University of Massachusetts Amherst ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst

Environmental Conservation Faculty Publication Series

Environmental Conservation

2019

Disentangling the abundance–impact relationship for invasive species

Bethany A. Bradley University of Massachusetts Amherst

Brittany B. Laginhas University of Massachusetts Amherst

Raj Whitlock University of Liverpool

Jenica M. Allen University of New Hampshire, Durham

Amanda E. Bates Memorial University of Newfoundland

See next page for additional authors

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.umass.edu/nrc_faculty_pubs Part of the <u>Environmental Monitoring Commons</u>, and the <u>Natural Resources and Conservation</u> <u>Commons</u>

Recommended Citation

Bradley, Bethany A.; Laginhas, Brittany B.; Whitlock, Raj; Allen, Jenica M.; Bates, Amanda E.; Bernatchez, Genevieve; Diez, Jeffrey M.; Early, Regan; Lenoir, Jonathan; Vilà, Montserrat; and Sorte, Cascade J.B., "Disentangling the abundance–impact relationship for invasive species" (2019). *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 408. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1818081116

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Environmental Conservation at ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Environmental Conservation Faculty Publication Series by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact scholarworks@library.umass.edu.

Authors

Bethany A. Bradley, Brittany B. Laginhas, Raj Whitlock, Jenica M. Allen, Amanda E. Bates, Genevieve Bernatchez, Jeffrey M. Diez, Regan Early, Jonathan Lenoir, Montserrat Vilà, and Cascade J.B. Sorte

1	Classification: BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES, Ecology
2	Disentending the chundeness impost velotionship for investive species
3 4	Disentangling the abundance-impact relationship for invasive species
5	Bethany A. Bradley ^{1,2*} , Brittany B. Laginhas ² , Raj Whitlock ³ , Jenica M. Allen ⁴ , Amanda E. Bates ⁵ ,
6	Genevieve Bernatchez ⁶ , Jeffrey M. Diez ⁷ , Regan Early ⁸ , Jonathan Lenoir ⁹ , Montserrat Vilà ¹⁰ , Cascade J.
7	B. Sorte ⁶
8	
9	1. Department of Environmental Conservation, University of Massachusetts, Amherst MA USA 01003
10	2. Graduate Program in Organismic & Evolutionary Biology, University of Massachusetts, Amherst
11	MA USA 01003
12	3. Institute of Integrative Biology, University of Liverpool, Liverpool L69 7ZB, UK
13 14	 Department of Natural Resources and the Environment, University of New Hampshire, Durham, NH 03824 USA
15	5. Memorial University of Newfoundland, Canada
16	6. Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of California, Irvine CA USA 92697
17	7. Department of Botany and Plant Sciences, University of California, Riverside, CA 92521, USA
18	8. Centre for Ecology and Conservation, University of Exeter, Penryn Campus, UK
19	9. UR "Ecologie et Dynamique des Systèmes Anthropisés" (EDYSAN, UMR 7058 CNRS-UPJV),
20	Université de Picardie Jules Verne, 1 Rue des Louvels, 80037 Amiens Cedex 1, France
21	10. Estación Biológica de Doñana (EBD-CSIC), Avda. Américo Vespucio 26, Isla de la Cartuja, 41092
22 23	Sevilla, Spain
25	
24	*corresponding author: <u>bbradley@eco.umass.edu</u> ; phone 413 545 1764
25	ORCID:
26	B. Bradley: 0000-0003-4912-4971
27	R. Whitlock: 0000-0002-7067-8365
28	R. Early: 0000-0003-4108-5904
29	J. Lenoir: 0000-0003-0638-9582
30	M. Vilà: 0000-0003-3171-8261
31	C.J.B. Sorte: 0000-0003-0952-951X
32	Dennis - Lee d. Maardina incorrect of incorrection incorden shared and
33 34	Running head: Negative impacts of increasing invader abundance
34 35	Keywords: abundance; community ecology; density-dependence; diversity; ecological impacts; invasive
36	species; per capita effect, response curve
37	

38 Abstract

39 In order to predict the threat of biological invasions to native species, it is critical that we understand how 40 increasing abundance of invasive alien species (IAS) affects native populations and communities. The 41 form of this relationship across taxa and ecosystems is unknown, but is expected to depend strongly on 42 the trophic position of the IAS relative to the native species. Using a global meta-analysis based on 1,258 empirical studies presented in 201 scientific publications, we assessed the shape, direction and strength of 43 44 native responses to increasing invader abundance. We also tested how native responses varied with 45 relative trophic position and for responses at the population vs. community levels. As IAS abundance 46 increased, native populations declined non-linearly by 20%, on average, and community metrics declined 47 linearly by 25%. When at higher trophic levels, invaders tended to cause a strong, non-linear decline in 48 native populations and communities, with the greatest impacts occurring at low invader abundance. In 49 contrast, invaders at the same trophic level tended to cause a linear decline in native populations and 50 communities, while invaders at lower trophic levels had no consistent impacts. At the community level, increasing invader abundance had significantly larger effects on species evenness and diversity than on 51 52 species richness. Our results show that native responses to invasion depend critically on invasive species' 53 abundance and trophic position. Further, these general abundance-impact relationships reveal how IAS 54 impacts are likely to develop during the invasion process, and when to best manage them.

