

Nuisance species compromise carbon sequestration potential in an Eastern US temperate deciduous forest

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Summary

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- The future of the critical temperate forest carbon (C) sink is contingent on the role of nuisance species, including non-indigenous pests and pathogens and deer, yet their net effect on current and future C cycling is little understood. Here, we use 15 years of census data from a 25.6-ha plot in a Mid-Atlantic temperate forest to understand how nuisance species are affecting C sequestration.
- We analyzed biomass change and regenerative capacity in varying sections of the plot classified by deer browsing pressure and the abundance of species vulnerable to nonindigenous pests and pathogens.
- Biomass mortality increased, driving a net reduction in aboveground C storage, particularly in areas where canopy trees were vulnerable to non-indigenous pests and pathogens. There was also severe depletion of canopy tree species in the understory in areas with high deer browsing, endangering future canopy regeneration.
- Under current trends this forest will continue to lose living biomass and be in danger of a critical transition to a lower biomass ecosystem. The C sequestration of Eastern US deciduous forests is therefore likely overestimated in current global carbon models, and these forests could even transition to a net source of C in the future.

Policy.

Keywords:

- Pests and pathogens; temperate forests; carbon sequestration; white-tailed deer; ecosystem
- 56 processes; invasive species

1 Introduction

- 59 The temperate forest biome plays a critical role in the global carbon cycle (C), accounting for 60 almost half of the net global forest C sink (Harris et al., 2021), and temperate deciduous forests 61 alone sequester >300 Tg C yr⁻¹ (Pugh et al., 2019). Although it is currently a net C sink, the future 62 of the temperate forest biome remains uncertain. The dominant pattern projected by Earth 63 System Models is a continued, albeit weakening, temperate forest C sink for the remainder of 64 the 21st century (Ahlström et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2023). Yet, global C models predict a wide range of future trajectories of carbon dioxide (CO₂) sequestration (Ahlström et al., 2012; Arora et 65 66 al., 2020), and current global C models do not represent certain influential mechanisms (e.g., Fatichi et al., 2014; Clark et al., 2021). For instance, the impact of nuisance species, is not 67 68 represented in global C - i.e., the impact of indigenous or non-indigenous species that, as a 69 result of human influence, have much greater abundance in an ecosystem than they did 70 historically, leading to detrimental ecological consequences (Nuñez et al., 2010; Skandrani et al., 71 2014). The impact of nuisance species on forest C budgets is also not considered in machine 72 learning or niche models that seek to project future forest distribution and C stocks, nor is it in 73 C offset projects (Wu et al., 2023). Nuisance species, including non-indigenous insect pests and 74 pathogens and over-abundant herbivores, are dramatically impacting carbon cycling in 75 temperate deciduous forests around the world, and failure to account for them significantly 76 limits understanding of future forest health and C sequestration potential.
- 77 Non-indigenous pests and pathogens can have a protracted impact on forests, often modifying 78 forest productivity, nutrient cycling and successional trajectories (Herms & McCullough, 2014; 79 Lovett et al., 2016). Historically introduced to new ecosystems through intercontinental trade, 80 non-indigenous forest insects and diseases will continue to proliferate with increased 81 globalization and human movement (Brockerhoff et al., 2006; Aukema et al., 2010; Fischer et al., 82 2013). Many of the prominent pests and pathogens in temperate deciduous forests have 83 dramatic effects on canopy composition and structure, decimating once-abundant canopy species (Aukema et al., 2010; Klooster et al., 2014; Ellison et al., 2018; Anderson-Teixeira et al., 84 85 2021). Since many pests and pathogens do not currently occupy the full extent of their host species range, a significant portion of the remaining forest canopy is susceptible to future 86 invasion by other nuisance species (Fei et al., 2019). 87
- 88 Mammals whose population densities have been inflated due to human activities are also 89 considered nuisance species (Clout & Russell, 2008; Murphy et al., 2014), and in United States 90 (US) eastern deciduous forests, this includes white-tailed deer (Odocoileus virginianus). Their 91 populations have dramatically increased in the past 50 years (McShea et al., 2003), due in large 92 part to global change (Brown et al., 2000; Rooney, 2001; Côté et al., 2004). White-tailed deer 93 preferentially browse on woody plant species in the seedling and sapling life stages, which 94 reduces woody plant survival, growth and density (McGarvey et al., 2013). Chronic white-tailed 95 deer overabundance can reduce understory plant diversity and decrease the abundance of 96 traditionally dominant woody species (e.g., oak, Quercus spp.; Bugalho et al., 2013; Habeck & 97 Schultz, 2015) while giving an advantage to species they find less palatable, including both 98 indigenous (e.g., pawpaw, Asimina tribola; spicebush, Lindera benzoin) and non-indigenous (e.g.,

