

# 1 **ABC transporters are not involved in the detoxification of** 2 ***Azadirachta indica* extracts in *Anopheles stephensi* larvae.**

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## 13 **Abstract**

14 Objective: detoxifying pathways of mosquitoes against neem extracts are still unclear. The aim of  
15 the present study is to investigate the role of ABC-transporters in this process in *Anopheles*  
16 *stephensi*, one of the main malaria vectors in southern Asia.

17 Methods: third instar larvae of *An. stephensi* were fed with fish food alone or in combination with  
18 neem extract at 0.5, 1, 5 and 10%. Six ABC-transporter genes from three different subfamilies (B, C  
19 and G) have been analysed to assess relative expression compared to the control. A bioassay was  
20 also performed to assess larval mortality rate at the different concentrations in combination with  
21 verapamil, an ABC-transporter inhibitor.

22 Results: The use of verapamil, an ABC transporter inhibitor did not induce an increase of mortality  
23 at any of the tested neem extract doses. Furthermore, no significant variation in the expression  
24 levels of any transporter belonging to the B, C and G subfamilies was detected.

25 Conclusion: ABC transporters are not involved in response/defence to Neem extract, differently by  
26 the treatments with permethrin, as seen in other works.

27

## 28 **Keywords**

29 *mosquito defences*, natural insecticides, neem tree, vector control, detoxification

30

## 31 **Introduction**

32 Malaria is one of the main problems in developing countries. About 212 million new cases occurred  
33 in 2015, with 429000 deaths [1] and millions of people which do not receive the services they need.

34 The use of long lasting insecticidal nets (LLINs), artemisinin-based therapies and indoor residual  
35 spraying (IRS) are the main interventions aimed to prevent malaria infections and spread. Vector  
36 control through insecticides is a core component of malaria control programmes, but the continuous  
37 use of chemical compounds led to resistance insurgence in different vector populations that threaten  
38 the global malaria control efforts [2, 3, 4]. Of the 73 malaria endemic countries providing data to  
39 the WHO, 60 reported resistance to at least one insecticide class, while 50 reported resistance to two  
40 or three classes (WHO, 2016). For this reason, research in alternative insecticides of botanical  
41 origin has grown in last decades. In particular *Azadirachta indica*, also known as neem tree, has  
42 been used for centuries in traditional medicine [5, 6]. This was probably due to the wide effects that  
43 this plant has on parasites and other agents of infection [6]. *A. Indica* and other Meliaceae species  
44 have shown a strong larvicidal, anti-emergence, repellency, anti-oviposition effect in different  
45 mosquito species [7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14]. In addition, products based on Neem rarely induce  
46 resistance thanks to their wide mode of action [15]. It is important to investigate the detoxifying  
47 mechanisms against Neem to understand whether there is a risk of resistance insurgence, noticed  
48 also for other insecticides. It is now known that ATP-Binding Cassette (ABC) transporters are  
49 involved in the detoxification process of several compounds in different mosquito species such as  
50 *An. stephensi* [16-20], *An. gambiae* [21], *Aedes aegypti* [22], *Ae. Albopictus* [23]. In particular on  
51 *An. stephensi* it has been demonstrated that, among the eight sub-families of ABC transporters  
52 existing in insects, the B and G sub-families play a major role in the detoxification against  
53 permethrin, showing a pattern of response that varies with time [16, 17, 19, 20]. Despite their  
54 importance against pyrethroids, these genes are not differentially expressed in response to larval  
55 exposure to temephos, a widely used larvicide, highlighting an insecticide-specific involvement of  
56 the transporters in this mosquito species [18]. For these reasons, the goal of our study is to  
57 thoroughly investigate the implication of ABC-transporters in *An. stephensi* defence against neem.

58

## 59 **Material and methods.**

### 60 **Bioassay**

61 All mosquitoes used in this study derived from a susceptible *Anopheles stephensi* Liston colony of  
62 the insectary of the University of Camerino, Italy, maintained at standard conditions (28±1°C, 85%  
63 humidity, 12:12 L-D) and fed with fish food (Tetra, Melle, Germany). Third instar larvae were used  
64 for bioassays and molecular analysis, according to the protocols described in Epis et al. [16,17].  
65 Experimental groups were fed with fish food (FF) containing neem seed extract (FF + neem) at  
66 different concentrations: 0.5, 1, 5 and 10%. To obtain these concentrations, 1g FF was homogenized  
67 to neem extract in 50ml chloroform (Sigma-Aldrich), mixed for 10 minutes and then evaporated at

68 reduced pressure (37°C, 3 mmHg) with a Büchi R 200 rotavapor. The powder obtained was left at  
69 room temperature for 24h.

