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1 **Projecting trends in plant invasions in Europe under different scenarios of future land-**
2 **use change**

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34

35 Running title: Projecting future plant invasions in Europe

36

37

38 **Abstract**

39 **Aim** Recent studies of plant invasions in habitat types across different climatic regions of
40 Europe made it possible to produce a European map of plant invasions. Parallel research led
41 to the formulation of integrated scenarios of future socio-economic development, which were
42 used to create spatially-explicit scenarios of European land-use change for 21st century. Here
43 we integrate these two research lines and produce the first spatially explicit projections of
44 plant invasions in Europe for the years 2020, 2050 and 2080.

45 **Location** European Union (except Bulgaria and Romania), Norway and Switzerland.

46 **Methods** We used vegetation plot data from southern, central and north-western Europe to
47 quantify mean levels of invasion by neophytes (post-1500 alien plants) for forest, grassland,
48 urban, arable and abandoned land. We projected these values on the land-use scenarios for
49 2020, 2050 and 2080, and constructed maps of future plant invasions under three socio-
50 economic scenarios assuming (1) deregulation and globalization, (2) continuation of current
51 policies with standing regulations and (3) a shift towards sustainable development.

52 **Results** Under all scenarios increase in the level of invasion was projected especially for
53 north-western and northern Europe and decrease for some agricultural areas of eastern Europe
54 where abandonment of agricultural land is expected. However, a net increase in the level of
55 invasion over Europe was projected under all scenarios.

56 **Main conclusions** The polarization between more and less invaded regions is likely to
57 increase if future policies are oriented on economic deregulation, which may result in serious
58 future problems in some areas of Europe. However, an implementation of sustainability
59 policies would not automatically restrict the spread of alien plants. Therefore invasions
60 require specific policy approaches beyond the more general ones, which are currently on the
61 policy agenda and were tested in the scenarios.

62

63 **Keywords**

64 ALARM scenarios, biological invasions, environmental change, habitat types, neophytes,
65 non-native species, risk assessment.

66

67 **INTRODUCTION**

68

69 Human-mediated spread of alien species is a significant component of global environmental
70 change (Vitousek, 1994; Sala *et al.*, 2000; Millenium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005) with
71 serious impacts on biodiversity, economy and human health (Mack *et al.*, 2000; Vilà *et al.*,
72 2009; Perrings *et al.*, 2010). Invasions are closely associated with other components of global
73 change such as climate change, land eutrophication, elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations
74 or land-use change (Vilà *et al.*, 2006; Walther *et al.*, 2009). However, the use of habitat types
75 or land-use categories for invasion risk assessment has scarcely been explored in spite of the
76 fact that species spread is largely determined by other components of global change beyond
77 climate (Ibáñez *et al.*, 2008). Recent studies of plant invasions performed at a regional scale
78 but with fine spatial resolution (within areas < 1000 m²) revealed that the proportion of the
79 number of aliens to all plant species is mainly determined by habitat types and much less so
80 by the direct effect of climate, although climate does play a role in fine-tuning the habitat-
81 related patterns (Chytrý *et al.*, 2008a). This suggests that future regional trends in alien plant
82 invasions will be mainly driven by land-use changes, which are associated with alterations of
83 habitat types, disturbance regimes and rapid changes of species composition (Hobbs, 2000).

84 European studies focusing on the relationship between habitat types and the level of plant
85 invasion (i.e., number or proportion of species that are aliens; Lonsdale, 1999; Richardson &
86 Pyšek, 2006; Chytrý *et al.*, 2008a) revealed that the same habitat types contain similar
87 proportion of alien plant species in oceanic, subcontinental and Mediterranean regions
88 (Chytrý *et al.*, 2008b). This remarkable consistency within habitats across regions made it
89 possible to project data on the mean levels of plant invasion in a range of European habitats
90 on land-cover maps and produce the first European map of the level of invasion by alien
91 vascular plants (Chytrý *et al.*, 2009a). However, the development of effective strategies for
92 the management of alien plant species requires additional information on possible future
93 trends.

94 Recently developed scenarios of future land-use change for Europe (Reginster &
95 Rounsevell, this issue) provide a suitable platform for projecting spatially explicit trends in
96 future levels of plant invasion. These land-use scenarios were generated by models which
97 used input parameters from three storylines, i.e. qualitative and partly semi-quantitative
98 descriptions of possible futures, resulting from an analysis of socio-economic processes
99 (Spangenberg 2007; Spangenberg *et al.*, this issue). At the same time, these models were
100 linked to other models based on the same storylines (i.e. having the same assumptions), which

101 made it possible to assess the effect of future global trade and climate change on European
102 land use.

103 In this paper, we link the two previously separated research lines, one on the plant
104 invasions in different habitats and the other on scenarios of future land-use changes. For the
105 first time, we (i) develop maps of possible future patterns of alien plant invasions across
106 Europe for three socio-economic scenarios representing different emphasis on economic
107 growth, and (ii) assess and compare the levels of invasions and their geographical pattern
108 under these scenarios to find out how they are likely to translate into future problems with
109 invasive alien plants in Europe.

110

111

112 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

113

114 ALARM scenarios

115

116 In this study we use recently developed spatially explicit scenarios of the future land-use in
117 Europe for the years 2020, 2050 and 2080 (Reginster & Rounsevell, this issue) to project
118 possible future trends in the level of plant invasion across the continent. These scenarios were
119 developed within the EU project ALARM (“Assessing LArge-scale Risks for biodiversity
120 with tested Methods”; Settele *et al.*, 2005) as a result of combined qualitative and semi-
121 quantitative analyses of possible futures with model runs.

122 The first part of the scenario development was a formulation of storylines (or narratives;
123 Alcamo, 2001). Three core storylines were developed within ALARM, describing three
124 internally consistent alternative scenarios of future socio-economic development, which
125 reflect different policy options currently discussed in the European Union (Spangenberg *et al.*,
126 this issue). As each scenario involved a large number of assumptions, they were developed in
127 two steps. First, the overall policy trajectories were defined and checked with current decision
128 makers whether these were relevant from their point of view. Then the policies expected in
129 different policy fields (based on, e.g. the EU Lisbon strategy, the EU Sustainable
130 Development Strategy and the Biodiversity Action Plan) were formulated and discussed again
131 with decision makers regarding the comprehensiveness, plausibility and coherence.

132 It is important to note that scenarios are not predictions, because the future cannot be
133 predicted. Neither it is possible to calculate the probability of realization of alternative
134 scenarios nor to validate the scenarios before the future happens. Scenarios simply illustrate

135 possible future situations by making assumptions and examining what would happen if they
136 turn out to be correct (Alcamo, 2001; van der Sluijs, 2002).

137 The three core ALARM scenarios, described in the storylines (Spangenberg *et al.*, this
138 issue), are the following:

139 GRAS: *GRowth Applied Strategy* scenario supposes that economic and political paradigms
140 of deregulation and globalisation will mainly determine future decision making, whereas
141 biodiversity and sustainability policies will have little effect on the decisions. Environmental
142 policies will focus on damage repair and limited prevention. The European Spatial
143 Development Perspective (ESDP) will not be applied, which will result in expansion of urban
144 areas. Subsidies provided as a part of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) will be
145 removed and arable land will be only maintained in areas where it is profitable. Current
146 protected areas will be preserved, but the Natura 2000 network will not be enforced.

