

The Changes of Soil Seed Banks In Time Series Before And After The Invasive *Artemisia Trifida* Was Removed From Grassland

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1 **The changes of soil seed banks in time series before and after the**
2 **invasive *Artemisia trifida* was removed from grassland**

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10
11 **Abstract** *Artemisia trifida* (giant ragweed) is an invasive weed with an expanding distribution area.
12 In recent years it has been found to invade grasslands, bringing great challenges for effective weed
13 control and restoration of native herbage. Although it has been reported that plant invasion can cause
14 a decline in species richness and biodiversity in native seed banks, which may eventually lead to the
15 depletion of native seed banks, few location- and species-specific case studies have been conducted
16 regarding the dynamic characteristics of the invaded seed banks from invasion back to restoration.
17 The purpose of this study was to compare and quantify the seed banks of grassland communities after
18 (1) giant ragweed invasion for 0-8 years, and (2) giant ragweed removal, in Yili Valley, Xinjiang,
19 China. The results showed that the duration of invasion determined whether giant ragweed could pose
20 a significant threat to the native community seed bank. The seed bank density of native community
21 had significantly decreased by 30.44% after 4 years of invasion, and in the sixth year, the species
22 richness in the seed bank had decreased significantly by 12.36%. After the invasion had lasted for
23 eight years, the seed bank density of the native community had decreased by 83.28%, the species
24 richness in the seed bank decreased by 39.33%, and the seed bank tended to be homogeneous. After
25 the giant ragweed was removed, the potential for restoration was limited by the residual seed bank.
26 Three years after the restoration, although the density of seed banks increased significantly, new
27 growth was dominated by weedy species, rather than crucial components of the grassland habitat.
28 This study is of great significance to the control of giant ragweed and the restoration of grassland
29 vegetation invaded by giant ragweed.

30 **Keywords:** *Artemisia trifida*, biological invasions, seed bank, restoration, grassland

31
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37 **Conflicts of interest/Competing interests**

38 There are no financial, personal interests or beliefs that might affect the objectivity of the results of
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40 no conflict of interest, financial or otherwise. And all authors have declare that: (i) no support,
41 financial or otherwise, has been received from any organization that may have an interest in the

42 submitted work; and (ii) there are no other relationships or activities that could appear to have
43 influenced the submitted work.

44 **Availability of data and material**

45 Data for this study should be obtained by contacting the corresponding author.

46 **Code availability**

47 Not applicable.

48 **Authors' contributions**

49 Hanyue Wang, Tong Liu developed the idea of the study, participated in its design and coordination
50 and helped to draft the manuscript. Hegan Dong, Ruili Wang, Wenxuan Zhao, Xuelian Liu and Wenbin
51 Xu contributed to the acquisition and interpretation of data. All authors read and approved the final
52 manuscript.

53 **Ethics approval**

54 Not applicable.

55 **Consent to participate**

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58 Not applicable.

59 **Introduction**

60 Non-native invasive plant species are now recognized a major threat to ecosystems worldwide
61 (Ehrenfeld 2010; Vilà and Hulme 2017). By virtue of their unique survival advantages, they can
62 overpower local biodiversity and even exterminate entire species (Vilà et al. 2011; Pysek et al. 2012;
63 Gilbert and Levine 2013). For many invasive spermatophytes, soil seed banks enhance the ability to
64 maintain population growth and cause ecological damage (Gioria and Pysek 2016; Skálová et al.
65 2019), especially in annual plants that produce many seeds (Milakovic and Karrer 2016; Goplen et al.
66 2017; Chahal et al. 2018). This has created challenges for the control of invasive plants and to native
67 vegetation restoration.

68 The germination of mature seeds may be delayed for an indefinite period. During this time, the
69 seeds on the surface of or within the soil are likely to form a reserve, known as a soil seed bank
70 (Fenner and Thompson 2005). The seeds of these reserves can be used for risk diversification, such as
71 hedging risk with the germination strategy of long bets (Gremer and Venable 2014), and it is also
72 helpful in maintaining the genetic and trait diversity of the population (Cabin et al. 2000; Mandak et
73 al. 2012). In particular, many invasive annual spermatophytes, such as *Ambrosia artemisiifolia*
74 (Dickerson and Sweet, 1971), *Carrichtera annua* (Cooke et al. 2012), and *Amaranthus palmeri*
75 (Chahal et al. 2018), can produce a large number of seeds by the end of the growing season, so they
76 are more likely to form an effective seed bank in a short time, accelerating the establishment and
77 expansion of the population.

78 These characteristics that are advantageous to invasive plants allow them to fundamentally
79 change the native plant community structure (Mason et al. 2007; Gioria and Osborne 2010). Previous
80 studies have mainly focused on the changes in aboveground vegetation, exploring the impact of
81 invasive plants on native plant communities; however, more and more attention has been paid
82 recently to the relationship between invasive plants and local soil seed banks (Gioria and Osborne
83 2010; Gioria and Pysek 2016), as normal vegetation regeneration depends on the seeds in the soil.
84 Studies have shown that invasive plants can produce higher density and more persistent seed banks in
85 the newly invaded area (Gioria et al. 2019); they can reduce the density of the native community seed
86 banks (Gioria and Osborne 2009), eventually destroying the community structure and reducing plant
87 diversity (Gioria and Osborne 2010; Robertson and Hickman 2012; Dairell and Fidelis 2020).
88 Moreover, research also shows that the resistance of the communities that have been invaded over
89 long time periods is reduced due to the decline in diversity, so, these communities are easily invaded
90 by other species (Marchante et al. 2011). Restoration of community species diversity has become
91 among the main goals in ecology (Klaus et al. 2018; Dairel and Fidelis 2020), but it faces many
92 difficulties (Maclean et al. 2018a; Nsikani et al. 2020). Despite the previously mentioned research,
93 there are few case studies analysing site- and species-specific progression from seed bank to
94 established invasion and back to native vegetation through restoration. Such studies can clarify
95 whether vegetation degradation is caused by plant invasion or other reasons, and can identify the
96 characteristics of seed bank changes in the early stage of the community after the removal of invasive
97 plants, which is of great significance to the restoration (Gioria et al. 2014, 2016; Maclean et al.
98 2018b).

