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Evaluation of Resistance to the Organophosphate Chlorpyrifos Through LC₅₀ and Life History Trait Analysis in Two Siblings: *Drosophila Melanogaster* and *Drosophila Simulans*

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KEYWORDS Insecticide-resistance; Chlorpyrifos; Neurotoxic; Non-	ABSTRACT: Introduction: Insecticide resistance and its management has become a major challenge in agriculture and medical health field. Chlorpyrifos (CP) known for its neurotoxic property to the target species, however, due to its extensive application it becomes the second most detected insecticide in food and water causing potential health risks to the non- targets.
target species; health risk.	Objectives : In the present study, resistance to chlorpyrifos was evaluated through lethal dose and various traits analysis in two non- target species i.e., <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> and <i>Drosophila simulans</i> .
	Methods : The LC ₅₀ was calculated initially after exposing the flies to six different concentrations of CP. Based on the mortality rate, two sub lethal concentrations of CP (0.3ppm and 0.5ppm) were used further to study the effects on fecundity, developmental stage duration and pupation height in F_1 and after a consistent exposure for 10 generations(F_{10}). The LC ₅₀ was calculated for F_{10} and compared with the F_0 generation. In all experiments, the results control/ F_0 , F_1 and F_{10} flies were compared to evaluate its adverse effect and resistance developed by the flies.
	Results : The fecundity rate and pupation height were significantly reduced (~50-75%) on CP-exposure in F ₁ . The delayed development is observed in F ₁ CP treated, i.e., egg to larva emergence, larval, pupation and pupation to adult duration, however, the larval stage was found to be most significantly affected. Similarly, the recovery rate of all stages was faster than the larval duration in F ₁₀ generation. The higher resistance factor (RF) ratio (F ₁₀ to F ₀) observed in <i>D. melanogaster</i> CP-exposed flies evidenced its ability to develop faster resistance than <i>D. simulans</i> .
	Conclusions : The findings will help to understand how important is to monitor insecticide-resistance for its management and regulation with a view to prevent health risk of other non-targets including human.

1. Introduction

Insecticide resistance and regular increase in doses of insecticides becomes a common practice for managing agricultural productivity and controlling disease-causing vector populations. A very recent report indicates about more than 500 insect and mite species developing resistance towards various insecticide classes, which is of global concern [1]. The inappropriate application of insecticides and lack of knowledge on developing insecticide-specific resistance restricts their effective uses, rather increase their residues in the environment leading to potential toxicity to living-beings [2,3]. Thus, it is crucial to maintain the insecticide-specific resistance and the mechanism behind for implementing necessary management strategy.

Resistance issues persisted with the introduction to modern insecticides such as organophosphates, carbamates, and pyrethroids [4]. Chlorpyrifos (CP) belongs to an organophosphate class of insecticides and has wide application both in agriculture (soyabean and fruits farming) and household purposes against a number of insect species (cockroaches, termites, fleas etc.) and it

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is neurotoxic in nature [5-8]. The first report on insecticide resistance was published more than 100 years ago for lime sulphur on Quadraspidiotus perniciosus (San Jose scale) [9,10]. According to Arthropod Pesticide Resistance Database, 2021 reported that the cotton leaf worm, Spodoptera. littoralis has developed resistance even to 31 chemicals, including organophosphorus, pyrethroid, and indoxacarb [11]. Drosophila suzukii is one of the most important invasive pests of soft- skinned fruits globally [12]. Although, Drosophila melanogaster and Drosophila simulans is not a significant crop pest or a prominent target for commercial insecticide applications but it is closely related species.

Therefore, it has been an ideal model for studying toxicity as well as resistance due to its similarity with target insect-pest species of agriculture and medical importance and a popular eukaryotic model [13]. In addition, its short lifespan allows us to access many generations in limited period of time in both field and laboratory condition [14].

2. Objective

The present study aims to understand the development of resistance against chlorpyrifos insecticide in two sibling species *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* using various life history traits as parameters.

3. Materials and Methods

Drosophila Strain

Two sibling species *D. melanogaster* (isofemale line DL 36) and *D. simulans* (isofemale line DL 42) collected from West Delhi, India in 2022 are used in this study. The flies are maintained on standard yeast-molasses media at 25°C, 60-70% relative humidity, and a 12-hour light/dark cycle in a BOD incubator.

Chlorpyrifos and Doses

Commercially available chlorpyrifos with 20% EC (emulsifiable concentrate) was used in the present study (Tractor Brand manufactured in RIICO Industrial area, Bhiwadi, Rajasthan). A stock solution of 1:1 ratio with acetone was prepared and used throughout. Initially the flies were exposed to different concentrations of CP (details provided in LC₅₀ analysis) and based on their survivability, two sub-lethal concentrations of CP

(0.3ppm and 0.5ppm) were selected for experimental purpose.

