

PAULA DAIANA DE PAULO

**IMPACT OF CLIMATE CHANGE FACTORS AND MANAGEMENT TOOLS
ON THE FEEDING BEHAVIOR OF PHYTOSUCCIVOROUS INSECT PESTS**

Thesis presented to the Universidade Federal de Viçosa, as part of the requirements of the Entomology Graduate Program, to obtain title of *Doctor Scientiae*.

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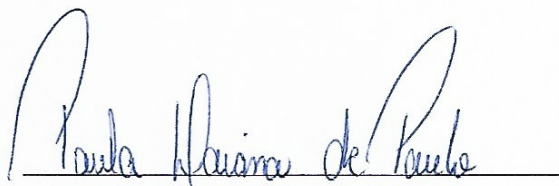
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“Know all the theories, master all the techniques, but as you touch a human soul be just another human soul” *Carl Gustav Jung*

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Abstract

DE PAULO, Paula Daiana, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, July, 2019. **Impact of climate change factors and management tools on the feeding behavior of phytosuccivorous insect pests.** Advisor: Eugênio Eduardo de Oliveira. Co-Advisors: Eliseu Jose Guedes Pereira and Mauricelia Ferreira Almeida Laranjeiras.

The population dynamics of phytosuccivorous pests may be impacted by factors associated to climate changes (e.g., elevated CO₂: eCO₂). eCO₂ induces alterations in plant metabolism, and indirectly, herbivorous insects performance, for instance, the feeding behavior of these insects may be affected by changes in physiology of plants, due to altered nutritional quality and traces of resistance mediated by these change. In addition, tools used for pest management in the current scenario may contribute to changing the status of non-target secondary pest populations (e.g., Phytosuccivorous). One of the most widely used management tools current is transgenic crops expressing *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) insecticidal proteins for the control of Lepidoptera and Coleoptera pests. One of the shortcomings of Bt technology is whether the expression of these insecticidal proteins in plant tissues can further non-target pests (e.g., phytosuccivorous). Considering the potential risks of losses caused by sap-sucking insects on Bt crops, there is a need to improve management strategies, and the proper use of insecticides is still the most effective tool for the control of these pests. The application of neonicotinoid insecticides alone and in combination with sodium chloride (NaCl) is a common practice in Brazilian agricultural (e.g., soybean) production. The use of the NaCl (0.5% w/v) associated with neonicotinoid insecticides has effectively suppressed target herbivores, and guaranteed greater sustainability (e.g., delaying the development of pesticide resistance and reducing the quantities of products used). However, the potential effects of this practice on non-target organisms (including secondary pests) have not been the subject of further studies. Given the above considerations, the study of interactions of eCO₂, Bt plants, insecticidal molecules, and sap-sucking insects is crucial. The elucidation of such knowledge gaps will also facilitate the development of new management strategies in order to mitigate negative effects in current and future scenarios. Phytosuccivorous insects such as aphids

and whiteflies have been reported causing considerable problems in maize and soybean crops, respectively. These insects cause direct and indirect damage to plants by sucking nutrients from the phloem sap and being vectors of viruses. Therefore, the present study takes an approach with investigations conducted to better understand the interaction of factors associated with climate change (eCO₂), genetically modified Bt plants (i.e., maize and soybean) and insecticidal molecules (i.e., imidacloprid associated with NaCl) in aphids and whiteflies. In the first chapter We examined the effects of eCO₂ on the morphology and biochemistry of a Bt soybean cultivar and the indirect effects on whiteflies life history and feeding behavior. Our results showed that there was a reduction in the nutritional quality of plants that indirectly affected biological parameters of *B. tabaci*. In addition, through the analysis of the whitefly feeding behavior, we verified changes in the traces of resistance of the plants. The second chapter deals with the interaction of Bt maize expressing two different toxins and the aphid *Rhopalosiphum maidis*. This work was carried out to evaluate the preference, performance and feeding behavior of *R.maidis* in maize plants with dual Bt genes (Cry1Ab and Cry1F) and in its non-Bt isoline. Our results showed that *R.maidis* presented a lower preference for the pyramided Bt maize, resulting in a lower number of aphids in these plants. During the feeding behavior test, the duration of the non-probe (insect without contact with the stylet in the plant) was significantly higher in Bt plants. Respectively, the frequency of activities related to phloem sap ingestion (E2 and E2s) was significantly lower in Bt maize expressing two different toxins. In the third chapter, used Bt soybean plants to evaluate the effects of a sublethal concentration of imidacloprid alone and in combination with NaCl to *B. tabaci*. The association of NaCl did not modify the toxicity of solutions containing imidacloprid, however it was possible to observe a more evident stress (i.e., alterations in the feeding behavior) in insects that fed on plants treated with CL₁₀ in the absence of NaCl. Our results provide important information that can corroborate with the development of strategies for the integrated management of phytosuccivorous insects in current and future scenarios.

Resumo

DE PAULO, Paula Daiana, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, julho de 2019. **Impactos de fatores associados a alterações climáticas e ferramentas de manejo de pragas no comportamento alimentar de fitosuccívoros.** Orientador: Eugênio Eduardo de Oliveira. Coorientadores: Eliseu Jose Guedes Pereira e Mauricelia Ferreira Almeida Laranjeiras.

A dinâmica populacional de insetos fitosuccívoros pode ser afetada por fatores associados a mudanças climáticas (por exemplo, elevado CO₂: eCO₂). eCO₂ pode provocar alterações no metabolismo das plantas e, indiretamente, afetar o desempenho de insetos herbívoros, por exemplo, o comportamento alimentar desses insetos pode ser afetado por alterações na fisiologia das plantas, devido a alteração da qualidade nutricional e traços de resistência mediados por essas mudanças. Além disso, ferramentas usadas para o manejo de pragas no cenário atual podem contribuir para mudança do status de populações de pragas secundárias não-alvo (por exemplo, insetos fitosuccívoros). Uma das ferramentas de manejo mais utilizadas atualmente são as culturas transgênicas expressando as proteínas inseticidas de *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) para o controle de pragas da ordem Lepidoptera e Coleoptera, principalmente. Uma das lacunas da tecnologia Bt é verificar se a expressão dessas proteínas inseticidas nos tecidos vegetais podem colaborar com aumento populacional de pragas secundárias não alvos (e.g., sugadores de seiva). Tendo em vista os riscos potenciais de perdas por insetos sugadores nas lavouras com cultivo Bt, há uma necessidade de melhorar o manejo, e o uso adequado de inseticidas ainda é o mais efetivo para o controle dessas pragas. A aplicação de inseticidas neonicotinoides isoladamente e em combinação com sal de cozinha (NaCl) é prática comum na produção agrícola (e.g., cultivo de soja brasileira). O uso do sal (0,5% p/v) associado a esse inseticida tem suprimido eficazmente herbívoros-alvo, garantido maior sustentabilidade (i.e., maior tempo de utilização). No entanto, os potenciais efeitos desta prática em organismos não alvos (incluindo pragas secundárias) não tem sido objeto de maiores estudos. Diante o exposto, o estudo das interações de eCO₂, plantas Bt, moléculas inseticidas e insetos fitosuccívoros é crucial. A elucidação dessas lacunas do conhecimento também facilitará o desenvolvimento de novas estratégias de manejo, a fim de mitigar

os efeitos negativos nos cenários atuais e futuros. Insetos fitossuccívoros como pulgões e moscas brancas têm sido relatados causando problemas consideráveis em lavouras de milho e soja, respectivamente. Estes insetos causam danos diretos e indiretos nas plantas por sugarem nutrientes da seiva do floema e serem vetores de viroses. Portanto, o presente estudo faz uma abordagem com investigações conduzidas objetivando melhor compreender a interação de fatores associados a alterações climáticas (i.e, CO₂ elevado), plantas Bt (i.e., milho e soja) e inseticidas (i.e., imidaclopride associado ou não ao NaCl) em insetos sugadores (e.g., pulgões e moscas brancas). No primeiro capítulo nós examinamos os efeitos do eCO₂ na morfologia e bioquímica de uma cultivar de soja Bt e os efeitos indiretos na história de vida e no comportamento alimentar de *B. tabaci*. Nossos resultados mostraram uma redução na qualidade nutricional das plantas, afetando indiretamente parâmetros biológicos de *B. tabaci*, além disso, através da análise do comportamento alimentar da mosca branca, verificamos alterações nos traços de resistência das plantas. O segundo capítulo aborda a interação milho piramidado com duplo gene Bt e o pulgão *Rhopalosiphum maidis*. O objetivo foi avaliar a preferência, desempenho e o comportamento alimentar de *R. maidis* em plantas de milho com duplo gene Bt (Cry1Ab e Cry1F) e na sua isolinha não-Bt. Nossos resultados mostraram que *R. maidis* apresentou menor preferência pelo milho Bt piramidado, resultando em menor permanência de pulgões nessas plantas. Durante o ensaio de comportamento alimentar, a duração da não sonda (inseto sem o contato com o estilete na planta) foi significativamente maior nas plantas Bt. Respectivamente, as atividades relacionadas a ingestão de seiva do floema (E2 e E2s) foi significativamente menor no milho com duplo gene Bt. No terceiro capítulo, utilizamos plantas de soja Bt para avaliarmos os efeitos da aplicação de uma concentração subletal do imidaclopride, associada ou não ao (NaCl), a mosca branca *B. tabaci*. A associação do NaCl não modificou a toxicidade das soluções contendo imidaclopride, no entanto foi possível observar um estresse mais evidente em moscas alimentadas em plantas tratadas com a CL₁₀ na ausência do NaCl. Nossos resultados fornecem importantes informações que podem corroborar com o desenvolvimento de estratégias para o manejo integrado de insetos sugadores em cenários atuais e futuros.

General introduction

Global atmospheric CO₂ concentrations has risen by approximately 280 up to 400 ppm since the industrial revolution (Bonan and Doney, 2018). The latest forecast indicates that atmospheric CO₂ concentration will rise to approximately 900 ppm by the year 2100 (IPCC, 2014). The effects of elevated CO₂ on plants include increases in photosynthetic rate, biomass and carbon: nitrogen (C: N) ratio (Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007). The insect–host plant interactions can be altered with elevated CO₂ (eCO₂) due to changes in the nutritional quality and physiology of the host plants. Several species of herbivorous insects (e.g., sap-sucking) have shown changes in biology and behavior when fed on less nutritious host plants under elevated CO₂ conditions (Oehme et al., 2013; Satishchandra et al., 2018; Oehme et al., 2013).

In addition, tools used for pest management in the current scenario may contribute to changing the status of non-target secondary pest populations (e.g., Phytosuccivorous). One of the most widely used management tools current worldwide is the cultivation of plants (soybeans, maize, and others) expressing Cry proteins of *Bacillus thuringiensis* (James, 2011), not only due to their high effectiveness in pest control but also due to the ease of cultivation. These genetically modified plants express Cry proteins from the genes of *B. thuringiensis* specific for Lepidoptera and Coleoptera (Head et al., 2001). Bt maize and soybeans often in combination with the genetic modification for herbicide tolerance have been widely cultivated worldwide (Bortolotto et al., 2014; James, 2011).

However, the widespread adoption of the first generation of transgenic crops expressing only one Cry protein has led to intense selection in insect populations and accelerated the evolution of resistance (James, 2011; Santos-Amaya et al., 2015; Tabashnik et al., 2013; Carrière et al., 2016; Tabashnik and Carrière, 2017). One of the strategies adopted to overcome these evolving resistance cases was the

use of "pyramid" Bt crops (Tabashnik et al., 2013; Brevault et al., 2013; Carrière et al., 2015). Pyramiding genes cause transgenic plants to express two or more Bt proteins that are different in mode of action but effective against the same target pest (Ghimire et al., 2011).

Although having high action specificity against Lepidoptera and Coleoptera, expression of Bt proteins in crops like maize and soybean can also produce unintended effects on individuals and populations of non-target insects as well as on the entire insect communities. The potential impacts of Bt plants on non-target phytophagous insects can be direct (by Bt toxin), indirect (by reducing competition with target insects), or a combination of both (Lumbierres et al., 2004). In fact, insertion of new genes may cause changes in plant quality as food for target and non-target herbivorous insects and thus altering reproductive ability or survival on the plant (Cuc et al., 2008). Therefore, it is important to understand the indirect impact of Bt plants on non-target species of pests as sap-sucking insects, where it is possible to occur population outbreaks that have often been neglected.

Considering the potential risks of losses by sap-sucking insects in crops of major economic importance with the adoption of high-cost technologies (e.g., Bt maize and soybeans), there is a need to improve the management of hemiptera insects in these crops. Thus, adequate use of insecticides is still the most effective for the control of these pests (Ghimire et al., 2011; Guedes, 2016). However, inadequate use of insecticides leads to substantial losses, such as the involvement of non-target organisms, the selection of resistant populations, and the occurrence of potential outbreaks of secondary pests (Sosa-Gómez and Silva, 2010; Guedes and Cutler, 2014; Tuelher et al., 2017; Castellanos et al., 2019).

Imidacloprid, the first neonicotinoid introduced, exhibits excellent contact and systemic activity and, therefore, has been largely used for the sustained

management of sap-sucking in agronomic production systems worldwide (Jeschke and Nauen, 2008). With the degradation of neonicotinoids in large culture under field conditions, it is likely that highly polyphagous secondary pests (e.g., *B. tabaci*) will be exposed to the sublethal concentrations of neonicotinoids for relatively long periods. In addition, the use of sodium chloride (NaCl, 0.5% w/v) mixed with solutions containing organophosphorus insecticides leads to a 50 % reduction in the dose of insecticide to be used without loss of control efficiency (Coro and Gazzoni, 1998). However, little is known about the physiological basis of this synergistic effect, which requires more research. Previous studies have reported that neonicotinoid insecticides negatively affect the feeding behavior of several Hemiptera, including the whitefly (Nauen, 1995; Elbert and Nauen, 2004; Wang et al., 2017). However, the sublethal effect of neonicotinoids with NaCl yet to be reported.

Sap-sucking insects such as aphids and whiteflies have been reported causing considerable problems in maize and soybean crops, respectively (Suekane et al., 2013). These insects cause direct and indirect damage to plants by sucking nutrients from the phloem sap and are vectors of viruses (Fernandes et al., 2009; Ragsdale et al., 2011; Inoue-Nagata et al., 2016). In order to study the feeding behavior of phytosuccivorous, the technique of EPG (Electrical Penetration Graphs) (Tjallingii, 1988) has been widely used. The technique consists of incorporating the insect and the plant into an electrical circuit coupled to a measuring system and a computer, resembling an electrocardiogram. At the moment the insect inserts the stylet into the plant tissue, the circuit is closed and a voltage variation occurs which produces waveforms and patterns that correspond to the location and stylet activity (ingestion or salivation) during feeding.

Thus, this work of thesis approaches the study of the feeding behavior,

through the EPG technique, the preference and performance of the *R. maidis* aphid in Bt maize plants with two resistance factors. In addition, the sublethal effect of the neonicotinoid insecticide imidacloprid, in association with or not to NaCl, and the effect of elevated CO₂ on Bt soybean plants in *B. tabaci* were also well addressed in this study. The results of this work contribute to a better understanding of the interaction of genetically modified plants, insecticides associated with NaCl and, effects of elevated CO₂ in the feeding behavior of phytosuccivorous. In addition, our results will also facilitate the development of new management strategies in order to mitigate the negative effects in current and future scenarios.

Therefore, the objectives of this work were: evaluate the feeding behavior and population performance of *Bemisia tabaci* in Bt soybean plants, expressing the Cry1Ac toxin exposed to elevated concentrations of CO₂. Evaluate the preference and feeding behavior of *Rhopalosiphum maidis* in Bt maize plants expressing two Cry proteins (Cry1AB and Cry IF); and finally, evaluate the susceptibility and feeding behavior of *Bemisia tabaci* in soybean plants exposed to neonicotinoid imidacloprid, in association or not with NaCl.

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Chapter **1**

Effects of elevated CO₂ on the biology and feeding behavior of *Bemisia tabaci* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) B biotype on Bt Soybean Plants (*Glycine max* L. Merr.)

Effects of elevated CO₂ on the biology and feeding behavior of *Bemisia tabaci* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) B biotype on soybean plants (*Glycine max* L. Merr.). Paula D.De Paulo, Elisa Garzo, Eugenio. E. Oliveira, Alberto Fereres;
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Abstract

The performance of herbivore insects is modulated by the quality of their host plants. Elevated CO₂ induce alterations in plant metabolism, which indirectly, may alter the performance and feeding behaviour of herbivorous insects due to changes in the nutritional quality of their host plants. Understanding how pests respond to future climate boosted by increasing CO₂ is essential to predict how they may affect food security. We investigated the effects of elevated CO₂ (eCO₂) on a polyphagous insect pest, the whitefly MEAM1 species or B biotype of *Bemisia tabaci*, that transmits more than 300 plant virus species, some of them causing devastating diseases worldwide. We examined the effects of eCO₂ on the morphology and biochemistry of a Bt-soybean cultivar and the indirect effects on the life history and the feeding behavior of *B. tabaci*. Our results showed that changes in the C:N concentration and in plant morphology under eCO₂, alters whitefly life history and feeding behavior. We observed a significant increase of the egg to adult developmental time and a decrease in the fertility and fecundity of *B. tabaci* in plants under eCO₂. In addition, *B. tabaci* that fed on soybeans grown under eCO₂ negatively affected several parameters related to phloem sap ingestion and host plant resistance (e.g., reduction of E2, E2s, longest E2 and greater contribution of E1 to phloem ingestion). We expect that soybeans grown under future climate conditions will negatively affect the performance and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* whiteflies, suggesting a reduction in the number of offspring and population growth.

Key words Integrated pest management, Electrical penetration graphs, whitefly,

Carbon dioxide, Climate Change, Fitness

1.1 Introduction

Global atmospheric CO₂ concentrations has risen by approximately 280 up to 400 ppm since the industrial revolution (Bonan and Doney, 2018). The latest forecast indicates that atmospheric CO₂ concentration will rise to approximately 900 ppm by the year 2100 (IPCC, 2014). The effects of elevated CO₂ on plants include increases in photosynthetic rate, biomass and carbon: nitrogen ratio (C:N) (Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007). The assimilation and allocation of C and N resources within plant tissues under elevated CO₂ inevitably alters the host-plant physiology (mainly primary and secondary metabolites). This occurs, especially in C₃ plants, in which the photosynthesis is limited by atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ (Gamage et al., 2018). In this way, the higher level of CO₂ in the atmosphere can contribute to higher yields in some plants (Korres et al., 2016; Ziska et al., 2007; Bisbis et al., 2018).

The increased CO₂ concentrations may promote higher yields in some plants and consequently, the nutritional quality for phytophagous insects may be altered. Generally, increases in carbon allocation reduce the amount of nitrogen in plant tissues, reducing the amount of soluble proteins and amino acids (Sun et al., 2009; Broberg et al., 2017). In addition, such changes may cause alteration in the production of secondary metabolites and plant defenses (Bidart-Bouzat and Imeh-Nathaniel, 2008; Casteel et al., 2008; Guo et al., 2014; DeLucia et al., 2012a; Zavala et al., 2013; Guo et al., 2014; Rajashekar, 2018; Teawkul and Hwang, 2018). Some studies have shown changes in sugar levels, flavonoids, caffeic acid, total phenolics, antioxidant capacity and jasmonic acid (JA) pathway in plants submitted to high concentration of CO₂ (Moretti et al., 2010; Jin et al., 2014; Becker and Kläring, 2016; Giri et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019).

