

Once upon a time in the far south: Influence of local drivers and functional traits of fn plant invasion in the harsh sub-Antarctic islands

Manuele Bazzichetto^{1*}, François Massol², Marta Carboni³, Jonathan Lenoir⁴, Jonas J Lembrechts⁵, Rémi Joly¹, & David Renault^{1,6}

¹ Université de Rennes, CNRS, EcoBio (Ecosystèmes, biodiversité, évolution) - UMR 6553, F-35000 Rennes, France

² Université de Lille, CNRS, Inserm, CHU Lille, Institut Pasteur de Lille, U1019 - UMR 9017 - CIIL - Center for Infection and Immunity of Lille, F-59000 Lille, France

³ Department of Sciences, University Roma Tre, Rome, Italy

⁴ UR 'Ecologie et Dynamique des Systèmes Anthropisés' (EDYSAN, UMR 7058 CNRS-UPJV), Université de Picardie Jules Verne, Amiens, France

⁵ Research Group PLECO (Plants and Ecosystems), University of Antwerp, 2610 Wilrijk, Belgium

⁶ Institut Universitaire de France, 1 rue Descartes, 75231 Paris Cedex 05, France

*corresponding author

1 **Abstract**

2 **Aim**

3 Here, we aim to: ~~Fe-(i)~~ investigate the local effect of environmental and human-related factors on
4 alien plant invasion in sub-Antarctic islands; ~~Fe-(ii)~~ explore the relationship between alien species
5 features and their dependence on anthropogenic propagule pressure; and ~~te-(iii)~~ unravel key traits
6 conferring invasiveness in the sub-Antarctic.

7 **Location**

8 Possession Island, Crozet archipelago (French sub-Antarctic islands).

9 **Taxon**

10 Non-native vascular plants (Poaceae, Caryophyllaceae, Juncaceae).

11 **Methods**

12 Single-species distribution models were used to explore the effect of high-resolution topoclimatic and
13 human-related variables on the occurrence of six of the most aggressive alien plants colonizing
14 French sub-Antarctic islands. Furthermore, the interaction between alien species traits and their
15 response to anthropogenic propagule pressure was analysed by means of a multi-species distribution
16 model. This allowed identifying the features of species that were associated to low dependence on
17 human-assisted introductions, and were thus potentially more invasive.

18 **Results**

19 We observed two main invasion patterns: low-spread species strongly dependent on anthropogenic
20 propagule pressure and high-spread species limited mainly by harsh climatic conditions. Differences
21 in invasiveness across species mostly related to their residence time, life history and plant height,
22 with older introductions, perennial and low-stature species being most-more invasive.

23 **Main conclusions**

24 The availability of high-resolution data ~~allowed for a fine~~improved our understanding of the role of
25 environmental and human-related factors in driving alien species distribution on sub-Antarctic
26 islands. At the same time, the identification of alien species features conferring invasiveness may
27 help anticipating future problematic invasions.

28

29 **Keywords: alien plants, anthropogenic propagule pressure, invasiveness, plant invasion,**
30 **species distribution models, sub-Antarctic islands, topoclimate**

31 **Running title: plant invasion in sub-Antarctic islands**

32

33 1. Introduction

34 Sub-Antarctic islands, archipelagos scattered within the 54-48°S latitudinal ring, are extremely
35 remote territories which harbour a unique biodiversity with a high degree of endemism (Shaw, 2013).
36 As a consequence of their relatively recent discovery and environmental harshness, these islands have
37 long remained pristine and largely free of human disturbances. Yet, due to the gradual relaxation of
38 these natural barriers, sub-Antarctic islands are now ~~counted~~-listed among the most threatened
39 environments on Earth. In particular, invasion by alien plants, boosted by ongoing climate changes
40 and increasing human disturbances (Duffy & Lee, 2019; Hughes et al., 2019), has become one of the
41 main threats to the endemic biodiversity of these territories, and is bound to rise in the next decades
42 (Lebouvier et al., 2011; Hughes, Pertierra, Molina-Montenegro, & Convey, 2015). Over the past
43 century, alien plants have been increasingly introduced in the sub-Antarctic region (Frenot et al.,
44 2005; Huiskes et al., 2014). European whalers and scientific activities, respectively in the 19th and
45 20th century, determined the first main introduction events (Convey & Lebouvier, 2009; Shaw, 2013),
46 ~~Later on and while~~, since the mid-twentieth century, climate ~~modifications~~-warming, strong changes
47 in precipitation regimes and the widespread impacts of non-native vertebrates have progressively
48 ~~made favoured the establishment of cold-tolerant alien plants on~~ sub-Antarctic islands ~~more suitable~~
49 ~~to cold-tolerant alien species~~ (Shaw, 2013; Pertierra et al., 2017; Duffy & Lee, 2019). Nevertheless,
50 despite their demonstrated impacts on native biodiversity, little attention has been given to plant
51 invasions compared to animal invasions ~~on~~ in these islands (~~Molina-Montenegro et al., 2012;~~ le Roux
52 et al., 2013), leaving a knowledge gap in the mechanisms underpinning plant invasion processes in
53 these unique environments (Greve, Mathakutha, Steyn, & Chown, 2017).

54 The outcome of any biological invasion is jointly determined by propagule pressure (i.e. frequency
55 of propagules introduction), abiotic conditions (i.e. physico-chemical features of the invaded
56 environment) and biotic features (i.e. alien species characteristics and interactions with the recipient
57 community), with anthropogenic disturbances affecting all three (Richardson & Pyšek, 2006; Catford,
58 Jansson, & Nilsson, 2009; Lembrechts et al., 2016). The relative importance of these factors is,
59 however, context-dependent and species-specific (Catford et al., 2009). In sub-Antarctic islands, due
60 to the high specialization but low diversity of the native flora, biotic interactions are thought to play
61 a minor role (le Roux et al., 2013; Duffy et al., 2017; Moser et al., 2018), so it is mainly the first two
62 factors that determine the distribution and spread of alien plants. First, invasions depend on human-
63 induced propagule pressure: the frequency of propagule introduction correlates with the number of
64 ship landings and is highest in the vicinity of human facilities (Huiskes et al., 2014). Second, local
65 abiotic conditions are strongly limiting, and particularly the climatic mismatch between the conditions
66 prevailing within the alien species' native range and the conditions prevailing in the sub-Antarctic
67 can strongly constrain invasions (Frenot et al., 2005). Some alien plants are more limited during the
68 introduction phase, while others quickly become relatively independent of human-related propagule-
69 pressure and seem are only climatically limited. Once, established, the species which are the least
70 dependent on continuous introductions are the most likely to spread widely and become invasive
71 (Richardson & Pyšek, 2006; Catford et al., 2009). Therefore, quantifying the degree of alien species
72 dependence on propagule pressure might aid ~~in~~-at identifying potentially invasive species.

