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1	Running head: Functional traits and invasion
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3	Plant functional traits of dominant native and invasive species in Mediterranean-climate
4	ecosystems
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20	Keywords: resource acquisition, resource-use efficiency, drought avoidance, stress tolerance,
21	functional traits, annual, perennial

22 Abstract

The idea that dominant invasive plant species outperform neighboring native species through 23 higher rates of carbon assimilation and growth is supported by several analyses of global 24 datasets. However, theory suggests that native and invasive species occurring in low-resource 25 environments will be functionally similar, as environmental factors restrict the range of observed 26 physiological and morphological trait values. We measured resource-use traits in native and 27 invasive plant species across eight diverse vegetation communities distributed throughout the 28 five Mediterranean-climate regions, which are drought-prone and increasingly threatened by 29 human activities including the introduction of exotic species. Traits differed strongly across the 30 five regions. In regions with functional differences between native and invasive species groups, 31 invasive species displayed traits consistent with high resource acquisition; however, these 32 patterns were largely attributable to differences in life form. We found that species invading 33 Mediterranean-climate regions were more likely to be annual than perennial - three of the five 34 regions were dominated by native woody species and invasive annuals. These results suggest 35 that trait differences between native and invasive species are context dependent and will vary 36 across vegetation communities. Native and invasive species within annual and perennial groups 37 had similar patterns of carbon assimilation and resource-use, which contradicts the widespread 38 idea that invasive species optimize resource acquisition rather than resource conservation. 39

40 Introduction

One of the greatest challenges in conserving and restoring plant communities is identifying the 41 mechanisms by which invasive species outperform native species. Analyses of global datasets 42 suggest that invasive species generally display traits associated with high resource acquisition 43 (Leishman et al. 2007, van Kleunen et al. 2010) or broad physiological niches (Higgins and 44 Richardson 2014). However, most investigations of invasive species are conducted in high-45 resource environments, which are characterized by an abundance of water, soil nutrients, light or 46 a combination of these factors. High-resource environments are thought to favor species with 47 high rates of resource acquisition while low-resource environments select for traits associated 48 with stress tolerance (Chapin 1980, Craine 2009). In low-resource environments (e.g., deserts, 49 ancient landscapes), plant productivity is severely limited by light, water, or soil nutrient 50 51 availability, and native plants often have adaptations allowing them to tolerate stress or enhance extraction of the limiting resource (e.g., Cramer et al. 2014, Dallman 1998). Stress often limits 52 the range of trait values resulting in trait similarity between co-occurring species in low-resource 53 environments (e.g., habitat filtering; Weiher and Keddy 1999). Thus, theoretically, native and 54 invasive species in low-resource environments should display similar ranges of traits pertaining 55 to resource acquisition and use. Understanding these functional differences is critical to 56 designing management programs in invaded plant communities, especially where resources can 57 be manipulated (e.g., through fire, grazing, carbon amendments; Funk et al. 2008). 58

59

Plants native to drought-prone environments, one type of low-resource system, frequently
display one of two contrasting strategies: drought tolerance or drought avoidance (Ludlow 1989).
Mediterranean-climate ecosystems (MCEs), which are characterized by cool, wet winters and

hot, dry summers, provide examples of these two strategies. In response to summer water stress, 63 perennial species in MCEs have evolved traits associated with water conservation, including 64 high leaf mass per unit area (LMA), small evergreen leaves, and a large investment in below-65 ground biomass (Schenk and Jackson 2002, Thompson 2005). In contrast, many MCEs 66 (California, Chile, Spain) also support a diversity of annual species, which complete their life 67 cycle during the cool, wet winter/spring season to avoid drought stress altogether (Franks 2011). 68 In contrast to perennial species, annual species often have traits associated with high resource 69 acquisition (e.g., low LMA, high growth rate; Garnier 1992) although there can be significant 70 trait variability within life form groups (Ackerly 2004, Bermúdez and Retuerto 2014, Cramer et 71 al. 2014, Lambers et al. 2010). 72