147 BAMBU: *Business-As-Might-Be-Usual* scenario is based on the assumption that current
148 policy trajectories (including regulations) will be implemented by the EU member states.
149 Environmental policy will include climate change mitigation and adaptation measures. ESDP
150 will be applied, and consequently peri-urbanisation in rural areas will be limited. CAP will be
151 maintained, but overproduction will be avoided. Agriculture will be supported in areas where
152 it is profitable and to some extent in other traditional rural areas (“disadvantaged areas” in EU
153 parlance). The Natura 2000 network will be enforced. SEDG: *Sustainable European*
154 *Development Goal* scenario combines what is considered necessary from a sustainability and
155 biodiversity point of view, and desirable from a social and political perspective. It aims at
156 competitive economy, healthy environment and international cooperation. Urban sprawl will
157 be restricted, extensive agricultural management and organic farming will be supported, and
158 agriculture will be maintained across the landscape by subsidising it in less productive areas.
159 The Natura 2000 network will be extended and enforced.

160

161 Land-use projections

162

163 For each of the three ALARM scenarios (described in the storylines), each of the three target
164 years (2020, 2050 and 2080) and for baseline data, which correspond to the situation in the
165 year 2000, proportions of land-use categories were projected in grid cells of $10' \times 10'$
166 (roughly $12 \text{ km} \times 18 \text{ km}$ in Central Europe) in the countries of the European Union plus
167 Norway and Switzerland. Romania and Bulgaria were not considered because they joined the
168 European Union after the completion of the modelling project. This modelling was performed

169 using MOLUSC (“MOdel of Land Use SCenarios”), an automated generator of land-use
170 scenarios (Reginster & Rounsevell, this issue). The model input parameters were set based on
171 the interpretation of the three storylines. MOLUSC was linked with a global macro-economic
172 model (GINFORS; Stocker *et al.*, this issue) and a global ecosystem model (LPJmL; Bondeau
173 *et al.*, 2007). In such a way, the land-use scenarios included the effects of global socio-
174 economic factors, such as world population and international trade, on the future socio-
175 economic situation in Europe (summarized in GINFORS) and about the effects of climate
176 change on European agriculture (summarized in LPJmL), all based on the same assumptions.

177 Nine land-use categories were distinguished in MOLUSC: forest, grassland, urban areas,
178 arable land, permanent crops, liquid biofuel plantations (e.g. oil-seed rape or sunflower), non-
179 woody biofuel plantations (e.g. *Sorghum* or *Miscanthus*), woody biofuel plantations (e.g.
180 willow, poplar or eucalypt) and abandoned land. We merged permanent crops with arable
181 land, because the level of invasion is similar in these two categories (Chytrý *et al.*, 2008b).
182 The area of biofuel plantations is expected to increase across Europe (Tuck *et al.*, 2006;
183 Spangenberg & Settele, 2009), but currently there are no data on the level of invasion by alien
184 plants in those biofuel crops that have not been traditionally planted in Europe. However, as
185 the agricultural management of non-woody and liquid biofuel crops will correspond to that of
186 traditional crops (many of them being also potential biofuels, e.g. cereals, potato or sugar
187 beet; Tuck *et al.*, 2006), and therefore the level of invasion will probably be similar to that of
188 the traditional arable land, we also merged these two biofuel land-use categories with arable
189 land. Finally, there is little data on the level of invasion in plantations of potential woody
190 biofuel crops, but the data from deciduous tree plantations indicate that these levels are close
191 to those recorded for arable land (Chytrý *et al.*, 2005). Therefore the category of woody
192 biofuel plantations was also included in the category of arable land. Thus we used five broad
193 land-use categories, distinct in terms of the level of invasion: forest, grassland, urban areas,
194 arable land and abandoned (surplus) land.

195

196 Data on the level of invasion and their projection on the land-use scenarios

197

198 By the term *level of invasion* we mean the number or proportion of plant species that are alien
199 in a given habitat or at a site (Richardson & Pyšek, 2006; Chytrý *et al.*, 2008a, b). This term is
200 different from *habitat invasibility*, which is the habitat’s susceptibility to invasion imposed by
201 abiotic and biotic constraints under the assumption of constant propagule pressure (Lonsdale,
202 1999). This implies that a habitat with low invasibility due to its inherent properties can be

203 highly invaded if the propagule pressure in a given site is high and *vice versa*. Our estimation
204 of the levels of invasion for particular habitat types and land-use categories is based on the
205 proportion of the number of neophytes, i.e. those aliens that arrived to the target area after
206 A.D. 1500 (Pyšek *et al.*, 2004), and relates to local scale (areas < 1000 m²; Chytrý *et al.*,
207 2009a, b). We used proportions of total species numbers rather than absolute species numbers,
208 because absolute numbers of alien and native species are positively correlated on large scales
209 (Kühn *et al.*, 2003; Pino *et al.*, 2005; Stohlgren *et al.*, 2005); thus the large-scale pattern of the
210 absolute numbers of neophytes would be similar to the pattern of total or native species
211 richness.

212 In a previous study (Chytrý *et al.*, 2008b) the level of plant invasions at a local scale in 33
213 European habitats was assessed using 52,480 vegetation plots from phytosociological or
214 landscape monitoring survey in Catalonia (NE Spain), Czech Republic and Great Britain
215 (Schaminée *et al.*, 2009). These plots were sampled since the 1970s and ranged in size from a
216 few m² to a few hundred m². Habitats were defined according to the European Nature
217 Information System (EUNIS) classification (Davies *et al.*, 2004). This study revealed a
218 striking consistency in the level of invasion of the same habitats among different regions,
219 which justified extrapolation of the data from these three countries to other European regions
220 where data were not available.

221 To obtain the mean value of the local level of plant invasion for each of the five land-use
222 categories defined above, we transferred the EUNIS habitat types to those categories. As each
223 of them corresponds to more than one habitat type, we estimated the proportional contribution
224 of each EUNIS habitat type to each of the land-use categories in different European regions
225 (Appendix S1 in Supporting Information). This estimation was based on the cross-tabulation
226 of the EUNIS habitats and CORINE land-cover classes (Chytrý *et al.*, 2009a), interpretation
227 of the five land-use categories used here in terms of the CORINE land-cover classes (Bossard
228 *et al.*, 2000), and proportional representation of each CORINE land-cover class in each
229 region. For the Mediterranean areas, we made separate interpretations for irrigated and non-
230 irrigated arable land because of a much higher level of invasion in the former (Chytrý *et al.*,
231 2009a). A special problem was the interpretation of the category of abandoned land, which
232 can include very different vegetation types, ranging from recently abandoned arable land with
233 weed vegetation to grasslands in the middle successional stages and forests at sites abandoned
234 for a long time. In the extra-Mediterranean areas we also considered the late successional
235 stages such as broad-leaved forests, but in the Mediterranean areas, only herbaceous and

236 shrubland vegetation types were assigned to this category because of slower rate of
237 succession in this summer-dry part of Europe (Escarré *et al.*, 1983; Bonet & Pausas, 2004).