99 Giant ragweed (*Ambrosia trifida* L.) is an invasive annual weed native to North America,
100 belonging to the genus *Ambrosia* (Compositae). Currently, it is distributed worldwide (Montagnani et
101 al. 2017; www.gbif.org), where it poses a threat to natural ecosystems, agricultural production, and
102 human health (Page and Nurse 2015; Regnier et al. 2016; Schaffner et al. 2020). Giant ragweed

103 mainly invades wasteland, roadside, and riverside habitats, as well as important production farmlands
104 (Gudžinskas 1993; Follak et al. 2013; Chauvel et al. 2015). Currently, research on its control is
105 mainly focused on the farmland habitat, where research has identified that it has developed
106 glyphosate resistance due to the long-term and frequent use of herbicides (Vink et al. 2012; Van Horn
107 and Moretti 2018).

108 A special phenomenon occurs when giant ragweed invades grasslands (Montagnani et al. 2017),
109 which poses a great threat to forage yield (Dong et al. 2020). It was first discovered in the Yili Valley,
110 Xinjiang, China in 2010, and its distribution area had expanded to 2150-fold its original size by 2016
111 (Dong et al. 2017). By 2020, this distribution area has expanded 3113-fold, reaching 37900 ha. After
112 4-5 years of invasion with no external control, a single dense stand had formed over the area with
113 nearly 100% population coverage, leading to a seed bank with certain characteristics (Dong et al.
114 2020). However, the effect of giant ragweed on the native seed banks in the process of forming a high
115 coverage population remains unclear. It is also unknown whether the seed banks of the native
116 community have the potential to recover after giant ragweed removal.

117 In order to solve this problem, in this study, we compared the composition of seed banks (1) with
118 different invasion years (8 consecutive years) and (2) at different times after the control (three
119 consecutive years). This enabled us to (1) identify the effects of giant ragweed invasion years on the
120 seed bank composition of native plant communities, and (2) explore the restoration characteristics of
121 native plant communities after giant ragweed removal. Our findings provide guidance for control of
122 giant ragweed invasion in grasslands and restoration of such grasslands.

123

124 **Methods**

125 **Study site**

126 The study area was located in the Yili Valley (80°0942'–84°5650'E, 42°1416'–44°5330'N), west
127 of Tianshan Mountain in Xinjiang, China, with an average annual temperature of 10.4°C and an
128 average annual precipitation of 417.6 mm, it is the wettest area in Xinjiang. Giant ragweed grows
129 mostly in the grasslands of this region, a diverse grazing area with rich chestnut soil, regarded as the
130 source of the 'Chinese wild fruit gene pool'. Large distribution areas and high densities of giant
131 ragweed pose a serious threat to native seedling regeneration (Dong et al. 2020).

132 The selected experimental plots were several connected pastures in pastoral areas where two
133 kinds of gramineous plants, *Festuca elata* and *Lolium perenne*, are dominant, with Plantaginaceae,
134 Leguminosae, Apiaceae, and Asteraceae species distributed among them (see Table 1 for details). We
135 identified the invaded and noninvaded areas based on the morphological characteristics of individuals
136 and populations of giant ragweed: tall plants, 2-4 m in adult height, formed aggregation patches in the
137 invaded areas. Some sections were selected as long-term fixed plots for the experimental study.
138 Because of the rapid diffusion ability of giant ragweed, it formed many populations with different
139 invasion years, and some sections were selected as long-term fixed plots for the experimental study.

140

141 **Fig. 1** Study area within Yili Valley, Xinjiang, China

142

143 **Experiment 1: variation characteristics of invaded seed banks with time series**

144 In order to test the influence of giant ragweed with different invasion years on the composition
145 of native seed banks, we collected seed bank data from November 2018 (non-growth period, before
146 snowfall) to reflect the supplementation of aboveground plants to the seed bank.

147 A total of 480 soil samples were collected from seven sites that had been invaded by giant
148 ragweed for 2-8 years, and the data that invaded by giant ragweed for 1 year were obtained around the
149 site that invaded for 2 years, and also include the data of the native non-invaded areas. Each site
150 contained multiple "patch communities" formed by the invasion of giant ragweed, and that 3 patch
151 communities were tested at each site. Referring to the sampling methods of Robertson (2012) and
152 Ferreras (2015), we randomly set up four 5×5 m plots in each invasive community (in the middle of
153 the invasive community, the edge area was avoided, because the edge may be newly established). The
154 relative coverage of giant ragweed was estimated at the growth peak of mid-August. In the first ten
155 days of November after the end of the growing season, four sampling points were selected from each
156 plot, measuring 20 × 20 cm, 5 cm deep (referring to Dong (2020), as our previous research showed
157 that most of the seeds of giant ragweed gathered at 0–5 cm depth, and Robertson (2012), Dairel (2020)
158 referred that the seeds of grassland herbs were mostly on the surface of soil). Soil was collected, and
159 the four soil sampling points of each plot were mixed separately. The seed bank data of the native
160 non-invaded areas were obtained from around the sites that had been invaded for 1, 3 and 7 years (the
161 data obtained from the site of one year of invasion can be directly used here, because it had just
162 settled here and had not caused harm to the native species and had not spread more seeds into the
163 soil.), where three 20×20 m plots were set in the noninvaded areas and four 5×5 m quadrats were
164 randomly set in each plot. The sampling method was the same as above.

