A unified approach to quantify invasibility and degree of invasion 1 2 Oinfeng Guo^{1*}, Songlin Fei^{2*}, Jeffrey S. Dukes^{2,3}, Christopher M. Oswalt⁴, Basil V. Iannone III², 3 and Kevin M. Potter⁵ 4 ¹ USDA FS, Eastern Forest Environmental Threat Assessment Center, 200 WT Weaver Blvd., 5 6 Asheville, NC 28804, USA ² Department of Forestry and Natural Resources, Purdue University, PFEN 221E, 715 West State 7 St., West Lafayette, IN 47907-2061, USA 8 9 ³ Department of Biological Sciences, Purdue University, 915 West State St., West Lafayette, IN 47907, USA 10 ⁴ USDA Forest Service, Southern Research Station, FIA, 4700 Old Kingston Pike, Knoxville, TN 11 12 37919, USA ⁵ Department of Forestry and Environmental Resources, North Carolina State University, 30410 13 Cornwallis Road, Research Triangle Park, NC 27709, USA 14 *Corresponding authors 15 16 Abstract. Habitat invasibility is a central focus in invasion biology due to its importance for 17 understanding basic ecological patterns and processes and for effective invasion management. 18 "Invasibility" is, however, one of the most elusive metrics and misused terminologies in ecology. 19 20 Empirical studies and meta-analyses regarding invasibility to date have produced inconsistent 21 and even conflicting results. This inconsistency and subsequent difficulty in making broad cross-habitat comparisons stem in part from: (1) the indiscriminant use of a closely related but 22

fundamentally different concept - degree of invasion (DI) or level of invasion, and (2) the lack of

23

common metrics, as illustrated by our review of all invasibility papers published in 2013. To facilitate both cross-habitat comparison and more robust ecological generalizations, we clarify the definitions of invasibility and DI, and for the first time propose a common metric for predicting invasibility based on a habitat's resource availability as inferred from relative resident species richness and abundance. We demonstrate the feasibility of our metric using empirical data collected from 2,475 plots from three forest ecosystems in the eastern United States. We also propose a similar metric for DI. Our unified, resource-based metrics are scaled from 0 to 1, enabling cross-habitat comparison. Our proposed metrics clearly distinguish invasibility and DI from each other, which will help to (1) advance invasion ecology by allowing for the formation of more robust generalizations and (2) facilitate more effective invasive species control and management.

Key words: abundance; competition; index; invasion theory; niche availability;

prediction; resources

INTRODUCTION

Habitat invasibility and species invasiveness have together been a central focus in the
field of invasion biology, not only because of their importance for invasion management, but
also for our need to understand basic ecological patterns and processes. Nonetheless,
"invasibility" is among the most elusive metrics, difficult to compare across habitats, and thus
the terminology is perhaps frequently misused in ecology. Many hypotheses have been proposed
to understand the relationships between invasibility and habitat features such as biodiversity
(Elton 1958). However, empirical studies and meta-analyses into these relationships to date have
produced inconsistent and even conflicting results (e.g., Jeschke et al. 2012, Catford 2012).
As argued by Richardson et al. (2000), this inconsistency is in part due to the lack of
precise definitions for concepts and terminology in invasion ecology (see also Pyšek 1995,
Alpert et al. 2000, Richardson et al. 2000). The confusion primarily stems from the use of a
closely related but fundamentally different concept: degree of invasion (DI) or level of invasion,
which measures the extent to which a community has already been invaded (e.g., based on the
number of exotic species, exotic fraction; see Catford 2009, Gurivtich et al. 2011). In most cases
DI increases over time. Historically, the terminology invasibility and DI have frequently been
used indiscriminately or interchangeably both in the literature and in communications with
policy makers, land managers, and the general public. The interchangeable usage of these two
terms likely reflects the fact that DI is easier to quantify than invasibility. Many studies aimed at
investigating invasibility actually have focused instead on DI (reviewed by Catford et al. 2012;

The lack of commonly defined invasion metrics also makes it difficult to compare

see also Guo and Symstad 2008), likely further contributing to the contradictory findings

regarding relationships between invisibility and habitat features.

invasion ecology studies and to generalize patterns and processes in invasion ecology. A review of all articles indexed by Web of Science in 2013 (119 total; Table S1) that listed invasibility as a keyword reveals that although most researchers seem to agree about what invasibility means in general, no consistent measurements of this phenomenon exist. While the majority of studies to date, especially those on large scales, have used the number of exotic species as an indicator of invasibility (Elton 1958, Planty-Tabacchi et al. 1996, Lonsdale 1999, Moore et al. 2001, Fridley et al. 2004, Herben et al. 2004), others have used density, biomass, cover, growth rate, or survivorship of exotics (e.g., Smith et a. 2004, Catford et al. 2012). Yet, even within the same community and time period, using different variables to quantify invasibility such as richness, density, and biomass can generate different conclusions (e.g., Guo and Symstad 2008, Miller et al. 2014).