The insect–host plant interactions can be altered with elevated CO₂ (eCO₂)

due to changes in the nutritional quality and physiology of their host plants. Several species of herbivorous insects have shown increased larval developmental duration when fed on less nutritious host plants under eCO₂ conditions (Coviella and Trumble, 1999; Satishchandra et al., 2018; Oehme et al., 2013a). Many plant-chewing insects increase their feeding rates on plants grown under eCO₂ to compensate for lower N levels in their host plant food source (Lindroth et al., 2001; Yin et al., 2010). In addition, Zavala et al. (2009) reported increased soybean susceptibility to two chewing insects, the Japanese beetle, and the western corn rootworm, by suppressing the expression of the proteinase inhibitor gene and other downstream genes of the JA pathway under eCO₂.

For sap-sucking insects these alterations in metabolic pathways and in plant nutritional quality can impact their behavior, biology, and their ability to transmit plant pathogens, in which the effects may differ according to the specific host plant (Coviella and Trumble, 1999; Robinson et al., 2012; DeLucia et al., 2012b; Dáder et al., 2016; Jones, 2016; Trebicki et al., 2017; Zavala et al., 2016). For example, the population abundance of *Rhopalosiphum maidis*, the feeding efficiency and fitness of *Myzus persicae* (Guo et al., 2017) and *B. tabaci* (biotype Q) (Li et al., 2011; Penalver-Cruz et al., 2019), has been positively affected when they fed of plants grown under eCO₂. Some other sap-sucking were not affected by eCO₂, such as *Aulacorthum solani* (Hughes and Bazzaz, 2001) and *B. tabaci* (biotype B) (Wang et al., 2014). Conversely, eCO₂ negatively altered the fecundity of *Rhopalosiphum padi* (Trebicki et al., 2016), body mass of *Brevicoryne brassicae* (Klaiber et al., 2012) and the populational abundance of *Acythosiphon pisum* (Hughes and Bazzaz, 2001). Additionally, elevated CO₂ reduced the efficiency of phloem sap ingestion by *Aphis craccivora* (Yan et al., 2018) and, decreased the fitness and transmission rate of Cucumber mosaic virus by *Myzus persicae* in bell pepper plants (Dader et al., 2016). In the face of what it is known, the impact

of eCO₂ on the growth, development, and transmission of plant viruses by their insect vectors seems to be host-plant specific.

Members of the complex of cryptic species known as *Bemisia tabaci* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) cause considerable economic losses worldwide (Oliveira et al., 2001; Gilioli et al., 2014). Until now, at least 39 cryptic species have been found in the *B. tabaci* complex based on mtCOI sequence divergence (Firdaus et al., 2013; Boykin and Barro, 2014; da F Barbosa et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2017). Some species of the *B. tabaci* complex are highly polyphagous and invasive, particularly in the Middle East–Asia Minor 1 biotype (MEAM1, known as B biotype) (Oliveira et al., 2001; EFSA, 2013; Boykin, 2014). This species cause devastating losses on important agricultural crops (e.g., soybean) (Oliveira et al., 2012; Barro et al., 2011; Pozebon et al., 2019) due to damage caused through direct feeding (phloem sap-sucking), toxin injection into the plant vascular system, and mainly, due to their transmission of various plant viruses (Navas-Castillo et al., 2011; Polston et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2019)

Soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr., Fabaceae] is one of the crops with the greatest introduction of technology for insect control, with the development of genetically modified plants. The cultivars of transgenic soybeans expressing proteins from cry genes of *Bacillus thuringiensis* and are agronomically called Bt soybeans. They were developed for effective pest control, this is to reduce the population size of serious target pests, from Lepidoptera order, in soybean fields (Yu et al., 2011, 2013, 2014; ISAAA, 2017). It has been observed in recent years an increase in the number of Bt non-target pest species (e.g., *B. tabaci* biotype B) in areas cultivated with Bt soybeans, mainly in the reproductive stages of the plant. It is consequence, perhaps, of the decrease in the applications of insecticides in areas with this technology and where *B. tabaci* was considered only as an occasional

pest, until recently. Although, it is now considered a key pest of soybean in some regions (Lima et al., 2002; Vieira et al., 2011; Oliveira et al., 2018).

Considering the economic relevance of soybean and the insect pest *B. tabaci* (MEAM1) worldwide, the study of insect-plant interactions under eCO₂ is crucial to evaluate its consequences on the environment and ecosystems, as well as to develop new management strategies. Ramos et al. (2019) reports that by 2050 and 2070 it will increase the plant susceptibility to *B. tabaci* and viruses in some regions, in order to mitigate negative effects in future scenarios. Researches that seek to understand the direct impacts of eCO₂ on changes in plant physiology and biochemistry and its indirect effects on herbivores, such as *B. tabaci*, can support the improvement of pest management strategies in a future climate change scenario. Therefore, the present study examines the feeding behavior using the Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG) technique and life history of *B. tabaci* MEAM1 in soybean Bt that were exposed to elevated level of CO₂ (eCO₂=700 ppm). We tested the hypothesis that elevated CO₂ increases plant biomass, C: N ratio, and changes in the chemical compound concentration of these plants, thus altering the feeding behavior habits and the population performance of *B. tabaci*.

1.2 Material & Methods

1.2.1 Plant material, whitefly population and CO₂ growth chamber conditions

Soybean plants (*Glycine max*) cv TMG 2185IPRO, were used to analyse the effects of elevated CO₂ on plant growth parameters, plant biochemistry, the fitness and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* Middle East-Asia Minor 1 species – (MEAM1). These plants express the Cry1Ab Bt toxin for resistance to several caterpillar species that attack soybean plants (Miklos et al., 2007) and bears tolerance to the herbicide glyphosate (Monsanto, 2013). The experiments were conducted at the Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the Spanish National Research Council (ICA-CSIC, Madrid, Spain) in two growth chambers with different CO₂ regimes: ambient CO₂ (aCO₂; 450 ppm) and elevated CO₂ (eCO₂; 700 ppm). Growing conditions were a temperature of 24:20°C (day: night); relative humidity:66%; photoperiod: 14:10 h (light: dark), with three Philips Green Power LED Production Modules Deep Red/Blue 150 on each shelf providing 200 $\mu\text{mol.m}^2.\text{s}^{-1}$ of light intensity at canopy level. The soybean seeds were sown into pots (13 cm of diameter) with a 1:2 mixture of vermiculite (Asfaltex S.A., Barcelona, Spain) and soil substrate (GoV4, Jiffy International, A.S. Norway). After sowing the pots were immediately transferred to each of the two growth chambers set at 400 and 700 ppm. Seven days after sowing, the seedlings started to be watered three times a week using 20-20-20 (N-P-K) Nutrichem fertilizer (Miller Chemical Fertilizer Corp., Pennsylvania, USA) at a dose of 1 g/L during the entire bioassays. Water in trays was maintained at a similar level between treatments and plants were rotated within the chambers to ensure there was no positional influence.

Colony of *B. tabaci* MEAM1 were kindly provided by Dr. J. López-Moya, Center for Research in Agricultural Genomics (CRAG-CSIC) Barcelona, Spain in 2012. The population was reared on eggplants (*Solanum melongena* L.) within metal-frame cages covered by insect-proof net in greenhouse conditions (temperature ranges of 24:20 ± 2 °C (day: night); a photoperiod of 16:8 h (light: dark); relative humidity of 70-80%) under high-pressure sodium lights (Osram Plantastar 400W E40). Whiteflies were synchronized prior to bioassay to guarantee age homogeneity at the time of the experiment (approximately one week old adults were used).

1.2.2 Whitefly life history

For each treatment, twenty soybean plants with three trifoliolate leaves fully developed (vegetative stage V3) per treatment, previously grown during 25 days under aCO₂ (450 ppm) and eCO₂ (700 ppm), were infested with ten couples of adult whiteflies placed in a clip-cage (2 cm of diameter) on the abaxial side of the second fully expanded leaves. After a period of 24 h, both clip-cages and whitefly adults were removed and the evolution of 10 eggs per plant was monitored daily until adult emergence in two environmentally-controlled climatic chambers (24:20 °C (day:night); RH:66%; photoperiod 14:10h) each under the two CO₂ concentration regimes (aCO₂ and eCO₂). The emerged whitefly adults (i.e, less than 24 h after emergence) were sexed and 20 couples (replicates) were formed for each treatment. Each whitefly couple was placed inside individual clip-cages on the second expanded leaf of a new set of plants that were previously grown during 25 days under either aCO₂ (450 ppm) or eCO₂ (700 ppm). Duration of the egg stage, duration of each nymph instars (1st, 2nd, 3rd and pupa) as well as the fecundity (total number of eggs laid by adult females) during 26 days and the fertility (percentage of hatched eggs) were evaluated for each treatment.

1.2.3 Probing and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* using the Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG) technique

Thirty soybean plants with three trifoliolate leaves fully developed (vegetative stage V3), previously grown during 25 days under either ambient (450 ppm) and elevated (700 ppm) CO₂ levels were used to study the probing and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* (MEAM1). The whitefly adult females were monitored using the Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG) technique for eight hours of recording. A thin gold wire (2 cm length × 12.5 μm in diameter) glued to a thin copper wire

(2 cm length) was attached to the pronotum of each whitefly with a tiny drop of water based silver-conducting glue paint (Rodríguez-López et al., 2011).

Whiteflies were acclimatized for approximately one-hour before the EPG recording and were placed on the abaxial side of the second youngest leaf of each soybean plant. Recordings were performed using two Giga-4 DC amplifiers with 1 Giga-Ohm input resistance (EPG Systems, Wageningen, The Netherlands). EPG output was set to 50x gain and data was acquired at 100 Hz using DATAQ Di 700-710 A/D data acquisition USB device card (Data Instruments, Ohio, USA). Recordings were conducted in laboratory conditions at 25 ± 2°C inside a Faraday cage to avoid electrical noise and interference. A new plant and insect was used for each recording. Data acquisition and EPG analysis from 15 individual adult whitefly females per treatment were conducted using Stylet+software (EPG Systems, Wageningen, The Netherlands). EPG variables related to the probing and feeding behavior of the whiteflies were processed and analysed using the EPG-Excel data Worksheet v 5.0 (Sarria et al., 2009).

1.2.4 Analysis of Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG) waveforms

Thirty-five EPG sequential and non-sequential variables (Table 1.1) from the EPG-Excel data workbook v. 5.0 were selected for each treatment. The whitefly feeding associated waveforms were identified. For identification, were previously correlated with behavioral events of *Trialeurodes vaporariorum* (West.) by Janssen et al. (1989) and in *B. tabaci* by Jiang et al. (1999). These waveforms were: waveform np, non-probing behavior (no stylet contact with the leaf tissue); waveform C, intercellular apoplastic stylet pathway where the insects show a cyclic activity of mechanical stylet penetration and secretion of saliva; waveform pd (potential drop), represents brief (4 to 12 s intracellular stylet punctures

during the pathway phase (C). Furthermore, there were two waveforms related with the phloem activity: waveform E1, salivation into phloem sieve elements at the beginning of the phloem phase; and waveform E2, correlated with passive phloem sap uptake from the sieve elements. The term “probe” refers to any type of event during the period, in which the stylet of an individual insect is located in the plant tissue. And “non-probe” refers to the event with no waveform (indicating that the individual has its stylet outside plant tissues).

The EPG variables (mean \pm standard error) were calculated as described in [Backus et al. \(2007\)](#): PPW, proportion of individuals that produced the waveform type; NWEI, Number of Waveform Events per Insect was calculated using the sum of the number of events of a particular waveform divided by the total number of insects under each treatment; WDI, Waveform Duration per Insect was calculated using the sum of durations of each event of a particular waveform made by each individual insect that produced that waveform divided by the total number of insects under each treatment. If there was no event of a particular waveform then scored by 0, WDEI, Waveform Duration per Event per Insect was the sum of the duration of the events for a particular waveform divided by the total number of events of that particular waveform under each insect.

Table 1.1: Sequential and non-sequential EPG variables used to compare the probing and feeding behavior of *Bemisia tabaci* female adults on soybean plants grown under aCO₂ (450 ppm) and eCO₂ (700 ppm) concentrations.

<i>Non-sequential variables</i>	<i>Non-sequential variables %</i>
Number of np	% C
Number of probe	% E1
Number of pd	% E2
Number of C	% E2s
Number of E1	% Contribution of E1 to phloem phase
Number of single E1	<i>Index</i>
Number of E2	Potential E2 index
Total duration of np	
Total probing time	<i>Sequential variables</i>
Total duration of C	Time to 1st probe from Start of EPG
Total duration of pd	Time from 1st probe to 1st E
Total duration of E	Time from the Beginning of that probe to 1st E
Total duration of E1	E1 followed by first sustained E2 (>10 min)
Total duration of E2	Time to from start of EPG 1st sustained E2 (10 minutes)
Total duration of sustained E2 (longer than 10 minutes)	Time from 1st probe to 1st sustained E2 (10 minutes)
Duration of the longest E2	Time from 1st probe to 1st E2
Duration of nonphloematic phase	Time from the beginning of that probe to 1st E2
Duration of first E2	Time from the Beginning of that probe to 1st sustained E2 (>10 min)

1.2.5 Plant biomass and foliar nutrient content

The experiment was conducted after the life history and EPG studies, and soybean plants were evaluated at two different ages: V3 vegetative stage (three trifoliolate leaves fully developed) on the EPG study, and V6 vegetative stage (five trifoliolate leaves developed) on the life history study, which required a longer duration for the execution of assay .

Ten soybean plants of each assay (life history and EPG studies) were processed, each plant was considered a replicate, totaling 10 replicates per treatment. Leaves and stems of each plant were separated, the stem length was measured and the leaves counted. After the evaluation of the morphological parameters, the samples of each test were divided into two parts. Five soybean plants of each assay was used to determine fresh weight, and subsequently, dried at 60 °C for dry weight determination. Another five soybean plants were frozen at -80 °C for further chemical analysis, totaling five replicates of each treatment to both assay . For the chemical analysis, the frozen -80°C samples were lyophilized to remove frozen water without the liquid phase, subsequently the leaf and stem samples were macerated for analysis. The total carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) concentration in the leaf tissue were determined by dry combustion using a Thermo Flash 2000 NC soil analyzer. The C: N ratio was calculated by dividing the C concentration by the N concentration for each leaf sample.

1.2.6 Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics, version 24.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY). Raw data were checked for normality and homogeneity of variance using the Shapiro-Wilk W-Test before performing the parametric test. Data were transformed with $\ln(x+1)$ or $\arcsin\sqrt{x+1}$, if need to

reduce heteroscedasticity. The data that followed a Gaussian distribution were analyzed by Student *t*-Test ($P > 0.05$). When data did not follow the normality assumptions, a non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U*-test ($P < 0.05$) was performed.

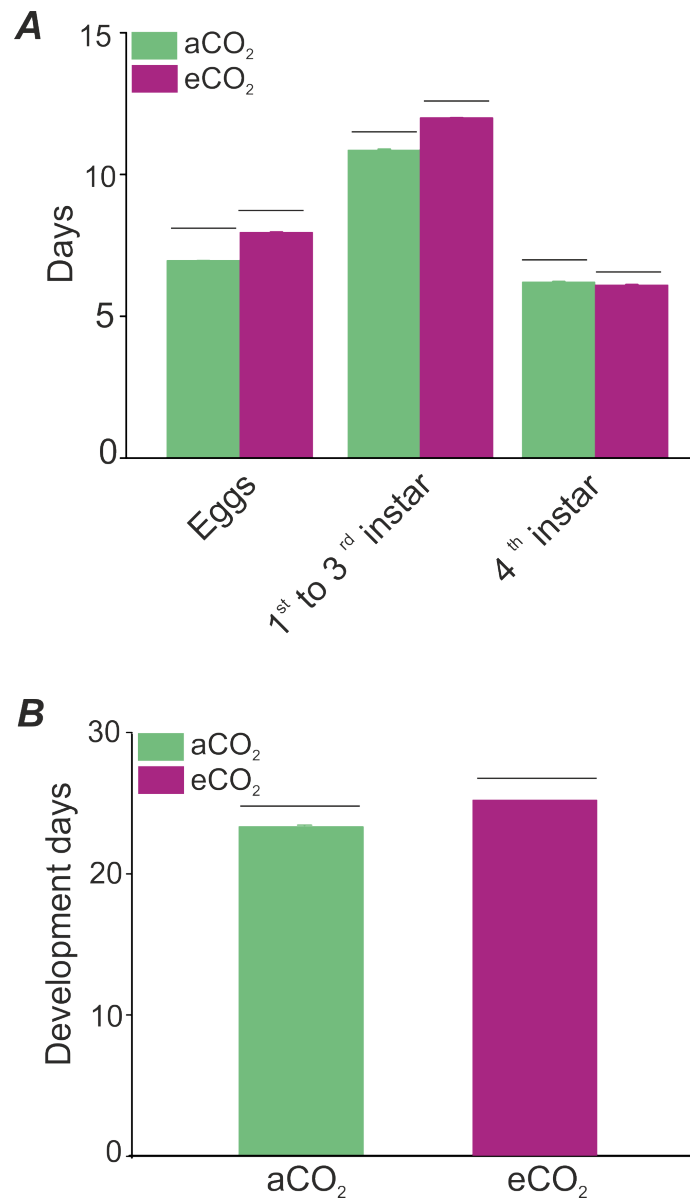
1.3 Results

1.3.1 *Bemisia tabaci* life-history

Elevated CO₂ levels on soybean plants affected all life-history parameters of *B. tabaci* (Figure 1.1). Developmental periods of immature stages of whitefly were negatively affected by elevated CO₂. The mean duration of the embryonic period of laid eggs (aCO₂: 6.96 ± 0.01 days; eCO₂: 7.96 ± 0.01 days, $U = 994.5$, $P = < 0.0001$) and nymphal (1st, 2nd and 3rd instars) developmental period (aCO₂: 10.86 ± 0.03 days; eCO₂: 12.00 ± 0.04 days, $U = 4487.0$, $P = < 0.0001$) were significantly longer on soybean exposed to elevated CO₂ than on the ones exposed to ambient CO₂. However, the development of the pupa stage was significantly longer in aCO₂ than in eCO₂ (aCO₂: 6.20 ± 0.03 days; eCO₂: 6.10 ± 0.03 days, $U = 24143.5$, $P = 0.013$) (Figure 1.1 A). In soybean plants exposed to eCO₂, the total development time (from egg to adult emergence) of *B. tabaci* was significantly higher when compared to ambient CO₂ (aCO₂: 24.04 ± 0.04 days; eCO₂: 26.08 ± 0.04 days, $U = 971.00$, $P < 0.001$) (Figure 1.1 B).

The elevated CO₂ also affected negatively the fecundity and fertility of *B. tabaci* (MEAM1). The total number of eggs per female (fecundity) decreased in soybean plants under eCO₂ when compared to plants grown in aCO₂ (aCO₂: 226.56 ± 13.64; eCO₂: 178.63 ± 10.54, $t = 2.78$, $df. = 30$, $P = 0.009$) (Figure 1.1 C). In addition, the percentage of eggs hatching (% fertility) of *B. tabaci* was also significantly reduced in soybean plants grown under eCO₂ compared to plants grown under aCO₂ (aCO₂: 94.71 ± 0.61; eCO₂: 90.38 ± 1.34, $U = 55$, $P = 0.006$)

(Figure 1.1 D).



