SCIENTIFIC REPORTS

OPEN

SUBJECT AREAS: PLANT SCIENCES INVASIVE SPECIES

> Received 16 July 2014

Accepted 15 October 2014

Published 4 November 2014

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to J.-M.L. (lijm@tzc.edu. cn)

Short-term parasite-infection alters already the biomass, activity and functional diversity of soil microbial communities

Jun-Min Li^{1,2}, Ze-Xin Jin^{1,2}, Frank Hagedorn³ & Mai-He Li³

¹Zhejiang Provincial Key Laboratory of Plant Evolutionary Ecology and Conservation, Taizhou 318000, China, ²Institute of Ecology, Taizhou University, Taizhou 318000, China, ³Swiss Federal Research Institute WSL, Zuercherstrasse 111, CH-8903 Birmensdorf, Switzerland.

Native parasitic plants may be used to infect and control invasive plants. We established microcosms with invasive Mikania micrantha and native Coix lacryma-jobi growing in mixture on native soils, with M. micrantha being infected by parasitic Cuscuta campestris at four intensity levels for seven weeks to estimate the top-down effects of plant parasitism on the biomass and functional diversity of soil microbial communities. Parasitism significantly decreased root biomass and altered soil microbial communities. Soil microbial biomass decreased, but soil respiration increased at the two higher infection levels, indicating a strong stimulation of soil microbial metabolic activity (+180%). Moreover, a Biolog assay showed that the infection resulted in a significant change in the functional diversity indices of soil microbial communities. Pearson correlation analysis indicated that microbial biomass declined significantly with decreasing root biomass, particularly of the invasive M. micrantha. Also, the functional diversity indices of soil microbial communities were positively correlated with soil microbial biomass. Therefore, the negative effects on the biomass, activity and functional diversity of soil microbial community by the seven week long plant parasitism was very likely caused by decreased root biomass and root exudation of the invasive M. micrantha.

op-down effects of species at higher trophic levels on species at lower trophic levels in the food chain can
induce cascade effects¹. For instance, aboveground consumers (e.g. animals) can affect the belowground
consumer op-down effects of species at higher trophic levels on species at lower trophic levels in the food chain can induce cascade effects¹. For instance, aboveground consumers (e.g. animals) can affect the belowground consumers such as soil microbes²⁻⁵. However, less attention has been paid to the effects of holoparasite-host because they are completely dependent upon their hosts for photosynthates, water, and mineral nutrients. Although the interaction between holoparasites and host alters carbon and nutrient cycling in the plant and soil system^{7,8}, very little is known about the ecological consequences such as its effects on microbial communities and their function.

Parasitic plants with over 4,500 known species are among the most ubiquitous generalist parasites in both natural and managed ecosystems worldwide. About 20% of parasitic plants are holoparasites⁹. Parasitic plants acquire part (hemiparasites) or all (holoparasites) of their demand of water, carbon, and nutrients from the hosts, and thus influence the hosts' performance¹⁰ and further the belowground properties. For example, Bardgett et al. found that the root hemiparasite Rhinanthus minor indirectly regulated the belowground chemical and microbial properties in a grassland ecosystem infected after three years¹¹. Two main mechanisms have been forwarded to explain the 'top-down' effects of parasitic plants on belowground microbial communities: (1) an enhanced supply of substrates in the rhizosphere could stimulate soil microbial activity. For instance, Bardgett et al. suggested that an increased host's root growth and root exudation was the primary reason for the enhanced activity of belowground decomposers in a mixed grassland community infected by hemiparasitic R. $minor¹¹$. Also, Jescke et al. found that the concentration of certain amino acids decreased in the roots of Ricinus communis infected by the holoparasite Cuscuta reflexa¹². (2) Beside belowground C inputs, hemiparasitic plants may also affect aboveground litter inputs potentially altering soil C cycling and soil microbial communities. An alternative mechanism could be a positive impact on soil nutrient cycling may occur¹³, where hemiparasitic plants such as Bartsia alpine

Figure 1 | Aboveground biomass (a), belowground biomass (b) and the total plant biomass (c) of an invasive plant Mikania growing with a native plant Coix in four treatments (Control = non-infected Mikania, and low-, medium-, and high-level infected Mikania by Cuscuta. Mean value + 1 SD are given. Different letters within each category indicate significant difference between treatments ($p < 0.05$). $F_{Micro}F_{Both}$ indicates F values of treatments (non-infected Mikania, and low-, medium-, and high-level infected Mikania by Cuscuta) on biomass of the invasive Mikania, the co-existing native grass Coix, and on biomass per pot (Mikania + Coix), tested using one-way ANOVAs. *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

and Amyema miquelii are found to accumulate nutrients in their leaves and to produce high-quality litter that decomposes rapidly.