Invasibility seems easier to define (below) but difficult to measure, whereas *DI* is easier to measure but has not been consistently defined (but see Catford 2012). The combination of (1) the lack of precise definitions and indiscriminant use of these two terms and (2) lack of common metrics continues to lead to inconsistent or even conflicting results regarding the relationships between invasibility and habitat features, hindering the comparison of otherwise comparable studies and therefore the formation of more robust generalizations. In this article, we intend to clarify the definitions of invasibility and degree of invasion (*DI*) and propose common metrics to quantify these two concepts that can be broadly used for comparisons across different habitats. To demonstrate the feasibility of our proposed metrics, we present an example using data collected from 2,475 plots in three forest ecosystems in the United States by the Forest Inventory and Analysis Program (FIA-http://www.fia.fs.fed.us/; Bechtold and Patterson 2005, Woudenberg et al. 2010). As invasive species continues to be one of the major challenges to nearly all

ecosystems (Simberloff 2012, Fei et al. 2014), our proposed common metrics will help to reduce the hurdle for unifying theories in invasion ecology and better inform future land management and policy making.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INVASIBILITY AND DEGREE OF INVASION

Invasibility can be defined as "the susceptibility of biological communities to colonization and dominance by introduced organisms" (Fridley 2011; see also Lonsdale 1999, Alpert et al. 2000). Conceptually and theoretically, "invasibility" is largely an intrinsic property of a community (Lonsdale 1999) perhaps analogous to human "immunity." It reflects the number of open niches within the community, and often is thought to be mainly controlled by resource availability (e.g., Davis et al. 2000), which can be strongly influenced by community features such as species composition, diversity, and biomass (Catford et al. 2012). Invasibility, by definition, is a pre-invasion, intrinsic property of a community. To predict *future invasibility* in a community already invaded by exotic species, all species (native and exotic) need to be included as 'resident' species richness and biomass (Simberloff and Von Holle 1999).

In contrast to invasibility, which is a pre-invasion habitat property, "degree of invasion (*DI*)" measures how much the community has already been invaded by exotic species, and thus is an outcome of interactions between intrinsic (invasibility) and extrinsic factors. The extrinsic factors may include invasion pressure (e.g., propagule/colonization pressure due to the combination of proximity to exotic species sources such as ports, large cities and invader identity/traits; Williamson 1996, Lockwood et al. 2009), disturbance, and time since invasion (e.g., Clark and Johnston 2011, Miller et al. 2014; Fig. 1).

Given the above definitions, communities with similar *invasibility* could have very

different *DIs*, and *vice versa*, despite the fact that the two terms are often positively related to each other. A community with low invasibility cannot have high *DI*, but one with high invasibility could show either low or high *DI* depending on extrinsic factors. Furthermore, the concept of "invasibility" is more valuable for theoretical and even tightly controlled experimental studies (e.g., Case 1990, Robinson et al. 1995, Drake et al. 1996, Dukes 2001, Wardle 2001), whereas *DI*, as a measure of exotic abundance and a potential correlate of impact, is what we measure in observational (non-manipulative) field studies and compare among empirical studies. In practice, invasibility is more difficult to measure due to its intrinsic nature and the absence of pre-invasion historical data on communities that are already invaded. Correspondingly, knowledge about invasibility is more informative for the prevention of future invasions, whereas *DI* is more related to how to better prioritize the management of existing exotics species.

CRITICAL ELEMENTS OF QUANTIFYING INVASIBILITY

Contribution of species richness vs. dominance

There are several problems with using species richness or dominance alone in measuring habitat invasibility (Levine and D'Antonio 1999). First, as argued above, at large scales and especially under environmental fluctuations, there is little evidence that any habitat could have stable long-term species saturation (Shurin and Srivastava, 2005); that is, all habitats are likely invasible to some degree. In other words, short-term or transitional invasions could take place even in "saturated" habitats due to temporal population fluctuations of dominant species. Species richness is only one part of community structure, which also includes species composition, evenness, abundance, and the age structure of each component species. Even if a

species has a unique niche, it still needs time to fill its niche space (consider a community in early succession versus a clearly less invasible, pure, and dense forest stand; Clark and Johnston 2011). Also, in a highly fluctuating environment (e.g., one experiencing frequent disturbances), high native species richness does not necessarily equate to high biomass and subsequent niche occupancy because under such dynamic conditions species will rarely have the time necessary to fully occupy niches. In other cases, richness of exotics and natives may be positively correlated; both variables accumulate with area and heterogeneity, and can respond similarly to other factors (Moore et al. 2001).

Biomass, on the other hand, can be another good indicator of controlling factors such as resource uptake (e.g., as affected by disturbance; Crawly 1987) and resource supply (Davis et al. 2000). However, using biomass alone to quantify invasibility can also be misleading because it misses the importance of invader identity and sampling effects - higher exotic richness may contain more aggressive invaders that could penetrate even highly crowded communities (Huston 1997). Therefore, predicting invasibility must take the two dominant factors (richness and biomass) into account, and the approach must be simple and practical for broad comparisons across communities and regions. However, for each particular community and for detailed research, predicting invasibility with higher precision should also consider any special conditions attached to it. For example, invasibility is after all often linked to the (phylogenetic) traits of particular invaders *versus* that of competitors or facilitators in residence (Richardson and Cowling 1992, Proches et al. 2008). If an invader has strong mutualistic relations with certain resident species, it can successfully invade by outcompeting and/or replacing some resident species.

