

1 **Wild vs. domestic ungulate ecosystem impacts: understanding functional differences**  
2 **requires greater focus on mechanisms**

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15 **Abstract:**  
16

17 Ungulates play vital roles in ecological systems, shaping plant biomass and diversity via  
18 herbivory and impacting soil properties through trampling and nutrient deposition. As ungulate  
19 communities fluctuate across the globe, the extent to which wild ungulates and domestic  
20 livestock can play similar ecological roles is an increasingly vital - and fraught - question. Here,  
21 we synthesized the literature directly comparing wild and domestic ungulate effects on above-  
22 and belowground ecosystem responses to assess the direction and relative strength of species'  
23 impacts within shared environments. We then investigated the intrinsic and extrinsic  
24 mechanisms researchers identified as driving differences in ecosystem responses to wild and  
25 domestic ungulates. Overall, our synthetic review revealed that surprisingly few studies directly  
26 compare the effects of wild and domestic ungulates, and even fewer explicitly consider the  
27 mechanisms underlying observed outcomes. We found that wild and domestic ungulate effects  
28 on plant and soil variables are overwhelmingly similar in kind, differing in intensity rather than  
29 direction, with domestic ungulates exhibiting stronger effects on ecosystem responses.  
30 Specifically, livestock appear to reduce plant biomass and cover more than wild species, but  
31 wild ungulates exhibit more positive effects on plant diversity. Diet and stocking density were by  
32 far the most frequently referenced mechanisms explaining differences between wild and

33 domestic ungulates, and other mechanisms (e.g. behavior, movement, veterinary treatments)  
34 were rarely considered, let alone tested explicitly. Thus, more intentional study of the intrinsic  
35 and extrinsic factors underlying ungulate effects on ecosystems, and particularly on  
36 belowground processes, is necessary for a more complete understanding of the functional  
37 interchangeability - or irreplaceability - of wild and domestic ungulates in a rapidly changing  
38 world.

39

40 **Keywords:** wild ungulates, livestock, ecosystem functioning, primary productivity, plant  
41 diversity, belowground processes, regenerative agriculture, ecological restoration

42

43 **Introduction:**

44 Large mammalian herbivores, and particularly ungulates, play vital roles in ecological  
45 systems and human societies (Pringle et al. 2023). Ungulates, or hoofed mammals, are major  
46 food sources for people and non-human predators, and the resources they produce (e.g., hide,  
47 fiber, horns) have provided vital materials for clothing, tools, and cultural artifacts for millennia  
48 (Pascual-Rico et al. 2021; Velamazán et al. 2020). Beyond providing resources to other  
49 consumers, however, ungulates can also exert strong top-down effects on ecosystems.  
50 Historically common in many terrestrial biomes, ungulates shape plant biomass and diversity via  
51 selective consumption of plant material (Schmitz 2008). Furthermore, ungulates impact soil  
52 properties through trampling and nutrient deposition in the form of dung and urine (Bardgett &  
53 Wardle 2003; Kitchell et al. 1979). Accordingly, the density and composition of ungulate  
54 communities can have important implications for primary productivity, carbon sequestration, fire  
55 intensity, and numerous other ecosystem functions.

56 The ecological and cultural importance of ungulates are exemplified by both wild and  
57 domestic species; however, there are key differences in the nature and extent of wild and  
58 domestic ungulate impacts on landscapes worldwide (Pringle et al. 2023). Though wild

59 ungulates account for half of all wild mammalian biomass, domestic ungulates are currently far  
60 more numerous and widespread, with domestic cattle alone contributing 42 times the biomass  
61 of all wild ungulates combined (Greenspoon et al. 2023). As anthropogenic activities have  
62 contributed to drastic declines in wild ungulate populations across the globe, animal agriculture  
63 has proliferated, such that domestic species have largely displaced wild populations in many  
64 regions (Sandom et al. 2014, Ripple et al. 2015). At the same time, some wild ungulates (e.g.  
65 deer in suburban North America) have exhibited large population spikes due to the eradication  
66 of predators, access to anthropogenic resources such as fertilized crops and fields, and  
67 deliberate supplemental feeding by humans (Côté et al. 2004, Jones et al. 2014). These  
68 changes in mammalian communities have led to substantial environmental change, even  
69 beyond the direct consequences of human habitat alteration, including woody plant  
70 encroachment (Bakker et al. 2016), dryland degradation (Asner et al. 2004), and plant species  
71 invasions (Averill et al. 2018). As a result, those tasked with managing lands with wild and/or  
72 domestic species have had to confront the consequences of ungulate population shifts -  
73 whether intentional or accidental - on ecosystem functioning in multi-use landscapes.

74         Accordingly, the extent to which wild and domestic species can play similar ecological  
75 roles is an increasingly vital - and fraught - question. Environmental protection and agricultural  
76 production both require effective management of herbivore communities, and the functional  
77 similarity - or dissimilarity - of wild and domestic ungulates are invoked by a wide spectrum of  
78 stakeholders to support competing policies and land management strategies. Many  
79 regenerative agriculture movements are based on the philosophy that, under appropriate  
80 management, domestic ungulates can replicate the effects of wild ungulates on ecosystems and  
81 enhance desired ecological functions such as carbon sequestration, particularly in landscapes  
82 with long histories of herbivory (Kleppel & Frank 2022). Furthermore, some conservation efforts  
83 have proposed instrumentalizing such functional redundancy through strategic livestock grazing  
84 to promote the restoration of landscapes with extirpated or extinct wild ungulates (Gordon et al.

85 2021, Kleppel & Frank 2022, Lundgren et al. 2020). Others have argued that livestock species  
86 and wild ungulates are fundamentally non-equivalent because wild species often have long  
87 coevolutionary histories with vegetation and exhibit unique adaptations to a given landscape  
88 (Reinhart et al. 2022). Thus, many conservationists hold that ecological restoration should  
89 necessarily entail the promotion of native species and the reduction of animal agriculture,  
90 particularly as livestock production often requires more intensive resource exploitation to be  
91 profitable in a market economy. Addressing and reconciling these competing perspectives is  
92 critical to both conservation and food production under shifting social and environmental  
93 conditions.

94 Evidence in support of each of these arguments can be found (e.g. Price et al. 2022,  
95 Lundgren et al. 2024), and it is clear that the extent to which wild and domestic ungulates have  
96 similar or distinct impacts on ecosystem functioning is highly scale- and context-dependent.  
97 Thus, truly understanding the contexts in which wild ungulates and livestock are ecologically  
98 interchangeable - as well as the environmental consequences of species turnover when they  
99 are not - necessitates a more thorough investigation of the mechanisms driving ungulate effects  
100 on plants and soil (Pringle et al. 2023, Monk 2024). Many of these mediating factors may be  
101 traits inherent to specific ungulate species, such as body size (which could influence the type of  
102 plants herbivores have access to or the extent of soil trampling; Cumming and Cumming 2003,  
103 Trepel et al. 2024, Lundgren et al. 2024), physiological adaptations (which could determine how  
104 far herbivores can travel from water sources or what microenvironments they can tolerate;  
105 Allred et al. 2011, Sitters et al. 2009), or movement and migration habits (which could mediate  
106 seasonality of herbivory or patterns of nutrient deposition on the landscape; Bauer and Hoyer  
107 2014, Geremia et al. 2019). When such intrinsic mechanisms differ greatly between species,  
108 wild and domestic ungulates are unlikely to act as effective ecological surrogates for one  
109 another.

110           However, many mechanisms that determine the nature of ungulate impacts are extrinsic  
111 factors resulting from human management or environmental context rather than intrinsic species  
112 traits. Stocking density and grazing intensity determine overall levels of herbivory, influencing  
113 plant biomass and cover; similarly, anthropogenic barriers to ungulate movement such as  
114 fencing and highways can drive the spatial distribution of herbivory (Boone and Hobbs 2004,  
115 Frank et al. 2016, Prokopenko et al. 2017, Wells et al. 2022). Where these factors are largely  
116 responsible for the ecological impacts of herbivores, shifts in management strategies could lead  
117 to increased functional redundancy between wild and domestic ungulates. Yet despite these  
118 nuances, there has hitherto been insufficient synthetic research on the mechanisms and  
119 functional traits (beyond species identity) that can generally predict whether wild and domestic  
120 ungulates can function as ecological surrogates (Öllerer et al. 2019, Pringle et al. 2023, Schieltz  
121 and Rubenstein 2016), or whether such ecological surrogacy can extend beyond effects on  
122 aboveground variables to influence belowground plant productivity and soil properties (Andriuzzi  
123 and Wall 2017, Pringle et al. 2023).

