

1 **Calling time on alien plantscapes**

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3 Running title: Alien plantscapes

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10 This manuscript is under review in *Global Change Biology* and is a non-peer
11 reviewed preprint submitted to EarthArXiv. Therefore, the final version of this
12 paper may differ.

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24 **Key words:** alien plants, biotic homogeneity, invasion debt, non-invasive, sense of place

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28 Abstract

29 Both urban and rural environments around the globe have become dominated by alien
30 plant species to the extent that landscapes from one region or country have become
31 difficult to distinguish from many others. This process of plant community homogenisation
32 comes at a cost to cultural identity and undermines people's sense of place. Although
33 invasive alien plant species have received considerable attention in recent decades, issues
34 with non-invasive alien plant species have largely been ignored, and yet they contribute
35 significantly to biotic homogeneity and impose an ever accumulating invasion debt: a debt
36 that increases in proportion with their population sizes. By contrast, an abundance of native
37 species in the places where people live is important for strengthening commitment to
38 biodiversity conservation. Is there therefore sufficient evidence of harm from increasing
39 numbers of non-invasive alien plants to justify local and central governments introducing
40 measures to substantially reduce the proportion of non-invasive aliens in both urban and
41 rural environments?

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43 Main

44 Alien plant species are those that have crossed a biogeographic barrier with the help of
45 humans. They are a driver of plant community homogenisation that is occurring across
46 nearly all biomes and spatial scales (Daru et al. 2021). Alien species, both invasive and non-
47 invasive, are so widespread and abundant they have led to the notion of the homogene
48 (Olden et al. 2018) where the loss of unique biotic character among regions and nations
49 defines the age in which we live. In many parts of the world, they now greatly out-number
50 indigenous species (Brandt et al. 2021).

51 People bestow important symbolic, aesthetic and cultural values on native species, and
52 natural ecosystems contribute to a sense of place (Horwitz et al. 2001, Forristal et al. 2014).
53 Biodiversity and its spatial distinctiveness have been regarded as essential if ecosystems are
54 to provoke attachment and stimulate people's identification with particular landscapes
55 (Horwitz et al. 2001). The outward expression of how native species are woven into society
56 and a sense of place can be seen by the large number of logos, sport team mascots, and

57 symbols of national identity that make use of them (Gascon et al. 2015). These symbols
58 would not succeed if the species they depict did not resonate with people. Importantly, an
59 abundance of native species in the areas where people live is important for expanding the
60 public's understanding of biodiversity and strengthening societal licence and commitment
61 to biodiversity conservation (Segar et al. 2022). The corollary is that because increasing
62 urbanisation is driving declines in native biodiversity (Larson et al. 2022) and the majority of
63 species within lived-in environments are often alien imports, people are becoming
64 increasingly disconnected from natural ecosystems (McKinney 2006).

65 Some argue that biotic homogeneity is unimportant because alien species can possess
66 functional traits that fulfil similar ecosystem services as native species (Leuzinger and
67 Rewald 2021). However, alien plant species can alter trophic interactions, functional
68 balances and whole ecosystem process (Badenhausser et al. 2022), and because all
69 resources in an ecosystem are metabolised in some way, "every introduced species must
70 affect at least the topology of energy flow and nutrient cycling" (Simberloff 1990).
71 Moreover, the motivation for biodiversity conservation for most people is likely to be the
72 aesthetic nature of distinctive communities rather than functionality.

73 Alien plant species that are also invasive can precipitate irreversible changes to ecosystems
74 both above- and below-ground (Wardle et al. 2011), degrade community structures, alter
75 soil properties and nutrient cycling, and cause fire and hydrology regimes to change
76 (Weidlich et al. 2020). They continue to spread rapidly worldwide with no sign of abatement
77 (van Kleunen et al. 2018b), threatening protected areas almost everywhere (Pyšek et al.
78 2020). In some cases fundamental ecosystem services, such as primary productivity, can be
79 at risk from them (Wang et al. 2021).

