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- 1 Pyrethroid Resistance and Its Inheritance in a Field Population of
- 2 Hippodamia convergens (Guérin-Méneville) (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae)

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Abstract

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The convergent lady beetle (CLB), *Hippodamia convergens* (Guérin-Méneville), a species widely distributed and used in biological control, has exhibited high survival under field and laboratory conditions when treated with field rates of the pyrethroid λ -cyhalothrin, a highly unusual phenomenon for a natural enemy. This work investigated and characterized the phenomenon of pyrethroid resistance in a population of this species collected in Georgia, USA. The mechanism and level of resistance were evaluated by treating parental populations with λ -cyhalothrin \pm piperonyl butoxide (PBO). The inheritance bioassay utilized parental crosses and backcrosses between parental populations to obtain testable progenies. Adult beetles from populations and progenies were topically treated with different doses of λ cyhalothrin (technical grade) to calculate knockdown (KD) and lethal (LD) doses, and to investigate the dominance based on a single dose and whether resistance is autosomal and monogenic (null hypothesis). Genetic variation in the parental populations was examined by applying a discriminating dose for resistant individuals (0.5 g/L). The data indicate that resistance is due to at least two factors: knockdown resistance and enzymatic detoxification of the insecticide. The knockdown effect is recessive and linked to the X-chromosome. Variability in proportions of individuals within families dying following knockdown indicated genetic variation in the resistant population. Further studies should be done to investigate the role of sex linked inheritance of resistance in the species and interactions of the various mechanisms involved in resistance.

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KEY WORDS: Lady beetles; pyrethroid; resistance inheritance; piperonyl butoxide; λ cvhalothrin

1. Introduction

Effective integration of insecticides and natural enemies has been a goal of integrated pest management (IPM) since the concept was first fully articulated by Stern *et al.* [1], although at the time and in the subsequent decades this integration has seemed highly unlikely. Most organophosphate, carbamate, and pyrethroid insecticides have broad activity spectra, with little selectivity toward natural enemies [2]. Insecticides can affect natural enemies, manifesting as death or alterations in behavior and fitness, via direct intoxication from insecticide application, or indirectly through consumption of contaminated prey or through scarcity of prey or hosts [3, 4].

Overcoming this incompatibility is the most difficult aspect of integrating biological control agents and insecticides in IPM strategies. An ideal resolution is to replace all broad spectrum products with insecticides of greater selectivity [5, 6], but this is highly impractical at present. Some efforts have been made to utilize insecticide-resistant natural enemies in IPM, but such resistance in natural enemies is highly unusual relative to that observed in pests.

Intensive insecticide use has selected for resistance to multiple classes of insecticides in numerous arthropod species, the vast majority of which are herbivores. Since 1914, when the first instance of resistance was observed in the San Jose scale, *Quadraspidiotus perniciosus* (Comstock) (Hemiptera: Diaspididae), more than 500 pest species resistant to insecticides have been recorded [7]. Insecticide resistance in natural enemies has also been reported, but much less frequently than for pest species. The predatory mite *Neoseiulus* (=*Amblyseius*) *fallacis* (Garman) (Acari: Phytoseiidae) was found to be resistant to azinphosmethyl in the 1970s [8]. Subsequently, more cases were observed in predatory mites [9, 10]. Among insect natural enemies, field resistance has been reported for the parasitoid *Anisopteromalus calandrae* (Howard) (Hymenoptera: Pteromalidae) to malathion [11], and populations of the

lacewing *Chrysoperla carnea* (Stephens) (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae) have exhibited resistance to carbaryl [12] and organophosphates and pyrethroids [2, 13, 14]. Similarly, Suckling et al. [9] found pyrethroid-resistant predatory mites in apple orchards in New Zealand.

Although Coccinellidae have been widely studied and used in biological control for over a century, insecticide resistance has rarely been reported in this group of natural enemies. Lady beetles commonly occur in many ecosystems and are valued for their contributions to biological control of soft-bodied arthropod pests, such as aphids, whiteflies, scales, and mites [6, 15, 16]. Relative to other entomophages, lady beetles tend to be less susceptible to insecticides than other aphidophagous natural enemies, such as lacewings, syrphids, hemipterans, and hymenopteran parasitoids [17]. Studies of different species and populations of lady beetles and insecticides reveal variation in lady beetle susceptibility to insecticides [18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24], and this variation may be fodder for selection of insecticide resistance in the field. Indeed, *Coleomegilla maculata* (De Geer) (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae) populations in cotton fields were found to be resistant to DDT and several organophosphates by Head *et al.* [25] and Graves *et al.* [26]. More recently, a population of another lady beetle species, *Eriopis connexa* (Germar) (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae), collected from cabbage fields in Brazil was found to be 20-fold resistant to the pyrethroid λ-cyhalothrin relative to other populations [24].

The convergent lady beetle (CLB) *Hippodamia convergens* (Guérin-Méneville) is a cosmopolitan species important in numerous agroecosystems [27]. Being widely distributed, populations of CLB are exposed to a wide variety of insecticides across time and space [19, 23, 28, 29, 30]. This fact may explain differential survival among lady beetle species of cotton fields in Georgia, USA, when exposed to λ-cyhalothrin, a broad spectrum pyrethroid insecticide frequently used in various crops [23, 28, 30, 31].

This study was conducted to investigate pyrethroid resistance (specifically, λ -

cyhalothrin) in CLB in Georgia and to determine if the metabolism involved is suppressed by the synergist piperonyl butoxide (PBO). Furthermore, inheritance of the resistance and number of factors involved in the resistance were also examined.

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100 2. Material and Methods 101 This study was carried out at the Biological Control Laboratory of the Tifton Campus of 102 the University of Georgia (Tifton, GA). 103 **2.1. Chemicals.** The insecticide used in the experiments was the pyrethroid λ -cyhalothrin 104 (technical grade 99.5%; Chem Service, West Chester, PA, USA) and the synergist piperonyl 105 butoxide (PBO) at 80% (Endura PB 80 EC-NF, 80% PBO, Endura Fine Chemicals, Bologna, 106 Italy). 107 **2.2. Sources of H. convergens (CLB) populations.** Two populations of H. convergens were 108 established and maintained in the laboratory. One population (designated 'Hc-CA'), which 109 originated from field collections in California (Central Valley near Fresno, CA), was 110 purchased in April 2011 from ARBICO Organics (Oro Valley, AZ). The second population 111 (designated 'Hc-GA') was established from beetles collected in crimson clover in Decatur 112 County, Georgia, USA (coordinates 30° 45' 45.34" N and 84° 28' 49.75" W) in April 2011. 113 **2.3. CLB maintenance**. Larvae and adults were reared using eggs of *Ephestia kuehniella* 114 (Zeller) (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae), obtained from Beneficial Insectary Inc. (Redding, CA, 115 USA). Beetles were held in environmentally controlled conditions of $25 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C, and a 116 photoperiod of 14:10h (L:D) for all rearing and bioassays. The two populations were 117 maintained separately. Adults were kept in cylindrical plastic containers (30cm long, wide and 118 high) containing openings on the sides closed with nylon mesh. Later, individual pairs were 119 held in 500-ml plastic containers with a mesh-covered opening in the lid to allow ventilation,

and a piece of paper towel as an oviposition substrate. Eggs were transferred to transparent

