

1 **Impact of a native hemiparasite and mowing on performance of a major invasive weed,**  
2 **European blackberry**

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7 **Abstract**

8 1. Plant invasions are a major global threat to biodiversity. Traditional methods of weed  
9 control are falling short, and novel and environmentally friendly control tools are needed.  
10 Native parasitic plants are showing promise as effective biocontrols for some of the worst  
11 weeds, however, their application is in its infancy.

12 2. First, we established the native parasitic plant, *Cassytha pubescens* on unmown invasive  
13 European blackberry (*Rubus anglocandicans*), at three field sites (Belair, Horsnell and  
14 Blackwood) in South Australia to measure the impact of infection host performance.  
15 Concurrently, we established the parasite on hosts that were mown at two of these sites  
16 (Horsnell and Blackwood), to determine the impact of mowing, a commonly used control  
17 method, in conjunction with infection by *C. pubescens*.

18 3. Fruit production, midday quantum yield and electron transport rates of infected *R.*  
19 *anglocandicans* were significantly lower than uninfected plants at only one site, Blackwood.  
20 Predawn quantum yield, and foliar nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations of infected plants  
21 were significantly lower than uninfected ones across all three sites. Stomatal conductance  
22 was negatively affected by infection at one site (Belair). Mowing enhanced parasite impact  
23 on host nitrogen concentration at one site (Horsnell), and infection negatively affected host  
24 stomatal conductance at the same site, irrespective of whether plants were mown or not.

25 4. We have demonstrated that this native biocontrol can be artificially established on invasive  
26 European blackberry in the field, with negative consequences for its performance. Our results  
27 demonstrate the feasibility of implementing native parasitic plants as weed biocontrols to  
28 protect biodiversity, and are aligned with the Biotic Resistance hypothesis that invasive  
29 species are susceptible and sensitive to enemies native to their newly invaded habitat.

30 **KEYWORDS** biocontrol, biological agent, chlorophyll fluorescence, parasitic plants, plant  
31 invasions, *Rubus*, weed management

## 32 **1 INTRODUCTION**

33 Invasive plants impact ecosystem quality and displace native flora and fauna, decreasing  
34 biodiversity. They also affect water reserves and food production, and promote further  
35 invasions (Vilà et al., 2019). Once established, measures of control can be costly, difficult to  
36 apply and vary in efficacy (Culliney, 2005; Diagne et al., 2021). Biocontrol is generally the  
37 most cost-effective and environmentally sound control method, and is particularly useful for  
38 large infestations and sensitive or difficult to access areas (Culliney, 2005). Biocontrols  
39 include natural enemies introduced from the invasive species' native range, or new enemies  
40 native to the invaded habitat. Within the framework of invasion theory, two hypotheses  
41 describe these different biocontrol mechanisms. The enemy release hypothesis postulates that  
42 invasive species are successful because they are released from their native enemies (i.e.  
43 classical biocontrol) (Parker et al., 2006). The biotic resistance hypothesis states that invasive  
44 species are stifled by encounters with new enemies (i.e. native biocontrol) native to their  
45 newly invaded range (Parker et al., 2006). Classical and native biocontrol can both be  
46 effective weed management tools (Parker et al., 2006; Clewley et al., 2012), however, native  
47 biocontrol is preferred because it usually involves less risk (Verhoeven et al., 2009).

48 Evidence suggests that native parasitic plants have potential as biocontrol for some of the  
49 world's worst weeds (Těšitel et al., 2020). For example, in Australia, the native hemiparasitic  
50 vine *Cassytha pubescens* generally has a strong negative impact on *Ulex europaeus*, one of  
51 the world's 100 worst invasive species (Lowe et al., 2000), and *Cytisus scoparius*, than on  
52 native hosts studied (Prider et al., 2009; Cirocco et al. 2016a, 2017; but see Cirocco et al.  
53 2021a). To our knowledge, no studies have explored the deliberate application of native  
54 parasites in controlling invasive weeds.

55 Here we report results from field trials investigating the impact of *C. pubescens* on *Rubus*  
56 *anglocandicans* (the most prevalent species in the *R. fruticosus* agg. in Australia; Evans &  
57 Weber, 2003). First, we investigated the impact of *C. pubescens* on the performance of *R.*  
58 *anglocandicans* across three sites. We predicted that *C. pubescens* would negatively affect  
59 this major invasive weed as has been reported for other invasive hosts (Prider et al., 2009;  
60 Shen et al., 2010; Prider et al., 2011; Cirocco et al., 2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018, 2020, 2021b).  
61 Secondly, we also investigated the impact of mowing, on the *C. pubescens*-*R.*

62 *anglocandicans* association. Mowing is a frequently used control for *R. fruticosus* agg., also  
63 promoting new shoot growth that is prone to rust infection (Amor et al., 1998), and thus, may  
64 make this invasive host more sensitive to *C. pubescens*. To quantify parasite performance and  
65 impact on the invasive host, we measured a number of plant traits shown to be affected by *C.*  
66 *pubescens* in other studies, including: light-use efficiency (predawn and midday quantum  
67 yield) and electron transport rates (proxy for photosynthesis), which may decline in the host  
68 as a result of infection; stomatal conductance, a key indicator of host water stress; stable  
69 carbon isotope composition, as long-term indicator of water use efficiency, and nutrient-  
70 status which can be adversely affected by parasite removal of resources.

## 71 **2 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 72 **2.1 Study species**

73 *Rubus anglocandicans* A. Newton is a perennial shrub (2–3 m in height) with biennial canes  
74 armed with prickles (Amor et al., 1998). It is a major invasive weed in many parts of the  
75 world and one of the worst weeds in Australia (Parsons & Cuthbertson, 2001). It is difficult  
76 to control with conventional methods and has few biocontrol options available (Amor et al.,  
77 1998).

78 *Cassytha pubescens* R. Br. (Lauraceae) is an Australian native perennial, hemiparasitic vine  
79 (Kokubugata et al., 2012). Its stems (0.5–1.5 mm in diameter) coil around and attach to host  
80 stems with multiple haustoria (McLuckie, 1924). Being a vine with indeterminate growth, it  
81 can infect multiple individuals at any one time and is a generalist parasite commonly  
82 infecting perennial shrubby hosts (McLuckie, 1924). *C. pubescens* is known to infect *R.*  
83 *anglocandicans* in the Mt Lofty Ranges of South Australia (pers. obs.).

### 84 **2.2 Study sites and design**

85 Two separate field experiments were conducted in the Mt Lofty Ranges, South Australia. At  
86 all field sites, the major invasive host, *R. anglocandicans* was already naturally occurring in  
87 dense stands, approximately 1–2 m tall. First, we established *C. pubescens* on *R.*  
88 *anglocandicans* at three sites. Belair National Park (35°01'97"S, 138°66'61"E), and Horsnell  
89 Gully Conservation Park (34°93'29"S, 138°70'26"E), are located within Eucalypt dominated  
90 woodland with sclerophyllous understorey. The third site, Blackwood Forest Recreation Park  
91 (35°02'88"S, 138°63'15"E), is situated in a *Pinus radiata* plantation. We quantified  
92 environmental conditions (light, air temperature and relative humidity) for these sites when

93 physiological measurements were made (Supporting Information Figs S1-S4). Secondly, we  
94 also established *C. pubescens* on mown *R. anglocandicans* at Horsnell and Blackwood, but in  
95 separate locations from the first experiment. At each site, two 3m × 3m plots were mown (to  
96 around 50 cm in height), one plot was left as a control (i.e. uninfected) and in the second we  
97 introduced the parasite. This experiment compared uninfected and infected canes in unmown  
98 and mown areas at both sites.

99 The parasite was introduced using the ‘donor plant’ technique (Shen et al., 2010). Briefly,  
100 pots containing infected hosts (‘donor plants’) were placed adjacent to *R. anglocandicans*  
101 and, over time, attached to host canes and leaf petioles. This was a challenging process  
102 because we had to identify sites that were accessible, obtain permission to run the  
103 experiments on these sites, have sufficient donor plants, and deploy them effectively amongst  
104 dense patches of extremely prickly host plants. We also needed to visit sites at least twice a  
105 week to maintain and water donor plants (and to also remove their flowers) to keep them  
106 alive long enough for the parasite to establish on the target hosts. The infection process was  
107 initiated late June-early July 2018, and the parasite was established on *R. anglocandicans* by  
108 Dec 2018 (i.e. treatment imposed), thus, ‘donor plants’ had to be maintained and watered for  
109 at least five months. We considered a single cane as a replicate, as the impact of *C. pubescens*  
110 is localised to infected *R. anglocandicans* canes (McDowell, 2002). Measurements were  
111 made on host canes either without (uninfected cane) or with the parasite (infected cane), in  
112 January–February 2019 (data not shown), and in March–April 2019. Replicate number is  
113 shown in figure captions.