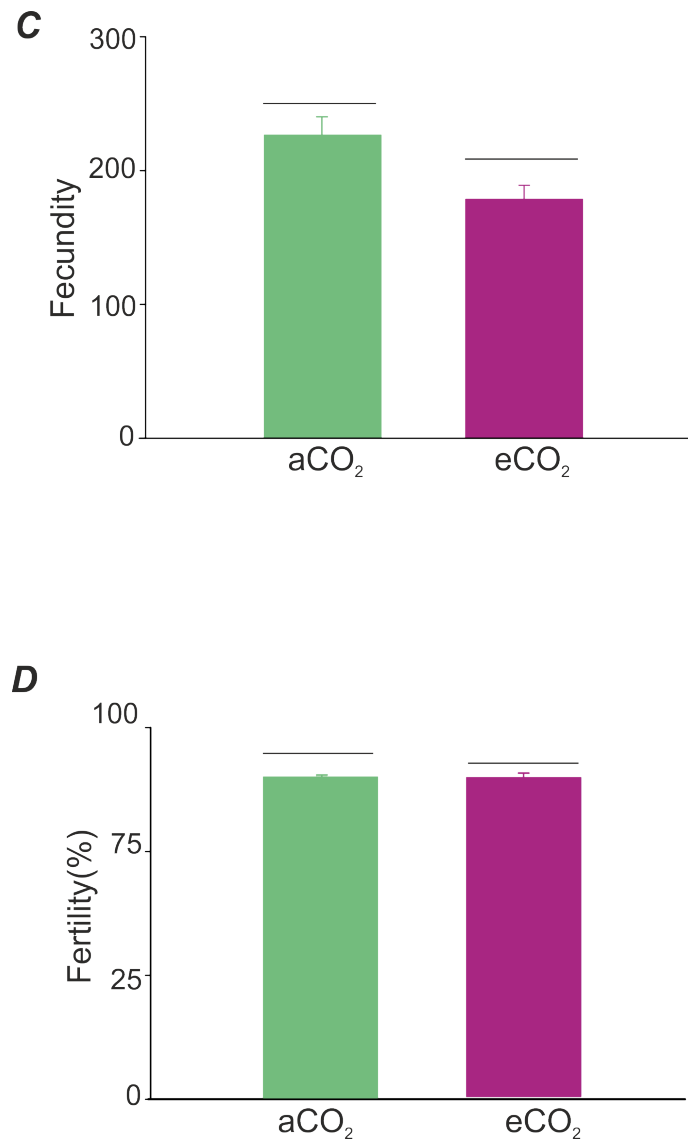


Figure 1.1: Results (mean \pm SE) of the indirect effect of ambient CO₂ level (aCO₂=450 ppm) or elevated CO₂ level (eCO₂ = 700 ppm) CO₂ levels on different life parameters. (A) days duration of eggs to eclosion and developmental periods of immature stages; (B) days duration of eggs to emergence adults; (C) Fecundity and (D) Fertility of *B. tabaci* on soybean plants.

1.3.2 Probing and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* on soybean plants

Twenty five EPG variables were analyzed to study the probing and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* on soybean plants grown under ambient and elevated CO₂ levels. Our results show that the feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* was altered on soybean plants grown under eCO₂. The temporal evolution is represented in (Figure 1.2). It shows a specific feeding behavior of whitefly on soybean plants in 30-minute intervals over a total recording time of 8 h. We observed that the percentage of whiteflies, that show phloem phase was dramatically reduced on plants exposed to eCO₂. Furthermore, significant differences were observed among treatments for some of the non-sequential and sequential EPG variables that are represented in (Figure 1.3).

The waveform duration (min/insect) (WDI) of sustained phloem sap ingestion (E2s) (aCO₂: 92.59 ± 27.21; eCO₂: 15.16 ± 10.10) and the duration of the longest E2 (aCO₂: 120.46 ± 32.64; eCO₂: 27.92 ± 16.23) decreased significantly in plants grown under eCO₂ (E2s: $U = 71$; $P = 0.016$; Longest E2: $U = 24.00$; $P = 0.029$) when compared with plants grown under aCO₂. Consequently the duration (min) of the non-phloematic phase was significantly higher when the whiteflies fed on soybean plants that were exposed to eCO₂ (aCO₂: 359.36 ± 31.62 ; eCO₂: 445.45 ± 19.29, $U = 35.00$; $P = 0.033$) compared to those that fed on plants grown under exposed to aCO₂ (Figure 1.3 A). In addition, the duration of the event (min/insect) (WDEI) of phloem ingestion (E2) (aCO₂: 71.10 ± 20.07 ; eCO₂: 11.98 ± 5.33) and sustained phloem sap ingestion > 10 minutes (E2s) (aCO₂: 145.68 ± 34.43; eCO₂: 64.44 ± 35.08) were significantly reduced on soybean exposed to eCO₂ (E2: $t = 2.63$; $d.f. = 19$; $P = 0.014$ and E2s: $t = 2.55$; $d.f. = 11$; $P = 0.027$) (Figure 1.3 B). These results show that whiteflies reduce their

ingestion of phloem sap on soybean plants that were grown under eCO₂.

The values of some sequential variables showed significant differences between the treatments. The whiteflies need more time to start phloem sap ingestion on soybean plants exposed to eCO₂. The duration from the first probe to the first phloem ingestion (E2) (aCO₂ : 230.51 ± 48.41 ; eCO₂: : 350.49 ± 32.94 min) and the time from the beginning of the recording to the first sustained phloem sap ingestion (Time from start EPG to 1st E2 > 10 min) (aCO₂: 316.58 ± 44.24 ; eCO₂: 357.41 ± 32.92) were significantly higher in plants exposed to eCO₂ (time from 1st probe to 1st E2: $U = 73.00$; $P = 0.040$ and time from start EPG to 1st E2 > 10 min: $U = 72.00$; $P = 0.035$ respectively) (Figure 1.3 C). In addition, the percentage of sustained phloem ingestion (E2s > 10min) was significantly reduced ($U = 22.5$; $P = 0.017$) in whiteflies that fed on soybean plants under eCO₂ when compared to those whiteflies fed on soybean under aCO₂(aCO₂: 47.73 ± 10.06; eCO₂: 15.00 ± 6.31). Furthermore the contribution of salivation (E1) to phloem ingestion (E2) was significantly higher ($U = 26.00$; $P = 0.008$) in plants exposed to eCO₂ (aCO₂: 15.78 ± 8.86; eCO₂: 39.06 ± 10.42) (Figure 1.3 D), it should be emphasized that this last variable is an important indicator of plant resistance.

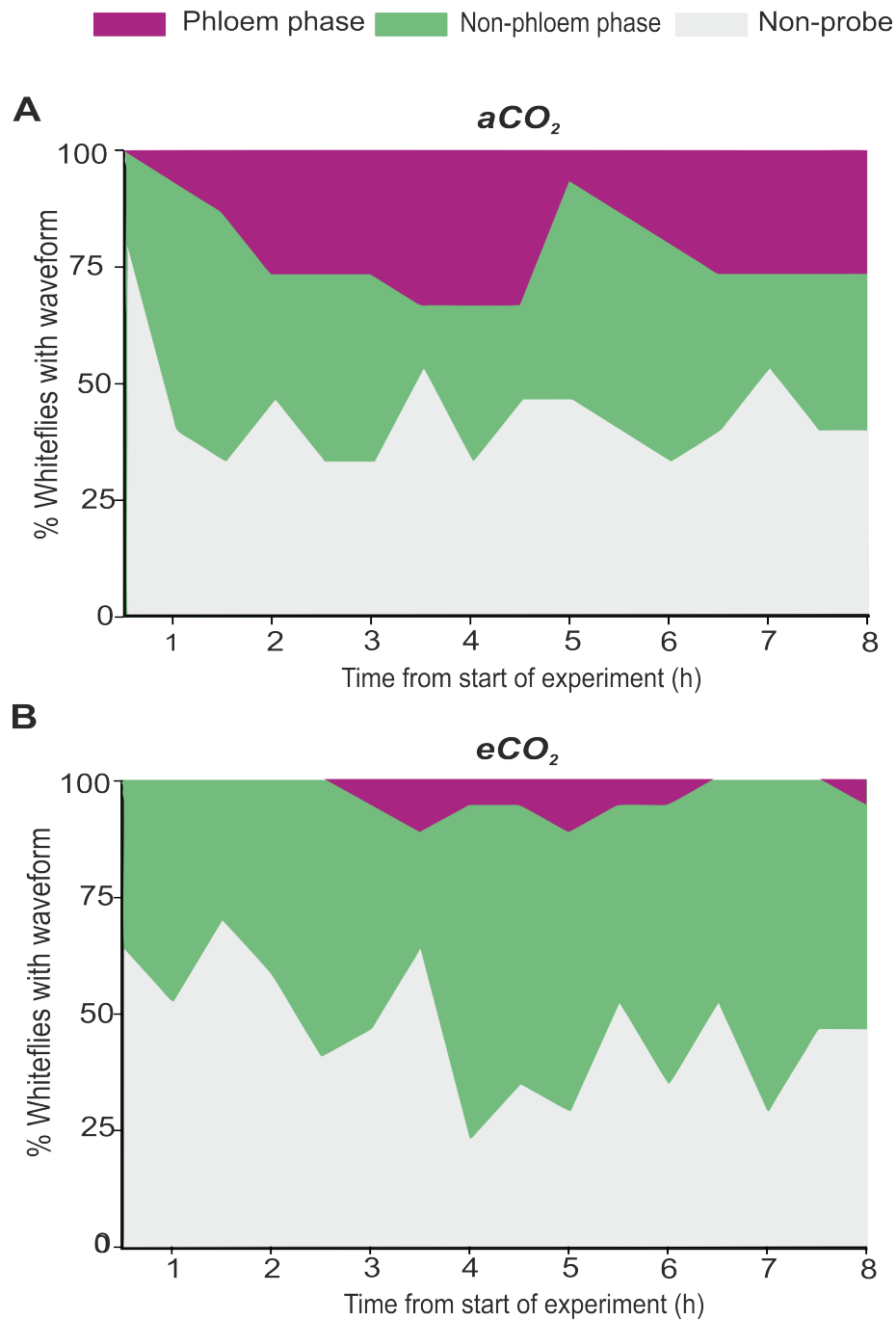
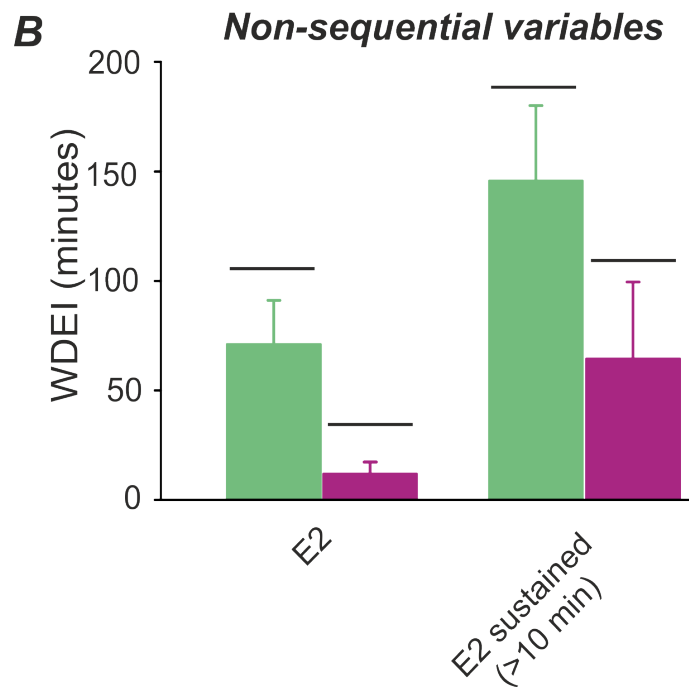
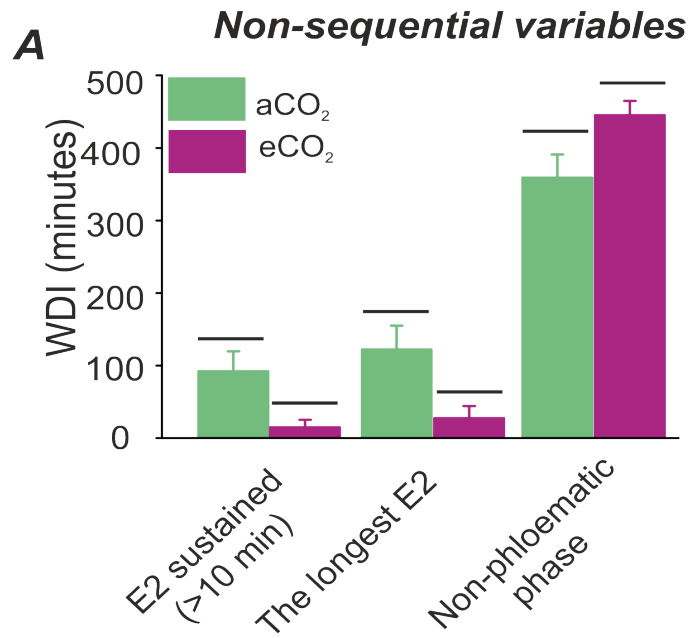


Figure 1.2: Percentage of whiteflies (*Bemisia tabaci*) exhibiting specific electrical penetration graphs (EPG) waveforms in 30-min intervals over a total recording time of 8 h on soybean plants (*Glycine max*) under different levels of CO₂. Waveform np, nonprobing; waveforms of non-phloem phase (C, intercellular apoplastic stylet pathway; G, active xylem ingestion) and waveforms of phloem phase (E1, salivation and E2, passive phloem sap uptake from the sieve elements)



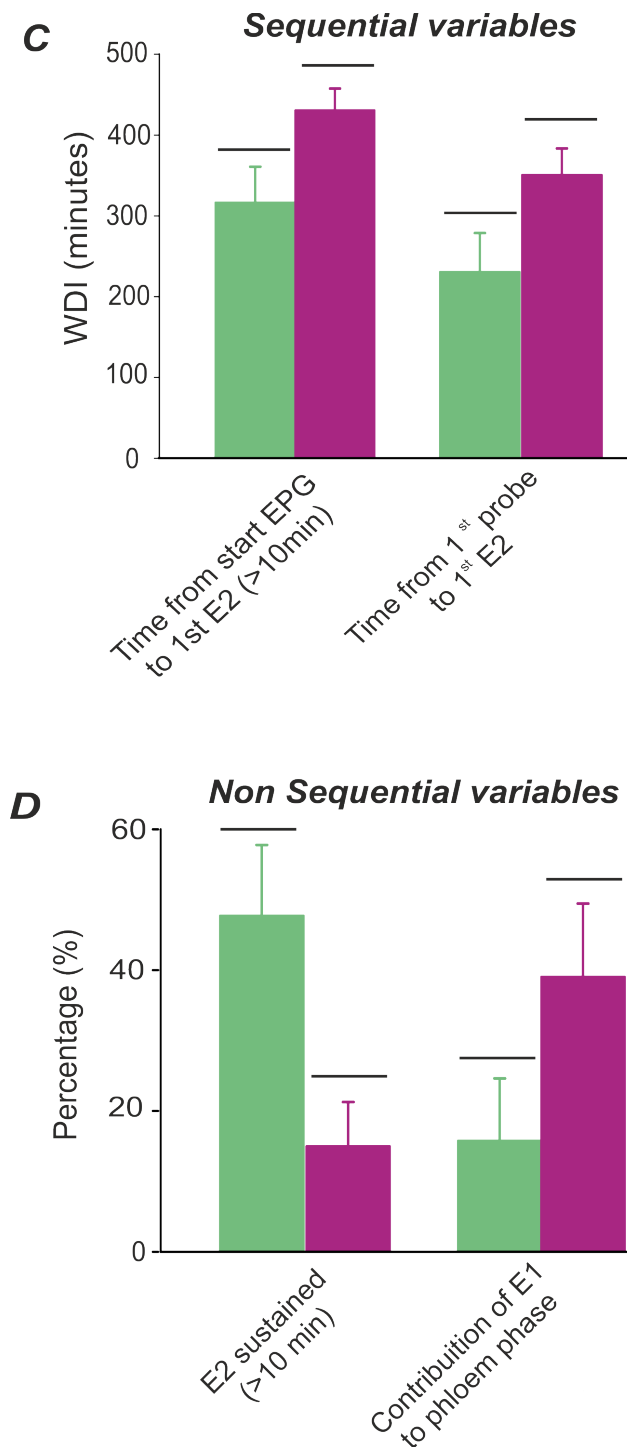


Figure 1.3: Mean \pm SE values of non-sequential EPG variables for the probing behavior of *B. tabaci* female adults on soybean plants grown under CO₂ concentrations (aCO₂ = 450 ppm and eCO₂ = 700 ppm). WDI: Waveform duration (min) per insect; WDEI: Waveform duration (min) per event per insect. E1, phloem salivation; E2, phloem ingestion; E2s, sustained E2 (>10 minutes) 32

1.3.3 Plant above ground biomass and foliar nutrient content

The results showed in (Figure 1.4) indicate that the morphology and foliar chemical composition of those soybean plants exposed to eCO₂ were significantly modified, in both phenological plant growth stages. For both plant growth stages (V3 and V6) the biomass was significantly higher on plants grown under elevated CO₂ conditions. The most differences was observed in the phenological stage V6. The number of leaves, the diameter and the fresh weight (FW) of stems were significantly higher on soybean plants exposed to eCO₂ in both phenological stages (Figure 1.4). The stem length (cm) of plants grown at eCO₂ was significantly higher only on those plants with phenological stage V3 ($t = -4.03, df = 18, P = 0.001$) (Figure 1.4).

