

1 **Title page**

2 **Impacts of invasive plants on carbon pools depend on both species' traits and local climate**

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8 Running head: Carbon pool impacts of invasive plants

9

10 **Abstract**

11 Invasive plants can alter ecosystem properties, leading to changes in the ecosystem services on
12 which humans depend. However, generalizing about these effects is difficult because invasive
13 plants represent a wide range of life forms, and invaded ecosystems differ in their plant
14 communities and abiotic conditions. We hypothesize that differences in traits between the
15 invader and native species can be used to predict impacts and so aid generalization. We further
16 hypothesize that environmental conditions at invaded sites modify the effect of trait differences
17 and so combine with traits to predict invasion impacts. To test these hypotheses, we used
18 systematic review to compile data on changes in aboveground and soil carbon pools following
19 non-native plant invasion from studies across the World. Maximum potential height (H_{max}) of
20 each species was drawn from trait databases and other sources. We used meta-regression to
21 assess which of invasive species' H_{max} , differences in this height trait between native and
22 invasive plants, and climatic water deficit, a measure of water stress, were good predictors of
23 changes in carbon pools following invasion. We found that aboveground biomass in invaded
24 ecosystems relative to uninvaded ones increased as the value of H_{max} of invasive relative to
25 native species increased, but that this effect was reduced in more water stressed ecosystems.
26 Changes in soil carbon pools were also positively correlated with the relative H_{max} of invasive
27 species, but were not altered by water stress. This study is one of the first to show quantitatively
28 that the impact of invasive species on an ecosystem may depend on differences in invasive and
29 native species' traits, rather than solely the traits of invasive species. Our study is also the first to
30 show that the influence of trait differences can be altered by climate. Further developing our
31 understanding of the impacts of invasive species using this framework could help researchers to

32 identify not only potentially dangerous invasive species, but also the ecosystems where impacts
33 are likely to be greatest.

34 **Key words:** invasive species, ecosystem functioning, carbon storage, impact, meta-analysis

35

36 **Introduction**

37 Invasive plant species can damage the environment, human health or the economy via reductions
38 in native biodiversity (Vilà *et al.* 2011), or alteration of ecosystem services (Pejchar & Mooney
39 2009). A major goal of invasion biology is to form general rules about how invasive plant
40 species impact the ecosystems they invade (Parker *et al.* 1999; Ricciardi *et al.* 2013), to allow
41 prediction and risk assessment. However, forming these general rules is difficult because of large
42 differences in species' impacts on ecosystems (Liao *et al.* 2008; Vilà *et al.* 2011). This was
43 illustrated by the meta-analysis of Vila *et al.*(2011) in which less than half of ecosystem changes
44 in response to plant invasion showed a statistically significant response, potentially giving the
45 misleading impression that species invasions cause little impact on ecosystem properties, despite
46 ample evidence to the contrary (Hulme *et al.* 2015). Generalizing about the impacts of plant
47 invasions is challenging because invasive species represent a wide variety of life forms (Pyšek *et*
48 *al.* 2008), and because invaded ecosystems differ in their plant communities and abiotic
49 conditions. However, using functional effect traits of invasive species offers a potential method
50 to generalize about changes resulting from invasion (Suding *et al.* 2008).

51 One of the most commonly reported changes in ecosystems following invasion by non-native
52 plants is an increase in ecosystem carbon pools (Liao *et al.* 2008; Vilà *et al.* 2011). However,
53 syntheses have failed to identify mechanisms that might explain the heterogeneity in invasive

54 plant species effects on carbon pools. Previous syntheses of invasive species impact have
55 focused on the traits of invasive species as predictors (e.g. Pyšek *et al.* 2012), often using trait
56 values from the invasive's native range. However, theory suggests that it is the *difference* in trait
57 values between invasive species and the native species in the community being invaded that
58 determines ecosystem-level changes after invasion (Ricciardi *et al.* 2013). Castro-Diéz *et al.*
59 (2014) successfully tested this theory and showed that differences in native and invasive plant
60 traits influenced post-invasion changes in nitrogen pools. Similarly, differences in the potential
61 maximum height between native and invasive species may serve as a predictor of changes in
62 carbon pools following invasion, as height relates to volume and thus biomass. Given that
63 increases in aboveground biomass tend to enhance soil carbon as a result of increased input from
64 litter and root material (Eldridge *et al.* 2011), differences in the height trait may also serve as a
65 predictor of changes in soil carbon. Using traits measured in the native ranges of both invasive
66 and native species in analyses may allow invasion biology to move beyond identifying the most
67 damaging species to generalizing *a priori* about the effects of species in particular contexts.

68 Though using species' traits may aid generalization about the impacts of invasive species, the
69 expression of plant traits can be highly plastic among environments (Funk 2008; Davidson,
70 Jennions & Nicotra 2011). Thus, while maximum potential height (or any other trait) values
71 might explain invasive species' impacts to some extent, the effect the local environment on the
72 ability to achieve this potential height will limit the explanatory power of traits and trait
73 differences. One means of accounting for this plasticity is to include climatic data in analyses,
74 since within-species' variability in expression of traits such as maximum height can result from
75 climatic differences between sites (Jakobs, Weber & Edwards 2004). Globally, plants tend to be
76 taller nearer the equator (Moles *et al.* 2009) as a result of greater water availability in the wet

77 tropics allowing plants to reach greater heights (Moles *et al.* 2009; Stegen *et al.* 2011). The water
78 availability of novel ecosystems may alter the height that invasive species attain, thus making
79 changes in carbon pools partly dependent on climate. We elaborate on this hypothesis in Figure
80 1. The impacts of abiotic variation on functional trait expression, and the subsequent alteration of
81 ecosystem functions is considered a key topic for community ecology (McGill *et al.* 2006; Violle
82 *et al.* 2007) and invasion biology (Hulme & Barrett 2013).