### 114 **2.3 Fruit and prickle production**

115 Fruit (per cane) and prickles (from cane tip to 30cm below) were counted on uninfected and  
116 infected canes of *R. anglocandicans* 63 days after treatment (DAT; i.e. parasite  
117 establishment).

### 118 **2.4 Chlorophyll fluorescence, stomatal conductance, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and foliar nutrients**

119 Host and parasite predawn ( $F_v/F_m$ ) and midday quantum yields ( $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$ ) and electron transport  
120 rates (ETR) were measured 117–124 DAT, with a portable, chlorophyll fluorometer (MINI-  
121 PAM and 2030–B leaf clip, Walz, Effeltrich, Germany).  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$  and midday ETR measurements  
122 were made on sunny or mostly sunny days (13:00-15:45), under natural light, or if light was  
123 low, using the internal light from the MINI-PAM (Supporting Information Figs S1–S2).  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$

124 and ETR measurements are sensitive to light, so we ensured light levels were similar for all  
125 measurements: mean PPFD ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) was  $1554 \pm 8$  ( $n = 134$ ).

126 Host stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) was measured 125–132 DAT, with a porometer (SC-1,  
127 Decagon Devices, Inc. Washington). Despite clear days, plants at the sites were exposed to  
128 sunlight at different times of the day due to inherent site differences in elevation, aspect and  
129 canopy cover in combination with the lower sun angle at this time of year (Autumn, southern  
130 hemisphere). Nevertheless, plants were only measured after they had been exposed to full  
131 sunlight for at least 30 min and to account for these differences in timing of measurements,  $g_s$   
132 was compared within site (Supporting Information Figs S3–S4).

133 A single leaf from uninfected and infected canes was collected 125–132 DAT, oven-dried at  
134  $60^\circ\text{C}$  for 7 days, then finely ground for the following analyses. Foliar carbon isotope  
135 composition ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and nitrogen concentration [N] of *R. anglocandicans* were quantified by  
136 mass spectrometer (IsoPrime, GV Instruments, Manchester, UK) and elemental analyser  
137 (Elementar Isotope CUBE, Elementar Analysensysteme, Hanau, Germany). Foliar  
138 concentrations of phosphorus [P], sodium [Na] and iron [Fe] were determined using  
139 inductively coupled plasma spectroscopy (Cuming Smith British Petroleum Soil and Plant  
140 Laboratory, Western Australia).

## 141 **2.5 Statistical analyses**

142 For the first experiment we examined the interactive effects of infection and site on  
143 performance of unmown *R. anglocandicans* using two-way ANOVA and the main effect of  
144 site on performance of *C. pubescens* with one-way ANOVA. For the second experiment we  
145 examined the interactive effects of infection, site and mowing on performance of *R.*  
146 *anglocandicans* using three-way ANOVA and site and mowing effects on parasite  
147 performance of *C. pubescens* with two-way ANOVA. In all analyses, we have included sites  
148 as a fixed (not random) factor, because as pointed out earlier, we were limited in the number  
149 of donor plants/sites available. Thus, we emphasise that the results pertain to these sites and  
150 inferences beyond our experimental conditions should be made with caution. Nevertheless,  
151 sites/mown plots were replicated, hence avoiding pseudoreplication and ensuring robust  
152 results. Significant interactions were subjected to Tukey HSD. When interactions were not  
153 detected, main effects of infection, site, or mowing were considered valid. As mentioned, to  
154 account for light differences among sites when conducting host  $g_s$  measurements, we,  
155 examined the effect of infection, and infection and mowing within sites for the first and

156 second experiments, respectively. Model assumptions were met, in some cases after  
157 transformation where stated, data were analysed using R (R Development Core Team, 2016)  
158 and  $\alpha = 0.05$  (Type I error rate).

### 159 **3 RESULTS**

#### 160 **3.1 Fruit and prickles of *R. anglocandicans***

161 There was a significant infection  $\times$  site interaction for fruit production of *R. anglocandicans*  
162 (Table 1). At Blackwood, infected canes had 55% fewer fruit than uninfected ones, while  
163 infection did not significantly affect fruit production at the other two sites (Figure 1a). There  
164 were main effects of infection and site for number of prickles on *R. anglocandicans* (Table 1;  
165 no interaction: Supporting Information Figure S5a). There were 13% fewer prickles on  
166 infected canes relative to uninfected ones (Figure S5b) and prickle number was significantly  
167 higher at Blackwood relative to the other two sites (Figure S5c).

168 For the mowing experiment, as virtually no fruit was produced in the mown area at  
169 Blackwood, we only report on fruit and prickle production at Horsnell. No significant  
170 infection  $\times$  mowing effect ( $F_{1,24} = 0.444$ ,  $p = 0.512$ ) or main effect of infection ( $F_{1,24} = 2.06$ ,  
171  $p = 0.164$ ) or mowing ( $F_{1,24} = 0.381$ ,  $p = 0.543$ ) were found for host fruit production at  
172 Horsnell (Figure 2a). There was a significant infection  $\times$  mowing effect for prickle number  
173 ( $F_{1,24} = 4.68$ ,  $p = 0.041$ ). Number of prickles on infected plants was 20% lower than that of  
174 uninfected plants in the unmown area while infection had no effect on this variable in the  
175 mown plots (Supporting Information Figure S6a).

#### 176 **3.2 Host and parasite photosynthetic performance**

177 There was a main effect of infection on  $F_v/F_m$  of *R. anglocandicans* (Table 1; no interaction:  
178 Figure 1b).  $F_v/F_m$  of infected plants was 4% lower than that of uninfected plants (Figure 1c).  
179 A significant infection  $\times$  site interaction was found for  $\Phi_{PSII}$  and ETR (Table 1). At  
180 Blackwood,  $\Phi_{PSII}$  and ETR of infected plants were 60% and 55% lower than uninfected  
181 plants, respectively, while infection did not affect these variables at the other two sites  
182 (Figure 1d,e).

183  $F_v/F_m$  of *C. pubescens* was significantly lower at Horsnell relative to Belair and intermediate  
184 at Blackwood ( $p = 0.020$ ; Figure 3a; Table S3). Parasite  $\Phi_{PSII}$  ( $p = 0.003$ ) and ETR ( $p =$   
185  $0.0008$ ) were significantly higher at Horsnell than at the other two sites (Figure 3b,c; Table  
186 S3).

187 For the mowing experiment, there was a main effect of infection on  $F_v/F_m$  of *R.*  
188 *anglocandicans* (Table 2; no three-way interaction: Figure 2b).  $F_v/F_m$  of infected plants was  
189 3% lower than that of uninfected ones (Figure 2c). There was also a main effect of site on this  
190 variable;  $F_v/F_m$  of *R. anglocandicans* was 3% higher at Horsnell relative to that at Blackwood  
191 (Supporting Information Figure S6b). An infection  $\times$  site interaction was found for  $\Phi_{PSII}$  and  
192 ETR of *R. anglocandicans* (Table 2; no three-way interaction: Figure 2d,f.). At Blackwood,  
193  $\Phi_{PSII}$  and ETR of infected plants were, respectively, 52% and 55% lower than uninfected  
194 plants, whereas infection had no effect on this variable at Horsnell (Figure 2e,g). A site  $\times$   
195 mowing interaction was found for host ETR, which was significantly lower for mown plants  
196 at Blackwood but not at Horsnell (Table 2; Supporting Information Figure S6c).

