



Differential expression of acetohydroxyacid synthase genes in sunflower plantlets and its response to imazapyr herbicide

Gabriela Breccia^{a,c}, Tatiana Vega^{a,c}, Silvina A. Felitti^{b,c}, Liliana Picardi^{a,d}, Graciela Nestares^{a,*}

^a Cátedra de Genética, Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias, Universidad Nacional de Rosario, CC 14, S2125ZAA, Zavalla, Argentina

^b Laboratorio de Biología Molecular, Universidad Nacional de Rosario, CC 14, S2125 ZAA, Zavalla, Argentina

^c CONICET, Universidad Nacional de Rosario, CC 14, S2125 ZAA, Zavalla, Argentina

^d CIUNR, Universidad Nacional de Rosario, CC 14, S2125 ZAA, Zavalla, Argentina

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 22 January 2013

Accepted 12 March 2013

Available online xxx

Keywords:

Helianthus annuus L.
Imidazolinone herbicide
ahas gene expression
AHAS activity
Herbicide tolerance

ABSTRACT

Acetohydroxyacid synthase (AHAS) catalyzes the first reaction in branch chain amino acids biosynthesis. This enzyme is the target of several herbicides, including all members of the imidazolinone family. Little is known about the expression of the three acetohydroxyacid synthase genes (*ahas1*, *ahas2* and *ahas3*) in sunflower. The aim of this work was to evaluate *ahas* gene expression and AHAS activity in different tissues of sunflower plantlets. Three genotypes differing in imidazolinone resistance were evaluated, two of which carry an herbicide resistant-endowing mutation known as *Ahas1-1* allele. *In vivo* and *in vitro* AHAS activity and transcript levels were higher in leaves than in roots. The *ahas3* transcript was the less abundant in both tissues. No significant difference was observed between *ahas1* and *ahas2* transcript levels of the susceptible genotype but a higher *ahas1* transcript level was observed in leaves of genotypes carrying *Ahas1-1* allele. Similar transcript levels were found for *ahas1* and *ahas2* in roots of genotypes carrying *Ahas1-1* allele whereas higher *ahas2* abundance was found in the susceptible genotype. Herbicide treatment triggered tissue-specific, gene and genotype-dependent changes in *ahas* gene expression. AHAS activity was highly inhibited in the susceptible genotype. Differential responses were observed between *in vitro* and *in vivo* AHAS inhibition assays. These findings enhance our understanding of AHAS expression in sunflower genotypes differing for herbicide resistance and its response to herbicide treatment.

© 2013 Elsevier Ireland Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Acetohydroxyacid synthase (AHAS; EC 4.1.3.18) also known as acetolactate synthase is the first enzyme in the biosynthesis of the branched chain amino acids valine, leucine and isoleucine. This enzyme catalyzes two reactions, in which either 2-acetolactate or 2-aceto-2-hydroxybutyrate is formed [1]. The biosynthesis of the branched chain amino acids primarily occurs in plastids of young tissues of different plant organs [2,3].

AHAS is the target site of several herbicides including five structurally diverse chemical classes: sulfonylureas, imidazolinones, triazolopyrimidines, pyrimidinylthio (or oxy)-benzoates and sulfonilamino-carbonyl triazolinones [4]. These herbicides inhibit AHAS by blocking a channel through which substrates access the active site [5].

Abbreviations: AHAS, acetohydroxyacid synthase; RT-qPCR, reverse transcription quantitative polymerase chain reaction.

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +54 0341 4970080; fax: +54 0341 4970080.

E-mail address: gnestare@unr.edu.ar (G. Nestares).

The number of *ahas* genes varies according to the plant species. *Arabidopsis thaliana* contains one gene which is constitutively expressed [6]. Multiple *ahas* genes have been identified in several other plant species: six in cotton [7], five in oilseed rape [8], three in wheat [9], two in tobacco [10], corn [11] and several weed species [12–18]. Expression patterns of *ahas* genes have not been studied in most cases.

AHAS activity and *ahas* transcript accumulation were detected in roots and leaves from young plantlets and developing reproductive tissue [19]. A coordinated expression of the two *ahas* genes was observed in tobacco, mainly in developing organs such as inflorescences and root apices [10]. On the other hand, tissue-specific expression was found for different members of *ahas* gene family in cotton and oilseed rape [7,20]. A recent work examined transcription level of two *ahas* genes through RT-qPCR in *Echinochloa phyllopogon*. A differential contribution of each gene was observed in leaves and roots [15].

Three genes coding for the AHAS catalytic subunit have been identified in sunflower (*ahas1*, *ahas2* and *ahas3*). Expression of the three members was detected but it could not be quantified [21,22]. Moreover, AHAS activity in sunflower was studied only in leaf tissues [23–26].

A single base-pair change in the gene encoding the large subunit of AHAS, and the consequent single amino acid change in the mature protein, results in an imidazolinone-resistant enzyme [27]. Several different mutations in *ahas1* have been identified that confer imidazolinone resistance in sunflower. Specifically, the amino acid changes identified are Ala205Val (amino acid number in reference to AHAS sequence from *A. thaliana*) [22,28], Trp574Leu [29] which was discovered in wild biotypes, and Ala122Thr which was obtained through seed mutagenesis [30]. Mutation at Ala205, also known as *Imr₁* [31], *Ar_{pur}* [22] or *Ahas1-1* allele [30], does not confer complete resistance to imidazolinone herbicides [31]. A second modifier gene (*Imr₂*) is necessary to achieve complete resistance [31]. The effect of the modifier locus, *Imr₂*, remains unknown and it might be related to an altered AHAS expression or non-target-site resistance (herbicide uptake, transport or metabolism).