238 As in the previous study, which mapped current levels of plant invasion in Europe (Chytrý
239 *et al.*, 2009a), we extrapolated quantitative data on the level of invasion from Catalonia, the
240 Czech Republic and Britain to wider areas of Europe within the limits of European
241 biogeographical regions (European Topic Centre on Biological Diversity, 2006,
242 <http://dataservice.eea.europa.eu/dataservice/metadetails.asp?id=839>) as follows: (1) for the
243 Mediterranean region we used the Catalonian data; (2) for the Continental and Pannonian
244 regions, including embedded patches of the Alpine region, we used the Czech data; (3) for the
245 British Isles we used the British data; (4) for the remaining part of the Atlantic region and for
246 the Boreal region, including the embedded patches of the Alpine region, we used average
247 values obtained from British and Czech data. We believe these mean values provide a
248 reasonable approximation for the areas of Atlantic region on the European continent due to
249 their transitional biogeographical position between oceanic and subcontinental climates, and
250 also for the Boreal region, because Scottish and Czech mountains contain most of the habitat
251 types typical of the Boreal region, such as coniferous forests, alpine grasslands and mires.

252 For each cell of 10' × 10' in each scenario, we plotted the weighted mean of the levels of
253 invasion for land-use categories occurring in that cell, where weights were percentage areas of
254 the cell occupied by the particular land-use categories. Weights for irrigated or non-irrigated
255 arable land in the Mediterranean bioregion were adjusted according to the proportion of these
256 two land-cover types in the CORINE land-cover map of Europe (Moss & Wyatt, 1994;
257 Bossard *et al.*, 2000; version 8/2005 obtained from the European Environment Agency).

258 The level of invasion was visualized using four categories: < 1; 1–3; 3–5; > 5% of alien
259 (neophyte) species. Boundaries of the categories were set up arbitrarily to allow for optimum
260 visualisation. All GIS analyses and map visualizations were done in the ArcGIS 9.2 program
261 (<http://www.esri.com>).

262

263 Statistical analysis

264

265 In statistical comparisons, individual grid cells were the units of observation. To allow for
266 autocorrelation among the grid cells, all statistics were fitted as generalized least-square
267 models with spatially correlated errors because these models appeared more parsimonious
268 based on the Akaike information criterion (AIC; Burnham & Anderson, 2002) than models
269 with spatially independent errors. Models with different assumptions about the correlated

270 errors were compared, and the model with a rational quadratic description of spatial
271 autocorrelation, which had the lowest AIC value, was chosen for description of the shape of
272 spatial autocorrelation (Crawley, 2002: 723–729; Legendre & Legendre, 1998: 728–731). The
273 resulting generalized least-square models thus do not violate the statistical assumption of
274 independently and identically distributed errors and include corrections for pseudoreplications
275 resulting from spatial autocorrelations (Rangel *et al.*, 2006; Dormann *et al.*, 2007)

276 The relationship between the occurrence of species that are included among the 100 worst
277 invasive species in Europe in the DAISIE database (Lambdon *et al.*, 2008; DAISIE, 2009)
278 and the mean level of invasion in grid cells was examined by linear regression. As the
279 DAISIE database contains data on species occurrences in larger grid cells (50 km × 50 km)
280 than used for the projections of land use and the level of invasion, mean levels of invasion for
281 the 10' × 10' grid cells contained within each 50 km × 50 km grid cell were used for this
282 analysis. Percentage of invasive species from the DAISIE database in the 50 km × 50 km grid
283 cells was the response variable and the mean level of invasion in the same grid cells for the
284 baseline data of 2000 the explanatory variable.

285 Temporal trends in the level of invasion were examined by analysis of covariance
286 (ANCOVA). Mean levels of invasion in each grid cell for the three target years and positive
287 or negative differences in each grid cell for the three target years relative to the 2000 baseline
288 were the response variables, the three scenarios were factors, and the three target years were
289 covariates. To test for non-linear components in temporal trends, square powers of target
290 years were added to the models. Differences among the temporal trends were tested by
291 deletion tests on common slopes of temporal trends for all three target years in minimal
292 adequate models, in which all parameters were significantly different from zero and from one
293 another, and all non-significant parameters were removed (Crawley, 2002).

294 Scenarios were examined by linear mixed-effect models using the same response
295 variables as those which were used in ANCOVAs. Scenarios were a fixed factor, and target
296 years a random factor nested within scenarios (Crawley, 2002: 723–729). Significant
297 differences among all scenarios were tested by ANOVA and significant differences between
298 the individual scenarios by least square difference (LSD) tests (Sokal & Rohlf, 1995: 240–
299 260).

300 To normalize the data, the percentage of invasive species from the DAISIE database in
301 each grid cell was angular transformed (Sokal & Rohlf 1995: 419–422) and mean level of
302 invasion $\ln + 0.5$ transformed (Yamamura, 1999), and positive and negative differences
303 relative to the baseline $x^{0.1}$ transformed, based on Box-Cox series of transformations (Sokal &

304 Rohlf, 1995: 417–419). All models were checked by plotting normalized residuals against
305 fitted values, by normal probability plots and by inspection of variograms for normalized
306 residuals (Crawley, 2002: 726–729). All calculations were done in S-PLUS 8.1.1 (TIBCO
307 Software®).

308

309

310 **RESULTS**

311

312 The highest levels of alien plant invasions among the five land-use categories (Table 1) were
313 projected for arable land, followed by urban areas and abandoned land. In the Mediterranean
314 areas irrigated arable land was projected as much more invaded than dry arable land. In the
315 British Isles a high level of invasion was also projected for forests.

316 The map of the level of invasion for the baseline of 2000 (Fig. 1) projected the highest
317 levels of invasion in lowland areas of western, central and eastern Europe and some
318 agricultural areas of southern Europe. Low levels of invasion were mapped in the boreal and
319 arctic zones, areas with extremely oceanic climate, mountain areas across the continent, and
320 Mediterranean areas that are not used for intensive agriculture. There was a strong positive
321 relationship ($F_{1, 2370} = 57.63$, $P < 0.0001$) between the mean level of invasion in $50 \text{ km} \times 50$
322 km grid cells (Fig. 1) and the percentage of the total number of the invasive plant species that
323 are included among the 100 worst invasive species in Europe and occur in these cells.

324 Projected patterns of the level of invasion in 2020, 2050 and 2080 across Europe are not
325 dramatically different from the baseline under any of the three scenarios (Figs. 2–4). Still
326 there are clear trends in the level of invasion under different scenarios and for different time
327 periods. Both changes in temporal trends for the three years (deletion test on mean levels of
328 invasion, mean increases and decreases per grid cell, respectively: $F_{4, 265383} = 10.48$, $F_{2, 124468}$
329 $= 249.56$, $F_{2, 65586} = 37.83$, all $P < 0.0001$) and among the scenarios (ANOVAs on mean levels
330 of invasion, mean increases and decreases per grid cell, respectively: $F_{2, 265383} = 33.40$, $F_{2,}$
331 $124468 = 790.0$, $F_{2, 65586} = 7768.0$, all $P < 0.0001$) are statistically significant.