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Despite the summer drought, many invasive species thrive in MCEs (Arianoutsou et al. 2013), 74 though few studies have examined how their physiological strategies compare to those of native 75 species (e.g., Funk and Zachary 2010, Godoy et al. 2012). A recent review of invasion in low-76 resource ecosystems found that invasive species in arid and semi-arid environments can display 77 resource conservation traits by investing more biomass in root systems and maintaining high 78 water-use efficiency (WUE) compared to native species (Funk 2013). While these trends begin 79 to identify traits associated with invasiveness in low-resource environments, the suite of 80 morphological and physiological traits associated with resource acquisition and use has yet to be 81 examined jointly at community- and global scales. Because MCEs are biodiversity hotspots and 82 are under increasing pressure from changing environmental conditions and human activity 83 (Ackerly et al. 2014, Sala et al. 2000), it is critical to advance our understanding of invasion 84

- dynamics in these regions and the extent to which patterns are broadly generalizable (Fried et al.
 2014, Gaertner et al. 2009, Martín-Forés et al. 2015, Vilà et al. 2008).
- 87

In this study, we measured 16 life-history, morphological, and physiological traits pertaining to 88 resource acquisition and use from native and invasive species occurring in eight vegetation 89 communities across the five MCE regions (Table 1). As fire history, soil nutrient availability 90 and grazing pressure differed across the eight sites, we expected substantial variation in trait 91 values. For example, ancient soils in South Africa and Australia are lower in soil phosphorus (P) 92 and, to a lesser extent, nitrogen (N) than other MCEs, and this should result in higher leaf 93 nutrient variation across sites (Stock and Verboom 2012). However, we predicted that drought 94 stress imposed by the hot, dry summers in MCEs would lead to trait similarity between native 95 96 and invasive species. This prediction diverges from the idea that invasive species display higher resource acquisition than co-occurring natives, which is largely based on results from high-97 resource environments. Because MCEs host drought-tolerant perennial species and annual 98 species that avoid summer drought, we examined resource traits across and within these two life 99 forms. 100

101

102 Methods

103 We selected eight moderately to heavily invaded MCE communities including grasslands,

shrublands, and woodlands (Table 1). Our sites had similar mean annual precipitation (330–834

105 mm), but varied greatly in soil nutrient availability, grazing frequency, and fire history (Table 1).

106 At each site, we collected functional trait data from five individuals of the most common

107 invasive (5–9 species per site) and native (7–47 species per site) species for a total of 39 invasive

and 129 native species (Appendix A, Table A1). Some species occurred in more than one 108 region. In our study "invasive" refers to non-native species that spread out of the area of 109 introduction, reaching high local abundance at each site (Colautti and MacIsaac 2004, 110 111 Richardson et al. 2000). Categorical data included nutrient acquisition strategy (NAS), maximum rooting depth, and life form. Nutrient acquisition strategy was assigned using 112 information gathered from the literature (Appendix B). We grouped species into four NAS 113 categories: (1) facultative or obligate mycorrhizal, (2) nitrogen-fixing with or without 114 mycorrhizae, (3) specialized roots (i.e., cluster roots, fine roots and long root hairs, parasitic root 115 structures), and (4) none of the above (i.e., no specialized NAS, non-mycorrhizal plants). We 116 used three categories of root depth (0-30 cm, 30-100 cm, or greater than 100 cm). For annuals, 117 perennial forbs, and small-statured woody species, we excavated the entire root system and 118 measured maximum root depth. For large woody species, we assumed a root depth greater than 119 100 cm. We used the following six life form categories: petaloid monocot perennials, non-120 petaloid monocot annuals, non-petaloid monocot perennials, annual forbs, perennial forbs, and 121 woody species. Petaloid monocots, or lilioids, is an informal, polyphyletic group of five 122 monocot orders with similar flower morphology (Angiosperm Phylogeny Group III 2009). 123 124

