

1 **Title:** A global analysis of the determinants of alien geographic range size in birds

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3 **Authors:** Ellie E. Dyer^{1,2}, Victoria Franks^{1,3}, Phillip Cassey⁴, Ben Collen², Robert C. Cope⁴,
4 Kate E. Jones^{1,2}, Çagan H. Şekercioğlu^{5,6}, & Tim M. Blackburn^{1,2,4,7*}

5

6 1. Institute of Zoology, Zoological Society of London, Regents Park, London, NW1 4RY, UK 2.
7 Centre for Biodiversity and Environment Research, Department of Genetics, Evolution and
8 Environment, University College London, Gower Street, London, WC1E 6BT, UK

9 3. Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, Downing Street, Cambridge, CB2 3EJ, UK

10 4. Environment Institute, School of Biological Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, South
11 Australia 5005, Australia

12 5. Department of Biology, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT 84112, USA

13 6. College of Sciences, Koç University, Rumelifeneri, Sariyer 34450, Istanbul, Turkey

14 7. Distinguished Scientist Fellowship Program, King Saud University, P.O. Box 2455, Riyadh
15 1145, Saudi Arabia

16

17 Email addresses: ellie.dyer@ioz.ac.uk; vrf22@cam.ac.uk; phill.cassey@adelaide.edu.au;
18 b.collen@ucl.ac.uk; robert.cope@adelaide.edu.au; kate.e.jones@ucl.ac.uk; c.s@utah.edu;
19 t.blackburn@ucl.ac.uk.

20

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26 **Corresponding author:** Prof. Tim Blackburn, Centre for Biodiversity and Environment Re-
27 search, Department of Genetics, Evolution and Environment, University College London,
28 Gower Street, London, WC1E 6BT, UK. Email: t.blackburn@ucl.ac.uk

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32 **ABSTRACT**

33 **Aim** Determining the causes of range size variation in alien species' distributions is important
34 for understanding the spread of invasive species. Factors influencing alien range size have
35 been explored for some species at a regional level, but to date there has been no global anal-
36 ysis of an entire class. Here, we present such an analysis for birds, testing for the effects of
37 introduction event, location and species-level variables on alien range sizes.

38 **Location** Global.

39 **Methods** We used a novel dataset on the global distributions of alien bird species to test for
40 relationships between alien range size and colonisation pressure, residence time, extent of the
41 global climatic niche, native range size, body mass and specialisation, using a statistical ap-
42 proach based on phylogenetic generalised least squares models. We performed this analysis
43 globally, and for separate biogeographic realms.

44 **Results** Approximately half of the variation in alien bird range size is explained by colonisation
45 pressure in univariate analysis. We identified consistent effects of higher colonisation pressure
46 at global and realm levels, as well as support for effects of native range size and residence
47 time. We found less support for effects of body mass, specialisation, or extent of the global
48 climatic niche on alien range size.

49 **Main Conclusions** Alien bird range sizes are generally small relative to their native range
50 sizes, and many are continuing to expand. Nevertheless, current variation is predictable, most
51 strongly by the event-level factor colonisation pressure. Whether a species is widespread is a
52 better predictor of alien range size than whether a species could be widespread (estimated by
53 global climatic niche extent), while we also find effects of residence time on alien range size.
54 These relationships may help to identify those alien species more likely to spread, and hence
55 have greater environmental and economic impacts where they have been introduced.

56 INTRODUCTION

57 The on-going influences of human settlement, acclimatization, recreation and commerce have
58 led to repeated introductions of bird species into areas to which they are not native (Long
59 1981). Substantial progress in invasion biology has come from studying these alien birds
60 (Blackburn *et al.* 2009), but significant gaps in our understanding remain. Most notably, aside
61 from a few case studies (e.g. Liversidge 1962, Silva *et al.* 2002), the processes determining
62 the geographic spread of alien bird species, and their resulting geographic range sizes, have
63 largely been ignored (Mack *et al.* 2000, Blackburn *et al.* 2009). Geographic range size is one
64 of the fundamental ecological and evolutionary characteristics of a species. It is a strong pre-
65 dictor of extinction risk (Gaston 2003) and, with regards to an alien species, the potential for
66 impact (Parker *et al.* 1999). Range expansions are inextricably linked to global environmental
67 and economic issues of increasing importance: climate change, habitat fragmentation, declin-
68 ing biodiversity, and genetic introgression (Vitousek *et al.* 1997, Kolar & Lodge 2001). An ob-
69 vious question, therefore, is whether it is possible to identify the factors that are associated
70 with the variation in geographic range sizes of alien bird species?

71 The establishment success of alien bird species relates to characteristics of the species intro-
72 duced, of the location of introduction, and of the introduction event itself (Duncan *et al.* 2003).
73 The same categories of factors have also been hypothesised to influence the extent of spread
74 following establishment. Event-level factors are those that vary independently of the species
75 and location concerned. In terms of alien geographic range size, important event-level varia-
76 bles are likely to be the number of times that a species has been introduced (colonisation
77 pressure, *sensu* Lockwood *et al.* 2009), and the length of time since introduction (residence
78 time, *sensu* Wilson *et al.* 2007). As far as we are aware, only two global scale analyses have
79 considered the effects that these event level factors have on alien range size. These studies
80 found that pine tree species (Proches *et al.* 2012) and reptiles and amphibians (Li *et al.* 2014)
81 that have been introduced more often have larger alien ranges. Regional studies find similar
82 relationships for bird species introduced to New Zealand (Duncan *et al.* 1999), and Australia

83 (Long & Mawson 1991, Duncan *et al.* 2001), and reportedly also in North America (Johnston
84 & Garrett 1994). Regional studies have also demonstrated that residence time is positively
85 related to alien range size (Williamson *et al.* 2009), total latitudinal extent (Guo *et al.* 2012),
86 and likelihood of invasion and spread (Pyšek *et al.* 2009a). Conversely, Duncan *et al.* (1999)
87 found no relationship between residence time and range size for bird species introduced to
88 New Zealand.

89 The outcome of introduction events is likely to be constrained by characteristics of the envi-
90 ronment at the location of introduction, and of the species introduced. In particular, the availa-
91 bility of suitable habitat or climate is likely to be important (Capinha *et al.* 2015), and therefore
92 species for which greater land areas are environmentally suitable should be able to attain
93 larger alien geographic ranges. It is likely that generalist species, which can tolerate a wider
94 range of climatic, habitat and dietary variables (Brown 1984), or species that utilise more com-
95 monly encountered environments or resources, are likely to be more widespread as a result
96 (Long & Mawson 1991, Gaston 2003). Duncan *et al.* (1999, 2001) showed that the range sizes
97 of alien bird species in New Zealand and Australia were determined in part by the area of
98 suitable habitat, while Forsyth *et al.* (2004) showed the same for alien mammals in Australia.
99 Several studies have also investigated the relationship between alien range size and native
100 geographic range size, a possible proxy for the availability of suitable environmental condi-
101 tions. There is as yet little consensus on the factors that determine native range sizes (Gaston
102 2003), but if the same characteristics that enable a species to become widespread in its native
103 location also allow it to become widespread in its alien range, a positive correlation would be
104 expected between the two. Indeed, native range size has been demonstrated to be an indicator
105 of probability of invasiveness in plant species (Pyšek *et al.* 2009b), and global native and alien
106 range sizes have been shown to be correlated in introduced tree species in the genus *Pinus*
107 (Proçhes *et al.* 2012), and for a limited sample of alien bird species (Guo *et al.* 2012). Alien
108 geographic ranges may be constrained by the presence of barriers to range expansion such

109 as oceans or mountain ranges. In a global study, Orme *et al.* (2006) showed that the geo-
110 graphic range sizes of native bird species are smaller on islands, and on mountain ranges in
111 the tropics and sub-tropics.