121 30-mL plastic cups. Eggs produced by at least 20 adult pairs were used to maintain the 122 colonies and to provide insects for bioassays. Newly eclosed larvae were held individually in 123 30-ml plastic cups and provided *ad libitum* with eggs of *E. kuehniella*. 124 **2.4. Dose-response curves.** Adults of the F₁ generation from both populations (Hc-CA and 125 Hc-GA) were treated with the insecticide λ -cyhalothrin to determine the lethal dose (LD₅₀). 126 Preliminary bioassays were carried out to define doses which resulted in mortality from 0 to 127 100%. Insects were topically treated by applying a 0.5 µl droplet of the appropriate solution to 128 the venter of the adult abdomen using a Hamilton syringe (25µL-volume). Based on 129 preliminary tests six doses for each population (0.001, 0.002, 0.004, 0.006, 0.008, and 0.01 g 130 a.i./L for Hc-CA; and 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 1.0, and 1.3 g a.i./L for Hc-GA) were selected for 131 calculating the dose-mortality curve and the LD₅₀. At least 20 adults (8 to 10 days old) were 132 tested per dose. 133 Treated and control groups were kept in petri dishes (12 cm diameter, and 1.5cm high) 134 lined with filter paper and provided with a 10% honey solution soaked in cotton batting inside 135 the petri dishes. Petri dishes with insects were stored in a climatic chamber at 25 ± 1 °C and 136 photoperiod 14:10h (L:D). Knockdown and mortality were assessed 2 and 24h after 137 insecticide application, respectively. A beetle was considered to be knocked down or dead if it 138 was unable to turn upright and begin to walk after being placed on its dorsum at the respective 139 observation intervals. 140 **2.5. Dose-response curves with the synergist PBO.** The insecticide λ -cyhalothrin (99.5% 141 technical grade) and the synergist PBO were applied in the bioassay diluted in acetone. 142 Previous tests of varying doses of PBO indicated that 10 g a.i. of PBO/L (10 ppm) was the 143 maximum sublethal dose and could be used in the dilutions to be tested. Thus, the synergism 144 ratio using PBO was determined for Hc-GA and Hc-CA populations by treating the insects 145 with λ -cyhalothrin dosage including PBO at 10 g a.i./L. The tested dosages of λ -cyhalothrin

146 alone began with a high dosage of 1 g a.i./L, which was then serially diluted by factors of 10 147 during the preliminary test to obtain the final dosages. The dosages of λ -cyhalothrin + PBO 148 used were: 0.0002, 0.0004, 0.0006, 0.0008, 0.001, and 0.003 g a.i./L for Hc-CA; and 0.005, 149 0.01, 0.03, 0.05, 0.08, 0.10, and 0.5 g a.i./L for Hc-GA. The bioassay was conducted using λ -150 cyhalothrin + PBO, as well as control treatments using only PBO or acetone. 151 **2.6. Dominance and role of sex linkage in resistance.** The F₁ progeny was tested to evaluate 152 possible sex linkage related to the resistance. Females and males were kept individually in 153 transparent 30-ml plastic cups. Sexes were differentiated based on the shape of the distal 154 margin of the fourth visible abdominal sternite. The posterior margin of the fourth sternite has 155 a concave shape in males while in females it is a straight line. Reciprocal crosses between 156 virgin females (n=30) and males (n=30) from resistant (Hc-GA) and susceptible (Hc-CA) 157 populations were made to obtain F_1 progeny SR (\bigcirc Hc-CA x \bigcirc Hc-GA) and RS (\bigcirc Hc-GA x 158 degree Hc-CA). Free mating choice was allowed by pairing females and males of the two parental 159 populations in plastic containers (30cm long, wide and high). Each F₁ cross progeny (SR and 160 RS) was reared separately to obtain sufficient adults to calculate the LD_{50} . 161 To test for sex linkage, males from both F₁ reciprocal crosses (n=30) (SR and RS) were backcrossed with parental females: BC1 (\cite{P} Hc-GA x \cite{P} F₁ RS); BC2 (\cite{P} Hc-GA x \cite{P} F₁ SR); 162 163 BC3 (\bigcirc H-CA x \bigcirc F₁ RS); and BC4 (\bigcirc Hc-CA x \bigcirc F₁SR). The progenies obtained from 164 backcross pairings were reared separately to obtain sufficient adults for each backcross to 165 calculate the LD₅₀ using 6 - 10 λ -cyhalothrin doses. 166 2.7. Dominance of resistance in *H. convergens* to λ -cyhalothrin based on a single dose. In 167 this bioassay we used 8-d old adults of the population groups Hc-CA (n = 120), HC-GA (n = 168 120), F_1 RS (n= 120) and F_1 SR (n = 120). Five previously determined doses of λ -cyhalothrin 169 (0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 0.5, and 1.0 g of a.i./L) were administered to adults of the different 170 population groups as previously described. The control group was treated only with acetone

171 (n = 10). The knockdown effect and mortality were assessed 2 and 24h after insecticide 172 application, respectively. 173 2.8. Genetic variation within susceptible and resistant populations of *H. convergens*. We 174 tested Hc-CA and Hc-GA for homozygosity of resistance traits in the respective populations. 175 Individual virgin females and males (n=5) were paired for mating and egg production to 176 compose five separate families. Then virgin female and male offspring of Hc-CA, Hc-GA, F₁ 177 reciprocal crosses, F₁ RS and SR, and the four backcrosses (BC1 to BC4) were tested with a discriminating dose of 0.5 g a.i of λ -cyhalothrin/L for homozygous resistance (X^RX^R and 178 179 X^Ry) following the same procedures used in the previous tests. Each adult pair corresponded to a population family or specified cross progeny. By examining offspring in individual 180 181 families we could compare observed results with what would be expected for a homozygous 182 population in detail, allowing us to discern individual deviations from homozygosity that 183 could otherwise confound interpretation of results [32, 33]. As a component of this, the sex 184 determination system of *H. convergens* must be considered in evaluating a sex linkage model 185 for inheritance of insecticide resistance. The CLB has been characterized as 2n = 18186 autosomal and having homogametic females (XX) and heterogametic (Xy) males [34]. 187 Therefore, males will be homozygous for traits acquired from the female on the X 188 chromosome. 189 **2.9. Data analysis.** The number of individuals exhibiting knockdown, death or survival per 190 dose in the resistance inheritance and synergism tests were used to calculate the knockdown 191 dose (KD) and the lethal dose (LD) for each population or progeny with the computer 192 program Polo PC [35], based on Probit analysis [36]. Correction for natural mortality was unnecessary since control survival in all cases was 100%. A χ^2 goodness-of-fit test was used 193 194 to test for parallelism and equality of the dose-mortality curves between populations. Data 195 from resistance inheritance bioassays were used to obtain the resistance ratio (RR) between

