

1 **Non-linear effects of phylogenetic distance on early-stage establishment**
2 **of experimentally introduced plants in grassland communities**

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1 **Abstract**

- 2 1. The phylogenetic distance of an introduced plant species to a resident native community may
3 play a role in determining its establishment success. While Darwin's naturalization hypothesis
4 predicts a positive relationship, the preadaptation hypothesis predicts a negative relationship.
5 Rigorous tests of this now so-called Darwin's naturalization conundrum require not only
6 information on establishment successes but also of failures, which is frequently not available.
7 Such essential information, however, can be provided by experimental introductions.
- 8 2. Here, we analysed three datasets from two field experiments in Germany and Switzerland. In
9 the Swiss experiment, alien and native grassland species were introduced as seeds only with
10 and without disturbance (tilling). In the German experiment, alien and native grassland
11 species were introduced both as seeds and as seedlings with and without disturbance (tilling),
12 and with and without fungicide application. For the seedling introduction experiment, there
13 was an additional herbivore-exclusion treatment.
- 14 3. Phylogenetic distance affected establishment in the three datasets differently, with success
15 peaking at intermediate distances for the seed datasets, but decreasing with increasing
16 distances in the seedling dataset. Disturbance favoured seedling survival, most likely by
17 weakening the resident community.
- 18 4. *Synthesis*: By analysing experimental introductions, we show that the relationship between
19 phylogenetic distance and establishment, at least for seedling emergence, may actually be
20 non-linear with an optimum at intermediate distances. Therefore, Darwin's naturalization
21 hypothesis and the preadaptation hypothesis need not be in conflict. Rather, the mechanisms
22 underlying them can operate simultaneously or alternately depending on the life stage and on
23 the environmental conditions of the resident community.

Keywords: Darwin's naturalization hypothesis, introduction experiment, alien plant species, phylogenetic distance, plant colonization, establishment success

24 **Introduction**

25 Invasive alien species – non-native organisms introduced by humans and spreading into a new range
26 (Richardson *et al.*, 2000) – are a major component of global change (Vitousek, D’Antonio and Loope,
27 1997). While the drivers behind global patterns in plant invasions are beginning to emerge (van
28 Kleunen *et al.* 2015a, Pyšek *et al.* 2017, Dawson *et al.* 2017), the identification of consistent drivers
29 of invasion success at community scales remains elusive. Most alien, as well as native, plant species
30 enter a resident community as seeds, and thus depend on seed germination and seedling survival for
31 successful establishment (van Kleunen *et al.* 2015b). Identifying what determines plant establishment
32 success at these early stages will provide insight not only into potential drivers of invasion, but also
33 into community assembly in general (Gallien & Carboni, 2016).

34 Functional traits are thought to be important in determining the success of introduced species
35 (Vilà & Weiner 2004, van Kleunen & Johnson 2007, Dawson *et al.* 2011, Razanajatovo *et al.* 2016).
36 Besides the trait values *per se*, establishment of an introduced species in a resident community might
37 also depend on how functionally similar or different the species is from the resident community
38 (Macdougall *et al.* 2009, Thuiller *et al.* 2010, van Kleunen 2015b). As functional similarity of species
39 may involve numerous traits, which are often not or only partially available for a given set of species,
40 similarity is challenging to measure (Albert *et al.* 2010, Cadotte *et al.* 2010). However, as many traits
41 are phylogenetically conserved, an alternative metric to explain invasion success is the phylogenetic
42 distance between the introduced species and the resident community (Proches *et al.*, 2008). Due to
43 the increasing availability of dated molecular phylogenies for plants (e.g. Durka & Michalski 2012),
44 phylogenetic distance estimates can be readily calculated for most sets of plant species (Cadotte *et*
45 *al.*, 2010).

46 Darwin’s naturalization hypothesis (DNH) (Darwin 1859, Proches *et al.* 2008, Thuiller *et al.*
47 2010) postulates that introduced alien species closely related to the local native species are less likely
48 to become invasive than distantly related alien species. This is because close relatives will have a

49 greater functional similarity, and therefore more similar niche requirements than distant relatives.
50 Such niche overlap is likely to intensify competition and result in exclusion of the alien species by
51 closely related native species, if the latter are stronger competitors (MacDougall *et al.* 2009, van
52 Kleunen *et al.* 2015b). In addition to more intense competition for resources, introduced plants may
53 also be more likely to suffer from pathogens and herbivores that they share with closely related
54 resident plants (Ness *et al.* 2011, Kempel *et al.* 2018).

55 Studies testing DNH, however, disagree on the strength and direction of the effect of
56 phylogenetic distance. While some studies found evidence in support of DNH (Rejmanek 1996,
57 Ricciardi & Atkinson 2004, Strauss *et al.* 2006), others found the opposite (i.e. that more closely
58 related alien species were more likely to be successful; Duncan & Williams 2002, Diez *et al.* 2009,
59 Daehler 2011), or no relationship between naturalization success and phylogenetic distance
60 (Lambdon & Hulme 2006, Ricciardi & Mottiar 2006, Diez *et al.* 2008). These inconsistent results
61 may partly arise from differences in spatial scale among studies (Thuiller *et al.*, 2010). Contrary to
62 DNH, introduced species more closely related to natives might be more successful due to
63 environmental filtering at larger spatial scales, as due to their similarity to residents they should be
64 preadapted to the new environment (preadaptation hypothesis, Daehler 2011, Schlaepfer *et al.* 2010).
65 The two apparently opposing hypotheses are now referred to as “Darwin’s Naturalization
66 Conundrum” (Thuiller *et al.*, 2010). Preadaptation should operate both at small and large spatial
67 scales, whereas competitive exclusion is likely to act only at the small spatial scales where organisms
68 interact (Carl *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, when preadaptation (environmental filtering) and competitive
69 exclusion both play a role, the highest establishment success may be at intermediate phylogenetic
70 distances (Gallien & Carboni 2014, Gallien *et al.* 2016). To the best of our knowledge, such non-
71 linear relationships have not yet been tested (van Kleunen *et al.* 2018).

72 Another potential reason for the inconsistent outcomes of studies testing DNH is that most
73 tests are based on observational data. As only established alien species can be observed, these studies

74 have to make assumptions about the potential pool of introduced alien species (i.e. including the ones
75 that failed to establish), and about when and how frequently (i.e. propagule pressure) the species were
76 introduced. Experimental, simultaneous introductions of multiple species with equal propagule
77 pressure, followed by assessment of establishment success, can overcome these limitations. Ideally,
78 such experiments would also manipulate competition with resident plants, and interactions with
79 pathogens and herbivores to test whether these factors mediate relationships between establishment
80 success and phylogenetic distance to the native residents.

81 Here, we re-analysed three datasets of experimental introductions of alien and native plant
82 species into semi-natural grassland communities. One dataset is from Kempel *et al.* (2013), who
83 introduced equal numbers of seeds of 48 alien and 45 native herbaceous species to eight intact and
84 eight disturbed (tilled) grassland sites. The other two datasets are from Müller *et al.* (2016), who
85 introduced seeds and seedlings of 10 alien and 10 native herbaceous species to a total of five grassland
86 sites that included disturbance and fungicide treatments, and for the introduced seedlings an
87 additional herbivore-exclusion treatment. We used these three datasets to answer the following
88 questions: (1) Does phylogenetic distance between introduced species and resident species affect
89 seedling emergence from seed and survival of planted seedlings of introduced species? (2) Are
90 relationships between seedling emergence or survival and phylogenetic distance affected by alien-
91 native status of the species, disturbance, herbivore exclusion or fungicide application?