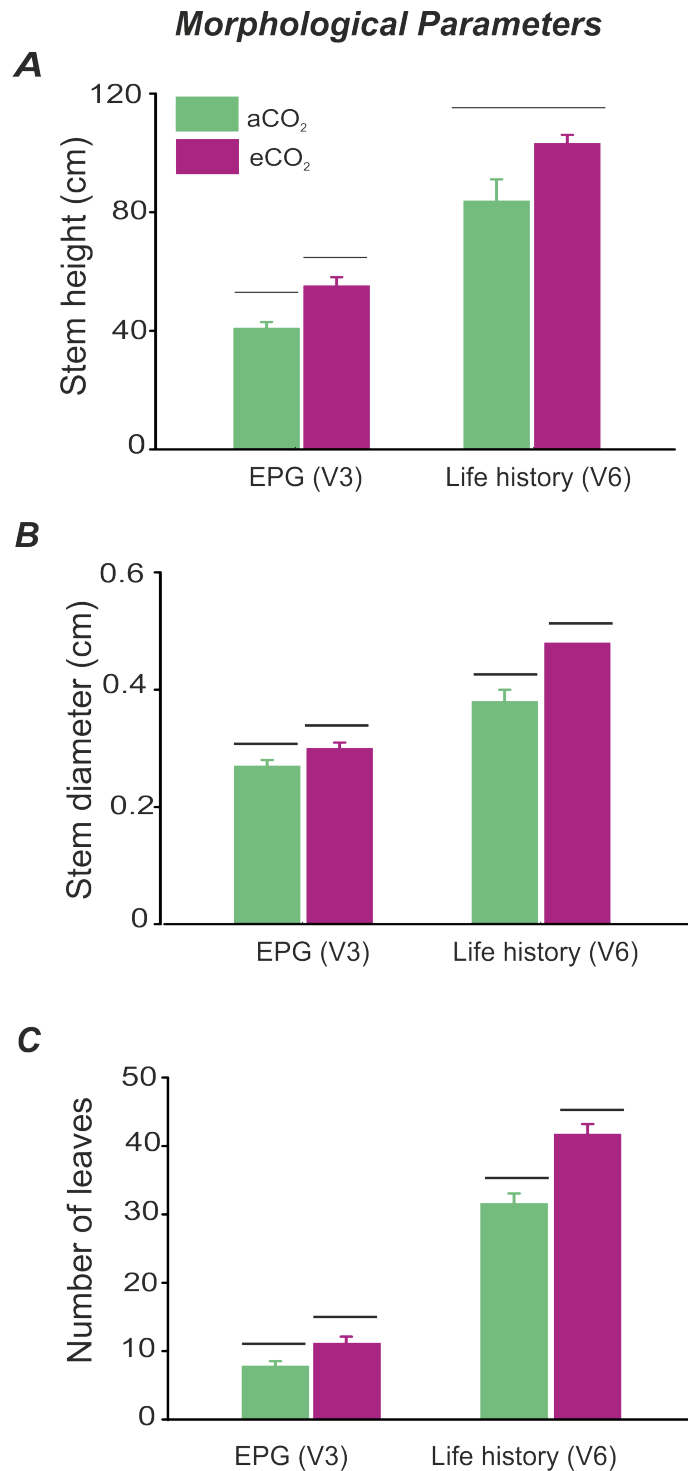


Figure 1.4: Mean \pm SE values of plant growth parameters under ambiental CO₂ conditions (aCO₂: 450 ppm) and elevated CO₂ conditions (eCO₂: 700 ppm) in soybean plants with different phenology stage (V3 and V6): (A) Stem height (cm), (B) Stem diameter (cm) and (C) Number of leaves

Plant leaf content of carbon, nitrogen, and C:N ratio were evaluated in both phenological growth stage (V3 and V6), under both CO₂ levels (aCO₂ vs eCO₂) conditions (Fig 1.5). Only plants at V6 growth stage showed significant differences in the nitrogen content and C:N ratio. The carbon content was not significantly ($t = -0.957$; $df = 8$; $P = 0.366$) affected on those plants growing under both CO₂ levels (450 ppm and 700 ppm). The nitrogen (%) was significantly reduced ($t = 3.15$; $df = 8$; $P = 0.014$) on plants grown at eCO₂ conditions (700 ppm). And the C:N ratio was significantly higher ($U = 2.00$; $P = 0.032$) on those plants exposed to eCO₂ conditions than those plants grown under aCO₂ conditions (Figure 1.5).

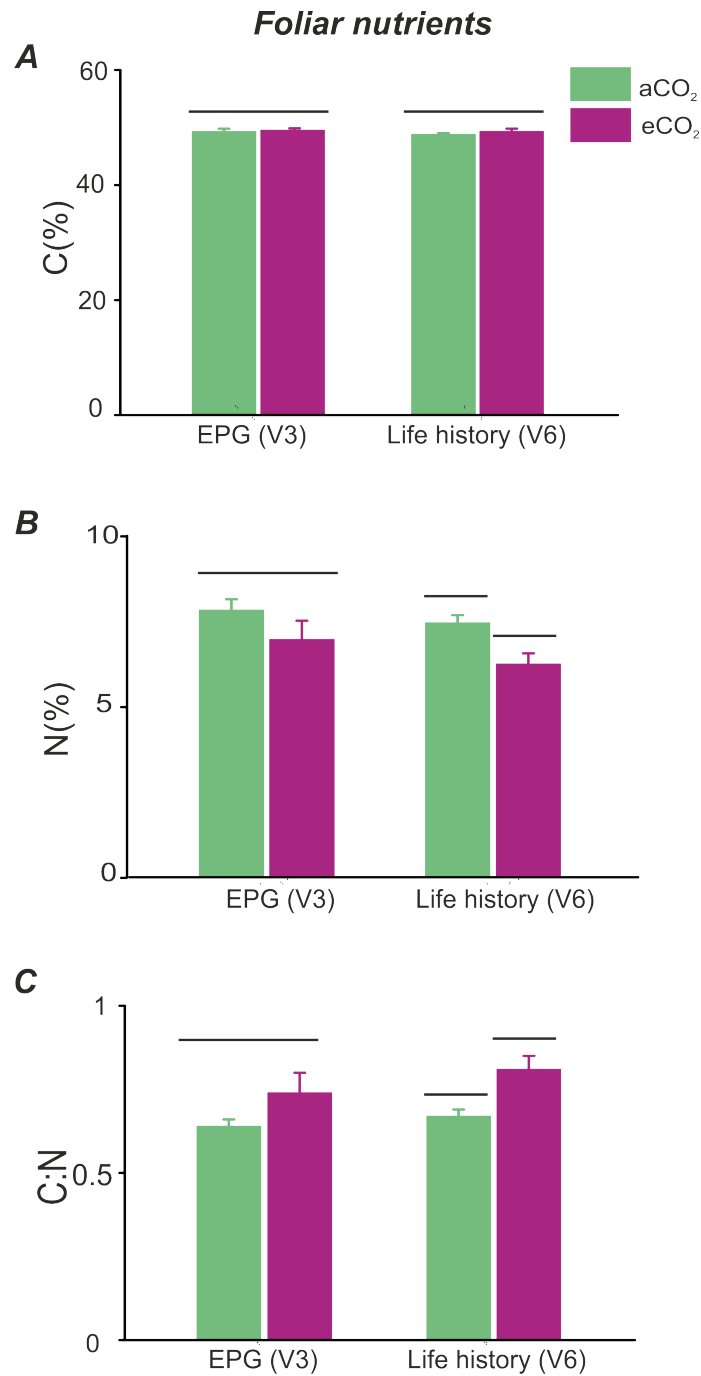


Figure 1.5: Mean \pm SE values of plants nutrient content under ambient CO₂ conditions (aCO₂: 450 ppm) and elevated CO₂ conditions (eCO₂: 700ppm) conditions in soybean plants with different phenology stage (V3 and V6):(A) % C on Leaves, (B) % N on Leaves, (C) C:N ratio on leaves

1.4 Discussion

This study shows that elevated CO₂ level modifies the morphology, and the biochemical composition of the plants, and indirectly these changes affected development time, fecundity, fertility and the feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* (MEAM1). The whiteflies which developed on Bt soybean plants exposed to eCO₂ showed lower phloem ingestion; they required a longer time to complete the life cycle and the fecundity and fertility were affected negatively on these plants when compared with those whiteflies that developed on soybean plants exposed to aCO₂.

The indirect effects of elevated levels of CO₂ on sap-sucking insects are mainly mediated by their effects on host plant quality including changes in morphology, biochemistry, physiology and increase of the C:N ratio (Cornelissen et al., 2004; Finlay and Luck, 2011; Guo et al., 2013). Furthermore, it may be related to the reduction of amino acids in the phloem sap (Sun et al., 2009; Oehme et al., 2013b; Chen et al., 2019).

Generally, such changes are expected to vary with the plant species. Legumes often show an increase of nitrogen fixation via biological stimulation (Robinson et al., 2012). However, amino acid concentrations may vary according to legume species (Johnson et al., 2014). In some legume species, such as, *Trifolium repens*, *Lupinus albus*, *Pisum sativum* and *Glycine max*, the eCO₂ increase the size and number of nodules, and also nitrogen content (Zanetti et al., 1997; Ainsworth, 2003; Lee et al., 2003; Rogers et al., 2009; Li et al., 2017; Qiao et al., 2019). However, Kremer et al. (2018) reported that root nodulation on alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*) was not affected under eCO₂, and they found amino acid in lower concentrations on plants without aphid infestation.

Our results showed that the N (%) was significantly lower in soybean plants

exposed to eCO₂ at V6 growth stage, which may have caused negatively effects in the performance of *B. tabaci* (MEAM1) (e.g., increase in development time, fertility and fertility reduction) on these plants. These results may be associated with the planting of soybean in the autoclaved substrate and without Rhizobium, reducing the chances of biological fixation of N. Another factor that may have influenced the nitrogen reduction is the Bt soybean variety, some studies show that eCO₂ in Bt plants causes changes in the C: N ratio, significantly reducing the nitrogen, soluble sugars and starch contents. [Jiang et al. \(2017\)](#) showed the separate effect of CO₂ and N as limiting factors on the biomass accumulation in transgenic rice plants. The authors reported that the Bt protein content in rice plants under eCO₂ was higher than in ambient aCO₂, regardless of treatment with N. [Chen et al. \(2005\)](#) observed that at elevated CO₂ levels, transgenic Bt cotton had significantly lower nitrogen, soluble sugars, starch, and total non-structural carbohydrates than non-transgenic cotton. Furthermore, they found a significant decrease in Bt toxin on a cotton cultivar grown in elevated CO₂ compared to the one grown in ambient CO₂.

The transgenic Bt plants invest some nutrients in the production of specific toxic proteins [i.e. endotoxins of *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt)], which could alter the C: N balance of these plants, especially under altered abiotic conditions ([Coviella et al., 2000](#); [Coviella, 2002](#)). [Himanen et al. \(2008\)](#) found that rape plants (*Brassica napus*) genetically modified with the Bt gene, grown under eCO₂, decreased the N content and increased the C:N ratio of Bt plants. These results may indicate that the expression of Bt protein in soybeans may have corroborated the change in the nutritional quality of soybean plants grown under eCO₂. These factors could contribute to an increasing in the C:N ratio ([Figure 1.5 C](#)), promoting a reduction of the nutritional quality of the phloem-sap, altering the concentration of amino acids (N-containing compounds) that are essential for the nutrition and

performance of phloem sap-sucking insects (Douglas, 2006; Rashid et al., 2016).

In addition to changes in soybean leaf nutrient composition, eCO₂ in this study caused changes in the morphology of soybean plants, the number, and density of leaves and stems were significantly higher in soybean plants grown under eCO₂ (Fig 1.4). Similar results were found by Yifei et al. (2018), whom observed that eCO₂ had promoted increased biomass and productivity of soybean crops, and had negative effects on the development of *Spodoptera litura* (Fabricius). This increase in biomass may have resulted in physical and chemical barriers in these plants, making feeding by *B. tabaci* difficult. Guo et al. (2014) demonstrated that eCO₂ increased the density of non-glandular trichomes in young leaves and mature leaves, as well as that of glandular trichomes in mature leaves of *M. trunculata*. In their study, the time spent by the aphid for its first probe in the plant (i.e. to find the proper feeding site) increased with an eCO₂ concentration. In epidermis and mesophyll probing, any obstacles could impede localizing or reaching phloem vessels by the stylets (Will and van Bel, 2006; Walling and Thompson, 2012).

For example, Rodríguez-López et al. (2011) demonstrated a resistance based on glandular trichomes in tomato plants associated with pre-phloem factors (epidermis) that reduced the attractiveness and efficiency of the interaction of *B. tabaci*-phloem. Our results showed that *B. tabaci* took a similar period of time to introduce the stylet for the first probe on soybean grown under eCO₂ treatments. Therefore, we suggest that eCO₂ did not cause changes in the superficial epidermis of the leaf and that may have affected the probing behavior of the whitefly. On the other hand, the results obtained in the present study (Figure 1.1 C) show that whiteflies need a longer time to start phloem activities in plants exposed to elevated CO₂ level (i.e. Time from 1st probe to 1st E2 and Time to from start of EPG 1st E2 >10 minutes). Other factors such as changes

in chemical on plants mesophyll may have affected the feed behavior of these insects.

In general, the stimulation of primary metabolism by elevated CO₂ enhances carbon flow towards the synthesis of secondary metabolites, most of these metabolites are related to plant defense against possible stressors (e.g., herbivorous insects) (Noctor and Mhamdi, 2017; Lu et al., 2018). The accumulation of allelochemicals has been previously associated with mesophyll defenses and antifeedant activities (Gabrys and Tjallingii, 2002; Kordan et al., 2012). About that, Hohenstein et al. (2019) reported soybean accumulated isoflavones phytoalexins in mesophyll cells as a mechanism of defense against aphids, deterring feeding before aphids reach the phloem. Zavala et al. (2013) indicated that plants cultivated under eCO₂ altered the production of allelochemicals, thus, the longer time to start phloem activities by whiteflies in soybean cultivated under eCO₂ in this work may have due to the bigger to the accumulation of these compounds in the leaf mesophyll.

In addition, the results of the present study showed that the interaction phloem × *B.tabaci* was altered on soybean exposed to eCO₂. The amount of time spent in phloem activities was relatively lower, and had a greater contribution of salivation (E1) to phloem intake in plants exposed to under eCO₂((Figure 1.3 D). After locating and penetrating a single sieve element and before beginning phloem-sap ingestion (E2 waveform), aphids inject watery saliva (E1 waveform) to overcome potential plant resistance factors at the phloem level, such as by preventing sieve element sealing (Tjallingii, 2006). The duration and frequency of saliva secretion may indicate the suitability of the host plant and define non-host plants (Trebicki et al., 2012). Resistance factors in phloem have been suggested in different types of plant-aphid interactions (Diaz-Montano et al., 2007; Peng and Walker, 2018). For example, phloem protein coagulation and

callose deposition (Tjallingii, 2006; Garzo et al., 2017), accumulation of lectins (Down et al., 1996; Gatehouse et al., 1997), protease inhibitors (Kehr, 2006), and secondary metabolites (Dinant et al., 2010). Previous works suggests that increased or extended salivation has been correlated with whiteflies feeding on the resistant plant (Jiang and Walker, 2007; Liu et al., 2013; McDaniel et al., 2016). Thus, in this study, the increase of salivation of *B. tabaci* in soybean plants cultivated under eCO₂ may have been due to an increase in resistance at the phloem level.

Our results show that parameters related to phloem ingestion (E2) were negatively affected on soybean plants exposed to elevated CO₂. The duration of E2, longer duration of E2 (phloem ingestion < 10 min) and the total duration of E2 sustained (E2s: phloem ingestion > 10 min) were significantly lower in plants exposed to elevated. Similar results were found by (Penalver-Cruz et al., 2019), in which the species of *B. tabaci* MED reached the phloem fewer times. They observed that the ingestion of phloem sap was delayed in plants that were previously exposed to high levels of CO₂ than in those that were grown under ambient CO₂. However, the authors reported that whiteflies that were indirectly affected by eggplants cultivated under eCO₂ levels showed longer episodes of sustained phloem ingestion and greater fertility. The authors suggested that *B. tabaci* MED was able to compensate the nutritional deficit of eggplant under eCO₂.

In contrast to that, Chen et al. (2019) found that corn leaf aphid *R. maidis* on eCO₂ barley seedlings, increased the time spending in passive phloem feeding, but it had lower in fecundity, intrinsic rate of natural increase and fresh body weight. The authors reported that the decrease in plant nutrient contents in eCO₂ barley seedlings may have increased the time spending in passive phloem feeding which was unfavorable for its reproductive and population abundance.

Similar results were also found by [Trebicki et al. \(2016\)](#). Their results indicated that *R. padi* reduced fecundity and increased feeding rates in wheat plants grown under eCO₂ in order to compensate the nutritional deficit of the plants exposed to eCO₂. Similarly, a study with *Acyrtosiphon pisum* feeding on *Medicago truncatula* indicated that eCO₂ reduced the stomatal opening of plants ([Sun et al., 2015](#)). This induced an increase in phloem and xylem sap ingestion by *A. pisum* as a result of the decrease in transpiration and increase water potential of *M. truncatula*.

Our results provide strong evidence that the nutritional quality of soybeans under eCO₂ is reduced, negatively affecting the feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* biotype B females, which drastically reduced phloem ingestion. These results indicate that *B. tabaci* biotype B did not demonstrate the ability to overcome the presumed stress that eCO₂ caused in soybean plants.

In addition to the changes caused by eCO₂ in the *B. tabaci* interaction and soybean plants, it is necessary to emphasize the importance of the eCO₂ interaction in virus transmission by insects that feed on sap. Infection with a pathogen can modify host appearance and physiology, making it more attractive to vectors ([Feres et al., 2016](#); [Trebicki et al., 2016](#)). Previous studies showed that eCO₂ promoted the ability of aphids (e.g. *M. persicae*) to transmit viruses (e.g. *Cucumber mosaic virus* or CMV) in bell pepper ([Dader et al., 2016](#)) and Potato virus Y (PVY) in tobacco ([Bosquee et al., 2018](#)). In view of the above, the interaction eCO₂, soybean and *B. tabaci* could differ in a scenario with the presence of the virus.

Based on the results presented in this research, the elevated CO₂ modifies the morphology, and the biochemical composition of the plants, and indirectly, these changes affected the feeding behavior and the biology (i.e., development time, fecundity and fertility) of the whitefly population. It was also demonstrated

that *B. tabaci* MEAM1 was not able to overcome the decline of nutritional quality in soybean plants under eCO₂, where phloem ingestion was lower, and consequently delayed the life cycle, as well as reduced fecundity and fertility. Therefore, *B. tabaci* MEAM1 may not adapt to changes in abiotic factors compared to other herbivores as the climate continues to change. Our results may help in future studies involving climate change and virus transmission, as well as assist in new management strategies for populations of *B. tabaci* in future scenarios of climate change.

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Chapter **2**

Detrimental effects of dual Bt genes
maize on the preference, feeding and
reproduction of the corn leaf aphid
Rhopalosiphum maidis

Detrimental effects of dual Bt genes maize on the preference, feeding and reproduction of the corn leaf aphid *Rhopalosiphum maidis*. Paula D. De Paulo, Khalid Haddi, Mauricelia Fernandes, Eliseu J. G. Pereira, Eugenio E. Oliveira; **Manuscript to be submitted to Journal of Pest Science.**

Abstract

Insect-resistant Bt plants play an important role in crop production due to highly specific activities mainly against Lepidoptera and Coleoptera insect pests. However, with large-scale areas devoted to transgenic cultivars, the impact of this technology on other invertebrate communities (e.g., non-target sap-sucking species) is yet to be fully clarified. Here, EPG technique was used to compare the effects of pyramided Bt (Cry1Ab and Cry1F) and non-Bt maize plants on the feeding behavior of the corn leaf aphid *Rhopalosiphum maidis* (Hemiptera: Aphididae). Further bioassays were conducted to compare the preference and the reproductive outputs (e.g., daily number of nymphs per adult, accumulated number of produced nymphs and percentage of nymphs reaching adulthood) of *R. maidis* on these plant types. Our results showed that *R. maidis* adults not only spent longer time in non-probing activities (i.e., moving and finding feeding site) when feeding on maize pyramided Bt plants, but also exhibited significantly lower frequency of sap ingestion activities once their stylets reached transgenic plants phloem. Furthermore, *R. maidis* presented lower preference and reduced reproductive outputs in pyramided Bt plants when compared to their performance on the non-Bt plants. Thus, by revealing detrimental responses on feeding behaviors, preference and reproductive outputs of *R. maidis*, our findings demonstrated reduced risk of these phytosuccivorous insects becoming an economically important pest in pyramided transgenic maize.

