# RESEARCH ARTICLE

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# Accumulated soil seed bank of the invasive sand dropseed (Sporobolus cryptandrus) poses a challenge for its suppression

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#### Abstract

Global warming, elevated atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentrations and increased likeliness of extreme drought and wildfires in many regions will likely favour C4 grass species. To support future management actions, we explored the effect of the encroachment of an invasive perennial C4 grass, Sporobolus cryptandrus on the composition of soil seed banks in dry sand grasslands in Central Europe. In five mass-locality sites of the species we assessed the composition and vertical segmentation of the soil seed bank in 12 1- $m<sup>2</sup>$ plots along an increasing cover of the invasive species. We found that the seed bank diversity and density decreased with increasing sampling depth; the decrease in density was affected by the increasing S. cryptandrus cover. Neither the diversity nor the seed bank density of other species were affected by increasing S. cryptandrus cover but both were affected by the sampling site. Most of the studied seed bank characteristics were affected by the sampling depth, but none of them were affected by the increasing cover of S. cryptandrus. Increasing cover of S. cryptandrus in the vegetation was associated with an increasing proportion of S. cryptandrus seeds in the seed bank, and we found a low-density soil seed bank of the species even in plots with no S. cryptandrus cover. Our finding that S. cryptandrus forms a massive soil seed bank, together with the predicted decrease in the precipitation of the summer months and increase in the frequency of droughts in the region, projects further rapid spread of the species.

#### KEYWORDS

C4 grass, dispersal, germination, plant invasion, prairie, restoration, Sporobolus

# 1 | INTRODUCTION

Studying the relationship between climate change and the spread of invasive species has been at the forefront of research in the last decades (Hulme, [2017](#page-10-0); Ravi et al., [2022\)](#page-11-0). It has been reported that climate change affects the phenology of species (Parmesan & Hanley, [2015](#page-11-0); Piao et al., [2019\)](#page-11-0), it shifts the distribution range of many species and causes changes in the composition of communities

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(Esquivel-Muelbert et al., [2019;](#page-10-0) Feeley et al., [2020](#page-10-0)), which also favours plant invasions and results in the formation of hybrid and novel ecosystems (Hobbs et al., [2006](#page-10-0); Richardson & Gaertner, [2013](#page-11-0)). The C4 photosynthetic pathway has several advantages over the C3 pathway in drier and warmer climates; the most important advantages being the higher temperature optimum of carbon fixation, the lack of photorespiration and also the more effective water usage, which enables a higher drought tolerance (Johnston, [1996\)](#page-11-0). Consequently, global warming, elevated atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentrations and the associated increased likelihood of weather extremities including prolonged droughts and wildfires in many terrestrial regions are expected to benefit species with a C4 photosynthetic pathway (Chuine et al., [2012](#page-10-0); Dukes & Mooney, [1999](#page-10-0)).

According to the predicted scenarios of climate change, wide regions of Europe will become drier and hotter in the summer months in the forthcoming decades. Precipitation in the summer months is expected to decrease in Southern and Central Europe, and extreme weather events such as heatwaves and droughts will become more frequent throughout Europe (Kovats et al., [2014\)](#page-11-0). The duration and intensity of droughts are projected to increase especially in Southern and Central Europe. However, due to increasing evapotranspiration, soil moisture can decrease even in regions where an increase in summer precipitation is expected (Kovats et al., [2014](#page-11-0)). The predicted changes can support the spread of invasive plant species better adapted to these conditions, not only in the Mediterranean region but also in areas of Central, Western and Northern Europe (Thuiller et al., [2005](#page-12-0); Walther et al., [2009\)](#page-12-0). While European grasslands are characterised by the dominance of C3 grasses, with the ongoing climate change, C4 grasses might gain momentum for their spread and establishment in many regions (de Deus Vidal et al., [2021](#page-10-0)). As serious droughts and associated wildfires will occur more frequently in the future, the resulting dieback of C3 grasses (Orbán et al., [2023\)](#page-11-0) can also facilitate the establishment and spread of C4 grasses, especially those with an effective dispersal.

Soil seed banks, that is, viable seeds accumulated in the upper soil layers, help to bridge unfavourable conditions and form a 'backup' storage of the plant community (Thompson et al., [1997\)](#page-12-0). Species accumulating a persistent soil seed bank have the possibility to easily reestablish in the community after serious diebacks caused, for example, by drought or wildfire events (Kiss et al., [2018](#page-11-0); Måren & Vandvik, [2009](#page-11-0)). These species can rapidly establish in spontaneously or disturbance created gaps speeding up their expansion (Kalamees & Zobel, [2002](#page-11-0)). Dynamic processes in the soil seed bank, including the changes in its composition and density can have crucial importance in community resilience (Miao et al., [2020;](#page-11-0) Török et al., [2020](#page-12-0)).

