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DOI: 10.1017/wet.2025.37

Influence of Glufosinate Mixtures on Waterhemp Control and Soybean Canopy and Yield

Nikola Arsenijevic¹, Mark L. Bernards², Ryan P. DeWerff³, Nicholas J. Arneson⁴, Daniel H. Smith⁵, and Rodrigo Werle⁶

¹Graduate Research Assistant, Department of Plant and Agroecosystem Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

²Research Agronomist, Agricultural Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Morris, Minnesota, USA

³Research Specialist, Department of Plant and Agroecosystem Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

⁴Former Outreach Specialist, Department of Agronomy, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

⁵Southwest Outreach Specialist, Nutrient and Pest Management Program, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

⁶Associate Professor, Department of Plant and Agroecosystem Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

Author for correspondence: Rodrigo Werle, rwerle@wisc.edu

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Abstract

Glufosinate serves as both a primary herbicide option and a complement to glyphosate and other postemergence (POST) herbicides for managing herbicide-resistant weed species. Enhancing broadleaf weed control with glufosinate through effective mixtures may mitigate further herbicide resistance evolution in soybean and other glufosinate-resistant cropping systems. Two field experiments were conducted in 2020 and 2021 across locations in Wisconsin (Arlington, Brooklyn, Janesville, and Lancaster) and one location in Illinois (Macomb) to evaluate the impact of POST glufosinate mixed with PPO-inhibitors (flumiclorac-pentyl, fluthiacet-methyl, fomesafen, and lactofen, WSSA Group 14), bentazon (Group 6), and 2,4-D (Group 4) on waterhemp control, soybean phytotoxicity, and yield. The experiments were established in a randomized complete block design with four replications. The first experiment focused on soybean phytotoxicity 14 days after treatment (DAT) and yield in the absence of weed competition. All treatments received a preemergence herbicide, with postemergence herbicide applications occurring between the V3-V6 soybean growth stages, depending on the site-year. The second experiment evaluated the impact of herbicide treatments on waterhemp control 14 DAT and on soybean yield. Lactofen, applied alone or with glufosinate, presented the highest phytotoxicity to soybean 14 DAT, but this injury did not translate into yield loss. Mixing glufosinate with 2,4-D, bentazon, and PPO-inhibitor herbicides did not increase waterhemp control, nor did it affect soybean yield compared to when glufosinate was applied solely but may be an effective practice to reduce selection pressure for glufosinate-resistant waterhemp.

Nomenclature: glufosinate; 2,4-D; lactofen; fomesafen; fluthiacet-methyl; bentazon; flumiclorac-pentyl; waterhemp, *Amaranthus tuberculatus* (Moq.) Sauer; soybean, *Glycine max* (L.) Merr.

Keywords: fomesafen, glufosinate, lactofen, PPO-inhibitors, soybean, mixtures, waterhemp

INTRODUCTION

Waterhemp is one of the most common and troublesome weed species in corn and soybean production systems across the Midwest United States (Tranel et al. 2011; Van Wychen 2022, 2023). Waterhemp has evolved resistance to herbicides from seven different sites of action (SOA) (Heap 2024). A population from Missouri demonstrated resistance to herbicides from six SOAs, limiting effective post-emergence (POST) control options to only glufosinate and dicamba (Shergil 2018). Similarly, a comprehensive herbicide resistance screening on over 80 waterhemp accessions from Wisconsin revealed glufosinate as the only herbicide providing complete control (>97% biomass reduction) of all accessions (Faleco et al. 2022). Glufosinate is a broad-spectrum, non-selective, light-dependent herbicide with limited translocation that targets glutamine synthetase (GS) and is primarily effective on annual weed species (Dayan et al. 2019; Steckel et al. 1997). However, its performance can vary in the field due to factors such as low humidity and temperature, time of day, and weed size (Coetzer et al. 2001; Kumaratilake and Preston, 2005; Martinson et al. 2005; Tharp et al. 1999). Glufosinate-resistant crops were rarely adopted before glyphosate-resistant weeds became widespread in glyphosate-based systems, even though both technologies were commercialized around the same time, and delayed adoption was likely due to glufosinate's historically lower efficacy and consistency compared to glyphosate, as well as the limited availability of glufosinate-resistant soybean cultivars until 2020 (Takano and Dayan, 2020). However, with the rising prevalence of multiple-herbicide-resistant weeds, glufosinate's role in weed management is now expanding (Takano and Dayan, 2020; USGS, 2018). Currently six instances of glufosinate resistance have been reported, with one of the six weeds being a broadleaf species, Palmer amaranth (*Amaranthus palmeri*) (Heap 2024). Glufosinate should be used strategically to postpone further resistance evolution and to preserve it as a tool for effective broadleaf control.