Key words: sap-sucking insects, electrical penetration graphs, genetically modified plants.

2.1 Introduction

Insect-resistant crops engineered to express insecticidal proteins derived from the soil bacteria *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) have been in use for decades. The Bt endotoxins are encoded by various Cry genes and have specific activities against insect species belonging to different orders (Svobodová et al., 2017). The widespread adoption of the first generation of transgenic crops expressing only one Cry protein has led to intense selection in insect populations and accelerated the evolution of resistance (James, 2010; Tabashnik et al., 2013; Santos-Amaya et al., 2015; Carrière et al., 2016; Tabashnik and Carrière, 2017). One of the strategies adopted to overcome these evolving resistance cases was the use of "pyramid" Bt crops (Tabashnik et al., 2013; Brevault et al., 2013; Carrière et al., 2015; Jin et al., 2014; Carrière et al., 2016). Pyramiding genes cause transgenic plants to express two or more Bt proteins that are different in mode of action but effective against the same target pest (Ghimire et al., 2011; Monsanto, 2012).

Although having high action specificity against Lepidoptera and Coleoptera, expression of Bt proteins in crops like maize can also produce unintended effects on individuals and populations of non-target insects as well as on the entire insect communities. The potential impacts of Bt maize on non-target phytophagous insects can be direct (by Bt toxin), indirect (by reducing competition with target insects), or a combination of both (Lumbierres et al., 2004). In fact, insertion of new genes may cause changes in plant quality as food for target and non-target herbivorous insects and thus altering reproductive ability or survival on the plant (Cuc et al., 2008). Furthermore, changes in plant/insect interactions can result from the expression of a new protein leading to shifts in the preference and reproductive behaviors of females, with further impact at populations level of these insect species (Fontes et al., 2002). Moreover,

gene pyramiding has been related with the possibility of synergistic interactions between different Cry proteins. Such interactions may trigger unexpected effects that are not observed when expression occurs of only one Cry protein (Hilbeck and Otto, 2015). In this way, populations of secondary pests that previously had little relative importance under one Cry protein scenario can change the status to become more important pests Lu et al. (2010).

Among the phytophagous insect pests encountered in both Bt and non Bt maize, aphids, like corn leaf aphid *Rhopalosiphum maidis*, constitute a group of active phloem-feeding and virus vector species that cause variable damages and yield losses from year to year (Caballero et al., 2001; Carena and Glogoza, 2004; Meihls et al., 2013). Studies analyzing the impact of transgenic plants expressing Cry toxins on aphids are contrasting and report effects ranging from detrimental to survival and fecundity to beneficial on populations (Raps et al., 2001; Ashouri et al., 2001; A, 2004; Mellet and Schoeman, 2007; Burgio et al., 2007; Faria et al., 2007; Shu et al., 2018, 2019). While previous investigations suggested that, aphids may present better performance when feeding on Bt plants than on non Bt plants (Faria et al., 2007), others reported toxicities of Bt toxins (e.g., Cry2, Cry3A and Cry4) against potato aphid, *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* (Walters and English, 1995; Porcar et al., 2009) and even high toxicity of Cry4 or Cry11 proteins to the pea aphid, *Acyrtosiphon pisum* (Li et al., 2011). The vast majority of these studies has been carried out on plants expressing only one Cry protein, focused on reporting the negative or positive effects and only speculated about the mechanisms underlying the reported effects.

Thus, hypothesizing that potential effects of Bt proteins on sap sucking aphids would influence their reproduction through behavioral alterations of host selection and feeding, the present work, firstly verified the reproductive performance and preference of the *R. maidis* aphid on Bt maize plants expressing

two Cry proteins (Cry1AB and Cry IF) and in its non-Bt isoline and secondly, used the Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG); one of the most rigorous methods to identify arthropod feeding behaviors; to compare the effects of pyramided Bt technology on the feeding activity of the aphids.

2.2 Material & Methods

2.2.1 Plant material

Maize plants (*Zea mays* L.) expressing the pyramided Cry1Ab and Cry 1F Bt toxins (Bt 30F53YH) as well as the plants of non-Bt isoline (cv 30F53) were used in this work. The maize seeds (one seed per pot) were sown into plastic pots (15 cm of diameter, 1.400 L of volume:) filled with Terral Solo[®] substrate soil and kept under greenhouse conditions of temperature (25:20 ± 2°C day:night), relative humidity (70-80%) and photoperiod (14:10 h light:dark). Fifteen days after sowing, the seedlings started to be watered three times a week using 20-20-20 (N-P-K) at a dose 1 g/L in the amount of 500 mL per pot during the entire bioassays. Irrigation was performed through a dripping system, maintained at a similar level of water between treatments and plants were rotated within the greenhouse to ensure there was no positional influence.

2.2.2 Aphid strain

The stock colonies of apterous aphids of *R. maidis* were initially generated from clones obtained from Embrapa Milho e Sorgo (Sete Lagoas-MG) and were kept in sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) plants in a greenhouse. For the experiments, colonies of *R. maidis* were kept in conventional non Bt maize plants in plastic pots, isolated with a transparent plastic cylinder

(60 cm of height and 15 cm of diameter) closed in the upper part with a nylon fabric under controlled conditions of temperature (25 ± 2 °C), relative humidity (70-80 %) and photoperiod (16:8 h light: dark). The age of *R. maidis* aphids used in all tests was previously synchronized. Twenty five paternogenic adults were inserted into clipage cages for 48 hours in Sorghum plants before being removed and the produced nymphs were left until reaching the adulthood (approximately 8 days) and the used in subsequent tests.

2.2.3 Feeding bioassays using the Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG) technique

The effect of Bt and Non-Bt cultivars on the probing and feeding behavior of *R. maidis* adults was examined by the Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG) technique (Tjallingii, 1988, 1978). Maize plants of each cultivar (Bt and Non-Bt) at vegetative stage V6 (six leaves fully developed) previously grown during 25 days in a greenhouse were used. Apterous aphid adults reared on *Sorghum* sp. were carefully collected by using a brush and then starved for about 30 min. The adult aphids were tethered from their dorsum to 3 cm long, 20 micron diameter gold wire using conductive water-based silver glue. The other end of the gold wire was connected to the EPG amplifier with a copper wire attached to a copper nail. Sets of eight plants x aphid combinations were used in a completely randomized design for each recording. Continuous 8 hour recordings were performed using one Giga-8 DC amplifiers with 1 Giga-Ohm input resistance (EPG Systems, Wageningen, The Netherlands). EPG output was set to 50x gain and data were acquired at 100 Hz using DATAQ Di 700-710 A/D data acquisition USB device card (Data Instruments, Ohio, USA). Recordings were conducted under laboratory conditions at 25 ± 2 °C inside a Faraday cage to avoid electrical noise and interference. Data acquisition and EPG analysis from 23 individual adults,

R. maidis for the control treatment (Isoline non-Bt) and 25 for the Bt maize were conducted using Stylet+ software (EPG Systems, Wageningen, The Netherlands). EPG variables related to the probing and feeding behavior of the aphids were processed and analysed using the EPG-Excel data Worksheet v 5.0 (Sarria et al., 2009).

2.2.4 Analysis of Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG) waveforms

Thirty EPG sequential and non-sequential variables (Table 2.1) from the EPG-Excel data workbook v. 5.0 were selected for each treatment. The *R. maidis* feeding-associated EPG waveforms previously described for aphids (Tjallingii, 1988), were identified. These waveforms were: non-probing waveform (np) where the insect is showing a behavior with no stylet contact with the leaf tissue, C waveform indicating intercellular apoplastic stylet pathway where the insects show a cyclic activity of mechanical stylet penetration and secretion of saliva, and potential drop waveform (pd) representing brief (4 to 12 s) intracellular stylet punctures during the pathway phase (C). In addition, there are two waveforms related with the phloem activity: waveform E1 with salivation into phloem sieve elements at the beginning of the phloem phase and waveform E2 correlated with passive phloem sap uptake from the sieve elements. The term “probe” refers to any type of event during the period in which the stylet of an individual insect is located in the plant tissue, and “non-probe” refers to the event with no waveform (indicating that the individual has its stylet outside plant tissues). Other nonsequential EPG variables (mean \pm standard error) calculated as described in Backus et al. (2007) included the proportion of individuals that produced the waveform type (PPW), the number of waveform events per insect (NWEI) calculated using the sum of the number of events

of a particular waveform divided by the total number of insects under each treatment, the waveform duration per insect (WDI) calculated using the sum of durations of each event of a particular waveform made by each individual insect that produced that waveform divided by the total number of insects under each treatment. If there is not event of a particular waveform then scored by 0; and the waveform duration per event per insect (WDEI) which is the sum of the duration of the events for a particular waveform divided by the total number of events of that particular waveform under each insect.

Table 2.1: Sequential and non-sequential EPG variables used to compare the probing and feeding behavior of *R. maidis* adults on maize expressing dual cry protein (Cry 1F and Cry 1Ab) or isoline Non-Bt

<i>Non-sequential variables</i>	<i>Non-sequential variables %</i>
Number of np	% C
Number of probe	% E1
Number of pd	% E2
Number of C	% E2s
Number of E1	% Contribution of E1 to phloem phase
Number of single E1	<i>Index</i>
Number of E2	Potential E2 index
Total duration of np	<i>Sequential variables</i>
Total probing time	Time to 1st probe from Start of EPG
Total duration of C	Time from start of EPG to 1st E
Total duration of pd	Time from the Beginning of that probe to 1st E
Total duration of E	E1 followed by first sustained E2 (>10 min)
Total duration of E1	Time to from start of EPG 1st E2
Total duration of E2	Time to from start of EPG 1st sustained E2 (10 minutes)
Total duration of sustained E2 (longer than 10 minutes)	Time from 1st probe to 1st E2
Duration of the longest E2	Time from the beginning of that probe to 1st E2
Duration of nonphloematic phase	
Duration of first E2	

2.2.5 Reproductive output of *R.maidis*

Using clipcages, groups of aphid adults (n = 21) (i.e., one nymph in each plant) were individualized in Bt maize leaves and in their isoline (i.e., 21 plants of each variety). Twenty-four hours later, adult aphids were removed leaving only one nymph per clipcage. The nymphs were observed daily until reaching adulthood. After emergence, adult fecundity was observed daily by recording the daily number of nymphs for eight days. After evaluating the total number of nymphs generated during eight days in this experiment, the percentage of nymphs reaching adulthood age in each treatment (Bt and non-Bt maize) was recorded for period pre-reproductive. The experiments were performed in an air-conditioned room with temperature (25 ± 2 °C), relative humidity (70-80 %) and photoperiod 14:10 h (light:dark).

2.2.6 Choice assays

The free choice assays were performed using four leaf discs (2.0 cm of diameter) of Bt and non-Bt maize that were placed equidistantly from the center of Petri dishes (10 cm of diameter x 1.7 cm of height) on filter paper moistened with 1.0 ml of distilled water. Fifteen aphid adults were transferred to the center of the petri dishes containing the four leaf discs (two leaf discs of each maize variety Bt and non Bt). The number of aphids on each leaf disc was recorded at 2, 6, 12 and 24 hours post-release. Twenty-two Petri dishes (technical replicas) were tested in parallel.

2.2.7 Statistical analyses

The data of the free choice assay were submitted to repeated measures ANOVA using PROC ANOVA (SAS, 2013). The number of *R. maidis* in maize

leaf discs within each time (h) was tested for normality by Shapiro-Wilk and accordingly compared by either *t*-test or the non-parametric Mann-Whitney test ($p \leq 0.05$) using SigmaPlot software version 12.5.

Statistical analyses of the reproductive output (i.e., average daily number of nymphs per adult, accumulated number of nymphs produced over the eight-days period and percentage of nymphs reaching adulthood) and feeding behavior of *R. maidis* were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics, version 24.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY). The raw data were checked for normality and homogeneity of variance before performing the parametric tests. The statistical differences were evaluated with Student *t*-test. If the data did not follow a normal distribution according to the Shapiro-Wilk normality test, a non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U* test ($p \leq 0.05$) was performed. Complementary regression analyses were eventually carried out.

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Probing and feeding behavior of *R. maidis* on Bt and non-Bt maize Plants

The overall results of the EPG variables showed that the feeding behavior of *R.maidis* was altered on pyramided Bt maize compared to the non-Bt isoline (Figure 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3).

From the temporal evolution, that represents specific feeding behaviors of *R. maidis* in 30-minute intervals over a total recording time of 8 h, the percentage of *R.maidis* showing non-probe phase was expressively higher on pyramided Bt maize than on non-Bt isoline (Figure 2.1).

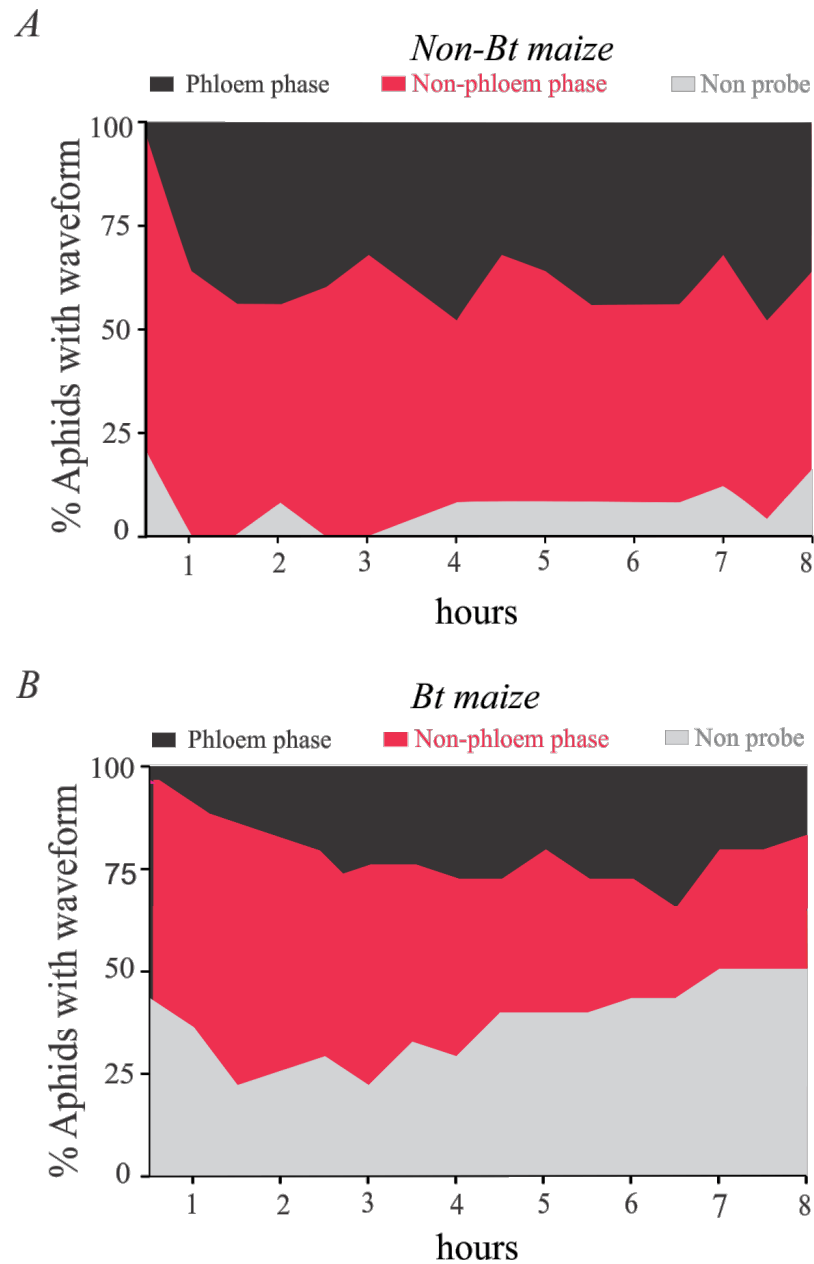


Figure 2.1: Percentage of Aphids (*Rhopalosiphum maidis*) exhibiting specific electrical penetration graphs (EPG) waveforms in 30-min intervals over a total recording time of 8 h on pyramid Bt maize expressing two Cry toxins (Cry 1F and Cry 1Ab) or non-Bt isoline (Cv maize). Waveform np, nonprobing; waveforms of non-phloem phase (C, intercellular apoplastic stylet pathway; G, active xylem ingestion) and waveforms of phloem phase (E1, salivation and E2, passive phloem sap uptake from the sieve elements).

Furthermore, meanwhile no differences were found in the sequential variables evaluated to compare the effect of the cultivars on the probing and feeding behavior of *R.maidis*, significant differences were observed for some non-sequential EPG variables, related to phloem (Figure 2.3) and non-phloem activities (Figure 2.2) on the two cultivars.

In non-phloem variables, the number of waveforms per event per insect (NWEI) did not differ between the treatments for the non-probe, probe, “Pd” and C waveforms (Figure 2.2 A). Significant differences were found for the duration in seconds per insect (WDI) of the non-probe, probe and “Pd” waveforms (Figure 2.2 B) and for waveform duration per event (WDE) of the non-probe and probe waveforms (Figure 2.2 C).

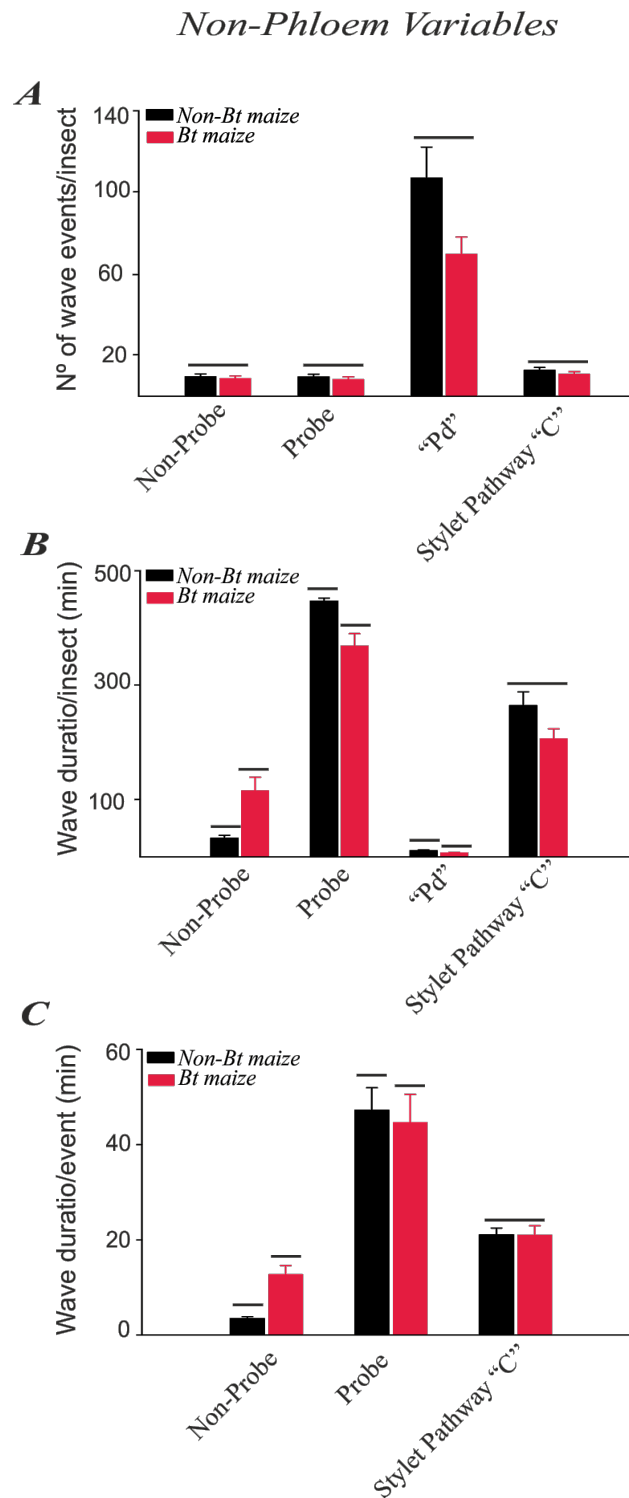


Figure 2.2: Mean (\pm SE) values of non-phloem (A,B,C) for the probing behavior of *Rhopalosiphum maidis* adults on pyramid Bt maize expressing two Cry toxins (Cry 1F and Cry 1Ab) and non-Bt isolate. Parameter bars under different horizontal lines are statistically different ($p \leq 0.05$).