332 Under the GRAS scenario (Fig. 2), both increases and decreases in the level of invasion
333 were projected, the former being smaller but increasing continuously from the baseline to
334 2080 (Fig. 5b). The strongest increases were projected for Ireland, the Netherlands and some
335 other areas of north-western and northern Europe where current levels of invasion are low or
336 average. In contrast, decreases in the level of invasion were projected for the agricultural
337 areas of eastern Europe, namely the Baltic countries, Poland and Hungary, western-central

338 Europe and also some parts of south-western Europe, such as coastal areas and south-western
339 France. The mean projected level of invasion per grid cell is significantly lower under GRAS
340 than under BAMBU and SEDG scenarios, which do not differ significantly, although their
341 temporal trends differ (Fig. 5a).

342 Under the BAMBU scenario (Fig. 3), projected spatial patterns of increases and decreases
343 in the level of invasion follow similar trends as under GRAS. However, under BAMBU
344 significantly smaller decreases and higher increases were projected than under GRAS by 2080
345 (Fig. 5b). This is likely to occur mainly in central and western Europe (Fig. 3) and results in a
346 remarkable mean increase in the level of invasion by 2080 (Fig. 5a).

347 Under the SEDG scenario (Fig. 4), both the projected increase and decrease in the mean
348 level of invasion were the smallest (Fig. 5b). Generally the regions showing an increase and
349 decrease were roughly the same as under the GRAS or BAMBU scenarios. Because of the
350 small decreases in the levels of invasion, the SEDG scenario resulted in projections of
351 significantly larger mean levels of invasion across Europe than the GRAS scenario.

352

353

354 **DISCUSSION**

355

356 In this study, we first mapped the current levels of invasion for the baseline land-use data,
357 which corresponded to year 2000, and then we projected levels of invasion on the land-use
358 scenarios for three target years: 2020, 2050 and 2080. Because of increased uncertainty
359 towards the future (Rounsevell *et al.*, 2006), it was necessary to use coarser spatial resolution
360 and coarser habitat classification than in the previous study that mapped current level of plant
361 invasions in Europe (Chytrý *et al.*, 2009a). However, a considerable similarity between the
362 current baseline map (Fig. 1) and the more detailed map of the previous study indicated that
363 the current input data were reliable.

364 At a coarse European scale, distribution of land-use categories is driven by climate
365 (Thuiller *et al.*, 2004), but at finer scales, it is driven by socio-economic processes. Species
366 invasions are driven by both climate (Walther *et al.*, 2009) and land-use, but the effect of
367 climate on the level of invasion of particular sites is much weaker than the effect of land-use
368 or habitats (Chytrý *et al.*, 2008a). The land-use scenarios used in this study involved
369 projections of future climate change (Bondeau *et al.*, 2007), assuming that socio-economic
370 processes cause climate change, but they are themselves changed in response to the climate

371 change. Land-use changes thus depend on both socio-economy and climate, while plant
372 invasions depend on all of these three factors, being most closely linked to land-use change.

373 Under all the three scenarios of the future socio-economic development examined in this
374 study, the magnitude and pattern of the level of plant invasion within European regions is
375 projected to change in the 21st century (Figs. 2–4). Scenarios show that in north-western and
376 northern Europe the levels of invasion may increase more than elsewhere, mainly due spread
377 of alien plants to the landscapes with biofuel crop plantations established in the places of
378 former grasslands (Tuck *et al.*, 2006; Reginster & Rounsevell, this issue). In contrast, some
379 areas such as eastern Europe and some parts of southern Europe may experience no increase,
380 or even decrease, in the level of invasion. To a large extent, these projected changes in the
381 level of invasion are due to the abandonment of arable land (Reginster & Rounsevell, this
382 issue), because agricultural areas are particularly suitable for the spread of many alien species
383 (Pyšek *et al.*, 2005; Chytrý *et al.*, 2008a, b).

384 Perhaps a surprising result of this study is that the largest overall decrease in the level of
385 invasion is projected under the GRAS scenario (Fig. 5). This scenario, assuming economic
386 deregulation and globalization (Spangenberg *et al.*, this issue), supposes that in the first half
387 of the 21st century large areas of agricultural land will be abandoned especially in eastern
388 Europe and also in some coastal areas and some regions of southern Europe, most notably
389 south-western France. In the second half of this century further abandonment is projected also
390 in central and western Europe (Reginster & Rounsevell, this issue). Succession on abandoned
391 fields may result in a decreased level of invasion across the landscapes, because the
392 proportion of alien plant species is known to decrease during secondary succession due to the
393 establishment of competitively strong native species in the mid and late successional stages
394 (Rejmánek, 1989; Pino *et al.*, 2006). In contrast, the establishment of biofuel plantations in
395 places of former grasslands, as expected under the GRAS scenario especially for north-
396 western Europe, may result in increased levels of plant invasion there. Thus this scenario
397 results in a strong geographical polarization between the areas with considerable increase of
398 plant invasions and the areas where invasions can be less important than today (Fig. 2).
399 However, areas with projected decrease in the level of invasion are not likely to experience a
400 parallel decrease in the distribution and impact of serious invaders that they already harbour.
401 Established serious invaders (those with strong negative impacts on economy or biodiversity)
402 are difficult to eradicate and unlikely to retreat due to changing land-use without human
403 intervention (Rejmánek & Pitcairn, 2002). As serious invaders are likely to arrive in

404 'increase' areas but not disappear from 'decrease' areas, invasions under the GRAS scenario
405 may have more serious consequences than it appears just on the basis of levels of invasion.

406 The SEDG scenario (Fig. 4), which supposes sustainable development with high priority of
407 environmental issues and support for extensive agriculture even in areas where it is less
408 profitable (Spangenberg *et al.*, this issue), leads to higher overall levels of invasion in Europe.
409 Under this scenario, the decrease in the level of invasion is very small and although the
410 increase is smaller than under the GRAS or BAMBU scenarios, it results in a significantly
411 larger net overall increase across Europe than under GRAS (Fig. 5). It should be noted that
412 the current projections do not account for the increasing level of invasion within habitats,
413 which is very likely to occur, given that more than six alien species capable of naturalization
414 arrive currently in Europe every year (Lambdon *et al.*, 2008; DAISIE, 2009). Thus the actual
415 increase is likely to be even larger than projected here. Polarization between north-western
416 and eastern Europe does occur under SEDG, but it is much less pronounced than under the
417 GRAS or BAMBU scenarios.

