

1 GUBIC: the global urban biological invasions compendium for plants

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88 **1 Abstract**

- 89 1. Urban areas are foci for the introduction of non-native plant species, and they often act as
90 launching sites for invasions into the wider environment. Although interest in biological
91 invasions in urban areas is growing rapidly, and the extent and complexity of problems
92 associated with invasions in these systems have increased, data on the composition and
93 numbers of non-native plants in urbanized areas remain scattered and idiosyncratic.
- 94 2. We assembled data from multiple sources to create the Global Urban Biological Invasions
95 Compendium (GUBIC) for vascular plants representing 553 urban centres from 61 countries
96 across every continent except Antarctica.

97 3. The GUBIC repository includes 8,140 non-native plant species from 253 families. The number
98 of urban centres in which these non-native species occurred had a log-normal distribution,
99 with 65.2% of non-native species occurring in fewer than 10 urban centres.

100 4. *Wider implications and relevance*: The dataset has wider applications for urban ecology,
101 invasion biology, macroecology, conservation, urban planning and sustainability. We hope this
102 dataset will stimulate future research in invasion ecology related to the diversity and
103 distributional patterns of non-native flora across urban centres worldwide. Further, this
104 information should aid the early detection and risk assessment of potential invasive species,
105 inform policy development, and assist in setting management priorities.

106

107 **Keywords:** Alien species, Biodiversity change, Biological invasions, Cities, Naturalized species, Non-
108 native plants, Urbanization

109 2 Introduction

110 Urban areas, characterized by their high human population density and extensive landscape
111 modification, present unique opportunities for the establishment and spread of non-native species.
112 The convergence of global trade, transportation networks, modified microclimates, and human-
113 mediated disturbances in urban areas facilitates the introduction and proliferation of non-native
114 species (Gallardo et al. 2016; Potgieter et al. 2024). Urban plant invasions can have profound
115 ecological, economic, and social impacts due to altered ecosystem services, impacts on human health,
116 and costs incurred from management efforts (Potgieter et al. 2017; Heringer et al. 2024). However,
117 there is a lack of foundational data on which species occur in urban centres globally. This data gap
118 limits our ability to assess the potential threats non-native plants pose to urban ecosystems and the
119 services they might provide (Milanović et al. 2020), with current knowledge remaining geographically
120 heterogeneous and focused on only a few well-studied taxa (Vaz et al. 2018).

121 Frameworks for understanding and managing urban plant invasions are less frequently studied than
122 in other habitats (but see Gaertner et al. 2016; Potgieter and Cadotte 2020). While existing frameworks
123 integrate concepts from landscape ecology, population biology, and socioecological systems, they are
124 limited in number and scope, highlighting the need for further development to facilitate a better
125 understanding of the mechanisms that drive invasions in urban areas as well as options for managing
126 them. Managers in urban areas face unique challenges due to the interplay between the built
127 environment and complex socioeconomic factors which can significantly alter ecosystem conditions.
128 However, these challenges have only recently been incorporated into models to predict urban

129 invasion dynamics and impacts and identify appropriate management strategies (Gaertner et al. 2016;
130 Potgieter et al. 2022).

131 Despite these advances, empirical studies on urban biological invasions remain limited, particularly in
132 terms of taxonomic coverage and spatial scale (Cadotte et al. 2017). Most empirical studies have
133 focused on the ecology of particular non-native species within small urban areas. This narrow focus
134 limits the generalizability of findings across different organisms and urban contexts. Although
135 numerous regional and city-specific inventories of non-native species exist, these are often from
136 uncoordinated efforts carried out independently by research groups focusing on particular research
137 questions. Therefore, these diverse resources lack of harmonization of collection methods, taxonomy,
138 and sampling effort, making them challenging to be easily used. Moreover, because some of this work
139 is developed in collaboration with city practitioners and managers, many are published in the grey
140 literature and only available in non-English languages, limiting their accessibility. While these
141 biological inventories are crucial to advancing our understanding of urban biological invasions at the
142 city and regional levels, a comprehensive global dataset documenting the non-native flora in urban
143 areas around the world is required to understand the role of urban areas in shaping the patterns of
144 plant invasions and the underlying processes. Here, we unify this diverse body of knowledge and
145 present a global repository of non-native flora in urban centres around the globe. This repository
146 serves as a valuable resource for improving our understanding of urban non-native floras by providing
147 essential data, fostering collaboration, informing management and policy, and facilitating coordinated
148 global responses to the challenges they present.