165 For identification and quantification of soil seeds before the collection of soil seed bank samples,
166 all types of spermatophytes on the ground were investigated and recorded, and some seeds were
167 collected during the seed setting period to compare and identify the species in the seed banks. After
168 the soil samples were dried and crushed, the plants and large particles were removed, and the seeds
169 were obtained using meshes with different pore sizes. Smaller seeds were identified using a
170 magnifying glass. The characteristics of the seeds taken from the plants were compared, and all
171 separated seeds were counted.

172 **Experiment 2: Restoration characteristics of native seed banks after removing invasive plants in** 173 **time series**

174 In order to explore the self-recovery potential of the native community after the removal of
175 invasive species, we carried out the control of giant ragweed, and continuously monitored the
176 dynamics of seed banks for three years.

177 In June 2018, an invaded community (one of the communities selected in Experiment 1) was
178 selected at the site with 8 years of invasion, and four 5×5 m plots were set (located near the selected
179 sample in Experiment 1). At the same time, all plants 1 m around each plot were cleared, and each
180 plot was fenced with barbed wire to prevent cattle, sheep, and other animals from entering.

181 We used herbicides for controlling broad-leaved weeds in late June, when the giant ragweed was
182 about 1 m-1.2 m high, in the vegetative growth stage, and its leaves and stems were sprayed. Spraying
183 treatments were carried out for two years, in 2018 and 2019 (when the first spraying was carried out
184 in 2018, the aboveground portion was all giant ragweed, so herbicide was applied indiscriminately in
185 the canopy; in the second year, the spraying was only carried out in the places where giant ragweed
186 grew, so as to avoid damage to other broad-leaved grasses). The seed bank data were collected in
187 these two years and in November 2020, using the same collection method as in Experiment 1. Each
188 sampling point was marked for organizational purposes. The seeds of all species were separated and
189 determined, and the continuous changes in seed bank composition after spraying were compared. The
190 change in canopy coverage of community components (giant ragweed, native plants, blank patch) was

191 estimated with an increase in restoration time.

192 **Data analysis**

193 All data are represented as mean \pm SE, and data analysis was conducted in Excel 2019 and in
194 SPSS 2019. In order to confirm that degradation was caused by giant ragweed invasion, and not by
195 other causes, we selected three of the eight sites (representing 1-8 years of invasion, respectively) in
196 the study area and sampled the noninvaded areas around them. These areas were used to represent the
197 species richness and seed bank density before the invasion. The data distribution characteristics were
198 expressed by a box chart. If the two index values of the invaded area showed a regular decline with
199 the increase in the invasion duration, and were lower than this range midway, then it could be
200 determined that the invasion reduced the species richness and seed bank density. After seed separation,
201 the seed bank density of each species per 1 m² was calculated according to the area. Single factor
202 analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multiple comparisons of least significant difference (LSD) were
203 used to compare (1) the change in seed bank density of native communities, and (2) the change in
204 species composition and richness under different invasion years and different restoration years. When
205 the data did not conform to homogeneity of variance, Welch's ANOVA method was used for analysis.

206

207 **Results**

208 **1 Effects of giant ragweed with different invasion years on seed bank composition of native**
 209 **plant community**

210 Through the identification of the noninvaded seed banks, 32 species belonging to 17 families
 211 were identified (Table 1). We calculated the distribution frequency and estimated the average plant
 212 height of each species.

213 **Table 1** Species and their characteristics in noninvaded area

Families	Species	Life cycle	Plant height (cm)	Frequency
Gramineae	<i>Festuca elata</i>	perennial	110	100.00%
	<i>Lolium perenne</i>	perennial	95	95.83%
	<i>Agrostis matsumurae</i>	perennial	60	54.17%
	<i>Bromus japonicus</i>	annual	55	79.17%
	<i>Eleusine indica</i>	annual	4	75.00%
	<i>Setaria viridis</i>	annual	25	58.33%
	<i>Eragrostis pilosa</i>	annual	25	41.67%
Asteraceae	<i>Achillea millefolium</i>	perennial	35	50.00%
	<i>Cirsium setosum</i>	perennial	115	66.67%
	<i>Taraxacum mongolicum</i>	perennial	15	62.50%
	<i>Cichorium intybus</i>	perennial	85	83.33%
	<i>Arctium lappa</i>	biennial	20	83.33%
	<i>Conyza Canadensis</i>	annual	50	58.33%
	<i>Sonchus oleraceus</i>	annual	40	83.33%
Leguminosae	<i>Sophora alopecuroides</i>	perennial	50	50.00%
	<i>Trifolium pratense</i>	perennial	15	83.33%
	<i>Medicago sativa</i>	perennial	20	83.33%
Chenopodiaceae	<i>Atriplex horuensi</i>	annual	55	66.67%
	<i>Chenopodium album</i>	annual	70	45.83%
Urticaceae	<i>Urtica fissa</i>	perennial	145	83.33%
Papilionaceae	<i>Glycyrrhiza uralensis</i>	perennial	40	75.00%
Ranunculaceae	<i>Thalictrum aquilegifolium</i>	perennial	60	62.50%
Rubiaceae	<i>Galium spurium</i>	perennial	35	66.67%
Rosaceae	<i>Agrimonia pilosa</i>	perennial	65	41.67%
Boraginaceae	<i>Myosotis silvatica</i>	perennial	50	83.33%
Apiaceae	<i>Daucus carota</i>	biennial	125	79.17%
Moraceae	<i>Cannabis sativa</i>	annual	120	95.83%
Plantaginaceae	<i>Plantago depressa</i>	perennial	35	70.83%
Amaranthaceae	<i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i>	annual	30	66.67%
Brassicaceae	<i>Capsella bursa-pastoris</i>	annual	40	75.00%
Labiatae	<i>Salvia japonica</i>	annual	45	58.33%
Balsaminaceae	<i>Impatiens brachycentra</i>	annual	55	45.83%

