1	Original article
2	Inhibitory effects of Eucalyptus globulus on understory plant growth and
3	species richness are greater in non-native regions
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46 ABSTRACT

47 **Aim:** We studied the Novel Weapons Hypothesis in the context of the broadly distributed tree species

Eucalyptus globulus. We evaluated the hypothesis that this Australian species would produce stronger
 inhibitory effects on species from its non-native range than on species from its native range.

50 **Location:** We worked in four countries where this species is exotic (USA, Chile, India, Portugal) and 51 one country where it is native (Australia).

52 **Time period:** 2009-2012

53 Major taxa studied: *Plants*

54 **Methods:** We compared species composition, richness and height of plant communities in 20 paired 55 plots underneath *E. globulus* individuals and open areas in two sites within its native range and each 56 non-native region. We also compared effects of litter leachates of *E. globulus* on root growth of 57 seedlings in species from Australia, Chile, USA and India.

Results: In all sites and countries, the plant community under *E. globulus* canopies had lower species richness than did the plant community in open areas. However, the reduction was much greater in the non-native ranges: species richness declined by an average of 51% in the eight non-native sites versus 8% in the two native Australian sites. The root growth of 15 out of 21 species from the non-native range were highly suppressed by *E. globulus* litter leachates, whereas the effect of litter leachate varied from facilitation to suppression for six species native to Australia. The mean reduction in root growth for Australian plants was significantly lower than for plants from USA, Chile and India.

Main conclusions: Our results show biogeographic differences in the impact of an exotic species on understory plant communities. Consistent with the Novel Weapons Hypothesis, our findings suggest that different adaptations of species from the native and non-native ranges to biochemical compounds produced by an exotic species may play a role in these biogeographical differences.

70 INTRODUCTION

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72 Many studies have documented that exotic plant species suppress the performance, abundance and 73 diversity of native species (e.g. Richardson & MacDonald, 1989; Pyšek & Pyšek, 1995; Brewer, 2008; 74 Hejda et al., 2009; Flory & Clay, 2010; Abreu & Duringan, 2011; Vila et al., 2011). One of the most 75 striking, but less common, observations about the impact of exotic species has been the stronger 76 negative effect that some of these species produce in their invaded range compared to their native range 77 (Callaway et al., 2011, 2012; Inderjit et al., 2011; Kaur et al., 2012). Such biogeographic differences 78 may be a consequence of the higher abundances that invaders often achieve in their invaded ranges 79 (Richardson & MacDonald, 1989; Pyšek & Pyšek, 1995; Maron & Marler, 2008), and subsequent 80 effects on resource use and competition (Maron & Marler, 2008; Hejda et al., 2009). Invaders may 81 become more abundant in their non-native regions for different reasons. For example, they may 82 experience a greater competitive advantage in invaded regions (Besaw et al., 2011; Callaway et al., 83 2011), may be released from pathogens and herbivores (e.g. Joshi & Vrieling, 2005; Callaway et al., 84 2008), better adapted to disturbance than the native species with which they now co-occur (Hierro et al., 2006), and they may be introduced into environmental conditions that are more favorable than those in 85 86 their home range (Cavieres et al., 2014).

In addition to these explanations, in a few cases invasive species appear to exert stronger effects in their non-native ranges than in their native ranges in ways that are not fully explained by their greater abundance (Thorpe *et al.*, 2011; Shah *et al.*, 2014). For example, Callaway *et al.* (2012) found that the abundance of *Acroptilon repens* in North America, where it is invasive, was twice than that in Uzbekistan, where it is native, but this twofold increase in abundance produced 25-30 times lower biomass of native species in North America than in Uzbekistan. Rather than purely a response to increased abundance of the invader, these effects may reflect that species in the invaded regions are