124           Here, our overarching goals were to (a) assess whether there are consistent patterns in  
125 the relative effects of wild and domestic ungulates on above- and belowground ecosystem  
126 responses, and (b) leverage the primary literature to identify the key mechanisms that underlie  
127 these observed differences and similarities between domestic and wild ungulates. First, we  
128 synthesized the literature directly comparing wild and domestic ungulate effects on ecosystem  
129 functions and properties (both above- and belowground) to assess the direction and relative  
130 strength of species' impacts within shared environments. We then reviewed the possible  
131 mechanisms that can mediate the impacts of distinct ungulate species on vegetation and soil.  
132 Finally, we investigated the mechanisms to which these outcomes were attributed across  
133 studies, identifying insights and research priorities that emerged as requisite for a more  
134 complete understanding of the functional interchangeability - or irreplaceability - of wild and  
135 domestic ungulates in a rapidly changing world.

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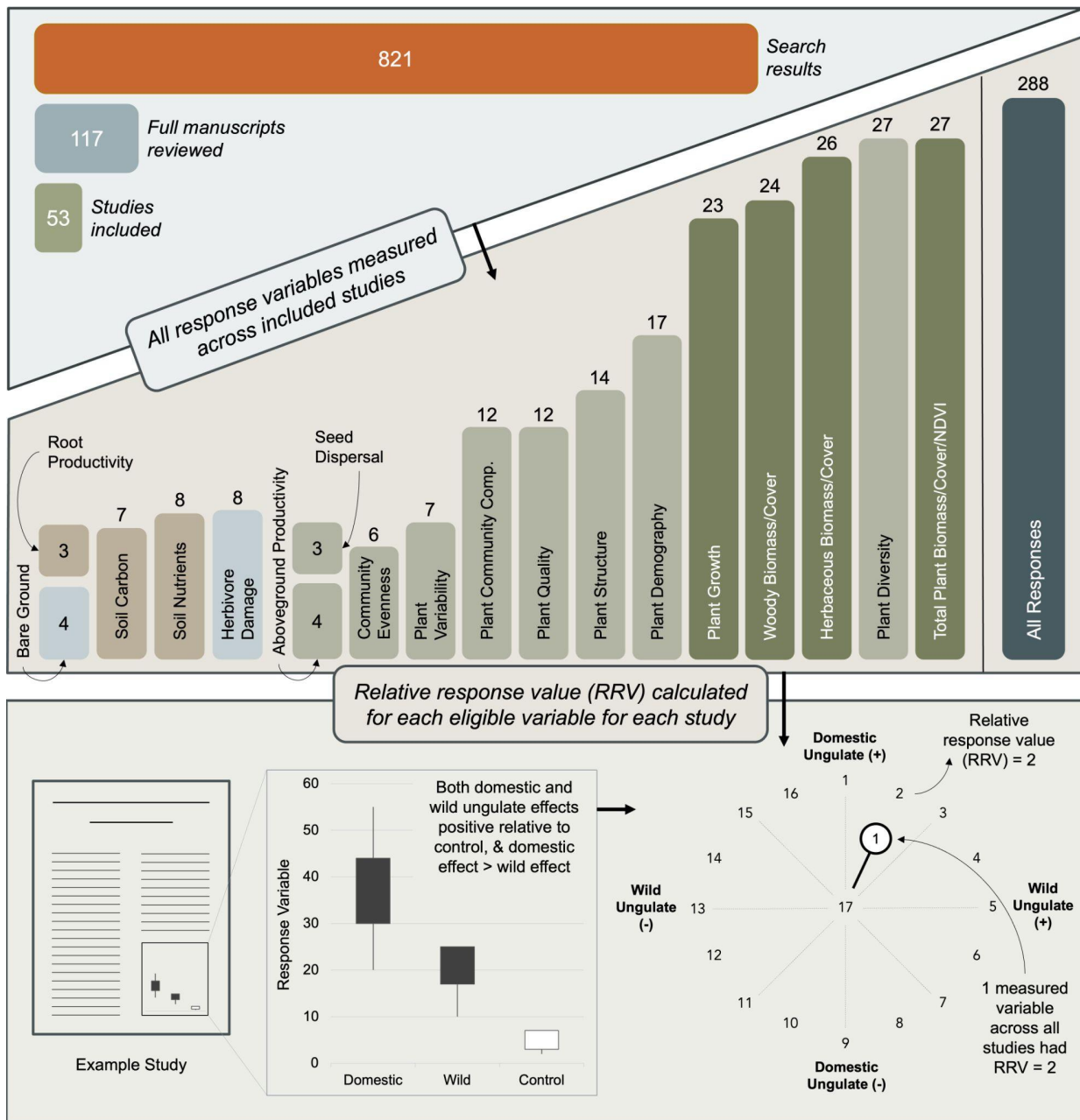
137 **Synthetic Approach:**

138 We systematically reviewed the literature comparing wild and domestic ungulate effects  
139 on ecosystems in the Web of Science. We used the terms (“livestock” OR “domestic ungulate”  
140 OR “domestic herbivore”) AND (“wild herbivore” OR “wild ungulate” OR “free-ranging  
141 herbivore” OR “free-ranging ungulate” OR “native ungulate” OR “native herbivore”) AND  
142 (“ecosystem” OR “vegetation” OR “plant community” OR “plant diversity” OR “biomass” OR  
143 “NPP” or “soil carbon” OR “soil nutrient”) to search all document fields to identify publications  
144 matching our scope of inquiry in August 2024. This search yielded 821 publications, and after  
145 reviewing all titles and abstracts we read full texts of 112 publications that were potentially  
146 relevant to our synthetic review. Because not all publications are indexed in Web of Science, we  
147 further supplemented this review by searching the above search terms in Google Scholar. We  
148 identified 5 additional relevant studies that were not indexed in the Web of Science, resulting in  
149 a total of 117 full texts reviewed (Fig. 1).

150 To meet our inclusion criteria, studies had to a) measure the effects of ungulate species  
151 on plant or soil response variables, and b) consider both wild and domestic ungulate species  
152 effects within the same ecosystem. Fifty three publications met these criteria for inclusion in our  
153 synthesis (Fig. 1). For each included publication, we noted the study location, ungulate species  
154 investigated, and treatment structure. We then identified all ecosystem responses to both wild  
155 and domestic ungulate treatments measured in each study, and grouped these ecosystem  
156 responses into 18 categories of above- and below-ground responses (Fig. 1).

157 For each response measured in each study, we identified whether the effects of wild and  
158 domestic ungulates were determined to be equivalent or distinct (i.e. differences were  
159 statistically significant, or effect sizes differed). If the latter, we assessed whether wild or  
160 domestic ungulate treatments had greater or smaller values of that response, relative to each  
161 other and to any treatment with no herbivores (if applicable; hereafter referred to as “control

162 treatment"). For all studies that compared wild and domestic ungulate treatments to control  
163 treatments with no herbivory (i.e. cages, exclosures, or ungulate-free zones on the landscape),  
164 we assigned a semi-quantitative, semi-qualitative measure of relative effect size we term a  
165 "relative response value" (RRV) for each relevant ecosystem response (Fig. 1). To calculate  
166 RRVs, we assigned each measured response a position on a theoretical graph with wild  
167 ungulate effects on the x-axis and domestic ungulate effects on the y-axis. Positioning on the  
168 graph was determined by a) whether each ungulate treatment's effects were positive, negative,  
169 or neutral (relative to the control treatment) and b) whether wild and domestic ungulate  
170 treatments effects were equivalent (i.e. both positive or both negative, and falling along the 1:1  
171 line) or differing in magnitude (i.e. the response variable was significantly greater in the  
172 domestic ungulate treatment than in the wild ungulate treatment, and both were greater than the  
173 control; Fig. 1). Where wild and domestic ungulate treatments had opposite effects relative to  
174 the control, RRVs fell into the upper left or bottom right quadrants (Fig. 1). Finally, we indicate  
175 the total number of RRVs in a given position per response type (i.e., weight of evidence for that  
176 particular relationship) by indicating the number of RRVs within the circle and proportional to the  
177 length of the spoke on the graph (Fig. 1).