214

215 The seed bank density in noninvaded area was between 21500 and 37800 seeds per m² (F=2.775,
 216 P=0.077; Fig. 2a) and the number of species was between 20 and 25 (F=0.377, P=0.698; Fig. 2b). On
 217 the ground, the relative coverage of giant ragweed continued to increase with the invasion time,

218 reaching 83.75% ($\pm 79\%$) in the fourth year, reaching 100% in the sixth year of invasion (Fig. 3a). The
 219 seed bank density of the native species community decreased with the increase of the invasion
 220 duration (Fig. 3b; $R^2=0.9336$, $p<0.01$). There was no significant difference between the seed bank
 221 density of the community and that noninvaded area in the first three years of invasion, and the seed
 222 bank density decreased significantly by 30.44% from the fourth year (Fig. 3b). However, the seed
 223 bank density of the dominant species (*Festuca elata* and *Lolium perenne*) decreased significantly by
 224 16.75% from the third year (Fig. 3d). The species richness in the seed banks began to decrease
 225 significantly by 12.36% in the sixth year, and then decreased year by year (Fig. 3c). In terms of
 226 species composition, the seed bank density of Gramineae and non-Gramineae decreased continuously
 227 with the increase of invasion duration (Fig. 3e); The seed bank density of species with different life
 228 cycles (perennial, biennial and annual) also showed a continuous downward trend (Fig. 3f).

229

230 **Fig. 2** The distribution characteristics of (a) seed bank density and (b) species richness in noninvaded
 231 area are represented by box chart

232

233 **Fig. 3** Effects of giant ragweed invasion duration on aboveground relative coverage and underground
 234 seed bank of native community. (a) the changes of relative coverage of giant ragweed with invasion
 235 time; the changes of (b) seed bank density and (c) species richness of native communities; and the
 236 changes of seed bank density with invasion time of (d) two dominant species and (e)
 237 gramineae/non-gramineae (f) and that species with different life cycles. Different letters indicate
 238 significant differences ($p<0.05$) using a least significant difference test

239

240 Chemical control can rapidly consume the soil seed bank and reduce the relative coverage of
 241 aboveground parts. During the vegetative growth period in June, giant ragweed stopped growing until
 242 withered. Most of the giant ragweed plants did not bear seeds or few seeds, which could not
 243 supplement the consumption of seed bank. Compared with the control, the soil seed bank decreased
 244 by 87% in first year; the seed bank of giant ragweed almost disappeared in the third year (Table 2).

245 **Table 2** Effect of chemical control on giant ragweed

Measuring time	Relative coverage	Seed bank density
Before chemical control	100% a	15045.31 \pm 2156.77 a
In 2018	100% a	1975 \pm 494.21 b
In 2019	17.5% \pm 5% b	310.94 \pm 83.76 bc
In 2020	3.75% \pm 2.89% c	17.19 \pm 5.98 c

246 Note: Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) using a least significant difference
 247 test.

248 After chemical control, the relative seed bank density of giant ragweed decreased rapidly until it
 249 disappeared, accompanied by the rapid increase of seed bank density of native plants (Fig. 4a). In the
 250 third year of restoration, the density of seed bank had reached the same level as that of noninvaded
 251 area (Fig. 4a) and the coverage of native community had also been restored (Fig. 4c). However, the
 252 families that had disappeared in the duration of invasion could not be reestablished, and the species
 253 richness decreased by 41.57% compared with that before invasion (Fig. 4b).

254 The relative seed bank density of Compositae and Apiaceae increased 8.79 and 7.77 times
 255 compared with that before restoration, and 4.47 and 12.5 times compared with that before invasion.
 256 The relative seed bank density of biennial plants from 2.93% \pm 1.98% before invasion to 37.7% \pm 18.3%

257 after restoration, increased by 12.87 times (Table 3).

258

259 **Fig. 4** The restoration of (a) native seed bank density, (b) species richness in the seed bank and (c)
 260 native community coverage after removal of giant ragweed. Different acronyms represent different
 261 restoration times that NA (Noninvaded area), BR (Before restoration), FR (The first year of
 262 restoration), SR (The second year of restoration), TR (The third year of restoration). Different letters
 263 indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) using a least significant difference test

264

265 **Table 3** Changes of relative seed bank density (%) of native plants in different families and life cycles
 266 during natural restoration

Class	NA	BR	FR	SR	TR
Gramineae	60.19±13.97ab	53.04±8.92b	54.88±25.95b	76.22±8.78a	43.56±15.09b
Asteraceae	2.44±1.47b	1.24±1.2b	2.52±0.41b	2.77±1.33b	10.9±7.76a
Plantaginaceae	24.33±17.44ab	33.76±13.14a	32.97±24.49a	10.54±9.45c	14.38±9.82ab
Brassicaceae	5.38±3.75	5.23±4.26	2.69±3.76	0.59±0.74	1.75±2.08
Rubiaceae	0.35±0.34	0.22±0.19	/	/	/
Apiaceae	2.2±1.85b	3.54±2.57b	4.69±2.28b	5.47±2.68b	27.49±14.19a
Moraceae	0.96±0.46b	0.87±0.38b	0.66±0.37b	1.99±0.25a	1.03±0.31b
Amaranthaceae	0.99±0.84	1.52±0.91	0.97±0.88	1.43±1.06	0.54±0.4
Leguminosae	0.5±0.58	0.4±0.27	0.25±0.13	0.59±0.29	0.22±0.13
Rosaceae	0.06±0.11	/	/	/	/
Papilionaceae	0.19±0.17	/	/	/	/
Urticaceae	0.86±0.53	/	/	/	/
Boraginaceae	0.87±0.81	/	/	/	/
Balsaminaceae	0.04±0.05	/	/	/	/
Chenopodiaceae	0.35±0.36	0.07±0.17	0.39±0.47	0.41±0.51	0.13±0.16
Ranunculaceae	0.13±0.15	/	/	/	/
Labiatae	0.16±0.39	/	/	/	/
Perennial	50.21±12.21ab	44.68±5.87bc	36.06±14.21c	61.51±6.81a	31.81±14.48c
Annual	46.85±13.14a	50.98±6.6a	57.59±15.01a	31.08±7.4b	30.49±7.06b
Biennial	2.93±1.98b	4.34±2.74b	6.35±1.22b	7.41±2.49b	37.7±18.3a

