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Resistance evolution, from genetic mechanism to ecological context

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28 Pesticide use by humans has induced strong selective pressures, reshaping evolutionary
29 trajectories, ecological networks, and even influencing ecosystem dynamics. The evolution of
30 pesticide resistance across weeds, insects, and fungi often leads to negative impacts on both
31 human health and the economy while concomitantly providing excellent systems for studying
32 the process of evolution. In fact, the study of pesticide resistance has been a feature of
33 evolutionary biology since the Evolutionary Synthesis, with Dobzhansky noting in his book *The*
34 *Genetics and Origins of Species* (1937) that cyanide resistance in the California red scale
35 constituted the “best proof of the effectiveness of natural selection yet obtained”. Following
36 the pioneering work of James Crow and others in the 1950’s—which greatly expanded our
37 knowledge of the genetics underlying adaptation—the study of pesticide resistance has shed
38 light on a variety of topics, such as the repeatability of phenotypic evolution across the
39 landscape, ‘hotspots’ of evolution across the genome, and information on the number and type
40 of genetic solutions that populations may employ to strong selection pressures.

41
42 Landscape level approaches have come to the forefront over the last 20 years of
43 resistance evolution research, often taking advantage of the fact that replicated populations of
44 the same species are exposed to the same pesticide. Further, the resistance evolution field is
45 turning more attention to the ecological context within which resistance evolution occurs, likely
46 stemming, at least in part, from an historical focus on fitness costs (Cousens & Fournier-Level
47 2018; Baucom 2019). This special feature, *‘Resistance evolution, from genetic mechanism to*
48 *ecological context’* in *Molecular Ecology* captures the current state of resistance evolution with
49 contributions broadly addressing the question *‘What has the rapid evolution of pesticide*
50 *resistance taught us about genome dynamics and adaptation as well as the ecological context*
51 *within which resistance evolution occurs?’* Below, we contextualize the manuscripts in this
52 special feature that provide insight into the state of the art investigations of resistance
53 evolution across various species of insects, weeds and fungi.

54
55 *The genomic basis of adaptation: target site and non-target site resistance mechanisms*

56

57 Pesticides are designed to target particular genes in functional pathways of pest
58 organisms. For example, quinone-oxidoreductase inhibitor fungicides (QoIs) target the products of the
59 fungal gene cytochrome b, a critical component of aerobic respiration. In plants, the herbicide
60 glyphosate targets the protein product of EPSPS (5-enolpyruvylshikimate-3-phosphate
61 synthase), a central gene in the shikimate acid pathway. One type of pesticide resistance—
62 termed target site resistance—occurs when a mutation in the gene targeted by the pesticide
63 alters the conformation of the protein, reducing or completely eliminating the ability of the
64 pesticide to bind to the protein's active site (Délye *et al.* 2013). A number of studies have
65 examined target site resistance by sequencing the target locus and assessing the various
66 mutations associated with resistance. Given *a priori* information about how pesticides work,
67 thus providing obvious genetic candidates to explore, along with the relative simplicity of
68 sequencing a single gene, we currently have a somewhat comprehensive understanding of the
69 type and number of genetic variants associated with target site resistance, especially in
70 herbicide resistant weeds (Tranel, Wright, & Heap 2021; Baucom 2016).

71
72 We still have much to learn about target-site resistance evolution, however, especially
73 in the context of broader, genome-scale dynamics. In this special feature, Clarkson *et al.* (2021)
74 move beyond investigating the dynamics of target-site resistance in isolation by explicitly
75 examining the role of intragenic variation on resistance to pyrethroid, a class of insecticide that
76 is used to control mosquito populations associated with malaria. Their investigation of whole-
77 genome sequence data reveals 'a tale of two alleles': two widespread large-effect target-site
78 resistance alleles within the voltage-gated sodium channel (VGSC) gene appear to be on
79 different evolutionary trajectories. One allele, likely an early ancestral mutation, is associated
80 (*i.e.*, in strong positive linkage disequilibrium) with a subsequent explosion of 13 secondary
81 non-synonymous mutations, whereas the second allele is associated with fewer mutations.
82 Further, most of these mutations are background-dependent, occurring nearly exclusively on
83 distinct haplotypes—haplotypes that are associated with different signatures of selection
84 despite harbouring the same focal resistance allele, implying important compensatory or
85 enhancing allelic interactions for resistance evolution.

