UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DO PARANÁ

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ECOLOGY AND BEHAVIOR OF SOYBEAN LEPIDOPTERAN PESTS AND THEIR IMPACT ON THE REFUGE RECOMMENDATIONS

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ECOLOGY AND BEHAVIOR OF SOYBEAN LEPIDOPTERAN PESTS AND THEIR IMPACT ON THE REFUGE RECOMMENDATIONS

Tese apresentada à Coordenação do curso de Pós-graduação em Ciências Biológicas, Área de concentração em Entomologia, do Setor de Ciências Biológicas da Universidade Federal do Paraná, como requisito parcial para obtenção do título de Doutor em Ciências Biológicas.

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"Commit your way to the LORD; trust in Him and He will act". (Psalm 37:5)

RESUMO

A estratégia de refúgio é uma das ferramentas do Manejo de Resistência de Insetos (MRI) implementada para retardar a evolução da resistência de lepidópteros desfolhadores, como Anticarsia gemmatalis Hübner (Lepidoptera: Erebidae) e Chrysodeixis includens (Walker) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) à soja Cry1Ac. No entanto, informação sobre biologia e comportamento ainda são cruciais para desenvolver as recomendações de MRI, incluindo injúria nas plantas não-Bt do refúgio cultivadas adjacentes às áreas Bt. Assim como, diferenças na data de plantio da soja Bt e o correspondente refúgio, causando assincronia no estádio fenológico das duas culturas, podem influenciar a oviposição das mariposas, e a distância máxima recomendada para plantar o refúgio é baseada em estudos que documentam a capacidade de voo de Ostrinia nubilalis Hübner (Lepidoptera: Crambidae) e Spodoptera frugiperda J. E. Smith (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae). Neste trabalho, conduziu-se experimentos com escolha de oviposição para investigar se há preferência por plantas Bt ou não-Bt, com ou sem injúria larval e diferentes estádios fenológicos. Também se conduziu experimentos para determinar a distância de voo das duas espécies em área de produção de soja, através da técnica de marcação, liberação e recaptura. Os resultados indicam que a capacidade de voo de A. gemmatalis é maior que os 800 metros recomendados, mas a maioria das mariposas de C. includens foram capturadas a menos de 800 metros. Fêmeas das duas espécies estavam acasaladas mesmo quando recapturadas próximo ao ponto de liberação. Preferência de oviposição por plantas Bt foi observada quando o refúgio foi semeado 5 dias depois da área Bt, e por plantas Bt quando o refúgio teve maior porcentagem de desfolha que as plantas Bt. Os resultados deste estudo reforçam a necessidade de MRI em soja Bt, considerando a escolha da cultivar para o refúgio com fenologia semelhante, plantio no mesmo dia que a soja Bt e adoção dos níveis de ação no refúgio para reduzir o comportamento de evitar plantas com injúria pelas mariposas.

Palavras-chave: Cry1Ac 1. Resistência 2. Injúria 3. Oviposição 4. IRM 5. MIP 6.

ABSTRACT

Refuge strategy is one of the Insect Resistance Management (IRM) tools to delay the evolution of resistance of the lepidopteran defoliators, such as, Anticarsia gemmatalis Hübner, 1818 (Lepidoptera: Erebidae) and Chrysodeixis includens (Walker, 1858) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) to Cry1Ac soybean. However, biology and behavior information is still critical in the development of IRM recommendations, including feeding in refuge non-Bt plants cultivated with Bt fields. In addition, differences in planting date of Bt field and corresponded refuge, and desynchronization of crop phenology of Bt and non-Bt cultivars may influence the moth oviposition, and the recommended maximum distance to plant refuge is based on studies documenting the moth capacity of Ostrinia nubilalis Hübner (Lepidoptera: Crambidae) and Spodoptera frugiperda J. E. Smith (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae). Here, choice experiments were performed to investigate if there is oviposition preference for Bt or non-Bt plants, with or without larval injury, and at different phenological growth stages. Also, to determine the flight distance of both species in a soybean production area, by the mark-releaserecapture technique. The results indicated that flight capacity of A. gemmatalis is more than the 800 meters that is recommended, but prevalent recapture of Chrysodeixis includens were less than 800 meters. Females of both species were mated even very close to the release point. Oviposition preference was observed for Bt plants when refuge was sown 5 days after the Bt area for Bt plants when the refuge had a higher defoliation percentage. Furthermore, the results of this study reinforce the need of the IRM in Bt soybean, considering the selection of cultivar for refuge with similar growth phenology, planting at the same date the Bt crop and refuge area, and adoption of economic threshold in refuge area to reduce moth oviposition avoidance in injured plants.

Keywords: Cry1Ac 1. Resistance 2. Injury 3. Oviposition 4. IRM 5. IPM 6.

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CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

3

1. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

4 Soybean has historically been impacted by pests, such as the Anticarsia 5 gemmatalis Hübner (Lepidoptera: Erebidae), common name velvetbean caterpillar, which larvae can cause up to 100% defoliation (Moscardi et al., 2012). Another 6 7 important defoliator that has arisen concern is Chrysodeixis includens (Walker) 8 (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae), commonly known as the soybean looper (Bernardi et al., 9 2012). One of the approaches to control these soybean defoliators is the use of Bt 10 soybean, which is a soybean cultivar that had the insertion of a gene isolated from the 11 soil bacteria Bacillus thuringiensis, and express the Cry1Ac protein (name maintained 12 in the new nomenclature) (Jurat-Fuentes et al., 2021), that is toxic for some lepidopteran 13 species. CrylAc was the only toxin expressed on soybean cultivars (Intacta®), since 14 2013, and it has provided efficient high level of field efficacy against A. gemmatalis and 15 C. includens (Horikoshi et al., 2021a).

16 Nevertheless, the adoption of Bt soybean has been increasing, and Brazil is the 17 country with the largest Bt soybean area, as 20.2 million hectares were planted in 2018 18 (ISAAA, 2018), this area increased even more in the 2020-2021 crop season, achieving 19 more than 30 million hectares (Adeney de Freitas Bueno, personal information). This 20 high adoption raises a concern about the possible selection of Bt resistant population in 21 field, which will be no longer controlled by the technology (Andow, 2008). In this 22 context, Rachiplusia nu Guenée (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) and Crosidosema aporema 23 (Walsingham) (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae), species with reports of susceptibility to 24 CrylAc (Macrae et al., 2005; Yano et al., 2012), were already documented surviving in 25 Cry1Ac soybean fields during 2020-2021 crop season in some Brazilian regions (Bueno 26 and Sosa-Gómez, 2021; Nardon et al., 2021; Horikoshi et al., 2021b).

27 Therefore, the demand of an Insect Resistance Management (IRM) program in 28 soybean is critical. IRM principles are based on the following assumptions: (a) 29 resistance in insects are usually recessive or incompletely dominant (Tabashnik, 1994); 30 (b) the Bt high dose expressed in the plants is 25-fold the toxin concentration to kill all 31 susceptible individuals and more than 95% of the heterozygotes (U.S. Environmental 32 Protection Agency, 1998); (c) refuges are plants that do not express the toxin, serving as 33 a source of susceptible individuals, which randomly mate with rare homozygotes 34 resistant ones that are not killed by the high dose (Gould, 1994). Structure refuges for Bt

soybean consist of planting 20% of the field with non-Bt cultivar in a way that all Bt
plants of the field are not further than 800 meters from the closest non-Bt plant of the
refuge.