112 Life history traits have also been shown to influence the extent to which established species
113 can spread. For example, there is a relationship between the sizes of alien bird ranges in New
114 Zealand and Australia and life history traits associated with higher rates of population growth
115 (Duncan *et al.* 1999, Duncan *et al.* 2001). Small body mass and high reproductive rate influ-
116 enced the spread of alien birds in Florida (Allen *et al.* 2013), and adult survival has been found
117 to impact upon the potential of alien birds to succeed and spread in the Mediterranean (Blondel
118 1991). Species with faster growth rates may be less vulnerable to local extinction when their
119 population is small, and able to colonize new sites more quickly following establishment (Dun-
120 can *et al.* 2001).

121 To date, tests of determinants of alien geographic range sizes have generally considered var-
122 iation in relatively few taxa (e.g. a single genus: Proçhes *et al.* 2012) or restricted regional
123 assemblages (e.g. New Zealand, Australia: Duncan *et al.* 1999, Duncan *et al.* 2001, Forsyth
124 *et al.* 2004). Here, we present the first global-scale analysis of spatial variation in the geo-
125 graphic range sizes of extant alien species with a known established population for a major
126 taxon, birds. We simultaneously explore event-, species- and location-level predictors of alien
127 range size. Notably, we use an ecological niche modeling method, range bagging (Drake
128 2015), to estimate the global extent of climatic zones that are suitable for each alien bird spe-
129 cies (i.e. an estimate of its potential geographic range size), to test whether species with larger
130 global climatic niches also have larger alien geographic range sizes. We also contrast potential
131 and native geographic range sizes as predictors of alien range extent. We do this while con-
132 trolling for the number of times, and the length of time, that species have been introduced.
133 Specifically, we test the hypotheses that bird species will achieve larger alien geographic range
134 sizes when (i) they have been introduced more times, (ii) they have longer residence times,
135 (iii) they have larger global climatic niches, (iv) they have larger native geographic range sizes,

136 (v) they have faster life histories, (vi) they are diet and habitat generalists, and (vii) they have
137 been introduced to larger geographic regions.

138 **METHODS**

139 **Data**

140 We based our analyses on the list of bird species with established alien populations from the
141 Global Avian Invasions Atlas (GAVIA) database (Dyer *et al.* in revision). GAVIA comprises
142 27,737 distribution records for 972 alien bird species (following the taxonomy of the Interna-
143 tional Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List of Threatened Species, down-
144 loaded August 2010), based on 693 published references and substantial unpublished infor-
145 mation derived from consultation with over 600 organisations and experts worldwide. A total
146 of 419 bird species have established alien populations, but we limited our analysis to the 319
147 species for which data were available for all variables.

148 The total alien geographic range size for these 319 bird species was extracted from GAVIA.
149 For this study, alien geographic range size was calculated as the total size in km² of the global
150 alien range for each species, based on extent-of-occurrence polygon maps of the most recent
151 data for populations. The frequency distribution of natural log-transformed alien range sizes
152 for the 319 species is shown in figure 1 (Shapiro-Wilk test for normality: $W = 0.99$, $p = 0.12$).

153 Estimates of colonisation pressure, or the number of times that a species has been introduced
154 to different locations, were extracted from the GAVIA database, and include only those records
155 which explicitly refer to actual releases or escapes of species at a given location. Colonisation
156 pressure varied from 1 to 110 separate introduction events (mean = 13.78; median = 6).

157 Residence times were calculated as the number of years from the earliest GAVIA record for
158 that species to the year 2013, when the database was completed. Where there was no infor-
159 mation available on the first date recorded, residence time was calculated from the date of the

160 earliest published reference in which that species was mentioned. The longest recorded resi-
161 dence time of an established species was 1513 years (*Gallus gallus*, earliest record 500AD),
162 and the shortest 7 years (*Polyplectron napoleonis*, earliest record 2006) (mean = 140.4; me-
163 dian = 98 years).

164 Native range sizes were extracted from the database of extent-of-occurrence avian range
165 maps used by Orme *et al.* (2005), and were calculated as the total global breeding range size.
166 The native range sizes of the species in the dataset showed similar variation to the alien
167 ranges, from 219.67km² (*Megapodius pritchardii*) to 58.19 x 10⁶ km² (*Tyto alba*), but with higher
168 mean (6.06 x 10⁶ km²) and median (3.02 x 10⁶ km²).

169 Range bagging, an ecological niche modeling method (Drake 2015), was used to predict the
170 extent of the global climatic niche for each established species at a global scale, based on
171 climatic match to the species native range. Range bagging is a machine-learning based
172 method that seeks to estimate the boundary of a species niche within multi-dimensional envi-
173 ronmental space, as represented by a convex hull. Calculating a full convex hull from the typ-
174 ical range of climatic variables is computationally infeasible. Instead, range bagging approxi-
175 mates the full convex hull by constructing a series of 'marginal' convex hulls, based on subsets
176 of the climate variables. Range bagging appears to be an effective method for the prediction
177 of species potential ranges in an invasion context (Cope *et al.* submitted).

178
179 We obtained WORLDCLIM global climate data (Hijmans 2005), consisting of 19 climate varia-
180 bles at a 5 arc minute resolution (for a total of 2,287,341 points). We chose, uniformly at ran-
181 dom, a subset of one million of these points to test against each species native range, for
182 increased computational tractability. For each species, we calculated a range bagging score
183 to the species native range for each of these one million test points, i.e., we calculated the
184 proportion of marginal niches for which each test point was within the species marginal niche,
185 determined from its native range. We used v=100 votes, two dimensional marginal niches, and

186 built marginal niches from a proportion p of points within the native range, with $p=1.0$ for spe-
187 cies with small native ranges (<200 points), $p=0.5$ for species with native range $<10,000$ points,
188 and $p=0.25$ for species with large ranges ($>10,000$ points). These parameters were chosen to
189 be within the range of good performance indicated by Drake (2015), and to balance marginal
190 niche coverage with computational efficiency. It is not possible to construct convex hulls
191 around fewer than three unique points (in two dimensions), as the result is just a line or a point.
192 When there are small numbers of points beyond this minimal threshold, and those points are
193 similar in climate (as may be the case when they originate from a continuous geographic range)
194 the points may be identical in some covariates, creating a situation where some marginal
195 niches are unable to be constructed. For this reason, range bagging scores could not be esti-
196 mated for 6 established alien species with small native ranges.