- 99 garlic mustard, Alliaria petiolata) species (Averill et al. 2017). The strong impact of deer browsing,
- 100 exacerbated by competition with dense deer-resistant understory vegetation and possibly
- 101 climate change, results in dramatic reduction of canopy tree species in the understory
- 102 (McGarvey et al., 2013; Russell et al., 2017; Miller & McGill, 2019; Gorchov et al., 2021; Miller et
- 103 al., 2023).
- 104 Increased canopy tree mortality in combination with reduced canopy species recruitment in the
- understory is likely to have profound impacts on the deciduous forests of eastern North
- 106 America. When global change pressures (e.g., climate change, nuisance species) inhibit
- 107 recruitment of canopy species, the stage is set for disturbances to push forest ecosystems over a
- tipping point, after which there is little chance that a forest will recover to its pre-disturbance
- state in the foreseeable future (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2013; McDowell et al., 2020; Turner &
- Seidl, 2023). In the mid-Atlantic region of the eastern US, forests face a severe regeneration debt:
- there are insufficient juveniles of canopy tree species to replace the mature cohort of that species
- when they eventually die (Miller & McGill, 2019; Miller et al., 2023). The juvenile canopy trees
- that are most common in contemporary mid-Atlantic forests represent a more mesophytic set of
- species (e.g., maple, Acer spp.; American beech, Fagus grandifolia) than historically dominated
- much of the region (e.g., oak, *Quercus* spp.; hickory, *Carya* spp.; Thompson *et al.*, 2013; Nowacki
- 416 & Abrams, 2015), but even these species associated with mesic conditions are often not present
- in sufficient abundance to replace the current canopy (Miller & McGill, 2019).
- 118 Understanding the combined effects of multiple nuisance species on forest ecosystem processes
- requires data on both the forest canopy and understory over an extended time. Here, we use 15
- 120 years of detailed tree census data from a large forest dynamics plot in the mid-Atlantic region of
- the eastern US to understand the effects of non-indigenous pests and pathogens and white-
- tailed deer on the forest C balance and regeneration potential. We test the following hypotheses:
- 123 (1) canopy tree mortality and associated woody biomass loss are increasing, in large part due to
- 124 non-indigenous nuisance species, (2) biomass gains from tree growth and recruitment have not
- kept pace with tree mortality, resulting in a decline in above ground living biomass (- Δ AGB),
- and (3) deer browsing has decimated the abundance of canopy tree saplings, suggesting that
- 127 future tree mortality will result in substantial net biomass loss and sustained decrease in the C
- storage potential of this ecosystem.

2 Materials and Methods

130 **2.1** Site Description

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- 131 The study was conducted in the 25.6-hectare Forest Dynamics plot at the Smithsonian's
- National Zoo and Conservation Biology Institute (SCBI) in Front Royal, Virginia (38° 53′ 36.6″N,
- 133 78° 08′ 43.4″W). The forest dynamics plot, which is located in the central Appalachian
- Mountains adjacent to Shenandoah National Park, is composed of mature secondary eastern
- deciduous forest. As part of the Appalachian Oak forest region, the canopy is dominated by
- tulip poplar (Liriodendron tulipifera), oak (Quercus spp.), and hickory (Carya spp.) and the
- understory is primarily composed of spicebush (Lindera benzoin), paw-paw (Asimina triloba),