38 Although the recommendation is established, the 800-m distance is supposed to 39 reflect or be inferior the dispersal capacity of moths of all lepidopteran species targeted 40 by Bt soybean. Instead of this, it has been based on Spodoptera frugiperda J. E. Smith 41 (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) flying capacity in studies carried out in maize fields 42 (Vilarinho et al., 2011). A validation of this distance was attempted for A. gemmatalis, 43 which detected more than 10% of recaptured moths were able to fly 800 meters or more 44 (Caixeta, 2014). However, the landscape was composed by sugarcane cultivated 45 together with soybean, which might have negatively influenced the moths dispersal. 46 Thus, it is necessary to validate this recommendation for Bt soybean considering the 47 target lepidopteran species for this technology. Another aspect related to the behavior of 48 the moths, is a possible difference in oviposition preference between refuge and Bt 49 plants. It has been reported for others species, such as moths of Chloridea virescens 50 Fabricius (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) (De Moraes et al., 2001) and Trichoplusia ni 51 Hübner (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae), which were demonstrated to avoid tobacco and 52 soybean plants, respectively, that have larval injury and defoliation. In the Bt and refuge 53 fields, a higher defoliation will probably occur in the non-Bt plants from the refuge, 54 thus the moths could oviposit preferentially in the Bt plants, which could increase the larvae exposure to Bt Cry toxins, as previously investigated for the main corn pest 55 56 (Gonçalves et al., 2020; Téllez-Rodríguez et al., 2014).

57 Important to mention that refuge areas for Bt soybean are planted with non-Bt 58 cultivars that are not isogenic. Although the recommendation is to select a cultivar that 59 is similar regarding the architecture and maturity group, which reflects the growth 60 phenology, differences may occur in the growth of the Bt and non-Bt cultivars. In 61 addition, Brazilian production areas of soybean are extensive fields, an average of 1,000 62 hectares but many operate more than 100,000 hectares, especially in the savannah 63 region (Steinweg et al., 2017), which may take several days to conclude planting. Since 64 80% of the soybean area is cultivated with Bt soybean, farmers usually gives priority of 65 sowing the Bt cultivar. Growers that adopt refuge sow this area later in the plant season, 66 once has concluded the planting of the Bt fields. Differences in growth phenology of the 67 Bt and non-Bt cultivars may be discriminated by the moths of target species, and could 68 cause oviposition preference towards less infested plants in Bt crop. Therefore, it is of

69	theoretical and practical interest to understand how the target lepidopteran pests interact
70	with the Bt and refuge areas, and then to provide more information to improve refuge
71	implementation in an IRM program to Bt soybean. This is important mainly taking into
72	consideration that adoption of refuge is one of the foundation for maintaining the
73	effectiveness of the Bt technology.
74	
75	1.1. OBJECTIVES
76	1.1.1. General objective
77	Deepen the knowledge about the main biologic and behavioral aspects of the
78	primary lepidopteran defoliators and targeted pest of Bt-soybean, A. gemmatalis and C.
79	includens that influence refuge effectiveness.
80	
81	1.1.2. Specific objectives
82	• Investigate the impact of differences in soybean growth phenology in Bt-
83	soybean and refuge non-Bt soybean in the oviposition behavior of A.
84	gemmatalis and C. includens;
85	• Investigate whether there is oviposition preference for different soybean
86	cultivars by A. gemmatalis and C. includens;
87	• Investigate whether there is oviposition preference by A. gemmatalis and C.
88	includens between undamaged Bt and damaged non-Bt soybean;
89	• Document the flight capacity range and mating behavior of A. gemmatalis and
90	C. includens moths and their compatibility with the current 800 meters
91	recommendation distance between any Bt-soybean from the closest non-Bt
92	plant.
93	

94

95

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

96

97 98

2.1. Current status of Bt technology worldwide adoption

99 Transgenic crops have been a fasted adopted technology, as the global planted 100 area increased 113 times in the last 23 years, achieving 191.7 million hectares in 2018. 101 The USA is the country with the largest planted area (75 million hectares) followed by 102 Brazil (51.3 million hectares), with a 93% adoption rate considering the total 103 agricultural area of the country. Considering all the transgenic crops adopted in Brazil, 104 in 2018 insect-resistant crops comprised most of the biotech crops as cotton (83.2%) 105 maize (95.8%), and soybean (58%) (ISAAA, 2018), which was first adopted in Brazil in 106 2013 (James, 2013) and later in other South America and Asia countries (ISAAA, 107 2020).

108 Transgenic crops are crops that express toxins of the Bacillus thuringiensis, a 109 gram-positive, spore-forming bacterium that exists in the soil and forms a parasporal 110 crystal during sporulation. The crystals are formed by one or more δ -endotoxins or 111 crystal (Cry) proteins (De Maagd et al., 1999). The gene coding for the insecticidal 112 toxin (Bt toxin) was then inserted into a crop plant, making it resistant to feeding 113 damage by target pests (Prado et al., 2014). The DNA insertion into a plant genome 114 from a single transformation process is called a genetically modified event (Pilacinski et 115 al., 2011). When only one event is present in a plant, it is called a single event, which is 116 the case of the first transgenic plants. When the transgenic events are combined in a 117 single variety, aiming at controlling the same pest, the variety is called pyramided, 118 whereas, when two or more transgenes are not related and do not aim to control the 119 same pest species, the variety is called stacked (Andow, 2008).

120 The Bt technology in the soybean crop in Brazil was first approved by the 121 National Biosafety Technical Committee (CTNBio) in 2010. The event MON 87701 x 122 MON 89788 expressing a single Bt toxin, Cry1Ac toxin and tolerance to glyphosate and 123 became available to growers in 2013, and for 8 years it was the only commercially 124 soybean trait available. In 2016, the pyramided event DAS-81419-2 expressing Bt 125 toxins Cry1Ac and Cry1F, and in 2018, the pyramided MON 87751 x MON 87708 x 126 MON 87701 x MON 89788 event expressing the Bt toxins Cry1A.105, Cry2Ab2, and 127 Cry1Ac, were approved by the CTNBio (CTNBio, 2020). MON 87751 x MON 87708 x

128 MON 87701 x MON 89788 is already available for growers to sow this 2021-2022 crop 129 seasons. The pyramided event expressing Bt toxins Cry1Ac and Cry1F showed 130 significantly less defoliation levels when compared to the non-Bt soybean by the 131 defoliators species A. gemmatalis, C. includens, C. virescens, and Spodoptera 132 cosmioides Walker (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) in field experiments with artificially 133 infested plants (Marques et al., 2016). The pyramided event expressing the Bt toxins 134 Cry1A.105, Cry2Ab2, and Cry1Ac was highly effective at protecting soybean against A. 135 gemmatalis, C. includens, and Helicoverpa armigera Hübner (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) 136 in leaf disc bioassays and field conditions (Bacalhau et al., 2020).

137 Bt soybean is nowadays an important technology in the Integrated Pest 138 Management (IPM) of the most important lepidopteran pest species of the soybean 139 (Bueno et al., 2021). The soybean cultivars that express CrylAc toxin have shown 140 efficacy in the management of A. gemmatalis, C. includens (Bernardi et al., 2012; Yano 141 et al., 2016), C. virescens, and C. aporema (Macrae et al., 2005). In addition, high 142 susceptibility to Cry1Ac of the old-world bollworm H. armigera (Dourado et al., 2016; 143 Yu et al., 2013) has been reported, which contributed to the decline of the populations 144 of these invasive species in Brazil (Paula-Moraes et al., 2017).

Among the benefits provided by Bt crops, the reduction of yield loss caused by insect economic damage has been significant (Sanglestsawai et al., 2014), as well as the reduction of insecticide spraying and therefore its side effects on beneficial organisms. In Brazil, a total of 41.5 million kg of active ingredients were not applied because of Bt crops, comprised of 26.6, 13.2, and 1.7 million kg of active ingredients not used in Bt maize, Bt soybeans and Bt cotton, respectively (Brookes and Barfoot, 2020). Moreover, Bt crops are target-specific, managing only the target pests (Romeis et al., 2019).