197

198 The locations with a range bagging score of at least 0.8 (i.e., $v = 80$, or 80% of marginal niches
199 matching the species native range) were deemed to be within the species potential invasive
200 range due to climatic similarity to the native range. We calculated the proportion of the full set
201 of test points that were suitable by this metric, as a measure of the proportion of total global
202 landmass forming a species potential climatic niche extent. This proportion (estimating the
203 potential range size of bird species with established alien populations) ranged from 0.000001
204 (*Collocalia bartschi*) to 0.87 (*Passer montanus*).

205 Body mass was used as a proxy for life history variation, as it is known to be highly correlated
206 with many other reproductive, timing, physiological and ecological traits (Peters 1983), and
207 relationships have been found between body mass and both native and alien range size (Gas-
208 ton & Blackburn 1996, Duncan *et al.* 2001). Body masses were taken from the database used
209 by Olson *et al.* (2009), and were calculated as the geometric mean body mass in grams. Body
210 masses in the sample varied from 0.0062 kg (*Collocalia bartschi*) to 109.65 kg (*Struthio*
211 *camelus*) (mean = 1.1 kg; median = 0.12 kg).

212 In order to address the effect of the level of specialism (or inversely, generalism) of a species,
213 a specialisation index was calculated using the number of food types (diets) that a species is
214 known to consume, and the number of habitats that it is known to utilise, where specialisation
215 index = $\ln[100/(\text{number of diets} \times \text{number of habitats})]$ (after Sekercioglu 2011). Bird habitat
216 and diet data were obtained from a global bird ecology database covering all the bird species
217 of the world (see Sekercioglu 2012). The specialisation index in the sample varied from 0.87
218 (*Alectura lathami* and *Corvus frugilegus*) to 4.6 (*Agapornis personatus* and *Polyplectron napo-*
219 *leonis*) (mean = 2.3; median = 2.4). A low specialisation index indicates that a species is more
220 of a generalist in terms of its diet and habitat preferences, whereas a high specialisation index
221 indicates that a species is a specialist and utilises fewer habitats and dietary resources.

222 Species ranges were assigned to biogeographic realms (Afrotropical, Australasian, Indo-Ma-
223 layan, Nearctic, Neotropical, Oceanic and Palearctic) following Olson *et al.* (2001). A spatial
224 layer depicting the biogeographic realms was created using ESRI ArcGIS version 9.3 (2008),
225 and realm-level alien range sizes, residence time, and colonisation pressure were extracted
226 from GAVIA, as was the total land area of each realm. We also calculated the proportion of
227 test points within each biogeographic realm that was suitable for each species using range
228 bagging, as above. The Antarctic realm was excluded from the analysis due to a small sample
229 size.

230 **Statistical analyses**

231 The parameters were tested to see if they were phylogenetically correlated using Pagel's λ
232 calculated using function *phylosig* from the *R* package *phytools* (Revell 2012). To account for
233 uncertainty in the avian phylogeny, these tests were repeated for a random selection of 100
234 bird trees for the 319 species in our analysis, downloaded from www.birdtree.org (Jetz *et al.*
235 2012; Hackett backbone, downloaded 19/5/16). Alien range size showed a low phylogenetic
236 correlation (mean λ [2.5th percentile, 97.5th percentile]: 7×10^{-5} , [5×10^{-5} , 7×10^{-5}]), as did coloni-
237 sation pressure (0.06, [0.05, 0.07]), whereas phylogenetic correlations were higher for global
238 climatic niche extent (0.59 [0.54, 0.64]), native range size (0.69 [0.61, 0.77]), residence time

239 (0.13 [0.11, 0.16]), body mass (1.00 [1.00, 1.00]) and specialisation index (0.60 [0.56, 0.64]).
240 Therefore, in order to account for any phylogenetic autocorrelation in our analyses, the tests
241 of the determinants of alien range size were based on phylogenetic generalised least squares
242 models (PGLS) applied by the function *pgls* from the *R* package *caper* (Orme *et al.* 2013).

243 Tests of collinearity between the predictor variables using *R* functions *cor* and *corr.p* found
244 these to be generally only weakly correlated (table S1). The one exception was a strong cor-
245 relation between global climatic niche extent and native range size. As we were interested in
246 the effects of both these variables, we retained both, and therefore all variables were used in
247 subsequent analyses. We initially examined the relationships between alien range size and
248 each variable, using univariate PGLS models. We tested for the significance of squared terms
249 for all variables, and retained these terms for the multivariate analysis where there was evi-
250 dence that they improved model fit based on the Akaike Information Criterion corrected for
251 small sample sizes (AICc), such that $\Delta\text{AICc} > 4$.

252 We then examined the relationship between alien range size and the variables in a multivariate
253 PGLS model. We used the *dredge* and *model.avg* functions from the package *MuMIn* (Barton
254 2014) to fit all possible models. We then calculated the full (i.e. including models from which a
255 variable is absent) model-averaged coefficients (\pm standard error) for each variable, and the
256 variable importance (the sum of the Akaike weights across all models) based on the Akaike
257 Information Criterion corrected for small sample sizes (AICc), for all models with ΔAICc within
258 4 of the most likely model. Because of the strong correlation between global climatic niche
259 extent and native range size, we also repeated the multivariate analysis without native range
260 size.

261 A species with alien population(s) can attain its global alien range size in a variety of ways. For
262 example, a species may have been introduced to a single area and spread out to attain a range
263 size of 1000 km², or to five different locations, each time spreading to 200 km². The global
264 model treats these two hypothetical species as the same, as the global alien range size is the

265 sum of the ranges' overall alien populations, regardless of the number of separate areas to
266 which a species has been introduced. We addressed the effect of multiple introductions by
267 including colonisation pressure (total number of introductions) for each species with at least
268 one alien population. However, we additionally explored the effect of different routes to an
269 overall alien range size by dividing the global data into realm level ranges, and repeating the
270 univariate and multivariate models separately on the data for each realm. This tested the ro-
271 bustness of our global model and the extent to which global patterns are driven by species
272 introduced to multiple realms. ANOVA was used to test for differences in the mean alien range
273 sizes between realms, and also to test whether the land area of the realm influenced the mean
274 alien range size.

275 All analyses were conducted in R version 3.2.5 (R Core Team 2016). Alien range size, native
276 range size, colonisation pressure, residence time and body mass were logarithmically trans-
277 formed, and global climatic niche extent square root transformed, for analysis.

278 **RESULTS**

279 Native range sizes were significantly larger than alien range sizes for the species in our dataset
280 (paired t-test: $t = -32.3$, d.f. = 318, $p < 0.001$). Univariate PGLS models showed that colonisa-
281 tion pressure, global climatic niche extent, native range size, residence time, and the speciali-
282 sation index were related to alien range size, whereas body mass was not (figure 2). The
283 relationship for colonisation pressure was improved by the addition of a squared term. All the
284 significant relationships were positive except that for specialisation index, with the negative
285 relationship for this last variable meaning that more generalist species have larger alien range
286 sizes.

