1	
2 3	Invasion by <i>Rhododendron ponticum</i> depletes the native seed bank with long-term impacts after its removal.
4	Janet E. Maclean <sup>1,2,</sup> , Ruth J. Mitchell*1, David F.R.P. Burslem <sup>2</sup> , David Genney <sup>3</sup>
5	Jeanette Hall <sup>3</sup> and Robin J. Pakeman <sup>1</sup>
6	
7	* Corresponding author: <a href="mailto:ruth.mitchell@hutton.ac.uk">ruth.mitchell@hutton.ac.uk</a> ; +44(0)1224395231 ORCID
8	0000-0001-8151-2769
9	Janet E. Maclean, ORCID 0000-0002-7290-0775
10	Robin Pakeman, orcid 0000-0001-6248-4133
11	1) The James Hutton Institute, Aberdeen, AB15 8QH, U.K.
12	2) Institute of Biological and Environmental Sciences, University of Aberdeen,
13	St. Machar Drive, Aberdeen AB24 3UU, U.K.
14	3) Scottish Natural Heritage, Inverness, IV3 8NW, U.K.
15	
16	

### **Abstract**

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

restoration, Rhododendron ponticum, seed bank.

The soil seed bank plays an important role in determining what plant species emerge following the removal of monodominant invasive species. A depleted seed bank may provide a substantial barrier to site restoration, however, little is known about what changes occur in the seed bank during invasion and following clearance. This study used greenhouse germination trials to quantify and compare the seed bank present in 30 Scottish Atlantic oak woodland sites under three treatments: 1) sites featuring dense stands of the non-native invasive shrub *Rhododendron ponticum*; 2) sites that had been previously subject to dense R. ponticum stands but which had been cleared; and 3) uninvaded control sites. Seed banks of densely invaded and cleared sites had significantly lower species richness than those of uninvaded control sites with a lower abundance of graminoid, and to a lesser extent forb seeds than the uninvaded controls. The seed bank community composition differed significantly between the three site types. Uninvaded sites featured a wide array of species, densely invaded sites were dominated by *R. ponticum* seeds and cleared sites were dominated by birch (Betula sp.) seeds. Cleared sites contained very few R. ponticum seeds indicating that once effective clearance had been achieved, re-invasion would be unlikely to occur from the soil seed bank. Our findings revealed that the soil seed bank present in cleared sites was very different from the seed bank of uninvaded control sites, with clear implications for site restoration. **Key words:** Atlantic oak woodland, germination trial, invasive species,

2

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

### Introduction

Non-native invasive plant species are now recognised as one of the major threats to ecosystems across the world (D'Antonio and Chambers 2006; Ehrenfeld 2010). They can extirpate native species, reduce local biodiversity, interfere with commercial operations such as forestry, and create dense, impenetrable barriers that reduce access to public lands (Ehrenfeld 2010; Gilbert and Levine 2013; Henderson et al. 2006; Yildiz et al. 2010). The damage currently caused by invasive plants is estimated to cost the global economy billions of dollars each year, and this figure that will only rise as invasive populations spread to occupy greater areas in the future (Olson 2006). In light of these economic and ecological costs, increasing numbers of control programmes have been implemented in a variety of habitats to control an array of non-native invasive species (Genovesi 2005; Reid et al. 2009; Scalera et al. 2012). One of the stated goals of most control programmes is the restoration of native biodiversity (Reid et al. 2009; Gaertner et al. 2012). However, sites are not often monitored after invasive species have been removed and little is typically known about which native species are able to re-establish (Reid et al. 2009; Guido and Pillar 2015). The existing seed bank likely plays an important role in determining what species will appear following invasive species removal, especially if controlled areas are large so that establishment from surrounding native vegetation is limited. A seed bank dominated by invasive species will clearly present a significant barrier to restoration efforts, whereas a seed bank containing many native species will expedite restoration of the desired

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

community (Gioria et al. 2014, Gioria and Pyšek 2016). There are very few studies, however, that assess what viable seeds are present in the seed bank following the removal of an invasive species, and this has been highlighted as an important avenue for future research (Gioria et al. 2014).

Impacts of invasive plant species on the seed bank may well be very different from their impact on the standing vegetation. This is because the seeds of many species are able to survive conditions that the adult plants would be unable to survive (Gioria et al. 2014). Extensive regeneration from the seed bank at sites following short-term disturbances which had a catastrophic impact on the standing vegetation, such as clear-cutting or fires, clearly illustrates the importance of the seed bank in governing regeneration following such disturbances (Morgan & Neuenschwander 1988; Måren & Vandvik 2009). The long-term disturbance caused by non-native invasive plant species, however, may prove a particular challenge for native seed banks, since the alien nature of these invasions implies that native species are unlikely to have evolved regeneration strategies that account for this novel type of disturbance (Gioria et *al.* 2014). Lengthy invasions are likely to have a major impact on the transient component of the seed bank, with only species whose seed is able to persist for many years or decades in the soil being able to survive and germinate following the removal of the invasive population (Thompson et al. 1997; Marchante et al. 2011). Indeed, many plant species are not present in the permanent seed bank of even pristine, uninvaded sites, having either transient, short-lived seeds or employing alternative, vegetative methods of reproduction (Thompson & Grime 1979). These species will clearly be unable to regenerate from the seed bank

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

present at cleared sites and will require alternative interventions to aid their recovery following invasive species removal.

