

# Biochemical and Molecular Mechanisms Associated With the Resistance of the European Corn Borer (Lepidoptera: Crambidae) to Lambda-Cyhalothrin and First Monitoring Tool

Myriam Siegwart, Jean-Baptiste Thibord, Jérôme Olivares, Céline Hirn, Jan Elias, Sandrine Maugin, Claire Lavigne

#### ▶ To cite this version:

Myriam Siegwart, Jean-Baptiste Thibord, Jérôme Olivares, Céline Hirn, Jan Elias, et al.. Biochemical and Molecular Mechanisms Associated With the Resistance of the European Corn Borer (Lepidoptera: Crambidae) to Lambda-Cyhalothrin and First Monitoring Tool. Journal of Economic Entomology, 2017, 110 (2), pp.598-606. 10.1093/jee/tow267. hal-03515263

HAL Id: hal-03515263

https://hal.science/hal-03515263

Submitted on 28 Mar 2022

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1 2 3	Siegwart et al.: Resistance mechanisms of European corn borer to lambda-cyhalothrin	M. Siegwart INRA, unite PSH, 228 route de l'aérodrome Domaine saint Paul - site Agroparc
4 5		F-84914 Avignon cedex 9,
6	Journal of Economic Entomology	France
7	Horticultural Entomology	Phone: +33 (0)4 32 72 24 44
8		Fax : +33 (0)4 32 72 24 92
9		E-mail: <u>myriam.siegwart@avignon.inra.fr</u>
10		
11		
12		
13	Biochemical and molecular mechanism	ns associated with the resistance of
14	the European corn borer (Ostrinia nub	pilalis) to lambda-cyhalothrin and
15	first monitoring tool	
16		
17	Myriam Siegwart (1), Jean-Baptiste Thibord(2),	Jérôme Olivares <sup>(1)</sup> , Céline Hirn <sup>(3)</sup> , Jan Elias <sup>(3)</sup> ,
18	Sandrine Maugin <sup>(1)</sup>	, Claire Lavigne <sup>(1)</sup>
19		
20	(1) INRA, UR 1115 PSH, Plantes et Systèm	nes de culture Horticoles, 84000 AVIGNON,
21	France	
22	(2) ARVALIS Institut du végétal, 21 chemi	n de Pau, 64 121 Montardon
23	(3) Syngenta Crop Protection, 4002 Basel, S	Switzerland
24		
25		

26 Abstract

The European corn borer (Ostrinia nubilalis) is one of the most serious corn pest in Europe
where it is controlled with pesticides, in particular, pyrethroids. First control failures with this
chemical family occurred on the field in 2008 in the centre of France, and the first resistance
case was described in 2012. In the present study, we investigate resistance mechanisms
involved in seven French populations of O. nubilalis collected in the field.
Resistances to deltamethrin and lambda-cyhalothrin were confirmed with a higher resistance
ratio for lambda-cyhalothrin (63.79 compared to 7.67). Resistance to the two active compounds
was correlated except for one population, indicating a high probability of cross-resistance
Analyses of the activity of three major families of detoxification enzymes in resistant
individuals showed a significant increase of the average MFO activity in males of four
populations (activity ratios of 2.76 to 5.73) and higher GST activity in females of two other
populations (activity ratios 4.48 and 5.21). Molecular investigation of the sodium channel generated
sequence showed the presence of the kdr mutation in a highly resistant individual. We designed
a PCR-RFLP screening tool to search for this mutation in the field, and we found it in five
populations but not in the susceptible one.
The resistance of <i>O. nubilalis</i> to pyrethroids in France seems to result from a combination of
resistance mechanisms, possibly as a consequence of a selection pressure with an exceptional
duration (almost 40 years old).
<b>Keywords:</b> pyrethroid, deltamethrin, kdr, cytochrome p450 (MFO), glutathione-S-transferase
(GST), carboxylesterase (EST), detoxification enzymes, target mutation.

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

The control of insect pests is a major issue in agriculture. However, management strategies relying on insecticides may be compromised by pest insecticide resistance. Until now there have been no reports of resistance to chemical insecticides for the European corn borer (Ostrinia nubilalis) (Pyraloidea, Crambidae, Pyraustinae) despite the fact that it is one of the most important corn pest in Europe and North America (Bohnenblust et al. 2014). This polyphagous moth is native from northern Africa, western Asia, and Europe (Hudon et al. 1989) and was accidentally introduced into North America at the beginning of the twentieth century (Caffrey and Worthley 1927). The larvae bore into stalks and ears of corn. In France, the loss was evaluated on average at 4 % of yield potential per larvae per plant. Losses can be higher in the case of water stress (Thibord 2009). For the last 15 years, control of O. nubilalis has been widely based on the use of transgenic Bt corn in America and numerous studies have investigated mechanisms of resistance to Bt toxins (Bravo et al. 2011) and resistance management schemes (Huang et al. 2011). The emergence of insects resistant to Bt corn in the field has been slow, possibly because the resistance alleles were initially rare (frequency <1 ‰) (Bourguet et al. 2003, Stodola et al. 2006) and strategies have been designed to slow down the evolution of resistance (Huang et al. 2011). Control of O. nubilalis is based on the use of insecticides in regions of the world where GM crops are not grown, for example, in France. In this country, the insecticide based control of this pest where is mostly performed using pyrethroids since late 1970's. The first evidence of possible resistance to pyrethroids in O. nubilabis was reported in the mid-2000s in central France. Between 2008 and 2011 field experiments in this area confirmed a low efficiency of lambda-cyhalothrin and other active ingredients belonging to the family of pyrethroids (Thibord, 2009 pers. Com.). Resistance to pyrethroids was formally reported in 2012 when bioassays on insects collected in fields of this same region with excessive damage showed

73 resistance ratio as high as 119 in the laboratory (Siegwart et al. 2012). To our knowledge, such 74 resistance was not reported elsewhere in this species. In the present study, we aimed to 75 characterise the observed resistance better and to determine underlying mechanisms. 76 Pyrethroids are neurotoxic to insects and act by binding on the voltage-gated sodium channel. 77 Resistance to pyrethroids is reported in numerous insect pests (Soderlund and Knipple 2003). 78 Two main categories of mechanisms have been reported to cause resistance. The first is 79 associated with the detoxification of the insecticide molecule by specific enzymes (Liu and 80 Scott 1998, Kranthi et al. 2001). The second is linked to non-synonymous mutations in the gene 81 coding for the voltage-gated sodium channel, the principal site of pyrethroid action. Mainly two 82 mutations have been found in numerous pests, the first, named kdr for 'knock down resistance' 83 was the first reported in 1951 and is the most common one (Busvine 1951, Soderlund and 84 Knipple 2003). The second mutation, *super-kdr*, was reported 16 years later and was also found 85 in various insect pests (Farnham 1977, Soderlund and Knipple 2003). Detoxification and 86 mutation are not exclusive, and both types of resistance can coexist in a single insect population 87 (Franck et al. 2007). 88 In the present study, we chose to assess the presence of these two types of resistance 89 mechanisms in French populations of O. nubilalis collected in corn fields where resistance was 90 either suspected or not. (i) First, we assessed if resistance was associated with increased 91 detoxification by specialised enzymes by measuring activities of three major families: 92 Oxygenases P<sub>450</sub> (MFO), the glutathione-S-transferases (GST) and carboxylesterase (EST). (ii) 93 Second, we assessed if the resistance was acquired through a mutation of the molecular target 94 gene of pyrethroids: the voltage-gated sodium ion channel by sequencing a part of this gene 95 carrying kdr and super kdr mutations in domains IIS4, IIS5 and IIS6 segments.