287 Out of all possible multivariate PGLS models from the variables in our analysis, 12 were well
288 supported, in that they had $\Delta AICc < 4$ relative to the most likely model. Full model averaging
289 showed that colonisation pressure was the only variable significantly related to alien range size
290 in birds, and this variable (and its squared term) were present in all the most likely models

291 (variable importance = 1; Table 1): species introduced more times have larger alien range
292 sizes. Residence time and native range size also attained high variable importance values, but
293 the PGLS coefficients for these variables did not differ significantly from zero. Bird species
294 have larger alien ranges if they were introduced more recently, and have larger native range
295 sizes (Table 1).

296 There was less evidence for effects of global climatic niche extent, body mass or specialisation
297 index on alien range size in birds: the highest variable importance value across these three
298 variables was 0.51 for global climatic niche extent, and none of the coefficients for these vari-
299 ables differed significantly from zero (Table 1). However, re-running the model in Table 1 with-
300 out native range size (which was strongly correlated with global climatic niche extent; Table
301 S1) resulted in a strong and significant positive effect of global climatic niche extent on alien
302 range size (estimate \pm s.e. = 2.27 ± 0.56 , $z = 4.04$, $p < 0.001$; importance = 1), but no qualitative
303 changes to the effects of the other variables in the model.

304 Mean log-transformed alien range size differed between realms ($F_{6, 583} = 4.94$, $p < 0.001$), but
305 was not related to land area within each realm ($F_{1, 5} = 0.44$, $p = 0.54$). Univariate PGLS models
306 at the realm level showed that the colonisation pressure was always positively related to alien
307 range size, while residence time and native range size were positively related to alien range
308 size in most realms (Table S2, Figure S1). In contrast, body mass showed no relationship to
309 alien range size in any realm, while specialisation index was negatively related to alien range
310 size only in two realms, and global climatic niche extent in three (Table S2). Full model aver-
311 aging based on all possible multivariate PGLS models for each realm found that the relative
312 influence of different variables varied between realms (Table S3), but were generally congruent
313 with the results from the global model (Table 1): colonisation pressure was present in all the
314 most likely models for every realm, while native range size and residence time were the next
315 two highest ranked variables in terms of importance, and were present in all the most likely
316 models for two realms (Table 2).

317 DISCUSSION

318 Birds possess some of the greatest dispersal abilities of animals in the terrestrial environment
319 (Wernham *et al.* 2002). Nevertheless, in the majority of cases, alien distributions actually tend
320 to be relatively small, and most aliens have not reached the distributional extent observed in
321 their native range (Guo *et al.* 2012). Indeed, the median non-native range size of the 319 es-
322 tablished alien bird species is just 0.3% of the median for the native geographic ranges of
323 those same species (10,457 km² vs 3,014,856 km², respectively). Therefore, despite being
324 able to maintain a self-sustaining population in a new environment, in most instances alien bird
325 species have not (yet) spread far from their point of introduction (Blackburn *et al.* 2009). There
326 are, of course, exceptions to this rule, with species such as the common pheasant (*Phasianus*
327 *colchicus*), common starling (*S. vulgaris*), mute swan (*Cygnus olor*), and house sparrow
328 (*Passer domesticus*) having alien range sizes more than one million km² larger than their native
329 geographic ranges. Our aim here was to take the first steps towards understanding the causes
330 of this large variation.

331 Characteristics of the introduction event best explain current variation in alien geographic
332 range size in birds. In particular, colonisation pressure was the most consistent predictor, ex-
333 plaining 53% of the global variation in alien range size in univariate analyses (Table S2, Figure
334 2), and being present in all the most likely models for both global and realm analyses (Tables
335 1, 2, S3). This is consistent with relationships found in regional studies (Long & Mawson 1991,
336 Johnston & Garrett 1994, Duncan *et al.* 1999, Duncan *et al.* 2001), and suggests that this effect
337 is general and global. Species with more introduction events are likely to have been introduced
338 to a larger number of areas, and are therefore likely to attain a larger alien range. Multiple
339 introductions also tend to involve larger overall propagule pressures (Blackburn *et al.* 2015)
340 which increase the likelihood of successful establishment (Lockwood *et al.* 2005), and may
341 also encompass greater genetic variation, enabling the population better to adapt (or to include
342 genotypes pre-adapted) to local conditions and to realise a broader geographic range (Black-
343 burn *et al.* 2009, Blackburn *et al.* 2015).

344 Native range size was also a relatively consistent predictor of alien range size: it explained
345 13% of the variance in alien range size in univariate analyses (Figure 2), and was present in
346 most of the likely global models (Table 1) and all of the most likely models for two of the seven
347 realms (Tables 2, S3). Even with the effect of colonisation pressure taken into account, species
348 with larger native ranges were more likely to achieve larger alien ranges. It is generally ob-
349 served that closely related species tend not to have similar geographic range sizes (Gaston
350 2003), and the lack of phylogenetic correlation in alien range sizes adheres to this pattern.
351 Surprisingly, however, our results revealed a reasonably strong phylogenetic correlation in the
352 native range sizes of established alien bird species, with $\lambda = 0.69$. Waldron (2007) reviewed
353 published λ values for native range sizes, finding a mean of 0.38. Why the species in our
354 sample show such a high lambda value is unclear, although it may be the result of phylogenetic
355 clustering evident in introduced species (Blackburn *et al.* 2009).

356 This positive relationship between alien and native range sizes suggests that whatever fac-
357 tor(s) allow a species to attain a large native range also enable a species to achieve a large
358 alien range. The causes of variation in native range size are still debated (Gaston 2003), but
359 niche position (i.e. how typical of the environment are a species' favoured resources) is a likely
360 determinant. For alien ranges, an effect of niche position is suggested by studies showing that
361 climate matching increases both establishment success (Blackburn & Duncan 2001) and the
362 extent of alien range sizes at the regional level (Duncan *et al.* 1999, Duncan *et al.* 2001, For-
363 syth *et al.* 2004). Consistent with this, we found that global climatic niche extent has the second
364 strongest univariate relationship with alien range size after colonisation pressure (Figure 2),
365 and is highly correlated with native range size (Table S1, Figure S2). Nevertheless, native
366 range size is a more consistent predictor of alien range size than is global climatic niche extent,
367 being more likely to be present in the best global and realm models (Tables 1, 2, S3). Species
368 with a given native range vary considerably in global climatic niche: for example, species with
369 native ranges c.20,000km² have niche extents spanning from about 0.2 to 0.6 of the land area
370 of the world (Figure S2). Yet, whether a species *is* widespread is a better predictor of alien

371 range size than whether a species *could be* widespread. Why this is the case is unclear, alt-
372 hough one possibility may be a general bias towards introducing bird species to and from
373 higher latitudes (Blackburn *et al.* 2009). Tropical species may have large areas that are poten-
374 tially climatically suitable, yet be constrained in their native and alien ranges by other factors,
375 such as biotic interactions. Global climatic niche extent is a consistent predictor of alien range
376 size in a multivariate global model from which native range size is excluded.