138 American hornbeam (Carpinus caroliniana), and witch hazel (Hamamelis virginiana). The land-use 139 history of the site is varied, including periods of agricultural development and intensive 140 logging, with dendrological data estimating canopy tree establishment around 1900 (SI 141 archives; McGarvey et al., 2013; Bourg et al., 2013). The plot, which includes a four-hectare deer 142 exclosure that has decreased the presence of deer since 1990, is divided into 640 quadrats, each 143 measuring 20 x 20 meters. It is one of 78 sites in the Forest Global Earth Observatory 144 (ForestGEO), a global network of forest dynamic plots that facilitates comparative forest 145 ecology studies around the world (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2015; Davies et al., 2021). 146 In addition to our consideration of the entire forest plot, we focus further on three upland forest 147 portions of the plot (i.e., excluding low-lying areas around streams), with varying levels of exposure to non-indigenous insects and pathogens and white-tailed deer (Fig. 1). The first focal 148 area we define as "low deer, low canopy vulnerability": a 4-ha portion of upland forest in the 149 SE quarter of the plot (Fig. 1a), fenced in 1990 and maintained with only occasional deer 150 151 presence over the past 24 years. This portion has a low abundance of canopy species vulnerable 152 to non-indigenous pests and pathogens (Holm et al., 2013). The second portion is "high deer, 153 low canopy vulnerability": 16.3 ha of upland forest area outside the deer exclosure with low 154 abundance of canopy species affected by non-indigenous pests and pathogens (Fig. 1b). The 155 third focal area of the plot is "high deer, high canopy vulnerability": corresponding to 2.2 ha of 156 upland forest outside the deer exclosure with high abundance of canopy species affected by 157 non-indigenous pests and pathogens. We defined upland forest according to topographic wetness index, which was calculated for the forest plot by McGregor et al. (2021). We defined 158 159 vulnerability to non-indigenous insects and pathogens based on the abundance (>20% of tree basal area) of canopy species affected by non-indigenous pests and pathogens at the time of plot 160 161 establishment in 2008. The following canopy species were identified as vulnerable: ash (Fraxinus spp.), elm (*Ulmus* spp.), butternut (*Juglans cinerea*), and American chestnut (*Castanea dentata*) 162 163 (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2021).

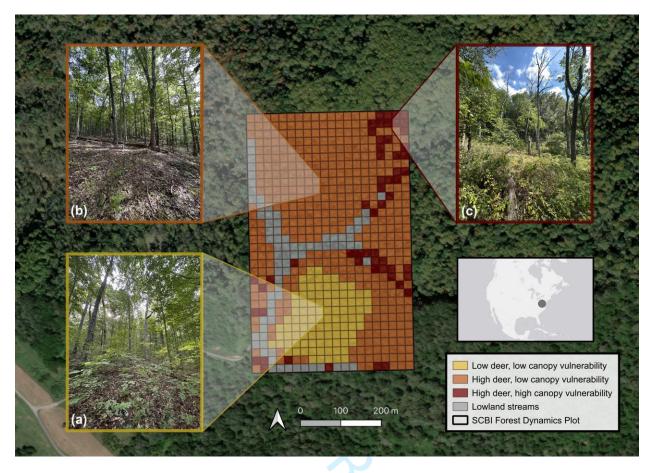


Figure 1. Map and photos of the Forest Global Earth Observatory (ForestGEO) plot at the Smithsonian's Conservation Biology Institute (SCBI) in Virginia, USA. Our analysis focuses on three portions of the plot: (a) low deer density, low abundance of canopy trees vulnerable to non-indigenous insects & pathogens, (b) high deer density, low abundance of canopy trees vulnerable to non-indigenous insects & pathogens, and (c) high deer density, high abundance of canopy trees vulnerable to non-indigenous insects & pathogens. All photos taken September 2023 by K. Anderson-Teixeira; aerial photography from ESRI World Imagery.

2.2 Data collection

As part of the ForestGEO network, the plot undergoes a comprehensive woody plant inventory every five years following the protocol detailed in Condit (1998). This inventory, hereafter referred to as the census, includes all stems greater than one centimeter in diameter at breast height (1.3 meters; dbh). The census records the dbh, species, living status, and spatial location of each censused stem. Each individual is marked with an identifying number for sequential data collection in subsequent censuses. In multi-stemmed individuals, each additional stem that surpasses the dbh threshold receives a stem number and associated tag. The plot was established in 2008 and recensused three times since (2013, 2018, 2023), providing 15 years of forest dynamics data. In the last census, systematic data cleaning was continuously implemented 1) in an ESRI ArcGIS Field Maps application via built-in checks and 2) on a daily basis, via error reports generated through GitHub actions (Kim *et al.*, 2022). Each stem's location

- 184 was recorded in the Field Maps application using a digitized map of the plot. In addition to the
- 185 ForestGEO census, a tree health and mortality survey has been conducted annually starting in
- 186 2014 on all trees with a dbh \geq 10 cm in the previous census (Gonzalez-Akre *et al.*, 2016). Data
- were collected on the current status, canopy position, percentage of living and intact crown, and
- visible indicators of tree health, (e.g. physical damage, potential pathogens, insect infestation).

