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Author for correspondence:

Marcos Yanniccari, Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas, Chacra Experimental Integrada Barrow (MAA-INTA), RN 3 km 487, Tres Arroyos (7500), Argentina. (Email: marcosyanniccari@conicet.gov.ar)

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Cross-resistance to acetyl-CoA carboxylase– inhibiting herbicides conferred by a target-site mutation in perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*) from Argentina

Marcos Yanniccari¹ and Ramón Gigón²

¹Researcher, Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas, Laboratory of Biotechnology and Plant Genetics, Chacra Experimental Integrada Barrow (MAA-INTA), Tres Arroyos, Argentina and ²Private Consultant in Weed Control, Tres Arroyos, Argentina

Abstract

In Argentina, Lolium spp. occur in 40% of winter cereal crops from the Pampas. Several years ago, cases of glyphosate-resistant perennial ryegrass (Lolium perenne L.) were detected, and the use of acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACCase)-inhibiting herbicides to eradicate these plants has been considered. The aim of this study was to evaluate the sensitivity of a putative pinoxadenresistant L. perenne population to ACCase-inhibiting herbicides. Around 80% of plants from the putative resistant population survived at a recommended dose of pinoxaden, and they produced viable seeds. The resistance indices (RIs) to pinoxaden were 5.1 and 2.8 for plant survival and seed production, respectively. A single point mutation that conferred a Asp-2078-Gly substitution in ACCase was the source of the resistance. To match the plant control achieved in the susceptible population, the resistant population required 5.4- and 10.4-fold greater doses of clethodim and quizalofop, respectively. RIs for viable seed production when treated with clethodim and quizalofop were 3.3 and 6.6, respectively. The Asp-2078-Gly mutation endowed significant levels of resistance to pinoxaden, clethodim, and quizalofop. For three herbicides, the level of resistance of a pinoxaden-resistant L. perenne population to ACCase inhibitors was evaluated, based on an evaluation of dose response for plant survival and seed production. The RIs were higher for plant survival than for seed production. In Argentina, the selection pressure associated with clethodim and haloxifop preplant application and pinoxaden use on wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) and barley (Hordeum vulgare L.) crops, would have favored the propagation of the Asp-2078-Gly mutation with its associated resistance.

Introduction

The evolution of herbicide-resistant weeds has been highlighted as a major challenge for agriculture (Baucom 2019). Since the first case of herbicide-resistant rigid ryegrass (*Lolium rigidum* Gaudin) reported in 1982 (Heap and Knight 1982), *Lolium* species have evolved resistance to active compounds with more than 10 sites of action (Heap 2019).

Lolium spp. are a major weed problem in winter cereal crops from five continents, and they leads to wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) yield losses of up to 55% (Bararpour et al. 2018; De Prado et al. 2005; Lemerle et al. 1995; Mahmood et al. 2016; Sabet Zangeneh et al. 2018; Scursoni et al. 2012; Smit et al. 1999; Zhang et al. 2017). In Argentina, *L. perenne* and Italian ryegrass [*Lolium perenne* (L.) ssp. *multiflorum* (Lam.) Husnot] occur in 40% of wheat and barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) crops from the Pampas (Istilart and Yanniccari 2012; Scursoni et al. 2014). Chemical weed management has been based on glyphosate treatments during fallow periods before winter crop planting and acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACCase)- or acetohydroxyacid synthase–inhibiting herbicides applied POST in wheat or barley crops.

In response to that management regime, cases of glyphosate-resistant *L. perenne* have been detected over large areas where glyphosate exerts a strong selection pressure on weeds (Yanniccari et al. 2012). ACCase-inhibiting herbicides have been used to control glyphosate-resistant plants; specifically, clethodim or haloxifop have been applied early preplant and pinoxaden or clodinafop later on wheat crops (Yanniccari et al. 2012). However, the evolution of ACCase herbicide-resistant *Lolium* spp. has been demonstrated in several countries (De Prado et al. 2005; Kaundun 2013a; Yu et al. 2007), and putative ACCase-resistant populations of *Lolium* spp. have been detected in Argentina (Gigón and Yanniccari 2018).

The biochemical basis of ACCase-herbicide resistance could mainly be either through enhanced rates of herbicide metabolism or molecular mutations in the *ACCase* gene, endowing target site-based herbicide resistance (Powles and Yu 2010; Yu et al. 2007). In the first case, herbicides are metabolized to products with reduced phytotoxicity by cytochrome P450

monooxygenases (Yu and Powles 2014). Since the first case of resistance to diclofop-methyl in *L. rigidum*, endowed by enhanced detoxification, several *Lolium* spp. populations have shown resistance to a large number of herbicides with several different modes of action (Preston 2004; Preston et al. 1996; Vila-Aiub et al. 2005).