80 Many alien plant populations remain benign for extended periods before crossing a viability
81 threshold to become invasive. This lag phase from introduction to invasive status can vary
82 from a few years to centuries (van Kleunen et al. 2018a). Factors enabling species to cross
83 the viability threshold include rapid phenotypic evolution, changes in interspecific or
84 intraspecific interactions, habitat modification, or shifts in climate regimes (van Kleunen et
85 al. 2018a, Ziska et al. 2019, Pyšek et al. 2020, Brandt et al. 2021). The prevalence of
86 extended lag phases has created considerable invasion debt throughout the world; the non-
87 invasive alien plants currently cultivated will be a source of recruitment of invasive species

88 for decades to come. Cultivation of plants in gardens is associated with increases in their
89 abundance in the wider environment (Segar et al. 2022) and thousands of these species,
90 including many that lack any history of invasiveness, are likely to become as ecologically
91 damaging as the worst invaders are today (Pyšek et al. 2020). Importantly, it is propagule
92 pressure due to the number of individuals and source populations of alien plant species that
93 strongly predict the number becoming invasive (van Kleunen et al. 2018a, Blackburn et al.
94 2020, Pyšek et al. 2020).

95 Climate change will exacerbate the problem. Rising temperatures are imposing stresses on
96 ecosystems, facilitating new invasive pathways and increasing the rate at which invasive
97 species establish and spread (van Kleunen et al. 2018a, Pyšek et al. 2020). In the face of the
98 strong adaptive pressure from climate change, alien species are often favoured by both
99 their existing traits and by a greater capacity for rapid adaptive evolution than are native
100 species (Walther et al. 2009, van Kleunen et al. 2018a, van Kleunen et al. 2018b, Ziska et al.
101 2019, Pyšek et al. 2020). Even among long-lived trees, with long generation times, adaptive
102 evolutionary processes have been intensified within alien populations leading to rapid
103 phenotypic and ecological evolution (Zenni et al. 2017, van Kleunen et al. 2018a).

104 The unprecedented pace of increase in the number of non-invasive alien plant species and
105 their population sizes throughout the world is swelling the reservoir of invasion debt that
106 will pump ever more invasives into the environment over the coming decades (Blackburn et
107 al. 2020, Pyšek et al. 2020). Lag phases, rapid evolution and climate change are likely to
108 make the identity of these future invasive species difficult to predict. By contrast, policy
109 shifts that lower the proportion of non-invasive alien plant species in the environment
110 would reduce invasion debt and decrease community homogeneity.

111 Given the importance of the abundance of native species in areas where people live for
112 strengthening commitment to biodiversity conservation, plus the invasion debt and biotic
113 homogeneity imposed by non-invasive alien species, is it incumbent on policy makers to
114 consider introducing a suite of measures aimed at substantially shifting the balance of
115 plants in the environment towards one favouring native species?

116

117 **Policy and Management**

118 Tools that local and central governments might employ to achieve a shift in the balance
119 between alien and native plants in the environment could include: 1. legislation banning the
120 propagation and sale of all alien plant species that can produce viable propagules; 2.
121 importation bans on all alien species; 3. progressive replacement of alien plants on all public
122 land with native species; 4. rules for developments restricting new planting to native
123 species.

124

125 1. Legislation banning the propagation and sale of all alien plant species that can
126 produce viable propagules

127 Horticulture is the dominant pathway for plant invasions; approximately 94% of naturalised
128 plant species are grown in cultivation (Seebens et al. 2022). Among the alien species traded,
129 those able to produce viable propagules demonstrate a higher risk of becoming invasive. If
130 the sale and propagation of such species can be halted before they become intractably
131 invasive, substantial future costs for control will be avoided. This approach would invoke the
132 precautionary principle and treat alien species with a high risk of invasiveness as 'guilty until
133 proven innocent' rather than waiting until it is certain that they have become invasive, by
134 which time it is usually too late to eradicate them (Shrestha and Shrestha 2021).

135 New Zealand has a National Plant Pest Accord which is a voluntary agreement between the
136 ornamental nursery industry and government that established a mechanism to ban alien
137 plant species from sale or propagation. However, because the horticulture industry must
138 agree to all such prohibitions, only 37% of the invasive alien plants with ornamental origin in
139 New Zealand have been banned under this accord (Hulme 2020). The lack of effectiveness of
140 this accord in even preventing the sale of already proven invasive species, let alone species
141 at risk of becoming invasive, demonstrates the need for local or central governments to
142 consider legislation that automatically bans alien plant species from sale or propagation that
143 have either naturalised or have shown signs of naturalising by successfully producing viable
144 propagules within their introduced range. Exceptions would be needed for plants that are
145 essential for food production or carbon farming.