86

87 A major contribution to our understanding of the predictability of evolution stems from
88 work examining the repeatability of target site changes that confer pesticide resistance across
89 insect and weed species, respectively (Martin & Orgogozo 2013). However, whether or not
90 parallel genetic changes lead to resistance among fungal plant pathogens has yet to be
91 succinctly summarized. In this issue, Hawkins and Fraaije (2021) investigate the extent of
92 parallel evolution of individual mutations in target genes among species of fungal pathogens.
93 Focusing on mutations associated with four classes of fungicide, they show that the target-
94 genes vary substantially in the diversity of mutations detected. For two fungicide classes (Qols
95 and MBCs) the same mutations are observed repeatedly across species. In contrast, a greater
96 diversity of resistance mutations was uncovered within genes targeted by azole and SDHI
97 fungicides, providing less evidence for extreme parallelism across species compared to Qols and
98 MBCs.

99

100 Another form of target-site resistance is from gene amplification, where increased copy
101 number of the target locus leads to more functional protein and subsequent resistance. In a
102 handful of weeds, an increase in the copy number of the EPSPS locus leads to high glyphosate
103 resistance (*reviewed in* Gaines *et al.* 2019); while the underlying mechanism of this copy
104 number increase has been described (Koo *et al.* 2018), we understand relatively little about the
105 long-term maintenance of copy number variation (CNV) and how gene amplification may
106 influence interactions with other loci. Yakimowski, Teitel and Caruso (2021) quantified patterns
107 of variation of target gene copy number and resistance phenotypes within and among
108 populations—the ‘natural history’ of a resistance CNV—to provide insight into the evolution of
109 glyphosate resistance in the agricultural weed *Amaranthus palmeri* in the eastern United
110 States. They detected a steep increase in phenotypic glyphosate resistance at a threshold value
111 of ~15 gene copies, but also found that populations with the highest mean resistance contained
112 some low copy number individuals (albeit at low-frequency). From 15 to 160 gene copies the
113 level of resistance changed very little; however, the proportion of low-resistance phenotypes
114 gradually decreased in populations with increased copy number, suggesting that dosage of the

115 target gene with increasing copy number might compensate for negative interactions with
116 other loci. Potential positive interactions with other genes were also observed in populations
117 from Georgia. Overall, target gene copy number variation explained a high proportion (~57%) of
118 variation in phenotypic resistance among populations.

119

120 In another set of contributions to this special feature, Ravet et al. (2021) and Gaines et
121 al. (2021) take landscape-level approaches to examine EPSPS copy number variation and its
122 association with resistance in kochia (*Bassia scoparia*) and *Amaranthus palmeri*, respectively. In
123 glyphosate resistant kochia, researchers paired an investigation of population structure *via* SSR
124 markers with qPCR markers designed to examine the EPSPS repeat genotype across western
125 lineages. They found low population structure in this species but evidence for independent
126 evolutionary origins of the EPSPS duplication leading to resistance. In the landscape level
127 assessment of *A. palmeri*, researchers found copy number variation of this target gene—like
128 that found across lineages from the eastern United States by Yakimowski, Teitel and Caruso
129 (2021)—present in populations from Brazil and Uruguay, indicating that copy number variation
130 related to resistance is found broadly across the landscape in this species. Interestingly,
131 however, resistance in Argentinian lineages of *A. palmeri* was due in large part to non-target
132 site resistance mechanisms—*i.e.* resistance mechanisms that do not involve the target site,
133 such as altered translocation or detoxification of the pesticide, among others—rather than
134 elevated copy number of the EPSPS locus. These results show both genomic flexibility in solving
135 the problem of herbicide exposure and the independent, novel evolution of resistance across
136 geography.

