

## PPO-inhibitor tolerance in sorghum

### Genetic variation associated with PPO-inhibiting herbicide tolerance in sorghum

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### 11 Abstract

12 Herbicide application is crucial for weed management in most crop production systems, but for sorghum  
13 herbicide options are limited. Sorghum is sensitive to residual protoporphyrinogen oxidase (PPO)-  
14 inhibiting herbicides, such as fomesafen, and a long re-entry period is required before sorghum can be  
15 planted after its application. Improving sorghum for tolerance to such residual herbicides would allow for  
16 increased sorghum production and the expansion of herbicide options for growers. To investigate the  
17 underlying mechanism of tolerance to residual fomesafen, a genome-wide association mapping study was  
18 conducted using the sorghum biomass panel (SBP) and field-collected data, and a greenhouse assay was  
19 developed to confirm the field phenotypes. A total of 26 significant SNPs (FDR<0.05), spanning a 215.3  
20 kb region, were detected on chromosome 3. The ten most significant SNPs included two in genic regions  
21 (Sobic.003G136800, and Sobic.003G136900) and eight SNPs in the intergenic region encompassing the  
22 genes Sobic.003G136700, Sobic.003G136800, Sobic.003G137000, Sobic.003G136900, and  
23 Sobic.003G137100. The gene Sobic.003G137100 (*PPXI*), which encodes the PPO1 enzyme, one of the  
24 targets of PPO-inhibiting herbicides, was located 12kb downstream of the significant SNP  
25 S03\_13152838. We found that *PPXI* is highly conserved in sorghum and expression does not  
26 significantly differ between tolerant and sensitive sorghum lines. Our results suggest that *PPXI* most  
27 likely does not underlie the observed herbicide tolerance. Instead, the mechanism underlying herbicide  
28 tolerance in the SBP is likely metabolism-based resistance, possibly regulated by the action of multiple  
29 genes. Further research is necessary to confirm candidate genes and their functions.

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### 30 1 Introduction

31 Weed infestation is a major crop production constraint. Herbicide application is a critical control strategy  
32 in most crop production systems, and modern agriculture relies heavily on herbicides for weed  
33 suppression. Unfortunately, a limited number of herbicides are available for sorghum, and the herbicide  
34 options for grass control are even lower [1]. Moreover, sorghum is sensitive to many commonly used  
35 herbicides and is sometimes injured by herbicides labeled for use in sorghum [2]. Wet and poor soil  
36 physical conditions, delayed crop emergence, deep planting, seedling diseases, and poor-quality seed  
37 favor herbicide injury [2]. Thus, weed management in sorghum is challenging.

38 In recent years, protoporphyrinogen oxidase (PPO)-inhibiting herbicides have increased in popularity for  
39 the weed management of field crops. PPO-inhibitors were commercialized more than 50 years ago, but  
40 the introduction of transgenic glyphosate-resistant soybean and corn in 1996 and 1998, respectively,  
41 significantly reduced the application of PPO-inhibitors in crop fields [3]. Due to the widespread  
42 emergence of ALS-inhibitor and glyphosate resistance, and the slowly evolving nature of PPO-inhibitor  
43 resistance, PPO-inhibitors have recently increased in popularity [3-5]. Despite the long and widespread  
44 use of PPO-inhibitors, only eleven PPO-inhibitor-resistant weed species, including four *Amaranthus*  
45 species and two grass species, have been reported in six countries [3].

46 PPO-inhibiting herbicides hinder PPO enzyme function. There are two isoforms of the PPO enzyme-  
47 PPO1 (targeted to chloroplast) and PPO2 (mainly targeted to mitochondria, sometimes both chloroplasts  
48 and mitochondria), encoded by two nuclear genes *PPX1* and *PPX2*, respectively [3]. The PPO enzyme is  
49 crucial for the last step of heme and chlorophyll biosynthesis, namely the catalysis of protoporphyrinogen  
50 IX to protoporphyrin IX. PPO enzyme inhibition results in the accumulation of protoporphyrinogen IX in  
51 the chloroplasts or mitochondria, which leaks out to the cytosol where protoporphyrinogen IX gets  
52 oxidized to protoporphyrin IX. Protoporphyrin IX produces singlet reactive oxygen species in the  
53 presence of sunlight that disrupts the cell membrane and ultimately leads to plant death [5]. PPO-  
54 inhibitors include broadleaf, contact, and soil-applied herbicides. Resistance in weeds is conferred  
55 primarily by target site mutations in the *PPX2* gene [3, 6].