resistant and susceptible populations based on the KD and LD calculated for each population, F1 progenies, and backcrosses. Likewise, the synergism ratio (SR) and the resistance ratio (RR) were calculated for treatments with λ -cyhalothrin only or when the synergist PBO was added. The RR and SR and their respective 95% confidence intervals (CI) were calculated and considered significant when the CI did not include the value 1.0, following the method of Robertson & Preisler [37].

Autosomal or sex-linked inheritance of resistance in H. convergens to λ -cyhalothrin was tested using the KD and LD determined for F_1 adults from reciprocal crosses between Hc-GA and Hc-CA populations, F_1 RS and F_1 SR progenies. The degree of dominance (D) was estimated using the method of Stone [38], which is based on the KD or LD values. The standard error (SE) of the degree of dominance was calculated following the method of Lehmann [39], and interpreted after Preisler *et al.* [40]. The dominance (h) was estimated based on a single dose, following Hartl [41].

The minimum number of genes controlling resistance was investigated using the method of Lande [42] based on KD_{50} and LD_{50} responses. The minimum number of genes driving resistance was calculated separately for F_1 progeny of H. convergens and the respective backcrosses.

To evaluate genetic variation of parental populations, observed knockdown and mortality were initially corrected for the number of males and females of H. convergens tested. Thus, the testable hypothesis for genetic homozygosity is that the proportion of observed knockdown or mortality would be equal to the proportion of expected knockdown or mortality based on the sex-linked inheritance for H. convergens, assuming the recessive inheritance of resistance found with the discriminatory dose (0.5 g a.i. of λ -cyhalothrin/L). Thus, using the G-statistic goodness of fit test for heterogeneity [43], homogeneity was tested among families and the hypothesis of absence of genetic variation was tested within and

among families. The goodness of fit test was carried out only on the results for F_1 RS and for the backcross BC2 (\propthing Hc-GA x \propthing F $_1$ SR). The test was not conducted for families of the susceptible population (Hc-CA), the F_1 SR progeny or their respective backcrosses (BC3 and BC4) because the knockdown and mortality responses observed were as expected for all families (1.00). Furthermore, for the resistant population (Hc-GA) and the backcross BC1 (\propthing Hc-GA x \propthing F $_1$ RS), the expected mortality is null (0.00) and, therefore, a \propthing -statistic could not be calculated.

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3. Results

3.1. Dose-response curves. The knockdown results fit the Probit model (P>0.05). In contrast, the dose-mortality curves differed in parallelism and equality (P<0.05); thus the KD_{50s} and KD_{90s} were calculated (Table 1). Based on KD₅₀ and KD₉₀ from evaluations 2h post-treatment the Hc-GA population was over 286 and 461-fold more resistant by knockdown effect to λ cyhalothrin than Hc-CA adults (Table 1). The LD₅₀ and LD₉₀ of the Hc-CA population were, respectively, 0.004 and 0.816 g a.i. of λ -cyhalothrin/L, compared to 0.015 and 4.595, respectively, for the Hc-CA and Hc-GA populations. Based on these values, the Hc-GA population was over 220 (LD₅₀) and 308.0-fold (LD₉₀) more resistant to λ -cyhalothrin than the Hc-CA population (Table 1). **3.2. Dose-mortality curves with the synergist PBO.** Adults from both populations exhibited similar patterns of response for knockdown and mortality when treated with λ -cyhalothrin plus the synergist PBO, but differed when using λ -cyhalothrin alone (Table 2). The KD₅₀ and LD_{50} , however, were lower than when only λ -cyhalothrin was applied. The KD_{50} and LD_{50} synergism ratios were 1.62 and 6.94 (KD); and 5.53 and 17.24 (LD) for Hc-CA and Hc-GA populations, respectively. The resistance ratio (RR) of λ -cyhalothrin based on the KD₅₀ or LD_{50} was reduced approximately 3-4 fold to ~70 for Hc-GA relative to Hc-CA when PBO was

246 added (Table 2). These results further demonstrate that the Hc-GA population is more resistant 247 to λ-cyhalothrin than the Hc-CA population. Furthermore, the LD₉₀ calculated for the Hc-GA 248 population is 10.44 times greater than the highest field rate of λ -cyhalothrin recommended to 249 spray cotton (0.44 g a.i./L). 250 **3.3. Dominance and role of sex linkage in resistance.** The RR for the F₁ RS beetles was 251 greater than that of the F₁ SR beetles when calculated using the KD₅₀, KD₉₀, LD₅₀, and LD₉₀ 252 values, suggesting that resistance is X-linked (Table 1). Further the degree of dominance 253 varied from -0.66 to -0.13 based on KD₅₀, and from -0.48 to 0.27 based on KD₉₀ (Table 1). 254 The resistance ratios of the KD₅₀ for BC1 and BC2, both of which were offspring of Hc-GA 255 mothers, were 211.33 and 70.47-fold, respectively, whereas the KD₅₀ resistance ratios for 256 BC3 and BC4, which were offspring of Hc-CA mothers, were 2.81 and 2.91, respectively. 257 These results are consistent with X-linked resistance. Despite the low ratios for BC3 and BC4 258 they were significantly different from the parental Hc-CA population according to the method 259 of Robertson and Preisler [37] (Table 1). 260 The mortality data for the progenies and backcrosses fit a Probit model (P>0.05), except 261 for the mortality of the F₁RS progeny (P<0.05). There were significant differences between 262 the F_1 progenies (SR and RS) in both the LD₅₀ and LD₉₀ [RR_{50/IC95%)}: 7.44 (4.48-12.35) and 263 $TR_{90(1C95\%)}$: 24.11 (8.56-67.87)], which, taken with the backcross results, strongly suggests a 264 maternal effect or X-linked. The degree of dominance varied from -0.28 to 0.47 for the LD₅₀, 265 from -0.34 to 0.78 for the LD₉₀ (Table 1). 266 3.4. Dominance of resistance in *H. convergens* to λ -cyhalothrin based on a single dose. 267 The results indicate recessive dominance in the F_1 progenies tests and variability in the 268 resistance based on single dose results. The resistance was found to be functionally dominant 269 (h = 1.0) for the Hc-GA population at the lowest tested dose (0.001) for both reciprocal 270 crosses (RS and SR) (Table 3). For F_1 SR, however, resistance was functionally recessive (h =