70 For the bioassay, five groups of 25 third instar larvae were put in 100 ml of spring water and fed  
71 with FF + neem at different concentrations (0, 0.5, 5 and 10%), alone or in combination with a sub-  
72 lethal dose of the inhibitor verapamil, as reported in previous works [16, 17]. The control groups  
73 were fed just with FF. Two additional groups, fed with FF and treated with verapamil, were used as  
74 control group. Mortality was assessed every 24h for three days.

75 To investigate the effect of different treatments on the larval mortality, we run a Generalized Linear  
76 Mixed Model (GLMM) with Poisson error structure, using the number of dead larvae as dependent  
77 variable and considering replicates as a residual-type random component. We explored the effect on  
78 the response variable of dose/concentration of insecticide (i.e. 0%, 0.5%, 1%, 5%, 10%), addition of  
79 verapamil (i.e. yes or no), time after treatment (i.e. 24, 48 or 72 hours) and dose by verapamil  
80 interaction. The initial number of larvae of each replicate was included in the model as a covariate.  
81 Interactions were excluded from the final model when not significant. Interpretation of effects with  
82 more than two levels was based on pair-wise t-tests of Differences of Least Square Means (DLSM),  
83 applying Tukey correction for multiple comparisons. The analysis were carried out through  
84 PROCGLIMMIX in SAS/STAT9.4 software (Copyright © 2002--2012, SAS Institute Inc., Cary,  
85 NC, USA).

86

### 87 **Expression profile after insecticide treatment**

88 The six genes analysed, encoding for ABC transporters (*AnstABCB2*, *AnstABCB3*, *AnstABCB4*,  
89 *AnstABCBmember6*, *AnstABCG4*, *AnstABCC11*) in *An. stephensi*, were chosen due to their  
90 involvement in the defence against the insecticide permethrin. The expression profile of these genes  
91 was evaluated in larvae after 0.5h, 24h, 48h and 72h of treatment at different Neem concentration.  
92 RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis, quantitative RT-PCRs were performed following the protocol  
93 described in detail in [16, 17]. Two different genes, RPS7 and GAPDH, have been used as reference  
94 genes to normalize relative expression. The primers used in this work are reported in table 1. To  
95 detect any significant effect of neem treatment on the expression of ABC genes, RT-PCR data were  
96 analysed trough non-parametric Wilcoxon two-sample tests, due to the non-normal distribution of  
97 some samples [24]. For each of the six genes and each of the dose-time combinations, we compared  
98 differences in  $\Delta CT$  ( $CT_{\text{target}} - CT_{\text{housekeeping}}$ ) between treated and control (i.e. dose 0) samples.  
99 Estimates of  $\Delta\Delta CT$  values and their 95% confidence limits were obtained through the Hodges-  
100 Lehman method. All the analysis were carried out using PROC NPAR1WAY in SAS<sup>®</sup> 9.4 Software  
101 (Copyright © 2012 SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

## 102 **Results and discussion**

### 103 **Bioassay**

104 Verapamil concentration was established according to a previous work on ABC-transporter in *An.*  
105 *stephensi* [16]. The bioassay confirms, in this species, that neem extracts have larvicidal effects, as  
106 seen by other authors [7, 8, 11, 24]. At the same time, the results of insecticide exposure in  
107 combination with verapamil demonstrate that ABC transporters are not involved in the cellular  
108 response of *An. stephensi* against this toxicant (fig.1), in contrast with the effect of other insecticide  
109 tests [16] in which verapamil, added to permethrin treatment, induced an increased mortality  
110 compared to the insecticide alone.

111 Mortality of larvae increased significantly with time (F2, 18=41.4; p<0.0001) and at higher  
112 doses/concentrations of insecticide (F4, 36=16.8; p<0.0001). Addition of verapamil had no effect  
113 on larvae mortality, either as a single factor or in interaction with insecticide (both p>0.13).