56 Different PPO-inhibitors chemistries are available, including heterocyclic phenyl ethers, oxadiazoles,  
57 phenyl imides, triazolinones, and pyrazoles [5]. The use of residual PPO-inhibitors, such as fomesafen  
58 (e.g., Flexstar and Prefix), is increasing, particularly for weed control in soybean fields. Fomesafen is in  
59 the diphenyl ether class of PPO-inhibitors and can be applied pre-plant, pre-emergence, or post-  
60 emergence for the management of broadleaf weeds, grasses, and sedges in edible beans [5, 7]. Depending  
61 on conditions, the half-life of fomesafen ranges from six to twelve months in aerobic soil [7]. The  
62 application of residual PPO-inhibiting herbicide can impede the growth of the subsequent crop because of  
63 herbicide carryover injury.

64 The sensitivity of sorghum to herbicide residue in the soil from the previous crop (e.g. soybean) is of  
65 concern and constrains crop rotations. Sorghum was the most sensitive among common rotational crops  
66 such as corn, millet, and rice to fomesafen residues applied to beans [7]. Sorghum seedlings showed more  
67 than 40% phytotoxicity at 7 days after emergence in response to the PPO-inhibitor sulfentrazone [8]. The  
68 successful establishment of sorghum as a rotational crop with soybean requires sorghum cultivars to be  
69 tolerant to the herbicides applied to soybean. Thus, the development of herbicide-tolerant sorghum  
70 cultivars is critical for increasing sorghum production and expanding crop rotation options for growers.  
71 Recently, grain sorghum tolerant to ALS-inhibiting herbicide has been developed by introgressing the  
72 ALS-resistance gene from shatter cane, a weedy relative of sorghum, into sorghum through traditional  
73 breeding and is at the stage of commercialization [9]. However, there are not any commercial sorghum  
74 varieties tolerant to PPO-inhibiting herbicides. Identifying alleles conferring tolerance to PPO-inhibitors

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75 in sorghum will be useful for breeding PPO-inhibitor tolerant sorghum and hence, expanding the  
76 herbicide options for growers.

77 We observed fomesafen tolerance in a diverse sorghum population in the field and examined the  
78 underlying genetic mechanism of this tolerance. Our main goal was to examine fomesafen tolerance in  
79 sorghum. We performed a genome-wide association study (GWAS) in the sorghum biomass panel (SBP)  
80 to identify genomic regions associated with PPO inhibitor tolerance and examined the role of the *PPX1*  
81 gene in the observed tolerance using gene sequencing and expression analysis. We also developed a  
82 greenhouse assay to assess the sensitivity of sorghum lines to fomesafen and were able to reproduce the  
83 field phenotypes in the greenhouse. The result of our study will be useful for sorghum breeders to develop  
84 tolerant sorghum that avoids injury caused by residual PPO inhibitors.

## 85 2 Materials and Methods

### 86 2.1 Field Design and Phenotyping

87 The sorghum biomass panel (SBP) (n=718) was evaluated for residual herbicide injury during the 2015  
88 field season at the Crop Sciences Research and Education Centers in Urbana, IL. The field was planted  
89 with soybeans in 2014 and sprayed with Flexstar, a member of the fomesafen class of PPO-inhibitors  
90 (group 14). The panel was planted in an augmented block design with a single replication. Check lines  
91 planted in each block included "Pacesetter", "PRE0146", "PRE0295", "PRE0559", "PRE0587",  
92 "PRE1049", "PRE1076", and "SPX-901". Each block consisted of 110 experimental treatments.  
93 Carryover injury was noticed approximately one month after planting and included blotches and chlorosis  
94 on the leaves. At this time, we assessed herbicide injury using a 1 to 9 scale, with 9 being the most  
95 sensitive [10].

### 96 2.2 Genotyping

97 A genotypic dataset (hereafter referred to as target set) scored using genotyping-by-sequencing was  
98 obtained using the procedures described by [11] and Thurber, Ma (12). In order to increase the marker  
99 density for the target panel, as described by Zhang, Fernandes (13). A genome-wide re-sequencing dataset  
100 (hereafter referred to as reference set) was used for imputing un-typed SNPs [14]. The reference panel  
101 was composed of 239 individuals and 5,512,653 SNPs anchored to the *Sorghum bicolor* reference  
102 genome version 3.1 (<https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov>) [15]. The reference set data was filtered for  
103 heterozygosity (>10%), SNP coverage (<4X), and missing genotypes (>40%). Additionally, SNPs with  
104 minor allele count < 3 and depth < 3 were also filtered out before the imputation. The final reference  
105 panel used was composed of 239 individuals and 4,268,905 SNPs.

106 Before imputation, the target and reference panels were compared using conform-gt [16]. This step  
107 excluded target SNPs not present in the reference panel and adjusted the genomic position and  
108 chromosome strand to match the target and reference panels. Un-typed SNPs were imputed by  
109 chromosome, using option gt, window=80,000 bp, overlap=10,000 bp and ne=150,000. After filtering,  
110 Beagle version 4.1 was used to impute missing genotypes (option "gtgl"), followed by a phasing (option  
111 "gt") step [17]. A window of 1500 bp and an overlap of 500 bp were used for both steps. The genotypic  
112 data were pruned based on linkage disequilibrium before conducting association analysis. The SNPs with  
113 an  $r^2$  value greater than 0.9 were removed with plink using a window size of 50 and a step size of 5 SNPs  
114 [18]. The markers were filtered for a minor allele frequency of 0.05 using GAPIT [19]. A total of 387,672  
115 markers were included in the subsequent analyses.