The objective of this work was to measure the transcript levels of the three *ahas* genes and AHAS activity in young leaf and root tissues of sunflower lines differing in herbicide resistance. In addition, the response to imidazolinone herbicide treatment was evaluated at the transcriptional and enzyme activity levels.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Plant materials

Three sunflower inbred lines were used in this study: HA425, 1058-1 and HA89 which are imidazolinone resistant (*Ahas1-1Ahas1-1 Imr₂Imr₂*), intermediate (*Ahas1-1Ahas1-1 imr₂imr₂*) and susceptible (*ahas1ahas1 imr₂imr₂*), respectively. The resistant line HA425 was developed and released by the USDA-ARS and the North Dakota Agricultural Experiment Station [32]. The line 1058-1 was developed from a backcross between HA425 and HA89 [31].

2.2. Plant growth conditions and tissue collection

Achenes were planted on plastic pots (4 cm wide, 5.5 cm high) filled with commercial perlite and watered by capillarity with nutritive solution consisting of Murashige and Skoog's [33] medium (25% v/v). Pots were incubated in growth chamber under controlled conditions ($25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$, 16 h light, $100 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). After 14 days, the seedlings were dissected into roots and leaves and immediately used for AHAS activity assays or RNA extraction. Commercial herbicide imazapyr (Clearsol®, BASF) was applied to nutritive solution to a final concentration of $10 \mu\text{M}$ 48 h before harvest.

2.3. Relative RT-qPCR

RNA was extracted from leaf and root tissues using the PureLink™ RNA Mini Kit (Invitrogen Life Technologies) according to the instructions provided by the manufacturer in two independent experiments. DNaseI treatment was performed using on-column PureLink™ DNase (Invitrogen Life Technologies). RNA was quantified using a spectrophotometer and integrity was confirmed through gel electrophoresis. RNA was stored at -80°C until used. First strand cDNA synthesis was performed with the SuperScript® First-Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR (Invitrogen Life Technologies) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Reverse transcription was initiated using oligo-dT supplied with the kit.

Sunflower *ahas* sequences (accession numbers AY541451–AY541458) and ESTs (DY909668.1, DY906644.1, DY912682.1) were gathered from NCBI GenBank (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>). Due to the high similarity between *ahas1* and *ahas2* it was difficult to design paralog-specific primers. Therefore, *ahas1* forward primer was designed based on the

Table 1
Oligonucleotide primers used for relative RT-qPCR.

Target gene	Forward primer 5'–3'	Reverse primer 5'–3'
<i>ahas1</i>	CGAACGGTAACCCTAGAACAC	AAGTGATGGGTAATGCCAAAC
<i>ahas2</i>	GCCGCCATACATCTCCCC	CCGGTGGTGGTGGGAGTC
<i>ahas3</i>	GTTGTTGGCGTTTGGCGTCCG	GATCGCGTCCACCCGTCAC
β -tubulin	TCTGCCACCATGTCGGGAGTT	GTAACGCCCGTGTCTGGGTC

5' (untranslated) UTR region. Primers were designed using the Primer 3 [34] and Primer-Blast software (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/>). The primer pairs corresponding to *ahas1*, *ahas2*, *ahas3*, and β -tubulin are listed in Table 1. Real-time PCR analysis was performed using the Rotor-Gene Q (Qiagen®) thermal cycler. The reaction contained 1x SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Mezcla Real®, Biodynamics, Argentina), $0.4 \mu\text{M}$ of the forward and reverse primers and $1.5 \mu\text{L}$ of cDNA (1:5 dilution) in a total volume of $15 \mu\text{L}$. No-template controls were also included. Each qPCR cycle consisted of denaturation for 15 s at 95°C , annealing for 30 s at 60°C , and extension for 40 s at 72°C . RT-PCR products were sequenced to confirm the gene specific amplification. All reactions were run in triplicate. Quantification cycle (Cq) and efficiency (E) for each amplicon were obtained from the Comparative Quantitation software supplied by Corbett Research for Rotor Gene. β -tubulin was selected as a suitable reference gene in roots and leaves in control and herbicide treatments (Cq for tubulin showed a standard deviation lower than 1 under all conditions) [35]. This gene was already used as reference gene in RT-qPCR experiments [36] and was probed to be stable [37]. Normalized expression value for each gene was calculated based on E and Cq in comparison to the reference gene according to Simon's formula [38]. Relative expression ratios were calculated considering control samples and samples from herbicide treated plants [39].

2.4. In vitro AHAS assay

AHAS *in vitro* activity was determined following the procedure described by Yu et al. [40] and Degrande et al. [19] with modifications. Plant tissues were powdered in liquid nitrogen and suspended in 5 mL g^{-1} fresh weight of buffer containing 50 mM N-(2-hydroxyethyl)-piperazine-N9-(2-ethanesulfonic acid), pH 7, 200 mM sodium pyruvate, 20 mM MgCl_2 , 2 mM thiamine pyrophosphate, and $20 \mu\text{M}$ flavin adenine dinucleotide. Insoluble polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVPP) was added at the ratio of tissue:insoluble PVPP 6:1. The homogenate was centrifuged at $27,000 \times g$ for 15 min, and immediately used for enzyme activity assays. Crude extract ($400 \mu\text{L}$) and the same volume of distilled water were incubated at 37°C for 60 min. Afterwards, the content of the reaction tube was divided in two aliquots of $350 \mu\text{L}$. In one of the aliquots, the reaction was stopped by adding $70 \mu\text{L}$ of $5.5 \text{ N H}_2\text{SO}_4$ and incubated at 60°C for 15 min to convert acetolactate to acetoin. Acetoin-forming enzymes in plant tissues may interfere with the assay [41], thus the contribution of the direct formation of acetoin by non-AHAS enzyme activities was determined using NaOH to terminate the reaction instead of H_2SO_4 [42]. Acetoin was quantified by a modified colorimetric assay [43] wherein the color was developed by adding $350 \mu\text{L}$ of 0.5% (w/v) creatine and $350 \mu\text{L}$ of 5% (w/v) 1-naphthol prepared in 2 N NaOH just before use. The samples were vortexed, incubated at 60°C for 15 min, allowed to cool and centrifuged at 25°C for 5 min ($11,000 \times g$). Absorbance was measured spectrophotometrically at 530 nm. AHAS activity was calculated as the mean of three independent repetitions and expressed as absorbance at 530 nm g^{-1} fresh weight h^{-1} .