Plant height was measured between the base of the stem and the apical shoot or tallest leaf (i.e., grasses). Flowering stalks were excluded from height measurements. Seed mass was determined using the Kew seed mass database (http://data.kew.org/sid). If a species was absent from the database, we used the mean of all species within that genera. Specific root length (SRL) was sampled for species with rooting depth less than 100 cm. Roots were either sub-sampled from excavated root systems or taken from soil cores made at 10 cm depth immediately

adjacent (2-5 cm) to the stem. Root length was measured and roots were dried at 65 °C for 3 days and weighed to determine SRL (cm² g⁻¹).

133

Physiological and chemical traits were measured on fully expanded, recently mature leaves in the 134 middle of the spring growing season, prior to flowering. Photosynthetic and transpiration rates 135 were measured with a LI-6400 portable photosynthesis system (LI-COR, Lincoln, NE). All 136 measurements were conducted at saturating light levels (1600 μ mol photon m⁻² s⁻¹), 400 μ L L⁻¹ 137 CO₂, leaf temperature of 25 °C, and at relative humidity of 40-60%. When necessary, 138 photosynthetic rates were temperature-corrected using standard equations (von Caemmerer 139 2000). Water-use efficiency was calculated as the ratio of photosynthesis to transpiration. 140 141 After photosynthetic measures, leaves were collected, scanned to determine leaf area, dried at 65 142 °C for 3 days, and weighed to determine LMA. Ground leaves were analyzed for total plant N 143 with an elemental analyzer (Costech 4010 elemental combustion system, Valencia, CA). 144 Phosphorus content was determined colorimetrically using a discrete analyzer (SmartChem 200, 145 Unity Scientific, Brookfield, CT) following Kjeldahl digest. Photosynthetic rates and leaf 146 nutrient content were evaluated on an area and mass basis. Photosynthetic nitrogen-use 147 efficiency (PNUE) and phosphorus-use efficiency (PPUE) were calculated as the ratio of 148 photosynthesis to leaf N or P. 149 150

151 Statistical analysis

To examine differences in leaf-level traits between native and invasive plants across the five
 MCE regions we used a mixed-model, nested ANOVA with region and origin (native or non-

native) as fixed factors and site (nested within region) and species (nested within origin) as 154 random factors. When there was a significant interaction between region and origin, we 155 conducted separate analyses within region, with origin as a fixed effect and site and species as 156 random effects. Because we lacked sufficient replication for SRL and seed mass for many 157 species, we used species means in our analysis and excluded 'species' from the model for these 158 two traits. Differences in trait values between native and invasive species were analyzed 159 separately for annual and perennial groups across regions with site and species as random 160 factors. Data were log transformed prior to analysis. All mixed models were fit with the lme4 161 package (version 1.7) and the nloptr package (version 1.0.4) using the R statistical computing 162 environment (version 3.2.0). In order to compute P-values we used the Satterthwaite correction 163 to approximate degrees of freedom, which are not well defined for a mixed-model. 164

165

To test whether native and invasive species differed in categorical variables, we conducted chisquare tests on three-way contingency tables with the following log linear model: site + origin + strategy + site × strategy + origin × site, where strategy is root depth, NAS, or life form. The null hypothesis is that strategy is independent of origin, given site. All analyses were conducted using the loglm function from the MASS package (version 7.3-40) in R.

