

1 **Global test of the enemy release hypothesis reveals similar patterns of herbivory across**
2 **native and non-native plants.**

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25 **ABSTRACT**

26 The Enemy Release Hypothesis (ERH) proposes that non-native plants escape their co-evolved
27 herbivores and benefit from reduced herbivory in their introduced ranges. Numerous studies have tested
28 this hypothesis, with conflicting results, but previous studies focus on average levels of herbivory and
29 overlook the substantial within-population variability in herbivory, which may provide unique insights
30 into the ERH. We tested differences in mean herbivory and added a novel approach to the ERH by
31 comparing within-population variability in herbivory between native and non-native plant populations.
32 We include several covariates that might mask an effect of enemy release, including latitude, regional
33 plant richness, plant growth form and plant cover. We use leaf herbivory data collected by the Herbivory
34 Variability Network for 788 plant populations (616 native range populations and 172 introduced range
35 populations) of 503 different native and non-native species distributed worldwide. We found no overall
36 differences in mean herbivory or herbivory variability between native and non-native plant populations.
37 Taken together, our results indicate no evidence of enemy release for non-native plants, suggesting that
38 enemy release is not a generalized mechanism favoring the success of non-native species.

39 **Keywords**

40 Enemy release, plant invasion, plant-herbivore interactions, intra-population variability, ecological
41 factors.

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49 INTRODUCTION

50 The striking success of some plant species in non-native ranges has attracted the attention of ecological
51 researchers, as it is an important driver of global change, altering ecosystem functioning and
52 destabilizing biotic interactions (Bellard et al., 2022; Vilà et al., 2011). A key hypothesis for the success
53 of invasive plants is the Enemy Release Hypothesis (ERH) (Keane & Crawley, 2002; Williamson,
54 1996), which posits that non-native plant species can outcompete native species because they are
55 released from the enemy pressure they experience in their native range. An assumption of the ERH is
56 that enemies are less likely to attack novel plants. Empirical studies have tested this hypothesis by
57 comparing mean levels of herbivory between native and non-native species or between populations of
58 the same species in their native and non-native ranges (e.g. Meijer et al., 2015, 2016). Despite the logical
59 appeal of this hypothesis (Enders et al., 2018) and the elegant simplicity of these tests, results have been
60 mixed, with studies finding that non-natives can experience lower, higher, or similar levels of mean
61 herbivory relative to native plants (Colautti et al., 2004; Liu & Stiling, 2006; Meijer et al., 2016). Some
62 authors have thus concluded that enemy release is not important in plant invasions (Agrawal & Kotanen,
63 2003; Carrillo-Gavilán et al., 2012; Colautti et al., 2004; Ivison et al., 2023), or at least not consistently
64 important, while others have advocated for studies to examine covariates that could be masking or
65 influencing the importance of enemy release (Brian & Catford, 2023; Catford et al., 2022; Chiuffo et
66 al., 2022). Based on recent work showing that plant populations vary not just in mean herbivory but
67 also in intrapopulation variation in leaf damage (Herbivory Variability Network 2023; Wetzel et al.,
68 2023), we propose and test the hypothesis that a key component of enemy release could be differences
69 in the variability of herbivore attack among plant individuals within native and non-native plant
70 populations.

71 Intrapopulation variability is a critical feature of biological systems, and ecologists are increasingly
72 recognizing the important role it plays in shaping the outcome of competition, consumer-resource
73 interactions, and population dynamics (Benedetti-Cecchi, 2003; Bolnick et al., 2011; Holyoak &
74 Wetzel, 2020; Inouye, 2005; Shoemaker et al., 2020; Violle et al., 2012; Wetzel et al., 2023). For
75 example, theory indicates that factors that increase the variability of herbivore attack among individuals

76 within plant populations should stabilize plant-herbivore interactions and reduce the probability of plant
77 extirpation (Anderson & May, 1978; Bjørnstad & Hansen, 1994; Crawley, 1983). Indeed, when
78 herbivory is aggregated only on a few plant individuals within a population, many plants can escape
79 top-down pressure from herbivores, thus a higher equilibrium population size can be achieved
80 (Anderson & May, 1978; Crawley, 1983). Aggregation also means that herbivores experience greater
81 negative density-dependent feedback which can stabilize the host-herbivore dynamic (Mutz & Inouye,
82 2023). Thus, for similar levels of mean herbivory, the impact of herbivores might be greater in a
83 population where all plant individuals are attacked than in a population that exhibits high variability in
84 herbivory attack. This suggests that a form of enemy release could occur if herbivore damage were
85 more variable in populations of non-natives than natives, even if mean rates of herbivory across
86 populations were similar between natives and non-natives. Regardless of their potential consequences,
87 differences in intrapopulation variability in herbivory between native and non-native populations would
88 indicate differences in interactions with herbivores.