The impact of invasive species on the soil seed banks and the subsequent consequences for plant communities can be analysed from two perspectives. First, the encroachment of invasive species affect the native species' soil seed banks. Previous studies have indicated a negative correlation between plant invasion and the density and/or diversity of native species' soil seed banks; however, the magnitude of the effect is strongly species-specific, and also depends on the duration of the invasion (Dairel & Fidelis, [2020](#page-10-0); Hager

et al., [2015;](#page-10-0) Jia et al., [2024](#page-11-0); Wang et al., [2022](#page-12-0)). A meta-analysis of the effects of plant invasions on the seed bank of the invaded communities showed that invasions by large, perennial herbs had a remarkably strong negative effect on the species richness and density of the native seed banks (Gioria et al., [2014](#page-10-0)). Second, understanding how invasive species' seeds accumulate in soil seed banks is of great importance for conservation efforts. The success of invasive species in colonising a particular habitat and then persisting there for a long time is largely driven by the formation of soil seed banks (Gioria et al., [2012](#page-10-0), [2021](#page-10-0); Pyšek et al., [2015](#page-11-0)). This knowledge is crucial not only for managing invasive species but also for effective suppression strategies. Several successful invasive species have been found to form persistent seed banks in the soil, highlighting the significance of soil seed bank formation for their long-term survival (Fletcher et al., [2015](#page-10-0); Gioria et al., [2012](#page-10-0); Moravcová et al., [2018\)](#page-11-0). However, comprehensive information on soil seed bank formation for individual species remains limited (Skálová et al., [2019](#page-11-0)).

Invasions by C4 grasses can result in decreasing species richness of the invaded habitats (see, e.g. Olsson et al., [2012;](#page-11-0) Reed et al., [2005;](#page-11-0) Török et al., [2021](#page-12-0)), generating great concern for nature conservation. One notable example among C4 grasses is the global spread of Sporobolus species, which has been reported in the last few decades from many continents including South America and Australia (Bortolus et al., [2015](#page-10-0); Brooks et al., [2010;](#page-10-0) Rayment et al., [2022](#page-11-0); Williams & Baruch, [2000\)](#page-12-0). Taxonomically, the Sporobolus genus comprises 160 to 220 species, with variations arising from the inclusion of certain Crypsis or Spartina species into the genus (Peterson et al., [2014\)](#page-11-0). In Europe, most Sporobolus species are non-native, with the exception of Sporobolus pungens (Bauer & Verloove, [2023](#page-9-0)).

Central Europe has recently observed the establishment and spread of three Sporobolus species native to temperate regions of North America (Sporobolus vaginiflorus, Sporobolus neglectus and Sporobolus cryptandrus), along with the establishment of a single tropical species, Sporobolus indicus (Bauer & Verloove, [2023](#page-9-0)). Notably, S. neglectus, S. indicus and S. vaginiflorus have been documented in the Mediterranean region and eastern central Europe (Englmaier & Wilhalm, [2018](#page-10-0); Király, [2016;](#page-11-0) Király & Hohla, [2015](#page-11-0)). These species predominantly proliferate and rapidly spread on frequently mowed roadsides along highways, or in lawns characterised by frequent trampling (S. indicus, Bauer & Verloove, [2023\)](#page-9-0). Due to the disturbed character of the habitats they invade, their establishment currently poses a relatively low threat to natural vegetation. In contrast, the current spread of S. cryptandrus in sandy areas affects not only disturbed grasslands and the verges of dirt roads but also large areas of seminatural grasslands and forest steppes. In Hungary alone, over 620 distinct locations of the species have been detected, and its spread continues to expand (Török et al., [2021;](#page-12-0) Török & Aradi, [2017\)](#page-12-0).

Most studies so far analysed only the effect of invasive species encroachment on the aboveground vegetation composition and diversity, while belowground processes including the effects of invasive species on the soil seed banks have only started to receive increasing attention in the past few years (See e.g. Gioria et al., [2019](#page-10-0); Gioria & Pyšek, [2016](#page-10-0)). S. cryptandrus produces very small seeds in large

numbers (Brown, [1943\)](#page-10-0) and it has been shown to form a soil seed bank in its native range (Clements et al., [2007](#page-10-0)). In the current study, we aimed to explore the effect of the encroachment of S. cryptandrus on the composition and diversity of soil seed banks in dry sand grasslands in Central Europe. We also intended to quantify the vertical distribution of the soil seed bank and to explore how dense the soil seed bank of this invasive perennial grass species is. We focused particularly on testing the following hypotheses: (i) The density and diversity of the soil seed bank of other species decreases with increasing cover of S. cryptandrus. (ii) The soil seed bank density of S. cryptandrus is highly affected by its cover: the soil seed bank density of the species increases with its increasing cover. (iii) Soil seed bank diversity and density decrease with increasing sampling depth, and this decrease in density is influenced by the cover of S. cryptandrus.

