# Germination behaviour of *Conyza bonariensis* to constant and alternate temperatures across different populations

Francisco Valencia-Gredilla<sup>1</sup>, María Laura Supiciche<sup>2</sup>, Guillermo R. Chantre<sup>2</sup>, Jordi Recasens<sup>1</sup> & Aritz Royo-Esnal<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Departament de Hortofruticulture, Botany and Gardering, Agrotecnio, University of Lleida, Alcalde Rovira Roure 191, 25198 Lleida, Spain <sup>2</sup>Departamento de Agronomía/CERZOS, Universidad Nacional del Sur/CONICET Bahía Blanca, Buenos Aires 8000, Argentina

## Correspondence

Francisco Valencia-Gredilla, Departament of Hortofruticulture, Botany and Gardering, Agrotecnio, University of Lleida, Alcalde Rovira Roure 191, 25198 Lleida, Spain. Email: <u>Francisco.valencia@hbj.udl.cat</u>

# Keywords

Weed biology, hairy fleabane, germination response, cardinal temperatures, weed management.

Received: 30 April 2019; revisions received: 25 July and 24 September 2019; accepted: 11 October 2019.

This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi: 10.1111/aab.12556

### Abstract

Conyza bonariensis is one of the most problematic weed species throughout the world. It is considered highly noxious due to its interference with human activities, and especially the competition it poses with economically important crops. This research investigated the temperature requirements for seed germination of four populations of C. bonariensis with distinct origin and the influence of daily alternate temperatures. For this, a set of germination tests were performed in growth chambers to explore the effect of constant and alternate temperatures. Seeds of the four populations (from Lleida, Badajoz and Seville, Spain and Bahía Blanca, Argentina) were maintained at constant temperatures ranging from 5-35°C. The final germination and cardinal temperatures (base, optimum and maximum) of each population were obtained. We also tested the influence of daily alternate temperatures on final germination. To do so, seeds were exposed to two temperature regimes: 5/15, 10/20, 15/25, 20/30 and 25/35°C night/day temperature (intervals increasing 5°C, with constant oscillation of 10°C) and to 18/22, 26/24, 14/26, 12/28 and 10/30°C night/day temperature (intervals with average of 20°C, but increasing the oscillation in 4°C between intervals). In general, all populations behaved similarly, with the highest germination percentages occurring in the optimum temperature range (between 21.7°C and 22.3°C) for both constant and alternate temperatures. In general, climatic origin affected germination response, where seeds obtained from the coldest origin exhibited the highest germination percentage at the lowest temperature assayed. In addition, we observed that the alternate temperatures can positively affect total germination, especially in oscillations that were further from the average optimum temperature (20°C), with high germination percentage for the oscillations of 15/25, 20/30, 18/22, 16/24, 14/26, 12/28 and 10/30°C in all populations.

The cardinal temperatures obtained were significantly different across the populations. These results provide information that will facilitate a better understanding of the behaviour of *Conyza* and improve current field emergence models.

### 1 | Introduction

Weed management is one of the most important issues in crop production, especially in conservation cropping systems. Some weeds are difficult to control due to their specific biological characteristics and the lack of information about them.

Conyza bonariensis (L.) Cronquist, (hairy fleabane, flaxleaf fleabane) is one of the most problematic weed species throughout the world (Bajwa et al., 2016), appearing in more than 40 crops in 70 countries (Holm et al., 1997). In Spain, it is one of the most competitive introduced noxious weeds (Zambrano-Navea et al., 2013) that harms crops and leads to yield loss (Davis & Johnson, 2008; Trezzi et al., 2013, 2015; Urbano et al., 2007). Conyza bonariensis is an annual or short-lived perennial weed native to South America (Thebaud & Abbott, 1995; Wu et al., 2007). Its invasive behaviour is due to high plant fecundity that varies from 85,000 (Dauer et al., 2007) to 375,500 seeds per plant (Kempen & Graf, 1981). Moreover, the anemochorous dispersion of the seeds permits their long-distance spread and establishment in new fields (Savage et al., 2014). Conyza bonariensis is difficult to control in minimum tillage and conservation cropping systems (Somervaille & McLennan, 2003; Wicks et al., 2000), but is easily controlled with tillage (Brown & Whitwell, 1988). Herbicide control depends on the growth stage of the plants (Shrestha et al., 2008) and if the population presents herbicide resistance, given that C. bonariensis has been cited as evolving resistance to herbicides with different action sites (EPSP synthase inhibitors, PSI Electron Diverter, ALS inhibitor,

etc.) in several countries (Argentina, Australia, United States or Spain), in addition to evolving multiple resistance (PSI Electron Diverter and EPSP synthase inhibitors) (Heap, 2019).

*Conyza* is photoblastic, emerging from the upper layers of the soil surface (0-2 cm)with limited persistence, as it has very low dormancy levels and the viability of the ungerminated seeds is severely lost in the first year (Wu et al., 2007). Annual weed species survival is highly dependent on seedling emergence and recruitment (Forcella et al., 2000). Thus, it is important to know both timing and magnitude of seedling emergence in the field in order to implement successful control measures for weeds (García et al., 2013; Royo-Esnal et al., 2015). In this respect, Zambrano-Navea et al. (2013) modelled the emergence of C. bonariensis and developed a cohort-based stochastic model of the population dynamics (Zambrano-Navea et al., 2016). However, studying the germination response of more populations and at more temperatures and intervals would expand upon these existing models. Conyza bonariensis biology is well understood, but additional information regarding germination temperature thresholds is required to implement integrated management control measures. An added complexity is that the variation of threshold parameters between populations can be significant due to local adaptations (Tozzi et al., 2014; Bajwa et al., 2016). For example, in C. bonariensis, Karlsson & Milberg (2007) established cardinal temperatures of 4.2°C (base temperature,  $T_b$ ), 20°C (optimum temperature,  $T_o$ ) and 35°C (ceiling temperature,  $T_c$ ), while Zambrano-Navea et al. (2013) cited a  $T_b$  of 10.6°C.