377 The relationship between alien and native range sizes does not seem to be a consequence of
378 generalist species (those with greater niche breadth; Gaston 2003) being able to attain larger
379 range sizes. Species that can tolerate a wider range of conditions have been hypothesised to
380 be able to have larger range sizes as a result, and in native bird assemblages the degree of
381 habitat specialism has been found to correlate with range size (e.g. Davies *et al.* 2009), with
382 specialist species usually occupying narrow ranges (Belmaker *et al.* 2011). However, the spe-
383 cialisation index was a generally weak predictor of alien range size in the multivariate analyses
384 (Figure 2, Tables 1, 2, S2, S3). Thus, the relationship between alien and native range size
385 persists when accounting for the degree of specialism.

386 Alien range sizes were not correlated with the extent of land in a realm (c.f. Orme *et al.* 2006).
387 The alien range sizes of most species are still small relative to their native range sizes (Figure
388 2), suggesting that it may be too early in the process of range expansion for geographic limits
389 to have been reached for most species. Range sizes will tend to be smaller for all species in
390 the period immediately following introduction, while species with longer residence times will
391 have had longer to adapt to and spread across the recipient environment, and univariate anal-
392 yses show a general positive relationship between residence time and alien range size in birds
393 (Table S2, Figures 2, S1). Nevertheless, evidence for an effect of residence time on alien range
394 size to date has been mixed (c.f. Duncan *et al.* 1999 with Pyšek *et al.* 2009a, Williamson *et al.*
395 2009), and we actually found a negative effect of residence time in the global multivariate
396 model (Table 1), and in four of the seven realm-level multivariate models that included this
397 variable (Table S3). This result was unexpected. One possibility is that it is a consequence of

398 changing drivers of bird introductions. Historical introductions (those with a longer residence
399 time) were more likely to be deliberate, and to be targeted to specific regions through the efforts
400 of acclimatisation societies (Blackburn *et al.* 2009). More recent introductions are more likely
401 to be a result of unintentional and untargeted releases from the pet trade (Dyer *et al.* in revi-
402 sion), and may therefore be more likely to occur over a larger area for a given number of
403 introductions.

404 Body mass was included as a proxy for life history variation, as previous studies have shown
405 that species with fast life histories (smaller body size, shorter development times, higher fe-
406 cundity) tend to have larger alien range sizes (e.g. Duncan *et al.* 1999, Duncan *et al.* 2001,
407 Allen *et al.* 2013). However, body mass was not related to alien range size in univariate models
408 (Table S2), and was not consistently related to alien range size in multivariate models (Tables
409 1, S3).

410 The data used in this study are the best currently available for an entire major taxon, but none-
411 theless come with caveats. The maps of alien ranges on which these analyses are based
412 represent Extents of Occurrence, rather than Areas of Occupancy (Gaston & Fuller 2009), and
413 species are unlikely to be extant in every part of their total recorded alien range (as is the case
414 with most commonly used native species range maps). The species analysed are likely to be
415 at different stages in their alien range expansion (Blackburn *et al.* 2009), and many (or most)
416 therefore may still be spreading from their point of introduction. Others may yet die out in the
417 future. The measure of colonisation pressure may be influenced by higher or lower recording
418 effort in certain regions. All of these issues add noise into our analyses, although we do not
419 believe that they will have generated any of the results we present here as artefacts. The
420 general consistency of our results across different biogeographic realms also suggests that
421 these analyses are robust. The variables included within the best models for alien range size
422 varied across realms (Table S3), but in general there was good consistency in the global (Table
423 1) and realm-level predictors of alien range size.

424 In conclusion, we have shown that of the seven hypotheses laid out in the Introduction, the
425 only one to receive consistent and unequivocal support from our analyses is that bird species
426 achieve larger alien geographic range sizes when they have been introduced more times. We
427 also find strong support for the idea that whatever it is that causes native geographic range
428 sizes to be larger also feeds through into larger alien range sizes. There is some evidence that
429 alien geographic range size is related to residence time, but the expected positive effect is only
430 recovered in univariate analyses (c.f. Table S2 with Tables 1, S3). We find little consistent
431 evidence that alien range sizes are related to global climatic niche extent, body mass, special-
432 ism, or the size of the realm into which a bird species is introduced, although the effect of global
433 climatic niche extent may be intertwined with that of native geographic range size. This infor-
434 mation can be combined with studies concerning predictors of the impact of alien birds in order
435 to identify those species that have the potential to have a high impact on native ecosystems.
436 It is important that we understand the structure and mechanisms behind alien geographic
437 ranges, so that we can more readily identify those alien species likely to spread. This will help
438 to inform policy and conservation action by highlighting which species pose the greatest overall
439 threat (Parker *et al.* 1999), and therefore where limited management funds should be targeted.

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447

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586

587 **Biosketch**

588 **Ellie Dyer** is a macroecologist investigating the determinants of global patterns in alien bird
589 assemblages. Her research interests concern topics in biodiversity, macroecology and con-
590 servation, including the biology and impacts of introduced and invasive species, but also
591 large-scale patterns in the abundance and distribution of species more generally.

592 **Table 1.** The relationship between alien range size (km²) and the predictor variable in the first
 593 column at the global scale, from full model averaging based on all possible multivariate PGLS
 594 models. Squared terms (^2) were included if they improved the fit of the univariate model as
 595 described in Figure 2. Estimate = the coefficient of the relationship between the predictor and
 596 response variables; s.e. = standard error; Importance = the sum of the Akaike weights across
 597 all models with $\Delta AICc < 4$ of the best model; N = 319.

598

599

Variable	Estimate	s. e	Z value	P	Importance
Intercept	4.63	1.64	2.82	< 0.01	
Colonisation pressure	1.10	0.29	3.78	< 0.001	1
Colonisation pressure ^2	0.17	0.07	2.46	< 0.05	1
Global climatic niche extent	0.79	1.07	0.74	0.46	0.51
Native range size	0.17	0.12	1.41	0.16	0.78
Residence time	-0.29	0.20	1.49	0.14	0.85
Body mass	-0.002	0.03	0.07	0.94	0.18
Specialisation index	-0.002	0.08	0.03	0.98	0.17

600

601 **Table 2.** Variable importance (the sum of the Akaike weights across all models with $\Delta AICc <$
602 4 of the best model) for the relationship between alien range size (km²) and the predictor vari-
603 able in the first column for each biogeographic realm separately, from full model averaging
604 based on all possible multivariate PGLS models for each realm. Full details of the model for
605 each realm is provided in Table S3.