4

96

## **Insect sampling**

We used as a reference one susceptible laboratory strain that has been mass reared on an
artificial diet at the INRA of Magneraud (France) for 20 years without insecticide selection
pressure. This strain originated from a non-treated field near Paris (France). Other individuals
were collected as diapausing larvae directly in corn stalks in 7 corn fields located near the
following cities (French department number): Epieds-en-beauce (45); Semerville (41);
Tripleville (41); Labosse (41); Binas (41) Montardon (64) and Rouffach (68). Larvae were
stored four months at 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the laboratory to break down diapause. The larvae were then
individualised in small boxes with some moist cotton in a climatic chamber at 23 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and 16:8
h L:D photoperiod. Adult emergence was checked every day. As soon as we obtained one male
and one female from the same population, these were paired for reproduction. We thus assess
16 pairs for Epied en Beauce; 14 pairs for Semerville; 3 pairs for Labosse; 3 pairs for Binas; 12
pairs for Montardon and seven pairs for Rouffach.
Offsprings were submitted to toxicological tests at the neonatal stage (bioassays). Individuals
that survived the bioassay at high insecticide concentration (up to 13 ppm for lambda-
cyhalothrin or 13.28 ppm for deltamethrin, see below) were kept in individual vials containing
artificial diet without insecticide pressure during the rest of their life cycle. As soon as these
resistant individuals emerged as adults, half of their abdomens were dissected and immediately
used to measure MFO activity; protein extractions were performed on the second half for GST
and EST activities measurement, and the rest of the insect body was individually kept in 90 $\%$
ethanol at 4 °C for genetic analyses.
Following the bioassay results, we selected and sequenced a highly resistant individual from
Semerville ( $n^{\circ}205$ ) and a non-treated from Montardon ( $n^{\circ}3$ ) to seek for the $kdr$ and $Super-Kdr$
mutations. Further, we selected 37 individuals to create a molecular kdr detection tool. This

selection include 26 individuals that are survivors to very high insecticide concentration, plus six from the location Rouffach (where the kdr mutation was first detected), plus five samples from the non-treated population of Montardon.

#### **Insecticides**

The commercial formulations of lambda-cyhalothrin (Karate Zeon) and deltamethrin (Decis Protech) were purchased from Syngenta (France) and Bayer (France). The insecticides were diluted in osmosed water. Insecticide ranges used to test the reference strain were 0.54; 1.17; 1.8; 3.9; 6 and 9.5 ppm for lambda-cyhalothrin and 2.61; 3.91; 5.88; 8.84; 13.28; 19.96 and 30 ppm for deltamethrin. These concentrations were adapted for field populations (see below).

#### **Bioassays**

- Susceptibilities of the reference strain and offspring of wild individuals were evaluated by bioassays on the neonate larvae stage. Microplate (96-wells, Sterilin Ltd, Newport, UK) wells are first filled with 150  $\mu$ L of artificial diet (Stonefly Industries Ltd, Rochester, NY). Six  $\mu$ L of insecticide solution was overlaid on the diet, and one neonate larva (0-4h old) was deposited on each well 20 min after treatment (Reyes and Sauphanor 2008). Controls were placed on each plate on, untreated artificial diet, to estimate the percentage of natural mortality. Osmosed water replaced insecticide for the controls (Fuentes-Contreras et al. 2007). Wells were sealed with parafilm and a lid was placed on each microplate to prevent larvae escape. Mortality was recorded after seven days at 23 °C. A larva was considered as dead when not responding to a probe with dissecting forceps. Missing larvae were subtracted from the initial number.
- 146 The corrected mortality was calculated using the Abbott formula (Abbott 1925).
- For each insecticide concentration, the average sensitivity level of a population/strain was calculated as the mean corrected mortality of all individuals from this population/strain.

For each population/strain, concentration-response relationships were established per insecticide. The six concentrations of lambda-cyhalothrin and seven of deltamethrin (see above) giving between 0 and 100 % mortality for the reference strain were initially used. When a population contained resistant individuals, i.e. individuals that survived the highest concentrations tested on the reference strain (9.5 ppm of lambda-cyhalothrin or 30 ppm of deltamethrin), extra upper concentrations were tested. These concentrations are chosen by keeping the same multiplying factor used in the original range until we reached 100 % of mortality. Probit analyses were performed on these results with the free software priprobit 1.63 (Sakuma 1998); http://ars.usda.gov/Services/docs.htm?docid=11284). All resistance ratios were calculated on the basis of these analyses.

#### **Enzymatic activities**

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

- 160 The general principle for the dosage of enzymatic activities is to measure the quantity of the
- product of an enzymatic reaction and to divide it by the total protein content of the sample. The
- amount of product is determined by a level of absorbance or fluorescence. MFO activity was
- measured on fresh half posterior parts of adult abdomens directly placed in the reaction solution.
- Measurement of GST and EST activities were performed using the second (anterior) half of the
- abdomen and necessitated a preliminary phase of protein extraction.
- 166 The total protein content of each sample was measured with Bradford colorimetric test using
- bovine serum albumin to build the standard curve (Bradford 1976).
- 168 Fluorescence and absorbance were measured using a microplate reader (Infinite 200, Tecan,
- 169 Männedorf, Switzerland).
- 170 Mixed-function oxidase (MFO)
- 171 The MFO activity was determined using 7-ethoxycoumarin O-deethylation (ECOD) (Ulrich
- and Weber 1972) adapted for in vivo analysis in microplates. Adult abdomens were dissected
- and directly homogenised in an incubation solution containing 100 µl of Hepes buffer (50 mM

pH 7) with 7-ethoxycoumarin (0.4 mM) on the ice. After 4h incubation at 30 °C, the reaction was stopped by adding 100  $\mu$ L of 1.5M glycine buffer (pH 10.3) and centrifuged at 15 000  $\times$  g for 2 min at 2 °C. Supernatants were individually placed in wells of black microplates (96-wells, Corming Costar®, New York, U.S). The 7-hydroxycoumarin (HC) fluorescence was quantified with 380 nm excitation and 465 nm emission filters. Three wells per microplates were left without samples but just the mix receiving glycine buffer previous to incubation to have a blank. Protein dosages were made on this reaction product after fluorescence measurement. A 10 fold dilution was operated before this dosage using the Bradford method (Bradford 1976). The MFO activity was expressed as pg of 7-HC/ $\mu$ g of total protein/min by using a standard curve of 7-Hydroxycoumarine (HC) (0.5-4.5 nmoles/well) to convert fluorescence in 7 HC quantity.