In phloem variables, the NWEI (Non-Bt: 4.20 ± 0.58 ; Bt: 2.65 ± 0.43) and WDI (Non-Bt: 299.20 ± 60.63 s; Bt: 156.23 ± 41.88 s) of salivation (E1) were significantly reduced on pyramided Bt maize (NWEI: $U = 186.00$; $P = 0.034$; WDI: $U = 173.00$; $P = 0.018$). Concomitantly, the NWEI of phloem sap ingestion (E2) (2.56 ± 0.30 ; Non-Bt: 1.65 ± 0.23) and sustained phloem sap ingestion (E2s) (Non-Bt: 2.16 ± 0.23 ; Bt: 1.48 ± 0.22) were significantly lower on pyramided Bt maize (E2: $U = 193.00$, $P = 0.044$; E2s: $U = 192.00$, $P = 0.041$) when compared to non-Bt isogenic line. Generally, these results show that aphids reached the phloem sieve tubes of non-Bt maize more often ([Figure 2.3](#)).

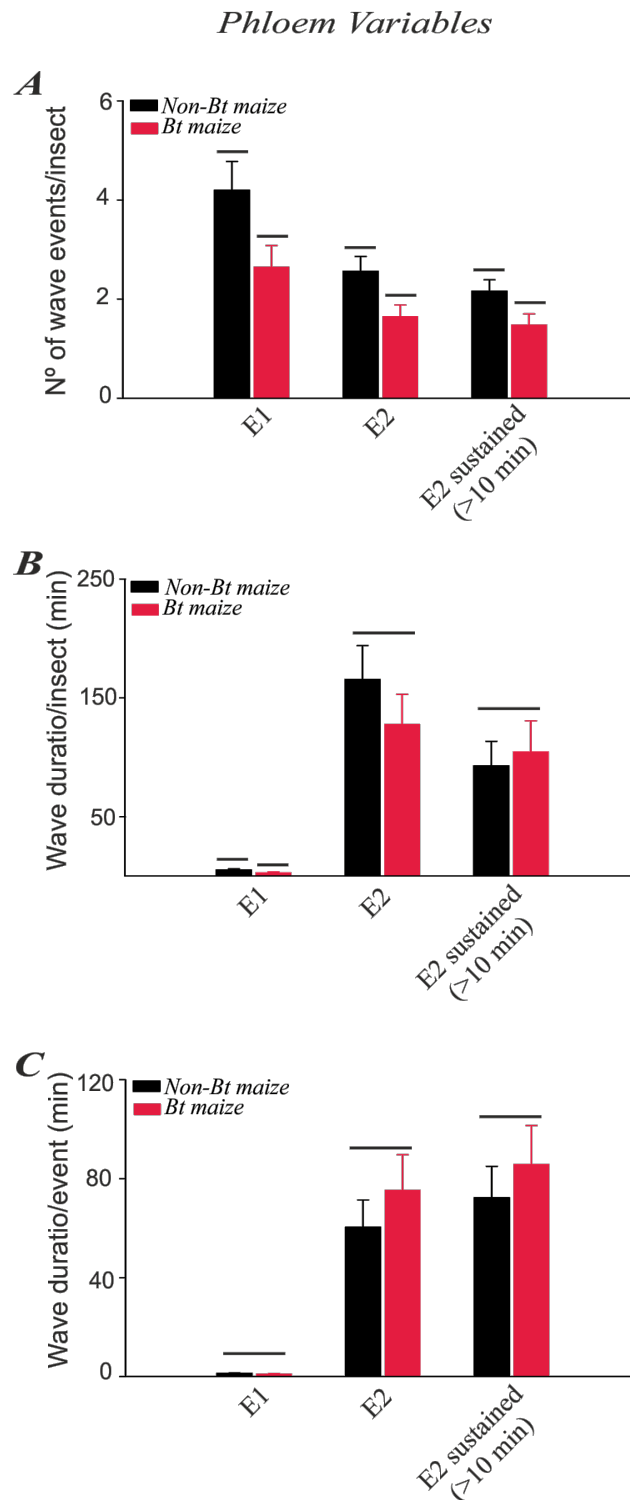


Figure 2.3: Mean (\pm SE) values of phloem variables (A,B,C) the probing behavior of *Rhopalosiphum maidis* adults on pyramid Bt maize expressing two Cry toxins (Cry 1F and Cry 1Ab) and non-Bt isolate. Parameter bars under different horizontal lines are statistically different ($p \leq 0.05$).

2.3.2 Reproductive out put of *R.maidis*

The fecundity of *R.maidis* adults over the eight days of evaluation deferred between the two cultivars (Figure 2.4). The accumulated number of nymphs produced by aphid adults on Bt maize was lower than on non-Bt maize (Figure 2.4 A). In addition, the average number of nymphs produced per aphid adults in Bt maize was significantly lower compared to non-Bt isoline ($U = 4245.0$, $df = 344$, $P < 0.001$) (Figure 2.4 B). Furthermore, a lower percentage of nymphs reached adulthood in pyramidal Bt maize plants ($t = 10.62$, $df = 40$, $P < 0.001$) (Figure 2.4 C).

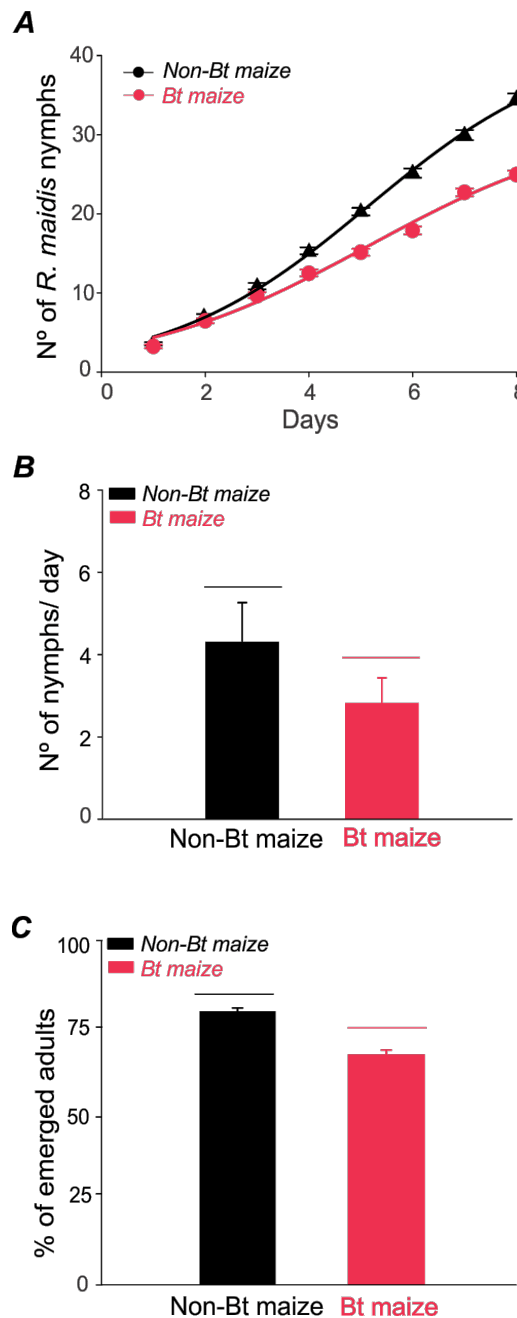


Figure 2.4: Cumulative number produced over eight day period (A) and average number of (\pm SE) nymphs per day (B) and percentage of emerged adults (C) of *Rhopalosiphum maidis* on pyramided Bt maize expressing two Cry toxins (Cry 1F and Cry 1Ab) or non-Bt isoline. Parameter bars under different horizontal lines are statistically different ($p \leq 0.05$).

2.3.3 Choice assays

Repeated measures ANOVA showed that the number of *R. maidis* adults choosing either leaf discs was significantly affected by the maize cultivar, the hour of evaluation and the interaction between the cultivars and hours of evaluation (Table 2.2) (Figure 2.5). Two hours after insect release, the number of *R. maidis* found in leaf disks of pyramided Bt maize expressing the toxins Cry 1F and Cry 1Ab was significantly smaller compared to the non-Bt isoline. Subsequently, the number of aphid on the Bt maize disks significantly decreased over time while in the non-Bt isoline the aphid number increased between two and six hours and plateaued after that (Figure 2.5).

Table 2.2: Repeated measures ANOVAs for the number of adults *Rhopalosiphum maidis* choosing leaf discs of either Bt maize expressing dual Cry protein (Cry 1F and Cry 1Ab) or isoline Non-Bt over a 24 hours period)

Variation source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Between subjects			
Maize Cultivar (MC)	1	46.50	<0.001
Evaluation hours (Eh)	3	165.68	0.029
MC vs Eh	1	0.22	<0.001
Error	126	-	-

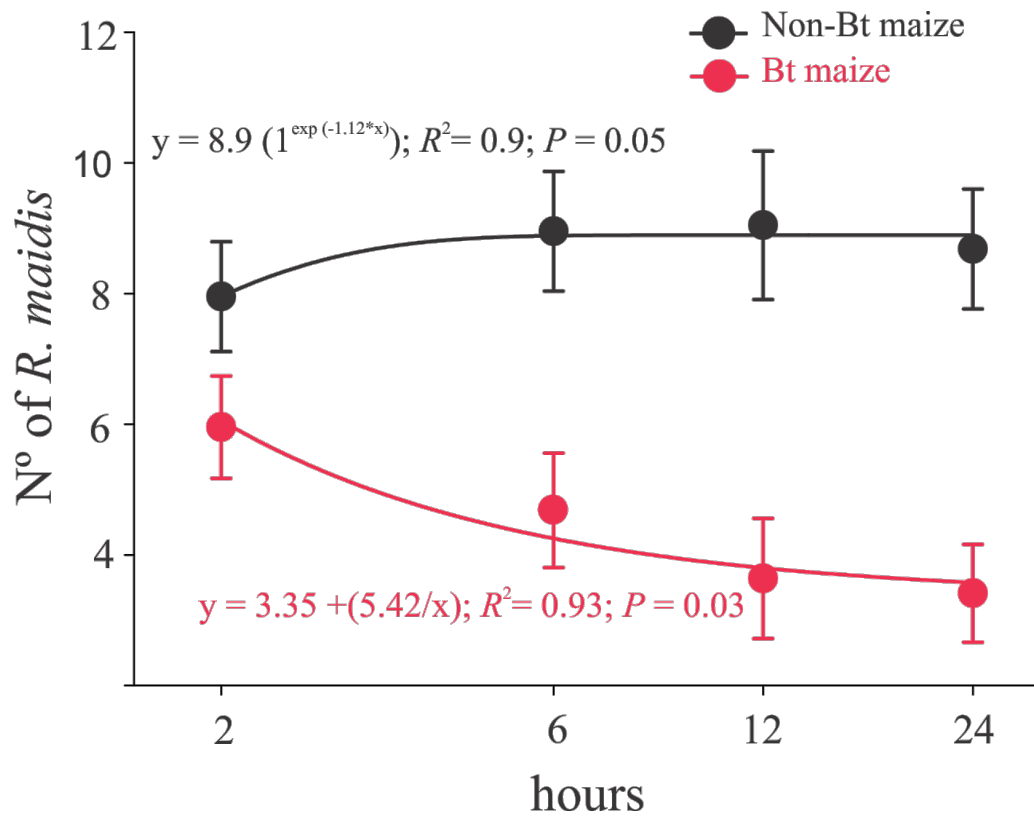


Figure 2.5: Mean of number (\pm SE) of *Rhopalosiphum maidis* adults choosing leaf discs of pyramid Bt maize expressing two Cry toxins (Cry 1F and Cry 1Ab) or Non-Bt isoline in different times.

2.4 Discussion

Using Electrical Penetration Graphs technique, the present study aimed to investigate the effects of pyramided Bt maize plants on some biological traits of the corn leaf aphid *R.maidis*. The results demonstrated the existence of negative interaction between *R. maidis* aphid and pyramided maize expressing dual-gene Bt (Cry 1Ab + Cry 1F). The aphids showed a decreased reproductive performance in addition to lower preference and reduced feeding activities on pyramided Bt maize plants compared to the non-Bt isolate.

It is widely accepted that the fitness of aphid clones is influenced by the ability to satisfactorily obtain the required nutrients. Furthermore, both their reproductive performance and fitness are determined by a combination of plant nutritional quality and their physiological capacity to obtain sufficient nutrients (Powell et al., 2006). In this context, since initiation of reproduction is a clear indication of host plant acceptance by aphids (Powell et al., 2006), the decreased reproductive output found here suggests low preference and reduced acceptance of *R.maidis* aphids for pyramided Bt maize plants.

Phytophagous insects like aphids generally present a number of different sensory and behavioural mechanisms to locate, detect and confirm the suitability of plant hosts in terms of nutritional quality and defense (Schoonhoven et al., 2005; Powell et al., 2006). In our free choice assay, the preference of aphids was altered in maize plants with a dual Bt genes. Throughout the 24-hour evaluation, the number of *R. maidis* in pyramided maize leaf discs decreased, while in the non-Bt isolate the number of insects remained constant. The differences in aphid Bt and non-Bt maize preferences may be linked to changes in host plant quality caused by pleiotropic effects of the genetic modification (Lumbierres et al., 2004; Arpaia et al., 2017). In fact, the insertion of Bt genes into the genome

of agricultural crops may induce alterations at a structural level of different traits of genetically modified plants including changes in plant composition and structure (e.g. lignin, cuticle, hairiness, etc.) (Arpaia et al., 2017). For example, higher content of lignin was reported in Bt maize (Saxena and Stotzky, 2001; Poerschmann et al., 2005) making it different in some way from non-Bt maize since lignin is a major structural component conferring strength and rigidity to cells. Differences in leaf parameters like color, topology, texture, epicuticular waxes and trichome exudates influence aphid behavior before stylet insertion (Bruce et al., 2005; Powell et al., 2006) and could explain the lower preference of *R. maidis* to the Bt plants.

However, although cues detected before stylet insertion are fundamental for the host selection process, the major factors influencing plant preference by aphids are actually detected after stylet insertion (Powell et al., 2006). Therefore, in order to address how such factors in pyramided maize plant influence aphid's preference and acceptance, detailed analysis of interaction between aphid stylets with Bt plant tissues is of great importance. Historically, the electrical penetration graph (EPG) technique has been a suitable tool for monitoring feeding activity and studying interactions between stylets of phytophagous hemipteran insects like aphids with plant tissues (Backus and Bennett, 1992; Backus et al., 2019).

Our EPG recordings of feeding behavior for *R. maidis* in pyramided Bt and non Bt maize plants showed characteristic waveforms associated with various feeding phases including non-probing, pathway and phloematic activities (Backus et al., 2005). Furthermore, differences in various parameters of these feeding phases demonstrated a detrimental effect of pyramided Bt technology on the corn leaf aphid probing and sap ingestion.

A high percentage of *R. maidis* showed extended non-probe phase on pyramided Bt maize compared to non-Bt isoline and when probing activity

occurred the total probing time of *R.maidis* was significantly shorter on pyramided Bt maize. The extended time of non-probe activity suggests the existence of resistance factors in the epidermis and mesophyll of pyramided Bt leaves as any obstacles could impede localizing or reaching phloem vessels by the stylets (Will and van Bel, 2006; Walling and Thompson, 2012). Extended time from the start of EPG to the first probe are generally associated with mechanical stimuli on the leaf surface, resulting from the presence of trichomes and the thickness of the epidermis (Helden and Tjallingii, 1993; ten Broeke et al., 2013; Benatto et al., 2018). Thicker upper epidermis and large number of trichomes in the leaves of a cultivar of *Brassica napus* have been reported to considerably delay the initiating of the first probing by the cabbage aphid *Brevicoryne brassicae* (Hao et al., 2019). Furthermore, in the mesophyll, the total duration of the apoplastic stylet pathway (C waveforms) spent by the aphids was similar among the two maize cultivars but the duration of intracellular stylet punctures (Pds waveforms) was lower on Bt plants indicating that some mesophyll-related hindrance occurred which may explain the lower feeding preference of aphids in transgenic plants. Moreover, after their stylets entered into the phloem, aphids spent similar time in ingestion although they made more E1, E2, and E2s and spent a substantial proportion of time in salivation when feeding on Non-Bt plants. Similar durations of phloem-feeding on the two cultivars suggest that the aphids did not encounter any feeding deterrents that may impede their settling (Dreyer et al., 1987; Goławska and Łukasik, 2009).

During the short cell punctures (Pds), the aphid maxillary stylets pierce the main storage sites (i.e., the protoplast and the vacuole) of secondary metabolites of plants (potential allelochemicals) to obtain additional cues for phloem finding (Van Emden and Harrington, 2017). Therefore, the high possibility that the aphids ingest the Bt toxin during the intracellular tests (Pds) in the host plant

selection process can explain the hypothesized mesophyll-related hindrance Powell et al. (2006). However, phloem does not contain significant amounts of Bt proteins (Head et al., 2001; Dutton et al., 2002; Romeis and Meissle, 2011; Meissle and Romeis, 2017) and previous studies indicated that Cry toxins under the prevailing acidic pH conditions in the gut of hemipteran insects, show almost no toxicity despite being activated (Li et al., 2011; Shao et al., 2013).

On the other hand, transgene integration may cause unintended effects such as the formation of new metabolites, or alteration levels and/or biochemistry of existing ones (Herman and Price, 2013) that could hamper nutrients ingestion with potential extended effects on reproduction. In their metabolomics assay, Hao et al. (2017) found that four transgenic maize varieties had significantly altered metabolites when compared to their respective isolines. Furthermore, genetic modification can influence phloem sap composition through alterations in amino acid characteristics and C:N balance (Coviella, 2002; Faria et al., 2007) resulting in a changed aphid performance (Hunt et al., 2006) and corroborating the negative effect on the reproductive performance of the *R. maidis* on maize plants expressing dual Cry proteins (Cry 1Ab + Cry 1 F) found in our study. Our results provide evidence that Bt maize plants expressing dual genes (Cry 1Ab+Cry 1F) reduced fecundity of *R. maidis* by affecting the preference and the feeding behavior. Although these results indicate that *R. maidis* do not present a risk of becoming economically important pests on pyramided Bt maize crops, further studies related to changes in the biochemistry and physiology of these transgenic plants should be performed in order to better understand their interaction with non-target insect species.