2.3 Calculating biomass dynamics and stem recruitment

- 190 We estimated total aboveground biomass (AGB) from the dbh of each stem in each census using
- 191 extra-tropical allometric equations from the R package allodb (Gonzalez-Akre et al., 2022). The
- 192 *allodb* package creates species-specific allometric equations by weighting all applicable
- allometries within its database filtered by tree size, geography, and taxonomic information.
- 194 Using the calculated stem AGB, we estimated AGB stocks at each census year for each of the
- plot regions, as well as the entire 25.6-ha plot. We quantified trends in AGB over time by
- calculating annualized AGB fluxes including: 1) the net change in AGB, 2) aboveground woody
- 197 growth (AWG; the addition of woody biomass from tree growth), 3) aboveground woody
- mortality (AWM; the change of living biomass to necromass due to tree mortality), and 4)
- aboveground woody recruitment (AWR; the addition of living biomass through recruitment)
- for each census interval and plot region. We further assessed the role of nuisance species on
- 201 mortality by calculating AWM flux for each year and each species using the annual mortality
- survey data (excluding stems < 10 cm dbh).
- In addition to the estimation of AWR biomass flux, we analyzed the possible effects of nuisance
- species on recruitment based on counts of newly recruited stems. We categorized each species
- as either canopy or understory based on expert knowledge of life history traits. *Quercus* spp.
- and Carya spp. were grouped by genera to better assess differences between the recruitment of
- 207 canopy and understory species. We then calculated the number of new stems for each census
- interval for each species or genera. Finally, we assessed the spatial overlap of biomass loss and
- recruitment of canopy species. We calculated the \triangle AGB of canopy trees within each 0.4 hectare
- quadrat between 2008 and 2023 and the AGB of canopy species in the understory in 2023.

211 3 Results

- 212 Consistent with hypothesis 1, all sections of the plot experienced increased mortality (AWM)
- since plot establishment in 2008 (Figure 2b). The largest increases in mortality occurred in areas
- with the highest vulnerability to non-indigenous pests and pathogens. Initially, plot-level AWM
- 215 remained constant, maintaining rates of 1.5 and 1.4 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in the first two census
- 216 intervals. However, in the most recent period from 2018 to 2023, AWM increased to 3 Mg C ha⁻¹
- 217 yr⁻¹. Despite initial uniformity in AWM across all plot regions, high canopy vulnerability areas
- 218 experienced substantial increases in AWM across all censuses, resulting in a three-fold increase
- 219 in AWM from the first to most recent interval. Low canopy vulnerability regions displayed
- smaller rises in AWM and only in the final survey period.

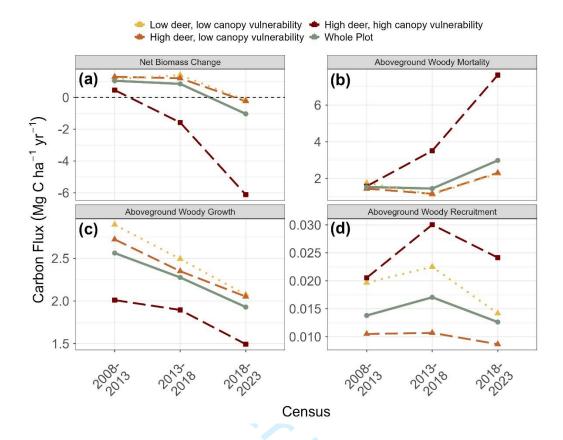


Figure 2. Changes in aboveground woody biomass at the SCBI ForestGEO plot over each census interval since 2008 establishment, including (a) net change, (b) losses to mortality, and gains from (c) woody productivity and (d) recruitment. Values are shown for the plot as a whole and for regions differentiated by intensity of deer browsing and 2008 abundance of canopy tree species vulnerable to non-indigenous pests and pathogens.

Though AWM increased throughout the plot AWM rates remained stable in a majority of individual species. The increasing trend of AWM was driven primarily by two species: white ash (*Fraxinus americana*) and black oak (*Quercus velutina*) (Figure 3). *Fraxinus americana*, the host species for non-indigenous pest emerald ash borer (*Agrilus planipennis*), had the highest annual AWM of any species present on the plot, with an average flux of 1.5 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and loss peaking at 5.3 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 2020. *Quercus velutina* experienced the second-highest rate of AWM at a rate of 0.9 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. The average annual AWM of these two species (2.5 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), was higher than that of all other species combined (1.2 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Moreover, both species exhibited significant increases in AWM since the start of the census, a trend also observed in three other species in the Oak genera—*Quercus rubra*, *Quercus prinus* and *Quercus alba*.