271 0.0) at doses of 0.1 and 1.0 g a.i. of λ -cyhalothrin/L at 2 and 24h evaluations, respectively; 272 while for F₁ RS it was recessive only at the highest tested dose at knockdown 2h post-273 treatment (Table 3). Based on mortality evaluated 24h post-treatment the effective dominance 274 ranged from 0.32 to 0.5 for doses greater than 0.1 g a.i. of λ -cyhalothrin/L for F_1 RS (Table 275 3). 276 **3.5. Minimum number of loci.** The number of loci coordinating resistance in *H. convergens* 277 to λ -cyhalothrin was estimated at -4.39 and 0.74 genes for the F_1 RS and F_1 SR progenies, and 278 for their respective backcrosses. On the other hand, when considering the mortality data, the 279 number of genes coordinating resistance is estimated at -1.23 and 3.73 for the F₁ progenies SR 280 and RS, and their backcrosses, respectively. 281 **3.6.** Genetic variation within susceptible and resistant populations of *H. convergens*. The 282 paired females and males from Hc-GA and the F₁ RS progeny resulted in four pairs that 283 produced viable offspring (families), out of the five pairs set up. Thus, only four families were 284 utilized for the BC1 and BC3 backcrosses. The knockdown and mortality results indicated 285 that Hc-GA male parents, used to form the \mathcal{L} Hc-GA x \mathcal{L} Hc-GA families, were not susceptible to λ -cyhalothrin (i.e. the males of Hc-GA were not $X^{S}y$). The genetic variation in 286 287 resistance observed in the Hc-GA population is likely related to the proportion of susceptible adults produced by pairings of heterozygous females (X^RX^S) and resistant males (X^Ry) 288 289 (Tables 4 and 5). Families of the susceptible population (Hc-CA), the progeny of F₁ SR and 290 the backcrosses BC3 and BC4 exhibited responses aligned with the expected frequency of 291 susceptible offspring (1.00) (Tables 4 and 5). Families of F₁ RS were similar to one another in 292 knockdown (P = 0.6611) and mortality (P = 0.0948). Furthermore, the proportion of 293 individuals exhibiting knockdown and mortality was significantly different from the expected 294 proportion in three of the four families (Tables 4 and 5), evidencing genetic variation for knockdown ($\chi^2 = 30.23$, P < 0.0001, df = 4) and mortality ($\chi^2 = 25.35$, P < 0.0001, df = 4). 295

Variation was observed among families of BC2 (\cite{P} Hc-GA x \cite{P} F1 SR) for knockdown ($\cite{\chi}^2$ = 26.55, P < 0.0001, df = 5), but not for mortality ($\cite{\chi}^2$ = 0.55, P =0.9932, df = 5). Variation for the knockdown effect was observed for only two out of five families (Table 4). Regardless of individual family outcome, there was no difference among BC2 families based on knockdown (P = 0.3277) or mortality (P = 0.9942). For the backcross BC1 (\cite{P} Hc-GA x \cite{P} RS), the high variability among families and variation from the expected response confirm the genetic variation of their parental resistant population (Hc-GA).

4. Discussion

Resistance in *H. convergens* to λ -cyhalothrin was confirmed in a Georgia population, and it appears to have multiple mechanisms that also may differ in inheritance. Based on knockdown response (KD₅₀), the resistance seems to be autosomally inherited and incompletely recessive, but based on KD₉₀ the inheritance also appears to be sex-linked. Sex-linked inheritance of resistance is also indicated based on lethal dose (LD) results calculated for F₁ progenies 24h post-treatment. Several factors might contribute to the variability observed in types of responses, including presence of heterozygotes in the parental population causing unexpected genetic variation in reciprocal crosses (see below) and resulting in dose-mortality curve slopes approaching 1.0 [44]. In addition, we cannot disregard genetic differences of the two studied populations that probably also affect our results.

The metabolism of λ -cyhalothrin has at least one resistance mechanism in H. convergens, as indicated by the action of the synergist PBO in significantly decreasing resistance in the GA population. The estimated KDs and LDs were reduced by adding PBO to λ -cyhalothrin for the resistant population. Recovery from knockdown by 24h post-treatment was reduced by approximately 2/3 with addition of PBO, and a similar reduction was observed in the LD responses (Table 2). However, resistance in the Hc-GA population was

not fully suppressed by PBO – resistance in this population was still approximately 70 times that of Hc-CA after PBO was added. Thus, considering that the resistance was not fully inhibited with PBO, further studies are needed to identify the other mechanism(s) present.

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The hypothesis of sex-linked inheritance should be accepted if the KD and LD calculated for backcrosses BC1 and BC2 are similar to the resistant Hc-GA population and F₁ RS, respectively, and if the KDs and LDs of backcrosses BC3 and BC4 are similar to those of the F₁ SR progenies and the susceptible population (Hc-CA), respectively. Only the KDs and LDs of BC2 and BC4 differed from the expected result. However, the limited differences observed also suggest presence of genetic variation [45] or possible natural variation [46] (Table 1). Furthermore, bioassays of single-paired crosses with the discriminating dose of λ cyhalothrin clearly indicated sex-linked inheritance for both knockdown (KDs) and mortality (LDs) (Table 5). Additionally, the resistance phenotype of males carrying X^R-chromosome vielded responses similar to those of females that were X^RX^R. Finally, estimates of the minimum number of genes responsible for λ -cyhalothrin resistance in *H. convergens* based on KDs and LDs also support sex linkage as the model of inheritance. Sex linkage inheritance patterns tend to inflate phenotypic variances that are critical for estimating the number of genes governing the trait [42]. This inflated variance confounds accurately estimating the number of genes underlying the response, yielding results such as the negative gene estimated values for the F_1 progenies obtained in this study.