### 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 2.1 | Vegetation and soil seed bank sampling

Five mass-localities of S. cryptandrus were chosen for the study: one in the Nyírség region, Hungary (the Debrecen site), and four in the Kiskunság region, Hungary (the sites Kiskunhalas North, Kiskunhalas East, Kecskemét Airport and Kecskemét Katonatelep) (Table 1 and Figure [1\)](#page-3-0). The climate of the two regions is fairly similar: the climate of both regions is continental with a sub-mediterranean influence in the Kiskunság. In the Nyírség region, the mean annual temperature is  $9.4 - 9.8$  °C and the annual rainfall is between 530 and 680 mm (Dövényi, [2010\)](#page-10-0). In the Kiskunság region, the mean annual temperature is  $10.4^{\circ}$ C and the yearly average precipitation is between 500 and 550 mm (Kovács-Láng et al., [2000](#page-11-0)).



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In each site, we selected a sampling area of approximately 1 ha. In each sampling area, we sampled the vegetation in  $1-m^2$  plots in four cover categories of the species. The four cover categories were as follows: no S. cryptandrus cover (1), cover of S. cryptandrus is between 1% and 25% (2), 26%–50% (3) and 51%–75% (4). In total, in 200 plots (five sites  $\times$  four cover categories  $\times$  10 plots), we visually estimated the percentage cover of all vascular plant species in the summer of 2019 (Hábenczyus et al., [2022\)](#page-10-0). Vegetation data were used only (i) to assess the similarity between vegetation and soil seed banks in ordination and similarity calculations and (ii) to provide reference species lists for the seedling emergence study (for detailed vegetation data see the appendix of Török et al., [2021](#page-12-0)).

The composition and density of soil seed banks were assessed with intact soil coring and thin-layer seedling emergence method by Ter Heerdt et al. ([1996\)](#page-12-0). For each cover category, in three stratified but randomly selected  $1 \times 1$  m plots, 10 soil cores (10 cm depth and 4 cm diameter, separated into four 2.5-cm-long vertical segments of 0–2.5, 2.5–5, 5–7.5 and 7.5–10 cm) were collected from late March to early April 2022. We opted for spring sampling to maximise the comparability of our results and the results of other soil seed bank studies conducted in the region. Matching vertical segments originating from a 1 m  $\times$  1 m plot were pooled and treated together during sample processing, resulting in four pooled samples for each  $1 \text{ m}^2$ plot. We processed altogether 240 pooled soil samples (five sites  $\times$  four cover categories  $\times$  four vertical segments  $\times$  three replications). Soil samples were concentrated by washing using two sieves with different mesh sizes (2.8 and 0.2 mm, Retsch GmbH). To ensure the effective separation of soil particles, we used a rough mesh for removing large organic and inorganic matter (e.g. root fragments or small stones). Subsequently, a fine sieve was applied to retain soil samples containing all the seeds while reducing bulk by washing out



<span id="page-3-0"></span>

FIGURE 1 The sampled Sporobolus cryptandrus sites in Hungary, Central Europe. The dots show the study sites within the country, abbreviated as: D, Debrecen; KA, Kecskemét Airport; KE, Kiskunhalas East; KN, Kiskunhalas North; KT, Kecskemét Katonatelep.

fine clayey particles. After soil concentration, the samples were spread in a few millimetres in thickness, onto flowerpots (60 cm  $\times$  15 cm) filled with steam-sterilised potting soil. These flowerpots were placed in an unheated greenhouse located in the Botanical Garden of the University of Debrecen. The pots were regularly watered and checked for emerged seedlings. Seedlings were regularly counted and removed or transplanted into separate pots for later identification. The germination period extended from early April to mid-November (altogether, 32 weeks). We also included a watering break from late June until to end of August (altogether 8 weeks). During this time, we let the sample surface get dry to mimic the natural heat and drought conditions of the summer period (see also Török et al., [2018](#page-12-0) and Valkó et al., [2021\)](#page-12-0), as this heat stratification may be needed to break the dormancy of the seeds of some species (Baskin & Baskin, [1998](#page-9-0); Finch-Savage & Leubner-Metzger, [2006](#page-10-0)). During this interval, no seedlings emerged. Following the watering break, regular watering resumed and the germination process continued until mid-November, at which point the conditions became unfavourable for further germination.

At the end of the germination period, we identified all seedlings at the lowest possible taxonomic level, most individuals to the species level. Based on a former small-scale germination experiment with autumn-collected samples (Török et al., [2021](#page-12-0)) we were able to identify S. cryptandrus seedlings at a very early stage, which enabled us to count and remove them from the flowerpots. In case of graminoids, we pooled vegetative individuals of Carex stenophylla with Carex liparicarpos and Typha latifolia with Typha angustifolia as we were not able to grow them until identification at the species level was possible. In case of dicots, we pooled the seedlings of Arenaria leptoclados with Arenaria serpyllifolia, Artemisia scoparia with Artemisia campestris and Polygonum aviculare with Polygonum arenarium.