73 A lower dependence on human-related propagule pressure is potentially related to certain species
74 features which are more generally known to affect invasiveness. First of all, alien species with longer
75 residence times are more likely to become independent of anthropogenic propagule pressure (Wilson
76 et al., 2007; Pyšek et al., 2015). Second, certain plant traits are considered key for profiling successful
77 invaders (Pyšek & Richardson, 2008): invasive alien plants across most environments are growing
78 faster and taller than non-invasive alien species, and typically produce resource-acquisitive leaves

79 and many small seeds (van Kleunen, Weber, & Fischer, 2010; van Kleunen, Dawson, & Maurel,
80 2015). More specifically, Mathakutha et al. (2019) performed a first functional comparison between
81 invasive and non-invasive alien species colonizing the sub-Antarctic Marion Island, reporting that
82 species generally considered invasive had lower plant height, smaller leaf area, lower frost tolerance
83 and higher specific leaf area than other alien species. Nevertheless, it is still unclear which traits can
84 actually make some alien plants less dependent on human-related propagule pressure, and thus more
85 likely to become invasive, especially in the sub-Antarctic islands. This knowledge could facilitate the
86 early screening of highly invasive alien plant species in these environments (Frenot et al., 2005;
87 Mathakutha et al., 2019).

88 Correlative species distribution models (SDMs) are statistical tools that model the species-
89 environment relationship relying on geo-referenced occurrence data and spatial environmental layers
90 (Guisan, Thuiller, & Zimmermann, 2017). SDMs-Such models already proved to be valuable tools
91 for analysing alien plant invasion in Antarctica and the sub-Antarctic regions. For instance, Pertierra
92 et al. (2017) modelled the distribution of *Poa annua* and *Poa pratensis* in the Antarctic peninsula as
93 a function of bioclimatic variables, while Duffy et al. (2017) generated future scenarios of invasion
94 across Antarctica and the sub-Antarctic regions using climate-based SDMs. Whilst these previous
95 SDM applications have revealed large-scale determinants of alien plant invasion in the Antarctic
96 biogeographic region, they have up till now failed to account for how environmental and
97 anthropogenic factors regulate alien plant distributions at the fine spatial resolutions that is
98 meaningful for local management. This is chiefly due to the lack of high-resolution environmental
99 (e.g. climatic, topographic) and human-related data layers, which limits the implementation of SDMs
100 at fine spatial resolutions in remote areas (Gutt et al., 2012). A more general limitation inherent to the
101 use of SDMs for modelling biological invasion is that SDMs allow mapping into the geographical
102 space only a snapshot of the current alien species-environment relationship net of dispersal and biotic
103 constraints (i.e. realized distribution), while necessarily underestimating the actual area potentially
104 suitable to a species for establishing and maintaining a viable population (i.e. potential distribution;
105 see Jiménez-Valverde et al., 2011 and Srivastava, Lafond, & Griess, 2019).

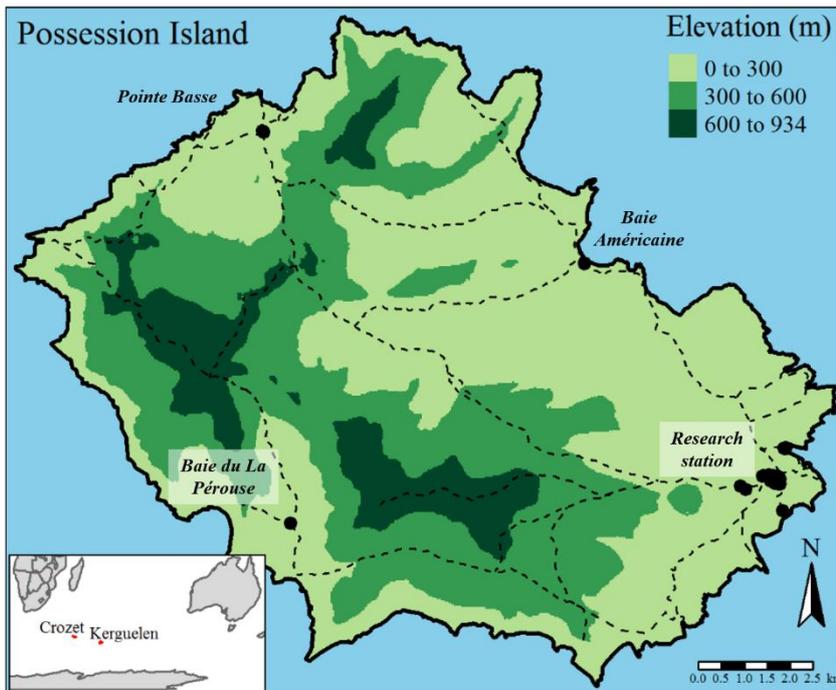
106 The sub-Antarctic Possession Island constitutes an ideal arena to analyse alien plant invasions in the
107 sub-Antarctic region. The availability of historical vegetation observations allows retracing the
108 invasion history of most alien plant species on the island. Moreover, this island witnessed past human
109 colonization and climate changes comparable to the other sub-Antarctic islands, allowing inference
110 on the mechanisms underpinning alien plant invasion in these unique areas. Previous work showed
111 that there is considerable variation in the spread of alien plants established on Possession Island, with
112 some species clustering close to their introduction locations and others spreading widely and far from
113 the initial introduction sites (Frenot et al., 2005), which allows testing for differences in the
114 dependence on human introductions. In the present study, we model the distribution of the most
115 relevant alien plant species colonizing Possession Island using a combination of environmental and
116 human-related spatial data derived at an unprecedented high spatial resolution (i.e. 30-m) for these
117 latitudes, that we related to ~~and~~ long-term monitoring observations of plant occurrences. Our aim is
118 to test the local effect of environmental and anthropogenic factors on alien plant invasion in sub-
119 Antarctic ecosystems. We hypothesize that both abiotic and human-related factors jointly define the
120 local occurrence of alien plant species, but that these two factors will not be equally important among
121 species. Furthermore, to identify plant characteristics conferring high invasiveness in sub-Antarctic
122 ecosystems, we investigate how plant functional traits affect species dependence on anthropogenic
123 propagule pressures. In this regard, our working hypothesis is that the more-most invasive species

124 share specific functional characteristics allowing them to become independent of human-assisted
125 introductions and spread widely once established.

126

127 2. Materials and methods

128 2.1 Study area



129

130 *Figure 1 – Map of Possession Island showing: ~~3~~ gross topography using ~~three~~ altitudinal belts (0-300 m; 300-600 m; 600-*
131 *934 m); human settlements (black dots); and hiking paths (dashed lines). The inset map reports the geographical location*
132 *of French sub-Antarctic islands, which include Crozet and Kerguelen archipelagos.*

133 The study was carried out on Possession Island in the Crozet archipelago, which is included in the
134 *Réserve Naturelle nationale des Terres Australes Françaises* (RNN-TAF) and listed as UNESCO
135 World Heritage site since 2019. Possession Island (~~Longitude: 51.7469, Latitude: -46.4046; EPSG:~~
136 ~~4326~~Figure 1) is characterized by a complex topography, with an altitudinal gradient ranging from 0
137 to 934 m above the sea level (*Pic du Mascarin*) over a relatively short spatial extent (147 km²). The
138 island is characterized by a typical sub-Antarctic climate, with mean annual temperature of 5.6 °C
139 and annual precipitation of 2,300 mm (Météo France, data: 1960-2019). Frequent and strong western
140 winds occur throughout most of the year.

