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# Response of invasive weed *Mikania micrantha* to insect feeding

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## Abstract

As an invasive plant, *Mikania micrantha* has lost the natural enemy of the country of origin in its invasion, but it will face the feeding of omnivorous insects. In order to explore the anti-insect-feeding defense strategy, *M. micrantha* with insect-feeding (IF) and non-insect-feeding (NIF) were selected as research materials. Results showed that contents of the defense substances were significantly higher in IF. However, net photosynthetic rate of IF leaves was significantly lower. As nutrient, the contents of sugar and protein were significantly lower in IF. Furthermore, the content of signal matter with indirect defense also increased significantly in IF. In addition, the expression of *FLOWERING LOCUS T* gene was up-regulated significantly in the IF *M. micrantha*, and it showed early flowering. Our results indicated that under insects feeding stress, *M. micrantha* can synthesize direct and indirect defense materials, and adopt the response strategy of early flowering.

Keywords: biological invasion; defensive capability; herbivorous insects; photosynthesis

## **1** Introduction

For the mechanism of the successful invasion of foreign plants, a number of studies have been carried out by national scientists, and many theories or hypotheses have been put forward [1], and enemy release hypothesis is one of them. The hypothesis is that some foreign plants can develop as invasive plants because of they get rid of the natural enemy that can be co-evolved with their origin [2]. Since invasive plants have lost their natural enemies of origin, resources can be re-allocated between defence and growth, and more resources are used to grow, resulting in invasive plants exhibiting excellent competitiveness in the genotype [3]. However, the invasive plants have lost their natural enemies in the invasion, but they will be threatened by the omnivorous natural enemy [4]. As a result, invasive plants also need some defensive strategies to deal with the damage of the omnivorous insects.

The insect resistance of plants can be divided into constituent type and induced type [5]. Constituent insect resistance defense response refers to plants blocking insect feeding or pathogen infection through their own inherent characteristics, such as plant thorns, epidermis fur and so on. Induced insect resistance defense response refers to the change of defense genes or characteristics after plants are damaged by insect, which makes it difficult for insects to eat further. Plant induced insect resistance defense response can also be divided into direct defense and indirect defense. Direct defense refers to the direct action of defense substances produced by physiological changes on phytophagous insects, resulting in their death or hindering their growth and development [6]. Toxic secondary chemicals mainly include alkaloids, flavonoids, lignin, tannins, non-protein amino acids and plant juvenile hormones, which can directly kill insects or affect the normal growth, development, feeding and reproduction of insects [7]. Plant induced insect resistance is an important aspect of plant resistance to phytophagous insects. The induced insecticidal response of plants begins with the recognition of phytophagous insects specific elicitors or other phytophagous insects related model molecules. After recognition, several signaling pathways, such as salicylic acid (SA), jasmonic acid (JA), hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) and ethylene (ETH), plant mitogen-activated protein kinase are activated. It leads to the increase of defense gene expression, the accumulation of defense compounds and the increase of volatile matter release, and finally makes plants show insect resistance [5, 8].

*Mikania micrantha* H. B. K., belonging to the *Asteraceae* family, is a fast-growing perennial creeping vine indigenous to Central and South America. At present, *M. micrantha* was listed as one of the 100 most harmful invasive plants [9]. The rapid spread of *M. micrantha* has

caused great damage to ecological balance, forestry and agriculture in invaded areas [10]. *M. micrantha* formed some strategies to adapt to the environment in its invasion [11]. However, in the field, many *M. micrantha* plants were eaten by insect. This study aimed to elucidate the defensive strategies of *M. micrantha* for insect feeding.

## 2 Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Plant materials

In August, *M. micrantha* materials in this experiment were planted in the biological garden of South China Normal University, Guangzhou, China. In October, insect-feeding (IF) *M. micrantha* and non-insect-feeding (NIF) *M. micrantha* in the field were used as the research materials.

## 2.2 Total phenols determination

Method described by Ainsworth et al. [12] was used to determine the total phenols. 0.05 g fresh sample of *M. micrantha* was weighed in 1 mL of 95% Methanol and extracted for 24 h at 4°C. The 0.5 mL sample was mixed with 1 mL of 10% Folin-Ciocalteu and 2 mL 0.7 M Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. The absorbance was measured at 765 nm by *UV-2450* spectrophotometer (*Shimadzu*, Tokyo, Japan). The standard curves were made with the different concentration of Gallic acid.