This research investigated thermal requirements for seed germination of four different *C. bonariensis* populations collected from contrasting environments. The final aim was to compare the total germination percentage of each population at constant

temperatures and at different alternate temperatures. An additional objective was to compare the cardinal temperatures  $(T_b, T_o, T_c)$  of each population.

### 2 | Materials and methods

### 2.1 | Plant material collection

*Conyza bonariensis* seeds were harvested at maturity in September 2016 in Spain and in November 2017 in Argentina. Seeds from Spain were collected from three different habitats: a vineyard in Lleida (41.658010, 0.523766), a garden in Seville (37.352824, - 5.933194) and an olive orchard in Badajoz (38.702537, -5.573246). The population from Argentina belonged to a garden in Bahía Blanca (-38.695394, -62.253302). The four locations have specific climatic conditions (Table 1). According with Torra et al. (2016), seeds were collected from different plants throughout the field, were air-dried under laboratory conditions for one week and dry stored in the dark in paper bags at 4°C until the beginning of the experiment.

### 2.2 | Experimental design

Three germination tests were established at different temperature conditions and repeated twice: the first one at constant temperatures, the second at constant day/night temperature oscillations ( $T_{osc}$ ) and different mean temperatures ( $T_m$ ), and the third one at different day/night  $T_{osc}$  but with the same  $T_m$ . All the experiments were performed at the Departamento de Agronomía, Universidad Nacional del Sur and CONICET (Bahía Blanca, Argentina). In all three tests, batches of 30 seeds were sown on 9-cm Petri dishes lined with a N°1 filter paper layer wetted with distilled water. Four replicates per population and temperature were used following a completely randomized design.

Germinated seeds were counted on a daily basis until 21 days or until no further germination occurred during five consecutive days.

## 2.2.1 | *Germination test at constant temperatures (Test 1):*

Seeds from each population were incubated, in November 2017, at constant temperatures of 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30 and 35°C with a 12/12 day/night photoperiod. Temperatures were maintained at  $\pm 0.2$ °C and monitored with digital temperature data loggers (Thermochron Ibuttons, Model DS1921G-F50; Maxim Integrated Products, Inc., San Jose, California, USA).

2.2.2 | Germination test at alternate temperatures (variable  $T_m$ /constant  $T_{osc}$ ) (Test 2): In this assessment, seeds from each population were incubated at different alternate temperatures with 10°C of  $T_{osc}$  5/15, 10/20, 15/25, 20/30 and 25/35°C night/day temperatures using an Electronic Gradient Plate Germinator (SECELEC, CCT-Bahía Blanca, CONICET). Seeds were placed inside independent germination chambers with automatic temperature control (±0.1°C).

2.2.3 | Germination test at alternate temperatures (constant  $T_m$ /variable  $T_{osc}$ ) (Test 3): In this test,  $T_m$  was maintained constant (20°C) while  $T_{osc}$  was varied. The  $T_m$  considered was the optimum temperature ( $T_o$ ) obtained by Wu et al. (2007). Seeds were then placed at constant 20°C (in a growth chamber) and at 18/22, 16/24, 14/26, 12/28 and 10/30°C night/day alternate temperatures. Thus, incubation temperature amplitudes ( $T_{osc}$ ) were 0, 4, 8, 14 and 20°C.

For the different tests, a seed was considered germinated when the radicle had extended more than 1mm beyond the seed coat (Steinmaus et al., 2000; Wu et al., 2007).

Germinated seeds were removed from the dish once counted. Seed viability at the end of the germination tests was assessed by counting the number of germinated seeds after incubation at 20°C (Wu et al., 2007) under a 12-h photoperiod for five days.

2.3 | Statistical analysis

Total germination percentages between populations and incubation temperatures as well as cardinal temperatures were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA). The SED and LSD are provided.

*Estimation of cardinal temperatures* (base temperature,  $T_b$ , optimum temperature,  $T_o$  and ceiling temperature,  $T_c$ )

In order to estimate the cardinal temperatures for each population, a three parameter logistic function was first fitted to the cumulative emergence of each replication of each population at each constant temperature (Eq. [1]).

$$Y = \frac{a}{1 + e^{(\frac{-(x - d50)}{b})}}$$
 Eq. [1]

Where *Y* is the germination percentage, *a* is the maximum germination percentage,  $d_{50}$  is the time in days to achieve 50% of germination and *b* is the germination rate at  $d_{50}$ . Estimation of the optimum temperature (T<sub>o</sub>):

Once  $d_{50}$  was defined, its inverse value  $(1/d_{50})$  where represented in a figure and a threeparameter Lorentzian function was fitted, equally, to each replicate of each population (Eq. [2]).

$$Y = \frac{a}{1 + \left(\frac{x - d50}{b}\right)^2}$$
 Eq. [2]

Where Y is  $1/d_{50}$  value at each temperature x, a is the maximum  $1/d_{50}$  value, x<sub>0</sub> is the temperature at which the highest value of  $1/d_{50}$  is obtained, and coincides with the

centre of the peak and the optimum temperature at the same time; and parameter b is the mean width of the peak.