Absolute vs. relative values as estimates

Using absolute or relative value (e.g., total number *versus* percentages) to measure invasibility can lead to very different conclusions (Guo and Symstad 2008, Catford et al. 2012). As argued earlier, invasions depend largely on the availability of unused resources. When a habitat is still open with many niches available (e.g., in early succession), it is natural that other species (native or exotic), if not dispersal limited, will invade (Williamson 1996). Because communities are rarely saturated with species, high richness or biomass at a particular time does not necessarily indicate low invasibility; natural or human-made habitats have varying carrying capacities in total abundance or biomass and some can support higher richness and biomass of both natives and exotics than others. Thus, assessing invasibility by using relative measures (i.e., fractions) would facilitate cross-community comparisons (Fig. 2).

Community ecology theories suggest that it is virtually impossible to measure invasibility and *DI* without reference to maximum possible richness and biomass in the habitat as indicators of the overall habitat capacity (Davis et al. 2000). On the one hand, maximum richness and biomass would be similar to the concept of carrying capacity in population biology, which is also difficult to obtain but for which rough estimates have been widely used and have proved very helpful for studying population dynamics (e.g., the Lotka and Volterra model; Schoener 1974). In community ecology, similar terms such as species saturation, species capacity, and habitat (or island) capacity are frequently used concepts (e.g., MacArthur and Wilson 1967, Brown and Lomolino 1998, Ricklefs 2010).

On the other hand, estimating the maximum richness and biomass in a habitat can be achievable through either direct field sampling or using historical records that are becoming increasingly available and assessable. In practice, for small areas, the maximum species richness

and maximum biomass would be estimated with a relatively higher degree of accuracy than for larger areas, but comparisons of invasibility or *DI* measures can still be compared over larger scales using these estimates, especially for the same type of communities. One possible source of data is historically accumulated vegetation sampling completed during the past century.

Additionally, large sampling efforts and datasets are becoming increasingly available around the world (e.g., Global Biodiversity Information Facility: www.gbif.org; Chinese Forest Biodiversity Monitoring Network: http://www.cfbiodiv.org/; and Forestplots.net:

https://www.forestplots.net/en). For many of these long-term monitoring datasets, estimates of the maximum richness and biomass can be obtained for individual plots from the highest values inventoried from many years of sampling. This is especially the case if the data cover entire successional cycles and can therefore encompass the maximum richness and biomass values. An alternative approach is to use data from nearby similar vegetation plots or to use the space-for-time method if succession is taking place.

A UNIFIED MEASURE OF INVASIBILITY

Based on the above premises that invasibility is the intrinsic property of a community, in contrast to previous studies that often use exotic richness as a measure of invasibility or DI, we propose a generic metric for predicting invasibility (Ip) based on relative resident species richness and abundance as,

196
$$I_p = 1 - (S_{\text{obs}}/S_{\text{max}} + B_{\text{obs}}/B_{\text{max}})/2$$
 (1)

 $S_{\rm obs}$ and $B_{\rm obs}$ are the observed plot-level richness and biomass, and $S_{\rm max}$ and $B_{\rm max}$ are maximum

plot-level richness and biomass, respectively, within the habitat type (i.e., resource-based carrying capacity). Both S_{max} and B_{max} can be estimated from field measurements or inferred from published literature (e.g., successional studies; see above). The values for I_p are scaled between 0 and 1, with higher values equating to higher invasibility (e.g., Terborgh and Faaborg 1980, Wilson et al. 2012). Predicted invasibility (I_p) defined here is both standardized and unitless, and can therefore be used to compare different ecological communities regardless of successional stage. The relative importance of richness and biomass of resident species in controlling Ip could switch over time (e.g., succession) or space (different habitat types or plots of the same habitat; Fig. 2). Further work is needed to estimate the weighted contribution of biomass and richness to Ip for certain habitat types. To predict future invasibility in a community that has already been invaded, existing invaders should also be included as "resident" (native and exotic species) species in the calculation.

To illustrate the utility of our proposed I_p metric, we used field-based measurements from the U.S. Forest Service Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program (Bechtold and Patterson 2005). We first developed a relative biomass-richness space by randomly selecting three forest ecosystems, Midwest Broadleaf Forest, Prairie Parkland forest, and Adirondack-New England mixed forest, from the FIA program (Fig. 3). Biomass and richness for resident tree species in each plot were calculated. Relative biomass and richness for each plot were then calculated using the observed biomass (Bobs) and richness (Sobs) divided by the observed plot-level maximum biomass (Bmax) and richness (Smax) within each forest ecosystem, respectively.

The zone with a slope of -1 in the upper-right corner of Fig. 3 encompasses the highest values of $S_{\rm obs}/S_{\rm max}$ and $B_{\rm obs}/B_{\rm max}$ for the three forest ecosystems and represents possible habitat saturation (see also Fig. 2) and/or trade-offs in the role of richness and biomass in resisting biotic

invasions. Within this zone, a community cannot have the highest richness and biomass at the same time even though the two variables are often positively correlated when both values are low. The biomass and richness ratios within this zone are inter-changeable in measuring and controlling Ip, and this agrees with our equation (1) that one unit of relative biomass is equivalent to one unit of relative richness. For the three forest ecosystems examined here, richness appears to be closer to the saturation level while biomass is not, as suggested by the majority of forest plots (> 60% in all three forests) distributed under the diagonal x = y line (Fig. 3). Similarly, the large number of plots in the lower-left corner indicates great potential of future invasions if exotic species pool becomes available.