92

93 **Material and Methods**

94 **Datasets**

95 *The Kempel et al. seed-introduction dataset*

96 Data were obtained from Kempel *et al.* (2013), on early establishment success of 93 forb species
97 introduced as seeds into 16 semi-natural grassland sites in the Canton of Bern, Switzerland (for the

98 full species list, see Table S1 in Supporting Information). A detailed description of the experimental
99 set-up and measurements can be found in Kempel *et al.* (2013). In short, the 93 species were sown
100 into 16 grassland sites in May 2008. Each species was sown into two separate subplots per site. Forty-
101 six of the introduced species are native to Switzerland and the other 47 are alien to Switzerland. Prior
102 to introduction of the species, eight of the 16 grassland sites were disturbed by soil tilling, which
103 largely reduced competition from resident species, and also loosened the soil. Four levels of
104 propagule pressure (2, 10, 100 and 1000 seeds, with one propagule-pressure level per grassland site)
105 were used for each of the 93 species.

106 Kempel *et al.* (2013) monitored the colonization success of each species in each grassland site
107 over the subsequent three years by counting seedlings and surviving plants each spring and autumn,
108 for a total of six censuses. Here, we only used data from the first census, because we wanted to focus
109 on seedling emergence, and because the data for the later censuses were strongly zero-inflated. As
110 the first census took place within one month after sowing the seeds, we believe that the first census
111 mainly reflects seedling emergence (i.e. germination), although it is possible that some seedlings had
112 died prior to the census. Data on the resident (native) plant composition and coverage in each of the
113 16 sites were obtained from surveys done in June 2008 using the Braun-Blanquet method (Kempel *et*
114 *al.*, unpublished data). We converted the Braun-Blanquet coverage classes to percentages, using the
115 *bb2num* function of the “simba” package in R (Jurasiński & Retzer, 2012) (see Table S2 in Supporting
116 Information for details on the conversion).

117

118 *The Müller et al. seed-introduction dataset*

119 Data were obtained from Müller *et al.* (2016), on the seedling emergence of 20 forb species (see Table
120 S3 in Supporting Information) introduced as seeds into five grassland sites around the University of
121 Konstanz (southern Germany). A detailed description of the experimental set-up can be found in
122 Müller *et al.* (2016). In short, seeds of each of the 20 species were sown in April 2014, and the

123 seedling emergence of each species in each grassland site was monitored over one season. The 20
124 species belonged to five groups of four confamilials comprising two alien and two native species per
125 family. Two disturbance levels (tilling and no tilling) and two fungicide treatments (fungicide
126 application and no-fungicide application) were applied, yielding a total of four treatment
127 combinations. Each of the five sites contained four plots, each representing one of the four treatment
128 combinations, and there were eight seeds of each species per plot (i.e. 3200 seeds in total).

129 To assess the composition of the resident vegetation of the plots in the five grassland sites of
130 this experiment, a vegetation survey was carried out using a 12-point frame in September 2014. The
131 frame consisted of a rod with twelve 2-mm diameter pins 5 cm apart. The frame was positioned at
132 random within the plot, and all plants touching the 12 pins were identified and counted as "hits" for
133 those species (Heady & Rader, 1958). This procedure was repeated six times in each plot. Grasses
134 were not considered, as they were difficult to identify in the vegetative state, and because all grasses
135 have the same phylogenetic distance to the 20 introduced forb species. To calculate the relative
136 abundance of each resident species in a plot, the number of hits for each species was divided by the
137 total number of hits across all species.

138

139 *The Müller et al. seedling-introduction dataset*

140 Data were also obtained from Müller *et al.* (2016) on the survival of 20 forb species (see Table S3 in
141 Supporting Information) introduced as seedlings into five grassland sites around the University of
142 Konstanz. A detailed description of the experimental set-up can be found in Müller *et al.* (2016). In
143 short, seedlings of each of the 20 species were planted in April 2014, and the establishment success
144 of each species in each grassland site was monitored over a one-year period. This was done by
145 assessing seedling survival every two months during the growing season from April to September
146 2014. The 20 species are the same ones as those used for the seed-introduction experiment of Müller
147 *et al.* (2016). Two disturbance levels (tilling and no tilling), two fungicide treatments (fungicide

148 application and no-fungicide application), and two herbivore-exclusion treatments (closed and open
149 herbivore exclosures, of which the closed ones excluded both large mammal herbivores and arthropod
150 herbivores) were applied, yielding a total of eight treatment combinations. Each of the five sites
151 contained eight plots, each representing one of the eight treatment combinations, and there were eight
152 seedlings of each species per plot (i.e. 6400 seedlings in total). The composition of the resident
153 vegetation of the plots was assessed as described above for the Müller *et al.* seed-introduction dataset.

154

155 **Phylogenetic trees and distance measures**

156 For each of the datasets separately, we constructed a phylogenetic tree including both the resident
157 and the introduced species. For the Kempel *et al.* seed-introduction dataset, we first created the
158 phylogenetic tree of the resident species by pruning the dated DaPhnE supertree of Central European
159 plant species (Durka & Michalski, 2012). We then merged the resident-species tree with a
160 phylogenetic tree of the 93 introduced species, available from (Kempel *et al.* 2011, 2013). For the
161 Müller *et al.* seed-introduction and seedling-introduction datasets, we pruned the DaPhnE supertree,
162 which contained all introduced and resident species. As the resident species varied among the 16 sites
163 in Kempel *et al.* (2013) and among the 60 plots in Müller *et al.* (2016), the trees were further pruned
164 to the actual species sets for each site and plot, respectively.

165 Different metrics can be used to quantify the phylogenetic distance between an introduced
166 species and the residents (Thuiller *et al.*, 2010). We chose four frequently used phylogenetic distance
167 measures. First, for each introduced species in a plot or site, we calculated the Mean phylogenetic
168 Distance to the Native resident Species (MDNS). This phylogenetic distance measure assumes that
169 the entire community drives the establishment success of an introduced plant, irrespective of the
170 abundance of the different resident species. Second, we calculated the Weighted Mean phylogenetic
171 distance to the Native Species (WMDNS), which weights the MDNS by the abundances of the native
172 species and assumes that the contribution of each resident species depends on its relative abundance.

173 Third, we calculated the phylogenetic Distance to the phylogenetically Nearest Native resident
174 Species (DNNS), which assumes that the phylogenetic distance to the phylogenetically closest
175 relative drives the establishment success of an introduced plant. Fourth, we calculated the
176 phylogenetic Distance to the Most Abundant resident Native Species (DMANS), which assumes that
177 the distance to the most abundant resident species drives establishment success of the introduced
178 species. All phylogenetic tree manipulations and phylogenetic distance calculations were performed
179 using the “ape” package (Paradis *et al.* 2004) in R (R-Core-Team, 2016).