89 A key factor likely influencing intrapopulation herbivory variability is how plants are recognized by
90 their potential enemies (Wetzel et al. 2023). We hypothesize that, depending on how host recognition
91 differs between native and non-native plants, non-natives could exhibit higher, lower, or similar levels
92 of intrapopulation variation in herbivory. For example, non-natives would exhibit higher variability in
93 herbivory if most non-native individuals are not recognized by herbivores owing to their novelty but
94 individuals that are recognized (or sampled) by herbivores suffer high damage. High damage on the
95 few unlucky individuals that are used as hosts might be expected because many non-natives are
96 competitive species that prioritize growth over defense (Fahey et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2020; Van
97 Kleunen et al., 2010). Alternatively, non-natives could exhibit lower variability in herbivory than
98 natives because they are less likely to be recognized as hosts by specialist than by generalist herbivores
99 (Goßner et al., 2009; Parker & Hay, 2005; Parker et al., 2006). Specialists often have patchy
100 distributions, potentially leading to more variable damage (Price, 2003) on natives, whereas the
101 generalist-dominated herbivore community on non-natives may leave more homogeneous damage (Joy
102 Massad et al., 2024). Finally, non-native status might be a poor predictor of host recognition, leading

103 to no overall differences in herbivory variability between natives and non-natives. This result would
104 support the perspective that non-native status is a poor predictor of ecological roles relative to functional
105 traits (Agrawal & Kotanen, 2003; Lundgren et al., 2024).

106 A key recognition from the literature about the ERH over the last decade is that enemy release can vary
107 with geographic and ecological context, both of which can have large influences on species interactions
108 (Brian & Catford, 2023; Catford et al., 2022; Chiuffo et al., 2022; Gioria et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2021).
109 For example, recent studies testing the hypothesis that enemy release varies with latitude for native and
110 non-native plants (i.e., non-parallel latitudinal gradients in herbivory for natives and non-natives) have
111 yielded contrasting results (Allen et al., 2017; Bezemer et al., 2014; Cronin et al., 2015). While some
112 studies focusing on a model species found that enemy release gets weaker with increasing latitude
113 (Bezemer et al., 2014; Guo, 2024), a recent global study reported no correlation between latitude and
114 enemy release (Xu et al., 2021). We argue that there are two important gaps in this literature. First, these
115 studies only examined latitude and not other important factors that influence plant-herbivore
116 interactions, such as plant diversity, growth form or plant cover. Second, ecological context should
117 influence how enemy release affects variability in herbivory as well as mean levels of herbivory. Past
118 studies of geographical and ecological variation in enemy release have only considered mean levels of
119 herbivory and did not examine potential changes in variability in herbivory among individuals, which
120 has been shown to increase with latitude (Herbivory Variability Network, 2023).

121 The importance of enemy release in shaping the amount and variability of herbivory across plants likely
122 depends on several ecological factors. We identify two mechanisms by which ecological factors might
123 influence enemy release strength. First, enemy release might depend on factors such as latitude and
124 plant diversity, which are predictors of herbivore abundance and richness (Crutsinger et al., 2006;
125 Schemske et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2016). When considering mean herbivory levels, enemy release
126 might be easier to detect in environments with low herbivore richness (such as low plant diversity
127 environments or temperate regions). However, in environments with high herbivore abundance and
128 richness (such as high plant diversity environments or tropical regions), non-native plants might have a
129 higher risk of being detected and attacked by some herbivore species, leading to high herbivory means

130 for natives and non-natives via an amplification effect (i.e. an increase in species diversity may increase
131 attack risk; Keesing et al., 2006). In environments with high herbivore abundance and richness, we
132 predict that enemy release could be detected by comparing variability in herbivory, with non-natives
133 exhibiting higher variability than natives, because natives should be consistently attacked by their
134 generalist and specialist herbivores while non-natives will either be overlooked or heavily attacked
135 when found (mostly by generalist herbivores, but potentially by some specialist species). Second,
136 enemy release might depend on plant characteristics such as growth form or percent cover that influence
137 how easily a plant is detected by herbivores (Plant Appärenz; Feeny, 1976; Galmán et al., 2018; Strauss
138 et al., 2015). Plants with characteristics that make them more obvious hosts for herbivores (woody
139 species or high-cover plants) should have higher levels of attack regardless of native status, but, within
140 a population, non-native plants should have higher variability than natives because natives should be
141 attacked more consistently by a greater number of herbivore species.