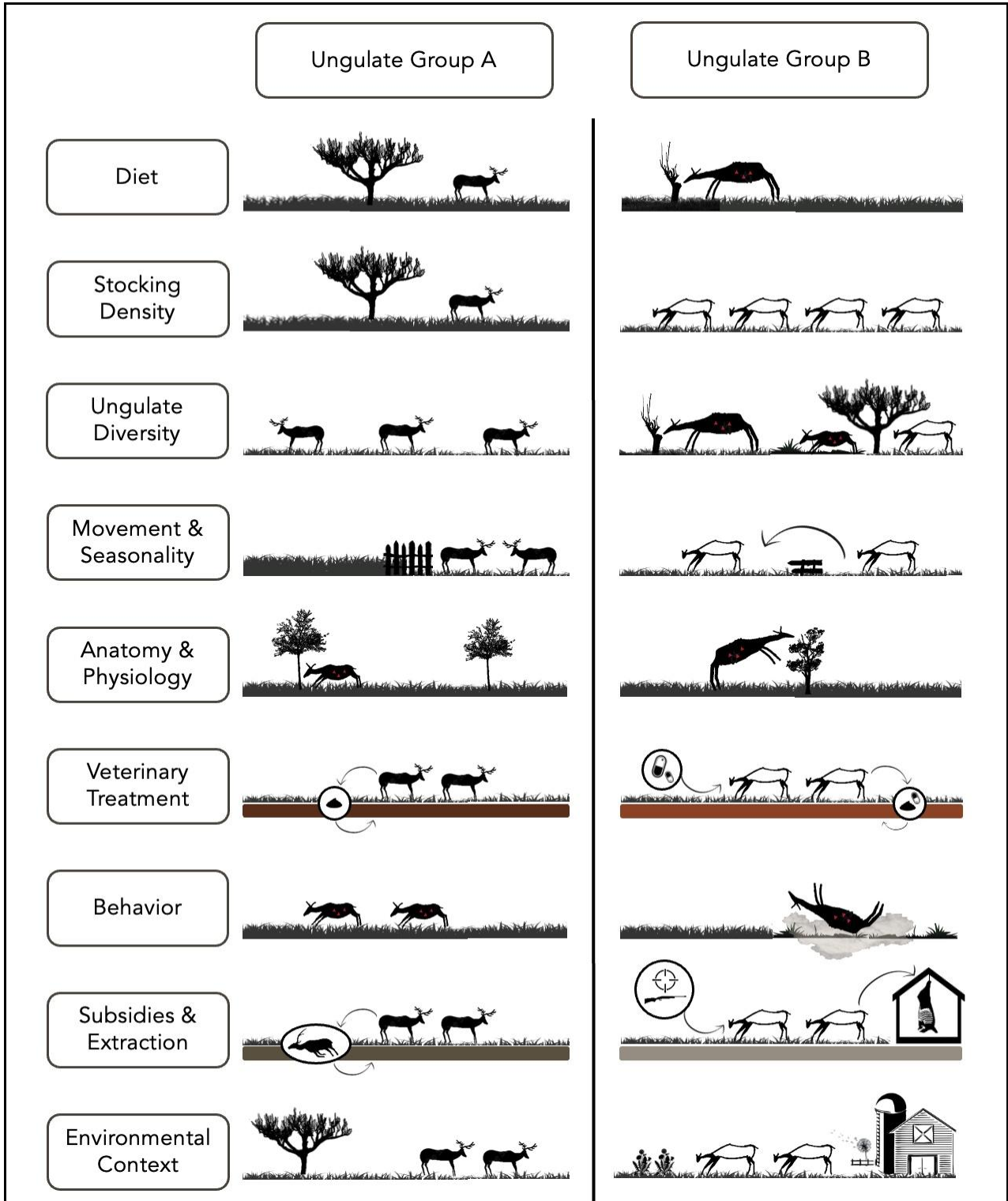
178  
 179 **Figure 1.** Schematic of our systematic review process. We reviewed 821 abstracts, 117  
 180 manuscript full texts, and ultimately identified 53 studies that met our search criteria. We then  
 181 categorized response variables (dark green = vegetation quantity, light green = vegetation traits,  
 182 brown = belowground variables, blue = other) and tallied the number of responses of each type  
 183 measured across all studies. Finally, for studies that included treatments with domestic  
 184 ungulates, wild ungulates, and ungrazed controls, we assigned a relative response value (RRV)  
 185 for each response variable to characterize the relationship between domestic ungulate effects  
 186 (+/-) and wild ungulate effects (+/-) relative to ungrazed controls, and summed and plotted the  
 187 RRVs for each variable; the length of spokes as well as the number inside the bubble in each  
 188 RRV figure represents the number of total responses across all studies with that RRV for that  
 189 category of response variable.



190           We carefully reviewed all publications to determine the mechanisms researchers  
191 identified as drivers of differences between the effects of different groups of ungulates on  
192 ecosystem responses. In conducting this review of the literature, we identified nine general  
193 categories of these mechanisms: diet, stocking density, diversity of the ungulate community,  
194 movement and seasonality, anatomy and physiology, veterinary treatments, behavior, subsidies  
195 and extraction, and environmental context (Box 1). Though these categories are neither  
196 exhaustive nor mutually exclusive, they seemed to best represent the most commonly identified  
197 mechanisms considered in the studies we reviewed. For each included study, we first noted  
198 which mechanisms were mentioned or considered at all throughout the text, including in a  
199 general sense (e.g. “stocking density can determine the impacts of herbivory by ungulates”).  
200 Next, we determined which mechanisms were identified by the manuscript authors as the  
201 potential drivers of observed similarities or differences between wild and domestic ungulates in  
202 the study (generally in the form of statements in the results, discussion, or conclusion; e.g. “the  
203 greater vegetation reduction we observed under domestic ungulate grazing compared to wild  
204 ungulate grazing may be due to higher stocking densities in livestock pastures”). Finally, we  
205 assessed whether the study presented data that supported these conclusions, or whether the  
206 cited mechanisms were only mentioned speculatively, often in the discussion or conclusion  
207 sections of the manuscript.  
208

209  
210

**Box 1: Mechanisms that mediate the effects of different ungulate groups on ecosystem functioning**



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212  
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214

**Diet:** Many ungulates differ in the identity and range of plant species they consume. Broadly, some ungulates are browsers (consuming parts of woody vegetation such as trees and shrubs)

215 while others are grazers (consuming herbaceous vegetation) or mixed-feeders (a combination  
216 of both); landscapes dominated by these different guilds may diverge in their proportions of  
217 woody and herbaceous vegetation (Veblen et al. 2015, Seymour et al. 2016). Dietary  
218 differences can also be more granular; for example, some ungulates may prefer just a few  
219 dominant palatable species (which can reduce dominance and increase plant diversity) while  
220 others are more generalist grazers (particularly when ungulate densities are high or resources  
221 are scarce) (Ratajczak et al. 2022).

222  
223 **Stocking Density:** The effects of different ungulate species on vegetation and soil is often  
224 influenced by stocking density, or the number of individuals of that species within a given area  
225 grazing during a period of time. Higher stocking densities of certain species can lead to greater  
226 removal of preferred forage plants, or greater trampling and compaction of the soil in areas  
227 where they congregate; in turn, low stocking densities in ecosystems adapted to herbivory can  
228 decrease plant diversity or reduce productivity (Riginos et al. 2018, Porensky et al. 2020,  
229 Stanley et al. 2024). Appropriate stocking densities may promote biodiversity and productivity by  
230 regulating competition and triggering compensatory growth.

231  
232 **Diversity of the Ungulate Community:** Even when stocking densities are comparable, the  
233 species diversity of distinct ungulate communities can determine the nature and strength of their  
234 effects on ecosystem properties. Increasing diversity in ungulate communities can be positively  
235 related to vegetation diversity and ecosystem multifunctionality (Wang et al. 2019; Baumgartner  
236 et al. 2015; Velado-Alonso et al. 2020), whereas single-species agglomerations may lead to  
237 more intense effects on a few preferred forage species. However, the combined effects of  
238 multiple ungulate species on vegetation composition can alternatively be compensatory, leading  
239 to overall neutral effects on plant community composition or cover (Baumgartner et al. 2015).

240  
241 **Movement & Seasonality:** The distribution of different ungulate species across space and time  
242 can mediate their impacts on the landscape. More mobile or wide-ranging species may have  
243 more diffuse effects on plants and soils, whereas species that are concentrated in smaller zones  
244 (e.g. those constrained by fencing or roads) may generate stronger and more centralized effects  
245 (Burgi et al. 2012, Kanga et al. 2013). For example, some ungulate engage in “green wave  
246 surfing”, or migrations to follow new vegetation growth, which can often minimize their influence  
247 on plant biomass or cover or even promote productivity by concentrating herbivory early in the  
248 growing season, whereas more sedentary ungulates may cause greater reductions in plant  
249 biomass by continuing to graze vegetation late in the season when there is less opportunity for  
250 regrowth (Merkle et al. 2016, Geremia et al. 2019).

251  
252 **Anatomy & Physiology:** Intrinsic anatomical and physiological traits mediate herbivore  
253 interactions with their environment. Body size determines the plant species and plant parts that  
254 ungulates have access to, which can impact species diversity and plant architecture (Stuart-Hill  
255 1992, Trepel et al. 2024); both body weight and foot anatomy (i.e. hard hooves vs. soft foot  
256 pads) determine the intensity of herbivore trampling (Schroeder et al. 2022). Similarly,  
257 ungulates’ digestive fermentation types, combined with body size, drive the quantity and quality  
258 of vegetation consumed, the efficiency of nutrient processing, and the composition of herbivore

259 wastes (Esmaeili et al., 2021; Hopcraft et al., 2012). Digestive traits also influence the viability of  
260 seeds processed by herbivores, driving differences in ungulate-mediated plant dispersal (Cappa  
261 et al. 2022). Furthermore, some ungulates have physiological adaptations to minimize reliance  
262 on surface water, including reduced water loss or the ability to survive on preformed water  
263 contained in food (Cain III et al., 2006), while others may be more dependent on surface water,  
264 resulting in intensified herbivory near water sources (Sitters et al., 2009).