180

181 **Statistical analysis**

182 *The Kempel et al. seed-introduction dataset*

183 To test how seedling emergence (i.e. the proportion of seeds that germinated) in the Kempel *et al.*
184 seed-introduction dataset depended on phylogenetic distance measures, we used betabinomial models
185 implemented using the *glmmadmb* function in the “glmmADMB” package (Fournier *et al.*, 2012).
186 We used a betabinomial instead of a binomial distribution to overcome convergence issues caused by
187 the large number of zeroes in the dataset. Because some of the phylogenetic metrics were strongly
188 correlated (in particular MDNS - DNNS, and WMDNS - DMANS, Fig. S1), we ran separate models
189 for each of the four phylogenetic distances measures. The distance measures were standardized to a
190 mean of zero and scaled to a standard deviation of one, to facilitate comparisons of the effects of each
191 explanatory variable (Schielzeth, 2010). To test for linear and non-linear effects, each distance
192 measure was included as a linear and a quadratic term (Gallien & Carboni, 2016). Seed number (2,
193 10, 100 or 1000 seeds, standardized to a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one), disturbance
194 treatment (no/yes), and status of the introduced species (alien/native) were included as additional
195 explanatory variables. To facilitate interpretation of the model estimates, each of these explanatory
196 variables was also centered to a mean of zero (Schielzeth, 2010). Categorical variables were coded
197 as dummy variables (with values equal to 0 or 1) before centering. To test whether effects of the

198 phylogenetic distance measures depended on the level of the other explanatory variables, we also
199 included interactions of the linear and quadratic components of the distance measure with the other
200 explanatory variables. Site and species were included as random factors. Model validation was
201 performed by comparing data simulated using the *rbetabinom* function (emdbook package, Bolker,
202 2016) using the model parameters with the real data (see Fig. S8). The four models (i.e. the MDNS,
203 WMDNS, DNNS and DMANS models) were compared, and the one(s) with the lowest AIC value(s)
204 were selected as best fitting. All analyses were done using the statistical software R (R-Core-Team,
205 2016).

206

207 *The Müller et al. seed-introduction dataset*

208 To test how seedling emergence (i.e. the proportion of seeds that germinated) in the Müller et al.
209 seed-introduction dataset depended on phylogenetic distance measures, we used binomial generalized
210 linear mixed models implemented in the *glmer* function of the “lme4” package (Bates *et al.* 2015).
211 Because some of the phylogenetic metrics were strongly correlated (in particular MDNS - DNNS,
212 and WDMS – DMANS; Fig. S2), we again ran separate models for each of the four phylogenetic
213 distance measures. The distance measures were also standardized, and were included both as simple
214 and quadratic terms as before. Disturbance treatment (yes/no) and fungicide treatment (yes/no) were
215 used as fixed factors after converting them to dummy variables (with values equal to 0 or 1) and
216 centering each of them to a mean of zero (Schielezeth 2010). We also included the interactions of the
217 linear and quadratic components of the distance measures with all other explanatory variables, as we
218 did for the Kempel *et al.* (2013) data. To account for non-independence among data points from the
219 same plots and sites, and the same species, plot nested in site and species were included as random
220 factors. The MDNS, WMDNS, DNNS and DMANS models were again compared using AIC values.

221

222 *The Müller et al. seedling-introduction dataset*

223 To test how seedling survival (yes/no) in the Müller et al. seedling-introduction dataset depended on
224 phylogenetic distance measures, we used binomial generalized linear mixed models implemented in
225 the *glmer* function of the “lme4” package (Bates *et al.*, 2015). The correlations between the different
226 phylogenetic distance measures are shown in Fig. S3. The procedures and models were the same as
227 described for the Müller *et al.* seed-introduction experiment, with the exception that the fixed factors
228 included the additional term herbivore exclusion (yes/no).

229

230 **Results**

231 **The Kempel *et al.* seed-introduction dataset**

232 Averaged across all species, 16% of the seeds emerged as seedlings. Of the four phylogenetic distance
233 measures, mean phylogenetic distance (MDNS) to the entire resident plant community provided the
234 best overall model fit (i.e. lowest AIC; Table 1), closely followed by the weighted mean phylogenetic
235 distance to the resident plant community (WMDNS) and by the phylogenetic distance to the most
236 abundant native resident species (DMANS). The phylogenetic distance to the nearest (most closely
237 related) native resident species (DNNS) provided the worst model fit. The results of the three best
238 models (maximum Δ AIC = 2.46, Table 1) are described below and in Fig. 1.

239 In the model with the best fit (MDNS), alien species had overall a significantly higher seedling
240 emergence than the native species (Table 1, Fig. 1b). Introduced species with an intermediate MDNS
241 to the resident community had the highest seedling emergence, as indicated by a significant negative
242 MDNS² effect (Table 1, Fig. 1a). The strength of the MDNS² effect, however, depended on
243 disturbance and the number of seeds sown (Table 1). In the disturbed plots, the curvilinear effect of
244 MDNS on seedling emergence became weaker (Fig. 1c), and at the highest number of sown seeds,
245 the curvilinear relationship changed into a more linear positive MDNS relationship (Fig. 1d).

246 In the models with the second and third best fits (WMDNS and DMANS, respectively), the
247 difference in emergence of alien and native species remained significant, with a higher emergence
248 for alien species (Table 1, Fig. 1f, j). In addition, in both models, seedling emergence significantly
249 increased with the number of seeds sown (Table 1, Fig. 1h, k). Averaged across all species and
250 treatments, the relationship between seedling emergence and WMDNS was relatively flat (Fig. 1e).
251 However, as indicated by the significant $WMDNS^2 \times$ disturbance interaction (Table 1), the
252 relationship between seedling emergence and WMDNS changed from slightly convex in the
253 undisturbed sites to concave in the disturbed sites (Fig. 1g). The average relationship between
254 seedling emergence and DMANS tended to be negative (Fig. 1i), but this effect was not significant
255 (Table 1). However, whereas seedling emergence of the introduced alien species was not or hardly
256 affected by DMANS, seedling emergence of the introduced native species decreased with DMANS
257 (significant DMANS \times status interaction in Table 1). For results of DNNS, see Table 1 and Fig. S5
258 in the Supporting Information.

259

260 **The Müller *et al.* seed-introduction dataset**

261 Averaged across all species, 43% of the seeds emerged as seedlings. Of the four phylogenetic distance
262 measures, the weighted mean phylogenetic distance to the resident plant community (WMDNS)
263 provided the best overall model fit (i.e. lowest AIC; Table 2), closely followed by the mean
264 phylogenetic distance (MDNS) to the resident plant community. The phylogenetic distance to the
265 most abundant native resident species (DMANS) and the phylogenetic distance to the nearest (most
266 closely related) native resident species (DNNS) provided much worse model fits. The results of the
267 two best models (with $\Delta AIC = 0.84$, Table 2) are described below and in Fig. 2.

268 In the two best models (WMDNS and MDNS), native species had overall a significantly
269 higher seedling emergence than the alien species (Table 2, Fig. 2a, d). Moreover, seedling emergence

270 was on average higher in the disturbed plots than in the undisturbed plots (Table 2, Fig. 2c, f). On
271 average, seedling emergence was highest at intermediate values of WMDNS as indicated by a
272 significantly negative $WMDNS^2$ effect (Table 2, Fig. 2d). However, as indicated by a significant
273 $WMDNS^2 \times$ disturbance interaction, this relationship depended on the disturbance treatment (Table
274 2). In the disturbed plots, seedling emergence was highest at intermediate values, whereas in the
275 undisturbed plots, seedling emergence was highest at the lowest values (Fig. 2f). Seedling emergence
276 was slightly negatively affected by MDNS (Table 2, Fig. 2a). For results of the other phylogenetic
277 distance measure models (DNNS, DMANS), see Table 2 and Fig. S6.