171

172 **Results**

Across regions, many traits differed between native and invasive species (Appendix C, Table
C1). However, significant region by origin interactions (Appendix C, Table C1) suggested that
differences between species groups should be examined within regions. At the regional level,
invasive species had higher A_{mass} and lower LMA than native species in South Africa and

Western Australia (Fig. 1, Table 2). These patterns were evident within the coastal sage scrub 177 site in California as well (Fig. 1). With respect to leaf nutrient traits, invasive species had higher 178 N_{mass}, N_{area}, and PNUE than native species within the South Africa and Western Australia 179 180 regions (Table 2). Invasive species had higher P_{mass}, P_{area}, and PPUE in Western Australia, which was largely driven by significant differences in the banksia woodland site (Fig. 1). 181 182 There were fewer differences between native and invasive species in non-leaf traits. Native 183 species were taller than invasive species in Western Australia (Table 2, Fig. 2). Seed mass was 184 higher for native species than invasive species in the coastal banksia woodland site (Western 185 Australia), but higher for invasive species in the serpentine grassland site (Table 2, Fig. 2). 186 Specific root length did not differ between native and invasive species within regions, but was 187 higher for invasive species at one site (Renosterveld, South Africa, Fig. 2). Root depth (Fig. 3, 188 $\chi^2 = 54.34$, P < 0.0001) was higher in native species relative to invasive species. Native and 189 invasive species were similar with respect to nutrient acquisition strategy ($\chi^2 = 27.49$, P = 0.28). 190 191

Invasive species were nearly twice as likely to be annual grasses and forbs compared to natives 192 (64% of invaders were annual compared to 38% of natives, Fig. 3, $\chi^2 = 116.63$, P < 0.0001). 193 When comparing native and invasive annual species exclusively, we found that invasive annuals 194 195 were taller with larger seeds and thinner roots (high SRL) – traits associated with greater resource acquisition (Table 3). Despite these morphological differences, rates of resource 196 acquisition and use (e.g., photosynthetic rates, leaf nutrient content, resource-use efficiency) 197 198 were similar between native and invasive annual species (Table 3), which differs from the pattern we observed in some regions when annuals and perennials were considered together. 199

Perennial native and invasive species only differed with respect to one trait. Invasive perennials
had higher leaf N content (N_{mass}) compared to native perennials (Table 3).

202

203 Discussion

Our results from a diverse range of drought-prone Mediterranean-climate ecosystems suggest 204 that the traits that make invasive species successful depend strongly on the invaded habitat. 205 Despite similar timing and magnitude of rainfall, our sites differed considerably in several 206 environmental factors such as soil nutrient availability, fire history, and grazing pressure. As a 207 consequence, traits differed more strongly across regions than between native and invasive 208 species. The regions with functional differences between native and invasive species (Chile, 209 South Africa, Western Australia) are dominated by woody (often evergreen) native species while 210 211 invasive species are almost exclusively annual (Appendix A, Table A1). The difference between native and invasive species is particularly striking for the Western Australian ecosystems. In 212 contrast, the other three sites (Spain and California) were grasslands or shrublands where native 213 species are primarily herbs or drought-deciduous perennials. Drought-deciduous species often 214 have leaf characteristics that more closely resemble annual species than evergreen perennials 215 (e.g., Jacobsen et al. 2008). Thus, trait differences at the regional level may be explained by 216 differences in life form between native and invasive species groups. 217

218

Our finding that invasive species were more likely to be annual than native species contrasts with results from Arianoutsou et al. (2013), who found that MCE invaders were more frequently herbaceous perennials. This discrepancy may result from our narrowed focus on eight specific communities as opposed to entire regions in Arianoutsou et al. (2013). Despite accounting for a

lower percentage of regional invaders, our findings may indicate that annuals achieve higher 223 abundances in the field compared to perennial species. Many annual and perennial herbs have 224 traits that facilitate invasiveness such as large seedbanks, increased propagule pressure, and 225 226 resilience to grazing. Additionally, annual invaders may succeed in MCEs through drought avoidance. While our experiment was not designed to include a complete complement of life 227 forms within native and invasive species groups at each site (i.e., native and invasive annuals, 228 native and invasive perennials), to determine whether invasive annuals and perennials are 229 generally better than their native counterparts at acquiring resources, we analyzed functional 230 traits separately for these groups across regions. We found only one difference between native 231 and invasive perennial species, which suggests that invasive perennials are functionally similar 232 to natives in these drought-prone regions. Within annual species, we found that invasive species 233 had higher SRL, seed mass, and stature relative to native species. However, these morphological 234 advantages did not translate into greater carbon assimilation (Amass, Aarea) or resource-use 235 efficiency (WUE, PNUE, PPUE). 236