197 No significant site  $\times$  mowing interaction ( $p = 0.207$ ) or main effects of site ( $p = 0.675$ ) or  
198 mowing ( $p = 0.118$ ) were detected for  $F_v/F_m$  of *C. pubescens* (Figure 4a; Table S3).  
199 However, there was a site  $\times$  mowing interaction, detected for parasite  $\Phi_{PSII}$  ( $p = 0.002$ ) and  
200 ETR ( $p = 0.0006$ ), which decreased by 40% and 49%, respectively, in response to mowing at  
201 Blackwood but were unaffected by mowing at Horsnell (Figure 4b,c; Table S3).

### 202 **3.3 *R. anglocandicans* $g_s$ , $\delta^{13}C$ and nutrients**

203 There was a significant negative effect of infection on  $g_s$  of *R. anglocandicans* at Belair ( $p =$   
204  $0.0009$ ), but not at Horsnell ( $p = 0.173$ ), or Blackwood ( $p = 0.288$ ) (Figure 5a,b,c; Table S4).  
205 At Belair, infected plants had 46% lower  $g_s$  than uninfected ones (Figure 5a).

206 For the mowing experiment, there was no infection  $\times$  mowing interaction on  $g_s$  of *R.*  
207 *anglocandicans* at either Horsnell ( $p = 0.174$ ) or Blackwood ( $p = 0.680$ ) (Figure 6a,c; Table  
208 S4). A main effect of infection was found at Horsnell ( $p = 0.004$ ) but not at Blackwood ( $p =$   
209  $0.233$ ) (Table S4). Infected plants at Horsnell had 29% lower  $g_s$  relative to uninfected plants  
210 (Figure 6b). A main effect of mowing was also found for host  $g_s$  at Horsnell ( $p = 0.006$ ) and  
211 Blackwood ( $p = 0.002$ ) (Table S4). At Horsnell,  $g_s$  of unmown plants was 28% lower than  
212 that of mown plants (Supporting Information Figure S7a). At Blackwood,  $g_s$  of unmown  
213 plants was 47% higher than mown plants (Supporting Information Figure S7b).

214 There was an infection  $\times$  site interaction for  $\delta^{13}C$  of *R. anglocandicans* (Table 1).  $\delta^{13}C$  of  
215 infected plants was significantly lower than that of uninfected plants at Blackwood while no  
216 significant effect was detected at Horsnell or Belair (Figure 5d).

217 For the mowing experiment, there was an infection  $\times$  site interaction for leaf  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of *R.*  
218 *anglocandicans* (Table 2; no three-way interaction: Figure 6d).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of infected plants was  
219 significantly lower than that of uninfected plants at Blackwood while no significant effect  
220 was detected at Horsnell (Figure 6e). A main effect of mowing was also found for host  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
221 (Table 2).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of mown plants was significantly lower relative to that of unmown ones  
222 (Supporting Information Figure S7c).

223 There was a main effect of infection on foliar [N], [P] and [Na] of *R. anglocandicans* (Tables  
224 1 and 3; no three-way interactions: Figure 7a,c,e). Nitrogen and [P] were 15% and 14%  
225 lower, for infected than uninfected plants, respectively, while infection increased host [Na]  
226 by 47% (Figure 7b,d,f). There was a main effect of site on [N] and [Na] of *R. anglocandicans*  
227 (Table 2). At Horsnell, [N] and [Na] were 12.5% and 23% lower, respectively, than those at  
228 the other two sites (Supporting Information Figure S8a,c). Host [P] at Horsnell and Belair  
229 was 43% and 25% lower, respectively, than that at Blackwood (Supporting Information  
230 Figure S8b). An infection  $\times$  site interaction was detected for [Fe] (Table 1). Foliar [Fe] of  
231 infected plants was *c.* 40% higher than that of uninfected plants at Belair and Blackwood,  
232 whereas infection had no effect on this variable at Horsnell (Figure 7g).

233 For the mowing experiment, an infection  $\times$  site  $\times$  mowing interaction was detected for foliar  
234 [N] of *R. anglocandicans* (Table 2). Infection negatively affected host [N] when plants were  
235 mown at Horsnell (by 25%) and when plants were unmown at Blackwood (by 16%) (Figure  
236 8a). There was a main effect of infection on host [P] (Table 2; no three-way interaction:  
237 Figure 8b). Foliar [P] of infected plants was 9% lower than that of uninfected plants (Figure  
238 8c). There were also main effects of site and mowing on host [P], which was 47% lower at  
239 Horsnell relative to Blackwood, and 20% lower in mown plots compared with unmown plots  
240 (Supporting Information Figure S9a,b). There was an infection  $\times$  site interaction found for  
241 host [Na] and [Fe] (Table 2; no three-way interaction: Figure 8d,f). At Blackwood [Na] and  
242 [Fe] of infected plants were 52% and 44%, higher than uninfected plants, respectively, but  
243 infection induced non-significant increases in host [Na] and [Fe] at Horsnell (Figure 8e,g).  
244 There was a site  $\times$  mowing effect detected for host [Na] (Table 2). Mowing resulted in host  
245 [Na] being significantly higher at Blackwood, but not at Horsnell (Supporting Information  
246 Figure S9c). There was a main effect of mowing on host [Fe] (Table 2). Host [Fe]  
247 significantly increased when plants were mown (Supporting Information Figure S9d).

#### 248 **4 DISCUSSION**



249 Infection had a significant negative effect on performance of *R. anglocandicans* only four  
250 months after parasite establishment, including on fruit production and  $F_v/F_m$ ; although the  
251 effect varied with site. It should be noted that the parasite also had a significant negative  
252 effect on host  $F_v/F_m$  and  $g_s$  across the three sites, just one month after establishment (data not  
253 shown). Significant interactions between mowing and infection were only found at one site,  
254 where mowing resulted in lower N in infected plants relative to uninfected plants. This  
255 demonstrates that *C. pubescens* negatively impacts invasive *R. anglocandicans*, similar to  
256 previous reports for other invasive hosts (Prider et al., 2009; Shen et al., 2010; Cirocco et al.,  
257 2016b, 2018, 2020, 2021b), but that mowing does little to enhance the impact of the parasite  
258 on this host. In contrast, a study by Těšitel et al. (2017) found that the native root  
259 hemiparasite *Rhinanthus alectorolophus* more negatively affected the biomass of the  
260 expansive native grass *Calamagrostis epigejos* when mowing intensity was increased (no  
261 unmown treatment included).

262 The negative impact on fruit production we observed is important because of its potential  
263 effect on host fitness, and dispersal to other locations. Fruit and seed production of the  
264 invasive host *Cytisus scoparius* were also negatively impacted by *C. pubescens* (Prider et al.,  
265 2011). Similarly, in China, three invasive hosts produced significantly fewer flower stalks  
266 when infected with *Cuscuta* spp. (Yu et al., 2008, 2011). Here, the greater negative impact of  
267 infection on fruit production at Blackwood, relative to the other two sites may be due to  
268 stronger infection effects on host photosynthesis found for this site (Figure 1d,e).

269 Importantly, infection negatively impacted  $F_v/F_m$  of *R. anglocandicans*. Similarly, *C.*  
270 *pubescens* had a significant negative effect on  $F_v/F_m$  of the major invasive hosts, *Ulex*  
271 *europaeus* and *Cytisus scoparius* (Shen et al. 2010; Cirocco et al. 2016b, 2020, 2021b; but  
272 see Prider et al. 2009). In contrast, *C. pubescens* had no impact on  $F_v/F_m$  of the native host  
273 *Leptospermum myrsinoides* (Prider et al. 2009; Cirocco et al. 2015). Cirocco et al. (2021a)  
274 found that *C. pubescens* only affected  $F_v/F_m$  of the native host, *Acacia paradoxa*, in low  
275 phosphorus conditions. Other studies in China, have also found that *Cuscuta* spp. negatively  
276 affect the light-use efficiency of the major invasive host, *Mikania micrantha* (Shen et al.  
277 2007, 2013; Le et al. 2015). Here, the negative effect of infection on host  $F_v/F_m$  indicates that  
278 infected plants were experiencing chronic photoinhibition (Demmig-Adams and Adams,  
279 2006), a condition that could result in longer-term impacts on growth and persistence of these  
280 invasive hosts. This may have eventuated from infected plants being exposed to excess light  
281 for prolonged periods as a result of host photosynthesis declining at a constant or increasing

282 PFD (Demmig-Adams and Adams, 1992). The parasite negatively affected host ETR at all  
283 sites, but only significantly so at Blackwood where the lowest  $F_v/F_m$  values were recorded.

