1 Geographic variations in phenotypic traits of the exotic herb Solidago altissima 2 and abundance of recent established exotic herbivorous insects Author: Yuzu Sakata^a, Takayuki Ohgushi^b, Yuji Isagi^a 3 Address: a Laboratory of Forest Biology, Division of Forest and Biomaterials Science, 4 5 Graduate School of Agriculture, Kyoto University, Kyoto 606-8502, Japan ^b Center for Ecological Research, Kyoto University, Otsu 520-2113, Japan 6 7 Author for correspondence: sakata@ecology.kyoto-u.ac.jp 8 Tel: +81 075-753-6129 9 Fax: +81 075-753-6129 10 11 12

13

Abstract

14

15	Many invasive plants increase aggressiveness after introduction. Since
16	evolutionary forces such as herbivore pressure may change over different time scales,
17	understanding the changes in biotic interactions in invasive plants through time can
18	clarify the mechanism of their evolution in aggressiveness. In this study we examined
19	the geographic variation in phenotypic traits of Solidago altissima and the abundance of
20	two exotic herbivorous insect species (the aphid, Uroleucon nigrotuberculatum and the
21	lacebug, Corythucha marmorata), which are recently expanding their habitat on S.
22	altissima populations over Japan. The two exotic insects were present at high density on
23	S. altissima throughout their range. No differences in growth traits (plant height and
24	number of leaves) were found among populations, and all plants examined appear to be
25	exclusively hexaploid. Future studies on population genetics and common garden
26	experiments are necessary to evaluate the potential evolutionary dynamics of the S.
27	altissima after introduction.

28

29

Keywords

Corythucha marmorata, exotic insects, hexaploid, species invasion, Solidago altissima,

Uroleucon nigrotuberculatum

Introduction

Rapid evolution has been found in many successful invasive plants, including changes in traits such as biomass, reproductive output, competitive and dispersal abilities (e.g. Blossey & Notzold 1995, Maron et al. 2004, Brown & Eckert 2005). The enemy release hypothesis (ERH), one of the influential hypotheses considered as fundamental in explaining plant invasion success, is important by transporting the plant away from its natural enemies allowing the plant to grow vigorously. Many studies examining traits of invasive plants have focused on a snapshot in time, however, evolutionary forces such as herbivore pressure may change over different time scales (Hawkes 2007). Understanding the pattern of changes in potential drivers of invasive plants through time can clarify how invaders continue to be successful.

A perennial herb, *Solidago altissima*, was introduced to Japan in the early

19th century from North America, and has expanded its distribution rapidly over Japan

after the 1960s (Shimizu 2003). *Solidago altissima* in North America consists of diploid,

46 tetraploid, and hexaploid (2n=18, 36, 54) (Halverson et al. 2008a). While the taxonomic 47 treatment of the species has been complex, recent treatments (Semple and Cook 2006) 48 have recognized two subspecific taxa. These subspecific taxa is associated with cytotypic variation, with subsp. gilvocanescens reported as diploid and tetraploid across 49 50 its range and subsp. altissima primarily hexaploid (a few tetraploids have been reported 51at the western edge of the distribution and across the southeastern US; Semple and 52 Cook, 2006). However, the ploidy level in Japan is unknown. Although it is considered 53 as one of the most invasive, of introduced plants in Japan, ecological traits and natural 54 enemies throughout its distributional range have been poorly explored. Recently, two 55 exotic insects have been introduced to Japan from North America: the aphid *Uroleucon* 56 nigrotuberculatum in 1990's and the lacebug Corythucha marmorata in 2000. The aphid 57has a large impact on the native insect community via changing S. altissima traits (Ando 58 et al. 2011). On the other hand, the lacebug has been rapidly expanding its habitat, and 59 has become a serious pest of crops such as chrysanthemum and sweet potato in Japan. 60 The aim of this study was to elucidate the geographic variation in the abundance of the 61 two exotic herbivorous insect species among S. altissima populations over Japan.

Because the abundance of the herbivorous insects is dependent on plant traits such as plant size (Lawton 1983) and ploidy levels (Halverson 2008b), we also examined plant traits related to the abundance of the two insects. This is fundamentally important for understanding the changes of the herbivore pressure on *S. altissima* after expansion in the invasive range.

Methods

In June in 2011 and 2012, we surveyed the abundance of the two exotic insects at 15 sites (1-5 *S. altissima* populations per site) in Japan (Table 1). Populations at each site occure within radius 10 km, and the distance of two adjacent populations was 1 km. We surveyed 5-10 individual plants (three ramets per individual) distinguished by clumps in each population. For each ramet, number of the two insects was counted.