418 The levels of invasion under the BAMBU scenario (Fig. 3), supposing implementation of
419 current regulation policies, are similar to SEDG. However, due to an intermediate decrease in
420 the level of invasion in some areas, coupled with large increases in other areas, this scenario
421 results in the highest overall level of invasion across Europe by 2080 (Fig. 5a). Thus, if the
422 regulation-oriented policy decisions already made, but not yet fully implemented, are
423 implemented and enforced, the problem of invasive plant species may increase in importance
424 especially in countries of north-western Europe, which are already now most affected by
425 invasions. For example, the United Kingdom and Belgium have the highest densities of
426 naturalized neophytes of all European countries (Lambdon *et al.*, 2008). The risk of future
427 invasions is highest in the British Isles, and Ireland in particular.

428 The measure used here to quantify future invasions is based on all alien species rather than
429 invasive pest species which are of interest to environmental managers. However, the strong
430 positive relationship for the 2000 baseline data between the mean level of invasion in grid
431 cells and the percentage of the total number of the plant species that are included among the
432 100 worst invaders in Europe (DAISIE, 2009) clearly illustrates that high level of invasion
433 also means an increased probability of the occurrence of invasive pest species (Rejmánek &
434 Randall, 2004). Areas for which high levels of invasion are projected are thus likely to receive
435 not only more alien species, but also more invasive species that cause environmental or
436 economic damage (Vilà *et al.*, 2009).

437

438 **CONCLUSIONS**

439

440 The three scenarios considered in this study provide internally consistent illustrations of
441 plausible and possible futures. However, their probability cannot be quantified and their
442 realization depends on whether or not their assumptions will be realized. Deviations from the
443 linear development trajectories of these scenarios are possible (shock events: Spangenberg *et*
444 *al.*, this issue). Nevertheless, these scenarios provide valuable insights into the relationships
445 between possible future orientations of European policy and plant invasions.

446 An important lesson learned from this study is that none of the currently dominating policy
447 options in itself will be able to stop or reduce the ongoing process of plant invasions, although
448 minor reductions are possible in some regions. This conclusion is also valid for policies
449 favouring sustainable development and environmental protection (SEDG scenario), which
450 may even result in an increase in the rate of spread of alien plants in some regions by
451 supporting agriculture and associated invasion-prone land use in less productive areas.
452 Therefore, invasions require specific policy approaches beyond the general ones, which are
453 currently on the policy agenda. A proactive development and implementation of effective
454 strategies for prevention, eradication and control of invasive alien plants across Europe
455 (Hulme, 2006; Hulme *et al.*, 2009a, b) continue to be of crucial importance, regardless of the
456 future economic development.

457

458

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460

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629

630 **Supplementary Material**

631

632 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

633

634 **Appendix S1** Cross-tabulation of the EUNIS habitat types and the MOLUSC land-use
635 categories used for projecting the level of invasion in different European biogeographical
636 regions.

637

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643 **BIOSKETCH**

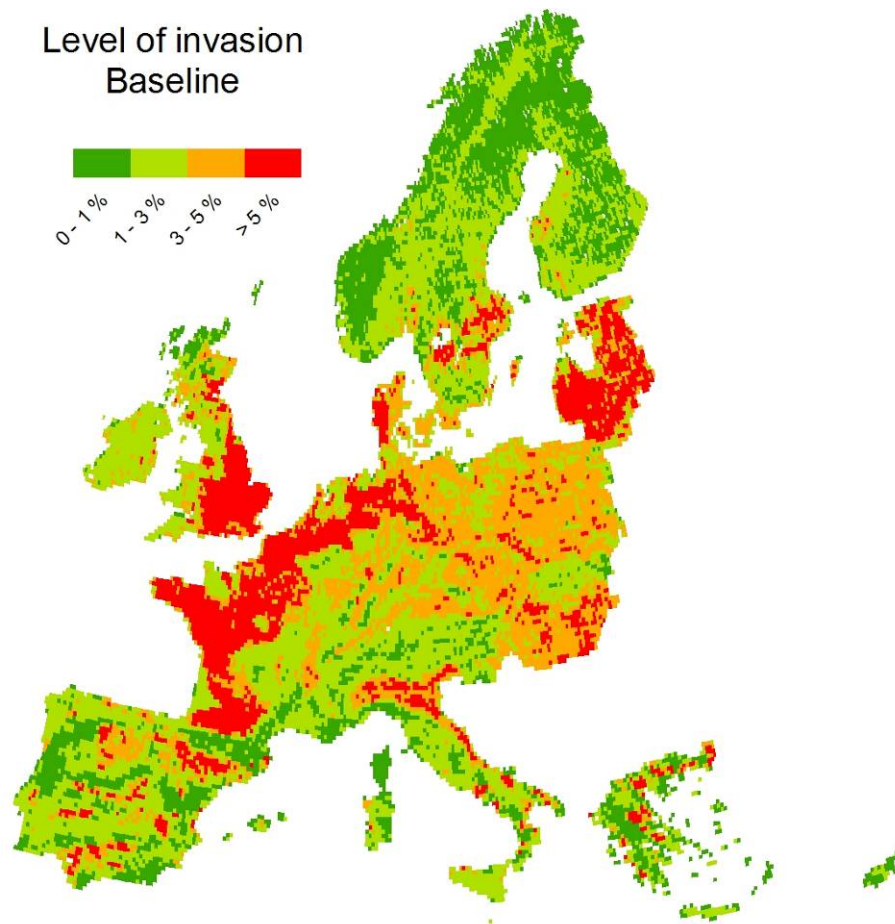
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645 The authors were members of a consortium studying large-scale environmental risks in
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650 the study, M.C., P.P., J.P., L.C.M., M.V. and J.P. analysed the floristic data, J.H.S. developed
651 the socio-economic scenarios, N.D. and I.R. prepared the land-use scenarios, J.W. did the GIS
652 analyses, V.J. computed statistical analyses, M.C. wrote the paper and all authors interpreted
653 the results and commented on the manuscript.

654 **Table 1.** Mean percentage levels of invasion by alien plants of different land-use categories in
 655 five biogeographical regions of Europe. The level of invasion is defined as the percentage
 656 number of species that are aliens (neophytes) in vegetation plots.
 657

| Land-use category | British Isles | Atlantic ¹ | Boreal | Continental | Mediterranean |
|--------------------------|---------------|-----------------------|--------|-------------|-------------------------|
| Forest | 7.8 | 1.8 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.1 |
| Grassland | 1.3 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 1.2 |
| Urban | 5.4 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 4.8 | 4.8 |
| Arable land ² | 13.0 | 8.6 | 8.7 | 5.1 | 2.8 / 14.2 ³ |
| Abandoned | 4.9 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 2.4 |

658 ¹Atlantic region on the European mainland, excluding British Isles. ²Arable land includes
 659 permanent crops and biofuel plantations. ³The first value refers to non-irrigated and the
 660 second to irrigated arable land, because irrigation strongly affects the level of invasion
 661 in the Mediterranean areas.
 662