55

56 Significance statement

57 The shape (linear vs. non-linear), direction (negative vs. positive), and strength of the relationship 58 between IAS abundance and native species diversity determines which invaders present the greatest risk 59 to ecosystems. Yet, the form of the relationship between abundance and impact was previously unknown. Our meta-analyses reveal a strongly negative, convex relationship between invader abundance and native 60 populations or communities when invaders are at higher trophic levels. Thus, on average, invasive 61 62 species' impacts are strongest at low invader abundance, highlighting the need for proactive policies to 63 prevent introduction and eradicate early infestations. When invaders are at the same trophic levels, their impacts tended to be negative and linear, suggesting that treatment could benefit native communities 64 65 regardless of invasion stage.

66 Introduction

67 Invasive alien species (IAS) have negative effects on native species populations (i.e., decreased population sizes) and communities (i.e., reduction in species diversity). These negative impacts have been 68 69 observed for many invasive alien taxa and across ecosystems (1–5). However, previous syntheses have 70 assessed the effect of invader presence/absence without considering how impact might change with 71 increasing invader abundance. As a result, the general shape of the relationship between invader 72 abundance and native population or community response remains unknown. Understanding how invader 73 impacts change with abundance is critical for predicting the severity of the impacts across recipient 74 habitats (3, 6, 7), assessing the costs and benefits of treatment (8, 9) and prioritizing management actions (10).75

76 Frameworks for assessing IAS impacts typically rely on assumed relationships between invader 77 abundance and impact. For example, Parker et al. (11) proposed that an invader's impacts are a function 78 of its total range, abundance, and per capita effect (I=R*A*E). This equation specifies that impacts 79 increase linearly with abundance, with no density-dependent relationship between abundance and per 80 capita effect. Later impacts frameworks explicitly hypothesized density-dependent relationships, with impacts increasing or decreasing non-linearly with invader abundance (12, 13). The variety of possible 81 82 relationships between abundance and impact highlights the strong need for an empirical assessment of 83 this fundamental question across taxa (8). Moreover, it is unknown whether relationships between 84 abundance and impact depend on the trophic positions of invading and native species. One review of invasive impacts studies concluded that there was no clear effect of trophic position on impacts (14), 85 while another meta-analysis focused on marine ecosystems suggested that impacts on native species 86 87 switched from positive to negative if invaders were in lower vs. higher trophic levels, respectively (4). 88 Classical ecological theory suggests that when an invasive alien species is at a higher trophic level

than a native species, the invader is likely to cause a strong non-linear decline in the native species
population due to density dependence and a number of processes that alter the per capita effects of the

91 invasive species (Fig. 1A; 15, 16). For example, the introduction of a novel alien predator or herbivore 92 can lead to rapid decreases in native prey or plant population sizes (14, 17). Following this initial decline, native populations might later stabilize at lower sizes by persisting in refuges, through adaptation 93 94 (evolution, phenotypic or behavioral plasticity), or by reaching a lower carrying capacity balanced by 95 immigration of new individuals. These responses would result in a non-linear relationship between 96 invader abundance and native population size. For example, Benkwitt (18) observed a non-linear decline 97 in sizes of native fish populations following the introduction of the predatory invasive lionfish (Pterois 98 *volitans*) in the Caribbean. Impacts at the community level are also hypothesized to be stronger when the 99 IAS is at a higher trophic level than the invaded native species assemblage (19, 20), but the general shape of the relationship is unknown. 100

101 When an invasive alien species is at the same trophic level as a native species, the invader could 102 cause either a linear or non-linear decline in the native species population size (Fig. 1B). Competition is 103 the main mechanism for IAS impact when invasive and native species occupy the same trophic level (21). 104 The impacts of competition could be linear if per capita competitive effects are not density-dependent. However, field studies have also shown that competition can be density-dependent, leading to non-linear 105 106 declines in native species population sizes (22). Impacts at the community level for IAS at the same 107 trophic level vary with the spatial scale of analysis (23), but the shape of the response relative to invader 108 abundance is unknown.

Finally, when an invasive alien species is at a lower trophic level than a native species, the relationship between invader abundance and native species population size could be positive or negative (**Fig. 1C**). The direction of this relationship depends on whether the IAS acts as a novel resource for the native species or reduces resources upon which the native species depends. Previous meta-analyses of invader presence *vs.* absence suggest that negative impacts may be more likely. For example, the presence of invasive alien plants reduces the abundance of native animals (5), particularly native herbivorous insects (24), which are often specialists of native plants (25). Similarly, invasive primary producers in freshwater systems can have a negative effect on native fish (2), likely by disrupting access to resources.
The direction of native community-level responses to IAS at lower trophic levels is even less clear.
Previous meta-analyses in marine and freshwater ecosystems have found that invaders at lower trophic
levels tended to increase (4) or have no significant overall effect on (2) the diversity of benthic
invertebrates at higher trophic levels. Thus, impacts at the community level for IAS at lower trophic
levels remain poorly understood.