149 **3 Methods and Materials**

150 To compile a list of non-native plant species in urban areas (see Section 3.1.2 for the methods used to
151 delineate urban boundaries) globally, we combined multiple data sources. This approach allows for
152 the application of standardized selection and inclusion criteria over multiple individual datasets,
153 resulting in a harmonized and consistent dataset across urban areas and regions. We included only
154 established non-native plant species, which are those with self-sustaining populations, also commonly
155 referred to as naturalized (Richardson et al. 2000, Blackburn et al. 2011) (see 3.1.5).

156 **3.1 Data acquisition and compilation**

157 **3.1.1 Data source 1: Global Urban Biological Invasions Consortium**

158 An international workshop to address biological invasions in urban ecosystems was hosted by the
159 Centre for Invasion Biology in Stellenbosch, South Africa, in November 2016 (Gaertner et al. 2017).

160 This workshop led to the creation of the [Global Urban Biological Invasions Consortium](#) which hosted
161 a coordinating meeting in June 2019 that brought together more than 70 researchers from 14
162 countries from all continents except Antarctica. One of the prioritized activities was to compile lists of
163 non-native plant species for urban areas. A working group "Synthesizing Global Urban Biological
164 Invasion Knowledge" (sGUBIK, , funded by sDiv, the synthesis centre of iDiv, the German Centre for
165 Integrative Biodiversity Research) was later established in September 2023 to synthesize these global
166 data and examine the patterns and mechanisms driving non-native plant species' invasions in urban
167 areas.

168 We compiled data using the following approaches. First, we sent a request to over 150 members of
169 the Global Urban Biological Invasions Consortium in 2019 to upload datasets for any urban taxa to a
170 SharePoint repository at the University of Toronto. The cut-off for the data request was December
171 2021. Second, we searched the published literature in English, Portuguese, and Spanish as well as the
172 Dryad data repository (www.datadryad.org) between August 2019 and November 2019 for studies
173 and datasets containing species lists for urban areas around the world, using keywords such as 'alien',
174 'animal', 'built-up', 'city', 'urban*', 'non-native', 'exotic', and 'plant'. These approaches yielded urban
175 datasets that encompassed various taxa and spatial scales, incorporating demographic,
176 environmental, and taxon-specific information. Additionally, we included the Urban Biodiversity
177 Research Coordination Network (UrBioNet) dataset, a large multi-city compilation (Aronson et al.
178 2014), featuring 14,240 spontaneous plant species (i.e., not cultivated or planted), of which 4,241 are
179 identified as non-native, derived from published surveys across 110 urban areas in five biogeographic
180 regions.

181 To ensure consistency across the datasets, we standardized city and country names by resolving
182 variations in spelling and correcting potential typographical errors. In instances where multiple urban
183 centres within the same country shared the same name (e.g., Madison, Wisconsin vs. Madison,
184 Indiana in the United States), we excluded these entries from the database if it was not possible to
185 unambiguously determine the specific city to which the data pertained. Given that most data lacked
186 spatially explicit coordinates, precise delineations of city boundaries were unavailable. As a result,
187 datasets collected from data contributors, repositories or the literature were generally treated as
188 representing areas surrounding the urban centres rather than being confined to specific urban
189 boundaries.

190 **3.1.2 Data source 2: Global Biodiversity Information Facility**

191 Before extracting occurrence data for each urban area from the Global Biodiversity Information
192 Facility (GBIF), we delineated the boundaries of urban areas. We used the global urban centres data

193 provided by the Global Human Settlement Layer (GHSL, Pesaresi et al. 2019,
194 <https://ghsl.jrc.ec.europa.eu/ucdb2018Overview.php>), which defines urban centres as contiguous 1
195 km² grid cells with a population density of at least 1,500 inhabitants per km² of permanent land (areas
196 that are consistently above water and exclude bodies of water, such as oceans, seas, large rivers, and
197 lakes) or with more than 50% built-up surface shared on permanent land, and with at least 50,000
198 inhabitants in the cluster with smoothed boundaries and small gaps (< 15 km²) filled. Overall, there
199 are 13,189 unique urban centres worldwide. Subsequently, smaller, nearby urban centres located
200 within a 5 km radius of the larger urban centres were integrated into the larger one, as these
201 proximally situated centres are close enough to be considered a single urban entity and often are
202 considered part of the metropolitan area. We refrained from further merging smaller centres that,
203 although within a 5 km radius of the previously merged smaller centres, were situated beyond the 5
204 km boundary from the larger urban centre. This process resulted in 11,621 unique urban centres
205 globally.