152 Although growers can benefit from this technology, its high adoption 153 associated with low refuge compliance might imply on an adverse effect: the selection 154 of resistant insect populations, no longer controlled by the Bt crop. Field-evolved 155 resistance consists of a genetic reduction in susceptibility to a toxin in a population 156 caused by continuous exposure to the toxin over time (Tabashnik et al., 2014). Some 157 field-resistant cases of target species to corn and cotton Bt plants have been reported in 158 five countries, United States, Brazil, Argentina, South Africa, and India (Tabashnik and 159 Carrière, 2017). One important case is the worldwide maize pest, the fall armyworm S. 160 frugiperda which, has been selected for resistance in the field to Bt toxins in two 161 countries, Brazil and the USA (Farias et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2014; Omoto et al.,

2016; Storer et al., 2010). More recently, two soybean species have been reported to
survive in Cry1Ac soybean, *R. nu* and *C. aporema*, species initially controlled by
Cry1Ac (Macrae et al., 2005; Yano et al., 2012) during 2020-2021 crop season in some
Brazilian regions (Bueno and Sosa-Gómez, 2021; Nardon et al., 2021).

- 166
- 167 2.2. Insect Resistance Management (IRM)
- 168

169 The risk of resistance evolution of target pests by the Bt technology demands the 170 adoption of strategies in an IRM program, which aims to prevent or at least delay the 171 occurrence of control failures. The IRM is based on some assumptions: (a) resistance in 172 insects are usually recessive or incompletely dominant (Tabashnik, 1994); (b) the Bt 173 high dose expressed in the plants is 25-fold the toxin concentration to kill all susceptible 174 individuals and more than 95% of the heterozygotes (U.S. Environmental Protection 175 Agency, 1998); (c) refuges are plants that do not express the toxin, serving as a source 176 of susceptible individuals, which randomly mate with rare homozygotes resistant ones 177 that are not killed by the high dose (Gould, 1994).

178 Based on IRM assumptions, according to Andow (2008), there are some 179 approaches to practically delay the evolution of resistance: (a) preserve phenotypes to 180 the Bt toxins by maintaining refuge areas, and then reduce the selection pressure on the 181 target pest; (b) reduce the fitness of the resistant phenotypes from Bt areas, by 182 suppressing them with other controlling tactics, such as biological control or 183 insecticides; (c) reduce the heterozygote fitness by using a high-dose event, making it a 184 susceptible phenotype; (d) manage the movement of specific sex and then the mating 185 frequency to delay the evolution of resistance (Andow and Ives, 2002).

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- 187

2.2.1. High-dose refuge strategy

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A combination of the first and third approaches mentioned above is the highdose refuge strategy. As already previously mentioned, the strategy consists of the planting of a non-Bt field near the Bt area, known as refuge, which will serve as a source of susceptible individuals, that will randomly mate with possible resistant individuals from the Bt area. This mating will result in heterozygotes, which are expected to be susceptible, assuming that the resistance is recessive, and then will be killed by the Bt plants (Gould, 1994). The initial frequency of resistance alleles should be less than 10⁻³, which means nearly all alleles will be heterozygotes genotypes and can be killed by the high dose Bt crop. Also, mating of individuals from Bt crop and refuge must be sufficient to ensure that females from Bt fields are likely to mate with males from the refuge (Andow, 2008).

200 In the USA, the main consumer of Bt maize and cotton, the refuge approach 201 varies depending on the crop and pest, for example, in southeastern region, structured 202 refuge is not mandatory for cotton, as alternative host plants play an important role as 203 natural refuges, thus contributing to maintaining susceptible moths (Gould et al., 2002; 204 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2007). On the other hand, in the Corn Belt, the 205 implementation of structured refuge in corn is mandatory, and the developer of the 206 technology is the responsible to inspect the execution of refuge planting. The 207 compliance of refuge adoption is regulated by the EPA (Environmental Protection 208 Agency) and no adoption of refuge results in farmers being prevented from buying 209 seeds for the next crop seasons (Carrière et al., 2019). Industry has been adopting an 210 educational program, which has a "phased compliance approach", that is a warning 211 letter from the registrant, together with additional IRM education and assistance when 212 the growers do not comply with the refuge requirements. But, when the grower has not 213 complied for two consecutive years, then the grower can lose access to the Bt seeds in 214 the next crop season (U.S. EPA, 2021)

Currently in Brazil, the Normative Instruction n^o 59, published on December 19 of 2018 by the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, and Supply (MAPA) established the structured refuge as a phytosanitary measure to manage the insect resistance to Bt. The document confers to the technology developer the responsibility to provide scientifically based information of the refuge area size and distance to each crop and toxin (Ministério da Agricultura Pecuária e Abastecimento - MAPA, 2018).

221 Although Brazil does not have regulatory tools that mandates farmers to adopt 222 IRM recommendations such as refuge, the Brazilian Insecticide Resistance Action 223 Committee (IRAC Brazil), composed of members of the industry, academy, and the 224 Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Supply (MAPA), have produced publications 225 that aim to guide consultants and growers on how to adopt the IRM strategies in an IPM 226 framework. The refuge recommendation includes (IRAC Brazil, 2018): 1) The refuge 227 area needs to be at least 10% for maize and 20% for soybean and cotton; 2) Use 228 cultivars or hybrids of the same or similar vegetative cycle planted at the same time of 229 the Bt crop; 3) The maximum distance between any plant from the Bt area and the refuge area must not be higher than 800 meters; 4) In-field strip refuges or refuges planted within the Bt field are recommendable to increase the refuge efficacy to delay resistance; 5) Refuge must be grown in the same property of the Bt crop and be managed by the same grower; 6) Follow the seed company's orientations on the leaf spraying on the refuge: not more than 2 insecticide sprays up to V6 in maize, and follow action thresholds recommendations for cotton and soybean.

236 Despite the detailed recommendation from IRAC, some of those 237 recommendations has not been validated for the target soybean pests, such as the 238 distance that moths disperse in the field, and the recommendations have been based on 239 studies with other species (Hunt et al., 2001; Vilarinho et al., 2011). Also, the influence 240 of the refuge area, expected under high infestation and consequently high defoliation in 241 the attractiveness (Goncalves et al., 2020; Téllez-Rodríguez et al., 2014) for moth 242 oviposition still needs validation in the target pests of Bt-soybean A. gemmatalis and C. 243 includens.

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2.2.2. Fitness reduction of the resistant phenotypes

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The second approach on the IRM relies on reducing the fitness of the resistant phenotypes from Bt areas, by suppressing them with other controlling tactics, such as biological control or insecticides (Andow, 2008). Which means, a control tactic, other than the Bt plant, is applied only on the Bt area, in order to decrease the potential of resistant phenotypes to multiplicate.

252 In fact, mathematical models have shown that natural enemies that decrease 253 differential fitness between susceptible and resistant can delay the resistance evolution, 254 whereas natural enemies that increase this differential fitness could accelerate the 255 resistance (Gould et al., 1991). Empirical data have confirmed this models, such as the 256 case of Coleomegilla maculata (DeGeer) (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae), a ladybird 257 predator that combined with refuge plants delayed the resistance of Plutella 258 xyllostella (L.) (Lepidoptera: Plutellidae) to Cry1Ac broccoli (Liu et al., 2014). In 259 addition, the presence of the entomopathogenic nematode Steinernema riobrave 260 (Rhabditida: Steinernematidae) caused a higher mortality of *Pectinophora gossypiella* 261 (Saunders) (Lepidoptera: Gelechiidae) Cry1Ac resistant than susceptible strain, 262 explained by a potentially lower ability to defend against the nematode infection, as 263 trade-off to the Cry1Ac resistance (Gassmann et al., 2006).