122 Here, we present the first global meta-analysis of responses of native species and communities to gradients of IAS abundance, quantifying the direction, strength and shape of this relationship for different 123 124 trophic interactions. We develop generalizations based on comprehensive empirical evidence of how the abundance-impact relationship varies between a) native population and community responses (e.g., 125 126 individual species abundance vs. species diversity), b) invader taxon (plant, animal), and c) recipient 127 habitat (freshwater, terrestrial, marine). This analysis of abundance-impact relationships across 128 ecosystems provides a key test of ecological theory related to species and community-level responses to 129 novel species interactions.

131 **Results**

We analyzed data from 1,258 unique case studies reported in 201 papers. Of the papers included in the dataset, 94 evaluated invasive plants and 107 evaluated invasive animals (**SI Appendix, Table S3.1**). Almost all of the plant studies were terrestrial, whereas studies of invasive alien animals were well distributed across habitat types. Spatially, most of the data were collected in North America, Europe, Australia or New Zealand (**SI Appendix, Fig. S3.1**). This pattern is consistent with known biases in the invasion ecology literature (26), but the studies nonetheless encompass a broad range of alien taxa across habitat types.

139 Native responses to IAS abundance at the population level had a significantly negative linear 140 component but a significantly positive polynomial component, resulting in a non-linear relationship with 141 the most rapid rate of decline in native populations occurring at low invader abundance (Fig. 2A,B; 142 summary statistics for model contrasts are given in **SI Appendix**, **Table S3.2**). Native species populations 143 declined by an average of 20% as IAS abundance increased (Fig. 2B). Native responses to IAS at the 144 community level also had a significantly negative linear component, but no significant polynomial 145 component, resulting in a negative linear shape (Fig. 2C,D). Native community metrics (richness, diversity, evenness, or multi-species abundance) declined by an average of 25% as IAS abundance 146 147 increased (Fig. 2D).

Abundance-impact relationships varied substantially and significantly depending on the relative 148 149 trophic positions of the invasive and native species (Fig. 3). When IAS were at a higher trophic level, 150 their impacts on native species populations and communities were strongly negative and non-linear (Fig. 151 **3A,D**). As IAS at higher trophic levels increased in abundance, native populations declined by an average of 44% and native community metrics by an average of 52% (Fig. 3 A,D). However, IAS impacts 152 153 weakened as their trophic position shifted from higher to lower (Fig. 3). For IAS at the same trophic 154 level, native populations declined by an average of 20% and native community metrics by an average of 155 28%. When IAS were at the same trophic level, their impacts on native species were significantly

negative and non-linear (Fig. 3B), while their impacts on communities were significantly negative and
linear (Fig. 3E). When IAS were at a lower trophic level, they had no consistent impact on native species
or communities (Fig. 3C,F).

159 At the community level, increasing invader abundance had a significant negative effect on native 160 species' richness, Shannon diversity, and Pielou evenness (Fig. 4; SI Appendix, Fig. S3.2). Although 161 species richness was by far the most commonly reported diversity metric (85 papers, 218 studies), linear impacts were significantly more negative for native species evenness (p=0.004) and diversity (p=0.04; 162 163 Fig. 4). On average (across all trophic categories) there were no significant non-linearities between IAS 164 abundance and community-level diversity. However, species richness showed a marginally non-165 significant negative polynomial term (p=0.052; impacts on richness were more likely to be weakest at low 166 invader abundance) and the polynomial term for richness was significantly lower than that for evenness 167 (p=0.01; Fig. 4).

168 Compared with trophic position, recipient habitat (terrestrial, freshwater or marine) explained little 169 variation in the impacts of IAS on native species and communities (SI Appendix, Fig. S3.3). IAS at 170 higher trophic levels generally had strongly negative, non-linear effects on native species and 171 communities regardless of habitat type, with freshwater habitat showing the strongest curvature. IAS at 172 the same trophic level generally had negative linear effects across habitat types, although there was some 173 curvature in freshwater habitat. IAS at lower trophic levels generally had no effect, although species and 174 communities in terrestrial habitats were likely to show a weak negative linear response (SI Appendix, 175 Fig. S3.3).

Responses of native species and communities to IAS abundance varied depending on invader taxon
(animals *vs.* plants; SI Appendix, Fig. S3.4). At a higher trophic level, invasive animals had significant
negative non-linear effects on native species and communities (there were no plants at higher trophic
levels). Invasive animals and plants at the same trophic level both drove negative impacts in native

- 180 species, but responses to invasive animals were significantly non-linear, while those to invasive plants
- 181 were significantly linear. At lower trophic levels, invasive animals had no consistent impacts, while
- invasive plants had a small but significant negative linear effect (partial-r p=0.002; SI Appendix, Fig.
- 183 S3.4). Linear effect sizes did not vary significantly among study types (spatial, temporal, experimental
- 184 studies; **SI Appendix, Fig. S3.5**).

185 Discussion

186 Our global meta-analysis is the first to quantify general trends in the direction, shape and strength of 187 the relationship between IAS abundance and native response across trophic levels, invader taxon and recipient habitat. Negative impacts of IAS clearly predominate across terrestrial, freshwater, and marine 188 189 habitats, and are caused by both animal and plant invaders. Negative impacts are common when IAS are 190 at higher or the same trophic level as native species, and native population or community declines of 20-191 25% were typical. Across trophic interactions, invader taxon, and recipient habitat, there were no general 192 trends of invader abundance having a positive effect on native populations or communities. Our results 193 also show that native responses to IAS can be strongly non-linear (convex), suggesting that impacts are 194 strongest at low levels of IAS abundance during the earliest stages of invasion.