Three classes of commercially available herbicides, aryloxyphenoxy propionates (FOPs), cyclohexanediones (DIMs), and phenylpyrazolines (DEN), target the carboxyltransferase (CT) activity of ACCase; however, 14 spontaneous mutations in the CT domain of this enzyme have been shown to confer herbicide resistance: Ile-1781-Leu, Ile-1781-Val, Ile-1781-Arg, Ile-1781-Thr, Trp-1999-Cys, Trp-1999-Leu, Trp-1999-Ser, Trp-2027-Cys, Ile-2041-Asn, Ile-2041-Val, Asp-2078-Gly, Cys-2088-Arg, Gly-2096-Ala, and Gly-2096-Ser (amino acid residues correspond to the native blackgrass [Alopecurus myosuroides Huds.] ACCase sequence) (Jang et al. 2013; Kaundun et al. 2013a, 2013b; Yu et al. 2007, 2010). Target site-based herbicide resistance can also be associated with major mutations underlying adaptive phenotypes (Baucom, 2019). In general terms, Asp-2078-Gly and Cys-2088-Arg mutations confer resistance to FOPs, DIMs, and DEN (Kukorelli et al. 2013). The remaining mutations confer different levels of resistance to these herbicides, depending on specific amino acid changes, the number of resistant alleles, weed species, plant growth stage, and recommended field rates for the herbicides (Kaundun 2014).

While a resistance gene increases its frequency depending on the herbicides used, operational and biological factors (Powles and Yu 2010) and knowledge of the mechanism of resistance can support an appropriate management strategy (Evans et al. 2016). That might mean an adequate rotation of herbicides with different sites of action (Scarabel et al. 2007) or that are detoxified by different metabolic pathways, for example, cytochrome P450 monooxygenases and glutathione S-transferase (Busi 2018); the correct mixture of specific herbicides (Beckie and Reboud 2009); the possibility of exploiting fitness costs(Keshtkar et al. 2019); and an assessment of the capacity for resistance spread within and among populations (Mithila and Godar 2013).

As indicated earlier, because of the importance of ACCaseinhibiting herbicides in controlling glyphosate-resistant *Lolium* spp. plants during both fallow and POST periods, a putative pinoxaden-resistant *L. perenne* population threatens to undermine the efficacy of these herbicides. As such, this study evaluated the sensitivity of a putative pinoxaden-resistant *L. perenne* population from Argentina to ACCase-inhibiting herbicides. In addition, the cause of the poor plant control achieved by pinoxaden in this population was determined.

Materials and Methods

Experimental Site and Plant Material

Experiments were carried out in Chacra Experimental Integrada Barrow (38.32°S, 60.23°W) from 2017 to 2019. Each experiment was repeated twice.

In December 2016, seeds were sampled from a putative pinoxaden-resistant *L. perenne* population that had arisen in a wheat field (38.32°S, 60.47°W), where the crop rotation involved wheat–soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.] and barley–soybean. In this system, weed control had been based on recurring applications of glyphosate and clethodim or haloxyfop during fallow; pinoxaden, dicamba, 2,4-D, and metsulfuron in wheat and barley crops; and glyphosate in soybean crop. In addition to the putative

pinoxaden-resistant population, seeds were sampled from a neighboring population susceptible to ACCase-inhibiting herbicides established as weeds in a wheat field (38.43°S, 60.97°W) (without application of ACCase-inhibiting herbicides in the last 5 yr). Thirty plants of each population were chosen at random from wheat fields and were stored under laboratory conditions at 20 to 25 C before being used in the current study.

Dose-Response Assays

Herbicide sensitivities of progeny obtained from both populations were compared using the assessments outlined in the following sections.

