0.03	5.10	0.02

236

237 Discussion

238 Our meta-analysis of 297 studies across six continents shows that herbivorous megafauna 239 shape ecosystems by affecting ecosystem properties and processes across trophic levels and by 240 increasing ecosystem heterogeneity. We confirmed that body size influenced megafauna 241 effects on soil labile N and plant alpha diversity, but that the effect was relatively small and variable. Some environmental factors¹⁴ modulated megafauna effects on ecosystem responses 242 such as plant alpha diversity, and litter cover, whereas we found no evidence for others. 243 Interestingly, and contrary to former meta-analysis and theory^{39,40}, we did not find NPP to 244 explain variation in the effects of megafauna on any tested response. While some responses 245 246 had clear and generalizable patterns (e.g., the decrease in soil labile P and plant biomass), we 247 found large variability in others (e.g., invertebrate abundance and soil total C).

248

Of the 13 soil responses, four were significantly affected by megafauna. Notably, megafauna did not alter the absolute amount of soil C, P and N, but rather the bioavailable forms of N and P (sample size was insufficient to include labile C). Herbivores larger than 100 kg tended to increase the amount of available nitrogen. At the same time, megafauna in general tended to decrease labile P, supporting suggestions that megafauna may push systems towards a higher degree of P-limitation⁴¹. While the increase of N-availability may be explained by megafauna accessing N otherwise locked away in plant biomass and providing it in bioavailable forms via excreta⁴², P may be stored away in skeletons for longer periods⁴¹. Alternatively, the increased availability of soil labile N may stimulate plant growth until P becomes limiting^{43,44} with the consequence that more available P may be stored in vegetation compared to soils not affected by megafauna.

260

Of the seven plant responses, five were significantly impacted. Megafauna increased plant nitrogen content, which could be driven by a combination of elevated soil nitrogen availability from direct megafauna inputs and reduced C:N ratios in young (regrowing) plant tissue^{45,46} (e.g., less "dilution" by structural carbon). Higher plant nitrogen content should have various ecosystem consequences, e.g., by increasing litter quality⁴⁷ or favoring phytophagous insects⁴⁸ and their associated food webs (although we detected no general effect on invertebrate abundance or diversity).

268

Megafauna significantly and strongly decreased plant biomass and cover, litter cover while 269 270 increasing bare ground cover. These effects are expected through biomass consumption, trampling and wallowing^{49,50}. The increase in bare soil may result in increased day-time soil 271 272 temperature and reduced moisture due to increased exposure to solar radiation and increased runoff⁵¹, which may have cascading consequences on other soil properties. However, despite 273 274 the changes in organic matter (i.e., reduced quantity of biomass, increased quality of litter) and 275 increased soil compaction, we did not find consistent changes in bulk soil C, or soil 276 decomposition and respiration, which is in line with previous meta-analyses^{52,53}.

277

Our results confirm the ability of megafauna to promote open and semi-open habitats at the plot scale by decreasing plant biomass and cover^{12,14,54}. Moreover, megafauna increased heterogeneity in vegetation structure between plots, which suggests that megafauna increase vegetation structural diversity also on the landscape scale. However, most exclosure experiments, and vegetation sampling methods, are too small to quantify megafauna impacts at larger spatial scales directly.

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Overall, megafauna significantly decreased primary productivity. However, this result is difficult to interpret since variables used to quantify NPP vary widely among studies. One possible reason may be that plants might shift some of their productivity belowground, resulting in e.g., increased fine root biomass and root exudation (which may ultimately

contribute to the accumulation of persistent soil organic matter¹⁷), highlighting the need for
 more research on the below-ground impacts of large animals.

291

Consistent with previous work^{14,54}, the overall effect of megafauna—from deer to elephants— 292 293 on plant alpha diversity was non-significant. However, we found that smaller-bodied (i.e., 294 < 100 kg) megafauna communities tended to have more negative effects on plant alpha 295 diversity while larger-bodied herbivore communities tended to have slight positive effects. This 296 could be because larger animals can eat lower-quality food^{55,56} such as branches and stems, which may result in proportionally greater impacts on dominant plant species and thus release 297 less competitive plants from competition ^{25,57}. The negative effect of smaller megafauna may 298 299 reflect lack of predation pressure due to anthropogenic predator-removal⁵⁸, which allows 300 smaller species to access more risky habitats. Furthermore, the differential impact of 301 megafauna of different size classes supports the principle that smaller herbivores cannot substitute for larger megafauna¹⁴ and suggests that the anthropogenically simplified and 302 smaller-bodied herbivore communities^{59,60} currently found in large parts of the world lack 303 304 important functions.