267 Note: Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) using a least significant difference test.

268

Discussion

269

1. The invasion duration of giant ragweed for 4 years can cause significant damage to the aboveground and underground parts of the grassland community.

270

271

We found that the duration of invasion was correlated to the ecological damage caused by giant
 272 ragweed. The seed bank density of the native community showed a downward trend from the fourth
 273 year of invasion and decreased by 83.28% after 8 years of invasion. For the dominant plants (*Festuca*
 274 *elata* and *Lolium perenne*) in the experimental area, the seed bank density began to decrease
 275 significantly in the third year. Over eight years, the seed bank density of the community decreased
 276 from 30057.85 seeds to 5025 seeds per m², and the seed bank density of the dominant species
 277 decreased from 12888.28 seeds to 2153.12 seeds per m², accounting for 42.88% of the decrease. The
 278 data of seed bank density of the community also showed that the difference of seed banks density
 279 became smaller with an increase in the duration of invasion, indicating that giant ragweed gradually

280 occupied the dominant position in the community seed bank components, making the seed banks
281 highly similar. The species richness of seed banks decreased significantly in the sixth year, and then it
282 decreased significantly every year. In the eighth year, the average number of species from 22.5
283 dropped to 13.5.

284 There is debate as to whether changes in the seed banks of native and alien species are a
285 symptom of environmental degradation prior to plant invasion, or whether they are its direct result
286 (Gioria et al. 2014); and plant invasion maybe not necessarily affect the species richness or density of
287 native seed banks (Robertson and Hickman 2012). These are controversial issues. However, an
288 increasing number of studies have shown that the seed bank of invasive plants is one of the important
289 reasons for their successful invasion as many invasive plants can form seed banks with certain
290 characteristics in new habitats (Strydom et al. 2017; Gioria et al. 2019) and the relative seed bank
291 size of invasive plants in newly formed communities will increase with the duration of invasion
292 (Dairel and Fidelis 2020), causing the species richness and density of invaded seed banks to decrease
293 significantly. However, due to the lack of continuous observation data of target invasive plants from
294 establishment to hazard, it is difficult to quantify the specific impact of different invasion durations on
295 native seed banks. To solve this problem, we need to know the state of the community before it was
296 invaded, and the continuous change of the invaded and uninvaded areas with time. However, there are
297 only a few such cases.

298 We compared pre- and post-invasion data to examine the cause-effect nature of invasion. Our
299 investigation of non-invaded areas revealed that 20-25 species in the original non-invaded
300 communities, and the seed bank density in November was between and 21500-37800 seeds per m². As
301 seen in Figure[2], the two index values of the invaded area show a regular decline with the increase in
302 the invasion duration and are lower than this range midway, indicating that the invasion reduced the
303 species richness and seed bank density.

304 These results indicate that the duration of invasion is key to reducing the native species diversity
305 of invasive plants. The data showed that the seed bank density of the original noninvaded
306 communities were differences (30057.85±9393.64). However, with the increase in invasion time, the
307 seed bank density of the native communities decreased significantly and became more homogeneous.
308 Eight years later, the seed bank density of giant ragweed reached 14796.88±98 grains per m²,
309 accounting for 74.63% of the new community.

310 **2. The control of invasive giant ragweed has higher technical requirements, but a rapid** 311 **control effect can be achieved by restraining or reducing the input of giant ragweed plants** 312 **into the soil seed bank.**

313 Records show that giant ragweed mainly grows near the river bank and equidistant from the
314 water source, or on the edge of cultivated land (mainly corn, soybean, cotton fields) or on both sides
315 of railway or wasteland (Gudzinskas 1993; Follak et al. 2013; Chauvel et al. 2015; Emilie et al.
316 2016).

317 There are special requirements for the chemical control of giant ragweed invading grassland. Our
318 survey found that the species richness of grassland was higher than that of farmland, roadside,
319 wasteland, and other habitats, and as animal husbandry land, the requirements for safe drug use are
320 more stringent. Therefore, it is necessary to develop special chemical control methods based on their
321 growth and reproduction characteristics.

322 It is newly recorded that giant ragweed invades grassland and causes serious damage. Through
323 previous studies (Dong et al. 2020) and this study, it was found that a large number of seeds are

324 produced every year, which is an important reason why giant ragweed can cause damage to the
325 grassland. With the increase in invasion years, a dense forest population was formed in the
326 aboveground portion of the studied ecosystem. The relative coverage of the population expanded
327 explosively in the fourth year, reaching 83.75%, and reaching 100% by the sixth year (Fig. 3a). The
328 plant height of giant ragweed invading grassland is generally 2-4 m, which is higher than that of
329 native plants (Table 1). Therefore, giant ragweed has more advantages in the competition for light
330 resources. It can suppress the resources of other plants on the ground, so that native plants cannot
331 effectively supplement native seed banks. From the second year of invasion, the relative seed bank
332 density of giant ragweed reached 3.15%, and then increased significantly every year, reaching 74.63%
333 in the eighth year (Fig. 3e) and becoming the main component of underground soil seed banks.
334 However, more than 98.66% of its seeds are consumed in one year, and a few of them are actually
335 used for germination (Dong et al. 2020). Therefore, it can be said that the high seed bank density
336 generated in that year is the basis for the formation of a dense population of giant ragweed in the
337 following year.