83 In this study we suggest that trait differences and climate interact to determine the impact of
84 invasive plant species. Specifically, we use a global dataset of changes in carbon pools following
85 non-native plant invasion to test the hypothesis that the impact of invasive species on carbon
86 pools depends on (i) the difference in maximum attainable heights for the invasive and native
87 (i.e. the single native species that is dominant in the uninvaded community) plant species as
88 measured in their native ranges and (ii) water availability in the novel ecosystem. In addition, we
89 test the hypothesis that the difference in attainable height for invasive and native species is a
90 better predictor of changes in carbon pools than the maximum height of the invasive species.
91 Because there is a direct link between plant height, biomass and carbon storage, this focus gives
92 us a robust relationship with which to investigate the more novel question about the role of
93 climate in modifying how trait differences predict impact. Importantly, this approach uses trait
94 values for invasive species from their native ranges, with the aim of enabling prediction of the
95 impact of invasive species prior to their arrival.

96 **Methods**

97 **Systematic review**

98 To collate data on the carbon impacts of invasive plant species we first conducted a systematic
99 review following Pullin & Stewart (2006). Our criteria for inclusion were:

- 100 (i) The species studied were invasive, rather than solely non-native. As such species had
101 to be described as non-native and invasive in the study, and/or the species was
102 classified as invasive by the Global Invasive Species database
103 (<http://www.iucngisd.org/gisd/>) or the CABI Invasive Species Compendium
104 (<http://www.cabi.org/isc/>).
- 105 (ii) Quantitative, replicated measurements were supplied of the effects of invasive plant
106 species on aboveground biomass or soil carbon at one or more invaded site and a
107 relevant un-invaded control. We did not limit the maximum depth of soil carbon
108 measurements to a specific range, but 70% of studies sampled to a depth of <20 cm.
109 Studies which used sites where invasive species had been removed as a control were
110 excluded due to the possibility of legacy effects (Corbin & D'Antonio 2012).
- 111 (iii) Details of the study location were given in the form of Latitude and Longitude, or a
112 description of the location that was detailed enough for coordinates to be assigned.
- 113 (iv) Invasive species showed signs of displacing native species, rather than just increasing
114 local species pools. Use of studies in which invasive species do not compete with
115 native species would potentially add noise to the analysis by reducing correlation
116 between trait differences and changes in ecosystem properties.
- 117 (v) Studies were carried out in terrestrial ecosystems, excluding wetlands. As we were
118 interested in investigating the influence of differences in plant height and water stress
119 on invasion impacts any measurements of impact in aquatic or wetland ecosystems
120 may have masked the impact of water stress.

121 (vi) Studies gave the scientific name of both the invasive and dominant native species in
122 the uninvaded site.

123 A key assumption of this analysis is that invasive species displace or reduce the abundance of the
124 dominant native species and that the invasive species subsequently becomes dominant. Thus, it is
125 valid to compare the traits of the invasive with *the single species* which is most dominant in the
126 uninvaded system.

127 Any invaded sites that differed in management or anthropogenic disturbance from un-invaded
128 sites were excluded since these differences could confound the effects of invasive species. Any
129 sites that were subject to deliberate establishment of invasive species, such as plantations, were
130 not considered since this represents a change in land use and management as well as in species
131 composition.

132

133 **Data collation**

134 To collate data we searched ISI Web of Knowledge (last search carried out 10/02/16) using the
135 search terms: (invas* OR non-native OR alien OR exotic) AND (plant OR grass OR shrub OR
136 tree OR weed OR forb OR vegetation) AND (biomass OR product* OR carbon). Following this
137 we selected papers that fell within the topics 'Environmental Sciences/Ecology' and
138 'Conservation biology.' Articles were excluded, first if titles were deemed irrelevant, and then by
139 examining abstracts. The remaining articles were read in full and retained only if they met our
140 inclusion criteria. Where there was evidence that relevant data had been collected but were not
141 presented in the publications they were requested from the authors. The reference lists of papers
142 meeting the inclusion criteria, as well as those of relevant reviews (Liao *et al.* 2008; Vilà *et al.*

143 2011), were also checked for additional relevant studies. For each study deemed relevant the
144 mean; standard error, standard deviation, or confidence interval; and sample size were extracted
145 for invaded and uninvaded ecosystems. Where data were presented in graphs they were extracted
146 using the program datathief (Tummers 2006).

147 Data on the maximum attainable height (H_{max}) in meters of invasive and native species was
148 collated using the LEDA (Kleyer *et al.* 2008) and ECOFLORA (Fitter & Peat 1994) trait
149 databases along with internet searches when this information could not be found elsewhere. It is
150 well known that traits of species, such as height, can change when a species colonizes areas
151 outside of its native range (Davidson *et al.* 2011). However, our work aims to predict how well
152 traits of a species in its native range predict ecosystem impact in non-native areas and so we used
153 trait values taken in species' native ranges. Where more than one trait value was available we
154 calculated the geometric mean value to reduce the impact of extreme values, following Wilman
155 *et al.* (2014). Data on H_{max} were available from websites for many more species than from trait
156 databases, so to check the accuracy of these data we assessed the correlation between H_{max} values
157 from internet sources and values from the trait databases for species where data were available
158 from both sources. The two were very highly correlated ($n=56$, $R^2=0.94$), though web based
159 sources had H_{max} values that were 11% lower than those in the LEDA and ECOFLORA trait
160 databases on average.