265  
266 **Veterinary Treatment:** The use of veterinary medicine is a key factor distinguishing managed  
267 and unmanaged ungulate populations. Beyond impacts on ungulate population densities  
268 (Oosterheld 1992), the use of antibiotics and antiparasitics specifically have documented effects  
269 on a variety of ecosystem processes (Wepking et al. 2019, Keesing et al. 2013). For example,  
270 40-90% of administered antibiotics may be transferred through the ungulate gut to the  
271 environment via the excretion of dung and urine (Sarmah et al. 2006). Higher environmental  
272 antibiotic concentrations resulting from this transfer can shift microbial community composition  
273 (Wepking et al. 2019, Roy et al. 2023), in turn altering decomposition rates and terrestrial  
274 elemental cycling (Schimel and Schaeffer 2012, Wepking et al. 2017).

275  
276 **Behavior:** Behavioral differences between ungulate species may lead to divergent impacts on  
277 the environment. Some ungulate species create physical disturbances to vegetation (e.g.  
278 toppling trees; Sitters et al. 2020) and soil (e.g. wallowing and dust bathing; McMillan et al.  
279 2011). Species may also exhibit highly specific defecation and urination behaviors; for example,  
280 vicuñas create latrines to maintain social group cohesion, concentrating nutrients in ways that  
281 ungulates with more dispersed defecation patterns do not (Monk et al., 2024). Distinct foraging  
282 behaviors can further generate differences in the effects of herbivory on primary productivity or  
283 vegetation cover even when ungulate diets are similar (i.e. biting off grass leaves vs. pulling up  
284 entire grass tussocks; Schroeder et al. 2022).

285  
286 **Subsidies & Extraction:** Human management of both domestic and wild animal populations  
287 involves the subsidy and extraction of resources. Resources are supplemented to an ecosystem  
288 when ungulate populations are provisioned with food and water (i.e. feed in agricultural or game  
289 settings, or artificial water sources in pastures and wild desert areas; Jones et al. 2014, Glass et  
290 al. 2022). As a corollary, resources are extracted when individuals are sold, slaughtered, or  
291 hunted (Abraham et al. 2021); when dung is collected or redistributed with animals (Augustine  
292 2003); or when horn, fiber, or dairy products are harvested (Carmanchahi et al. 2015, Maher et  
293 al. 2023). This import and export of resources to domestic and wild ungulate populations can  
294 decouple them from density-dependent ecosystem feedbacks and disrupt their roles in  
295 vegetation regulation or nutrient recycling (Brodie and McIntyre 2019, Abraham et al. 2023a).

296  
297 **Environmental Context:** Occasionally, different ungulate species may themselves exert similar  
298 effects on ecosystem properties, but the contexts in which those ungulates occur are associated  
299 with other distinct disturbances or management practices (Navarro et al. 2023). For example,  
300 some species may be found closer to human settlements (either because they are domestic  
301 species, or because they have adapted to live in close proximity to humans); in these cases,  
302 these ungulates may be associated with environmental impacts (e.g. introduced plant species,

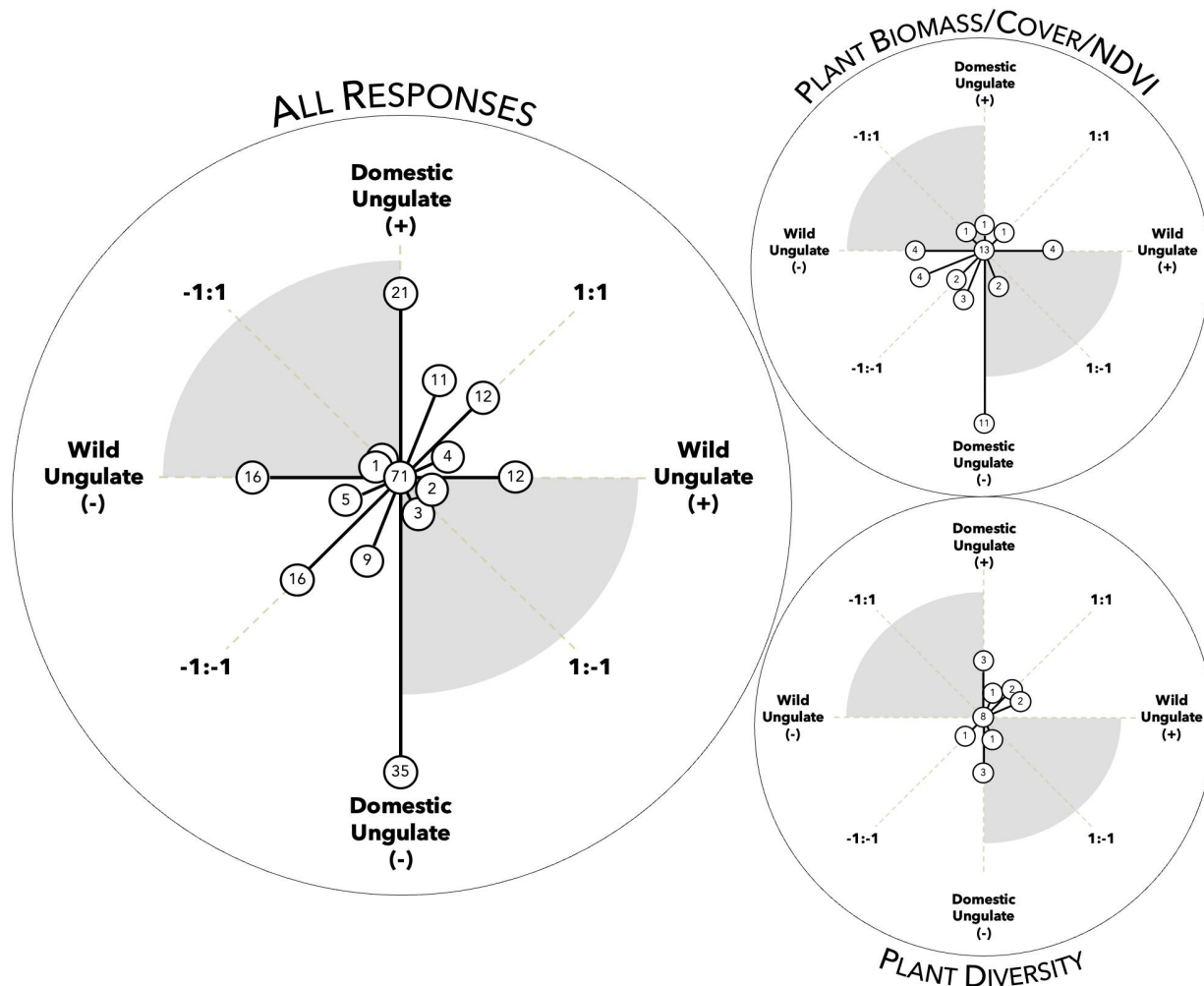
303 deforestation) that are not caused by the activities of the ungulates themselves, but rather the  
304 environmental contexts in which they are found (in comparison to the habitat of a different  
305 species that is constrained to sites with lower anthropogenic impacts; Jones et al. 2014, Li et al.  
306 2022). Analogously, studies carried out under climatically anomalous periods may result in  
307 stronger responses than if such conditions were closer to historic climatic patterns. For  
308 example, the effect of ungulate grazing under extreme drought may differ greatly from effects  
309 recorded during dry years.

310

## 311 **Results and Discussion**

### 312 *1. Wild and domestic ungulates affect ecosystems in similar ways, but at different intensities*

313         Across 288 responses from 53 studies, 55% of ecosystem responses differed  
314 significantly in the presence of wild vs. domestic ungulates. However, it was very rare for wild  
315 and domestic ungulates to have opposite effects on any given ecosystem response; indeed,  
316 only 3% of the RRVs we calculated revealed such opposite effects (i.e., instances where one  
317 ungulate group was associated with increases in a response relative to ungulate-free controls,  
318 while the other ungulate group was associated with decreases in that response; Fig. 2). Thus,  
319 wild and domestic ungulate effects on plant and soil variables are overwhelmingly similar in  
320 kind, differing in intensity rather than direction in almost all cases we studied. There were,  
321 however, marked patterns in the intensity of these effects. Domestic ungulates were twice as  
322 likely to have stronger (more negative or more positive) effects on ecosystem responses  
323 compared to wild ungulates than the converse (35% of RRVs vs. 17% of RRVs). Domestic  
324 ungulates were also more likely to have significant effects on ecosystem responses than wild  
325 species, which had no measurable effects for 58% of RRVs. Thus, all ungulates had variable  
326 effects on ecosystem functioning (Fig. 2), and wild and domestic species tended to have effects  
327 in similar directions but of different magnitude on environmental responses, with domestic  
328 ungulates exerting stronger effects than wild ungulates.