2.5. *In vivo* AHAS assay

AHAS *in vivo* activity was determined by the procedure described by Gerwick et al. [44] and Simpson et al. [45] with modifications. A stock incubation solution containing 25% (v/v) of Murashige and Skoog's [33] medium, 0.025% Triton X-100, 500 μM 1,1-cyclopropanedicarboxylic acid (CPCA) and 0 (control) and 10 μM imazapyr was prepared immediately before each assay. Petri dishes containing detached leaves (200 mg) and 6 mL of incubation solution were placed in a growth chamber at 25 °C under fluorescent light (100 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) for 6 h. It was not possible to detect activity in detached roots. Therefore, for root activity determination, the incubation solution was applied as watering solution in intact plants for 24 h. After incubation, leaves and roots were weighted and stored at -20 °C until used. Tissue was grounded in liquid nitrogen with 1 mL of water per gram of fresh weight and 100 mg of PVPP. The samples were incubated at 60 °C for 15 min followed by incubation at room temperature for 45 min, and vortexing every 15 min to facilitate enzyme products extraction from leaf and root tissues. After centrifugation at 4 °C for 10 min (11,000 $\times g$) a 400- μL aliquot was taken and mixed with 40 μL of 5.5 N H_2SO_4 . The mixture was incubated at 60 °C for 30 min to facilitate decarboxylation of enzyme products. The contribution of the direct formation of acetoin by non-AHAS activities was determined using NaOH instead of H_2SO_4 . Acetoin and 3-hydroxy-2-pentanone were quantified by a modified colorimetric assay previously described [43]. Absorbance of the 2,3-diketone species was measured spectrophotometrically at 530 nm [46]. AHAS activity was calculated as the mean of three independent repetitions and expressed as absorbance at 530 nm g^{-1} fresh weight h^{-1} .

2.6. Data analysis

Data were tested for statistical significance using analysis of variance. Normality of the empirical distribution of each variable was assessed by the Shapiro–Wilk (*W*) test. Homogeneity of variance was evaluated using the Levene's test on absolute residuals. Logarithmic transformations were used to stabilize the variances. Means from different tissues and genotypes were compared using Tukey's multiple comparison test. Control and herbicide treatment means were compared using Student's *t*-test. Statistical analyses were performed using *agricolae* and *car* packages of R software [47].

3. Results

3.1. Transcriptional levels of *ahas* genes

The expression pattern of sunflower *ahas* gene family is showed in Fig. 1. The *ahas3* transcript was the less abundant in both tissues. For *ahas1* and *ahas3*, the transcript levels were ten times higher in leaves than in roots. In root tissues, the transcript level of *ahas1* was not significantly higher than other gene paralogs. A higher *ahas1* transcript level was observed in leaves of intermediate and resistant genotypes. Only for the susceptible line, no significant difference was found between *ahas1* and *ahas2* transcript abundance in leaves. Moreover, *ahas2* showed the highest transcript level in roots of this genotype.

Herbicide treatment triggered significant changes at the transcriptional level of *ahas* genes except for the resistant genotype (Fig. 2). Relative transcript abundance showed less than a two-fold increase for *ahas2* in the intermediate genotype. The most noticeable change was observed for *ahas3* in roots of the susceptible and intermediate genotype, for which the transcript levels were four

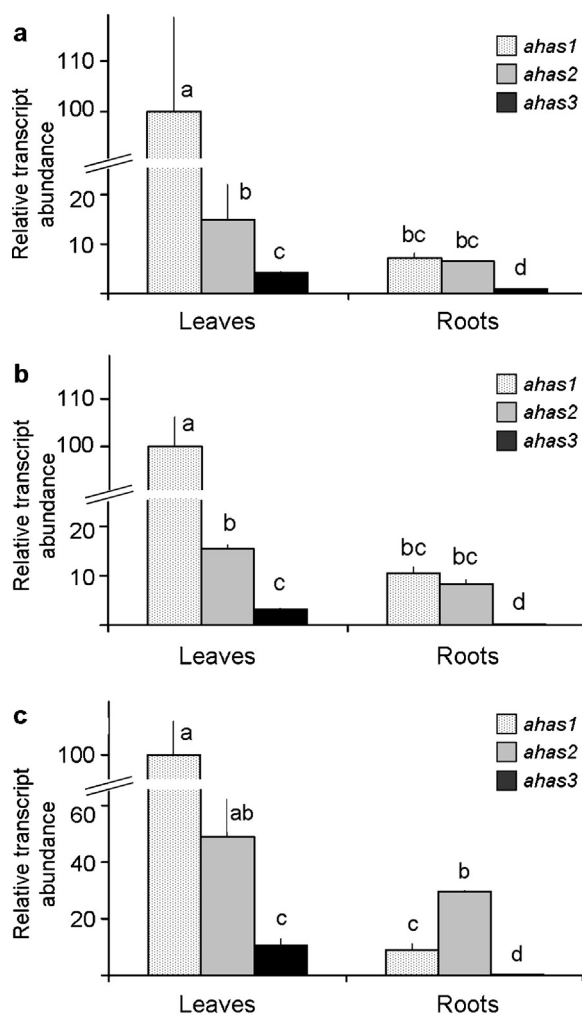


Fig. 1. Transcriptional levels of *ahas* genes (*ahas1*, *ahas2* and *ahas3*) in sunflower plantlets. Data were obtained by RT-qPCR normalized against β -tubulin and expressed relative to *ahas1* in leaves for the three evaluated genotypes HA425 (a), 1058-1 (b) and HA89 (c). Vertical bars indicate SE of the mean. Mean values with the same letter are not significantly different at the 0.05 probability level (Tukey's multiple comparison test). Data were log-transformed; letters refer to transformed mean values.

or five times higher in presence of imazapyr herbicide than control treatment. On the other hand, *ahas1* and *ahas3* transcription was inhibited in susceptible leaves.