Johnson et al. (1997) investigated the effect of the parasitoid wasp *Campoletis sonorensis* (Cameron) and the entomopathogenic fungus *Metarhizium rileyi* on susceptible and resistant *C. virescens* to tobacco plants expressing CryIA(b) toxin. Their conclusion was that the parasitoid would likely delay the development of resistance to Bt tobacco plants, while the fungus would likely promote the development of resistance, due to a higher and lower susceptibility of Bt CryIA(b) resistant larvae to the natural enemies, respectively, comparing the susceptible *C. virescens* strains.

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2.2.3. Manage the movement of specific sex

This approach is related to the adult behavior of pests, by managing the movement of specific sex, the mating frequency is supposed to decrease and delay the evolution of resistance (Andow and Ives, 2002). The authors mention some tactics based on simulation models, such as attracting males into Bt fields with female pheromones and mass releasing of susceptible males.

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2.3. Role of volatile organic compounds in moth attraction and its influence in the refuge strategy

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283 Volatile organic compounds (VOC's) from plants play an important role in the 284 host search by the moths (Renwick and Chew, 1994). Particularly, when the plants are 285 under a pest attack, this injury triggers herbivore-induced plant volatile (HIPVs) 286 production. On one hand, the HIPVs might serve as a cue to the moth, that it should not 287 oviposit in that plant to avoid future competition for its progeny, diminish the 288 probability to find natural enemies, and avoid plants with induced resistance and low 289 nutritional value (De Moraes et al., 2001). On the other hand, some studies 290 demonstrated that the HIPVs had the opposite effect, attracting females and males to 291 plants damaged by conspecific larvae (El-Sayed et al., 2016), which means, these 292 compounds may play different roles in each specific insect-plant interaction.

293 Considering the fact that Bt plants carry genes that express toxic proteins, they 294 might cause some differences on the VOC's profile. However, similar VOC's profiles 295 of Bt and non-Bt plants were detected in rice (Sun et al., 2013) and cotton (Yan et al., 296 2004). This similarity might explain the non-discrimination by moths between Bt and 297 non-Bt plants in maize (Obonyo et al., 2008; Van Den Berg and Van Wyk, 2007), 298 cotton (Hardke et al., 2012; Torres and Ruberson, 2006), cabbage (Kumar, 2004), 299 broccoli (Yi et al., 2015), and rice (Sun et al., 2013). In contrast, maize plants under 300 herbivory tend to modify their HIPVs profile, which can be detected by fall armyworm 301 moths (Pinto-Zevallos et al., 2016), and could explain their avoidance behavior 302 observed by Signoretti et al. (2012) in olfactometer bioassays. In addition, when 303 comparing Bt and non-Bt maize hybrids under herbivory, the non-Bt isogenic hybrid 304 emitted higher amounts of the same HIPVs (Turlings et al., 2005), which means, even 305 the VOC's profile of the different hybrids is similar, under herbivory, there might be 306 differences in the amounts of HIPVs produced by each hybrid.

307 Téllez-Rodríguez et al. (2014) investigated the fall armyworm behavior in Bt 308 maize and its refuge in Cuba, and found a strong oviposition preference for Bt maize in 309 the field, and associated this egg-laying bias to the higher injury caused by conspecific 310 larvae in the refuge plants. This oviposition avoidance behavior to injured plants was 311 observed in other species of the same family (Noctuidae), in greenhouse tests for 312 Tricoplusia ni Hübner, (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) in soybean plants (Coapio et al., 2016) 313 and C. virescens in tobacco plants (De Moraes et al., 2001). However, various results 314 have been observed in Brazilian populations of fall armyworm, that do not discriminate 315 between Bt and non-Bt maize in field and greenhouse experiments, even when the 316 plants were under injury by conspecifics (Gonçalves et al., 2020).

Despite the reported information, knowledge about the Bt soybean and its primary defoliators is lacking. A deeper understanding on how female moths of *A. gemmatalis* and *C. includens* behave in the context of Bt soybean and structured refuge could support the insect resistance management of both species, and contribute to the longevity of this technology, which has been efficient at suppressing pest population in Brazil (Horikoshi et al., 2021a).

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- 324 2.4. Impact of plant stage on moth oviposition choice
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326 Despite the significant number of studies addressing plant injury on moth host 327 location, the information on differences of plant phenological stage are limited. This 328 information is fundamental to support the recommendation of refuge planting at the 329 same time as the Bt crop.

A recent study was performed to investigate whether the rice leaf folder (RLF),
 Cnaphalocrocis medinalis Guenée (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae) would prefer rice plants at

the seedling, tillering, and booting stages. Their findings demonstrated that the moths preferred ovipositing at the more mature plants, at tillering and booting stages (Liu et al., 2021). Another study investigated the preference of the cabbage looper *T. ni* of young and mature leaves of different hosts, has also concluded that this moth species is more likely to oviposit on older leaves (Coapio et al., 2018).

337 Concerning the Bt crop and refuge planting, it is expected that if any 338 unpredictable event occurs, the grower will first plant the Bt crop, and later the refuge. 339 This situation would lead to the Bt and refuge fields being at different stages, leading to 340 a possible oviposition preference choice by the moths to either younger or older fields. 341 That was the case of O. nubilalis, which laid between 50 and 100% of the eggs in the 342 early corn planting during the first generation (Pilcher and Rice, 2001). For soybean 343 areas that are typically large, such as observed in the Brazilian savannah, the effect of 344 different Bt soybean stage and refuge soybean stage is crucial, as the largest area 345 planted is Bt, there are high chances that both areas will not be sowed at the same time, 346 as the sowing operation can last days to be complete.

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2.5. Implications of the moth movement on refuge effectiveness

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The success of the refuge strategy is based on the moths dispersion in the field and random mating behavior (Gould, 1994). The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) of the USA recommends that the maximum distance to plant the maize and cotton refuge is approximately 804 meters (half-mile) from any plant from the Bt field in order to promote random mating and dilution of homozygous resistant insects in the population (U.S. EPA, 2021).

356 Scientific data on moth dispersal have demonstrated differences for the same 357 pest. Adults of O. nubilalis, were recovered 23-49 km from the release point in Iowa, 358 USA (Showers et al., 2001). Nevertheless, in Nebraska, released adults tended to remain 359 near the irrigated maize (Hunt et al., 2001). In Kansas 99% of the European corn borer 360 moths were recaptured at 350 meters from the release point, which is less than the 361 recommended distance, but the authors agree that it might be not the real situation for 362 wild moths, as they have captured them in transgenic fields, i.e., they must have flown 363 from refuge fields that were at longer distances (Qureshi et al., 2005). Similar distance 364 and conclusions were observed by the same authors to another maize borer, Diatraea 365 grandiosella Dyar (Lepidoptera: Crambidae) (Qureshi et al., 2006).

In Brazil, the same maximum distance was recommended to plant the refuge fields, although with no previous data to confirm the moth dispersal in maize, cotton, and soybean. Because of that, some studies were carried out, and for the main maize pest, fall armyworm (*S. frugiperda*) the 800 meters seemed adequate, as the authors recaptured moths at 806 and 608 meters, males and females, respectively (Vilarinho et al., 2011). The same conclusion was found for the sugarcane borer, *Diatraea saccaralis* Fabricius (Lepidoptera: Crambidae), in sugarcane fields (Caixeta, 2010).

In soybean, up to now, a single study was carried out to address the moth dispersal of *A. gemmatalis*. The results reported that more than 10% of recaptured moths were found at 800 meters or further from the release point of the marked moths (Caixeta, 2014). However, the author highlighted that the sugarcane cultivated together with soybean in the experiments might have negatively influenced the moth dispersal. Therefore, information on the main moth species targeted by Bt soybean in Brazil is still lacking.