Our proposed Ip index, a composite value based on richness and biomass for each plot, allows comparisons across habitat types or successional stages. For example, in our case study, there was no significant difference in the mean Ip value between Midwest Broadleaf Forest and Prairie Parkland Forest (0.72 vs. 0.73, t – test, df = 1,791, p = 0.248). However, mean Ip of Midwest Broadleaf Forest and Prairie Parkland Forest was significantly higher than that of Adirondack-New England Mixed Forest (0.72 vs. 0.62, df = 1,569, p < 0.0001 and 0.73 vs. 0.62, df = 1,493, p < 0.0001, respectively). Although our estimated mean Ip values only represent the current status of these forests ecosystems and may change over time, the comparative results from the above analyses offer important information for management prioritization and policy making.

MEASUREMENT OF DEGREEE OF INVASION

The reasoning behind our proposed *Ip* prediction leads us to re-evaluate and to improve existing measures for *DI*. Similar to the predictive measure of invasibility (i.e., critical elements,

absolute vs. relative values), we also propose a common metric to measure degree of invasion (*DI*). We argue that both number and dominance of exotic species are important to measure *DI*. A single highly invasive species can disrupt ecosystem functioning in one community, with typical examples such as kudzu (*Pueraria lobota*; Li et al. 2011) and reed canary grass (*Phalaris arundinacea*; Green and Galatowitsch 2002). In such well-established pure stands of only one invasive species, it can be difficult for other species (native or exotic) to invade. In contrast, some other communities may harbor many non-invasive exotics but the functioning may remain relatively unaffected (Guo and Symstad 2008). We propose to measure degree of invasion (*DI*) as follows,

$$DI = (S_{\text{exo}}/S_{\text{tot}} + B_{\text{exo}}/B_{\text{tot}})/2 \tag{2}$$

 S_{exo} and B_{exo} are observed exotic richness and biomass, and S_{tot} and B_{tot} are total (native plus exotic) richness and biomass in the community, respectively (see also Fig. 2 in which S_{max} and B_{max} can be replaced by S_{tot} and B_{tot} for measuring DI). In order to make comparisons of DI among communities, the value for DI is also scaled between 0 and 1, with higher values equating to higher degree of invasion. We provided an example of applications of the DI metric in Supporting Information (Fig. S1).

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The factors affecting Ip and DI are inevitably interrelated (e.g., Sobrino et al. 2002; Fig. 4). Disturbance usually reduces the ratio of existing biomass to the maximum biomass ($B:B_{max} = R_B$) in mature, stable communities but its effects on species richness are more complex (e.g., the

intermediate disturbance hypothesis or IDH; Grime 1973). Both *Ip* and *DI* would increase with decreasing *R*_B. High richness and biomass could indicate a high level of species saturation (all or most niches are occupied) and thus resistance to opportunistic invasions. Correspondingly, the determinants of invasibility may not be the number of native species only; biomass must be jointly considered as it is more directly related to competition (Bonser and Reader 1995). Based on such arguments, we strongly suggest that habitat invasibility *Ip* should be evaluated as the relative values of observed richness and biomass to community carrying capacity (or maximum values), (2) *DI* measures should be based on the relative value such as proportion or fraction of exotic richness and biomass in the community rather than absolute values of those measures, and (3) additional and improved strategies to estimate maximum diversity and biomass should be explored. For example, Potter and Woodall (2014) recently used site productivity classes and a proxy for stand development when investigating the relationship between biomass and biodiversity on FIA plots.

It is essential to note that time plays different roles in invasibility vs. *DI* and that the roles vary at different temporal scales; that is, invasibility may change with the population fluctuation of dominant species (e.g., Wiser et al. 1998, Clark et al. 2013). Over a relatively short period of time such as a successional cycle, a community in early stages is more invasible than in later stages (Fig. 4). Over longer-term (e.g., across multiple successional cycles), however, as exotic species may continue to invade and some of them could stay and persist, *DI* almost always increases (Fig. 4; Heard et al. 2012) unless management activities can act to slow or even reverse this pattern. These differences will result in the long-term trend of invasibility varying in relation to a more-constant mean and the DI trend steadily increasing or stabilizing.

In short, how invasibility and DI are defined and measured can strongly influence pattern

description and interpretations. In addition, clear distinction and appropriate use of habitat invasibility vs. DI are critical for comparative purposes and for informing management (Catford et al. 2012). The former is an intrinsic property of a habitat while the latter is an outcome of species invasion controlled by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Because carrying capacity varies over space and time, measures of invasibility should reflect niche availability for potential invasions, and measures of DI should reflect the fractions of invaded species richness and biomass in the community. The resource-based, unified indexes for both invasibility and degree of invasion (DI) proposed here represent a step forward for both research in basic ecology and informing land management and ecological restoration.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank many reviewers for helpful comments. This work is supported by a NSF MacroSystems grant (No. 1241932).