141 The first human settlements date back to the 19th century, when whalers and sealers established on
142 the north-east side of the island during the hunting season, facilitating a first series of alien species
143 introductions. In 1963, a permanent research station (*Alfred Faure*, hereafter the ‘research station’)
144 was built on the easternmost area of Possession Island, fostering a new invasion front. Beyond the
145 research station, other shelters (inhabited for short periods) are currently present on each side of the
146 island: north (*Pointe Basse*); south-west (*Baie du La Pérouse*); and north-east (*Baie Américaine*).
147 Among these, the research station is by far the biggest human settlement and main hub of propagule
148 introduction. The vegetation at Possession Island has experienced relatively low grazing pressure
149 from ~~large herbivores~~sheep in the past (Convey & Lebouvier, 2009), in comparison to other sub-

150 Antarctic islands where introduced large herbivores still strongly affect the distribution of alien plants
151 (Shaw, 2013).

152 2.2 Study species

153 Despite the 68 alien species recorded on Possession Island ([see page 99 of the RNN-TAF](#)
154 [management plan 2018-2027: https://taaf.fr/content/uploads/sites/2/2019/09/180607-Volet-A_pour-](https://taaf.fr/content/uploads/sites/2/2019/09/180607-Volet-A_pour-CNPN.pdf)
155 [CNPN.pdf](https://taaf.fr/content/uploads/sites/2/2019/09/180607-Volet-A_pour-CNPN.pdf)), only few have established persistent populations (Frenot, Gloaguen, Massé, &
156 Lebouvier, 2001). In this study, we restricted our analysis to those alien plants that are either known
157 to be generally widespread on sub-Antarctic islands or are particularly widespread on Possession
158 Island, and for which sufficient occurrence data were available (total number of presences > 100).
159 Specifically, we selected the following [six species from three different families](#): *Poa annua* and *Poa*
160 *pratensis* (Poaceae); *Cerastium fontanum*, *Sagina procumbens* and *Stellaria alsine*
161 (Caryophyllaceae); and *Juncus bufonius* (Juncaceae). The two grasses, *P. annua* and *P. pratensis*,
162 have colonized most of the sub-Antarctic islands (Shaw, 2013); and are the longest-established alien
163 plants in the Antarctic Peninsula (Perterra et al., 2017). *Cerastium fontanum* and *S. procumbens* are
164 currently widely distributed in this environment (Frenot et al., 2005; Shaw, 2013) with, in particular,
165 *S. procumbens* exhibiting the highest rate of spread among the alien plants of Marion and Prince
166 Edward Islands (le Roux et al., 2013). Finally, both *J. bufonius* and *S. alsine* currently occur at
167 significant distances from the research station on Possession Island (Frenot et al., 2001). While the
168 former has been recently observed up to the Maritime Antarctica latitudes (Cuba-Díaz, Fuentes, &
169 Rondanelli-Reyes, 2015), the latter has been singled out by some authors as the potentially most
170 problematic future invasive plant species on Possession Island (Frenot et al., 2001; Convey, Key, &
171 Key, 2010).

172 2.2.1 Species distribution data

173 We analysed the invasion patterns of the six selected alien plant species relying on georeferenced
174 occurrence (presence/absence) data collected within the context of a yearly vegetation monitoring
175 survey carried out by the RNN-TAF since 2010. The vegetation sampling is implemented within a
176 system of 675 squared cells [of 100 × 100 m each](#), where floristic data (presence and abundance of
177 vascular plant species) are collected along with habitat characteristics through phytosociological
178 *relevés* (Dengler, 2016). In this study, we used data collected from 2010 to 2017 (3,354 occurrences
179 for the selected species across 1,572 sampled plots).

180 2.2.2 Species features and functional trait data

181 To inform species features ([e.g. traits](#)) potentially related to invasiveness, we collected data on plants
182 residence time and functional traits. Residence time positively interacts with propagule pressure in
183 determining plant invasion success (Richardson & Pyšek, 2006; Lockwood, Cassey, & Blackburn,
184 2005; Pyšek et al., 2015), and this relationship was also observed on sub-Antarctic islands (le Roux
185 et al., 2013; Shaw, 2013; Mathakutha et al., 2019). To test how residence time influences alien
186 species' dependence on propagule pressure, we considered the introduction date of the selected plants
187 on Possession Island (Frenot et al., 2001) and used this information to assign them to two groups: old
188 *vs* new resident species (Appendix S1, Table S1.1). In particular, we considered as old resident
189 species those which were firstly observed on Possession Island before the research station was built
190 (1963), while referring to the others as new resident species.

191 We then collated data on seven plant traits commonly used to synthesize species strategies known to
192 be related to invasiveness (van Kleunen et al., 2010; van Kleunen et al., 2015): (1) life history (annual
193 *vs* perennial); (2) plant height; (3) leaf area; (4) specific leaf area (SLA); (5) vegetative reproduction

194 (present *vs* absent, i.e. sexual and vegetative *vs* only sexual reproduction); (6) seed dry mass; and (7)
195 number of seeds/per plant. We excluded traits related to flowering since pollinating insects are absent
196 from almost all sub-Antarctic islands (Convey et al., 2010). Life history, plant height and leaf area
197 relate to plant persistence and tolerance to environmental stress (Cornelissen et al., 2003; Pérez-
198 Harguindeguy et al., 2013). In addition, life history is used to assess maximum lifespan and plant
199 height is associated with competitiveness for light and whole plant fecundity (Pérez-Harguindeguy et
200 al., 2013). Specific leaf area is the one-sided leaf area per leaf mass and is associated with resource
201 acquisition and photosynthetic rate (Pérez-Harguindeguy et al., 2013). Reproduction strategy, seed
202 dry mass and number of seeds per plant do not only relate with species persistence, but also with
203 dispersal capacity (Ottaviani et al., 2020). In particular, alien species reproducing predominantly
204 sexually may benefit from lower dispersal limitation and greater genetic diversity (van Kleunen et
205 al., 2015). At the same time, while small and light seeds are better dispersed at longer distances, large-
206 seeded plants may benefit from more stored resources (van Kleunen et al., 2015).

207 Functional trait data collected in areas environmentally analogous to sub-Antarctic islands Possession
208 Island were compiled from the literature (other sub-Antarctic islands, Frenot et al., 2005; Marion
209 Island, Mathakutha et al., 2019). Whenever we could not find information collected in comparable
210 environments, we relied on functional trait data included in the TRY database (Kattge et al., 2020).
211 For each alien species, the dominant reproduction strategy in the study area was assessed relying on
212 expert-based knowledge (personal communication, Lebouvier, M., & Bittebiere, A.K.). Species-
213 specific values of the functional traits are reported in table S1.1 (Appendix S1) along with literature
214 sources.

