**“The negative effects of an allelopathic invader on native plant photosynthesis are only observed after tree canopy closure”**

**Abstract**

1. Many invasive plants produce allelopathic compounds that disrupt plant-fungal symbioses in native species, influencing nutrient and water provisioning to support photosynthesis. Previous studies have linked these disruptions to reductions in photosynthesis and stomatal conductance, but no study has quantified whether these effects are also tied to reductions in photosynthetic capacity, limiting inferences about the mechanisms driving these responses. Furthermore, no study has quantified how these responses vary temporally across the growing season.
2. To investigate the temporal dynamics that drive native plant responses to allelopathic invasion, we measured gas exchange in two understory native species (*Trillium* spp. and *Maianthemum racemosum*) at two points during the growing season – once early in the growing season while the tree canopy was open and again later in the growing season when the tree canopy was closed. Measurements were collected in a long-term field experiment where *Alliaria petiolata*, an allelopathic invader that disrupts AM fungal communities, has been hand-weeded or left at ambient levels since 2006.
3. Both native species exhibited significantly reduced net photosynthesis rates under ambient *A. petiolata* levels compared to the weeded treatment. This response was due to a reduction in apparent photosynthetic capacity in *Trillium* spp. and a reduction in stomatal conductance that increased stomatal limitation in *M. racemosum*. Photosynthetic responses to *A. petiolata* in both species were only observed after the tree canopy closed.
4. Our findings indicate that *A. petiolata* reduces native plant net photosynthesis either by increasing nutrient stress, as indicated by the reduction in apparent photosynthetic capacity in *Trillium* spp., or by increasing water stress, as indicated by the reduction in stomatal conductance in *M. racemosum*. Regardless of mechanism, both species responded to *A. petiolata* treatments only after the tree canopy closed, highlighting the importance of quantifying the temporal dynamics that regulate plant physiological responses to allelopathic invaders.

**Keywords**

*Alliaria petiolata*, AM fungi, photosynthesis, plant invasion, stomatal conductance, *V*cmax, *J*max

**Introduction**

Invasive plants often express unique traits that increase their likelihood of establishment in novel ecosystems. Allelopathy, defined as a secondary compound produced by a plant that negatively impacts neighboring plant species and/or soil microbial communities (Inderjit et al., 2011), has emerged as a mechanism to explain the success of some invasive plant species (Callaway et al., 2008; Callaway & Ridenour, 2004). Allelopathy is estimated to occur in 52% of invasive plant species (Kalisz et al., 2021) and has been shown to negatively affect native plant performance and soil microbial community composition in both field and greenhouse settings (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2020, 2021; Brouwer et al., 2015; Hale et al., 2011, 2016; Hale & Kalisz, 2012; Qu et al., 2021; Roche et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). Despite the prevalence of allelopathy among invasive species, our understanding of the mechanisms that drive the physiological responses of coexisting native species to allelopathic invasion and the temporal dynamics that underpin these responses remains limited. This knowledge gap hinders our understanding of how the disruptive impacts of allelopathic invasion on soil microbial communities scale to influence plant community dynamics.

Photosynthesis links ecosystem carbon, nutrient, and water cycles in terrestrial ecosystems (Hungate et al., 2003). Through photosynthesis, plants convert carbon dioxide into simple sugars using enzymes such as Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco) that require large amounts of nutrients and energy to build and maintain (Evans & Clarke, 2019; Evans & Seemann, 1989). Photosynthetic capacity, or the biochemical capacity at which a leaf can fix carbon, is typically estimated using the maximum rate of Rubisco carboxylation (*V*cmax) and the maximum rate of electron transport for RuBP regeneration (*J*max) (Ali et al., 2015; Farquhar et al., 1980). These rates are often positively correlated with leaf nitrogen and phosphorus content and are commonly used as physiological indicators of nutrient stress (Ellsworth et al., 2022; Evans, 1989; Walker et al., 2014). Photosynthesis is also regulated by stomatal conductance, which controls CO2 drawdown from the atmosphere and supports transpiration streams (Farquhar & Sharkey, 1982), allowing for the uptake and transport of water and nutrients to photosynthetic tissues. Stomatal conductance declines with increasing water limitation, making it a useful physiological indicator of water stress (Medrano et al., 2002). Because leaf-level photosynthesis reflects both photosynthetic capacity and stomatal conductance, assessing how each respond to allelopathic invaders can help clarify the physiological mechanisms that drive native species responses.

Allelopathic compounds with antimicrobial properties can inhibit the growth and reproduction of soil microbial communities, such as mycorrhizal fungi, which are essential for plant nutrient and water uptake (Hale & Kalisz, 2012). Arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi form obligate symbioses with plants, exchanging mineral nutrients and water for photosynthate (S. E. Smith & Read, 2008). Antimicrobial compounds produced by allelopathic invaders can disrupt these symbioses by inhibiting AM fungal spore germination, fungal root colonization, and arbuscule formation, which can decrease AM fungal biomass, alter AM fungal species richness, and modify AM fungal community composition (Burke, 2008; Callaway et al., 2008; Burke et al., 2011; Cantor et al., 2011; Anthony et al., 2019; Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021). These disruptions may decrease nutrient and water uptake in plants that rely on AM fungi, even when allelopathic invaders do not directly modify ecosystem nutrient or water availability (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021). This is because disruptions in AM fungal mutualisms may increase the plant carbon cost for acquiring nutrients and water, causing plants to receive less resources provisioned by AM fungal partners for a given belowground carbon investment (Hale et al., 2016; Kummel & Salant, 2006). This pattern may scale to alter resource allocation to photosynthetic enzymes, as emerging evidence suggests that increased costs of nutrient acquisition are associated with altered nutrient allocation to photosynthetic enzymes (Perkowski et al., 2021; Waring et al., 2023). Thus, all else being equal (e.g., competition for soil resources), disruptions in AM fungal mutualisms due to allelopathy could cause native plants to be unable to satisfy the demand to build and maintain photosynthetic enzymes and/or maintain optimal stomatal conductance, which may explain why native species exhibit reduced net photosynthesis rates in response to allelopathic invaders (Hale et al., 2011, 2016).