Compelling evidence indicates that the rapid cell death in glufosinate-treated plants is mainly due to reactive oxygen species (ROS), which, when produced in large quantities under light, cause severe lipid peroxidation of cell membranes leading to rapid phytotoxicity (Takano et al. 2019; Takano et al. 2020a). Herbicides that target protoporphyrinogen oxidase (PPO) lead to an accumulation of protoporphyrin IX, a compound that also produces ROS when exposed to light (Dayan et al. 2019). Combinations of glufosinate and PPO-inhibitor herbicides may be more advantageous in terms of weed control, when compared to individual applications of these

herbicides, because of the simultaneous inhibition of GS and PPO, leading to elevated accumulation of protoporphyrin IX and the concomitant accumulation of ROS (Takano et al. 2020a). Mixtures may also alleviate environmental effects on glufosinate performance (Takano et al. 2020b). Takano et al. (2020b) reported a synergistic effect in controlling Palmer amaranth and kochia (*Bassia scoparia*) when a half rate of glufosinate (280 g ha⁻¹) was mixed with an extremely low dose of saflufenacil (1 g ha⁻¹). However, the utility of this mixture for POST weed control is limited because it caused >60% injury to both susceptible and glufosinate-resistant soybean and did not increase control of PPO-inhibitor resistant waterhemp. The strong synergistic effect initially observed on Palmer amaranth varied based on weed species treated, herbicide dosages, and PPO-inhibitors tested (Takano et al. 2020b). For example, when flumioxazin, pyraflufen, lactofen, or fomesafen were mixed with glufosinate and applied to kochia, the synergistic effect was less than what was observed with saflufenacil (Takano et al. 2020b). The elevated soybean injury observed following POST applications of glufosinate + saflufenacil mixtures may portend increased soybean injury with mixtures of glufosinate with other PPO-inhibitor herbicides (Belfry et al. 2016; Takano et al. 2020b) and slow the development of canopy formation (Priess et al. 2020). This may discourage use of PPO-inhibitor chemistry when it may otherwise be a valuable part of an herbicide-resistance mitigation strategy.

Another potential glufosinate mix partner is 2,4-D (WSSA Group 4). Craigmyle et al. (2013) indicated that addition of 2,4-D to either or both POST applications of glufosinate provided better waterhemp control compared to two POST applications of glufosinate alone. Furthermore, Joseph et al. (2018) reported an increased spectrum in control of sicklepod (*Senna obtusifolia* [L.] H.S. Irwin & Barneby), pitted morningglory (*Ipomoea lacunosa* L.), and Palmer amaranth when glufosinate was mixed with either 2,4-D or dicamba, compared to herbicides being applied alone. Lanclos et al. (2002) reported a synergistic effect for control of spreading dayflower (*Commelina diffusa*, Burm.f.) when glufosinate was mixed with propanil (WSSA Group 5, photosystem II-inhibitor), which also leads to accumulation of ROS. In contrast, acetyl CoA carboxylase inhibitors and glyphosate have not always increased glufosinate control of some grass and broadleaf weed species (Besançon et al. 2018; Burke et al. 2005), warranting further investigation of the most effective partners with glufosinate to improve POST weed control in soybean.

The proportion of herbicide-resistant weeds in the field will rapidly increase with repeated use of the same herbicide SOA (Beckie 2006). The strategic use of both pre-emergence (PRE) and POST herbicide mixtures containing multiple effective SOAs is crucial to delaying herbicide resistance, preserving the effectiveness of new herbicide-resistant crops, and ensuring the long-term economic sustainability of agriculture (Norsworthy et al. 2012). The combination of glufosinate with PPO-inhibitors and other alternative herbicide SOAs (i.e., Group 4 or 6) is one research area that requires additional studies to understand their interactions and effect on weed control and crop injury (Takano et al. 2020b). Our objectives were to measure the efficacy of glufosinate applied alone and mixed with other active ingredients on 1) waterhemp control and 2) soybean injury and yield.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Two separate field experiments were conducted in Illinois and Wisconsin to investigate glufosinate combinations with various herbicides on soybean phytotoxicity and yield (hereafter referred to as “crop response study”), and waterhemp control (hereafter referred to as “waterhemp response study”). The crop response study was conducted in 2020 and 2021 at Macomb (40.4900 -90.6888, Illinois), and in 2020 and 2021 at Arlington Agricultural Research Station (43.3034, -89.3455, Wisconsin) and Rock County Research farm in Janesville (Janesville, 42.7262, -89.0235, Wisconsin) in fields with known history of low weed infestation and no waterhemp presence (Ryan P. DeWerff and Mark L. Bernards personal observations). The waterhemp response study was conducted in 2021 at Macomb (40.4795, -90.7208), IL, and in 2020 and 2021 at Lancaster Agricultural Research Station (Lancaster, 42.8313, -90.7880) and O’Brien Family Farm near Brooklyn (Brooklyn, 42.8768, -89.3980), WI, in fields naturally infested with waterhemp. Experiments were established in a randomized complete block design (RCBD) with four replications, using experimental units that measured 3 m wide by 9.1 m long with 4 soybean rows planted 76 cm apart. Both studies included a PRE-herbicide nontreated control (receiving only POST herbicides), while only the waterhemp response study contained a complete nontreated control (no PRE or POST herbicides). In contrast, the whole crop response study was maintained weed-free throughout the season. A more effective pre-emergence (PRE) herbicide combination, flumioxazin + pyroxasulfone (Fierce; 70.4 & 89.3 g ai ha⁻¹, respectively), was applied at soybean planting for the crop response study to aid in weed-free maintenance

during the growing season, such that any measured effects on soybean development and yield resulted solely from the effect of a POST herbicide treatments. In the waterhemp response study, a PRE application of flumioxazin alone (Valor; 112 g ai ha⁻¹) was made to all treatments at soybean planting, except for the nontreated control. The POST herbicide treatments were identical across both studies (Table 1). POST herbicide treatments were applied using a CO₂-pressurized backpack sprayer, equipped with TeeJet ® AIXR11015 spray nozzles on a 2.54 m wide spray boom, calibrated to deliver 140 L ha⁻¹ of carrier volume. Weather information for the soybean growing season at each location is presented in Table 2. Soil characteristics, soybean variety and planting dates, and soybean growth and waterhemp density and height at POST herbicide application for all experimental locations are displayed in Table 3.

