

Dimensions of invasiveness: Links between local abundance, geographic range size, and habitat breadth in Europe's alien and native floras

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147 Abstract

148 Understanding drivers of success for alien species can inform on potential future invasions. 149 Recent conceptual advances highlight that species may achieve invasiveness via performance 150 along at least three distinct dimensions: (1) local abundance, (2) geographic range size, and (3) 151 habitat breadth in naturalized distributions. Associations among these dimensions and the factors 152 that determine success in each have yet to be assessed at large geographic scales. Here, we 153 combine data from over 1 million vegetation plots covering the extent of Europe and its habitat 154 diversity with databases on species' distributions, traits, and historical origins to provide a 155 comprehensive assessment of invasiveness dimensions for the European alien seed-plant flora. 156 Invasiveness dimensions are linked in alien distributions, leading to a continuum from overall poor 157 invaders to super invaders -abundant, widespread aliens that invade diverse habitats. This pattern echoes relationships among analogous dimensions measured for native European 158 159 species. Success along invasiveness dimensions was associated with details of alien species' introduction histories: earlier introduction dates were positively associated with all three 160 dimensions, and consistent with theory based expectations, species originating from other 161 continents, particularly acquisitive growth strategists, were among the most successful invaders 162 163 in Europe. Despite general correlations among invasiveness dimensions, we identified habitats 164 and traits associated with atypical patterns of success in only one or two dimensions - for 165 example, the role of disturbed habitats in facilitating widespread specialists. We conclude that 166 considering invasiveness within a multidimensional framework can provide insights into invasion 167 processes, while also informing general understanding dynamics of species distributions.

168 Significance Statement

169 Invasive alien species pose major threats to biodiversity and ecosystems. However, identifying 170 drivers of invasion success has been challenging, in part because species can achieve 171 invasiveness in different ways, each corresponding to different aspects of demographics and 172 distribution. Employing a multidimensional perspective of invasiveness to Europe's alien flora, we 173 find species generally fall along an axis from overall poor invaders to super invaders that become 174 abundant, widespread, and invade diverse habitats. Some species that deviate from this pattern 175 are recently introduced and still spreading, but others represent atypical forms of invasiveness. In 176 addition to identifying species traits and ecological circumstances associated with super invaders 177 (e.g. intercontinental introductions), we explore drivers in atypical invasions, providing increased 178 clarity into invasion processes.

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181 Main Text

183 Introduction

Human socioeconomic activities are altering species' global distributions, bridging natural
dispersal barriers through the accidental and intentional relocation of organisms, and opening
opportunities for them to expand into new regions beyond their historic native ranges (1). The
outcome of any given introduction event, however, is dependent on ecological and stochastic
processes, and many introduced alien species fail to establish and persist (2, 3). But even

species that do achieve persistent, self-sustaining populations (i.e., become naturalized *sensu* (4)) show varying degrees of success (i.e., invasiveness) in newly occupied regions. This has been true for natural colonization events throughout Earth's history (e.g., on islands (5, 6) and during continental biotic interchanges (7–9)), and is certainly the case for the ongoing surge of human-mediated introductions (10–12). Disentangling the factors that lead to invasion success provides an opportunity not only for anticipating and mediating future anthropogenic invasions, but also for better understanding the dynamics underlying natural range expansions (13).

197

198 Quantifying a species' success in invading the alien range is complex, a fact reflected in the 199 diverse criteria applied by different authorities when deciding whether or not to classify 200 naturalized species as invasive (14). Recent efforts have therefore recognized that invasiveness 201 cannot be captured by a single metric, but rather encompasses multiple aspects of ecological 202 success and impact (15, 16). Some proposed metrics, such as spread rate and socio-economic impacts, are difficult to quantify for large numbers of species (4, 17). However, Rabinowitz's 203 204 three-dimensional scheme for characterizing the rarity or commonness of species in their native 205 distributions (18, 19) has been successfully co-opted as a valuable perspective for better 206 understanding the success of alien species (16, 20, 21). Applied in the context of introduced 207 species, this framework recognizes the potential for established aliens to vary along at least three 208 demographic dimensions of invasiveness: 1) in local abundance within the naturalized range, 2) 209 in geographic range size or extent of the naturalized range, and 3) in habitat breadth in the 210 naturalized range (16). We subsequently distinguish these metrics as dimensions of invasiveness 211 when measured in the naturalized distributions of alien species, and dimensions of commonness 212 when measured in species native distributions.

213

214 Considering invasiveness within a multidimensional framework is particularly important if species 215 vary independently among different dimensions (16, 21). Such a scenario opens the possibility for 216 aliens to achieve invasion success in many different ways (Fig. 1). In other words, there could 217 exist different forms of invasiveness, similar to the different forms of rarity or commonness 218 originally proposed by Rabinowitz (19). On the other hand, theoretical concepts and empirical 219 examples suggest correlations between Rabinowitz's dimensions of commonness among species 220 in their native distributions (6, 22, 23). For example, a positive relationship between local 221 abundance and extent of geographic occurrence or range size has been documented at various scales for numerous taxa (24-26), including plants (24, 27-31), with niche breadth proposed as a 222 223 linking mechanism (24, 26, 32). If the processes that generate these patterns in native 224 distributions act similarly in species alien distributions, some of the forms of invasiveness outlined 225 in Fig. 1 should be less likely to occur than others. More specifically, if the invasiveness 226 dimensions are correlated, species should vary from excelling (abundant, widespread, 227 generalists; form AWG in Fig. 1) to performing poorly (scarce, restricted, specialists; form 0 in Fig. 228 1) in all three invasiveness dimensions (33). On the other hand, these macroecological patterns 229 are not without exception, and a recent assessment found little support for correlations among 230 commonness dimensions in Europe's native flora (34). Alien distributions may further differ because aliens vary in their residence time and particularly recently introduced species may be in 231 232 disequilibrium and still increasing along one or more of the invasiveness dimensions (21, 35-37). 233 In line with these alternatives, a continuum from overall poor invaders to species succeeding in all 234 three dimensions has been documented for the regional alien flora of French grassland 235 communities (20), while associations among dimensions were found to be low for the herbaceous 236 alien flora of Southeast Australia (16). The correspondence among different invasiveness 237 dimensions at broader geographic scales has yet to be assessed.