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### 116 2.3 Data analysis

117 The phenotypic data analysis was conducted in R (version 3.5.1) [20]. An analysis of variances  
118 (ANOVA) was performed to test the significant factors associated with the phenotypes observed in the  
119 field. The final linear mixed model, which included genotype, row, range and block, was run by using the  
120 “lme4” package in R [21]. Genotype was fit as a fixed effect, and block, range and row were fit as  
121 random effects. Best linear unbiased estimators (BLUEs) were calculated for each of the lines. The  
122 intercept was added to each line to get the final phenotypic data used for GWAS.

123 The genome-wide association study (GWAS) was conducted using the Genome Association and  
124 Prediction Integrated Tool (GAPIT) version 3.0 [19] in the R environment (version 3.5.1). The “CMLM”  
125 method was used to conduct the GWAS and a total of four principal components were included based on  
126 the scree plot. A false discovery rate of 0.05 was used to determine whether associations were significant  
127 [22].

### 128 2.4 Greenhouse assay

129 We selected ten representative sorghum lines based on their field phenotypes- five tolerant (PRE0278,  
130 PRE0282, PRE0520, PRE0545, PRE0546), and five sensitive (PRE0020, PRE0074, PRE0077, PRE0079,  
131 PRE0140) lines to develop the greenhouse assay. We initially determined the delimiting rate of pre-  
132 emergence fomesafen to differentiate herbicide tolerant and sensitive groups using the ten representative  
133 sorghum lines. Four replicates, with three plants per genotype per replicate, were planted in 1020 flats in  
134 the Plant Care Facility at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign in Urbana in a randomized  
135 complete block design (RCBD) designed using the “agricolae” package in R (version 3.5.1) [23]. The  
136 seeds were pre-germinated in 100mm Petri dishes in the growth chamber before planting in the flats.  
137 Fomesafen was diluted at the  $\log_{3.16}$  scale rates (0x, 0.001x, 0.003x, 0.01x, 0.03x, 0.1x and 0.316x) and  
138 uniformly sprayed in a spray chamber immediately after planting the stratified seeds in the pre-watered  
139 soil. The herbicide treated soil was covered with a layer of untreated soil to prevent any volatilization.  
140 Emergence counts were scored beginning at one day after treatment until five days after treatment.  
141 Herbicide injury severity was rated with a 1-9 scale described by Dear et al. (2003) weekly for three  
142 weeks after treatment. The fresh biomass was cut off and weighed at 21 days after the treatment. After  
143 weighing, the fresh biomass was dried for two days, and the dry weight (grams) was measured. The  
144 statistical analysis of the data was conducted in R (version 3.5.1) [20] using an ANOVA to determine the  
145 herbicide rate with the most significant difference between tolerant and susceptible lines. The ANOVA  
146 model included plot, replication, and sensitivity as factors. To confirm the delimiting rate identified from  
147 above assay, the greenhouse assay was repeated using ten sorghum lines (five sensitive and five tolerant)  
148 from the Sorghum Conversion Panel (SCP) [12] with five replications.

149 Using the rate determined during the preliminary experiments, we phenotyped a total of 100 sorghum  
150 lines from the SBP (50 sensitive and 50 tolerant). We included three replicates of each line in a  
151 randomized complete block design (RCBD) designed using the “agricolae” package in R with three plants  
152 per genotype in each replicate [23]. The lines were rated for the herbicide injury using the 1-9 scale  
153 described above. The statistical analysis of the data was conducted in R (version 3.5.1) [20] using an  
154 ANOVA test with the model that included plot, replication, and sensitivity.

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### 155 2.5 PPXI as a candidate gene for herbicide tolerance in sorghum

#### 156 2.5.1 Sequence variant detection

157 The ten representative sorghum lines, along with an additional six sorghum lines (four sensitive and two  
158 tolerant) from the SBP panel, were surveyed for sequence variation in exonic regions of *PPXI*. The  
159 phenotype of these 16 lines was consistent between field and greenhouse studies. Fresh leaf tissue was  
160 collected from three-week-old sorghum plants and immediately placed in liquid nitrogen. Four primers  
161 (Table S1) were designed to amplify the cDNA sequences in the chloroplastic *PPXI* gene region  
162 (Accession no. XM\_002455439.2) using NCBI Primer-BLAST software  
(<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/>). RNA was extracted using TriZol (ThermoFisher  
163 Scientific, Waltham, MA) and cleaned with a Qiagen RNAeasy miniElute cleanup kit (QIAGEN,  
164 Germantown, MD) as described in Fall, Salazar (24). The cDNA was synthesized from mRNA using  
165 revert aid first strand cDNA synthesis kit (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) and a random  
166 hexamer using the manufacturer's protocol.  
167