Soybean Phytotoxicity and Soybean Green Cover

A visual evaluation of soybean phytotoxicity in the crop response study was made 14 DAT on a scale from 0 to 100%, where 0 represented no injury and 100 represented plant death. The most common symptoms observed were necrosis (bronzing) and stunting of soybean growth. A digital estimation of soybean canopy development was conducted to estimate soybean green cover percentage, also at 14 DAT. Three photographs, each capturing approximately 1.7 m of row of both the second and third row, were taken in each plot. A wooden L-shaped pole measuring 1.93 m in height was used to support a GoPro Hero 8 Black camera (GoPro Inc., San Mateo, CA, USA) above soybean canopy, which was paired with an iPhone 6s (Apple Inc., Cupertino, CA, USA) via the GoPro Quik app (GoPro Inc., San Mateo, CA, USA) and used as an electronic viewfinder for the camera. Resolution of the images captured with GoPro 8 Hero Black camera was 4000 x 3000 pixels (aspect ratio 4:3), with linear distortion setting. The images were processed using the Canopeo add-on (Canopeo Software, Oklahoma State University, Division of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources Soil Physics Program, Stillwater, OK; <https://canopeoapp.com/>) in MATLAB software (MathWorks®, Natick, MA). This allowed for the estimation of fractional soybean green cover within each image and served as a proxy of herbicide-induced crop injury, where a higher green cover percentage indicated lower soybean injury (Arsenijevic et al. 2021; Liang et al. 2012; Paruelo et al. 2000; Patrignani and Ochsner 2015).

Visual Assessment of Waterhemp Control and Biomass Collection

In the waterhemp control study a visual estimate of waterhemp control was made 14 DAT, using a scale ranging from 0 to 100%, where 0 represented no control, and 100 represented complete control of all waterhemp. Waterhemp biomass was collected at 14 DAT by harvesting all waterhemp plants within two 0.25 m² quadrats in each plot. Harvested plants were dried to a constant weight at 60 C, and waterhemp biomass reduction compared to the nontreated control was calculated using:

$$R = 100 - \left(\frac{H}{C} * 100 \right)$$

where biomass reduction (R) was estimated by comparing dry biomass of a treated plot (H) to the average dry biomass of the nontreated control (C).

Soybean Yield

At crop maturity, the center two rows of each experimental plot were mechanically harvested using a plot combine for both studies. The soybean yield data obtained were adjusted to 13% moisture content and are presented in kg ha⁻¹.

Statistical Analyses

All response variables (waterhemp response study: visual assessment of waterhemp control [%], waterhemp biomass reduction [%], soybean yield [kg ha⁻¹]; crop response study: soybean phytotoxicity [%], soybean green cover [%], and soybean yield [kg ha⁻¹]) were analyzed using R Statistical Software (4.4.1; R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Data were pooled across site-years (year and location were treated as random factors). Herbicide treatment was the main effect, and replications nested within site-years were treated as random effects.

A generalized linear mixed model with Template Model Builder with beta distribution and logit link (*glmmTMB* package version 1.1.9; Brooks et al., 2017) was fit to soybean injury, soybean green cover percentage, visual assessment of waterhemp control, and waterhemp biomass reduction. Pearson chi-square test (*nortest* package, version 1.0-4) and Levene's test (*car* package, version 3.1-2) were used to check normality and homogeneity of variance, respectively. Response variables were logit-transformed to improve normality assumptions

(Barnes et al. 2020; Davies et al. 2019; Striegel et al. 2020). The analysis of variance type II Wald Chi-square test was performed followed by Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) test ($\alpha = 0.05$) and pairwise comparisons using the *emmeans* package (version 1.10.3). Back transformed means are presented for ease of result interpretation.

A linear mixed model with a normal distribution using the *lme4* package (version 1.1-35.5) was fit to soybean yield data. To better meet the normality and variance homogeneity assumptions, response variables were square-root transformed. When ANOVA results indicated a significant herbicide effect, means were compared using Tukey's HSD test ($\alpha = 0.05$). Means were separated when herbicide treatment effect was less than $P = 0.05$ using Tukey's HSD test. Back-transformed means are presented for ease of interpretation.

To assess the relationship between soybean visual injury and soybean green cover (Canopeo data), a linear mixed-effects model was used (*lme4* package). Soybean visual injury was the response variable, soybean green cover was the fixed effect, and replications were nested within site-years. The model was fit using maximum likelihood estimation. Predicted soybean visual injury values were calculated based on the fitted model. A simple linear regression was conducted and the predicted soybean visual injury was calculated. The goodness-of-fit of the models was assessed using the R-squared statistic (*piecewiseSEM* package), which represents the proportion of variance in phytotoxicity that can be explained by the models (marginal and conditional R^2). The relationship between soybean visual injury and soybean green cover was calculated according to formula:

$$V = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times C + r + \epsilon$$

where V = visual injury (dependent variable); β_0 = intercept; β_1 = slope for soybean green cover (independent variable); C = green cover; r = random effect of site-year nested within rep; ϵ = error term.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Crop Response Study

Soybean Visible Phytotoxicity and Soybean Green Cover

The main effect of herbicide treatment was significant for visual soybean phytotoxicity and green cover ($P < 0.05$). Greater visible phytotoxicity indicates more severe soybean herbicide

injury, while greater green cover suggests less herbicide injury. Herbicide treatments that caused the greatest soybean injury (27%) were lactofen and glufosinate + lactofen (Table 4). All PPO-inhibitor herbicides and PPO-inhibitor + glufosinate mixtures caused greater than 10% injury (Table 4). Glufosinate, 2,4-D, and bentazon caused less than 5% soybean injury (Table 4).