161 Water stress of ecosystems was assessed using climatic water deficit (CWD). CWD was
162 computed by summing the difference between monthly precipitation and evapotranspiration only
163 when the difference is negative (water deficit). Higher values indicate more extreme water stress.
164 The metric has been used to assess the effects of regional droughts (Van Mantgem & Stephenson
165 2007; Martin *et al.* 2015a) and global-scale climatic differences in water availability on forest

166 structure (Stegen *et al.* 2011). We obtained these data from a global gridded dataset with a 2.5
167 arc second resolution produced by Chave *et al.* (2014), which are available at [http://chave.ups-](http://chave.ups-tlse.fr/pantropical_allometry.htm)
168 [tlse.fr/pantropical_allometry.htm](http://chave.ups-tlse.fr/pantropical_allometry.htm). We subsequently extracted mean CWD values within 2.5 km
169 buffers of all sites we collated data for.

170 **Analysis**

171 To test the predictive ability of trait values of the invasive species alone we used the H_{max} for the
172 invasive in each study (hereafter termed H_{Inv}). We used the log ratio of differences in species'
173 heights (hereafter termed H_{diff}) as the measure of the differences in H_{max} of the invasive species
174 and its counterpart native species. Negative values of H_{diff} indicate that invasive species had a
175 lower H_{max} than the native species and positive values that they had a higher H_{max} . We
176 investigated whether the effect of H_{diff} was influenced by ecosystem water stress, measured as
177 CWD. Prior to analysis CWD was standardized using the methods of Schielzeth (2010). To do
178 this the mean of CWD was subtracted from each unique value, which was then divided by the
179 standard deviation of CWD. This approach improves model performance and the interpretability
180 of coefficients (Schielzeth 2010).

181 The difference in carbon pools between the uninvaded and invaded systems was assessed using
182 the response ratio effect size (Hedges, Gurevitch & Curtis 1999), with each study weighted by
183 the inverse of the within study variance to give more precise studies more weight (Borenstein *et*
184 *al.* 2009). For both aboveground biomass and soil carbon we assessed eight different possible
185 models: a null, intercept only model; including only H_{Inv} ; including only H_{diff} ; including only
186 CWD; an additive model of CWD and H_{diff} ; an additive model of CWD and H_{Inv} ; including an
187 interaction between CWD and H_{diff} ; and including an interaction between CWD and H_{Inv} . Some
188 studies we selected used a single uninvaded site for comparison with multiple invaded sites. To

189 control for this pseudoreplication we bootstrapped the analyses by randomly selecting a single
190 comparison when studies used the same uninvaded reference. This process was repeated 10,000
191 times and statistics of parsimony calculated from median values, following the approach of
192 previous studies (Sodhi *et al.* 2009; Curran, Hellweg & Beck 2014; Martin *et al.* 2015b). Model
193 selection was performed by comparing model AICc, with the model with lowest median AICc
194 selected as the best. The best model was then bootstrapped 10,000 times and goodness of fit
195 statistics and coefficients calculated from median values. To assess the goodness of fit of meta-
196 regression models the R^2 analogue was calculated as:

197
$$R^2 \text{ analogue} = 1 - \left(\frac{T_{residual}^2}{T_{total}^2} \right)$$

198 where T_{total}^2 is the total between study variance and $T_{residual}^2$ is the residual variance of the
199 model after independent variables have been accounted for. All analyses were carried out in R
200 3.23 (R Development Core Team 2011) using the metafor package (Viechtbauer 2010).

201 In addition to analyses of the effects of invasive plants on carbon pools we assessed how
202 representative the data we used were of the phenomena we were attempting to characterize. We
203 did this because we agree with Gonzalez *et al.* (2016) that where possible meta-analyses should
204 examine biases that may affect their ability to form generalizations. In the case of our study
205 ideally this meant comparing the frequency distribution of invasive species H_{max} heights from the
206 studies we used to that for all invasive plant records and doing the same with CWD values.
207 However, H_{max} data were not available for all known invasive species and so we used data on
208 growth form instead. To test for biases we used the R package rvest (Wickham 2015) to ‘scrape’
209 data from the CABI invasive species compendium (<http://www.cabi.org/isc/>) on the taxonomy
210 and locations of recorded invasive plant species. We then grouped invasive plants into broad

211 functional groups, and compared the percentage represented by all invasive plant species
212 recorded to those used in our study. To assess climatic biases we extracted data on CWD for all
213 locations where invasive plant species have been recorded and compared histograms of this to
214 the data on CWD for sites we used in our study. Although the data on invasive species records
215 are likely to be biased themselves (Pyšek *et al.* 2008), these are the only data available that allow
216 assessment of bias.

217 **Results**

218 The search terms of our systematic review identified 5552 articles. After excluding papers
219 deemed irrelevant the full text of 267 articles was assessed. Of these papers we identified 43 that
220 fully met our criteria, 16 with data on aboveground biomass and 35 with data on soil carbon (see
221 Appendix S1 for more information). From these papers we extracted 27 and 62 pairwise site
222 comparisons for aboveground biomass and soil carbon respectively. These papers detailed 47
223 different invasive species and 70 different dominant native species. 92% of studies were carried
224 out in the Northern hemisphere, largely in North America and Europe (see Appendix S1 Figure
225 S1).