206 In August 2023, we queried GBIF and downloaded plant occurrence records from each urban centre
207 to compile the flora of these urban areas (see Table S1 for the DOIs of downloaded datasets). The
208 initial download comprised over 500 million records. We cleaned the GBIF data of each of the urban
209 centres by removing records with common issues such as erroneous coordinates using R package
210 ‘CoordinateCleaner’ (Zizka et al. 2019). We also removed all records with identification above species
211 level, fossil specimens, preserved specimens, living specimens, and those with locality uncertainty
212 greater than 30 km or within a 500 m vicinity of biodiversity institutions, botanic gardens, zoos,
213 museums, GBIF headquarters, etc.

214 **3.1.3 Quality control and merging of data**

215 Before merging data from sources 1 and 2, we conducted preliminary filtering of these datasets. For
216 each urban centre with GBIF data, we used the number of observations of each species as a proxy for
217 the abundance of that species. We calculated observed species richness and estimated species
218 richness using the Chao1 equation, which incorporates singletons and doubletons (i.e., species
219 observed only once or twice):

$$220 \quad \text{Estimated richness} = \text{Observed richness} + S^2/(2D) \quad (\text{Eqn. 1})$$

221 where S represents the number of singletons and D is the number of doubletons (Hsieh and Chao
222 2016). We also determined the sample coverage percentage, a measure of sample completeness,
223 based on the rarefied estimate of the total number of individuals in each urban centre using the R
224 package ‘iNEXT’ for rarefaction (Chao et al. 2014; Hsieh and Chao 2024).

225 We considered an urban centre to have robust GBIF data if: 1) it had over 1,000 observed plant
226 species; 2) the community sample coverage was > 90%; and 3) the observed species richness was
227 greater than 75% of the estimated species richness. We used these criteria to balance the number of
228 retained urban centres and data quality. For data source 1, if an urban centre had more than 300 plant
229 species, we retained it and further integrated it with data source 2 (GBIF data) of that urban centre
230 regardless of the GBIF data quality. If an urban centre had fewer than 300 species from the data source
231 1 and did not have adequate GBIF data coverage, we removed that urban centre from our database.
232 If an urban centre had fewer than 300 species from data source 1 but had adequate GBIF data
233 coverage (i.e., met the above three criteria), we retained both data sources for that urban centre. We
234 removed those urban centres with only GBIF data that did not meet the three criteria above (see Fig.
235 1 for a schematic workflow). The final database included 553 urban centres (Fig. 2). For each of these
236 urban centres, we derived a list of established non-native plant species using the merged data sources.

237 **3.1.4 Standardize species names**

238 We standardized species and family names against the World Checklist of Vascular Plants (WCVP,
239 Govaerts et al. 2024) for the merged database using the R package rWCVP (version 1.0.3, Brown et al.
240 2023). We selected WCVP as it represents one of the most comprehensive and up-to-date taxonomic
241 resources available (Grenié et al. 2022). WCVP also serves as the taxonomic backbone for the most
242 recent version of the Global Naturalized Alien Flora (GloNAF), which was updated following van
243 Kleunen et al. (2019). GloNAF was used to determine whether a species is non-native in a particular
244 region where an urban centre was located (see section 3.1.5 below). Note that species with “unplaced
245 names” or has not match from WCVP were excluded from the final dataset
246 (<https://powo.science.kew.org/about-wcvp#unplacednames>), reflecting the challenges in our current
247 taxonomic knowledge of plants worldwide. We also merged subspecies or varieties to the main
248 species and only kept binomial species names in the final database.

249 **3.1.5 Cross-validation to determine the status of species**

250 To distinguish between established (naturalized) and native or casual species (i.e. those that might
251 flourish and even reproduce occasionally in an area but which do not form self-replacing populations;
252 Richardson et al. 2000) located in a specific urban centre, we used the GloNAF database as it provides
253 the most updated information of naturalized plant species across the world. For each urban centre,
254 we used the delineated boundaries provided by the GHSL. For each species listed within an urban
255 centre, we classified the species as non-native to that urban centre if its polygon intersected with the
256 species’ naturalized or invasive range. We also cross-referenced all species with local checklists of non-
257 native plant species validated by experts (Kalusová et al. 2024). Therefore, for those urban centres

258 (mostly in Europe), the lists of naturalized species were slightly different from those based on GloNAF
259 alone.