We recorded plant height and number of leaves for all ramets which the insect survey was conducted. Then, we collected rhizomes from five individuals of one population at each site for determination of the ploidy level. Ploidy levels were determined by flow cytometry and chromosome numbers (chromosome counts in root

tip squashes of the cultivated plants from rhizomes). The root tips were treated with a 0.05% hydroxynole solution at 16-18°C for 5 h before they were fixed with an ethanol: glacial acetic acid solution (3:1) at 4°C for 24 h. They were macerated by 1N HCL at 60°C for 1 min before being stained with aceto-carmine solution for 24 h and were mounted on a microscope slide. In the flow cytometry analysis, for each sample intact nuclei were extracted from approximately 0.5 cm² of leaf tissue in a Petri dish. The sample was chopped for 30 sec using a sharp steel razor blade in 400 µl of extraction buffer (Partec, Görlitz, Germany) and filtered using a 30-um CellTrics disposable filter (Partec). For each sample, the filtrate was mixed with 1.6 ml of staining solution (Partec) and the mix was incubated for 60 s. We analyzed these samples, using CyStain UV precise P (Partec). We converted fluorescence to chromosome number, using standard samples (hexaploid samples determined by root tip squashes). Only samples producing a histogram peak with a low coefficient of variation (< 5%) were retained. The standard sample was checked after every five samples.

Results & Discussion

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

Both the lacebugs and the aphids were observed in high densities while native

Although there was a considerable variation in the aphid abundance among populations, aphids were found in all sites (Table 1). On the other hand, the lacebugs were absent in sites of Hokkaido and Sado, indicating that they have not invaded those sites yet (Table 1). The effect of the latitude was marginally significant on the abundance of the lacebugs and it was greater in the lower latitudinal populations [generalized linear mixed model (GLMM): random effects = individual nested with population, offset = leaf number (as plant size), z = -1.82, df = 343, P = 0.07], while greater aphid abundance was apparent in higher latitudinal populations [GLMM: random effects = individual nested with population, offset = plant height (as plant size), z = 2.91, df = 343, P = 0.004].

No latitudinal clinal patterns were found in both plant height [GLMM: random effects = individual nested with population, z = -1.38, df = 343, P = 0.17] and leaf number [GLMM: random effects = individual nested with population, z = -0.032, df = 343, P = 0.975]. Flow cytometry analyses mostly yielded high-resolution histograms, with average sample CV of 3.25% (range 1.99–4.86%). Flow cytometry data for 75

individuals of *S. altissima* from 15 sites showed that all individuals had the same value. This indicates that all individuals of *S. altissima* examined in the present study had the same ploidy level and they were hexaploid (2n = 54) (Table 1). Therefor, they were all subsp. *altissima*.

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

Our field survey suggests that the two exotic insects were dominant herbivores on S. altissima. In particular, the lacebugs may have a selective impact to the traits of S. altisima because they continue causing severe damage to the plant by sucking the leaf tissue until the end of autumn. Moreover, because C. marmorata is expanding its range concentrically, the dates of population establishment differ geographically (including absent sites). This provides an excellent opportunity to test the potential of the selective impacts of this herbivore on traits of S. altissima. Although no differences in plant height and leaf number among populations indicate no difference in plant growth traits throughout the range, other traits such as reproduction and resistance may differ among populations with different abundance of the exotic insects. There are two possible explanations for the result that only hexaploid plants were found. One is that only hexaploid plants had been introduced. Another is that other ploidies had been also introduced, but they failed to establish or expand its ranges. Studies of the ploidy level of *S. gigantea* in the invasive and native range revealed that tetraploids were more invasive than diploids and it was the only cytotype found in the invasive range (Schlapfer et al. 2008; 2010). Future research on population genetics and common garden experiments is necessary to evaluate the potential evolutionary dynamics of *S. altissima* after introduction.

Acknowledgement

We thank Dr. Y. Ando for helpful advices for the field survey. We thank Dr. H. Choi and Dr. W. Shinohara for helping with the chromosome counts. This work was supported by the JSPS Core-to-Core Program (No. 20004) from Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.

References

Ando Y, Utsumi S, Ohgushi T. 2011. Community-wide impact of an exotic aphid on introduced tall goldenrod. Ecological Entomology 36: 643-653.