168 The cDNA amplification was performed in a 25  $\mu$ l reaction containing 0.6 U of dreamTaq polymerase  
169 (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA), 1 $\times$  dreamTaq green buffer, 0.2 mM dNTP, 0.4  $\mu$ m of each the  
170 forward and reverse primers, 0.5mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, and nuclease-free water in a thermocycler using three-step  
171 cycling. One initial cycle of denaturation at 95°C for 2 min was carried out; followed by 35 cycles of  
172 denaturation at 95°C for 30 s; annealing at 52°C for the 30s; and extension at 72°C for 1 min; and a final  
173 cycle of extension at 72°C for 10 min. The amplification of the GC-rich region (primer 1) was performed  
174 with high fidelity Q5 polymerase (New England Biolabs Inc, Ipswich, MA) using the manufacturer's  
175 protocol. The PCR products were confirmed by running agarose gel electrophoresis on a 1.0 % agarose  
176 gel. The gel image was visualized using a UVP GelDoc-It2 310 imager (UVP, Upland, CA). The positive  
177 PCR products were cleaned using Wizard® SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up System (Promega Corporation,  
178 Madison, WI) and submitted for Sanger sequencing at Roy J. Carver Biotechnology Center at the  
179 University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

180 The sequences were trimmed and aligned with the *PPXI* mRNA sequence from the sorghum reference  
181 (Accession no. XM\_002455439) using MUSCLE within Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis  
182 (MEGA) software version 7.0 and default parameters [25]. Individual insert sequences for each primer  
183 pair set were concatenated to obtain a full sequence of *PPXI*, and overlapping regions were merged. The  
184 gene sequences were compared among tolerant and susceptible lines, along with the reference BTx623  
185 *PPXI* allele, to determine the variation present within the *PPXI* gene.

#### 186 2.5.2 Gene expression analysis

187 The ten representative sorghum lines were assayed for *PPXI* expression using quantitative reverse  
188 transcription PCR (qRT-PCR). Seed for the lines were planted in 1020 flats with three replicates arranged  
189 in a randomized complete block design (RCBD). Fomasafen was applied using the method described  
190 above. Leaf samples were collected into liquid nitrogen seventeen days after herbicide treatment. The  
191 herbicide injury level was rated using the 1-9 scale described by Dear et al. (2003) before sample  
192 collection.

193 We extracted the RNA as described above. To test RNA integrity and for DNA contamination, the RNA  
194 was run out on a 1% gel using electrophoresis. The primers and probes for TaqMan® gene expression  
195 assay were designed using Integrated DNA Technology (IDT) PrimerQuest Tool  
(<https://www.idtdna.com/PrimerQuest/Home/Index>) according to the IDT guidelines and synthesized by

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197 ThermoFisher. The specificity of primers and probes were checked using Primer Blast. The combinations  
198 of primers and probes that resulted in a product specific to *PPXI* gene were retained (Table S2).

199 One-step qRT-PCR was performed in an ABI Prism 7000 detection system (Applied Biosystems) with  
200 equal RNA concentrations. A total reaction volume of 20 $\mu$ l using Verso 1-step RT-qPCR ROX Mix kit  
201 (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) according to the manufacturer's protocol was used. The final  
202 concentration of primers and probe in the reaction were 450nM and 125nM, respectively. The  
203 amplification program consisted of one cycle of cDNA synthesis at 50°C for 15 min; one cycle of thermo-  
204 start polymerase activation at 95°C for 15 min; 40 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 15s and  
205 annealing/extension at 60°C for 60s. The *PP2A* gene was used as an internal reference gene for data  
206 normalization, as suggested by Sudhakar Reddy, Srinivas Reddy (26). The efficiency of both *PPXI* and  
207 *PP2A* Taqman assays were tested using a qPCR standard curve using a 10-fold serial dilution of RNA  
208 with final concentration ranging from 2pg/ $\mu$ l to 20,000pg/ $\mu$ l. The formula used to calculate assay  
209 efficiency was as follows:

$$210 E\% = [10^{\left(-\frac{1}{slope}\right)} - 1] * 100$$

211 Ct values were determined based on three technical replicates of each sample, and mean Ct values for the  
212 sensitive and tolerant groups were calculated. The mean Ct values for both groups were transformed into  
213 relative quantification (RQ) using the Pffalfl method [27].

### 214 3 Results

#### 215 3.1 Evaluation of herbicide injury in the field

216 The SBP panel showed a wide range of herbicide injury ratings, ranging from 1 to 9, with a mean rating  
217 of 4.2 and a standard deviation of 1.9 (Fig. 1). The tolerant lines were without any symptoms, while  
218 sensitive lines showed leaf blotches and chlorosis. The phenotypes were continuously distributed. The  
219 line effects were highly significant and explained the largest proportion of phenotypic variation among  
220 range, row, and block (Table 1).