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2.5.1. Marking-release-recapture technique

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383 Studies focused on insect dispersal need to apply a methodology that provides 384 reliable information on the distances that individuals have moved. The mark-release-385 recapture technique is reliable method for insect dispersal studies. Insects are marked, 386 released in the field, and then recapture at known distances. The marker on the insects 387 will differentiate them from the wild ones (Hagler and Jackson, 2001).

388 Insects can be marked with various methodologies, such as dust or powders 389 (Culbert et al., 2020), oil-soluble dyes (Vilarinho et al., 2011), pollen (Hartstack et al., 390 1982), protein markers such as chicken egg albumin (Tavares et al., 2019). To make the 391 best marker choice, some aspects of the marker need to be taken into account, such as, 392 to be identifiable and retained on the insect for all the time that it is expected to analyze 393 its dispersal. In addition, the marker must not adversely affect the insect (behavior, 394 growth, reproduction, and life span) and the environment (Hagler and Jackson, 2001). 395 Dusts are commonly used for external marking, and adequate to mark large insects with 396 hairy bodies, which is the case of moths, such as A. gemmatalis and C. includens, both 397 species studied in this work.

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684

685 CHAPTER 2: OVIPOSITION BEHAVIOR OF TWO PRIMARY SOYBEAN 686 DEFOLIATORS IN BT SOYBEAN AND NON-BT

687

688 ABSTRACT

689 BACKGROUND: The adoption of refuge areas in combination of the high dose Bt 690 traits are critical components for an Insect resistance management (IRM) program for 691 Anticarsia gemmatalis Hübner (Lepidoptera: Erebidae) and Chrysodeixis includens 692 (Walker) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae). However, there is no information on how refuge 693 implementation might affect the oviposition choice of the moths. This study aimed at 694 understanding the oviposition behavior of A. gemmatalis and C. includens in Bt and 695 refuge plants, under larval injury, different growth phenology, and cultivars in semi-696 field and field experiments.

697 **RESULTS:** Females of *A. gemmatalis* did not discriminate between soybean cultivars 698 for oviposition, however they showed preference to oviposit on Bt plants when refuge 699 sowing was delayed 5 and 10 days after the Bt field in semi-field experiments. A three-700 year field experiment exploring the oviposition of natural populations of A. gemmatalis 701 in Bt and refuge, planted side by side, showed that a higher number of eggs were laid in Bt plants which were less defoliated. On the other hand, females of C. includens did not 702 703 show oviposition preference towards Bt or refuge at any scenario explored in the study, 704 in the semi-field and field experiments.

705 **CONCLUSION:** Female oviposition behavior is crucial when designing refuge 706 recommendations for target pests of Bt soybean, such as A. gemmatalis. The results of 707 the present study validated the current recommendation to structured refuge for Bt 708 soybean. In addition, the recommendation of refuge should be in an Integrated Pest 709 Management (IPM) framework, and includes choosing similar maturity groups of Bt 710 and non-Bt soybean cultivars, synchronization of planting dates of Bt crop and 711 corresponding refuge area, and adoption of defoliation thresholds to manage target pests 712 in the refuge area in a way to keep its effectiveness as a source of susceptible 713 population.

714 Keywords: Cry1Ac, oviposition behavior, defoliation in refuge, IRM, IPM

715 **Running title:** Oviposition behavior of target pests in Bt soybean and structured refuge

716 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Genetically modified soybean has been widely adopted, totaling 95.9 million 717 718 hectares around the world, comprised of 69.3 million hectares of RR soybean 719 (glyphosate-tolerant) and 26.6 million hectares stacked soybean with RR and insect 720 resistance, expressing Cry1Ac toxin. Brazil had the largest area planted with IR/HT 721 soybean, 20.2 million hectares in 2018¹. Since 2013, the Bt soybean technology 722 MON 87701 x MON 89788, expressing the Cry1Ac toxin and tolerance to glyphosate, 723 has been adopted by growers. More recently, the pyramided event MON 87751 x 724 MON 87708 x MON 87701 x MON 89788, expressing the Bt toxins Cry1A.105, 725 Cry2Ab2 and Cry1Ac that was approved in 2018, became available for growers to plant in the 2021-2022 crop season ². Cry1Ac expresses high levels of control of the two 726 727 main lepidopteran defoliators, the velvetbean caterpillar, Anticarsia gemmatalis Hübner, 728 (Lepidoptera: Erebidae) and the soybean looper, Chrysodeixis includens (Walker) 729 (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae). This toxin is a high dose event prior technology release, for A. gemmatalis [LC50 (FL 95%)=0.23 (0.15–0.34) μ g Cry1Ac mL⁻¹], and even if it is 730 731 not a high dose for C. includens, it shows high levels of control [LC50 (FL 95%)=3.72 $(2.65-4.86) \mu g \text{ CrylAc mL}^{-1}$ ³. This high efficacy has been maintained even after 8 732 733 years of pest exposure in the field. Recent report have indicated suppression of A. 734 gemmatalis and C. includens since the adoption of MON 87701 x MON 89788 soybean in Brazil⁴. 735

However, the risk of selection of resistant individuals to Bt technology should not be ignore, even for high dose events such the MON 87701 x MON 89788 soybean, due to the high exposure of the target defoliator pests to Cry1Ac ⁵. The recommendation of refuge in Bt soybean is 20% of the field with non-Bt soybean field, which should have the maximum distance between any plant from the Bt area and the refuge area no higher than 800 meters. This non-Bt soybean field will serve as a source of susceptible individuals, that is expected to randomly mate with possible resistant individuals that survived from the Bt area. This mating will result in susceptible heterozygotes, assuming that the resistance is recessive, and then killed by the Bt plants in next generations ⁶.

746 Genetic factors of target populations by Bt technology are important 747 components in the risk of resistance evolution. In addition, there are other aspects that 748 might influence the selection of resistance to Bt technology, such as moth dispersal capacity and mating populations from refuge and Bt fields ⁷. Ovipositon behavior of 749 750 moths is also an key component that needs to be considered when designing refuge 751 reccomendatios. Plants emit volatile organic compounds (VOCs) that play an important role in the search for the host by moths⁸. Thus the presence of Bt and non-Bt plants at 752 753 the same time and field could impact moths of target pests of the Bt technology if they have differences in the VOCs production. In rice and cotton, no differences among Bt 754 and non-Bt VOCs have been documented ^{9,10}. This similarity in plant volatiles might 755 756 explain the absence of oviposition preference between Bt and non-Bt plants of cotton ^{11,12}, cabbage ¹³, maize ^{14,15}, rice ⁹, canola ¹⁶, and broccoli ¹⁷. 757

Nevertheless, plants under herbivory tend to modify their VOC profile, as the larvae feeding prompts the plant to produce herbivore-induced plant volatile (HIPVs) ¹⁸. This situation could lead to an oviposition avoidance behavior of plants with higher defoliation (what can be expected in the refuge area) as observed in some noctuid species ^{19–21}, This moth behavior prevents future competition for their progeny, diminishes the probability to find natural enemies, and avoid plants with induced resistance and low nutritional value ²⁰. Feeding of *A. gemmatalis* or *C. includens* in soybean plants increases the emissions of VOC's ^{22,23}. Structured refuge with non-Bt soybean have higher level of defoliation when compared with Bt soybean field and a high level of egg deposition by female moths of both of these target pests may occur. This hypothesis is due to the fact that females moths may detect differences in the VOC's profile, avoiding the refuge. However, no data have been reported to test this hypothesis of higher oviposition on non-Bt soybean, which is critical for the refuge recommendation in soybean.

