

Unexpected productivity and invasion resistance from plant communities assembled from allopatric populations

Alison Agneray¹, Thomas Parchman¹, Matthew Forister², and Elizabeth Leger¹

¹University of Nevada Reno

²University of Nevada, Reno

January 09, 2025

Abstract

Species with shared geographic history may co-evolve, with interactions leading to niche differentiation and improved resource capture. Thus, plant communities assembled from sympatric sources (shared geographic origins) are predicted to be more productive and invasion resistant than those from allopatric sources (different origins), even with identical species composition. We compared performance among communities of four species from 15 locations, assembled from allopatric or sympatric sources. Unexpectedly, allopatric-sourced communities had 29-35% more inflorescences, 19% higher survival, 19% longer growing season, 26-53% greater size, and 108% lower invader biomass than sympatric-sources. Sympatric populations showed trait convergence consistent with strong environmental selection, with trait variation higher in allopatric communities. Variation was associated with higher productivity and invasion resistance, suggesting an advantage of allopatric sources for community reassembly when environmental filters are strong. These findings challenge assumptions about the advantages of shared origins and have implications for understanding competition, community assembly, and ecosystem restoration.

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Table 1.xlsx available at <https://authorea.com/users/878979/articles/1258265-unexpected-productivity-and-invasion-resistance-from-plant-communities-assembled-from-allopatric-populations>

1 **Title:** Unexpected productivity and invasion resistance from plant communities assembled from
2 allopatric populations

3

4 **List of Authors:**

5 Alison C. Agneray*¹, Thomas L. Parchman¹, Matthew L. Forister¹ Elizabeth A. Leger¹

6 *Correspondence: aagneray@unr.edu; University of Nevada, Reno, 1664 N. Virginia Street,

7 Mail Stop 314, Reno, NV 89557, phone: (775) 501-4159, fax: (775) 784-1302

8 ¹ Graduate Program in Ecology, Evolution, and Conservation Biology, Department of Biology,

9 University of Nevada, Reno, 1664 N. Virginia Street, Mail Stop 314, Reno, NV 89557

10

11 **E-mail addresses of all authors:** aagneray@unr.edu; tparchman@unr.edu; mforister@unr.edu;

12 lelizabeth@unr.edu

13

14 **Running title:** Assembly from allopatric sources

15

16 **Keywords:** adaptive traits, co-selection, common garden, community evolution, ecosystem

17 functioning, invasion resistance, niche differentiation, plant productivity, species interactions,

18 trait convergence

19

20 **Type of article:** Letter

21 **Number of words in abstract:** 150

22 **Number of words in main text:** 4963

23 **Number of words in text box:** n/a

24 **Number of references: 69**

25 **Number of figures: 5**

26 **Number of tables: 1**

27 **Number of text boxes: 0**

28

29 **Statement of Authorship**

30 E.A.L and T.L.P. conceived of and funded the study, A.C.A. designed and conducted the
31 experiments, with assistance from E.A.L. A.C.A. led the analysis and writing, with writing
32 assistance from E.A.L, T.L.P, and M.L.F., and analysis assistance from M.L.F. All authors
33 crafted the final manuscript.

34

35 **Data Accessibility Statement**

36 Data and code are available on Zenodo at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14610664>

37 **Abstract (150 words)**

38 Species with shared geographic history may co-evolve, with interactions leading to niche
39 differentiation and improved resource capture. Thus, plant communities assembled from
40 sympatric sources (shared geographic origins) are predicted to be more productive and invasion
41 resistant than those from allopatric sources (different origins), even with identical species
42 composition. We compared performance among communities of four species from 15 locations,
43 assembled from allopatric or sympatric sources. Unexpectedly, allopatric-sourced communities
44 had 29-35% more inflorescences, 19% higher survival, 19% longer growing season, 26-53%
45 greater size, and 108% lower invader biomass than sympatric-sources. Sympatric populations
46 showed trait convergence consistent with strong environmental selection, with trait variation
47 higher in allopatric communities. Variation was associated with higher productivity and invasion
48 resistance, suggesting an advantage of allopatric sources for community reassembly when
49 environmental filters are strong. These findings challenge assumptions about the advantages of
50 shared origins and have implications for understanding competition, community assembly, and
51 ecosystem restoration.

52

53 **Introduction**

54 Plants share demands for common resources such as water, nutrients, and light (Gause
55 1934; Silvertown 2004), but can reduce competition by evolving strategies that reduce direct
56 overlap in resource use such as offset phenology or variation in rooting depths or leaf
57 morphology (Aarssen 1983; Bakker et al. 2021; Godoy et al. 2020; Hector et al. 2010;
58 Kulmatiski et al. 2020). This niche differentiation can result in reduced negative interactions and
59 even facilitation between plant neighbors, where interacting plants not only experience reduced
60 direct competition but may also promote each other's persistence (e.g., nurse plants, hydraulic
61 lift; Camarretta et al. 2020; Grady et al. 2017; van Moorsel et al. 2018). The results of such plant
62 interactions affect individual fitness and population trajectories but can also have cascading
63 effects on community functions such as productivity and invasion resistance (van Moorsel et al.
64 2019; Whitham et al., 2020). Indeed, there is a breadth of literature demonstrating that
65 community function is influenced by species-level diversity (Isbell et al. 2015; Mahaut et al.
66 2020; Tilman et al. 2014).

67 In addition to the important effects of diversity at the species level, population-level
68 diversity, or ecotypic variation, can also affect plant interactions and thus communities. The
69 existence of intraspecific trait variation has long been recognized (Siefert et al. 2015) and is often
70 correlated with environment and interpreted as evidence of local adaptation (Baughman et al.
71 2019; Leimu & Fischer 2008). Given substantial phenotypic variation among populations, the
72 same niche partitioning mechanisms that lead to diversity-function relationships at the species
73 level could also be associated with intraspecific differences among populations. Indeed,
74 modeling and manipulative studies have found that growing with neighbors that share site-level
75 origins (hereafter referred to as sympatric populations) can increase community functions such as

76 productivity and invasion tolerance (Aubree et al. 2020; Chen et al. 2022; Dietrich et al. 2024;
77 Grady et al. 2017; van Moorsel et al. 2018), though other studies have found species-specific
78 effects, but no consistent community level responses (e.g., Agneray et al. 2023a; López-Angulo
79 et al. 2023).