poorly adapted to novel biochemicals produced by the invader (Ni et al. 2010). Novel biochemicals can 94 95 have strong negative effects on naïve native plant species via direct allelopathic effects to the plant 96 (Callaway & Aschehoug, 2000; Callaway & Ridenour, 2004; Inderjit et al., 2011; Kim & Lee, 2011), 97 alterations to the native soil biota through antibiotic effects (Callaway et al., 2008), and on herbivores 98 (Lankau et al., 2004; Cappuccino & Arnason, 2006; Wikström et al., 2006; Schaffner et al., 2011). 99 Increased invader impact via disproportionate biochemical effects has been formalized under the Novel 100 Weapons Hypothesis and there is growing body of evidence supporting this hypothesis for a number of 101 invasives including Ageratina adenophora (Inderjit et al., 2011), C. diffusa (Callaway & Aschehoug, 102 2000), Foeniculum vulgare (Colvin & Gliessman, 2011), Prosopis juliflora (Kaur et al., 2012), 103 Chromolaena odorata (Qin et al., 2013), and the macroalga, Bonnemaisonia hamifera (Svensson et al., 104 2013). Although multiple studies have experimentally evaluated the Novel Weapons Hypothesis in the 105 invaded range of invasive species, few studies have examined biochemical effects of invasive species 106 on plant communities in both invaded and native regions (but see Ni et al., 2010). Here, we compare 107 characteristics of plant communities underneath and adjacent to stands of a globally invasive tree, 108 Eucalyptus globulus, in its native range of southeastern Australia with those in its non-native ranges of 109 USA, Chile, India and Portugal.

110 Forest plantations are a major source of invaders worldwide (Richardson 1998) and many of 111 these planted species have invaded different regions of the world. Species of *Eucalyptus* (Myrtaceae) 112 are among the most widely planted forestry species and of these, Eucalyptus globulus Labill. is one of 113 the most common (Boyd, 1996). This species has been introduced around the world for wood products 114 and horticulture (Boyd, 1996; Rejmánek et al., 2005; Becerra, 2006; Joshi, 2012; Dixit et al., 2012). E. 115 globulus does not commonly spread into native vegetation and thus is not usually considered a strongly 116 "invasive" species (but see Boyd, 1996; Becerra, 2006). Nevertheless, several Eucalyptus species 117 produce leaf litter containing allelopathic compounds that are commonly associated with poor 118 understories due to suppression of co-occurring plant species (Baker, 1966; del Moral & Muller, 1969,

1970; May & Ash, 1990; Sasikumar et al., 2001; Graca et al., 2002). Rabotnov (1982) observed that E. 119 120 globulus trees introduced to California and Western Europe develop species-poor understories in 121 comparison to plant communities just beyond the E. globulus stands (also see del Moral and Muller, 122 1969). However, it is unknown if this also occurs in the understory of E. globulus patches in the native 123 range of Australia. Consequently, we evaluated how plant communities vary with the presence of E. 124 globulus trees both in its native range in Australia and different regions of the world where it has been 125 introduced as an exotic, and examined if this biogeographic pattern may be related to the Novel 126 Weapons Hypothesis. We measured species richness and plant height of communities under E. 127 globulus canopies and in adjacent areas without tree canopies, and compared the effects of litter 128 leachates on the growth of species from the native and non-native ranges in a laboratory experiment. 129

- 130 METHODS
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132 Field study