#### 2.3 Flavonoids determination

Method described by Zhang et al. [11] was used to determine the flavonoids. 0.05 g fresh sample of *M. micrantha* was weighed in 1 mL of 95% Methanol and extracted for 24 h at 4°C. The 0.15 mL sample was mixed with 1.85 mL purified water, 0.2 mL 5% NaNO<sub>2</sub>, 0.3 mL 10% AlCl<sub>3</sub> and 1 mL 1 M NaOH. The absorbance was measured at 510 nm by *UV-2450* spectrophotometer (*Shimadzu*, Tokyo, Japan). The standard curves were made with the different concentration of Catechin.

## 2.4 Total antioxidant capacity determination

The determination of the total antioxidant capacity (TAC) was according to the method described by Saha et al. [13]. 0.05 g fresh sample of *M. micrantha* was weighed in 1 mL of

95% Methanol and extracted for 24 h at 4°C. The 0.1 mL sample was mixed with 2.9 mL 120 mM 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH). The absorbance was measured at 517 nm by *UV-2450* spectrophotometer (*Shimadzu*, Tokyo, Japan). The standard curves were made with the different concentration of DPPH.

## 2.5 Tannin determination

0.05 g fresh sample of *M. micrantha* was weighed in 5 mL of 70% Methanol and extracted for 24 h at 25°C. The 0.5 mL sample was mixed with 3 mL 4% Vanillin (4 g Vanillin dissolved in 100 mL Methanol), and 1.5 mL HCl and then bathed without light at 20°C for 20 min. The absorbance was measured at 510 nm by *UV-2450* spectrophotometer (*Shimadzu*, Tokyo, Japan). The standard curves were made with the different concentration of Catechin.

## 2.6 Salicylic acid, jasmonic acid, ethylene and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> determination

Fresh stems of *M. micrantha* (0.1 g) were weighed and ground with 0.5 mL PBS (50 mM pH = 7.3) on ice and placed at 4°C for 2 h. The grinding solution was centrifuged at 4°C for 20 min at 5,000 × g, and the supernatant was used to detect the contents of SA, JA, ETH and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> using plant ELISA Kit (*Zike*, Shenzhen, China).

#### 2.7 Soluble sugar determination

The leaves and stems of *M. micrantha* were washed with purified water, dried at 70°C after 105°C for 20 min, sieved by 40 mesh sieve after grinded. The sample was extracted in a centrifugal tube containing 10 mL of distilled water, bathed in water at 80°C for 90 min, 0.04 g activated carbon was added, decolorized at 80°C for 30 min, and the filtered filtrate was used for the next experiment. The 1 mL sample was mixed with 10 mL 0.15% Anthrone-Sulfuric acid (0.15 g Anthrone dissolved in 100 mL 70% Sulfuric acid), and then bathed in water at 90°C for 15 min. The absorbance was measured at 620 nm by *UV-2450* spectrophotometer (*Shimadzu*, Tokyo, Japan). The standard curves were made with the different concentration of glucose.

#### 2.8 Gene expression analysis

TRIzol reagent (*Invitrogen*, California, MA, USA) was used to extract the total RNA by the steps on its manufacturer's instructions. Complementary DNA was synthesized using TopScript<sup>TM</sup> RT DryMIX (dT18) (*Enzynomic*, Daejeon, Korea) by the steps on the manufacturer's instructions. The relative expression of *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*FT*) gene was detected by *Bio-Rad CFX96 Real-Time PCR System* (*CFX96, Bio-Rad*, California, USA) using a SYBR Premix Ex Taq<sup>TM</sup> II Kit (*Takara*, Tokyo, Japan). *Actin* was used as a reference gene; the primer pairs for which were 5'-TGAAATACCCCATTGAGCATGG-3' (forward) and 5'-GAATCCAGTACAATACCTGTGGTAG-3' (reverse). The primers for *FT* gene were as follows: 5'-TGTCGCATAGGGAGAGGGAT-3' (forward) and 5'-TTAGCATGCATCCGTTGGCA-3' (reverse). The relative gene expression was calculated by the 2- $\Delta\Delta$ CT method [14].