278

279 **The Müller *et al.* seedling-introduction dataset**

280 Overall, 58.5% of planted seedlings survived until the end of the first season. Among the four
281 phylogenetic distance measures, distance to the nearest native species (DNNS) provided by far the
282 best model fit (i.e. had the lowest AIC; Table 3). Mean phylogenetic distance (MDNS) provided the
283 second best model, followed by phylogenetic distance to the most abundant native species (DMANS).
284 Weighted mean phylogenetic distance (WMDNS) provided the worst model fit. The results of the
285 best model (with $\Delta AIC > 20$ relative to the other models, Table 3) are described below and in Fig. 3.

286 In the model with the best fit (DNNS), seedling survival was significantly higher in the
287 disturbed plots than in the undisturbed plots, in the closed herbivore exclosures than in the open
288 exclosures, and in the plots not treated with fungicides than in the plots treated with fungicides (Table
289 3, Fig. 3). On average, the survival probability of seedlings significantly decreased with increasing
290 DNNS (Table 3, Fig. 3). Although alien and native species did not differ in their average survival
291 probability, alien species showed more of a negative convex relationship between survival probability
292 and DNNS, whereas native species showed more of a negative concave relationship with DNNS
293 (significant $DNNS \times$ status and $DNNS^2 \times$ status interactions in Table 3). The curvilinear component

294 of DNNS also depended on the fungicide and herbivory treatments (significant $\text{DNNS}^2 \times \text{fungicide}$
295 and $\text{DNNS}^2 \times \text{herbivory}$ interactions in Table 3). The relationship between seedling survival and
296 DNNS tended to be convex in plots without fungicides and in closed herbivore exclosures, whereas
297 it tended to be concave in plots with fungicides and in open herbivore exclosures. For results of the
298 other three phylogenetic distance measures (MDNS, WMDNS, DMANS), see Table 3 and Fig. S7.

299

300 **Discussion**

301 Until now, all tests of Darwin's naturalization hypothesis (DNH) or conundrum in (semi-)natural
302 plant communities relied on observational datasets that lacked hard data on species that failed to
303 establish after introduction. Here, we tested DNH for the first time using data from studies in which
304 large numbers of species had been experimentally introduced into grassland sites (Kempel *et al.* 2013,
305 Müller *et al.* 2016). Using four different phylogenetic metrics, we tested whether introduced species'
306 seedling emergence and survival (i.e. the first steps to becoming naturalized) are best explained by
307 phylogenetic distance to all resident species (MDNS), all resident species weighted by their
308 abundance (WMDNS), the closest relative (DNNS) or the most abundant resident (DMANS). We
309 found that the phylogenetic distance measures that provided the best model fits varied among the
310 three introduction datasets that we analysed. In all these best-fitting models, the effects of
311 phylogenetic distance were significant. Overall our results indicate that both environmental filtering
312 and competition determine the establishment success of introduced species into resident communities.
313 However, the direction and shape of these relationships frequently depended on alien-native status of
314 the introduced species, the number of seeds introduced, disturbance, fungicide application or
315 herbivore-exclosure treatments.

316

317 **Seedling-emergence datasets**

318 For both the Kempel *et al.* and the Müller *et al.* datasets, seedling emergence was best explained by
319 the models that included mean distance of the introduced species to the resident community (MDNS),
320 or the weighted mean distance to the resident community (WMDNS) (Tables 1 and 2). For the
321 Kempel *et al.* dataset, the model that included the distance to the most abundant resident species
322 (DMANS) was also among the best models (Table 1). These findings suggest that seedling emergence
323 of introduced forb species in native grassland communities is affected by phylogenetic distance to
324 each resident species, but particularly to the most abundant residents.

325 The best models for both the Kempel *et al.* (MDNS) and the Müller *et al.* (WMDNS) seed-
326 introduction datasets showed that seedling emergence was highest at intermediate phylogenetic
327 distances (Figs. 1a and 2d). In other words, introduced species were less successful if they were either
328 very closely or very distantly related to the residents. This non-linear pattern may result from
329 environmental filtering (reducing establishment of distantly related species) and competitive or other
330 antagonistic biotic interactions (reducing establishment of closely related species) acting
331 simultaneously (Gallien & Carboni, 2016). Direct competitive interactions with resident plant species
332 are unlikely to play a role for seedling emergence (i.e. germination), but other biotic (e.g. herbivores,
333 mycorrhizal fungi, pathogens) and abiotic (e.g. light, moisture, temperature) components of the local
334 environment may be important. These abiotic and biotic factors can also be altered by the resident
335 plant species (Orwin *et al.* 2010, Grigulis *et al.* 2013). For example, the resident plant species may
336 have accumulated pathogens that also affect introduced species, and particularly closely related ones
337 (Cavender-Bares *et al.*, 2009). In line with this, we found in the Müller *et al.* dataset that fungicide
338 application (which supposedly acted against pathogenic fungi and not against mycorrhiza; Müller *et*
339 *al.* 2016), increased the seedling emergence of introduced species with abundant, more closely related
340 residents (i.e. with low WMDNS values; Fig. 2g).

341 The exact direction and shape of the relationship between seedling emergence and
342 phylogenetic distance depended not only on fungicide application but also on several other factors.
343 For example, in the Kempel *et al.* dataset, when many seeds (1000) were introduced, the relationship
344 between seedling emergence and MDNS became linear and positive. This result suggests that higher
345 propagule pressure may overcome the negative effects of environmental filtering, which should act
346 particularly against distantly related species, but does not overcome the effect of competition or other
347 biotic interactions, which should act particularly against closely related species. Furthermore, in both
348 the Kempel *et al.* and Müller *et al.* datasets, soil disturbance by tilling prior to sowing changed the
349 shape of the relationship between seedling emergence and phylogenetic distance (Tables 1 and 2,
350 Figs. 1c and 2f). Soil tilling changes the environment by loosening the soil but also by removing most
351 of the resident plants. The latter should result in a weaker effect of phylogenetic distance, and this is
352 indeed what we found for MDNS in the Kempel *et al.* dataset. However, in the Müller *et al.* dataset,
353 we found that seedling emergence was highest at intermediate WMDNS values in the disturbed plots
354 only, as it was highest at low WMDNS values in the undisturbed plots. This might suggest that
355 environmental filtering played a more important role in the Müller *et al.* experiment. However, the
356 shape of the fitted relationships might have been strongly determined by a few data points with low
357 WMDNS values that were far away from most of the other WMDNS values (Fig. 2f). Nevertheless,
358 in the second best model, the effect of MDNS was significantly negative (Table 2), though weak (Fig.
359 2a), which also points to the presence of a role of environmental filtering in the Müller *et al.* dataset.