The knockdown responses indicate that λ -cyhalothrin resistance in H. convergens is inherited as a recessive trait. Thus, the difference in degree of dominance for the sex-linked response is independent of the survival of the heterozygotes in F_1 RS progeny (dominant) and mortality in the F_1 SR progeny (recessive) [47]. The difference is a result of varying mortality patterns between the offspring of the F_1 SR reciprocal cross compared to F_1 SR. Male F_1 RS progeny would be resistant (X^Ry), while female progeny would be susceptible (X^RX^S). In

contrast, both male (X^Sy) and female (X^RX^S) F_1 SR progeny would be susceptible. In this way, the presence of resistant males in F_1 RS population inflates the KD and LD values, affecting degree of dominance for each reciprocal cross depending on the magnitude of the response for resistant individuals.

The mortality data for F_1RS progeny did not fit the Probit model, indicating that the Hc-GA population was not homozygous for resistance. Assaying for homozygosity revealed presence of X^RX^S females in the Hc-GA population. Despite the heterozygosity in the Hc-GA population, it was not the only influencing factor because the KD for F_1RS progeny fit the Probit model. Some individuals of the F_1SR progeny, as well as resistant individuals from Hc-GA, recovered from knockdown (2h) during the 24h post-treatment mortality evaluation in the bioassay of dose-mortality. The results from single-pair families demonstrated that the gene influencing recovery from treatment might be also sex-linked, as males and females of F_1SR and females of F_1RS did not recover 24h after treatment. However, the degree of dominance was not conclusive because the discriminatory dose used in the single-pair cross bioassay was sufficiently high to yield functionally recessive inheritance. Thus, a sex linkage model can yield varying results for the resistance mechanisms.

Our results indicate that heterozygous Hc-GA females (X^RX^S) used in the F₁ RS reciprocal cross can produce susceptible males (X^Sy). The presence of susceptible males in such a cross would not be anticipated for the offspring of reciprocal crosses (F₁ RS) if the parental populations are homozygous susceptible (X^SX^S and X^Sy) or resistant (X^RX^R and X^Ry), based on an "Xyp" sex determination system. Presence of susceptible males might generate unusually low LDs and the conclusion that resistance is autosomally inherited. This occurred with a heterogeneous population of *Cydia pomonella* (L.) (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae) tested for resistance to the CpGV (Baculoviridae), and resistance was originally characterized as autosomally inherited [48]. However, after selection in the laboratory, single-pair

experiments with the selected homozygous-resistant *C. pomonella* population revealed that inheritance was sex-linked [33]. Results from single-pair experiments with a heterozygous population of *C. pomonella*, similar to our experiments, supported sex-linked inheritance for resistance [49]. Based on the slopes of the dose-mortality curves calculated for F₁ RS and F₁ SR, there is also support for sex-linked heritability of resistance in *H. convergens* similar to *C. pomonella* [49].

Numerous studies have reported recessive inheritance for pyrethroid resistance in different groups of insects. However, sex-linked inheritance of resistance is not common compared to autosomal inheritance. These results add to the reported cases of sex-linked inheritance of resistance: *Sitophilus oryzae* L. (Col.: Curculionidae) [50], *Culex quinquefasciatus* Say [51], *Sitophilus zeamais* Mots. [52], *Spodoptera littoralis* Boisduval (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) [53], *Helicoverpa armigera* Hübner [54], *Leptinotarsa decemlineata* (Say) (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) [55], *Grapholita molesta* (Busck) (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae) [56], and *C. pomonella* [33].

When λ -cyhalothrin is applied in high doses to resistant *H. convergens*, the effective dominance is best characterized as recessive, but at lower doses it is functionally dominant. This pattern of dominance has been reported in other insects [32, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62]. Dominance is not an intrinsic trait of one allele [63], as its expression is dependent on the dose applied [47]. Thus, when a dose is sufficiently high to kill all heterozygotes in the population, the resistance can be functionally recessive, as described by Curtis *et al.* [64]. On the other hand, at low doses in which the heterozygotes survive, resistance would be characterized as functionally dominant. Numerically, we found no functionally recessive response for F_1 RS progeny at high doses of λ -cyhalothrin. This can be explained by inheritance driven by sex linkage due to the presence of X^R y males.

Resistance of H. convergens to λ -cyhalothrin was likely selected by historically widespread and intensive insecticide use in Georgia crop systems where the beetles regularly occurred. Using cotton as an example, DDT was widely used during the 1950's to control boll weevil and bollworms in cotton [65]. DDT was replaced with organophosphates (OPs) after DDT resistance was detected in boll weevil [66]. Detection of bollworms resistant to OPs [67] led, in turn, to wide and frequent use of pyrethroid insecticides in Georgia to control this group of pests in the 1980's [68]. The persistence of boll weevil in cotton required repeated applications of broad-spectrum insecticides beginning as early as the appearance of the first flower bud and continuing until close to harvest, producing prolonged negative effects on natural enemy populations [69]. Thus, the historically intensive use of DDT, OPs, and pyrethroids in cotton fields, as well as other surrounding crops frequented by H. convergens (e.g., pecans, tobacco, corn), would have applied significant selection pressure to H. convergens populations for resistance. Even after pesticide use was dramatically reduced by widespread adoption of Bt-transgenic cotton resistant to lepidopteran pests and following eradication of the boll weevil in Georgia [69, 70], pyrethroids and OPs continue to be applied for stink bugs and other pests [71]. The recently reduced application frequency of pyrethroids and OPs to cotton likely reduced the negative effect on H. convergens populations and, therefore, permitted resistance-conferring genes to be fixed in the population, affording the stability typical of pyrethroid resistance.

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Unlike the case with autosomally inherited resistance, sex linkage allows males of H. convergens to exhibit resistance to λ -cyhalothrin even when the allele is present at low levels, because they need only a single resistant allele to confer complete resistance. This capacity may facilitate persistence and rapid spread of the resistant allele(s) in the population. Information on factors that usually influence resistance, such as initial allele frequency in the field population, population size, sex ratio in the field, adaptive costs of resistance, migration,

and polyandry in *H. convergens* are needed to better understand evolution of the resistance in this important natural enemy species. However, initial results of resistance selection in Hc-GA under laboratory conditions suggest rapid evolution of resistance can occur, as described for recessive and sex-linked inherited resistance [54]. Variables, such as high frequency of the allele for resistance, heterozygote female X^RX^S being susceptible to λ-cyhalothrin and being killed in the progeny, males requiring only one allele to survive the insecticide application, and the interaction of resistance mechanisms driving the survival of susceptible individuals to the insecticide application, can pace the evolution of resistance in *H. convergens*. Despite the likelihood of multiple genes governing resistance of H. convergens to λ -cyhalothrin, the nature of the interactions among these genes was not studied. The interaction among factors governing inheritance of resistance is complex to define [72], but studies focusing on the role of the multiple genes in resistance, the adaptive costs to maintain multiple resistance genes in the absence of insecticide pressure, and the benefits of different resistance mechanisms in the studied species are open avenues for investigation. For instance, we treated adults of Hc-GA and Hc-CA with 10-fold the field rate of the organophosphate dicrotophos and the results showed 100% and 0% survival for these two populations, respectively.