Soybean green cover was reduced 25% by lactofen and glufosinate + lactofen when compared with nontreated control (Table 4). Soybean is susceptible to injury from PPO-inhibitors, particularly under hot and humid conditions following herbicide application (Sarangi and Jhala, 2015; Whitaker et al. 2010). This injury could hinder the development of the soybean canopy (Nelson and Renner, 2001). Differential soybean tolerance to some of the PPO-inhibitor herbicides has been reported as (least injurious to most injurious): fomesafen < acifluorfen < lactofen (Harris et al. 1991). The recovery of soybean from injury that delays canopy formation depends on factors such as planting date, soybean phenology, maturity group, growth habit, and soil moisture availability (Priess et al. 2020). However, even when these herbicides (fomesafen, acifluorfen, lactofen) were applied to soybean at several rates between growth stages V1 and V5 and caused up to 20% of foliar injury, there was no yield loss at the end of the season (Beam et al. 2018; Kapusta et al. 1986; Riley and Bradley 2014; Wichert and Talber 1993; Young et al. 2003).

Relationship Between Soybean Green Cover (Canopeo) and Visible Soybean Injury

Our analysis revealed a negative correlation between soybean green cover and visual injury (Figure 1). This negative correlation is intuitive; as visual injury increases soybean green cover decreases, which is reflected by the downward slope of the regression line. The marginal R-squared value was 0.51, indicating that soybean green cover alone accounted for approximately 51% of the observed variation in soybean visible injury. The remaining 26% of the variation (yielding a conditional R-squared value of 0.77) was attributed to differences across site-years.

Soybean Yield

The main effect of herbicide treatment was significant for soybean yield ($P < 0.05$; Table 4). However, no herbicide treatment was different when compared to the No PRE (nontreated) and PRE only treatments. When herbicides are applied within labeled rates early in the season,

soybean injury is generally transitory with minimal impact on grain yield (Beam et al. 2018; Kapusta et al. 1986; Riley and Bradley 2014; Wichert and Talber 1993; Young et al. 2003). However, Priess et al. (2020) found that soybean injured by herbicide application at V2 exhibited slower canopy formation. Delaying application of injurious herbicides until near the flowering stage or when moisture availability limits canopy growth may have more lasting negative effects because grain yield is linked to the canopy present at the onset of reproductive development (Edwards and Purcell, 2005). PPO-inhibitor herbicides should be applied early enough to allow the crop to reach full canopy closure, which is crucial for end-of-season weed suppression and maximizing soybean yield (Arsenijevic et al., 2022; Edwards and Purcell, 2005; Jha and Norsworthy, 2009).

Waterhemp Response Study

Visual Assessment of Waterhemp Control and Dry Biomass – 14 DAT

The main effect of herbicide treatment was significant for visual assessment of waterhemp control and dry biomass reduction ($P < 0.05$; Table 5). All glufosinate mixtures provided $\geq 88\%$ control of waterhemp, equal to glufosinate applied solo (90%). In addition, 2,4-D, fomesafen, and lactofen applied solo provided $\geq 88\%$ control (Table 5). Flumiclorac-pentyl (73%) and fluthiacet-methyl (71%) applied solo showed limited activity on waterhemp and were similar to the PRE-only flumioxazin treatment (60%). Bentazon applied solo (54%) showed the lowest control of waterhemp.

Waterhemp biomass reduction measurements generally paralleled the visual assessments of waterhemp control results (Table 5). Effective control was defined as herbicide treatments achieving an efficacy of $\geq 90\%$ (Arneson et al., 2020; Etheridge et al., 2001; Werle et al., 2023). Three treatments resulted in 91% waterhemp biomass reduction: glufosinate + fomesafen, glufosinate + lactofen, and glufosinate + bentazon. Glufosinate applied alone was the only single active ingredient treatment that had $\geq 90\%$ waterhemp biomass reduction. However, the only POST treatment to provide less waterhemp biomass reduction than glufosinate applied solo was bentazon applied solo, which provided no biomass reduction (55%; Table 5), similar to the PRE-only treatment (56%; Table 5).

Although glufosinate, 2,4-D, fomesafen and lactofen applied solo resulted in high levels of waterhemp control in this study, repeated use of single site of action herbicides increases the

risk of herbicide resistance evolution (Norsworthy et al. 2012). In bareground trials conducted in Wisconsin, Werle et al. (2023) reported that 2,4-D, dicamba, lactofen, and fomesafen applied alone provided variable waterhemp control (74-87%). The absence of crop competition in these systems likely contributed to the inability of any solo herbicide treatment to achieve the $\geq 90\%$ control threshold for an 'excellent' rating in Extension guidelines (Arneson et al. 2020). These results highlight both the inherent limitations of bareground systems (lacking crop-weed competition) and the practical need for mixtures to achieve commercially acceptable waterhemp control in production fields.