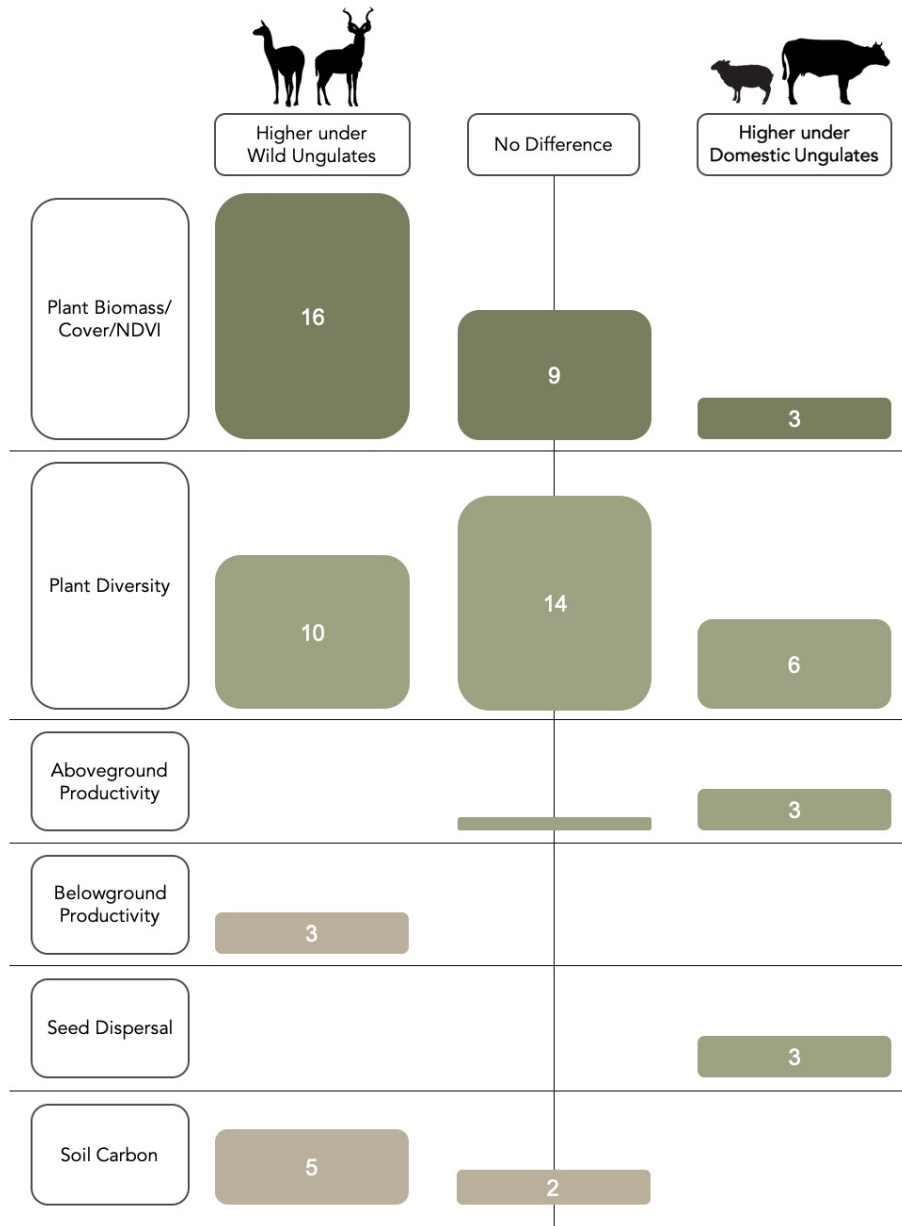
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 331 **Figure 2.** Relationships between wild and domestic ungulate effects (relative to ungrazed  
 332 controls) on all applicable response variables (left graph), variables related to vegetation  
 333 quantity (plant biomass/cover/NDVI, top right graph), and metrics of plant diversity (bottom right  
 334 graph) among studies included in our review. The x-axis represents whether wild ungulates had  
 335 positive, neutral, or negative effects on a given response variable, while the y-axis represents  
 336 the directional effects of domestic ungulates. Placement along the 1:1 line reflects statistically  
 337 similar effects of wild and domestic ungulates relative to ungrazed controls. Positioning in the  
 338 upper left or bottom right quadrants of each graph denotes opposite effects of wild and domestic  
 339 ungulates (i.e., one group had positive effects while the other had negative effects; shaded  
 340 quadrants). Numbers in circles and the length of connector lines denote the number of RRVs  
 341 with a given relationship across our review.

342  
 343           Upon examining different types of ecosystem responses, however, the nature of wild  
 344 and domestic ungulate impacts on certain ecosystem functions diverged more. Overall  
 345 aboveground vegetation metrics (e.g. plant biomass, plant cover, and Normalized Difference

346 Vegetation Index [NDVI]) responded variably to both groups of ungulates; though all ungulates  
347 generally reduced overall vegetation, domestic ungulates were more likely to induce such  
348 decreases than wild ungulates (Fig. 2). As a result, most studies found that sites or plots  
349 dominated by wild ungulates had greater plant biomass or cover than plots or sites with  
350 domestic ungulates (Fig. 3). On the other hand, though domestic ungulates had both positive  
351 and negative effects on plant diversity and evenness, wild species had almost universally  
352 positive or neutral impacts on diversity, and plots with wild ungulate presence tended to have  
353 higher plant diversity than plots with domestic ungulates (Fig. 2, Fig. 3). Accordingly, shifts in  
354 ungulate communities as a result of changing land use may more consistently affect the  
355 diversity and composition of plant communities than overall aboveground plant biomass, with  
356 potential cascading effects on other herbivores and biogeochemical cycling (Afonso et al. 2024,  
357 Baidya 2022, Chen et al. 2024).

358         Most other variables were investigated by too few studies to allow us to draw strong  
359 conclusions (Fig. 1); nevertheless, initial trends provide some insight into the ecosystem  
360 functions and properties that may diverge most under different ungulate regimes. Based on the  
361 few studies that measured these responses, areas with domestic ungulates tended to have  
362 more bare ground and higher aboveground productivity; domestic ungulates also appeared to  
363 be more effective seed dispersers than wild ungulates (Fig. 3), potentially due to differential  
364 consumption of seeds or differences in digestive anatomy that improve viability in seeds passed  
365 through domestic ungulate guts (Ansley et al., 2017; Bartuszevige & Endress, 2008; Cappa et  
366 al., 2022). In contrast, areas with wild ungulates had greater belowground (root) productivity and  
367 soil carbon content compared to domestic ungulate treatments in almost all studies that  
368 investigated these belowground responses (Fig. 3). Thus, though wild and domestic ungulates  
369 appeared to have similar impacts on many ecosystem responses, domestic ungulate presence  
370 may tend to stimulate aboveground productivity while lowering standing biomass, while wild

371 ungulate presence may promote plant diversity, belowground productivity, and potentially  
 372 carbon sequestration (though research on these latter processes is scant).



373  
 374 **Figure 3.** Patterns in relative ecosystem responses to wild and domestic ungulates. Box size  
 375 and inscribed numbers denote, for each category of ecosystem response, the number of  
 376 responses across all studies in our review that exhibited higher values under wild ungulates, no  
 377 difference between wild and domestic ungulate treatments, or higher values under domestic  
 378 ungulates. Though data were scarce for most ecosystem responses, studies generally reported  
 379 higher or similar plant biomass, diversity, soil carbon, and belowground productivity in the  
 380 presence of wild ungulates compared to domestic ungulates, and greater aboveground  
 381 productivity and seed dispersal in the presence of domestic ungulates.  
 382