*Alliaria petiolata* (M. Bieb) Cavara & Grande (Family: Brassicaceae) is a model species for investigating the impacts of allelopathic plant invasion on native plant communities. This biennial herb from Eurasia invades temperate forest understories in North America, releasing glucosinolates into soil environments through root exudation and leaf litter (Rodgers et al., 2008). Glucosinolates produced by *A. petiolata* hydrolyze into antimicrobial compounds such as allyl isothiocyanate, which inhibit AM spore germination, spore viability, root colonization, and arbuscule formation (Anthony et al., 2019; Callaway et al., 2008; Cantor et al., 2011). Field studies have shown that *A. petiolata* invasion reduces AM fungal biomass, increases AM species richness, and alters fungal community composition (Table 1; Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021; Burke, 2008; Burke et al., 2011; Cantor et al., 2011). These AM fungal community changes are associated with negative impacts on native plant nutrient and water economics, population dynamics, and community composition (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2020, 2021; Hale et al., 2016; Roche et al., 2021, 2023), with stronger negative impacts in native species that associate with AM fungi compared to those that do not (Callaway et al., 2008; Roche et al., 2021, 2023). These patterns occur despite evidence that *A. petiolata* invasions do not affect soil nutrient or water availability, suggesting that the breakdown of the AM fungal mutualism is the mechanism that drives native plant community responses to *A. petiolata* invasion (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021; Burke et al., 2019).

Previous work also indicates that *A. petiolata* reduces net photosynthesis in a common coexisting native species, *M. racemosum*, through a reduction in stomatal conductance (Brouwer et al., 2015; Hale et al., 2011, 2016). However, the mechanisms that regulate these responses are not fully understood, in part because such studies have not quantified the concurrent photosynthetic capacity responses (i.e., *V*cmax, *J*max) of coexisting native species to *A. petiolata*. Photosynthetic responses to *A. petiolata* invasion could be driven by changes in photosynthetic capacity, indicating nutrient limitation, or by changes in stomatal conductance, indicating water limitation. Understanding whether changes in photosynthetic capacity or stomatal conductance drive native plant photosynthetic responses to *A. petiolata* invasion would provide valuable insight into the mechanism underlying these responses. Furthermore, existing field research has quantified photosynthetic responses to *A. petiolata* invasion at a single time point in the growth season, providing limited insight into the impacts of *A. petiolata* across the growth season as understory light availability and soil resource availability decrease. For example, high light availability due to an open tree canopy early in the growing season should increase demand to build and maintain photosynthetic enzymes in the understory, which could magnify the effects of disrupted AM fungal communities on native plant resource uptake and allocation to structures that support photosynthesis. Alternatively, reductions in soil resource availability later in the growing season could increase reliance on disrupted AM fungal communities on native plant physiology, thereby exacerbating the effects of disrupted AM fungal communities on investment in photosynthesis. Studies that investigate the mechanisms that explain the photosynthetic responses to *A. petiolata* at different time points in the growing season would be valuable for assessing how leaf-level physiological responses to allelopathic invaders compare to its finer-scale impacts on AM fungal community composition and broader-scale effects on native plant productivity and survivorship.

Here, we assessed the temporal dynamics that drive the effects of allelopathic invasion on leaf-level photosynthetic processes of two coexisting native plant species growing with and without the presence of *A. petiolata*. To do this, we collected gas exchange measurements at two measurement timepoints (open canopy early in growing season, closed canopy later in the growing season) from two understory native species (*Trillium* spp. and *Maianthemum racemosum*) growing in a long-term *A. petiolata* field manipulation experiment. We used these measurements and experimental setup to assess the following hypotheses:

1. Both native species will experience a reduction in net photosynthesis in the A. petiolata-ambient treatment compared to the A. petiolata-weeded treatment. These patterns will be associated with reduced apparent photosynthetic capacity (i.e., *V*cmax, *J*max), relative chlorophyll content, and stomatal conductance, in the A. petiolata-ambient treatment. We expected that a reduction in apparent photosynthetic capacity and/or relative chlorophyll content in response to *A. petiolata* presence would be indicative of nutrient stress, while a reduction in stomatal conductance and increase in stomatal limitation in response to *A. petiolata* presence would be indicative of water stress.
2. The negative effects of *A. petiolata* on the photosynthetic traits of native species will depend on the measurement time point.
   1. The negative effects of *A. petiolata* treatment on leaf photosynthetic traits will be greatest early in the growing season when photosynthetic demand for soil resources is highest (i.e., due to increased understory light availability). Disrupted AM fungal symbioses will create resource stress, making it more difficult for AM-associating plants to acquire nutrients and water needed to satisfy photosynthetic demand for soil resources.
   2. Alternatively, the negative effects of *A. petiolata* treatment on photosynthetic traits will be greatest later in the growing season. This response may be driven by increased reliance on disrupted AM fungal partners for soil nutrients and water as resources deplete. However, as tree canopy closure reduces light availability, photosynthetic demand for soil resources may also decline, which may mitigate the effects of AM fungal disruption on late-season physiology.

**Table 1** Summary of previous results at the Trillium Trail *A. petiolata* manipulation experiment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Metric Category | Metric | *A. petiolata* effect | Evidence | Citation |
| Soil characteristics | Soil moisture | No change | No difference between *A. petiolata*-ambient and weeded plots | (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021; Burke et al., 2019) |
| Soil nutrient availability | No change | No difference between *A. petiolata*-ambient and weeded plots | (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021; Burke et al., 2019) |
| Soil carbon | **+** | Soil C is greater in *A. petiolata*-weeded plots | (Burke et al., 2019) |
| AM fungal community composition and function | AM fungal spore germination | **-** | Reduced spore germination by *A. petiolata* allelochemicals | (Cantor et al., 2011) |
| AM fungal colonization in roots | **-** | Higher colonization in *A. petiolata*-weeded treatment | (Mutz et al. in review; Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021) |
| Soil AM fungal hyphal lengths | **-** | Lower fungal hyphal lengths in *A. petiolata*-ambient plots | (Cantor et al., 2011; Hale et al., 2016) |
| AM fungal spore abundance in soil | No change | No change | (Burke et al., 2019) |
| AM fungal diversity (richness) in soil | No change | No change | (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021) |
| AM fungal diversity (richness) in roots | No change | No change | (Mutz et al. in review) |
| AM fungal community composition in soil | Change | Shifts in AM fungal composition in mineral soil | (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021; Burke, 2008; Burke et al., 2011, 2019) |
| AM fungal community composition in native plant roots | Change | Shifts in AM fungal composition in native plant roots | (Mutz et al. in review) |
| Soil nutrient provisioning to native plants (d15N) | **-** | Native plant d15N higher in *A. petiolata*-invaded plots | (Mutz et al. in review) |
| Native plant community structure | Mycorrhizal plant abundance | **-** | Abundance of native AM-associating plants decrease with *A. petiolata* | (Roche et al., 2021, 2023) |
| Native plant physiology and allocation | Stored carbon (inulin) in *Maianthemum* | **-** | *A. petiolata* leaf litter reduced stored carbon (inulin) in *Maianthemum* | (Hale et al., 2016) |
| Soil respiration (microbial activity) | **-** | *A. petiolata* tissue slowed soil respiration | (Hale et al., 2011) |
| Net photosynthesis in *Maianthemum* | **-** | *A. petiolata* decreases net photosynthesis rates | (Brouwer et al., 2015; Hale et al., 2011) |
| Stomatal conductance in *Maianthemum* | **-** | *A. petiolata* decreases stomatal conductance | (Brouwer et al., 2015; Hale et al., 2011) |
| Photosynthetic capacity (*V*cmax, *J*max) | **?** | No evidence prior to this study | This study |
| Temporal variation across growing season | **?** | No evidence prior to this study | This study |