305

306 Megafauna effects on other animals were measured using six variables, of which four were 307 significantly impacted. Consistent with previous work, megafauna strongly reduced the abundances of small mammals (i.e., rodents)¹⁴ at small scales, but simultaneously increased 308 heterogeneity in this response. A decrease in small mammals in the presence of megafauna 309 310 might in part be due to lower vegetation cover or trampling of burrows, although evidence suggests that feeding competition is the main mechanism of control²⁰. A reduction of 311 312 competition and increase of vegetation cover in exclosures may also lead smaller consumers to 313 actively move into these relatively small patches that now provide habitat of a higher quality 314 (greater cover from predators, more food abundance) for smaller consumers compared to the 315 surroundings⁶¹. These larger numbers of smaller animals may in turn have knock-on effects on 316 the rest of the system, e.g., by affecting plant species whose seeds are eaten primarily by rodents, resulting in lower recruitment than in areas with large herbivores²⁰. 317

318

The decrease of bird alpha diversity and abundance could potentially be explained by decreasing nesting spaces on small scales and may seem counterintuitive as both bird abundance and diversity are known to increase with increasing habitat heterogeneity⁶², for which we also find evidence. However, the exact shape of heterogeneity-diversity relationships can differ between taxonomic groups, trophic levels and across scales⁶³ and depends on other factors such as resource availability and environmental conditions⁶⁴ This suggests that the megafauna-induced increases in heterogeneity may lead to non-linear effects on bird abundance and diversity. Additionally, the effect of megafauna on the abundance and diversity of birds is most likely to be positive at intermediate disturbance levels but can be negative at higher levels⁶⁵. However, more research is needed to disentangle the relationship between increased heterogeneity and decreased bird alpha diversity such as found here.

330

331 A key outcome of our study is the demonstration of pervasive positive impacts of megafauna 332 on heterogeneity (not consistently statistically significant, but almost never significantly 333 negative; Fig. 1b). By increasing heterogeneity in vegetation structure, for example, megafauna 334 may increase the amount of available habitat types and structural complexity, allowing more species to coexist⁶⁶. Given that heterogeneity is known as a key driver of biodiversity across 335 scales and taxonomic groups^{29,35,67}, megafauna have the potential to contribute diversity at 336 337 larger scales. Moreover, increased heterogeneity in vegetation structure may also lead to 338 microclimatic variation which has also been shown to be an important driver of community functional diversity⁶⁸. Therefore, it has been suggested that small-scale environmental 339 340 heterogeneity (such as studied here) is a strong predictor of functional diversity⁶⁸. Previous 341 work has also shown that megafauna may prevent one or a few species from dominating all 342 available niches within its ecological range and thus allow different species with both similar and different ecological roles to coexist^{29,32}. Hence, megafauna could contribute to the 343 344 establishment of functional redundancies in ecological roles and subsequently to ecosystem resilience^{35,69}. This becomes particularly important as ecosystem heterogeneity has been shown 345 346 to increase the adaptive capacity of ecosystems to respond to climate change³⁵.

347 Limitations and recommendations for future studies

348 Small plot sizes in exclosure experiments along with the spatial scale at which responses were 349 measured are a major limitation to unraveling megafauna impacts at larger scales. Additionally, 350 we found significant signs of publication bias in the studies analyzed here (Fig. S8, Table S4) and spatial bias towards better-funded and researched parts of the world^{64,70} (Fig. 4, Fig. S2-351 S4), which may hamper generalisations⁷¹. Despite these biases, our results are in line with 352 theory and recent reviews^{13,14} (which likely suffer from the same biases). Although it is 353 plausible that some of the observed effects on megafauna translate to larger spatial scales -354 355 such as the positive effects on heterogeneity - the results presented here only provide reliable information about effects at the plot scale. Consequently, studying the impact of megafauna on ecosystems at larger scales (i.e., landscape scale and larger) is a major challenge and will contribute significantly to our understanding of megafauna effects. Since setting up experiments on landscape scales is challenging, better use of natural experiments and counterfactuals and available landscape-extent data (e.g., from remote sensing⁷²), will be key avenues in further quantifying the role of megafauna in the Earth system.