305	LITERATURE CITED
306	Alpert, P., E. Bone, and C. Holzapfel. 2000. Invasiveness, invasibility and the role of
307	environmental stress in the spread of non-native plants. Perspectives in Plant Ecology,
308	Evolution and Systematics 3:52-66.
309	Bechtold, W. A., and P. L. Patterson. 2005. The enhanced forest inventory and analysis
310	program—national sampling design and estimation procedures. General Technical Report
311	SRS-80. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Southern Research Station,
312	Ashville, North Carolina, USA.
313	Bonser, S. P., and R. J. Reader. 1995. Plant competition and herbivory in relation to vegetation
314	biomass. Ecology 76:2176-2183.
315	Brown, J. H. and M.V. Lomolino. 1998. Biogeography. Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, MA.
316	Case, T. J. 1990. Invasion resistance arises in strongly interacting species-rich model competition
317	communities. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA 87:9610-9614.
318	Catford, J. A., R. Jansson, and C. Nilsson. 2009. Reducing redundancy in invasion ecology by
319	integrating hypotheses into a single theoretical framework. Diversity and Distributions
320	15:22-40.
321	Catford, J. A., P. A. Vesk, D. M. Richardson, and P. Pyšek. 2012. Quantifying levels of
322	biological invasion: towards the objective classification of invaded and invasible
323	ecosystems. Global Change Biology 18:44-62.
324	Clark, G. F., and E.L. Johnston. 2011. Temporal change in the diversity-invasibility relationship
325	in the presence of a disturbance regime. Ecology Letters 14:52-57.
326	Clark, G. F., E. L. Johnston, and B. Leung. 2013. Intrinsic time dependence in the diversity-
327	invasibility relationship. Ecology 94:25-31.

- Crawly, M. J. 1987. What makes a community invasible? Symposia of the British Ecological

 Society 26:429-453.

 Device M. A. J. R. Crime, and K. Thompson, 2000. Eluctrating resources in plant communities.
- Davis, M. A., J. P. Grime, and K. Thompson. 2000. Fluctuating resources in plant communities: a general theory of invasibility. Journal of Ecology 88:528–534.
- Drake, J. A., G. R. Huxel, and C. L. Hewitt. 1996. Microcosms as models for generating and testing community theory. Ecology 77:670-677.
- Dukes, J. S. 2001. Biodiversity and invasibility in grassland microcosms. Oecologia 126:563-568.
- Elton, C. S. 1958. The ecology of invasions by plants and animals. Methuen, London, UK.
- Fei, S., J. Phillips, and M. Shouse. 2014. Biogeomorphic Impacts of Invasive Species. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 45:69-87.
- Fridley, J. D. 2011. Invasibility of communities and ecosystems. Pages 356-360 in Simberloff,
- D. and M. Rejmanek, editors. Encyclopedia of biological invasions. University of
- 341 California Press, Chicago, Illinois, USA.
- Fridley, J. D., R. L. Brown, and J. F. Bruno. 2004. Null models of exotic invasion and scale-
- dependent patterns of native and exotic species richness. Ecology 85:3215–3222.
- Fridley, J. D., J.J. Stachowicz, S. Naeem, D.F. Sax, E.W. Seabloom, M.D. Smith, T. J. Stohlgren,
- D. Tilman, and B.V. Holle. 2007. The invasion paradox: reconciling pattern and process
- in species invasions. Ecology 88:3-17.
- Green, E. K., and S. M. Galatowitsch. 2002. Effects of *Phalaris arundinacea* and nitrate-N
- addition on the establishment of wetland plant communities. Journal of Applied Ecology
- 349 39:134-144.
- 350 Grime, J. P. 1973. Competitive exclusion in herbaceous vegetation. Nature 242:344–347.

351 Guo, Q.F., and A. Symstad. 2008. A two-part measure of degree of invasion for crosscommunity comparisons. Conservation Biology 22:666-672. 352 Gurevitch, J., G. Fox, G. Wardle, and D. Taub. 2011. Emergent insights from the synthesis 353 of conceptual frameworks for biological invasions. Ecology Letters 14:407-18. 354 Heard, M. J., D. F. Sax, and J. F. Bruno. 2012. Dominance of non-native species increases over 355 time in a historically invaded strandline community. Diversity and Distributions 18:1232-356 1242. 357 Herben, T., B. Mandák, K. Bímová, and Z. Münzbergová. 2004. Invasibility and species richness 358 of a community: a neutral model and a survey of published data. Ecology 85:3223–3233. 359 360 Huston, M. A. 1997. Hidden treatments in ecological experiments: re-evaluating the ecosystem 361 function of biodiversity. Oecologia 110:449-460. Jeschke, J. M., L. Gómez Aparicio, S. Haider, T. Heger, C. Lortie, P. Pyšek, and D. Strayeret. 362 2012. Support for major hypotheses in invasion biology is uneven and declining. 363 364 NeoBiota 14:1–20. Levine, J. M., and C. M. D'Antonio. 1999. Elton revisited: a review of evidence linking diversity 365 366 and invasibility. Oikos 87:15-26. 367 Li, Z., Q. Dong, T. P. Albright, and Q. F. Guo. 2011. Natural and human dimensions of a quasi-368 wild species: the case of kudzu. Biological Invasions 13:2167-2179. 369 Lockwood, J. L., P. Cassey, and T.M. Blackburn. 2009. The more you introduce the more you 370 get: the role of colonization pressure and propagule pressure in invasion ecology. 371 Diversity and Distributions 15:904-910. 372 Lonsdale, W. M. 1999. Global patterns of plant invasions and the concept of invasibility.