238

Functional traits play a role in mediating invasion processes, but efforts to identify characteristics
of successful invaders have generally resulted in few or inconsistent associations (38, 39).
However, distinguishing between different components of invasiveness may provide additional
clarity if each is influenced by different traits, or if the same trait has contrasting effects on
different dimensions (15, 16, 21, 40, 41). For example, many plant traits are associated with

244 general trade-offs between rapid growth (i.e., acquisitive growth strategies) versus stress 245 tolerance and survival (i.e., conservative growth strategies) (42-44), and one can hypothesize 246 scenarios where these divergent strategies are associated with success in different dimensions of 247 invasiveness (40, 41). Another example are specialized adaptations for long-distance dispersal 248 that may promote rapid range expansion, both in extent and into new habitats, but likely do not provide any advantages that would influence local abundances (45, 46). For habitat specialists, 249 250 their specific habitat associations may additionally be important for determining whether or not 251 they become widespread (31).

252

253 A number of hypotheses for invasion success additionally emphasize the importance of unique 254 ecological dynamics that emerge when species are decoupled from constraints experienced in 255 their native environments (47). For example, because species are able to occupy unfilled niches 256 where introduced (i.e. Darwin's naturalization hypothesis (48, 49)) or because they leave behind 257 important herbivores, competitors, or pathogens that limit populations in the native distribution 258 (i.e., enemy release (50, 51)). These mechanisms may be less likely when species expand into 259 areas near the native range, for example during natural range expansions or intra-continental 260 introductions, as the alien individuals are more likely to encounter conditions similar to those that 261 limited their native distribution compared to species introduced from further abroad (e.g., those 262 with extra-continental origins) (52-54).

263

264 Here, we combine vegetation-plot data covering Europe (55) with databases of alien and native 265 distributions (56, 57), plant traits (58, 59), and historical dates of introduction (60) to provide a 266 comprehensive assessment of multidimensional invasion success for the European alien seed-267 plant flora. First, we test for correlations among local abundance, geographic extent, and habitat 268 breadth of alien species in their naturalized distributions and classify species into one of the eight 269 forms of invasiveness (Fig. 1). We ask whether some forms of invasiveness rarely occur, and 270 specifically whether species tend to fit along a continuum ranging from generally poor invaders to 271 super invaders – species excelling in all three dimensions. In addition, we compare relationships 272 among dimensions of invasiveness to those among dimensions of commonness measured for 273 Europe's native flora, assessing similarities and differences in patterns of distribution between 274 contexts. Next, we explore likely drivers of each invasiveness dimension, testing whether the year 275 of first alien occurrence in Europe, functional traits related to ecological strategies, specialized 276 adaptations for long-distance dispersal, habitat associations, and region of origin explain different 277 forms of invasion success.

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- 279

280 Results281

282 Associations among dimensions

283 Bivariate correlation tests showed that all three dimensions of invasiveness were significantly 284 positively correlated (Fig. 2e-i). The strongest link in the naturalized distributions of alien species 285 was between the geographic extent and local abundance dimensions (r = 0.48, p < 0.001); 286 correlations between either of these two dimensions and the habitat breadth dimension were 287 relatively low, but significant (abundance-habitat breadth: r = 0.24, p < 0.001; extent-habitat 288 breadth: r = 0.23, p < 0.001). Patterns were very similar for dimensions of commonness in native 289 European distributions (including from the native distributions of intra-continental aliens), though 290 correlations involving habitat breadth were stronger in this context (abundance-extent: r = 0.41, p < 0.001; abundance-habitat breadth: r = 0.42, p < 0.001; extent-habitat breadth: r = 0.58, p < 0.001; 291 292 Fig. 2a-c). Our results additionally suggest that correlations among dimensions increase as 293 distributions are given time to approach equilibrium. When alien species were grouped by their year 294 of first alien occurrence, correlations among invasiveness dimensions were strongest for the subset 295 of species with dates prior to 1800 (n = 326; abundance-extent: r = 0.51, p < 0.001; abundance-296 habitat breadth: r = 0.34, p < 0.001; extent-habitat breadth: r = 0.34, p < 0.001), intermediate for 297 those with dates between 1800 and 1900 (n = 336; abundance-extent: r = 0.47, p < 0.001;

298 abundance-habitat breadth: r = 0.20, p < 0.001; extent-habitat breadth: r = 0.24, p < 0.001), and 299 weakest for species introduced from 1900 onwards, where correlations between habitat breadth 300 and the other two dimensions were not significant (n = 174; abundance-extent: r = 0.37, p < 0.001; 301 abundance-habitat breadth: r = 0.10, p = 0.18; extent-habitat breadth: r = 0.13, p = 0.09). We also 302 identified interactions in the relationships among dimensions: high abundance was more strongly 303 associated with widespread extent for habitat generalist species than for habitat specialists in alien 304 distributions (adjusted R² for interaction model = 0.25; SI Appendix, Table S1; Fig. 2h) as well as 305 in native distributions (adjusted $R^2 = 0.38$; SI Appendix, Table S2; Fig. 2d). These patterns were 306 consistent when analyzed with PGLS regression (SI Appendix, Table S3 and S4) and for the subset 307 of extra-European aliens (i.e. those with native distributions completely outside of the continent; SI 308 Appendix, Tables S5 and S6).