**Materials and Methods**

*Study site and experimental design*

This study was conducted at Trillium Trail Nature Reserve in Fox Chapel, Pennsylvania, USA (40.520 °N, -79.901 °W). The mean annual precipitation of the study area is 1006 mm yr-1 and the mean annual temperature is 11°C (2006-2020 U.S. Climate Normals; Palecki et al., 2021). Wire fences (2.5 m tall) were set up in 2002 at five 14 x 14 m experimental plots to exclude deer and other macroherbivores while allowing free movement of small mammals and birds. *Alliaria petiolata* has been manually weeded at the beginning of each growth season from one half of each experimental plot since 2006, with *A. petiolata* remaining at natural densities in the other half of each plot. Manual weeding has been an effective strategy for *A. petiolata* removal, with relative abundance of *A. petiolata* averaging 0.08% in years that followed the initial weeding treatment in 2006 (Roche et al., 2021). This long-term split-plot experiment is located on 25-75% grade slopes. Soils were classified as Gilpin-Upshur-Atkins soils with dominant shale, sandstone, and red clay shale bedrock components. *Alliaria petiolata* treatments were set up parallel to the slope to prevent allelochemical leaching into the weeded side of the plot. Previous work conducted in this experiment has shown that A. petiolata-ambient plots exhibit decreased AM fungal biomass, decreased AM root colonization rates, and increased AM fungal richness compared to A. petiolata-weeded plots (Burke, 2008; Burke et al., 2011; Cantor et al., 2011), which has altered the AM fungal community composition between treatments (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021) (Table 1). Additionally, soil nutrient availability and soil water availability does not differ between *A. petiolata* treatments (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021; Burke et al., 2019) (Table 1), though these soil measurements were collected over a single timepoint in the growing season.

*Gas exchange measurements and calculations*

Gas exchange measurements were collected between April and June 2023 from fully expanded leaves of two perennial understory native species: *Trillium* spp. (*Trillium* *grandiflorum* (Michx.) Salisb and *Trillium erectum* L.) and *Maianthemum racemosum* L. Link. We use *Trillium* spp. to refer to *T. grandiflorum* and *T. erectum*, as these species are difficult to distinguish if they are not reproductive. *Trillium* spp. and *M. racemosum* are each understory perennial herbs that form rhizomes (i.e., geophytes), with widespread distributions in temperate forests of North America (USDA NRCS, 2022). Both species associate with AM fungi (Brundrett & Kendrick, 1987, 1990; Burke, 2008). Previous work indicates that the timing of aboveground phenology differs between the two species: *Trillium* spp. typically emerge in late April and senesce in July, while *M. racemosum* typically emerge in early May and senesce as late as November (Heberling et al., 2019)

Gas exchange data were collected in three of the five experimental plots during two measurement periods: once early in the growth season when the tree canopy was open and tree canopy leaf out was occurring (April 19 through April 21 for *Trillium* spp. and May 5 through May 6 for *M. racemosum*) and once later in the growth season when the tree canopy was fully closed (June 12 through June 15 for both species). The remaining two plots were excluded from gas exchange measurements due to insufficient native species replication in one plot and fence damage that caused herbivory of several native plants in the other. Nonetheless, gas exchange data were collected in enough individuals across the sampled plots to confidently assess the effects of *A. petiolata* on native plant physiology (Table 2). The first measurement period was conducted at different time points for *Trillium* spp. and *M. racemosum* because of differences in the timing of full leaf expansion between species (Heberling et al., 2019).

Net photosynthesis (*A*net; μmol m-2 s-1), stomatal conductance (*g*sw; mol m-2 s-1), and intercellular CO2 (*C*i; μmol mol-1) concentrations were measured across a range of atmospheric CO2 concentrations (i.e., an *A*net/*C*i curve) using the Dynamic Assimilation™ Technique (Saathoff & Welles, 2021). This technique allows for high-throughput *A*net/*C*i curves that correspond well with traditional steady-state methods in herbaceous species (Tejera-Nieves et al., 2024). We generated all *A*net/*C*i curves along a reference CO2 ramp down from 420 µmol mol-1 CO2 to 20 µmol mol-1 CO2, followed by a ramp up from 420 µmol mol-1 CO2 to 1620 µmol mol-1 CO2 after a 90-second wait period at 420 µmol mol-1 CO2. The ramp rate for each curve was set to 200 μmol mol-1 min-1, logging every five seconds, which generated 96 data points per response curve. All *A*net/*C*i curves were initiated after *A*net and *g*sw stabilized in a LI-6800 cuvette set to a 500 mol s-1 flow rate, 10000 rpm mixing fan speed, 1.5 kPa vapor pressure deficit, 25°C leaf temperature, 2000 μmol m-2 s-1 incoming light radiation, and initial reference CO2 set to 420 µmol mol-1. We extracted snapshot *A*net and *g*sw measurements using the initial measurement of each *A*net/*C*i curve at 420 µmol mol-1 CO2.

*A/Ci curve fitting and parameter estimation*

We fit *A*net/*C*i curves using the ‘fitaci’ function in the ‘plantecophys’ R package (Duursma, 2015). This function estimates the maximum rate of Rubisco carboxylation (*V*cmax; µmol m-2 s-1) and maximum rate of electron transport for RuBP regeneration (*J*max; µmol m-2 s-1) using the Farquhar et al. (1980) biochemical model of C3 photosynthesis. Restrictions on triose phosphate utilization (TPU) were included as an additional rate-limiting step in all curve fits and the temperature standardization default in the function was turned off. Dark respiration was estimated in each curve fit as a fixed proportion of *V*cmax. Michaelis-Menten coefficients for Rubisco affinity to CO2 (*K*c; μmol mol-1) and O2 (*K*o; mmol mol-1), and the CO2 compensation point *(Γ*\*; μmol mol-1) were calculated using leaf temperature and equations derived in Bernacchi et al. (2001):

(1)

(2)

(3)

In all three equations, *T*k is the mean leaf temperature (in Kelvin) during each *A*net/*C*i curve, and R is the universal gas constant (8.314 J mol-1 K-1). All curves were visually inspected for goodness-of-fit before extracting *V*cmax and *J*max estimates for hypothesis testing.