362

363 Despite testing a broad range of environmental covariates and megafauna body size, a large 364 amount of the observed variation in megafauna impacts on ecosystems remains unexplained. 365 Moreover, most of the covariates that significantly improved model quality had only small 366 effect sizes. Part of this unexplained variation may be due to variation in megafauna densities and herbivory pressure, which was not reported in most studies. Other context dependencies 367 368 related to historic megafauna extinctions or historic human land-use may also affect both the 369 starting conditions when exclosure experiments were initiated and subsequent trajectories in 370 response variables, e.g. through impacts on regional species pools, soil seed banks, fire regimes or hydrology⁷³. 371

372 Conclusion and outlook

373 The results presented here show that megafauna have strong effects on ecosystems. By 374 modifying soil and plant nutrients, vegetation structure and altering consumer populations, 375 megafauna are expected to have numerous other downstream effects on ecosystem functioning 376 and community structure. Moreover, by increasing heterogeneity megafauna may promote 377 biodiversity at landscape scales, thus favoring diverse ecosystems that may be more ecologically resilient^{35,69}. However, we found no evidence for other hypothesized effects of 378 379 megafauna, such as on soil respiration and total soil C content, or for a modulating effect of 380 NPP on megafauna effects. Likewise, we found high variability in megafauna effects, indicating 381 underlying contextual complexity and highlighting the need for globally distributed 382 experiments⁷⁴.

383

Our results provide quantitative evidence for some findings in a recent extensive review of several megafauna effects¹⁴, such as the importance of body size in modulating the impact of herbivores, top-down trophic effects on vegetation, the importance of megafauna to nutrient cycling, the suppression of smaller animals and increased ecosystem heterogeneity when megafauna are present. These general patterns in how megafauna affect ecosystems,

biodiversity and Earth system functioning underpin the global importance of megafauna and highlight the need for process-based work that allows predictions of megafauna impacts, specifically with regard to ecosystem restoration in a rapidly changing world¹⁴.

392

Considering the variety of effects we could confirm in this meta-analysis, we argue that ecosystems that lost their wild megafauna during the late Quaternary are likely missing key processes^{3,8,10,75}. This loss is expected to continue given ongoing declines of large-bodied species^{9,58,76}. Therefore, we advocate for their carefully planned and implemented restoration through actions such as trophic rewilding⁷⁷; actions that may become increasingly important in the face of future environmental change.

399

400 Methods

401 Literature search and digitization

This meta-analysis is part of a larger project aiming to understand how large (> 45 kg body 402 403 weight) terrestrial mammalian herbivores can affect different aspects of ecosystems (e.g., Lundgren et al., in revision]). We searched Web of Science (www.webofscience.com) on 18th 404 405 February 2021 with a string of search terms that included the common names and latin genera of all terrestrial mammalian megafauna species (common names from HerbiTraits v1.2⁷⁸) 406 separated with an 'OR' operand, combined with the following search terms: "disturb*, graz*, 407 408 brows*, impact*, effect, affect, disrupt, facilitate, invasi*, ecosystem*, vegetat*, plant*, 409 fauna*, reptil*, amphib*, bird*, rodent*, fish*, invertebrat*, insect*, soil*, carbon, climate, 410 albedo, river*, riparian, desert*, forest*, tundra, decomposition, grassland*, savanna*, 411 chaparral, scrub, shrub, diversity, heterogeneity, extinction, richness, environment, reptile*, ecolog*, hydrolog*, disturbance, density, biodiversity, response*, ecosystem, herbaceous, 412 413 canopy, germination, cover, pollinator*, tree, nutrient*, understory, erosion, grass*, vegetation, 414 community, exclosure, competition, effect*, abundance, productivity" in combination with the 415 topic filter: "WC=(Ecology OR Zoology OR Environmental Sciences OR Biodiversity 416 Conservation OR Evolutionary Biology OR Geography Physical OR Remote Sensing OR Plant 417 Sciences OR Multidisciplinary Science OR Forestry OR Entomology OR Marine & Freshwater 418 Biology OR Mycology OR Biology OR Oceanography OR Ornithology OR Behavioral 419 Sciences OR Fisheries" After removing duplicate studies with the function

420 find_duplicates of the R package 'revtools' ⁷⁹, this led to 62,628 hits. After screening all
421 titles and removing obviously unsuitable articles, this number was reduced to 2369 studies.