185 Glutathione S-transferase (GST)

For protein extraction, anterior half abdomens were crushed in 110 µl of Hepes buffer (50 mM, pH 7) on the ice and the obtained homogenates were centrifuged at 15 000 g for 15 min at 4 °C. Supernatants were stored at -80 °C before use. When all extractions were finished, the supernatants were used as enzyme sources for reactions in a single test to limit handling errors (Bouvier et al. 2002). GST activity was determined in transparent microplates (96-wells, Sterilin®, Newport, UK) using 2.4-dinitro-chlorobenzene (CDNB) as substrate (Nauen and Stumpf 2002). The reaction mixture in one well consisted of 2 µl of enzymatic extract, 198 µl of a solution containing: 10 µl of 50 mM glutathione (GSH), 185 µl of Hepes buffer (50 mM, pH 7.0) and 3 µL of 50 mM CDNB. Three wells per microplate were filled with 2 µl of Hepes buffer (50 mM, pH 7.0) instead of enzyme extract as blank. Absorbance was measured after 2 min of incubation at 25 °C in kinetic mode every 30 seconds at 340nm. Since the CDNB-glutathione adduct was not commercially available, we were unable to build a standard curve, so we used the molar extinction coefficient (9.6 mM<sup>-1</sup>.cm<sup>-1</sup>) of CDNB-glutathione to convert

absorbance in µmol of CDNB-glutathione. The final specific activity was expressed in µmol of

200 CDNB-glutathione/min/mg of total protein extracted.

201 Carboxylesterases (EST)

202

203

204

205

206

207

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

218

219

220

221

222

223

The same protein extracts were used as for GST. Total non-specific EST activity was measured

with  $\alpha$ -naphthyl acetate ( $\alpha$ -NA) as substrate (Reyes 2007). The reaction mixture was 1  $\mu$ l of

protein extract and 194 μl of 30 μM α-NA in Hepes buffer (50 mM, pH 7.0) in each microplate

well. After 20 min of incubation at 22 °C in darkness, the reaction was stopped and coloured

by adding 55 µl of 0.2 % Fast Garnet GBC diluted in 2.5 % sodium dodecyl sulphate solution.

Absorbance was recorded at 590 nm, after incubation for 20 min in darkness at room

208 temperature.

The standard curve with α-Naphtol (0-18 nmoles/well) was elaborated to express activity in

nmoles of product/min/mg of total proteins.

#### Sequencing and detecting the kdr mutation

For genetics studies, total DNA was individually extracted from the head of adults moths

following Wash et al. (Walsh et al. 1991) with 100 µl of 10 % Chelex 100 (Biorad) solution

and 3 µl (10 mg/ml) of proteinase K (Eurobio). Tissues were digested overnight at 56 °C. After

boiling for 30 min, supernatants were used as DNA templates for PCR reaction. Sequencing

was done on two selected individuals and detection on 37 moths (see insect sampling).

217 *Sequencing the kdr mutation* 

The design of all primers was made using the Primer 3 web interface version 0-4-0

(http://bioinfo.ut.ee/primer3-0.4.0/primer3/)(Rozen and Skaletsky 1999). As no sequence was

available for O. nubilalis in this part of the genome, we designed our primer OsNa-R2 matching

the closest phylogenetic sequence available on GenBank: Cnaphalocrocis medinalis

(Pyraloidea, Crambidae, Spilomelinae - GenBank accession KC342959 & AGH70334) for the

detection of the kdr and superkdr mutations. According to the high similarities between Cydia

224 pomonella and C. medinalis we used primers SKdr-F and SKdr-R, previously designed in our 225 lab for this purpose on C. pomonella (Franck et al. 2012) as PCR and sequencing primers for 226 the detection of the Super-Kdr mutation (Table 1). We then amplified the whole region carrying 227 both mutations (Figure 2) using SKdr-F and OsNa-R2 at low annealing temperature on two 228 selected individuals. 229 PCR amplifications were performed with a Mastercycler thermocycler (Eppendorf). Each 230 reaction had a volume of 25 µl containing the following MIX: 1X GoTaq® Flexi Buffer, 1.5 231 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, and 0.1 mg/ml Bovine Serum Albumin, 200 µM of each dNTPs, 0.4 µM of each 232 Forward and Reverse primers, 1 unit of GoTaq® Flexi DNA Polymerase (Promega) and 4 µl 233 of DNA template. The PCR conditions were: 3 min at 95 °C followed by 35 cycles at 95 °C for 234 45s, 50 °C for 1 min, and 72 °C of elongation for 1.5 min with a final extension step at 72 °C 235 for 10 min. 236 An approximatively 1400pb PCR product was obtained and sequenced (GATC Biotech) with 237 PCR primers. Sequences were manually edited and aligned both in forward and reverse directions and assembled using the Bioedit Sofware (Hall 1999). We verified the sequence 238 239 homology with voltage-gated sodium ion channel sequences known in other susceptible and 240 resistant Lepidoptera (Bombyx mori, Plutella xylostella, Cydia pomonella) and validated the 241 presence of the Kdr L1014F mutation. The obtained complete sequences were deposited in the GenBank database (accession N° KU588158 for the resistant individual and KU588159 for the 242 243 susceptible one), incomplete or poor quality sequences were not deposited. 244 Detection of the kdr mutation 245 To screen the kdr mutation in the 37 selected individuals, we used a slightly modified nested 246 PCR approach described by Schuelke (2000) coupled with a PCR-RFLP method from Franck 247 et al. (2007). We designed a new specific primer pair (all primers detailed in Table 1): Forward Os-

Kdr1

and

reverse

Os-Kdr2.

Os-Kdr1

was

conjugated with a universal

GTTGTAAAACGACGCCAGT-3' M13-Tail; at its 5' end, the same universal 6-FAM (6carboxyfluorescein) labelled M13-Tail was used for fluorescence detection. We used a ratio of 1 M13-tailed-Os-Kdr1 primer for 10 Labelled universal M13-tail and 10 Os-Kdr2 reverse primers. We found two size of amplicon, probably due to intron variability: 268 and 273 bp. PCR amplifications were carried out with a Mastercycler thermocycler (Eppendorf). The reaction occurred in 12 µl containing: 1X GoTaq® Flexi Buffer, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.1 mg/ml Bovine Serum Albumin, 200 µM of each dNTPs, 0.4 µM of each labelled M13-Tail and specific reverse primer, 0.04 µM of M13-Tailed specific forward primer, 1 unit of GoTag® Flexi DNA Polymerase (Promega) and 2 μl of DNA template. The PCR conditions were: 3 min at 95 °C followed by 30 cycles at 95 °C for 30 s, 54 °C for 45 s, 72 °C for 45s and 10 cycles at 95 °C for 30s, 50 °C for 45 s, 72 °C for 45s with a final extension step at 72 °C for 20 min. All the PCR products were digested at 65 °C for 16 hours with two units of Tas I endonuclease and 1X of Buffer N°B (Fermentas) in 20 µl of final reaction volume. Ten µl of digested products were diluted in 100 μl H2O; 2 μl of this dilution, 7.8 μl of HiDi formamide, and 0.2 μl GeneScan<sup>TM</sup>- 600 LIZ® Size standard (Applied Biosystems) were injected on an ABI 3730xl DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) using POP7 polymer. These genotyping runs were analysed using GeneMapper® V4.1 Analysis Software (Applied Biosystems).