#### 2.9 Microscopic observation of stem

Stems of *M. micrantha* were fixed by the solution contained 2.5% glutaraldehyde and 2% polyformaldehyde) at 4°C for 12 h. Stems were stepwise dehydrated with different concentrations of alcohol (30–100%). Then, the critical-point-dried (using CO<sub>2</sub>) stems were sprayed with 30 nm gold. The phenotypic characteristics of the stems were observed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (*Q25*, *FEI*, Oregon, USA).

#### 2.10 Soluble protein and Rubisco determination

Soluble protein and Rubisco was determined according to Zhang et al. [15]. 0.1 g Fresh leaves were homogenized in 2 mL of grinding medium composed of 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.8) buffer, and the homogenate was centrifuged at  $13,000 \times g$  for 10 min. Supernatant (50 µL) was added to an equal volume of sample buffer sample buffer (pH 7.6), and then incubated in boiling water for 5 min. The samples (15 µL) were loaded onto gels containing 12.5% (w/v) resolving polyacrylamide gel and 4% (w/v) stacking polyacrylamide gel. Gel staining with *Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250* (*Sigma*, USA) was followed by destaining overnight with gentle shaking to make sure that its background turned colorless. The molecular mass of the Rubisco large (RL) and small subunit (RS) is 55 and 15 kDa, respectively. The SDS-PAGE gel was scanned using the *GelDoc-It Imaging System* (*UVP*, Upland, CA, USA).

The supernatant was collected and diluted for 50 times. Then 250  $\mu$ L of diluted supernatant was added into the same volume of Bradford solution. After 5 min, the absorbance was read at 595 nm by *UV-2450* spectrophotometer (*Shimadzu*, Tokyo, Japan). The standard curves were made with the different concentration of bovine serum albumin.

## 2.11 Measurement of Chl content

0.1g of fresh material was extracted in 10 mL of 80% acetone at 4°C for 24 h. Determination of the absorbance value of the extract at 663 and 645nm by *UV-2450* spectrophotometer (*Shimadzu*, Tokyo, Japan). The Chl content was calculated according to the methods described by Wellburn [16].

## 2.12 Measurement of gas exchange parameters

The portable measuring instrument *LI-6800 (LI-COR, Inc.*, USA) were used to measure the gas-exchange parameters of leaves in the morning (90:00–11:00) under synthetic PAR of 1,000  $\mu$ mol(photon) m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> with the ratio of red and blue light was set at 9:1. Parameters were recorded when the values were relatively stable.

## 2.13 Maximum photochemical efficiency determination

The Chl fluorescence imaging system (*Technologica*, UK) was used to measure fluorescence. The minimum fluorescence (F<sub>0</sub>) and the maximum fluorescence (F<sub>m</sub>) of the leaves were measured using a 6,000 µmol(photon) m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> saturating pulse after tue leaves were placed in the dark for 30 min. The maximum photochemical efficiency ( $F_v/F_m$ ) of PSII was calculated as  $F_v/F_m = (F_m - F_0)/F_m$  [17].

#### 2.14 Data analysis

The data were analysed using the software of *SPSS Statistics 19.0 (IBM*, New York, NY, USA) by Student's *t*-test or Duncan's *post hoc* test at significance level p < 0.05. The data were plotted using the software of *SigmaPlot 12.5 (Systat Software Inc.*, Richmond, USA). The data were shown as the means  $\pm$  standard errors (SE).

# **3 Results**

### 3.1 Morphology characteristics of M. micrantha

The phenotype of *M. micrantha* showed that under the pressure of insect feeding, the leaves of *M. micrantha* curl, the stem is thick and short, and flowered early (Fig. 1*A*). The transverse section of *M. micrantha* stem was observed by scanning electron microscope (Fig. 1*B*), the results were consistent with the statistical results. Insect feeding significantly increased the stem diameter of *M. micrantha* (Fig.1*C*).



Figure 1: The morphology characteristics of *Mikania micrantha*. Morphology characteristics of non-insect-feeding and insect-feeding *M. micrantha* (*A*). The picture of scanning electron microscope on stems (*B*) and stem diameter of *M. micrantha* (*C*) (n = 8). NIFS: non-insect-feeding stem. IFS: insect-feeding stem. Data are presented as the means  $\pm$  SE (n = 8). Asterisks indicate different significant differences (\*\*\* p<0.001) according to two-sided Student's *t*-tests.