In this study we elucidated the impact of *Rhododendron ponticum* invasion and its subsequent removal on the density, richness and composition of the seed bank of Atlantic oak woodlands on the West coast of Scotland. *Rhododendron ponticum* is one of the most damaging invasive species currently threatening native biodiversity in the U.K. (Long & Williams 2007; Edwards 2006). Recent outbreaks of the fungal plant pathogen *Phytophthera ramorum* have prompted increased control efforts since *R. ponticum* serves as a host species, accelerating the spread of the disease which is currently presenting a serious threat to larch (*Larix decidua*) trees in Scotland (Long and Williams 2007; Parrott and MacKenzie 2013). These increased control efforts have led to the creation of large areas where *R. ponticum* has recently been cleared. Since *R.* ponticum stands form a dense monoculture that effectively excludes native plants, these cleared areas are initially barren of vegetation (Maclean 2016). Whilst a bryophyte layer rapidly forms within 1 to 2 years in these cleared areas, previous studies have revealed that native forbs and graminoids fail to return even up to 30 years after the R. ponticum has been removed (Maclean 2016). It is unclear whether the failure of native vegetation to return is due to the lack of a viable seed bank or due to the creation of unsuitable habitat conditions following the destructive removal of the *R. ponticum* stands.

To investigate this question, we compared the density, richness and composition of the seed bank in sites featuring dense *Rhododendron ponticum* stands, sites where dense *R. ponticum* stands had been cleared and uninvaded control sites. This allowed us to 1) assess the impact of invasive *R. ponticum* on

the seed bank, 2) assess the impact of removing that invasive *R. ponticum* on the seed bank, and 3) compare the restoration potential of cleared sites with that of uninvaded sites. We looked at the seed bank as a whole and also analysed data for graminoid and forb species separately to reveal if invasion had differential effects on these different taxonomic groups. These analyses offer insight into the impact of an invasive species on the soil seed bank and also offer practical conservation guidance as to whether the seed bank at cleared sites requires supplementation to achieve the successful recovery of that portion of species which is typically able to regenerate from the seed bank.

### Methods

Sample Collection

Soil samples, including any litter present, were collected from 30 sites over a period of a week in May 2015. The sites comprised three site types: 1) uninvaded sites where *R. ponticum* had never been present (termed uninvaded throughout); 2) sites with dense *R. ponticum* stands still present (termed dense throughout); and 3) cleared sites which had originally contained high density *R. ponticum* stands but which had been cleared between 10 and 30 years ago (termed cleared throughout). Ten sites were sampled from each site type. All sites were located on the west coast of Scotland in Atlantic oak woodlands around Argyll and Kintyre, between 55°76' N and 56°90' N. Oak (*Quercus petraea* [Mattuschka] and *Q. robur* [Mattuschka]), and birch (*Betula pendula* [Roth] and *B. pubescens* Ehrh.) made up the majority of the tree community at these sites, with rowan (*Sorbus acuparia* L.), hazel (*Corylus avellana* L.), ash (*Fraxinus excelsior* L.)

and holly (*Ilex aquifolium* L.) also occurring in moderate abundances. At each site four 10 m transects were established. A 5.5 cm diameter, 8 cm depth soil core was taken every metre along each transect, giving 40 soil cores and a total of 1900 cm³ soil collected at each site (from an area of 950 cm² to 8 cm depth per site). The soil core dimensions were selected to provide a compromise between depth sampled and the logistics of carrying soil samples over large distances in difficult terrain. Samples were collected along a transect to provide an even coverage of the study sites. Soil was stored in cool boxes in the field and then kept in a cold room at 4°C for two weeks before being transported to the greenhouse.