Each revealed fragment length was defined as an allele.

#### Statistical analyses

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

A probit analysis on corrected mortalities (Abbott 1925) was performed to determine the LC50 / LC90 values (Raymond 1985). Resistance ratios at the LC50 (RR50, which is the ratio between the LC50 of the resistant population and the LC50 of the reference strain) and their 95 % CI were calculated. The LC50s were considered different when the 95 % CI of their RR50 did not include 1 (Robertson et al. 2007). Correlation between resistance to lambda-cyhalothrin and deltamethrin was performed with the Pearson method. Enzymatic activities data were

subjected to the non-parametric analysis of variance (Kruskal-Wallis test) because the data deviated for normality. Means were pairwise compared by the protected least significant difference Wilcoxon test (P < 0.05) using the software R (Bell Laboratories, Murray Hill, US).

278 Results

#### **Toxicological tests**

There was a wide diversity of susceptibility to lambda-cyhalothrin in the field as shown by the continuous range of concentration-mortality response curves in toxicological tests (Figure 1).

All field populations showed a lower susceptibility to lambda-cyhalothrin than the reference strain. Resistance ratios at LC50 varied from 2.04 to 63.79 for the less (Montardon) to the most resistant population (Epieds-en-Beauce) (Table 2).

Resistance ratios to deltamethrin were systematically lower at LC50 than for the lambda-

cyhalothrin. Despite this, 4 out of 7 populations had significantly higher LC90 than the reference strain (Table 2).

The resistance ratios to lambda-cyhalothrin and deltamethrin were strongly correlated among populations (r=0.93 p=0.007) if the population Epieds-en-Beauce was removed from the analysis. Numerous individuals from Epieds-en-Beauce were resistant to lambda-cyhalothrin, but few were resistant to deltamethrin.

#### **Enzymatic activities**

The GST activities were assessed in only five populations owing to the mortality induced by toxicological tests in populations Rouffach and Montardon. Activity differences were evident between sexes with males showing higher activity levels (Kruskal-Wallis  $\chi^2$ = 14.6, df = 1, p = 1.3 10<sup>-4</sup>). A large inter-population heterogeneity of GST specific activity was observed (Table 3). Mean GST activity of females from wild populations was 5.21 to 3.24 times higher than in the reference strain, but only females of the Semerville population had significantly higher GST

activities than the reference (Kruskal-Wallis  $\chi^2 = 20.7$ , df = 1, p = 5.1  $10^{-6}$ ). Activity ratio 299 average 2 for males, and no significant difference when compared to the reference strain. 300 301 The specific activities of carboxylesterases (EST) were assessed in the same five populations (Table 3) as the GST. Differences were observed between sexes (Kruskal-Wallis  $\chi^2$  = 46.3, df = 302  $1, p = 9.8 \ 10^{-12}$ ). No significant differences in activity were observed with the reference strain, 303 304 considering males and females separately or not, but the three more resistant populations had the highest activities (ratios up to 2). For example between the reference strain and the most 305 resistant population: Epied-en-Beauce for males the Kruskal-Wallis  $\chi^2 = 3.7$ , df = 1, p = 0.053 306 and for females the Kruskal-Wallis  $\chi^2 = 3.6$ , df = 1, p = 0.058. 307 The MFO activities were assessed in six populations (Table 3). As for GST, there was a 308 difference in specific activity between sexes (Kruskal-Wallis  $\chi^2$ = 138.5, df = 1, p < 2.2 10<sup>-16</sup>). 309 Males exhibited higher activity values than females. MFO activities differed between 310 populations (Kruskal-Wallis  $\chi^2$ = 104.9, df = 13, p < 2.2e-16). Males of four populations 311 312 exhibited higher MFO specific activity than the reference strain while in the two other 313 populations (Semerville and Labosse) females had significantly lower activities than the 314 reference strain or any other population.

#### Genetic analyses

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

Alignment of sequences of the susceptible and the resistant individual highlighted 17 mutations and deletions in the sodium channel gene  $\alpha$ -subunit carrying kdr and super kdr mutations loci. They were all located in introns except two: one silent mutation (V991) and the kdr mutation (Figure 2). This latter mutation is identical to that in *C. pomonella* and other pests or human disease insect vectors (Soderlund and Knipple 2003, Brun-Barale et al. 2005). At the protein level, it leads to the replacement of a Leucine in position 1014 to a Phenylalanine The position number was attributed according to the amino acid sequence of the most abundant splice variant of the house fly Vssc 1 sodium channel protein (Ingles et al. 1996, Williamson et al. 1996). We

have not found the super kdr mutation in the resistant individual sequenced.

The PCR-RFLP detection tool gave clear results (Supplementary Figure 1) and allowed us to genotype the 37 individuals from field populations (Table 4). We found two restriction profiles for the susceptible genotypes: at 195 and 218 bp sizes. This variation corresponds to a modification in the intron following the kdr mutation locus leading to the elimination of the first TasI cut locus. Furthermore, some size variation was observed on total PCR products probably due to changes in intron sequences. The kdr mutation was found in 5 populations. The only population without the kdr mutation was from Montardon, the non-treated field.

333 Discussion

In the present study, we confirmed the suspected resistance of *O. nubilalis* to lambda-cyhalothrin and deltamethrin in central France. Results further indicate that both high activity of detoxification enzymes and the presence of the kdr mutation may be responsible for the resistance. Results allow a better understanding of the recent problems of control of *O. nubilalis* with pyrethroids observed in cornfields of central/northern France.

Cross-resistance, i.e. that two or more resistances are determined by a similar mechanism, is often found between active compounds of the pyrethroid family regardless of the mechanism involved (Zimmer and Nauen 2011, Dykes et al. 2015). In our study, resistance to deltamethrin was not as high as for lambda-cyhalothrin (Table 3) (highest RR=7.67 as compared to RR=63.79 respectively) but was strongly correlated with it which is an indication of cross-resistance. A single population, Epieds en Beauce, did not follow this pattern (high resistance to lambda-cyhalothrin and little resistance to deltamethrin), calling for a further investigation of resistance mechanisms.

In our sample, both augmented enzymatic activities involved in the detoxification of insecticides, and the kdr mutation may be responsible for the observed resistance.