Germination Test

Seed germination percentage and plumule growth were evaluated under different pinoxaden concentrations following the methodology described by Murray et al. (1996) with modifications. Fifty seeds were placed in petri dishes containing filter paper and 10 ml of the following: pinoxaden (Axial[®], pinoxaden [50 g ai L^{-1}] plus cloquintocet-mexyl [12.5 g L⁻¹]; Syngenta Agro S.A., Av. Del Libertador 1855, Vicente López, Argentina) media (each pinoxaden concentration included cloquintocet-mexyl in a 4:1 ratio, respectively): 0, 0.01, 0.1, 1, 10, 100, and 1,000 µM. For each treatment, there were four replicate petri dishes in a completely randomized design. The seeds were incubated in a growth chamber with 75 mmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ of photosynthetically active radiation in a 12-h light/12-h darkness regime and temperatures of 25 and 20 C for day and night, respectively. After 7 d, the number of germinated seeds for which the radicle protruded from the seed coat ≥ 0.5 mm was recorded. In addition, plumule length was measured from the point of attachment to the seed to the tip of the coleoptile.

Plant Survival and Seed Production

In August 2017 and 2018, seeds of each population were sown in 2-L pots filled with soil. Seedlings on emerging were thinned to four to five per pot. The plants were grown in a greenhouse at 21 C (average temperature) in a completely randomized design and were irrigated at least every 2 d. Pinoxaden, clethodim, or quizalofop-P-tefuryl was applied to plants with 1 to 2 tillers using a laboratory belt sprayer calibrated to deliver 2001 ha⁻¹. The herbicides were applied at the following doses: pinoxaden (Axial[®], pinoxaden [50 g ai L⁻¹] plus cloquintocet-mexyl [12.5 g L⁻¹]; Syngenta Agro S.A.) at 0, 12.5, 25, 50, 100, and 200 g ai ha^{-1} (recommended dose: 30 to 40 g ai ha^{-1}); clethodim (Select[®], clethodim 240 g ai L⁻¹; Bayer S.A., Ricardo Gutierrez 3652, Munro, Argentina) at 0, 32.5, 65, 130, 260, and 520 g ai ha⁻¹ (recommended dose: 110 to 280 g ai ha⁻¹); and quizalofop (Rango® GR, quizalofop-P-tefuryl 120 g ai L⁻¹; Arysta Lifescience Argentina S.A., Enciso 1463, Tigre, Argentina) at 0, 21.8, 43.7, 87.5, 175, and 350 g ai ha⁻¹ (recommended dose: 35 to 112 g ai ha⁻¹). Following the manufacturers' recommendations, 0.2% v/v ethoxylated alcohol was used as surfactant for clethodim and quizalofop spraying. For each treatment, there were five replicates in a completely randomized design, wherein each pot was a sampling unit.

At 45 d post herbicide application, plant survival was evaluated by recording the number of dead and live plants. Plants with severe visual injury (chlorosis of newly emerged leaves, general browning, and severe growth reduction) were recorded as "dead" plants, while "surviving" plants showed no differences in their growth or color of their leaves compared with control plants. These data were used to calculate the percentage of surviving plants per sampling unit (the number of surviving plants was divided by the total number of plants per pot and multiplied by 100).

At the end of the plant life cycle, all plants were harvested and manually threshed. After seeds were separated from the residual inflorescences, the number of seeds produced per plant was determined using a seed counter (Pfeuffer GMBH, Kitzingen, Germany).

The seeds obtained were stored at room temperature for 3 mo (time required to terminate seed dormancy). The viability of the seeds obtained from surviving plants was evaluated by incubating seeds in petri dishes containing filter paper and 10 ml of water and determining the germination percentage. One hundred seeds per treatment were evaluated. This test was carried out in a growth chamber under the conditions previously described.

Peroxidase Activity under Pinoxaden Treatment

Plants obtained from seeds of the susceptible and putative pinoxaden-resistant populations were grown in a greenhouse following the methodology and using the materials described earlier. When plants had developed 1 to 2 tillers, four individuals from each population were treated with 0 or 50 g ha^{-1} pinoxaden. The last expanded leaf of each plant was sampled at 10 d after application of the herbicide. Immediately, 0.3 g fresh weight of these samples were ground in nitrogen liquid and placed in 1.5-ml tubes containing 1 ml 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 6.5) and 10% (v/v) glycerol at 4 C. The tubes were then centrifuged at 400 \times g for 5 min at 4 C. Peroxidase activity was determined for an aliquot of each supernatant, based on the oxidation of pyrogallol to purpuro-galline ($\varepsilon = 2.47 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) (Puntarulo et al. 1988). The reaction mixtures consisted of 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 6.5), 45 mM pyrogallol, and 8 mM H₂O₂ at 25 C. Absorbance was measured on a spectrophotometer at 430 nm, and peroxidase activity was expressed in terms of the amount of purpuro-galline produced (mmol min⁻¹ g⁻¹ fresh weight of leaf).