309

310 The general correspondence among invasiveness dimensions is evident when visualizing all three 311 simultaneously, with most species falling along an axis from low to high values in all three dimensions (Fig. 2i and j). Randomization tests further revealed how the filling of this three-312 313 dimensional invasiveness space differed from null expectations (i.e. a scenario where dimensions 314 are not correlated; Fig. 3). Poor invaders (form 0) and super invaders (form AWG) were the only 315 invasiveness categories that included more species than expected by chance. When analyzing the 316 full species sample, the four forms of invasiveness characterized by high abundance and low extent or vice versa (form A, form W, form AG, and form WG; see Fig. 1) were significantly under-317 318 represented. Some details in the associations among invasiveness dimensions changed as the 319 sample of species was increasingly restricted to exclude those with widespread native distributions 320 in Europe (eventually including only extra-European aliens). For these restricted species subsets, 321 widespread extent showed stronger links with habitat generalism than with high abundance (i.e., 322 form A and form WG were no longer significantly under-represented and form AW and form G 323 rarely occurred). Otherwise, general patterns remained consistent across species subsets: poor 324 and super invaders (form 0 and form AWG, respectively) were over-represented, scarce specialist species were rarely widespread (form W was under-represented), and abundant generalists with 325 326 restricted range extents were rare (form AG was under-represented). Similarly, in native European 327 distributions, forms 0 and AWG were the only over-represented forms of commonness, with over half of species categorized into one of the two (SI Appendix, Table. S7). All other forms of 328 329 commonness were underrepresented. Results were largely consistent when the 0.25 and 0.75 quantile of each trait, rather than the median, were used to classify species into invasiveness or 330 331 commonness forms (SI Appendix, Fig. S1 and Table S7).

332

333 Drivers of invasiveness dimensions

334 We found that historical details of species introductions-geographic origins (i.e., extra- vs intra-335 European) and year of first record—were generally more important in explaining success along 336 dimensions of invasiveness than plant traits. Regression analyses revealed that values of all three 337 invasiveness dimensions tended to be higher for species with earlier recorded introductions in Europe (Table 1; Fig. 4). For habitat breadth, the slope of the relationship with the year of first 338 339 record was steeper for extra-European aliens than for intra-European aliens (i.e. species introduced 340 from native regions elsewhere in Europe; Fig. 4). Geographic origins and species traits additionally 341 influenced invasiveness dimensions (Table 1; Fig. 4; abundance: adjusted $R^2 = 0.19$; extent: adjusted $R^2 = 0.27$; habitat breadth: adjusted $R^2 = 0.04$). For the abundance and extent dimensions, 342 geographic origins (i.e., extra- vs intra-European) and year of first record contributed the majority 343 344 of explained variance (additional variance explained: origin for abundance = 0.09; first record for 345 abundance = 0.05; origin for extent = 0.17; first record for extent = 0.09). Explanatory power of 346 particular plant traits was therefore generally low for all three invasiveness dimensions.

347

For abundance in the naturalized range, the influence of plant height, seed mass, and investment in stem and leaf structure (together captured by PC_{Size} ; SI Appendix, section 'Trait data', Table S8 and Fig. S2) differed between intra- and extra-European aliens. Abundance increased with increasing values of PC_{Size} for intra-European aliens (simple slope: p < 0.02) but showed little 352 relationship for extra-European aliens (simple slope: p = 0.65). This resulted in the largest 353 differences in abundance between the two groups occurring in short-statured plants with small 354 seeds and low investment in stem and leaf structure (Fig. 4). Position along the leaf economics 355 spectrum (PC_{Econ}; SI Appendix, section 'Trait data', Table S8 and Fig. S2) (42, 43) also influenced 356 naturalized abundance differently for intra- and extra-European aliens. While abundance showed 357 a non-significant decrease with increasingly acquisitive growth strategies (i.e. higher PC_{Econ} values 358 reflecting higher leaf N content, leaf area, and specific leaf area) in intra-European aliens (simple 359 slope: p = 0.23), an increase in abundances was seen with increasing PC_{Econ} values in extra-360 European aliens (simple slope: p = 0.03). Overall, this gave rise to a pattern whereby abundances 361 were highest for acquisitive species originating from outside Europe but lowest for acquisitive species introduced from within Europe (Fig. 4). Graminoids tended to occur at higher abundances 362 and species with epizoochorous or endozoochorous long-distance dispersal syndromes tended to 363 364 occur at lower abundances than species without such specializations (Table 1). Traits showed generally weak relationships with abundance in native European distributions (adjusted $R^2 = 0.11$; 365 366 SI appendix Tables S9-11); growth form was the strongest explanatory variable (additional variance 367 explained = 0.10), being lower in forbs than in other groups.

368

369 Geographic extent of naturalized distributions was generally higher for extra-European aliens and 370 decreased further in small-sized intra-European aliens (i.e., low PCsize values; simple slope extra-371 European: p = 0.14; simple slope intra-European: p < 0.01; Table 1; Fig. 4). Naturalized extent was 372 also higher for species with acquisitive growth strategies (high PCEcon), regardless of their 373 geographic origin. Contrary to predictions, the capacity for long-distance dispersal, specifically 374 anemochory, had a general negative effect on naturalized extent (Table 1). For geographic extent 375 in native distributions (adjusted $R^2 = 0.10$; SI appendix Tables S9-11), growth form was the 376 strongest explanatory variable (additional variance explained = 0.05), being greatest for graminoids 377 and smallest for shrubs. Though we additionally detected weak, but significant, negative effects of 378 PC_{Size}, and positive effects for PC_{Econ} and seed dispersal through endozoochory.

379

380 Habitat breadth in naturalized distributions was generally higher for graminoids and for trees, but 381 after accounting for this effect, decreased with PCsize in extra-European aliens (simple slope extra-European: p = 0.02; simple slope intra-European: p = 0.80; Table 1; Fig. 4). As was the case in 382 383 naturalized distributions, traits were generally poor predictors of habitat breadth in native distributions (adjusted R² = 0.03; SI appendix Tables S9-11). Patterns for all three invasiveness 384 385 dimensions were generally similar when data was analyzed with PGLS regression, though some 386 trait effects were no longer significant (PC_{size} -origin interaction on naturalized abundance: p = 0.06; 387 PC_{Exon} -origin interaction for naturalized abundance: p = 0.12; PC_{Econ} for naturalized extent: p =388 0.07: PC_{size}-origin interaction for naturalized habitat breadth; p = 0.06; SI Appendix, Table S12).