80 Whether at the species or population level, differentiated traits that arise from a shared
81 interaction history may lead to desirable community properties (Germain et al. 2016; van
82 Moorsel et al. 2021; Westerband et al. 2021a; Zuppinger-Dingley et al. 2014). For example, if
83 strong biotic interactions result in niche differentiation and complementarity, we might expect
84 sympatric communities to have the greatest trait diversity and thus show greater productivity and
85 less susceptibility to invasion due to more complete use of resources (Figure 1, high resources;
86 Funk et al. 2008; Moore et al. 2001; van Moorsel et al. 2021). Alternately, strong environmental
87 filters in low resource or otherwise challenging environments could result in greater trait
88 similarity, i.e., convergence, among species in sympatric communities, with multiple species
89 evolving similar characteristics in response to selection (Figure 1, low resources; Bruelheide et
90 al. 2018; Drenovsky et al. 2012; Westerband et al. 2021b), and thus allopatric mixtures could
91 display more trait variability due to their divergent environmental backgrounds. If trait variation
92 is important for community-level functions such as invasion resistance, the relative ability of
93 sympatric or allopatric communities to demonstrate desirable community functions may not be
94 constant across all levels of resource availability. Note that we use the phrases “sympatric
95 communities” and “allopatric communities” throughout to refer to suites of species
96 experimentally assembled from either the same source location or different source locations.

97 While we are beginning to understand the importance of plant-plant interactions in
98 natural and experimental communities (Genung et al. 2012; Grady et al. 2017; van Moorsel et al.

99 2018; Zaiats et al. 2021), these interactions are often overlooked when establishing new
100 communities for ecological restoration, a practice essential for recovering biodiversity loss and
101 long considered the “acid test” of ecological knowledge (Bradshaw 1987). There is reason to
102 question if our knowledge of community function is passing this test, as in many cases, restored
103 communities fall short of practitioner goals (Atkinson et al. 2022; Holl et al. 2022; Shackelford
104 et al. 2021). Due to myriad practical constraints, restoration projects may include a limited
105 number of target species with seed sourced from disparate sites (Erickson & Halford 2020; Holl
106 et al. 2022), resulting in low diversity allopatric communities, i.e., a restoration mix composed of
107 a few dominant species established from populations with no co-occurrence history. While some
108 restoration techniques, such as hay transfer in grasslands, include transferring propagules from a
109 single community into restoration sites en masse (Wagner et al. 2021), it is not always possible
110 to employ community-based approaches to seed sourcing, due to a lack of intact sites and the
111 species-specific nature of seed collection and production (e.g., NASEM 2023). Observing the
112 disconnect between restoration practice and the growing evidence that locally adapted plant-
113 plant interactions can affect community outcomes such as productivity and response to invasion
114 (Aubree et al. 2020; Grady et al. 2017; van Moorsel et al. 2018), we investigated whether
115 preserving the shared origin of seed mixes by collecting seeds from multiple species from one
116 location could improve restoration outcomes, based on the potential for a co-evolutionary history
117 to increase community function.

118 Here we asked how community function is affected by population origin, creating 12
119 different communities from populations of three common native grasses and a native shrub. We
120 worked in the semi-arid, western region of the Great Basin Desert, which has experienced
121 extensive conversion to annual invasive communities and undergoes extensive ecological

122 restoration (Bradley et al. 2018). These communities were composed of the same plant species,
123 but seeds were sourced from populations with a variety of origins (sympatric or allopatric), trait
124 composition, and source environment variation (Agneray et al. 2023b). We asked four specific
125 questions: 1) how do community-level responses (aboveground productivity, facilitation,
126 inflorescence production, and invasive suppression) differ among community mixtures? 2) Do
127 communities with either allopatric or sympatric origins differ in trait variation? 3) Did any *a*
128 *priori* measurements (source environment or seedling traits) predict community-level
129 performance? and 4) What plant characteristics are most strongly associated with invasion
130 resistance?

131 We began this experiment expecting that sympatric communities would demonstrate
132 more desirable community-level responses (greater productivity, facilitation, reproduction, and
133 invasive suppression), due to the potential for coevolved communities to have greater niche
134 differentiation and efficiency in resource use (Aubree et al. 2020; Silvertown 2004). However, in
135 a previous study with cold desert plants, we were surprised to find that when origin affected
136 community outcomes, it was an allopatric community that had the highest biomass and invasion
137 suppression (Agneray et al. 2023a). Hence, we approached this experiment with some
138 uncertainty and were curious if a broader assembly of allopatric communities sourced from a
139 greater number of locations would demonstrate this unexpected phenomenon, or if predictions
140 about desirable properties in sympatric communities would hold true.

141

142 **Material and Methods**

143 **Species, site selection and seed collection**

144 We chose native species that co-occur in the Great Basin Desert and are used in restoration: three
145 perennial grasses (*Elymus* spp. L., *Eriocoma thurberiana* (Piper) Romasch, *Poa secunda* J.
146 Presl), and one shrub (*Artemisia tridentata* Nutt.). Since *Elymus elymoides* (Raf.) Swezey and *E.*
147 *multisetus* (J.G. Sm.) Burt Davy co-occur and hybridize in the western Great Basin (Barkworth
148 et al. 2007), our sampling locations included this complexity. For simplicity, we refer to each of
149 the four taxa as “species,” though eight *Elymus* spp. collections contain a combination of the two
150 species and refer to each collection as a “population.” We collected seeds from 15 sites (Figure
151 2) where all species co-occur in lower elevation sagebrush steppe communities, with average
152 annual precipitation between 232 and 388 mm (Table S1; Supplemental Methods; PRISM
153 Climate Group 2004).

154

155 **Experimental mesocosms**

156 We established an outdoor planting site with 151 mesocosms filled with local topsoil
157 (Table S2; 200L, 0.9m depth) at the University of Nevada, Reno (39.537924, -119.804757).
158 Mesocosm locations were randomized and planted with one of 12 possible mixtures, 6 sympatric
159 and 6 allopatric, with 11 replicates each, with 19 mesocosms serving as unplanted control
160 treatments for the invasion experiment

161 In fall 2019, seeds were planted inside the greenhouse and seedlings were transplanted
162 into outdoor mesocosms starting in spring 2020. Planting density approximated a typical
163 sagebrush shrubland community with one individual of *A. tridentata*, *Elymus* spp., and *E.*
164 *thurberiana*, and two individuals of the smaller-statured *P. secunda*. We monitored survival
165 weekly from March 2020 to November 2020 (growing season one) and November 2020 through

166 August 2021 (growing season two) and monitored green days (presence or absence of
167 photosynthetic tissue) in growing season one. We initially watered to maximum water holding
168 capacity and thereafter, lightly watered once weekly if there had been no precipitation. In
169 November 2020 and March 2021, perished individuals were replaced to ensure complete
170 community establishment. At the end of August 2020 and 2021, every plant was assessed for
171 height, crown size (length x width), senescence (an index between 0-3 from least to most live
172 green tissue), and number of inflorescences.

173 In December 2020, each container was invaded with *Bromus tectorum* L. (cheatgrass), a
174 competitive invasive annual grass in the Great Basin (Bradley et al. 2018; Monaco et al. 2017).
175 Mesocosms were planted with 130 *B. tectorum* seeds, based on natural seed production assessed
176 in a moderately invaded field site. All *B. tectorum* individuals were harvested at the end of the
177 second growing season, August 2021, oven-dried, and weighed.