221 **Fig. 1.** Phenotypic distribution (A) and phenotypes (B and C) of herbicide injury in the sorghum biomass  
222 panel during the 2015 field season.

223

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224 **Table 1.** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of herbicide injury data of sorghum biomass panel (SBP)  
225 obtained from the 2015 field season and SBP subset (100 sorghum lines) from the greenhouse assay.

Field Assay				Greenhouse Assay					
Source	MS	F	Pr > F	Week 2			Week 3		
				MS	F	Pr > F	MS	F	Pr > F
<b>Lines</b>	3.8054	7.4801	2.00E-16 *** <sup>a</sup>	4.9	1.45	0.0237*	5.6	1.54	0.0103*
<b>Rep</b>	NA <sup>b</sup>	NA	NA	1.8	0.54	0.582	22	6.01	0.0032**
<b>Range</b>	0.8359	1.6431	0.033*	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<b>Row</b>	0.8863	1.7421	0.04237*	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<b>Block</b>	0.5485	1.0783	0.3858	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<b>Residual</b>	0.5087			3.4			3.7		

226 <sup>a</sup> \*\*\* denotes p - value < 0.001, \*\* denotes p - value < 0.01, \* denotes p - value < 0.05

227 <sup>b</sup> NA indicates not available.

228

### 229 3.2 Phenotype confirmation in the greenhouse

230 Herbicide injury, assessed using visual ratings, was significantly different between tolerant and sensitive  
231 groups at the 0.1x rate for every rating (each week for three weeks post spray) (Fig. S1). The delimiting  
232 rate of 0.1x was further confirmed on five sensitive and five tolerant lines from the SCP in a subsequent  
233 greenhouse assay. Significant differences were observed between the sensitive and tolerant groups at the  
234 second and third weeks after the herbicide treatment in the SCP (Fig. S1). For the seven herbicide  
235 application rates that were tested, no significant differences between sensitive and tolerant groups for any  
236 rate were observed for emergence counts, dry weight, and fresh weight. Thus, visual ratings of herbicide  
237 injury were used for further assessment of herbicide tolerance.

238 We evaluated 100 sorghum lines from the SBP (50 sensitive and 50 tolerant) for pre-emergence herbicide  
239 injury in the greenhouse to validate the field findings. In the resulting ANOVA model, genotype was  
240 significant two and three weeks after the herbicide treatment (Table 1). Significant differences were also  
241 observed between sensitive and tolerant groups, confirming the field phenotypes (Fig. S1).

### 242 3.3 SNPs significantly associated with herbicide tolerance

243 A total of 26 SNPs were significant in the GWAS at an FDR of 5% (Table 2). All the significant SNPs  
244 were located on chromosome 3 in the region from 12,937,584 bp to 13,152,838 bp (Fig. 2). This 215.3 kb  
245 region encompasses eight genes and significant linkage disequilibrium (LD) was found in this region  
246 (Fig. 3). Among 26 significant SNPs, six were genic and within four unique genes- Sobic.003G136200

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247 (germin-like protein), Sobic.003G136500 (not annotated), Sobic.003G136800 (SNF7 family protein), and  
248 Sobic.003G136900 (phytochrome interacting factor 3). The ten most significant SNPs included eight  
249 SNPs in intergenic regions that were close to Sobic.003G136800 (SNF7 family protein),  
250 Sobic.003G137000 (RING/U-box superfamily protein), Sobic.003G136900 (phytochrome interacting  
251 factor 3) and Sobic.003G137100 (*PPXI*). The significant SNP S03\_13152838 ( $p < 0.001$ ) was located  
252 12kb upstream of the *PPXI* gene.

253 **Fig. 2.** Manhattan plot for the genome-wide association mapping. Twenty-six significant SNPs were  
254 detected on chromosome 3.

255 **Fig. 3.** Linkage disequilibrium (LD) plot for the significant SNPs in the 215 kb region of chromosome 3.  
256 The Manhattan plot for the region is shown above and the linkage disequilibrium shown below. The  
257 Manhattan plot included only the significant SNPs from the association analysis. In the LD plot, the  $r^2$   
258 values between significant SNPs are shown. Red indicates high amounts of linkage disequilibrium, while  
259 yellow indicates low linkage disequilibrium.