### Assessing the Seed Bank

We assessed the seed bank of each site using the seedling emergence approach of Thompson & Grime (1979), whereby seedlings emerging from the collected soil samples are monitored, rather than extracting and identifying all the seeds present in the soil samples. This method has the benefit of capturing the viable component of the seed bank (unviable seeds may be present in the soil samples but will not germinate). However, seeds of some species may be missed if they require conditions different to those provided in order to successfully germinate. The 40 soil cores from each site were thoroughly mixed and any large stones were removed by hand. The soil from each site was then split into four equal parts and placed into four separate seed trays – one for each of four blocks within the greenhouse in a randomised block design. Soil samples from each of the 30 sites were randomly placed in each of the four greenhouse blocks. Three additional control seed trays were set up in each block and filled with sterile

Greenhouse temperature was regulated at 20°C to emulate constant summer temperatures and samples were watered regularly to maintain moist soil conditions, which facilitated seed germination. Seed trays were monitored every week and emerging seedlings were identified, counted and then removed. The soil in each tray was thoroughly mixed after 10 weeks to bring new seeds to the surface. The study was allowed to run for 20 weeks until late October by which time very few new seedlings were emerging from the trays. All seedlings, both native and non-native, were recorded; however, the only non-native species to emerge in any site was *R. ponticum*. The control trays were excluded from the analysis, since only one individual germinated in any of the trays, of a species, *Chenopodium album*, that did not appear in any of the other trays, suggesting that greenhouse contamination was negligible. Emerging seedlings of *Carex* spp. and *Juncus* spp. were only identified to genus level due to difficulties in accurately identifying these groups to species level at the seedling stage.

### Statistical Analysis

ANOVA demonstrated that greenhouse block had no significant effect on the total number of seedlings emerging from a tray ( $F_{3.392} = 0.55$ , P = 0.64). Greenhouse block was therefore not included as a random effect since these blocks were merely a way of ensuring that soil from different sites was evenly distributed around the greenhouse. Instead, the seedling totals for the same study site were summed across the four greenhouse blocks to give a single measurement for each site in the field. For each site, the total number of seedlings of each species emerging from the seed bank was divided by the total

area of soil collected per site (0.095 m²) to give the density of emerging seedlings per 1 m⁻² soil to 8 cm depth. These values could then be summed across all the species present at a site to give the total density of emerging seedlings, or could be summed for particular groups such as the forbs or graminoids. Values of species richness used in the following statistical analyses were all raw counts of the total number of species emerging from the soil collected at each site.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test the effect of site type (uninvaded, dense or cleared stands) on 1) the total density of seedlings to emerge from the seed bank (i.e. density including *R. ponticum*), 2) the native species richness of emerging seedlings (i.e. richness excluding *R. ponticum*), 3) the total density of graminoid seedlings (including members of the Cyperaceae) to emerge from the seed bank, 4) the total density of forb seedlings to emerge from the seed bank, 5) the total density of *R. ponticum* seedlings to emerge from the seed bank and 6) the total density of birch (*Betula pendula*) seedlings to emerge from the seed bank. It was decided to look at birch seedlings separately since our initial analyses revealed birch to be a species of particular interest, being highly abundant across the study and showing clear differences between the different *R. ponticum* site types. Analyses were carried out using R statistical software, version 3.2.2 (R Core Team 2015). The data for graminoid density, forb density, *R. ponticum* density and birch density were log transformed so that the residuals from the analysis would conform to a normal distribution.

Redundancy analysis (RDA) using CANOCO v 5 (Ter Braak and Smilauer, 2012) was used to assess how the emerging seedbank community composition differed between the different site types. Monte carlo permutations (999 permutations) were used to assess if the three site types (uninvaded, dense or

cleared stands) explained a significant amount of the variation in the species composition. Plot scores were standardised by norm to ensure that differences in overall percent cover between the three site types did not influence the results.

### **Results**

In total 6,572 seedlings were counted consisting of a total of 39 different species. The ANOVA testing the effect of site type on the total number of seedlings to emerge for each site did not show significant effect of site type ( $F_{2,27} = 1.79$ , P = 0.186). ANOVA did, however, reveal a significant effect of the presence of dense *R. ponticum* on the native species richness of emerging seedlings, with significantly more species emerging in uninvaded sites than in cleared or dense sites ( $F_{2,27} = 30.11$ , P < 0.001; Fig. 1b). The ANOVAs testing the effect of site type on the number of graminoid and the number of forb seedlings that emerged revealed significantly more seedlings emerged in uninvaded than in cleared or dense sites in both cases ( $F_{2,27} = 22.44$ , P < 0.001 for graminoids;  $F_{2,27} = 7.32$ , P < 0.01 for forbs, Fig. 2a). ANOVA also revealed a significantly higher number of *R. ponticum* seedlings emerged in dense sites than both uninvaded and cleared sites ( $F_{2,27} = 60.98$ , P < 0.001; Fig. 2b).