3.2. AHAS activity

AHAS activity in sunflower plantlets was measured through *in vivo* and *in vitro* assays (Fig. 3). Similar patterns were observed for the three evaluated genotypes. Higher levels of activity were detected in leaf than in root tissues.

In vitro AHAS activity in herbicide treated plantlets decreased significantly compared to control only for leaves of the susceptible line HA89 ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 4). Activity in leaves of this genotype was less than 5%. By contrast, the extractable activity in root tissues showed a reduction of about 40% (Fig. 4).

There was a significant decrease of *in vivo* AHAS activity ($p < 0.05$) in both leaf and root tissues. The susceptible line showed the lowest values of AHAS activity. The intermediate and resistant genotypes showed a similar response (Fig. 4).

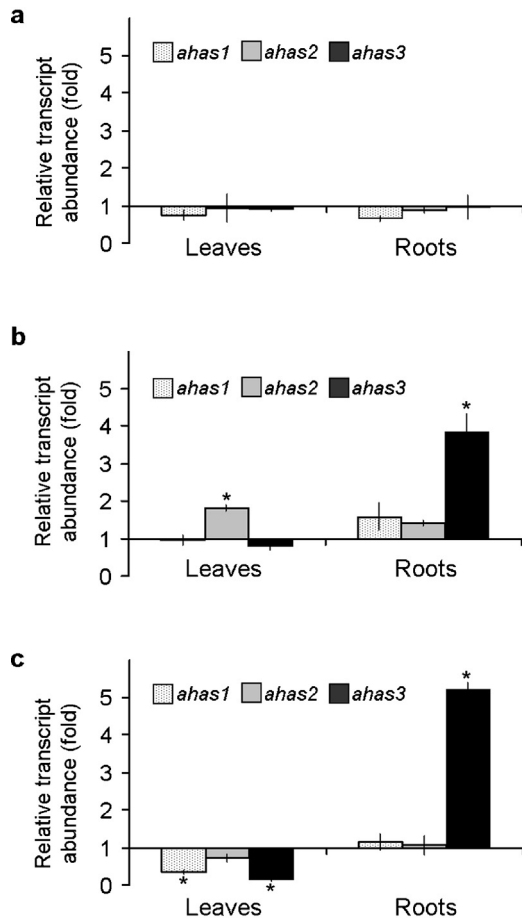


Fig. 2. Transcriptional levels of *ahas* genes (*ahas1*, *ahas2* and *ahas3*) in sunflower plantlets treated with imazapyr herbicide. Data from RT-qPCR were normalized against β -tubulin and expressed relative to control conditions for the three evaluated genotypes HA425 (a), 1058-1 (b) and HA89 (c). Vertical bars indicate SE of the mean. *Herbicide treatment differs significantly from control by *t*-test ($p < 0.05$) on the log-transformed values.

4. Discussion

4.1. Transcriptional levels of *ahas* genes

In this work, *ahas* transcript levels were measured using relative RT-qPCR in sunflower plantlets of three inbred lines differing in resistance to imidazolinone herbicides. Previous works could not accurately quantify differences in expression among paralogs because of several technical problems due to the high conservation of this gene family [21,22].

The obtained results are consistent with a previous non-quantitative RT-PCR study, which found that *ahas1* and *ahas2* were expressed in several tissues whereas *ahas3* was more weakly expressed than the other two genes [21].

The relative transcript level did not significantly differ between *ahas1* and *ahas2* in leaves of the susceptible line. Moreover *ahas2* showed a higher abundance than *ahas1* in roots of susceptible line. The resistant and intermediate genotypes showed a higher transcript level of *ahas1* (Fig. 1). These genotypes carry the *Ahas1-1* allele (Ala205 mutation). Ala205 mutation was found to reduce the specific AHAS activity in other species [48]. Therefore, a higher transcriptional level may compensate the reduced functionality of this isoform. Similarly, mutant barley *ahas* showed a higher expression level that contributes to the full AHAS activity of the plant [49].

At present, the induced and natural mutations conferring imidazolinone resistance in sunflowers were identified in *ahas1*

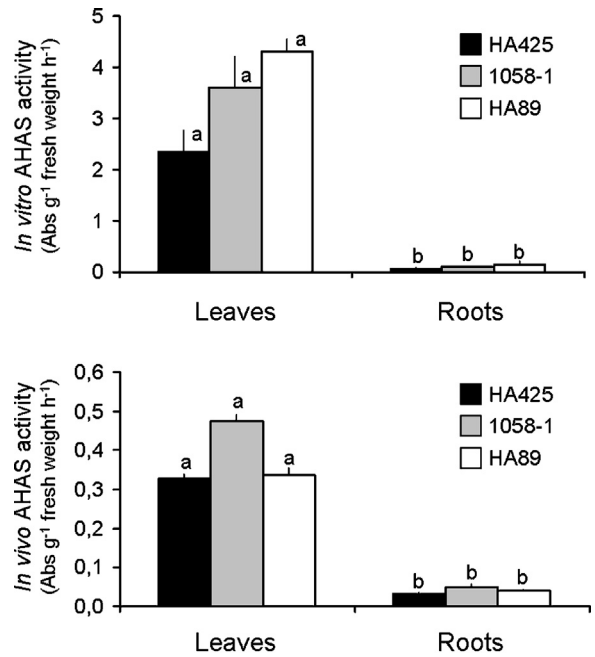


Fig. 3. Acetohydroxyacid synthase (AHAS) activity in sunflower plantlets for the resistant (HA425), intermediate (1058-1) and susceptible (HA89) genotypes. Activity was expressed as absorbance at 530 nm (g fresh tissue)⁻¹ h⁻¹ for both *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays. Vertical bars indicate SE of the mean. Mean values with the same letter are not significantly different at the 0.05 probability level (Tukey's multiple comparison test). Data were log-transformed; letters refer to transformed mean values.