237

Why might morphological differences (e.g., height, SRL) between species groups not be 238 reflected in patterns of carbon assimilation? One reason is scale. Relationships between leaf-239 and plant-level traits are often observed across diverse taxonomic and biogeographic ranges. For 240 example, the leaf economics spectrum, which shows strong correlations between key leaf-level 241 traits, was developed on a global scale encompassing a broad range of species and climates 242 (Reich et al. 1997). However, these key leaf-level traits do not necessarily correlate at smaller 243 scales, which is due in part to the low variation within some of these traits at the community 244 245 scale (e.g., grasslands dominated by annual species; Funk and Cornwell 2013).

246

A second reason for the decoupling between morphological and physiological traits is 247 environmental context. Great stature and low LMA facilitate light capture and have been 248 positively associated with competitive ability, but these traits may not confer higher rates of 249 carbon assimilation in drought-prone environments, where photosynthesis is more strongly 250 limited by carbon (e.g., stomatal closure in response to drought) than energy (e.g., light 251 limitation). Lastly, individual traits likely need to be interpreted in the context of other traits. 252 High SRL may facilitate rapid uptake of water and nutrients and, consequently, increase rates of 253 carbon assimilation. However, water and nutrient uptake will be influenced by a suite of traits 254 (e.g., root length density, root distribution, tissue density), not just SRL (Laughlin et al. 2010). 255 Thus, analyses of functional similarity among native and invasive species that rely exclusively 256 257 on a handful of traits, like LMA or height, may be misleading as the function of these traits can be context-dependent. 258

259

Where there were differences between native and invasive species, either within sites or life form 260 groups, invasive species mostly displayed resource acquisition traits - low LMA, high 261 photosynthetic rate, and high leaf nutrient content - rather than traits associated with resource-262 use efficiency. This finding supports recent work showing that invasive species tend to be 263 located at the "high-return" end of the leaf economics spectrum, which is characterized by high 264 rates of carbon assimilation and low investment in structure (Leishman et al. 2007, Ordoñez et al. 265 2010, Peñuelas et al. 2010). Notably, invasive species in the banksia woodland (Western 266 Australia) community displayed high resource acquisition (leaf N and P) and high resource 267 conservation (PNUE and PPUE). This result adds to growing evidence that some invasive 268

species succeed in low-resource ecosystems by employing both resource acquisition and
conservation strategies (Funk and Vitousek 2007, Matzek 2012, Oliveira et al. 2014).

272 Focusing on a broad range of traits pertaining to resource use, we found functional differences between native and invasive species within MCE regions where species groups differed in life 273 form. Many invasive species in MCEs appear to succeed through drought avoidance associated 274 with an annual life form, but collectively they do not display superior resource acquisition traits 275 compared with native annual species. Our experiment focused on identifying traits of the most 276 abundant (i.e., successful) invasive species at a site, and was not designed to test how native and 277 invasive species differ within life form. Thus, additional studies are needed that survey traits 278 from a larger number of annual or perennial species within individual habitats. In light of our 279 context-dependent results across regions, we argue that attempts to identify the mechanisms of 280 invasiveness should be made within individual communities rather than at the global level 281 (Maron and Marler 2008, Moles et al. 2008). Finally, similar patterns of resource use among 282 native and invasive annual species may limit restoration approaches that aim to manipulate 283 resources to curtail the growth of invasive species, but our study ignored other key aspects of 284 resource use such as phenology and dormancy which may suggest alternative manipulations for 285 restoration (Funk et al. 2008). 286