For all *A*net/*C*i curve fits, *V*cmax and *J*max were standardized to25°C (referenced as *V*cmax25 and *J*max25 from this point forward) using a modified Arrhenius equation. This temperature standardization removed the influence of enzyme kinetics on *V*cmax and *J*max, and, thus, reflected biochemical investment in the different underlying processes (Atkin & Tjoelker, 2003). Rate estimates were standardized to25°C using the formulation presented in Kattge and Knorr (2007):

(4)

where *k*25 represents the standardized *V*cmax or *J*max rate at 25°C, *k*obs represents the *V*cmax or *J*max estimate at the average leaf temperature measured inside the cuvette during the *A*net/*C*i curve. *H*a is the activation energy of *V*cmax (71,513 J mol-1; Kattge and Knorr, 2007) or *J*max (49,884 J mol-1; Kattge and Knorr, 2007). *H*d represents the deactivation energy of both *V*cmax and *J*max (200,000 J mol-1; Medlyn et al., 2002), and R represents the universal gas constant (8.314 J mol-1 K-1). *T*ref represents the standardized temperature of 298.15 K, and *T*obs represents the mean leaf temperature (K) during each *A*net/*C*i curve. ΔS is an entropy term (J mol-1°C-1) that Kattge and Knorr (2007) described as a linear relationship with acclimated growth temperature (*T*g, °C), where:

(5)

and:

(6)

We estimated *T*g as the mean temperature of the seven days leading up to each *A*net/*C*i curve, following that photosynthetic acclimation typically occurs along this timescale (e.g., as found in Smith and Dukes, 2018). Mean daily air temperature was estimated using data collected at a nearby weather station (station ID: USW000114762; coordinates: 40.355° N, 79.921° W) included in the Global Historical Climatology Network - Daily data product (Menne et al., 2012). *V*cmax25 and *J*max25 estimates were used to calculate the ratio of *J*max25 to *V*cmax25 (*J*max25:*V*cmax25; unitless).

*Stomatal limitation*

The extent by which stomatal conductance limited net photosynthesis (unitless) was calculated following the approach described in Farquhar and Sharkey (1982), where:

(7)

*A*net represents the measured net photosynthesis rate where atmospheric CO2 is 420 μmol mol-1. *A*mod represents the theoretical photosynthetic rate where *C*i = *C*a = 420 μmol mol-1 (that is, no stomatal resistance to gas exchange), calculated as:

(8)

where *V*cmax is the measured maximum rate of Rubisco carboxylation (i.e., not temperature-standardized to 25°C), *C*i,mod is the intercellular CO2 concentration where *C*i = *C*a, set to 420 μmol mol-1, *Γ*\* (μmol mol-1) is the CO2 compensation point in the absence of dark respiration, *K*m is the Michaelis-Menten coefficient for Rubisco-limited photosynthesis (μmol mol-1), and *R*d is the dark respiration rate, estimated as a fixed proportion of *V*cmax. *K*m was calculated as:

(9)

where *K*c and *K*o were calculated following Eqns. 1 and 2, respectively, while *O*i is the leaf intercellular O2 concentration, set to 210 μmol mol-1.

*Chlorophyll fluorescence measurements*

Relative chlorophyll content was measured after each *A*net/*C*i curve on the same leaf using a Soil Plant Analysis Development chlorophyll meter (SPAD, unitless) built into the MultispeQ V2.0 handheld device (PhotosynQ Inc., East Lansing, MI, USA).

*Soil characteristics*

To characterize plant-available nitrogen and phosphorus at the time of leaf gas exchange measurements, resin strips (Membranes International Inc., Ringwood, NJ, USA) were placed approximately 10 cm below the soil surface to quantify mobile ammonium (ppm), nitrate (ppm), and phosphate (ppm) concentrations in each plot. An initial batch of resin strips was incubated in the field between April 19 and June 1, 2023, followed by a second batch inserted in the same plot location between May 30 and June 29, 2023. A total of 36 strips, 12 for each nutrient, were placed in each plot to account for the high degree of spatial heterogeneity of soil nutrient availability in temperate forests (Akana et al., 2023). Cation and anion concentrations were extracted from resin strips in 0.5 M potassium sulfate at a 1:5 dilution factor for ammonium, and nitrate, and 1 M HCl for phosphate. Concentrations of each nutrient were determined through end products of standard colorimetric reactions (D’Angelo et al., 2001; Doane & Horwáth, 2003; Lajtha et al., 1999; Weatherburn, 1967). Soil inorganic nitrogen availability was estimated as the sum of the ammonium and nitrate concentrations. The soil inorganic nitrogen-to-phosphorus ratio was estimated as the ratio of soil inorganic nitrogen availability to soil phosphate availability.

Soil moisture data were collected using TOMST® TMS-4 data loggers (TOMST® s.r.o., Prague, Czech Republic). One data logger was placed in each *A. petiolata* treatment of each plot (i.e., 2 data loggers per plot) on April 26, 2023 and recorded soil moisture pulses every 15 minutes. Volumetric soil moisture content (%) was calculated using the calibration curves for a silt loam soil reported in Wild et al. (2019). We calculated the mean daily volumetric soil moisture content and used these values as the primary indicator of soil moisture throughout the measurement period.

**Table 2** Replication statement for levels of inference used in this study

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Measurement type** | **Scale of Inference** | **Scale at which the factor of interest is applied** | **Number of replicates at the appropriate scale** |
| Soil nutrient availability | Plot | Plot (treatment is imposed in split-plot design) | 3 plots x 6 resin strips per nutrient type per *A. petiolata* treatment per plot (12 resin strips per nutrient type per plot) = 18 replicates per nutrient type per *A. petiolata* treatment (36 total resin strips per nutrient across plots) |
| Soil moisture | Plot | Plot (treatment is imposed in split-plot design) | 3 plots x 1 soil moisture senser per *A. petiolata* treatment (2 soil moisture sensors per plot) = 3 replicates per *A. petiolata* treatment |
| Native plant photosynthetic traits | Species | 7 photosynthetic traits per individual | 4-20 individuals per species per *A. petiolata* treatment per plot. Total number of individuals per species: 33 *Trillium* spp. individuals, 32 *M. racemosum* individuals |

*Data analysis*

We built a series of linear mixed-effects models to explore the effects of *A. petiolata* treatment and measurement period on soil nutrient availability. Each model included *A. petiolata* treatment (ambient, weeded) and measurement period (open, closed tree canopy) as fixed effects, with an additional interaction term between *A. petiolata* treatment and measurement period. Plot was included as a random intercept term. We constructed separate models with this independent variable structure for soil nitrate availability, soil ammonium availability, soil inorganic nitrogen (nitrate + ammonium) availability, soil phosphate availability, and the soil nitrogen-to-phosphorus ratio. The models for soil inorganic nitrogen availability and the soil nitrogen-to-phosphorus ratio were fitted using dependent variables that were natural-log transformed, while the model for soil ammonium availability was fitted after soil ammonium availability was square root-transformed to normalize model residuals (Shapiro-Wilk: *p*>0.05 in all cases).