Redundancy Analysis (RDA) revealed that a significant amount of the variation in the emerging seedling communities was explained by site type (uninvaded, cleared or dense; F = 7.3, P = 0.001; Fig. 3a). Most species showed a clear affiliation with the uninvaded sites. The graminoid species occurring more frequently in the uninvaded sites than the cleared or dense sites were *Agrotis* canina, *A. capillaris*, *Anthoxanthum odoratum*, *Holcus lanatus*, and *H. mollis*. The

forbs *Galium saxatile, Hyacinthoides non-scripta, Lysimachia nemorum, Oxalis acetosella, Potentilla erecta, Ranunculus acris, Stellaria holostea* and *Viola riviniana* were all also found at greater abundance in the uninvaded sites than the cleared or dense sites. *Rhododendron ponticum, Rubus fruticosus* and *Veronica chamaedrys* were the only species which showed an affiliation with dense *R. ponticum* plots, and birch (*Betula pendula*) was the only species which showed an affiliation with cleared plots (Fig. 3b). ANOVA did not, however, reveal a significant difference in the number of birch seedlings that emerged from each of the three categories ( $F_{2,27} = 1.08$ , P = 0.35). This may be principally attributed to the high variation in birch seedling emergence from cleared plots, some of which produced extremely high numbers of birch seedlings (Fig. 4).

### **Discussion**

This study has revealed clear differences between the seed bank present in uninvaded control sites, dense *R. ponticum* stands, and sites where *R. ponticum* has been cleared. These differences emphasise the destructive impact that *R. ponticum* invasion has on native woodland communities and reveals for the first time that the seed bank is negatively affected by *R. ponticum* invasion. The differences between cleared and uninvaded sites highlight that the seed bank does not recover to resemble uninvaded sites even after more than a decade of recovery following removal of the invasive *R. ponticum* stands.

The seed bank of uninvaded sites featured a wide variety of native species (Supporting Information, Appendix 2) and RDA revealed that uninvaded sites were associated with many species, rather than being clearly dominated by a single species. The most common species or genera (with more than 100

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

emerging seedlings per m<sup>2</sup> soil) were *Agrostis canina*, *Agrostis capillaris*, Anthoxanthum odoratum, Betula pendula, Juncus spp., Oxalis acetosella, and *Potentilla erecta.* Also common (50 to 100 emerging seedlings per m<sup>2</sup> soil) were Carex spp., Digitalis purpurea, Sagina procumbens and Holcus lanatus (Supporting Information, Appendix 2). Uninvaded sites featured an approximately equal number of forb and graminoid seedlings and no R. ponticum seedlings emerged from soil collected at uninvaded sites. In contrast to uninvaded sites, the seed bank at sites with dense *R*. ponticum stands was dominated by R. ponticum seeds and featured an overall species richness of half that found in uninvaded sites. The only common species or genera (with more than 100 emerging seedlings per m<sup>2</sup> soil) were *B. pendula*, *D. purpurea, Juncus* spp. and *R. ponticum*, with *S. procumbens* being the only species of moderate density (50 to 100 emerging seedlings per m<sup>2</sup> soil). Significantly fewer forb and graminoid seedlings emerged from soil collected at dense sites compared to uninvaded sites, with the density of graminoid seeds being particularly negatively affected (falling from an average of 842 emerging seedlings m<sup>-2</sup> in uninvaded plots to an average of 25 emerging seedlings m<sup>-2</sup> in dense plots). These results revealed that *R. ponticum* invasion had a dramatic negative impact on the native seed bank of Atlantic oak woodlands which reflects its widely reported negative impacts on the native understorey community

Whilst no significant difference was detected between the total number of seedlings emerging from soil collected at cleared sites compared to uninvaded sites, cleared sites did feature a significantly lower species richness than uninvaded sites. This was because the seed bank at cleared sites was heavily

(Cross1975; Long and Williams 2007; Maclean 2016).

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

dominated by a single species, birch (B. pendula), and lacked most of the other species commonly found in uninvaded Atlantic oak woodland. Indeed, the only common species or genera at cleared sites (with more than 100 emerging seedlings per m<sup>2</sup> soil) were *B. pendula, Juncus* spp. and *Melampyrum pratense*; with no additional species occurring at moderate density (50 to 100 emerging seedlings per m<sup>2</sup> soil). These results show the opposite trend to that revealed by a meta-analysis of previous seed bank studies which suggested that invasive species typically reduce the seed bank density, without having an effect on species richness (Gioria et al. 2014). However, this meta-analysis was dominated by studies on herbaceous invasive species and included very few studies in a woodland environment, highlighting the importance of conducting seed bank studies for a range of invaders and habitats (Gioria et al. 2014; Gioria and Pyšek 2016). It is likely that the extreme longevity of most *R. ponticum* invaded sites (with many sites being invaded more than 50 years ago [Parrott and MacKenzie 2013]), has resulted in a severely depleted seed bank compared to more recent invaders or compared to invaders that do not completely exclude native plants. The dominance of birch seedlings in cleared plots echoed a commonly made observation that a dense cover of birch saplings appears at some sites following *R. ponticum* clearance (J. Maclean, pers. obs.). Increased light