226 The most parsimonious model for describing post-invasion changes in aboveground biomass
227 included an interaction term between CWD and H_{diff} . This model provided a relatively good fit to
228 the data ($R^2=0.30$). H_{diff} was positively correlated with changes in aboveground biomass
229 (slope=0.88, SE=0.1, $P<0.001$). Though the model with lowest AICc suggested a negative
230 relationship between CWD and changes in post invasion aboveground biomass, this effect was
231 not statistically significant (slope=-0.16, SE=0.3, $P=0.59$). However, the effect of H_{diff} was
232 reduced in water stressed climates, resulting in reduced biomass in drier climates (interaction
233 term=0.16, SE=0.07, $P=0.016$). Taken together these results indicate that as difference in H_{max}

234 increases, and water stress is reduced (i.e. a decrease in CWD), post-invasion biomass increases
235 (Figure 1). Model predictions also suggest that even when $H_{diff}=0$ (i.e. invasive and native
236 species have similar H_{max}), there tends to be an increase in aboveground biomass in invaded
237 systems (Figure 1). All models containing H_{inv} had little explanatory power and were less
238 parsimonious than the null model (Table S1).

239 In contrast the most parsimonious model for describing post-invasion changes in soil carbon
240 included only H_{diff} . This model provided low explanatory power ($R^2=0.09$) and was marginally
241 more parsimonious than the next best performing model that included only H_{inv} ($\Delta AICc=0.89$).
242 H_{diff} was positively correlated with changes in soil carbon, but this slope was non-significant at
243 the 5% level (slope=0.09, SE=0.05, P=0.059). The intercept of the model was positive
244 (intercept=0.16, SE=0.07, P=0.032) suggesting that even when invasive and native species have
245 similar maximum heights, there tends to be an increase in soil carbon following invasion.

246 Relative to records of invasive plant species occurrence, our data were biased towards less water
247 stressed ecosystems (Figure 4a). Our study also overrepresented graminoid invasive species, and
248 underrepresented herb and shrub invasive species (Figure 4b). However, our study had at least
249 one record for an invasive species of each growth form.

250 **Discussion**

251 This study is, to our knowledge, the first to test the hypothesis that the effect of differences
252 between invasive and native plant traits on ecosystem properties is modified predictably by the
253 abiotic environment, as laid out in Figure 1. Using meta-analysis to synthesize data from 51
254 studies our results show some support for this hypothesis. The effect of the difference in the H_{max}
255 of invasive and native species on aboveground biomass was altered by climatic water deficit.

256 Greater differences in H_{max} led to increases in aboveground biomass, but greater water stress
257 limited these increases. However, changes in soil carbon were solely influenced by the difference
258 in the H_{max} of the invasive and native species. Along with Castro-Diéz (2014) our study is, to our
259 knowledge, the only one showing evidence that the difference in invasive and native species
260 characteristics is an important predictor of the impact of the invasive species. Our study also
261 suggests that the difference in traits between the invasive and the dominant native species is a
262 more informative predictor of changes in ecosystem function than the invasive species traits
263 alone.

264 **Effects of trait differences and climate on carbon pools**

265 Our study indicates that as the climatic water deficit increases the effect of differences in
266 invasive and native species H_{max} on aboveground biomass is reduced. Empirical data suggests
267 that the size of plants can be limited by water stress (Moles *et al.* 2009; Stegen *et al.* 2009). As a
268 result, increased water stress may reduce the size attainable by invasive plant species (Jakobs *et*
269 *al.* 2004), limiting increases in aboveground carbon pools. We suggest that the interaction
270 between H_{diff} and climate observed in our study is a result of this alteration in attained plant size.
271 It is also interesting to note that our model predictions suggested that post-invasion biomass
272 increases even when invasive and native plants are of similar height. This may be for a number
273 of reasons. Firstly, invasive plant species appear to grow larger outside of their native range
274 (Thébaud & Simberloff 2001; Parker *et al.* 2013) possibly owing to a lack of natural enemies
275 (Keane & Crawley 2002). Secondly, the traits of invasive species, other than plant height, may
276 differ from those of native species, resulting in increases in biomass. Aside from plant height,
277 root depth may be the most useful trait for predicting changes in aboveground biomass
278 accumulation, with deeper rooting plants able to take advantage of water outside of the reach of

279 other plants (Lavorel & Garnier 2002). However, little information is available on root depth in
280 trait databases. The TRY database (Kattge *et al.* 2011; www.try-db.org - accessed 18/05/2016)
281 currently contains root depth estimates for only 54 plant species, as opposed to plant height
282 estimates for 26837 species. As a result inclusion of data on rooting depth in any synthesis is
283 currently not possible.

284 In contrast to the trait-climate interaction that determined changes in aboveground biomass, soil
285 carbon was only influenced by differences in native and invasive species height. This suggests
286 that invasion by larger plants resulted in increases in soil carbon pools as has been observed
287 following woody encroachment of grasslands (Eldridge *et al.* 2011). However, our model
288 explained relatively little of the variation in post-invasion soil carbon changes, suggesting that
289 there may be other important factors we did not account for in this study, including leaf traits
290 (Díaz *et al.* 2015). The majority of soil carbon originates from dead roots rather than
291 aboveground sources (Rasse, Rumpel & Dignac 2005), but, given that aboveground and
292 belowground biomass are highly correlated (Mokany, Raison & Prokushkin 2006) our analysis
293 should have partly accounted for differences in plant rooting depth.

294 Generalizing about the effects of invasive species on soil carbon pools is challenging because it
295 is determined by many interacting factors. These factors can be classified into three groups:
296 factors that alter the amount and quality of plant litter, factors that control the flow of carbon
297 from plant litter to soil organic matter, and factors that determine the stabilization of organic
298 material in soils (Cotrufo *et al.* 2013). In this study we investigated the influence of difference in
299 invasive and native plant height and climate, which primarily determine the volume of plant
300 litter. However, increases in the volume of leaf litter following non-native invasion do not
301 always result in increases in soil carbon (Tamura & Tharayil 2014; Craig, Pearson & Fraterrigo

302 2015). The characteristics of aboveground litter, such as lignin to nitrogen ratios (Prescott 2010)
303 and leaf mass per area (Cornwell *et al.* 2008), also strongly influence the rate at which the litter
304 decays. In the case of roots, which are a major source of soil carbon, variations in the calcium
305 content and carbon to nitrogen ratios strongly influence decay rates (Silver & Miya 2001). Even
306 in ecosystems invaded by the same plant species differences in soil characteristics such as pH,
307 and clay content can strongly influence changes in soil carbon (Kramer *et al.* 2012) by altering
308 the efficiency with which plant material is incorporated into microbial biomass (Cotrufo *et al.*
309 2013). Once incorporated into soil the long-term retention of organic material is determined by
310 interactions with the soil matrix (Cotrufo *et al.* 2013). In our analysis it was impossible to
311 account for all of these factors, but we urge researchers to investigate this topic further given that
312 the effects of invasive plants on soil carbon pools appear to be widespread.