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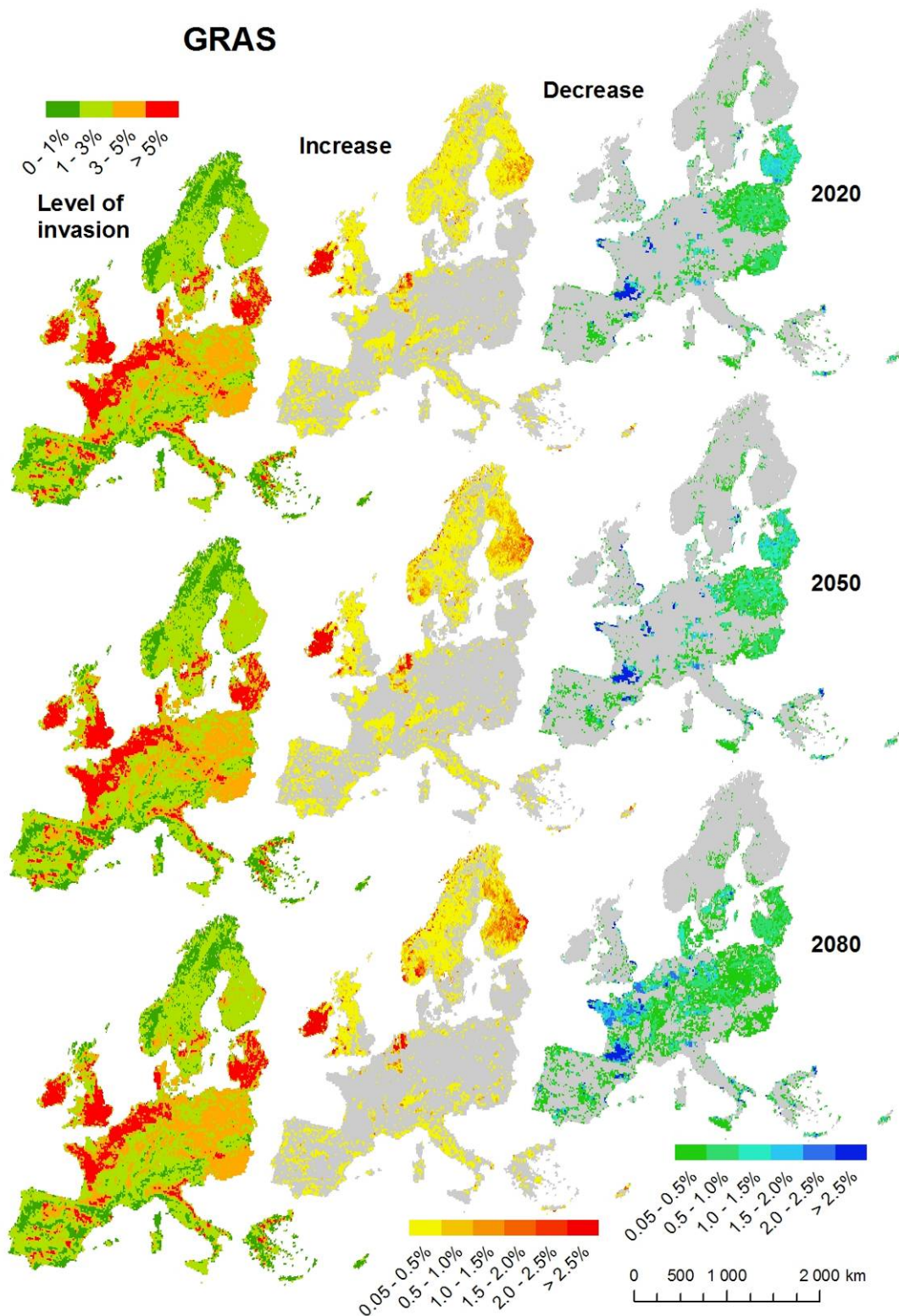
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665 **Figure 1** Baseline map showing the level of invasion by alien plants in the year 2000.

666 Average percentages of plant species that are alien (neophytes) in the plots (= level of

667 invasion) were mapped for grid cells of 10' × 10'.

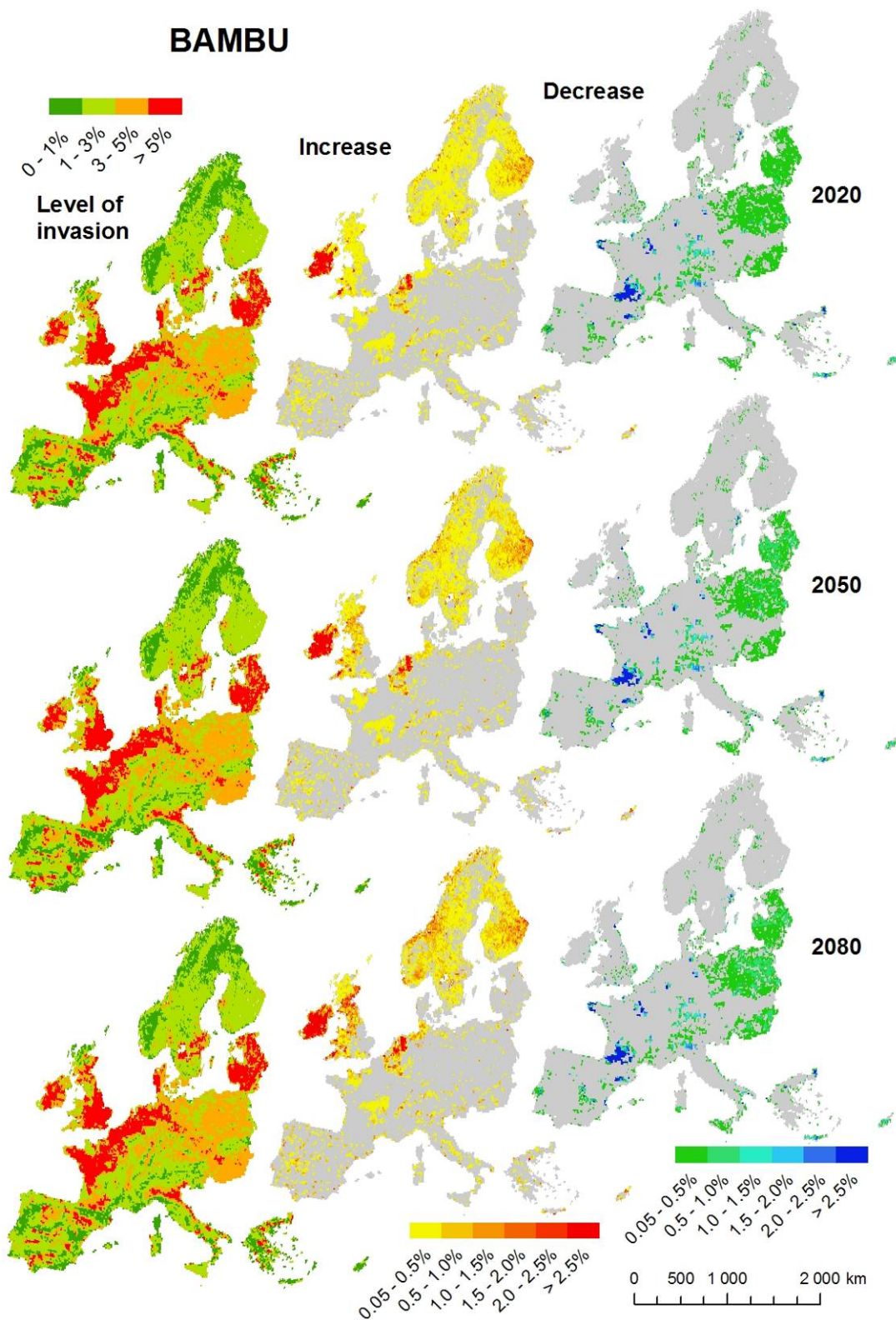
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670 **Figure 2** Projected levels of plant invasion in 2020, 2050 and 2080 for the GRAS scenario
 671 (oriented on economic development and deregulation). Levels of invasion (left column) are
 672 percentages of vascular plant species that are aliens (neophytes) occurring in small areas.