114

### 115 **Expression profile after insecticide treatment**

116 Statistical analysis of RT-PCR data (tab.2) did not reveal any effect of neem treatment on ABC  
117 genes expression:  $\Delta$ CT values of treated samples were not significantly different from controls, for  
118 any of the 6 target genes and any of the dose-time combinations (all p>0.05). This outcome is in  
119 line with data reported in Porretta et al. [18] that tested the insecticide temephos against *An.*  
120 *stephensi*, obtaining similar results and indicating that different compounds can induce different  
121 responses of the mosquito ABC transporters. This work cannot exclude the implication of other  
122 detoxification mechanisms and, for this reason, further investigations are needed to clarify and  
123 amplify the set of transporters analysed, taking into account also different metabolic pathways that  
124 could be involved. These results are important in an attempt of widen the global knowledge on the  
125 detoxification from xenobiotics in mosquito *An. stephensi*.

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204 **Table 1** Primer sequences of ABC transporters and housekeeping genes of *Anopheles stephensi*.

<b>Gene</b>	<b>Forward primer</b>	<b>Reverse primer</b>	<b>bp</b>	<b>Source</b>
<i>Anst</i> ABC2	TATCAAGTTCACGGATGTAGAGT	TATCCACCTTGCCACTGTC	185	[16]
<i>Anst</i> ABC3	CAACCGTTCGGTAATACTACC	ACTGGTAGCCCAATGTGAAG	133	[16]
<i>Anst</i> ABC4	GGACAAAACATTCGGGAGG	CGTAGTGAATGTTGTGGCG	109	[16]
<i>Anst</i> ABCmember6	CTGGAGACGCTGAGAGATA	TACTCCTCGGTGAACTGG	125	[16]
<i>Anst</i> ABCC11	GGTTGGATTGGCTTTCGTG	ATAACCGACTCCCCTTCG	156	[17]
<i>Anst</i> ABCG4	ATGAGCCCATTTCGTCCTG	AGCGTGGAGAAGAAGCAG	158	[16]
RPS7	AGCAGCAGCAGCACTTGATTTG	TAAACGGCTTTCTGCGTCACCC	90	[26]
GAPDH	GCCGTCGGCAAGGTCATCCC	TTCATCGGTCCGTTGGCGGC	166	[27]

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207 **Table 2** Relative expression of *Anopheles stephensi* ABC genes obtained with quantitative RT-PCR after treatment with  
 208 neem extract at different times. Expression level of the control, non-treated larvae, was considered to be the basal level  
 209 (equal 1). RPS7 and GAPDH were used as reference genes to normalize expression levels. The values are expressed as  
 210 mean  $\pm$  standard error.