133 We conducted vegetation surveys in four countries where E. globulus is non-native (India, Chile, USA, 134 Portugal) and Australia, where it is native. Eucalyptus globulus is native to New South Wales, Victoria 135 and Tasmania, and different intra-specific taxa have been defined (E. globulus subsp. bicostata, E. 136 globulus subsp. globulus, E. globulus subsp. maidenii, E. globulus subsp. pseudoglobulus). The total 137 native range for this group of taxa is 30°12' - 43°30' S and 115°30' - 152°45' E. In this study we used 138 E. globulus ssp. globulus (core native range: 32°25' - 43°30' S, 147°45' - 152°45' E) because it has 139 been widely introduced to other countries. In Portugal, this species is distributed (in plantations or naturalized) between 37° and 42° N, 7° and 9° W. In Chile, E. globulus has been planted between 32° 140 141 and 40° S, mainly near coastal areas between 71°40' and 74°00' W. In North America, E. globulus is 142 distributed between 32° and 40° N and between 120° and 124° W, approximately. In India, this species 143 is distributed between 11° and 25° N and between 72°36' and 82°30' E. Within each of these five 144 countries, we sampled two sites (Appendix S1 in Supporting Information). All sites have either 145 Mediterranean, seasonal temperate, or subtropical climates and their original native vegetation ranged 146 from shrublands to forests. All sites had experienced some level of anthropogenic disturbance 147 producing open areas mixed with shrub or forest patches, and thus, vegetation in the study sites 148 corresponded to grasslands, open shrublands or open forests (Appendix S1 in Supporting Information). 149 Using aerial photographs, we selected two sites in each country that were accessible, extended 150 over 3-5 ha and contained adult *E. globulus* individuals (i.e. 20-50 cm DBH). We avoided recent 151 forestry plantations of E. globulus. In the non-native range, study sites were chosen in areas with 152 naturalized individuals of E. globulus, although in some cases a few individuals present in the site were 153 probably planted within the last century (Appendix S1 in Supporting Information). In all sites of the 154 non-native range, E. globulus trees were growing in areas that were probably treeless or had low woody 155 cover due to historical human disturbances (such as fires, logging, livestock). In the native range of 156 Australia, the sampled *E. globulus* trees were growing in *E. globulus* stands. 157 The aim of our field study was to examine if plant communities growing under, and potentially 158 influenced by, E. globulus trees were different to plant communities growing in areas with no influence 159 of E. globulus, the latter of which we used as experimental controls. We preferred to use open areas 160 with no other tree species as controls in order to homogenize controls among countries. Using other 161 trees as controls might have increased (uncontrolled) variability among countries due to different tree 162 species composition among them. Open areas did not have E. globulus leaf or bark litter. The open 163 areas may have been shaded for a few hours each day, but light levels would have been higher there 164 than under canopy of E. globulus. Although using open areas compromises our study design by 165 confounding light availability and E. globulus effects, our study is focused in comparing the magnitude 166 of the difference among countries (i.e. an effect size, not a raw value). As such, this design and

analytical approach still enabled us to compare how effects of *E. globulus* might differ between its
native and non-native ranges.

169 In each of the two sites in each of the countries of the native and non-native range, we sampled 170 the plant community in 1 x 1 m plots in areas under canopy of 20 randomly selected adult E. globulus 171 trees and 20 randomly chosen open areas (without tree canopy). In each plot, we recorded all vascular 172 plant species present and measured the height of the vegetation at four random locations within the plot 173 (except in India for the height). We selected adult trees similar in size (>15 m height and at least 20 cm 174 DBH), although variability in size among trees was unavoidable, and may have increased variability in 175 our results. Under the canopy of each tree, we randomly selected a direction (compass bearing) and 176 located 1 plot midway between the canopy edge and the trunk of the tree. In the non-native range, for 177 each under-canopy measurement, another paired 1 x 1 m plot was randomly located in surrounding 178 open areas free of *E. globulus* (or other tree species). To do this, we randomly selected a direction and a 179 distance between 5-20 m from the sampled trees toward an adjacent open area. In non-native sites 180 individual trees of *E. globulus* were isolated and irregularly distributed within each site, which 181 facilitated to find open areas. However, in Australia, the trees of E. globulus do not grow as isolated as 182 they do in the non-native ranges, therefore we sampled under individuals of E. globulus present in more 183 closed stands. For this reason, in Australia, open plots were located in sites that had been cleared for 184 roads and power lines over 50 years ago, and were adjacent to the sampled *E. globulus* stands. In these 185 open areas, from a starting point, we randomly choose a direction and distance up to 40 m where we 186 located the plot. Then, the next plots were located by the same protocol.

Because *E. globulus* trees in the non-native ranges have been growing for many years, we assumed that other species at these sites have had the chance to disperse and grow either under or outside the canopy of them. Abiotic conditions such as soil type, climate, topography, and elevation were similar for the plots located under *E. globulus* canopies and open areas in each site. Because in each site sampled *E. globulus* trees were near to either grassland, shrubland or forest patches, the local 192 species pool available to grow under E. globulus and in open areas was composed of species adapted to 193 grow in closed vegetation as well as species adapted to grow in open areas. Similarly, for Australia, we 194 assumed that after clearing to install roads or power lines, there was enough time for ruderal plants 195 adapted to grow in open areas to colonize these cleared areas and potentially invade adjacent E. 196 globulus stands, and time for understory plants to recolonize open areas from the same species pool as 197 E. globulus understories. On the other hand, in the native range, plots under E. globulus were in some 198 cases located under more than one tree, in contrast to the non-native sites where these plots were 199 located under only one tree. Therefore, potential inhibitory effects from E. globulus on the understory 200 might be stronger in native regions than in non-native regions. This made our analyses more 201 conservative since, according to the Novel Weapon Hypothesis, the effect of E. globulus in the native 202 range should be weaker than in non-native regions. In any case, and to correct for potential 203 environmental and historical differences, we use proportional values instead of raw counts when 204 comparing among sites and regions.