So far, the mechanisms underlying the 'top-down' effects of parasitic plants on belowground microbial communities are still poorly understood. Litter, root detritus, and root-derived exudates are the main sources of soil organic matter and the carbon sources of soil microbes¹⁴. In natural ecosystems, some hemiparasitic plants such as Bartsia alpine and Amyema miquelii accumulate nutrients in their leaves and produce high-quality litter that decomposes rapidly, and thus positively influence soil nutrient cycling¹². However, Bardgett et al. suggested that a mixed grassland community infected by hemiparasitic R. minor stimulated the activity of belowground decomposers, which was regarded as a result of enhanced supply of substrate rather than increased litter quality because both the host's root growth and root exudation increased¹¹. Jescke et al. also found that the concentration of certain amino acids decreased in the roots of Ricinus communis infected by the holoparasite Cuscuta reflexa¹². Thus, we proposed that such changes in the root exudates could affect the belowground properties, although so far, there is no experimental evidence for this view.

The introduction of exotic plant species to a native ecosystem may lead to changes in the interactions between native plant species, herbivores, pathogens, parasites, and other biotic compartments at various tropic levels, which shape the structure and functioning of the invaded system¹⁵. Biological control of invasive plants uses parasitic plants to infect and control the invasive plants¹⁶⁻¹⁸. This may affect the ecological interactions between invasive species and other biotic and abiotic factors at different trophic levels in invaded communities, as well as alter soil microbial communities, nutrient cycling and greenhouse gas emission. These changes, in turn, may provide alternative ways to control invasive plants.

Mikania micrantha (Asteraceae) (hereafter Mikania) is native to Central and South America and was introduced into China after 1910¹⁹. Mikania is now widely distributed in Guangdong Province in South China and threatens native ecosystems¹⁹. A native holoparasitic plant, Cuscuta campestris (Convolvulaceae, hereafter Cuscuta), has been suggested to infect the invader Mikania as a biological control measures in southern China⁸. Several studies found that the parasitism of Cuscuta effectively suppressed photosynthesis and growth of the invasive plant Mikania, leading to a reduced cover and an increasing diversity of native species^{8,18,19}. Yu et al. observed that the levels of soil nutrients in a field Mikania

community infected by Cuscuta have already changed after 1–4 years of infection⁸. In a field experiment with Mikania in southern China, Li et al. found that infection of Cuscuta changed soil chemical properties, enzyme activity and microbial biomass three years after infection⁷. The effects found in those experiments^{7,8} may be a combined result of changes in litter quality and quantity, root detritus, and root-derived exudates. In our study here, we conducted a short-term (7 weeks) microcosm experiment with Mikania infected by Cuscuta to exclude the effects of parasite litter inputs on the biomass, activity and functional diversity of soil microbial communities. We hypothesized that 1) the short-term infection of Cuscuta decreases the host's biomass and as a result also C inputs to the rhizosphere, which in turn reduces soil microbial biomass, soil respiration, the activity of soil enzymes, and the functional diversity of soil microbial communities, 2) the magnitude of such effects increases with increasing levels of infection intensity. In addition, we aimed to better understand the mechanisms of biological control using parasitic plants against invasive plants.

Results

Infection effects on biomass. Parasite infection decreased the aboveground, belowground and total biomass of the host plant, but increased the aboveground and total biomass of the cooccurring grass (Fig. 1). The total pot plant biomass was significantly decreased by the infection, but did not differ among the infection intensities (Fig. 1).

Infection effects on soil microbial communities. Shannon's $(F_{3,16})$ = 101.092, p < 0.001), Simpson's diversity ($F_{3,16}$ = 46.078, p < 0.001) and evenness ($F_{3,16} = 340.286$, $p < 0.001$) indices of soil microbial communities decreased significantly with infection intensity (Table 1). The utilization of miscellaneous C sources by soil microbial communities did not differ among treatments (Fig. 2), whereas the low-level infection significantly decreased the utilization of carbohydrates and amines/amides, and high-level infection significantly decreased the utilization of polymers, carbohydrates, amines/amides, and carboxylic acids by soil microbial communities (Fig. 2). Medium-level infection had no significant effects on the utilization of various carbon sources, but the utilization of polymers, carbohydrates, amines/amides and carboxylic acids were significantly higher in the medium-level infection than in the low- and high-level infection (Fig. 2).

Table 1 | Functional diversity indices of soil microbial communities in soils under four treatments (non-infected Mikania, and low-, medium-, and high-level infected Mikania by Cuscuta). Different letters within a column indicate significant difference between treatments ($p <$ 0.05)

Treatments	Shannon-Wiener diversity index	Evenness diversity index	Simpson's diversity index
Control	$3.187 \pm 0.010a$	$0.934 \pm 0.003a$	21.723 ± 0.200 a
Low-level infection	$3.057 \pm 0.173b$	$0.905 + 0.009h$	18.160 ± 0.266
Medium-level infection	$3.115 \pm 0.012b$	$0.910 \pm 0.003b$	19.526 ± 0.204
High-level infection	$2.966 \pm 0.022c$	$0.878 \pm 0.007c$	$15.368 \pm 0.312c$

Infection effects on soil microbial biomass, soil enzyme activity and soil respiration. Parasite infection increased concentrations of soil C_{org} ($F_{3,16} = 4.245$, $p = 0.045$) (Fig. 3a) but decreased soil microbial biomass C ($F_{3,16} = 30.882$, $p < 0.001$) (Fig. 3b). Correspondingly, the ratio of C_{mic} to C_{org} was decreased ($F_{3,16}$ = 24.081, $p < 0.001$) by parasite infection but not affected by the infection intensity (Fig. 3c). The soil β -D-glucosidase activity tended to decrease with infection intensity, but the decrease was only significant when Mikania was highly parasitized by Cuscuta (Fig. 4a). Soil respiration rates significantly decreased by the lowlevel infection but increased at the medium- and the high-level infection as compared to controls $(F_{3,16} = 12.161, p < 0.01;$ Fig. 4b). The microbial metabolic activity did not change with low infection. However, at the two higher levels of infection, the microbial metabolic activity increased by 180% or so (Fig. 4c).