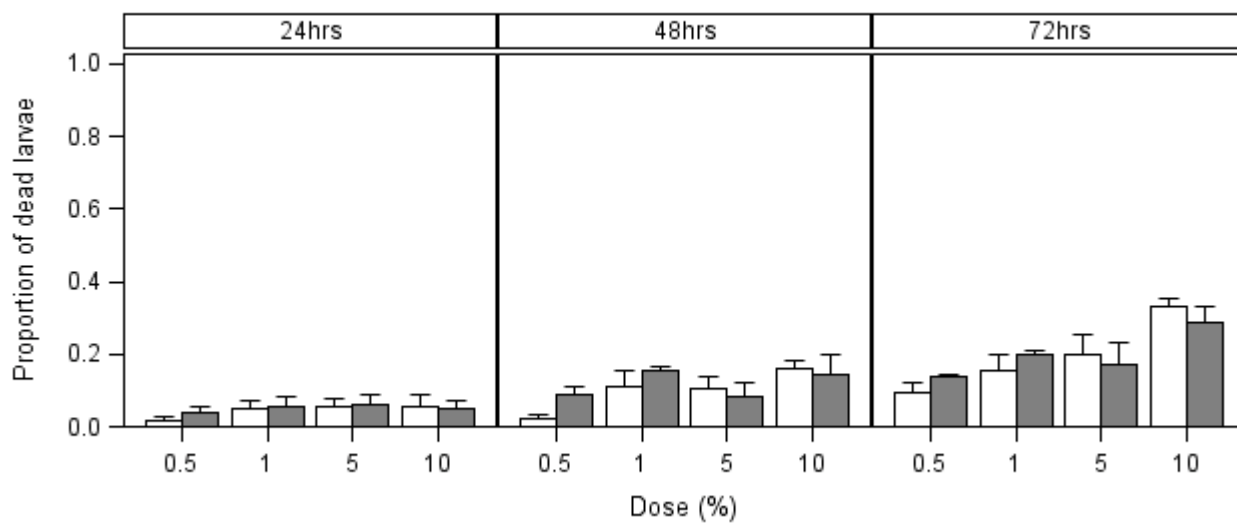
Exposure time	Insecticide concentration	<i>Anst</i> ABC2	<i>Anst</i> ABC3	<i>Anst</i> ABC4	<i>Anst</i> ABC member6	<i>Anst</i> ABCC11	<i>Anst</i> ABCG4
0.5h	0.5%	1,43 $\pm$ 0,11	1,37 $\pm$ 0,19	1,39 $\pm$ 0,35	1,39 $\pm$ 0,16	1,16 $\pm$ 0,09	1,28 $\pm$ 0,70
	1%	0,98 $\pm$ 0,29	0,78 $\pm$ 0,27	1,13 $\pm$ 0,39	0,78 $\pm$ 0,28	0,93 $\pm$ 0,21	1,46 $\pm$ 0,92
	5%	1,95 $\pm$ 0,70	1,29 $\pm$ 0,51	1,11 $\pm$ 0,45	1,32 $\pm$ 0,45	0,77 $\pm$ 0,18	1,02 $\pm$ 0,79
	10%	2,74 $\pm$ 0,57	1,66 $\pm$ 0,36	1,21 $\pm$ 0,22	2,08 $\pm$ 0,44	0,96 $\pm$ 0,13	1,98 $\pm$ 1,42
24 h	0.5%	1,25 $\pm$ 0,08	1,29 $\pm$ 0,14	1,31 $\pm$ 0,18	1,32 $\pm$ 0,20	0,95 $\pm$ 0,04	1,06 $\pm$ 0,31
	1%	1,28 $\pm$ 0,09	1,47 $\pm$ 0,26	1,39 $\pm$ 0,32	1,32 $\pm$ 0,28	1,12 $\pm$ 0,07	2,26 $\pm$ 0,93
	5%	0,81 $\pm$ 0,09	0,55 $\pm$ 0,08	0,66 $\pm$ 0,07	0,98 $\pm$ 0,16	0,95 $\pm$ 0,13	1,62 $\pm$ 0,61
	10%	1,15 $\pm$ 0,14	0,87 $\pm$ 0,27	1,11 $\pm$ 0,15	1,06 $\pm$ 0,24	1,07 $\pm$ 0,15	1,55 $\pm$ 0,46
48 h	0.5%	0,62 $\pm$ 0,26	0,59 $\pm$ 0,13	0,47 $\pm$ 0,10	0,66 $\pm$ 0,19	1,25 $\pm$ 0,24	0,80 $\pm$ 0,36
	1%	1,05 $\pm$ 0,27	0,79 $\pm$ 0,12	0,76 $\pm$ 0,10	0,85 $\pm$ 0,22	1,13 $\pm$ 0,06	1,42 $\pm$ 0,73
	5%	0,87 $\pm$ 0,22	0,92 $\pm$ 0,35	0,67 $\pm$ 0,19	0,85 $\pm$ 0,18	0,88 $\pm$ 0,14	2,55 $\pm$ 1,06
	10%	1,13 $\pm$ 0,60	0,50 $\pm$ 0,12	0,46 $\pm$ 0,03	0,54 $\pm$ 0,16	0,97 $\pm$ 0,03	2,24 $\pm$ 1,60
72 h	0.5%	0,49 $\pm$ 0,06	0,57 $\pm$ 0,13	0,88 $\pm$ 0,10	0,82 $\pm$ 0,09	0,86 $\pm$ 0,10	1,35 $\pm$ 0,21
	1%	0,50 $\pm$ 0,27	0,58 $\pm$ 0,20	0,80 $\pm$ 0,08	0,88 $\pm$ 0,21	0,93 $\pm$ 0,04	2,13 $\pm$ 0,31
	5%	0,55 $\pm$ 0,01	0,59 $\pm$ 0,19	1,02 $\pm$ 0,03	0,93 $\pm$ 0,20	0,59 $\pm$ 0,09	2,23 $\pm$ 0,33
	10%	0,73 $\pm$ 0,10	0,61 $\pm$ 0,14	1,13 $\pm$ 0,11	1,05 $\pm$ 0,23	0,84 $\pm$ 0,04	2,55 $\pm$ 0,37

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213 Figure 1. Proportion of dead larvae at different times and insecticide concentrations, with (white bars) and without (grey  
214 bars) verapamil addition. Error bars indicate standard errors.



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