215 2.3 Topoclimatic layers

216 To model the species-environment relationship at fine spatial resolution, we first downloaded coarse-
217 grained temperature (BIO1, BIO5 and BIO6 – annual mean temperature, max temperature of the
218 warmest month and min temperature of the coldest month) and annual precipitation (BIO12) grid
219 layers at 1-km resolution (at the equator) from the CHELSA database (Karger et al., 2017) and then
220 disaggregated their spatial resolution using physiographically informed models fitted through
221 geographically weighted regression (GWR; Fotheringham & Rogerson, 2008). This downscaling
222 technique allows statistically predicting the local value of the coarse-grain CHELSA climatic
223 variables as a function of environmental grid layers available at finer spatial resolution (in this study
224 30-m at the equator, hereafter 30-m) and known to drive microclimate heterogeneity (Lenoir, Hattab,
225 & Pierre, 2017; Lembrechts et al., 2019). GWR-derived topoclimatic layers, beyond allowing to
226 model the species-environment relationship at a more meaningful spatial resolution, have already
227 proved to better account ~~better~~ for the complex interactions between macroclimate and topography
228 (Lenoir et al., 2017; Lembrechts et al., 2019).

229 As using BIO5 (max temperature of the warmest month) and BIO6 (min temperature of the coldest
230 month) in place of BIO1 did not improve species distribution models, we ultimately used BIO1
231 (hereafter mean temperature) and BIO12 as topoclimatic predictors. A full description of the
232 downscaling procedure is reported in Appendix S2 along with the results of the GWR models.

233 2.4 Human-related layers

234 As human disturbances are known to favour the establishment of alien plants through propagule
235 introduction and alteration of habitat conditions, we generated a 30-m resolution layer reporting the
236 distance between each human settlement (the research station, *Baie du La Pérouse*, *Pointe Basse* and
237 *Baie Américaine*) and any location on the island. Specifically, assuming that human disturbance is

238 stronger in ~~most~~ more accessible areas, we derived a least cost distance grid layer providing a measure
239 of accessibility. Terrain slope changes between both orthogonally and diagonally neighbouring raster
240 cells were used to compute the cost of reaching any location on Possession Island starting from any
241 human settlement and following all potential paths of raster cells (function “accCost”, “gdistance” R
242 package; Etten, 2018). High costs were thus associated with locations not easily reachable from
243 human settlements due to high topographic roughness (Appendix S3, Figure S3.2).

244 A network of hiking paths has been designed by ~~the~~ RNN-TAF to restrict human movements for
245 wildlife conservation purposes, and walking these paths currently constitutes the only authorized way
246 to move across the island. As humans are a critical vector of propagule introduction and dispersal on
247 sub-Antarctic islands, we derived a 30-m resolution raster layer reporting the distance between any
248 location on Possession Island and the closest hiking path using the function “distance” from the
249 “raster” R package (Hijmans, 2019) (Appendix S3, Figure S3.2).

250 2.5 Alien species distribution modelling

251 The occurrence probability of the six studied alien plant species was separately modelled as a function
252 of the topoclimatic (mean temperature and annual precipitation) and human-related variables (path
253 distance and least cost) by means of logit binary generalized linear models (GLM). The single-species
254 distribution models (single-SDMs) were trained and tested on datasets obtained through a re-sampling
255 procedure of the presence/absence data performed in the environmental space to reflect all available
256 environmental conditions on Possession Island (Lenoir et al., 2010; Hattab et al., 2017; see Appendix
257 S4). All four topoclimatic and human-related predictors were retained to fit the single-SDMs as the
258 relative variance inflation factor (function “vif”, R package “car”; Fox & Weisberg, 2019) was always
259 below a threshold of 3. Second-order polynomial terms were included in the model to allow for
260 intermediate niche optima of the species or in case lack-of-fit tests detected consistent departure from
261 linearity in the profile of Pearson residuals (function “residualPlots”, R package “car”; Fox &
262 Weisberg, 2019). The statistical significance of each predictor was tested using type II analysis of
263 deviance (function “Anova”, R package “car”; Fox & Weisberg, 2019). We then computed the
264 likelihood profile-based 95% confidence intervals of the regression parameters.

265 Single-SDMs predictive performance was measured using the true skill statistic (TSS, equal to
266 sensitivity + specificity – 1; function “ecospat.max.tss”, R package “ecospat”; Broennimann, Di Cola,
267 & Guisan, 2018) computed on the testing datasets obtained through the environmental matching
268 described in Appendix S4. We used the TSS as it has desirable properties of other accuracy measures
269 (e.g. Kappa and AUC), while being unaffected by prevalence (Allouche, Tsoar, & Kadmon, 2006).
270 Also, we computed the deviance-based R^2 value as a measure of goodness-of-fit of each single-SDM.

271 The occurrence probability estimated by the full single-SDMs (including both topoclimatic and
272 human-related predictors) for each alien plant species was mapped on a 30-m raster grid layer to
273 visualize their predicted distribution across Possession Island.

274 2.6 Relationship between plant traits and alien species dependence on propagule pressure

275 As preliminary analyses, we measured the relative importance of human-related variables in
276 determining alien species occurrence in the single-SDMs. To this aim, we used the sum of Akaike
277 weights (w), which provides an easily interpretable measure of variable importance (it ranges from 0
278 to 1, with a high value for a given variable indicating its high importance relative to the others;
279 Burnham & Anderson, 2002). Then we graphically related the species-specific values of the
280 functional traits to the sum of weights to look for relationships between plant traits and the importance
281 of human-related variables (see Appendix S7).

282 Secondly, we investigated how the interaction between human-related variables and plant traits
283 affected alien species occurrence in a multi-species distribution model (multi-SDM), focusing on
284 those functional traits that showed some relationship with the dependence on human-related variables
285 in the single-SDMs. To this aim, we modelled the occurrence of all alien species together as a function
286 of topoclimatic and human-related variables by means of a logit binary GLM, including the
287 interaction between species identity and topoclimatic variables on the one hand and the interaction
288 between species functional traits and human-related variables on the other hand. This allowed
289 exploring how the effect of human-related variables on alien species occurrence varied according to
290 plant traits, while controlling for species-specific responses to topoclimate. To select the most
291 parsimonious model, we fitted all possible sub-models including different combinations of the
292 functional traits-anthropogenic variables interaction terms (function “dredge”, R package “MuMIn”;
293 Barton, 2019), always retaining the species-topoclimate interaction terms and the main effect of path
294 distance and least cost in each candidate sub-model. Then, we computed the sum of Akaike weights
295 for each model term and used the evidence ratio as a measure of the relative importance of variables
296 (Massol et al., 2007; Burnham & Anderson, 2002). Specifically, we computed the evidence ratio of
297 the *i*-th variable (ER_i) as the odds of its sum of Akaike weights:

$$ER_i = \frac{w_i}{1 - w_i}$$

299 The evidence ratio was then compared with its expected value (ER_{null}) under the “null hypothesis”
300 that the variable explained as much deviance as a randomly generated explanatory variable, and
301 would thus be as likely as not to be incorporated in the best models. As all the variables were tested
302 in a balanced design, $ER_{null} = 1$ in all tested cases. Following Massol et al. (2007), the effect of a
303 variable *i* was deemed unlikely if $ER_i < 0.37 \times ER_{null}$, implausible when $0.37 \times ER_{null} < ER_i < ER_{null}$,
304 plausible when $ER_{null} < ER_i < 2.72 \times ER_{null}$, and likely when $ER_i > 2.72 \times ER_{null}$. These thresholds
305 correspond to differences in Akaike information criterion equal to +2 or -2, which are commonly
306 admitted as a good rule-of-thumb gap to compare model performance.