422 The literature list was extended by studies used in other meta-analyses e.g., 39,80 and found in 423 reference lists of studies we downloaded. We supplemented the list further with focused 424 Google Scholar searches on the 15th of July 2022, using the following terms: "ungulate impacts island*", "introduced goat impact island*", "introduced deer impact*", "feral camel impact*", 425 "wild OR feral boar OR hog OR pig OR feral pig OR swine impact*", "feral cattle impact*", 426 427 "invasive ungulate hawaii OR guam OR new zealand OR pacific island OR new caledonia OR 428 galapagos OR caribbean OR oceanic island" and a Web of Science search on the 22nd of December 2022 using the search string "herbivore* AND (plant* OR soil) AND nutrient* 429 AND response*". This led to the addition of 38 and 15 studies respectively (Fig. S9 for Prisma 430

431 chart).

432

433 Considering that ecosystem responses can differ drastically between wild and domesticated animals ^{20,81}, we only considered studies investigating wild megafauna populations. We 434 435 excluded studies investigating only herbivores < 45 kg. Further, we only included studies that 436 compared adjacent areas of low (mostly no megafauna) and high megafauna densities due to 437 known factors like exclosures, policy-driven differences (hunting versus no-hunting in adjacent 438 properties), and differences in introduction or eradication histories (adjacent islands with and 439 without megafauna). Given that adding nativeness to our models never improved model fit (LRT=[0.00, 3.62], p=[0.12, 0.95], Fig. S10), except for plant cover (LRT = 4.03, p = 0.04, but440 441 with the same effect direction for both introduced (g = -0.42 [-0.58, -0.26]) and native megafauna (g = -0.22 [-0.32, -0.11]), Fig. S11), we also included non-native megafauna in our 442 443 analysis.



Response sphere
Animals
Plants
Soil

444

Fig. 4 Locations of the studies used in this meta-analysis. Points appear darker if there are
several studies at the same location. More detailed maps including response directions can be
found in Fig. S1 and Fig. S2.

448

449 In grouping the individual ecosystem responses, we attempted to find a compromise between 450 maximizing sample size and ecological accuracy. Apart from obviously incorrect groupings 451 (e.g., NDVI as measurement for PP), we have essentially followed the categories used by the 452 authors of the respective studies. For example, primary productivity responses are mainly 453 composed of various growth rate measurements (such as tree growth rate, total crown growth, 454 leaf growth rate, etc.). All included types of measurements for each response can be found in 455 the `Data and supplementary files` folder on Figshare (file name: 456 "measured responses R1.csv").

We exclude all before-after comparisons (e.g., a plot measured prior to construction of an enclosure and then again afterwards) due to the high rates of change in many ecological systems over time, such as afforestation, climate shifts, and succession. Studies investigating plant nutrients but reporting nutrient values in units per area were also excluded because any differences possibly rather reflect biomass removal due to megafauna foraging than actual changes in nutrient concentrations.

463

We digitized measures of central tendency (mean, median), variability (standard deviation, interquartile ranges), error (standard error, confidence intervals) and sample sizes for each 466 response in each study. We used the 'Figure_Calibration' plugin ⁸² in ImageJ 1.53k
467 (www.imagej.nih.gov/ij/) to extract data from figures.

468

We also digitized relevant information associated with each observation, which included time since treatment (e.g., exclosure construction or island colonization), study location (latitude, longitude; Fig. 4), reported density of megafauna (converted to biomass per hectare), megafauna nativeness and relative abundance of megafauna (in the case of multispecies megafauna communities). However, not all studies reported these variables and in most cases sample size was too small to test for them specifically (i.e., only 172 out of 297 studies reported megafauna densities).

476 Covariates

477 Covariates were selected based on *a priori* hypotheses and were expected to influence
478 ecosystem responses to megafauna.