Analyses of enzymatic activities gave mixed results. First EST activities of resistant individuals from all populations did not differ from that of the reference strain, suggesting no link to resistance in contrast to reports in other insect species (Kranthi et al. 2001, Thalavaisundaram et al. 2012). Contrarily male resistant individuals exhibited higher MFO activity than the reference strain in four populations and resistant females from one population exhibited higher GST activity than the reference. Interestingly, the population where females exhibited higher GST activity was also the one exhibiting low MFO activity for males, a possible indication that there could be two profiles of populations where selection would favour one or the other mechanism because overexpression of the two enzyme families would be too costly. The role of MFO enzymes in resistance to pyrethroids has been observed in other species (Scott 1999, Zimmer and Nauen 2011, Gao et al. 2012) and differential expression of MFOs between sexes is frequent (Højland et al. 2014). However, differential expression was seldom related to differences in insecticide resistance (see e.g. female-linked resistance to spinosad in the housefly, Markussen and Kristensen (2012).. Here these amplified MFO activities were observed only in males. The females even had lower MFO activity than the reference strain in two populations. The reference strain had comparable activity to the untreated population (Montardon), suggesting that it is a satisfactory control. MFO activity was not the only mechanism determining resistance in these populations. But evidence prove its importance: the proportion of females was higher in the two ones with little MFO activities than in the four populations with high MFO activities in males, ( $\chi^2 = 4.9$ , df = 1, p = 0.026). As for the MFO, GST have been previously described as responsible in case of Lepidoptera resistance to pyrethroids (Yu and Nguyen 1992, Bouvier et al. 2002). As suspected for resistance to pyrethroids, a mutation in the sodium channel gene was found in a resistant individual at the locus of the widespread kdr mutation. This result is in line with the bioassay results showing cross-resistance between lambda-cyhalothrin and deltamethrin

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

because these two active ingredients target both the sodium channel. Contrarily, we did not find the super kdr resistance which also confers resistance to pyrethroids in many insects species (Soderlund and Knipple 2003). However, we investigated super kdr in only one individual so that we may have missed it. The finding of the kdr mutation allowed developing a molecular detection tool based on QM13 PCR-RFLP. It enables testing the presence of kdr in 37 individuals at low cost. This tool may provide a large-scale picture of the distribution of this mutation in our study region. It gave very obvious results and thus appeared as a good candidate for high throughput monitoring studies that would be very useful for detecting the presence of the mutation when resistance is suspected or for resistance management programs in situations where the resistance is caused by kdr. Such a tool has already been developed in many other pests especially on codling moth (*Cydia pomonella*) or the green peach aphid (*Myzus persicae*) (Brun-Barale et al. 2005, Cassanelli et al. 2005).PCR-RFLP are routinely used by monitoring frameworks (IRAC or governmental) to visualise resistance progression in these species. The tool we developed should be combined with other monitoring techniques when the other resistance mechanisms will have been deeper investigated. Knock-down resistance mutations are usually considered to be recessive (Soderlund and Knipple 2003). Here, out of the 26 individuals that survived high insecticide concentration, only 10 were homozygote resistant. Fourteen individuals carried only one copy of the mutated allele indicating either that its expression was dominant in the conditions of the test or more likely that these individuals also expressed another resistance mechanism. Lastly, two other individuals from Semerville were homozygotes for the non-mutated allele at the kdr locus although they survived high insecticide concentrations. In that case, another mechanism than the kdr mutation is necessarily at play. Both enzymatic activity and possibly the presence of another mutation in sodium channel may be involved. Combinations of different resistance mechanisms including kdr and different MFO genes or transcription factors were found in four

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

house fly strains resistant to the pyrethroid permethrin (Scott and Kasai 2004). More intensive sampling would be needed to look deeper at the combination of these mechanisms at the individual level in a panel of resistant populations. The kdr mutation was found in locations within 480 km radius. It is therefore disseminated on the French territory. Such distribution suggests either that the mutation event took place a long time ago and was spread after that, or that it took place in different locations independently. The first hypothesis is possible because pyrethroids are used for several decades. Indeed, O. nubilabis is not known to have a high mobility (Showers et al. 2001). Furthermore, population Rouffach from east France, which also carries the mutation is unlikely to exchange genes with the others as it is a strict monovoltine race showing genetic isolation (Thomas et al. 2003). Multiple appearances of the kdr mutation in different locations was reported in other pest species (Franck et al. 2012, Rinkevich et al. 2012b, Rinkevich et al. 2012a). Its maintenance in populations may be related to a small fitness cost as previously observed (Foster et al. 1999, Sakyi et al. 2005, Brito et al. 2013). The surprisingly long interval between first pyrethroid use and the report of field resistance could be due to an overall weak selection pressure. The treated area is relatively small in France, with only one hectare out of six treated due to low levels of damage, and treatment frequency is limited to 1 or 2 applications per year in France. Moreover, Ostrinia nubilalis is polyphagous, more than 224 plant species have been recorded as hosts by Hodgson in 1928. So it can live in untreated reguges area, forming pool of susceptibles individuals. The landscape of mixed farming allow movement of this pest between refuges area and corn crops. This has resulted in diluting the resistance, making more durable chemical control even monospecific with pyrethroids. It could also be caused by a recessive inheritance of the mutation under field conditions making it necessary that the kdr allele reaches a high frequency before resistant (homozygous) individuals are observed. The use of pyrethroids dating back to the 1970's and

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

a local insecticide intensity higher than average in a local region in central France, may explain why resistance was first reported there. Also, the presence of resistant homozygotes in the tested individuals suggests that the kdr allele is present at high frequency in these populations.

428 Conclusion

The resistance of *O. nubilabis* to pyrethroids in France seems to result from a combination of resistance mechanisms. First studies on insecticide resistance reported simple inheritance (Roush and McKenzie 1987) and semi-dominant expression of resistance (Holloway 1986). But in contrast, recent research suggests high evolutionary plasticity of resistance (Gao et al. 2012) and new genomics studies demonstrate the wide variety of genes involved in resistance (Faucon et al. 2015). This change is probably due to the lasting and widespread pesticide use allowing the accumulation of multiple mechanisms providing partial resistance to a broad spectrum of molecules. Understanding how these mechanisms are combined within populations or individuals is an essential subject for future research.

# 440 **Tables**

443

Table 1: List of primers used to amplify part of sodium channel gene containing the kdr and

# super-kdr locus in Ostrinia nubilalis.

Primer name	Sequence
Skdr-F	5'-GGCCGACACTTAATTTACTCATC-3'
SKdr-R	5'-TTCCCGAAAAGTTGCATACC-3'
Universal M13	5'- <u>GTTGTAAAACGACGGCCAGT</u> -3'
Os-Kdr1	5'-GCACAGTTTCATGATTGTGTTC-3'
Os-Kdr2	5'- CAGGGCCAAGAAAAGGTTAAG -3'
OsNa-R2	5'- GAAGATCCGAAATTTGACAG -3'

**Table 2**: Probit analyses of bioassays performed on seven field populations. Lethal concentrations statistically different from the reference strain (non-overlapping confidence intervals) are marked with a star.  $^{1}$  RR $^{a}$  = Resistance Ratio compared to the reference strain. RR $^{a}$  = Resistance Ratio compared to the most susceptible field population: Montardon for lambda-cyhalothrin, and Rouffach for deltamethrin.