338 As mentioned earlier, invasive spermatophytes can often produce a large number of seeds, which
339 can easily form seed banks in invasive areas and increase their invasion potential (Passos et al. 2017;
340 Nguyen et al. 2017; Maclean et al. 2018a; Gioria et al. 2019). Based on previous studies, it was found
341 that the best control method for these invasive plants is to forbid produce seeds and consume the
342 existing underground seed banks. For example, mowing or biological control of ragweed (*Ambrosia*
343 *artemisiifolia*) in a specific period can reduce its seed yield and consume the seed bank (Basky et al.
344 2017; Lommen et al. 2018; Augustinus et al. 2020). In farmland, the control can be achieved by
345 formulating a rotation system between different crops to inhibit the germination of giant ragweed
346 seeds and consume its seed bank (Goplen et al. 2017). This study showed that the use of specific
347 chemicals in the specific growth period of giant ragweed could inhibit seed production and rapidly
348 consume its soil seed bank. The density of seed banks could be reduced by 86.87% in the year of
349 application, and the soil seed bank and aboveground population almost disappeared in the third year
350 (Table 2), so as to achieve effective weed control.

351 **3. The potential of natural restoration after removal of invasive plants is limited and the** 352 **characteristics of seed bank restoration are species-specific.**

353 The first goal in prevention and control is to remove invasive plants from the community.
354 Second is to ensure that the community can recover species diversity before re-invasion (Klaus et al.
355 2018; Dairel and Fidelis 2020). However, clearing invasive plants often facilitates secondary invasion
356 and/or weedy native species dominance instead of native biodiversity recovery, and therefore, it has
357 limited natural restoration potential (Nsikani et al. 2020; Maclean et al. 2018a, b).

358 The results showed that the original species diversity could not be restored in a short time after
359 the invasive plants were removed from the community. Based on the empty niche hypothesis, other
360 invasive plants or residual species may occupy the spaces left after giant ragweed removal
361 (O'Loughlin and Green 2017; Maclean et al. 2018a). After the giant ragweed was removed, very few
362 native species remaining in the seed banks quickly responded to the habitat changes, successfully
363 re-established, and proliferated in large numbers in the community, occupying the blank patch. In the
364 third year of restoration, a few native plant species had completely covered the blank niche left by the
365 control (Fig. 4c), and the species that had disappeared before the control could not re-enter in a short
366 time.

367 We found that the relative seed bank density of Compositae and Apiaceae was significantly

368 higher than that of non-invaded area after 3 years of restoration in weed control area (Table 3),
369 reaching 4.47-fold and 12.5-fold of non-invaded area, respectively. The relative seed bank density of
370 biennial plants was 12.87-fold higher than that of non-invaded areas. Biennial plants rapidly occupied
371 the niche left by giant ragweed removal and produced a large number of seeds, while the seed bank of
372 other plants either had no significant change in three years or had no regularity of change (Table 3).
373 Biennial plants can germinate in autumn or before snowfall and overwinter as seedlings. At this time,
374 the giant ragweed has ended its life cycle. In the second year, giant ragweed begins to germinate in
375 large quantities during snow melting, and the number of seedlings exceeds 800 plants per m², which
376 is advantageous for germination time (Margherita et al. 2016), limiting the growth of other plants.
377 Biennial plants, such as wild carrots belong to Umbelliferae, begin to grow rapidly at this time (April),
378 and when giant ragweed is still in the vegetative growth stages (May to July), it has already begun to
379 blossom and pollinate. When giant ragweed enters the flowering stage (July August), the biennial
380 plants have already fruited and are about to end their life. Therefore, we speculate that this misplaced
381 life cycle is an important reason for biennial plants could still survive in grasslands invaded by giant
382 ragweed and get the advantage after giant ragweed removed.

383 In summary, short-term (8-year) invasion seriously damaged the structure of the grassland
384 community. Different plant species exhibit different restoration characteristics. A community with less
385 diversity, dominated by some native non-dominant plants (biennial plants) has been reconstructed
386 after invasion. So we suggest that the restoration of diversity can be assisted by the addition of annual
387 and perennial seeds at the same time as chemical control.

388 **Conclusions**

389 Our study showed that giant ragweed invasion not only threatened the aboveground part of the
390 native community, as the relative coverage reached 100% in a short time (six years), but also
391 gradually became the main component of the seed banks (the proportion of giant ragweed in the seed
392 bank reached 74.63% after eight years). After eight years of continuous invasion, the native plants
393 almost only existed in the seed banks, the species richness decreased by 39.33%, the native seed bank
394 density decreased by 83.28%, and the seed banks tended to be homogenized. After removing the
395 aboveground and underground giant ragweed, the restoration potential of the invaded community was
396 very limited. Only some native species were re-established, the species diversity was almost
397 unchanged, and only the abundance changed. Therefore, artificial sowing of seeds from native plants
398 that are lacking at the same time as chemical control is necessary to restore plant diversity.

399 This study adds detailed time dimension information to the understanding of the impact of
400 invasive plants on community seed banks so that we can clearly understand the changes in
401 community seed bank composition during the process of invasive plants from establishment to hazard,
402 as well as clarify the rapid changes in community seed bank composition after the removal of
403 invasive plants. This information can be used to determine whether a community has potential for
404 natural restoration, and plays an important role in the control of giant ragweed and the vegetation
405 restoration of grasslands.