Test of the Inhibition of Pinoxaden Detoxification through Cytochrome P450 Monooxygenases

The inhibition of pinoxaden detoxification had been performed using malathion as a cytochrome P450 monooxygenase inhibitor (Keith et al. 2015; Matzrafi et al. 2014). Based on this, the interaction between pinoxaden and malathion was evaluated on plumule growth. The susceptible and putative pinoxaden-resistant populations were tested in this assessment; however, another pinoxadenresistant *L. perenne* population was also included in the evaluation as a positive control, as this was known to undergo detoxification through cytochrome P450 monooxygenases (Yanniccari et al. 2018).

Three hundred seeds of each population were incubated in petri dishes containing a wet filter paper in a growth chamber, with 75 mmol m⁻² s⁻¹ of photosynthetically active radiation, in a 12-h light/12-h dark regime, at temperatures of 25 and 20 C for day and night, respectively. After 48 h, germinated seeds with a radicle length of ≥ 0.2 mm were transferred to 10-ml glass test tubes (4 seeds per tube) containing cotton and 1 ml of one of the following four treatments: 1 μ M pinoxaden, 10 ppm malathion, 1 μ M pinoxaden plus 10 ppm malathion, and deionized water (control). Ten tubes were used as replicates for each population and treatment. After incubation for 5 d in a growth chamber under the conditions described above, the plumule length was measured from the point of attachment to the seed to the tip of the coleoptile.

Partial Sequencing of ACCase

Total DNA was extracted from leaf tissue of six plants of the susceptible and resistant populations by the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide protocol of Doyle and Doyle (1990). DNA yield and quality were evaluated spectrophotometrically. The DNA was used as a template to amplify two regions of the ACCase gene sequence, using primer pairs, ACCase A (F 5'-GGCTCAGCTATGTTCCTGCT-3' and R 5'-CAAGCCTACCCATGCATTCT-3') and ACCase B (F 5'-GGCTCAGCTATGTTCCTGCT-3' and R 5'-CAAGCCTACCCA TGCATTCT-3'), according to Matzrafi et al. (2014). The amplified sequences encompassed the positions of all the known mutations described earlier. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) products were purified by ethanol precipitation at -20 C. The samples were then centrifuged at $32,000 \times g$ for 20 min at 4 C. The resulting pellets were washed three times with 70% ethanol and then resuspended in ultrapure water. Nucleotide sequences were obtained for the PCR fragments in these DNA preparations. The sequence data obtained were cleaned, aligned, translated, and compared at the Ile-1781, Trp-1999, Trp-2027, Ile-2041, Asp-2078, Cys-2088, and Gly-2096 codons.

Statistical Analysis

Dose–response data were used to build dose–response curves with a nonlinear log-logistic regression model:

$$y = D/(1 + (x/I_{50})^b)$$
[1]

where *y* represents the response at herbicide dose *x*, *D* is the upper asymptote, I_{50} is the herbicide dose required to achieve 50% of the maximum response, and *b* is the slope of the line at I_{50} . To assess the accuracy of the model, *F*-tests for model significance, coefficient of determination (R²), and residual variance analysis were calculated. Models obtained were compared with the extra sum-of-squares *F*-test using GraphPad Prism[®] v. 6.01 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). Based on this analysis, population data from replicated experiments were pooled when P > 0.05 and model parameters were recalculated using the combined evidence. Finally, the I_{50} values from susceptible and resistant populations were compared with the *F*-test (P < 0.05) (GraphPad Software). Resistance indices (RI) were calculated as the ratio of I_{50} of the pinoxaden-resistant population compared with the susceptible population.

Data from peroxidase activity assays and tests for inhibition of pinoxaden detoxification were analyzed by multifactorial analysis of variance (ANOVA). Data from replicated experiments were pooled when no significant differences between data sets were detected (P > 0.05). In all cases, residual plots indicated that variances were normally distributed and homogenous. When ANOVA indicated significant effects, means were compared using Fisher's protected least significant difference test (P < 0.05).