772 In addition, soybeans are planted in large areas, such as in Brazil, where 773 approximately 40K hectares were cultivated with soybean in the 2020-2021 crop season ²⁴. In extensively large areas, the planting operation can be challenging and growers 774 775 usually give priority to plant the Bt crop, the expected profitable crop, resulting in 776 delays for the planting of refuge area. This lack of synchronization between Bt and refuge planting dates may lead to a possible differential moth oviposition of target pests 777 778 to either younger or older fields. Limited studies on oviposition preference on plants of 779 different phenological stages have indicated that Trichoplusia ni (Hubner) (Lepidoptera: 780 Noctuidae), Cnaphalocrocis medinalis (Guenée) (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae), and Ostrinia 781 nubilalis (Hübner) (Lepidoptera: Crambidae) prefer to oviposit on more mature plants ^{25–27}. The effect of delay of refuge planting and consequent desynchronization of the 782 783 crop phenology of the Bt crop is a critical aspect when designing refuge 784 recommendations, due to the possible impact in oviposition choice.

In addition, the cultivars available for planting refuge are not isogenic of the Bt cultivars. Then, recommendation of Insecticide Resistance Action Committee in Brazil (IRAC-Brazil) is to select cultivars of the same or similar vegetative phenological growth stage ²⁸. However, plant morphological differences might occur and there is no information on moth oviposition behavior in a scenario of different cultivars beingplanted in the Bt and refuge fields.

791 A possible scenario of oviposition preference of the target pest by Bt soybean 792 towards the Bt fields, either due to avoidance of damaged plants from the refuge, late 793 mature development of Bt fields or cultivar preference could jeopardize the refuge 794 effectiveness. It would increase larvae exposure to Bt crops and accelerate the rate of 795 resistance evolution to Bt soybean. Therefore, this study aimed at understanding the 796 oviposition behavior of A. gemmatalis and C. includens in Cry1Ac Bt and refuge plants, 797 under larvae injury, different growth stages and cultivars in semi-field and field 798 experiments.

799

800 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

801 **2.1. Semi-field experiments**

802 **2.1.1. Plants**

803 Plants of Bt (DM61i59 IPRO and BRS 1010 IPRO) and non-Bt (BRS 413 RR) 804 soybean cultivars were sown in 5 L pots containing substrate and soil (1:1) inside the 805 greenhouse with irrigation as necessary, for all the multi-choice experiments. DM61i59 806 IPRO and BRS 1010 IPRO were from maturity group 6.1 and 6.2, respectively and 807 indeterminate growth habit. BRS 413 RR from maturity group 6.2 and indeterminate 808 growth habit. The plants were transferred to 5 x 4 x 2.5 m cages placed in the field and 809 right after the moths were released into the cages, by opening the lids of the acrylic 810 cages, allowing the moths naturally fly out. The number of plants per treatment varied 811 according to each experiment. The number of moths released into each cage was 50 812 pairs of A. gemmatalis and 30 pairs of C. includens.

813

2.1.2. Insects

814 Dual and multi-choice oviposition preference experiments were performed with populations of A. gemmatalis and C. includens. Two A. gemmatalis populations were 815 816 used in the oviposition preference test in order to have representative data from both 817 scenarios and allowing understanding whether the origin of A. gemmatalis population 818 could affect the oviposition behavior. One colony of A. gemmatalis had been kept in the 819 laboratory for over 10 years and the other population was collected in a non-Bt soybean 820 field (±1000 larvae), in Campo Verde, Mato Grosso, Brazil, in December of 2018. 821 Larvae was transferred to the Insect Rearing laboratory at Embrapa Soja, Londrina, 822 Paraná, Brazil. One population of C. includens was established for this study, collected 823 in Campo Verde, Mato Grosso, in 2018 and transferred to the laboratory.

824 The colony of both species and populations were kept in laboratory and larvae were fed with an artificial diet previously described ²⁹ inside 200 ml plastic cups until 825 826 3rd instar, when every 3 larvae were transferred to 50 ml plastic cups until pupate. Pupae 827 were placed inside transparent acrylic cages (Criartshop, Londrina, Brazil) (32 x 45 x 30 828 cm) for adult emergence, mating, and egg collection from the sulfite paper (Chamex®, 829 Mogi-Guaçu, São Paulo, Brazil) placed in the inner walls. Eggs were then placed inside plastic cups (200 ml) for larva hatching until the 3rd instar, when every larva was 830 831 transfer to the plastic cup. For the experiments, at the pupa stage of each species, the 832 insects were separated by sex and placed inside transparent acrylic cages (30 x 32 x 35 833 cm) for adult emergence. After emergence, the same number of females and males was 834 transferred to third cage. Fifty pairs of A. gemmatalis and 30 pairs of C. includens were 835 placed in each cage for mating, containing 2 petri dishes with cotton embedded with 836 water and sugar based liquid diet as food source. When the first eggs were observed on the cage wall (around 3 days after adult emergence), the couples were transferred to 837

cages placed in the field with soybean plants, where they remained for 24 hours, and
 then plants were cut and taken to the laboratory for egg counting ³⁰.

840 841

2.1.3. Dual oviposition choice preference between Bt and refuge at different crop growth stages

842 Dual-choice oviposition preference tests were independently performed for A. 843 gemmatalis and C. includens in cages placed in the experimental fields. The aim of the 844 experiments was to investigate the effect of the planting delay of the refuge area and 845 consequently oviposition choice in soybean plants in different phenological stages. The 846 experiment was performed in a randomized completely block design, with three 847 treatments. Each treatment corresponded to a dual-choice between Bt and non-Bt plants, 848 where only the non-Bt plants varied at the phenological stage among treatments, as they 849 were sowed 0, 5, and 10 days after Bt plant sowing, respectively for treatment 1, 2 and 850 3. The experiment were repeated 4 times (replications) and fifteen plants of Bt soybean 851 cultivar BRS 1010 IPRO (Bt) and 15 plants of BRS 413 RR (non-Bt) were placed inside 852 each cage, totaling 30 plants per cage.

In the oviposition preference choice experiment with *A. gemmatalis*, each cage contained Bt plants at the reproductive stage R1. The non-Bt plants were in the phenological growth stages of R1, V8, and V6, in the treatments 1, 2, and 3, respectively. In the oviposition preference choice experiment with *C. includens*, each cage contained Bt plants at the reproductive stage R2 and non-Bt plants in R2, R1, and V7, in the treatments 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

859 860

2.1.4. Multi-choice oviposition preference between Bt and non-Bt soybean cultivars

Multi-choice oviposition preference tests were independently performed for *A*. *gemmatalis* and *C. includens* in cages placed in the field in a randomized completely block design. The cultivars DM61i59 (Bt), BRS 1010 IPRO (Bt), and BRS 413 RR 864 (non-Bt) were used to test a possible oviposition preference towards one or more 865 soybean cultivars. The experiment was conducted when the experimental field with the 866 three cultivars were at V6 stage. Inside each cage, fifteen plants of each cultivar were 867 placed, totaling 45 plants per cage. Each cage was considered one block composed by 868 three treatments (cultivars), and the experiment were repeated four times for each 869 species.

870 871

2.1.5. Multi-choice oviposition preference between injured and non-injured soybean plants

872 Multi-choice oviposition preference tests were independently performed for A. 873 gemmatalis and C. includens in cages placed in the field in a randomized completely 874 block design. Three experiments were performed with A. gemmatalis, one with the 875 laboratory colony and two with the field-derived colony. Two experiments were carried 876 out with C. includens. Plants of the soybean cultivars, BRS 1010 IPRO (Bt) and 877 BRS 413 RR (non-Bt) were used only in the experiment with the laboratory colony and 878 cultivars DM61i59 IPRO(Bt) and BRS 413 RR (non-Bt) were used in the other experiments. Part of the non-Bt plants were infested with 4th larva instar of A. 879 880 gemmatalis, 24 hours before moth releasing. Four trifoliates per plant were infested 881 with 3 larvae per trifoliate, contained by organza voile bags (25 x 30 cm) to avoid larva 882 escape. Treatments were: (1) Bt plants without injury; (2) non-Bt plants without injury; 883 and (3) injured non-Bt plants. Fifteen plants of soybean per treatment were placed 884 inside each cage, which was considered one block, that was repeated three or five times 885 depending on the experiment (Table 1).