260 **4 General Patterns**

261 We present a global urban non-native flora for 553 cities from 61 countries across every continent
262 with permanent human settlements (Fig. 2). These data are, however, biased towards European and
263 North American urban centres, which together account for 80.8% of all non-native species, and 82.2%
264 of all records within our database across the world, respectively. Our global repository includes 8,140
265 established non-native plant species from 253 families (Fig. 3). Most families contain few species, with
266 73 families each containing 20 or more non-native species (Fig. 3). Asteraceae, Poaceae, Fabaceae,
267 and Rosaceae contain about one-third of all species ($n = 2,641$; Table 1). The most widespread non-
268 native plant species can be found in Table 1; the top 20 cities and countries with the greatest number
269 of non-native plant species in our database can be found in Table 2. A rarefaction of species
270 occurrences across urban centres (Fig. 4) shows that we are approaching an asymptote with our
271 sample of 553 urban centres. However, the sampling curve also suggests that more urban floral
272 sampling is needed, especially from regions with sparse data (e.g., South Asia, northern South
273 America).

274 **5 Usage Notes**

275 In forming a dataset of this magnitude, we made several simplifying decisions and recognize that
276 limitations are inevitable. Some issues to be cognizant of for analysis and interpretation include:

- 277 1 Our definition of urbanized areas delineated contiguous areas. Because of this definition, some
278 urbanized areas span multiple regions or municipalities and form contiguous land areas. In these
279 cases, the urbanized region is referred to as the largest administrative centre; for example,
280 Guangzhou, China includes Foshan. In some cases, contiguous urbanized areas span larger
281 administrative areas and even countries. For example, Detroit, Michigan, USA, not only includes
282 neighbouring cities in Michigan, like Dearborn, but also the Canadian city of Windsor.
- 283 2 While most recorded species in our dataset can be confirmed as established, the status of some
284 species could not be definitively verified with our methodology. Additionally, the dataset might
285 include non-established non-native plant species or intentionally cultivated individuals that were
286 not fully distinguishable from naturally occurring records. As a result, the data should be
287 interpreted cautiously, particularly when comparing non-native species richness at broader
288 spatial scales, such as across countries, rather than at the city level. Species in our dataset with
289 widespread occurrences across multiple urban centres are likely to be established, whereas

290 species recorded in only one urban centre might require further scrutiny. We recommend that
291 users consider including these singleton records in sensitivity analyses to assess the robustness
292 of their results. Therefore, the numbers of non-native species reported here (e.g., Table 2) are in
293 some cases higher than those reported for individual countries in recent studies (Pyšek et al.
294 2017, Kalusová et al. 2023).

295 3 The combination of these many individual datasets means that our list is subject to numerous
296 methodological differences, from lists being built from herbarium specimens to those observed
297 during direct sampling. Because our goal is to compile a non-native flora of urban centres, these
298 limitations do not significantly affect our dataset.

299 4 The data extracted from GBIF include geographically biased and incomplete sampling, and
300 species counts derived from these data should not be considered exhaustive despite our strict
301 criteria listed above. For example, many urban centres in China included fewer than 100 non-
302 native species in our database (Fig. 2, 5A), which are likely underestimates. Analyses of richness
303 and diversity should include rarefaction or some other way of accounting for unequal sampling
304 as the number of non-native species increased with the number of observations (Fig. 5B).
305 Notably, many urban centres from the Global South (e.g., India; Fig. 2) were absent from our
306 database due to the paucity of available data.

307 5 Conclusion

308 The database presented here represents a unique and valuable resource for addressing a wide range
309 of basic and applied ecological questions, particularly those related to biological invasions. This
310 resource can support hypothesis testing at the macro- and global scale (e.g., biotic resistance, or
311 invasion debt). It can also be used to model non-native plant species invasions, underscoring its utility
312 not only in scientific research but also in conservation planning and practice. Lastly, it has the potential
313 to guide more informed decision-making in biodiversity conservation, ecosystem restoration,
314 environmental sustainability, and invasive species management across diverse ecological,
315 biogeographical, and urban contexts.

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336 **7 Author contributions**

337 The Global Urban Biological Invasions Consortium, led by MWC and including all co-authors, conceived
338 the initial idea, which was further developed by the sGUBIK working group (DL, LJP, MFA, IA, BB, MC,
339 LCG, SK, IK, ACLM, ZL, FMC, PP, DMR, LBT, RDZ, MWC). LJP led the data collection effort, gathering
340 information from the literature and contributors, who were invited to join as co-authors if they
341 provided additional contributions to the manuscript. DL led the data compilation from GBIF. The
342 sGUBIK team supported data integration and standardization. LJP and DL drafted the manuscript, with
343 all co-authors contributing to its editing and revision.