Results and Discussion

Pinoxaden Resistance

At a pinoxaden dose of 50 g ai ha^{-1} (25% higher than the recommended dose of 30 to 40 g ha^{-1} ; Syngenta Agro S.A.) approximately 80% of plants from the putative resistant population survived, while only 7% of plants remained alive in the susceptible population (Figure 1A). However, only surviving plants from the pinoxaden-resistant population produced seeds at this dose (Figure 1B). When 200 g ai ha^{-1} of pinoxaden (the maximum dose

Table 1. Variables measured in dose–response assays and parameter estimates from the nonlinear log-logistic regression model ($y = D/(1 + (x/I_{50})^b)$) of resistant and susceptible *Lolium perenne* populations treated with pinoxaden (data from two replicated experiments).^a

Variable	Population	D	b	I ₅₀	R ²	P-value					
		%		g ai ha ⁻¹							
Plant survival	Susceptible	101.1	4.7	21.1	0.96	P < 0.001					
	Resistant	99.6	1.0	108.1*	0.76	P < 0.001					
RI = 5.1											
		seeds plant ⁻¹		g ai ha⁻¹							
Seed production	Susceptible	206.4	1.5	9.2	0.92	P < 0.001					
	Resistant	205.0	0.8	26.2*	0.85	P < 0.001					
RI = 2.8											
		%		μΜ							
Germination	Susceptible	59.7	1.0	0.6	0.87	P < 0.001					
	Resistant	67.4	1.0	16.2*	0.80	P < 0.001					
RI = 27.0											
		mm		μΜ							
Length of plumule	Susceptible	47.0	1.0	0.3	0.94	P < 0.001					
	Resistant	53.9	1.0	8.8*	0.90	P < 0.001					
RI = 29.0											

^aAsterisks indicate significant differences between herbicide doses required to achieve 50% of the maximum response calculated on susceptible and resistant populations. Resistance indices (RI) are shown.



Figure 1. Effect of pinoxaden doses on plant survival (A) and seed production (B) in a resistant and a susceptible *Lolium perenne* population. Black and white symbols represent mean values from experiments conducted during 2017 and 2018, respectively, and bars indicate ± 1 standard error of the mean. The predicted responses are shown by lines according to the adjusted models ($y = D/(1 + (x/I_{50})^b)$.



Figure 2. Peroxidase activity of susceptible and resistant *Lolium perenne* plants. Purpuro-galline produced by peroxidase at 10 d post application of pinoxaden compared with untreated control plants. Columns represent mean values, and vertical bars indicate the standard error of the mean (pooled data from replicated experiments). Asterisk indicates significant differences (P < 0.05) between a treatment and the control in the same population.

evaluated) was applied, pinoxaden-resistant plants produced around 15% of the seeds obtained from untreated control plants (Figure 1B).

Regression models of plant survival and seed production for both populations were compared, and I_{50} parameters differed significantly between susceptible and pinoxaden-resistant populations. RIs for plant survival and seed production were 5.1 and 2.8, respectively (Table 1).

When peroxidase activity was evaluated, ANOVA results showed a significant interaction between population (susceptible or resistant) and treatment (with or without pinoxaden) (P = 0.04), but differences between replicated experiments were not statistically significant (P > 0.05). After pinoxaden treatment, the susceptible plants showed indications of oxidative stress, with an increase in peroxidase activity of about 70% compared with controls not treated with herbicide (Figure 2). ACCase-inhibiting herbicides induce oxidative stress in grasses, resulting in enhanced lipid peroxidation and membrane damage (Lukatkin et al. 2013). Nevertheless, the putative pinoxaden-resistant plants showed no significant difference in peroxidase activity between the untreated control and those treated with pinoxaden (Figure 2). The putative pinoxaden-resistant plants also did not exhibit stress symptoms associated with the herbicide application and completed their life cycles, producing viable progeny,



Figure 3. Effect of pinoxaden concentrations on germination (A) and plumule growth (B) in a resistant and a susceptible *Lolium perenne* population. Black and white symbols represent mean values from replicated experiments, and bars indicate ± 1 standard error of the mean. The predicted responses are shown by lines according to the adjusted models ($y = D/(1 + (x/l_{50})^b)$.



Figure 4. Effect of cytochrome P450 inhibition. Plumule growth of the susceptible and resistant *Lolium perenne* populations compared with an *L. perenne* population with cytochrome P450-mediated pinoxaden resistance (non-target site resistance [NTSR] as positive control), treated with 1 μ M pinoxaden, 10 ppm malathion, 1 μ M pinoxaden + 10 ppm malathion, and distilled water (control). Columns represent mean values, and vertical bars indicate the standard error of the mean (pooled data from replicated experiments). Asterisks indicate significant differences (P < 0.05) between a treatment and the control in the same population.

showing an average percentage germination of 77% (SD \pm 5%). As this result included seed from surviving plants of the susceptible population treated with pinoxaden, it illustrated the capacity of this species for perpetuation.