The *Drosophila* flies of both species were cultured and maintained in standard media and CP- treated food media with each sublethal concentrations up to 10 generations.

LC50 Analysis

4-day old 5 virgin males and females were exposed to six different concentrations (0.5ppm, 0.7ppm, 0.9ppm, 1ppm, 3ppm and 5ppm) of CP- treated media for a duration of 24, 48, and 72 hours and the number of dead flies were noted. Six replicates were performed for each concentration. The LC₅₀ was calculated by taking flies mortality of all the concentrations as mentioned above through probit analysis method using the formula [15].

$$Log(c\%) = \frac{Test \ value - Intercept \ value}{slope};$$
$$LC_{50} = 10^{4} (Log(c\%))$$

To monitor resistance, the LC₅₀ value was also calculated after CP- exposure (0.5ppm) of 10 generations. The resistance factor (RF) ratio between the susceptible (F₀ generation) and resistance (F₁₀ generation) flies of both the species were calculated as [16]:

Resistance Factor (RF) = $\frac{LC_{50} of resistance flies(F_{10})}{LC_{50} of succeptible flies(F_{0})}$

Traits for resistance study

Fecundity

Equal number of 20 virgin males and 20 virgin females of 4 day old were permitted to mate in vials for 24 hours. After that the flies were transported to a fecundity chamber for egg laying and the number of eggs laid in next 48 hours was recorded. The fecundity chamber is made up of glass which is closed by a cover and has dimensions of 13 x 13 x 6 cm. The same procedure was followed for each control and CP-treated (0.3ppm, 0.5ppm) for F_1 and F_{10} generation flies with two replicates.

Developmental Stages

The duration of each developmental stages of both species in each concentration of CP- treated and control from egg to 1^{st} instar, $1^{st} - 3^{rd}$ instar, 3^{rd} instar –pupa and

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pupa – adult (Table 1) was observed and recorded with six replicates. All the developmental stages were observed by seeing their first appearance from egg to adult. The egg to 1^{st} instar and $1^{st} - 3^{rd}$ instar was observed by placing the plates under the stereomicroscope.

Pupation Height

The average pupation height of each species was calculated from 40 randomly chosen pupae in both control and CP- treated food vails in each concentration. The pupae were marked and their distance (in cm) from the food surface of vial was measured by placing ruler scale.

Statistical Analysis

The results of all life history traits were analysed individually for variance using the ANOVA single factor method (with $p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, and $p < 0.005^{***}$) and for comparison multivariate analysis was done by two-way ANOVA factor with replication method [17]. The software Origin 2023b was used to generate the figures.

4. Results

Initially, the F₀ flies were acutely exposed to different concentrations of CP (see methodology) and the LC₅₀ values after 24, 48 and 72hrs were found to be 0.77, 0.63 and 0.62 ppm in D. melanogaster and 0.80, 0.72 and 0.64 ppm in D. simulans species respectively. Two sub-lethal concentrations of CP (0.3ppm and 0.5ppm) were used to expose Drosophila for ten generations to study the initial harmful effects (F1) and recovery (F10) on various lifehistory traits, e.g., fecundity, development stages duration and pupation height. In each case an increased detrimental effect was observed with increased concentration of CP. The LC50 was calculated with exposed higher concentration of CP i.e., 0.5ppm after 10 generation which is further treated with five different concentrations (0.7ppm, 0.9ppm, 1ppm, 3ppm and 5ppm). The LC₅₀ of 0.5ppm of CP in F₁₀ generation was found to be 1.31ppm, 1.11ppm and 0.99ppm in D. melanogaster and 1.15ppm, 1.05ppm and 0.99ppm for D. simulans after exposure of 24, 48 and 72hrs respectively. The resistance factor (RF) ratio between the susceptible (Fo generation) and resistance (F10 generation) flies of CP in D. melanogaster was found to

be 1.70, 1.76 and 1.59 and for *D. simulans* it was 1.43, 1.45 and 1.54 respectively (Table 1).

The average number of eggs laid by 20 females of *D. melanogaster* was 252 ± 8 in control, which was reduced to 102 ± 6 (0.3 ppm) and 67 ± 3 (0.5 ppm) in F₁ treated flies, but again increased to 169.5 ± 8.5 (0.3 ppm) and 119.5 ± 9.5 (0.5 ppm) in F₁₀ treated flies, which evidenced the development of its resistance to CP. Similar results were observed in case of *D. simulans* (Figure 1, Table 1). The egg laying rate in *D. simulans* was found to be significantly lower than in *D. melanogaster*, which coincides with literature [18, 19].

A significant delaying was marked in all four developmental stages duration, when F_1 and control group results were compared, but the larval duration (1st – 3rd instar) was found to be most affected. The larval duration was much slower than other developmental stages when F_1 with F_{10} generations of CP-treated flies were compared (Figure 2, Table 1).