284 In our study, parasite-induced decreases in  $g_s$ , [N] and [P] levels may underpin negative  
285 parasite effects on host photosynthetic performance (as indicated by  $F_v/F_m$ ) (Evans, 1989;  
286 Rychter & Rao, 2005). *Cassytha pubescens* and the native *Cuscuta australis* have also been  
287 found to negatively affect  $g_s$  of other invasive hosts (Shen et al., 2010; Le et al., 2015).  
288 Perhaps the most studied hemiparasite, *Striga*, also adversely affects host stomatal  
289 conductance (Watling & Press, 1997; Taylor & Seel, 1998). Lower  $g_s$  could also result in  
290 higher leaf temperatures, which along with CO<sub>2</sub> limitation would impact host photosynthesis.  
291 Lower [N] and [P] will both affect photosynthesis, although impacts of *C. pubescens* on  
292 invasive host [N] are known to vary (e.g. Cirocco et al., 2016b, 2018, 2021b; but also see  
293 Cirocco et al., 2016a; 2017, 2020). In contrast, *C. pubescens* has been found to have no  
294 impact on [N] of native hosts (Cirocco et al., 2016a, 2017, 2021a). In China, *Cuscuta* spp.  
295 were also found to negatively impact [N] and [P] of three invasive species (Yu et al., 2009,  
296 2011). Here, the negative effect of infection on host  $g_s$ , [N] and [P] are likely due to the  
297 removal of resources by the parasite.

298 Interestingly, we also found that infection resulted in significant increases in foliar [Na] of *R.*  
299 *anglocandicans*. Other parasitic plants capable of photosynthesis (hemiparasites) have been  
300 found to have no effect (Struthers et al., 1986; Tennakoon & Pate, 1996; Lo Gullo et al.,  
301 2012) or significantly decrease host foliar [Na] levels (Mutlu et al., 2016; Al-Rowaily et al.,  
302 2020). The fact that infected plants were especially enriched in [Na] at Blackwood (Figure  
303 8e) in tandem with no significant parasite-induced decrease in  $g_s$  at this site (Figures 5c, 6c),  
304 is consistent with infected plants lowering their water potential. This is plausible considering  
305 that the significantly lower  $\delta^{13}C$  of infected plants at Blackwood (Figures 5d, 6e) indicates  
306 that they were being less conservative in their water-use. More profligate water-use leading to  
307 lower water potentials would facilitate water uptake and help offset water loss to the parasite,  
308 while also making it more difficult for *C. pubescens* to extract resources (Cirocco et al.  
309 2016b). Infected plants at Blackwood suffered most from infection (i.e. lower nitrogen,  
310 Figure 8a, and photosynthesis), and the lowering of water potential by the host may have  
311 been triggered by this.

312 Increased uptake of sodium by infected plants may result in charge imbalance in host root  
313 cells causing release of protons, and a more acidified rhizosphere (Haynes, 1990). The latter

314 would lead to increased mobility of Fe in the soil and explain why infected plants at Belair  
315 and Blackwood had significantly higher foliar [Fe] than uninfected plants. Cirocco et al.  
316 (2018) also found that infection with *C. pubescens* resulted in significant enrichment of foliar  
317 [Fe] of *U. europaeus* across three field sites (Cirocco et al., 2018). Cirocco et al. (2020) found  
318 that *C. pubescens* induced significant increases in [Fe] of small but not large *U. europaeus*.  
319 On the other hand, the mistletoe *Viscum album* significantly decreased foliar [Fe] of Scots  
320 pine (Mutlu et al., 2016), while five different mistletoes (Tennakoon & Pate, 1996;  
321 Tennakoon et al., 2011; Lo Gullo et al., 2012) and *S. spicatum* had no effect on host foliar  
322 [Fe] (Struthers et al., 1986). Significant enrichment of [Fe] as a result of infection may lead to  
323 an excess of free radical production impairing cellular structure and damaging membranes,  
324 DNA and proteins (de Dorlodot et al., 2005).

## 325 **5 CONCLUSION**

326 We successfully established the native parasite, *C. pubescens*, on one of Australia's worst  
327 weeds, *R. anglocandicans* at three field sites. We also demonstrated that *C. pubescens*  
328 significantly impacted  $F_v/F_m$ , [N] and [P]-status of *R. anglocandicans* across these sites.  
329 Mowing did not affect parasite impact on photosynthetic performance of *R. anglocandicans*,  
330 but did enhance negative parasite effects on host [N] at one site. The results support the  
331 potential application of *C. pubescens* as a native biocontrol on *R. anglocandicans* in  
332 congruence with this native parasite consistently negatively affecting other major invasive  
333 species and continue to suggest that native parasites can be effective weed biocontrols to help  
334 conserve and restore biodiversity. This work highlights that native parasitic plants should be  
335 incorporated into the theoretical frameworks of invasion theory, namely the Biotic Resistance  
336 theory for control of invasive species.

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342 Industries and Regions SA (Biosecurity) [56119496].

343

## 344 **Author Contributions**

345 \*RMC and JMF conceived and designed the experiment. RMC performed the experiment and  
346 analysed the data. RMC, JMF, and JRW interpreted the analysis and wrote the manuscript.

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493 **TABLE 1** Two-way ANOVA results (*p*-values) for the effects of infection with *Cassytha*  
 494 *pubescens* (I) and site (S) on number of fruits, number of prickles, predawn and midday  
 495 quantum yield ( $F_v/F_m$  and  $\Phi_{PSII}$ ), midday electron transport rates (ETR), foliar carbon isotope  
 496 composition ( $\delta^{13}C$ ), nitrogen [N], phosphorus [P], sodium [Na] and iron concentration [Fe] of  
 497 *Rubus anglocandicans*

Factor	Fruit	Prickles	$F_v/F_m$	$\Phi_{PSII}$	ETR	$\delta^{13}C$	[N]	[P]	[Na]	[Fe]
I	<b>0.004</b>	<b>0.005</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	0.835	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>
S	<b>0.0002</b>	<b>0.0002</b>	0.103	<b>0.002</b>	<b>0.004</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	<b>0.004</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>
I × S	<b>0.044</b>	0.501	0.722	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	<b>0.004</b>	0.805	0.114	0.189	<b>0.0005</b>

498 Significant effects are in bold; *F* and sum of square values are presented in Supporting  
 499 Information Table S1.

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516 **TABLE 2** Three-way ANOVA results (*p*-values) for the effects of infection with *Cassutha*  
 517 *pubescens* (I), site (S) and mowing (M) on predawn and midday quantum yield ( $F_v/F_m$  and  
 518  $\Phi_{PSII}$ ), midday electron transport rates (ETR), foliar carbon isotope composition ( $\delta^{13}C$ ),  
 519 nitrogen [N], phosphorus [P], sodium [Na] and iron concentration [Fe] of *Rubus*  
 520 *anglocandicans*

	$F_v/F_m$	$\Phi_{PSII}$	ETR	$\delta^{13}C$	[N]	[P]	[Na]	[Fe]
I	<b>0.0005</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>0.050</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>0.003</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>
S	<b>0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>
I × S	0.551	<b>0.0005</b>	<b>0.0001</b>	<b>0.025</b>	0.242	0.168	<b>0.045</b>	<b>0.0004</b>
M	0.227	0.844	0.710	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>0.0005</b>	<b>0.002</b>	<b>0.0004</b>
I × M	0.262	0.080	0.131	0.962	0.362	0.791	0.535	0.182
S × M	0.205	0.089	<b>0.012</b>	0.124	0.262	0.165	<b>0.0008</b>	0.372
I × S × M	0.600	0.133	0.186	0.236	<b>0.045</b>	0.690	0.594	0.939

521 Significant effects are in bold; *F* and sum of square values are presented in Supporting  
 522 Information Table S2.