389

390 Characteristics of different forms of invasiveness

391 In addition to identifying conditions associated with each individual dimension of invasiveness, we 392 found general patterns in the characteristics of alien species within each of the eight forms of 393 invasiveness (SI appendix, Fig. S3 and Tables S13-S17 for full results of randomization tests). Poor 394 invaders (form 0) and restricted range generalists (form G and form AG) overwhelmingly comprised 395 intra-European aliens. In contrast, super-invaders (form AWG) and abundant, widespread 396 specialists (form AW) were disproportionately composed of extra-European aliens (SI appendix, 397 Fig. S3 and Table S13). Species that excelled only in the abundance dimension (form A) tended 398 towards conservative growth strategies (low PC_{Econ}), regardless of origin. Otherwise, for intra-399 European aliens, habitat generalist species that were also abundant (form AG and form AWG) 400 tended to be larger in size (high PC_{Size}); poor invaders (form 0) and species that excelled in only 401 the habitat breadth or abundance dimensions (form G and form A) were smaller (low PC_{Size}), and 402 widespread generalists tended towards acquisitive growth strategies (high PCEcon; SI Appendix,

Table S14). Differences in growth forms among forms of invasiveness were largely consistent with the results for PC_{Size} and PC_{Econ} (SI Appendix, Table S15).

405

406 All eight forms of invasiveness included species with dates of first alien occurrence ranging from at 407 least the mid sixteenth century to the turn of the twenty-first century (SI appendix, Fig. S3). 408 However, super invaders (form AWG) and intra-European aliens classified in form WG were 409 associated with earlier recorded dates of introduction in Europe (SI appendix, Fig. S3 and Table 410 S16). In contrast, poor invaders (form 0), species that succeeded in only the habitat breadth or the 411 abundance dimensions (form G and form A) were associated with relatively recent dates of 412 introductions. Species specialized for long-distance dispersal did not show any strong patterns 413 besides the over-representation of specialized dispersers among extra-European aliens classified 414 as overall poor invaders (form 0) and their under-representation among form AW species (SI 415 Appendix, Table S17).

416

417 Habitats of specialists

418 We found that, on average, the habitats occupied by species that were habitat specialists in their 419 naturalized distributions (invasiveness form 0, form A, form W, and form AW) differed in area of 420 coverage across Europe (F = 2.71, p = 0.04; SI Appendix, Fig. S4a and b). Specifically, alien 421 species in form AW occurred in the most widespread habitats, though differences were small, 422 variation was high, and this group was only statistically distinguishable from poor invaders (form 0; 423 Tukey HSD test: p = 0.05). Form AW alien species also showed a strong association with ruderal 424 habitats; this was the only habitat where either invasiveness form of widespread habitat specialists 425 (form W or AW) were overrepresented (SI Appendix, Fig. S4c). In native distributions, widespread 426 habitat specialists also occurred in more widespread habitats (F = 10.89, p < 0.001; SI Appendix, 427 Fig. S5a and b). Abundant habitat specialists with restricted ranges (form A) in particular occurred 428 in habitats with limited area in Europe. Notably, habitat specialists that were widespread in their 429 native European distributions (form W and form AW) were overrepresented in cropland habitats, 430 the most widespread habitat in Europe, while those that also reached high abundances (form AW) 431 were additionally overrepresented in ruderal habitats (SI Appendix, Fig. S5c).

432

433

434 Discussion

435

436 Our analysis of multidimensional invasion success in Europe's alien flora demonstrates that local 437 abundance, range extent, and habitat breadth of naturalized distributions are positively 438 associated at the continental scale. Most species fall along a spectrum from overall poor invaders 439 to super invaders that excel in all three dimensions. These results echo patterns that we found for 440 dimensions of commonness measured from the distributions of native European flora, and that 441 have been previously documented in the native distributions of various taxa (23–26, 33). This 442 suggests that similar mechanisms structure alien and native distributions at macroecological 443 scales. Our finding of positive associations between abundance and geographic extent in the 444 distributions of both native and alien species may seem at odds with a recent study that found low 445 support for similar correlations in native European flora (34). However, this apparent discrepancy 446 can be explained by our use of maximum abundance as a proxy of potential for local dominance 447 (16, 61, 62), rather than averaging abundances across the entire range. This is consistent with 448 previous studies that have found stronger abundance-extent relationships when using measures 449 of maximum abundance (63). For alien distributions, our results largely correspond with those 450 from a regional assessment of French grassland communities (20), but contrast with findings from 451 Southeast Australia (16), perhaps reflecting that species introductions in Oceania have primarily 452 occurred more recently and aliens there may not have had the necessary time to expand along 453 each dimension (60). Indeed, our results suggest that many alien distributions have not reached 454 equilibrium (37). Correlations among invasiveness dimensions were strongest for plant species 455 with earlier dates of introduction, indicating that deviations from general patterns are at least 456 partially driven by time lags in invasion processes (35, 36). In addition to earlier dates of

457 introduction, extra-continental origins were associated with higher performance along all three 458 dimensions of invasiveness. Species functional traits, on the other hand, were typically poor 459 predictors of dimensions in both alien and native distributions. This is perhaps unsurprising 460 considering the diversity of successful ecological and life-history strategies that can be observed 461 within and across natural systems (64). Nevertheless, we did find a number of significant trait 462 effects, often showing interactions within the context of alien species' geographic origins, that are 463 in line with hypothesized mechanisms of invasion (see text below). Taken together, our analyses 464 identified characteristics of species and their introduction histories that help to explain why they 465 showed success in only one, two, or in all three dimensions.