178

179 **Community responses**

180 We use the word “community” to refer to one of 12 possible mixtures for the individual
181 mesocosms (Table S2) and community response variables are the aggregated responses across
182 the five plants in each mesocosm. Productivity was measured as aboveground native plant
183 volume at the end of the first and second growing seasons. Reproductive output was represented
184 by the total number of inflorescences produced by all plants in the mesocosm. The total mass of
185 *B. tectorum* per mesocosm was used as a metric of invasion resistance, with lower values
186 indicating greater suppression. We also quantified potential facilitation, measured by the total
187 mortality experienced by any plant in a mesocosm. We aggregated the number of days plants
188 were photosynthetically active (i.e., green days) in their first growing season prior to invasion as

189 a measure for the community's potential to capture resources, which is particularly important in
190 semi-arid systems with pulsed resource availability (Chesson et al. 2004).

191

192 **Environmental data**

193 Climate normals, soil, and site characteristics for each collection site were gathered from
194 the PRISM Data Explorer, SSURGO Web Soil Survey, and USGS Digital Elevation Models
195 (PRISM Climate Group 2004; Soil Survey Staff NRCS-USDA 2021; USGS 2019; Table S1) and
196 used to calculate a suite of functionally relevant climate variables. We retained 11 variables with
197 relatively low ($|r| < 0.6$) correlation for analysis (Table S1).

198

199 **Quantifying seed and seedling traits**

200 We focused on comparing seed and seedling traits among populations, as these
201 characteristics are important for plant recruitment in the Great Basin Desert (James et al. 2011;
202 Larson et al. 2023; Leger et al. 2019). We weighed seeds and grew seedlings of each species and
203 population in a controlled greenhouse environment and measured root, shoot, and phenological
204 traits, employing methods previously used to describe perennial grass seedlings, and reduced
205 these measurements to a selected set of traits (Agneray et al. 2023b; Leger et al. 2021;
206 Supplemental Methods; Tables S3 and S4).

207

208 **Statistical analysis**

209 Q1: How did community-level responses differ among community mixtures?

210 We evaluated whether origin (allopatric or sympatric) or individual communities
211 influenced each response using R version 4.4.2 (R Core Team 2024). Model factors included

212 origin and community (nested within origin), with separate linear regression models built for
213 each response variable, transformed as needed to better fit a Gaussian distribution (Table S5).
214 Community was included as a fixed term, rather than random, because some communities were
215 deliberately selected based on their performance in previous experiments (Supplemental
216 Methods). However, it is also the case that all combinations can be viewed as a subset of a much
217 larger pool of possible combinations, thus we present a complementary set of models
218 (Supplemental Methods) in which community was modeled as a random term; this approach
219 does not precisely reflect our original design but the more limited degrees of freedom for testing
220 the main effect in the mixed model provided a conservative and thus informative test of our main
221 hypothesis involving evolutionary history (allopatric vs sympatric origins).

222 When considering invasion suppression, mesocosms with *B. tectorum* growing alone
223 were not included in the models due to their extremely high production values, but information is
224 presented to illustrate how native communities impacted *B. tectorum* growth.

225
226 Q2: Do communities with either allopatric or sympatric origins differ in trait variation?

227 Seed and seedling trait variation within each community mixture was analyzed using
228 general linear models to ask whether there were overall differences in variation between
229 allopatric or sympatric communities; trait values were measured from field-collected seeds and
230 greenhouse-grown seedlings. These models included origin type (either allopatric or sympatric)
231 with the variation in each seed or seedling trait (Table S3) as response variables, assuming a
232 Gaussian distribution of residuals. Variation in traits was assessed with the coefficient of
233 variation of an individual trait among the populations included in a mesocosm, using population-
234 level means (Table S3; Supplemental Methods).

235

236 Q3: Did any a priori measurements predict community-level performance?

237 After finding significant differences among community mixtures and between origin
238 types for nearly every response variable, we asked whether seedling traits measured at the
239 population-level in the greenhouse or environmental characteristics of the original collection site
240 could predict a subset of community-level responses (productivity, number of green days,
241 inflorescence production, survival or *B. tectorum* biomass) using random forest analysis. We
242 performed the analysis using the randomForest package in R (Breiman et al. 2018), with 10,000
243 trees and all other parameters set to the package defaults. We considered the total trait values
244 (e.g., the sum of seedling root lengths included in a particular community, estimated from the
245 population averages described in an initial greenhouse experiment) and the variation in each trait
246 value (e.g., variation in total root length among species in a mesocosm, calculated from
247 greenhouse measurements) to determine whether traits or trait variation predicted community
248 responses. For environmental variables, we included the sum of values for each plant's collection
249 sites for both sympatric and allopatric communities (e.g., sum of the mean annual precipitation
250 from represented sites for each plant).

251 Models were created separately for each community response including totals and
252 variation of trait values alongside total environmental values and the community type (either
253 sympatric or allopatric). We then reported the top ten variables ranked by importance, as
254 measured by the percent increase in Mean Squared Error (MSE), along with the percent of
255 variance explained by the full model. Additionally, we examined the partial dependence plots for
256 each of the top ten variables of each response to report the direction of the observed marginal
257 effects.

258

259 Q4: What plant characteristics are best correlated with invasion resistance?

260 Focusing on invasion suppression, we sought to explain the marked differences in
261 performance among communities using structural equation modeling (SEM; Supplemental
262 Methods). Unlike question 3, which asked whether previously measured traits or environment of
263 origin predicted community outcomes, this analysis focused on the influence of plant
264 characteristics within individual mesocosms. Specifically, we evaluated whether the size,
265 survival, period of active photosynthesis, or reproductive output of plants within a mesocosm
266 had a measurable influence on invasion resistance. For each species, we selected a single
267 variable from within the mesocosm that was most strongly correlated with *B. tectorum* biomass,
268 selecting one variable from measurements taken prior to invasion in the first growing season and
269 one variable measured during invasion in the second growing season, and moved these forward
270 in the SEM. We included potential competitive relationships among native species in the second
271 growing season in the model, along with origin as a potential predictor of native plant
272 characteristics in the first growing season.

273

274 **Results**

275 Q1: How did community-level responses differ among community mixtures?

276 Origin types (allopatric or sympatric; Figure 2) and unique community mixtures (Figures
277 3 and S4) differed in nearly every community response (results were consistent across two
278 modeling approaches with community as a fixed or random effect; Tables 1 and S6). Differences
279 between allopatric and sympatric communities were all in unexpected directions. Allopatric
280 mixtures had 19% fewer deaths and in the first growing season were 53% larger, had 35% more

281 inflorescences, and 19% more green days than sympatric communities overall. In the second
282 growing season, allopatric mixtures were 26% larger, made 29% more inflorescences, and
283 invasion resulted in 108% less *B. tectorum* biomass.

284 Most mesocosms planted with native plant mixtures suppressed *B. tectorum*, relative to
285 the controls growing *B. tectorum* alone. In mesocosms with native plants, *B. tectorum* biomass
286 ranged from 0.02-73.99g, with an average of 12.43g, which was much lower than *B. tectorum*
287 biomass in control mesocosms (mean: 71.40g, range: 55.75-83.67g). Two communities differed
288 from their treatment group (sympatric or allopatric) in invasion resistance: S2 had low *B.*
289 *tectorum* biomass, relative to other sympatric communities, and A5 had greater *B. tectorum*
290 biomass, relative to other allopatric communities (Figure 3).