PCA analysis of soil properties and the relationships with the biomass of plants. The PCA ordination of soil properties had eigenvalues on the first two axes of 2.607 and 2.100, and 78.4% of the variance was explained by the two axes. Soils under the mediumand high-level infection were clearly separated from soils und the low-level infection and controls according to the PC1 axis, whereas soils under medium-level infection and controls were distinguished from the soils subjected to the low- and high-level infection according to the PC2 axis (Fig. 5). The values of C_{mic} , $C_{\text{mic}}/C_{\text{org}}$ ratio, and β -D-glucosidase activity were strongly positively correlated with the first axis. The carbon utilization ability of soil microbial communities had a strongly positive correlation with the

second axis, while soil C_{org} had a strongly negative correlation with the second axis.

Pearson correlation analysis showed that Shannon-Wiener diversity was significantly positively correlated with soil C_{mic} ; The evenness index was significantly positively correlated with soil $C_{\rm mic}/C_{\rm org}$ ratio, and AWCD; Simpson's diversity was significantly positively correlated with soil C_{mic} , $C_{\text{mic}}/C_{\text{org}}$ ratio, β -D-glucosidase activity, and AWCD (Table 2). Both C_{mic} and $C_{\text{mic}}/C_{\text{org}}$ ratio were significantly positively correlated with aboveground, belowground, and total biomass of host Mikania and both Mikania and neighboring Coix, but significantly negatively correlated with aboveground and total biomass of neighboring Coix (Table 2).

Discussion

In our study, short-term (7 weeks) parasitism on invasive plants significantly altered the biomass, functional diversity and activity of soil microbial communities, indicating a quick top-down effect of aboveground consumer on the belowground decomposers. In line with our results, previous long-term field studies found that Mikania infected by Cuscuta markedly affected soil physico-chemical properties, enzyme activity, soil microbial biomass⁷, and soil nutrients⁸ in Mikania-invaded communities. In a natural grassland ecosystem, Bardgett et al. observed significant changes in belowground properties by an infection with hemiparasitic R. minor². Similarly to plant parasite infection²⁰, foliar herbivores were also found to have strong top-down effects on soil decomposers in a NERC Soil Biodiversity field site located in Scotland²¹ and in a well-drained arctic tundra heath system²².

Figure 2 | Carbon utilization ability of soil microbial communities in relation to treatments (Control = non-infected Mikania, and low-, medium-, and high-level infected Mikania by Cuscuta). Data was shown with mean \pm standard deviation. Different letters within each category indicate significant difference between treatments ($p < 0.05$).

Figure 3 | Responses of soil C_{org} (a), C_{mic} (b), and C_{mic}/C_{org} (c) to treatments (Control = non-infected *Mikania*, and low-, medium-, and high-level infected Mikania by Cuscuta). Data was shown with mean \pm standard deviation. Different letters indicate significant difference between treatments $(p < 0.05)$.

Previous studies have paid less attention to the effects of parasitism on soil microbial biomass but focused on the relationships between root-parasitic nematodes and soil microbial biomass. For example, no effects²³ of Heterodera trifolii infection but negative effects²⁴ of Rotylenchulus reniformis infection on soil microbial biomass C were reported. Denton et al. found that low intensity infection of H. trifolii increased but high level infection decreased the microbial biomass in Trifolium repens community²⁵. Our present study found that short-term infection of holoparasites significantly decreased soil microbial biomass C. With increasing level of infection, the microbial biomass C decreased, which may indicate that holoparasite-infection rapidly reduced the C supply to soil microorganisms. The likely reason for this decline was a smaller C input from roots since there were no litter inputs from aboveground foliage in our microcosm with young plants during a short experimental period, and hence, C inputs were only derived from the belowground system. Root biomass and root-derived exudates are the primary carbon sources for soil organic matter and soil microbial populations²⁶⁻²⁸. Parasitic plants, especially holoparasitic plants absorb nutrients and water from the host²⁸. In addition, the parasite consumes photosynthetic products from the host's phloem, thereby reducing the amount of carbon supplied to the root²⁹. In this study, parasitism significantly decreased the belowground biomass of Mikania but had no effects on the biomass of Coix (Fig. 1).