307 3. Results

308 3.1 *Effect of topoclimatic and human-related variables on single species ~~occurrence~~ distribution*

309 Predictive performances of the single-SDMs varied greatly across species (Table 1): high values of
310 TSS were observed for *P. pratensis*, *S. alsine* and *J. bufonius* (0.80-0.82), while low values were
311 obtained for the remaining species (from 0.09 to 0.29). The R^2 values showed a similar trend, with
312 the highest value obtained for *J. bufonius* (0.48) and the lowest for *C. fontanum* (0.02).

313 Overall, the occurrence of *P. pratensis*, *S. alsine* and *J. bufonius* appeared to be strongly conditioned
314 by both topoclimatic and human-related variables, while *C. fontanum*, *P. annua* and *S. procumbens*
315 were less affected by human-related variables (Table 1, Figures [21](#), and [23](#)).

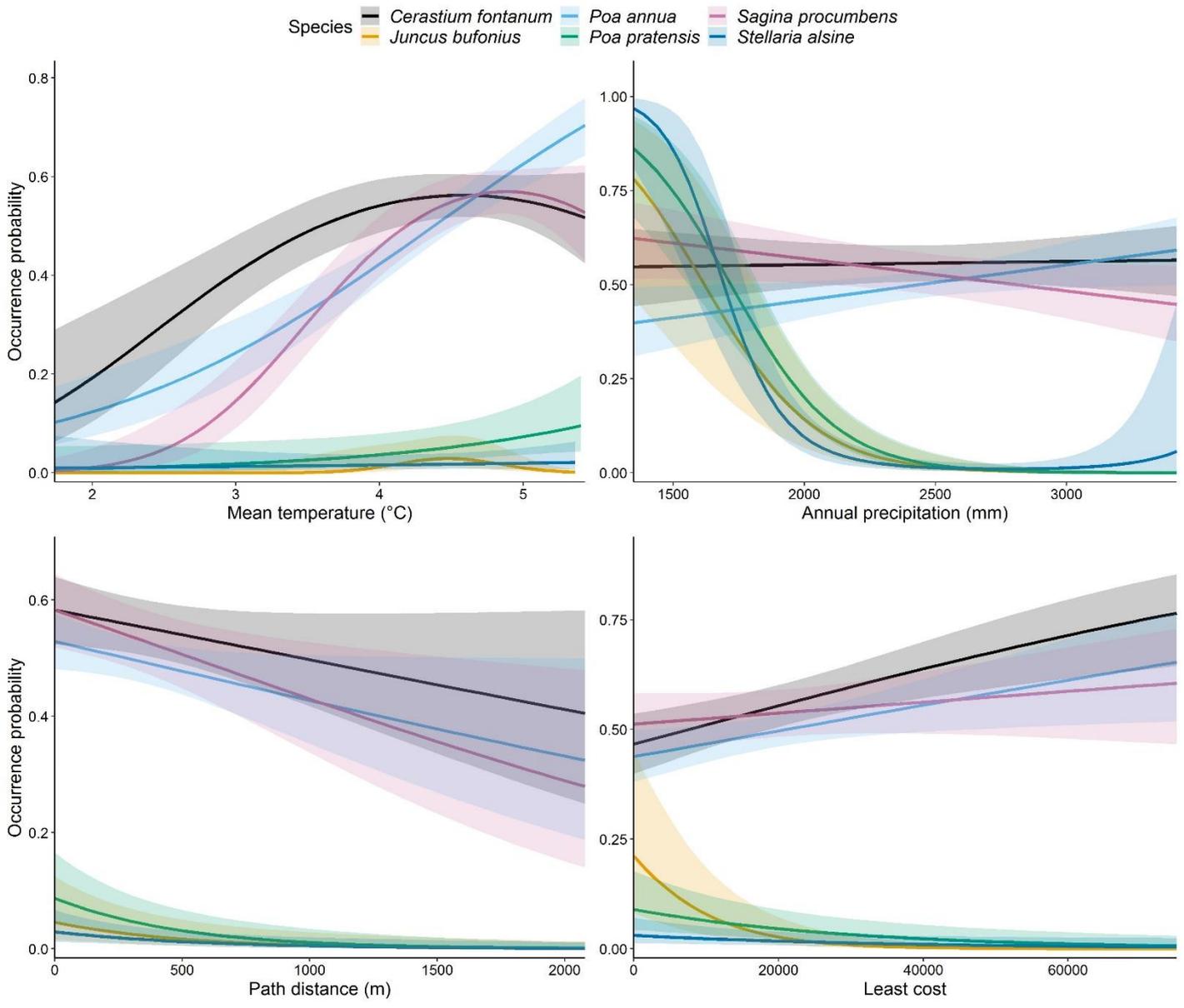
316 All alien species, except *S. alsine*, exhibited a significant positive or humped-shaped relationship with
317 mean temperature (Table 1), meaning that their occurrence probability increased with increasing
318 temperature (Figure [21](#), Appendix S5). More specifically, the occurrence probability of *J. bufonius*,
319 *S. procumbens* and *C. fontanum* peaked at mean temperature values around 4.5 °C, while the presence
320 of *P. pratensis* and *P. annua* “~~linearly~~” increased more or less linearly with temperature.

321 Annual precipitation significantly affected the presence of *P. pratensis*, *S. alsine* and *J. bufonius*,
322 while it had a minor influence on the occurrence of the other species (Table 1). In particular, the odds
323 of finding *P. pratensis* and *J. bufonius* decreased approximately by 90% for each 500 mm increment

324 in annual precipitation, while the occurrence probability of *S. alsine* sharply decreased for annual
325 precipitation values above 1,500 mm (Figure 21).

326 All species except *C. fontanum* exhibited a significant negative relationship with path distance (i.e.
327 the occurrence probability of the species decreased at increasing distances from the hiking paths),
328 though its influence varied among species (Table 1, Figure 21, Appendix S5). In this regard, the odds
329 of finding *P. pratensis*, *S. alsine* and *J. bufonius* decreased respectively by 20%, 16% and 19%
330 moving 100 m away from the paths, while the odds of finding *P. annua* and *S. procumbens* decreased
331 by 4% and 6%, respectively.