Next, we built a linear mixed-effects model to explore the effect of *A. petiolata* treatment on volumetric soil moisture content across the measurement period. This model included *A. petiolata* treatment (ambient levels, weeded) and day of year (continuous) as fixed effects, with an added interaction term between *A. petiolata* treatment and day of year. Plot was included as a random intercept term.

Finally, we built a series of species-specific linear mixed-effects models to explore the effect of *A. petiolata* treatment and measurement period on leaf physiological traits of *Trillium* spp. and *M. racemosum*. Species were not concatenated into a single linear mixed-effect model for each trait because we did not seek to understand interspecies variability in measured traits. All models included *A. petiolata* treatment (ambient, weeded) and measurement period (open, closed tree canopy) as fixed effects, as well as an interaction term between *A. petiolata* treatment and measurement period. Plot was included as a random intercept term. Plant individual was also included as a random intercept term to account for repeated measures. Individuals were only included in models if gas exchange measurements were collected during both measurement periods. We constructed separate models with this independent variable structure for each species for the following dependent variables: *A*net, *g*sw, stomatal limitation, *V*cmax25, *J*max25, *J*max25:*V*cmax25, and SPAD. Models for *A*net, *g*sw, *V*cmax25, and *J*max25 in *Trillium* spp. were fitted using dependent variables that were natural-log transformed to normalize model residuals, while models for stomatal limitation, *SPAD*, and *J*max25 in *M. racemosum* were fitted using dependent variables that were natural-log transformed to normalize model residuals (Shapiro-Wilk: *p*>0.05 in all cases).

Each model was fitted using the ‘lmer’ function in the ‘lme4’ R package (Bates *et al.*, 2015). Type II Wald’s χ2 and the significance (*α*=0.05) of each fixed effect coefficient was calculated using the ‘Anova’ function in the ‘car’ R package (Fox & Weisberg, 2019). We used the ‘emmeans’ R package (Lenth, 2019) to conduct post hoc comparisons using Tukey’s tests, where degrees of freedom were approximated using the Kenward-Roger approach (Kenward & Roger, 1997). All analyses and plots were conducted in R version 4.1.0 (R Core Team, 2021). Data, analysis scripts, and plot scripts are available on Zenodo (DOI: [10.5281/13862911](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13862912)).

**Results**

*Soil characteristics*

Soil inorganic nitrogen availability was reduced by 69% (*p*<0.001, Table 3; Fig. 1a) and soil phosphate availability was reduced by 26% (*p*=0.001, Table 3; Fig. 1b) in measurements collected after tree canopy closure compared to measurements that were collected before tree canopy closure. This response led to a 188% decrease in the soil nitrogen-to-phosphorus ratio (*p*<0.001, Table 3; Fig. 1c) in measurements that were collected after tree canopy closure. Soil nitrate availability was decreased by 71% in measurements collected after the tree canopy closed (*p*<0.001, Table 3; Fig. S1), whereas soil ammonium availability did not change between measurement periods (*p*=0.770, Table 3; Fig. S1).

*Alliaria petiolata* treatment had no effect on soil inorganic nitrogen availability (*p*=0.104, Table 3; Fig. 1a), soil phosphate availability (*p*=0.108, Table 3; Fig. 1b), soil ammonium availability (*p*=0.845, Table 3; Fig. S1), or soil nitrate availability (*p*=0.106, Table 3; Fig. S1). However, the soil nitrogen-to-phosphorus ratio was marginally greater in the *A. petiolata*-ambient treatment compared to the *A. petiolata*-weeded treatment (*p*=0.078, Table 3; Fig. 1c) due to an insignificant 22% increase in soil inorganic nitrogen availability (*p*=0.104, Table 3) and insignificant 14% decrease in soil phosphate availability (*p*=0.106, Table 3; Fig. 1b) in the *A. petiolata*-ambient treatment compared to the *A. petiolata*-weeded treatment.

Soil moisture decreased as the growth season progressed (*p*<0.001; Table 3; Fig. 1d) and was lower in the *A. petiolata*-ambient treatment than the *A. petiolata*-weeded treatment (*p*<0.001; Table 3; Fig. 1d), with no interaction between *A. petiolata* treatment and day of year (*p*=0.602; Table 3; Fig. 1d).

**Table 3** Analysis of variance results exploring the role of *A. petiolata* treatment and measurement period on soil nitrogen and phosphorus availability\*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | *A. petiolata*  treatment (A) | | Canopy  status (C) or day of year (D) | | A×C or A×D | |
|  | df | *χ*2 | *p* | *χ*2 | *p* | *χ*2 | *p* |
| **Soil nitrogen availability** | 1 | 2.648 | 0.104 | 51.242 | **<0.001** | 2.438 | 0.118 |
| **Soil NO3-N availability** | 1 | 2.609 | 0.106 | 63.730 | **<0.001** | 1.719 | 0.190 |
| **Soil NH4-N availability** | 1 | 0.038 | 0.845 | 0.086 | 0.770 | 1.072 | 0.301 |
| **Soil phosphate availability** | 1 | 2.589 | 0.108 | 10.355 | **0.001** | 0.297 | 0.586 |
| **Soil N:P** | 1 | 3.115 | *0.078* | 24.827 | **<0.001** | 0.181 | 0.670 |
| **Soil moisture** | 1 | 17.778 | **<0.001** | 310.951 | **<0.001** | 0.272 | 0.602 |

\*Significance determined using Type II Wald χ2 tests (α=0.05). *P*-values less than 0.05 are in bold, while 0.05<*p*<0.1 are in italic font. Soil nutrient availabilities report results using *A. petiolata* treatment, canopy status, and their interaction as fixed effects, while soil moisture reports results using *A. petiolata* treatment, day of year, and their interaction as fixed effects. Key: df = degrees of freedom