291

292 Q2: Do communities with either allopatric or sympatric origins differ in trait variation?

293 We asked whether species from sympatric populations were more likely to show
294 divergent or convergent traits, relative to allopatric populations. Of the seven seed and seedling
295 traits considered, four differed strongly (average diameter, FRL, RMR, and SRL; all $p < 0.05$)
296 and one differed somewhat (days to emergence; $p = 0.078$) among allopatric and sympatric
297 communities (Table S7). Of the traits that differed, the sympatric mixtures had less variability in
298 all measured traits (i.e., trait convergence), though the magnitude of differences was small (mean
299 CV for allopatric vs. sympatric communities: average diameter, 0.26 vs. 0.24; days to
300 emergence, 0.37 vs. 0.34; FRL, 0.26 vs. 0.24; RMR, 0.4 vs. 0.22; SRL, 1.17 vs. 1.07; Figure S2).

301

302 Q3: Did any a priori measurements predict community-level performance?

303 Prior population-level measurements somewhat predicted community-level performance
304 with all models explaining $\leq 20.15\%$ of the variance (Figure 4). Several community-level
305 performance responses were associated with population-level environmental variables, seedling
306 traits, or origin type (Figure 4). The four models with reasonable fits contained trait totals, trait
307 variation, and environmental variables, and trait totals were in the top ten important variables 10
308 times, trait variation 11 times, and environmental variables 19 times. Several variables emerged
309 as key predictors of performance across multiple responses. For example, mesocosms with plants
310 from sites with lower mean annual precipitation resulted in larger plants and longer
311 photosynthesis periods during the first growing season, more inflorescences and greater *B.*
312 *tectorum* suppression in the second growing season, among other environmental predictors
313 (Supplemental Results). Similarly, specific root length appeared in the top ten variables for each
314 reported response. Higher specific root length, which typically means longer, thinner roots,
315 resulted in more inflorescences and *B. tectorum* suppression along with higher volume and more
316 green days in the first growing season, among other important traits (Supplemental Results).
317 Finally, variation in seed and seedling traits was in the top variables for every response: greater
318 variability in root diameter was associated with higher first-season plant volume, longer growing
319 periods, and greater *B. tectorum* suppression, while higher variability in root mass ratio was
320 predictive of *B. tectorum* suppression and greater inflorescence numbers, while lower variability
321 in total root biomass was associated with greater *B. tectorum* suppression.

322

323 Q4: What plant characteristics are best correlated with invasion resistance?

324 Structural equation modeling confirmed that within-mesocosm factors contributed to *B.*
325 *tectorum* suppression (Figure 5), and our model showed good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 26.9$, $p = 0.308$;
326 lower test statistic and higher p value indicate better fit) and high explanatory power for *B.*
327 *tectorum* biomass ($R^2 = 0.61$). Notably, all species benefited from growing in allopatric mixes
328 during the first growing season, though the strength of the relationship varied. Specifically, in
329 allopatric mixes, *A. tridentata* was on average 67% larger, *Elymus* spp. made 35% more
330 inflorescences, *E. thurberiana* was 11% larger, and *P. secunda* had 26% more green days than
331 plants grown in sympatric mixes. All four species influenced the biomass of *B. tectorum* to some
332 degree, but the largest suppressive effects were observed for *A. tridentata* and *Elymus* spp. with
333 size (season one, pre-invasion for *A. tridentata*, season two, post-invasion for *Elymus* spp.) and
334 propensity to produce inflorescences (post-invasion for *A. tridentata*, pre-invasion for *Elymus*
335 spp.) negatively associated with *B. tectorum* biomass. For these two influential species, the
336 indirect effect of allopatry mediated through *A. tridentata* was -0.66, while the indirect effect for
337 *Elymus* spp. was -0.38. In contrast to the strong competitive interactions between some native
338 species and *B. tectorum*, there was weaker evidence of competitive interactions among native
339 species in the second growing season, with *A. tridentata* having the strongest direct negative
340 effect (-0.26) on *Elymus* spp.

341

342 **Discussion**

343 Our understanding of how population origin influences plant interactions and community
344 function is still developing. Results reported here confirm that community properties can vary
345 dramatically depending on the component source populations, even in relatively simple

346 communities derived from broadly similar environments. However, our findings are in strong
347 contrast with the expectation that a history of co-occurrence produces complementarity in
348 resource use, improved productivity, or reduced opportunity for species invasion (Aubree et al.
349 2020; Chen et al. 2022; Grady et al. 2017; van Moorsel et al. 2018). Instead, allopatric mixtures
350 consistently outperformed single-source collections in all metrics, demonstrating lower
351 mortality, greater aboveground size and flower production, and longer growing seasons, with a
352 particularly strong impact on invasion resistance. Allopatric communities exhibited larger
353 phenotypic variation than sympatric communities, consistent with trait convergence, rather than
354 divergence in interacting species, consistent with the hypothesis that convergence can occur
355 when abiotic conditions have strong effects on fitness (e.g., Westerband et al. 2021a). Further,
356 allopatry had overall positive effects on individual native plant size, which we observed in a
357 previous experiment (Agneray et al. 2023a), and here, the positive effects of allopatry on *A.*
358 *tridentata* were particularly impactful for reducing invader biomass. In addition to the effects of
359 co-occurrence history, we found that environment, traits, and trait variation were influential for
360 predicting community outcomes, with more positive community outcomes when plants were
361 sourced from drier environments, had higher specific root lengths, and greater variation in
362 multiple traits. By design, allopatric mixtures encompassed a greater range of environmental
363 variation represented in each mesocosm, which may have contributed to their superior
364 performance via the unintended effect of increased trait variance among plants from different
365 sites.

366 That our results were unexpected may stem from the fact that much of the foundational
367 diversity-community function literature is from experiments in more productive ecosystems,
368 with a heavy emphasis on temperate grasslands and forests (Balnavera et al. 2006; Cardinale et

369 al. 2011; Duffy et al. 2017). Notably, reviews from drylands have focused on ecosystem
370 functions other than increased productivity from more diverse systems (Maestre et al. 2009). In
371 less productive sites, environmental factors may be stronger selective agents than competitive
372 plant interactions, particularly during early life stages (e.g., Malkinson & Tielbörger 2010).
373 Indeed, we observed little evidence of direct competitive interactions among our native species.
374 Contrary to expectations that strongly outcompeting neighbors would lead to higher survival and
375 fitness, it is possible that plants in less productive systems have higher fitness when they avoid
376 competition, especially during early life stages (Espeland 2018; Atwater et al. 2021). This could
377 have the unexpected outcome of sympatric populations using fewer of the available resources,
378 rather than more, if the fitness of individual plants is increased by minimizing interactions in
379 early life history stages. Our results align with this hypothesis, suggesting that sympatric
380 populations may not fully utilize all available resources, which could help explain the
381 significantly higher biomass of the invasive species, *Bromus tectorum*, in these communities.
382 Conversely, the allopatric communities, with populations lacking a shared history, may not have
383 evolved fine-scaled niche partitioning to avoid direct contact and competition, and thus, may
384 have had the unexpected outcome of a more complete utilization of available resources. A useful
385 follow-up study could focus on resource capture across communities of varying origins to
386 provide further insights into these dynamics.