 $T_b$  and  $T_c$  estimation:

Once  $T_o$  was defined, sub-optimal temperatures were used to obtain  $T_b$  and supraoptimal temperatures were used to obtain  $T_c$ , and regression lines were fitted, respectively, to each (Eq. [2]) (Guillemin et al., 2013; Torra et al., 2016).

$$Y = ax + b \qquad \text{Eq. [3]}$$

Where *Y* is the  $1/d_{50}$  value at each temperature *x*, *a* is the slope and *b* is a constant value. The point where the regression lines intercept the X axis, estimated with the mathematical approach of the regression line, was considered as the T<sub>b</sub> and T<sub>c</sub> respectively for each population (Holt & Orcutt, 1996; Steinmaus et al., 2000; Wu et al., 2007), assuming there are no intra-population variations.

All statistical analyses were performed with JMP Pro 14 software (SAS Institute 2010. SAS Campus Drive, Cary, NC 27513, USA. SAS Institute, Inc.) and all linear and non-linear regression analysis were conducted with SigmaPlot 11.0 (Systat Software, San Jose, CA).

### 3 | Results

At constant temperatures, the highest germination percentages for all populations were obtained between 15 °C and 25°C (Table 2, Test 1), being maximum at 20°C. Seeds from Seville population had significantly different germination response comparing to the rest of the populations. A decrease in the germination percentage was observed at much lower (10°C and 5°C) or higher (30°C) constant temperatures (Table 2). Each population was affected similarly by the gradient of temperatures assessed, but the observed germination percentage was different depending on the biotype. Statistical differences were found between populations and incubation temperatures at all constant temperatures (P < 0.001) (Test 1, Table 2). At constant 5°C, the population from Lleida showed >25% of germination, value significantly higher than those observed in the population from Badajoz (1.3%), Seville (2.9%) and Bahía Blanca (9.6%). At constant 10°C, the populations from Lleida and Bahía Blanca showed significantly higher germination percentages (82.1% and 86.3%, respectively) than the population from Seville (48.8%) and Badajoz (55.4%). At 20°C, the population from Seville showed the lowest germination percentage (81.3%) significantly different from the rest of the populations, with values between 99.2% for Bahía Blanca and 98.3% for Lleida population. On the other hand, the population from Badajoz showed the highest germination percentage (25.0%) at constant 30°C, with values significantly different from the rest of the populations. Finally, no germination was observed at 35°C in any of the populations.

With respect to test 2, the seed exposure to a constant  $T_{osc}$  and at different  $T_m$  significantly affected the germination percentage. Statistical differences were found between populations and incubation temperatures at all constant temperatures (P <

0.001) except for 20–30°C (P < 0.397). Higher germination percentages were observed at 20–30°C for populations from Lleida and Seville, 5–15°C for Badajoz and 15–25°C for Bahía Blanca, with germination percentages higher than 94% for all of them (Test 2, Table 2). At 10–20°C and at 5–15°C, the population from Seville showed lower germination percentages (58.3% and 64.6%, respectively) than the rest of the populations, which always showed values above 82%. At 15–25°C, the population from Bahía Blanca showed a 98.3%, with significant different to those observed in population from Seville (76.7%) and Badajoz (87.9%) but not with Lleida (97.1%). At 25–35°C, the population from Badajoz showed the highest germination percentage (45.0%), which was significantly higher than the populations from Lleida (21.3%), Seville (19.6%) and Bahía Blanca (10.0%).

In the case of test 3, where a same  $T_m$  and different  $T_{osc}$  was assessed, no significant differences in germination percentage were observed inside each population (P = 0.327 for Lleida, P = 0.780 for Badajoz, P = 0.334 for Seville and P = 0.09 for Bahía Blanca), but there were differences between the different  $T_{osc}$  considered (P < 0.001), (Test 3, Table 3). At all temperatures assayed, significantly lower germination percentages were observed between populations from Seville (with percentages between 71.7% and 85.07%) and the rest of the populations.

The effect of temperature did not only affect the final germination percentage, but also the germination timing and rate (Figure 1). The cumulate germination of all populations at all temperatures successfully fitted to log–logistic function, except for those temperatures at which germination was too low or null (Table 4). At the lowest and highest constant temperatures, lower values were estimated for parameter  $x_o$ , indicating a delay in germination (Table 4; Figure 1). This behaviour is similar in all the populations. In general, the germination rate, identified as parameter b (Table 4) was faster between 15°C and 25°C, compared to at 5°C, 10°C and 30°C, except for the population from Badajoz. Parameter b could not be significantly fitted (P<0.05) for populations from Lleida and Bahía Blanca at 20 °C and 25°C, due to the fast germination rate, though the log-logistic function was significantly fitted (Table 4).

3.1 | Estimation of  $T_b$ ,  $T_o$  and  $T_c$ 

Lorentzian function was significantly adjusted to the  $1/d_{50}$  values (Figure 2) for every population with high accuracy ( $\mathbb{R}^2 > 0.86$ ). The optimal temperature ( $T_0$ ) for populations from Lleida and Seville was established at 21.7°C, whereas these values were higher for Bahía Blanca and Badajoz: 22.2°C and 22.3°C, respectively (Table 4).