466

The strongest correlation among invasiveness dimensions was between local abundance and 467 468 geographic extent and there are many reasons to expect that these features of distributions 469 should be linked. For example, the ability to maintain high population density reduces the probability of stochastic local extirpation and could facilitate the persistence of populations in 470 471 more areas (65). Both local abundance and area of occupancy also influence the production of 472 propagules and therefore the potential to colonize new regions and habitats or to bolster populations in previously colonized areas (66, 67). In addition, high local abundance should 473 474 similarly increase the likelihood of further human-assisted dispersal (68, 69). Efforts to 475 understand the widespread occurrence of so-called positive abundance-distribution relationships 476 among species native distributions have so far led only to a general consensus that several 477 interacting, rather than one single, mechanisms are likely at play (26, 70). Considering that even 478 the direction of causality in these relationship remains unclear, it could be expected that species 479 excelling in either of these invasiveness dimensions may eventually increase in the other if 480 provided the opportunity and time – especially given the higher strength of correlation between 481 these dimensions for species with longer residence times (i.e., earlier recorded dates of first 482 occurrence).

483

484 Our results, however, suggest that investment in rapid growth may be one path for aliens to 485 become widespread without necessarily reaching high abundances locally. Acquisitive traits have 486 been associated with range filling in native distributions (46), and we found that high values of 487 trait PC_{Econ}, indicating acquisitive growth strategies, were associated with larger extents for native 488 and naturalized ranges. But we found that intra-continental aliens with these traits showed lower 489 naturalized abundance and were over-represented among the relatively few generalist species 490 that were locally scarce but widespread in their naturalized distributions (see SI appendix, Fig. 491 S3). In contrast, locally abundant species with restricted naturalized ranges tended to show 492 conservative growth strategies. However, we found that many of the forms of invasiveness 493 characterized by restricted geographic extent were associated with more recent introductions. 494 suggesting that these patterns are influenced by time lags in invasion processes and that some of 495 these species are likely to continue to expand their ranges in the future (35). This is potentially 496 true even for species that currently appear to be overall poor invaders, and note should be taken 497 if they begin to increase in any of the three dimensions.

498

499 We predicted that alien species with diaspores adapted to long-distance dispersal should have 500 broader naturalized extents. A rather modest increase in extent for endozoochorous species 501 indicates that this may be the case for native distributions, but we found the opposite pattern for 502 alien distributions, particularly for anemochorous aliens. Some potential reasons are that alien 503 plants might be mostly dispersed by anthropogenic vectors, via many short-distance stepwise 504 dispersal events (e.g., clonal spread, myrmecochory, barochory), or through stochastic events or 505 other vectors for which long-distance dispersal syndromes have a negligible, or even negative 506 effect (71, 72). For epizoochorous and endozoochorous aliens, specialized diaspores were also 507 associated with lower naturalized abundances, suggesting that these adaptations may aid in the 508 rapid colonization of newly available sites, but decrease establishment success (e.g., fugitive 509 species concept; (73)). Plant height, on the other hand, is also associated with dispersal ability

510 and establishment success and was positively associated with naturalized extent in intra-511 European aliens (74, 75).

513 Habitat breadth was less strongly correlated with the other two invasiveness dimensions, but our 514 results reveal its important links in the invasion process. Locally abundant alien species were 515 more likely to be widespread when they were also habitat generalists in their naturalized range 516 (see figure 2h, see also (76)). This link was particularly evident in analyses restricted to aliens 517 originating from outside of Europe (see Fig. 3), which already tended to be among the most 518 abundant invaders in the region (see Fig. 4). Species capable of persisting in a wider variety of 519 environments should generally have larger potential distributions (23, 77), but for habitat 520 specialists, we found that their specific habitat associations influenced whether or not alien 521 species were widespread: habitats that are common across Europe (though this effect was 522 relatively weak and potentially sensitive to our coarse measures of habitat coverage), ruderal 523 habitats in particular, were associated with larger naturalized range sizes (SI Appendix, Fig. S3). The role of disturbed environments in facilitating invasions may help to explain why links between 524 525 habitat breadth and the other two dimensions were weaker in alien compared to native 526 distributions (78). However, high abundance and widespread distributions were also associated 527 with ruderal habitats, and additionally croplands, for native habitat specialists. The ability to 528 capitalize on these widespread and expanding human modified environments appears to provide 529 opportunities for some native as well as alien plants. Perhaps unsurprisingly, the functional traits 530 included in our study were generally poor predictors of habitat breadth in native and alien 531 distributions. Measures such as the breadth of environmental tolerances or the degree of phenotypic plasticity are currently not available for large numbers of species, but would potentially 532 533 be informative (79). Habitat breadth in the native distribution could also prove fruitful in predicting 534 success in this invasiveness dimension for cases where data is available (69, 80, 81), as has 535 been shown for abundance (82).

536

512

537 One of the most striking patterns in our analyses was the prominence of aliens originating from 538 other continents among the most invasive species in Europe. These species typically reached 539 higher local abundances and became naturalized over a wider geographic extent than aliens 540 originating within the continent. The steeper relationship between date of first occurrence with 541 habitat breadth indicates that extra-European aliens also spread more rapidly among habitats in 542 their non-native distributions (see Fig. 4). These results are in line with previous suggestions that 543 species expanding their range in response to climate change, either through natural dispersal or 544 human assisted migration, pose relatively low risk of becoming invasive in their new 545 environments (54). However, we note that while intracontinental aliens were underrepresented 546 among the worst invaders of Europe, they were not completely absent from these groups and 547 more research is needed to fully understand the factors that determine their success (83). 548

549 We found that the difference in abundance between intra- and extra-European aliens was 550 dependent on traits that mark a general trade-off between rapid growth and increased survival. 551 consistent with expectations of the enemy release hypothesis (51). Acquisitive growth strategists 552 are particularly vulnerable to pathogens, herbivores, and competitors (84-86), suggesting a 553 higher potential to benefit from enemy release (87, 88), but escape from biotic constraints is less 554 likely when species are introduced to areas near their native distributions. Indeed, while 555 acquisitive species introduced from outside of Europe were generally the most abundant and 556 widespread aliens, we found that those originating from within the continent were typically scarce 557 where naturalized. Larger species that invest in stem and leaf structure (high PCsize) and 558 conservative growth strategies (low PC_{Econ}) - traits associated with increased resistance to biotic 559 enemies (84-86, 89) - tended to reach intermediate abundances whether they originated from 560 inside or outside Europe. Unburdened from biotic constraints and capable of rapid growth, 561 acquisitive extra-European aliens may be particularly suited for outcompeting native species and 562 other aliens in disturbed habitats where the availabilities of resources such as light or nitrogen

tend to be higher. As human activities continue to alter natural landscapes, we should therefore expect these species to find increasing success as invaders into the future (90, 91).