142 Understanding how non-native plants interact with the native herbivores in their introduced range
143 requires work that examines how factors such as latitude, plant diversity, plant growth form or plant
144 cover influence both the mean and variability of herbivory in native and non-native populations.
145 Previous large-scale studies only investigated a limited number of plant species (but see Xu et al 2021)
146 and data for these studies were obtained using different methods, making comparisons across systems
147 difficult (Meijer et al 2016). Here, we perform a global analysis of the Enemy Release Hypothesis using
148 the largest dataset thus far and using a common protocol across all species. We use herbivory data from
149 surveys conducted by the Herbivory Variability Network (<https://herbvar.org/>). With this study, we
150 present a novel evaluation of the ERH by comparing native and non-native plants both in terms of mean
151 levels of herbivory and within-population variability in the distribution of herbivory. We conduct i) a
152 large biogeographical analysis across 788 populations (616 native and 172 introduced) of 503 plant
153 species; and ii) an analysis comparing native and introduced ranges in a subset of ten species for which
154 we collected survey data from both parts of the range. We test 1) the generality of enemy release by
155 comparing herbivory rates and herbivory variability between native and non-native populations of many
156 species; and 2) whether the effect of enemy release is modulated by ecological context by analyzing the

157 effects of factors influencing herbivore abundance and richness (latitude and plant richness) and factors
158 modulating the interaction between plants and herbivores (plant growth form and focal plant cover).

159

160 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

161 **Field Surveys**

162 This study was conducted using data collected by the Herbivory Variability Network (HerbVar,
163 <https://herbvar.org>), a team of researchers from 34 countries that aims to better understand the role of
164 variability in the ecology and evolution of plant-herbivore interactions. The dataset includes surveys of
165 788 plant populations (616 corresponding to plants in their native range and 172 plant populations in
166 their introduced range) encompassing 503 plant species from 135 plant families across 34 countries and
167 six continents (Figure 1).

168 All collaborators followed a standardized protocol (the protocol can be found at the HerbVar website:
169 <https://herbvar.org> and in the supporting information). In brief, for each survey we randomly chose 30
170 plant individuals in a population and each of their nearest conspecific neighbors for a total of 60 plant
171 individuals. When the population had less than 90 individuals, we surveyed all the individuals in the
172 population. Our large sample size allows for a robust estimation of variability within a population, as
173 well as mean herbivore damage. For each plant we visually estimated the aboveground proportion of
174 herbivore damage, following a detailed guide. We included invertebrate and vertebrate damage and
175 chewing and mining damage. We examined all above-ground tissues for plants under 2 m tall, while
176 for plants under 2m, we randomly sampled 30 leaves per plant. To estimate the local abundance of the
177 focal species, we also recorded the percent cover of the focal plant species in the sampled area, the
178 sample area for each population was calculated taking into account the density of focal plants, ranging
179 from an area of 0.4 m radius (density between 6 and 10 plants/m²) to 3.6 m (for a density \leq 0.1
180 plants/m²).

181

182 **Data acquisition**

183 *Plant status*

184 We classified each population as native or non-native based on the information provided by the
185 scientific collaborator of each specific region; when the information was not provided, we checked the
186 species status in the Plants of the World Online (POWO, 2024) databases. In addition, we checked the
187 status of the non-native species in the Global Naturalized Alien Flora (GloNAF; van Kleunen et al.,
188 2019). All non-native species in our study (except ten populations of seven non-native plant species)
189 are naturalized and widespread in their introduced ranges (Table S1 in supporting information).

190 *Plant diversity data*

191 We extracted plant species richness (estimated number of plant species per 1000m²) for our study sites
192 from sPlotOpen, which predicts plant diversity from a combination of global vegetation surveys and
193 mathematical models (Bruelheide et al., 2019; Sabatini et al., 2022). Finally, note that because
194 sPlotOpen does not provide uncertainty measures for the estimates of plant diversity we were unable to
195 include those in our analyses, and thus all results for plant diversity should be interpreted cautiously.