	lambda-cyhalothrin						deltamethrin					
	n	LC50 (CI)	LC90 (CI)	RR <sup>a</sup> (at LC50)	RR <sup>b</sup> (at LC50)	$\chi^2$	n	LC50 (CI)	LC90 (CI)	RR <sup>a</sup> (at LC50)	RR <sup>b</sup> (at LC50)	$\chi^2$
Epieds-en-Beauce,	566	137.79 *	372.40 *	63.79	31.31	11.4	268	12.61 *	99.11 *	2.22	2.53	28.3
Semerville, 41	484	(69.47 - 178.24) 61.69 *	(299.97 - 621.23) 235.30 *	28.56	14.02	36.8	328	(8.97 - 16.81) 43.50 *	(61.45 - 223.27) 232.24 *	7.67	8.73	21.8
Tripleville, 41	443	(48.93 - 75.64) 61.36 *	(171.08 - 398.44) 562.99 *	28.41	13.95	17.7	208	(30.96 - 57.04) 39.22 *	(146.70 - 586.37) 133.36 *	6.92	7.87	9.9
Labosse, 41	387	(39.50 - 96.64) 27.51 *	(275.80 - 2419.0) 88.36 *	12.74	6.25	7.4	198	(28.12 - 62.80) 11.05	(75.93 - 1118.40) 29.04	1.95	2.21	12.8
Binas, 41	257	(10.67 - 230.88) 17.27 *	(42.34 - 2.67 10 <sup>8</sup> ) 121.08 *	8	3.92	20.2	215	(5.35 - 20.44) 20.40	(17.01 - 388.55) 363.50 *	3.6	4.09	5.1
		(11.60 - 23.88) 5.30	(70.54 - 357.26) 22.16 *					(1.67 - 54.26) 4.98	(105.32 - 7.25 e+05) 12.00			
Rouffach, 68	889	(2.71 - 7.55) 4.40	(14.46 - 61.25) 23.05 *	2.45	1.20	10.6	438	(3.44 - 6.46) 5.14	(8.90 - 21.73) 34.28	0.88	-	22.3
Montardon, 64	704	(3.25 - 5.78)	(15.24 - 45.91)	2.04	-	40.1	311	(2.11 - 18.89)	(12.06 - 284.49)	0.90	1.03	4.4
Ref strain	241	2.16 (1.64 - 2.74)	6.56 (4.84 - 10.85)	-	0.49	14.7	192	5.67 (4.47 - 6.91)	16.12 (12.45 - 24.55)	-	1.10	27.4

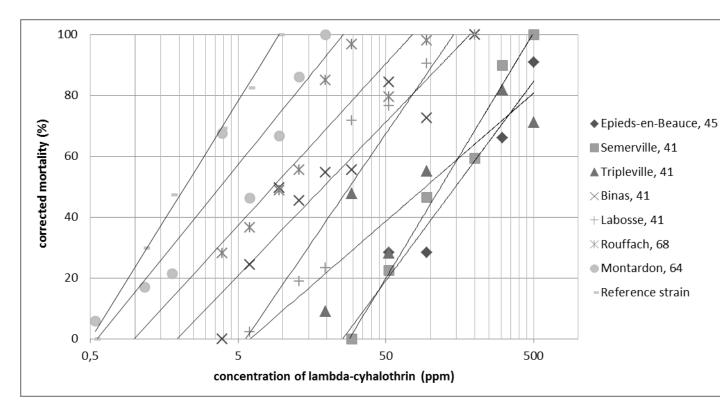
**Table 3**: Enzymatic activities of EST, GST and MFO on adult abdomens of resistant individuals from seven field populations and a reference strain of *O. nubilalis*. Activity ratio is calculated compared to the reference strain. Populations are ranked in descending order according to their resistance ratio to lambda-cyhalothrin. n= number of samples. Letters indicate homogenous subsets output obtain with a post hoc test ( $\alpha$ <0.05).

Donulation	EST activities (nmol α-naphtol/min/mg prot)		GST activities (μmol of CDNB-GS/min/mg prot)				MFO activities (pg of 7-HC/min/mg prot)			
Population	mean of EST	Activity Ratio	mean of GST activity ± SD		Activity Ratio		mean of MFO activity ± SD		Activity Ratio	
	activity ± SD		Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Epieds-en-	87.83 ± 50.15	2.46	730.63 ± 174.58 <sup>ab</sup>	1360.77 ± 591.23	3.24	1.44	86.87 ± 35.59 <sup>b</sup>	599.85 ± 370.28 <sup>b</sup>	2.13	3.67
Beauce, 45	(n=34)	2.16	(n=17)	(n=15)			(n=20)	(n=15)		
Comonuillo 11	85.70 ± 61.89	2.10	1009.58 ± 209.84 <sup>b</sup>	2050.14 ± 1046.30	4.40	2.17	21.75 ± 8.68 <sup>a</sup>	72.81 ± 45.73 <sup>a</sup>	0.53	0.44
Semerville, 41	(n=36)		(n=22)	(n=16)	4.48		(n=34)	(n=27)		
Tripleville, 41	83.93 ± 48.22	2.06	887.11 ± 726.05 <sup>ab</sup>	1735.04 ± 958.35	3.94	1.83	51.71 ± 18.05 <sup>b</sup>	938.35 ± 493.61 <sup>b</sup>	1.27	5.73
Tripieville, 41	(n=39)		(n=21)	(n=23)	3.94		(n=25)	(n=33)		
Labosse, 41	27.29 ± 13.39	0.67	1172.64 ± 468.35 <sup>ab</sup>	492.62	5.21	0.52	19.48 ± 7.70 <sup>a</sup>	161.94 ± 111.05 <sup>a</sup>	0.48	0.99
Lubusse, 41	(n=10)		(n=9)	(n=1)			(n=20)	(n=7)		
Binas, 41	72.37 ± 46.29	1.78	1002.14 ± 691.92 <sup>ab</sup>	1658.17 ± 958.14	4.45	1.75	110.20 ± 25.48 <sup>b</sup>	488.04 ± 221.32 <sup>b</sup>	2.71	2.98
billus, 41	(n=16)		(n=9)	(n=7)			(n=10)	(n=12)		
Rouffach, 68						79.47 ± 74.97 <sup>ab</sup>	452.04 ± 280.11 <sup>b</sup>	1.95	2.76	
noujjucii, oo	_	-	_		-	-	(n=9)	(n=3)	1.95	2.70
Montardon, 64	77.17 ± 26.25	1.89	157.86 ± 45.67 <sup>a</sup>	1011.53 ± 266.76	0.64	1.07	37.19 ± 8.66 <sup>b</sup>	299.30 ± 196.62 <sup>ab</sup>	0.91	1.83
ivionitui uon, 64	(n=10)	1.89	(n=8)	(n=2)	0.64	1.07	(n=7)	(n=4)		
Reference strain	40.74 ± 18.75	_	244.86 ± 34.87 <sup>a</sup>	944.81 ± 161.46	_		40.73 ± 11.32 <sup>b</sup>	163.63 ± 63.33 <sup>a</sup>	_	
nejerence strum	(n=93)	_	(n=49)	(n=45)	_	<del>-</del>	(n=50)	(n=29)	_	_

Table 4: Genotypes of 37 individuals selected (see mat and met) from 6 field populations at the kdr locus. The last column gives the resistance ratio to lambda-cyhalothrin at the LC50.