195 When IAS were at higher trophic levels, impacts were consistently non-linear for both native 196 populations and communities (Fig. 3A,D). A non-linear effect on native species populations is supported 197 by ecological theory of predator-prey interactions (Fig. 1A). IAS at higher trophic levels are also thought 198 to have stronger effects on native communities than those at other trophic levels (19). However, a general 199 non-linear effect on native communities has not been previously described. Low invader abundance is 200 most likely to occur early in the invasion process. Thus, early detection and rapid response to new 201 invasions (27, 28) will be most effective for reducing impacts of invasive animals, because they are most 202 likely to impose non-linear effects on recipient habitats (Fig. S3.4A,B). Similarly, eradicating animal 203 invaders, such as alien mammals on islands (29), is a much more effective means of supporting native 204 species than reducing the populations of abundant animal invaders. If eradication is not possible, our 205 results suggest that once IAS at higher trophic levels reach high abundance, management will be less 206 effective for mitigating impacts.

When IAS were at the same trophic level as natives, our results highlight a consistent, negative
impact on both populations and communities (Fig. 3B,E). This negative impact tended to be linear for

209 community-level metrics. However, our results also suggest that non-linear responses to invaders at the 210 same trophic level are likely when the native response is at the population level (Fig. 3B) and particularly when the IAS is an animal (SI Appendix, Fig. S3.4B). Density-dependent competition is common in 211 212 animal species (30). Although density-dependent competition has also been observed for plant species 213 (13, 22), it was not evident in our analysis (SI Appendix, Fig. S3.4D). Thus, non-linear relationships 214 between an invasive and native species at the same trophic level appear most likely to occur when the 215 invader is an animal. Our results are also the first to suggest that IAS can precipitate negative, linear 216 effects on native communities at the same trophic level (Fig. 3E). For IAS mainly interacting with native 217 communities on the same trophic level (e.g., as competitors), management aimed at reducing IAS abundance could be effective for promoting community diversity at any stage of invasion. 218 219 We did not find consistent, significant relationships between IAS abundance and native population or 220 community response when IAS were at a lower trophic level (Fig. 3C, F). However, negative, linear 221 effects were more likely to be observed when the recipient habitat was terrestrial (SI Appendix, Fig. 222 S3.3C) and when the invader was a plant (SI Appendix, Fig. S3.4E). Previous meta-analyses have 223 suggested that IAS impacts can cascade up to higher trophic levels (2, 5, 24), which could be due to a loss 224 of native resources. For example, native insects tend to be specialists (25); thus, competitive suppression 225 of native plants by invasive alien plants is likely to negatively affect native insects and potentially animals 226 at higher trophic levels that feed on insects (24). In contrast to Thomsen et al. (4), on average we found no 227 consistent impacts of IAS at lower trophic levels in marine habitats (SI Appendix, Fig. S3.3I). Some 228 marine IAS are foundation species that create new habitat structure, which can increase space and 229 physical resources for native species (31). Our results for marine habitat suggest that, in these systems, 230 natives may be experiencing both positive and negative effects from IAS (SI Appendix, Fig. S3.3I). 231 Overall, the lack of significant positive effects and presence of several weak but significant negative 232 effects suggests that IAS at lower trophic levels tend to remove resources for native consumers rather than add them. Thus, management of invasive abundance at any stage of invasion may provide some benefitfor native species at higher trophic levels, particularly for terrestrial plant invasions.

235 Our analysis highlights a consistent, negative effect of IAS abundance across all three communitylevel metrics (Fig. 4). These results contrast with previous findings of increased community richness due 236 237 to the addition of alien species (32). However, Sax & Gaines (32) focused on the establishment phase of 238 invasion, prior to spread and impact (e.g., 33). Our results show that as invaders become more abundant, 239 community-level impacts are clearly negative. This negative effect was significantly stronger for 240 evenness and diversity than for richness. Species richness is a conservative measure of community-level 241 changes, requiring species extinctions or additions to register change. Metapopulation models of invasive 242 alien plants suggest that they could take hundreds of years to cause extinctions (i.e., a decline in species 243 richness; (7). Our results also suggest that community evenness is likely to decline predominantly linearly 244 whereas richness is more likely to decline more slowly early in the invasion process and more rapidly, 245 later, at high invader abundance (negative polynomial; Fig. 4; SI Appendix, Fig. S3.2). This pattern may 246 be due to a tendency of invasive species to affect common native species early in the invasion process, 247 and rare native species only later (34). While extinctions leading to lower richness may not be apparent 248 until later stages of invasion, changes in species abundance and therefore evenness may occur more 249 quickly and appear to be more sensitive metrics of community change (Fig. 4).