196

197 **Statistical analyses**

198 For our analyses, we use the mean herbivory within a population and variability in herbivory among
199 individuals within a population as separate response variables. For mean herbivory, we averaged the
200 proportion of aboveground herbivory across all individuals surveyed in a population. For each
201 population, we summarize the amount of variability in the proportion of herbivory across individuals
202 by calculating the Gini coefficient using the R package DescTools (Signorell, 2019). The Gini
203 coefficient (range 0-1) represents the level of variation or unevenness of a distribution of a variable
204 among units. The Gini coefficient has certain advantages over other more widely known coefficients of

205 variation; it is calculated with L-moments instead of conventional moments, making it more robust to
206 outliers and more reliable at small sample sizes (Valbuena et al., 2017).

207 We use Bayesian phylogenetic generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) in R in the brms package
208 (Bürkner, 2021) in R version 4.3.0 (R Core Team, 2023). We used a beta response distribution because
209 it is well suited to represent variables on the 0–1 interval (Douma & Weedon, 2019). Since the beta
210 distribution is undefined for 1, we truncated three values in our data to 0.99. Models ran across seven
211 MCMC chains for at least 5000 total iterations. We assessed runs by ensuring all Rhat values were <
212 1.03, and visually checked fits via posterior predictive checks. For prior distributions we used normal
213 (0, 2) for slopes, normal (0, 2) for intercepts, gamma (1, 0.05) for phi [the beta distribution dispersion
214 parameter], and cauchy (0, 1) for the standard deviation of random effects. To account for phylogenetic
215 correlations, we built a phylogenetic tree for the species in our study using the phylo.maker function in
216 ‘V.PhyloMaker’ (Jin & Qian, 2019) and ‘ape’ (Paradis & Schliep, 2019) R-packages by matching the
217 family, genus and species epithet from our survey with those in the backbone using the
218 GBOTB.extended phylogeny (i.e., the mega-tree implemented in the ‘V.PhyloMaker’ R package). For
219 each model, we report effect sizes, 95% credible intervals (CIs), Bayes Factors (BF) and marginal
220 Bayesian R2 values.

221

222 ***Global differences in herbivory mean and variability between native and non-native***
223 ***populations***

224 We compare herbivory between native and non-native plant populations of different species globally
225 distributed and between populations of the same species in their native and non-native ranges. We ran
226 Bayesian phylogenetic GLMM using mean herbivory and variability in herbivory (Gini) as response
227 variables and plant status (i.e. native or non-native) as a fixed effect. For the global dataset of 772
228 populations of 503 species, we include plant species and plant phylogeny as random effects. We ran the
229 same models (without the plant phylogeny) for the biogeographical subset of ten species (Table S2 in

230 supporting information) occurring in both native and introduced ranges. For the latter, we also included
231 the interaction with species as a fixed effect.

232

233 ***Effect of ecological context modulating Enemy Release***

234 To test whether enemy release was contingent on factors like plant diversity, plant cover, latitude or
235 growth form, we again ran Bayesian phylogenetic GLMM using variability in herbivory (Gini) or mean
236 herbivory as response variables. In this case, for the global dataset of 772 populations of 503 species,
237 we ran different models using plant status as a fixed factor (i.e. native or non-native) and its interaction
238 with i) plant diversity, ii) latitude (absolute values), iii) focal plant cover and iv) growth form (woody
239 versus non-woody species). We included plant species and plant phylogeny as random effects.

240 For the interactions with plant diversity and plant cover, we ran the same models for the biogeographical
241 subset of ten species occurring in both native and introduced ranges including the interaction with
242 species as a fixed effect.

243

244 **RESULTS**

245 ***Global differences in herbivory mean and variability between native and non-native populations***

246 Both mean herbivory and variability in herbivory were similar between native and non-native species
247 across the globe. Mean herbivory averaged 5% for both native (95% CI = 2-10%) and non-native species
248 (95% CI = 3-9%, $R^2 = 6\%$, $BF = 0.04$, Figure 2a). Similarly, Gini coefficients were 0.60 (0.4-0.8) for
249 native species and 0.62 (0.4-0.8) for non-native species ($R^2 = 5\%$, $BF = 0.09$, Figure 2b).

250 Non-native status also had no effect on herbivory patterns within species when we restricted our dataset
251 to the ten species with surveys in both their native and introduced ranges. Mean herbivory and herbivory

252 variability were similar between native and non-native populations within plant species (supporting
253 information, Figures S1 and S2).