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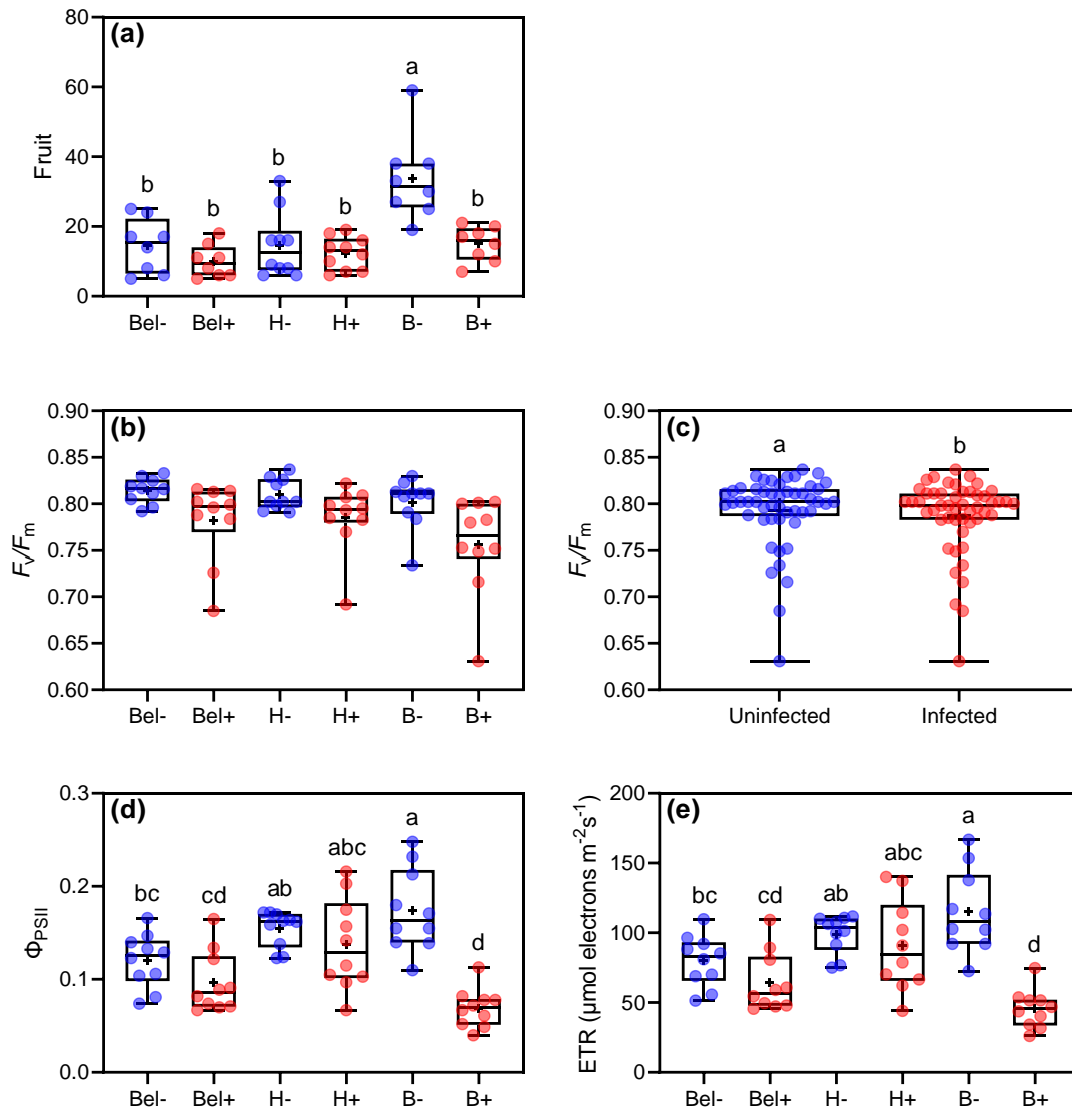
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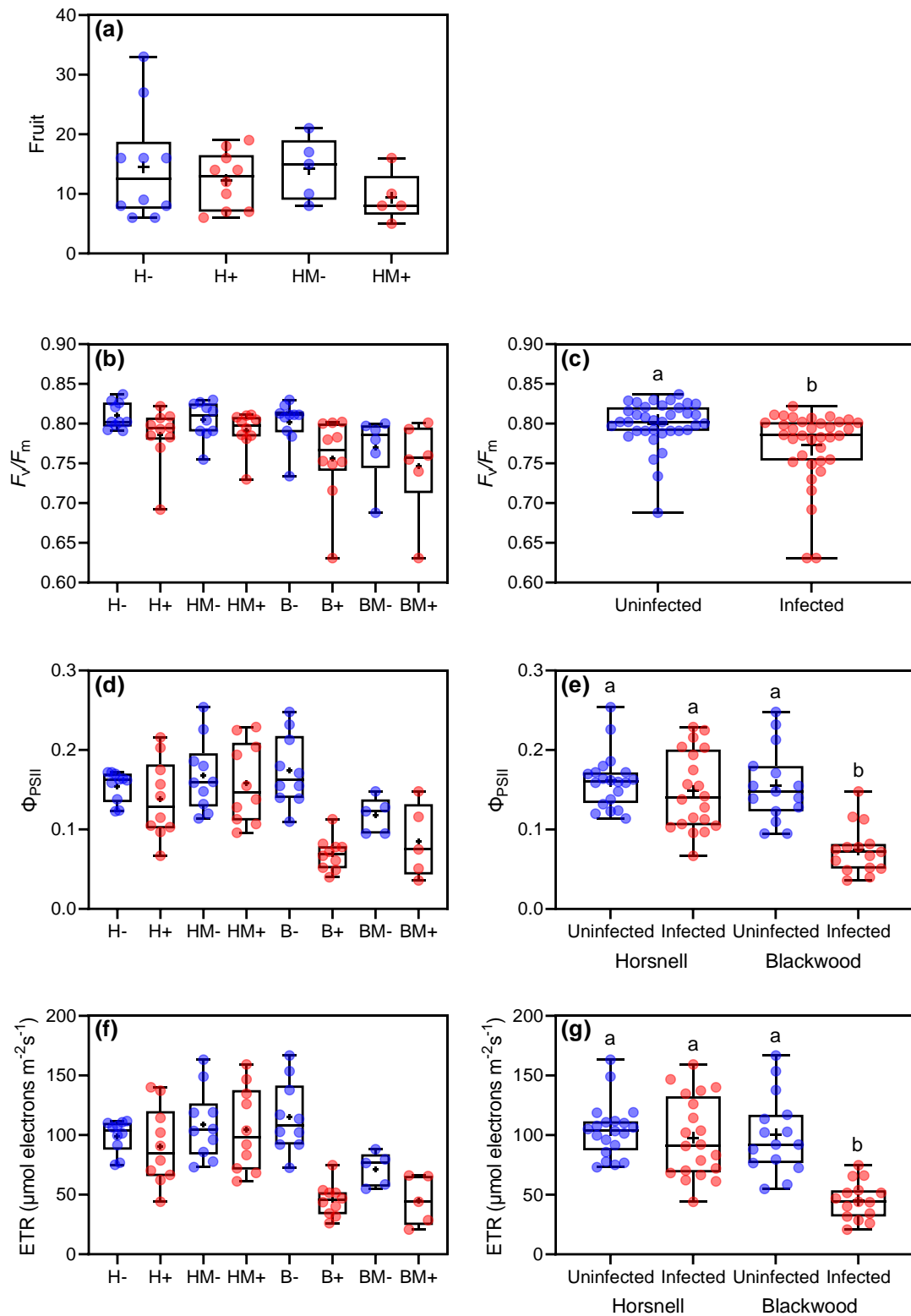


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531 **FIGURE 1** (a) Number of fruit (per cane), (b and d), predawn ( $F_v/F_m$ ) and midday ( $\Phi_{PSII}$ )  
532 quantum yield, and (e) midday electron transport rates (ETR) of *Rubus anglocandicans*, when  
533 uninfected (-) or infected (+) with *Cassitha pubescens* at Belair (Bel-, Bel+), Horsnell (H-,  
534 H+) and Blackwood (B-, B+), respectively. (c) Main effect of infection on host  $F_v/F_m$ . All  
535 data points, median, percentile lines and mean (+ within box) are displayed, different letters  
536 indicate significant differences: (a)  $n = 8-10$ , (b, d, e)  $n = 10$  and (c)  $n = 20$

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540 **FIGURE 2** (a) Number of fruit (per cane), (b and d), predawn ( $F_v/F_m$ ) and midday ( $\Phi_{PSII}$ )  
 541 quantum yield, and (f) midday electron transport rates (ETR) of *Rubus anglocandicans*, when  
 542 unmown or mown (m) and uninfected (-) or infected (+) with *Cassythia pubescens* at