	R-R	R-S	S-S	Res Ratio
Epieds-en-Beauce	1	3		63.79
Semerville	3	8	2	28.56
Tripleville	5	2		28.41
Binas	1			8.00
Rouffach	1	4	2	2.45
Montardon			5	2.04

# 462 Figure 1



### 469 Figure 2

#### Sodium channel α-subunit.

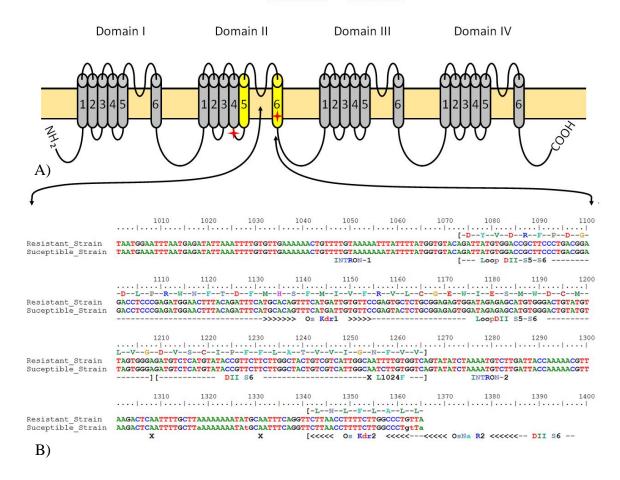


Figure legends Figure 1: Concentration-mortality response curves for the bioassay performed with lambdacyhalothrin on seven populations and a reference strain of O. nubilalis. Figure 2: (A) Diagram of the domain II of sodium channel protein and proposed folding of the membrane segments (S1 to S6). (B) Nucleotide and amino acid sequences of the IIS4-IIS6 region of the susceptible moth (individual n°3 from Montardon) and the resistant one (individual n°205 from Semerville). The kdr substitution L1014F is placed, primer pair used for RFLP-PCR is located in the sequence and loci cut by TasI endonuclease are marked by crosses. 

# **References Cited**

- **Abbott, W. S. 1925.** A method of computing the effectiveness of an insecticide. J. Econ. Entomol. 18: 275-277.
- Bohnenblust, E. W., J. A. Breining, J. A. Shaffer, S. J. Fleischer, G. W. Roth, and J. F.
   Tooker. 2014. Current European corn borer, *Ostrinia nubilalis*, injury levels in the
   northeastern United States and the value of Bt field corn. Pest Manag. Sci. 70: 1711 1719.
  - Bourguet, D., J. Chaufaux, M. Seguin, C. Buisson, J. L. Hinton, T. J. Stodola, P. Porter, G. Cronhohn, L. L. Buschman, and D. A. Andow. 2003. Frequency of alleles conferring resistance to Bt maize in French and US corn belt populations of the European corn borer, *Ostrinia nubilalis*. Theor. Appl. Genet. 106: 1225-1233.
  - Bouvier, J. C., T. Boivin, D. Beslay, and B. Sauphanor. 2002. Age-dependent response to insecticides and enzymatic variation in susceptible and resistant codling moth larvae. Arch. Insect Biochem. Physiol. 51: 55-66.
  - **Bradford, M. 1976.** A rapid and sensitive method for the quantification of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. Anal Biochem. 72: 248-254.
  - Bravo, A., S. Likitvivatanavong, S. S. Gill, and M. Soberon. 2011. *Bacillus thuringiensis*: A story of a successful bioinsecticide. Insect Biochem. Molec. 41: 423-431.
  - Brito, L. P., J. G. B. Linss, T. N. Lima-Camara, T. A. Belinato, A. A. Peixoto, J. B. P. Lima, D. Valle, and A. J. Martins. 2013. Assessing the Effects of *Aedes aegypti* kdr Mutations on Pyrethroid Resistance and Its Fitness Cost. PLoS One 8.
  - Brun-Barale, A., J. Bouvier, D. Pauron, J. Berge, and B. Sauphanor. 2005. Involvement of a sodium channel mutation in pyrethroid resistance in *Cydia pomonella* L, and development of a diagnostic test. Pest Manag. Sci. 61: 549-554.
  - **Busvine, J. R. 1951.** Mechanism of resistance to insecticide in houseflies. Nature 168: 193-195.
- Caffrey, D. J., and L. H. Worthley. 1927. A progress report on the investigations of the European corn borer, vol. no.1476, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. :.
- Cassanelli, S., B. Cerchiari, S. Giannini, D. Bizzaro, E. Mazzoni, and G. C. Manicardi.
   2005. Use of the RFLP-PCR diagnostic test for characterizing MACE and kdr
   insecticide resistance in the peach potato aphid *Myzus persicae*. Pest Manag. Sci. 61:
   91-96.
- Dykes, C. L., R. B. S. Kushwah, M. K. Das, S. N. Sharma, R. M. Bhatt, V. Veer, O. P.
   Agrawal, T. Adak, and O. P. Singh. 2015. Knockdown resistance (kdr) mutations in
   Indian Anopheles culicifacies populations. Parasites Vectors 8.
  - **Farnham, A. W. 1977.** Genetics of resistance of houseflies (*Musca domestica* L.) to pyrethroids .1. knock-down resistance. Pestic. Sci. 8: 631-636.
- Faucon, F., I. Dusfour, T. Gaude, V. Navratil, F. Boyer, F. Chandre, P. Sirisopa, K.
   Thanispong, W. Juntarajumnong, R. Poupardin, T. Chareonviriyaphap, R.
   Girod, V. Corbel, S. Reynaud, and J. P. David. 2015. Identifying genomic changes
   associated with insecticide resistance in the dengue mosquito *Aedes aegypti* by deep
   targeted sequencing. Genome Res. 25: 1347-1359.
- Foster, S. P., C. M. Woodcock, M. S. Williamson, A. L. Devonshire, I. Denholm, and R. Thompson. 1999. Reduced alarm response by peach-potato aphids, *Myzus persicae* (Hemiptera: Aphididae), with knock-down resistance to insecticides (kdr) may