373

Ecology 80:1522-1536.

- MacArthur, R. H., and E. O. Wilson. 1967. The theory of island biogeography. Princeton Univ.
- 375 Press, Princeton.
- Miller, A. L., J. M. Diez, J. J. Sullivan, S. R. Wangen, S. K. Wiser, R. Meffin, and R. P. Duncan.
- 2014. Quantifying invasion resistance: the use of recruitment functions to control for
- propagule pressure. Ecology 95: 920–929.
- Moore, J. L., N. Mouquet, J. H. Lawton and M. Loreau. 2001. Coexistence, saturation and
- invasion resistance in simulated plant assemblages. Oikos 94:303–314.
- Planty-Tabacchi, A. M., E. Tabacchi, R. J. Naiman, C. Deferrari, and H. Decamps. 1996.
- Invasibility of species rich communities in riparian zones. Conservation Biology 10:598-
- 383 607.
- Potter, K. M., and C. W. Woodall. 2014. Does biodiversity make a difference? Relationships
- between species richness, evolutionary diversity, and aboveground live tree biomass
- across US forests. Forest Ecology and Management 321:117–129.
- Proches, S., J. R. U. Wilson, D. M. Richardson, and M. Rejmanek. 2008. Searching for
- phylogenetic pattern in biological invasions. Global Ecology and Biogeography 17:5-10.
- Pyšek, P. 1995. On the terminology used in plant invasion studies. Pages 71–81 in Pyšek, P., K.
- Prach, M. Rejmánek and M. Wade, editors. Plant invasions: general aspects and special
- problems. SPB Academic Publishing, Amsterdam, Sweden.
- Richardson, D. M. and R. M. Cowling. 1992. Why is mountain fynbos invasible and which
- species invade? Pages 161-181 in van Wilgen, B. W., D. M. Richardson, F. J. Kruger and
- H.J. van Hensbergen, editors. Fire in South African mountain fynbos. Springer-Verlag,
- 395 Berlin, Germany.
- Richardson, D. M., P. Pyšek, M. Rejmánek, M. G. Barbour, F. D. Panetta, and C. J. West. 2000.

397	Naturalization and invasion of alien plants: concepts and definitions. Diversity and
398	Distributions 6:93-107.
399	Ricklefs, R.E. 2010. Dynamics of colonization and extinction on islands. Insights from Lesser
400	Antillean birds. Pages 388–414 in Losos, J.B. and R.E. Ricklefs, editors. The theory of
401	island biogeography revisited. Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ.
402	Robinson, G. R., J. F. Quinn, and M. L. Stanton. 1995. Invasibility of experimental habitat
403	islands in a California winter annual grassland. Ecology 76:786-794.
404	Schoener, T. W. 1974. Resource partitioning in ecological communities. Science 185;27-39.
405	Shurin, J. B., and D. S. Srivastava. 2005. New perspectives on local and regional diversity:
406	beyond saturation. Pages 399-417 in Holyoak, M., M. Leibold, and R. Holt, editors.
407	Metacommunities: Spatial Dynamics and Ecological Communities. University of
408	Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, USA.
409	Simberloff, D., and B. Von Holle. 1999. Positive interactions of nonindigenous species:
410	invasional meltdown? Biological invasions 1:21-32.
411	Simberloff, D., J.L. Martin, P. Genovesi, V. Maris, D.A. Wardle, J. Aronson, et al. 2013. Impacts
412	of biological invasions: what's what and the way forward. Trends in Ecology and
413	Evolution 28:58-66.
414	Smith, M. D., J. Wilcox, T. Kelly, and A. K. Knapp. 2004. Dominance not diversity determines
415	invasibility of tallgrass prairie. Oikos 106:253–262.
416	Sobrino, E., M. Sanz-Elorza, E. D. Dana, and A. Gonzalez-Moreno. 2002. Invasibility of a
417	coastal strip in NE Spain by alien plants. J. Veg. Sci. 13:585-594.
418	Terborgh, J. W., and J. Faaborg. 1980. Saturation of bird communities in the West Indies.
419	American Naturalist 116:178–195.

evidence of a biological mechanisms or a consequence of sampling effects? Oikos 421 422 95:161-170. Williamson, M. 1996. Biological Invasions. Chapman and Hall, London, UK. 423 Wilson, J. B., R. K. Peet, J. Dengler, and M. Pärtel. 2012. Plant species richness: the world 424 425 records. Journal of Vegetation Science 23:796-802. Wiser, S. K., R. B. Allen, P. W. Clinton, and K. H. Platt. 1998. Community structure and forest 426 invasion by an exotic herb over 23 years. Ecology 79:2071-2081. 427 428 Woudenberg, S. W., B. L. Conkling, B. M. O'Connell, E. B. LaPoint, J. A. Turner, and K. L. Waddell. 2010. The Forest Inventory and Analysis Database: Database Description and 429 Users Manual Version 4.0 for Phase 2. USDA Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research 430 Station, Fort Collins, Colorado. 431 432 SUPPLEMENENTAL MATERIAL 433 Table S1 434 A review of all articles indexed by Web of Science in 2013 (119 total) that listed 435 436 invasibility as the keywords reveals that although most researchers seem to agree about what invasibility and DI mean in general, neither has a consistent measure. 437 438 Fig. S1 439 An example of applications of the proposed DI metric based on data from various sources: Blue - northern California coastal grassland; Brown - North Coast Range, California; 440 441 Pink - northern Great Plains; Black - California chaparral; Green - mountain/desert shrub lands