Regression lines were successfully fitted for the estimation of the T<sub>b</sub> and T<sub>c</sub>, with R<sup>2</sup> values ranging between 0.90 and 0.99 (Figure 3) in seven of the eight cases, and being R<sup>2</sup> = 0.81 for the T<sub>c</sub> of the Badajoz population. The lowest T<sub>b</sub> (4.9°C) was estimated for the population from Lleida (Table 4), while the highest values (8.9°C and 8.4°C) were obtained for populations from Seville and Badajoz, respectively. An intermediate T<sub>b</sub> value (6.9°C) was observed in the Bahía Blanca population (Table 4). The lowest T<sub>c</sub> value was also obtained from the Bahía Blanca population (31.5°C), followed by that from Seville (31.7°C) and Lleida (32.3°C). Finally, the highest value was observed in the Badajoz population (34.0°C). Statistical differences were found between populations (P < 0.001) for T<sub>b</sub> but not for T<sub>o</sub> and T<sub>c</sub> (P < 0.246 and P < 0.103, respectively).

### 4 | Discussion

All populations showed similar germination behaviour. Germination percentage was highest near the optimum temperature and there were significant differences in the final germination percentages, which appeared mainly at lower temperatures. These differences could be explained, in part, by the climate of the original localities, but also by a possible maternal effect. The environmental conditions under which the mother plant produced the seeds, and also the position of the seed in the plant can impact seed germination. Likewise, water deficit, the age of the plant, the day length, the parental photo-thermal environment, light quality, altitude, and temperature are known, among other factors, to affect germinability (and dormancy in some cases) in other species (Gutterman, 2000; Menegat et al., 2018).

### 4.1 | Effect of temperature on germination

For all populations, the maximum germination percentage was reached near 20°C. The estimation of the optimal temperature  $(T_o)$  (21.7°C to 22.3°C) allowed for little distinction between populations (Table 4). When the temperatures moved away from the optimal, the final germination percentage decreased. This decrease was faster for supra-optimal than for sub-optimal temperatures (Table 2, Test 1). These results are similar to those found by Hardegree (2006) for various gramineous species.

The alternate temperatures did not have a significant effect when the mean temperature was close to the optimum (20°C). Similar trend was observed by Ottavini et al. (2019) with *C. canadensis*, who did not observed significant differences between constant and alternate temperatures of 15°C, 20°C and 25°C on average. Moving away from the optimal, the alternate temperatures (Table 2, Test 2) favoured the germination of the seeds compared to the corresponding constant mean temperature (Test 1, Table 2). For example, at 10°C, an oscillation of 10°C (5–15°C) increased the total

germination percentage in Lleida, Badajoz and Seville, in between 8% and up to 39%. The Bahía Blanca population was apparently the only one not affected by the oscillation at such low temperature. Similarly, at constant temperatures of 30°C, germination percentage was, on average, 13.3%; whereas at oscillation, the germination percentage was 24% at 25–35°C. This increasing germination percentage is also observed by Vidal et al. (2007) when comparing constant 25°C to 20–30°C, which increased from less than 50% up to nearly 85%. Differences could be explained by alternate temperatures, which enhance germination in photoblastic species (Roeder et al., 2013) such as *C. bonariensis*. Moreover, temperature changes are more pronounced at the soil surface where *C. bonariensis*, a very small seeded species, germinates better. Furthermore, the germination of this species is null at depths deeper than 2 cm (Wu et al., 2007), similar to *C. canadensis* which germination is reduced to 0% between 0.5 cm and 1cm (Ottavini et al., 2019).

In the intervals with constant mean temperatures and variable oscillation (Table 2, Test 3), there are not differences between the intervals and with the constant 20°C, with similar percentage germination with the intervals with variable mean and constant oscillation when the mean is close to 20°C.

The differences observed between germination percentages at constant and alternate temperatures could correspond to depth- and gap-sensing mechanism: temperature oscillations are more pronounced at or near to the soil surface and the amplitude of these fluctuations decreased with burial depth (Ren et al., 2002). This could be an adaptation that staggers the germination with the changing temperatures throughout the seasons (Vidal et al., 2007).

4.2 | Effect of the origin of the population on germination

Differences in germination percentages are accentuated between populations (Table 2). The population from Lleida, which is a comparatively colder location (Table 1), showed more germination (26.7%) at the lowest temperature assayed (5°C). The populations from warmer climates had lower germination percentage at this temperature (1.3% and 2.9% for Badajoz and Seville, respectively). These differences are not so clear when comparing the populations at 30°C, wherein germination percentages from Badajoz and Seville populations showed statistical differences of 25.0% and 7.1%, respectively.

Under the 10°C oscillation treatment (Table 2, Test 2), excluding the higher one (25/35°C), there were a high germination percentages and significant differences between the intervals across the populations. Similarly, there were high germination percentages for seeds subjected to temperature oscillations that were 20°C on average (Table 2, Test 3).

Higher germination percentages with 10°C oscillation occurred between 15/25°C and 20/30°C in all populations, except for that of Badajoz which had highest germination percentages at 5/15°C. Except for Seville population, these results are not in accordance with those from Travlos & Chachalis (2013), who found differences between 15/25°C and 20/30°C in populations of *C. bonariensis* from Greece. On the other hand, the lack of differences between 10/20°C and 15/25°C intervals in populations from Lleida and Badajoz agrees with other authors finding that there is less variation for these temperature ranges in climatically closer biotypes. Despite this, the Spanish populations from Lleida and Badajoz seem to be more adapted to colder winters (exhibiting more winter-summer oscillation) than those from Greece, as at 5/15°C the Spanish ones obtained over 90% germination, while the Greek ones did not exceed 35%.