565

566 Insights from a multidimensional perspective of invasiveness

567 While distinguishing among different components of species naturalized distributions has been 568 suggested as an important step in understanding the drivers of biological invasion (16, 20, 21). 569 our assessment of the European alien flora, as well as the native flora, shows how different 570 measures of invasion success or commonness are largely entangled; species capable of 571 reaching high local abundances are also generally capable of occupying large areas and many 572 different habitats. Indeed, deviations from this general pattern were greater for alien species with 573 more recent introductions (e.g., post 1900), emphasizing that these species have not yet reached 574 their full potential along some of the invasiveness dimensions. However, beyond clarifying some 575 of the species characteristics and ecological processes that facilitate super invaders (e.g., extra-576 European origins), our analyses have also identified certain cases where the same trait can have divergent influence on invasiveness in different dimensions (e.g., position along the leaf 577 578 economics spectrum has opposite effects on naturalized abundance and extent for intra-579 European aliens). In addition, by exploring exceptions to the general relationships, we identify 580 traits and habitats that are associated with atypical invasion patterns. In short, despite the links 581 between abundance, geographic extent, and habitat breadth, the dimensions of invasiveness 582 framework has proven to be a valuable tool for making sense of current patterns of naturalization, 583 anticipating future invasions, and generally improving our understanding of the dynamics of 584 species distributions.

585 586

587 Materials and Methods588

Flow diagrams illustrating the databases and analyses used in this study are provided in SI
Appendix, Fig. S6 and S7. Data and R code used for analyses can be found in supplemental data
files S1-6.

592

593 Quantifying extent

594 The geographic extent of naturalization for Europe's alien flora was measured using the Global 595 Naturalized Alien Flora (GloNAF) database (56, 92, 93) (downloaded July 24, 2019). It consists of 596 lists of alien plants (species and infraspecific taxa) documented for 861 regions covering the 597 globe, with regions ranging from countries to smaller geopolitical units such as states, provinces, 598 or individual islands (see SI Appendix, Fig. S8 for the distribution of geographic areas of 599 European regions included in this study). For the purpose of this study, we included only seed-600 plants, gathered data at the species level by merging subspecies or varieties, and, when detailed 601 information was available, we restricted alien occurrences to only those where a species was 602 confirmed as naturalized in a region. We extracted data from GloNAF for the 5,653 species that 603 have become naturalized in at least one region of Europe, with boundaries as defined by Ref. 604 (94). Because abundance and habitat-breadth data covered only Europe (see below), our 605 measure of geographic extent for each species was taken as the number of regions where they 606 are reported as naturalized within the continent. Many of Europe's alien species are introduced 607 from regions of native distributions elsewhere within the continent (intra-European aliens), 608 meaning that the upper possible number of naturalized regions varied among species. Using 609 native range data from Euro+Med PlantBase (57), we performed additional assessments to 610 confirm that this constraint did not have a substantial influence on our measure of naturalized 611 geographic range size (see SI Appendix, section 'Comparing extent measures'). We used the 612 number of regions in the Euro+Med PlantBase where species were reported as native as our 613 measure of extent for native distributions (available for 19,472 European species). 614

615 Quantifying abundance

For metrics of local abundance in species' naturalized or native range, we used data on their

617 relative cover measured in vegetation-plots compiled by the European Vegetation Archive (EVA)

(55), a repository of data from over 1 million plots from vegetation surveys spanning all of Europe

619 (downloaded on March 3, 2019). As a proxy for species capacity to become dominant, we used 620 the maximum of spatially aggregated cover values as our measure of abundance for the species

with sufficient data (n = 945 for alien distributions; n = 6,052 for native distributions; see SI

Appendix, sections 'Quantifying abundance' and 'Matching between GloNAF and EVA' for details
 and Databases S1 and S2 for species lists).

624

625 Quantifying habitat breadth

Each EVA survey plot was assigned to one of 229 habitat types of the European Nature 626 627 Information System (EUNIS) using the classification expert system EUNIS-ESy ver. 2020-06-08 628 (95). These habitat types were further merged into 47 broader habitat types used in this study (SI 629 Appendix, Table S18). Habitat classification was possible for 66% of the nearly 390,000 EVA 630 plots that included aliens, and 60% of over 1.2 million plots that included native species; these 631 were used to quantify the habitat breadth of species naturalized and native ranges respectively. 632 Because not all habitat types are equally distinct (e.g., wet and mesic grasslands are more similar 633 to each other than either is to taiga), our measure of habitat breadth accounts for floral similarity 634 among habitats by calculating the effective habitat number for each species following the method 635 in Ref. (96) (see SI Appendix, section 'Effective habitat number' and Fig. S9). In addition to 636 calculating habitat breadth, we determined the habitat where each species most frequently occurred by aggregating EVA plots in 1° × 1° grid cells and counting the number of grid cells 637 638 where each species was observed in each habitat.