Wardle, D. A. 2001. Experimental demonstration that plant diversity reduces invasibility –

420

442

and wetlands. For detailed descriptions about the data, see Guo, Q.F., and A. Symstad. 2008. A

- two-part measure of degree of invasion for cross-community comparisons. Conservation Biology22:666-672.
- 445 Supporting references

Figure legends

Fig. 1. The differences between invasibility and degree of invasion or *DI* in habitats across a

hypothetical landscape (note that propagule includes invader identity; Simberloff 1989).

The outcome of the interactions between invasibility (a) and invasion pressure (b) at a

specific time (t) leads to measured DI_t (c).

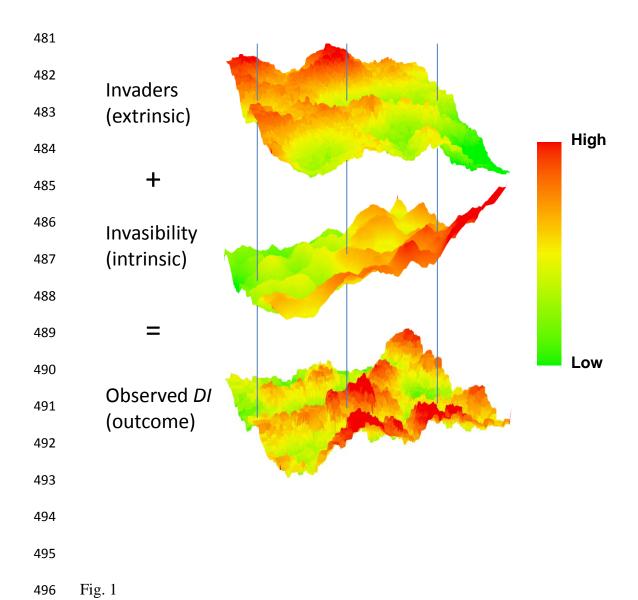
plots or habitats.

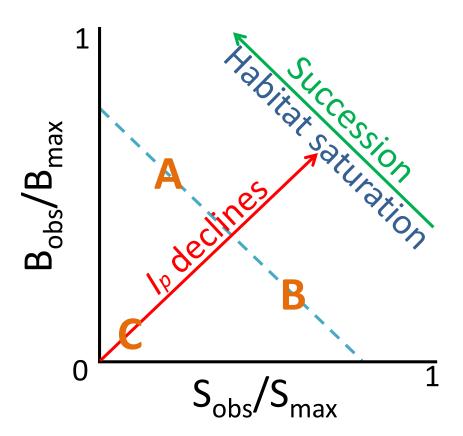
Fig. 2. The conceptual model showing the constraints of possible habitat saturation (i.e., S_{max} and B_{max}) on invasibility, Ip (e.g., IpA = IpB < IpC) or degree of invasion, DI. The plots on the dashed blue line have the same Ip. The relative importance of richness and biomass could switch between early and late succession and across habitat types. Note that replacing S_{max} and B_{max} with S_{tot} and B_{tot} would be for comparing DI values among

Fig. 3. An example of using the proposed definition and measure for invasibility using the US FIA data (http://www.fia.fs.fed.us/): Midwest broadleaf forest (brown; n = 969), Prairie Parkland forest (black; n = 845), and Adirondack-New England mixed forest (blue; n = 661). The forest plots close to the lower-left corner are more invasible than those in the upper-right corner. The line in the upper-right corner connects the highest values of $S_{\text{obs}}/S_{\text{max}}$ and $B_{\text{obs}}/B_{\text{max}}$ for each of the three forest ecosystems and represents possible habitat saturation levels which vary among ecosystems. The diagonal red line (x = y) separates the forest plots more saturated with richness (usually in early succession; i.e., plots below the line) and those more saturated with biomass (usually in late succession;

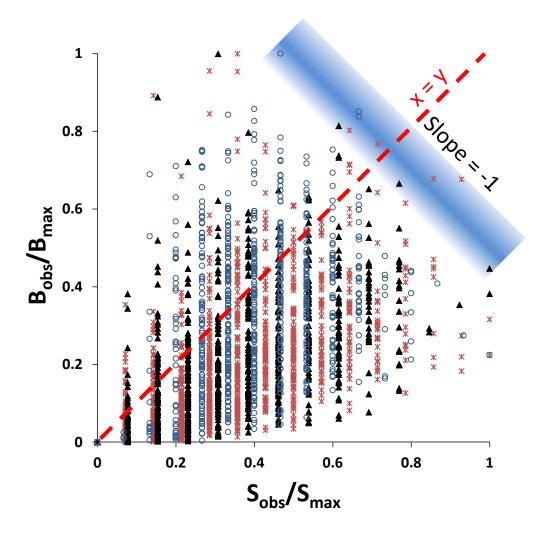
i.e., plots above the line).