The results supported an inherited ability of plants from the putative resistant population to survive and reproduce after a normally lethal dose of pinoxaden. This population had a 5-fold lower sensitivity to pinoxaden than the susceptible population (Table 1). Interestingly, this level of resistance, relative to the susceptible population, seemed to change through the life cycle when RI values were compared. When the effects of pinoxaden on germination and plumule growth were evaluated, the resistant population showed RI values of 27.0 and 29.0, respectively (Table 1).

The low pinoxaden sensitivity of the resistant population was expressed from germination (Figure 3A and B). ACCase-inhibiting herbicides primarily cause the inhibition of fatty-acid biosynthesis, triggering reduction in growth (Cob and Reade 2010; Kukorelli et al. 2013). Fatty-acid synthesis is required for the early stages of cell growth, playing an important role during the processes of germination and seedling growth (Ghosh and Sen-Mandi 2018; Sasaki and Nagano 2004). The germination and plumule growth percentages for the susceptible population were reduced by half at pinoxaden concentrations of 0.6 and 0.3 μ M, respectively, in comparison to controls without herbicide treatment (I₅₀; Table 1). However, those concentrations of pinoxaden did not affect the germination or plumule growth of the pinoxaden-resistant population (Figure 3A and B). These seedlings could adequately

carry out fatty-acid biosynthesis at pinoxaden treatments $\leq 1\,\mu M$ (Figure 3A and B).

As was discussed in a previous report, the contrasting behavior of susceptible and resistant plants on the germination test could not be explained by differential transport of the herbicide (Yanniccari et al. 2012). Imbibing embryos with pinoxaden ensured that all tissues were exposed to the herbicide, therefore, eliminating the consequences of any differential transport between populations.

Mechanism of Resistance

Frequently, the development of resistance to ACCase-inhibiting herbicides has been associated with elevated levels of cytochrome P450 monooxygenase activity, suggesting a mechanism of detoxification (Powles and Yu 2010; Siminszky 2006). In the current work, malathion was used as an inhibitor of cytochrome P450. Only the non-target site resistance (NTSR) population with its known pinoxaden detoxification responded to the inhibitor, neutralizing its mechanism of resistance. ANOVA results showed no differences between replicated experiments (P > 0.05), but a significant interaction between population (susceptible, resistant, and NTSR) and treatment (malathion, pinoxaden, pinoxaden + malathion, and control without herbicide) was detected (P < 0.001). The pinoxaden treatment did not significantly inhibit plumule growth of the NTSR population; however, the combination of pinoxaden + malathion reduced growth to the same level as the susceptible

- $\label{eq:rescaled} R: \quad TATAATCAGCCTGCCTTTGTATATATCCCCCAAGGCTGCAGAGCTACGTGGAGGGGGCTTGG \\ \cdot Y \cdot \cdot N \cdot \cdot Q \cdot \cdot P \cdot \cdot A \cdot \cdot F \cdot \cdot V \cdot \cdot Y \cdot \cdot I \cdot \cdot P \cdot \cdot K \cdot \cdot A \cdot \cdot A \cdot \cdot E \cdot \cdot L \cdot \cdot R \cdot \cdot G \cdot \cdot G \cdot \cdot A \cdot \cdot W \cdot P \cdot \cdot A \cdot$
- S: TATAATCAGCCTGCCTTTGTATATATCCCCCAAGGCTGCAGAGCTACGTGGAGGTGCTTGG ·Y··N··Q··P··A··F··V··Y··I··P··K··A··A··E··L··R··G··G··A··W· 2078
- $\label{eq:rescaled} \begin{array}{c} \texttt{R:} & \texttt{GTCGTGATT} \\ \textbf{GGT} \\ \texttt{GGT} \\ \texttt{AGCAAGATAAATCCAGATCGCATTGAGTGCTATGCTGAGACAACTGCA} \\ & \cdot \texttt{V} \cdot \cdot \texttt{V} \cdot \texttt{I} \cdot \texttt{G} \cdot \texttt{S} \cdot \texttt{K} \cdot \texttt{I} \cdot \texttt{N} \cdot \texttt{P} \cdot \texttt{D} \cdot \texttt{R} \cdot \texttt{I} \cdot \texttt{E} \cdot \texttt{C} \cdot \texttt{Y} \cdot \texttt{A} \cdot \texttt{E} \cdot \texttt{T} \cdot \texttt{T} \cdot \texttt{A} \cdot \texttt{C} \\ \end{array}$

Figure 5. Sequence of the ACCase gene obtained from the pinoxaden-resistant (R) and pinoxaden-susceptible (S) plants and the conceptual translation of the amino acid sequence. The resistance-conferring codon is show in the box. Numbers refer to amino acid positions of full-length ACCase in Alopecurus myosuroides.