344 **8 Conflicts of Interest**

345 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

346 **9 Data Availability Statement**

347 Data are available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14559925>.

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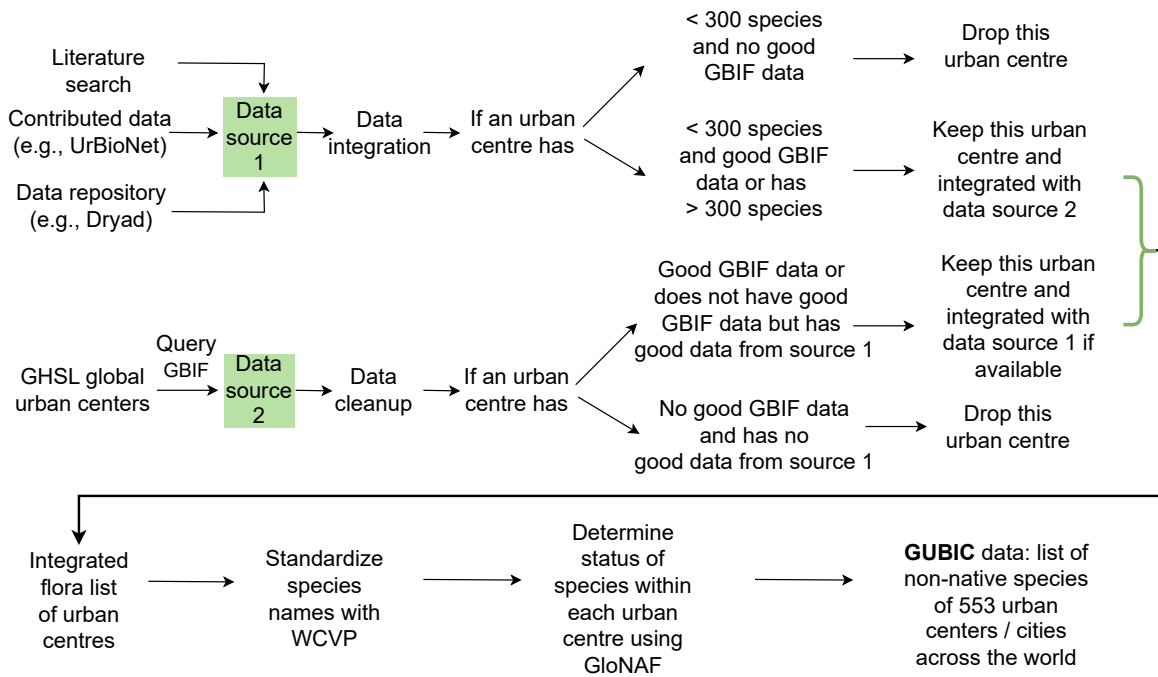
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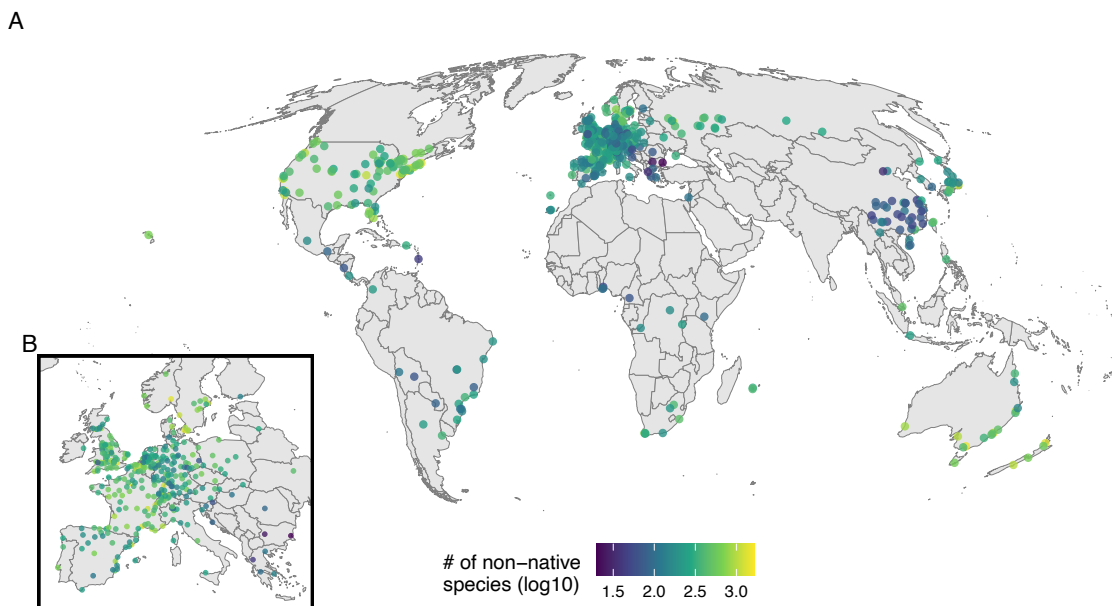
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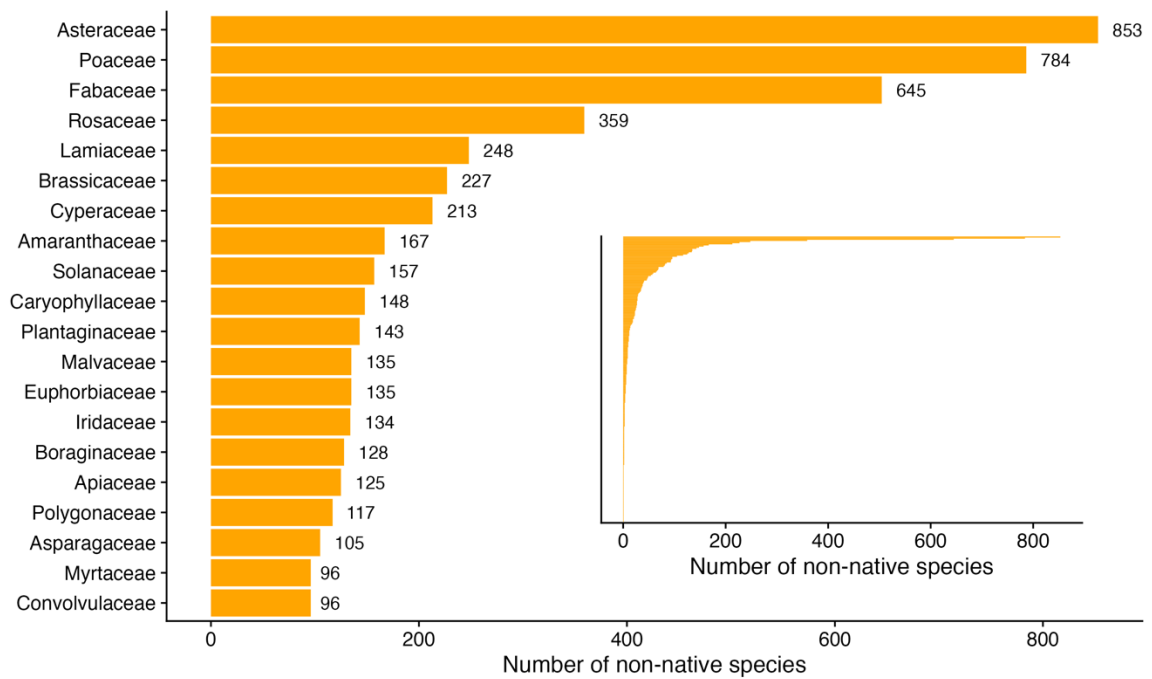
413