Pearson correlation analysis showed that the decrease in soil microbial biomass was significantly correlated with a declining belowground biomass of Mikania, indicating that an altered root biomass of parasitized Mikania was primarily responsible for the observed changes in soil microbial biomass. The inhibition effect of parasitism of Cuscuta on Mikania released the neighboring grass Coix from competition and increased the aboveground, belowground, and the total biomass of Coix (Fig. 1). Pearson correlation analysis showed that the soil microbial biomass was highly positively correlated with the above- and belowground biomass and the total biomass of Mikania (Table 2), indicating that the invasive plants had strong effects on the structure and function of soil microbial communities. Increases in the aboveground biomass of Coix might have increased the supply of the rhizosphere with assimilates, but this increase in carbon supply was apparently not strong enough to compensate for the negative effects of decreased Mikania biomass on soil microbial biomass. In this study, pots were fertilized to avoid the differences in soil nutrient availability and the nutrient limitation on the growth of host and parasitic plants³⁰. Although the fertilization could boost the timing of infection and magnify the effect of parasitic plants on host, the close correlation of plant biomass with microbial biomass indicates that the nutrient addition has not modified the general responses of on microbial communities and their functions to parasite infection.

Figure 4 | Soil β -D-glucosidase activity (a), Soil respiration rate (b) and microbial metabolic activity (c) in relation to treatments (Control = noninfected Mikania, and low-, medium-, and high-level infected Mikania by Cuscuta). Data was shown with mean \pm standard deviation. Different letters within each category indicate significant difference between treatments ($p < 0.05$).

Figure 5 | Principal components analysis (PCA) ordination of soil carbon-related properties. Control = non-infected Mikania, and low-, medium-, and high-level infected Mikania by Cuscuta. Data was shown with mean \pm standard deviation.

In contrast to microbial biomass, soil respiration increased at the two higher levels of infection and hence, the soil microbial metabolic activity, the respiratory activity per unit microbial biomass strongly increased. However, calculating metabolic activity using total soil respiration measured in the field is critical as soil respiration has an autotrophic component, which ideally should be subtracted. In the studied system, the autotrophic contribution to soil respiration is not known, but as root biomass even decreased by plant parasitism, it seems likely that an increase in root respiration was not responsible for the observed increase in microbial metabolic activity. The stimulated C metabolization without a corresponding increase in microbial biomass indicates a higher C flow through the belowground and higher respiratory C losses and hence, a smaller potential of the soil to sequester C under high levels of infection³¹. This finding also suggests that the infection of Mikania by a holoparasitic plant altered the availability but probably also the quality of substrate for microbial communities. One reason could be a decrease in belowground biomass by the plant parasitism but there might have also been a shift in root exudation. Root exudates are low-molecular-weight compounds that are passively and actively released by living roots^{32,33}. Carbon-rich substrates, such as sugars (50–70% of total exudates), carboxylic acids (20–30% of total exudates), and amino acids (10– 20% of total exudates) make up the majority of exudates compounds³⁴ and can provide abundant resources for soil microbial communities $26,32$. These root exudates are of primary importance for microorganisms, as they are readily assimilable without the need to be synthesized by exo-enzymes³⁵. In our study, parasitism significantly changed the functional diversity indices of soil microbial communities and the utilization of various carbon sources by soil microbial communities, again suggesting that the available carbon substrates in root exudates changed with parasitism. Using 14Clabelled compounds, van Hees et al. demonstrated that 60 to 90% of organic acids but only 10–30% of amino acids are respired in the short-term, and hence metabolic activities are higher when organic acids are the dominant root exudates³³. Exudation of low-molecular weight organic acids generally increases with environmental stress³⁴. Consequently, our observation of an increased microbial metabolic activity at high levels of infections could be interpreted as a result of a stress induced by parasitism.

Exotic plant species can rapidly alter the structure and function of soil microbial communities³⁶⁻⁴⁰ and thus change the ecosystem-level soil properties⁴¹ and processes³⁹, which may be an important mechanism for the invader success. In a three-year-long field study, Li et al. observed that the invasion of Mikania increased soil microbial biomass C, N and P, soil microbial quotient and the functional diversity, which could enhance soil nutrient availability and in turn the growth of Mikania⁴². The present study showed that the shortterm infection of Cuscuta suppressed the host's biomass and decreased the soil microbial biomass and altered the functional diversity of soil microbial communities. The positive correlation of microbial biomass with above- and belowground biomass of Mikania and of both Mikania and the neighboring Coix strongly suggests that the biomass of Mikania had an overarching effect on soil microbial communities. While inhibiting the growth of Mikania, infection of Cuscuta released the neighboring Coix from the competition. However, the gain in biomass by Coix did not compensate for the losses by Mikania, resulting in a negative response in the total pot above- and belowground biomass and, as a consequence, also in the microbial biomass. In turn, this decline in microbial biomass and the associated effects on nutrient cycling might be an alternative pathway by which the parasitic Cuscuta can prevent the invasion of Mikania.

In conclusion, short-term (7 weeks) infection of Cuscuta significantly decreased above- and belowground biomass of the invasive host, decreased the soil microbial biomass, and altered the function diversity of soil microbial communities, but increased the soil respiration. Our short-term experiment excluded aboveground litter inputs and found a positive correlation of roots with microbial biomass, which suggest that the negative effects of plant parasitism on soil microorganism were caused by decreased root biomass and root exudation of the invasive Mikania. Although holoparasitic plants sucks away all substrate from the host, we believe that in the long-term, also an altered functional diversity, activity and biomass of soil microbial community as observed in our study may affect other ecosystem functions such as nutrient availability which in turn might be a possible pathway by which parasitic plant control the invasive plant and restore the native community.