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207 Glasshouse experiment

208 The aim of this experiment was to evaluate if leachates produced by E. globulus litter produces 209 different effects on species native to the non-native and native range of *E. globulus*. Following the 210 general protocol of del Moral and Muller (1969), we collected naturally occurring litter beneath a stand 211 of mature E. globulus trees near Santa Barbara, CA, USA (34.585717° N; -119.501542° W; 24 m 212 elevation). This site was not sampled for community attributes. Acquiring litter from other ranges was 213 avoided because of the possibility of introducing unwanted biota. We used litter recently produced and 214 as it naturally occurred, consisting of about 90% leaves but including some shed bark, small twigs, and 215 seed capsules. The litter was a rough average of what occurred in a 25 x 25 cm area and 5 cm depth in 216 the stand where litter was collected. A 2.5 mm precipitation event would drop a little over 1.5 L in an

area of this size. So, this volume of litter was collected and mixed with this volume of water to conduct the irrigation by decantation, simulating as close as possible the conditions experienced by seedlings in the field.

220 Species used in this experiment were selected because their presence in the same sites were the 221 field study was conducted or because they are distributed in the same geographic area and habitats as E. 222 globulus occurs either in its native and non-native range. Seeds from Chile and India were field-223 collected by authors at the same sites where the field study was conducted. Seeds from California and 224 Australia were field-collected by professional seed companies in the regions where E. globulus 225 occurred. We attempted to choose species that were relatively common and widespread in our study 226 sites, but our acquisition and utilization of species for this experiment was determined by availability 227 and germination as well.

228 We conducted two trials, each with different target species. For the first trial, leachate was 229 produced on Feb 1st, 2011 with a dry weight of 21 g of *E. globulus* litter placed in 1.5 L of distilled 230 water for 72 hours at 5°C. We estimated that this would be roughly equivalent to a 2-cm rainfall event. 231 This leachate was applied to seeds of 13 target species (Appendix S2 in Supporting Information): 10 232 species that are native to either California, Chile, or India (the non-native ranges of *Eucalyptus*) and 233 three species native to Australia. For the second trial we produced leachate in the same way on May 24th, using the same concentration, and applied this leachate to eight new species: three species native 234 235 to Australia and five species native to the exotic range (Appendix S2 in Supporting Information). In 236 each trial, 10-15 seeds of each species were placed into each of 6 Petri dishes (60 mm diameter) on top 237 of a sheet of Whatman Grade 1 filter paper (Sigma-Aldrich). One mL of leachate was placed in each of 238 three randomly chosen Petri dishes and 1 mL of distilled water was placed in the other three dishes as a 239 control. Seedlings germinated and grew in the dark for 4-12 days. Root length of all seedlings of each 240 species was measured using the same number of days since germination, but as species germinated at 241 substantially different rates the timing of the measurements differed among them; however, root length

242 measurements were taken at the same time for the two treatments for each species. Although we used a

243 very small fraction of the potential species pool of each site in the experiment, most of the 21 species

244 were observed or collected at the studied field sites in each biogeographical region, thus can be

245 considered at least partially representative of the flora in the non-native and native regions.

246

247 Data analyses and statistics

248 For the field data, we first analyzed the change in species richness between open sites and under 249 E. globulus canopy. A global test on the raw number of species present in each of the environments 250 (open vs. under E. globulus) could be misleading, since each of the studied countries might have 251 inherent differences in species richness. Consequently, we standardized species richness data by means 252 of Relative Interaction Indexes (RII; Armas et al., 2004). RII's are linear, have defined limits (-1, +1), 253 are symmetrical around zero, and produce approximately normal distributions. We used species 254 richness between under E. globulus and in open controls to calculate RII's reflecting the intensity of 255 species suppression caused by E. globulus presence. Linear Mixed-Effects models with nested random 256 effects based on Laird and Ware (1982) were built in the statistical platform R 3.10 (R Development 257 Core Team, 2014) with the procedure "lme" from library "nlme" (Pinheiro et al., 2017). We then tested 258 for consistency in the difference (RII) in species richness between each open/under E. globulus plot-259 pair among regions by using "range" (native/non-native) as a fixed factor, "site" and "country" as 260 random factors, with "site" nested within "country". Additionally, we evaluated the percentage of 261 species present under E. globulus canopies that were unique to E. globulus canopies in relation to the 262 total number of species present in each site. This count was carried out for each site and country 263 separately. Separately, we tested for inter-regional differences in understory height, with "range" and 264 "treatment" (open/under E. globulus) as fixed factors, and "country" and "site" as random nested 265 factors, with "site" nested within "country".