[21,22,28–30]. For that reason, it was suggested that *ahas1* gene was the gene family member that encodes the AHAS enzyme with essential housekeeping functions in sunflower and that it is predominantly expressed in tissues affected by herbicide treatment [21,22,30]. However, from the results found in the present work,

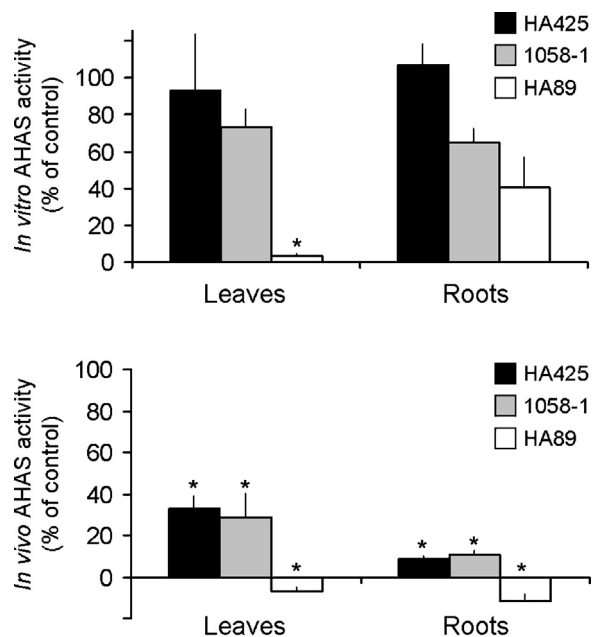


Fig. 4. Acetohydroxyacid synthase (AHAS) activity in sunflower plantlets treated with imazapyr herbicide for the resistant (HA425), intermediate (1058-1) and susceptible (HA89) genotypes. Activity was expressed as percentage of the control for both *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays. Vertical bars indicate SE of the mean. *Herbicide treatment differs significantly from control by *t*-test ($p < 0.05$) on the log-transformed values.

it becomes evident the importance of isoforms other than AHAS1. Further analysis, including additional tissues and developmental stages, should be done for a better understanding of the expression pattern of the *ahas* gene family in sunflower. In particular, experiments are being conducted to assess transcript levels in reproductive tissues given that specific AHAS isoforms were found in cotton and oilseed rape [7,20]. Furthermore, sterility observed in resistant sunflowers treated with imidazolinone at reproductive stages suggests that isoforms different from AHAS1 were inhibited by herbicide action in reproductive tissues [50].

Herbicide response was not uniform for the three genotypes evaluated here. The effective herbicide action was probably different in each genotype, as they differ in herbicide resistance level. Therefore, each genotype showed a distinct response in *ahas* transcript abundance. In *Arabidopsis*, a resistant genotype treated with imazapyr did not exhibit significant changes in the transcriptome while the wild type showed numerous changes including a slight increase in the expression of *ahas* [51]. A tissue-specific and gene-dependant response was also observed in the present study. Transcription of each *ahas* gene in sunflower seems to be subjected to a different regulatory mechanism. *Ahas3* showed the higher induction in relative transcript abundance after imazapyr treatment in roots of susceptible and intermediate genotype. *Ahas2* displayed a small degree of induction only in leaves of the intermediate genotype. In addition, a significant reduction in *ahas1* and *ahas3* transcript levels occurred for leaves of susceptible genotype (Fig. 2). Similarly, an inhibitory effect on the *ahas* transcript levels was observed in leaves but not in roots of rice plantlets treated with imazethapyr [52].

4.2. AHAS activity

AHAS activity could be measured through both *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays. This is the first report of an *in vivo* assay for roots. *In vivo* techniques are cost-effective and simple tools for a rapid measure of total AHAS activity and also might be employed as a diagnostic test. As opposed to the *in vitro* techniques performed on the isolated enzyme in a test tube, the *in vivo* assay uses an inhibitor of the ketoacid reductoisomerase (KARI), the enzyme that acts after AHAS in the branched-chain amino acid biosynthetic pathway. Inhibition of KARI results in an accumulation of AHAS's reaction products. AHAS activity is indirectly measured by converting AHAS products to chromophores that are then quantified colorimetrically [44].

For both, *in vivo* and *in vitro* activity, similar results were obtained and also were consistent with *ahas* transcriptional levels (Fig. 1,3). In all cases, AHAS expression was higher in leaves than in roots. This pattern was also found for other species such as corn, wheat, sorghum, and barley [53–56] whereas in oilseed rape and chicory comparable AHAS activity was observed in both tissues [19,56]. Nevertheless, differences between plant tissues changed at various growth stages. In 14-day-old lima bean plants, the highest levels of AHAS activity were found in leaves but roots showed a higher activity than leaves with increasing plant age [57].

AHAS activity inhibition (Fig. 4) was similar to those reported for wild sunflower in the *in vitro* [23,24] and *in vivo* [26] technique. Inhibition by herbicide action was more pronounced in the *in vivo* than *in vitro* assay (Fig. 4). Lower herbicide resistance levels in the *in vivo* assays compared to *in vitro* responses were also described in other species and could be explained by environmental effects or other factors besides target site insensitivity, such as herbicide uptake, transport, or metabolism mediated plant responses to AHAS inhibitors [58,59].