Methods

Study site. We conducted our microcosm experiment in the Dengshuiling village in the southeastern part of Dongguan City (E $113°31'$ –114°15'; N $22°39'$ – $23°09'$), Guangdong Province, China. The climate is marine subtropical with a mean annual precipitation of 1820 mm, mean annual temperature of 23.1° C and mean annual sunshine time of 1874 hours. Mikania started to invade this area in the early 1990s and has spread extensively in shrublands and abandoned fields.

Experimental design. Our microcosm experiment consisted of seedling of the invasive Mikania and native annual grass Coix both planted together in pots (25 cm in diameter and 20 cm in height). Coix was chosen because it is one of the most common co-occurring species in communities invaded by Mikania. Three weeks after seedling planting, Mikania was infested at three different levels of intensity (low, medium and high) with Cuscuta, a native holoparasitic plant, which is widely distributed in Fujian, Guangdong Province and Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, China⁴³

Prior the microcosm experiment, seedlings of the invasive Mikania were propagated by cuttings (10 cm long), which were collected from a Mikania population in the field near Dengshuiling village, using sharp pruning shears sterilized with 70% ethanol. Only the upper stem segments of healthy and disease-free plants were used for cutting collection. Half of the leaves were removed from each collected cutting to reduce water losses. The cuttings were vertically inserted 3–4 cm deep in prepared nursery beds on July 16, 2006.

Native Coix seeds purchased from Heze Chinese Medicine Institute of Shandong were immersed in 20% CuSO₄ for 10 min to avoid disease infection. Thereafter, the seeds were left in water for 24 hours, placed in 70% ethanol for 1 min, in water for 5 min, and in 10% H_2O_2 for 5 min. Finally, the seeds were rinsed with sterilized water three times. On June 2006, seeds with similar size were sown on prepared nursery beds in the field.

In each pot, one Mikania and one Coix seedling were planted at a distance of 10 cm on July, 2006. At planting, seedlings of both species were \sim 15 cm in height. The potting soil was a mixture of sand and local soil which was taken from an abandoned field without the invasive species near Dengshuiling village. After removing the vegetation and litter from the soil surface, the red clay soil was sampled to a depth of 15 cm. Then, we removed plant materials (e.g. roots) and stones, homogenized the soil, mixed it with sand (soil-to-sand ratio, $3:1$, v/v) and filled 2.5 kg of the soil mixture into the pots. The potting soil had a pH (in distilled water without $CO₂$) of 5.3 and initial contents of total organic carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus of 16 $g kg^{-1}$. 0.56 g kg⁻¹, and 0.16 g kg⁻¹, respectively.

All pots were fertilized with half-strength Hoagland's nutrient solution weekly⁴⁴ and irrigated with tap water twice per day. Three weeks after the seedlings had been transplanted, native parasitic Cuscuta collected from a field population near Dengshuiling village was wound around the stems of Mikania for infection. In a pilot study, Li et al. (unpublished data) found that the haustoria number, the number of branches and the proportion of the cover of the parasite to the host plant were positively correlated with the number of the parasite's stem but not the length of the parasite's stem. Therefore, we used one, two and three 15-cm-long Cuscuta stems wound around Mikania stems to represent low-, medium-, and high-level infection, respectively. Mikania grown without infection was used as controls. Each treatment was replicated five times. Pots were randomly arranged in the field and moved every week.

Measurements. After seven weeks of infection, soil respiration was monitored in situ using the LCi Portable Soil Respiration system (ADC BioScientific Ltd., Hoddesdon, Herts, England). The elliptical soil collars (14 cm in maximum diameter, 8 cm in minimum diameter and 10 cm in height) were inserted 10 cm into the soil. For each measurement of soil respiration, the soil chamber was placed on the collar and the increase in $CO₂$ was recorded for five minutes. We repeated the measurement cycles 10 times for 30 s-intervals until the $CO₂$ flux was constant.

Seven weeks after infection, Cuscuta was removed from the Mikania host. All plants were harvested, separated into roots and shoots, dried for 48 h at 80°C, and weighed to determine biomass. Soil samples were stored at 4°C and transported to the laboratory immediately. The soil samples were sieved through a sterilized 2-mm sieve to remove vegetation, small animals, plant roots and stones. A sub-sample of each soil sample was air-dried and ground for soil chemistry analysis, and a second sub-sample was stored at 4° C and used to analyze the carbon utilization pattern within 48 hours after sampling. All the equipments used for processing soil samples were sterilized and cleaned with 70% ethanol.