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Figures

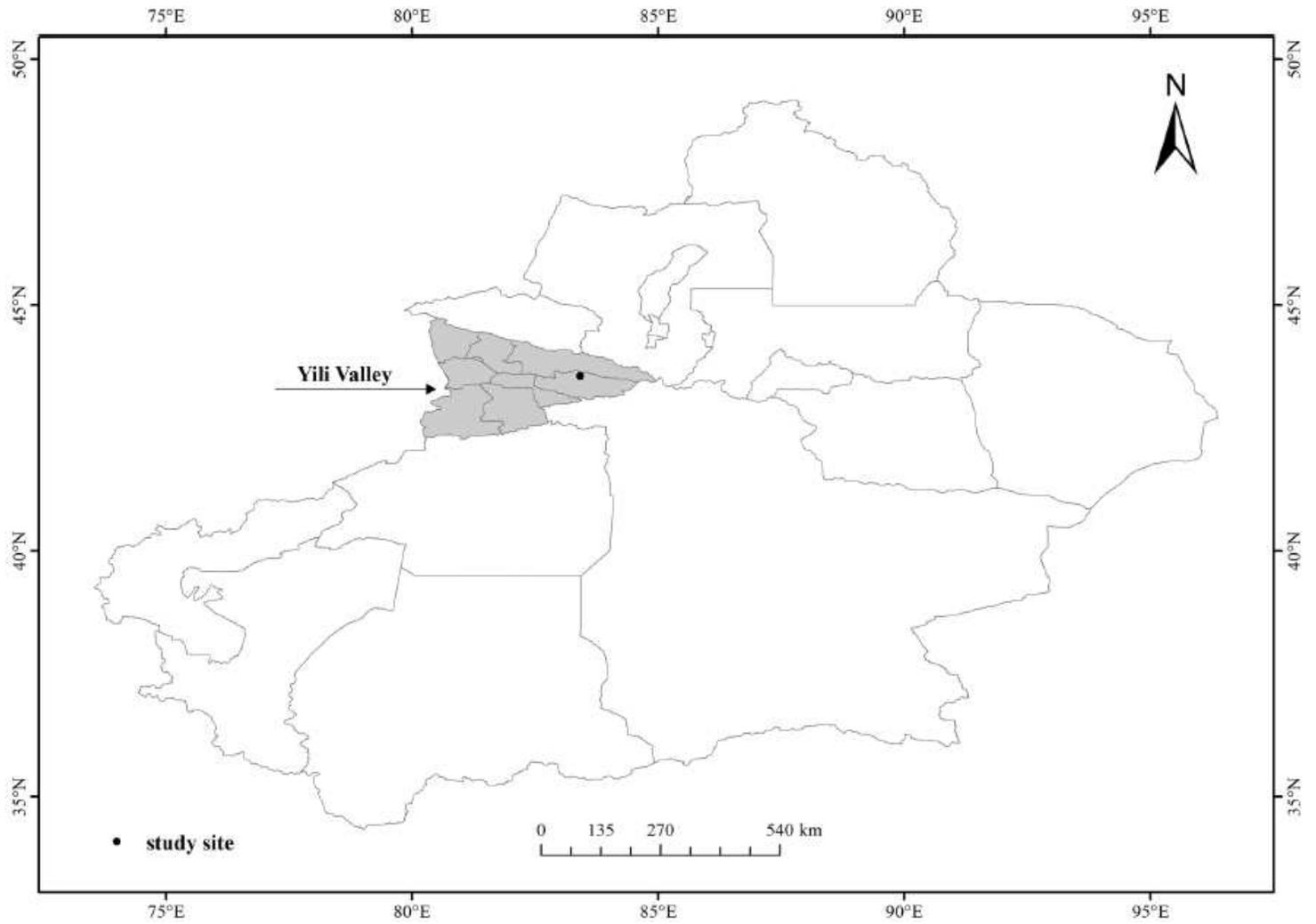


Figure 1

Study area within Yili Valley, Xinjiang, China Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

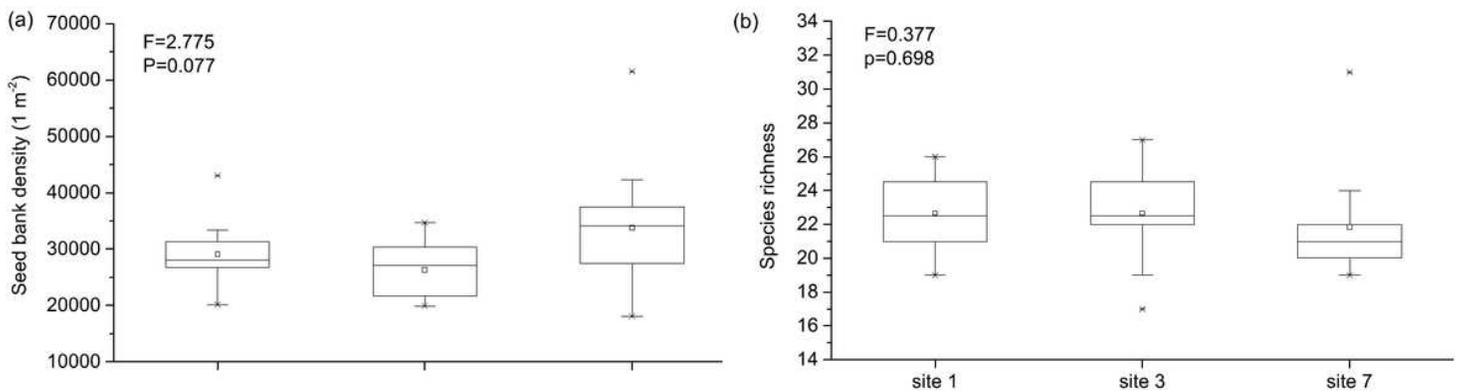


Figure 2

The distribution characteristics of (a) seed bank density and (b) species richness in noninvaded area are represented by box chart