Takano and Dayan (2020) reported that mixing glufosinate and PPO-inhibitors enhanced herbicidal activity, although other reports showed that the degree of enhancement varied depending on the weed species, herbicide dosage, and PPO-inhibitor herbicide evaluated (Takano et al., 2020b). However, in our experiment, the herbicide combinations did not increase waterhemp control compared to glufosinate alone (Table 5). We used labeled rates of both glufosinate and the mix partners, which is encouraged to reduce the risk of herbicide-resistance evolution (Norsworthy et al. 2012). POST applications of glufosinate mixtures, specifically with PPO-inhibitors in XtendFlex® soybean or with 2,4-D in Enlist E3® soybean, may provide an effective herbicide resistance management strategy when combined with effective PRE herbicides. Furthermore, other glufosinate-resistant platforms such as LibertyLink® GT27 soybean, confers additional tolerance to glyphosate and isoxaflutole, enabling PRE isoxaflutole applications for enhanced waterhemp control (Craigmyle et al., 2013; Hay et al., 2019; Merchant et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2019). Annual rotation of herbicide SOAs and trait technologies provides optimal resistance mitigation.

Soybean Yield

The main effect of herbicide treatment was significant for soybean yield in the waterhemp response study ($P < 0.05$; Table 5). All herbicide treatments yielded more than the “No PRE” nontreated control (Table 5), with yield increases (yield-protection) of 31-67%. POST-applied glufosinate mixture treatments yielded 19-28% more than the PRE-only check. Yield in plots treated with only bentazon, flumiclorac-pentyl, and fluthiacet-methyl was not greater than PRE-only (Table 5), presumably because competition from the surviving waterhemp was similar to PRE-only (Table 4). Both weed presence and herbicide injury may influence the soybean

yield. When glufosinate and 2,4-D were applied solo, yields were 26 and 23% greater than PRE-only treatment. However, when lactofen was applied solo, waterhemp control was equivalent to glufosinate and 2,4-D, but soybean yields were >18% lower (Table 5). In contrast, glufosinate + lactofen, which caused similar injury to lactofen applied solo (Table 4) did not reduce yield and provided similar waterhemp control (Table 5). Fomesafen applied solo, which was less injurious to soybean than lactofen in the crop response study (Table 4), did not reduce yields in the waterhemp response study compared to glufosinate (Table 5). These data confirm that POST herbicide applications are critical to protect yield in soybean, and that both weed control and crop safety may affect soybean yield.

Soybean yield loss from weeds is typically of greater importance than potential injury from herbicides (Young et al. 2003), and application of POST herbicides with multiple effective SOAs is likely beneficial to delaying the evolution of herbicide resistance (Norsworthy et al., 2012). Among the PPO-inhibitor + glufosinate mixtures we tested, fomesafen presented an acceptable balance of crop safety and effective waterhemp control. Although fomesafen has been less injurious than lactofen on soybean, its weed control efficacy has not always exceeded 90% (Ellis and Griffin, 2003; Hager et al., 2003; Harris et al., 1991; Higgins et al., 1988; Johnson et al., 2002). In our research, glufosinate + fomesafen provided 93% waterhemp control and reduced waterhemp biomass 91%, while causing less crop injury (Table 4) and protecting yield potential (4336 kg ha⁻¹ [crop response study], Table 4; 3712 kg ha⁻¹ [waterhemp response study], Table 5). In addition, fomesafen can provide soil residual control of waterhemp for several weeks after its application (Oliveira et al. 2017).

Soybean growers, particularly those cultivating glufosinate-resistant Enlist E3 varieties, may prefer using herbicide mixtures with 2,4-D to reduce crop injury and ensure adequate weed control. 2,4-D has long been considered a low-risk herbicide for resistance evolution (Torra et al. 2024). However, resistance to 2,4-D is increasing in waterhemp populations across the Midwest (Bernards et al., 2012; Evans et al., 2019; Faleco et al., 2024; Heap, 2024; Shergill et al., 2018). 2,4-D resistance in weeds is typically a single-gene trait and confers elevated 2,4-D detoxification using cytochrome P450 monooxygenases or glycosyltransferases (Torra et al., 2024). Weeds metabolize 2,4-D more rapidly at higher temperatures, which may be problematic when mixed with glufosinate because glufosinate performs best under high temperature and humidity conditions (Coetzer et al. 2001). While PPO-inhibitor resistant waterhemp populations

(Heap, 2024) with target-site mutations (Barker et al., 2023; Lillie et al., 2020; Shoup et al., 2003) may still show some susceptibility to soil-applied PPO-inhibitors, the duration and level of control are typically reduced compared to susceptible populations (Lillie et al., 2020). Agrichemical and seed companies are developing new soybean stacked traits which will alleviate injury caused by PPO-inhibitor herbicides, and new PPO-inhibitor herbicides are being developed which are expected to provide improved weed control (Prade, 2022).

It is crucial to preserve the efficacy of glufosinate, 2,4-D, and PPO-inhibitor herbicides as essential tools for effective weed management in soybean, especially given the rise of genetically modified crops resistant to multiple herbicides and the increasing prevalence of herbicide-resistant weed populations (Takano and Dayan, 2020). While resistance to glufosinate has not yet become widespread, implementing proactive and diverse management strategies is essential to maintaining its long-term effectiveness and mitigating the further evolution of multiple herbicide resistance (Takano and Dayan, 2020). One step is by applying them only with effective mix partners in diversified PRE-POST herbicide programs. Second is employing practices that enhance soybean competitiveness such as early planting, narrow row spacing and well-timed termination of cover crops to aid in weed suppression. Third is by integrating diversified management approaches, including conservation practices like cover cropping for increased weed suppression, crop rotation and diversification, mechanical cultivation where feasible, along with innovative technologies such as targeted herbicide application technologies and weed seed destruction. This multi-tactic approach could help eliminate viable weed seed return to the soil and interrupts the perpetuation of resistant alleles.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Mixing glufosinate with PPO-inhibitor herbicides, 2,4-D, or bentazon is unlikely to cause injury that will result in yield loss when applications are made before the V6 soybean growth stage. However, caution is recommended when it comes to lactofen, which showed the highest potential for soybean injury in this study. Although these mixtures may not consistently enhance waterhemp control compared to glufosinate alone, they offer an important benefit for herbicide resistance management. By incorporating additional sites of action, such mixtures help reduce selection pressure, an important strategy for delaying the evolution of herbicide resistance in waterhemp and other challenging weed species. Bentazon, flumiclorac-pentyl, and fluthiacet-