250 In conclusion, regardless of trophic level, taxon, or recipient habitat, we found that increasing the 251 abundance of IAS has pronounced negative impacts on native species populations and communities. In 252 many cases, negative, strongly non-linear relationships suggest that rapid declines in native species' 253 population sizes can occur at initial stages of the invasion process. The presence of non-linear 254 relationships highlights the increasing need for early detection and rapid response (EDRR) to new IAS 255 (27). EDRR is cost-effective (35) and the only point at which eradication is feasible (36). Increasing trade (37), disturbance (38), and climate change (39) make it likely that IAS will continue to be introduced. 256 Avoiding the ecological impacts of invasive species will require a much stronger commitment to 257

- proactive policies designed to prevent novel introductions (38) as well as increased management targeting
- the early stages of invasion.

261 Materials and Methods

262 <u>Literature search</u>

263 We searched the Web of Science core collection for all records through 12/31/2016. Our search terms 264 (SI Appendix, part 1) were chosen to identify papers that focused on the impacts of IAS on native populations or communities and that contained information on the abundance or density of the IAS. We 265 266 assessed the titles of the 7,557 returned papers for those reporting native impacts of an IAS across an 267 abundance gradient. We reviewed the 490 resulting papers to identify those that fit the following criteria: 1) it was either explicit or likely that the native response was caused by the IAS, 2) the paper presented at 268 269 least four IAS abundance values and corresponding native response values such that shape could be 270 measured, and 3) the paper included empirical data.

The vast majority of relevant papers focused on single IAS, but we also included papers that involved multiple IAS. We only considered papers where the response variable(s) measured native species abundance (biomass, cover, density, or proportion) and/or measured native community response (multispecies abundance, Shannon diversity, species richness or Pielou evenness). We included observational studies across space (spatial; measurements along an IAS abundance gradient) or over an invasion time series (temporal; IAS abundance changing over time) as well as experimental manipulations of IAS abundance.

278 Data extraction

Where empirical data were presented graphically, we used the Web Plot Digitizer application (http://arohatgi.info/WebPlotDigitizer/app/) to extract values. If the data were transformed, we backtransformed them. When the raw empirical data were not presented in full, we emailed corresponding authors to request them. When possible, we calculated Shannon diversity and Pielou evenness from abundance and species richness data. Where papers presented multiple datasets, or multiple combinations of IAS abundance and native responses, we extracted these as distinct datasets (hereafter, studies), such
that single papers could contribute multiple studies to our analysis.

286 Data categorization

287 We extracted trophic relationships between the IAS and native species or community from the paper 288 or sources cited within the paper. Trophic categories included 'Same' when the native and IAS occupied 289 the same trophic level; 'Lower' when the IAS was at a lower trophic level than the native; and 'Higher', 290 when the IAS was at a higher trophic level than the native. When trophic information was not reported, 291 we categorized some interactions based on kingdom (e.g., invasive plant vs. native plant was always 'Same'; invasive plant vs. native animal was always 'Lower'). For studies of invasive alien animal vs. 292 293 native animal with no trophic information presented in the paper, we used a Google Scholar search for the 294 IAS as well as 'diet' or 'feed' to identify the relative trophic position of the IAS. In cases where the 295 invasive and native animals were fish, we also searched for trophic status in FishBase 296 (www.fishbase.org). Species whose trophic position changed during their life cycle (e.g., fish can switch 297 from competitors at juvenile stages to predators as adults) and species with unknown trophic positions 298 were excluded from the trophic analyses. 299 In addition to trophic level, we analyzed the results by invader taxon (plant, animal), habitat 300 (terrestrial, freshwater, marine) and study type (spatial, temporal, experimental). Marine algae were

301 categorized as plants. Wetland plants were considered terrestrial, with only floating plants considered

302 freshwater or marine. Experimental studies that took place over space or time were categorized as

303 experimental. Observational studies over both space and time were categorized as multiple.

304 <u>Meta-analysis</u>

We used two complementary meta-analyses to evaluate the relationship between IAS abundance and native species' responses at the population and community level. Results from both meta-analyses were used to determine the direction and strength of linear and polynomial components to the invasive abundance-native response relationship. Results from the second meta-analysis were additionally used to
reconstruct the average shape of this relationship. Both meta-analyses used a regression model to extract
information on response direction, strength and shape (curvature) from the raw IAS abundance-native
response data:

312
$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_{\text{linear}} x + \beta_{\text{poly}} x^2$$
 (Eqn 1)

where *y* was the native response, *x* was the IAS abundance, β_0 was the intercept, β_{linear} was the linear regression term, and β_{poly} was the second-order polynomial regression term. The regression model was fit separately to raw data for each study.

The first meta-analysis derived effect sizes from Fisher-transformed partial correlation coefficients associated with each regression term from Equation 1, following (40; hereafter, partial-r meta-analysis):

319
$$r = \frac{t}{\sqrt{t^2 + df}}$$
 (Eqn 2)

320 *Effect size* =
$$0.5 * ln\left(\frac{1+r}{1-r}\right)$$
 (Eqn 3; Fisher transformation)

where r is the partial correlation coefficient for one of the regression terms in Equation 1 (β_{linear} or β_{poly}), t 321 322 is the corresponding model t-value, and df are the degrees of freedom associated with the same regression 323 coefficient (40). Partial-r effect sizes were calculated separately for the linear and polynomial terms in Eqn 1, for each study. Effect size measurement error variance (*mev*) was calculated as 1/(n-3), where n 324 is the sample size for a study (41). We mean-centered the IAS abundance (x) for each study before fitting 325 Equation 1. Repositioning of the x-axis to a mean of zero has no impact on invasive abundance-native 326 327 response shape, but reduced dependence between linear and polynomial effect sizes within studies (42). 328 Meta-analysis of the partial-r effect sizes allowed us to determine the strength and direction of linear and 329 polynomial components of the regression fit.