360 We found little evidence that the effect of phylogenetic distance on seedling emergence
361 differed between alien and native introduced species. However, in the third best model of the Kempel
362 *et al.* dataset (DMANS), which had an AIC value very similar to those of the top two models, there
363 was a significant DMANS \times status interaction (Table 1). The effect of DMANS on seedling
364 emergence was overall negative, indicating the importance of environmental filtering, and although
365 this effect held for both the alien and native introduced species, it was weaker for the latter.

366 Nevertheless, the overall similar patterns for alien and native introduced species suggest that
367 mechanisms governing seedling emergence of alien species also determine seedling emergence of
368 native species.

369 Although the effects of phylogenetic distance on seedling emergence were very similar for
370 alien and native introduced species in both datasets, the main effect of status was significant.
371 Interestingly, the direction of this effect differed between the two datasets. In the Kempel *et al.*
372 dataset, alien species had a higher seedling emergence than native species, whereas in the Müller *et*
373 *al.* dataset the opposite was true. The original study by Kempel *et al.* (2013) showed that this initial
374 advantage of the aliens over the natives changed into a disadvantage in later years. Unfortunately, we
375 could not analyse those later years, due to the overall low success rate of species in this period. A
376 possible explanation for the higher seedling emergence of the alien species in the Kempel *et al.* (2013)
377 study could be that the alien seeds were all of horticultural origin and have undergone selection for
378 high germination rates. Indeed, Chrobock *et al.* (2011) found that under greenhouse conditions the
379 alien plant species used in Kempel *et al.* (2013) germinated earlier and more profusely than the native
380 species.

381

382 **Seedling-survival dataset**

383 Our results for seedling survival from Müller *et al.* (2016) (Table 2) differed from our results for
384 seedling emergence from the same study. In the seedling survival analysis, the single best-fitting
385 model was the one that included the phylogenetic distance to the nearest neighbour (DNNS), instead
386 of the mean and weighted mean phylogenetic distance. Moreover, the overall relationship between
387 seedling survival and phylogenetic distance was negative and not hump-shaped (Fig. 3). The shape
388 of the relationship could result from the lack of intermediate DNNS values in this dataset (Fig. 3).
389 Nevertheless, the lower seedling survival at high than at low DNNS values suggests that

390 environmental filtering favours seedling survival of species that have a closely related species present
391 in the resident community (Gallien & Carboni, 2016), and supports the pre-adaptation hypothesis.
392 Alternatively, closely related species may not have similar environmental requirements to resident
393 species *per se*, but instead result in more similar environmental conditions. For example, Li *et al.*
394 (2015) suggested that closely related species tend to create similar soil-nutrient microhabitats,
395 harbouring similar soil enzymes, such as alkaline and acid phosphatases, and therefore favour close
396 relatives preadapted to these conditions. Whatever the exact mechanism, our result indicates that
397 environmental filtering can not only explain large-scale patterns of species occurrence (Thuiller *et*
398 *al.*, 2010), but also small-scale patterns.

399 In contrast to seedling emergence, seedling survival in the Müller *et al.* dataset did not depend
400 on whether the introduced species was native or alien. However, as for seedling emergence, seedling
401 survival was highest when the resident vegetation had been disturbed by soil tilling, and when no
402 fungicides were applied. In addition, seedling survival was highest when herbivore pressure was
403 reduced. This shows that biotic interactions overall play an important role in seedling survival. The
404 negative effect of fungicide application may seem counterintuitive, but probably reflects that it
405 released the native resident vegetation more strongly than the introduced species from fungal
406 pathogens, and that this increased the competitive ability of the residents (Müller *et al.* 2016).

407 Biotic interactions may differ for native and alien species, and the importance of biotic
408 interactions is likely to be stronger when the introduced species and residents are closely related.
409 Therefore, one would expect status of the introduced species, disturbance, herbivore exclusion and
410 fungicide treatments to change the relationship between seedling survival and phylogenetic distance.
411 This was indeed the case for status, herbivore exclusion and fungicide treatment, but it were mainly
412 only slight effects on the non-linear components of the overall negative relationships. These included
413 changes from convex curves for alien species, fungicide-treated plots and closed herbivore exclosures
414 to more concave curves for native species, plots without fungicide and open herbivore exclosures. As

415 the dataset lacks intermediate DNNS values, we cannot be sure that the apparent changes in
416 curvilinearity are biologically meaningful. The relationships for the different treatments seem to be
417 quite similar (Fig. 3), suggesting that the effects of phylogenetic distance were only slightly mediated
418 by biotic interactions.

419

420 **Conclusions**

421 Overall, we found that the establishment success of introduced species in grassland communities is
422 significantly related to the phylogenetic distance between the introduced species and residents.
423 However, we found partly different patterns for the three datasets that we analysed, which emphasizes
424 the context specificity of studies on establishment success. Nevertheless, we also found some
425 similarities. For example, in both the seed-introduction experiments, seedling emergence was highest
426 at intermediate phylogenetic distances to the native community, suggesting that preadaptation and
427 biotic interactions both mediate establishment success. A comparison of the seedling emergence and
428 seedling survival data of Müller *et al.* (2016) suggests that factors driving success of an introduced
429 species differ between life stages. Furthermore, we showed that the phylogenetic distance metrics
430 that best explained species success differed among the datasets, but were more similar between the
431 two seedling-emergence datasets than between the seedling-emergence and seedling-survival datasets
432 of Müller *et al.* (2016). Therefore, considering multiple life stages and phylogenetic distance metrics
433 might provide more insights into Darwin's Naturalization Conundrum. To conclude, Darwin's
434 naturalization hypothesis and the preadaptation hypothesis need not be in conflict. Rather, the
435 mechanisms underlying them can operate simultaneously or alternately depending on the life stage
436 and on the environmental conditions of the resident community.

437

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445

446 **Authors' contributions**

447 MvK and WD developed the idea for the study, EM analysed the data, and wrote the manuscript with
448 the help of MvK and WD. AK and GM collected the original data, and contributed to the writing.

449

450 **Data accessibility**

451 A part of the data associated with this paper are already available from Dryad Digital Repository,
452 DOI: 10.5061/dryad.k6t16 (Müller et al. 2016) and the remaining data will be archived on Dryad
453 Digital Repository.

454

455 **Competing interests**

456 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

457

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- 587

1 **Figures and Tables**

2 **Table 1** Betabinomial model for seedling emergence (seed-introduction dataset of Kempel *et al.* 2013) for all four phylogenetic distance indices used:
 3 Mean phylogenetic Distance to the Native resident Species (MDNS), Weighted Mean phylogenetic Distance to the Native resident Species (WMDNS),
 4 phylogenetic Distance to the Nearest Native resident Species (DNNS) and phylogenetic Distance to the Most Abundant Native resident Species
 5 (DMANS). The models with the lowest and similar AIC values (MDNS, WMDNS and DMANS; $\Delta AIC < 4$) are highlighted in grey shading. The
 6 intercept corresponds to an intermediate disturbance, intermediate status and mean propagule number (208 seeds). The categorical variables status
 7 (alien/native) and disturbance (no/yes) were converted to zeros and ones before centering, with the higher value corresponding respectively to native
 8 species and disturbed plots.