254

255 ***Effect of ecological context modulating Enemy Release: latitude***

256 Mean herbivory decreased with increasing latitude from 8% (95% CI: 4-15 %) at the equator to 3%
257 (95% CI: 2-5%) at 70° N/S ($R^2 = 5\%$, $BF = 3.7$, Figure 3). In contrast, variability in herbivory increased
258 with increasing latitude from $Gini=0.5$ (95% CI: 0.3-0.7) at the equator to $Gini= 0.7$ (95% CI: 0.5-0.9)
259 at 70° N/S ($R^2 = 5\%$, $BF = 1.2$, Figure 3). The data did not support an interaction between non-native
260 status and latitude for mean damage (Estimate = 0.01, 95% CI=0-0.02 , $R^2 = 6 \%$, $BF = 0.08$, Figure
261 3c) or for variability in herbivory (Estimate = 0.5, 95% CI = 0.43-0.57, $R^2 = 5\%$, $BF = 0.07$, Figure
262 3d).

263

264 ***Effect of ecological context modulating Enemy Release: plant diversity***

265 Mean herbivory increased with plant diversity; mean herbivory increased from 4% (95% CI: 2-7%) at
266 the lower levels of diversity (7 plant species per 1000m²) to 11% (95% CI: 2-40%) at the greatest levels
267 (57 plant species per 1000m²) ($R^2 = 4\%$, $BF = 0.8$, Figure 3). However, variability in herbivory was
268 not related to plant diversity levels ($Gini=0.5$, 95% CI= 0.39-0.56, $R^2 =6 \%$, $BF = 0.08$, Figure 3). The
269 data did not support an interaction between non-native status and diversity for mean damage (Estimate
270 = 0.5, 95% CI= 0.41-0.56, $R^2 = 6 \%$, $BF = 0.08$, Figure 3c) or for variability in herbivory (Estimate =
271 0.5, 95% CI= 0.43-0.57, $R^2 = 6 \%$, $BF = 0.07$, Figure 3d), suggesting that plant diversity levels do not
272 determine differences in herbivory between native and non-native plants. When comparing native and
273 introduced ranges for the subset of ten species, we again did not find a relationship between plant
274 diversity and patterns of mean herbivory or variability in herbivory between the native and introduced
275 range of each species (supporting information, Figure S3 and S4).

276 ***Effect of ecological context modulating Enemy Release: plant growth form***

277 There was no effect of growth from in herbivory mean (Estimate = -0.4, 95% CI= -0.99-0.09, R2 = 5
278 %, BF = 0.45, Figure 3E) or herbivory variability (Estimate = -0.18, 95% CI= -0.62-0.24, R2 = 5%, BF
279 = 0.15, Figure 3F). In addition, we found no effect of growth form (i.e. woody versus non-woody
280 species) determining differences in mean herbivory (Estimate = 0.51, 95% CI= -0.04-1.08, R2 = 5%,
281 BF = 0.75, Figure 3e) or herbivory variability (Estimate = -0.09, 95% CI= -0.56-0.37, R2 = 5%, BF =
282 0.12, Figure 3f) between native and non-native species.

283

284 ***Effect of ecological context modulating Enemy Release: focal plant cover***

285 There was no effect of focal plant cover in herbivory mean (Estimate = 0.04, 95% CI= -0.99-0.17, R2
286 = 4 %, BF = 0.04, Figure 3G) but we found a negative effect of focal plant cover on variability in
287 herbivory (Estimate = -0.19, 95% CI= [-0.29, -0.08], R2 =5%, BF =14.42, Figure 3h). However, there
288 was no effect of the interaction between focal plant cover and non-native status for mean herbivory
289 (Estimate = -0.01, 95% CI = -0.17, 0.14, R2 =4%, pp =1, BF = 0.04, Figure 3g) or herbivory variability
290 (Estimate = 0.02, 95% CI = -0.11, 0.15, R2 = 5%, pp =1, BF = 0.03, Figure 3h), suggesting that plant
291 cover influences herbivory in a similar way for both native and non-native plants. When comparing
292 native and introduced ranges for the subset of ten species, we did not find an effect of cover determining
293 differences in mean or variability in herbivory for any of the species (supporting information, Figure
294 S5 and S6).

295

296 **DISCUSSION**

297 Using a global survey of herbivore damage on 503 plant species collected with a standardized protocol,
298 we evaluated a main prediction of the Enemy Release Hypothesis, that herbivory is lower on non-native
299 than native plants. In addition, we proposed an expansion of the ERH to include potential differences

300 in the variability of herbivory. Embracing variability as a key ecological response variable can broaden
301 understanding of ecological processes, including plant-herbivore interactions (Wetzel et al. 2023,
302 Herbivory Variability Network 2023). We predicted that variability could differ between native and
303 non-native plants if, based on a lack of long-term coevolutionary history between non-native species
304 and the native herbivores, herbivore host-recognition differed between native and non-native plant
305 species. We compared the mean and variability of herbivore leaf damage between native and non-native
306 plant populations and analyzed the effect of biotic and abiotic factors potentially masking enemy
307 release. Despite this expanded perspective on enemy release and despite the breadth and intensity of
308 our sampling, we found no differences in either mean damage or variability in herbivory between
309 natives and non-natives, suggesting that there are no overall differences in plant-herbivore interactions
310 between native and non-native plants. Below we discuss potential explanations for why we observed
311 no differences in herbivory patterns between native and non-natives and the implications of this finding
312 for invasion biology.