146

147 2. Importation bans on alien species

148 Despite increasing awareness of the issues due to introducing new alien species, alien plant
149 imports will continue to increase throughout the world under current policy frameworks
150 (Seebens et al. 2022). Many jurisdictions have bans on the importation of specific taxa
151 known to be invasive and broader bans, such as for all genera of cacti known to include
152 invasive species, have been proposed (Novoa et al. 2015). However, import bans for specific
153 invasive taxa are problematic and expensive to enforce due to the difficulty in distinguishing
154 many non-invasive species from invasive ones (Damayanti et al. 2021). This approach also
155 does not provide any protection from the plethora of taxa that currently lack any history of
156 invasiveness but are likely to become invasive in the future (Pyšek et al. 2020). The demand
157 for a continuous supply of new and exotic ornamental species by home gardeners and the
158 ornamental horticultural industry is generated by desire, not need, and given that the future
159 costs on the environment due to invasion debt are not covered by end users or the industry,
160 there is good reason to discontinue this trade. New Zealand has led by banning all imports
161 of alien species not already within the country (Hulme 2020). It maintains a list of species,
162 currently within its borders, that are permitted imports. Any species not on this list must
163 undergo a rigorous risk assessment before an import permit is issued. This is a preferable
164 approach to that of maintaining lists of banned taxa that are inevitably incomplete (Hulme
165 2020). However, risk assessments do not ensure zero risk and they fail to address the
166 problem of increasing biotic homogeneity and of declining biotic identity of place. Given
167 that there is no pressing need for importing alien species, simple outright bans would be
168 preferable and might be considered by jurisdictions throughout the world.

169

170 3. Progressive replacement of alien plants on all public land with native species

171 Alien plant species have dominated urban plantings for many decades, but in parts of the
172 world such as in Europe, North America and Australasia there are movements to encourage
173 representation of native plant species within urban communities (Ignatieva and Stewart
174 2009). For example, in Wellington, New Zealand, threatened native plants are included in
175 city plantings (Sawyer 2005), and in Canada there is an increasing emphasis in urban
176 management plans for planting native species. However, despite these plans, alien species

177 are often still planted in preference to natives (Ordóñez and Duinker 2013, Almas and
178 Conway 2016).

179 Governments (local, regional and central) could move well beyond encouraging native
180 planting and actively seek to redress the balance between alien and native plants on both
181 urban and rural public land by introducing policies to progressively replace non-invasive alien
182 plant species with native ones. Exceptions would be needed for plants that are grown for
183 food or carbon farming, or that have significant scientific or historic importance. The cost of
184 removing non-invasive aliens will be far less than invasives because after removal non-
185 invasives will not re-establish and therefore not require ongoing control costs. Substantial
186 future savings will occur due to reduced invasion debt.

187

188 4. Rules for private developments restricting new planting to native species.

189 There is an increasing number of programmes, such as the Gardens for Wildlife in Australia,
190 that encourage higher native plant diversity in home landscaping (Larson et al. 2022). In the
191 United States there are at least 193 voluntary initiatives promoting increases in native
192 species richness (Pham et al. 2022). However, little consideration has been given to
193 mandating conditions on new developments that restrict planting to native species. In New
194 Zealand, several district councils (local government entities) have rules requiring native
195 planting in new housing developments. For example, Dunedin District Council requires a
196 minimum of one planted native tree for every 250 m² of land plus “where the site adjoins a
197 road, at least 50% of the land within the road boundary setback must be planted with trees,
198 shrubs or groundcover species that are native to New Zealand” (Rae et al. 2022). However,
199 the rule does not prevent people from also planting alien species. Local governments
200 throughout the world should consider introducing rules for new housing and commercial
201 developments that require the planting of native species and prohibit planting of alien
202 species other than those used for food production.

203

204 **Conclusion**

205 An abundance of native species in areas where people live is important for enhancing the
206 public's commitment to biodiversity conservation whereas non-invasive alien plant species
207 impose a future invasion debt on natural ecosystems and contribute to biotic homogeneity.
208 If policies that reduce the proportion of non-invasive alien plant species on public and
209 private land, and that turn off the tap for new introductions, were implemented, it might be
210 possible to look forward to reduced invasion debt, and to plantscapes with less
211 homogeneity and greater native diversity.

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213 Declarations

214 The author declares no competing interests. The author wrote the paper. There are no data
215 associated with this paper.

216

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