methyl do not provide commercially acceptable waterhemp control. Fomesafen, lactofen, and 2,4-D all provided good waterhemp control in solo applications (>88%) and are effective partners for glufosinate. 2,4-D caused less soybean injury than any PPO-inhibitor herbicide, and mixtures with glufosinate provided effective waterhemp control. Mixing the herbicides evaluated in this study with glufosinate may help protect against yield loss from weed competition compared to applying those herbicides alone. Our findings also suggest that including glufosinate as part of a PRE-POST-herbicide program can improve waterhemp control under the conditions evaluated herein.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank the undergraduate students from the Wisconsin Cropping Systems Lab, Rachel Renz, Frank Lazar, and Matt Humbert for their assistance with data collection. We also appreciate the help of the undergraduate students at Western Illinois University, Kinsey Tiemann, Laine Crawford, Nathan Stufflebeam, Luke Bergschneider, Christian Reiner, Stephanie Reiter, and Dustin Steinkamp with herbicide treatment mixing, application, and data collection. We are especially grateful to Brent Heaton for his efforts in conducting the trials at the Illinois experimental locations.

FUNDING

This research was partially funded by Wisconsin Soybean Marketing Board.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Table 1. Post-emergence herbicide treatments used in both field experiments, along with herbicide group numbers, active ingredients, and their application rates.

Herbicide ^a	Trade name	Manufacturer	WSSA number	group	Application rate g ai ha ⁻¹
Glufosinate	Liberty 280 SL ®	BASF	10		657
2,4-D	Enlist One ®	Corteva	4		1067
Bentazon	Basagran 4L ®	BASF	6		897
Flumiclorac-pentyl	Resource ®	Valent	14		60
Fluthiacet-methyl	Cadet ®	FMC	14		7.2
Fomesafen	Flexstar ®	Syngenta	14		264
Lactofen	Cobra ®	Valent	14		219
Glufosinate + 2,4-D			10 + 4		657 + 1067
Glufosinate + bentazon			10 + 6		657 + 897
Glufosinate + flumiclorac-pentyl			10 + 14		657 + 60
Glufosinate + fluthiacet-methyl			10 + 14		657 + 7.2
Glufosinate + fomesafen			10 + 14		657 + 264
Glufosinate + lactofen			10 + 14		657 + 219
No PRE (nontreated control) ^b					

^a Group 14 (protoporphyrinogen-inhibitor) and 6 (photosystem II-inhibitor) herbicides applied solely were combined with a crop oil concentrate as surfactant (Crop Oil; 1% v/v; CHS Agronomy Inc.), while mixes with glufosinate excluded COC. Ammonium-sulfate was added to all herbicide treatments (2,243 g ha⁻¹).

^b Both studies included a non-treated control (No PRE). However, only the waterhemp response study had a true weedy non-treated control (No PRE nor POST herbicide application). In contrast, the whole crop response study was maintained weed-free throughout the season.

Table 2. Monthly average air temperature and precipitation for experimental sites in 2020 and 2021 growing seasons ^{a, b}.

	Location														
	Arlington			Brooklyn			Janesville			Lancaster			Macomb		
	2020	2021	30yr	2020	2021	30yr	2020	2021	30yr	2020	2021	30yr	2020	2021	30yr
Air temperature															
C															
May	12.9	13.5	14	13.6	14.4	14	13.9	14.8	16	11.1	12.8	15	16.1	15.5	17
June	20.1	21.4	20	21.3	22.5	20	21.3	22.8	21	18.7	20.2	21	23.3	22.7	22
July	22.2	20.6	23	23.5	21.8	23	24.1	22.1	24	21.3	20.1	23	25.5	23.8	25
August	14.3	20.9	22	21.4	21.9	22	21.8	22.6	23	18.7	19.0	22	22.7	24.2	24
September	14.3	16.4	18	15.7	18.1	18	15.7	18.6	19	12.8	14.8	18	18.3	21.8	20
Season ^c	16.8	18.5	19.4	19.1	19.7	19.4	19.4	20.2	20.6	16.5	17.4	19.8	21.0	21.6	21.6
Precipitation															
mm															
May	113	66	89	119	60	91	107	74	94	139	72	91	126	185	102
June	110	96	104	111	133	107	82	55	107	198	43	109	161	134	114
July	142	38	97	118	76	102	148	53	102	131	121	104	129	43	107

August	97	90	102	20	63	104	79	79	104	94	132	107	12	59	109
September	76	59	91	122	31	94	87	18	97	187	50	94	37	45	99
Season ^c	538	349	483	490	363	498	503	279	504	749	418	505	465	466	531

^a Air, soil, and rainfall data collected with WatchDog 2000 Series ground weather stations from Enviro-weather station.