606

Variable	Neotropical	Nearctic	Palaearctic	Afrotropical	Indo-Malayan	Australasia	Oceania
Colonisation pressure	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Native range size	0.56	0.52	0.18	0.15	0.84	1	1
Residence time	0.22	0.38	1	0.28	1	0.31	0.38
Body mass	0.17	0.22	0.88	0.73	0.17	0.25	0.32
Global climatic niche extent	0.27	0.38	0.34	0.30	0.26	0.41	0.51
Specialisation index	0.40	0.54	0.20	0.15	0.13	0.15	0.29

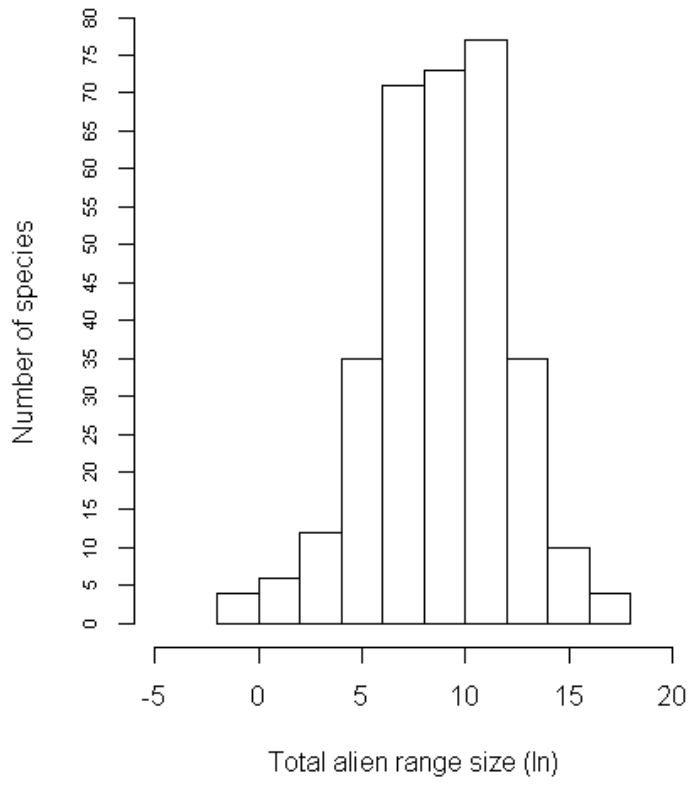
607

608

609 **Figure 1.** The frequency distribution of log-transformed total alien range sizes (km²) for the
610 319 species included in the analysis. Total alien range size varied from 0.48 km² (*Cacatua*
611 *sanguinea* on Saint John's Island, Singapore) to 36.49 x 10⁶ km² (*Passer domesticus*) (mean
612 = 0.38 x 10⁶ km²; median 10,460 km²).

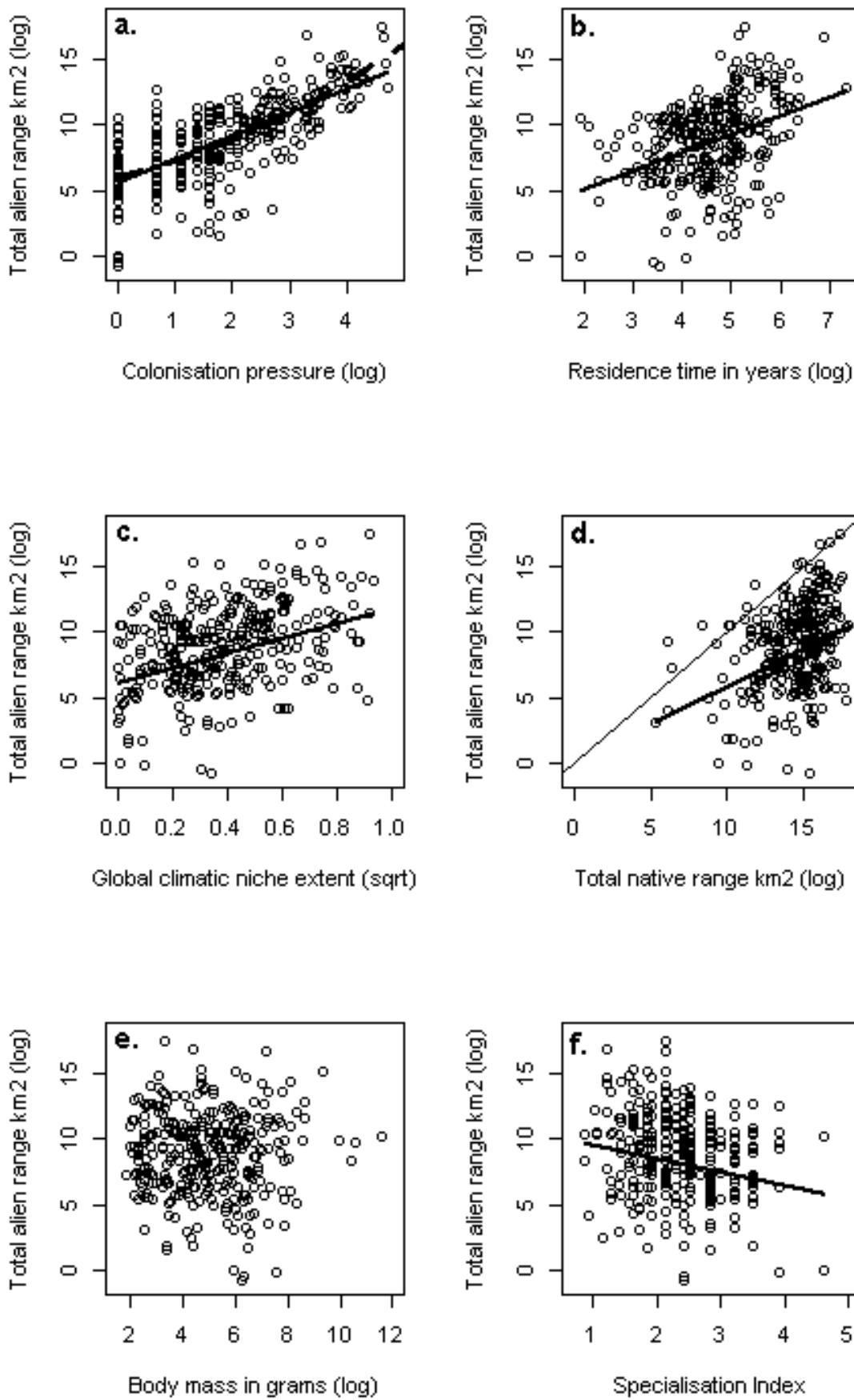
613 **Figure 2.** The relationship between log total alien range size (km²) and **a)** log colonisation
614 pressure (linear term slope estimate ± s.e. = 0.96 ± 0.29, *p*CI = 7.9 x 10⁻⁴; squared term slope
615 estimate ± s.e. = 0.21 ± 0.07, *p*CI = 1.7 x 10⁻⁴); R² = 0.53, *p* < 0.001; **b)** log residence time
616 (years) (slope estimate ± s.e. = 1.39 ± 0.19, R² = 0.15, *p* < 0.001, *p*CI = 0.002); **c)** sqrt global
617 climatic niche extent (slope estimate ± s.e. = 5.83 ± 0.76, R² = 0.15, *p* < 0.001, *p*CI = 0.007);
618 **d)** log total native range size (km²) (slope estimate ± s.e. = 0.57 ± 0.08; R² = 0.13, *p* < 0.001,
619 *p*CI = 0.002); **e)** log body mass (grammes) (slope estimate ± s.e. = 0.16 ± 0.15; R² = 0.00, *p* =
620 0.29, *p*CI = 0.02); and **f)** specialisation index (slope estimate ± s.e. = -1.01 ± 0.26; R² = 0.04,
621 *p* < 0.001, *p*CI = 0.002). The solid lines represent the univariate phylogenetic generalised least
622 squares models (slope estimate), the dashed lines the models with a squared term, and the
623 thin black line in **(d)** is the 1:1 line (alien range size = native range). s.e. = standard error. *p*CI
624 = phylogenetic confidence interval. N = 319 for all standard errors and estimates.