387 Despite extensive evidence demonstrating local adaptation of traits to climate and
388 presumably affecting performance in native habitats (Baughman et al. 2019; Hereford 2009;
389 Leimu & Fischer 2008), we found relatively weak associations between community outcomes
390 and either source climate or functional traits. One possible explanation is that our selection of
391 plant collections from ecologically similar plant communities truncated the degree of variation

392 that one would typically see across a species' occupied area, thereby reducing the predictive
393 power of either traits or environment relative to other studies (Baughman et al. 2019; Leimu &
394 Fischer 2008). Further, we measured traits at very early stages and asked if they could predict
395 outcomes for older plants, though traits are known to shift ontogenetically as plants develop
396 (Urza et al. 2019; Zaiats et al. 2021). Nevertheless, even among plants from relatively similar
397 source environments, we found seed and seedling traits and environmental factors that were
398 associated with several desirable community outcomes. Specifically, lower mean annual
399 precipitation and higher specific root length (SRL) among populations in a mesocosm were most
400 often linked to positive community outcomes (larger native plants, more inflorescences, longer
401 active growth periods, and less *B. tectorum* biomass). SRL quantifies the proportional investment
402 of plants towards root length as a proportion of the dry weight of the roots, thus higher SRL
403 indicates a greater investment in thinner, longer roots focused on underground resource capture,
404 but higher SRL also reduces a plant's chance for uprooting and overturning (Freschet et al.
405 2021). Additionally, our findings align with previous research showing variability in root traits
406 (i.e., root mass, diameter, root mass ratio, and SRL), strongly promote soil resource partitioning
407 and species coexistence (Kulmatiski et al. 2020; Silvertown et al. 2015). The surprise here was
408 that, in order to create communities with variation in important belowground traits, we had to
409 assemble previously isolated populations. It is worth noting that our traits were derived from
410 very young plants (10-35 days old), and the fact they were at all predictive of outcomes multiple
411 years later underscores the importance of early life stages. It is possible that the small differences
412 in trait variability observed at the seedling stage were magnified in older plants. For future
413 studies, we recommend measuring phenotypic traits and trait variation of 1- and 2-year-old
414 plants, as this may provide even stronger predictive insight into final community outcomes.

415 We found clear evidence of interactions between the invasive *B. tectorum* and our native
416 plants, with native species suppressing the invader (Colautti & Lau 2015; Leger & Goergen
417 2017; Oduor 2013). Regardless of origin and functional group, native plants suppressed *B.*
418 *tectorum* biomass, relative to the controls, though the result was strongest in the allopatric
419 communities. While our expectation was that *Elymus* spp. would compete the most directly with
420 *B. tectorum*, we found evidence that *A. tridentata* was a very important component of *B.*
421 *tectorum* suppression, and all members of the native plant community had a negative impact on
422 *B. tectorum* to some degree, supporting the idea that species diversity confers greater resistance
423 to invasion (Funk et al. 2008; Peng et al. 2019). In the hopes that exceptions could prove the rule,
424 we examined the results for the two community mixtures that defied the overall pattern for their
425 origin type (S2, which was particularly suppressive, and A5, which was not). Anecdotally, S2
426 was the coldest sympatric site and A5 was the warmest overall allopatric site, but mean annual
427 temperature was not particularly explanatory for any of the community outcomes, so it is not
428 clear that this explains their aberrant behavior. Other differences that may have contributed to the
429 poor invasion suppression of A5 were that those communities had the smallest overall
430 aboveground volume in the first growing season (but not in the second) along with having the
431 largest seeds and the lowest SRL (thicker and fewer roots per gram), all factors that were
432 predictive of invasion suppression to some degree. We did not examine belowground biomass in
433 these mesocosms, due to the challenge of extracting whole plants, but future experiments using a
434 different design may be used to understand whether belowground factors are influencing
435 invasion resistance.

436 In conclusion, the sympatric or allopatric origin of plant neighbors affected many
437 elements of community performance, though these effects were more difficult to predict across

438 unique mixtures than expected. While we found that community outcomes differed based on
439 their source environment and traits, the measured variables had limited explanatory power,
440 suggesting that other, unaccounted factors may be at work. From an applied perspective, our
441 results suggest that sourcing from sympatric communities for ecological restoration would not
442 yield benefits in this system. Instead, the trait diversity found in allopatric communities may
443 have clear benefits for invasion resistance. It is important to note that our allopatric populations
444 were selected from relatively similar environments, which is possible in the Great Basin Desert
445 where natural plant communities span relatively large areas. However, this approach might not
446 be replicable in other ecosystems that are more degraded or naturally occur over a smaller land
447 area, and assembling allopatric communities may be a poor approach in highly productive
448 environments, as suggested by the results of others (Aubree et al. 2020; Chen et al. 2022; Grady
449 et al. 2017; van Moorsel et al. 2018). Finally, we acknowledge our experiment was conducted
450 under highly controlled conditions different from a typical restoration scenario, and field results
451 may differ. Nonetheless, our results demonstrate it is possible to manipulate community function
452 simply by assembling mixtures of the same species from different source populations, with
453 compelling evidence that niche differentiation may evolve differently in less productive systems.
454 We recommend further mechanistic mesocosm studies and field trials that test our findings by
455 incorporating higher-than-average trait variation through sourcing seeds from different sites with
456 similar environmental conditions and including a broader range of species could further validate
457 our results.

458

459 **Acknowledgments**

460 This project was funded by grant 2017-67019-26336 from the USDA National Institute of Food
461 and Agriculture Sustainable Agroecosystems program and Cooperative Agreement No.
462 L16AC00318 from the Bureau of Land Management. Thanks to Shannon Swim, Owen
463 Baughman, Meagan O’Farrell, Kalin Ingstad, Sage Ellis, Trevor Carter, Amber Durfee, Katelyn
464 Josifko, Kyla Searcy, Carley Crosby, and Casey Iwamoto for assistance with seed collection,
465 processing, planting, and data collection. Thank you to Scott Huber for maintaining the
466 University of Nevada, Reno greenhouse complex and helping care for the experimental
467 mesocosms. A special thank you to the BLM, FWS, and USFS for making it possible to perform
468 this work on public land, especially Fred Edwards, Sarah Kulpa, and Dirk Netz, along with Tom
469 and Tamia Marg, for permitting us on to their private property for a portion of this work.