137

138 Thus, in addition to target site resistance mechanisms, organisms can also evolve
139 resistance through non-target site mechanisms. Non-target site resistance mechanisms, which
140 are often thought to be due to polygenic variation, can both confer resistance as well as
141 potentially supplement target-site effects. While both target site and non-target site
142 mechanisms have previously been uncovered within the same herbicide resistant weed species
143 (as in Gaines et al. 2020), the relative contribution of either type of mechanism has yet to be

144 clearly delineated in any weed species. Using another glyphosate resistant *Amaranthus* species,
145 *A. tuberculatus* (common waterhemp), Kreiner et al. (2021) uncovered the cryptic contribution
146 of genome-wide alleles to glyphosate resistance. On the genomic background of agricultural
147 populations harbouring high frequencies of target-site resistance mechanisms (Kreiner *et al.*
148 2019), the authors illustrated a near-equal importance of non-target and target-site
149 mechanisms. Further, they uncovered hundreds of alleles associated with non-target site
150 resistance that show not only evidence of recent strong selection from herbicides but a classic
151 trade-off between effect size and allele frequency that implicates pleiotropy as a key constraint
152 to the evolution of herbicide resistance.

153

154 As our understanding of the genetic architecture of pesticide resistance and governing
155 selective processes deepens, a key question will be how consistently such alleles are involved
156 across geographic scales. This question is addressed by Hartmann et al. (2020), who
157 investigated the architecture of azole fungicide in a key wheat pathogen, *Zymoseptoria tritici*
158 across three continents. They uncovered a suite of azole resistance-related loci across the
159 genome including a novel large-effect gene, DHHC palmitoyl transferase. Along with key alleles
160 conferring resistance to three other chemical classes of fungicides, the authors find evidence
161 that the genomic architecture of fungicide resistance is largely distinct across continents, with
162 the exception of large-effect genes that act as hotspots for convergence. Overall, this collection
163 of work characterizing the genetic architecture of pesticide resistance uncovers remarkable
164 complexity in monogenic and polygenic contributions and the processes that govern their
165 assemblage across genomes, from background- and population-specific constraints to the
166 potential for pleiotropic tradeoffs.

167

168

169 *Ecological context and the influence of interactions on the evolution of resistance*

170

171 Pesticide use can have impacts far beyond their intended target organism by influencing
172 the ecology and evolution of organisms with which the target species interact. Contributions in

173 this issue explore the ecological context of resistance evolution by assessing how pesticide
174 application may affect interactions between target and non-target organisms, which may
175 influence downstream eco-evolutionary feedback dynamics.

176

177 Iriart et al. (2020) set the stage for our understanding of the ecological context of
178 resistance evolution by reviewing the role of herbicides in driving the ecology and evolution of
179 plants and plant-associates (e.g. pollinators, soil microbes, herbivores, and parasitoids) living in
180 communities at the agro-ecological interface. They synthesize what is known about how
181 herbicides can alter plant phenotypes from plastic or genetic changes and how plant-associates
182 may be directly or indirectly (*via* interactions) affected by herbicides. Building off this
183 knowledge, they demonstrate that herbicides can induce sufficiently rapid change in plants and
184 plant-associates to alter both evolution and ecological dynamics over the same timescales, thus
185 producing eco-evolutionary feedbacks. From these insights, they provide suggestions for future
186 research into herbicide catalyzed eco-evolutionary dynamics, with the goal of deciphering the
187 effects of herbicides on plant and plant-associates' traits, on species interactions, and on the
188 composition of the broader ecological community.