313 A previously proposed explanation for findings of no difference in herbivory between natives and non-
314 natives is that enemy release is apparent only after accounting for key ecological covariates that
315 influence herbivory and could mask enemy release (Brian & Catford, 2023; Catford et al., 2022; Chiuffo
316 et al., 2022; Gioria et al. 2023). However, after we accounted for variation in herbivory with latitude
317 and plant diversity, growth form, and abundance—factors that are key determinants of herbivory—we
318 still found no differences between natives and non-natives. It is not that these factors had no impact on
319 herbivory on non-natives. To the contrary, latitude, plant community diversity, and plant abundance
320 had strong relationships with both the mean and variability of herbivory on non-natives. These
321 relationships, however, were strikingly similar to those for natives. A key implication of this result is
322 that, on average, non-natives might be more ecologically similar to natives in plant-herbivore
323 interactions than is often hypothesized. For example, the similarity in the relationship between local
324 abundance (percent cover) and herbivory variability for natives and non-natives suggests that ecological
325 factors like abundance are more important for herbivore host recognition and use than the distinction
326 between native and non-native. Low abundance, locally rare populations may experience high

327 variability in damage—rare individuals either escape notice or are found and highly consumed—
328 regardless of whether they have native or non-native status. More generally, these results suggest that
329 the broad environmental and ecological factors we examined are more important determinants of
330 herbivory patterns than non-native status.

331 One explanation for the lack of differences in herbivory patterns between native and non-native plants
332 is that enemy release is not determined by whether a plant is native or not but by the specific
333 characteristics of each plant species. The interaction of non-native plants with native herbivores may
334 be determined by the functional traits of plants and by the functional similarity between non-native
335 plant species and the native community. Accordingly, previous studies showed that phylogenetic
336 relatedness and trait similarity to native species predict herbivory in non-native species (Pearse & Hipp,
337 2009; Pearse & Rosenheim, 2020). This notion is consistent with recent studies on invasion ecology
338 that highlight the predominant role of functional traits for the success of non-native species (El-Barougy
339 et al., 2020; Qian & Sandel, 2022), indicating that non-native species functionally similar to the natives
340 benefit from preadaptation to the novel environment and are more likely to naturalize. One implication
341 of the fact that interactions with native herbivores depend on the non-native traits is that enemy release
342 is not widespread. More likely, only a fraction of non-native species benefit from enemy release when
343 introduced into a novel environment due to differences in host detection, depending on the environment
344 and the specific traits of the species. Indeed, we hypothesize that enemy release may be important only
345 for those rare non-native species that differ significantly in traits from their native competitors.

346 Another explanation for the lack of differences in herbivory between native and non-native plants is
347 that enemy release, though potentially an important factor in the early stages of plant invasions, loses
348 its importance once non-native populations are established, as is the case for the non-native species in
349 our study. A waning of enemy release would make sense because studies show that native herbivores
350 adapt to use non-native hosts as a resource over time, often surprisingly quickly (Ivison et al., 2023;
351 Parker & Gilbert 2004; Mitchell et al. 2010). Future studies could test this hypothesis by selecting
352 species in the early stages of invasions and comparing herbivory or even experimentally excluding or

353 adding herbivores. Regardless, our data provide a robust test of the strength of enemy release for
354 established non-natives across a broad sampling of geography, growth form, and taxonomy.

355 Overall, our results indicate that not all non-native species escape herbivory in their exotic ranges, as a
356 consequence enemy release is not an overall mechanism favouring invasion success. Non-native species
357 may present competitive advantages to natives based on different mechanisms than escaping their
358 enemies. For instance, the success of non-native species is not only determined by how resistant they
359 are to the native herbivores in the new environments but also by how tolerant they are to herbivore
360 attacks. In this regard, invasive plants have been found to perform better than natives under similar
361 damage levels (Ashton & Lerdau, 2008), suggesting that even when non-native species do not benefit
362 from enemy release, they might present different mechanisms than natives to tolerate or
363 overcompensate afterattack (Liao et al., 2014) which could help them outcompete the native plants in
364 the community. Alternatively, other studies have suggested that arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and soil
365 nitrogen levels may be critical in mediating the promotion of introduced plants (Zhang et al., 2023).