We also monitored the airborne seed contamination (especially crucial in the autumn period of germination) by including sample-free control flowerpots filled with steam-sterilised potting soil only. Seed contamination was primarily detected in the autumn period. Seedlings of wind-dispersed short-lived weeds or trees (Sonchus oleraceus three seedlings, Conyza canadensis—10 seedlings, Senecio vulgaris one seedling, Populus spp.—four seedlings) and other short-lived weedy species occurring in the close vicinity of the greenhouse (Geranium molle—two seedlings, Oxalis corniculata—seven seedlings) were established in the control pots. We considered these and decreased the number of the germinated seedlings of these species in the

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flowerpots accordingly or totally excluded them when it was deemed necessary.

Only a very small fraction of the seedlings was unidentified at the species level, either because they perished before identification, or because they did not develop diagnostic features even after 1 year (a few dicots, and Carex specimens; 16 individuals in total, less than 0.1% of all emerged seedlings, these were omitted from analyses). For the comparisons of species composition of vegetation and soil seed banks, we applied the same pooling also for the vegetation data.

# 2.2 | Data analyses

Two-way ANOVAs were calculated to compare the diversity and density of soil seedbanks of different sites. In these calculations, the four vertical segments of the soil seed bank samples were pooled and S. cryptandrus cover categories (ordinal variable) and site (nominal variable) were included as fixed factors. Dependent variables were soil seed bank density, species richness, Shannon diversity and Pielou's evenness calculated with the exclusion of S. cryptandrus. We also included the soil seed bank density of S. cryptandrus and the proportion of S. cryptandrus seeds in the soil seed banks as dependent variables. Two-way GLMMs were calculated to analyse the effect of sampling depth (ordinal variable), S. cryptandrus cover (ordinal variable) and their interactions on soil seed bank characteristics like soil seed bank density, species richness, Shannon diversity and Pielou's evenness calculated with the exclusion of S. cryptandrus. We also included the soil seed bank density of S. cryptandrus and the proportion of S. cryptandrus seeds in the total soil seed banks as dependent variables. Site identity was included as random factor in the latter calculations. Seed density scores were square root transformed to improve normality before the analyses. For the calculation of GLMs and GLMMs we used SPSS 26.0 (IBM Corp., [2019\)](#page-10-0). We calculated Sørensen similarity index (Sørensen, [1948\)](#page-11-0) between vegetation and soil seed banks with the following equation:  $2a/(A + B)$ , where 'a' is the number of species present both in vegetation and soil seed banks, 'A' and 'B' are the total number of species in the vegetation or soil seed banks respectively. We prepared two separate DCA ordinations for revealing compositional patterns. The first ordination was based on germinated seedling numbers of species, and the soil seed bank composition of different sites was compared. In the second ordination, we compared presence–absence datasets of vegetation and soil seed banks of different sites. Both ordinations were calculated using CANOCO 5.0 program package (Šmilauer & Lepš, [2014\)](#page-11-0).

# 3 | RESULTS

### 3.1 | Composition and density of soil seed bank

Besides S. cryptandrus, we found 92 species in the soil seed banks. Only 30 species comprised more than 90% of all viable seeds of the total soil seed bank density (Appendix [A\)](#page-13-0). Species with over 100 viable

seeds included C. canadensis (847 seeds), Portulaca oleracea (774), A. serpyllifolia (700), Cerastium semidecandrum (126), C. stenophylla (112) and Potentilla argentea (105). Altogether 19,313 seedlings emerged from the soil samples, out of these 15,149 were the seedlings of S. cryptandrus.

There were high differences both in the total soil seed bank densities and in the S. cryptandrus soil seed bank densities between the study sites (Table [2](#page-5-0)). The lowest soil seed bank densities were detected in the Kiskunhalas North site and almost 10 times higher values were found in the Debrecen site. The highest density of S. cryptandrus soil seed banks was detected in the Kecskemét Katonatelep site, the highest mean seed densities of the species were detected at cover category 4 and reached 95,000 seeds per  $m^2$  $m^2$  (Table 2). We found that increasing the cover of S. cryptandrus did not affect most of the studied soil seed bank characteristics. However, the soil seed bank density and the proportion of S. cryptandrus seeds in the soil seed bank were affected by S. cryptandrus cover and the highest soil seed bank densities of the species were found in plots with the highest cover of the species. All the studied soil seed bank characteristics were, however, affected by the study site, and in case of the density and proportion of S. cryptandrus soil seed bank, Shannon diversity and Pielou's evenness, the effect of the interaction between S. cryptandrus cover and site identity was also significant (Table [3](#page-6-0)).

The similarity of the vegetation and the soil seed banks was the highest in the Debrecen site, where the Sørensen similarity ranged between 0.32 and 0.59. For the other sites in the Kiskunság region, much lower scores were typical (0.10–0.31). This is also clearly shown by the presence-absence DCA ordination in Figure [2](#page-6-0). It is also clearly shown that the species composition of vegetation and soil seed banks were clearly separated. The point clouds representing the vegetation and soil seed bank composition of the Debrecen site were both clearly separated from that of the other four sites (Figure [2\)](#page-6-0). The soil seed bank composition of the Debrecen site is clearly separated from the point clouds for the Kecskemét Airport and Kiskunhalas North sites, while the other two sites were scaled in between these three sites (Figure [3\)](#page-6-0).