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288 Acknowledgements

We thank F. Pérez, M. Vilà, C. Allen, T. Morald, M. Nguyen, A. Ortega, and K. Kariman for
help in the lab and field, J. Larson for comments on the manuscript, and M. Macpherson for
statistical advice. This work was supported by the National Science Foundation (grant OISE-

- 1132994) and a Jasper Ridge Restoration Fellowship from Stanford University to JLF. RJS was
- supported by the Australian Research Council Centre of Excellence for Environmental
- 294 Decisions.
- 295

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- 411 Appendix A (Table A1). Information for species included in the study.
- 412 Appendix B. List of references for seed masses and for NAS data
- 413 Appendix C (Table C1). Results of mixed-model ANOVA for continuous traits across five
- 414 Mediterranean-climate regions.

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416 Author Contributions

- 417 JLF and RJS conceived and designed the study. RJS, WDS and FV conducted field work and
- 418 contributed to writing. JLF was the primary writer.

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420 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Table 1 - Site chara	cteristics. Mean annual precipi	tation is abbr	eviated as M	1AP. Fire de	enotes the nu	mber of yea	Its since the	ast fire.
Soil P values for SG	are from Reference 1 and SW	are from a ne	arby site (P	udahuel, http	o://ssldata.nro	ss.usda.gov)	ė	
Region	Site	Site code	Soil N	Soil total	Soil pH	MAP	Grazing	Fire (yr)
			(g/100g)	P (mg/kg)		(mm)		
California	Coastal sage scrub	CSS	0.19	628.3	6.58	330	Low	3
	Serpentine grassland	SG	0.23	30 ¹	69.9	760	Low	>50
Chile	Sclerophyll woodland	SW	0.09	1001	7.15	360	None	>100
South Africa	Fynbos	ц	0.03	31.0	4.81	522	None	10
	Renosterveld	R	0.29	304.0	5.75	515	None	>50
Spain	Coastal grassland	ÐŊ	0.05	117.8	7.96	550	High	>50
Western Australia	Banksia woodland	BW	0.05	47.7	5.38	834	Low	>20
	Coastal banksia woodland	CBW	0.06	150.9	5.74	734	none	>30
			/					

regions. For F-values, numerator and denominator degrees of freedom are given in parentheses. Significant effects (P < 0.05) are in Table 2 – ANOVA for the effect of origin (native or invasive species) on continuous traits within each of the five Mediterranean bold.

Califor		Chil		South Afr	S	Chair	-	Westerr	_
	1110		D	ITY INDOC	ica	прап	_	Australi	B
ſŦ	Р	Ц	Р	Н	Ч	Ц	Р	F	Ρ
				E					
(1,56)	0.49	5.74 (1,17)	0.03	0.34 (1,27)	0.56	$1.47_{(1,28)}$	0.24	2.40 (1,21)	0.14
(1,69)	0.47	8.67 (1,17)	0.009	7.34 (1,28)	0.01	0.15 (1,28)	0.70	13.55 (1,21)	0.001
(1,73)	0.95	2.61 (1,17)	0.12	4.27 (1,27)	0.05	0.13 (1,28)	0.72	$1.95_{(1,20)}$	0.18
(1,72)	0.08	3.16 (1,17)	0.09	$12.04_{(1,28)}$	0.002	0.70 (1,28)	0.41	31.32 (1,22)	< 0.0001
(1,75)	0.64	$0.10_{(1,17)}$	0.76	5.49 _(1,28)	0.03	1.69 (1,28)	0.20	6.49 (1,22)	0.02
(1,73)	0.08	$1.87_{(1,17)}$	0.19	4.74 (1,28)	0.04	$0.00_{(1,28)}$	0.98	28.55 (1,22)	< 0.0001
(1,72)	0.16	9.51 (1,17)	0.007	5.71 (1,27)	0.02	0.95 (1,28)	0.34	11.27 (1,21)	0.003
l (1,53)	0.15	3.05 (1,17)	0.10	1.98 (1,28)	0.17	0.18 (1,28)	0.67	8.90 (1,22)	0.007
(1,53)	0.79	$0.02_{(1,17)}$	0.89	1.53 (1,27)	0.23	$0.33_{(1,28)}$	0.57	$19.87_{(1,22)}$	0.0002