543 Horsnell (unmown: H<sup>-</sup>, H<sup>+</sup>, mown: HM<sup>-</sup>, HM<sup>+</sup>) and Blackwood (unmown: B<sup>-</sup>, B<sup>+</sup>, mown:  
544 BM<sup>-</sup>, BM<sup>+</sup>), respectively. (c) Main effect of infection on host  $F_v/F_m$ . Infection  $\times$  site  
545 interaction on host (e)  $\Phi_{PSII}$  and (g) ETR. All data points, median, percentile lines and mean  
546 (+ within box) are displayed, different letters indicate significant differences: (a, d, f)  $n = 5$ –  
547 10, (b)  $n = 6$ –10, (c)  $n = 36$ , (e)  $n = 20$  and (g)  $n = 15$ –20 (Blackwood and Horsnell,  
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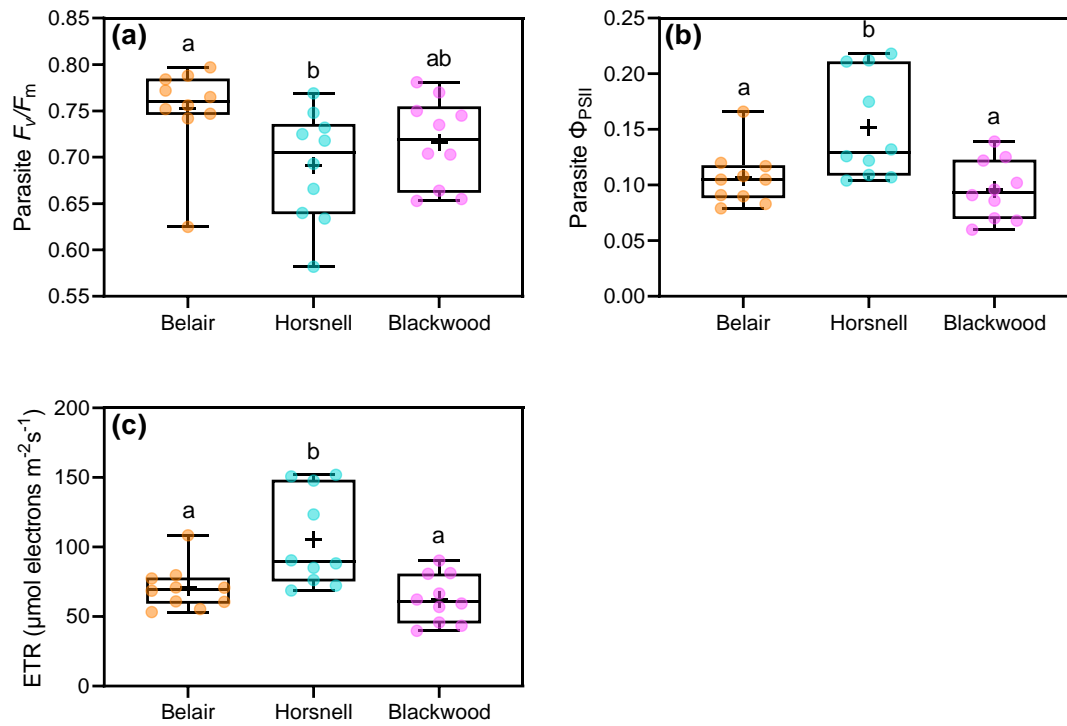
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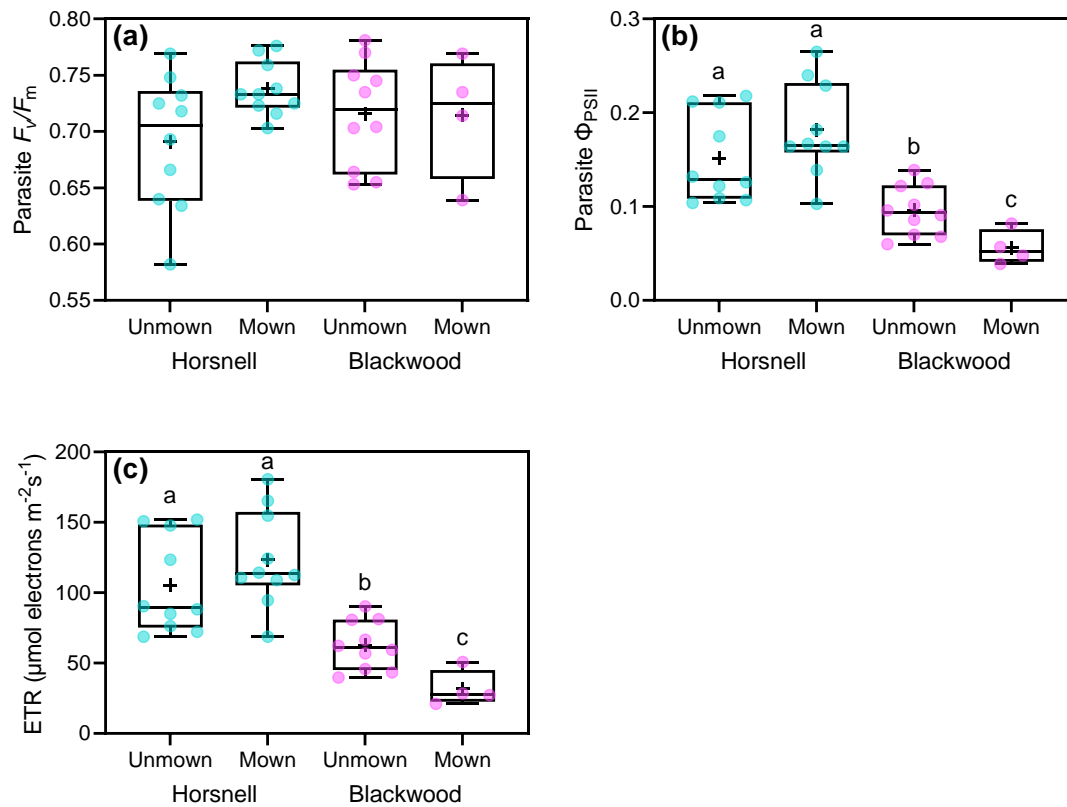


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567 **FIGURE 3** (a) Predawn ( $F_v/F_m$ ) and (b) midday quantum yield ( $\Phi_{PSII}$ ), and (c) midday  
568 electron transport rates (ETR) of *Cassytha pubescens* (infecting *R. anglocandicans*) at Belair,  
569 Horsnell, and Blackwood. All data points, median, percentile lines and mean (+ within box)  
570 are displayed, different letters indicate significant differences: (a, b, c)  $n = 10$

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574 **FIGURE 4** (a) Predawn ( $F_v/F_m$ ) and (b) midday quantum yield ( $\Phi_{PSII}$ ), and (c) midday  
575 electron transport rates (ETR) of *Cassytha pubescens* (infecting un-mown or mown *R.*  
576 *anglocandicans*) at Horsnell, and Blackwood. All data points, median, percentile lines and  
577 mean (+ within box) are displayed, different letters indicate significant differences: (a, b, c)  $n$   
578 = 10 (except  $n = 4$  for Mown plants at Blackwood)