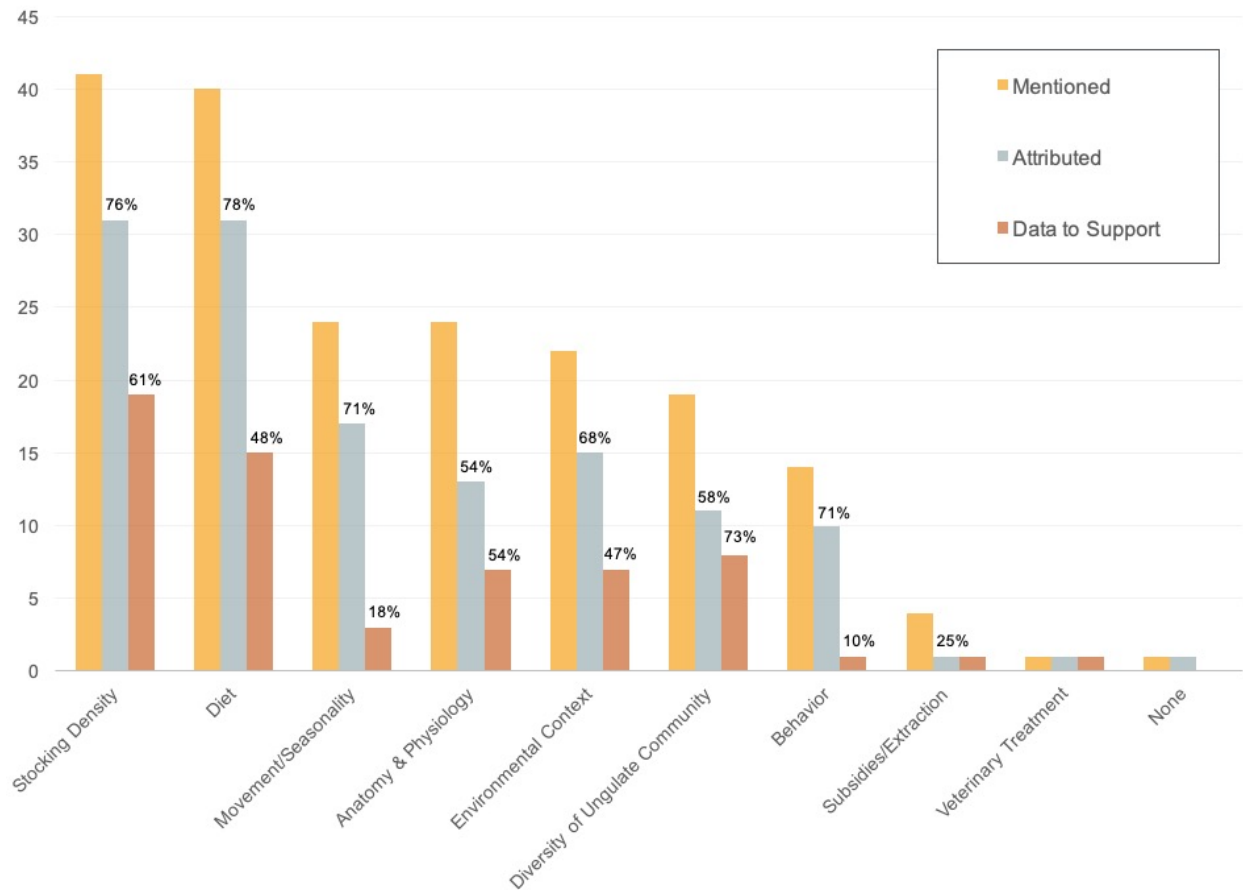


383 2. *Mechanistic understanding of the differences between wild and domestic ungulate impacts*  
384 *is lacking*

385 Discerning the mechanisms underlying these trends proved a challenging endeavor. Diet  
386 and stocking density were by far the most frequently considered mechanisms driving differences  
387 between wild and domestic ungulate effects on ecosystems; accordingly, these two  
388 mechanisms were also the most commonly attributed causes of observed differences, with  
389 more than 75% of studies that considered these two factors determining they played a role in  
390 the study's outcomes (Fig. 4). It is perhaps unsurprising that diet and stocking density emerged  
391 as the most commonly cited mechanisms underlying differences in ecosystem responses to  
392 distinct ungulate groups. Differences in diet are among the most widely documented intrinsic  
393 differences between distinct herbivore species, and shifts in dominant herbivore populations  
394 play an important role in determining plant community composition and diversity (Kartzinel et al.  
395 2015; Orr et al. 2022). Similarly, stocking density (as well as stocking rate, a related but non-  
396 equivalent measure of herbivory intensity over a given time and area) is widely considered an  
397 important extrinsic mechanism determining the impacts of herbivores on ecosystems. The  
398 number of ungulates in a given area clearly influences rates of vegetation removal, potential  
399 compensatory regrowth, and intensity of physical disturbance to plants and soils (Wells et al.  
400 2022, Stanley et al. 2024). Additionally, the density of herbivores as well as the frequency and  
401 duration of their presence on a landscape is a commonly emphasized point of intervention  
402 where management can mediate ungulate impacts on ecosystem functioning.

403 Domestic ungulate treatments were often described as having higher stocking densities  
404 than wild ungulate treatments, which could partially explain the greater strength of their effects,  
405 particularly on plant biomass and cover (e.g. Charles et al. 2016, Giralt-Rueda and Santamaria  
406 2021, Smith et al. 2020, Wasiolka and Blaum 2011; Table S1). Conversely, many studies that  
407 found no significant differences between wild and domestic ungulates, or found negligible  
408 effects of ungulates on ecosystem responses compared to fenced controls, noted that stocking

409 densities in domestic ungulate treatments were low (Brockaway and Lewis 2003, Cappa et al.  
410 2022, Connell et al. 2018, LaMalfa et al. 2021, Navarro et al. 2023; Table S1). These  
411 observations suggest that management strategies can indeed successfully reduce the impacts  
412 of domestic ungulates on plants and soils, and that less intensive and industrialized forms of  
413 animal agriculture (such as traditional pastoral practices) can more effectively support  
414 ecosystem functioning (Velamazán et al. 2023, López-Sánchez et al. 2021, Perea et al. 2016,  
415 Munkhzul et al. 2021). However, some experimental treatments may not have accurately  
416 reflected realistic agricultural stocking densities for the region, underestimating the strength of  
417 domestic ungulate effects (Young et al. 2013). Furthermore, though data on stocking  
418 rate/density were frequently available (Fig. 4), studies rarely manipulated stocking density within  
419 an ungulate group, obscuring the ways in which stocking density may interact with other key  
420 mechanisms and particularly diet. At higher stocking rates, herbivores frequently reduce diet  
421 selectivity as competition for plant resources increases (Caram et al. 2024, Stewart et al. 2011).  
422 Accordingly, reported results may not reflect the plasticity in ungulate diet that can emerge  
423 under fluctuating resource availability and competition, further obscuring the extent to which  
424 intrinsic traits or extrinsic management strategies determine the impacts of wild and domestic  
425 ungulates.



426  
 427 **Figure 4.** Evidence supporting potential mechanisms underlying differences between wild and  
 428 domestic ungulate effects on ecosystem responses (See Box 1). Bars denote the number of  
 429 studies that mentioned or considered a given mechanism in a general sense (yellow), attributed  
 430 their specific results to that mechanism (blue), and had data to support their attribution to that  
 431 mechanism (orange). Percentages above bars denote the proportion of studies in the previous  
 432 category (i.e. 'Mentioned' or 'Attributed') that bar's height represents (e.g. 76% of studies that  
 433 mentioned or considered stocking density as a mechanism attributed their results to differences  
 434 in stocking density, and 61% of studies that attributed results to differences in stocking density  
 435 had data to support that conclusion).

436  
 437 Our results certainly reaffirm the importance of considering both diet and stocking  
 438 density in investigations of ungulate effects on ecosystems, and greater consideration of the  
 439 interactions between these and other key mechanisms is necessary. However, our review also  
 440 highlights the extent to which most other mechanisms we identified are rarely even considered  
 441 as potential drivers of observed differences between wild and domestic ungulate treatments.  
 442 Behavioral differences, resource subsidies and extractions, and veterinary treatments in

443 particular were considered by fewer than  $\frac{1}{3}$  of all studies. Indeed, subsidies and extraction were  
444 mentioned as potential considerations in only four studies, and veterinary treatment was  
445 identified as a major driver of decreases in soil carbon in the presence of domestic ungulates in  
446 the sole study in our review that evaluated this mechanism (Roy et al. 2023). These two  
447 mechanisms in particular are extrinsic factors directly impacted by human management of both  
448 domestic and wild populations, suggesting that further investigation of these factors could  
449 provide important insights into the interactions between ungulate species, management  
450 strategies, and ecosystem outcomes. We were unable to identify clear associations between  
451 individual mechanisms and specific ecosystem responses, partly due to the apparently  
452 haphazard consideration of mechanism in general in studies of wild and domestic ungulates and  
453 ecosystem functioning. Moreover, researchers often provided no data to support the  
454 mechanisms they cited as potential drivers of their results, instead mentioning these  
455 mechanisms in a more speculative fashion in the discussion and conclusion sections of  
456 manuscripts (Fig. 4). Thus, our ability to draw conclusions about specific mechanisms and their  
457 interactions explaining responses to wild and domestic ungulate grazing is limited. There is an  
458 urgent need for studies directly comparing ungulate types that test the specific mechanisms  
459 behind these more general responses.