**Figure 1**

**A group of diagrams with different colored squares

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**Figure 1** Effects of *A. petiolata* treatment and measurement period on soil inorganic nitrogen availability (a), soil phosphate availability (b), the soil nitrogen: phosphorus ratio (c), and volumetric soil moisture (d). Tree canopy status is on the x-axis in panels a-c, while date is on the x-axis in panel d. Teal points, boxplots, and trendlines indicate measurements collected in plots where *A. petiolata* was weeded and gold points, boxplots, and trendlines indicate measurements collected in subplots where *A. petiolata* was present at ambient levels. Boxes represent the upper (75% percentile) and lower (25% percentile) quartiles, and whiskers represent 1.5 times the upper and lower quartile values. Lettering above each treatment group indicates statistically different groups where Tukey: *p*<0.05. In panel (d), each point references daily volumetric soil water content averaged across the three plots used to collect gas exchange measurements, and error ribbons represent the trendline standard error.

*Gas exchange*

For *Trillium* spp., net photosynthesis decreased by 64% (*p*<0.001, Table 4; Fig. 2a), stomatal conductance decreased by 20% (*p*<0.001, Table 4; Fig. 2c), and stomatal limitation decreased by 55% (*p*<0.001, Table 4; Fig. 2e) in measurements collected after tree canopy closure compared to before tree canopy closure. Net photosynthesis was marginally reduced in the *A. petiolata*-ambient treatment compared to the *A. petiolata*-weeded treatment (*p*=0.064, Table 4; Fig. 2a). This effect was driven by a 14% reduction in net photosynthesis in the *A. petiolata*-ambient treatment for measurements collected after canopy closure, as there was no treatment difference detected for measurements collected prior to tree canopy closure (*A. petiolata* treatment-by-canopy status interaction: *p*=0.032, Table 4; Fig. 2a). *Alliaria petiolata* treatment had no effect on stomatal conductance (*p*=0.726, Table 4; Fig. 2c) or stomatal limitation (*p*=0.751, Table 4; Fig. 2e).

For *M. racemosum*, net photosynthesis decreased by 59% (*p*<0.001, Table 4; Fig. 2b), stomatal conductance decreased by 63% (*p*<0.001, Table 4; Fig. 2d) and stomatal limitation increased by 14% (*p*<0.001, Table 4; Fig. 2f) in measurements collected after tree canopy closure compared to before tree canopy closure. In the *A. petiolata*-ambienttreatment, net photosynthesis decreased by 12% (*p*=0.015, Table 4) and stomatal conductance decreased by 22% (*p*=0.002, Table 4), while stomatal limitation increased by 24% (*p*=0.007, Table 4) to the *A. petiolata*-weeded treatment. Despite no *A. petiolata*-by-canopy status interaction, net photosynthesis and stomatal conductance responses to *A. petiolata* were driven by significant treatment effects observed only after tree canopy closure (Tukey: *p*<0.05 in both cases; Fig. 2b, 2d). Stomatal limitation responses to *A. petiolata* were also driven by significant treatment effects that were only observed after tree canopy closure (*A. petiolata*-by-canopy status interaction: *p*=0.033; Table 4; Fig. 2f)

*Relative chlorophyll content*

SPAD values were 31% greater in *Trillium* spp. (*p*<0.001, Table 4; Fig. S2) and 47% greater in *M. racemosum* (*p*<0.001, Table 4; Fig. S2) in measurements collected after tree canopy closure compared to before tree canopy closure. *A. petiolata* treatment had no effect on SPAD in either species (*p*>0.05 in both cases, Table 4).

**Table 4** Analysis of variance results for the effects of *A. petiolata* treatment and measurement period on leaf gas exchange\*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | ***A*net** | | ***g*sw** | | **Stomatal**  **limitation** | | ***SPAD*** | |
|  |  | *χ*2 | *p* | *χ*2 | *p* | *χ*2 | *p* | *χ*2 | *p* |
| ***Trillium* spp.** | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | *A. petiolata* treatment (A) | 3.439 | *0.064* | 0.123 | 0.726 | 0.101 | 0.751 | 0.061 | 0.805 |
|  | Canopy status (C) | 774.777 | **<0.001** | 12.969 | **<0.001** | 284.608 | **<0.001** | 77.290 | **<0.001** |
|  | A×C | 4.593 | **0.032** | 0.864 | 0.353 | 0.041 | 0.839 | 4.602 | **0.032** |
| ***M. racemosum*** | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | *A. petiolata* treatment (A) | 5.932 | **0.015** | 9.515 | **0.002** | 7.208 | **0.007** | 1.486 | 0.223 |
|  | Canopy status (C) | 256.616 | **<0.001** | 137.246 | **<0.001** | 6.232 | **0.013** | 332.988 | **<0.001** |
|  | A×C | 0.298 | 0.585 | 0.199 | 0.655 | 4.534 | **0.033** | 2.338 | 0.126 |

\*Significance determined using Type II Wald χ2 tests (α=0.05). *P*-values less than 0.05 are in bold and 0.05<*p*<0.1 are in italics. Key: *A*net = light-saturated net photosynthesis rate (μmol m-2 s-1), *g*sw = stomatal conductance (mol m-2 s-1), SPAD = relative chlorophyll content (unitless)

**Figure 3**

**A collage of graphs

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**Figure 3** Effects of *A. petiolata* treatment and tree canopy status on net photosynthesis (*A*net, a-b), stomatal conductance (*g*sw, c-d), and stomatal limitation of net photosynthesis (e-f). The left column shows *Trillium* spp. responses, while the right column shows *M. racemosum* responses. Tree canopy status is on the x-axis. Teal points and boxplots indicate measurements collected in plots where *A. petiolata* was weeded and gold points and boxplots indicate measurements collected in plots where *A. petiolata* abundance was not manipulated. Boxes represent the upper (75% percentile) and lower (25% percentile) quartiles, and whiskers represent 1.5 times the upper and lower quartile values. Lettering above each treatment group indicates statistically different groups where Tukey: *p*<0.05.