The total soil organic carbon (C_{org}) was determined using potassium dichromate oxidation⁴⁵. Soil microbial biomass carbon (C_{mic}) was determined using the chloroform-fumigation-extraction method46. Before and after chloroform-fumigation, the water content of the soil was measured gravimetrically and the total dissolved C (TOC) of the soil extracted in 0.5 M $K₂SO₄$ was measured using a TOC Analyzer (TOC-Vcph, Shimadzu Scientific Instruments, Inc.). C_{mic} was calculated from the difference of fumigated and unfumigated soil samples as follows: microbial biomass $C = Ec/K_{EC}$, where $Ec = extractable C$ of chloroform-fumigated soil (conversion to dry soil mass) – extractable C of unfumigated soil (conversion to dry soil mass) and k_{EC} = 0.45⁴⁷. Microbial metabolic activity was calculated as the ratio of soil respiration to microbial biomass⁴⁸. Here, we divided soil respiration rates (mg CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹) by the corresponding microbial biomass C concentrations (mg C kg^{-1} soil DW).

As a measure of the soil's ability to break down cellulose⁴⁹, we determined the activity of β -D-glucosidase activity from air-dried soils (<2 mm) as described by

Li et al.⁷. Zornoza et al. found that β -D-glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.21) activity determined in air-dried soils was almost same with those obtained from soils under filed-moist conditions⁵⁰. The specific substrate p-nitrophenyl β -D-glucoside was used for this determination.

The carbon utilization ability of soil microbial communities was assessed by Average Well-Color Development (AWCD) at 96 h using Biolog 96-well Ecoplates (Biolog, Inc., Hayward, California, USA). Each plate contains 31 different carbon sources each with three replicates, including eight carbohydrates, eight carboxylic acids, four polymers, six amino acids, two amines, and three miscellaneous substrates⁵¹. Fresh soil (10 g) was prepared and diluted according to the modified method described by Li et al.⁷. Each well of a Biolog EcoPlate was filled with 150 $\,\mu$ l of the final dilution⁵². Three replicate substrate sets were used to get a mean value for each soil sample. Plates were incubated at 25°C for 96 h, and color development was measured as absorbance (A) using a microplate reader (Multiscan MK3, Thermo Lab. Systems) at 590 nm53. The individual absorbance value of the 31 single substrates was calculated by subtracting the value of the blank control (raw difference; RD). Negative RD values were set to zero. To minimize the effects of inoculum densities on the absorbance, data were normalized by dividing the RD values by their respective average well color development (AWCD) values. AWCD values were used to calculate Shannon's, Simpson's and evenness diversity indices, using Biological Tools version 0.20 software.

Data analysis. One-way ANOVA was used to analyze the effects of infection on biomass growth and soil properties, followed by Fisher protected least significant difference (LSD) test at the 0.05 confidence level to examine the difference in means between treatments. A Pearson correlation analysis was used to test the correlation between plant biomass and the carbon-related soil properties. All statistical analyses were performed in SPSS 16.0 for Windows. Soil-carbon-related properties in all treatments were assessed using principal component analysis (PCA) to study the relationships between the properties and their grouping⁵⁴. The statistical software package PC-ORD was used for PCA analysis⁵⁵. All figures were created in Sigma Plot 11.0.