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Chapter 3

Sublethal effects of imidacloprid associated with NaCl on the feeding behavior of the *Bemisia tabaci* on Bt soybean plants

Sublethal effects of imidacloprid associated with NaCl on the feeding behavior of the *Bemisia tabaci* on Bt soybean plants. Paula D. de Paulo, Khalid Haddi, Tiago M. de Oliveira, Eliseu J. G. Pereira, Eugenio E. Oliveira; **Manuscript to be submitted to Pest Management Science.**

Abstract

The application of neonicotinoid insecticides individually and in combination with Sodium Chloride (NaCl) is common practice in Brazilian agricultural (e.g., soybean) production. The use of the salt (0.5% w/v) associated with this insecticide has effectively suppressed target herbivores, and guaranteed greater sustainability (i.e., longer time of use) of insecticidal molecules. However, the potential effects of this practice on non-target organisms (including secondary pests), it has not been the subject of investigation. Thus, we evaluate the toxicity of neonicotinoid imidacloprid, in association with or not to NaCl, the whitefly *Bemisia tabaci* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae). Subsequently, *B. tabaci* feeding behavior was evaluated through the EPG technique in soybean plants exposed to LC₁₀ of imidacloprid with or without association with NaCl to investigate possible sublethal effects on the feeding behavior of these insects. The association of NaCl did not modify the toxicity of the solutions containing imidacloprid (LC₅₀ = 0.031 (0.027-0.039)). However, we observed some disturbances in the feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* caused by sublethal concentration (LC₁₀) (e.g., salivation "E1" and ingestion of phloem "E2") though, these disturbances were not observed when NaCl was added in the formulations of insecticides. In this way, we concluded that the LC₁₀ without the addition of NaCl was able to cause more evident stress in the feeding behavior of *B. tabaci*. More studies are needed to evaluate possible effects of this practice, and thus, endorse strategies in integrated pest management.

Key words: Integrated pest management, Electrical penetration graphs, whitefly

3.1 Introduction

Soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr., Fabaceae] is one of the crops with the greatest introduction of technology for insect control, with the development of genetically modified plants. The cultivars of transgenic soybeans expressing proteins from cry genes of *Bacillus thuringiensis* agronomically called Bt soybeans, were developed for pest control effective measure to reduce the population size of serious target pests in soybean fields of the Lepdopteran order (Yu et al., 2014). Although Bt technology on soybean is extremely effective in controlling pest targets of the order lepdoptera, the crop is still vulnerable to severe attacks of important pests of the order Hemipetera (e.g., "stink bug complex") (Corrêa-Ferreira, 2005; Tuelher et al., 2016).

Besides that, what has been observed in recent years also is, an increase of others insects of order Hemiptera (e.g., *Bemisia tabaci* biotype B) in areas cultivated with Bt soybeans, mainly in the reproductive stages of the plant. Until very recently, *B. tabaci* was considered only as an occasional pest; however, it is now considered a key pest of soybean in some regions (Lima et al., 2002; Oliveira et al., 2018). *B. tabaci* complex are highly polyphagous and invasive, particularly the Middle East–Asia Minor 1 biotype (MEAM1, known as B biotype) (Oliveira et al., 2001; Boykin, 2014). This species cause devastating losses on important agricultural crops (e.g., Soybean plants) (Barro et al., 2011; Oliveira et al., 2012) due to damage caused through direct feeding (phloem sap-sucking), toxin injection into the plant vascular system, but most importantly because of their transmission of various plant viruses (Navas-Castillo et al., 2011; Polston et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2019).

Considering the potential risks of losses caused by sap-sucking insects on Bt soybean crops, there is a need to improve the management of these pests and the

proper use of insecticides is still the most effective tool for the control of these pests (Ghimire and Woodward, 2013; Guedes, 2016). Imidacloprid is a systemic insecticide that is readily absorbed in plant tissues, nectar, and pollen (Bonmatin et al., 2014; Codling et al., 2016), and is one of the most widespread neonicotinoid insecticides in the world; it affects the cholinergic pathways, disrupting the insect nervous system and acting as a neurotoxin (Wood and Goulson, 2017; Blacquièrè et al., 2012; Jeschke et al., 2011).

With the degradation of neonicotinoids in soybean plants, *B. tabaci* are likely to be exposed to sublethal concentration of neonicotinoids over relatively long periods. It is therefore expected that neonicotinoids, aside from a direct (lethal) effect on the whitefly, may also cause a range of sublethal effects on this pest. In addition, the use of sodium chloride (NaCl, 0.5% w/v) mixed with insecticide emulsion containing organophosphate insecticides leads to 50% reduction of the insecticide dose to be used without loss of control efficiency (Corso and Gazzoni, 1998; Sosa-Gómez et al., 2009). However, little is known about the physiological basis of this synergistic effect, which requires further investigation.

Previous studies have reported that neonicotinoid insecticides negatively affect the feeding behavior of several hemipterans, including whitefly (Nauen, 1995; Elbert and Nauen, 2004). However, the sublethal effect of neonicotinoids with NaCl yet to be reported. Thus, in this work, we evaluated the mortality response by concentration of imidacloprid with or without association with NaCl to *B.tabaci* whitefly, aiming to establish sublethal and median concentrations (LC₁₀ and LC₅₀). Our study focuses on the effects of the sublethal concentration (LC₁₀) of the insecticide associated with NaCl on the feeding behavior of *B tabaci*. Consequently, this study provides some information for the effects of neonicotinoids in the presence of NaCl to better understand the effect of this practice and to endorse strategies in integrated pest management.

3.2 Material & Methods

3.2.1 Plant material and whitefly population

For all toxicity and feeding behavior assays, soybean plants (*Glycine max*) from the TMG 2185IPRO cultivar were used. These plants express the Cry1Ac toxin conferring resistance to several caterpillar species that attack soybean plants and also bear Roundup Ready (RR2) confers tolerance to the herbicide glyphosate (Monsanto, 2013). Colony of *B. tabaci* MEAM1 was reared on eggplants (*Solanum melongena* L.) and cabbage (*Brassica oleracea* var. capitata) within metal-frame cages covered by insect-proof net under greenhouse conditions (temperature ranges of $24 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ (day: night), relative humidity (70-80%) and photoperiod of 16:8 h (light: dark). Cohorts of whiteflies used in bioassays were synchronized for age (approximately one week old adults) to guarantee homogeneity at the time of the experiment.

3.2.2 Concentration-mortality bioassays

A commercial formulation of the neonicotinoid insecticide imidacloprid (water dispersible granules at 700 g active ingredient (i.e.)/L; Bayer CropScience, Sao Paulo, Brazil) was used in distilled water + Tween (0.1%). The effects of imidacloprid were assessed with and without salt addition (NaCl, 0.5% w/v). Two controls consisting of water and Tween (0.1% w/v %) or water and Tween (0.1% w/v %) and NaCl were used. At least five concentrations of the neonicotinoid insecticide imidacloprid diluted in distilled water and Tween a (0.1%) with or without salt addition were used. The concentrations ranged from 10 % to 80 % of the recommended field dose (i.e., $4.2 \mu\text{g} / \text{cm}^2$).

The concentration assay was performed using two different methodologies

using leaves on plants or cut leaflets in petri dishes. In the first one, adult insects were exposed to treatments on plant leaflets (vegetative stage V3). Briefly, the second fully expanded trifoliolate leaves were used and the highlighted leaflets were immersed in the insecticidal solutions and then drying was allowed for approximately two hours at room temperature ($25^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$). Soybean plants previously grown during 25 days under greenhouse conditions (temperature ranges of $24 \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ [day: night]; a photoperiod of 16:8 h [light: dark]) with three trifoliolate leaves fully developed (growth stage V3) were utilized. The adults were placed on the abaxial side of leaves previously treated and isolated with clipcages.

The second method used cut leaflets kept in Petri dishes. The exposure was by immersion in insecticidal solutions as described above. The treated leaflets were inserted into the Petri dishes (10 cm of diameter \times 1.7 cm of height) on a filter paper moistened with 1 ml of distilled water.

In both methods, five replicates, each with fifteen adults (approximately one week old) for each concentration. Insects were counted as dead when they were unable to move their body when stimulated with a fine bristle brush after a 24 h exposure to treatments.

3.2.3 Probing and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* on plants treated with sublethal dose of imidacloprid using the Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG) technique

The second fully expanded leaf of each plant was treated with LC₁₀ (0.01071 mg/L; see result section) of imidacloprid associated or not to NaCl, and the respective controls (H₂O + Tween) and (H₂O + Tween + NaCl). The insecticidal solutions and the respective controls were applied by the immersion method, and after two hours (drying time) the plants were used to study the probing and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* (MEAM1). The whitefly adult females previously kept in soybean plants without insecticides were monitored using the Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG) technique for eight hours of recording. A thin gold wire (2 cm length × 12.5 μm in diameter) glued to a thin copper wire (2 cm length) was attached to the pronotum of each whitefly with a tiny drop of water based silver-conducting glue paint (Rodríguez-López et al., 2011). Whiteflies were placed on the abaxial side of the second youngest leaf of each soybean plant with the respective treatments. Recordings were performed using two Giga-8 DC amplifiers with 1 Giga-Ohm input resistance (EPG Systems, Wageningen, The Netherlands). EPG output was set to 50 × gain and data were acquired at 100 Hz using DATAQ Di 700-710 A/D data acquisition USB device card (Data Instruments, Ohio, USA). Recordings were conducted under laboratory conditions at 25 ± 2 °C inside a Faraday cage to avoid electrical noise and interference. A new plant of each treatment and insect was used for each recording. Data acquisition and EPG analysis from 19 individual adult whitefly females per treatment (LC₁₀ and control); and 17 individual adult whitefly females per treatment (LC₁₀ + NaCl and control) were conducted using Stylet+ software (EPG Systems, Wageningen, The Netherlands). EPG variables related to

the probing and feeding behavior of the whiteflies were processed and analysed using the EPG-Excel data Worksheet v 5.0 (Sarría et al., 2009).

3.2.4 Analysis of Electrical Penetration Graphs (EPG) waveforms

EPG sequential and non-sequential variables from the EPG-Excel data workbook v. 5.0 were selected for each treatment. The whitefly feeding-associated waveforms, which were previously correlated with behavioral events of *Trialeurodes vaporariorum* (West.) by Janssen et al. (1989) and in *B. tabaci* by Jiang et al. (1999), were identified. These waveforms were: waveform np, non-probing behavior (no stylet contact with the leaf tissue); waveform C, intercellular apoplastic stylet pathway where the insects show a cyclic activity of mechanical stylet penetration and secretion of saliva; waveform pd (potential drop), represents brief (4 to 12 s intracellular stylet punctures during the pathway phase (C). There are two waveforms related with the phloem activity: waveform E1, salivation into phloem sieve elements at the beginning of the phloem phase; waveform E2, correlated with passive phloem sap uptake from the sieve elements. The term “probe” refers to any type of event during the period in which the stylet of an individual insect is located in the plant tissue, and “no-probe” refers to the event with no waveform (indicating that the individual has its stylet outside plant tissues).

The EPG variables (mean \pm standard error) were calculated as described in (Backus et al., 2007): PPW, proportion of individuals that produced the waveform type; NWEI, Number of Waveform Events per Insect was calculated using the sum of the number of events of a particular waveform divided by the total number of insects under each treatment; WDI, Waveform Duration per Insect was calculated using the sum of durations of each event of a particular waveform

made by each individual insect that produced that waveform divided by the total number of insects under each treatment. If there is not event for a particular waveform then scored by 0; WDEI, Waveform Duration per Event per Insect is the sum of the duration of the events for a particular waveform divided by the total number of events of that particular waveform under each treatment.

3.2.5 Statistical analyses

Concentration-mortality data were subjected to probit analysis using SAS software, and 95% confidence intervals for resistance ratios were estimated following (Robertson et al., 2017) and considered significant when not including the value 1. Feeding behavior parameters were submitted to univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA), multiple pairwise comparisons, where necessary, were performed using the Tukey's test ($P < 0.05$). Kruskal-Wallis and multiple pairwise comparisons using Dunn's test were performed when the premises of normality and homogeneity were not satisfied. Statistical analyses were performed using SigmaPlot 12.5 (Systat Software, San Jose, CA, USA).

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Concentration-mortality results

The toxicity of imidacloprid was similar for both the bioassays performed on soybean plants ($LC_{50} = 0.023$ [0.021-0.028 mg/L] and Petri dishes ($LC_{50} = 0.024$ [0.019-0.025] mg/L) (Figure 3.1). The association of NaCl did not impact the toxicity of the solutions containing imidacloprid independently of the exposure method (Soybean plants: $LC_{50} = 0.031$ [0.027-0.039] mg / L) (Petri dishes: 0.025 [0.021-0.029] mg/L). The results showed that the two forms of exposure did not result in differences in the susceptibility of *B. tabaci* to imidacloprid and that the association of NaCl did not potentiate the insecticidal action of imidacloprid against whiteflies in 24 hours (Figure 3.1).

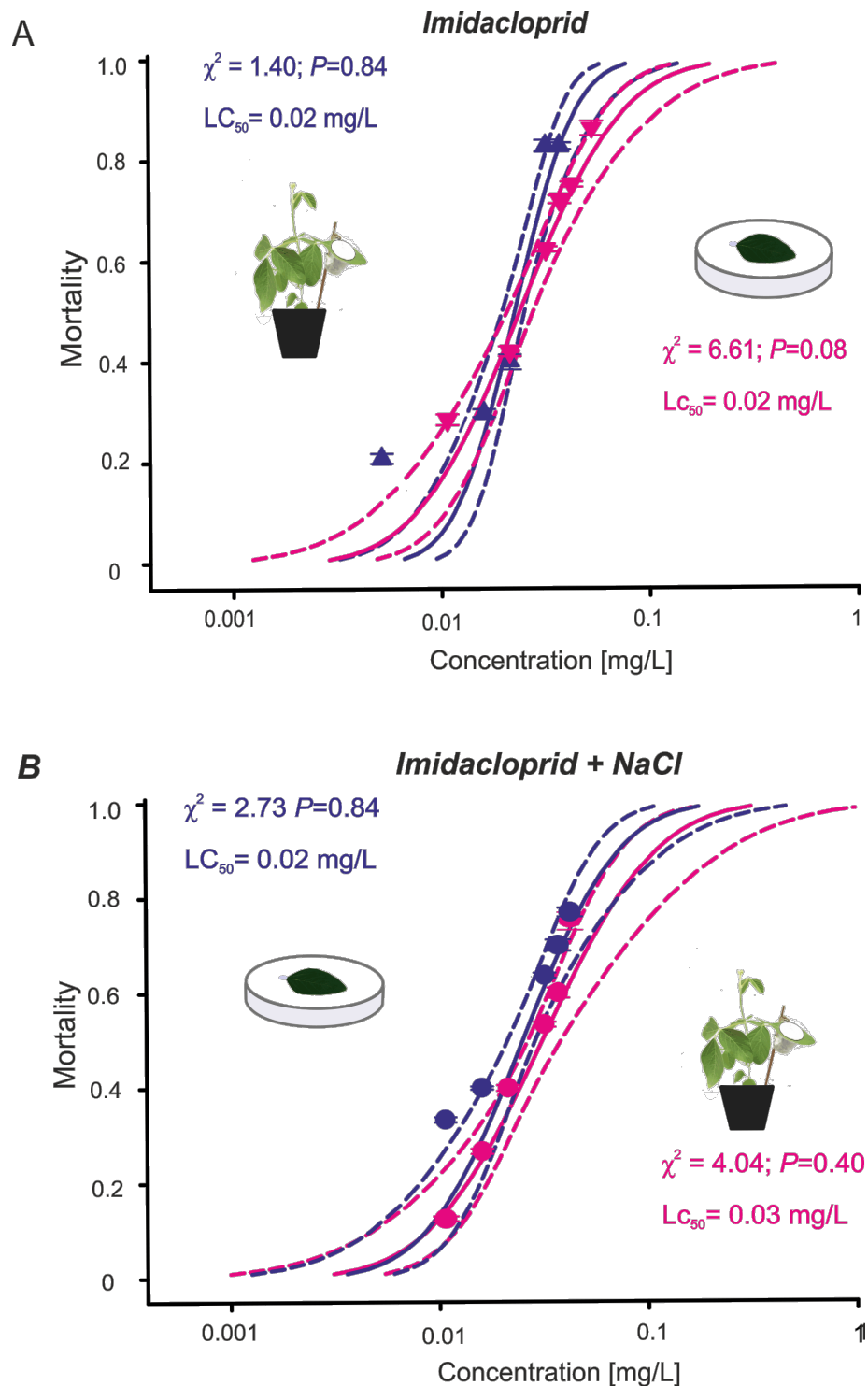


Figure 3.1: Toxicity of imidacloprid to whiteflies *Bemisia tabaci*. Lethal concentration (LC) values were estimated based in concentration–mortality bioassays using probit analysis. A: Imidacloprid and B: Imidacloprid + NaCl. The symbols show the averaged mortality, and the vertical bars represent the standard error (SE).

3.3.2 Probing and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* on soybean plants exposed to LC₁₀ of imidacloprid associated or not to NaCl

EPG variables related to non-phloem and phloem phases were analyzed to study the probing and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* on soybean plants. Our results show that some parameters of whitefly feeding behavior were altered on soybean plants exposed to LC₁₀ of imidacloprid associated or no to NaCl. In non-phloem variables (Figure 3.2 A), the number of waveforms per event per insect (NWEI) did not differ between the treatments for the non-probe ($F = 1.9$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.14$) and pathway stylet "C" waveforms ($F = 2.2$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.10$). However, the number of "Pd" waveforms was differ ($H_2O = 18.8 \pm 4.4$; $H_2O + NaCl = 7.9 \pm 1.8$; $LC_{10} = 5.2 \pm 1.6$; $LC_{10} + NaCl = 7.6 \pm 2.1$) ($H = 9.36$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.025$). Whitefly maintained in plants treated with LC₁₀ performed lower Pd's than whiteflies fed on plants treated with LC₁₀ + NaCl and the respective controls.