In conclusion, the inheritance of λ -cyhalothrin resistance in H. convergens is sex-linked and recessive. Likely, the major mechanism of the resistance involves insensitivity of a kdr-type target site, with participation of detoxifying enzymes, which were partially inhibited by PBO leading to greater susceptibility of the resistant population (Hc-GA). These results differ from those obtained for another lady beetle species, E. connexa, that exhibits resistance to the λ -cyhalothrin, but in which resistance is autosomally inherited and incompletely dominant, and which was fully inhibited with PBO with high activity of esterase (A.R.S.R. unpublished data). Further, the LD₅₀ and LD₉₀ for the Hc-GA population (0.816 and 4.595 g) are greater than the highest recommended field rate of λ -cyhalothrin for cotton (44 g of a.i/ha at 100

L/ha) Roberts *et al.* [73], indicating the possibility of effectively integrating these predators with pyrethroid insecticides.

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456 7. References

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Table 1. Knockdown and mortality responses of *Hippodamia convergens* susceptible (Hc-CA) and resistant (Hc-GA) populations, F1 progeny from reciprocal crosses and from backcrosses to λ -cyhalothrin during 2h and 24h evaluation intervals post-treatment, respectively. n, number of tested individuals; df, degrees of freedom; SE, standard error of the slope; CI, confidential intervals at 95% probability: DD, degree of dominance: and χ^2 Chi-square test.

Population or				KD_{50}	RR ₅₀		KD_{90}	RR_{90}		
Progeny ^a	n	df	Slope \pm SE	$(CI_{95\%})^{b}$	$(CI_{95\%})^{c}$	$DD_{50} \pm SE$	$(CI_{95\%})^{b}$	$(CI_{95\%})^{c}$	$DD_{90} \pm SE$	χ^2
Knockdown - 2i	h evaluai	tion								
Hc-CA	191	4	2.39 ± 0.42	0.001	_		0.004	_		6.76
110 071	171	•	2.57 = 0.12	(0.0004 - 0.002)			(0.002 - 0.011)			0.70
Hc-GA	221	4	1.73 ± 0.28	0.297	286.75		1.636	461.16		4.76
				(0.156-0.439)	(86.59-949.64)		(0.955-6.219)	(133.26-1595.93)		
F_1 RS	214	5	1.10 ± 0.20	0.012 (0.005-0.021)	11.91 (5.43-26.11)	-0.13 ± 0.15	0.182 (0.105-0.474)	51.11 (24.04-108.68)	0.27 ± 0.17	4.50
				0.003	(3.43-26.11)		0.103-0.474)	(24.04-108.08)		
F ₁ SR	220	4	1.52 ± 0.19	(0.0002-0.007)	(0.57-12.02)	-0.66 ± 0.27	(0.009-0.038)	(2.81-10.16)	-0.48 ± 0.11	0.50
				0.271	211.33		2.254	835.24		
BC1	198	6	1.32 ± 0.19	(0.162-1.14)	(111.96-398.90)		(1.02-15.43)	(252.59-2761.92)		6.35
				0.073	70.47		4.480	1259.04		
BC2	167	4	0.72 ± 0.20	(0.026-0.144)	(31.19-159.24)		(1.100-396.1)	(143.76-11026.3)		6.33
D.C2	267	0	2.27 + 0.22	0.003	2.81		0.011	3.00		4.70
BC3	267 8	8	2.27 ± 0.33	(0.002 - 0.004)	(1.71-4.63)		(0.008 - 0.017)	(1.85-4.89)		4.78
BC4	2(0 0	8	2.63 ± 0.40	0.003	2.91		0.009	2.61		1.78
BC4	268	8	2.03 ± 0.40	(0.002-0.004)	(1.80-4.71)		(0.007-0.014)	(1.64-4.14)		1./8
Mortality - 24h	evaluati	on		LD_{50}			LD_{90}			
Hc-CA	191	4	2.12 ± 0.33	0.004	_		0.015	_		1.24
IIC-CA	171	7	2.12 ± 0.33	(0.003 - 0.005)			(0.010 - 0.028)			1.27
Hc-GA	221	4	1.71 ± 0.32	0.816	220.03		4.595	308.00		1.54
110 0.1		•	1.71 = 0.52	(0.631-1.167)	(76.89-629.65)		(2.54-15.53)	(79.62-1191.39)		1.0.
F ₁ RS	214	5	1.17 ± 0.17	0.194	52.33	0.47 ± 0.16	2.423	162.29	0.78 ± 0.26	19.63*
				(0.059-1.745)	(32.30-84.80)		(0.545-14490)	(56.64-465.02)		
F ₁ SR	220	4	2.19 ± 0.33	0.026 (0.019-0.034)	7.03 (4.89-10.11)	-0.28 ± 0.09	0.100 (0.072-0.173)	6.73 (3.62-12.52)	-0.34 ± 0.12	1.46
				0.804	(4.89-10.11)		3.431	(3.62-12.32)		
BC1	198	6	2.03 ± 0.39	(0.548-1.441)	(131.14-358.92)		(1.793-12.971)	(85.46-619.16)		1.03
				0.364	98.08		2.754	184.56		
BC2	22 167 4	4	1.45 ± 0.22	(0.245-0.621)	(59.26-162.32)		(1.346-9.637)	(65.92-516.78)		4.58
				0.015	4.07		0.059	3.93		
BC3	267	8	2.17 ± 0.25	(0.012-0.019)	(2.90-5.71)		(0.043-0.091)	(2.19-7.08)		4.78
DC4	260	0	2 24 + 0 27	0.011	3.05		0.042	2.83		4.00
BC4	268	8	2.24 ± 0.27	(0.009 - 0.014)	(2.17-4.27)		(0.031-0.065)	(1.58-5.08)		4.20