Fig. 4. Differences between invasibility and *DI* based on the hypothetic and simplified temporal trajectories in a community with varying a roughly 50-yr successional cycle. Invasibility peaks in early succession and fluctuates around the mean during succession (short-term) but may not show long-term trends. *DI* also increases in early succession due to high invasibility but will show long-term increase as a consequence of continuing species introductions but especially if "invasion meltdown' takes place (Simberloff and Von Holle 1999), which may lead to extinction of native species. However, under extreme conditions such as right after total habitat destruction due to volcanic eruption, *DI* could briefly reach the maximum value of invasibility.

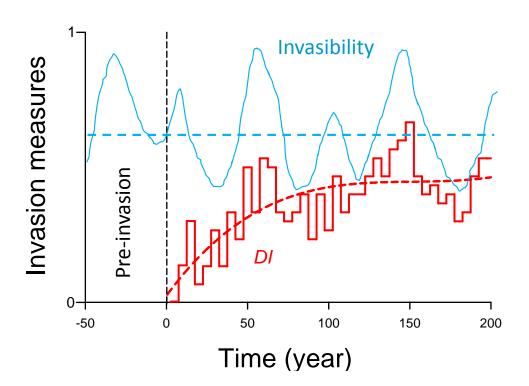




500 Fig. 2



503504 Fig. 3



510 Fig. 4

SUPPLEMENENTAL MATERIAL

Table S1

A review of all articles indexed by Web of Science in 2013 (119 total) that listed invasibility as the keywords reveals that although most researchers seem to agree about what invasibility and *DI* mean in general, neither has a consistent measure.



SUPPORTING TABLE S1.mht (Command Line)

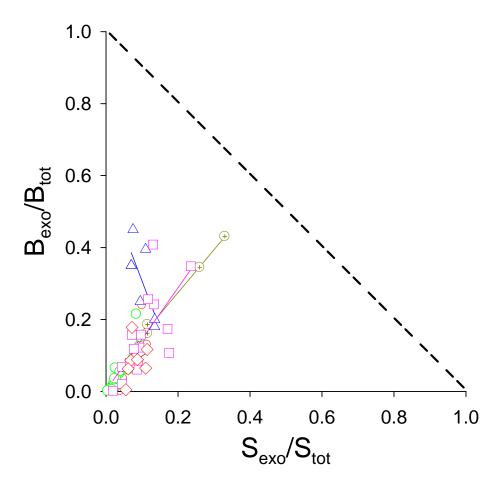


Fig. S1. An example of applications of the proposed DI metric based on data from various sources: Blue - northern California coastal grassland; Brown - North Coast Range, California; Pink - northern Great Plains; Black - California chaparral; Green – mountain/desert shrub lands and wetlands. There are large variations in *DI* both among and within habitat types (plots). For detailed descriptions about the data, see Guo, Q.F., and A. Symstad. 2008. A two-part measure of degree of invasion for cross-community comparisons. Conservation Biology 22:666-672.

Supporting references

- Crall, A. W., G. J. Newman, T. J. Stohlgren, C. S. Jarnevich, P. Evangelista, and D. Guenther. 2006. Evaluating dominance as a component of non-native species invasions. Diversity and Distributions 12:195-204.
- Gelbard, J. L., and S. Harrison. 2005. Invasibility of roadless grasslands: an experimental study of yellow starthistle. Ecological Applications 15:1570-1580.
- Guo, Q. 2001. Early post-fire succession in California chaparral: changes in diversity, density, cover and biomass. Ecological Research 16:471-486.
- Harrison, S., J. B. Grace, K. F. Davies, H. D. Safford, and J. H. Viers. 2006. Invasion in a diversity hotspot: exotic cover and native richness in the Californian serpentine flora. Ecology 87:695-703.
- Kolb, A., P. Alpert, D. Enters, & C. Holzapfel. 2002. Patterns of invasion within a grassland community. Journal of Ecology 90:871-881.
- Stohlgren, T. J., D. Binkley, G. W. Chong, M. A. Kalkhan, L. D. Schell, K. A. Bull, Y. Otsuki, G. Newman, M. Bashkin, and Y. Son. 1999. Exotic plant species invade hot spots of native plant diversity. Ecological Monographs 69:25-46.
- Symstad, A. J. 2006. Vegetation restoration success in water line disturbance and experimental plots at Wind Cave National Park: 2006 Annual Report. U.S. Geological Survey, Keystone, SD. (unpublished)
- Symstad, A. J., and D. G. Wenny. 2002. Response of grassland birds to prairie restoration at Lost Mound NWR: Baseline data collection. Technical Report 2002(22), Illinois Natural History Survey, Center for Biodiversity, Savanna, IL.
- Symstad, A. J., C. Wienk, and A. Thorstenson. 2006. Field-based evaluation of two herbaceous plant community sampling methods for long-term monitoring in northern Great Plains national parks. Open-File Report 2006-1282, U.S. Geological Survey, Helena, MT.