886 **2.2. Field experiments**

887 Oviposition preference experiments in field were performed for three 888 consecutive crop seasons, 2018-2019, 2019-2020, and 2020-2021. The field 889 experiments were conducted side by side at the experimental field of Embrapa Soja

(23°11'47" S 51°10'53"W), Londrina, Paraná. For detailed information on cultivars, 890 891 dates and growth stages evaluated, see table 2. Bt and refuge plots of soybean were 892 sown side-by-side in blocks. Each plot was 25 meters long and 9 meters width, 225 m² 893 area, 18 planting rows 0.5 meters between rows and 0.14 between plants. Each block 894 was repeated 4 times for each experiment (Fig. S1). The oviposition of natural 895 populations of A. gemmatalis and C. includens in Bt soybean and its correspondent structured refuge (non-Bt) were compared in two scenarios during each crop season. In 896 897 the first scenario, no pest management was adopted. In the second scenario, Integrated 898 Pest Management (IPM) was adopted only in the refuge fields, spraying the insecticide 899 chlorantraniliprole (FMC Química do Brasil Ltda, Campinas, São Paulo, Brazil) when 900 the defoliation level achieved the Economic threshold (ET) of 30% in the vegetative 901 stage or 15% in the reproductive stage ³¹.

902 Once a week, the larvae scouting was performed at 4 spots per plot, by counting 903 the number of larvae per meter with the beat cloth, and the percentage of defoliation was accessed by visual grading (from 0 to 100%)³². A sample of ten plants per plot 904 905 were collected and inspected in laboratory under a microscope stereoscope for the 906 presence of eggs. Each egg was identified by species level considering morphological 907 characteristics. Eggs of A. gemmatalis are blue-greenish right after laid and then they 908 become darker as the embryo develops. The shape is semi-spherical, and the chorion is 909 crossed from the base to the top by nine to 10 well-defined ridges that reach the cells 910 surrounding the micropyle, and between them, there are one or two short, less 911 conspicuous ridges that are connected one to another by lateral bridges 33 . Eggs of C. 912 includens vary from pale yellow to cream, their shape is hemispherical, slightly fattened 913 in the top and base. The micropylar rosette has 6-10 petals, surrounded by two 914 concentric rosettes, with gradually bigger petals on the outside border. They have 915 conspicuous ribs and cross-ribs ³⁴. Eggs identified as *A. gemmatalis* or *C. includens* 916 were counted and the total of eggs per moth species was recorded. Evaluations were 917 weekly performed until the number of eggs were highly reduced at the reproductive 918 soybean growth stage R6 for all the 6 experiments, during the three growing seasons.

919

2.3. Analysis

920 Data from the dual-choice oviposition preference between Bt and refuge at 921 different soybean growth stages were submitted to "one sample t test" (Proc t test) to test whether the percentage of eggs laid on Bt was different from 50% ³⁵. Data from 922 multi-choice oviposition preference between different soybean cultivars and between Bt 923 924 and non-Bt plants under larvae injury were submitted to ANOVA (PROC GLM) 925 followed by Tukey test (α =0.05). For both data, homogeneity of variance and normality 926 of the response variables were checked using residual analysis of the linear model (PROC UNIVARIATE)³⁵. 927

928 The number of eggs data at each soybean growth stage from the oviposition 929 preference field experiments were tested using ANOVA with repeated measures (PROC 930 MIXED), as the same plot was evaluated every week. The model considered cultivar as 931 fixed effect and growth stage as random effect. Homogeneity of variance and normality 932 of the response variables were checked using residual analysis of the linear model 933 (PROC UNIVARIATE). The data of A. gemmatalis oviposition from the season 2018-934 19 of the IPM experiment, 2019-20 and 2020-21 of the experiments without pest control and IPM experiments were $\sqrt{x+1}$ transformed. Data of C. includens oviposition from 935 the experiments without pest control of the seasons 2019-20 and 2020-21 were $\sqrt{x+1}$ 936 937 transformed and oviposition data from the IPM of the 2018-10 crop season experiment were \sqrt{X} transformed. The total number of eggs along the experiments of each cultivar 938 939 (Bt and non-Bt) and species were submitted to ANOVA (PROC GLM). Means of 940 defoliation percentage of each cultivar were submitted to ANOVA with repeated 941 measures (PROC MIXED), as the same plot was evaluated every week and then 942 compared by the Tukey (PROC GLM), at seasons 2019-2020 and 2020-2021. 943 Defoliation data from the experiments without pest control and IPM of the season 2020-21 were \sqrt{X} transformed. In the season 2018-2019, the defoliation between Bt and 944 945 non-Bt were compared by Mann-Whitney (PROC NPAR1WAY) within growth stage, 946 because the residue did not attend the normality assumptions.

947 3. RESULTS

- 948
- 949

3.1. Semi-field experiments

3.1.1. Dual oviposition preference choice between Bt and refuge at 950 different crop growth stages

There was no significant difference in the A. gemmatalis oviposition between Bt and 951 952 refuge in plants sowed at the same day (P>0.05). When refuge field was planted 5 days 953 (P<0.05) or 10 days (P<0.05) later the oviposition of A. gemmatalis expressed in 954 percentage of eggs was significantly higher in Bt soybean plants than in refuge (Fig. 1). 955 On the other hand, the oviposition of C. includens on Bt soybean of refuge was not 956 significantly different, independently of the phenological stage of the plants (Fig. 2).

957 958

3.1.2. Multi-choice oviposition preference between Bt and non-Bt soybean cultivars

959 Anticarsia gemmatalis moths showed no oviposition preference towards any 960 soybean cultivar that were tested (P>0.05). Similar results were observed for C. 961 includens, with no oviposition preference for the three soybean cultivars under study 962 (P>0.05) (Table 3).

3.1.3. Multi-choice oviposition preference between injured and non-injured soybean plants

Oviposition between the non-injured and injured soybean plants were not 965 966 significantly different when exposed to moths of A. gemmatalis from laboratory 967 population (P>0.05). Although the experiment performed in February 2019 (n=3) with 968 the field population did not indicate any difference between treatments (P>0.05), in the 969 experiment performed in April 2019 (n=5), a higher percentage of eggs, approximately 970 40%, was observed in non-injured Bt compared to injured non-Bt (P<0.05). 971 Chrysodeixis includens did not show oviposition preference towards any treatment 972 during the two experiments (P>0.05) (Table 1).

973

3.2. Field experiments

974

3.2.1. Oviposition preference without pest management in the refuge

975 During the execution of the experiments, in the three crop seasons, natural 976 infestation of A. gemmatalis and C. includens were detected in experimental fields. 977 Percentage of defoliation was significantly higher in non-Bt plots from the growth 978 stages, V6, R2, and R3 until the end of the evaluation period, during the 2018-19, 2019-979 20, and 2020-21 crop seasons, respectively (Fig. 3). Oviposition of A. gemmatalis 980 varied depending on the soybean growth stage during the first crop season (P<0.05), as 981 the number of eggs laid on Bt soybean was higher than non-Bt at the V6, R4, R5.2 982 growth stages. In addition, the accumulated number of eggs throughout the evaluation 983 period was higher in Bt than non-Bt experimental fields (P<0.05) (Fig. 3A). In the 984 2019-20 crop season, only at R4, there was a significantly higher number of eggs in Bt 985 than non-Bt experimental fields (P<0.05), but no significant difference was observed in 986 the total number of eggs (P>0.05) (Fig. 3B). In the third crop season of the study, there 987 was a significantly higher number of eggs laid on Bt soybean, at the R5.4 and R5.5 988 growth stages (P<0.05). The total number of eggs follows the same patter during this crop season (P<0.05) (Fig. 3C). Oviposition of *C. includens* on Bt and non-Bt soybean
experimental plots, during the three growth seasons under study did not statistically
differ (Fig. 3).