332 Least cost distance to settlements appeared to influence the occurrence of all analysed species except
333 *S. procumbens* (Table 1). In particular, the odds of finding *P. pratensis*, *S. alsine* and *J. bufonius*
334 decreased, respectively, by 17%, 13% and 44% for each increment of 5,000 units of cost of travelling
335 a given path from a human settlement (Figure 21, Appendix S5). On the contrary, *C. fontanum* and
336 *P. annua* showed a positive relationship with least cost, with their odds of occurring increasing
337 respectively by 9% and 5% for each increment of 5,000 units of cost of travelling a given path from
338 a human settlement (Figure 21 and Appendix S5).



339

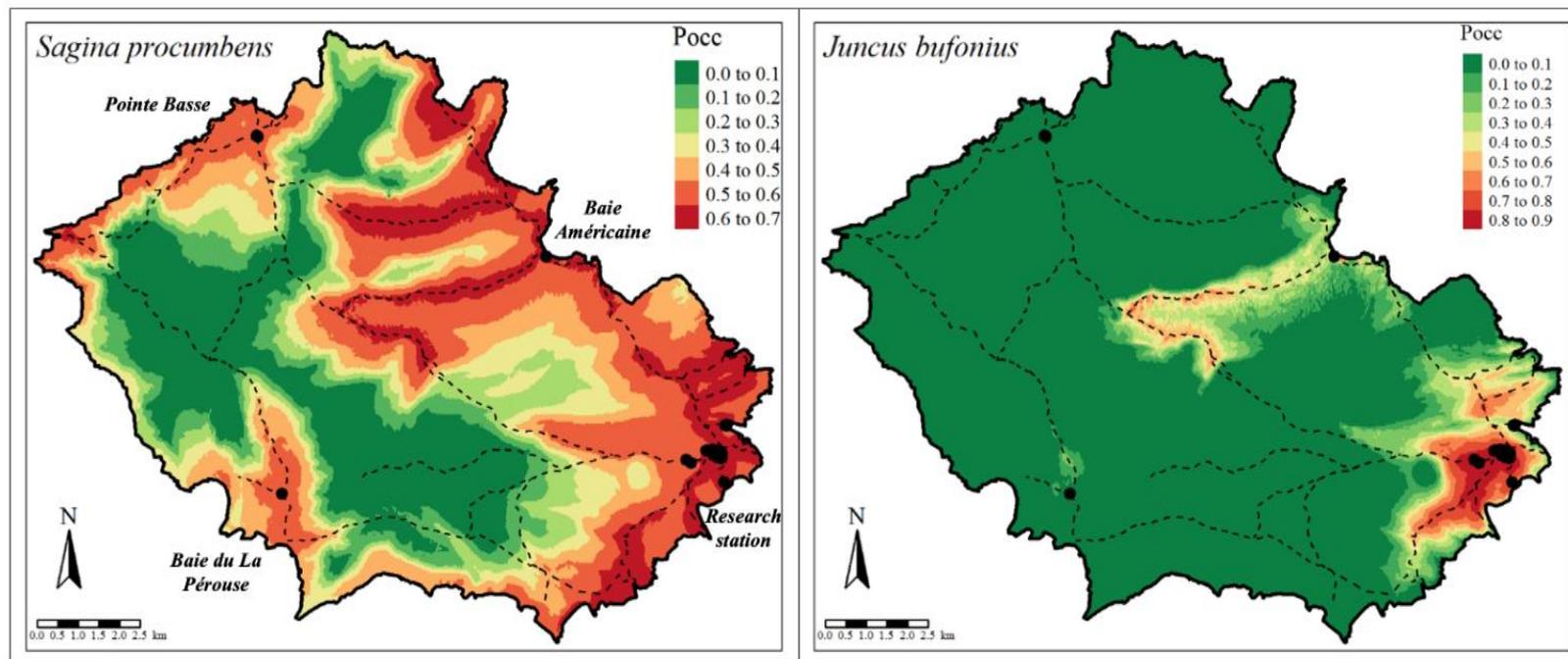
340

Figure 42 – Response curves of the analysed alien species in the single-SDMs.

341 Table 1 – Single-SDM type II analysis of deviance tables and performance measures (R^2 and TSS). LR: Likelihood Ratio statistic; Df: degrees of freedom; p-val: p-value (***) $p <$
 342 0.001; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$).

Predictors	<i>Poa pratensis</i>			<i>Juncus bufonius</i>			<i>Stellaria alsine</i>			<i>Poa annua</i>			<i>Sagina procumbens</i>			<i>Cerastium fontanum</i>		
	LR	Df	p-val	LR	Df	p-val	LR	Df	p-val	LR	Df	p-val	LR	Df	p-val	LR	Df	p-val
Mean temperature	5.083	1	*	32.516	2	***	0.312	1	= 0.576	55.538	1	***	62.554	2	***	18.325	2	***
Annual precipitation	106.443	1	***	73.647	1	***	68.406	2	***	4.759	1	*	3.681	1	= 0.055	0.041	1	= 0.840
Least cost	10.837	1	***	40.250	1	***	4.420	1	*	5.778	1	*	1.118	1	= 0.290	12.483	1	***
Path distance	15.623	1	***	8.740	1	**	7.524	1	**	3.927	1	*	6.782	1	**	2.877	1	= 0.089
R^2			0.46			0.48			0.36			0.06			0.10			0.02
TSS			0.80			0.81			0.82			0.19			0.29			0.09