366 Finally, the fact that herbivore damage is not generally lower for non-natives than natives suggests that
367 introducing herbivores for biocontrol will not be a silver bullet for managing established non-native
368 species. Indeed, our results are consistent with the observation that controlling non-native plants via
369 classical biocontrol is challenging (Shen et al., 2023). Management strategies must be specific to the
370 herbivore community and the functional characteristics of the non-native species. Managers should not
371 assume that theory can guide their decisions. Instead, they will need to use experimental ecology
372 methods to elucidate the factors in their systems that determine the success of their non-native species
373 and should include measures of performance or tolerance after damage to fully understand the impacts
374 of trophic interactions on introduced species. In cases where herbivores are used as management tools,
375 our results suggest that successful non-native management via enemies could be thought of as
376 increasing herbivory on non-natives above what is natural rather than restoring enemy pressure that
377 may not have been escaped in the first place.

378

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603

604 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

605 **Figure 1.** Geographic and environmental locations for the native (purple dots, n=616) and non-native
606 (yellow dots, n = 172) populations of the studied species. The map shows the global distribution of
607 estimated vascular plant alpha diversity (spatial grains 1000 m²).

608

609 **Figure 2:** Results from the global analysis of enemy release showing no differences in (a) mean
610 herbivory and (b) variability in herbivory (Gini coefficient) between native (blue) and non-native (red)
611 species. Dots show predicted means and lines 95% credible intervals from Bayesian phylogenetic beta
612 regressions.

613

614 **Figure 3:** Results from the analyses of ecological factors potentially driving differences in herbivory
615 for native (blue) and non-native (red) species populations. There were no differences in mean herbivory
616 or herbivory variability between native and non-native populations at different latitudes (a, b), different
617 levels of plant alpha diversity (c, d), nor considering different growth forms (e, f) or with different focal
618 plant cover (g, h). Graphs show predicted means and 95% credible intervals from Bayesian phylogenetic
619 beta regressions.

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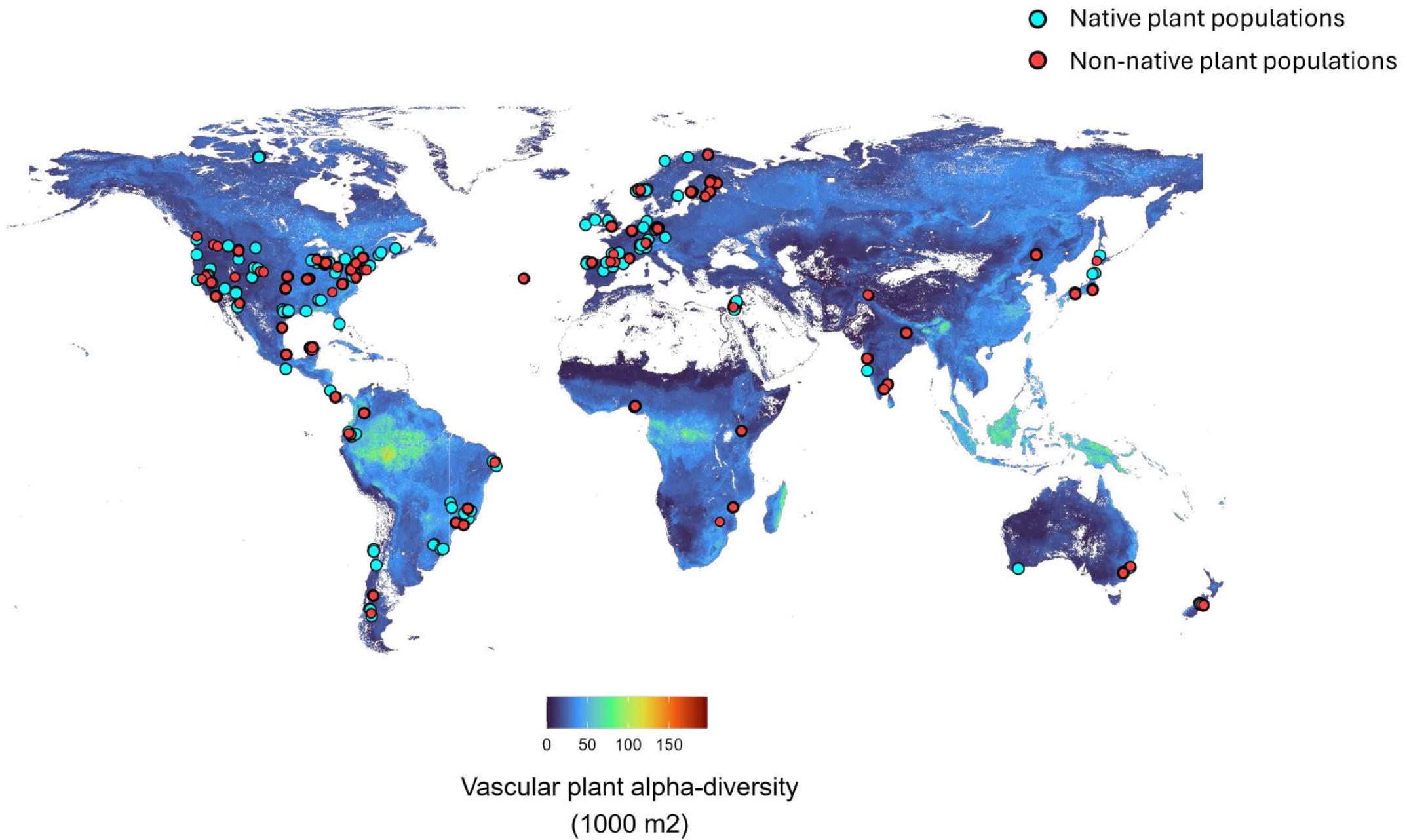
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A