673 Increases and decreases are presented as positive or negative percentage changes in the level
 674 of invasion shown in the 2000 baseline map (Fig. 1).



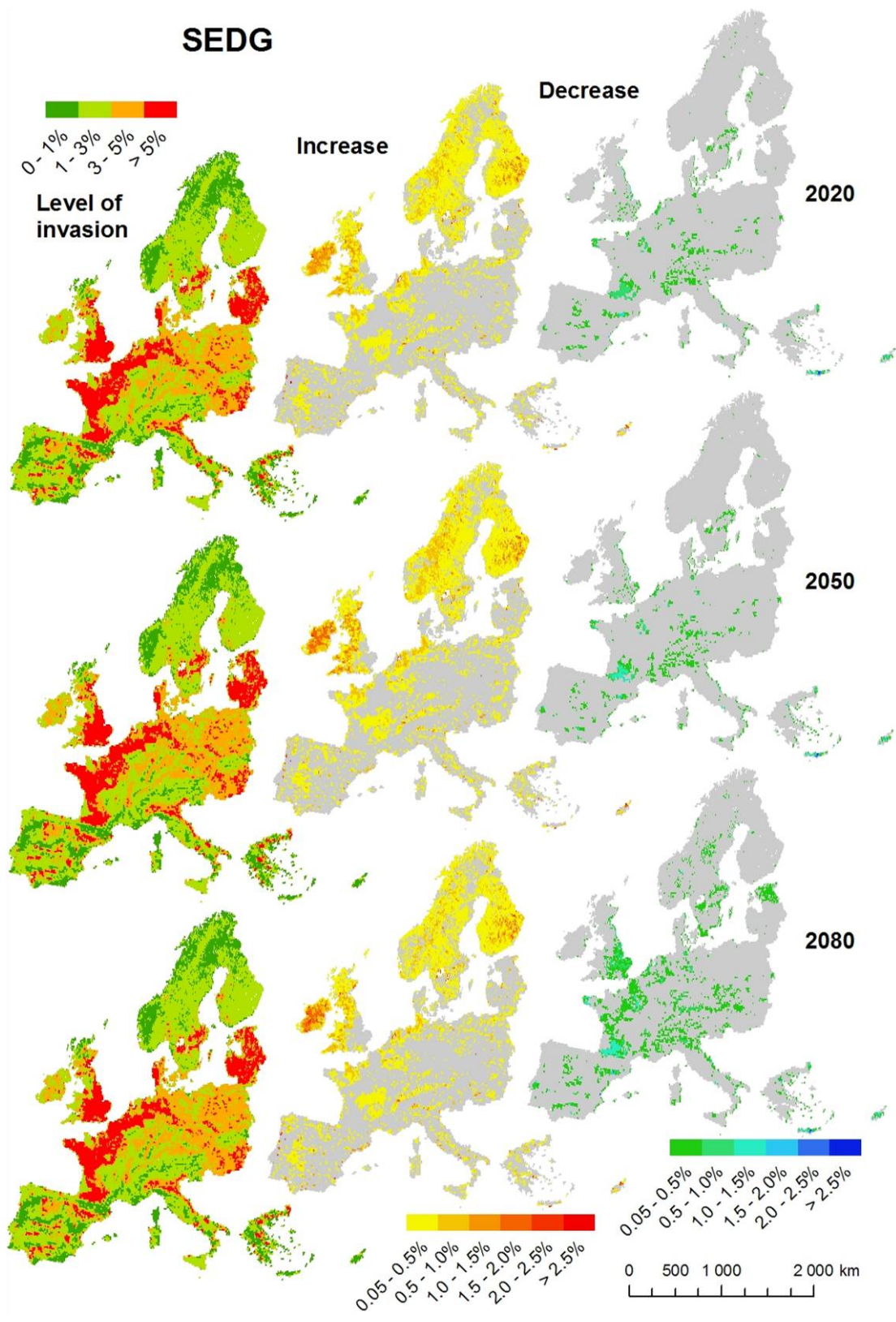
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677 **Figure 3** Projected levels of plant invasion in 2020, 2050 and 2080 for the BAMBU scenario

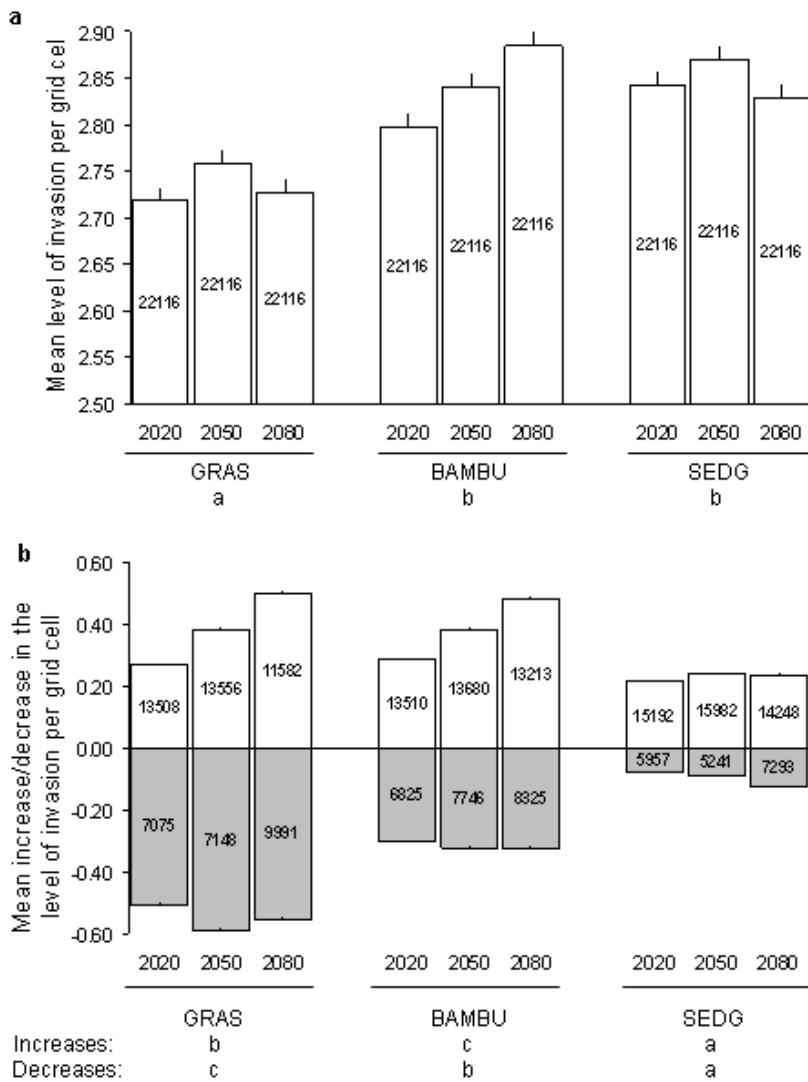
678 (assuming implementation and enforcement of current policy decisions). See Fig. 2 for

679 details.