343



344

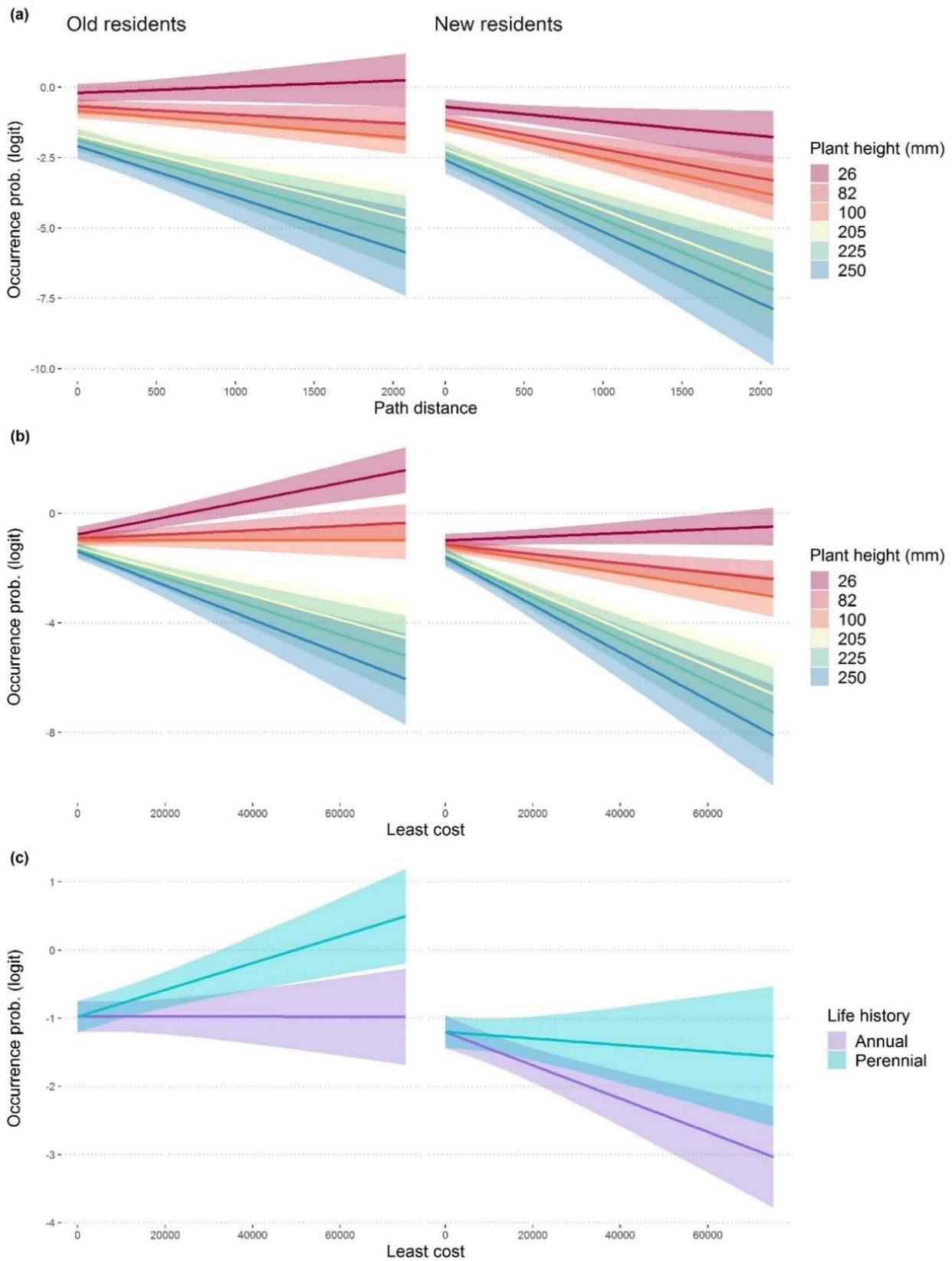
345
346

Figure 32 – Predicted occurrence of *Sagina procumbens* and *Juncus bufonius*. Pocc: occurrence probability. Dashed lines represent hiking paths, while black dots represent human settlements. Occurrence maps of the other alien species are reported in Appendix S6 (Figure S6.4 and S6.5).

347 3.2 *Plant traits and species dependence on propagule pressure*

348 In the preliminary analyses, residence time, life history, vegetative reproduction and plant height
349 showed some relationship with the sum of weights of the human-related variables in the single-SDMs
350 (Appendix S7, Figure S7.6 and S7.8), while seed- and leaf-related traits clearly showed no
351 relationship (Appendix S7, Figure S7.7 and S7.9).

352 Then, the multi-SDM confirmed significant interactions of residence time, life history and plant
353 height with the human-related variables (Appendix S7, Figure S7.10). Residence time and plant
354 height appeared to interact with both human-related variables, while life history seemed to interact
355 only with least cost in determining alien species occurrence. In particular, the effect of human-related
356 variables on alien species occurrence varied with plant height. ~~For instance, and while~~ the occurrence
357 probability of taller plants sharply decreased when moving far away from human facilities, while a
358 weaker and sometimes opposite trend was observed for ~~shorter plant species~~ of shorter statures
359 (Figure ~~43~~ a,b and Appendix S7, Figure S7.11). In addition, old residents were on average less affected
360 by the human-related variables than new residents (Figure ~~43~~ a,b and Appendix S7, Figure S7.11 a).
361 Finally, perennials appeared to be on average less negatively affected by least cost distance to human
362 settlements than annuals (Figure ~~43~~ c and Appendix S7, Figure S7.11 b,c).



363

364 *Figure 43 – Effect of the interaction between human-related variables and plant features on alien species occurrence*
 365 *probability (logit scale). Panel (a): effect of the path distance-plant height interaction on old and new resident occurrence*
 366 *probability. Panel (b): effect of the least cost-plant height interaction on old and new (annual) resident occurrence*
 367 *probability. Panel (c): effect of least cost distance to human settlements on annual and perennial (100 mm height) alien*
 368 *species occurrence (for both old and new residents). All plots are reported on a logit scale.*

369

370 4. Discussion

371 As ~~hypothesized~~hypothesised, both environmental and human-related variables locally affected alien
372 plant species occurrence on Possession Island, though with differences among the studied species.
373 Overall, results confirmed the key role of human-related propagule pressure in favouring alien plant
374 species establishment and spread on sub-Antarctic islands (Frenot et al., 2005; le Roux et al., 2013;
375 Shaw, 2013), though we also observed a significant effect of abiotic conditions. Indeed, climate
376 barriers seemed to prevent alien plant species occurrence in the most environmentally stressful areas
377 of the island, as found in sub(ant)arctic mountain regions by (Lembrechts et al., (2016). In particular,
378 our results suggested the existence of two main invasion patterns arising from the species-specific
379 dependence on human-related propagule pressure (Frenot et al., 2005; Shaw, 2013): low-spread
380 species (*P. pratensis*, *S. alsine* and *J. bufonius*) strongly relying on human-assisted dispersal along
381 hiking trails and in the vicinity of human settlements; and high-spread species (*C. fontanum*, *P. annua*
382 and *S. procumbens*) mostly limited by harsh climatic conditions at high altitudes. Differences in plant
383 invasiveness appeared to be influenced by residence time, life history and plant height, with old
384 residents and perennial short species being more invasive.

385 Due to their dependence on human-related variables, low-spread species were predicted to occur
386 mainly close to hiking paths and human settlements, pointing to the importance of anthropogenic
387 activities as key drivers of continuous propagule pressure favouring species establishment (Whinam
388 et al., 2005; Pickering & Mount, 2010). Once introduced through ship-to-shore transport, propagules
389 are then likely to be dispersed on hiking paths through trampling (Whinam et al., 2005). However,
390 the harsher environmental conditions characterizing the west side of Possession Island also limit the
391 occurrence of low-spread species to the east. In particular, the west-east gradient of annual
392 precipitation (Appendix S2, Figure S2.1) clearly overlaps with the low-spread species distribution
393 (Figure 32 and Appendix S6), suggesting that their establishment might be prevented in areas with
394 abundant precipitation. Nevertheless, the precipitation gradient is also connected to human presence,
395 so that in the western side of the island (less inhabited and more preserved) anthropogenic propagule
396 pressure is weaker. In any case, our results evidenced that low-spread species may lack important
397 adaptations to successfully ~~colonize~~colonise less disturbed areas with limiting abiotic conditions,
398 while remaining relegated to areas of high human presence (~~Lembrechts et al., 2018~~).