470

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683

684 **Tables**

685 Table 1. Differences among origin types, either allopatric or sympatric, and communities nested
686 within origin types for the sum (total of all plants in each mesocosm) and CV (variation in each
687 response among plants in each mesocosm) for each response variable. Values reported are from
688 linear regression models, and include the degrees of freedom, a coefficient estimate for the effect
689 of allopatry compared to sympatry, F-test statistics, and the significance of differences; *p* values
690 <0.05 are in bold.

691

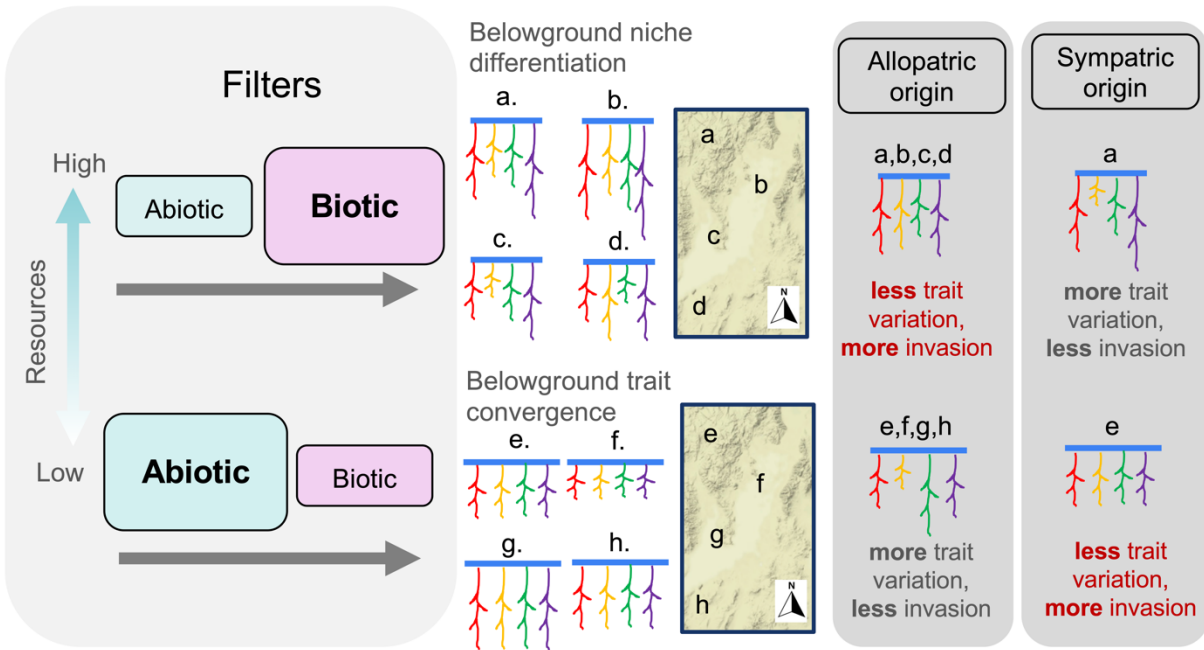
692 **Figures**

693 Figure 1. Hypothesized mechanisms for community-level outcomes based on whether founding
694 plant communities are sourced from allopatric or sympatric collection locations, with
695 expectations varying based on resource availability. Belowground differentiation in root
696 morphology is used as an example trait, though any trait or combination of traits could apply.
697 Similarly, susceptibility to invasion is the community response, though other responses could be
698 included (productivity, growing duration, etc.). In high-resource environments, strong biotic
699 interactions lead to greater niche differentiation, enabling sympatric communities to capture
700 belowground resources more effectively and reduce resource availability for invasive species,
701 conferring an advantage during community re-assembly if sympatry is maintained. In contrast, in
702 low-resource environments, abiotic filters have a greater effect on plant fitness, leading to
703 convergence in adaptive traits among native species, since similar traits are required to access
704 limited resources. Thus, when establishing communities after disturbance in these low-resource
705 settings, allopatric communities have greater trait variation and potential for resource uptake,
706 reducing the available resources for invasive species. Over time, in undisturbed conditions, these
707 allopatric communities may undergo selection for trait convergence, but there is a potential
708 advantage of allopatry in the initial community assembly stage when abiotic filters dominate.

709

Wild plant communities

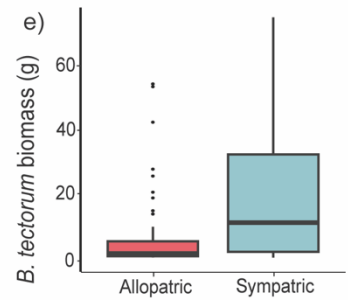
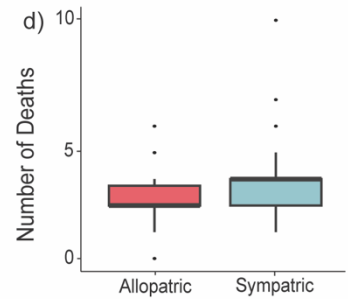
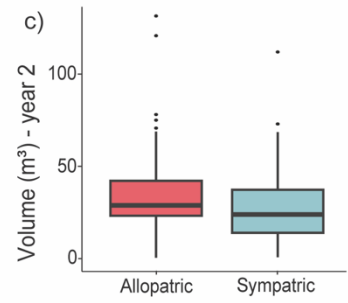
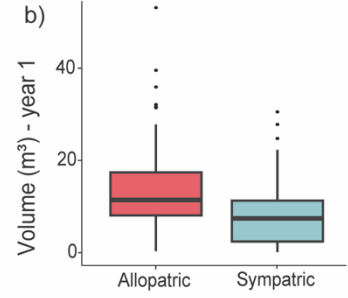
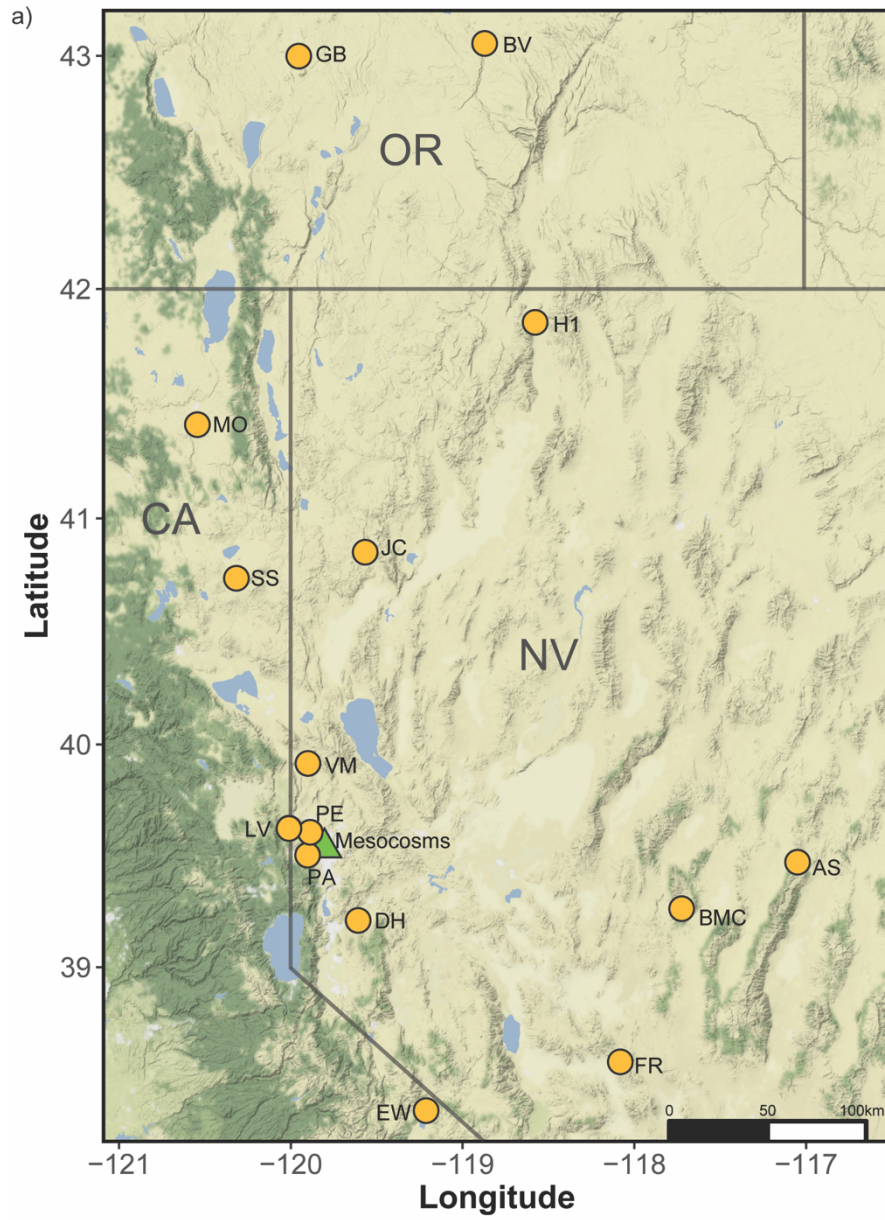
Community re-assembly after disturbance