#### 3.2 Direct defense substance

The content of total phenols, flavonoids and tannins in the *M. micrantha* increased significantly under insect feeding (Fig. 2A,B,C). The TAC of plants can be improved by antioxidants such as flavonoids and phenols. Results showed that TAC was significantly higher in the *M. micrantha* fed by insects (Fig. 2*D*). Sugar can be used as a source of nutrients and energy for insects, and the content of sugar decreased significantly when insects fed on it

(Fig. 2*E*).



Figure 2: The direct defense substance of *Mikania micrantha*. Contents of total phenols (*A*), flavonoids (*B*), tannins (*C*) and soluble sugar (*E*), soluble protein (*F*), and total antioxidant capacity (TAC, *D*) in the leaves and stems of insect-feeding and non-insect-feeding *M. micrantha* (n = 5). NIFL: non-insect-feeding leaf. NIFS: non-insect-feeding stem. IFL: insect-feeding leaf. IFS: insect-feeding stem. Data are presented as the means  $\pm$  SE (n = 5). Different letters on the bar designate statistically reliable differences of the means at p < 0.05.

### 3.3 Signal defense substances

In order to cause defense function in other parts, plants will produce signal materials to transmit information after being eaten. The results showed that the contents of SA, JA, ETH and  $H_2O_2$  in the *M. micrantha* fed by insects increased significantly (Fig. 3*A*,*B*,*C*,*D*). SA, JA, ETH and  $H_2O_2$  are involved in senescence and flowering regulation, which can promote the flowering of plants. The relative expression of *FT* gene in *M. micrantha* fed by insects is significantly higher (Fig. 3*E*), which is consistent with the flowering phenotype of *M. micrantha* in Fig. 1.



Figure 3: The signal defense substance of *Mikania micrantha*. Contents of salicylic acid (*A*), jasmonate (*B*), ethylene (*C*) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (*D*), and relative expression of *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*FT*) gene (*E*) in the leaves and stems of insect-feeding and non-insect-feeding *M. micrantha* (n = 5). NIFL: non-insect-feeding leaf. NIFS: non-insect-feeding stem. IFL: insect-feeding leaf. IFS: insect-feeding stem. Data are presented as the means  $\pm$  SE (n = 5). Different letters on the bar designate statistically reliable differences of the means at p<0.05. Asterisks indicate different significant differences (\*\*\*

*p*<0.001) according to two-sided Student's *t*-tests.

## 3.4 Photosynthetic capacity

Photosynthesis is the basis of higher plant growth. Under insect feeding stress, the contents of Rubisco and Chl related to photosynthesis in the leaves of *M. micrantha* decreased (Fig. 4*A*,*B*), resulting in a significant decrease in the net photosynthetic rate ( $P_N$ ) (Fig. 4*D*). The change trend of stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) and transpiration rate (*E*) was the same as that of  $P_N$ , and it decreased significantly under insect feeding (Fig. 4*E*,*F*). However, the content of intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> concentration ( $C_i$ ) in the leaves of *M. micrantha* increased significantly, which was fed by insects (Fig. 4*G*). The F<sub>v</sub>/F<sub>m</sub> of the leaves also decreased significantly under insect feeding (Fig. 4*C*).



Figure 4: The Photosynthetic capacity of *Mikania micrantha* leaves. Rubisco large (RL) and small subunit (RS) of *M. micrantha* leaves (*A*). The content of chlorophyll (Chl) in *Mikania micrantha* leaves (*B*). The maximum photochemical efficiency  $(F_v/F_m)$  of *M. micrantha* leaves (*C*). Gas exchange parameters of *M. micrantha* leaves, including the net photosynthetic rate ( $P_N$ , *D*), stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ , *E*), transpiration rate (*E*, *F*), and intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> concentration ( $C_i$ , *G*) (n = 6). NIFL: non-insect-feeding leaf. NIFS: non-insect-feeding stem. IFL: insect-feeding leaf. IFS: insect-feeding stem. Data are presented as the means  $\pm$  SE (n = 6). Asterisks indicate different significant differences (\* p < 0.05, \*\* p < 0.01) according to two-sided Student's *t*-tests.