made observation that a dense cover of birch saplings appears at some sites following *R. ponticum* clearance (J. Maclean, pers. obs.). Increased light availability following clearance likely triggered the rapid germination and subsequent growth of birch seeds present in the soil seed bank, as germination in birch seeds is triggered by light (Perala and Alm 1990). Since the sites in this study were all subject to *R. ponticum* control more than 10 years previously, many of the individuals appearing after the initial clearance would now be producing seed of their own, which will have contributed to the seed bank

collected in this study. It should be noted, however, that there was a large variation in the number of birch seedlings emerging from the seed bank in cleared plots, with many plots bearing no more birch seedlings than dense or uninvaded plots. It is likely that regional differences in deer density generated much of this variation, with birch establishment and growth to mature, seed bearing trees being prevented at sites subject to higher levels of browsing by deer (Miller *et al.* 1998; SNH 1994). Unfortunately appropriate data were not available to allow an assessment of the impact of deer density on the seed bank. However, the interaction between deer browsing and *R. ponticum* clearance on site recovery represents an interesting avenue of future research.

Surprisingly, very few *R. ponticum* seedlings germinated from soil samples taken from cleared sites. This finding supports previous small-scale studies that have demonstrated that the *R. ponticum* seed bank is transient, with seeds only remaining viable for a single season (Cross 1975). This, however, is somewhat at odds with the persistence of *R. ponticum* at several sites, with shrubs continuing to appear for many years after initial control efforts, which causes sites to require frequent re-spraying with herbicide (Edwards 2006, Parrott and MacKenzie 2013). The lack of a *R. ponticum* seed bank suggests that these new shrubs principally emerge from small seedlings and buds forming from viable root material that remained untouched by initial clearance efforts. Since *R. ponticum* is a slow-growing species, seedlings can remain small and hard to detect for several years, making effective clearance a difficult challenge (Parrott and MacKenzie 2013). New seed may also arrive from neighbouring invaded areas, and it is possible that the few seeds found in cleared plots in this study came from nearby sites (Fig. 3). Stephenson et al. (2007) found that whilst

most *R. ponticum* seeds travel less than 10 m from the parent plant, a tiny proportion (less than 0.02%) can travel more than 50 m. Since adult shrubs can produce hundreds of thousands of seeds each year (Cross 1975), even this tiny proportion of long-distance dispersers can add up to a reasonable number of seeds dispersing far across the landscape. It is therefore quite possible that some of the seedlings germinating from the soil taken from our cleared sites had dispersed in from neighbouring populations, despite being located in excess of 300 m away (and often much greater than this) for all our sites.

Whilst we found very few *R. ponticum* seeds in cleared plots, if these all grew into adult shrubs producing new seeds of their own then over time the area would return to an invaded state, highlighting the importance of follow-up monitoring of sites in the years following *R. ponticum* removal. The lack of a long-lived *R. ponticum* seed bank, however, suggests that effective eradication should be possible if initial clearance efforts are suitably thorough, with no seed persisting in the soil seed bank to repopulate areas after it has been completely removed. This is highly encouraging for large-scale restoration efforts since it indicates that efforts to eliminate remaining invasive seeds, as is the case for many invasive species with long-lived seed banks (Gioria *et al* 2014), will be unnecessary.

Another encouraging result from this study is the lack of seeds from other invasive species in the seed bank of dense or cleared sites (Fig. 4). Several recent studies have highlighted the propensity for sites to suffer 'invasional meltdown' (sensu Simberloff and Von Holle 1999), where the presence of a dominant invasive species causes a concomitant increase in the presence of other invasive species in both the standing vegetation and the seed bank (Gioria *et al.* 2014,

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

Ferreras *et al.* 2015). The lack of other invasive seeds in both the dense and cleared sites in our study suggests that sites are unlikely to become dominated by alternative invasive species following *R. ponticum* removal.

This study has revealed important differences between the seed bank present in uninvaded sites, dense R. ponticum sites, and cleared sites. Whilst cleared sites contained very few *R. ponticum* seeds, which suggested that successful eradication of this aggressive invader should be possible, the seed bank lacked the majority of species present in uninvaded sites and was strongly dominated by a single species (birch). These results suggest that re-seeding may be necessary to restore much of the desired vegetation found in uninvaded sites following the removal of dense *R. ponticum* stands. An experimental study by Maclean (2016), which highlighted the importance of planting seed soon after the *R. ponticum* has been cleared, before the formation of a dense bryophyte mat which strongly impedes the efficacy of seed applications, concurs with this suggestion. There are, clearly, many factors for consideration when contemplating re-seeding areas, with concern for preserving local genetic variation being of considerable importance (Rogers 2004). Re-seeding projects should therefore be considered on a site-by-site basis with locally procured seed stocks being used wherever possible.