Parameter	MDNS		WMDNS		DNNS		DMANS	
	Estimate (SE)	P						
<i>Fixed terms</i>								
Intercept	-5.183 (0.392)	<0.001	-5.454 (0.380)	<0.001	-4.946 (0.390)	<0.001	-5.469 (0.390)	<0.001
Phylogen. Index (PI)	0.115 (0.190)	0.546	-0.111 (0.161)	0.492	0.042 (0.153)	0.784	-0.001 (0.217)	0.998
PI ²	-0.286 (0.123)	0.020	0.012 (0.056)	0.829	-0.424 (0.164)	0.010	0.060 (0.064)	0.347
Status (<i>native</i>)	-1.250 (0.580)	0.031	-1.472 (0.570)	0.010	-0.852 (0.616)	0.167	-1.384 (0.570)	0.015
Disturbance (<i>yes</i>)	-0.447 (0.465)	0.336	-0.621 (0.446)	0.164	-0.407 (0.440)	0.355	-0.464 (0.450)	0.302
Seed number.	0.229 (0.183)	0.209	0.357 (0.173)	0.039	0.256 (0.179)	0.151	0.367 (0.181)	0.043
PI × Status	-0.363 (0.264)	0.169	-0.239 (0.254)	0.345	0.268 (0.281)	0.339	-0.361 (0.157)	0.022
PI × Disturbance	-0.058 (0.145)	0.687	0.053 (0.194)	0.785	0.167 (0.119)	0.161	-0.274 (0.390)	0.482
PI × Seed number	0.059 (0.064)	0.359	0.042 (0.091)	0.642	0.035 (0.055)	0.533	0.039 (0.180)	0.829
PI ² × Status	-0.174 (0.191)	0.365	-0.011 (0.097)	0.913	-0.593 (0.414)	0.059	-0.072 (0.070)	0.304
PI ² × Disturbance	0.289 (0.117)	0.013	0.250 (0.092)	0.007	0.065 (0.147)	0.659	0.084 (0.134)	0.531
PI ² × Seed number	0.153 (0.059)	0.009	-0.009 (0.042)	0.834	0.078 (0.066)	0.234	-0.025 (0.064)	0.700
<i>Random terms</i>								
	SD		SD		SD		SD	
Site	0.831		0.798		0.770		0.782	

9

Species	2.031	2.069	1.975	2.066
<i>AIC</i>	2889.48	2891.36	2898.1	2891.94

10 **Table 2** Binomial model for seedling emergence (seed-introduction dataset of Müller *et al.* 2016) for all the phylogenetic distance indices used: Mean
 11 phylogenetic Distance to the Native resident Species (MDNS), Weighted Mean phylogenetic Distance to the Native resident Species (WMDNS),
 12 phylogenetic Distance to the Nearest Native resident Species (DNNS) and phylogenetic Distance to the Most Abundant Native resident Species
 13 (DMANS). The models with the lowest and similar AIC values (MDNS and WMDNS; $\Delta AIC < 4$) are highlighted in grey shading. The intercept
 14 corresponds to an intermediate disturbance, intermediate status and intermediate fungicide treatment. The categorical variables status (alien/native),
 15 disturbance (no/yes) and fungicide (no/yes) were converted to zeros and ones before centering, with the higher value corresponding respectively to
 16 native species, disturbed and fungicide-treated plots.

Parameter	MDNS		WMDNS		DNNS		DMANS	
	Estimate (SE)	P	Estimate (SE)	P	Estimate (SE)	P	Estimate (SE)	P
<i>Fixed terms</i>								
Intercept	-0.244	0.338	-0.257	0.314	-0.429	0.142	-0.266	0.330
Phylogen. Index (PI)	-0.164	0.093	-0.152	0.260	-0.007	0.956	-0.060	0.749
PI ²	-0.078	0.243	-0.123	0.006	0.076	0.542	-0.407	0.161
Status (<i>native</i>)	0.934	0.033	0.953	0.026	1.033	0.032	0.954	0.025
Disturbance (<i>yes</i>)	1.504	<0.001	1.565	<0.001	1.188	<0.001	1.615	<0.001
Fungicides (<i>yes</i>)	-0.141	0.242	-0.200	0.090	-0.328	0.117	-0.209	0.046
PI × Status	-0.022	0.901	0.044	0.822	-0.048	0.847	0.063	0.674
PI × Disturbance	0.086	0.481	0.068	0.576	0.180	0.325	0.120	0.489
PI × Fungicides	-0.034	0.771	0.020	0.872	0.147	0.413	-0.062	0.713
PI ² × Status	0.027	0.774	0.006	0.886	-0.060	0.798	0.002	0.935
PI ² × Disturbance	-0.177	0.112	-0.451	0.002	0.119	0.530	-1.012	0.066
PI ² × Fungicides	0.052	0.561	0.269	0.076	0.219	0.243	0.211	0.270
<i>Random terms</i>								
	SD		SD		SD		SD	
Site	0.277		0.308		0.352		0.342	
Plot within site	<0.001		<0.001		0.108		0.042	
Species	0.940		0.934		0.930		0.933	
<i>AIC</i>	3600.80		3600.16		3610.10		3608.48	

17

18 **Table 3** Binomial model for seedling survival (seedling-introduction dataset of Müller *et al.* 2016) for all the phylogenetic distance indices used:
 19 Mean phylogenetic Distance to the Native resident Species (MDNS), Weighted Mean phylogenetic Distance to the Native resident Species (WMDNS),
 20 phylogenetic Distance to the Nearest Native resident Species (DNNS) and phylogenetic Distance to the Most Abundant Native resident Species
 21 (DMANS). The model with the lowest AIC value (DNNS) is highlighted in grey shading (the others have $\Delta AIC > 4$). The intercept corresponds to an
 22 intermediate disturbance, intermediate status, intermediate fungicide treatment and intermediate herbivory treatment. The categorical variables status
 23 (alien/native), disturbance (no/yes), fungicide (no/yes) and herbivory (no, yes) were converted to zeros and ones before centering, with the higher
 24 value corresponding respectively to native species, disturbed, fungicide-treated and open herbivore-exclosure plots.

Parameter	MDNS		WMDNS		DNNS		DMANS	
	Estimate (SE)	P	Estimate (SE)	P	Estimate (SE)	P	Estimate (SE)	P
<i>Fixed terms</i>								
Intercept	0.397 (0.478)	0.406	0.548	0.234	0.419 (0.429)	0.329	0.708 (0.393)	0.071
Phylogen. Index (PI)	-0.531 (0.103)	<0.001	-0.293	0.005	-0.366 (0.064)	<0.001	0.337 (0.094)	<0.001
PI ²	0.105 (0.054)	0.055	-0.034	0.470	0.088 (0.119)	0.462	-0.394 (0.122)	0.001
Status (<i>native</i>)	0.069 (0.636)	0.914	0.057	0.926	-0.831 (0.665)	0.211	0.047 (0.613)	0.939
Disturbance (<i>yes</i>)	1.055 (0.247)	<0.001	1.146	<0.001	0.947 (0.272)	0.001	1.269 (0.246)	<0.001
Fungicides (<i>yes</i>)	-0.250 (0.250)	0.317	-0.080	0.706	-0.555 (0.266)	0.037	-0.217 (0.244)	0.372
Herbivory (<i>open excl.</i>)	-0.447 (0.247)	0.070	-0.592	0.005	-0.690 (0.268)	0.010	-0.300 (0.244)	0.218
PI × Status	0.102 (0.091)	0.265	0.010	0.886	0.376 (0.109)	0.001	-0.006 (0.076)	0.938
PI × Disturbance	-0.100 (0.127)	0.428	0.040	0.732	-0.066 (0.076)	0.386	0.729 (0.152)	<0.001
PI × Fungicides	0.110 (0.137)	0.425	0.111	0.331	0.045 (0.073)	0.538	0.322 (0.149)	0.031
PI × Herbivory	-0.061 (0.123)	0.619	0.188	0.130	-0.059 (0.073)	0.417	0.015 (0.148)	0.919
PI ² × Status	-0.042 (0.041)	0.310	-0.038	0.151	0.847 (0.201)	<0.001	-0.019 (0.020)	0.328
PI ² × Disturbance	-0.156 (0.093)	0.092	-0.072	0.444	0.065 (0.183)	0.722	-0.052 (0.221)	0.814
PI ² × Fungicides	0.176 (0.118)	0.136	0.076	0.440	0.493 (0.171)	0.004	0.372 (0.201)	0.064
PI ² × Herbivory	0.120 (0.078)	0.122	0.204	0.033	0.407 (0.172)	0.018	-0.399 (0.202)	0.048
<i>Random terms</i>								
	SD		SD		SD		SD	
Site	0.753		0.7263		0.550		1.362	
Plot within site	0.730		0.6120		0.622		0.648	