Our results also agree with those from Karlsson & Milberg (2007), for populations from Ethiopia, Mexico and Morocco, for the 10/20, 15/25 and 20/30°C intervals, but not for the 5/15°C, where Lleida, Badajoz and Bahía Blanca populations obtained higher germination percentages (82.1-94.6%) than in previous studies (below 75%). The low germination percentages obtained by Karlsson & Milberg (2007) at 5/15°C could be explained by the local climatic conditions of these populations, which are classified as: Tropical pluviseasonal (Mexico), Tropical xeric (Ethiopia), and Mediterranean xeric-oceanic (Morocco) (Rivas-Martinez & Rivas-Saenz, 1996-2018). Population differences could be due to the adaptation to the climatic characteristics of each original site where the seeds were produced (Clements & DiTommaso, 2011), as reported for *C. canadensis* (Tozzi et al., 2014).

### 4.3 | Germination patterns and threshold values

The germination patterns of all population at all constant temperatures were, in general, successfully fitted to a log-logistic sigmoidal function (Table 3, Figure 1). The lack of this adjustment in some cases (Table 3) could be partially explained by the exceedingly high or low germination rates of the populations: 20°C and 25°C for Lleida and Bahía Blanca, and 5°C and 20°C for Badajoz and Seville.

The calculation of the  $x_0$  with the log-logistic model allowed the estimation of the threshold values of  $T_b$  and  $T_c$  (Figure 3), while  $T_o$  was estimated with the Lorentzian model applied to the total germination percentages (Figure 2). Our results for the population from Lleida agree with Wu et al. (2007), which estimated that *C*. *bonariensis* can germinate between 4.2°C and 30°C, even if the  $T_o$  is 20°C. The  $T_b$  of one of our populations (Lleida) are close to that from Wu et al. (2007), and the values are in accordance with the germination response explained above:  $T_b$  in Lleida shows

the lowest value (4.9°C) followed by Bahía Blanca (6.9°C), which agrees with their local climatic origin. In accordance with this, the T<sub>b</sub> in Seville (8.9°C) and Badajoz (8.4°C) are higher than in Lleida and Bahía Blanca, and not considerably different from that estimated by Zambrano-Navea et al. (2013) (10.6°C). The differences in the T<sub>b</sub> from Lleida and Bahía Blanca (4.9°C and 6.9°C) compared to the T<sub>b</sub> obtained by Zambrano-Navea et al. (2013) can be explained by the variations in the experimental design, as these authors used constant 15°C as the lowest temperature, while we also experimented with 10°C and 5°C, which obtained 48.8% and 2.9% germination, respectively. The idea that *C. bonariensis* is a summer weed could have led to the thought that its T<sub>b</sub> was similar to other summer weeds, such as *Amaranthus retroflexus* which is estimated to be between 10.0°C and 12.9°C (Loddo et al., 2018), or *C. canadensis*, which is between 8°C and 14°C, depending on the population (Tozzi et al., 2014).

The estimated ceiling temperature ( $T_c$ ) varied from 31.5°C to 34.0°C, which agrees with the lack of germinated seeds at constant 35°C in any population. These results also agree, in part, with those from Yamashita & Guimaraes (2011), who only obtained 6% germination at a constant 35°C and 1% germination at 40°C. Similar to the tendency in the other threshold values, the lowest  $T_o$  was obtained in the population from Lleida, but also in Seville (21.7°C), while the highest one was obtained in the population from Badajoz (22.3°C). These  $T_o$  values, which could in general be established at about 22 °C (±0.3°C), differ from that selected from the literature (Wu et al., 2007) to set the Test 2 and Test 3 of the experiment, and could be considered for future experiments.

4.4 | Implications for developing emergence models

The emergence model for *C. bonariensis* from Zambrano-Navea *et al.* (2013) has been proven to be valuable in several sites. This model was developed and validated with populations from the South of Spain, and has less relevance for other climatic biotypes and regions since the germination behaviour and the threshold values of other populations are different. The genetic variation of the *Conyza* species (Ming-Xun et al., 2010) could explain, in part, these results. Even if *C. bonariensis* has the ability to spread and disperse its seeds long distances (Savage et al., 2014), which could diminish the variations between populations, these differences are still important according to the results of the present and past work (Karlsson & Milberg, 2007). In addition to genetic origin, the maternal effect is another factor which could have enhanced differences between local populations.

In our study, there were four degrees (°C) of difference in  $T_b$  between the seeds from different origins, thereby impeding the development of a common model. In order to develop a model that could be widely applied, the next step is to test differences in the base parameters and germination behaviour of populations coming from different geographical sites, but belonging to the same climatic biotype. If there are not any differences between them, a more precise model could be developed or the current one created by Zambrano-Navea et al. (2013) could be readjusted to the populations of a certain climatic area.

# 5 | Conclusion

The germination percentage of *C. bonariensis* was higher when close to the optimal temperature obtained (22°C), both for constant and alternate temperatures. In the intervals with same  $T_{osc}$  and different  $T_m$ , some obtained higher germination

percentages than at constant temperature. In the intervals with different Tosc but the same T<sub>m</sub>, there are high germination percentages for all temperatures, without significant differences from the constant temperature. The different populations responded to the tests according to the apparent influence of their climatic origin. The biotype adapted to the coldest winter site (Lleida) had more germinated seeds at lower temperatures, while the biotypes adapted to warmer climatic sites (Badajoz and Seville) were more acutely affected by a temperature decrease. The differences in the threshold values for the cardinal parameters, as well as the in the germination behaviour of the from different climatic biotypes developing prevents us a common germination/emergence model. Thus, there is further need of investigation to achieve the goal of obtaining accurate models for each climatic region.