^b Thirty-yr air temperature and precipitation averages for the period from 1991 to 2021 obtained in R statistical software (version 4.4.1) using daily Daymet weather data for 1-km grids (Correndo et al. 2021; Thornton et al. 2016; *daymetr* package).

^c Cumulative precipitation and average monthly temperature throughout the growing season.

Table 3. Information for each experimental location covering soybean variety ^a and its planting date, the dates of herbicide application, herbicide application dates, soybean growth stages, the height and density of waterhemp, and soil information.

	Waterhemp response study					Crop response study					
	Brooklyn		Lancaster		Macomb	Arlington		Janesville		Macomb	
	2020	2021	2020	2021	2021	2020	2021	2020	2021	2020	2021
Planting date	May 22	May 25	May 20	May 17	June 5	May 1	May 12	May 8	April 29	May 25	May 24
PRE herbicide application	May 22	May 26	May 20	May 19	June 6	May 1	May 12	May 8	April 29	May 29	May 26
POST herbicide application	June 24 (V4)	June 30 (V5)	July 1 (V6)	June 17 (V6)	July 14 (V4)	June 25 (V4)	June 26 (V4)	July 2 (V4)	June 18 (V4)	June 29 (V4)	July 2 (V5)
Waterhemp height at POST (range) – cm	2 - 20	2 - 22	7 - 28	4 - 13	2 - 20						
Waterhemp density at POST (range) – m ⁻²	16 - 33	12 - 40	18 - 34	1 - 13	12 - 36						
	Soil information										
% sand	40	40	10	10	11	8	4	7	8	3	3
% silt	41	41	76	76	79	56	71	70	66	76	72
% clay	19	19	14	18	10	36	25	23	26	21	25
% organic matter	2	2	2.5	3.1	2.4	2.9	3.3	3.1	4.1	3.4	2.0
pH	7.1	7.1	6.6	5.3	7.5	6.5	6.4	6.4	6.7	6.8	6.4
Textural class	Loam	Loam	Silt loam	Silt loam	Keomah silt loam	Silty clay loam	Silt loam	Silt loam	Silt loam	Osco loam	Osco silt loam

^a Soybean variety: P22T86E in Wisconsin (2020 & 2021); Syngenta S33E3 (2020) and NuTech 35NO3E (2021) in Illinois

Table 4. Soybean visible phytotoxicity and green cover (Canopeo) 14 days after treatment, and soybean final yield for crop response (weed-free) study.

Herbicide treatment	Visible phytotoxicity		Green cover		Soybean yield
	————— % —————				kg ha ⁻¹
PRE only	2 (0.1 – 2.5)	a	78 (70 – 85)	ab	4359 (3501 – 5310) ab
Glufosinate	2 (1 – 4)	a	78 (70 – 85)	ab	4576 (3686 – 5560) a
2,4-D	2 (1.0 – 3)	a	81 (73 – 87)	a	4532 (3647 – 5513) ab
Bentazon	5 (3 – 6)	c	75 (66 – 82)	b	4505 (3623 – 5483) ab
Flumiclorac-pentyl	18 (15 – 22)	e	73 (64 – 81)	b	4453 (3576 – 5425) ab
Fluthiacet-methyl	14 (11 – 17)	de	76 (67 – 83)	ab	4622 (3728 – 5612) a
Fomesafen	13 (10 – 17)	d	75 (66 – 82)	b	4421 (3547 – 5390) ab
Lactofen	27 (23 – 32)	f	59 (48 – 69)	c	4376 (3517 – 5329) ab
Glufosinate + 2,4-D	3 (2 – 4)	abc	76 (68 – 83)	ab	4479 (3599 – 5453) ab
Glufosinate + bentazon	4 (3.0 – 6)	bc	78 (69 – 84)	ab	4430 (3556 – 5400) ab
Glufosinate + flumiclorac-pentyl	18 (15 – 22)	e	73 (63 – 80)	b	4455 (3578 – 5428) ab
Glufosinate + fluthiacet-methyl	13 (10 – 16)	d	75 (65 – 82)	b	4395 (3524 – 5361) ab
Glufosinate + fomesafen	17 (14 – 20)	de	75 (66 – 82)	b	4336 (3471 – 5295) ab
Glufosinate + lactofen	27 (23 – 32)	f	60 (49 – 70)	c	4201 (3350 – 5146) b
No PRE (nontreated control)	1.5 (1 – 2)	a	79 (70 – 85)	ab	4556 (3669 – 5539) ab
P-value	<0.0001		<0.0001		0.0174

Means with the same letters are not statistically different from each other according to Tukey's HSD ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Information presented in parentheses refers to 95% confidence intervals.

The data presented in the table are from experimental locations in Wisconsin and Illinois during 2020 and 2021.

Table 5. Visible assessment of waterhemp control and waterhemp dry biomass reduction 14 DAT, and soybean final yield for waterhemp response study.