25

Species	1.410	1.3840	1.413	0.470
<i>AIC</i>	6477.93	6525.74	6457.65	6486.12

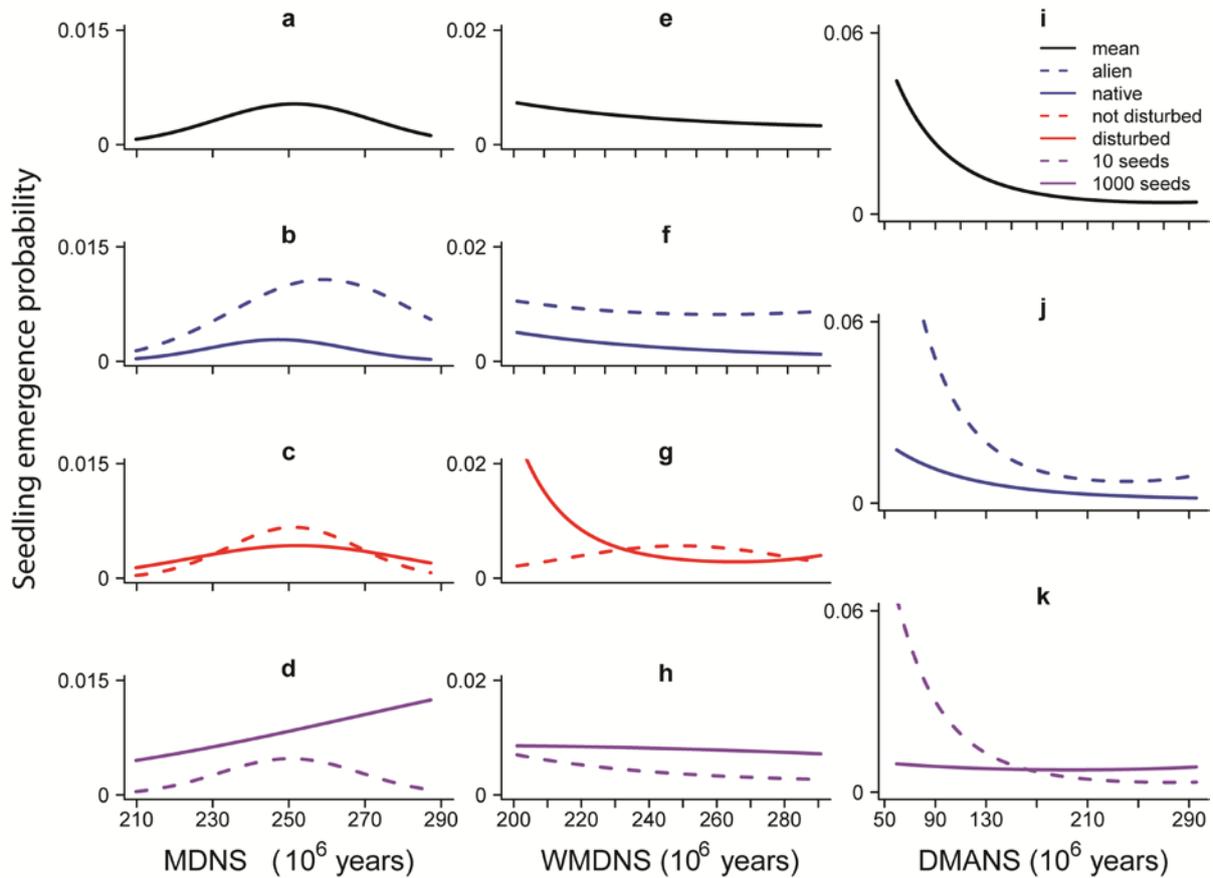


Figure 1 Fitted lines for betabinomial models explaining seedling emergence in the seed-introduction dataset of Kempel *et al.* (2013). The figures show seedling-emergence probability against Mean phylogenetic Distance to the Native resident Species MDNS (a-d), Weighted Mean phylogenetic Distance to the Native resident Species WMDNS (e-h), and phylogenetic Distance to the Most Abundant Native resident Species DMANS (i-k). Black line, a), e) and i): average across all factors; blue, b), f), and j): status (alien/native); red, c) and g): disturbance treatment (no/yes); purple, d), h) and k): seed number (10/1000). Only significant factors were plotted (see Table 1). All other factors are set to an average value within each graph. The raw data are shown in Figure S4.