260

**Table 2.** Significant SNPs associated with the herbicide tolerance based on the genome-wide association study.

SNP	Chr.	Position	FDR	Type	Closest Gene ID	Arabidopsis ortholog annotation	Rice ortholog annotation
S03_12937584	3	12937584	0.0482	Genic	Sobic.003G136200	germin-like protein 5	Cupin domain containing protein, expressed
S03_12947825	3	12947825	0.0294	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136200	germin-like protein 5	Cupin domain containing protein, expressed
S03_12992370	3	12992370	0.00018	Genic	Sobic.003G136500	0	expressed protein
S03_12993486	3	12993486	0.00027	Genic	Sobic.003G136500	0	expressed protein
S03_12993563	3	12993563	0.0220	Genic	Sobic.003G136500	0	expressed protein
S03_13017510	3	13017510	0.00014	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136600	myb domain protein 61	MYB family transcription factor, putative, expressed
S03_13034856	3	13034856	2.85E-06	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136700	0	0
S03_13058642	3	13058642	2.25E-07	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136700	0	0
S03_13059236	3	13059236	1.10E-05	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136700	0	0
S03_13077890	3	13077890	1.55E-06	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136800	SNF7 family protein	SNF7 domain containing protein, putative, expressed
S03_13077909	3	13077909	0.00022	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136800	SNF7 family protein	SNF7 domain containing protein, putative, expressed
S03_13082782	3	13082782	0.00245	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136800	SNF7 family protein	SNF7 domain containing protein, putative, expressed

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S03_13086215	3	13086215	6.15E-08	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136800	SNF7 family protein	SNF7 domain containing protein, putative, expressed
S03_13089097	3	13089097	0.00087	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136800	SNF7 family protein	SNF7 domain containing protein, putative, expressed
S03_13092920	3	13092920	2.25E-07	Genic	Sobic.003G136800	SNF7 family protein	SNF7 domain containing protein, putative, expressed
S03_13098806	3	13098806	1.12E-07	Genic	Sobic.003G136900	phytochrome interacting factor 3	helix-loop-helix DNA-binding domain containing protein, expressed
S03_13098875	3	13098875	0.0128	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136900	phytochrome interacting factor 3	helix-loop-helix DNA-binding domain containing protein, expressed
S03_13106510	3	13106510	0.00468	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136900	phytochrome interacting factor 3	helix-loop-helix DNA-binding domain containing protein, expressed
S03_13111150	3	13111150	2.53E-07	Intergenic	Sobic.003G136900	phytochrome interacting factor 3	helix-loop-helix DNA-binding domain containing protein, expressed
S03_13120188	3	13120188	1.12E-07	Intergenic	Sobic.003G137000	RING/U-box superfamily protein	zinc finger, C3HC4 type domain containing protein, expressed
S03_13127154	3	13127154	0.0439	Intergenic	Sobic.003G137000	RING/U-box superfamily protein	zinc finger, C3HC4 type domain containing protein, expressed
S03_13133524	3	13133524	6.15E-08	Intergenic	Sobic.003G137000	RING/U-box superfamily protein	zinc finger, C3HC4 type domain containing protein, expressed

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S03_13144039	3	13144039	6.15E-08	Intergenic	Sobic.003G137000	RING/U-box superfamily protein	zinc finger, C3HC4 type domain containing protein, expressed
S03_13146524	3	13146524	2.44E-05	Intergenic	Sobic.003G137000	RING/U-box superfamily protein	zinc finger, C3HC4 type domain containing protein, expressed
S03_13149461	3	13149461	2.25E-07	Intergenic	Sobic.003G137000	RING/U-box superfamily protein	zinc finger, C3HC4 type domain containing protein, expressed
S03_13152838	3	13152838	1.06E-06	Intergenic	Sobic.003G137100	Flavin containing amine oxidoreductase family	protoporphyrinogen oxidase, chloroplast precursor, putative, expressed

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262 We hypothesized that *PPXI* may not have had any significant genic associations because there were no  
263 SNPs within the gene in the association mapping genotypic dataset. Thus, we examined whether there  
264 were variants in the *PPXI* gene included in the analysis. There were five SNPs in the *PPXI* gene in  
265 genotypic data, three of them (S03\_13165379, S03\_13170697, and S03\_13170922) were in exons, and  
266 two of them (S03\_13165710 and S03\_13169856) were in introns. None of these SNPs were significant in  
267 the association analysis.

### 268 3.4 Examining *PPXI* gene as a possible candidate

269 Because PPO enzymes are targeted by the herbicide, and due to the gene's proximity to significant SNPs  
270 in the GWAS, we examined *PPXI* as a candidate gene. Because our dataset was not exhaustive in terms of  
271 sequence variants in the panel, we conjectured that we might be missing important functional variation in  
272 the *PPXI* gene in our genotypic dataset. We hypothesized that variation in the active site of the enzyme  
273 might underlie the herbicide tolerance we observed. A total of 16 lines (seven tolerant and nine sensitive)  
274 from the SBP were selected to survey the variation in the *PPXI* gene sequences. We obtained sequencing  
275 data for 12 of those lines, while the remaining four lines (both sensitive and tolerant) could not be  
276 examined because of poor sequencing quality. We did not detect any sequence variation in the *PPXI*  
277 mRNA region. We concluded that *PPXI* is highly conserved in sorghum, and sequence variation in the  
278 *PPXI* gene does not underlie the herbicide tolerance we observed.