The levels of *in vitro* AHAS activity in roots of the susceptible genotype were less affected by the herbicide even though herbicide was applied in the nutrient solution (Fig. 4). A similar behavior was observed in corn, wheat and lima bean [57,60,61].

The differential response between leaf and root tissues could be related to the response at transcriptional level, for which *ahas* genes transcription was inhibited in leaves but induced in roots (Fig. 3). A larger amount of enzyme in roots could dilute the effect of herbicide molecules, giving a reduced inhibition.

The susceptible genotype is recessive homozygous for *ahas1* (*ahas1ahas1*) while intermediate and resistant genotypes have the same constitution at *ahas1* locus carrying resistant alleles (*Ahas1-1Ahas1-1*). These differences were reflected in AHAS activity, since the resistant and intermediate genotypes showed the same pattern of activity while the susceptible line was more affected by herbicide action (Fig. 4). Besides, *in vivo* activity was more inhibited in roots than in leaves for the intermediate and resistant genotypes. This result could be explained by the presence of susceptible isoforms encoded by *ahas2* in the enzyme pool, as similar transcript levels were found for *ahas1* and *ahas2* in roots. In the same way, these results are consistent with previous findings at phenotypic level since root growth parameters were more sensitive when screening for herbicide resistance [62,63].

Intermediate (*Ahas1-1Ahas1-1 imr2imr2*) and resistant (*Ahas1-1Ahas1-1 Imr2Imr2*) genotypes differ at *Imr2* locus. Given that no differences in AHAS expression were found between intermediate and resistant genotypes, the possibility that *Imr2* could be associated with higher levels of AHAS expression is excluded.

Acknowledgements

Thanks are due to Jerry Miller and to José María Bruniard for kindly gift of seed material. The financial support from FONCYT (PICTO 08-13163 and PICT 2010-2018) is also acknowledged. Special thanks are given to Carlos Sala for his preliminary discussions and helpful comments on this project.

References

- [1] R.G. Duggleby, J.A. McCourt, L.W. Guddat, Structure and mechanism of inhibition of plant acetohydroxyacid synthase, *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* 46 (2008) 309–324.
- [2] B.J. Miflin, The location of nitrite reductase and other enzymes related to amino acid biosynthesis in the plastids of root and leaves, *Plant Physiol.* 54 (1974) 550–555.
- [3] B.K. Singh, D.L. Shaner, Biosynthesis of branched chain amino acids: from test tube to field, *Plant Cell* 7 (1995) 935–944.
- [4] S. Tan, R. Evans, B.K. Singh, Herbicidal inhibitors of amino acid biosynthesis and herbicide-tolerant crops, *Amino Acids* 30 (2006) 195–204.
- [5] J.A. McCourt, S.S. Pang, J. King Scott, L.W. Guddat, R.G. Duggleby, Herbicide-binding sites revealed in the structure of plant acetohydroxyacid synthase, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 103 (2006) 569–573.
- [6] B.J. Mazur, C.-F. Chui, J.K. Smith, Isolation, Characterization of plant genes coding for acetolactate synthase, the target enzyme for two classes of herbicides, *Plant Physiol.* 85 (1987) 1110–1117.
- [7] J.W. Grula, R.L. Hudspeth, S.L. Hobbs, D.M. Anderson, Organization, inheritance and expression of acetohydroxyacid synthase genes in the cotton allotetraploid *Gossypium hirsutum*, *Plant Mol. Biol.* 28 (1995) 837–846.
- [8] R. Rutledge, T. Ouellet, J. Hattori, B. Miki, Molecular characterization and genetic origin of the *Brassica napus* acetohydroxyacid synthase multigene family, *Mol. Gen. Genet.* 229 (1991) 31–40.
- [9] C.J. Pozniak, I.T. Birk, L.S. O'Donoghue, C. Ménard, P.J. Hucl, B.K. Singh, Physiological, Molecular characterization of mutation-derived imidazolinone resistance in spring wheat, *Crop Sci.* 44 (2004) 1434–1443.
- [10] S.J. Keeler, P. Sanders, J.K. Smith, B.J. Mazur, Regulation of tobacco acetolactate synthase gene expression, *Plant Physiol.* (1993) 1009–1018.
- [11] K. Newhouse, T. Wang, P. Anderson, Imidazolinone-tolerant crops, in: D.L. Shaner, S.L. O'Connor (Eds.), *The Imidazolinone Herbicides*, CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida, 1991, pp. 139–150.
- [12] M.J. Christoffers, V.K. Nandula, K.A. Howatt, T.R. Wehking, Target-site resistance to acetolactate synthase inhibitors in wild mustard (*Sinapis arvensis*), *Weed Sci.* 54 (2006) 191–197.
- [13] B.D. Hanson, K.W. Park, C.A. Mallory Smith, D.C. Thill, Resistance of *Camelina microcarpa* to acetolactate synthase inhibiting herbicides, *Weed Res.* 44 (2004) 187–194.
- [14] S. Intanon, A. Perez Jones, A.G. Hulting, C.A. Mallory Smith, Multiple Pro197 ALS substitutions endow resistance to ALS inhibitors within and among mayweed chamomile populations, *Weed Sci.* 59 (2011) 431–437.