- 1. Wardle, D. A., Williamson, W. M., Yeates, G. W. & Bonner, K. I. Trickle-down effects of aboveground trophic cascades on the soil food web. Okios 111, 348–358 (2005)
- 2. Bardgett, R. D. & Wardle, D. A. Herbivore mediated linkages between aboveground and belowground communities. Ecology 84, 2258–2268 (2003).
- Bezemer, T. M. et al. Above- and below-ground herbivory effects on below ground plant-fungus interactions and plant-soil feedback responses. J Ecol 101, 325–333 (2013).
- 4. Barto, E. K. & Rillig, M. C. Does herbivory really suppress mycorrhiza? A metaanalysis. J Ecol 98, 745–753 (2010).
- 5. Ruotsalainen, A. & Eskelinen, A. Root fungal symbionts interact with mammalian herbivory, soil nutrient availability and specific habitat conditions. Oecologia 166, 807–817 (2011).
- 6. Cole, L., Buckland, S. M. & Bardgett, R. D. Relating microarthropod community structure and diversity to soil fertility manipulations in temperate grassland. Soil Biol Biochem 37, 1707-1717 (2005).
- 7. Li, J. M., Zhong, Z. C. & Dong, M. Change of soil microbial biomass and enzyme activities in the community invaded by Mikania micrantha, due to Cuscuta campestris parasitizing the invader. Acta Ecol Sin 28, 868-876 (2008).
- 8. Yu, H. et al. Native Cuscuta campestris restrains exotic Mikania micrantha and enhances soil resources beneficial to natives in the invaded communities. Biol Invas 11, 835–844 (2009).
- 9. Hatcher, P. & Battey, N. Biological diversity: exploiters and exploited. (Wiley-Blackwell, Bognor Regis, UK, 2011).
- 10. Shen, H. et al. The influence of the holoparasitic plant Cuscuta campestris on the growth and photosynthesis of its host Mikania micrantha. J Exp Bot 58, 2929–2937 (2007).
- 11. Bardgett, R. D. et al. Parasitic plants indirectly regulate below-ground properties in grassland ecosystems. Nature 439, 969–972 (2006).
- 12. Jeschke, W. D. & Hilpert, A. Sink-stimulated photosynthesis and sink-dependent increase in nitrate uptake: nitrogen and carbon relation of the parasitic association Cuscuta reflexa - Ricinus communis. Plant Cell Environ 20, 47–56 (1997).
- 13. Quested, H. M., Callaghan, T. V., Cornelissen, J. H. C. & Press, M. C. The impact of hemiparasitic plant litter on decomposition: direct, seasonal and litter mixing effects. *J Ecol* 93, 87-98 (2005).
- 14. Dennis, P. G., Miller, A. J. & Hirsch, P. R. Are root exudates more important than other resources of rhizodeposis in determining the structure of rhizosphere bacterial communities? FEMS Microbiol Ecol 72, 313-327 (2010).
- 15. Torchin, M. E. & Mitchell, C. E. Parasite, pathogens, and invasions by plants and animals. Front Ecol Environ 2, 183–190 (2004).
- 16. Pride, J., Watling, J. & Facelli, J. M. Impacts of a native parasitic plant on an introduced and a native host species: implications for the control of an invasive weed. An Bot 103, 107–115 (2009).
- 17. Yu, H., Liu, J., He, W. M., Miao, S. L. & Dong, M. Cuscuta australis restrain three exotic invasive plants and benefits native species. Biol Invas 13, 747–756 (2011).
- 18. Yu, H., Yu, F. H., Miao, S. L. & Dong, M. Holoparasitic Cuscuta campestris suppresses invasive Mikania micrantha and contributes to native community recovery. Biol Conserv 141, 2653–2661 (2008).
- 19. Zhang, L. Y., Ye, W. H., Cao, H. L. & Feng, H. L. Mikania micrantha H.B.K. in China—an overview. Weed Res 44, 42–49 (2004).
- 20. Penning, S. C. & Callaway, R. M. Parasitic plants: parallels and contrasts with herbivores. Oecologia 131, 479–489 (2002).
- 21. Grayston, S. J. et al. Impact of root herbivory by insect larvae on soil microbial communities. Europ J Soil Biol 37, 277–280 (2001).
- 22. Stark, S. & Grellmann, D. Soil microbial resonses to herbivory in an arctic tundra heath at two levels of nutrient availability. Ecology 83, 2736–2744 (2002).
- 23. Treonis, A. M., Cook, R., Dawson, L., Grayston, S. J. & Mizen, T. Effects of a plant parasitic nematode (Heterodera trifolii) on clover roots and soil microbial communities. Biol Fertil Soil 43, 541-548 (2007).
- 24. Tu, C., Koenning, S. R. & Hu, S. Root-paraistic nematodes enhance soil microbial activities and nitrogen mineralization. Microbiol Ecol 46, 134–144 (2003).
- 25. Denton, C. S., Badgett, R. D., Cook, R. & Hobbs, P. J. Low amounts of root herbivory positively influence the rhizosphere microbial community in a temperate grassland soil. Soil Biol Biochem 31, 155-165 (1999).
- 26. Kuzyakov, Y. & Gavrichkova, O. Time lag between photosynthesis and carbon dioxide efflux from soil: a review of mechanisms and controls. Global Change Biol 16, 3386–3406 (2010).
- 27. Rasse, D. P., Rumpel, C. & Dignac, M. F. Is soil carbon mostly root carbon? Mechanisms for a specific stabilization. Plant Soil 269, 341–356. (2005)
- 28. Schmidt, M. W. I. et al. Persistence of soil organic matter as an ecosystem property. Nature 478, 49–56 (2011).
- 29. Jeschke, W. D., Räth, N., Bäumel, P., Czygan, F. C. & Proksch, P. Modelling of the flows and partitioning of carbon and nitrogen in the holoparasite Cuscuta reflexa Roxb. and its host Lupinus albus L. I. Methods for estimating net flows. J Exp Bot 45, 791–800 (1994).
- 30. Li, J. M. Jin, Z. X. & Song, W. J. Do native parasitic plants cause more damage to exotic invasive hosts than native non-invasive hosts? An implication for biocontrol. PLoS ONE 7, e34577. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0034577 (2012).
- 31. Manzoni, S., Taylor, P., Richter, A., Porporato, A. & Ågren, G. I. Environmental and toichiometric controls on microbial carbon-use efficiency in soils. New Phytol 196, 79–91 (2012).