Environmental covariates were extracted for each study location using the function exact_extract from the R package 'exact extractr' version 0.8.2 ⁸³ and the extract function from the 'terra' package version 1.7-3 ⁸⁴. These variables included maximum annual temperature (MAT) ⁸⁵, net primary productivity (NPP) ⁸⁶ and the aridity index (AI)⁸⁷. Moreover, we extracted soil pH, soil cation exchange capacity, soil nitrogen and soil clay content from the SoilGrids database ⁸⁸.

485

Megafauna body mass was extracted from the HerbiTraits v1.2 database ⁷⁸ for all species in 486 487 our dataset (including herbivores < 45 kg that were part of the experimental manipulation, Fig. 488 S12). Many studies manipulated multiple megafauna species simultaneously. To account for 489 this, we calculated community-weighted body mass by multiplying species-specific body mass 490 (BM) by the proportional contribution of that species' biomass to the total biomass of the 491 community(RB). For example, a megafauna community consisting of two species, one with a 492 body weight of 100 kg that accounts for 80% of the biomass of the entire community, and the 493 second species with a weight of 1000 kg that accounts for 20% of the biomass of the 494 community. The unweighted mean body mass of the community would be 550, while the 495 weighted body mass of the community would be 140 kg, which is calculated as in equation (1) 496 and exemplified in equation (2):

$$(BM_{species 1} \times RB_{species 1} + \dots + BM_{species n} \times RB_{species n})/n$$
 (1)

$$(100 x 0.8 + 1000 x 0.2)/2$$
 (2)

501

Relative biomass estimations were computed based on either the relative abundance or absolute density estimates per species. However, as using only these community-weighted variables in some cases reduced our sample size drastically, and weighted and unweighted covariates were strongly correlated (rho =0.94, p = < 0.0001), we decided to use the unweighted body mass in cases where using the weighted covariate would reduce sample size to < 10 studies.

507 **Data analysis**

All data analysis was performed in R version 4.2.2⁸⁹. We calculated the effect size and 508 corresponding sampling variance of the megafauna treatment (low vs. high density) as 509 standardized mean difference, also known as Hedges' g (g)⁹⁰. Hedges' g is a unitless 510 measurement⁹¹. As a rule of thumb, a value of 0.2 can be interpreted as small effect, 0.4 as 511 512 medium effect and 0.8 as large effect. However, given the context dependency of the importance of those categories, the exact values should be interpreted with care^{38,91}. To 513 514 investigate if megafauna has an impact on the variability of the parameters of interest we further 515 calculated the log transformed coefficient of variation ratio (lnCVR) ^{36,92}. This effect size 516 quantifies the between-plot heterogeneity within each reported comparison between high and 517 low megafauna density. It therefore primarily reflects variation among plots, i.e. spatial heterogeneity within an exclosure or control site, uncorrected for differences in spatial grain 518 519 (plot size) and extent (study area) between studies. First we transformed all medians to means 520 and error measurements to standard deviation (SD) with the function ge.mean.sd from the 521 R package 'estmeansd' version $1.0.0^{93}$. Then we employed the escalc function of the 'metafor' package version 3.5-12³⁷ which is using the observed mean, SD and group size of 522 523 both treatment groups to calculate effect size and variation ³⁷.

524

To account for potential non-independence in the effect size (i.e., due to repeated measures in the same study) we fit random-effects meta-analytic models with the rma.mv function of the 'metafor' package ³⁷ and added citation as random effect. Because some of the studies reported time series data, we also included an ordered time series variable for each individual experiment ID (e.g., a specific nutrient response per study) in our random effects. We modeled the response variable (hedges g or lnCVR), either against the intercept only or against one covariate of interest at a time and used the sampling variance to weigh each data point. Studies with larger sample sizes and/or lower variance thus have higher weight in models³⁷. For modeling purposes, we took the natural logarithm of those covariates without normal distribution and standardized all covariates using the scale function in base R (R core team 2022) to approach a normal distribution and to account for the different units and thus magnitude differences between the variables.