313 Importantly in the case of both biomass and soil carbon the height of invasive species (H_{Inv}) was
314 a poorer predictor of change than H_{diff} . Thus, both this study and that of Castro Diez *et al.* (2014)
315 suggest that using information on both native and invasive traits may produce more informative
316 predictions of post-invasion changes than solely using information about invasive species. While
317 some previous syntheses of the impact of invasive plant species on ecosystems have solely used
318 information on invasive species traits (e.g. Pyšek *et al.* 2012) we suggest that the using the
319 difference between native and invasive species' traits may help researchers to generalize about
320 the impacts of invasive plant species in the future.

321 A key assumption of our paper is that invasive species displace or reduce the abundance of a
322 single native species that is dominant in the uninvaded system and that the invasive species
323 subsequently becomes dominant. This is unlikely to have been the case in all studies. However,
324 the dominant species in a plant community is likely to indicate the maximum vegetation height

325 and so be a good proxy for the state of the community prior to invasion. Furthermore, very few
326 papers report percentage cover of species, hampering any analyses accounting for differences in
327 abundance. Increased recording of abundance of invasive species in studies that aim to estimate
328 their impacts would aid syntheses in the future and allow greater generalization about the per
329 capita effects of invaders (Parker *et al.* 1999).

330 In addition to differences in abundance, our analysis did not allow us to consider the effects of
331 the time since invasion occurred on carbon pools. This variable is rarely recorded (Strayer *et al.*
332 2006) but plays an important role in the effects of invasive plant species on ecosystem processes
333 which may take decades to achieve a new post-invasion equilibrium. Encroachment of woody
334 invasive species in open ecosystems tends to increase aboveground biomass (Eldridge *et al.*
335 2011), but as succession progresses and woody species increase in size and number, biomass will
336 eventually plateau. Soil processes, in particular, may take a long time to be altered by plant
337 invasions (Strayer *et al.* 2006). For example, displacement of woody species by shorter
338 herbaceous species may not immediately lead to a reduction in soil carbon, since woody roots
339 may persist in the soil (Johnson & Wilcock 2002; Strayer *et al.* 2006). We echo the views of
340 Strayer *et al.* (2006) that more studies should investigate the temporal dynamics of the effects of
341 invasive species to allow assessment of their long-term impacts.

342 **Do invasives have positive effects on carbon pools?**

343 The changes in carbon stocks predicted in our analysis of biomass range from decreases of ca.
344 60% to increases of ca. 170%, while for soil carbon they range from decreases of ca. 20% to
345 increases of ca. 65%. Thus, it is clear that invasive plant species can have significant impacts on
346 the carbon pools of the ecosystems they invade, often increasing carbon pools (Liao *et al.* 2008;
347 Vilà *et al.* 2011) and thus enhancing the ecosystem service of climate regulation. This may result

348 in management conflicts when biodiversity is negatively affected by invasion, as seen in New
349 Zealand where restoration of a grassland invaded by pine species was halted because of potential
350 carbon emissions (Dickie *et al.* 2011). However, our work also shows that relatively short
351 invasive species can cause losses in carbon pools, particularly in arid ecosystems, suggesting that
352 if their impact on biodiversity is equal to that of taller species their eradication should be
353 prioritized. Increases in aboveground biomass following invasion also have the potential to alter
354 water supply, with increased biomass often resulting in higher evapotranspiration and reduced
355 stream flow (Jackson *et al.* 2005). Indeed, a number of programs to eradicate invasive plants do
356 so specifically to increase water supply for local communities (Le Maitre *et al.* 2002; Le Maitre,
357 Gush & Dzikiti 2015). As a result, though increased carbon storage may be seen as a positive
358 from the perspective of climate mitigation, assessing ecosystem service trade-offs that occur as a
359 result of invasions is vitally important.

360 **Potential biases**

361 Our exploration of biases suggested that our study overrepresented areas with low-intermediate
362 CWD, but underrepresented areas that were highly water stressed. As a result of this under
363 sampling it is unclear whether our findings can be applied to highly water stressed ecosystems.
364 Our study overrepresented invasive grass species, but underrepresented herb species with tree
365 and shrub species well represented. Underrepresentation of herbs may have resulted in relatively
366 few studies where invasive species were shorter than native species, but given that we used data
367 from studies which estimated the effect of invasive species of all growth forms, taxonomic biases
368 are likely to have had little effect on our results. Assessing the biases of our study is difficult
369 because the records of invasive species we based our analysis of bias on are themselves highly
370 biased (Pautasso & McKinney 2007; Pyšek *et al.* 2008). As with many syntheses in ecology, our

371 study shows a bias towards North America and Europe (Martin, Blossey & Ellis 2012; Gonzalez
372 *et al.* 2016), but it is also unclear whether in reality more invasive species occur in these regions
373 than elsewhere.