266	For the glasshouse experiment, we assessed changes in root length by means of Linear Mixed-
267	Effects models with the procedure "lme" from library "nlme", and tested for inter-regional differences
268	in root growth with "range" and "treatment" (leachate/control) as fixed factors, and "country" as a
269	random factor. The factors "species" within "genus" within "family" were also added as nested random
270	factors to the model to account by phylogeny in the model. We also used t-tests ($P < 0.05$) to evaluate
271	the effect of leachate treatment on root growth of each species separately.

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RESULTS 273

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275 **Field patterns**

276 The species composition of *E. globulus* understories and open areas at our sites was mainly herbaceous, 277 except in Portugal where shrubs were more diverse than other groups (Appendix S3 in Supporting 278 Information). Understory species at our sites in Chile and USA were mostly exotic, and almost all of 279 these species were Eurasian, whereas in Portugal, India and Australia the species were primarily native 280 to these countries (Appendix S3 in Supporting Information).

281 There were more species in the open grassland-shrubland surrounding E. globulus trees than 282 under canopies at sites in both the native and non-native ranges of E. globulus (Fig. 1; Table 1). 283 However, this reduction in species richness under E. globulus canopies was stronger in non-native 284 regions than in the native region of Australia (L. ratio=5.605; df=2,5; p=0.0179). Relatively little 285 remaining variation was explained by random effects (SD_{intercept}=0.097; SD_{residuals} = 0.254) suggesting 286 that differences among and within non-native regions were small. In the native range of E. globulus, 287 there was a large number and percentage of species unique to Eucalyptus understories among all 288 species present in these plots, varying from 30.4 to 35.6% of the observed species pool (Table 1) with 289 an average of $33.0\% \pm 2.60$ (1 SE). In the non-native ranges, there were far fewer species unique to E.

290	<i>globulus</i> understories, varying from 0 to 21.4% (Table 1), with an average of $7.7\% \pm 2.66$ (1 SE).
291	Across all sites, mean understory height was lower under E. globulus canopies than in the open areas
292	(L. ratio=133.160; df=3,7; p<0.001) (Fig. 2). However, we found a statistically significant interaction
293	between range and canopy treatment (L. ratio=45.159; df=4,10; p<0.001), indicating that the greater
294	understory height in open areas than under E. globulus was observed mainly in the non-native ranges
295	(Fig. 2).
296	
297	Glasshouse experiment
298	The leachate treatment highly suppressed the root growth of all species originating from the
299	non-native range (USA, Chile, or India, -45% to -100%) but only for some species native to Australia.
300	Consequently, there was significant interaction between the factors "range" and "treatment" (L.
301	ratio=114.737; df=3,8; p<0.001). Of the six species native to Australia, the effect of litter leachate
302	varied from two significantly positive responses of the root growth (+18.7 and +48%, t-tests: $P < 0.05$),
303	two non-significant effects, and two significantly negative response (-15.9% and -56.8%; t-tests: P $<$
304	0.05) (Fig. 3). The mean reduction for Australian natives was $-1.0\pm14.3\%$ versus $-71\pm4.4\%$ for natives
305	from California, Chile and India.

307 DISCUSSION

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The lower richness and height of plants in *E. globulus* understories that we recorded across both the
native and invaded range suggests negative effects of *E. globulus* on understory species, and

311 corresponds with a widely but anecdotally reported pattern of species-poor understories beneath

312 Eucalyptus spp. canopies. A number of different mechanisms may cause these negative effects, but we

found that many plant species exposed to leachates of *E. globulus* were suppressed. These included

some species native to the home range of *E. globulus* and all species from regions where *E. globulus* had been introduced, suggesting that the allelopathic effects of *Eucalyptus* litter may contribute to lower species richness and plant growth in *E. globulus* understories.