*Photosynthetic capacity*

In *Trillium* spp., *V*cmax25 decreased by 76% (*p*<0.001, Table 5; Fig. 3a) and *J*max25 decreased by 75% (*p*<0.001, Table 5; Fig. 3c) in measurements collected after tree canopy closure compared to before tree canopy closure. These patterns resulted in a 6% increase in *J*max25:*V*cmax25 after tree canopy closure compared to before tree canopy closure (*p*=0.007; Table 5; Fig. 3e). In the *A. petiolata*-ambient treatment, *V*cmax25 was marginally reduced by 7% (*p*=0.100; Table 5; Fig. 3a) and *J*max25 was reduced by 10% (*p*=0.021; Table 5; Fig. 3c) compared to the *A. petiolata*-weeded treatment, leading to a 3% decrease in *J*max25:*V*cmax25 (*p*=0.042; Table 5; Fig. 3e). The effects of *A. petiolata* treatment on *V*cmax25 and *J*max25 were driven by significant effects of the treatment on both traits when measurements were collected after tree canopy closure, with no effect of *A. petiolata* treatment on either of these traits before tree canopy closure (*A. petiolata* treatment-by-canopy status interaction: *p*<0.05 in both cases; Table 5; Fig. 3a, 3c).

For *M. racemosum*, *V*cmax25 decreased by 56% (*p*<0.001, Table 5; Fig. 3b) and *J*max25 decreased by 57% (*p*<0.001, Table 5; Fig. 3d) in measurements collected after tree canopy closure compared to those collected before tree canopy closure, while *J*max25:*V*cmax25 did not change between the two measurement periods (*p*=0.335, Table 5; Fig. 3f). *Alliaria petiolata* treatment had no effect on *V*cmax25 (*p*=0.992, Table 5), *J*max25 (*p*=0.948, Table 5), or *J*max25:*V*cmax25 (*p*=0.671, Table 5).

**Table 5** Analysis of variance results for the effects of *A. petiolata* treatment and measurement period on apparent photosynthetic capacity\*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | ***V*cmax25** | | ***J*max25** | | ***J*max25:*V*cmax25** | |
|  |  | *χ*2 | *p* | *χ*2 | *p* | *χ*2 | *p* |
| ***Trillium* spp.** | |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | *A. petiolata* treatment (A) | 2.697 | *0.100* | 5.348 | **0.021** | 4.119 | **0.042** |
|  | Canopy status (C) | 1548.739 | **<0.001** | 1532.685 | **<0.001** | 11.226 | **<0.001** |
|  | A×C | 3.915 | **0.048** | 5.965 | **0.015** | 1.576 | 0.209 |
| ***M. racemosum*** | |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | *A. petiolata* treatment (A) | <0.001 | 0.992 | 0.004 | 0.948 | 0.181 | 0.671 |
|  | Canopy status (C) | 260.475 | **<0.001** | 310.714 | **<0.001** | 0.928 | 0.335 |
|  | A×C | 0.417 | 0.519 | 0.006 | 0.937 | 2.070 | 0.150 |

\*Significance determined using Type II Wald χ2 tests (α=0.05). *P*-values less than 0.05 are in bold and values where 0.05<*p*<0.1 are italicized. Key: *V*cmax25 = maximum rate of Rubisco carboxylation at 25°C (μmol m-2 s-1), *J*max25 = maximum rate of electron transport for RuBP regeneration at 25°C (μmol m-2 s-1), *J*max25:*V*cmax25 = ratio of *J*max25 to *V*cmax25 (unitless)

**Figure 4**

**A group of graphs showing different types of numbers

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**Figure 4** Effects of *A. petiolata* treatment and tree canopy status on the temperature-standardized maximum rate of Rubisco carboxylation (*V*cmax25; a-b), the temperature-standardized maximum rate of electron transport for RuBP regeneration (*J*max25; c-d), and the ratio *J*max25:*V*cmax25 (e-f). The left column shows *Trillium* spp. responses, while the right column shows *M. racemosum* responses. Tree canopy status is on the x-axis. Teal points and boxplots indicate measurements collected in subplots where *A. petiolata* was weeded, and gold points and boxplots indicate measurements collected in subplots where *A. petiolata* abundance was not manipulated. Boxes represent the upper (75% percentile) and lower (25% percentile) quartiles, and whiskers represent 1.5 times the upper and lower quartile values. Lettering above each treatment group indicates statistically different groups where Tukey: *p*<0.1.

**Discussion**

Our results demonstrate that *A. petiolata* presence decreased net photosynthesis rates in two native understory species, but these patterns only became apparent after tree canopy closure. Reduced net photosynthesis rates in both species were explained through contrasting mechanisms: decreased apparent photosynthetic capacity in *Trillium* spp. and reduced stomatal condcutance in *M. racemosum*. Together, these findings highlight the need to understand species-specific responses to allelopathic invaders and other anthropogenic stressors to natural ecosystems, and to specifically consider the temporal scale by which these factors influence native plant community dynamics. In this system, these findings also provide a physiological link between effects of *A. petiolata* on AM fungal mutualism disruption and its broader-scale effects on native plant population and community dynamics (Table 1).

*Photosynthetic responses to A. petiolata presence are linked to altered nutrient and water economics*

Both native species growing under ambient levels of *A. petiolata* exhibited significantly reduced net photosynthesis rates compared to those growing in the *A. petiolata*-weeded treatment, supporting our first hypothesis. In *Trillium* spp., reduced net photosynthesis rates were associated with a reduction in *J*max25, a marginal reduction in *V*cmax25, and no change in stomatal conductance or stomatal limitation. These patterns are indicative of increased nutrient stress and imply that any reduction in nutrient provisioning toward photosynthetic enzymes may have been due to a reduction in the fraction of leaf nutrients allocated to Rubisco and bioenergetics (Niinemets et al., 1998; Niinemets & Tenhunen, 1997; Waring et al., 2023).

In contrast, reduced net photosynthesis in *M. racemosum* were associated with a reduction in stomatal conductance, increase in stomatal limitation, and no change in *V*cmax25 or *J*max25. These patterns suggest that presence of the allelopathic invader induced water stress in *M. racemosum*. While these effects could have been due to direct phytotoxic effects of *A. petiolata* on *M. racemosum* through reductions in soil moisture, similar net photosynthesis and stomatal conductance patterns were observed in a controlled greenhouse experiment under well-watered conditions (Hale et al., 2016). These patterns corresponded with null effects of *A. petiolata* treatment on apparent photosynthetic capacity, supporting previous work suggesting that physiological responses of *M. racemosum* to *A. petiolata* invasion are associated with changes in water economics (Hale et al., 2011, 2016).