It should be noted, however, that many of the species present in the standing vegetation of pristine woodland do not reproduce by seed and will never be present in the seed bank. Indeed, several studies have shown considerable differences in the composition of the seed bank and that of the standing vegetation (Thompson & Grime 1979; Plue *et al.* 2017). Even the seed bank present in uninvaded sites is therefore unlikely to contain all the species

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

necessary for a complete regeneration of the typical, desired native community. Supplementing the seed bank at cleared sites to facilitate restoration should therefore only be considered as part of a suite of restoration strategies that also consider species not present in the seed bank.

Indeed, it should also be noted that our study does not represent a comprehensive assessment of the seed bank present at our sites. We sampled at only a single point in the year (Spring), thus capturing only species that either produced seed at this time or that had a persistent seed bank (Thompson et al. 1997). We also provided only a single set of conditions (20°C, natural day length) for seedlings to germinate from the soil samples, thus potentially missing species whose seed was present in the samples but which required more specific conditions for germination. It is also likely that we would have captured more species had we sampled a more extensive area at each site. However, this study aimed to maximise the number of plots sampled, at the slight expense of withinplot sampling. This experimental design allowed us to make robust comparisons of the impact of *R. ponticum* invasion and clearance on a particular fraction of the seed bank (that present in Spring). This study therefore represents a first attempt to determine whether R. ponticum had any impact on the seed bank, and further research will be necessary to quantify the precise impact on all the species present in the seed bank throughout the year.

Another potential caveat of this research is that we use a 'natural experiment' design (*sensu* Diamond 1983) whereby *R. ponticum* invasion and clearance was not strictly controlled following an ideally constructed experimental design. Sites were instead selected based on availability, which represented the only feasible way of studying such a long-lived invader and

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

including sites with substantial recovery times (more than a decade) following *R*. ponticum removal. Whilst care was taken to ensure that sites were as comparable as possible in all aspects other than history of *R. ponticum* invasion (e.g. woodland type, management regime, proximity to plantation forest, lack of nearby ravines etc.), it was not possible to experimentally rule out the possibility that the seed bank of densely invaded and cleared sites would have been different to that of uninvaded sites even in the absence of *R. ponticum*. Since the major factor determining *R. ponticum* invasion in woodlands is proximity to estates that intentionally planted large source populations rather than any environmental factors (Cross 1975), it seems acceptable to attribute differences between site types to their history of *R. ponticum* invasion. Unfortunately, due to limitations in the available sites occurring in comparable woodland types, we were not able to select sites that were all cleared in the same year. We limited site selection to areas where *R. ponticum* had been cleared at least 10 years previously in order to exclusively look at sites with a substantial period of recovery, however, some sites were cleared up to 30 years previously. Whilst our site selection was limited in this study to allow comparison with other site types, investigating the impact of time since *R. ponticum* clearance will represent an interesting avenue of future research.

Seed banks represent a highly important and understudied factor governing whether sites regain the desired native community following invasive species removal (Gioria *et al.* 2014). This study has helped to guide restoration strategies for oak woodland sites following the removal of invasive *R. ponticum*, by revealing that regeneration of *R. ponticum* from the seed bank should be negligible, but that re-seeding may be necessary to facilitate the return of many

desired native species. It is hoped that further studies on seed bank composition
following invasive species removal will generate more general conclusions
concerning the factors governing whether invasive species alter the local seed
bank and consequently influence restoration efforts following their removal.

449	References
450	
451	Cross, J.R. (1975) Rhododendron ponticum L. Journal of Ecology 63:345-364.
452	
453	D'Antonio, C.M. and Chambers, J.C. (2006) Using ecological theory to manage or
454	restore ecosystems affected by invasive plant species. In: D.A Falk, D.A. Palmer,
455	M.A. and Zedler, J.B. (Eds) Foundations of Restoration Ecology, Island Press,
456	London.
457	
458	Diamond, J. (1983) Laboratory, field and natural experiments. <i>Nature</i> , <b>304</b> , 586-
459	587.
460	
461	Edwards, C. (2006) Managing and controlling invasive rhododendron. Forestry
462	Commission Practice Guide. Forestry Commission.
463	
464	Ehrenfeld, J.G. (2010) Ecosystem consequences of biological invasions. <i>The</i>
465	Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics <b>41</b> :59-80.
466	
467	Ferreras, A.E., Giogris, M.A., Tecco, P.A., Cabido, M.R. and Funes, G. (2015) Impact
468	of Ligustrum lucidum on the soil seed bank in invaded subtropical seasonally dry
469	woodlands (Córdoba, Argentina). Biological Invasions 17:3547-3561.
470	
471	Gaertner, M., Holmes, P.M. and Richardson, D.M. (2012) Biological invasions,
472	resilience and restoration. In: Andel, J. and Aronson, J. (Eds) Restoration Ecology:
473	The new frontier. Wiley-Blackwell, Oxford.