Figure 6. Dose response of a resistant and a susceptible population of *Lolium perenne* treated with clethodim, for plant survival (A) and seed production (B), and with quizalofop, for plant survival (C) and seed production (D). Black and white symbols represent mean values from experiments conducted during 2017 and 2018, respectively, and bars indicate ± 1 standard error of the mean. The predicted responses are shown by lines according to the adjusted models ($y = D/(1 + (x/l_{50})^b)$).

population treated with the herbicide (Figure 4). By contrast, no significant differences were detected in plumule growth of the pinoxadenresistant population treated with pinoxaden, pinoxaden + malathion, and the control without herbicide (Figure 4). As a result, there was no evidence of pinoxaden detoxification mediated by cytochrome P450 monooxygenase in this population.

When potential target-site mechanisms of resistance were explored, a single-point mutation from adenine to guanine was detected, indicating a Asp-2078-Gly substitution in ACCase as the source of the phenotype in the pinoxaden-resistant population (Figure 5). It is known that a Asp-2078-Gly mutation confers resistance to pinoxaden and/or other ACCase-inhibiting herbicides in *A. myosuroides*, wild oat (*Avena fatua L.*), sterile oat (*Avena sterilis L.*), goosegrass [*Eleusine indica* (L.) Gaertn.], *L. perenne* ssp. *multiflorum*, *L. rigidum*, littleseed canarygrass (*Phalaris minor* Retz.), and hood canarygrass (*Phalaris paradoxa L.*) (Beckie et al. 2012;

Cruz-Hipolito et al. 2011, 2015; Délye 2005; Gherekhloo et al. 2012; Hochberg et al. 2009; Liu et al. 2007; Osuna et al. 2012; Petit et al. 2010; Yu et al. 2007). Although the D2078 residue is not part of either herbicide-binding site, a Asp-2078-Gly mutation would introduce large conformational changes in the binding site for the ACCase inhibitors, contributing to a low affinity for several herbicides (Jang et al. 2013; Yu et al. 2010).

Cross-resistance

The sensitivity of the populations to clethodim and quizalofop was also examined. While the recommended dose of clethodim ranged from 110 to 280 g ai ha⁻¹ (Senseman 2007), there was 85% and 63% plant survival in the resistant population at 130 and 260 g ha⁻¹, respectively (Figure 6A). Moreover, around 40% of the plants survived at 520 g ha⁻¹, the highest dose of clethodim assayed

Table 2. Results of dose–response assays using clethodim and quizalofop showing variables measured and parameter estimates from the nonlinear log-logistic regression model ($y = D/(1 + (x/I_{50})^b)$) of resistant and susceptible *Lolium perenne* populations (data from two replicated experiments).^a

Herbicide	Variable	Population	D	b	I ₅₀	R ²	P-value			
			%		g ai ha ⁻¹					
Clethodim	Plant survival	Susceptible	99.5	3.7	76.6	0.98	P < 0.001			
		Resistant	95.6	1.4	413.8*	0.81	P < 0.001			
		RI = 5.4								
			seeds pl ⁻¹		g ai ha ⁻¹					
	Seed production	Susceptible	205.9	1.5	30.2	0.91	P < 0.001			
		Resistant	207.2	0.5	99.8*	0.83	P < 0.001			
	RI = 3.3									
			%		g ai ha ⁻¹					
Quizalofop	Plant survival	Susceptible	100.0	4.2	20.3	0.96	P < 0.001			
		Resistant	97.4	1.2	211.6*	0.78	P < 0.001			
	RI = 10.4									
			seeds pl ⁻¹		g ai ha ⁻¹					
	Seed production	Susceptible	206.7	2.6	9.6	0.98	P < 0.001			
		Resistant	207.7	1.0	63.4*	0.84	P < 0.001			
	RI = 6.6									

^aAsterisks indicate significant differences between herbicide doses required to achieve 50% of the maximum response calculated on susceptible and resistant populations. Resistance indices (RI) are shown.

(Figure 6A). At this dose, seed production was 45% that of control plants (without herbicide; Figure 6B). The seeds produced showed an average percentage of germination of 81% (SD \pm 7%), including all plants resistant to clethodim, indicating their capacity for perpetuation.