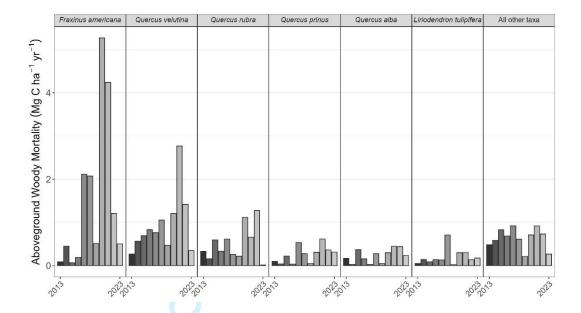


Figure 3. Annual woody mortality by species at the SCBI ForestGEO plot from 2008-2023. Shown are the six canopy taxa with highest average mortality rate in descending order and a category including all others. The census included all stems ≥ 10 cm in the most recent full census.

Consistent with hypothesis 2, biomass losses to mortality outpaced biomass gains from tree growth over the 2018-23 census interval (Figure 2a). For the first time since establishment of the SCBI ForestGEO plot, living aboveground C stocks (AGB) decreased between 2018 and 2023 (Figure 4), declining from 145.9 to 140.9 Mg C ha-1. Prior to this period, AGB had consistently increased at a rate of 2.6 Mg C ha-1 yr -1 between 2008 and 2018 (Figure 2a). In regions characterized by high deer density and high canopy vulnerability, > 33% of AGB was lost over the past two censuses: dropping from 115.8 Mg C ha-1 in 2013 to 107.7 Mg C ha-1 in 2018 and then to 77 Mg C ha-1 in 2023. Conversely, areas with low density of vulnerable canopy species experienced marginal losses of AGB between 2018 and 2023; both inside and outside of the deer exclosure, biomass decreased from 154.3 to 153.3 Mg C ha-1 and 164.6 to 163.6 Mg C ha-1, respectively.

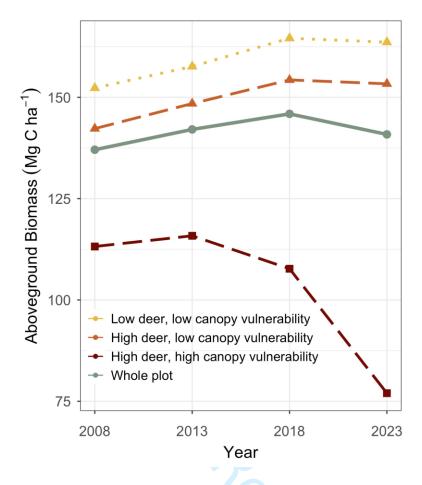


Figure 4. Aboveground biomass at the SCBI ForestGEO plot since 2008 establishment. Values are shown for the plot as a whole and for regions differentiated by intensity of deer browsing and 2008 abundance of canopy tree species vulnerable to non-indigenous pests and pathogens.

Transition from net AGB accumulation to loss was not solely attributable to increased mortality; biomass accrual from woody growth (AWG) declined across all census intervals, even when AWM did not increase (Figure 2c). Plot-wide AWG decreased by -30 %, from 2.6 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ over 2008-2013 to 1.9 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in the 2018-2023 interval. Areas with low canopy vulnerability consistently displayed the highest AWG (2.1 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in the 2018-2023 period), while the AWG in the portion with high canopy vulnerability was significantly lower (1.5Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Woody recruitment flux (AWR), constituting a minor fraction of net biomass change, showed no significant temporal trend (Figure 2d). AWR consistently remained lowest in areas characterized by high deer density and low canopy vulnerability, whereas it reached its highest levels in regions with high canopy vulnerability, recording rates of 0.01 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and 0.025 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, respectively.