# 3.2 | Vertical composition and density of the soil seed bank

Both total soil seed bank density and the density of S. cryptandrus seeds were the highest in the upper 2.5 cm of the soil. Most of the studied soil seed bank characteristics were affected by the sampling depth, and none of the studied characteristics were affected by the increasing cover of S. cryptandrus. According to the model of S. cryptandrus seed density, the interaction between S. cryptandrus cover and sampling depth was also significant (Table [4\)](#page-7-0). It was found that the density of S. cryptandrus seeds in the upper 2.5 cm of the soil was much higher in the high cover plots (3rd and 4th cover category) than in the case of lower cover plots (Figure [4](#page-7-0)). A similar but less pronounced pattern was found for the seed density of the species in the deeper soil layers: the seed density of S. cryptandrus was much higher in the deeper soil layers of the high cover plots than in that of the low cover plots.

#### <span id="page-5-0"></span>TABLE 2 Most important characteristics of the soil seed banks of the different study sites.



Note: Density scores are calculated as seeds/ $m^2$  in the upper 10 cm soil layer (one-way ANOVA and Tukey test). Cover categories of Sporobolus cryptandrus: (1) no cover; (2) cover between 1% and 25%; (3) cover between 26% and 50%; (4) cover between 51% and 75%. <sup>a</sup>Calculated with the exclusion of Sporobolus cryptandrus (Mean ± SE).

# 4 | DISCUSSION

# 4.1 | Composition and density of the soil seed bank

We hypothesised that the soil seed bank diversity and density of other species decrease with the increasing cover of S. cryptandrus.

This hypothesis was not supported by the results as neither the diversity nor the density of the soil seed bank was affected by increasing S. cryptandrus cover. Former results indicated that the change in the composition of soil seed banks is much slower compared to the aboveground vegetation which is also the reason why soil seed banks can act as successional memory reflecting the past composition of the vegetation (Sun et al., [2013](#page-11-0); Tóth et al., [2022\)](#page-12-0). A meta-analysis <span id="page-6-0"></span>TABLE 3 Effect of Sporobolus cryptandrus cover, site and their interaction on soil seed bank characteristics.



Note: Significant effects are denoted with bold face ( $p < 0.05$ ), marginally significant effects ( $p < 0.1$ ) with *italics* (two-way GLMs). <sup>a</sup>Calculated with the exclusion of S. cryptandrus.



FIGURE 2 The similarity of vegetation and soil seed banks of the studied sites displayed by a DCA ordination based on presence–absence datasets of vegetation and soil seed banks. The gradient length of the first and second axis are 5.32 and 4.07 respectively. Notations: First letter of the site codes denotes with V—vegetation or S—soil seed bank, second one or two letters denote the sites D, Debrecen; KA, Kecskemét Airport; KE, Kiskunhalas East; KN, Kiskunhalas North; KT, Kecskemét Katonatelep. Different numbers and colours denote the cover categories of Sporobolus cryptandrus. 0 and green  $= 0\%$  of S. cryptandrus, while 1 with blue  $= 1\% - 25\%$ , 2 with orange  $= 26\% -$ 50%, 3 with red  $= 51\% - 75\%$  respectively. The most frequent 30 species are shown with an abbreviation of four letters of the genus and four letters of species names as follows: Ambrarte, Ambrosia artemisiifolia; Anthruth, Anthemis ruthenica; Arenserp, Arenaria serpyllifolia; Basslani, Bassia laniflora; Botrisch, Botriochloa ischaemum; Bromsqua, Bromus squarrosus; Caresten, Carex stenophylla; Centaren, Centaurea arenaria; Cerasemi, Cerastium semidecandrum; Chenalbu, Chenopodium album; Conycana, Conyza canadensis; Creprhoe, Crepis rhoeadifolia; Cynodact, Cynodon dactylon; Eryncamp, Eryngium campestre; Erysdiff, Erysimum diffusum; Euphcypa, Euphorbia cyparissias; Medimini, Medicago minima; Planlanc, Plantago lanceolata; Poa\_angu, Poa angustifolia; Poa\_bulb, Poa bulbosa; Polyavic, Polygonum aviculare; Potearge, Potentilla argentea; Secasylv, Secale sylvestre; Setaviri, Setaria viridis; Sileconi, Silene conica.



