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- **Editorial overview: Pests and resistance: Resistance to**
- pesticides in arthropod crop pests and disease vectors:
- ⁴ mechanisms, models and tools
- ⁵ Chris Bass and Christopher M Jones

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Chris Bass received his PhD in Insect Molecular Biology in 2004 from the University of Nottingham and undertook postdoctoral research at Rothamsted Research. Chris moved his lab to the University of Exeter in 2016 to take up a Professorship in Applied Entomology. At Exeter he leads a multidisciplinary group working on the topic of adaptive evolution in insects. A significant Arthropod pests are a profound threat to agricultural production and the 11 health of humans and domestic animals. Worldwide, herbivorous insects and 12 mites cause an estimated 18-20% of crop yield loss per annum representing a 13 value of more than US\$470 billion [1]. In turn arthropod-vectored diseases 14 account for more than 17% of all infectious diseases, causing more than 700 15 000 deaths annually [2]. The control of these damaging pests has for many 16 years relied heavily on the use of synthetic pesticides, and the impact of 17 chemistry-based interventions has in many cases been spectacularly suc-18 cessful. For example, between 2000 and 2015 the number of deaths due to 19 malaria halved, 80% of which was attributed to the scale-up of insecticide-20 based vector control interventions [3]. Unfortunately, the over-reliance on 21 chemical pesticides has led to the emergence of widespread resistance, 22 posing a serious threat to the sustainable control of a large number of insect 23 pests. To effectively address this growing problem, it is necessary to 24 understand the origin, spread and maintenance of resistance, and the 25 underpinning mechanisms involved. The Pests and Resistance section 26 published last year (2017) explored the ecological and evolutionary drivers 27 of pesticide resistance, and how such knowledge can be used to inform 28 Insect Resistance Management (IRM) and Integrated Pest Management 29 Strategies (IPM) [4]. This current section focuses on the mechanisms that 30 underpin resistance. An important component of effective IRM/IPM is 31 integrating knowledge on the molecular mechanisms that cause resistance 32 into programmes that prevent, delay, or overcome resistance. For example, 33 once specific resistance-associated genes or mutations are identified and 34 validated, molecular diagnostics can be developed and used to monitor the 35 distribution and frequency of these resistance alleles in the field. Such data 36 can then be used to inform IPM and IRM strategies than aim to slow the 37 further development of resistance mediated by these mechanisms. 38

Despite the considerable parallels observed in the evolution of resistance in 39 arthropod crop pests and disease vectors, research on each system is often 40 considered (and reviewed) separately. In this section we provide reviews of 41 contemporary work on the evolution of pesticide resistance in both agricultural and medically important pests with the aim of highlighting commonalities and differences for further exploration. 44

Despite the applied importance of direct research on pest arthropods we 45 wish to acknowledge the profound impact that model species have contributed to our understanding of resistance, and in particular, the fruit fly, 47 *Drosophila melanogaster*. Perry and Batterham outline the enormous

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2 Editorial overview

research focus of the lab is to understand how insects detoxify the natural and synthetic xenobiotics they encounter in the environment. This includes both plant secondary metabolites and man-made insecticides. Chris works closely with industry and other stakeholders to translate the fundamental science into practical tools and strategies that aim to prevent, slow or overcome resistance in crop pests while protecting beneficial insects such as bee pollinators.

Christopher Jones is a Vector Biologist at the Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine (LSTM) and based at the Malawi-Liverpool-Wellcome Trust Clinical Research Programme (MLW) in Blantyre, Malawi. Chris has worked on multiple insects of medical and agricultural importance. Previously, Chris studied insecticide resistance mechanisms as part of his PhD and post-doctoral research. More recently, he has expanded his research portfolio exploring the biology and genomics of insect migration and dispersal in important Lepidopteran pests. He moved to LSTM/ MLW in 2017 to set up a vector biology unit in Malawi with the objective of applying his research skills for improved control of vectorborne diseases in the country.

contribution research on this species has provided on our understanding of 48 insecticide targets, metabolism and transport. In many ways, D. melanogaster 49 is a perfect model system coming equipped with a sophisticated array of 50 genetic tools and resources. These tools have been of great utility in 51 understanding the interactions between insecticides and the proteins they 52 target. For example, elegant studies using technologies available in D. 53 *melanogaster*, identified the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subunit, $D\alpha 6$ as an important target of the insecticide spinosad and characterised muta-54 tions that lead to resistance [5–7]. Equally significant advances have been 55 made using this model species on the proteins that metabolise and transport 56 pesticides. These include detoxifying enzymes and membrane transport 57 proteins, often providing a causal link between overexpression of metabolic 58 genes and resistance. Finally, as highlighted in this section last year [8], 59 while insecticide resistance is often thought to come at a cost, identifying 60 and quantifying these can be difficult if confounded by the different genetic 61 backgrounds of resistant and susceptible pest strains. D. melanogaster alle-62 viates this issue by allowing the effect of resistance genes or mutations to be 63 readily examined in a defined genetic background. The combination of this 64 with the wide range of behavioural assays that have been developed for this 65 species has provide unprecedented insights into the range of fitness costs 66 associated with a specific resistance mechanism [9,10]. 67

Turning to pest insects, four reviews in this section highlight recent work on 68 the mechanisms and mutations underpinning resistance evolution. The first 69 of these concerns metabolic resistance — the enhanced metabolism/seques-70 tration of insecticides by detoxification enzymes such as glutathione S-71 transferases (GSTs), cytochrome P450s (P450s) and carboxylcholinesterases 72 (CCEs). Paylidi et al. review recent work on the role of GSTs in the pesticide 73 resistance of crop pests and disease vectors. They find that GSTs in resistant 74 insects and mites confer resistance in two principle ways. Firstly, as for 75 enzymes belonging to other well characterised detoxification enzyme super-76 families, such as P450s and CCEs, GSTs can confer resistance via direct 77 metabolism or sequestration of chemicals. However, in contrast to these 78 other enzyme groups, GSTs may also indirectly mediate resistance by 79 providing protection against oxidative stress induced by insecticide expo-80 sure [11]. GST resistance by both mechanisms is primarily mediated by 81 overexpression of the specific enzyme involved, however, recent work on 82 insecticide resistance in the African malaria vector Anopheles funestus, has 83 demonstrated that qualitative as well as quantitative alterations to GSTs can 84 lead to resistance [12]. The GST AfGSTe2 is overexpressed in DDT 85 resistant populations of An. funestus, however, a single amino acid substitu-86 tion (L119F) in this enzyme, only found in resistant populations, enlarges 87 the DDT-binding cavity, leading to increased DDT metabolism [12]. 88

While reports of resistance mediated by metabolic or target-site mechanisms 89 are now commonplace a third mechanism - reduced penetration of insec-90 ticide through the insect cuticle — has been much less frequently reported, 91 and consequently is comparatively poorly understood. Balabanidou et al. 92 highlight contemporary work on this topic and discuss outstanding knowl-93 edge gaps. To date, two primary mechanisms of penetration resistance have 94 been described, physical changes in cuticular thickness and alterations in the 95 chemical composition of the cuticle. The challenge for recent studies has 96 been understanding how these alterations arise. New insights on these 97 topics have been provided by recent work on the malaria vector Anopheles 98 gambiae [13]. A multi-insecticide resistant strain of A. gambiae was found to have a significantly thicker cuticle than susceptible mosquitoes due to 99 enriched deposition of hydrocarbons to the epicuticle (the thin, cuticular 100

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