625 Figure 1.



626

627 Figure 2.



628

Table S1. Correlation matrix of all transformed predictor variables. Numbers above the diagonal are correlation coefficients (r); numbers below the diagonal are associated P values. $N = 319$ in all cases.

	Native range size	Global climatic niche extent	Colonisation pressure	Residence time	Body mass	Specialisation index
Native range size		0.84	0.26	0.21	0.00	-0.35
Global climatic niche extent	<0.001		0.30	0.25	0.04	-0.38
Colonisation pressure	0.12	0.08		0.60	0.00	-0.21
Residence time	0.22	0.15	0.00		0.06	-0.30
Body mass	0.98	0.84	0.98	0.71		-0.25
Specialisation index	0.04	0.02	0.21	0.07	0.13	

Table S2. Univariate PGLS relationships log between alien range size (km²) and the predictor variable in the first column, at the global scale, and for bird species established in each biogeographic realm separately. Squared terms (^2) are reported if including them improved the fit for the model such that AICc is decreased by > 4 relative to a linear term alone. Estimate = the coefficient of the relationship between the predictor and response variables; s.e. = standard error. Sample sizes for each realm are as given in Table S3.

		Estimate ± s.e.	P	R ²
Colonisation pressure (log)				
GLOBAL	linear	0.96 ± 0.29	<0.01	0.53
	squared	0.21 ± 0.07	<0.01	
	Afrotropical	1.63 ± 0.32	<0.001	0.28
	Australasian	2.01 ± 0.27	<0.001	0.40
	IndoMalay	1.65 ± 0.31	<0.001	0.24
	Nearctic	2.21 ± 0.32	<0.001	0.38
	Neotropical	1.56 ± 0.21	<0.001	0.39
	Oceanic	1.07 ± 0.19	<0.001	0.23
	Paleartic	1.64 ± 0.22	<0.001	0.39
Residence time (log)				
GLOBAL		1.39 ± 0.19	<0.001	0.15
	Afrotropical	0.67 ± 0.31	<0.05	0.05
Australasian	linear	-13.59 ± 5.60	<0.05	0.27
	squared	1.91 ± 0.67	<0.01	
IndoMalay	linear	-3.88 ± 1.46	<0.01	0.08
	squared	0.56 ± 0.19	<0.01	
	Nearctic	1.77 ± 0.47	<0.001	0.14
	Neotropical	0.88 ± 0.25	<0.001	0.12
	Oceanic	0.33 ± 0.30	0.27	0.00
	Paleartic	1.18 ± 0.21	<0.001	0.26

Native range size (log)				
	GLOBAL	0.57 ± 0.08	<0.001	0.13
	Afrotropical	0.12 ± 0.22	0.59	0.00
	Australasian	1.03 ± 0.15	<0.001	0.36
	IndoMalay	0.29 ± 0.16	<0.1	0.03
	Nearctic	0.52 ± 0.21	<0.05	0.06
	Neotropical	0.58 ± 0.15	<0.001	0.15
	Oceanic	0.28 ± 0.08	<0.001	0.10
	Palaearctic	0.20 ± 0.19	0.31	0.00
Global climatic niche extent (sqrt)				
	GLOBAL	5.83 ± 0.76	<0.001	0.15
	Afrotropical	1.73 ± 1.09	0.12	0.02
	Australasian	3.02 ± 1.19	<0.05	0.06
	IndoMalay	1.99 ± 1.01	<0.1	0.03
	Nearctic	4.27 ± 1.28	<0.01	0.12
	Neotropical	2.32 ± 1.04	<0.05	0.05
	Oceanic	0.75 ± 0.61	0.23	0.00
	Palaearctic	0.29 ± 0.88	0.74	0.00
Body mass (log)				
	GLOBAL	0.16 ± 0.15	0.29	0.00
	Afrotropical	-0.38 ± 0.19	<0.1	0.04
	Australasian	-0.10 ± 0.27	0.71	0.00
	IndoMalay	-0.08 ± 0.19	0.69	0.00
	Nearctic	0.17 ± 0.26	0.52	0.00
	Neotropical	-0.18 ± 0.16	0.28	0.00
	Oceanic	0.08 ± 0.11	0.46	0.00
	Palaearctic	0.14 ± 0.15	0.33	0.00
Specialisation index				
	GLOBAL	-1.01 ± 0.26	<0.001	0.04
	Afrotropical	-0.37 ± 0.53	0.49	0.00
	Australasian	-0.79 ± 0.57	0.17	0.01
	IndoMalay	-0.59 ± 0.42	0.16	0.01
	Nearctic	-1.01 ± 0.64	0.12	0.02
	Neotropical	-1.12 ± 0.47	<0.05	0.05
	Oceanic	-0.36 ± 0.29	0.21	0.01
	Palaearctic	-1.39 ± 0.45	<0.01	0.09

Table S3. The relationship between alien range size (km²) and the predictor variable in the first column for each biogeographic realm separately, from full model averaging based on all possible multivariate PGLS models for each realm. Squared terms (^2) are reported if including them improved the fit of the univariate model as described in Table S2. Estimate = the coefficient of the relationship between the predictor and response variables; s.e. = standard error; Importance = the sum of the Akaike weights across all models with $\Delta AICc < 4$ of the best model. N = sample size for each realm.

Neotropical (N = 86)	Estimate	s.e.	Z value	P	Importance
Intercept	5.46	2.73	2.01	< 0.05	
Colonisation pressure	1.44	0.25	5.83	< 0.001	1
Global climatic niche extent	-0.24	0.77	0.31	0.76	0.27
Native range size	0.14	0.18	0.79	0.43	0.56
Residence time	0.04	0.13	0.28	0.78	0.22
Body mass	-0.01	0.07	0.11	0.91	0.17
Specialisation index	-0.20	0.35	0.56	0.57	0.40

Nearctic (N = 78)	Estimate	s.e.	Z value	P	Importance
Intercept	3.63	3.89	0.94	0.35	
Colonisation pressure	2.10	0.34	6.19	< 0.001	1
Global climatic niche extent	0.62	1.18	0.53	0.60	0.38
Native range size	0.16	0.21	0.75	0.45	0.52
Residence time	0.20	0.38	0.53	0.60	0.38
Body mass	0.01	0.09	0.16	0.87	0.22
Specialisation index	-0.46	0.58	0.79	0.43	0.54

Palaearctic (N = 87)	Estimate	s.e.	Z value	P	Importance
Intercept	4.39	1.69	2.60	< 0.01	
Colonisation pressure	1.32	0.23	5.81	< 0.001	1
Global climatic niche extent	-0.26	0.60	0.43	0.67	0.34
Native range size	0.01	0.09	0.14	0.89	0.18
Residence time	0.93	0.21	4.35	< 0.001	1
Body mass	-0.22	0.13	1.66	< 0.1	0.88
Specialisation index	-0.05	0.20	0.23	0.82	0.20