### Acknowledgements

This work was funded by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (A GL2014-52465-C4-2-R and AGL2017-83325-C4-2-R). The first author obtained a PhD grant from University of Lleida (PhD grants). We would like to acknowledge Ignacio Amaro-Blanco and Nuria López-Martínez for their help collecting seeds and Sarah Lade for improving the English in this paper.

# **Conflicts of interests**

Authors declare that there are not conflicts of interest.

### References

Bajwa, A.A., Sadia, S., Ali, H.H., Jabran, K., Peerzada, A.M., & Chauhan, B.S. (2016).
Biology and management of two important *Conyza* weeds: a global review. *Environmental Science Pollution Research*, 23, 24694–24710.

Brown S.M., & Whitwell T. (1988). Influence of tillage on horseweed (*Conyza canadensis*). *Weed Technology*, **2**, 269–270.

Clements D.R., & Ditommaso A. (2011). Climate change and weed adaptation: can evolution of invasive plants lead to greater range expansion than forecasted? *Weed Research*, **51**, 227–240.

Dauer J.T., Mortensen D.A., & Vangessel M.J. (2007). Temporal and spatial dynamics of long-distance *Conyza canadensis* seed dispersal. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, **44**, 105–114.

Davis, V.M., & Johnson, W.G. (2008). Glyphosate-resistant horseweed (*Conyza canadensis*) emergence, survival, and fecundity in no-till soybean. *Weed Science*, **56**, 231–236.

Forcella, F., Benech-Arnold, R.L., Sánchez, R., & Ghersa, C.M. (2000). Modeling seedling emergence. *Field Crops Research* 67, 123–139.

García, A., Recasens, J., Forcella, F., Torra, J., & Royo-Esnal, A. (2013). Hydrothermal Emergence Model for Ripgut Brome (*Bromus diandrus*). *Weed Science*, **61**, 146–153.

Guillemin, J.P., Gardarin, A., Granger, S., Reibel, C., Munier-Jolain, N., & Colbach, N. (2013). Assessing potential germination period of weeds with base temperatures and base water potentials. *Weed Research*, **53**, 76–87.

Gutterman, Y. (2000). Maternal Effects on Seeds During Development. In Seeds: The Ecology of Regeneration in Plant Communities, pp. 59–84. Ed. M. Fenner. New York, NY: CABI.

Hardegree, S.P. (2006). Predicting germination response to temperature. I. Cardinal-temperature models and subpopulation-specific regression. *Annals of Botany*, **97**, 1115–1125.

Heap, I.M. (2019). International Survey of Herbicide Resistant Weeds. Available at: http://www.weedscience.org (last accessed 7 March 2019).

Holm, L., Doll, J., Holm, E., Pancho, J., & Herberger, J. (1997). World Weeds, Natural Histories and Distribution, pp. 226–235. New York, USA: J. Wiley.

Holt, J.S., & Orcutt, D.R. (1996). Temperature thresholds for bud sprouting in perennial weeds and seed germination in cotton. *Weed Science*, **44**, 523–533.

Karlsson, L.M., & Milberg, P. (2007). Comparing after-ripening response and germination requirements of *Conyza canadensis* and *Conyza bonariensis* (Asteraceae) through logistic functions. *Weed Research*, **47**, 433–441.

Kempen, H.M., & Graf, J. (1981). Weed seed production. *Proceedings of the Western* Society of Weed Science, **34**, 78–81.

Loddo, D., Ghaderi-Far, F., Rastegar, Z., & Masin, R. (2018). Base temperatures for germination of selected weed species in Iran. *Plant Protection Science*, **54**, 60–66.

Menegat, A., Milberg, P., Nilsson, A., Andersson, L., & Vico, G. (2018). Soil water potential and temperature sum during reproductive growth control seed dormancy in *Alopecurus myosuroides* Huds. *Ecology and Evolution*, **8**, 7186–7194.

Ming-Xun, R., Xiao-Qiong, L., & Jian-Qing, D. (2010). Genetic variation and spread pattern of invasive *Conyza sumatrensis* around China's Three Gorges Dam. *Acta Oecologica*, **36**, 599–603.

Ottavini, D., Pannacci, E., Onofri, A., Tei, F., & Jensen, P. (2019). Effects of Light, Temperature, and Soil Depth on the Germination and Emergence of *Conyza canadensis* (L.) Cronq. *Agronomy*, **9**, 533. Ren, J., Tao, L., & Liu, X.M. (2002). Effect of sand burial depth on seed germination and seedling emergence of *Calligonum* L. species. *Journal of Arid Environments*, **51**, 603–611.

Rivas-Martinez, S., & Rivas-Saenz, S. (1996–2018). *Worldwide Bioclimatic Classification System*. Spain: Phytosociological Research Centre. http://www.globalbioclimatics.org

Roeder, M., Ferraz, I.D.K., & Hölscher, D. (2013). Seed and Germination Characteristics of 20 Amazonian Liana Species. *Plants*, **2**, 1–15.

Royo-Esnal, A., García, A., Torra, J., Forcella, F., & Guinjuan, J. (2015). Describing *Polygonum aviculare* emergence in different tillage systems. *Weed Research*, **55**, 387–395.

Savage, D., Borger, C.P., & Renton, M. (2014). Orientation and speed of wind gusts causing abscission of wind-dispersed seeds influences dispersal distance. *Functional Ecology*, **28**, 973–981.