317 Other studies of *E. globulus* and other *Eucalyptus* species have also shown strong allelopathic 318 effects on species from different biogeographical regions where Eucalyptus species have been 319 introduced (Baker, 1966; del Moral & Muller, 1970; May & Ash, 1990; Sasikumar et al., 2001). We do 320 not know the biochemicals responsible for the effects of litter and leachate from E. globulus in our 321 study. However, leaves of this and other *Eucalyptus* species possess a diverse and variable suite of 322 biochemicals, some of which are grouped under the term "eucalyptol" (Elaissi et al., 2012). Oil 323 volatiles, in particular chlorogenic acid, have been identified as possible active allelochemicals in E. 324 globulus (May & Ash 1990). In direct and soil-based bioassays, Del Moral and Muller (1969) found 325 that natural fog drip collected from beneath E. globulus suppressed the European annual grass, Bromus 326 diandrus, probably via chlorogenic, p-coumarylquinic, and gentisic acids. They also found that 327 artificial fog drip inhibited six other species of European grasses now found in California. Konar & 328 Kushari (1989) compared the effects of leaf leachates from three tree species native to India on Costus 329 speciosus, another Indian native, to those of E. globulus. They found that the Indian natives enhanced 330 the growth of Costus whereas E. globulus leachate suppressed Costus. May and Ash (1990) found that 331 *E. globulus* litter extracts suppressed the growth of several species, both when applied directly to seeds 332 and seedlings, and through soil. Kohli & Singh (1991) found that crude volatile oils from the leaves of 333 E. globulus and E. citriodora and the pure terpenes from these oils inhibited the growth of a number of 334 crop plants and species native to Asia. Del Moral & Muller (1970), Sasikumar et al. et al. (2001), Zhang 335 et al. et al. (2010) and Elaissi et al. et al. (2012) have reported allelopathic effects of other Eucalyptus 336 species.

Any potential allelopathic effects of *E. globulus* are highly likely to interact with other
 mechanisms, for example, resource competition or acquisition. Suppression of root growth such as we

339 observed in our experiment could impede the ability of understory plants to reach deeper and moister 340 soil layers. We focused on the effects of leachate from litter directly applied to seedlings in artificial 341 conditions, but this mode of biochemical delivery is reasonable as litter can come in direct contact with 342 seeds and seedlings without soil mediation. We did not explore how soil might modify leachate effects 343 (Kaur et al., 2012), but E. globulus litter might function indirectly through effects on soil biota 344 (Callaway & Ridenour, 2004; Callaway et al., 2008; Martins et al., 2013; also see Canhoto & 345 Laranjeira, 2007). It is important to note that we used litter only from E. globulus trees in California, 346 and we do not know if leachates produced by E. globulus in other countries might have different effects. 347 Reductions in species richness and plant height under E. globulus canopies were much greater 348 in the non-native ranges than in the native range. Furthermore, there were more species exclusive to the 349 *Eucalyptus* forest understory in the native range, which also suggests that many Australian understory 350 species might have adapted to any biochemical or other effects of *Eucalyptus*. It is also important to 351 note that some understory species observed in the non-native range were not native to those countries, 352 most notably in Chile and USA. The large majority of these species were native to Europe and thus do 353 not have a long history of interacting with E. globulus. Our results are consistent with the Novel 354 Weapons Hypothesis, which poses that some exotic invasive species might take advantage of the 355 production of allelopathic, antimicrobial, or herbivore defense compounds that are not produced by 356 other species in the non-native ranges (e.g. Callaway & Aschehoug, 2000; Callaway & Ridenour, 2004; 357 Inderjit et al., 2011; Colvin & Gliessman, 2011; Lamarque et al., 2011; Kaur et al., 2012; Qin et al., 358 2013; Svensson et al., 2013).