374 **Conclusions**

375 Our paper is amongst the first to show that the impacts of invasive species depend on differences
376 between native and invasive species traits, rather than solely the trait values of the invasive
377 species. This represents a significant advance compared to previous syntheses which have only
378 used the trait values of invasive species to predict impact (Pyšek *et al.* 2012; but see Castro-Diez
379 *et al.* 2014). Based on the findings of this study and that of Castro-Diez *et al.* (2014) we
380 recommend that future research takes into consideration both invasive and native species traits
381 when assessing the impacts of invasive plant species. We have extended this concept by showing
382 that trait differences may be modified by abiotic conditions, specifically our finding that climatic
383 water deficit altered the impact of differences in height on aboveground biomass changes. These
384 findings suggest a framework by which the traits of invasives measured in their native ranges can
385 be combined with information on native species' traits and abiotic conditions in the invaded
386 systems to predict where impacts on ecosystem services are likely to be greatest. This framework
387 may allow improved predictions of the impact of invasive species, and identification of
388 ecosystems at particular risk. More direct understanding of the predictive power of trait
389 differences will be achieved if researchers take heed of Hulme *et al.* (2013) and measure the
390 traits of invasive species in their non-native and native ranges. This may allow researchers in the
391 future to go beyond using species-level averages of traits and determine the likely trait values of
392 species under a range of environmental conditions. The ability to do this would greatly further
393 the utility of trait based approaches for predicting species' impact.

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602

603 Table 1 – Coefficient estimates of the most parsimonious models for post-invasion changes in
 604 aboveground biomass and soil carbon. Estimates were obtained by bootstrapping the models
 605 with lowest AICc to select sites that were truly independent with 1000 iterations.

Y variable	Parameter	Coefficient	SE	Lower confidence interval	Upper confidence interval	P value
Aboveground biomass	Intercept	0.45	0.29	-0.12	1.01	0.12
	CWD	-0.16	0.3	-0.43	0.75	0.59
	H_{diff}	0.88	0.1	0.69	1.07	<0.001
	H_{diff} *CWD	0.16	0.07	-0.29	-0.03	0.016
Soil carbon	Intercept	0.16	0.07	0.02	0.31	0.032
	H_{diff}	0.09	0.05	0	0.18	0.059

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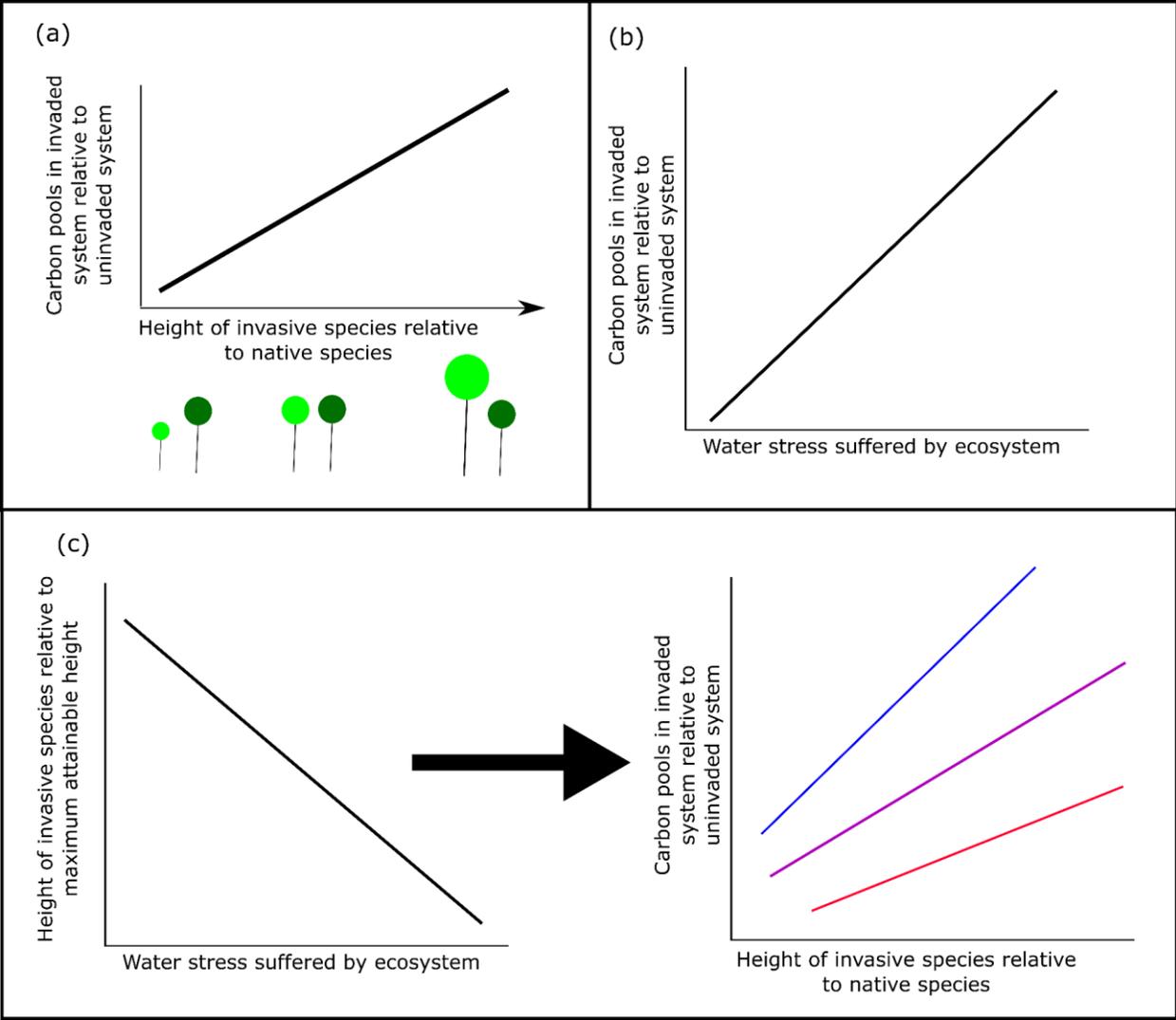
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608 Figure 1 – Qualitative predictions of hypothesized relationships between changes in ecosystem
609 carbon pools and (a) maximum height of invasive species relative to dominant species, (b)
610 ecosystem water stress and (c) interactions between water stress and maximum height of
611 invasive species relative to dominant species. In (a) as maximum height of invasive species
612 relative to dominant species increases so do carbon pools in invaded relative to uninvaded
613 systems. The diagram below the figure represents the relative difference in invasive (light green)
614 and native (dark green) maximum heights. Any deviation of the intercept in (a) away from zero
615 may suggest traits other than height play an important role in determining carbon pools. In (b)
616 post-invasive carbon pool changes are positively related to ecosystem water stress as observed
617 by as a result of increased decomposition rates in wetter climates (Smith *et al.* 2013). In (c)
618 increasing water stress reduces the height invasive plants can achieve, thereby resulting in lower
619 gains in carbon pools for water stressed systems (red line) when compared with intermediate or
620 non-water stressed systems (purple and blue line respectively).