639

640 Assessing associations among dimensions

641 We used a number of complementary approaches to test for associations among the three 642 dimensions of invasiveness or commonness. In all cases, dimension measures were log-643 transformed prior to analysis. First, we performed pairwise correlation tests between dimensions using the Pearson correlation coefficient. To assess the influence of residence time on the 644 645 association among invasiveness dimensions, we additionally performed correlation tests on three 646 subsets of alien species depending on their first recorded year of alien occurrence in Europe: those with first records before 1800, those with first records from 1800 to 1900, and those with 647 648 the first record year from 1900 onwards. Information on species' first record as an introduced 649 alien in Europe came from Ref. (60). Second, in order to test for more complex relationships 650 among dimensions, we performed linear regression with geographic extent as the response, with 651 an interaction between abundance and habitat breadth as explanatory variables. This analysis 652 was performed for the full native species dataset, full alien species dataset, and also for a 653 restricted subset including only the alien species originating from entirely outside of Europe 654 (extra-European aliens). In order to ensure that results were robust to phylogenetic non-655 independence in our species samples, we additionally tested the same relationships using phylogenetic generalized least squares (PGLS) regression using the 'ape' and 'nlme' packages in 656 657 R (97, 98). Phylogenetic analyses were based on a global seed-plant phylogeny from Ref. (99) 658 with 26 missing species added to the root of their respective genera or family following the 659 methods in Ref. (3).

660

661 The third approach was to classify species into the eight different forms of invasiveness (Fig. 1) (16, 20) or commonness (19) based on whether they were above or below the median value in 662 663 each dimension, and then use randomization tests to determine whether species of each form 664 were observed more or less often than expected by chance (i.e., a scenario where values for 665 each dimension are decoupled and shuffled among species so that associations among them are 666 random; see SI Appendix, section 'Randomizations'). To ensure that results were not sensitive to 667 the chosen cutoff, randomizations were also performed with species classified to invasiveness or 668 commonness forms based on whether they were below the 0.25 or above the 0.75 guantile for 669 each dimension. In order to determine whether associations among invasiveness dimensions

670 differed for species with limited native ranges within Europe or originating from completely outside

671 Europe, we repeated these randomization tests for restricted subsets of species based on the

672 extent of their native European distribution (57). Starting with all species, we subsequently

excluded those with native distributions exceeding a threshold number of regions in Europe,

674 moving towards a final analysis that included only extra-European aliens.

675

676 Assessing the traits and origins of successful invaders

677 To test specific drivers of success along each invasiveness dimension, we combined available 678 data on species traits and their historical origins; variables included growth form, functional traits 679 (6 traits reduced via principal component analysis to composite variables PCsize and PCEcon; see SI Appendix, section 'Trait data', Table S8, Table S9, and Fig. S2) (58, 59), specialization for 680 681 long-distance dispersal (100), region of origin (intra- versus extra-European) (57), and year of first 682 record (60). Sample sizes for subsequent analyses included all species with complete data for the 683 traits relevant to the given analysis and are reported in results tables (also see SI Appendix, Fig. 684 S6 and S7 and Databases S1 and S2).

685

686 To determine whether certain traits or aspects of historic origin were associated with success in 687 each invasiveness dimension, we performed separate linear regressions with log-transformed 688 dimension values as the response and interactions between the region of origin (intra-versus 689 extra-European), PC_{Size}, PC_{Econ}, and the year of first record, in addition to specializations for long-690 distance dispersal as explanatory variables. Growth form was also included as an explanatory 691 variable to ensure that any potential trait relationships acted independently to the broadscale trait 692 differences among forbs, graminoids, shrubs, and trees (see SI Appendix, Fig. S2). Interaction 693 effects that were not significant were removed from models. We additionally analyzed these 694 relationships using PGLS regression. For models testing for drivers of dimensions of 695 commonness in native distributions, explanatory variables included growth form, PC_{Size}, PC_{Econ}, 696 and long-distance dispersal syndrome.

697

698 We also tested whether species attributed to each of the eight forms of invasiveness shared 699 similar traits or historic origins. This was done using randomization tests where associated 700 variables were shuffled among species 10.000 times (with values for the two trait PCs remaining 701 linked). For region of origin, we analyzed all species together and for the remaining 702 characteristics, we analyzed intra- and extra-European aliens separately to account for potential 703 interactions. Within each form of invasiveness, we compared the observed number of species 704 from each growth form, geographic origin category, and specialized or not for long-distance 705 dispersal (the three dispersal syndromes were grouped for these analyses) to the expected 706 numbers derived from randomizations. For PC_{Size}, PC_{Econ}, and the year of first record, we 707 compared the mean observed value within a form of invasiveness to the mean value for species 708 assigned to that type across randomizations. Standardized difference scores (z) and significance 709 were determined following the methods described in the SI Appendix, section 'Randomizations'.

710

711 Assessing the habitat associations of specialist species

712 Finally, we assessed the habitats of highest occurrence frequency for the species showing the 713 four forms of invasiveness or commonness that are characterized by habitat specialization (form 714 0, form A, form W, and form AW in Fig. 1). We performed randomizations, reshuffling the most frequented habitats reported among all habitat specialist forms 10,000 times, comparing the 715 716 observed number for each habitat type within each form of invasiveness or commonness to the 717 expected number derived from randomizations. Standardized difference scores (z-scores) and 718 significance were calculated as described in the SI Appendix, section 'Randomizations'. Finally, 719 we tested the hypothesis that for habitat-specialist species, those that are widespread (forms W 720 and AW) are more likely to occur in habitats that cover large areas in Europe compared to 721 restricted-range specialists (forms 0 and A). We used an ANOVA to compare the log-transformed 722 area in Europe covered by the habitats most frequented by species in these four forms of 723 invasiveness or commonness (Estimated areas for each habitat in Europe are reported in SI

Appendix, Table S18; sources and methods for obtaining these values are outlined in SI
 Appendix, section 'Estimating habitat areas').

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970 Figures and Tables





Figure 1. Conceptual diagram outlining the eight different forms of invasiveness depending on success in zero, one, two, or three dimensions of invasiveness (based on (16, 18, 20)). Forms of invasiveness within the cyan polygon are associated with high naturalized abundance, within the magenta polygon with widespread naturalized geographic extent, and within the yellow polygon with high naturalized habitat breadth. Overlap between magenta and cyan is blue, between cyan and yellow is green, between magenta and yellow is red, and between all three is black. The forms of invasiveness are comparable to analogous forms of commonness used to describe species in their native distributions, and we refer to the same abbreviations in both cases.