474	
475	Genovesi, P. (2005) Eradications of invasive alien species in Europe: a review.
476	Biological Invasions <b>7</b> :127-133.
477	
478	Gilbert, B. and Levine, J.M. (2013) Plant invasions and extinction debts.
479	Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA 110:1744-1749.
480	
481	Gioria, M., Jarošik, V. and Pyšek, P. (2014) Impact of invasions by alien plants on
482	soil seed bank communities: Emerging patterns. Perspectives in Plant Ecology and
483	Systematics, <b>16</b> :132-142.
484	
485	Gioria, M. and Pyšek, P. (2016) The legacy of plant invasions: Changes in the soil
486	seed bank of invaded plant communities. <i>Bioscience</i> <b>66</b> : 40-53.
487	
488	Guido, A. and Pillar, V.D. (2015) Are removal experiments effective tools for
489	assessing plant community resistance and recovery from invasive species?
490	Journal of Vegetation Science, <b>26</b> : 608-613.
491	
492	Henderson, S., T.P. Dawson, and R.J. Whittaker. (2006) Progress in invasive
493	plants research. <i>Progress in Physical Geography</i> <b>30</b> : 25-46.
494	
495	Long, D., and J. Williams. (2007) Rhododendron ponticum: Impact on lower plants
496	and fungi communities on the west coast of Scotland. Scottish Natural Heritage
497	project no. 19412.
498	

499	Maclean, J.E. (2016) The effect of clearing invasive Rhododendron ponticum on
500	the native plant community of Scottish Atlantic oak woodlands: Implication for
501	restoration. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Aberdeen.
502	
503	Marchante, H., Freitas, H. and Hoffman, J.H. (2011) The potential role of seed
504	banks in the recovery of dune ecosystems after removal of invasive plant species.
505	Applied Journal of Vegetation Science, 14, 107-119.
506	
507	Måren, I.F. and Vandvik, V. (2009) Fire and regeneration: the role of seed banks
508	in the dynamics of northern heathlands. Journal of Vegetation Science, 20, 871-
509	888.
510	
511	McCune, B. and M. J. Mefford. 1999. PC-ORD. Multivariate Analysis of Ecological
512	Data. Version 5.0 MjM Software, Gleneden Beach, Oregon, U.S.A.
513	
514	Miller, G.R., Cummins, R.P. and Hester, A.J. (1998) Red deer and woodland
515	regeneration in the Cairngorms. <i>Scottish Forestry</i> <b>52</b> : 14-20.
516	
517	Morgan, P. and Neuenschwander, L.F. (1988) Seed bank contributions to
518	regeneration of shrub species after clear-cutting and burning. Canadian Journal
519	of Botany, <b>66</b> , 169-172.
520	
521	Olson, L.J. (2006) The economics of terrestrial invasive species: A review of the
522	literature. Agricultural and Resource Economics Review 35: 178-194.
523	

524	Parrott, J. and Mackenzie, N. (2013) A critical review of work undertaken to
525	control invasive rhododendron in Scotland: A report commissioned by Forestry
526	Commission Scotland and Scottish Natural Heritage. Coille Alba, Inverness.
527	
528	Perala, D.A. and Alm, A.A. (1990) Reproductive ecology of birch: A review. <i>Forest</i>
529	Ecology and Management, <b>32</b> , 1-38.
530	
531	Reid, A.M., L. Morin, P.O. Downey, K. French, and Virtue, J.G. (2009) Does invasive
532	plant management aid the restoration of natural ecosystems? Biological
533	Conservation <b>142</b> :2342-2349.
534	
535	Rogers, D.L. (2004) Genetic erosion: no longer just an agricultural issue. <i>Native</i>
536	Plants Journal 5:112-122.
537	
538	Scalera, R., P. Genovesi, F. Essl, and Rabitsch, W. (2012) The impacts of invasive
539	alien species in Europe. EEA Technical Report 16/2012.
540	
541	Simberloff, D. and Von Holle, B. (1999) Positive interactions of nonindigenous
542	species: invasional meltdown? Biological Invasions 5:179-192.
543	
544	SNH (1994) Red deer and the natural heritage. Scottish Natural Heritage, Perth.
545	
546	Stephenson, C.M., Kohn, D.D., Park, K.J., Atkinson, R., Edwards, C. and Travis, J.M.
547	(2007) Testing mechanistic models of seed dispersal for the invasive

548	Rhododendron ponticum (L.). Perspectives in Plant Ecology, Evolution and
549	Systematics 9:15-28.
550	
551	Ter Braak, C.J.F. and Smilauer, P., (2012) CANOCO reference manual and user's
552	guide: softwared for ordination (verion 5.0). Microcomputer Power, Ithaca, NY,
553	USA.
554	
555	Thompson, K. & Grime, J.P. (1979) Seasonal variation in the seed banks of
556	herbaceous species in ten contrasting habitats. <i>Journal of Ecology</i> , <b>67</b> , 893-921.
557	
558	Thompson, K., Bakker, J. and Bekker, R. (1997) The soil seed banks of North West
559	Europe: Methodology, density and longevity. Cambridge University Press,
560	Cambrige, U.K.
561	
562	
563	
564	