Shrestha, A., Hembree, K., & Wright, S. (2008). Biology and Management of Horseweed and Hairy Fleabane in California. *Publication No. 8314*. Fresno, California: University of California, Division of Agricultural and Natural Resources.

Somervaille, A., & McLennan, B. (2003). *The 2<sup>nd</sup> Fallow Weed Management Guide*. Toowoomba, Australia: Conservation Farmers.

Steinmaus, S.J., Prather, T.S., & Holt, J.S. (2000). Estimation of base temperatures for nine weed species. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **51**, 275–286.

Thebaud, C., & Abbott, R. (1995). Characterization of invasive *Conyza* Species (Asteraceae) in Europe: quantitative trait and isozyme analysis. *American Journal of Botany*, **82**, 360–368.

Torra, J., Royo-Esnal, A., & Recasens J. (2016). Temperature and Light Requirements for Germination and Emergence of Three Arable Papaveraceae Species. *Weed Science*, **64**, 248–260.

Tozzi, E., Beckie, H., Weiss, R., Gonzalez-Andujar, J.L., Storkey, J., Cici, S.Z.H., & Acker, R.C. (2014). Seed germination response to temperature for a range of international populations of *Conyza canadensis*. *Weed Research*, **54**, 178–185.

Travlos, I.S, & Chachalis, D. (2013). Relative competitiveness of glyphosate- resistant and glyphosate-susceptible populations of hairy fleabane, *Conyza bonariensis*. *Journal of Pest Science*, **86**, 345–351.

Trezzi, M.M., Balbinot-Jr, A.A., Benin, G., Debastiani, F., Patel, F., Miotto-Jr, E. (2013). Competitive ability of soybean cultivars with horseweed (*Conyza bonariensis*). *Planta Daninha*, **31**, 543–550.

Trezzi, M.M., Vidal, R.A., Patel, F., Miotto, E., Debastiani, F., Balbinot, A.A., & Mosquen, R. (2015). Impact of *Conyza bonariensis* density and establishment period on soyabean grain yield, yield components and economic threshold. *Weed Research*, **55**, 34–41.

Urbano, J.M., Borrego, A., Torres, V., Leon, J.M., Jimenez, C., Dinelli, G., & Barnes, J. (2007). Glyphosate-resistant hairy fleabane (*Conyza bonariensis*) in Spain. *Weed Technology*, **21**, 396–401.

Vidal, R.A., Kalsing, A., Goulart, I., Lamego, F., & Christoffoleti, P. (2007). Impact of temperature, light and seed depth on emergence and germination of *Conyza bonariensis* e *Conyza canadensis* resistant to glyphosate. *Planta Daninha*, **25**, 309–315.

Wicks, G.A., Felton, W.L., Murison, R.D., & Martin, R.J. (2000). Changes in fallow weed species in continuous wheat in northern New SouthWales, 1981–90. *Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture*, **40**, 831–842.

Wu, H., Walker, S., Rolling, M.J., Yuen, D.K., Robinson, G., & Werth, J. (2007).
Germination, persistence, and emergence of flaxleaf fleabane (*Conyza bonariensis* (L.)
Cronquist). *Weed Biology and Management*, 7, 192–199.

Yamashita, O., & Guimaraes, S. (2011). Germination of *Conyza canadensis* and *Conyza bonariensis* Seeds under Different Conditions of Temperature and Light. *Planta Daninha*, **29**, 333–342.

Zambrano-Navea, C., Bastida, F., & Gonzalez-Andujar, J.L. (2013). A hydrothermal seedling emergence model for *Conyza bonariensis*. *Weed Research*, **53**, 213–220. Zambrano-Navea, C., Bastida, F., & Gonzalez-Andujar, J.L. (2016). A cohort-based stochastic model of the population dynamic and long- term management of *Conyza bonariensis* in fruiting tree crops. *Crop Protection*, **80**, 15–20.

**Table 1.** Climatic characterization of the origin locality of each population.  $T_{Mean}$ : Annual Mean Temperature;  $T_{Warm}$ :Mean temperature of warmest month;  $T_{Cold}$ : Mean temperature of coldest month

Cintratic citafacterization										
Location	Macro Bioclimate	Ombrotype	Thermotype	Bioclimate	T <sub>mean</sub>	T <sub>warm</sub>	T <sub>cold</sub>			
Lleida	Mediterranean	Xeric	Mesomediterranean	Continental	15.0	25.2	5.5			
Badajoz	Mediterranean	Xeric	Mesomediterranean	Oceanic	17.1	26.1	8.6			
Seville	Mediterranean	Xeric	Thermomediterranean	Oceanic	19.2	28.2	10.9			
Bahía	Temperate	Xeric	Mesotemperate	Oceanic	15.3	23.6	7.5			
Blanca										

Temperature means calculated for the period 1983-2010 for the Spanish locations and 1981-2010 for the

Argentinian

 Table 2. Total percentage of germination for the *Conyza bonariensis* populations at each experiment. Test 1, constant temperatures; Test 2, alternate temperatures (variable mean/constant oscillation); Test 3, alternate temperatures (constant mean/variable oscillation).