 $^{b}F_{1}$ RS and F_{1} SR stand for reciprocal crosses between $^{\circ}$ Hc-GA x $^{\circ}$ Hc-GA and $^{\circ}$ Hc-GA x $^{\circ}$ Hc-GA, respectively; BC1, BC2, BC3, and BC4 are the backcrosses of $^{\circ}$ Hc-GA x $^{\circ}$ F₁ RS, $^{\circ}$ Hc-GA x $^{\circ}$ F₁ RS, $^{\circ}$ Hc-GA x $^{\circ}$ F₁ SR, $^{\circ}$ Hc-GA x $^{\circ}$ F₁ SR, $^{\circ}$ Hc-GA x $^{\circ}$ F₁ SR, respectively. ^{b}g a.i./L of $^{\circ}$ $^{\circ}$ A-cyhalothrin at technical grade producing 50 or 90% knockdown effect in the population 2h after treatment. $^{\circ}$ RR, resistance ratio estimated by the relationship of KDs or LDs between resistant and susceptible populations following the method of Robertson and Preisler [37]. *P-value (<0.05)

Table 2. Knockdown (2h) and mortality (24h) responses of *Hippodamia convergens* (Hc) populations from California (CA) and Georgia (GA) to λ -cyhalothrin (99.5% technical grade) only or with 10 ppm of piperonyl butoxide (PBO) added to the solution. n. number of tested adults; df = degree of freedom; SE = standard error for the slope; LDs = lethal doses in g of a.i./L; CI = 95% confidence intervals; and χ^2 = chi-square test.

Population/				LD_{50}	SR_{50}	RR ₅₀	LD_{90}	SR_{90}	RR 90	
Progeny	n	df	Slope \pm SE	(CI _{95%}) ^a	$(CI_{95\%})^{b}$	$(CI_{95\%})^{c}$	$(CI_{95\%})^a$	$(CI_{95\%})^{b}$	$(CI_{95\%})^{c}$	χ^2
Knockdown	- 2h evalı	iation w	rith λ-cyhalothrin							
Hc-CA	191	4	2.39 ± 0.42	0.001 (0.0004-0.002)	-	-	0.004 (0.002-0.011)	-	-	6.76
Hc-GA	221	4	1.73 ± 0.28	0.297 (0.156-0.439)	-	286.75 (86.59-949.64)	1.636 (0.955-6.219)	-	461.16 (133.26-1595.93)	4.76
Knockdown	- 2h evalı	iation w	rith λ-cyhalothrin	+ PBO						
Hc-CA	278	4	2.64 ± 0.33	0.0006 (0.0005-0.0008)	1.62 (1.07-2.45)	-	0.002 (0.001-0.004)	1.82 (1.16-2.86)	-	3.87
Hc-GA	182	5	1.45 ± 0.23	0.043 (0.030-0.061)	6.94 (4.40-10.93)	67.05 (45.70-98.37)	0.327 (0.186-0.881)	5.00 (2.08-12.02)	167.81 (75.53-372.82)	0.69
Mortality - 2	?4h evalu	ation wi	th λ-cyhalothrin							
Hc-CA	191	4	2.12 ± 0.33	0.004 (0.003-0.005)	-	-	0.015 (0.010-0.028)	-	-	1.24
Hc-GA	221	4	1.71 ± 0.32	0.816 (0.631-1.167)	-	220.03 (76.89-629.65)	4.595 (2.54-15.53)	-	308.00 (79.62-1191.39)	1.54
Mortality - 2	?4h evalu	ation wi	th λ-cyhalothrin +	PBO						
Hc-CA	278	4	3.30 ± 0.42	0.0007 (0.0006-0.0008)	5.53 (4.23-7.22)	-	0.002 (0.001-0.003)	9.10 (5.34-15.49)	-	4.38
Hc-GA	182	5	1.57 ± 0.24	0.047 (0.034-0.067)	17.24 (11.24-26.70)	70.55 (49.49-100.57)	0.309 (0.182-0.762)	14.84 (5.19-42.39)	188.81 (91.57-389.27)	3.43

 $^{^{}a}$ g a.i./L of λ -cyhalothrin at technical grade producing 50 or 90% knockdown or mortality effect in the population 2 and 24h after treatment, respectively.

 $^{^{}b}$ SR, synergism ratio based on the relationship of LD₅₀ or LD₉₀ calculated from populations treated with λ -cyhalothrin and λ -cyhalothrin + PBO following the method of Robertson and Preisler [37].

 $^{^{}c}$ RR, resistance ratio based on the relationships of LD₅₀ or LD₉₀ calculated from populations treated with λ -cyhalothrin and λ -cyhalothrin synergized with PBO following the method of Robertson and Preisler [37].

Table 3. Dominance (h) of resistance in *Hippodamia convergens* adults based on knockdown and mortality responses evaluated 2h and 24h periods after treatment with different doses (g a.i. of λ-cyhalothrin) for susceptible (Hc-CA), resistant (Hc-GA), and F1 reciprocal crosses F1 SR (\cite{P} Hc-CA x \cite{O} Hc-GA), and F1 RS (\cite{P} Hc-GA x \cite{O} Hc-CA).

Doses	Population/ Progeny	n	Knockdown (%)	h^{a}	Population/ Progeny	n	Mortality (%)	h^{a}
	Hc-CA	24	33.33		Hc-CA	24	16.67	
	Hc-GA	24	0.00		Hc-GA	24	0.00	
0.001	F_1 SR	24	0.00	1.00	F_1 SR	24	0.00	1.00
	F_1 RS	24	0.00	1.00	F_1 RS	24	0.00	1.00
	Hc-CA	24	100.00		Hc-CA	24	91.67	
0.01	Hc-GA	24	0.00		Hc-GA	24	0.00	
0.01	F_1 SR	24	83.33	0.17	F_1 SR	24	16.67	0.82
	F_1 RS	24	41.67	0.58	F_1 RS	24	0.00	1.00
	Hc-CA	24	100.00		Hc-CA	24	100.00	
	Hc-GA	24	33.33		Hc-GA	24	8.33	
0.1	F_1 SR	24	100.00	0.00	F_1 SR	24	79.17	0.23
	F_1 RS	24	75.00	0.38	F_1 RS	24	54.17	0.50
	Hc-CA	24	100.00		Hc-CA	24	100.00	
	Hc-GA	24	79.17		Hc-GA	24	20.83	
0.5	F_1 SR	24	100.00	0.00	F_1 SR	24	95.83	0.05
	F_1 RS	24	95.83	0.20	F_1 RS	24	75.00	0.32
	Hc-CA	24	100.00		Hc-CA	24	100.00	
1.0	Hc-GA	24	95.83		Hc-GA	24	33.33	
1.0	F_1 SR	24	100.00	0.00	F_1 SR	24	100.00	0.00
	F_1 RS	24	100.00	0.00	F_1 RS	24	70.83	0.44

 ^{a}h varies between 0 and 1 (0 = survival is recessive and 1 = survival is dominant).