## **4** Discussion

Under insect feeding, the leaves of *M. micrantha* appear curly, and the stems become thicker and shorter. The content of toxic secondary chemicals in leaves and stems increased, while the content of soluble sugar decreased. M. micrantha is a native plant of Central and South America. Although getting rid of the natural enemies of the original place, it will face the feeding threat of the omnivorous insects in the invasion region. Under the pressure of insect feeding, the leaves of plants will appear deformity, which has been reported in the study of tea plants [18]. The results of this study show that the leaves of *M. micrantha* fed by insects also appear curly and the stems become thick (Fig. 1). In order to prevent insects from further feeding, the content of total phenols, flavonoids and tannins in leaves and stems increased significantly, and the contents of soluble sugar and protein, as the nutrition and direct energy source of insects, decreased significantly (Fig. 2). Phenolic compounds are important disease and insect resistant substances, mainly in the form of flavonoids and tannins. The content of phenolic compounds in plants can be used as indicators of chemical defense. After insect feeding, the total phenols content in plants will increase significantly, which will affect the development of insects [7]. Flavonoid can affect the growth and development of insect by inhibiting the beneficial bacteria in insect intestines. Tannins can lead to damage of midgut cells and loss of regeneration ability in insects, and have significant defensive effects on aphids, red spiders and whitefly. In the study on Betula platyphylla and B. ermanii, it was found that higher tannins and phenolic compounds were beneficial to avoid being eaten by insects [19].

Under the stimulation of insect feeding, the content of signal chemicals in leaves and stems increased. In the process of preventing insect feeding, in addition to the above toxic secondary metabolites will directly act on insects, SA, JA, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and ETH can indirectly play a defensive role [20]. They can be used as signaling substances to cause toxic secondary metabolites in other parts of the plant, forming systematic defense. It was discovered that herbivorous insects can activate the JA pathway [21]. In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, the expression of the genes related to JA was up-regulated and the content of JA increased significantly under the stimulation of insects. Our result showed that content of JA was significantly higher in the leaves and stems of insect-feeding *M. micrantha* (Fig. 3), which was consistent with the results in the research on tomato plants [22]. Previous study showed that insect sensitivity to ETH mediated defense in rice [23]. Resistance of SA synthetic gene deficient *sid2-1* mutants *Arabidopsis* to chewing herbivores weakened [24]. The contents of ETH and SA in the *M. micrantha* were

significantly increased under the feeding of insects (Fig. 3).  $H_2O_2$  is an essential part of plant stress responses and it was implicated in herbivory-induced responses. Previous studies have shown that wounding alone is not caused by plants to produce a large number of  $H_2O_2$ , but insect does [25]. Our results were consistent with previous studies, and the content of  $H_2O_2$  in the *M. micrantha* fed by insects is significantly higher (Fig. 3). Similar results have been reported in tomatoes [26].

Under insect feeding, M. micrantha showed early flowering. The results showed that the contents of ETH, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> SA and JA were significantly higher in insect-feeding *M. micrantha*. ETH and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as signal molecule can stimulate expression of senescence genes and regulate plant senescence [27,28]. In the study on rice, it was found that the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content in the leaves of early flowering line was significantly higher than that of wild-type, and it showed the phenotype of early flowering and senescence [15,29]. Changing the expression of ETH receptor ETR2 can change the flowering time of rice [27]. Exogenous application of JA did not lead to early senescence of JA insensitive mutants, but accelerated the senescence of wild-type Arabidopsis [30]. In the process of plant leaves senescence, the contents of Rubisco and Chl, and the  $P_N$  will gradually decrease [15]. Previous study have shown that overexpression of the FT gene can promote early flowering in plants [31]. In sunflower, SA can induce the expression of FT gene and promote its early flowering [32,33]. The results showed that *M. micrantha*, which was fed by insects, had early flowering, and the expression of FT gene was significantly higher than that of the non-insect-feeding M. micrantha (Fig. 3). Flowering is an important life history character of plant development and offspring reproduction, which is controlled by internal and external factors [34]. When plants encounter adverse environment, they will show the phenomenon of early flowering, which is considered as a kind of stress response, and they will flower and bear fruit as soon as possible [35,36]. The early flowering of *M. micrantha* in this study may be a response to the stress of insect feeding.

# **5** Conclusion

In its invasion regions, under the stress of insect feeding, *M. micrantha* increased the direct defense of the formation of toxic secondary metabolites, and also increased the content of indirect defense substances of signaling class to form a systematic defense. Furthermore, under the biological stress of insect feeding, *M. micrantha* adopted the strategy of early

flowering and fruiting to accelerate the completion of the reproduction process of offspring, so as to reduce the adverse effects of biological stress.

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