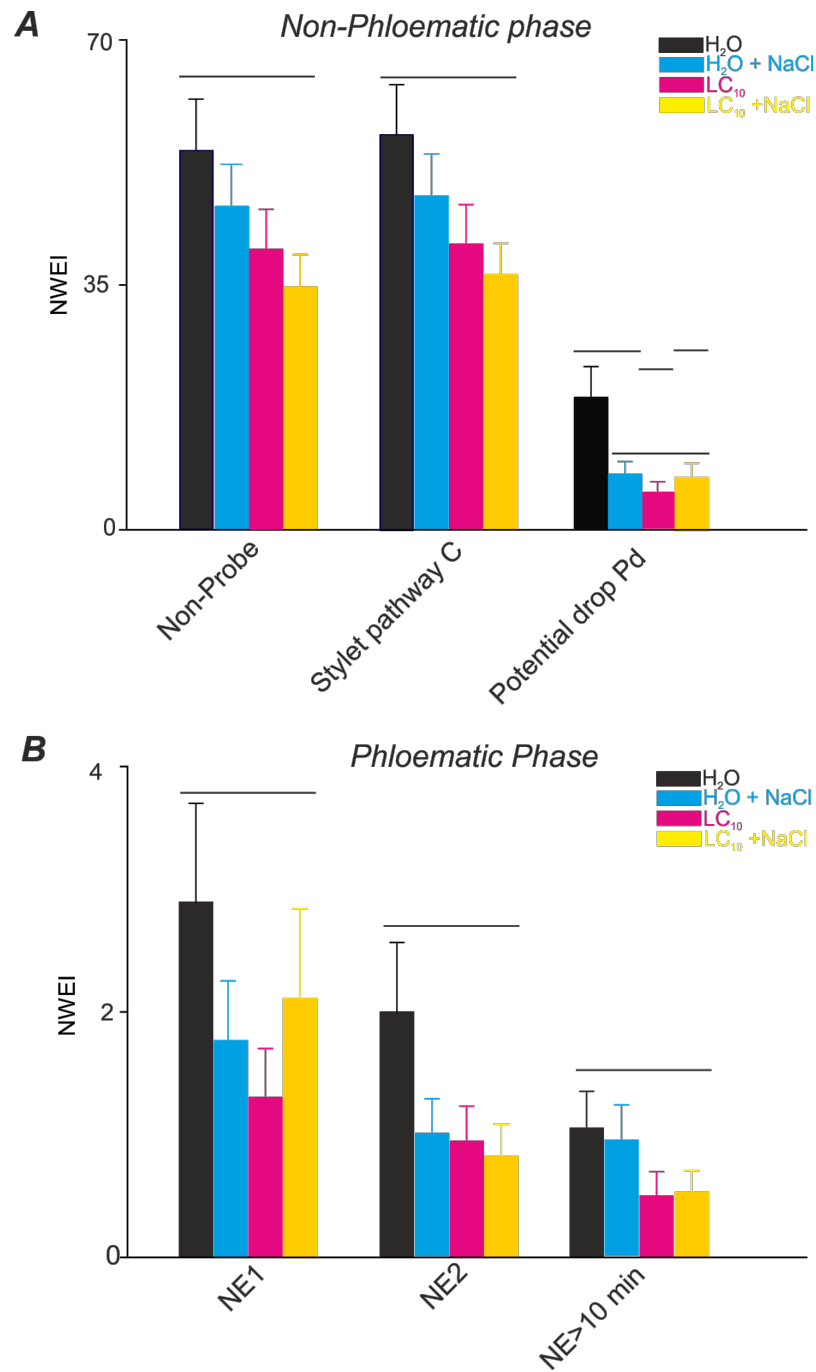


Figure 3.2: Mean \pm SE values of EPG variables for the probing behavior (Probe and phloem Ingestion) of *Bemisia tabaci* female adults on soybean plants exposed LC₁₀ of imidacloprid with or without NaCl. NWEI: Number of Waveform Events per Insect. A: (Non-probe, Stylet pathway and Potential drop “Pd”) B: (E1, phloem salivation; E2, phloem ingestion; E2s, sustained E2 (>10 minutes). Parameter bars under different horizontal lines are statistically different ($p \leq 0.05$).

Similarly the duration in minutes per insect (WDI) did not differ between the treatments for the non-probe ($F = 0.446$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.707$), although, the duration of stylet pathway "C" waveforms ($H_2O = 222.3 \pm 22.04$; $H_2O + NaCl = 248.3 \pm 22.2$; $LC_{10} = 301.0 \pm 23.0$; $LC_{10} + NaCl = 249.5 \pm 18.3$ min) ($F = 2.98$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.037$) and "Pd" waveforms was differ ($H_2O = 1.76 \pm 0.43$; $H_2O + NaCl = 0.92 \pm 0.22$; ; $LC_{10} = 0.50 \pm 0.16$; $LC_{10} + NaCl = 0.92 \pm 0.3$ min) ($H = 9.86$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.031$) (Figure 3.3 A and B). *B. tabaci* maintained in plants treated with LC_{10} performed Stylet pathway "C" for longer time and Pd's for less time, than whiteflies fed plants treated with $LC_{10} + NaCl$ and the respective controls.

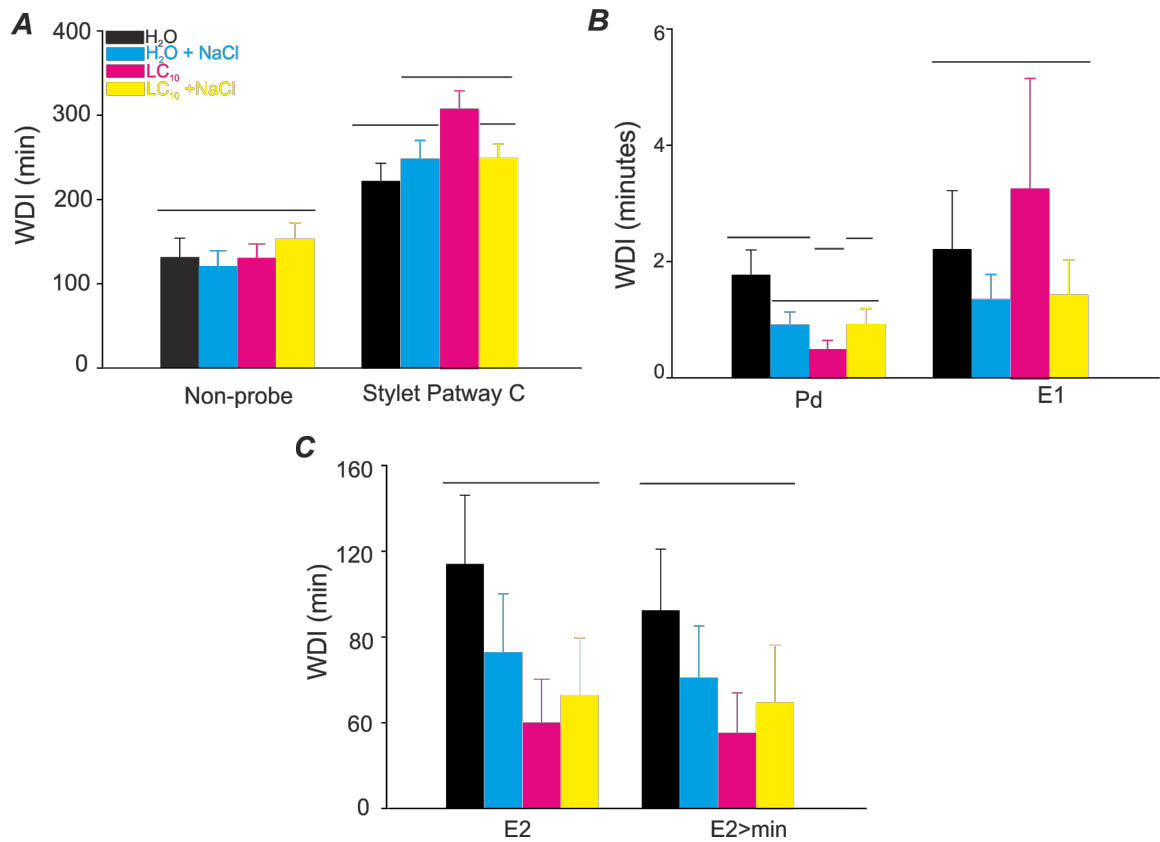


Figure 3.3: Mean \pm SE values of EPG variables for the probing behavior (Probe and phloem Ingestion) of *Bemisia tabaci* female adults on soybean plants exposed CL10 of imidacloprid with or without NaCl. WDI: Waveform Duration per Insect. A: (Non-probe and Stylet pathway) B: Potential drop “Pd” and E1, phloem salivation) C: (E2, phloem ingestion; E2s, sustained E2 (>10 minutes). Parameter bars under different horizontal lines are statistically different ($p \leq 0.05$).

Significant differences were found for the duration per event per insect (WDE) of the non-probe ($H_2O = 3.9 \pm 0.4$; $H_2O + NaCl = 2.6 \pm 0.3$; $LC_{10} = 3.1 \pm 0.3$; $LC_{10} + NaCl = 4.5 \pm 0.5$ min) ($H = 24.7$, $df = 3$, $P < 0.001$), Stylet pathway “C” ($H_2O = 3.9 \pm 0.25$; $H_2O + NaCl = 5.2 \pm 0.5$; $LC_{10} = 7.1 \pm 0.8$; $LC_{10} + NaCl = 6.8 \pm 0.7$ min) ($H = 60.7$, $df = 3$, $P < 0.001$) and “Pd” waveforms ($H_2O = 0.09 \pm 0.002$; $H_2O + NaCl = 0.12 \pm 0.003$; $LC_{10} = 0.09 \pm 0.003$; $LC_{10} + NaCl = 0.12 \pm 0.003$ min) ($H = 45.8$, $df = 3$, $P < 0.001$) (Figure 3.4 A and B).

In phloem variables, the salivation (E1), phloem sap ingestion (E2) and

sustained phloem sap ingestion (E2s), the NWEI and WDI were not significantly different (Figure 3.4 B, 3.3 A and C). Significant differences were found for the duration per event per insect (WDE) in: (E1) [$H_2O = 0.47 \pm 0.05$; $H_2O + NaCl = 0.75 \pm 0.1$; $LC_{10} = 2.5 \pm 1.1$; $LC_{10} + NaCl = 0.7 \pm 0.07$ ($H = 21.4$; $df = 3$; $P < 0.001$)] and (E2) [$H_2O = 56.5 \pm 15.9$; $H_2O + NaCl = 72.7 \pm 22.7$; $LC_{10} = 41.9 \pm 19.3$; $LC_{10} + NaCl = 63.95 \pm 31.6$; ($H = 7.9$; $df = 3$; $P = 0.05$)].

Significant differences were not found for the sustained phloem sap (E2s) [$H_2O = 105.5 \pm 26.0$; $H_2O + NaCl = 76.6 \pm 23.82$; $LC_{10} = 77.6 \pm 33.5$; $LC_{10} + NaCl = 96.7 \pm 46.4$ ($H = 0.95$; $df = 3$; $P = 0.82$)] (Figure 3.4 A and C).

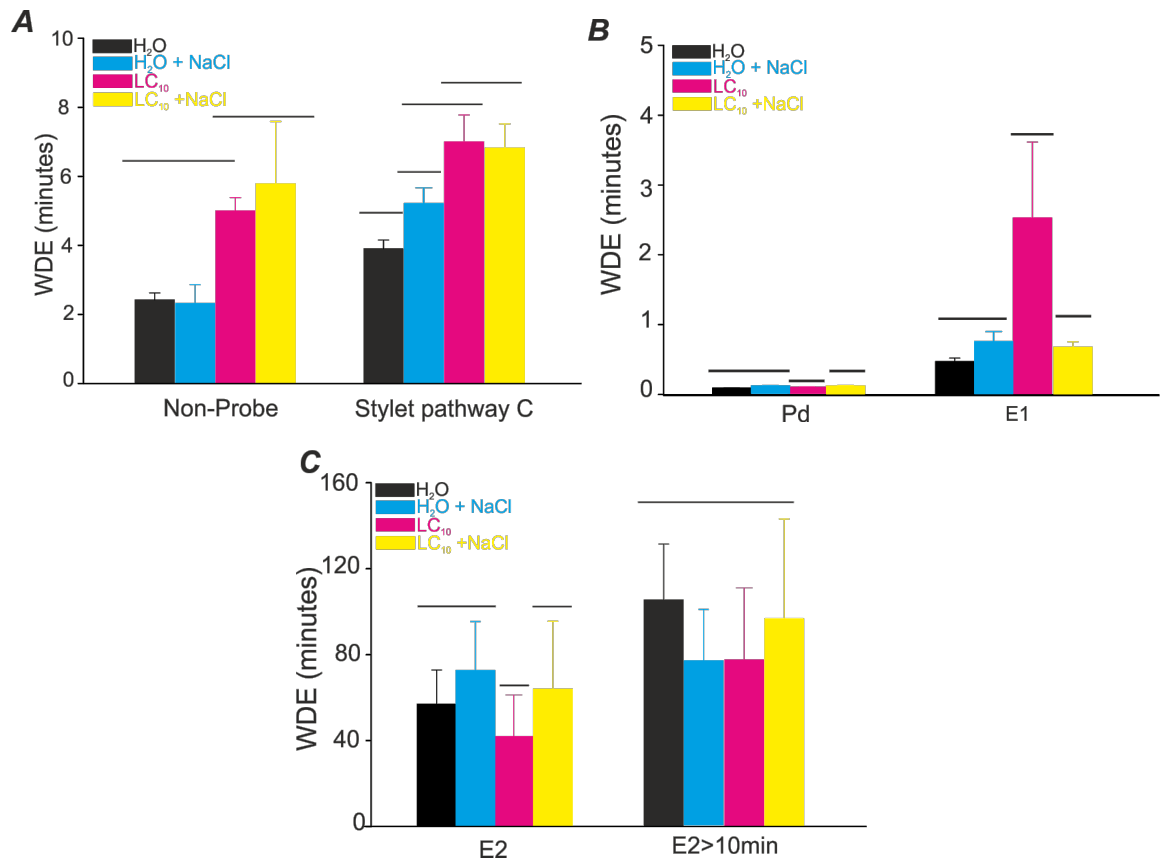


Figure 3.4: Mean±standard error values of EPG variables for the probing behavior (Probe and phloem Ingestion) of *Bemisia tabaci* female adults on soybean plants exposed CL₁₀ of imidacloprid with or without NaCl. WDE: Waveform duration (min) per event. A: (Non-probe and Stylet pathway) B: Potential drop “Pd” and E1, phloem salivation) C: (E2, phloem ingestion; E2s, sustained E2 (>10 minutes) Parameter bars under different horizontal lines are statistically different ($p \leq 0.05$).

3.4 Discussion

The results of this study suggest that the addition of sodium chloride (NaCl) to the insecticidal solution did not promote an increase in mortality of *B. tabaci* adults in 24 h independent of methodology (Figure 3.1). However, it was possible to observe insecticide-mediated stress to sublethal concentration (LC₁₀) without the association of the NaCl in soybean plants. Some parameters of feeding behavior differed between the treatments (e.g, Non probe, Stylet pathway "C", potential drop "Pd", and phloem ingestion "E2").

Our results show that the number and duration of intracellular stylet punctures (pds) were significantly lower in soybean plants treated with only LC₁₀ of imidacloprid. Garzo et al. (2015) showed that the aphid *Myzus persicae* susceptible to imidacloprid reduces the time in intercellular apoplastic stylet pathway C, which includes intracellular stylet punctures (pds), on imidacloprid-treated. Aphids are able to ingest small amounts of cell contents during Subphase II-3 of intracellular stylet punctures (Pds) (Mart et al., 1997). *B. tabaci* produces pds without clear distinct subphases, although two subphases could be distinguished for some potential drops (Jiang et al., 1999; Johnson and Walker, 1999) thus, the reduction of intracellular puncture may have elapsed from the ingestion of small amounts of insecticide acquired from the cellular content. *B. tabaci* that fed of Soybean plants treated with the insecticide solution NaCl did not reduce intercellular apoplastic stylet pathway C, which includes intracellular stylet punctures (Pds), the NaCl may have reduced the perception of the presence of the insecticide by these insects.

B. tabaci that fed on soybean plants exposed to LC₁₀ of Imidacloprid presented a difference in relation to the phloem-related activities. Salivation duration was significantly higher in plants exposed to LC₁₀ without NaCl. Sap-sucking insects

inject watery saliva (E1 waveform) to overcome potential plant resistance factors at the phloem level, such as by preventing sieve element sealing (Tjallingii, 2006). The duration and frequency of saliva secretion may indicate the suitability of the host plant and define non-host plants (Peng and Walker, 2018). In our study, the sublethal concentration of imidacloprid caused evident stress in whiteflies marked by increased salivation in plants treated with LC₁₀, this stress was not evidenced in plants treated with the insecticidal solution + NaCl.

In addition, whitefly fed on soybean plants treated only with LC₁₀ significantly reduced E2 duration per event (WDE). On the other hand, *B. tabaci* fed on plants treated with LC₁₀ + NaCl did not show reduction in phloem ingestion when compared to respective controls. In this way, we can infer that when there is the addition of NaCl on insecticide solution with imidacloprid, whiteflies were able to feed on the phloem longer (Figure 3.4).

Some studies has shown that areas treated with low concentrations of NaCl are preferred by *Euchistus heros* (Corso, 1990; Marcomini, 2016), which may be a response of neurons expressing Gr5a receptors which responds to the stimulation of low concentrations of NaCl - and / or Gr66a - resulting in the behavior of NaCl aversion in insects (Marella et al., 2006; Yarmolinsky et al., 2009). This physiological response may induce greater contact with the insecticidal molecule, thus reflecting on a behavioral response modifying the feeding behavior and consequently, occurring greater ingestion of insecticide (Corso and Gazzoni, 1998).

Our study shows that LC₁₀ of imidacloprid affected probe activities (duration of intracellular stylet punctures "Pd", duration of Stylet Pathway "C"), as well as affected the duration of activities related to phloem intake (salivation E1 and ingestion of phloem E2). The addition of NaCl to imidacloprid did not affect the parameters of phloem intake, so our study shows that LC₁₀ without the addition

of NaCl was able to cause more evident stress in the feeding behavior of *B. tabaci*.

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Final considerations

Here was evaluated the preference and feeding behavior of *Rhopalosiphum maidis* in Bt maize plants expressing two Cry proteins (Cry1AB and Cry 1F). The susceptibility and feeding behavior of *Bemisia tabaci* in soybean plants exposed to neonicotinoid imidacloprid, in association or not with NaCl. Moreover, was evaluated the feeding behavior and population performance of *Bemisia tabaci* in Bt soybean plants, expressing the Cry1Ab toxin exposed to elevated concentrations of CO₂.

Bt maize plants expressing dual genes (Cry 1Ab+Cry 1F) reduce the preference, affecting the feeding behavior and fecundity of *R. maidis*. These results indicate that *R. maidis* do not present a risk of becoming economically important pests on pyramided Bt maize crops, further studies related to changes in the biochemistry and physiology of these transgenic plants should be performed in order to better understand their interaction with non-target insect species.

The association of NaCl did not modify the toxicity of the solutions containing imidacloprid to *Bemisia tabaci*. However, some disturbances in the feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* caused by sublethal concentration (LC₁₀) were observed.

Was also observed that changes in the C:N concentration and in plant morphology under eCO₂, alters whitefly life history and feeding behavior. We

observed a significant increase of the egg to adult developmental time and a decrease in the fertility and fecundity of *B. tabaci* in plants under eCO₂. In addition, *B. tabaci* that fed on soybeans grown under eCO₂ negatively affected several parameters related to phloem sap ingestion and host plant resistance (e.g., reduction of E2, E2s, longest E2 and greater contribution of E1 to phloem ingestion). We expect that soybeans grown under future climate conditions will negatively affect the performance and feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* whiteflies, suggesting a reduction in the number of offspring and population growth.