FIGURE 3 The similarity of seed banks of the studied sites displayed by a DCA ordination based on seedling numbers. The gradient length of the first and second axis are 3.57 and 3.01 respectively. Notations: The letters denote the sites D, Debrecen; KA, Kecskemét Airport; KE, Kiskunhalas East; KN, Kiskunhalas North; KT, Kecskemét Katonatelep. Different first numbers and colours denote the cover categories of Sporobolus cryptandrus. 0 and green  $= 0\%$  of S. cryptandrus, 1 and blue  $= 1\% - 25\%$ , 2 and orange  $= 26\% - 50\%$ , 3 and red  $= 51\% - 75\%$  respectively. The most abundant 30 species are shown with an abbreviation of four letters of the genus and four letters of species names as follows in order of decreasing number of seedlings: Ambrarte, Ambrosia artemisiifolia; Arenserp, Arenaria serpyllifolia; Caresten, Carex stenophylla; Ceraglut, Cerastium glutinosum; Cerasemi, Cerastium semidecandrum; Ceravulg, Cerastium vulgare; Chenalbu, Chenopodium album; Conycana, Conyza canadensis; Erysdiff, Erysimum diffusum; Holoumbe, Holosteum umbellatum; Medilupu, Medicago lupulina; Minuglau, Minuartia glaucina; Oenobien, Oenothera biennis; Oxaldill, Oxalis dillenii; Poa\_angu, Poa angustifolia; Poa\_prat, Poa pratensis; Polyavic, Polygonum aviculare; Portoler, Portulaca oleracea; Potearge, Potentilla argentea; Saxitrid, Saxifraga tridactylites; Setaviri, Setaria viridis; Sileconi, Silene conica; Stelmedi, Stellaria media; Verbphlo, Verbascum phlomoides; Veroarve, Veronica arvensis.

by Gioria et al. [\(2014\)](#page-10-0) indicated that plant invasions generally reduce the density and species richness of the soil seed banks of the subjected community. Hager et al. [\(2015](#page-10-0)) found a markedly negative <span id="page-7-0"></span>TABLE 4 Effect of Sporobolus cryptandrus cover, sampling depth and their interaction on soil seed bank characteristics.



Note: Significant effects are denoted with bold face ( $p < 0.05$ ), marginally significant effects ( $p < 0.1$ ) with italics (two-way GLMMs). Site identity was included as a random factor to the calculations.

<sup>a</sup>Calculated with the exclusion of S. cryptandrus.



FIGURE 4 Density of Sporobolus cryptandrus seeds in different vertical segments of the soil seed bank in plots with different cover of the species (Square root/SQ transformed data). Cover categories: no S. cryptandrus cover (1), cover of Sporobolus cryptandrus is between 1% and 25% (2), 26%–50% (3) and 51%–75% (4) respectively. Vertical segments:  $1 = 0-2.5$  cm,  $2 = 2.5-5$  cm,  $3 = 5-7.5$  cm and  $4 = 7.5-$ 10 cm respectively.

effect of invasive species encroachment on soil seed bank diversity and a less marked negative effect on the density of the soil seed bank. Upon excluding the seed bank of the invasive species from the analyses, we observed that neither the density nor the diversity of the seed banks in the studied communities were affected by the invasive species. There may be several reasons for these contrasting results. First, the composition of the soil seed bank is highly conservative and changes rather slowly, thereby acting as a successional memory of the community. For evaluating the effects of an invasive species on the soil seed bank it is important to know the residence time of the invasive species, that is, the time elapsed since the invasive species was established in a particular site or community (Gioria & Pyšek, [2016\)](#page-10-0). In

our case, we assume, considering also the regular field works and monitoring activities of the national park rangers in the region, that in most of the study sites the establishment of the species is quite recent and its residence time should not be longer than a maximum of about 10–15 years (the first discovery of the species in Hungary was near the Debrecen site in 2016, Török et al., [2018](#page-12-0)). Second, as S. cryptandrus is a tussock-forming species (bunchgrass) with a very limited ability of clonal spreading, it does not form a very dense plant cover compared to some clonally spreading grasses like Calamagrostis or Elymus species (it was rare that its cover exceeded 60% in our study sites). Thus, it is also possible that its spread causes weaker dispersal and establishment limitation than some other invasive but clonally spreading species which form a dense and more even cover of the soil surface.

The density and diversity of soil seed banks (excluding S. cryptandrus) were highly affected by the site, but none of the studied characteristics were affected by the increasing cover of S. cryptandrus except for the proportion of the species' seeds in the soil seed bank. In former studies, it was found that the soil seed bank density of sand grasslands ranged from a few hundred to a couple of 10,000 seeds per square meter considering the upper 5 or 10 cm layer of the soil (see e.g. Godefroid et al., [2018;](#page-10-0) Symonides, [1979](#page-11-0) and Török et al., [2018\)](#page-12-0). Besides the study region, soil seed bank densities in our study sites were presumably also influenced by water availability and degradation status (Thompson et al., [1997](#page-12-0)). In our study, the highest density of soil seed banks not considering the seeds of the invasive species has been detected at the Debrecen site, which is a degraded grassland with many weedy species in the vegetation, which usually form persistent soil seed banks. The high site effect also points out that the density and composition of soil seed banks are highly conservative and, as also found in other studies, it reflects the past vegetation composition of the sites (Bossuyt & Honnay, [2008;](#page-10-0) Wellstein et al., [2007\)](#page-12-0).