414 **Figure 1.** Schematic figure showing the workflow of the compilation of the Global Urban Biological
 415 Invasions Compendium database. UrBioNet: The Urban Biodiversity Research Coordination Network.
 416 GHSL: The Global Human Settlement Layer. GBIF: the Global Biodiversity Information Facility. WCVF:
 417 The World Checklist of Vascular Plants. GloNAF: Global Naturalized Alien Flora.

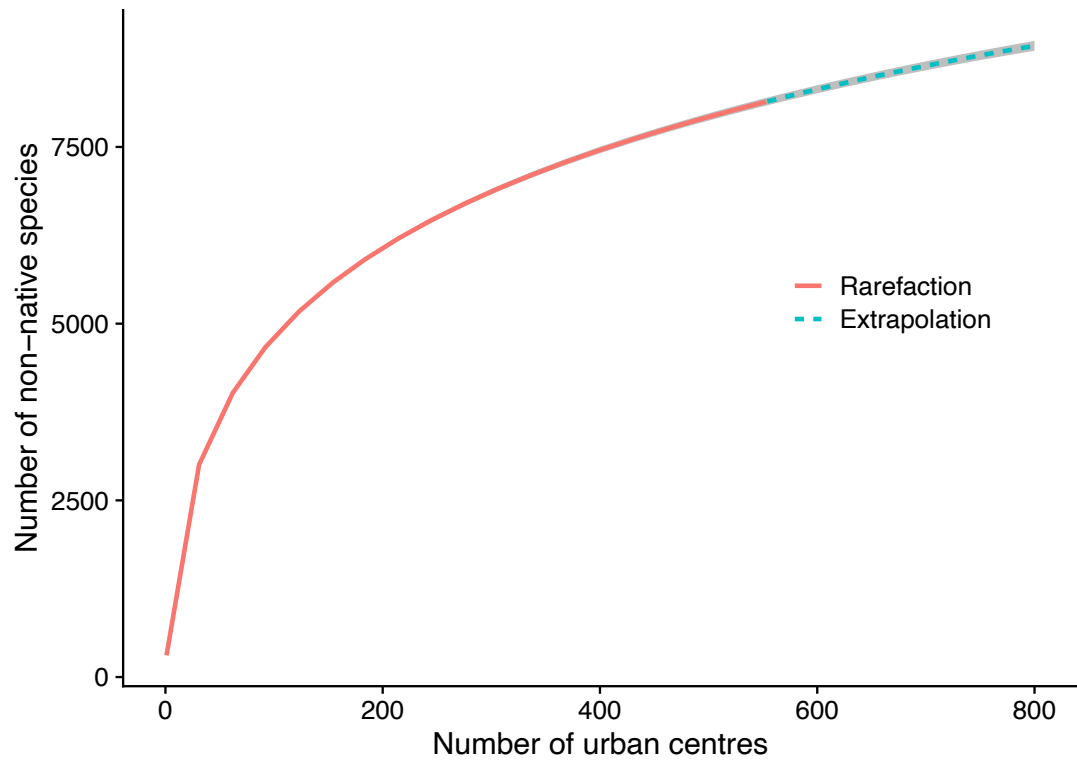


418

419 **Figure 2.** Geographic distribution of urban centres across the world (panel A; $n = 553$) and Europe
 420 (panel B) and the number of established non-native plant species they contain (coloured points).

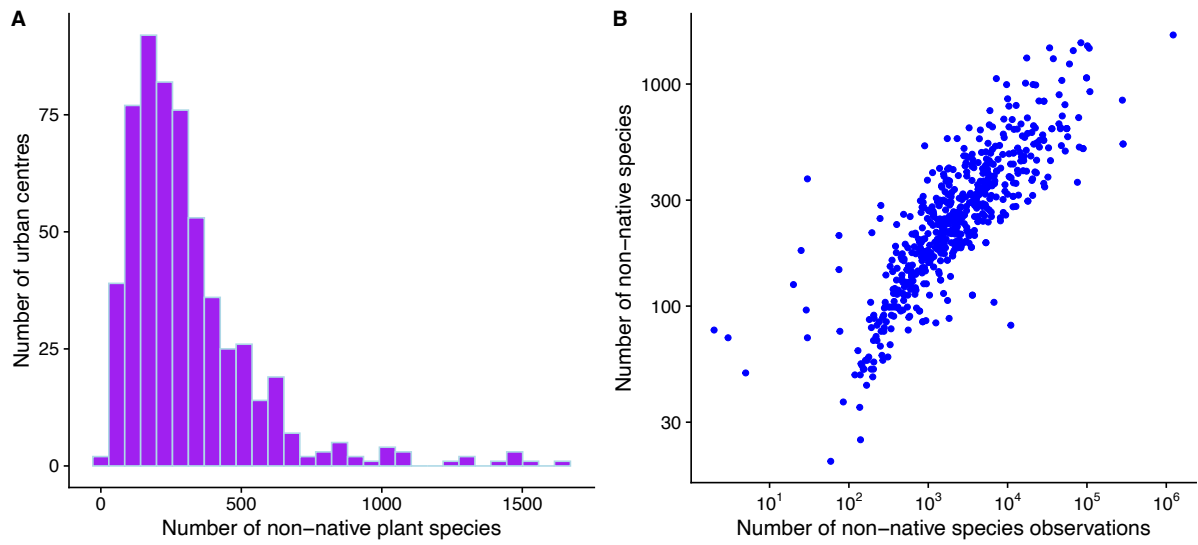


421 **Figure 3.** The distribution of family sizes for the 253 established non-native plant families in the
 422 dataset. The main plot contains the top 20 families which together account for 61.6% of all plant
 423 species in our dataset. The embedded plot presents the distribution of the number of non-native plant
 424 species across all families.