189

190 Herbicide application may alter eco-evolutionary dynamics by selecting for traits that
191 are correlated to resistance, such as earlier flowering time or altered mating patterns (among
192 other changes) thereby potentially modifying mutualistic interactions between plants and their
193 associates. For example, glyphosate resistant populations of the common morning glory
194 (*Ipomoea purpurea*) exhibit higher selfing rates compared to susceptible populations (Kuester
195 et al 2017), perhaps due to reproductive assurance associated with being both highly selfing
196 and herbicide resistant. However, an association between the mating system and resistance
197 would not be expected to be maintained over time if the resistant, selfing types exhibited
198 inbreeding depression. In this issue, Van Etten et al. (2021) combined growth chamber and field
199 studies with transcriptome surveys to ask whether genetic lines of *Ipomoea purpurea* selected
200 for increased glyphosate resistance exhibited signs of inbreeding depression (*i.e.* poorer
201 performance of inbred versus outcross progeny) compared to both non-selected control lines

202 and lines selected for increased susceptibility. Interestingly, they found that while plants from
203 non-selected control lines and susceptible lines exhibited evidence of inbreeding depression,
204 plants from resistant lines provided no evidence for inbreeding depression in most characters.
205 Rather, in the presence of herbicide, resistant lines tended to show *outbreeding depression*:
206 seeds from resistant lines that were produced *via* selfing germinated more and grew to be
207 larger plants than those from resistant lines that were produced from outcrossing. Additionally,
208 the authors showed that the expression of genes within the transcriptome mirrored the
209 phenotypic patterns—resistant, inbred plants showed higher expression of genes involved in
210 translation and DNA replication compared to resistant, outcrossed progeny in the presence of
211 glyphosate. Thus, in this case study, continued resistance evolution would support higher self-
212 fertilization and decreased outcrossing. In this way, the maintenance of plant-pollinator
213 interactions could be negatively altered over time in herbicide-exposed populations of *I.*
214 *purpurea*.

215

216 As with herbicides, the evolution of resistance to insecticides has the potential to alter
217 ecological interactions in crop ecosystems, as shown by Paddock et al. (2021). Their study
218 investigated whether the microbial communities differed between herbivorous western corn
219 rootworms (a widespread agricultural pest) that were susceptible or had evolved resistance to
220 the insecticide *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) produced by genetically-modified maize. Their results
221 supported different enteric microbiomes between resistant and susceptible western corn
222 rootworm in that resistant individuals had less rich and diverse bacterial communities.
223 Additionally, western corn rootworm digesting the insecticide caused a severe shift towards
224 more simplified bacterial communities in susceptible western corn rootworm, but not resistant
225 western corn rootworm, suggesting an effect of host-microbial interactions in the evolution of
226 resistance to Bt. Together, these results contribute to our budding understanding of the role
227 that ecology can play in resistance evolution to modern stressors, further perpetuating eco-
228 evolutionary feedbacks and dynamics in natural communities.

229

230 *Conclusion*

231 The manuscripts in this special feature cover both a wide conceptual range and a broad group
232 of organisms. The common thread between studies is that they each investigate applied
233 systems to broaden our understanding of either the ecological or genetic factors that influence
234 adaptation. While many researchers are likely drawn to the study of pesticide resistance
235 evolution for its perceived simplicity—*e.g.*, there is a known agent of selection as well as
236 (typically) a known biochemical and often simple genetic target of the pesticide—contributions
237 in this special feature show that both the genetic and ecological context of resistance evolution
238 remains to be deepened in important ways. For example, the population genomic approaches
239 used in these papers provide increased resolution into the number and interactions of alleles
240 involved in resistance, timescale-dependent signatures of selection, heterogeneity among
241 populations in the control of resistance, and gene expression differences associated with both
242 resistance and the mating system. Additionally, the work in this special feature highlights that
243 resistance evolution does not occur in a vacuum; while many examinations of resistance focus
244 on the evolutionary trajectory of a single species exposed to pesticide, the overall adaptation
245 and persistence of a population will concomitantly be influenced by, and likewise influence,
246 other community members such as pollinators, herbivores and the microbial community.
247 Ultimately, deepening the context of resistance evolution by both broadening our genetic
248 toolkits and by assessing community dynamics will allow us to better understand how genetics
249 and ecology are linked and how such linkages can then influence larger-scale ecosystem
250 dynamics.

251

252

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