Consistent with hypothesis 3, deer density had strong mediating effects on the composition of woody stem recruitment (Figure 5). The region characterized by low deer density exhibited significantly higher annual recruitment of canopy taxa compared to those areas with higher deer density—specifically, 38.7 stems ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ compared to 19 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. In particular, the

recruitment rate of *Carya* spp. and *Quercus* spp., late-successional taxa characteristic of this forest's expected climax state, was reduced by > 50% in areas with high deer density. The prevalence of vulnerable canopy species in regions with low deer density showed no significant impact on the total quantity of canopy species recruitment into the understory. However, recruitment of *Fraxinus americana* and *Fagus grandifolia* was higher in areas with high canopy vulnerability, while recruitment of *Ulmus rubra* and *Carya* spp. was lower. Across all regions, the recruitment rate of understory taxa was nearly 10 times that of canopy taxa. Recruitment of *Lindera benzoin* was high across all regions (> 100 stems ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and significantly increased in areas with high deer densities while peaking in areas that also had low canopy vulnerability. *Asimina triloba* recruitment was also lowest within the deer exclosure (18.6 stems ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) but was highest in the region with high deer density and high canopy vulnerability (76.6 stems ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹).

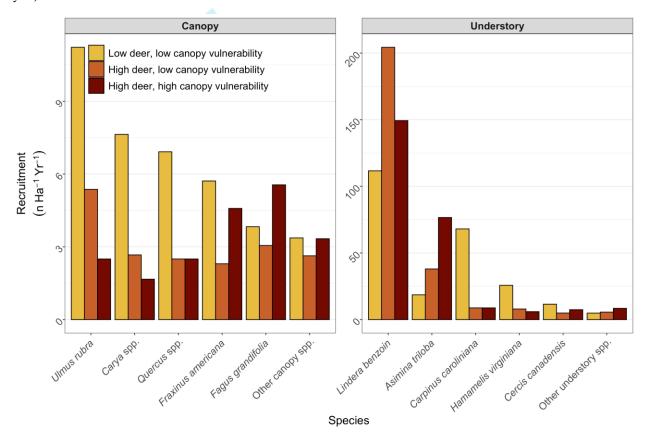


Figure 5. Average annual recruitment (2008-2023) of canopy and understory tree species at the SCBI ForestGEO plot across areas differentiated by intensity of deer browsing and 2008 abundance of canopy tree species vulnerable to non-indigenous pests and pathogens. Note that y-axes differ, with understory species recruitment > 20 times that of canopy species recruitment.

There were significant areas of suppressed regeneration of canopy species, often coincident with decreasing AGB. Only 21.7% of the plot (mostly inside the deer exlosure) exhibited an understory with high AGB of species capable of reaching the canopy. Within the plot areas characterized by high deer density and high canopy vulnerability, 84% of the area had lost

canopy biomass, only 5.4% had an understory containing high AGB of canopy taxa, and 0% of area exhibited both a healthy understory and increasing AGB. In contrast, 70.7% of the plot area with low deer density and low canopy vulnerability had high AGB of canopy species in the understory, indicating a higher likelihood of future C sequestration. Furthermore, 72.7% of the region with low deer density and low canopy vulnerability had a net increase of AGB.

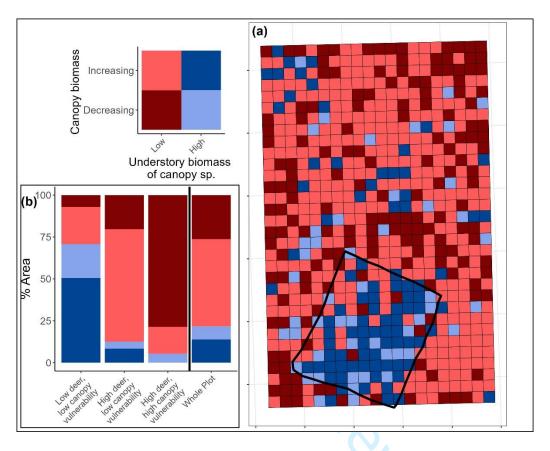


Figure 6. Map of changes in canopy biomass (2008-2023) and the biomass of canopy taxa in the understory in 2023 within the SCBI ForestGEO plot. (a) Each .04 ha quadrat is classified by the $\triangle AGB$ of canopy trees over the 15-year study period and the AGB of canopy taxa in the understory in 2023. (b) The % area of each region that falls within each classification.