425

426 **Figure 4.** Rarefaction curve of the number of non-native plant species in 553 urban centres.



427

428 **Figure 5.** A) Distribution of the number of non-native plant species in urban centres ($n = 553$) across
 429 61 countries and B) the relationship between the number of non-native plant species and the number
 430 of non-native species occurrence records in that dataset.

431 **12 Tables**

432 **Table 1.** The most widespread (top 30) established non-native plant species in urban centres ($n = 553$)
 433 across the world. Note that this list was derived from different sampling efforts and has a bias in favour
 434 of non-native species in European and North American urban centres.

Scientific name	Family	Number of urban centres	Number of countries	Number of GBIF records
<i>Erigeron canadensis</i>	Asteraceae	469	47	64 760
<i>Veronica persica</i>	Plantaginaceae	451	41	41 176
<i>Oxalis corniculata</i>	Oxalidaceae	434	48	23 721
<i>Datura stramonium</i>	Solanaceae	410	46	12 531
<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i>	Fabaceae	404	41	44 657
<i>Syringa vulgaris</i>	Oleaceae	393	29	21 767
<i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i>	Amaranthaceae	381	41	8 602
<i>Galinsoga quadriradiata</i>	Asteraceae	376	40	18 509
<i>Ailanthus altissima</i>	Simaroubaceae	369	35	50 732
<i>Medicago sativa</i>	Fabaceae	369	39	24 969
<i>Prunus cerasifera</i>	Rosaceae	369	26	26 924
<i>Aesculus hippocastanum</i>	Sapindaceae	367	24	35 349
<i>Reynoutria japonica</i>	Polygonaceae	367	29	88 542
<i>Cymbalaria muralis</i>	Plantaginaceae	366	33	31 151
<i>Matricaria discoidea</i>	Asteraceae	363	33	26 254
<i>Melissa officinalis</i>	Lamiaceae	359	25	20 768
<i>Buddleja davidii</i>	Scrophulariaceae	356	33	45 122
<i>Lunaria annua</i>	Brassicaceae	340	19	12 135
<i>Galinsoga parviflora</i>	Asteraceae	337	43	7 306
<i>Rosa rugosa</i>	Rosaceae	334	22	18 499
<i>Vinca major</i>	Apocynaceae	326	23	11 597
<i>Helianthus tuberosus</i>	Asteraceae	320	34	4 244
<i>Tanacetum parthenium</i>	Asteraceae	320	27	9 527
<i>Lepidium draba</i>	Brassicaceae	315	29	14 831
<i>Acer negundo</i>	Sapindaceae	313	36	17 459
<i>Lysimachia punctata</i>	Primulaceae	312	15	10 279
<i>Brassica napus</i>	Brassicaceae	307	25	5 376
<i>Impatiens glandulifera</i>	Balsaminaceae	301	25	35 332
<i>Lepidium didymum</i>	Brassicaceae	301	31	13 459
<i>Prunus laurocerasus</i>	Rosaceae	298	22	48 188

435

436 **Table 2.** The top 20 urban centres (left) and the top 20 countries (right) with the greatest number of
 437 non-native plant species. Note that these lists are skewed towards European and North American
 438 urban centres (see Fig. 2). The numbers presented for some countries (e.g., France) also included non-
 439 native plant species from their overseas urban centres.

Urban centre	Number of established non-native species	Country	Number of established non-native species
New York	1 663	United States of America	4 409
Los Angeles	1 534	Australia	2 596
Sydney	1 486	France	2 187
Philadelphia	1 455	New Zealand	1 561
Melbourne	1 450	Canada	1 476
Washington D.C.	1 414	Russia	1 251
Auckland	1 310	Japan	1 154
Boston	1 300	Mexico	1 142
San Jose (USA)	1 231	Germany	1 123
Tijuana	1 066	United Kingdom	986
St. Louis	1 058	Switzerland	966
Tokyo	1 038	South Africa	947
London (UK)	1 014	Spain	916
Christchurch	1 009	Belgium	906
Adelaide	995	Netherlands	860
Brisbane	994	Sweden	832
Portland (OR, USA)	990	Denmark	800
Moscow	924	Norway	792
Chicago	895	Portugal	596
Perth	858	Brazil	588

440

442 **Table S1.** Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) data used to derive the Global Urban Biological
443 Invasions Compendium database. All data were accessed in August, 2023.

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