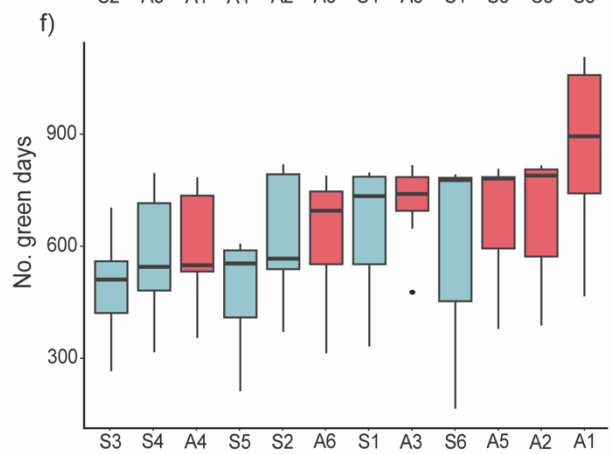
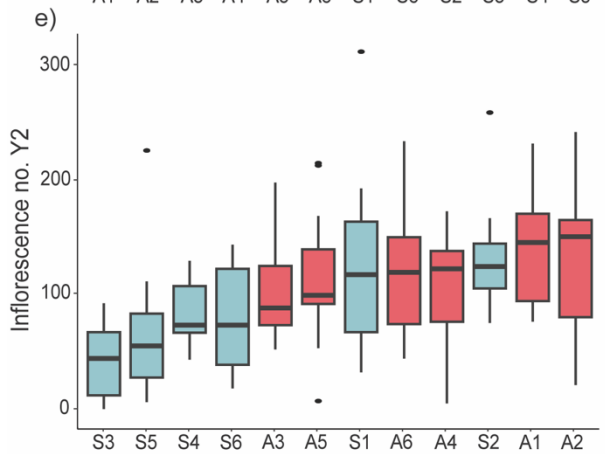
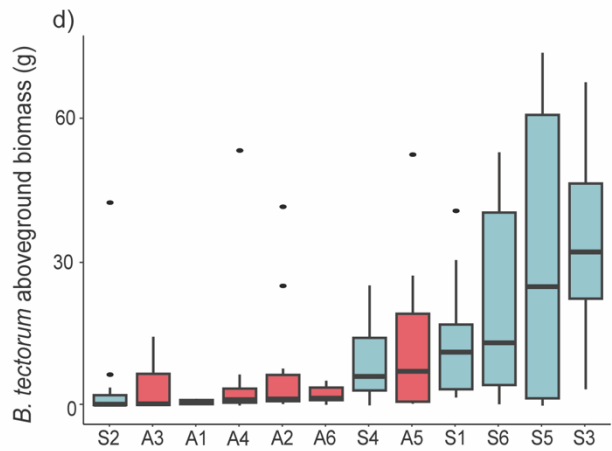
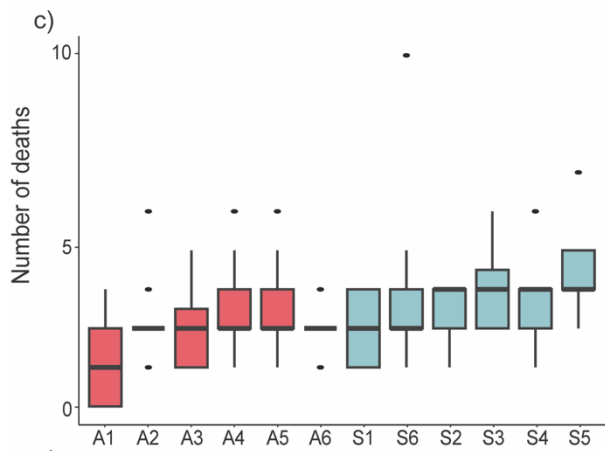
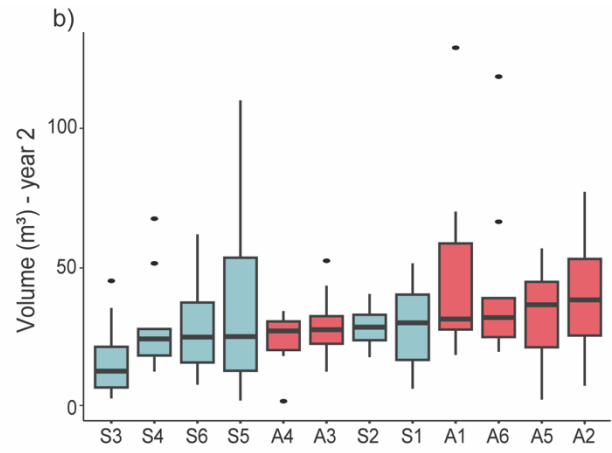
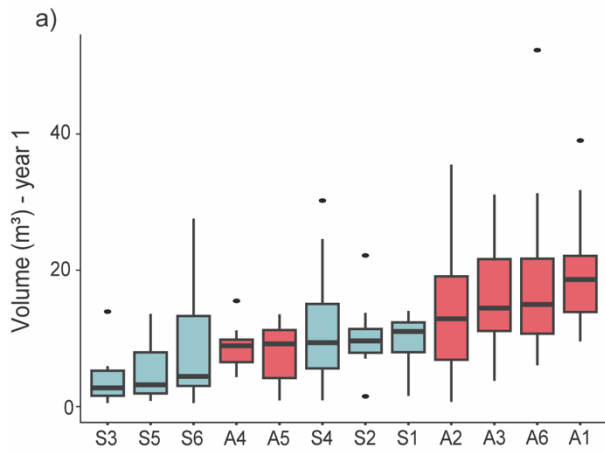
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712 Figure 2. (a) Fifteen sites (yellow circles) where seeds were collected for all four species used in
713 these experiments, and the location of mesocosms (green triangle). (b-e) Overall differences
714 among allopatric and sympatric communities in volume, survival, and invasion resistance. Native
715 plant size is represented by total plant volume ($l \times w \times h$) in the (b) first and (c) second growing
716 season. Overall mortality (d) of native plants in each mesocosm is shown along with (e) *B.*
717 *tectorum* aboveground biomass from invaded mesocosms. Box plots indicate medians, first to
718 third quartiles, and outliers shown as black points.