4 Discussion

Our results reveal that nuisance species have compromised biomass stocks and regenerative capacity at the SCBI ForestGEO plot, reducing the recent and future carbon sink of this forest. Canopy tree mortality and associated AWM increased, particularly in plot areas affected most heavily by non-indigenous insects and pathogens (hypothesis 1, Figs. 2- 3). These increases in AWM were not offset by biomass increases through AWP, which decreased, or recruitment, resulting in net biomass loss (hypothesis 2, Figs. 2, 4). This net AGB loss occurred despite localized increases in AGB across most of the plot, particularly in areas with low canopy vulnerability (Fig. 6). Recruitment of canopy tree species was low throughout the plot (Fig. 5),

313 deer density (Fig. 6). Moreover, low recruitment of canopy species in areas with high canopy 314 vulnerability suggests that heavy deer browsing on canopy species may be exacerbated in areas with canopy openings due to nuisance-species driven mortality where fast-growing understory 315 316 species that are resistant to deer can take advantage, further competing with canopy 317 recruitment. Thus, nuisance species have severely compromised both recent and future carbon 318 sequestration in this forest, contradicting models projecting increases in AGB (Wu et al., 2023). 319 While nuisance species have had a large impact on AGB loss at our site, simultaneous changes including stand aging and climate change have also contributed to observed trends. The 320 321 majority of AGB loss has occurred through increased EAB-driven mortality of Fraxinus spp. 322 (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2021), yet mortality among oak species, which is not linked to a non-323 indigenous nuisance species, is substantial as well (Fig. 3). As is the case at our site, oak species in the region are generally found in older, relatively even aged cohorts, and this can contribute 324 325 to accelerated mortality rates (Oak et al., 2016). However, large oak mortality events, which 326 often occur over protracted periods of time, have been common globally over the past century 327 and are often termed "oak decline" due to the complex abiotic and biotic factors which interact 328 to incite mortality (Manion and Lachance, 1992). Oak decline is believed to be the result of 329 climate-driven imbalances in carbohydrate dynamics, which weakens oak trees' resistance to 330 pest and pathogen invasion, eventually leading to mortality (Manion and Lachance, 1992). 331 Similarly, stand aging and climate change may both have contributed to the observed decline in 332 AWP (Fig. 2b), which in turn contributed to reduced AGB (Figs. 2, 4). Specifically, reductions in 333 individual tree growth rates at this site are associated with increasing stem diameters, an aging 334 stand, and rising summer temperatures (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2022; Dow et al., 2022). These 335 complexities underscore the importance of multiple anthropogenic stressors, including but not 336 limited to nuisance species, in shaping 21st century forest carbon dynamics. Similarly, a complex chain of processes – from seed production to germination and seedling 337 338 survival – affects sapling recruitment, and relying on the current understory as a proxy for 339 future canopy presents challenges. Some canopy species, including some Quercus spp., are 340 hypothesized to recruit in synchronized pulse events (Koenig, 2021). Moreover, white-tailed deer populations have varied greatly over the last century (Hanberry & Hanberry, 2020), and a 341 342 decline in deer population that reduces browsing pressure and coincides with a recruitment 343 pulse could allow for substantial, rapid regeneration of canopy species. However, current recruitment levels are below a rate which we would expect in maturing secondary forests. 344 345 When overlaid with increasing mortality, regeneration is likely to be insufficient to prevent 346 extended periods without a closed canopy. 347 The observed trends in AGB loss, including increasing AWM and decreasing AWP, will not 348 necessarily be maintained as continuous directional trends in the future. The top driver of 349 increasing AWM has been EAB-driven mortality of Fraxinus spp., but Fraxinus AWM has started declining as most individuals ≥10 cm have already died (Fig. 3). It is possible that increasing 350 351 AWM will be maintained by trends of increasing oak mortality or by other non-indigenous insects or pathogen, which have arrived in the region in multiple waves over the past century 352

and there was low biomass of canopy species in the understory, particularly in areas with high

353 (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2021). The ongoing emergence of new threats endangers other 354 important canopy species: beech leaf disease, a non-indigenous pathogen lethal to Fagus 355 grandifolia and first detected in 2012, is rapidly spreading throughout eastern US deciduous forests (Reed et al., 2022). Another non-indigenous pathogen, Sudden Oak Death, is currently 356 357 confined to the Western US but is causing widespread mortality in multiple Oak species and 358 poses huge risks if it were to successfully spread to this region (Conrad et al., 2020). Thus, we 359 consider it likely that oak decline, additional non-indigenous insects or pathogen species, and 360 climate stressors will continue to elevate tree mortality at this site in the coming decades. 361 Similarly, the observed long-term declines at this site in AWP (Fig. 2b) and individual tree 362 growth (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2022) remain poorly understood, hindering prediction of their 363 future trends. Overall, there remains large uncertainty as to the future trend in AGB at this site, but our analysis makes it clear that these trends have been and will continue to be substantially 364 365 impacted by nuisance species.