The average distance which was travelled by pupae of D. melanogaster and D. simulans in control was 2.0±0.1 and 1.40±0.1. In D. melanogaster F1 (CP- treated), it was reduced to 0.9±0.1 (0.3ppm) and 0.6±0.1 (0.5ppm) and in F₁₀ again rises up to 1.7 ± 0.1 and 1.4 ± 0.1 in respective concentrations. The average height of D. simulans 0.3ppm CP- treated pupae in F1 and F10 generation was 0.7±0.1 and 1.3±0.1 and with 0.5ppm it was 0.4±0 and 1.2±0.1 respectively (Figure 3, Table 1). The variation of all parameters used among control, F1 and F10 were analysed for their statistical significance using ANOVA single factor method (Supplementary Table). Multivariate analysis was performed for fecundity, developmental stage durations and pupation height of control and CP-treated F1 and F10 generations with the help of ANOVA two factor replication method. The pvalue and F critical value showed significance difference between control v/s F1 generation, F1 v/s F10 generation. Comparatively less variation was observed between control v/s F_{10} generation (Table 1).

5. Discussion

Insecticide resistance is widely seen as a threat to vectorborne diseases in medical health sectors and for target pests in agricultural field. Extensive use of synthetic organic insecticides such as DDT, cyclodienes, and organophosphates (OPs), there was a rise in the number of incidences of insecticide resistance which demands

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dosage- increase to kill target species. Due to which, there is accumulation of insecticide- residues in environment impacting negatively to non-target organisms [20,21]. When it comes to insects that are crucial to agriculture, very little is known about resistance mechanisms and the reason behind [22]. It is generally known that resistance does not evolve at same rate in every species or population [23].

Organophosphates are neurotoxic and widely used in agriculture, however, only 0.1% of organophosphates reach their intended target as estimated [8, 24]. Chlorpyrifos, an organophosphate was first registered as an insecticide in the United States in 1965 [25].

The fruit fly Drosophila has been an important tool in studying insecticide resistance as it represents both target and non-target insect species. During this study, we have used two sibling species D. melanogaster and D. simulans to determine the effect of the sublethal concentration of CP on various life history traits, which infers how much the nontarget species are being affected. Furthermore, by studying its resistance, it can be deduced how quickly the target species can develop resistance against this insecticide, based on which its effective application might be regulated. After an exposure, it was revealed that CP has detrimental effect on fecundity (50-75% reduction) and development period (nearly two-fold from egg to adult) including pupation height (50-70% decrease), whereas after 10 generations (nearly six months' time period), the flies were developed resistance and the effects becomes minimal, even though the recovery rate was not reverting back completely to normal in any parameters studied. The effect of CP was found to be more in larval time period of Drosophila life cycle. The reason behind is poorly understood as it is not clear how, the neural-targeted organophosphate CP regulates the growth hormone ecdysone, responsible for development period such as molting and metamorphosis. Even in female Drosophila and other insects, this hormone signalling is involved with oogenesis regulation, which is also reflecting in fecundity of present study [26].

In F₀ generation *D.simulans* flies were shown to be more susceptible than *D. melanogaster* in CP-exposed flies. After subsequent exposure of F_{10} generations, the LC₅₀ value was found to be higher as compared to F₀, which confirms their resistance in both the species. Earlier reports also say about the slowed development (by 6 days) and a reduction in the growth of *Brachionus koreanus* population on chlorpyrifos exposure [27], but no effect was observed in the growth of springtail *Folsomia candida*, even at a higher concentration that had a significant impact on survival and reproduction [28]. Exposure to 4 g/l chlorpyrifos retarded male maturation, lowered fecundity, and impaired in the *Nothobranchius furzeri* fish [29].

Pupation height in F₁ progeny decreased significantly (from 50% to 70%) in treated D. melanogaster and D. simulans groups compared to controls, which could be attributed to the larva's slow mobility. The change in pupation height may affect the niche-sharing among closely related species and coevolution [30]. To achieve a healthy toxic-free environment, the substitute for insecticides (Biopesticides), insecticidesynthetic degrading bacterial strains or smart strategy of insecticide application (through rotation of different insecticides) may be explored and implemented [31,32]. However, finding species-specific resistance against commonly used insecticides is crucial for effective implementation of management and regulation of insecticide-use.

6. Conclusion

The negative impacts caused by insecticides on nontargets enforce us to rethink on food security as well as a natural balanced ecosystem. It is indispensable to identify and understand the target species and their biology before applying the insecticides, which may prevent non-targets especially the beneficial insects from their harmful effects and the target species from developing resistance. The recent findings show that pesticide resistance is widespread and this problem is likely to worsen unless a robust resistance management plan is implemented. Apart from regulating and restricting the use of insecticides, it may be worthwhile to investigate alternative pest management strategies such as biopesticides and biocontrol agents.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declares there is no competing of interests.

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