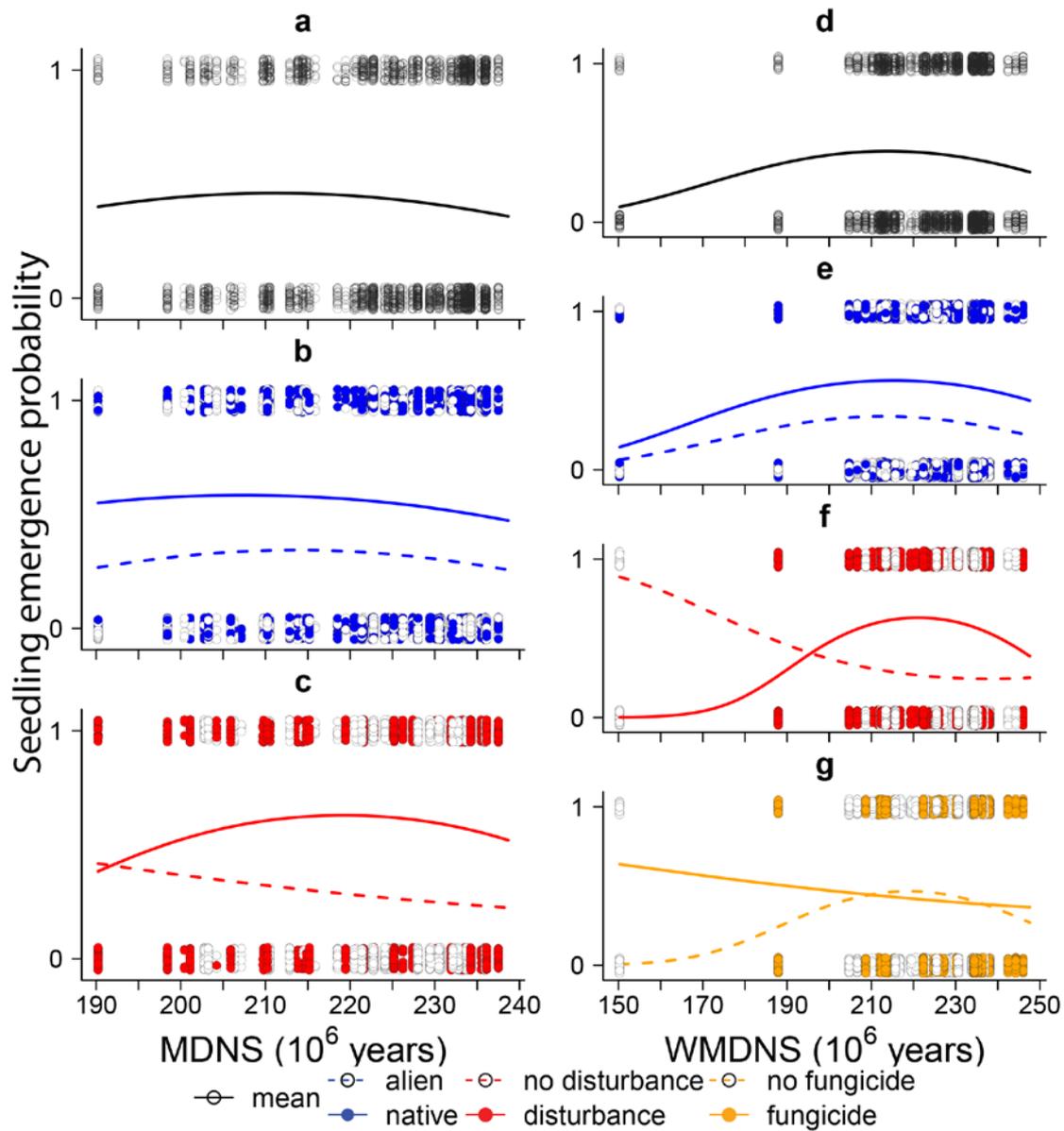


Figure 2 Data points and fitted lines for binomial models explaining seedling emergence in the seed-introduction dataset of Müller *et al.* (2016). The figures show seedling-emergence probability against the Mean phylogenetic Distance to the Native resident Species MDNS (a-c) and the Weighted Mean phylogenetic Distance to the Native resident Species WMDNS (d-g). Black line, a) and d): average among all factors; blue, b) and e): status (alien/native); red, c) and f): disturbance treatment (yes/no); yellow, g): fungicide treatment (yes/no). All other

factors are set to an average value within each graph. Only significant factors were plotted (see Table 2).

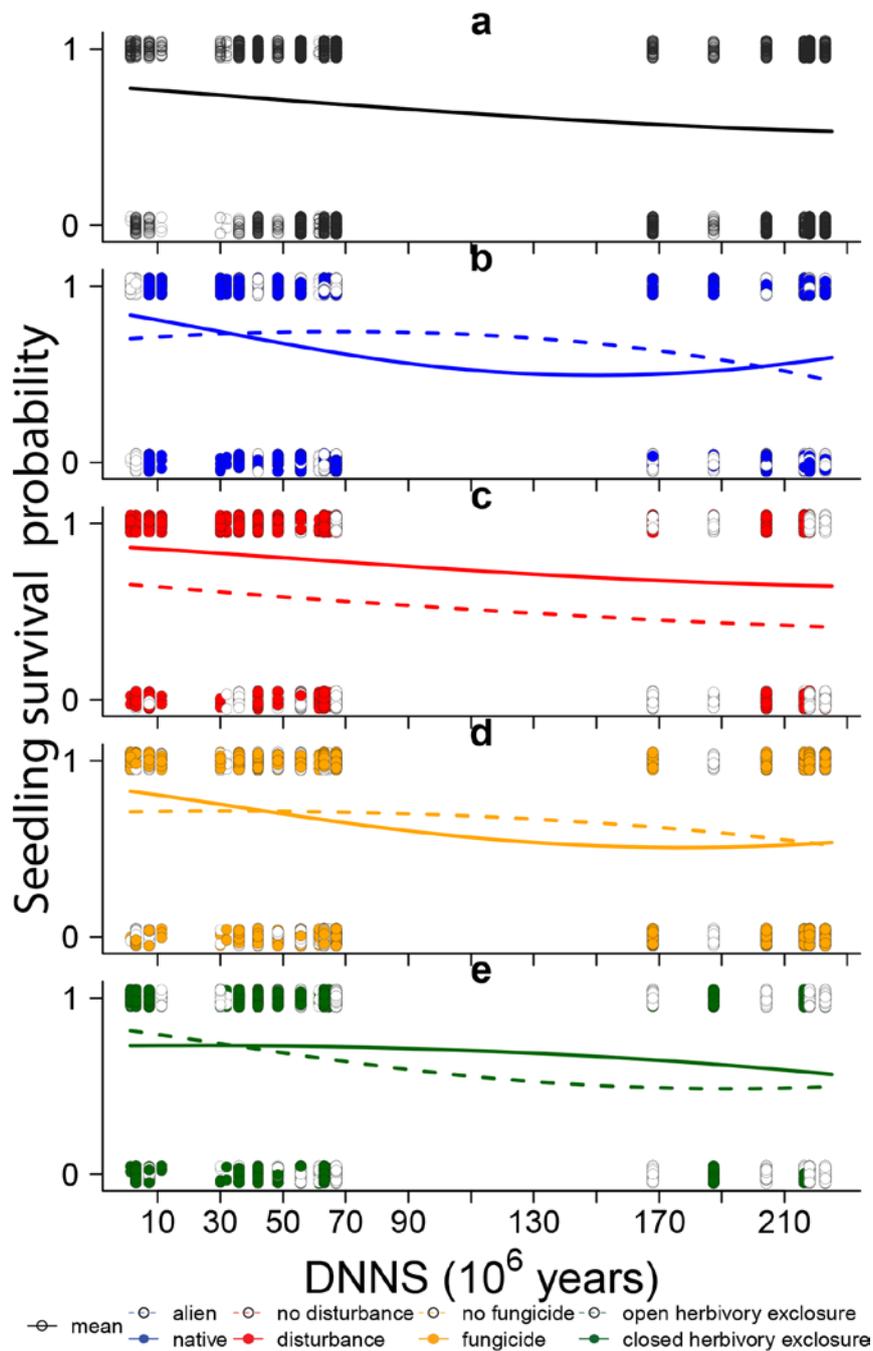


Figure 3 Data points and fitted lines for binomial models explaining seedling survival in the seedling-introduction dataset of Müller *et al.* (2016). The figures show seedling-survival probability against the phylogenetic Distance to the Nearest Native resident Species DNNS (DNNS, Mio years). Black line, a): average among all factors; blue, b): status (alien/native); red, c): disturbance treatment (yes/no); yellow, d): fungicide treatment (yes/no); green, e):

herbivory treatment (closed/open exclosures). All other factors are set to an average value within each graph. Only significant factors were plotted (see Table 3).