PPUE	0.02 (1,53)	0.88	4.05 (1,17)	0.06	4.06 (1,27)	0.05	0.57 (1,28)	0.46	9.05 (1,21)	0.007
Root, plant,	and seed tra	its								
SRL	0.87 (1,67)	0.36	$0.06_{(1,8)}$	0.81	$1.33_{(1,10)}$	0.28	$0.00_{(1,20)}$	0.98	$1.44_{(1,17)}$	0.25
Height	1.70 (1,75)	0.20	2.40 (1,17)	0.14	0.64 (1,28)	0.43	1.79 (1,28)	0.19	6.89 (1,21)	0.02
Seed mass	5.18 (1,73)	0.03	0.28 (1,12)	0.61	0.06 (1,28)	0.81	$0.01_{(1,28)}$	0.92	9.67 (1,27)	0.004
					E					
Abbreviations: Are	a-based phot	osynthe	stic rate (Aarea)	, mass-l	oased photosyr	thetic r	ate (A _{mass}), wa	ater-us	e efficiency (WUF	(), leaf mass
per area (LMA), m	ass-based lea	f nitrog	gen content (N	mass), arc	ea-based leaf n	itrogen	content (N _{area})), photo	osynthetic nitroger	1-use
efficiency (PNUE)	, mass-based	leaf ph	osphorus cont	ent (P _{ma}	ss), area-based	leaf pho	osphorus conte	ent (P _a	^{ca}), photosynthetic	: phosphorus-
use efficiency (PPI	JE).									

Table 3 - Trait values for native (n=44) and invasive (n=35) annual and native (n=90) and invasive (n=20) perennial species, pooled across eight sites within the five MCEs. Asterisks denote a significant difference between native and invasive species within each Origin -X-**Perennial species** 78.1 (10.1) 0.25 (0.04) Invasive 14.1 (2.2) 249 (70) 5.4 (0.5) 2.1 (0.3) 163 (25) 2.9 (0.3) 110 (22) 0.20 (0.02) 15.7 (0.8) 190 (20) 4.8 (0.2) 2.4 (0.1) 2.9 (0.2) 110(11)212 (15) 153 (14) Native Origin group (* P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01). Trait abbreviations as in Table 2. 0.28 (0.03) Annual species 16.7 (1.6) 4.5 (0.3) 192 (17) 59.3 (6.2) 2.7 (0.1) 152 (21) 363 (39) 1.6 (0.2) Invasive 0.30 (0.02) 18.5 (1.4) 352 (27) 4.8 (0.3) 62.0 (7.3) 2.7 (0.1) 1.8(0.3)200 (16) 217 (53) Native Leaf-level traits PNUE WUE $\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{mass}}$ $\mathbf{A}_{\mathrm{mass}}$ LMA A_{area} N_{mass} N_{area} $\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{area}}$

3.8 (0.8)

3.4 (0.4)

5.0(0.6)

3.9 (0.5)

PPUE



Figure Legend

Fig. 1. Leaf-level trait data for native and invasive species including area-based photosynthetic rate (a), mass-based photosynthetic rate (b), water-use efficiency (c), leaf mass per area (d), leaf N content (e), leaf P content (f), photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency (g), and photosynthetic phosphorus-use efficiency (h). Site codes are given in Table 1. Asterisks denote significant differences (P < 0.05) between native and invasive species within sites.

Fig. 2. Specific root length (a), plant height (b), and seed mass (c). Site codes are given in Table 1. Asterisks denote significant differences (P < 0.05) between native and invasive species within sites.

Fig. 3. The number of native and invasive species in six life form (a) and root depth (b) categories across eight sites from Mediterranean-climate ecosystems.

Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3