Table 4. Knockdown response (2h evaluation post-treatment) of resistant adults X^RX^R and X^Ry of *Hippodamia convergens* treated with a discriminatory dose (0.5 g a.i. of λ -cyhalothrin/L). Observed and expected proportions of knockdown are presented according to the progeny genotype and the null hypothesis: parental susceptible and homozygous resistant as function of inheritance of resistance linked to the X^R -chromosome with 1040 tested adults.

	Sex 1	linkage					
Population/ Progeny ^a	Offspring genotype		Expected proportion		Observed proportion (SE)	χ^2	P
<i>C</i> ,	8	9	Adults ^b	F/n ^c	Adults ^b		
Hc-GA	X ^R y	X^RX^R	0.00	A/20	0.67 (0.05)	NC^d	NC
			0.00	B/30	0.37 (0.03)	NC	NC
			0.00	C/30	0.15 (0.06)	NC	NC
			0.00	D/40	0.48 (0.12)	NC	NC
Hc-CA	$X^{S}y$	X^SX^S	1.00	(A-E)/150	1.00 (0.00)	0.00	1.00
F1 RS	X ^R y	X^RX^S	0.50	A/30	0.75 (0.00)	7.50	0.01*
			0.50	B/30	0.65 (0.06)	2.70	0.10
			0.50	C/30	0.77 (0.07)	8.53	<0.00*
			0.50	D/30	0.80 (0.01)	11.5	<0.00*
F1 SR	$X^{S}y$	$\boldsymbol{X}^R\boldsymbol{X}^S$	1.00	(A-E)/150	1.00 (0.00)	0.00	1.00
BC1	X^Ry	X^RX^R	0.00	A/30	0.00 (0.00)	NC ⁴	NC
			0.00	B/30	0.18 (0.08)	NC	NC
			0.00	C/30	0.05 (0.03)	NC	NC
			0.00	D/30	0.53 (0.02)	NC	NC
BC2	X^Ry	X^RX^S	0.50	A/30	0.63 (0.06)	1.88	0.16
			0.50	B/30	0.64 (0.02)	2.41	0.12
			0.50	C/30	0.63 (0.06)	1.88	0.16
			0.50	D/30	0.71 (0.12)	5.21	0.02*
			0.50	E/30	0.86 (0.04)	15.2	<0.00*
BC3	X ^S y	X^RX^S	1.00	(A-D)/110	1.00 (0.00)	0.00	1.00
BC4	X ^S y	X^SX^S	1.00	(A-E)/150	1.00 (0.00)	0.00	1.00

^aSusceptible (Hc-CA) and resistant (Hc-GA) populations; F1 RS, cross of ♀ Hc-GA x ∂ Hc-CA, and F1 SR cross of ♀ Hc-CA x ∂ Hc-GA. The backcrosses BC1 (♀ Hc-GA x ∂ F1 RS), BC2 (♀ Hc-GA x ∂ F1 SR), BC3 (♀ Hc-CA x ∂ F1 RS), and BC4 (♀ Hc-CA x ∂ F1 SR).

^{748 &}lt;sup>b</sup>Proportion of adults (mean pooled for males and females).

^cF stands for families, and n stands for number of insects tested per family for each population, progeny, and backcrosses.

^dNC stands for qui-square and p-values not determined; while *stands for significant deviation from the null hypotheses.

Table 5. Mortality response 24h post-treatment of resistant adults X^RX^R and X^Ry of *Hippodamia convergens* treated with a discriminatory dose (0.5 g a.i. of λ -cyhalothrin/L). Observed and expected proportions of mortality are presented according to the progeny genotype considering the null hypothesis: parental susceptible and homozygote resistant as function of inheritance of resistance linked to the X^R -chromosome with 1040 tested adults.

	Sex 1	inkage						
Population/ Progeny ^a	Offsprin	g genotype	Expected proportion		Observed proportion (SE)	χ^2	P	
1 logelly	∂ ♀		Adults ^b F/n ^c		Adults ^b			
Hc-GA	X ^R y	X^RX^R	0.00	A/20	0.54 (0.01)	NC ⁴	NC	
			0.00	B/30	0.37 (0.03)	NC	NC	
			0.00	C/30	0.00 (0.00)	NC	NC	
			0.00	D/40	0.40 (0.15)	NC	NC	
Нс-СА	X ^S y	X^SX^S	1.00	(A-E)/150	1.00 (0.00)	0.00	1.00	
F1 RS	$X^R y$	$X^RX^{\bar{S}}$	0.50	A/30	0.75 (0.00)	7.50	0.01*	
			0.50	B/30	0.50 (0.00)	0.00	1.00	
			0.50	C/30	0.77 (0.09)	8.53	<0.00*	
			0.50	D/30	0.78 (0.01)	9.31	<0.00*	
F1 SR	X ^S y	$X^R X^S$	1.00	(A-E)/150	1.00	0.00	1.00	
BC1	$X^R y$	X^RX^R	0.00	A/30	0.00 (0.00)	NC	NC	
			0.00	B/30	0.03 (0.03)	NC	NC	
			0.00	C/30	0.00 (0.00)	NC	NC	
			0.00	D/30	0.50 (0.00)	NC	NC	
BC2	X^Ry	X^RX^S	0.50	A/30	0.50 (0.00)	0.00	1.00	
			0.50	B/30	0.53 (0.03)	0.13	0.72	
			0.50	C/30	0.54 (0.04)	0.21	0.65	
			0.50	D/30	0.50 (0.00)	0.00	1.00	
			0.50	E/30	0.54 (0.04)	0.21	0.65	
BC3	X ^S y	$X^R X^S$	1.00	(A-D)/110	1.00	0.00	1.00	
BC4	X ^S y	$X^{\bar{S}}X^{\bar{S}}$	1.00	(A-E)/150	1.00	0.00	1.00	

aSusceptible (Hc-CA) and resistant (Hc-GA) populations; F1 RS, cross of \bigcirc Hc-GA x \bigcirc Hc-CA, and F1 SR cross of \bigcirc Hc-CA x \bigcirc Hc-GA . The backcrosses BC1 (\bigcirc Hc-GA x \bigcirc F1 RS), BC2 (\bigcirc Hc-GA x \bigcirc F1 SR), BC3 (\bigcirc Hc-CA x \bigcirc F1 RS), and BC4 (\bigcirc Hc-CA x \bigcirc F1 SR).

^bProportion of adults (pooled for males and females).

cF stands for families, and n stands for number of insects tested per family for each population, progeny, and backcrosses.
 dNC stands for qui-square and p-values not determined; while *stands for

^dNC stands for qui-square and p-values not determined; while *stands for significant deviation from the null hypotheses.