366 Despite inherent limitations in extrapolating findings into the future and from a single site to a 367 broader region, we find robust evidence suggesting a broader applicability of our results. Mixed-hardwood forests, akin to our study site, are typical of the mid-Atlantic region. 368 369 Furthermore, the widespread occurrence of vulnerable species (e.g. Fraxinus spp.) and 370 continued spread of non-indigenous nuisance species (e.g. emerald ash borer, EAB) reinforces 371 the relevance of our findings to the broader regional context. EAB consistently induces near-372 total mortality in *Fraxinus* spp. once infected, to such an extent that five species in North 373 America (including Fraxinus americana) are now critically endangered (Knight et al, 2013, IUCN 374 Red list). Similarly, temperate forests of eastern North America continue to be affected by a 375 variety of non-indigenous pests and pathogens (Aukema et al., 2010; Fei et al., 2019; Anderson-376 Teixeira et al., 2021), and emerging threats (e.g., beach leaf disease, sudden oak death) could also 377 have profound impacts (Conrad et al., 2020; Reed et al., 2022) on forests across the region. Also 378 paralleling our site, persistently elevated deer populations are reported throughout eastern US 379 forests, and pressures from deer brousing have contributed to regneration debts of canopy 380 species throughout the region (Miller & McGill, 2019; Miller et al., 2023).

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Accounting for nuisance species in carbon models and future forest predictions is imperative. Our results underscore how ignoring nuisance species at our site, and likely much of the region, creates an expectation that temperate decidious forests will keep growing steadily and accumulating C (Wu *et al.*, 2023). Instead, by increasing tree mortality, nusicance species alter short-term C dynamics and result in large decreases in living woody biomass that are not predicted by models that fail to account for their impact. A result of human introduction and perturbations to ecological equilibria, nuisance species co-occur with other anthropogenic changes and may have interactive effects on forest ecosystems. Through recruitment suppression, nuisance species can delay recovery from disturbances, anthropogenic or natural (Bradshaw & Waller, 2016; Harvey *et al.*, 2023), and may even suppress regeneration into a closed-canopy for sustained periods. Unlike many other disturbances, many non-indigenous pests and pathogens not only induce mortality, but then prevent recovery of their host species (Knight *et al.*, 2013; Conrad *et al.*, 2020; Reed *et al.*, 2022). Elimination of canopy species reduces

394 395	biodiversity, which can decrease resilience to other disturbances (<i>e.g.</i> drought; (Anderegg <i>et al.</i> , 2018)) further endagerning forest health and C sequestration potential.
396 397 398	Nuisance species pose a serious threat to the health of temperate forests. However, active forest management offers pathways to protect these ecosystems. At our site, increased understory recruitment within the deer exclosure supports that lowering deer populations can reduce
399	browsing pressure. Interventions that help reduce, or even eliminate, pests and pathogens (<i>e.g.</i>
400	monitoring programs, eradication technologies) exist and are improving (Simberloff <i>et al.</i> , 2013).
401	Management of nuisance species at the scales necessary unquestionably will require enormous
402	investment and effort. However, protecting existing forests represents a far more effective
403	natural climate than emerging efforts to plant new ones (Cook-Patton et al., 2021).
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411	The authors declare no conflict of interest.
412	Author Contributions
413	LLM, RMH, KJB, IAK, EM, CT, DM, JS, NAB, WJM, and KAT conceived the ideas and designed
414	methodology; all researchers contributed to data collection; LLM, RH, KJB, IAK, EM and VH
415	analyzed the data; LLM and RMH led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed
416	critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.
417	Data and code availability
418	All data and code supporting this analysis are available via the public GitHub repository
419	"scbi_nuisance_species_biomass" within the SCBI-ForestGEO organization
420	(https://github.com/SCBI-ForestGEO/scbi_nuisance_species_biomass). The most up-to-date
421	versions of the data products analyzed here are publicly available via the ForestGEO data portal
422	(https://forestgeo.si.edu/explore-data) and the SCBI-ForestGEO GitHub organization
423	(https://github.com/SCBI-ForestGEO).
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