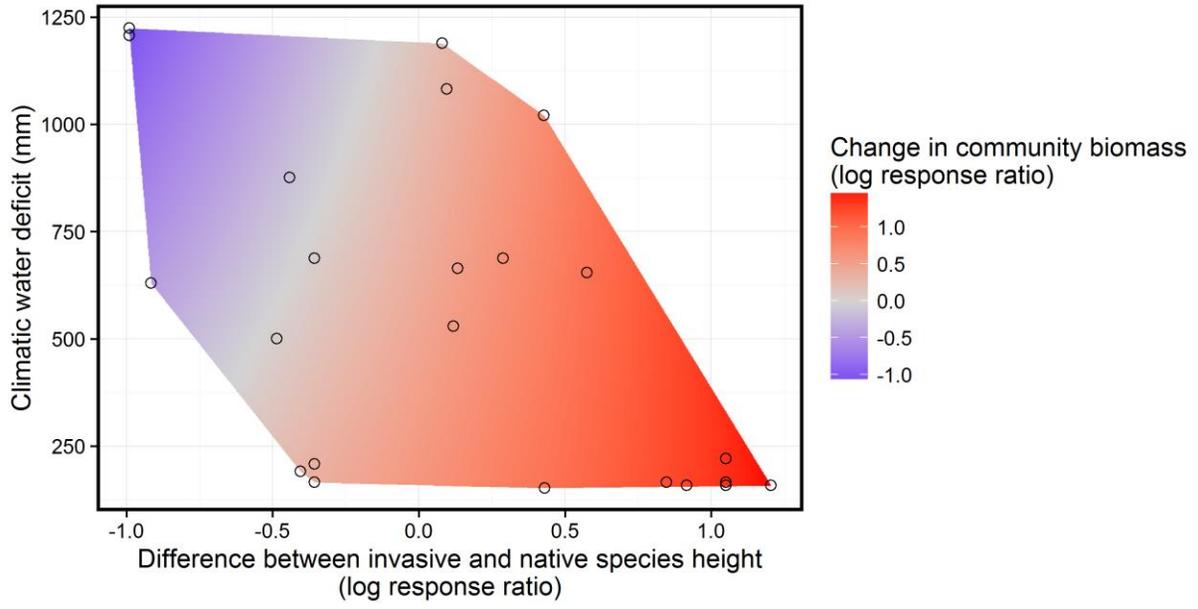
621 Figure 2- Change in community biomass following invasion is governed by the difference in
622 invasive and native species height and climatic water deficit ($R^2=0.30$, $n=27$). Red color
623 indicates gains in biomass and blue losses in biomass.

624 Figure 3 – Relationship between differences in invasive and native species height and changes in
625 soil carbon following invasion. Points indicate pair-wise comparisons between invaded and
626 uninvaded ecosystems, with the solid line representing predictions from the best supported meta-
627 regression model ($R^2=0.09$, $n=62$).

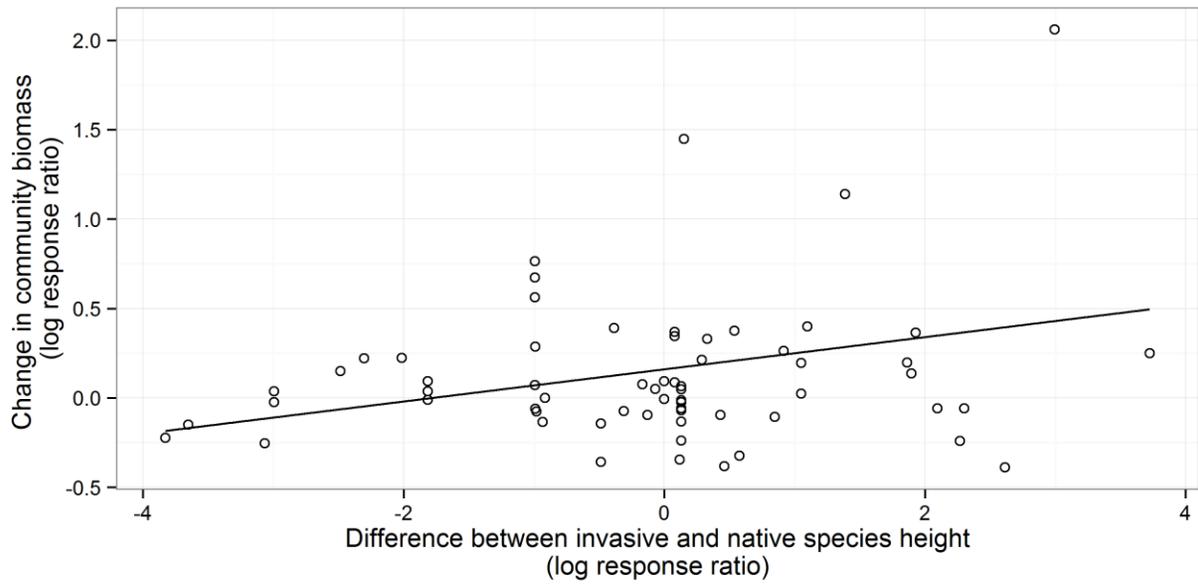
628 Figure 4 – Biases in (a) climatic water deficit and (b) invasive plant growth forms used in this
629 study relative to data collated on locations invaded by all non-native invasive plant species from
630 the CABI invasive species compendium.