- [15] S. Iwakami, A. Uchino, H. Watanabe, Y. Yamasue, T. Inamura, Isolation and expression of genes for acetolactate synthase and acetyl-CoA carboxylase in *Echinochloa phylllopogon*, a polyploid weed species, *Pest Manag. Sci.* 68 (2012) 1098–1106.
- [16] A. Uchino, S. Ogata, H. Kohara, S. Yoshida, Molecular basis of diverse responses to acetolactate synthase-inhibiting herbicides in sulfonyleurea resistant biotypes of *Schoenoplectus juncooides*, *Weed Biol. Manag.* 7 (2007) 89–96.
- [17] A. Uchino, H. Watanabe, Mutations in the acetolactate synthase genes of sulfonyleurea-resistant biotypes of *Lindernia* spp., *Weed Biol. Manag.* 2 (2002) 104–109.
- [18] S.I. Warwick, C.A. Sauder, H.J. Beckie, Acetolactate synthase (ALS) target-site mutations in ALS inhibitor-resistant Russian thistle (*Salsola tragus*), *Weed Sci.* 58 (2010) 244–251.
- [19] D. Degrande, E. Dewaele, S. Rambour, The AHAS gene of *Cichorium intybus* is expressed in fast growing and inflorescences organs, *Physiol. Plant.* 110 (2000) 224–231.
- [20] T. Ouellet, R. Rutledge, B. Miki, Members of the acetohydroxyacid synthase multigene family of *Brassica napus* have divergent patterns of expression, *Plant J.* 2 (1992) 321–330.
- [21] R.M. Hawley, The Acetohydroxyacid Synthase Gene Family its Role in Herbicide Resistant Sunflowers, Oregon State University, 2005, p. 73.
- [22] J.M. Kolkman, M.B. Slabaugh, J.M. Bruniard, S. Berry, B.S. Bushman, C. Olungu, N. Maes, G. Abratti, A. Zambelli, J.F. Miller, A. Leon, S.J. Knapp, Acetohydroxyacid synthase mutations conferring resistance to imidazolinone or sulfonyleurea herbicides in sunflower, *Theor. Appl. Genet.* 109 (2004) 1147–1159.
- [23] K. Al-Khatib, J.R. Baumgartner, D.J. Peterson, R.S. Currie, Imazethapyr resistance in common sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*), *Weed Sci.* 46 (1998) 403–407.
- [24] J.R. Baumgartner, K. Al-Khatib, R.S. Currie, Cross-resistance of imazethapyr-resistant common sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) to selected imidazolinone, sulfonyleurea, and triazolopyrimidine herbicides, *Weed Technol.* 13 (1999) 489–493.
- [25] C.A. Sala, M. Bulos, E. Altieri, B. Weston, Response to imazapyr and dominance relationships of two imidazolinone-tolerant alleles at the *Ahas11* locus of sunflower, *Theor. Appl. Genet.* 124 (2012) 385–396.
- [26] I.A. Zelaya, M.D.K. Owen, Evolved resistance to acetolactate synthase – inhibiting herbicides in common sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*), giant ragweed (*Ambrosia trifida*), and shattercane (*Sorghum bicolor*) in Iowa, *Weed Sci.* 52 (2004) 538–548.
- [27] D.L. Shaner, M. Stidham, B. Singh, S. Tan, Imidazolinone herbicides, in: W. Krämer, U. Schirmer, P. Jeschke, M. Witschel (Eds.), *Modern Crop Protection Compounds*, Wiley-VCH Verlag & Co. KGaA, Weinheim, Germany, 2012, pp. 88–98.
- [28] A.D. White, M.A. Graham, M.D.K. Owen, Isolation of acetolactate synthase homologs in common sunflower, *Weed Sci.* 51 (2003) 845–853.
- [29] C.A. Sala, M. Bulos, Inheritance and molecular characterization of broad range tolerance to herbicides targeting acetohydroxyacid synthase in sunflower, *Theor. Appl. Genet.* 124 (2012) 355–364.
- [30] C.A. Sala, M. Bulos, M. Echarte, S.R. Whitt, R. Ascenzi, Molecular and biochemical characterization of an induced mutation conferring imidazolinone resistance in sunflower, *Theor. Appl. Genet.* 118 (2008) 105–112.
- [31] J.M. Bruniard, J.F. Miller, Inheritance of imidazolinone-herbicide resistance in sunflower, *Helia* 24 (2001) 11–16.
- [32] J.F. Miller, K. Al-Khatib, Registration of imidazolinone herbicide-resistant sunflower maintainer (HA 425) and fertility restorer (RHA 426 and RHA 427) germplasm, *Crop Sci.* 42 (2002) 988–989.
- [33] T. Murashige, F. Skoog, A revised medium for rapid growth and bioassays with tobacco tissue cultures, *Physiol. Plant.* 15 (1962) 473–497.
- [34] S. Rozen, H.J. Skaletsky, Primer3 on the WWW for general users and for biologist programmers, in: S. Krawetz, S. Misener (Eds.), *Bioinformatics Methods and Protocols: Methods in Molecular Biology*, Humana Press, Totowa, NJ, 2000, pp. 365–386.
- [35] M.W. Pfaffl, A. Tichopad, C. Prgomet, T. Neuvians, Determination of stable housekeeping genes, differentially regulated target genes and sample integrity: BestKeeper–Excel-based tool using pair-wise correlations, *Biotechnol. Lett.* 26 (2004) 509–515.
- [36] K. Oracz, H. El-Maarouf-Bouteau, I. Kranner, R. Bogatek, F. Corbineau, C. Bailly, The mechanisms involved in seed dormancy alleviation by hydrogen cyanide unravel the role of reactive oxygen species as key factors of cellular signaling during germination, *Plant Physiol.* 150 (2009) 494–505.
- [37] P. Fernandez, J. Di Rienzo, S. Moschen, G.A. Dosio, L.A. Aguirrezábal, E. Hopp, N. Paniego, R.A. Heinz, Comparison of predictive methods and biological validation for qPCR reference genes in sunflower leaf senescence transcript analysis, *Plant Cell Rep.* 30 (2011) 63–74.