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Figure 4 Projected levels of plant invasion in 2020, 2050 and 2080 for the SEDG scenario (oriented on sustainable development). See Fig. 2 for details.



684

685

686 **Figure 5** Projected overall changes in the level of invasion by alien plants of all the grid cells
 687 in Europe by 2020, 2050 and 2080, under each of three ALARM scenarios. a – mean levels of
 688 invasion (= number of alien species/number of all species, %) per grid cell. b – mean positive
 689 (increases) or negative (decreases) changes in the levels of invasion per grid cell relative to
 690 the 2000 baseline. Vertical lines show standard errors, figures inside the bars are numbers of
 691 grid cells. Least square differences (LSD tests; $P < 0.05$) between projected changes for
 692 individual scenarios are indicated by small letters below the scenario acronyms: identical
 693 letters indicate no differences.

694 **Appendix S1** Cross-tabulation of the EUNIS habitat types and the MOLUSC land-use
695 categories used for projecting the level of invasion in different European biogeographical
696 regions. Values are percentage contributions of habitat types to each land-use category; they
697 were estimated based on Chytrý *et al.* (2009a), Bossard *et al.* (2000), proportion of CORINE
698 land-cover types in particular bioregions, and corrected by expert judgement. Habitat types
699 and their delimitations follow Chytrý *et al.* (2008b, 2009a). Only those EUNIS habitat types
700 that contribute to at least one of the five MOLUSC land-use categories are shown.
701

| Region | Land-use category | A2.5&D6&E6 Saline habitats | E1 Dry grassland | E2 Mesic grassland | E3&E5.4 Wet grasslands | E4 Alpine and subalpine grasslands | E5.1 Anthropogenic herb stands | E5.2 Thermophile woodland fringes | E5.3 Pteridium aquilinum fields | E5.5 Subalpine moist or wet tall-herb and fern stands | F2 Arctic, alpine and subalpine scrub | F3 Temperate scrub | F4 Temperate shrub heathland | F5 Maquis | F6 Garrigue | F7 Spiny mediterranean heaths | FA Hedgerows | G2 Broad-leaved evergreen woodland | G3 Coniferous woodland | G1&4 Broadleaved deciduous and mixed woodland | G5 Disturbed woodland | H5.6 Trampled areas | I1-1 Irrigated arable land, woody crops and gardens | I1-2 Non-irrigated arable land (herbaceous crops) |
|---------------|----------------------|----------------------------|------------------|--------------------|------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|-----------|-------------|-------------------------------|--------------|------------------------------------|------------------------|---|-----------------------|---------------------|---|---|
| British Isles | Forest | | | | | | | | | | | 6 | | | | | 4 | 20 | 61 | 9 | | | | |
| Atlantic | Forest | | | | | | | | | | | 3 | | | | | 2 | 20 | 70 | 5 | | | | |
| Boreal | Forest | | | | | | | | | | | 4 | | | | | 2 | 73 | 13 | 8 | | | | |
| Continental | Forest | | | | | | | | | | | 2 | | | | | | 40 | 53 | 5 | | | | |
| Mediterranean | Forest | | | | | | | | | | | 1 | | 10 | 4 | | | 30 | 15 | 32 | 8 | | | |
| British Isles | Grassland | 1 | 14 | 47 | 24 | 1 | | 4 | 1 | | | 1 | 4 | | | | | | | | 1 | | | 2 |
| Atlantic | Grassland | 1 | 14 | 46 | 22 | | | 4 | | | | 1 | 4 | | | | | | | | 2 | | | 6 |
| Boreal | Grassland | 1 | 14 | 35 | 19 | 4 | | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 6 | | | | | | | | | 6 | | | 8 |
| Continental | Grassland | 1 | 19 | 39 | 21 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 3 | 1 | | | | | | | | | 3 | | | 9 |
| Mediterranean | Grassland | 2 | 43 | 10 | 7 | 2 | | 2 | | | 1 | | | 3 | 13 | 1 | | | | | 5 | | 3 | 8 |
| British Isles | Urban | | 6 | 15 | 1 | | | 32 | | | | | | | | | | | | | 9 | 23 | | 14 |
| Atlantic | Urban | | 6 | 15 | 1 | | | 32 | | | | | | | | | | | | | 9 | 23 | | 14 |
| Boreal | Urban | | 6 | 15 | 1 | | | 32 | | | | | | | | | | | | | 9 | 23 | | 14 |
| Continental | Urban | | 10 | 11 | | | | 32 | | | | | | | | | | | | | 9 | 23 | | 15 |
| Mediterranean | Urban | | 19 | 2 | | | | 36 | | | | | | | | | | | | | 9 | 23 | 8 | 3 |
| British Isles | Arable | | 1 | 3 | 1 | | | | | | | 2 | 3 | | | | | | | | 1 | | | 89 |
| Atlantic | Arable | | 1 | 5 | 3 | | | | | | | 2 | 3 | | | | | | | | 2 | | | 84 |
| Boreal | Arable | | 1 | 4 | 3 | | | | | | | 2 | 2 | | | | | | | | 2 | | | 86 |
| Continental | Arable | | 2 | 3 | 2 | | | | | | | 2 | | | | | | | | | 2 | | 2 | 87 |
| Mediterranean | Arable non-irrigated | | 5 | 3 | 2 | | | | | | | | | 4 | 5 | 1 | | | | | | | | 80 |
| Mediterranean | Arable irrigated | | 1 | 2 | 2 | | | | | | | | | 2 | 3 | | | | | | | | 90 | |
| British Isles | Abandoned | | 5 | 10 | 5 | | 15 | 10 | | | 15 | | | | | | | | 5 | 15 | 10 | | | 10 |
| Atlantic | Abandoned | | 5 | 15 | 5 | | 15 | 5 | | | 15 | | | | | | | | 5 | 15 | 10 | | | 10 |
| Boreal | Abandoned | | 5 | 15 | 10 | | 15 | 5 | | | 10 | | | | | | | | 15 | 5 | 10 | | | 10 |
| Continental | Abandoned | | 10 | 15 | 5 | | 15 | | | | 15 | | | | | | | | 5 | 15 | 10 | | | 10 |
| Mediterranean | Abandoned | | 15 | 5 | 5 | | 35 | | | | | | | | 15 | | | | 5 | 10 | | | | 10 |

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