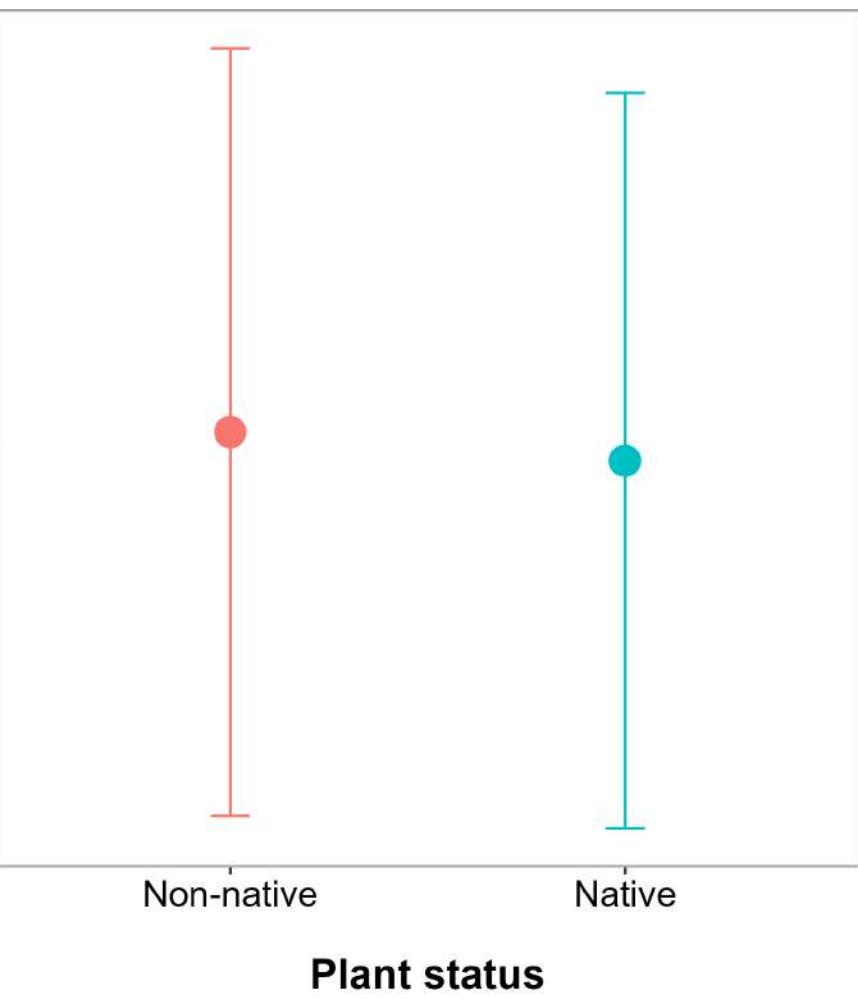
Mean herbivory (Proportion)

0.06
0.05
0.04

Non-native

Native

Plant status

**B**

Variability in herbivory (Gini)

0.70
0.65
0.60
0.55
0.50

Non-native

Native

Plant status