460

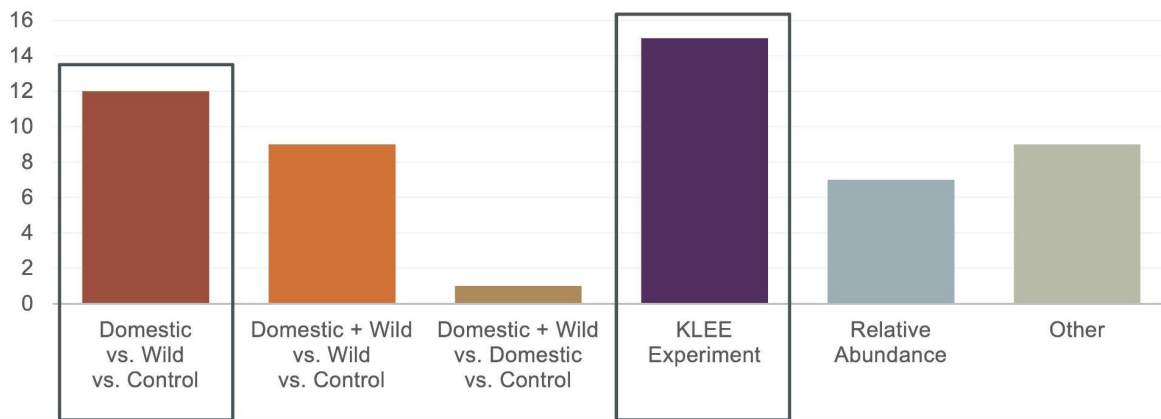
### 461 3. *Limitations and biases in the existing literature*

462         Limitations in geographic diversity and treatment structure among included studies  
463 restrict the scope of our conclusions. Notably, many treatment structures did not allow for the  
464 effective isolation of differences between domestic and wild species (Fig. 5). For example,  
465 some studies' designs could not exclude wild ungulate presence, so domestic ungulate  
466 treatments measured the additive effects of wild and domestic species - potentially  
467 overrepresenting the perceived impacts of domestic livestock on plants and soil (Fig. 5). This  
468 treatment structure is perhaps more biologically realistic than studies that completely isolated

469 the effects of domestic and wild ungulates, as managed and free-ranging ungulate populations  
470 share landscapes and resources in many parts of the world. Nevertheless, failures to completely  
471 isolate the effects of these ungulate groups limit our understanding of whether their differential  
472 impacts are due to intrinsic differences between species or the overall pressures of greater  
473 ungulate densities.

474 Furthermore, as is the case with many systematic reviews and meta-analyses, the  
475 studies included in our synthesis were overwhelmingly located in North America and East  
476 Africa, where colonial legacies have historically concentrated Western academic ecological  
477 research (Fig. 5; Martin et al. 2012). Indeed, because the Kenya Long-Term Exclosure  
478 Experiment (KLEE) is among the most long-standing and productive manipulations of wild and  
479 domestic ungulate presence in situ (Goheen et al. 2018), 28% of our final studies were  
480 conducted within KLEE. Accordingly, many of the results presented here reflect the impacts of  
481 wild and domestic ungulates on ecosystem functioning in one particular region of Kenya.  
482 Further comparative study of the effects of wild and domestic ungulates on plants and soils, and  
483 more systematic evaluation of the mechanisms driving these outcomes, is necessary to provide  
484 a more reliable portrait of functional redundancy between different ungulate groups under  
485 shifting management strategies and environmental pressures.

486



487  
 488 **Figure 5.** Global distribution of studies included in our review and their experimental treatment  
 489 structures. a) Geographic locations of studies included in our systematic review; pins denote  
 490 exact study coordinates while countries are highlighted in white. Insets represent example  
 491 treatment structures; pie chart insert demonstrates the proportion of studies in our review that  
 492 were part of the Kenya Long-term Exclusion Experiment (KLEE), highlighted in the adjacent  
 493 purple inset. b) Number of studies in our review that applied each treatment structure to  
 494 disentangle the ecological effects of wild vs. domestic ungulates (various combinations of wild  
 495 ungulate grazing, domestic ungulate grazing, and an ungrazed control; the KLEE experiment  
 496 that also controlled for wild ungulate body size; non-experimental estimates of relative  
 497 abundance of each ungulate group; or some other method). Bars circled in black denote the  
 498 only treatment structures that explicitly measure the effects of domestic vs. wild ungulates in  
 499 isolation in addition to an ungulate-free control treatment.

500  
 501  
 502  
 503  
 504

505 **Future Directions and Conclusions**

506 Overall, our synthetic review revealed that surprisingly few studies directly compare the  
507 effects of wild and domestic ungulates on plant and soil response variables (Fig. 1, Fig. 5, Table  
508 S1). Even fewer explicitly consider the mechanisms underlying similarities and differences in  
509 wild and domestic ungulate effects on ecosystems (Fig. 4) and we found no studies testing  
510 hypotheses about interacting mechanisms. Plant biomass or cover and plant diversity were the  
511 most commonly studied ecosystem response variables (Fig. 1), and diet and stocking density  
512 were the mechanisms most frequently considered and to which most differences between wild  
513 and domestic ungulate impacts were attributed (Fig. 4) Though data were scant overall,  
514 domestic ungulates tended to have similar, but stronger, effects on ecosystem responses  
515 compared to wild ungulates. Trends in our results point to fruitful avenues of future research,  
516 and our review highlighted several important knowledge gaps that stood out as clear priority  
517 areas (Table 1).

518

519  
520

**Table 1. Testable hypotheses and research approaches regarding mechanisms underlying differences in ecosystem responses to wild and domestic ungulates.**

<b>Example Hypothesis</b>	<b>Research Approach</b>
<i>Stocking density interacts with ungulate species dietary preference to mediate ungulate impacts on plant diversity</i>	Experimental variation of stocking density of domestic and/or captive wild ungulates or comparison of sites with natural variation in stocking density, coupled with fecal dietary analyses and surveys of plant diversity across ungulate treatments
<i>Ungulate feeding behavior (i.e. clipping off grass leaves with teeth vs. pulling up plants from the root) drives differences in biomass and above- and belowground productivity in areas with wild species vs. domestic livestock</i>	Simulation of feeding behaviors (i.e. experimentally cutting vegetation vs. pulling up vegetation) in exclosed plots; comparison of biomass and productivity in experimental plots to sites representative of each land use type on the landscape
<i>Wild and domestic ungulates will elicit more similar ecosystem responses when ungulate groups have greater shared evolutionary histories and/or anatomical and physiological traits</i>	Comparison of the effect size of ungulate species on ecosystem responses under experimental conditions with same domestic species, but different wild ungulates, in settings where the two ungulate guilds are closely related or share similar traits (e.g. body size, hoof anatomy, fermentation mode) and in settings where they are distinct
<i>Increasing aridity and drought will increase competition for resources, reducing diet selectivity and intensifying the effects of both wild and domestic ungulates on plant biomass and diversity</i>	Assessment of plant biomass and diversity in areas with similar ungulate densities and plant communities but differing exposure to drought
<i>Constraining wild ungulate movement via habitat fragmentation or disruption of migration patterns will replicate domestic ungulate impacts on vegetation and soil in smaller pastures</i>	Measurement of intensity of herbivory, soil compaction, nutrient availability, and other ecosystem responses along a gradient of protected areas of different sizes, but with similar ungulate species composition; case-control comparison of these metrics between sites with undisturbed movement pathways and sites before and after a major disruption to ungulate connectivity

521

522 1. *Belowground ecosystem functioning remains a key knowledge gap*

523           There is an urgent need for greater understanding of ungulate impacts on belowground

524 ecosystem functioning. Only a few studies compared the effects of wild and domestic ungulates



525 on belowground properties (e.g. root biomass or productivity, soil carbon, soil nutrients, or  
526 microbial community composition). Among the few studies that investigated the effects of  
527 ungulate groups on soil carbon, sites with wild ungulates tended to have greater soil carbon  
528 content than sites with domestic ungulates (Molaeinasab et al., 2018; Roy et al., 2023; Sitters et  
529 al., 2020; Fig. 3). This could be due more to the impacts of long-term land use associated with  
530 human presence and animal agriculture than the activity of the ungulates themselves. For  
531 example, one study comparing different trans-Himalayan valleys in India found that exclusion of  
532 large herbivores did not impact soil carbon compared to adjacent plots in either land use type,  
533 but valleys with wild ungulates had overall greater soil carbon content than valleys dominated by  
534 domestic livestock (Bagchi & Ritchie, 2010b). However, research from this study system also  
535 revealed that wild ungulate herbivory tends to promote greater root productivity than domestic  
536 ungulate herbivory, which could explain differences in carbon content as much soil carbon is  
537 derived from living root inputs (Sokol et al. 2019, Roy et al. 2023, Bagchi & Ritchie 2010a, b).  
538 Such contrasts highlight the necessity of greater investment in understanding the intrinsic and  
539 extrinsic mechanisms underlying these impacts. There is a growing interest in the conservation,  
540 sustainable development, and finance sectors in the role both wild and domestic herbivores  
541 could play in mediating carbon sequestration, particularly in grasslands where the majority of  
542 carbon is stored belowground (Kristensen et al. 2022, Borer and Risch, 2024, Stanley et al.,  
543 2024). Many producers and researchers have touted the potential benefits of carefully managed  
544 domestic livestock for soil fertility, carbon sequestration, and overall grassland health  
545 (Whitehead 2020, Gordon et al. 2021, Prairie et al. 2023), and conservation entities are also  
546 banking on the potential for wild ungulates to impact soil carbon by selling carbon credits for  
547 biodiversity preservation (Benghazi et al. 2022, Duvall et al. 2024). These projects are  
548 advancing at paces outstripping ecological knowledge underlying such claims, as is often the  
549 case when decision makers are necessarily tasked with rapidly addressing acute socio-  
550 ecological challenges with limited information. Nevertheless, the scale of these investments—

551 coupled with the high stakes for both human and non-human communities—renders increased  
552 understanding of the impacts of diverse ungulate species on belowground ecosystem  
553 functioning, and especially carbon cycling, ever more urgent (Duvall et al. 2024, Borer and  
554 Risch 2024).