	T (°C)	Lleida	Badajoz	Seville	Bahía Blanca	SED	LSD	d.f.
	5	26.7	1.3	2.9	9.6	4.93	9.81	31
	10	82.1	55.4	48.8	86.3	8.98	18.39	31
	15	92.5	86.3	74.6	97.1	6.48	13.27	31
Test 1	20	98.3	96.3	81.3	99.2	3.12	6.40	31
	25	93.3	90.0	77.9	99.2	3.35	6.87	31
	30	15.8	25.0	7.1	5.4	3.78	7.75	31
	35	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-	-	-
	SED	5.80	5.44	5.09	3.78			
	LSD	11.60	10.92	10.23	7.58			
	d.f.	55	55	55	55			
	5–15	90.0	94.2	64.6	82.1	5.84	11.96	31
Test 2	10-20	92.5	83.3	58.3	89.2	5.90	12.09	31
	15–25	97.1	87.9	76.7	98.3	4.55	9.32	31
	20-30	98.3	93.3	95.0	94.6	2.99	6.12	31
	25–35	21.3	45.0	19.6	10.0	5.07	10.38	31
	20	98.3	96.3	81.3	99.2	3.12	6.40	31
	SED	2.98	4.77	6.49	3.94			
	LSD	6.01	9.63	13.10	7.96			
	d.f.	47	47	47	47			
	18–22	98.3	93.8	83.3	94.6	3.74	7.65	31
	16–24	97.1	90.8	71.7	94.6	5.10	10.45	31
Test 3	14–26	95.0	94.2	85.0	99.2	4.14	8.49	31
	12-28	99.1	93.3	79.6	100.0	4.09	8.38	31
	10-30	93.8	95.4	75.8	92.5	5.12	10.48	31
	20	98.3	96.3	81.3	99.2	3.12	6.40	31
	SED	2.76	3.79	6.45	3.11			
	LSD	5.57	7.64	13.01	6.28			
	d.f.	47	47	47	47			

SED, standard error of the difference between two means; LSD, least significant difference between two means at P = 0.05; d.f., degrees of freedom associated with LSDs and SEDs.

T(°C) F Р Population а b x<sub>0</sub> 5 26.9957 1.2307 16.6264 3702.9921 < 0.0001 10 80.9581 0.7598 9.7044 7866.2978 < 0.0001 15 91.4461 366.9728 < 0.0001 0.6621 2.5887 Lleida 20 98.3114 0.0724\* 1.7998\* 502481.464 < 0.0001 25 93.0921 0.0911\* 1.7858\* 13097.5736 < 0.0001 30 15.4061 2.4003 4.7235 165.6618 < 0.0001 1.7422\* 5 1.2499\* 19.5611 135.2574 < 0.0001 0.9767 10 53.6136 11.4118 1659.4462 < 0.0001 85.6338 1.2452 3.9909 264.9829 < 0.0001 15 20 96.1187 0.1165\* 1.8273 28831.9755 < 0.0001 Badajoz 25 89.1273 0.2082 1.8518 918.8929 < 0.0001 30 24.2102 2.8306 4.6569 98.0223 < 0.0001 5 2.6267 0.2815\* 17.0325 1638.7769 < 0.0001 10 48.6567 1.2155 12.6461 2207.0097 < 0.0001 15 74.5380 1.1501 5.0842 2116.4081 < 0.0001 Seville 20 80.2973 0.2188\*1.8141 463.9906 < 0.0001 25 77.5177 0.4436 2.7171 2614.6267 < 0.0001 30 7.1728 2.9543 5.2191 143.8073 < 0.0001 5 13.5797 2.0785 19.1641 1058.6897 < 0.0001 10 84.7909 0.8799 10.6539 4965.3598 < 0.0001 15 96.5026 0.8747 3.4091 459.5015 < 0.0001 Bahía 20 99.1229 0.1018\* 1.8307 129376.9258 < 0.0001 Blanca 25 98.9696 1.8312 19924.4810 < 0.0001 0.1173\* 30 5.6035 2.4995 9.5902 415.4343 < 0.0001

 Table 3. Values of parameters for the log-logistic models obtained from the cumulative germination data

 for each population assessed at every constant temperature.

\* Parameters not fitted (P<0.05) without incidence in the log-logistic function.

**Table 4.** Estimated base temperatures ( $T_b$ ), optimal temperature ( $T_o$ ), and ceiling temperatures ( $T_c$ ), for each population of *Conyza bonariensis* assessed. Mean values are presented in °C.

-		Llaida	Badaioz	Savilla	Bahía	SED	LSD	d.f.
		Licitia	Dadaj02	Sevina	Blanca			
-	T <sub>b</sub>	4.9	8.4	8.9	6.9	0.45	0.92	31
	To	21.7	22.3	21.7	22.2	0.31	0.64	31
	T <sub>c</sub>	32.3	34.0	31.7	31.5	1.05	2.17	27

SED, standard error of the difference between two means; LSD, least significant difference between two means at P = 0.05; d.f., degrees of freedom associated with LSDs and SEDs.

Figure 1. Cumulative germination percentage (%) of *Conyza bonariensis* at constant temperatures of 5°C
(●), 10°C (○), 15°C (▼), 20°C (△), 25°C (■), 30°C (□) across the different populations.

Figure 2. Lorentzian functions adjusted to the  $l/d_{50}$  values obtained at each temperature by each population assessed. R<sup>2</sup> of the functions and RMSE are provided.

**Figure 3.** Estimation of the base temperatures ( $T_b$ ) on the left and ceiling temperatures ( $T_c$ ) on the right for each of the *Conyza bonariensis* populations. Regression lines are presented, together with the lineal functions for each  $T_b$  and  $T_c$ , followed by the  $R^2$ .



This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved.

ticl Accepte



ticle Accepted