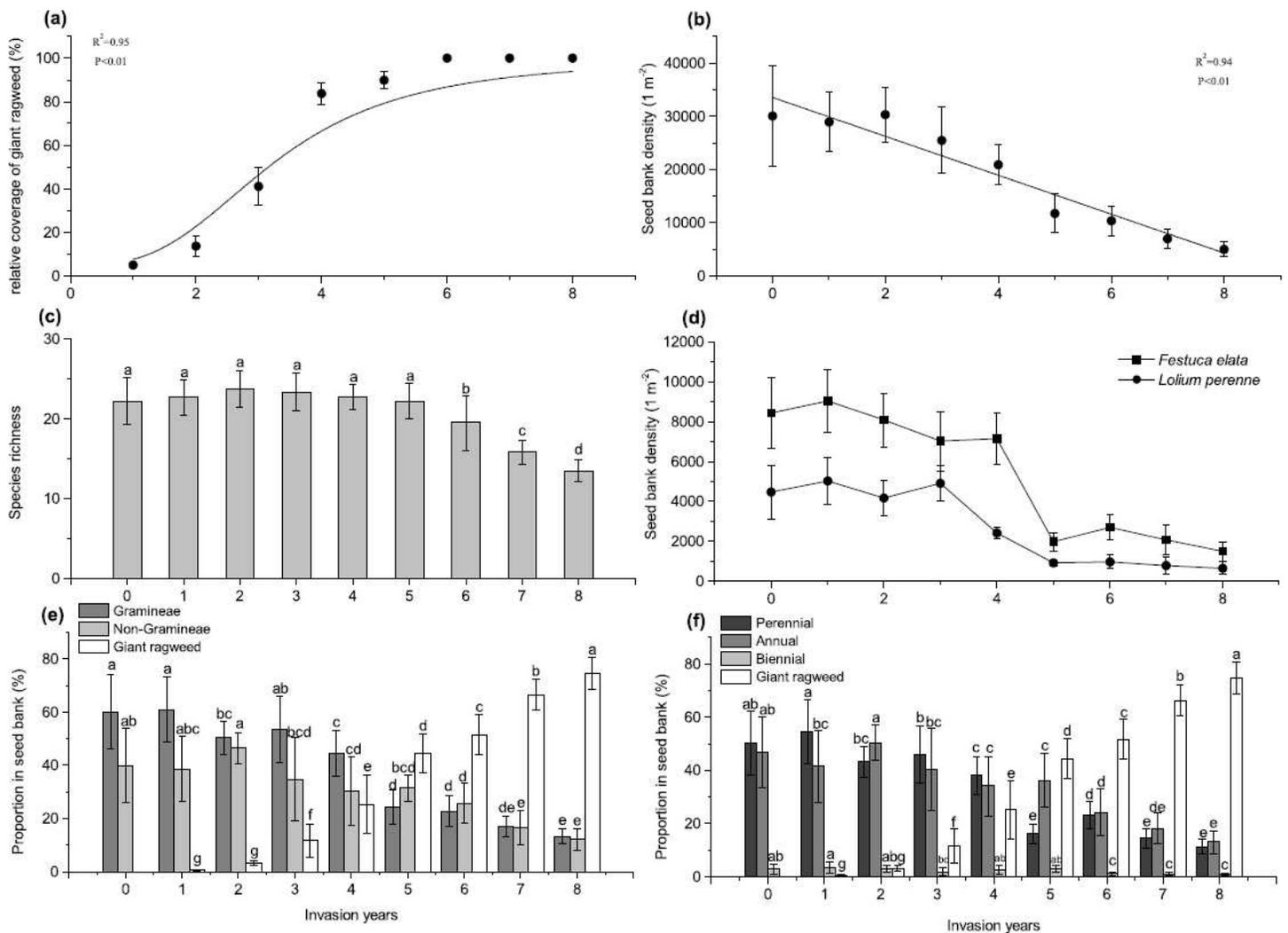


Figure 3

Effects of giant ragweed invasion duration on aboveground relative coverage and underground seed bank of native community. (a) the changes of relative coverage of giant ragweed with invasion time; the changes of (b) seed bank density and (c) species richness of native communities; and the changes of seed bank density with invasion time of (d) two dominant species and (e) gramineae/non-gramineae (f) and that species with different life cycles. Different letters indicate significant differences ($p<0.05$) using a least significant difference test

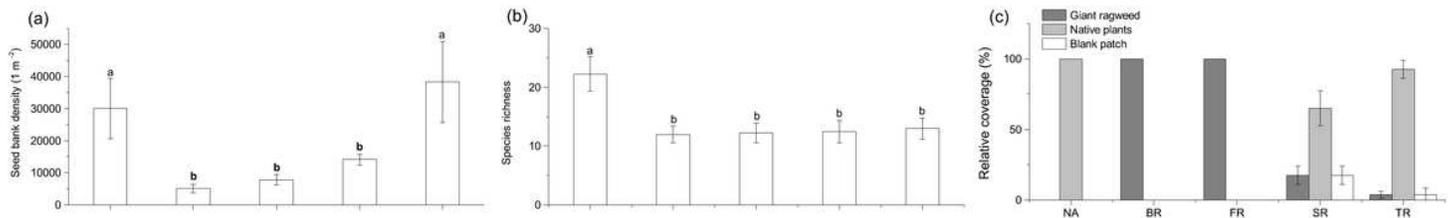


Figure 4

The restoration of (a) native seed bank density, (b) species richness in the seed bank and (c) native community coverage after removal of giant ragweed. Different acronyms represent different restoration times that NA (Noninvaded area), BR (Before restoration), FR (The first year of restoration), SR (The second year of restoration), TR (The third year of restoration). Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) using a least significant difference test