142	Blossey B, Notzold R. 1995. Evolution of increased competitive ability in invasive
143	nonindigenous plant - a hypothesis. Journal of Ecology 83: 887-889.
144	Brown JS, Eckert CG. 2005. Evolutionary increase in sexual and clonal reproductive
145	capacity during biological invasion in an aquatic plant Butomus
146	umbellatus (Butomaceae). American Journal of Botany 92: 495-502.
147	Halverson K, Heard SB, Nason JD, Stireman III JO. 2008a. Origins, distribution, and
148	local co-occurrence of polyploid cytotypes in Solidago altissima
149	(Asteraceae). American Journal of Botany 95: 50-58.
150	Halverson K, Heard SB, Nason JD, Stireman III JO. 2008b. Differential attack on
151	diploid, tetraploid, and hexaploid Solidago altissima L. by five insect
152	gallmakers. Oecologia 154: 755-761.
153	Hawkes CV. 2007. Are invaders moving targets? The generality and persistence of
154	advantages in size, reproduction, and enemy release in invasive plant
155	species with time since introduction. American Naturalist 170: 832-843.
156	Lawton JH. 1983. Plant architecture and diversity of phytophagous insects. Annual
157	Review of Entomology 28: 23-39.

158	Maron JL, Vila M, Arnason J. 2004. Loss of enemy resistance among introduced
159	populations of St. John's Wort (Hypericum perforatum). Ecology 85:
160	3243-3253.
161	Schlaepfer DR, Edwards PJ, Billeter R. 2010. Why only tetraploid Solidago giganted
162	(Asteraceae) became invasive: a common garden comparison of ploidy
163	levels. Oecologia 163: 661-673.
164	Schlaepfer DR, Edwards PJ, Semple JC, Billeter R. 2008a. Cytogeography of Solidago
165	gigantea (Asteraceae) and its invasive ploidy level. Journal of
166	Biogeography 35: 2119-2127.
167	Semple JC, and Cook RE. 2006. Solidago. In Flora North America Editorial Committee
168	[ed.], Flora of North America, vol. 20. Asteraceae, part 2. Astereae and
169	Senecioneae, 107–166. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
170	Shimizu T. 2003. Naturalized Plants of Japan (in Japanese). Heibonsha, Tokyo, Japan.

Table 1. Geographical information of *S. altissima* populations and the means $(\pm 1 \text{ SE})$ of two traits (height and no. leaves), ploidy level and mean number $(\pm 1 \text{ SE})$ of two exotic insects.

	No.					Ploidy		
Site	populations	Latitude	Longitude	Height	No. leaves	level	No. lacebugs	No. aphids
Hokkaido	5	42.83	141.30	99.45±3.34	32.48±1.02	Hexaploid	0	34.76±9.00
Tochigi	2	36.67	139.95	80.10±8.38	38.00±3.26	Hexaploid	13.10±3.79	14.80±8.09
Sado	2	37.80	138.24	85.32±3.25	35.34±1.59	Hexaploid	0	2.34±1.69
Nigata	2	37.88	139.04	92.86±4.54	28.33±1.15	Hexaploid	9.00±2.68	1.79±1.79
Tokyo	2	35.65	139.65	82.98±2.25	31.10±1.12	Hexaploid	8.67±2.56	33.20±15.23
Sizuoka	1	35.13	138.64	92.33±5.56	33.38±1.66	Hexaploid	3.85±0.96	54.05±19.52
Kyoto	3	34.84	135.53	95.44±4.22	28.56±1.70	Hexaploid	6.61±1.39	4.55±2.48
Shiga	2	34.80	135.66	96.87±3.28	37.73±1.49	Hexaploid	8.86±2.08	32.10±9.61
Osaka	3	34.90	135.45	88.29±3.54	34.35±1.31	Hexaploid	4.3±0.77	17.22±5.16
Hyogo	5	35.20	135.23	84.22±2.24	34.17±1.00	Hexaploid	7.29±0.84	20.66±4.76
Kochi	1	33.56	133.56	119.24±4.07	21.84±1.29	Hexaploid	1.32±0.39	1.05±3.04
Fukuoka	4	33.62	130.37	96.98±2.43	37.33±1.07	Hexaploid	4.78±0.76	12.64±2.04
Saga	3	33.32	130.27	83.89±3.34	42.81±2.25	Hexaploid	8.25±2.18	41.17±2.15
Kumamoto	4	32.92	130.8	100.44±2.26	37.82±1.18	Hexaploid	15.67±2.25	11.50±4.39
Kagoshima	3	31.65	130.47	110.54±2.89	33.09±1.16	Hexaploid	14.88±2.20	3.86±1.79