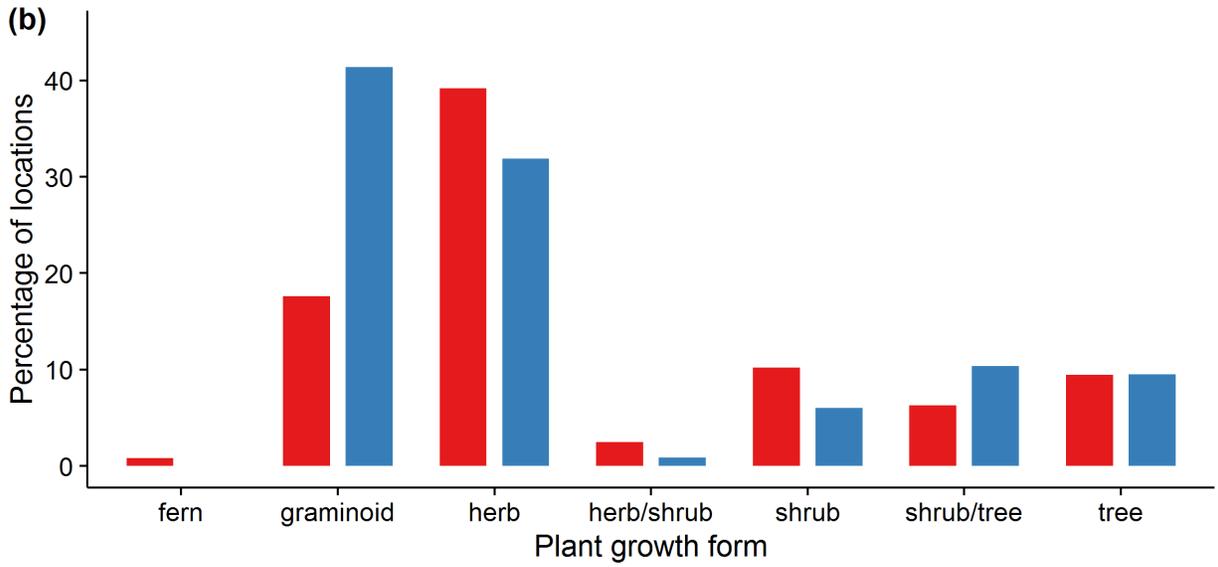
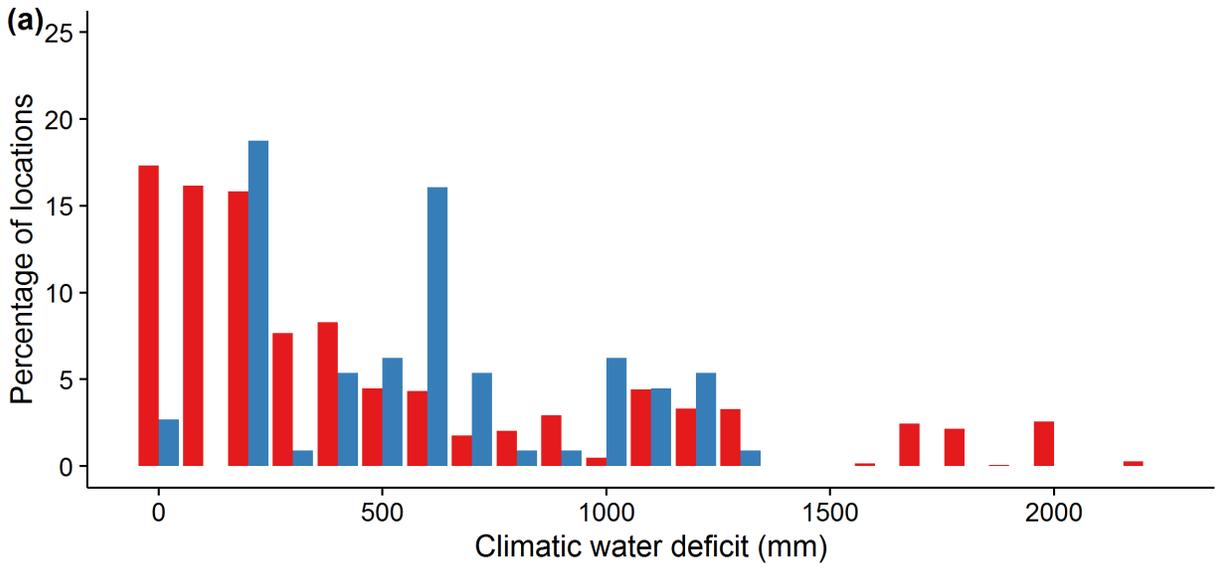
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Data set ■ Global ■ Study

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