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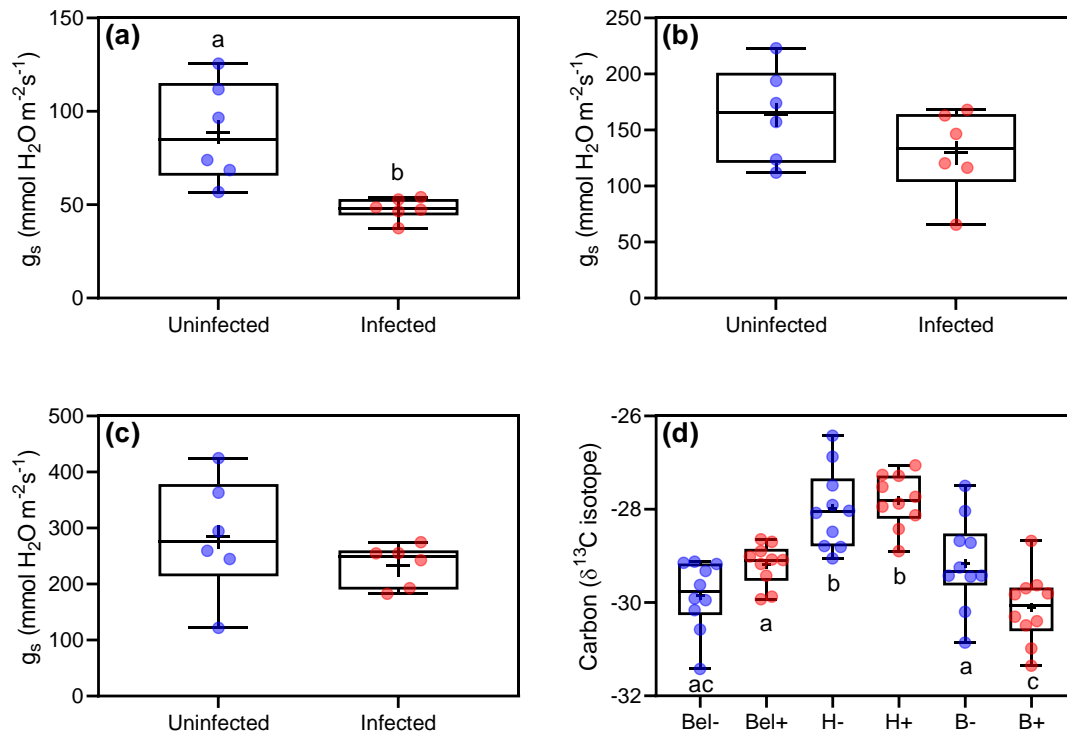
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588 **FIGURE 5** Stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) of *Rubus anglocandicans* either uninfected (–) or  
589 infected (+) with *Cassytha pubescens* at (a) Belair, (b) Horsnell and (c) Blackwood. (d)  
590 Carbon isotope composition of *Rubus anglocandicans*, when uninfected (–) or infected (+)  
591 with *Cassytha pubescens* at Belair (Bel–, Bel+), Horsnell (H–, H+) and Blackwood (B–, B+),  
592 respectively. All data points, median, percentile lines and mean (+ within box) are displayed,  
593 different letters indicate significant differences and (a, b, c)  $n = 6$  and (d)  $n = 10$

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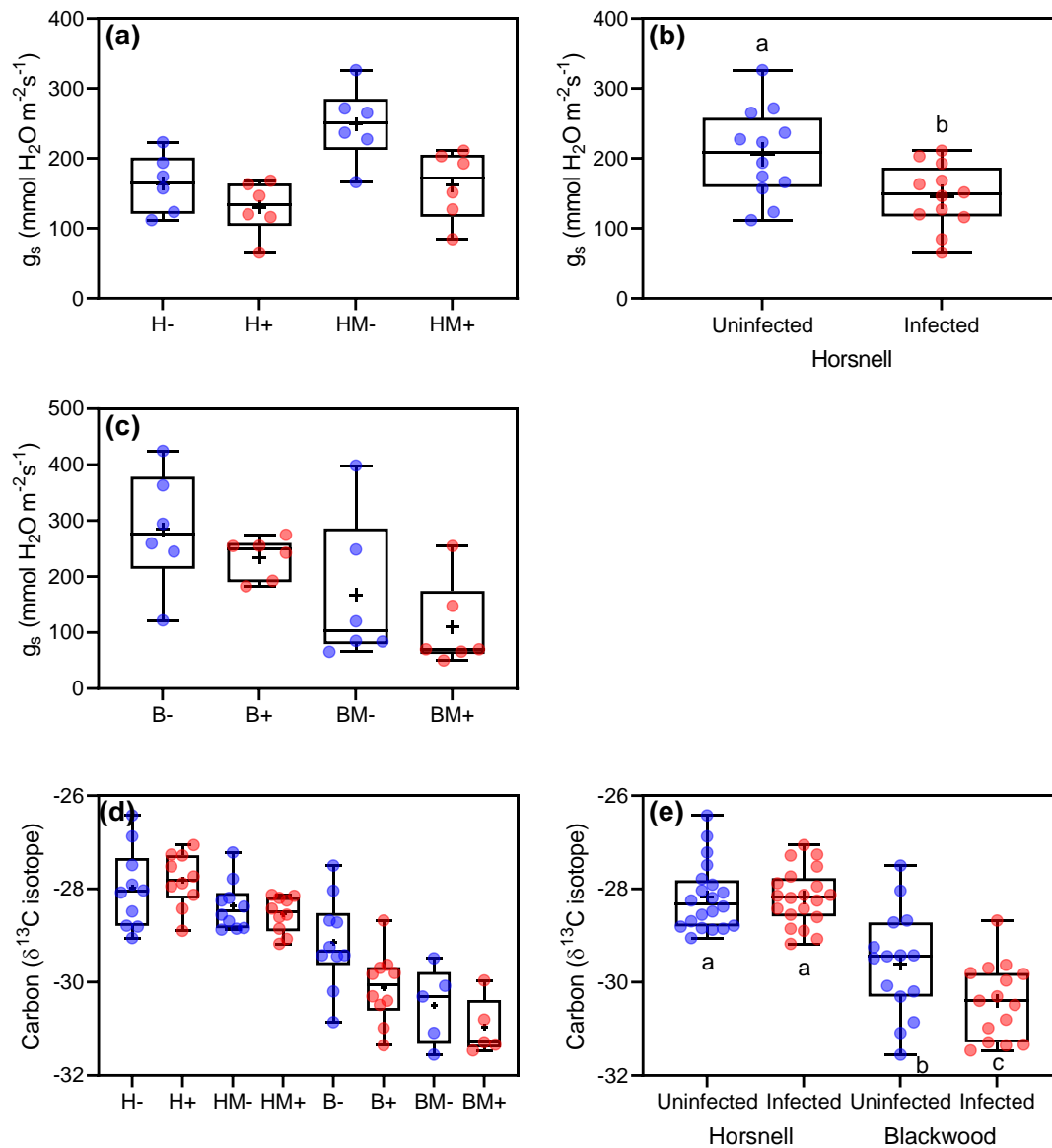
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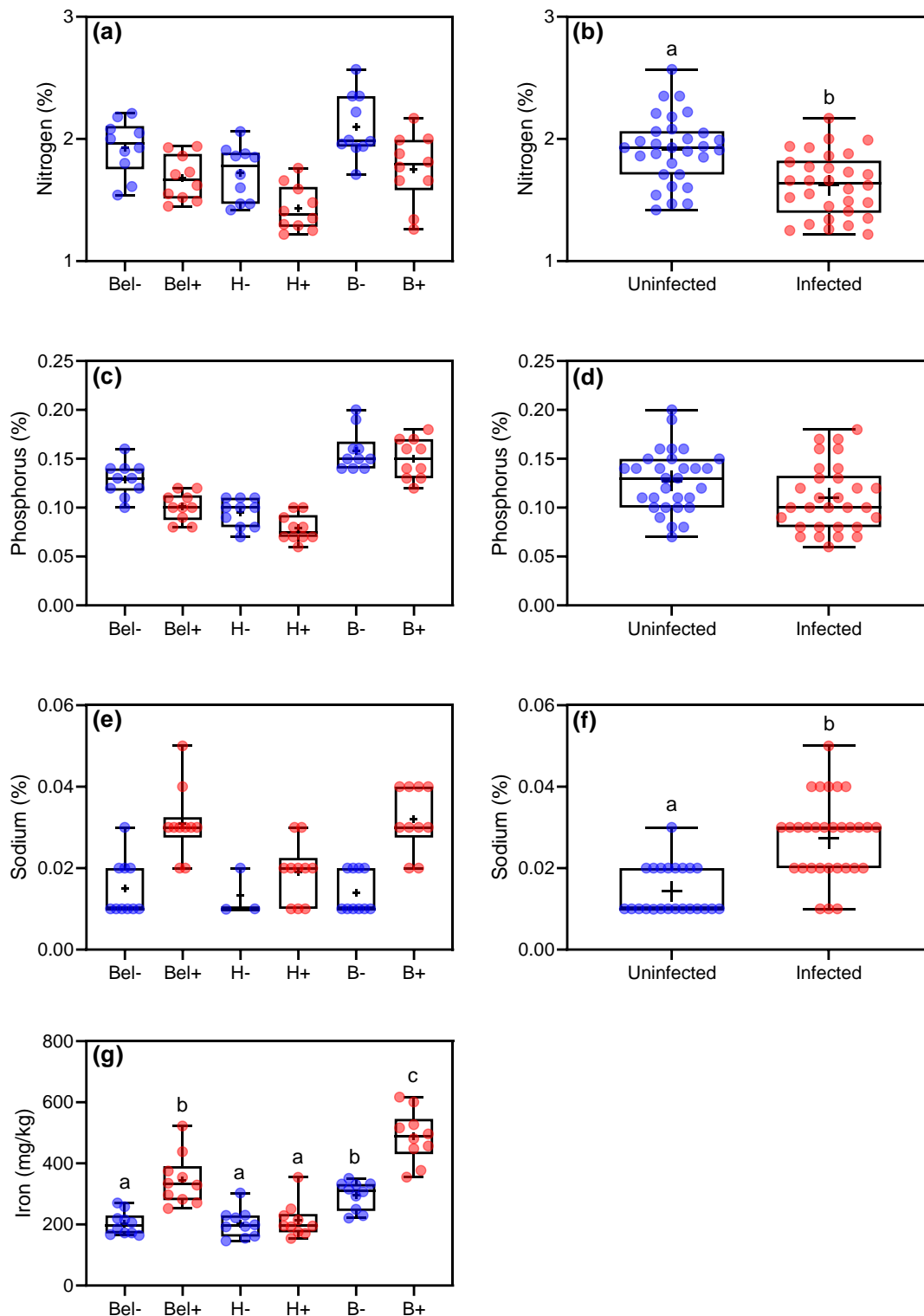
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606 **FIGURE 6** Stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) of *Rubus anglocandicans*, when unmown or mown  
 607 (m) and uninfected (–) or infected (+) with *Cassityha pubescens* at (a) Horsnell (unmown: H–,  
 608 H+, mown: HM–, HM+) and (c) Blackwood (unmown: B–, B+, mown: BM–, BM+),  
 609 respectively. (b) Main effect of infection on host  $g_s$  at Horsnell. (d) Carbon isotope  
 610 composition ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) of *R. anglocandicans* and (e) Infection  $\times$  site effect on host  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . All data  
 611 points, median, percentile lines and mean (+ within box) are displayed, different letters  
 612 indicate significant differences: (a, c),  $n = 6$ , (b)  $n = 12$ , (d)  $n = 10$  (except  $n = 4$  for all Mown  
 613 plants at Blackwood) and (e)  $n = 15\text{--}20$  (Blackwood and Horsnell, respectively)