Although the stronger effect of *E. globulus* trees on plant communities in its invaded ranges compared to its home range might be produced, at least in part, by the weaker tolerance of understory plants to biochemical compounds produced by *E. globulus* litter, other mechanisms are likely to also play a role in these biogeographical differences. First, invasive species are often larger, grow faster, or attain greater population density in their non-native range (Callaway & Ridenour, 2004; Joshi &

364 Vrieling, 2005), thus they can likely drive greater competitive impact simply through greater 365 abundance or performance. Nevertheless, we evaluated plant communities under individual mature 366 trees of E. globulus in all regions, hence the abundance of E. globulus was effectively controlled in our 367 survey, although different size among them could produce variability, for example in the impact of each tree. Second, Eucalyptus species often use much more water than many other species (Dvorak 368 369 2012) and therefore soils under E. globulus canopy could be drier than areas without trees of this 370 species in each region. This may also have produced poorer plant communities under E. globulus 371 canopies. Third, light reductions under canopies of E. globulus may also have influenced the field 372 pattern described in our results since our control plots were not forested. Fourth, species can interact 373 very differently with variation in climate or other abiotic conditions (Cavieres et al., 2014). The 374 climates of the four non-native regions that we studied have strongly seasonal precipitation 375 (Mediterranean climates in USA-California, Portugal, and central Chile and monsoonal seasonal in 376 India). In contrast, the climate in the native range has precipitation spread more evenly through the year, 377 although it is concentrated in winter. If climate in the native region is more favorable for *E. globulus* 378 than climate in non-native regions (Becerra & Bustamante, 2011), according to the stress gradient 379 hypothesis more negative effects from E. globulus on species richness would have been more likely in 380 the native range (Cavieres et al., 2014). However, we found the opposite pattern, stronger negative 381 effects in the exotic ranges, thus climate does not seem likely to drive the biogeographic differences we 382 found.

Although *E. globulus* is not highly invasive in the non-native regions included in our study (Becerra, 2006; Cal-IPC, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 1977), *Eucalyptus* species are important forestry species, with thousands of hectares planted around the world (Boyd, 1996; Rejmánek *et al.*, 2005; Joshi, 2012; Dixit *et al.*, 2012). Thus, our results are also relevant to the conservation of biodiversity within plantations. Our regionally explicit results add to the body of knowledge suggesting the possibility of regional evolutionary trajectories involving the biochemistry of plants (e.g. Thompson, 2005), and have

389	interesting implications for community ecology. First, they add to a growing body of literature (e.g.
390	May & Ash, 1990; Callaway & Aschehoug, 2000; Ni et al., 2010) indicating that there is some degree
391	of species-specificity in the effects of plant-released secondary metabolites in plant-plant interactions.
392	Second, our results are consistent with the idea that some invaders may succeed because they possess
393	biologically active biochemicals to which species in the non-native range have not adapted.
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397	
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401	
402	SUPPORTING INFORMATION
403	Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:
404	Appendix S1 Regions and localities where the patterns of naturally growing vegetation were sampled.
405	Appendix S2 Species included in the glass-house experiment.
406	Appendix S3 Flora of each country observed in the field study.
407	
408	DATA ACCESIBILITY
409	Data will be made available at figshare.org. Data can be also made privately available to reviewers and
410	editors upon request.
411	
412	

413 BIOSKETCH

- 414 The research team is comprised by researchers from different countries, but all of them interested in
- 415 studying the causes and consequences of biological invasions, as well as ecological mechanisms
- 416 underlying these processes.
- 417
- 418

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- 559

560	Table 1 Values of species diversity found in all regions. S-values indicate total number of species
561	observed either under Eucalyptus globulus canopies or in open adjacent areas. The total number of
562	shared species between open sites and under canopy is also presented, as well as the percentage of
563	unique species to Eucalyptus in relation to the total number of different species in each site ((S-under -
564	shared)/ (S-open + S-under - shared)).

Country	Locality	S – open	S – under	Shared	Percentage of unique
		(N° sp)	(N° sp)	(N° sp)	species to Eucalyptus
					canopy (%)
India	Finger Post	28	4	1	9.7
	Santinalla	33	20	11	21.4
USA	St. Barbara	30	11	8	9.1
	St. Cruz	20	9	7	9.1
Portugal	Coimbra	21	10	7	12.5
	Lousã	17	4	4	0
Chile	Alhue	14	13	13	0
	Puchuncavi	8	6	6	0
Australia	Lorne	32	30	16	30.4
	Aireys Inlet	47	42	16	35.6