Herbicide treatment	Waterhemp control	Biomass reduction	Soybean yield
		%	kg ha ⁻¹
PRE only	60 (44 – 74) bc	56 (41 – 70) cd	2904 (2325 – 3548) c
Glufosinate	90 (81 – 95) a	90 (81 – 95) ab	3669 (3013 – 4389) a
2,4-D	90 (81 – 95) a	87 (77 – 93) ab	3568 (2923 – 4279) a
Bentazon	54 (38 – 68) c	55 (39 – 69) d	3264 (2647 – 3944) abc
Flumiclorac-pentyl	73 (57 – 84) b	79 (66 – 88) ab	3343 (2719 – 4031) abc
Fluthiacet-methyl	71 (55 – 82) bc	77 (64 – 87) bc	3365 (2738 – 4055) abc
Fomesafen	88 (77 – 94) a	87 (78 – 94) ab	3460 (2826 – 4158) ab
Lactofen	90 (81 – 95) a	87 (77 – 93) ab	2914 (2335 – 3549) bc
Glufosinate + 2,4-D	92 (84 – 96) a	89 (80 – 94) ab	3713 (3053 – 4437) a
Glufosinate + bentazon	90 (82 – 95) a	91 (83 – 95) a	3661 (3007 – 4380) a
Glufosinate + flumiclorac-pentyl	88 (78 – 94) a	79 (81 – 95) ab	3532 (2890 – 4239) a
Glufosinate + fluthiacet-methyl	89 (80 – 95) a	88 (79 – 94) ab	3613 (2963 – 4327) a
Glufosinate + fomesafen	93 (86 – 97) a	91 (84 – 95) a	3712 (3052 – 4436) a
Glufosinate + lactofen	93 (85 – 97) a	91 (84 – 95) a	3469 (2835 – 4169) ab
No PRE (nontreated control)	0	0	2221 (1718 – 2788) d
P-value	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001

Means with the same letters are not statistically different from each other according to Tukey's HSD ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Information presented in parentheses refers to 95% confidence intervals.

The data presented in the table are from experimental locations in Wisconsin during 2020 and 2021, and from experimental location in Illinois in 2021.

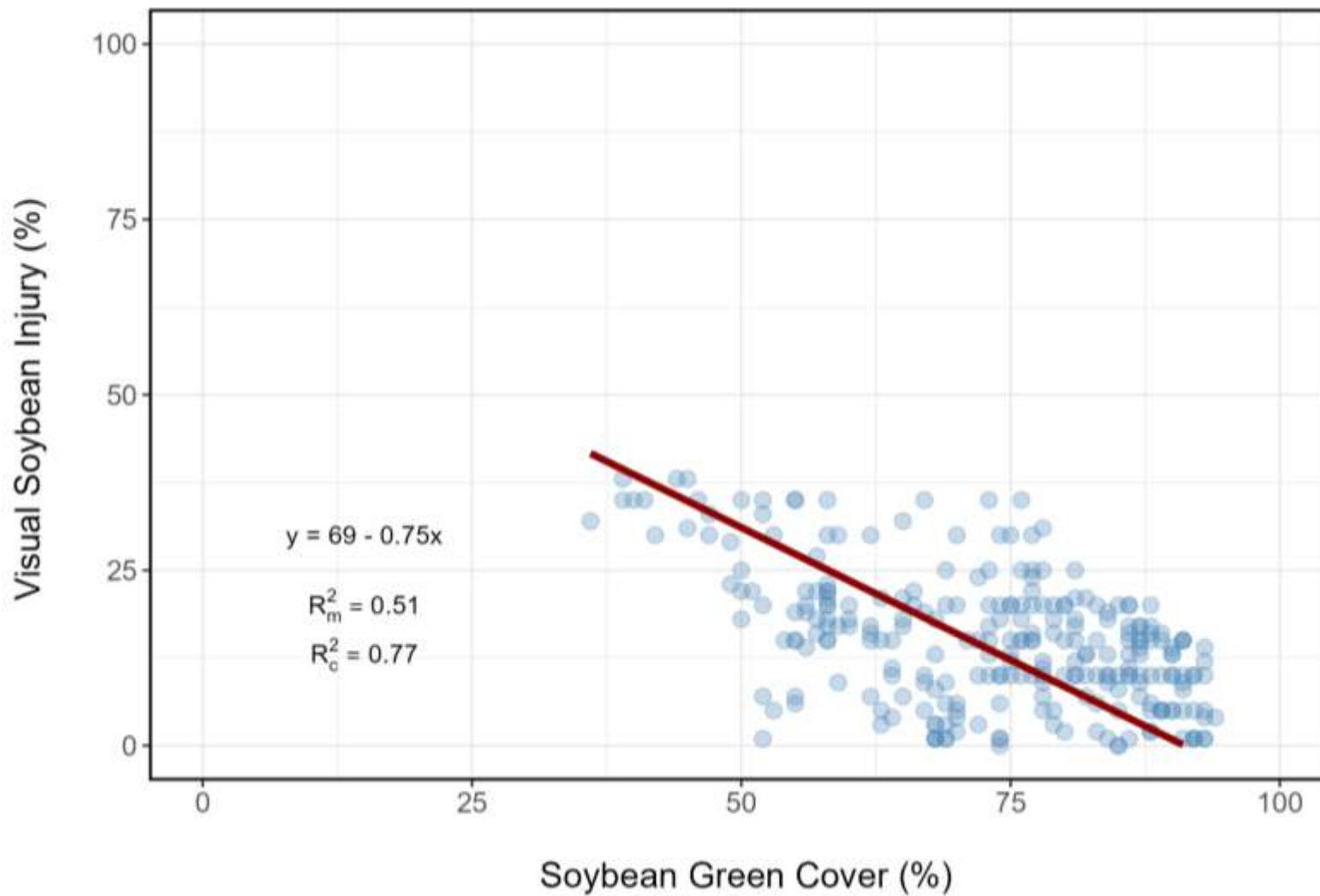


Figure 1. Relationship between visual soybean injury and soybean green cover (Canopeo data). R_m^2 – site-year as random effect is not considered (marginal); R_c^2 – site-year as random effect is considered (conditional).