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618 **FIGURE 7** Leaf (a) nitrogen, (c) phosphorus, (e) sodium and (g) iron concentration of *Rubus*  
619 *anglocandicans*, when uninfected (-) or infected (+) with *Cassytha pubescens* at Belair (Bel-  
620 -, Bel+), Horsnell (H-, H+) and Blackwood (B-, B+), respectively. (c) Main effect of

621 infection on host (b) nitrogen, (d) phosphorus and (f) sodium concentration. All data points,  
622 median, percentile lines and mean (+ within box) are displayed, different letters indicate  
623 significant differences: (a, c, g)  $n = 10$ , (b, d)  $n = 30$ , (e)  $n = 10$  (except  $n = 3$  for uninfected  
624 plants at Horsnell: H-, because sodium levels were too low for the instrument to detect) and  
625 (f)  $n = 23-30$  (uninfected infected plants, respectively)

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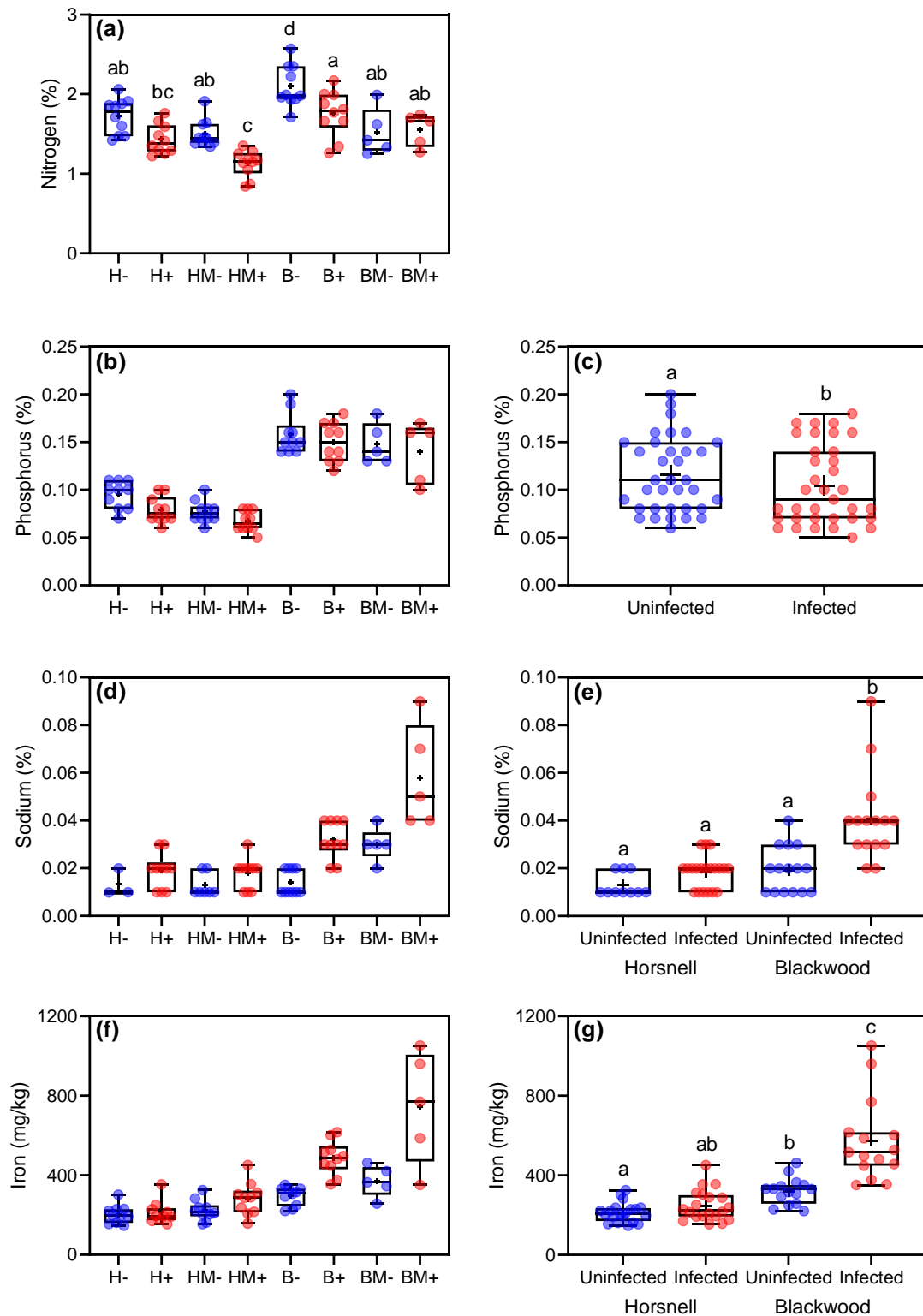
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634 **FIGURE 8** Leaf (a) nitrogen, (b) phosphorus, (d) sodium and (f) iron concentration of *Rubus*

635 *anglocandicans*, when unmown or mown (m) and uninfected (–) or infected (+) with

636 *Cassitha pubescens* at (a) Horsnell (unmown: H–, H+, mown: HM–, HM+) and (c)

637 Blackwood (unmown: B–, B+, mown: BM–, BM+), respectively. (c) Main effect of infection

638 on host phosphorus. Infection  $\times$  site interaction on host (e) sodium and (g) iron. All data  
639 points, median, percentile lines and mean (+ within box) are displayed, different letters  
640 indicate significant differences: (a, b, f)  $n = 10$  (except  $n = 5$  for BM– and BM+), (c)  $n = 35$ ,  
641 (d)  $n = 3-10$ , (e)  $n = 10-20$  and (g)  $n = 15-20$

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