330 The second meta-analysis derived effect sizes from the three regression terms ($\beta_0, \beta_{\text{linear}}, \beta_{\text{poly}}$) in 331 Eqn 1 (hereafter, slopes meta-analysis). However, an analysis of regression terms requires that IAS abundance and native responses (x and y variables) be on a comparable scale (regression terms are scale 332 dependent 43, 44). Thus, we rescaled the raw data (both invasive abundance, x and native responses, y) by 333 334 dividing by the maximum raw data value to create a scale of 0-1. We then mean-centered the rescaled 335 IAS abundance values, as before, prior to analysis using Eqn 1 to generate three regression-term effect 336 sizes (β_0 , β_{linear} , β_{poly}). We used the regression-model-reported standard error for each regression term as 337 an estimate of effect size *mev* (44). Results from the slopes meta-analysis were used to determine the 338 shape of the relationship between IAS abundance and native responses, and provided an additional test of the magnitude of linear and polynomial regression terms (SI Appendix, part 1). 339 340 Bayesian mixed-effects models (MCMCglmm in R version 3.5.1 45, 46) were used for all meta-341 analyses of the IAS-native response relationship, and to test for variation in invasive impacts among different trophic categories, between community- and population-level responses, in different habitats, 342 343 and between invasive animals and plants. Full analytical details are presented in SI Appendix, part 1. Data availability 344 345 Citations of papers analyzed in this meta-analysis are presented in SI Appendix, part 2. Data sheets 346 are available at DOI: https://doi.org/10.7275/tjbv-qn87. R scripts are available at DOI:

347 10.5281/zenodo.2605254.

348 Author contributions

349 BAB, RW, JMD, AEB, and CJBS designed research with contributions from all authors. All authors 350 reviewed titles and abstracts or compiled data on trophic interactions between invaders and natives. BAB, 351 CJBS, BL, and GB extracted/compiled data. RW designed and implemented the meta-analysis 352 framework. BAB, JMA and RW analyzed the data. BAB led the writing with contributions from all 353 authors. 354 Acknowledgements 355 We thank E. Beaury, D. Blumenthal, J. Dukes, J. Finn, J. Gill, D. Goldberg, and T. Morelli for 356 valuable discussions. C. Karounos and T. Cross assisted with initial data extraction. This work was 357 358 initiated at a working group supported by the Albert & Elaine Borchard Foundation and led by CJBS, 359 BAB, AEB and RE. BAB gratefully acknowledges the hospitality of D. Richardson and the Centre for 360 Invasion Biology at Stellenbosch University during an academic sabbatical. MV thanks funding from the

361 projects IMPLANTIN (CGL2015-65346-R) of the Spanish Ministerio de Ciencia, Innovación y

362 Universidades, and i-LINK-1198 from CSIC.

364 **References**

- 365 1. Cameron EK, Vilà M, Cabeza M (2016) Global meta-analysis of the impacts of terrestrial invertebrate invaders on species, communities and ecosystems. Glob Ecol Biogeogr 25(5):596-606. 366 Gallardo B, Clavero M, Sánchez MI, Vilà M (2016) Global ecological impacts of invasive species 367 2. 368 in aquatic ecosystems. Glob Change Biol 22(1):151–163. Thomsen MS, Olden JD, Wernberg T, Griffin JN, Silliman BR (2011) A broad framework to 369 3. organize and compare ecological invasion impacts. Environ Res 111(7):899-908. 370 Thomsen MS, et al. (2014) Impacts of marine invaders on biodiversity depend on trophic position 371 4. 372 and functional similarity. Mar Ecol Prog Ser 495:39-47. 373 5. Vilà M, et al. (2011) Ecological impacts of invasive alien plants: a meta-analysis of their effects on species, communities and ecosystems. Ecol Lett 14(7):702-708. 374 Cassey P, Blackburn TM, Lockwood JL, Sax DF (2006) A stochastic model for integrating changes 375 6. 376 in species richness and community similarity across spatial scales. Oikos 115(2):207-218. 377 7. Gilbert B, Levine JM (2013) Plant invasions and extinction debts. Proc Natl Acad Sci:201212375. 378 8. Sofaer HR, Jarnevich CS, Pearse IS (2018) The relationship between invader abundance and impact. Ecosphere 9(9):e02415. 379 380 9. Yokomizo H, Possingham HP, Thomas MB, Buckley YM (2009) Managing the impact of invasive 381 species: the value of knowing the density-impact curve. Ecol Appl 19(2):376-386. 10. Byers JE, et al. (2002) Directing Research to Reduce the Impacts of Nonindigenous Species. 382 383 Conserv Biol 16(3):630-640. Parker IM, et al. (1999) Impact: Toward a framework for understanding the ecological effects of 384 11. 385 invaders. Biol Invasions 1(1):3-19. Thiele J, Kollmann J, Markussen B, Otte A (2010) Impact assessment revisited: improving the 386 12. theoretical basis for management of invasive alien species. Biol Invasions 12(7):2025–2035. 387 388 13. Barney JN, Tekiela DR, Dollete ES, Tomasek BJ (2013) What is the "real" impact of invasive plant species? Front Ecol Environ 11(6):322-329. 389 390 14. Ricciardi A, Hoopes MF, Marchetti MP, Lockwood JL (2013) Progress toward understanding the 391 ecological impacts of nonnative species. Ecol Monogr 83(3):263-282. 15. Lotka AJ (1925) Elements of physical biology (Williams & WIlkins, Baltimore, Maryland, USA). 392 393 16. Volterra V (1926) Fluctuations in the Abundance of a Species considered Mathematically¹. Nature 394 118:558-560. 395
- 395 17. Strayer DL (2010) Alien species in fresh waters: ecological effects, interactions with other stressors,
 396 and prospects for the future. *Freshw Biol* 55(s1):152–174.