- impose a fitness cost through increased vulnerability to natural enemies. B. Entomol. Res. 89: 133-138.
- Franck, P., M. Reyes, J. Olivares, and B. Sauphanor. 2007. Genetic architecture in codling moth populations: comparison between microsatellite and insecticide resistance markers. Mol. Ecol. 16: 3554-3564.
  - Franck, P., M. Siegwart, J. Olivares, J. F. Toubon, and C. Lavigne. 2012. Multiple Origins of the Sodium Channel kdr Mutations in Codling Moth Populations. PLoS One 7.
  - **Fuentes-Contreras, E., M. Reyes, W. Barros, and B. Sauphanor. 2007.** Evaluation of azinphos-methyl resistance and activity of detoxifying enzymes in codling moth (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae) from central Chile. J. Econ. Entomol. 100: 551-556.
  - **Gao, Q., M. Li, C. F. Sheng, J. G. Scott, and X. H. Qiu. 2012.** Multiple cytochrome P450s overexpressed in pyrethroid resistant house flies (*Musca domestica*). Pestic. Biochem. Phys. 104: 252-260.
  - **Hall, T. A. 1999.** BioEdit: A User-Friendly Biological Sequence Alignment Editor and Analysis Program for Windows 95/98/NT. Nucleic Acids Symposium Series 41.
  - Højland, D. H., K.-M. Vagn Jensen, and M. Kristensen. 2014. A comparative study of P450 gene expression in field and laboratory *Musca domestica* L. strains. Pest Manag. Sci. 70: 1237-1242.
  - **Holloway, G. J. 1986.** A theoritical-examination of the classical-theory of inheritance of insecticide resistance and the genetics of time to knockdown and dry body-weight in *Sitophilus-oryzae* (L) (coleoptera, curculionidae). B. Entomol. Res. 76: 661-670.
  - **Huang, Andow, and Buschman. 2011.** Success of the high-dose/refuge resistance management strategy after 15 years of Bt crop use in North America. Entomol. Exp. Appl. 140: 1-16.
  - **Hudon, M., E. J. LeRoux, and D. G. Harcourt. 1989.** Seventy years of European corn borer (*Ostrinia nubilalis*) research in North America. Agr. Zool. Rev. 3: 53-96.
  - Ingles, P. J., P. M. Adams, D. C. Knipple, and D. M. Soderlund. 1996. Characterization of Voltage-sensitive Sodium Channel Gene Coding Sequences from Insecticide-Susceptible and Knockdown-resistant House Fly Strains. Insect Biochem. Mol. Biol. 26: 319-326.
  - Kranthi, K. R., D. Jadhav, R. Wanjari, S. Kranthi, and D. Russell. 2001. Pyrethroid resistance and mechanisms of resistance in field strains of *Helicoverpa armigera* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae). J. Econ. Entomol. 94: 253-263.
  - **Liu, N., and J. G. Scott. 1998.** Increased transcription of CYP6D1 causes cytochrome P450-mediated insecticide resistance in house fly. Insect Biochem. Mol. Biol. 28: 531-535.
- Nauen, R., and N. Stumpf. 2002. Fluorometric microplate assay to measure glutathione Stransferase activity in insects and mites using monochlorobimane. Anal. Biochem. 303: 194-198.
- Reyes, M. 2007. La Résistance aux insecticides chez le carpocapse des pommes:
   Mécanismes, détection et variabilité géographique. PhD, University of Avignon
   Avignon.
- Reyes, M., and B. Sauphanor. 2008. Resistance monitoring in codling moth: a need for standardization. Pest Manag. Sci. 64: 945-953.
- Rinkevich, F. D., C. Su, T. A. Lazo, D. J. Hawthorne, W. M. Tingey, S. Naimov, and J.
   G. Scott. 2012a. Multiple evolutionary origins of knockdown resistance (kdr) in
   pyrethroid-resistant Colorado potato beetle, *Leptinotarsa decemlineata*. Pest.
- 580 Biochem. Physiol. 104: 192-200.

539

540541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

- 581 Rinkevich, F. D., S. M. Hedtke, C. A. Leichter, S. A. Harris, C. Su, S. G. Brady, V. 582 Taskin, X. Qiu, and J. G. Scott. 2012b. Multiple Origins of kdr-type Resistance in 583 the House Fly, Musca domestica. PLoS One 7.
- 584 Robertson, J. L., N. Savin, H. K. Preisler, and R. M. Russell. 2007. Bioassays with 585 arthropods, CRC press.
- 586 Roush, R. T., and J. A. McKenzie. 1987. Ecological genetics of insecticide and acaricide 587 resistance. Annu. Rev. Entomol. 32: 361-380.
- 588 Rozen, S., and H. Skaletsky. 1999. Primer3 on the WWW for General Users and for 589 Biologist Programmers, pp. 365-386. In S. Misener and S. Krawetz (eds.), 590 Bioinformatics Methods and Protocols, vol. 132. Humana Press.
  - Sakuma, M. 1998. Probit analysis of preference data. Appl. Entomol. Zoolog. 33: 339-347.
- Sakyi, K. Y., B. Sarfo, C. A. Brown, M. D. Wilson, and D. A. Boakye. 2005. Investigation 593 into the fitness cost of KDR insecticide resistance in Anopheles gambiae malaria vectors. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 73: 155-155.
- 595 Scott, J. G. 1999. Cytochromes P450 and insecticide resistance. Insect Biochem. Mol. Biol. 596 29: 757-777.
  - Scott, J. G., and S. Kasai. 2004. Evolutionary plasticity of monooxygenase-mediated resistance. Pest. Biochem. Physiol. 78: 171-178.
- 599 Showers, W. B., R. L. Hellmich, M. E. Derrick-Robinson, and W. H. Hendrix. 2001. 600 Aggregation and dispersal behavior of marked and released European corn borer (Lepidoptera: Crambidae) adults. Environ. Entomol. 30: 700-710. 601
  - Siegwart, M., J. B. Thibord, S. Maugin, R. Doucet, and Y. Flodrops. 2012. Premier cas de résistance de la pyrale du maïs (Ostrinia nubilalis) à la lambda cyhalothrine (pyréthrinoïde). Phytoma 658: 3.
  - Soderlund, D. M., and D. C. Knipple. 2003. The molecular biology of knockdown resistance to pyrethroid insecticides. Insect Biochem. Mol. Biol. 33: 563-577.
  - Stodola, T. J., D. A. Andow, A. R. Hyden, J. L. Hinton, J. J. Roark, L. L. Buschman, P. Porter, and G. B. Cronholm. 2006. Frequency of resistance to Bacillus thuringiensis toxin Cry1Ab in southern United States corn belt population of European corn borer (Lepidoptera: Crambidae). J. Econ. Entomol. 99: 502-507.
- 611 Thalavaisundaram, S., M. A. Wilkes, S. Mansfield, H. A. Rose, and G. A. Herron. 2012. Esterases and glutathione S-transferases contribute to pyrethroid resistance in western 612 613 flower thrips, Frankliniella occidentalis. Aust. J. Entomol. 51: 272-278.
  - **Thibord, J. 2009.** Ravageurs du maïs: Les foreurs sous haute surveillance. Perspectives agricoles 361.
- 616 Thomas, Y., M. T. Bethenod, L. Pelozuelo, B. Frerot, and D. Bourguet. 2003. Genetic 617 isolation between two sympatric host-plant races of the European corn borer, Ostrinia 618 nubilalis Hubner. I. sex pheromone, moth emergence timing, and parasitism. 619 Evolution 57: 261-273.
- Ulrich, V., and P. Weber. 1972. The O-dealkylation of 7-ethoxycoumarine by liver 620 621 microsomes: a direct fluorometric test. Physiol. Chem. 353: 1171-1177.
- 622 Walsh, P. S., D. A. Metzger, and R. Higuchi. 1991. Chelex (R)100 as a medium for simple extraction of DNA for PCR-based typing from forensic material. 10: 507. 623
- 624 Williamson, M., D. Martinez-Torres, C. A. Hick, and A. L. Devonshire. 1996. 625 Identification of the mutations in the housefly para-type sodium channel gene 626 associated with knockdown resistance (kdr) to pyrethroid resistance. Mol. Genet. 627 Genom. 252: 51-60.
- 628 Yu, S. J., and S. N. Nguyen. 1992. Detection and biochemical-characterisation of insecticide 629 resistance in the diamondback moth. Pest. Biochem. Physiol. 44: 74-81.

592

594

597

598

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

614

630	Zimmer, C. T., and R. Nauen. 2011. Cytochrome P450 mediated pyrethroid resistance in
631	European populations of <i>Meligethes aeneus</i> (Coleoptera: Nitidulidae). Pest. Biochem.
632	Physiol. 100: 264-272.
633	
634	