Afrotropical (N = 64)	Estimate	s.e.	Z value	P	Importance
Intercept	6.11	1.83	3.33	< 0.001	
Colonisation pressure	1.66	0.36	4.57	< 0.001	1
Global climatic niche extent	0.27	0.67	0.40	0.69	0.30
Native range size	0.01	0.08	0.10	0.92	0.15
Residence time	-0.09	0.23	0.38	0.70	0.28
Body mass	-0.23	0.20	1.15	0.25	0.73
Specialisation index	0.02	0.21	0.09	0.93	0.15

Indo-Malayan (N = 85)	Estimate	s.e.	Z value	P	Importance
Intercept	6.11	3.67	1.67	< 0.1	
Colonisation pressure	2.05	0.36	5.63	< 0.001	1
Global climatic niche extent	0.30	0.84	0.35	0.72	0.26
Native range size	0.31	0.20	1.57	0.12	0.84
Residence time	-1.50	1.24	1.21	0.23	1
Residence time ^2	0.11	0.17	0.65	0.51	0.46
Body mass	-0.02	0.08	0.23	0.82	0.17
Specialisation index	0.001	0.15	0.01	0.99	0.13

Australasia (N = 81)	Estimate	s.e.	Z value	P	Importance
Intercept	-2.59	6.78	0.38	0.70	
Colonisation pressure	1.40	0.30	4.69	< 0.001	1
Global climatic niche extent	-0.66	1.13	0.59	0.56	0.41
Native range size	0.78	0.20	3.95	< 0.001	1
Residence time	-0.87	3.02	0.29	0.77	0.31
Residence time ^2	0.12	0.37	0.31	0.76	0.13
Body mass	0.03	0.08	0.36	0.72	0.25
Specialisation index	-0.01	0.17	0.04	0.97	0.15

Oceania (N = 109)	Estimate	s.e.	Z value	P	Importance
Intercept	3.50	1.66	2.11	< 0.05	
Colonisation pressure	1.04	0.19	5.38	< 0.001	1
Global climatic niche extent	-0.48	0.65	0.74	0.46	0.51
Native range size	0.26	0.08	3.04	< 0.01	1
Residence time	-0.12	0.23	0.51	0.61	0.38
Body mass	0.03	0.07	0.41	0.68	0.32
Specialisation index	0.06	0.18	0.34	0.73	0.29

Figure S1. The relationship, where significant, between log total alien range size (km²) and **a)** log colonisation pressure; **b)** log total native range size (km²); **c)** square root global climatic niche extent **d)** log residence time (years); **e)** log body mass (g); and **f)** specialisation index, for each realm separately. The coloured lines represent the fitted realm-level univariate PGLS models (with a squared term where significant): Afrotropical = red; Australasian = orange; Indo-Malayan = pink; Nearctic = blue; Neotropical = green; Oceanic = purple; Palearctic = navy.

Figure S2. The relationship between global climatic niche extent (proportion of total global landmass) and native geographic range size (km²) for the 319 bird species with established alien populations in our analysis.

Figure S1.

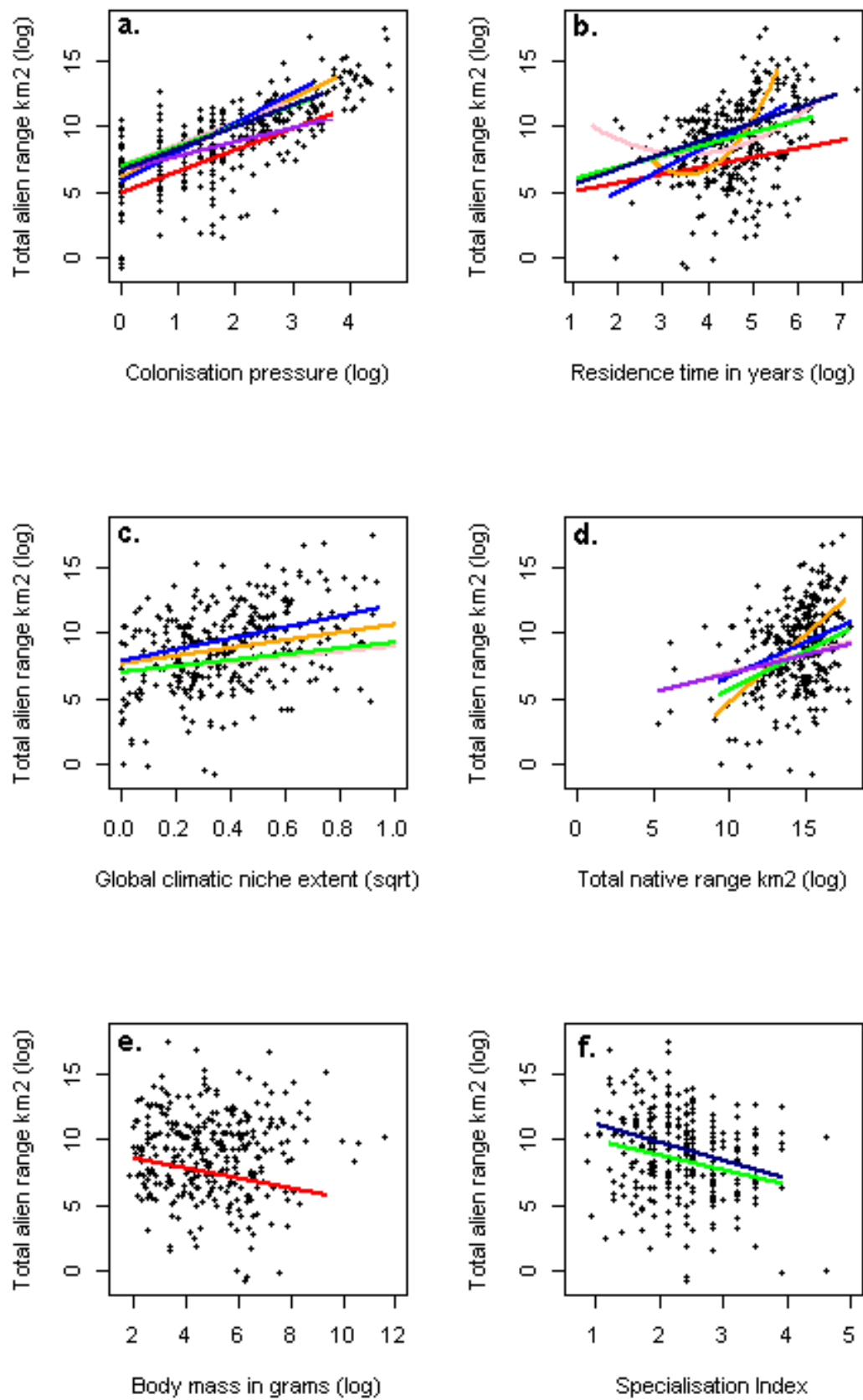


Figure S2.