- Benkwitt CE (2015) Non-linear effects of invasive lionfish density on native coral-reef fish communities. *Biol Invasions* 17(5):1383–1395.
- Moyle PB, Light T (1996) Biological invasions of fresh water: Empirical rules and assembly theory.
 Biol Conserv 78(1–2):149–161.
- 401 20. Estes JA, et al. (2011) Trophic Downgrading of Planet Earth. *Science* 333(6040):301–306.
- 402 21. Levine JM, et al. (2003) Mechanisms underlying the impacts of exotic plant invasions. *Proc R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 270(1517):775–781.
- Law R, Watkinson AR (1987) Response-Surface Analysis of Two-Species Competition: An
 Experiment on Phleum Arenarium and Vulpia Fasciculata. *J Ecol* 75(3):871–886.
- Powell KI, Chase JM, Knight TM (2011) A synthesis of plant invasion effects on biodiversity
 across spatial scales. *Am J Bot* 98(3):539–548.
- 408 24. Litt AR, Cord EE, Fulbright TE, Schuster GL (2014) Effects of Invasive Plants on Arthropods.
 409 *Conserv Biol* 28(6):1532–1549.
- 410 25. Tallamy DW (2004) Do Alien Plants Reduce Insect Biomass? *Conserv Biol* 18(6):1689–1692.
- 411 26. Hulme PE, et al. (2013) Bias and error in understanding plant invasion impacts. *Trends Ecol Evol* 28(4):212–218.
- 413 27. Westbrooks RG (2004) New Approaches for Early Detection and Rapid Response to Invasive Plants
 414 in the United States. *Weed Technol* 18(sp1):1468–1471.
- 28. Crall AW, et al. (2012) Developing cost-effective early detection networks for regional invasions. *Biol Invasions* 14(12):2461–2469.
- 29. Courchamp F, Chapuis J-L, Pascal M (2003) Mammal invaders on islands: impact, control and control impact. *Biol Rev* 78(3):347–383.
- 419 30. Hairston NG, Smith FE, Slobodkin LB (1960) Community Structure, Population Control, and
 420 Competition. *Am Nat* 94(879):421–425.
- 421 31. Gutiérrez JL (2017) Modification of Habitat Quality by Non-native Species. *Impact of Biological*422 *Invasions on Ecosystem Services*, Invading Nature Springer Series in Invasion Ecology., eds Vilà
 423 M, Hulme PE (Springer International Publishing, Cham), pp 33–47.
- 424 32. Sax DF, Gaines SD (2003) Species diversity: from global decreases to local increases. *Trends Ecol* 425 *Evol* 18(11):561–566.
- 33. Theoharides KA, Dukes JS (2007) Plant invasion across space and time: factors affecting
 nonindigenous species success during four stages of invasion. *New Phytol* 176(2):256–273.
- 428 34. Powell KI, Chase JM, Knight TM (2013) Invasive Plants Have Scale-Dependent Effects on
 429 Diversity by Altering Species-Area Relationships. *Science* 339(6117):316–318.
- 430 35. Leung B, et al. (2002) An ounce of prevention or a pound of cure: bioeconomic risk analysis of
 431 invasive species. *Proc R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 269(1508):2407–2413.

- 432 36. Rejmanek M, Pitcairn MJ (2002) When is eradication of exotic pest plants a realistic goal? *Turning*433 *the Tide: The Eradication of Invasive Species : Proceedings of the International Conference on*434 *Eradication of Island Invasives*, eds Veitch CR, Clout MN (IUCN).
- 435 37. Bradley BA, et al. (2012) Global change, global trade, and the next wave of plant invasions. *Front*436 *Ecol Environ* 10(1):20–28.
- 437 38. Early R, et al. (2016) Global threats from invasive alien species in the twenty-first century and
 438 national response capacities. *Nat Commun* 7:12485.
- 439 39. Allen JM, Bradley BA (2016) Out of the weeds? Reduced plant invasion risk with climate change in
 440 the continental United States. *Biol Conserv* 203:306–312.
- 441 40. Nakagawa S, Cuthill IC (2007) Effect size, confidence interval and statistical significance: a practical guide for biologists. *Biol Rev* 82(4):591–605.
- 41. Borenstein M, Hedges LV, Higgins JPT, Rothstein HR (2011) *Introduction to Meta-Analysis* (John Wiley & Sons).
- 445 42. Schielzeth H (2010) Simple means to improve the interpretability of regression coefficients.
 446 *Methods Ecol Evol* 1(2):103–113.
- 447 43. Becker BJ, Wu M-J (2007) The Synthesis of Regression Slopes in Meta-Analysis. *Stat Sci* 22(3):414–429.
- 449 44. Koricheva J, Gurevitch J, Mengersen K (2013) *Handbook of Meta-analysis in Ecology and Evolution* (Princeton University Press).
- 45. R Core Team (2018) *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna.) Available at: https://www.R-project.org.
- 46. Hadfield JD (2010) MCMC methods for multi-response generalized linear mixed models: the
 MCMCglmm R package. *J Stat Softw* 33:1–22.