279 In light of the lack of sequence variation, we hypothesized that the *PPXI* gene might be differentially  
280 expressed between tolerant and sensitive lines. Lermontova and Grimm (28) reported that overexpression  
281 of the wild-type *Arabidopsis PPXI* gene in transgenic tobacco resulted in a five-fold increase in  
282 enzymatic activity, which prevented the accumulation of toxic protoporphyrinogen IX and, thus,  
283 increased tolerance to the PPO-inhibitor acifluorfen. Therefore, we selected a total of 10 lines to examine  
284 *PPXI* expression after fomesafen application. Tolerant and sensitive groups selected for the gene  
285 expression study showed significant phenotypic differences in the greenhouse when the tissue was  
286 collected ( $p < 0.0001$ ). However, there were no significant differences in *PPXI* gene expression between  
287 tolerant and sensitive groups ( $RQ = 1.27$ ). It is unlikely that *PPXI* underlies the herbicide tolerance we  
288 observed.

### 289 4 Discussion

290 Herbicide resistance mechanisms can be classified into two categories: target site resistance (TSR) and  
291 non-target site resistance (NTSR). TSR includes genic mutations that result in structural changes in the  
292 proteins targeted by the herbicide, which then reduces herbicide binding [29]. Alternately, NTSR includes  
293 diverse mechanisms, including reduced herbicide uptake/translocation, increased herbicide detoxification,  
294 decreased herbicide activation rates, and herbicide sequestration [30]. Metabolism-based NTSR is  
295 associated with the herbicide detoxification due to the increased activity of enzyme complexes, including  
296 esterases, cytochrome P450s, glutathione S-transferase (GSTs), and UDP-glucosyl transferase. Unlike  
297 TSR, metabolism-based NTSR is largely polygenic and confers resistance to herbicides with multiple  
298 modes of action [30].

299 *PPO1* and *PPO2* are both molecular targets of PPO-inhibiting herbicides. In weeds, several mutations in  
300 *PPXII*, which lead to TSR, have been reported. For example, a mutation involving the loss of three  
301 nucleotides in the coding sequence of *PPXII* conferred resistance to a PPO-inhibiting herbicide in  
302 waterhemp (*Amaranthus tuberculatus*) [31]. This mutation resulted in the deletion of a glycine residue at  
303 the 210<sup>th</sup> position ( $\Delta G210$ ) of the PPO2 enzyme [31, 32]. In Palmer amaranth (*Amaranthus palmeri*), the  
304 substitution of arginine to glycine/methionine at the 128<sup>th</sup> position of the PPO2 enzyme was observed in  
305 addition to the  $\Delta G210$  mutation in fomesafen-resistant weeds [33, 34]. Recently, another mutation, e.g.,

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306 the substitution of glycine to alanine in the catalytic domain of *PPXII* at position 399 (G<sub>399</sub>), was reported  
307 in Palmer amaranth resistant to PPO-inhibitors [35]. In common ragweed (*Ambrosia artemisiifolia*), a  
308 mutation causing the substitution of an arginine (Arg98) for a leucine codon at the R98L position of the  
309 PPO2 enzyme conferred resistance to a PPO-inhibitor [36]. It is important to note that all of these  
310 mutations in weeds that conferred herbicide resistance occurred in *PPXII*. However, Lermontova and  
311 Grimm (28) showed that overexpression of *PPXI* from wild-type *Arabidopsis* increased the tolerance to  
312 the PPO-inhibitor acifluorfen in tobacco.

313 In the GWAS, we identified a significant SNP on chromosome 3 that was 12kb upstream of *PPXI*. We  
314 hypothesized that *PPXI* might be responsible for the observed herbicide tolerance in the SBP.  
315 Furthermore, we hypothesized that the lack of detection of a SNP in the genic region was due to the  
316 incomplete nature of the genotypic dataset in the *PPXI* region. However, we could find neither sequence  
317 variation in the coding region of *PPXI*, nor an expression difference between tolerant and sensitive lines.  
318 In the genotypic data used for GWAS, there were only three SNPs (S03\_13165379, S03\_13170697, and  
319 S03\_13170922) and five haplotypes in the *PPXI* exonic regions. A total of 694 out of 718 lines from the  
320 SBP had the same haplotype as the reference line. For the SNPs S03\_13165379 and S03\_13170697,  
321 thirteen common lines out of 718 lines had alternate alleles, and for the SNP S03\_13170922, eleven out  
322 of 718 lines had alternate alleles. This suggests that *PPXI* is conserved and that the herbicide tolerance  
323 observed in the sorghum population might be related to NTSR, especially metabolism-based resistance. In  
324 addition, if it were a target site mutation with little environmental influence, we would have expected a  
325 bimodal distribution with our field phenotypes. However, the observed distribution indicates that there  
326 were strong environmental effects or that multiple genes are responsible for the herbicide tolerance  
327 observed in our population. Our hypothesis of multiple genes underlying the observed phenotype is also  
328 supported by the LD structure at the regions that were significantly associated with herbicide tolerance.