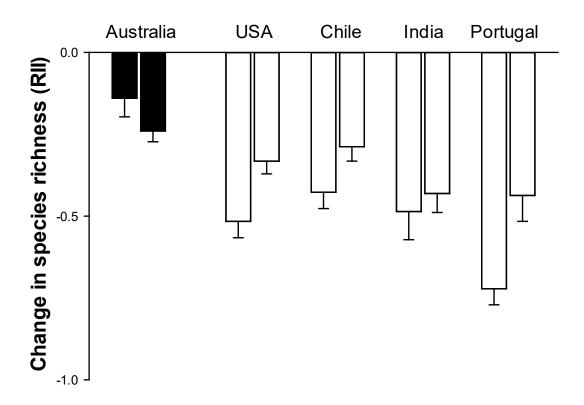


Figure 1 RII values for species richness observed under the canopies of *E. globulus* relative to open areas. Each bar indicates a site sampled in countries corresponding to the native (Australia) and nonnative (USA, Chile, Portugal, India) range of *E. globulus*. Error below means represent 1 SE.

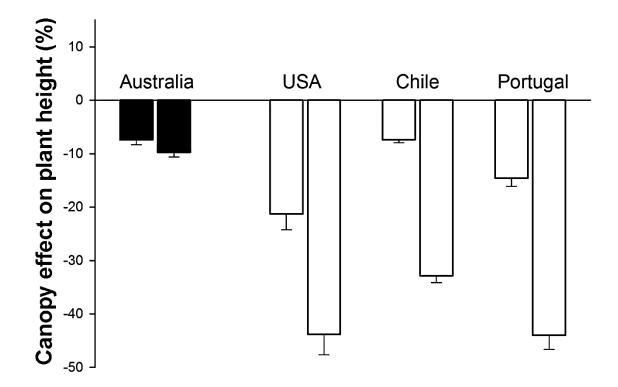


Figure 2 Variation in the effect of the *E. globulus* canopy on understory height between native (Australia) and non-native ranges (USA, Portugal, Chile). Each bar indicates a site sampled in countries corresponding to the native (Australia) and non-native (USA, Chile, Portugal) range of *E. globulus*. Values on the y axis are calculated as the difference between the mean plant height (cm; mean \pm 1SE) of vegetation under *E. globulus* patches and in open areas, divided by the height in open areas for all pairs of plots at a given site.

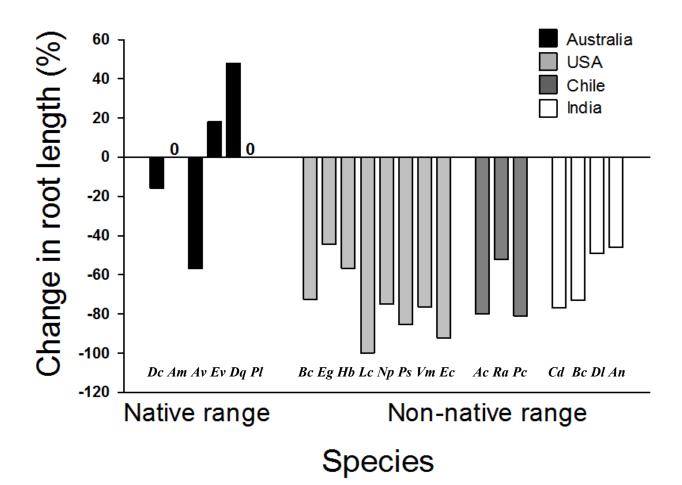


Figure 3 Effect of leachates on root length. Each bar represents a different species either native to the native range (Australia) or non-native range (USA, Chile, India) of *E. globulus*. The *y*-axis shows the mean percentage decrease in root growth in leachates, relative to root growth in the controls for each species. Values correspond to the average among different petri dishes used for each species in controls and treatments with leachates. Species corresponding to each bar are indicated below them (*Dc: Dichelachne crinita, Am: Acacia melanoxylon, Av: Acacia verticallata, Ev: Eucalyptus viminales, Dq:Deyeuxia quadriseta, Pl: Poa labillardieri, Bc: Bromus carinatus, Eg: Elymus glaucus, Hb: Hordeum brachyantherum, Lc: Lasthemia californica, Np: Nasella pulchra, Ps: Poa secunda, Vm: Vulpia microstachys, Ec: Escholzia californica, Ac: Amsincckia calycina, Ra: Rodophiala advena, Pc: Pasithea coerulea, Cd: Chloris dolichostachya, Bc: Brassica campentris, Dl: Dalbergia latifolia, An: Acacia nilotica).*