- [38] P. Simon, Q-Gen: processing quantitative real-time RT-PCR data, *Bioinformatics* 19 (2003) 1439–1440.
- [39] J. Schefe, K. Lehmann, I. Buschmann, T. Unger, H. Funke-Kaiser, Quantitative real-time RT-PCR data analysis: current concepts and the novel gene expression's C_T difference formula, *J. Mol. Med.* 84 (2006) 901–910.
- [40] Q. Yu, X.Q. Zhang, A. Hashem, M.J. Walsh, S.B. Powles, ALS gene proline (197) mutations confer ALS herbicide resistance in eight separated wild radish (*Raphanus raphanistrum*) populations, *Weed Sci.* 51 (2003) 831–838.
- [41] G. Forlani, M. Mantelli, E. Nielsen, Biochemical evidence for multiple acetoin-forming enzymes in cultured plant cells, *Phytochemistry* 50 (1999) 255–262.
- [42] Q. Yu, H. Han, M. Vila-Aiub, S.B. Powles, AHAS herbicide resistance endowing mutations: effect on AHAS functionality and plant growth, *J. Exp. Bot.* 61 (2010) 3925–3934.
- [43] W.W. Westerfeld, A colorimetric determination of blood acetoin, *J. Biol. Chem.* 161 (1945) 495–502.
- [44] B.C. Gerwick, L.C. Mireles, R.J. Eilers, Rapid diagnosis of ALS/AHAS-resistant weeds, *Weed Technol.* 7 (1993) 519–524.
- [45] D.M. Simpson, E.W. Stoller, L.M. Wax, An *in vivo* acetolactate synthase assay, *Weed Technol.* 9 (1995) 17–22.
- [46] S. Epelbaum, D.M. Chipman, Z. Barak, Determination of products of acetohydroxy acid synthase by the colorimetric method, revisited, *Anal. Biochem.* 191 (1990) 96–99.
- [47] R Development Core Team, R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, 2011.
- [48] J. Ashigh, F.J. Tardif, An Ala205Val substitution in acetohydroxyacid synthase of Eastern Black Nightshade (*Solanum ptychanthum*) reduces sensitivity to herbicides and feedback inhibition, *Weed Sci.* 55 (2007) 558–565.
- [49] H. Lee, S. Rustgi, N. Kumar, I. Burke, J.P. Yenish, K.S. Gill, D. von Wettstein, S.E. Ullrich, Single nucleotide mutation in the barley acetohydroxy acid synthase (AHAS) gene confers resistance to imidazolinone herbicides, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 108 (2011) 8909–8913.
- [50] C.A. Sala, M. Bulos, Use of imidazolinone tolerance to produce male-sterile testers in sunflower breeding programs, in: 18th International Sunflower Conference, Mar del Plata & Balcarce, Argentina, 2012.
- [51] Y. Manabe, N. Tinker, A. Colville, B. Miki, CSR1, the sole target of imidazolinone herbicide in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *Plant Cell Physiol.* 48 (2007) 1340–1358.
- [52] H. Qian, H. Hu, Y. Mao, J. Ma, A. Zhang, W. Liu, Z. Fu, Enantioselective phytotoxicity of the herbicide imazethapyr in rice, *Chemosphere* 76 (2009) 885–892.
- [53] G. Forlani, E. Nielsen, P. Landi, R. Tuberosa, Chlorsulfuron tolerance acetolactate synthase activity in corn (*Zea mays* L.) inbred lines, *Weed Sci.* 39 (1991) 553–557.
- [54] M. Barrett, Reduction of imazaquin injury to corn (*Zea mays*) and sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) with antidotes, *Weed Sci.* 37 (1989) 34–41.
- [55] F. Dastgheib, R. Field, Acetolactate synthase activity and chlorsulfuron sensitivity of wheat cultivars, *Weed Res.* 38 (1998) 63–68.
- [56] F. Zhang, Z. Jin, M. Naeem, Z. Ahmed, H. Gong, L. Lub, Q. Ye, W. Zhou, Spatial and temporal changes in acetolactate synthase activity as affected by new herbicide ZJ0273 in rapeseed, barley and water chickweed, *Pestic. Biochem. Physiol.* 95 (2009) 63–71.
- [57] G. Schmitt, B. Singh, Tissue distribution of acetohydroxyacid synthase activity at various developmental stages of lima bean, *Pest. Sci.* 30 (1990) 418–419.
- [58] R. Figueroa, M. Gebauer, A.J. Fischer, M. Kogan, Resistance to bensulfuron-methyl in water plantain (*Alisma plantago-aquatica*) populations from Chilean paddy fields, *Weed Technol.* 22 (2008) 602–608.
- [59] I.T. Hwang, Y.K. Ko, T.J. Kim, D.W. Kim, K.Y. Cho, Structure–activity relationships of acetolactate synthase inhibition among new benzenesulfonyleureas in rice (*Oryza sativa*) and barnyardgrass (*Echinochloa crus-galli* var. *oryzicola*), *Pestic. Biochem. Physiol.* 68 (2000) 166–172.
- [60] M. Rojuela, C. Arrese-Igor, A. Muñoz-Rueda, C. González Murua, *In vitro* and *in vivo* effects of chlorsulfuron in sensitive and tolerant plants, *J. Plant Physiol.* 139 (1991) 235–239.
- [61] B. Rubin, J.E. Casida, R-25788 effects on chlorsulfuron injury and acetohydroxyacid synthase activity, *Weed Sci.* 33 (1985) 462–468.
- [62] G. Breccia, T. Vega, G. Nestares, M.L. Mayor, R. Zorzoli, L. Picardi, Rapid test for detection of imidazolinone resistance in sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.), *Plant Breed.* 130 (2011) 109–113.
- [63] T. Vega, G. Breccia, G. Nestares, L. Mayor María, R. Zorzoli, L. Picardi, Soil-less bioassays for early screening for resistance to imazapyr in sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.), *Pest Manag. Sci.* 65 (2009) 991–995.