537

538 To test the influence of sample size, we selected the five responses with the largest sample size 539 and bootstrapped the model 1000 times for different numbers of studies (n = 3, 5, 8, 10, 15, Fig. S13). We find that as the number of included studies increases, the frequency distribution 540 541 of estimates narrows considerably toward the confidence interval of the model with the full 542 sample size (Fig. S13). While we observe a large variation for models with 5 or fewer studies, 543 we notice a stabilization toward a sample size of 10 studies, which is why we excluded 544 responses with fewer than 10 studies from the covariate analysis. Nativeness was only tested 545 on ecosystem responses with ≥ 5 studies with introduced and ≥ 5 studies with native species.

546

547 We compared the assembly model of each covariate with the respective intercept only model, 548 using a likelihood ratio test via the anova function of the `metafor` package^{37,94}.

549 After running all models we followed a leave-one-out approach to identify influential studies

550 (Cook's Distance > 1^{95}) using the cooks.distance function of the 'metafor' package^{37,96},

and removed studies that showed cook's distance of larger than 1.

552

553 For those responses which have a sufficient sample size we also tested the effect of treatment 554 duration (Fig. S14) and area of measurement (Fig. S15). We further tested the effect of biomass 555 lost due to treatment (as proxy of megafauna density) on the effect size magnitude of responses 556 with sufficient sample size but did not find it to improve model quality for any tested response. 557 To account for the specific characteristics of megaherbivores (terrestrial megafauna herbivores $(\geq 1000 \text{ kg})^{23}$, we performed an additional sensitivity analysis were we tested the effects of 558 559 megaherbivores and megafauna herbivores < 1000 kg on those responses with sufficient 560 sample size separately (Fig. S6). We further performed a similar analysis for large herbivores 561 \geq 100 kg vs smaller megafauna herbivores (<100 kg) (Fig. S7). Moreover, we tested the effect 562 of megafauna in different biome categories (namely temperate forests, temperate grasslands,

tropical forests, tropical grasslands, and mediterranean forests) separately for those responseswith sufficient sample size (Fig. S16, Fig. S17).

565

566 To check for publication bias we used funnel plots ⁹⁷ via the funnel function of the 'metafor' 567 package ³⁷ (Fig. S8). We further performed regression correlation tests for funnel plot 568 asymmetry ⁹⁸ via the regtest function from the 'metafor' package ³⁷ to adjust for the overall 569 mean ⁹⁹ (Table S4).

570

571 Data availability

All data are available on figshare:
https://figshare.com/projects/Data_and_scripts_for_manuscript_Worldwide_evidence_that_w
ild_megafauna_shape_ecosystem_properties_and_promote_spatial_heterogeneity_/180031¹⁰⁰

576 Code availability

All figshare: 577 core analysis and figure scripts available are on 578 https://figshare.com/projects/Data and scripts for manuscript Worldwide evidence that w 579 ild megafauna shape ecosystem properties and promote spatial heterogeneity /180031100 580

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Author contributions 593 594 Conceptualization: JT, EJL, ElR, AJA, JCS, JAK 595 Methodology: JT, EJL, MT Data analysis: JT, EJL 596 597 Investigation: JT, EJL, JAK 598 Visualization: JT, EJL 599 Project administration: JT, EJL, JCS 600 Main supervision: EJL, JCS Co-Supervision: ElR, AJA, JK 601 602 Writing - original draft: JT, ElR, AJA, RB, JK, JAK, MT, EJL, JCS 603 Writing - review & editing: JT, ElR, AJA, RB, JK, JAK, EJL, JCS 604 **Competing Interests Statement** 605 606 The authors declare no competing interests. References 607 608 609 1. Moleón, M. et al. Rethinking megafauna. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 287, 20192643 (2020). 610 611 2. Martin, P. S. & Wright, H. E. Pleistocene Extinctions: The Search for a Cause. (Yale 612 University Press, 1967). 613 3. Galetti, M. et al. Ecological and evolutionary legacy of megafauna extinctions. Biological 614 Reviews 93, 845-862 (2018). Smith, F. A., Elliott Smith, R. E., Lyons, S. K. & Payne, J. L. Body size downgrading of 615 4. 616 mammals over the late Quaternary. Science 360, 310-313 (2018). 617 5. Sandom, C., Faurby, S., Sandel, B. & Svenning, J.-C. Global late Quaternary megafauna 618 extinctions linked to humans, not climate change. Proc. R. Soc. B. 281, 20133254 (2014).

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