### 565 Figures

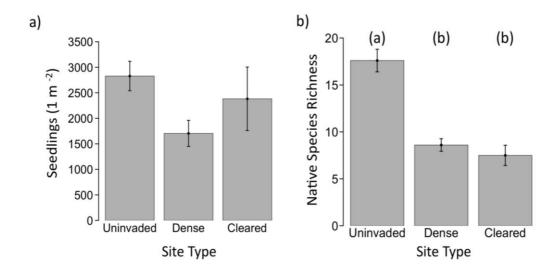


Fig. 1: (a) Total number of seedlings that emerged from the seed bank and (b) native species richness (total number of species encountered in each site) in uninvaded, cleared and dense site types. Results are means  $\pm$  1SE. No significant difference was found between the number of seedlings emerging at the different *R. ponticum* site types (F<sub>2,27</sub> = 1.79, P = 0.186). A significant effect of site type, however, was discovered for species richness with uninvaded sites having a higher species richness than dense or cleared sites (F<sub>2,27</sub> = 30.11, P < 0.001).

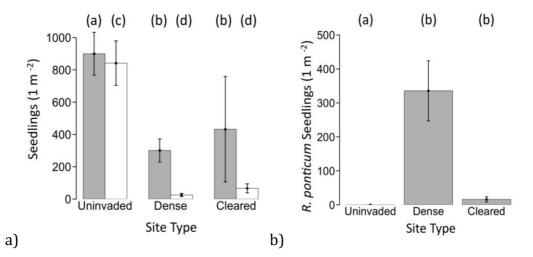


Fig. 2: (a) Total number of forb seedlings (gray bars) and graminoid seedlings (white bars) and (b) total number of *R. ponticum* seedlings that emerged from sites in uninvaded, cleared and dense site types. Results are means  $\pm$  1SE. Significantly more seedlings emerged in uninvaded than in cleared or dense sites for both forbs and graminoids (F<sub>2,27</sub> = 7.32, P < 0.01 for forbs; F<sub>2,27</sub>

= 22.44, P < 0.001 for graminoids). Significantly more *R. ponticum* seedlings emerged in dense than in uninvaded or cleared sites ( $F_{2,27} = 60.98$ , P < 0.001).

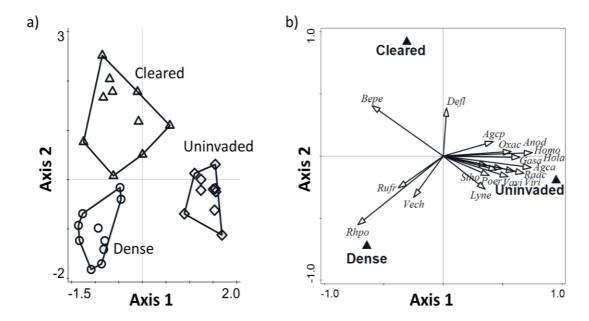
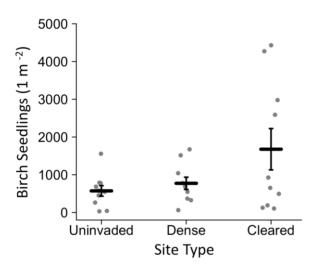


Fig. 3: (a) Classified plot diagram and (b) species-environment biplot from an RDA of the community composition of seedlings emerging from the seedbank, using *R. ponticum* category (uninvaded, cleared or dense *R. ponticum*) as the only explanatory variable. Only the 20 best fitting species are plotted for ease of visualization. *Agca = Agrostis canina; Agcp = Agrostis capillaris; Anod = Anthoxanthum odoratum; Bepe = Betula pendula; Defl = Deschampsia flexuosa; Gasa = Galium saxatile; Hola = Holcus lanatus; Homo = Holcus mollis; Lyne = Lysimachia nemorum; Oxac = Oxalis acetosella; Poer = potentilla erecta; Raac = Ranunculus acris; Rhpo = Rhododendron ponticum; Rufr = Rubus frutocosus; Stho = Stellaria holostea; Vech = Veronica chamaedrys; Viri = Viola riviniana.* 



598 599 600 601 602 603 604	Fig. 4: Total number of birch seedlings that emerged from plots in uninvaded, cleared and dense site type categories. Grey dots show the number of emerging seedlings m $^{-2}$ of soil in each plot – the data are 'jittered' to reveal overlapping points. Bars show means for plots in each category with standard errors. No significant difference was discovered between the number of birch seedlings emerging at each site type (F <sub>2,27</sub> = 1.08, P = 0.35); however, there was considerable variation between sites within the same site type.
605	
606	
607	