Contrasting mechanisms that defined the physiological responses of *Trillium* spp. and *M. racemosum* to *A. petiolata* may be explained through the leaf economics spectrum. While *Trillium* spp. and *M. racemosum* share many functional and ecological traits, such as forming rhizomes, reproducing clonally, acquiring nutrients and water through direct uptake pathways or symbioses with AM fungi, and emerging at similar times (Brundrett & Kendrick, 1987, 1990; Heberling et al., 2019), these two species differ in leaf lifespan, placing them at different positions along the leaf economics spectrum (Onoda et al., 2017; Reich, 2014; Wright et al., 2004). Short-lived *Trillium* spp. leaves require rapid nutrient uptake to support fast growth and reproduction, whereas long-lived *M. racemosum* leaves may adopt resource-conservative strategies that depend on sustained water use. Consistent with this hypothesis, M. racemosum exhibited lower *V*cmax25 on average than Trillium (*V*cmax25 mean ± SD: 44.4 ± 19.1 μmol m-2 s-1 in *M. racemosum*, 65.3 ± 41.8 μmol m-2 s-1 in *Trillium* spp.), reflecting its more conservative strategy. Tracer studies that quantify nutrient and water usage at the leaf-level may be needed to verify whether this is the case.

*Photosynthetic responses to A. petiolata presence are only observed after tree canopy closure*

Contrary to our second hypothesis, *A. petiolata* treatment effects were absent early in the season when understory demand for soil resources was presumably greatest.This null response may be attributed to resource optimization that caused individuals of both treatments to favor investment toward direct uptake. Resource optimization theory predicts that, given multiple potential acquisition strategies (e.g., direct uptake, mycorrhizal symbioses, etc.), plants should prioritize investment toward the resource uptake strategy that minimizes the cost and maximizes the uptake efficiency of acquiring soil resources (Bloom et al., 1985; Kummel & Salant, 2006; Rastetter et al., 2001). Thus, plants should invest more strongly in direct uptake pathways early in the growing season when soil resources are more abundant, as costs to acquire soil resources through direct uptake pathways are often reduced under high resource availability (Lu et al., 2022; Perkowski et al., 2021, 2024). Null photosynthetic responses early in the growing season may have been due to investment toward direct uptake that allowed individuals to satisfy demand to build and maintain photosynthetic enzymes and maintain transpiration while minimizing any negative consequence of relying on disrupted AM fungal partners for resources.

Supporting our second hypothesis, the effects of *A. petiolata* treatment on leaf-level photosynthetic traits were only observed after tree canopy closure. This pattern was associated with decreased nitrogen availability, phosphorus availability, and soil moisture following tree canopy closure. These patterns suggest that late-season photosynthetic responses to *A. petiolata* treatment may have been due to increased reliance on disrupted AM fungal partners as the cost to acquire resources through direct uptake increased with reduced nutrient and water availability (Perkowski et al., 2021, 2024). This may have been further exacerbated by a reduction in soil moisture in the *A. petiolata*-ambient treatment and may have also been indicative of increased phosphorus limitation. It is important to note that this study cannot separate the effects of canopy closure from effects on soil resource availability, indicating an important avenue of future research needed to understand the causal mechanism explaining these temporal effects. Additionally, we did not explicitly assess the link between AM fungal mutualism disruption and native plant physiology responses to *A. petiolata*, which is an important next step toward understanding how soil microbial community disruptions due to allelopathic invaders scales to impact native plant physiology and community composition. Specifically, future work involving isotopic tracers (e.g., Hodge & Fitter, 2010) or soil resource manipulation experiments that cross AM fungal community compositions (e.g., Gustafson & Casper, 2004) would be a useful next step for linking soil microbial community, soil resource availability, and photosynthetic responses to allelopathic invaders.

Overall, these findings highlight the necessity of quantifying the temporal effects of plant invasion on coexisting native plant populations. Ecophysiological studies have traditionally focused on assessing the impacts of allelopathic invaders on the physiological processes of coexisting native species at single timepoints. While data from these studies are useful for understanding snapshot effects of plant invasion on native population physiology, they risk providing misleading results when using these responses to understand consequences of plant invasion on native population and community dynamics. This risk may be especially important in dynamic systems where light availability is dependent on tree canopy establishment and soil resource availability declines across the growing season. Experiments that assess the impacts of plant invasion across multiple timepoints, as shown here, provide important insight into understanding the temporal nuances that underpin the effects of plant invasion on native populations and provide important empirical data that will improve our ability to reliably predict the impacts of plant invasion on plant population and community dynamics. Furthermore, soil microbial and plant communities operate on largely different spatiotemporal scales, which poses a big challenge when scaling soil microbial dynamics up to plant community dynamics. Quantifying the temporal effects of plant invasion on coexisting native plant populations may allow us to integrate and scale the effects of plant invasions on belowground soil microbial and plant community dynamics.

*Using leaf physiology to assess linkages between aboveground and belowground responses to allelopathic plant invasion*

Native species’ physiological responses to *A. petiolata* treatments have direct implications for understanding the integrated negative effects of *A. petiolata* invasion on the belowground soil microbial community and aboveground plant community form and function. *Alliaria petiolata* disrupts the belowground AM fungal community composition by reducing AM fungal biomass and root colonization rates while also increasing AM fungal richness (Anthony et al., 2019; Bialic-Murphy et al., 2021; Burke, 2008; Burke et al., 2011, 2019; Cantor et al., 2011; Roche et al., 2021). This allelopathic invader also negatively affects the abundance and survivorship of AM native plants that coexist with *A. petiolata* in its non-native range (Bialic-Murphy et al., 2020; Callaway et al., 2008; Roche et al., 2021, 2023). Our results indicate that photosynthetic responses to *A. petiolata* are directionally similar its impacts on AM fungal community and plant community dynamics, suggesting that the effects of *A. petiolata* invasion across these levels of organization may be inherently linked and scalable through its impacts on native plant physiology.

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**Competing interests**

The authors declare no competing interests.

**Author Contributions**

The sampling approach was the product of discussions between EAP, JM, LB-M, SNK, SK, and NGS. EAP conducted field work in collaboration with KC, JM, SC, and NGS. EAP conducted the analyses and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Manuscript feedback was provided by all co-authors. The experiment has been maintained by SK since its inception. All authors support submission of this manuscript to *Functional Ecology*.

**Data Availability**

All data, analysis scripts, and plot scripts are publicly available (DOI: [10.5281/13862911](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13862912)).

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**Supporting Information**

**Table S1** Analysis of variance results exploring the role of *A. petiolata* treatment and measurement period on soil nutrient availabilities

**Table S2** Analysis of variance results exploring the role of *A. petiolata* treatment and day of year on soil moisture

**Figure S1** Effects of *A. petiolata* treatment and tree canopy status on soil nitrate and ammonium availability

**Figure S2** Effects of *A. petiolata* treatment and tree canopy status on relative chlorophyll content in *Trillium* spp. and *M. racemosum*.