399 On the contrary, high-spread species appeared weakly (yet positively) influenced by human-related
400 variables, suggesting that, in spite of the undisputed importance of anthropogenic activities in
401 promoting alien plants establishment (Whinam et al., 2005; Huiskes et al., 2014), high-spread species
402 may possess key traits releasing them from direct dependence on anthropogenic propagule pressure.
403 Consequently, these species appeared to be mostly limited by the extreme climatic conditions of the
404 high and cold inner sectors of Possession Island. This result is in line with the findings from
405 Chwedorzewska et al. (2015), who documented the rapid expansion of *Poa annua* from the Arctowski
406 research base (King George Island) towards wilder areas of the maritime Antarctic Peninsula.
407 Nevertheless, Furthermore, t the low predictive performance of high-spread SDMs indicates that the
408 occurrence of these species ~~can only be partly~~is poorly explained by the influence of topoclimatic and
409 human-related variables, so that other factors not considered here (e.g. soil properties, plant-soil
410 microbiota interactions, snow cover) may ~~also~~ play an important role in driving their distribution at
411 even finer spatial resolutions. In this regard, better performances of the SDMs for high-spread species
412 could have probably been achieved using alien species abundances, which are more informative of
413 the relative habitat suitability than presence-absence data (Howard et al., 2014).

414 Critically, although we managed to obtain relatively high-resolution topoclimatic data, it is important
415 to realize that the CHELSA climate for the island (1) might lack the accuracy it has at temperate
416 latitudes, being based on extrapolations from a single weather station ~~only~~, and (2) represents air
417 temperature only, while short plants as those analysed here relate more strongly to soil and near-
418 surface temperatures ([Convey, Coulson, Worland, & Sjöblom, 2018](#); [Lembrechts et al., 2019](#)). This
419 highlights the need for *in-situ* soil- and near-surface temperature measurements in remote locations
420 to get more ecologically meaningful climate data ([Lembrechts et al., 2020](#)).

421 Although the small set of analysed alien plant species calls for caution in interpretation, we confirmed
422 here that certain plant traits confer greater invasiveness in sub-Antarctic environments. By relating
423 plant traits to species responses to human-related variables and analysing the effect of their interaction
424 on alien species occurrence, we found evidence that low-stature was a key feature that discriminated
425 invasive from non-invasive alien plant species under the harsh abiotic conditions on Possession
426 Island. ~~However~~ Noteworthy, residence time and life history also appeared to affect species
427 invasiveness.

428 As similarly reported by Mathakutha et al. (2019), we found that Highhigh-spread species were of
429 shorter statures than low-spread species (~~Mathakutha et al., 2019~~). Consistently, we observed a
430 sharper decrease in the occurrence probability of taller plants moving away from both hiking paths
431 and human settlements. As plant height is generally associated with species adaptations to harsh
432 environments ([Cornelissen et al., 2003](#)) and, specifically, low-stature has been attributed to frost
433 avoidance mechanisms in high mountains ([Márquez, Rada, & Fariñas, 2006](#); [Ladinig, Hacker,](#)
434 [Neuner, & Wagner, 2013](#)), ~~shorter~~ species of shorter statures may be reasonably favoured in windy
435 and cold sub-Antarctic environments ([Mathakutha et al., 2019](#)) and therefore be more easily released
436 of human dependence. Indeed, the importance of functional traits providing tolerance to abiotic stress
437 increases with environmental harshness, even under strong anthropogenic disturbance ([Zefferman et](#)
438 [al., 2015](#)). Further, our results supported the hypothesis that residence time positively affects
439 invasiveness ([Lockwood et al., 2005](#); [Pyšek et al., 2015](#)), though with some exceptions. Generally,
440 old residents (e.g. *C. fontanum* and *P. annua*) were less dependent on human-related propagule
441 pressure and more widely spread than new resident species. Nevertheless, among the old residents,
442 *P. pratensis* was strongly dependent on human-related variables and was still mostly restricted to the
443 original introduction sites. On the other hand, *S. procumbens*, a new resident, has been able to spread
444 extensively and quicker than the other (old residents) high-spread species. However, this might be
445 due to the difference in plant height of the two species: while *P. pratensis* is among the tallest analysed
446 species, *S. procumbens* is the shortest. The multi-SDM showed that perennials were slightly less
447 dependent on human presence than annuals (Figure ~~43~~c). Although annuals might benefit from high
448 dispersal abilities (e.g. abundant light seeds) and usually spread quicker and wider ([Pertierra et al.,](#)
449 [2017](#)), perennials can sustain short growing seasons ([Frenot et al., 2001](#); [Shaw, 2013](#)) and potentially
450 colonise harsher environments ([Dietz & Edwards, 2006](#)). In our case, short perennials (e.g. *C.*
451 *fontanum*) might be favoured over tall annuals (e.g. *J. bufonius*) due to the interaction between stress-
452 tolerant traits, such as plant height, and high abiotic tolerance.

453 ~~Though~~ Albeit the interaction between vegetative reproduction and human-related variables was not
454 included in the most parsimonious multi-SDM, alien species may still benefit from sexual
455 reproduction, as suggested from the lower importance of human-related variables for the occurrence
456 of alien plants reproducing sexually in the single-SDMs (Appendix S7). As discussed above, the high
457 dispersal potential of sexually reproducing alien species, together with the ability to form rich seed
458 banks ([Wódkiewicz et al., 2014](#)), may foster their extensive spread as, for instance, observed for *P.*
459 *annua* in the Antarctic Peninsula ([Pertierra et al., 2017](#)). Nonetheless, by reproducing vegetatively,

460 perennials might outcompete annuals in maintaining viable and persistent populations during
461 unfavourable seasons. Finally, in spite of their acknowledged importance in conferring invasiveness
462 in sub-Antarctic islands (Mathakutha et al., 2019), we found no evidence of the role of seed and leaf
463 traits in affecting species dependence on human-related variables. This is possibly due to the small
464 set of analysed alien species or to the lack of abundance data, which might have prevented the
465 emergence of further functional traits-anthropogenic variables relationships.

~~466 Overall, our approach allowed identifying fine-scale drivers of alien species distribution on sub-
467 Antarctic islands, along with the most likely features that favour their spread beyond sources of
468 continuous human-assisted introductions. Despite some limitations inherent to our dataset study (e.g.
469 limited number of species, lack of alien species abundance data) and other typical limitations specific
470 to invasive species distribution modelling (e.g. underestimation of invasion potential, see Jiménez-
471 Valverde et al., 2011), our approach allowed identifying fine-scale drivers of alien plant species
472 distribution, along with the most likely features that favour their spread beyond sources of continuous
473 human-assisted introductions. Combining information on both plant invasiveness and sub-Antarctic
474 islands invasibility, our study provides relevant insights for anticipating future problematic invasions
475 in these remote and unique environments. Despite some limitations (e.g. limited number of species),
476 our study opens avenues for a more targeted management of alien plant invasions in these unique
477 environments, potentially allowing to anticipate future problematic invasions.~~

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488 Authors’ contribution

489 DR, MB, FM and JL conceived the idea; MB analyzed the data with FM, ~~and MC and JL~~; MB led
490 the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval
491 for publication.

492 Data availability statement

493 Data and R code available on Zenodo: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4287498>
494 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3951465>

495 Conflict of interest disclosure

496 The authors of this article declare that they have no financial conflict of interest with the content of
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