457 Figures

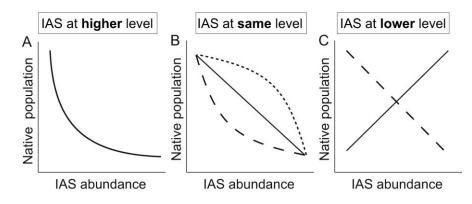
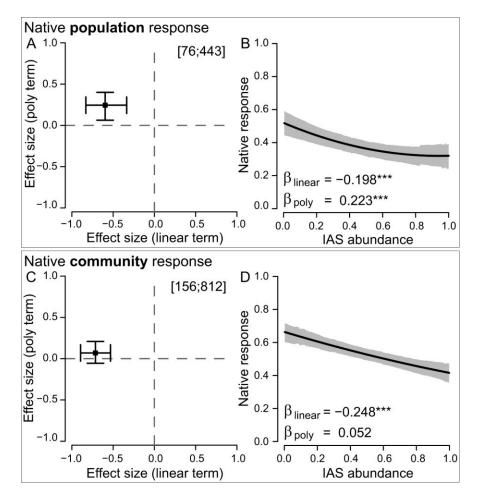


Figure 1. Hypothesized relationships between IAS abundance and native species' population response.
A) IAS at higher trophic levels could prey upon natives, leading to a non-linear decline of native species population sizes. B) IAS at the same trophic level could compete with natives, leading to a linear decline (solid line) if competition is independent of density, or a non-linear decline (dashed lines) if competition is density-dependent. C) IAS at lower trophic levels could provide food or habitat resources, leading to a linear decline timear population increase (solid line), or could reduce resources for native species, leading to a linear decrease (dashed line).

466



467

Figure 2. The shape of native species' responses is non-linear at the population level but linear at the community level. A) and C) present analyses based on partial-r; B) and D) present the slopes analyses. Numbers in brackets are total papers and studies analyzed. Effect size estimates in A) and C) are statistically supported when 95% credible interval bars do not cross the zero lines. Slopes plots show model predictions (black line) with gray shading indicating the 95% credible zone. Significant linear (β_{linear}) or polynomial (β_{poly}) regression terms are indicated by asterisks (*** p<0.001).

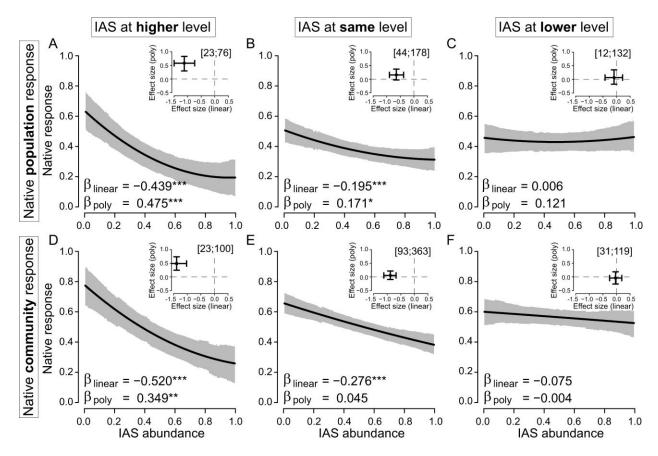


Figure 3. The shape and strength of IAS impacts on native species and communities depends strongly on relative trophic position. Results from the slopes meta-analyses are shown in the main panel and results from the partial-r meta-analyses are inset. (A-C) Native species' population responses to invaders at higher, the same, and lower trophic levels, respectively. (D-F) Native community-level responses to invaders at higher, the same, and lower trophic levels, respectively. Significant linear (β_{linear}) or polynomial (β_{poly}) regression terms are indicated by asterisks (* p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001).

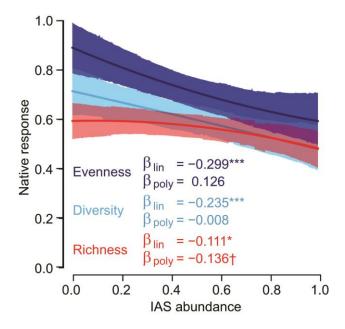


Figure 4. IAS have significant negative linear effects on native community-level richness (red), diversity (cyan), and evenness (blue). There were significant differences between community-level responses for both linear and polynomial terms, which are reported in the results. Lines show model predictions with shading indicating the 95% credible zone. Significant linear (β_{linear}) or polynomial (β_{poly}) regression terms are indicated as follows:† p<0.10; * p<0.05; *** p<0.001).