Hopfensperger [\(2007\)](#page-10-0) stressed that in grasslands similarity between the standing vegetation and the soil seed bank is higher compared to wetland and forest ecosystems. Similarity between the standing vegetation and the soil seed bank can be variable even within grasslands: low similarity is typical for sand grassland, for example (Godefroid et al., [2018;](#page-10-0) Török et al., [2018](#page-12-0)), but similarity is higher, for example, in fen meadows and alkali grasslands (Valkó et al., [2011,](#page-12-0) [2014\)](#page-12-0). It was also shown that the similarity between the vegetation and the soil seed bank is strongly influenced by grassland management, disturbances, different conditions of stress and by dispersal and establishment limitations (Auestad et al., [2013](#page-9-0); Valkó et al., [2014](#page-12-0)). We found the highest similarity between the vegetation and the soil seed bank in the Debrecen site; the similarities for the other four sites in the Kiskunság were rather low. These findings are also in line with our results on soil seed bank densities and suggest that the composition of the soil seed bank and its similarity to the composition of aboveground vegetation are both highly site-dependent.

# 4.2 | The soil seed bank density of S. cryptandrus

We hypothesised that the soil seed bank density of S. cryptandrus is highly affected by its cover and the soil seed bank density of the species increases with its increasing cover. This hypothesis was supported by our results. The soil seed bank formation ability of S. cryptandrus has been previously validated in its native range (Clements et al., [2007](#page-10-0)). In the present study, we demonstrated that it forms a massive soil seed bank in invaded grasslands as well. Gioria et al. ([2012\)](#page-10-0) listed only 36 species for which soil seed bank studies are available in their introduced ranges. Unfortunately, for perennial grasses, soil seed bank data was collected only for Agropyron desertorum invasion in North America in which only sporadic soil seed banks (up to 93 seeds/m<sup>2</sup>) have been validated for the species in invaded sites (Gioria et al., [2012](#page-10-0)). In contrast, we found that in some of the sites, the seed density of S. cryptandrus exceeded several tens of thousands of seeds per square metre. We also found that the increasing cover of the species caused an increasing proportion of S. cryptandrus seeds in the total soil seed bank, and even in plots with no S. cryptandrus cover, we found some viable seeds of the species in the soil. This can be explained by the massive seed production and effective dispersal of the species (Ingimarsdóttir et al., [2012](#page-10-0); Shmida & Wilson, [1985\)](#page-11-0). Former studies indicated that the yearly seed production of the species can reach 10,000 seeds per individual; the seeds of the species are tiny (approx. 1 mm in diameter) and likely being incorporated in the soil seed banks. By a very small-scale autumn sampling in the Debrecen site in 2019, we also found that the species built up a persistent soil seed bank of  $1114-3077$  seeds/m<sup>2</sup> (Török et al., [2021\)](#page-12-0). Comparing these results with our current findings for spring samples (637–3899 seeds/m<sup>2</sup>), considering that the species germinates in the spring, we can assume that the species builds up a considerably dense persistent soil seed bank in all sites.

The detected soil seed bank density of S. cryptandrus in some sites is comparable to the seed density of small-seeded hygrophytic graminoids in some wet grassland habitats, and much higher than that of characteristic grass species in primary and secondary dry grasslands in the region. Many characteristic perennial C3 grass species of dry grasslands with relatively high cover in the vegetation (>20%) like

Festuca vaginata (Török et al., [2018](#page-12-0)), Festuca pseudovina (Valkó et al., [2014](#page-12-0)), Poa angustifolia (Török et al., [2009](#page-12-0), [2018\)](#page-12-0), or some Stipa species (Török et al., [2018\)](#page-12-0) possessed much lower density soil seed banks (up to  $1200-1400$  seeds/m<sup>2</sup> for the upper 10 cm of the soil) than S. cryptandrus in our study. Among the perennial grasses that have at least 5% cover in the vegetation in at least one of the study sites (reported in Török et al., [2021\)](#page-12-0), we detected soil seed bank only for Calamagrostis epigeios (80 seeds/m<sup>2</sup>), Lolium perenne (239 seeds/  $m<sup>2</sup>$ ), F. pseudovina (up to 318 seeds/m<sup>2</sup>) and P. angustifolia (up to  $2308$  seeds/m<sup>2</sup>). Large-seeded wetland graminoids such as Elymus athericus (Erfanzadeh et al., [2010\)](#page-10-0) were found not forming a seed bank, but high soil seed bank density scores similar to what we found for S. cryptandrus are typical for small-seeded but hygrophytic perennial graminoids like Scirpoides holoschoenus (Török et al., [2018\)](#page-12-0), Agrostis stolonifera and several Juncus species (found in many studies, see e.g. Schmiede et al., [2009](#page-11-0); Valkó et al., [2011,](#page-12-0) [2014\)](#page-12-0).