329 Non-target site resistance has been observed in several crop and weed species. In soybean, the natural  
330 tolerance to diphenyl ether class of PPO-inhibitors is due to the rapid metabolic cleavage of diphenyl  
331 ether bond [37] and homoglutathione conjugation is involved in the detoxification of diphenyl ether [38].  
332 Similarly, rapid glutathione conjugation also conferred tolerance to diphenyl ether class of PPO-inhibitors  
333 in peas [39]. In soybean, metabolism-based tolerance was observed to the pre-application of sulfentrazone  
334 herbicide, another class of PPO-inhibiting herbicide [40]. The degradation of sulfentrazone was due to the  
335 oxidation of the methyl group on the triazolinone ring [40]. In Palmer amaranth, some plants resistant to  
336 fomesafen did not have a target site mutation in *PPXII*, which suggests that these plants might be  
337 presenting NTSR [5].

338 We investigated other plausible genes from the GWAS for a potential role in metabolism based NTSR.  
339 The most significant SNPs from the GWAS were in the intergenic region proximal to Sobic.003G137000  
340 (RING/U-box superfamily protein) and Sobic.003G136800 (SNF7 family protein). We found significant  
341 SNPs in the genic regions of Sobic.003G136200 (germin-like protein), Sobic.003G136800 (SNF7 family  
342 protein), and Sobic.003G136900 (phytochrome interacting factor 3).

343 Based on the literature, the RING/U-box superfamily protein-encoding gene is a strong candidate.  
344 Mahmood et al. (2016) identified a cis-regulatory motif involved in the formation of a CUL4-RING  
345 ubiquitin ligase complex and zinc finger transcription factors regulating herbicide metabolism related  
346 (HMR) genes such as cytochrome P450s, nitronate monooxygenase, and glutathione S-transferase in  
347 *Arabidopsis* and rice. The zinc finger transcription factors had a similar level of expression as that of  
348 HMR genes and were highly expressed in response to herbicides [41]. The zinc finger protein has also  
349 been reported to negatively regulate plant cell death in *Arabidopsis* [42]. In our study, three significant  
350 SNPs were detected downstream and three upstream of the gene Sobic.003G137000 (RING/U-box  
351 superfamily protein). The absence of a significant SNP in the gene region might be due to the absence of

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352 SNPs in this gene region in the genotypic dataset. It is plausible that the herbicide resistance observed in  
353 our population might be associated with the zinc finger domain regulated HMR resistance.

354 There were five SNPs in the intergenic region and one SNP in the genic region of Sobic.003G136800,  
355 which encodes a SNF-7 family protein. SNF-7 proteins are part of endosomal sorting complexes required  
356 for transport (ESCRT) machinery that is involved in multivesicular body biogenesis and sorting of  
357 ubiquitinated membrane proteins for degradation [43]. The SNF-7 gene could be involved in the vacuolar  
358 sorting of proteins targeted by metabolism-related genes for degradation.

359 In conclusion, we identified PPO-inhibitor tolerance in a diverse sorghum population. We developed a  
360 greenhouse assay to test for fomesafen tolerance in sorghum and confirmed field phenotypes. We  
361 identified a region of chromosome 3 that encompassed nine genes as being associated with fomesafen  
362 tolerance. We found that *PPXI* is highly conserved in sorghum and likely does not underlie the observed  
363 herbicide tolerance. Instead, the mechanism underlying this tolerance might be metabolism-based  
364 resistance, possibly regulated by the action of multiple genes, as indicated by continuous phenotypic  
365 distribution and LD structure within the region. Further experiments will confirm the role of candidate  
366 genes. The overall results of our study will be useful for sorghum breeders to develop fomasafen tolerant  
367 sorghum that avoids injury caused by residual PPO inhibitors and enable more diversified crop rotations.

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### 469 6 Supporting information captions

470 **Fig. S1.** Greenhouse assay for phenotypic evaluation. Phenotypic differences between 10 sensitive and  
471 tolerant representative sorghum lines selected from the sorghum biomass panel (SBP) for seven herbicide  
472 rates at the first week (A), second week (B), and third week (C) after herbicide treatment. Sensitive and  
473 tolerant groups were significant at the rate 0.1x. Significant phenotypic differences ( $p<0.0001$ ) were  
474 observed in the subset of 10 sorghum lines from sorghum conversion panel (SCP) (D), and 100 sorghum  
475 lines from the SBP (E) with the 0.1x rate of herbicide at second and third week after the treatment.

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