555

556 2. *Towards a mechanistic understanding of ecosystem responses to wild and domestic*  
557 *ungulates*

558 Few studies explicitly tested mechanisms driving trends in ecosystem responses to wild  
559 and domestic ungulate presence (Fig. 4). Most mechanisms beyond differences in diet and  
560 stocking density were rarely considered and almost never directly investigated (Fig. 4). The  
561 roles of extrinsic mechanisms such as anthropogenic subsidies and extraction (i.e.  
562 supplemental feeding to maintain higher ungulate populations or population culling) and  
563 veterinary treatment, in particular, were largely uninvestigated. Yet these mechanisms are  
564 among the most direct ways management influences herbivore populations, and each have  
565 separately been shown to influence herbivory pressure and biogeochemical cycling (Abraham et  
566 al. 2023a, b, Ferraro & Hirst 2024). Despite this lack of mechanistic testing or comprehensive  
567 consideration of diverse mechanisms, ungulate species identity and livestock management  
568 practices were both frequently cited as causes of observed patterns, exemplifying a common  
569 tendency in ecology to infer causation in the absence of concrete evidence (Fig. 4, Addicott et  
570 al. 2022).

571 Systematic investigation not only of the initial trends we detected in vegetation and soil  
572 responses to ungulate presence, but the extrinsic and intrinsic drivers underlying them, will be  
573 vital for determining the extent to which wild and domestic ungulates play fundamentally distinct  
574 roles in ecosystem functioning or whether management strategies can influence their functional  
575 redundancy. For example, based on the very limited research comparing above- and  
576 belowground productivity under wild and domestic ungulate herbivory, it seems that domestic

577 ungulates may be more likely to stimulate aboveground productivity and wild ungulates may be  
578 more likely to promote belowground productivity (Fig. 3). The differential responses of  
579 productivity to wild and domestic ungulates could be a reflection of intrinsic dietary preferences  
580 driving shifts in plant species composition. Specifically, wild ungulate herbivory could promote  
581 belowground productivity by selecting for species with high root:shoot ratios (Roy et al. 2023,  
582 Bagchi and Ritchie 2010a). Alternatively, ungulate feeding behaviors (another intrinsic  
583 mechanism) could underlie these differences, as when wild species clip grass leaves and  
584 preserve root mass, while domestic species pull up vegetation and disrupt belowground  
585 productivity (Schroeder et al. 2022). However, these patterns could also be due to extrinsic  
586 factors, such as an increased prevalence of annual plant species in agricultural contexts, either  
587 due to deliberate seeding for forage or inadvertent transport by livestock and humans (Rinella et  
588 al. 2012, Daijun et al. 2023). Fast-growing, annual plants may exhibit higher investment in  
589 aboveground productivity following grazing; in this case, the environmental context associated  
590 with livestock, rather than their inherent species traits, would drive their impacts on primary  
591 productivity (Díaz et al. 2007). Such examples highlight the importance of testing diverse  
592 mechanisms, as well as the interactions between mechanisms such as diet and stocking  
593 density, in an effort to understand how ecological processes will respond to land use change  
594 and ungulate population fluxes.

595

### 596 3. *Expanding geographical and methodological scopes*

597 Teasing apart global patterns in ecosystem responses to wild and domestic ungulates  
598 requires greater geographic and methodological variation. Like most global syntheses, we found  
599 that most studies were concentrated in just a few countries and long-term study sites (Fig. 5;  
600 Martin et al. 2012). Expansion of mechanistic research to more diverse regions of the world will  
601 expand insights to places where the majority of human communities are balancing reliance on  
602 animal agriculture with wildlife preservation and climate change mitigation needs. Additionally,

603 expanding the distribution of studies will allow for a greater understanding of how environmental  
604 context and intrinsic animal traits operate as mechanisms underlying apparent differences. For  
605 example, investigating the effects of one domestic species (e.g. cattle) on plant communities  
606 with similar abiotic conditions but different levels of adaptation to bovine grazers (e.g. east  
607 African savannas, where cattle were domesticated, vs. South American savannas, where  
608 cervids are the largest native ungulates) could shed light on the relative roles of climate,  
609 management, and coevolution of plant and herbivore traits in driving plant responses to  
610 herbivory (Table 1). Furthermore, though exclosure studies are crucial for determining causality  
611 and experimentally manipulating herbivore presence, such studies should be supplemented by  
612 landscape-scale observational research to verify that results apply at scale. Studies that applied  
613 such multi-scale approaches found that some patterns held at the landscape level, but others  
614 did not perfectly map onto differences between grazed and ungrazed experimental plots at  
615 smaller scales (Bakker et al. 2016, Hempson et al. 2017, Roy et al. 2023). This is potentially  
616 because these experiments could control for ungulate identity (i.e. intrinsic species traits) but  
617 not many of the extrinsic mechanisms that drive ecosystem responses to ungulates (e.g. higher  
618 stocking densities under more industrialized agriculture, or provisioning of subsidies and  
619 extraction of resources; Hempson et al. 2017).

620

621 *4. Human activities may blur the boundaries between ecosystem effects of wild and domestic*  
622 *ungulates*

623 Finally, research on the extrinsic mechanisms mediating ungulate impacts on  
624 ecosystems would benefit from greater consideration of how human activities can transform the  
625 ecological effects of wild ungulates as well as domestic livestock. The role of management  
626 practices in driving ungulate impacts on vegetation and soils can certainly be taken as an  
627 argument in favor of pursuing more sustainable methods of animal husbandry. Yet, the corollary  
628 is equally true, but far less frequently discussed. Put simply, under anthropogenic pressures,

629 even native wild ungulates could end up replicating the ecosystem impacts of domestic  
630 livestock. Wild ungulate populations are frequently subject to human management, albeit not as  
631 directly as domestic species. For example, wild herbivores are hunted for food or culled to  
632 reduce competition with domestic stock, impacting population trajectories as well as behavior  
633 and movement in anthropogenic landscapes of fear (Abraham et al. 2021, 2023b). In other  
634 cases, wild populations in some regions are provided with supplemental food or water to meet  
635 conservation and recreation goals (Cotterill et al. 2018). Perhaps most notably, land use change  
636 and habitat fragmentation are reducing both overall habitat availability and habitat connectivity  
637 for wildlife across the globe (Tucker et al. 2018). In addition to reducing wild ungulate  
638 populations overall, this constraining of movement can concentrate wild ungulates in smaller  
639 areas, effectively increasing stocking densities in fragmented natural areas (Veldhuis et al.,  
640 2019; Western & Mose, 2023). Thus, wild ungulate populations may reproduce many impacts of  
641 high-intensity livestock production if human activity leads shrinking natural areas to function  
642 similarly to restricted pastures (Table 1).

643

## 644 5. *Conclusions*

645 Our review and synthesis of the literature shows that surprisingly little research has  
646 directly compared the impacts of wild and domestic ungulate species on plants and soil, and  
647 fewer studies still have systematically assessed the mechanisms underlying the (dis)similarity  
648 between wild and domestic ungulates' functional roles in ecosystems. Nevertheless,  
649 understanding not only *whether*, but *why* wild and domestic ungulates can function similarly in  
650 the ecosystems they inhabit is essential to address some of the most pressing questions in  
651 agriculture, food security, and environmental protection that communities currently face, and  
652 particularly to understand whether domestic ungulates can be managed to reproduce the  
653 ecological functions of wild species. Conversely, policies that aim to restore wild ungulate  
654 populations under the assumption that their intrinsic traits will promote ecosystem health may

655 fail to account for key extrinsic mechanisms mediating their environmental impacts. Accordingly,  
656 further study of the traits and mechanisms that influence the interactions and feedbacks  
657 between ungulates, plants, and soils is essential for our ecological understanding as well as the  
658 effective management of wild and domestic herbivores alike in the face of global change.

659

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664

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1061  
1062 **Supplementary Material:**

1063  
1064 [Table S1](#)