Although existing information on the residence time of S. cryptandrus in our sites is scarce and largely based on anecdotal evidence and estimations (up to 10–15 years), we can consider the plots with progressively increasing invasive species cover as a temporal scale to assess the invasion's progression (space-for-time substitution, Miao et al., [2018;](#page-11-0) Wang et al., [2022\)](#page-12-0). In line with our findings, previous studies comparing stands invaded for different durations have demonstrated that long-term invaded stands have higher seed abundance and greater impact on vegetation compared to recently invaded stands (Gioria & Pyšek, [2016](#page-10-0)). Due to its quickly accumulating soil seed bank, spending more time trying to understand the characteristics of this invasive species will probably make its suppression more costly and difficult (Simberloff, [2003\)](#page-11-0). Moreover, the droughts becoming more and more frequent and severe in several regions can cause the dieback of native plants (Miao et al., [2022,](#page-11-0) Orbán et al., 2023), creating further opportunities for S. cryptandrus to colonise natural grasslands. Thus, we emphasise the critical importance of initiating management actions aimed at suppressing S. cryptandrus as soon as possible, in the meantime conducting further studies on the ecology and population biology of the species.

# 4.3 | Vertical composition and density of the soil seed bank

We hypothesised that both soil seed bank diversity and density decrease with increasing sampling depth and that the decrease in density is affected by the increasing S. cryptandrus cover. This hypothesis was only partly supported: while the diversity and density of soil seed banks decreased with increasing soil depth, the decrease in its density was not affected by S. cryptandrus cover. Gioria and Pyšek ([2016\)](#page-10-0) suggested that future soil seed bank studies focusing on the effect of invasive species should consider the seed bank in different soil layers. This knowledge can help in the assessment of the persistence of the invasive species seed banks and also to assess the effect of possible accumulation of the seeds of invasive species on the persistent soil seed banks of the deeper soil layers (Gioria et al., [2011](#page-10-0); Gioria &

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<span id="page-9-0"></span>Osborne, [2010](#page-10-0); Gioria & Pyšek, [2016;](#page-10-0) Holmes, [2002](#page-10-0)). In our study, we analysed four 2.5 cm soil segments and analysed the seed bank composition of both the invasive species and the subjected community. All soil seed bank characteristics were affected by the increasing sampling depth; there was a decreasing richness, diversity and soil seed bank density detected with an increasing sampling depth. The same results were found in most soil seed bank studies in various types of grasslands and regions (Godefroid et al., [2006](#page-10-0); Luzuriaga et al., [2005](#page-11-0); Niknam et al., [2018](#page-11-0); Qian et al., [2016\)](#page-11-0). It is also stated that viable seeds detected in deeper soil layers are likely older than those detected in more shallow layers because getting incorporated into deeper soil layers takes more time (Bekker et al., 1998). It was found also by other studies that the density of soil seed banks is rapidly decreasing with increasing soil depth and in general the upper few centimetres of the soil contain a high proportion of the soil seed banks (Bekker et al., 1998; Ma et al., [2010](#page-11-0); Tóth et al., [2022](#page-12-0)). This was also validated by the current study, as most of the seeds both for other species and the invasive species were located in the upper 5 cm of the soil.

In a former laboratory experiment, we found that 1 cm of soil covering was enough to significantly decrease the germination percentage of the seeds of S. cryptandrus (Török et al., [2021\)](#page-12-0). This effect is even stronger when there is some litter covering the soil surface. This implies that the successful re-establishment of the species even in sites with its high-density soil seed banks needs at least shallow soil disturbance and the formation of gaps in the vegetation with bare soil. It was also found in the current study that the density of S. cryptandrus seeds in the upper 2.5 cm of the soil increased with higher magnitude in the soil of high cover plots than in plots with lower cover of the species and also distinct patterns for the deeper soil layers were found for the first two lower cover categories than for the last two higher ones (See Figure [4\)](#page-7-0). This means that the massive seed production of S. cryptandrus in the two higher cover categories results in an increased density of the species' soil seed bank in the deeper layers as well.

# 5 | CONCLUSIONS

We found that S. cryptandrus forms a high-density soil seed bank, highly supporting its local establishment and persistence. These findings suggest that the suppression and/or eradication of this invasive species will be especially challenging. Our findings suggest that the eradication of the species can be the most successful in sites where the establishment of the species is very recent and its cover is still low because at those sites the species has a relatively low seed density at least in the deeper soil layers. This means that immediate actions would be necessary in sites where the species was established only recently to avoid the accumulation of its soil seed bank. Our result that the species generates a dense soil seed bank even at sites where it does not have a very high cover yet indicates that any intervention that would disturb the soil surface could result in the activation of this seed bank and thus in an even faster spread of the species. Therefore, control methods that generate soil disturbance and patches with bare

soil surface should be avoided. If the physical removal of tussocks is necessary, it should be accompanied by soil covering by hay or grass litter, which was previously found to effectively prevent the germination of the seeds. The exceptionally long and dramatic drought to which our study region has been exposed in the past few years resulted in some dieback of the native perennial species. This dieback of native plants, together with the dense soil seed bank formation of S. cryptandrus, forecasts the further rapid spread of this invasive species in the region, which should be closely monitored in the forthcoming years.

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### CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that the published research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

#### DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Detailed underlying data summarised in the Appendix are available on request from the corresponding author.

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APPENDIX A: Seed bank Composition of the Studied Sites APPENDIX A: Seed bank Composition of the Studied Sites

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