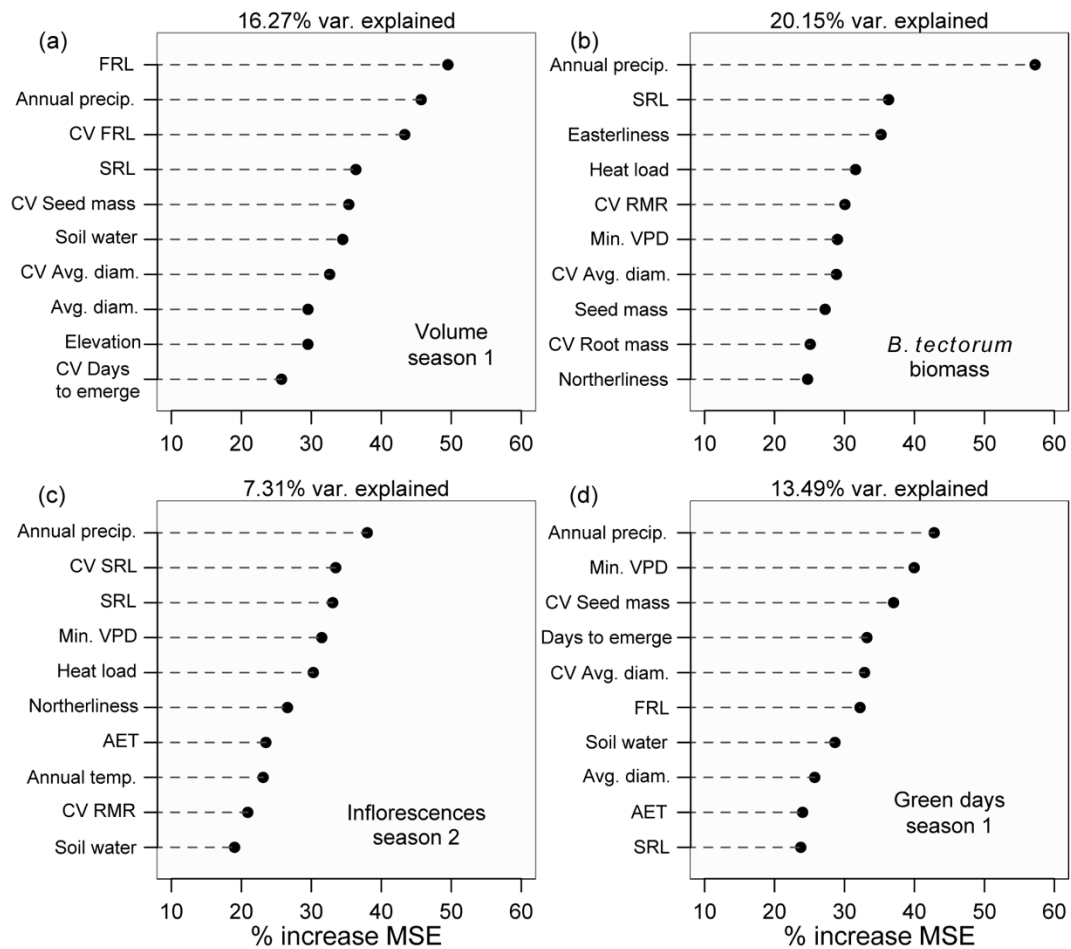
720 Figure 3. Differences among unique allopatric (A) and sympatric (S) communities ordered by
721 rank in volume, survival, and invasion resistance. Native plant size is represented by total plant
722 volume (l x w x h) in the (a) first and (b) second growing season; note the change in y axis scale.
723 Overall mortality (c) of all native plants in each mesocosm is shown along with (d) *B. tectorum*
724 aboveground biomass from invaded mesocosms, (e) the number of inflorescences in the second
725 growing season, and (f) the number of green days. Box plots indicate medians, first to third
726 quartiles, and outliers shown as black points; specific source populations included in each
727 community are in Table S2.



Key

Allopatric Sympatric

729 Figure 4: Influence of seedling and environmental variables across both allopatric and sympatric
 730 communities on (A) volume in the first growing season, (B) *B. tectorum* biomass, (C) number of
 731 inflorescences in the second growing season, and (D) number of green days in the first growing
 732 season. Variables shown are the top ten most important traits as measured by the percent increase
 733 in MSE calculated using Random Forest with 10,000 trees, along with the total percent variance
 734 explained.



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736

737 Figure 5. Path diagram illustrating coefficients estimated in structural equation model predicting
738 *B. tectorum* biomass from plant measurements within mesocosms. Plants include *A. tridentata*
739 (ARTR), *Elymus* spp. (ELYMU), *E. thurberiana* (ERTH), and *P. secunda* (POSE), with
740 measurements taken pre-invasion (the first growing season, S1) and post-invasion (the second
741 growing season, S2). A single characteristic was selected among measures of size (volume),
742 number of inflorescences (inflors.) or phenology (number of green days; green), and in-box
743 numbers show corresponding R^2 values. Negative effects are indicated by red lines, and positive
744 effects by black lines; width of lines is scaled to the magnitude of the coefficients, which are
745 shown alongside arrows. Scatterplots are semi-partial plots showing example relationships
746 between a native plant characteristic and *B. tectorum* biomass, with the y-axis adjusted for other
747 variables included in the SEM. The x-axis has no such adjustment. Photos correspond to the
748 scatterplot above. Photo credits: *A. tridentata*, Shannon Swim; *Elymus* spp. and *E. thurberiana*,
749 Elizabeth Leger.