- 32. Darrah, P. R. Rhizodeposition under ambient and elevated $CO₂$ levels. Plant Soil 187, 265–275 (1996).
- 33. van Hees, P. A. W., Jones, D. L., Finlay, R., Godbold, D. L. & Lundström, U. S. The carbon we do not see: The impact of low molecular weight compounds on carbon dynamics and respiration in forest soils—A review. Soil Biol Biochem 37, 1–13 (2005).
- 34. Hutsch, B. W., Augustin, J. & Merbach, W. Plant rhizodeposition an important source for carbon turnover in soils. J Plant Nut Soil Sci 165, 397–407 (2002).
- 35. Bremer, E. & Kuikman, P. Microbial utilization of C-14[U] glucose in soil is affected by the amount and timing of glucose additions. Soil Biol Biochem 16, 511–517 (1994).
- 36. Niu, H. B., Liu, W. X., Wan, F. H. & Liu, B. An invasive aster (Ageratina adenophora) invades and dominates forest understories in China: altered soil microbial communities facilitate the invader and inhibit natives. Plant Soil 294, 73-85 (2007).
- 37. Kourtev, P. S., Ehrenfeld, J. G. & Häggblom, M. Experimental analysis of the effect of exotic and native plant species on the structure and function of soil microbial communities. Soil Biol Biochem 35, 895–905 (2003).
- 38. Batten, K. M., Scow, K. M., Davies, K. F. & Harrison, S. P. Two invasive plants alter soil microbial community composition in serpentine grasslands. Biol Invas 8, 217–230 (2006).
- 39. Hawkes, C. V., Belnap, J., D'Antonio, C. & Firestone, M. K. Arbuscular mycorrhizal assemblages in native plant roots change in the presence of invasive exotic grasses. Plant Soil 281, 369–380 (2006).
- 40. Chapuis-Lardy, L., Vanderhoeven, S., Dassonville, N., Koutika, L. S. & Meerts, P. Effect of the exotic invasive plant Solidago gigantean on soil phosphorus status. Biol Fert Soil 42, 481–489 (2006).
- 41. Ehrenfeld, J. G. Effects of exotic plant invasions on soil nutrient cycling processes. Ecosys 6, 503–523 (2003).
- 42. Li, W. H., Zhang, C. B., Gao, G. J., Zan, Q. J. & Yang, Z. Y. Relationship between Mikania micrantha invasion and soil microbial biomass, respiration and functional diversity. Plant Soil 296, 197–207 (2007).
- 43. Wang, B. S. et al. The invasion ecology and management of alien weed Mikania micrantha H.B.K. (Science Press, Bejing, 2004).
- 44. Bacilio-Jiménez, M., Aguilar-Flores, S. & del Valle, M. V. Endophytic bacteria in rice seeds inhibit early colonization of roots by Azospirillum brasilense. Soil Biol Biochem 33, 167–172 (2001).
- 45. Walkley, A. & Black, I. A. An estimation of the degtjareff method of determining soil organic matter and a proposed modification of the chronic acid titration method. Soil Sci 37, 29–38 (1934).
- 46. Vance, E. D., Brooker, P. C. & Jenkinson, D. S. An extraction method for measuring soil microbial biomass. Soil Biol Biochem 19, 703–707 (1987).
- 47. Wu, J., Joergensen, R. G., Pommerening, B., Chaussod, R. & Brookes, P. C. Measurement of soil microbial biomass C by fumigation-extraction: an automated method. Soil Biol Biochem 22, 1167-1169 (1990).
- 48. Streit, K. et al. Soil warming alters microbial substrate use in alpine soils. Global Change Biol 20, 1327–1338 (2014).
- 49. Sarathchandra, S. & Perrot, K. Assay of β -glucosidase activity in soils. Soil Sci 138, 15–19 (1984).
- 50. Zornoza, R. et al. Assessing air-drying and rewetting pre-treatment effect on soil soil enzyme activities under Mediterranean conditions. Soil Biol Biochem 38, 2125–2134 (2006).
- 51. Liu, B., Gumpertz, M. L., Hu, S. J. & Ristaino, J. B. Long-term effects of organic and synthetic soil fertility amendments on soil microbial communities and the development of southern blight. Soil Biol Biochem 39, 2302-2316 (2007).
- 52. Garland, J. L. & Mills, A. L. Classification and characterization of heterotrophic microbial communities on the basis of patterns of community-level soil-carbonsource utilization. Appl Environ Microbiol 57, 2351–2359 (1991).
- 53. van Heerden, J., Korf, C., Ehlers, M. M. & Cloete, T. E. Biolog for the determination of diversity in microbial communities. Water SA 28, 29–36 (2002).
- 54. Strandberg, B., Kristiansen, S. M. & Tybirk, K. Dynamic oak-scrub to forest succession: effects of management on understorey vegetation, humus forms and soils. For Ecol Manag 211, 318–328 (2005).
- 55. McCune, B. & Mefford, M. J. PC-ORD. Multivariate analysis of ecological data, Version 2.0. (MjM Software Design, Oregon, USA, 1995).

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 30800133, 31270461), China Postdoctoral Science Foundation (No. 20080440557) and Zhejiang Provincial Natural Science Foundation (No. 5110227).

Author contributions

L.J. and J.Z. designed and completed the experiment. L.J., F.H. and L.M. wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

Additional information

Competing financial interests: The authors declare no competing financial interests.

How to cite this article: Li, J.-M., Jin, Z.-X., Hagedorn, F. & Li, M.-H. Short-term parasite-infection alters already the biomass, activity and functional diversity of soil microbial communities. Sci. Rep. 4, 6895; DOI:10.1038/srep06895 (2014).

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs 4.0 International License. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in the credit line; if the material is not included under the Creative Commons license, users will need to obtain permission from the license holder in order to reproduce the material. To view a copy of this license, visit [http://](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/) creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/