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988 Figure 2. Correlations among abundance, extent, and habitat breadth for species' native (a-d; n = 6052) and alien (e-j; n = 945) distributions in Europe, shown through bivariate correlations (a-c 989 990 and e-f), the interacting effect of abundance and habitat breadth on extent (d and h), and species 991 positions within 3-dimensional invasiveness space (e-f). In panels d and h, the color of points 992 depict species habitat breadth scores (from low scores in light grey to high scores in yellow); lines 993 and shaded areas depict the predicted fit and 95% confidence interval at the 0.1 (light grey), 0.5 (dark grey), and 0.9 (yellow) quantile of habitat breadth values. In panels i and j, the color of each 994 995 point corresponds to its relative position in three dimensional invasiveness space following the color scheme outlined in figure 1 and the CMY model of color mixing (101): position along the 996 997 abundance axis is associated with the amount of cyan, position along the extent axis with 998 magenta, and position along the habitat breadth axis with yellow. The dashed diagonal arrows in 999 panels i and j represent the hypothesized continuum from overall poor invaders (light grey) to 1000 super invaders that excel in all three dimensions (dark grey). Extent of native distributions is 1001 calculated as the number of occupied regions in the Euro+Med Plantbase and for alien 1002 distributions as the number of naturalized regions in the GloNAF database (see 'Quantifying 1003 extent' in the methods), so values cannot be directly compared between groups. 1004

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1010 Figure 3. Representation of Europe's alien flora among eight forms of invasiveness. Analyses 1011 were performed across species subsets based on the extent of their native European ranges, starting with all species (n = 945) and subsequently excluding species with native ranges 1012 1013 exceeding a threshold number of European regions (i.e., range threshold), eventually including 1014 only extra-European aliens (n = 209); the top left panel shows the proportion of species included 1015 in each analyzed subset (see methods for more details). The vertical bar plots on the left of each of the remaining eight panels depict the results of randomization analyses: z-scores are the 1016 1017 standardized differences between the observed number of species categorized in a given 1018 invasiveness form and the expected numbers derived from randomizations; results for the full

1019 species sample are at the top of the bar plot and those for the subset including only extra-1020 European aliens at the bottom). Blue bars indicate a form with significantly more species than expected for a given species subset, red bars indicate a form with significantly fewer species, and 1021 grey bars indicate forms where the number of species did not differ significantly from 1022 1023 expectations. Within each panel, the 3-dimensional invasiveness plots - with axes representing 1024 naturalized abundance (abbreviated 'A'), geographic extent ('E'), and habitat breadth ('H') - show 1025 how species were classified into the eight invasiveness forms based on continues dimension 1026 values. The species classified to the given form of invasiveness are highlighted and the area 1027 used for classification (defined by the median value for each dimension) is delineated with semi-1028 transparent planes. Each invasiveness space is rotated to best show positions corresponding to 1029 the given category, the direction of increase for each axis is shown through arrows. An example 1030 species is highlighted in each category. 1031

1036 Figure 4. Partial residual plots depicting the combined effects of geographic origin (i.e., intra-1037 versus extra-European aliens), year of first recorded alien occurrence in Europe, PCsize (low 1038 values: short height and low investment in stem and leaf structure; high values: tall height and 1039 high investment in stem and leaf structure), and PC_{Econ} (i.e., position on leaf economics spectrum; 1040 low values: conservative growth strategies; high values: acquisitive growth strategies) on 1041 abundance, geographic extent, and habitat breadth in the naturalized range (n = 783). In panels 1042 where the explanatory variable was significantly associated with the given invasiveness 1043 dimension, the relationship for intra-European aliens is in purple and for extra-European aliens in 1044 orange, otherwise species from each origin are grouped and shown in grey. Significant relationships (determined by simple slopes analysis in the case of interactions, $\alpha = 0.05$) are 1045 1046 indicated with solid lines, non-significant relationships with dashed lines. Additional details of the 1047 principal component analysis corresponding to PCsize and PCEcon can be found in SI Appendix, 1048 Table S8 and Fig. S2; full summaries for regression models are in Table 1. 1049

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Table 1. Results from regression analyses of naturalized abundance, extent, and habitat breadth of alien species (n = 783). Reference levels of categorical variables at the intercept are forb for growth form and intra-European for origin. Coefficients for first record date are based on centered and scaled values. Non-significant interactions were removed during model selection; coefficients and p-values from the last model which included these terms are reported in parentheses.

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-	Abundance		Extent		Habitat breadth	
-	β	р	β	p	β	р
(intercept)	-2.06	<0.001	2.43	< 0.001	0.55	< 0.001
Extra-European origin	0.86	< 0.001	0.96	< 0.001	-0.03	0.39
PC _{Size}	0.14	0.02	0.14	< 0.01	-0.00	0.80
Extra-European origin*PC _{Size}	-0.17	0.04	-0.24	< 0.001	-0.05	0.03
PC _{Econ}	-0.06	0.23	0.07	0.02	0.02	0.23
Extra-European origin*PC _{Econ}	0.21	0.01	(0.04)	(0.52)	(-0.01)	(0.67)
First record date	-0.26	< 0.001	-0.29	< 0.001	-0.03	0.02
Extra-European origin*First record date	(-0.03)	(0.76)	(-0.13)	(0.11)	-0.10	< 0.01
Epizoochorous	-0.40	< 0.001	-0.17	0.06	-0.01	0.79
Anemochorous	0.04	0.65	-0.29	< 0.001	0.03	0.27
Endozoochorous	-0.31	0.04	-0.17	0.15	0.03	0.57
Growth form – Graminoid	0.70	< 0.001	0.05	0.61	0.08	0.04
Growth form – Shrub	-0.01	0.96	0.15	0.22	-0.03	0.57
Growth form – Tree	0.21	0.27	0.16	0.27	0.11	0.05