The I₅₀ parameters calculated for plant survival and seed production were significantly different between the resistant and susceptible populations (Table 2). In the resistant population, a 5.4-fold greater dose of clethodim was necessary to match the level of plant death achieved in the susceptible population (RI; Table 2). The RI for seed production was 3.3 when comparing the effects of clethodim on the resistant and susceptible populations (Table 2). The Asp-2078-Gly mutation endowed a significant level of resistance to clethodim at the field rate of application, consistent with the findings of Yu et al. (2007). In addition, the RI values for plant survival and seed production on treatment with pinoxaden (5.1 and 2.8, respectively; Table 1) were similar to the RIs obtained for clethodim (5.4 and 3.3, respectively; Table 2). Therefore, the resistance conferred by the Asp-2078-Gly mutation resulted in the same level of insensitivity to both pinoxaden and clethodim.

Quizalofop application is recommended at doses of 35 to 112 g ha⁻¹, with the lowest dose sprayed on soybean crops and the highest dose applied to non-crop areas (Senseman 2007). However, at 43.7 and 87.5 g ha⁻¹, around 80% of the plants from the resistant population survived in the current study (Figure 6C), and they produced more than 50 seeds per plant (Figure 6D). At the highest dose sprayed (350 g ai ha^{-1}), plant survival was around 40% and every plant produced an average of 41 seeds (Figure 6D). The seeds produced showed an average percentage germination of 71% (SD \pm 6%) for all surviving plants treated with quizalofop. For plant survival and seed production, the resistant populations showed the highest RI values after quizalofop application compared with pinoxaden and clethodim treatments (Table 2). The Asp-2078-Gly mutation confers resistance to all three classes of herbicide. The effect of this mutation on the level of sensitivity of ACCase to several herbicides representing the three chemical classes (but not including clethodim) was studied by Jang et al. (2013), and they found that it provoked higher levels of resistance to quizalofop than pinoxaden.

The level of resistance to different ACCase-inhibiting herbicides depends on the specific mutation, weed species, plant growth stage, and recommended field rates of herbicides. In the case of Asp-2078-Gly and Cys-2088-Arg, both confer broad resistance to all ACCase-inhibiting herbicides currently tested (Kaundun 2014). However, the advantages provided to the plant by Asp-2078-Gly seem not be the general rule, as Vila-Aiub et al. (2015) found that this mutation was associated with constraints in ACCase activity. These constraints included significant reductions in the specific activity and the maximal reaction velocity of this enzyme, which may lead to a shortage of lipids available for rapid growth, correlated with detrimental effects in the growth of L. rigidum plants homozygous for this mutation. Similarly, A. myosuroides plants have displayed a reduction of around 40% in biomass and seed production associated with the Asp-2078-Gly mutation in the homozygous state (Menchari et al. 2008). Nevertheless, despite the fitness cost, Asp-2078-Gly has been the most frequently found ACCase mutation, being detected in nine of 54 L. multiflorum populations sampled from the United Kingdom (Alarcón-Reverte et al. 2013). The frequency of this mutation appeared to be governed by the herbicide selection pressure applied by FOPs and DIMs (Kaundun 2014). In Argentina, the selection pressure associated with the use of clethodim and haloxifop in preplant applications and pinoxaden on wheat and barley crops would also have favored the resistance mediated by the Asp-2078-Gly mutation in the L. perenne population studied.

The inherited ability of plants from the resistant population to survive and reproduce after a normally lethal dose of ACCaseinhibiting herbicides was demonstrated. Pinoxaden-, clethodim-, or quizalofop-treated *L. perenne* plants completed their life cycle, producing viable seeds.

The level of resistance to these ACCase inhibitors was assessed by dose–response evaluation of plant survival or seed production, and RIs were higher for plant survival than seed production. While growth or survival comparisons between susceptible and resistant plants gave an approximation about the relative sensitivity to an herbicide, considering these results, viable seed production should also be a variable taken into account in evaluating herbicide resistance.

The resistant *L. perenne* population would evolve under a high use of ACCase inhibitors in order to control glyphosate resistant plants. In this context, nonchemical methods of weed management (seedbank control, crop rotation, and competitive crops,

among others) (Jabran and Chauhan 2018) and use of herbicide mixtures (Diggle et al. 2003) and herbicide rotations, taking into account the possible mechanisms of resistance (target-site resistance or detoxification, mainly), should be implemented to delay the evolution of herbicide resistance and prevent Asp-2078-Gly gene flow.

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