992 **3.2.2.** Oviposition preference with IPM adoption in the refuge 993 During the three crop seasons under study, the defoliation in non-Bt plants were 994 higher than Bt plants, achieving the action threshold of 15% defoliation at R3 growth 995 stage (2018-19 and 2019-20 crops seasons) and R5.1 (2020-21 crop season) (Fig. 4). 996 Insecticide was applied aiming to manage the main lepidopteran defoliators A. 997 gemmatalis, C. includens, and S. frugiperda. The number of eggs laid by A. gemmatalis 998 was not different on Bt and non-Bt experimental areas, within the same growth stage at 999 all three crop seasons. However, the accumulated number of eggs along the evaluation 1000 period was higher in Bt than non-Bt field during 2018-19 (P<0.05) and 2020-21 1001 (P<0.05) crop seasons (Fig. 4A-C). The total number of C. includens eggs during the 1002 crop seasons was not different on Bt and non-Bt fields during the three crop seasons, as 1003 well as at each growth stage in the 2018-19 and 2020-21 crop seasons (Fig. 4).

1004

1005 **4. DISCUSSION**

1006 The results obtained from this study are the first information on the oviposition behavior of primary lepidopteran defoliators, A. gemmatalis and C. includens in Bt 1007 1008 soybean and the structured refuge. Dual choice semi-field experiments clearly indicated 1009 that the current recommendation of planting the refuge at the same time that Bt field, 1010 does not change the oviposition pattern of the target lepidopteran pests by Bt technology 1011 in soybean. However, a 5 day-delay on planting the refuge resulted in a higher 1012 oviposition in Bt plants by A. gemmatalis. This preference towards more mature leaves seems to be shared with other lepidopteran species, such as T. ni²⁶, C. medinalis²⁵, and 1013

O. nubilalis (Lepidoptera: Crambidae)²⁷. This moth preference for older plants might 1014 1015 be attributed to a lower density and length of glandular trichomes observed on leaves of 1016 older plants in comparison to younger soybean leaves, as these trichomes act as oviposition repellent to the moth ²⁶, and mechanical defense to larval feeding ³⁶, as 1017 1018 observed for T. ni. Nevertheless, the same different plant growth stages tested for A. 1019 gemmatalis had no influence on C. includens oviposition choice, which means, the 1020 impact on a late refuge planting would not cause oviposition preference towards Bt, and 1021 so adults of this species would randomly oviposit between Bt and refuge fields. This 1022 difference observed between A. gemmatalis and C. includens oviposition preference might be due to high randomly plant-to-plant movement of the larvae observed in C. 1023 includens ³⁷, which means, the moth does not need to be selective for the host site 1024 1025 oviposition, as the larvae will disperse in the field. In addition, C. includens was 1026 observed to oviposit more frequently in the lower part of the soybean plant while A. gemmatalis in upper part. Thus, C. includens would be less exposed to the trichomes in 1027 1028 general, as the lower part has older leaves, where a lower density of trichomes is 1029 present, whereas, the upper part of the soybean plant has the youngest leaves, where a higher density of trichomes is present ²⁶. Thus, it is reasonable that *A. gemmatalis* would 1030 1031 show a preferable oviposition behavior for older plants when offered a choice like in the 1032 dual oviposition choice experiment. However, it is important to consider that aiming the 1033 maintenance of Bt soybean technology, it is crucial to consider the worst case scenario. 1034 Therefore, the results of this experiment validate nowadays recommendation of sowing 1035 both Bt and non-Bt (refuge) areas at the same date.

1036 No preference on the oviposition of *A. gemmatalis* and *C. includens* on Bt and 1037 non-Bt cultivars at V6 growth stage was observed in the present study. The results 1038 clearly confirms that the adoption of structured refuge, and its consequent role as source 1039 of unselected populations of both pests is not compromised by the inexistence of 1040 isogenic lines of Bt and non-Bt in soybean. However, it is important to highlight that 1041 the comparison was done between Bt cultivars e non-Bt cultivar of 6.1 and the non-Bt 1042 was 6.2 relative maturity group ³⁸. Those adopted procedures followed recommendation 1043 of selecting a cultivar of the similar maturity group of the Bt cultivar as a refuge and 1044 planting both cultivars (Bt and refuge area) at the same time ²⁸.

1045 Experiments performed to investigate the impact of plants under defoliation 1046 could compromise moth oviposition choice. Previously, the impact of the defoliation in 1047 the attractiveness for egg deposition was investigated for S. frugiperda in Bt and non-Bt maize in Cuba, based in the hypothesis that plant volatiles emitted when the plant is 1048 1049 under larvae feeding could deter oviposition by the moths, and they found an oviposition difference related to the injury, as the more injured the plant the less eggs 1050 were observed, which was the case of the refuge plants ³⁹. In contrast, Brazilian 1051 1052 populations of S. frugiperda from two different ecoregions, did not show preference among injured and non-injured plants ⁴⁰. These contrasting results were attributed to the 1053 1054 different landscape, methodology to obtain the results and level of infestation. In the 1055 present study, the impact of defoliation of A. gemmatalis and C. includens was first 1056 tested under controlled conditions in semi-field experiments. Moths of A. gemmatalis 1057 from laboratory colony did not differ between Bt and non-Bt plants with or without 1058 defoliation from both species. This result was expected as this population has been 1059 reared in artificial diet over 10 years, and has not been exposed to plant host, which 1060 might have decreased its ability to recognize plant volatiles. Therefore, a field-derived colony with population originated from soybean producing area in Mato Grosso State, 1061 1062 Brazil, was used in the experiments. Only in the experiment performed in April 2019, a 1063 difference of percentage of eggs was observed, as more eggs were laid in the Bt than the

injured non-Bt cultivar. Nonetheless, *C. includens* did not show oviposition preference
neither on Bt or non-Bt plants. This species is known by its polyphagous behavior, with
73 host plants from 29 families ⁴¹. The oviposition behavior in polyphagous pests is
typically non-selective ⁴² and the non-preferred host site observed on this study, is
consistent with a highly polyphagous and larval mobility species such as *C. includens*,
as previously mentioned.

1070 In order to further investigate the field oviposition behavior of A. gemmatalis 1071 and C. includens, experiments were carried out for three crop seasons (from 2019 to 1072 2021) in Londrina County, north of Parana State, which is the second soybean producer among the States in Brazil²⁴. At the soybean growth stages, V6, R4, and R5.2 (2019-1073 1074 2020 crop season), R4 (2019-2020 crop season), R5.4 and R5.5 (crop season 2020-1075 2021), the number of A. gemmatalis eggs was higher in Bt experimental areas, and the 1076 total number of eggs laid along the evaluation period was also higher in Bt plants during 1077 2018-2019 and 2020-2021 crop seasons. These results demonstrate an oviposition 1078 preference for Bt plants over refuge when no insecticide is applied. On the other hand, 1079 when IPM was adopted, no difference between Bt and refuge was observed within the 1080 same soybean growth stage at all the three crop seasons, only the total number of A. 1081 gemmatalis eggs along the evaluation period was higher in Bt than non-Bt soybean 1082 plants. Although A. gemmatalis has a high number of plant hosts, the larvae preferentially feed on plants of the Fabaceae family, as soybean ⁴³, which is consistent 1083 1084 with the discrimination of the oviposition site by the moths. This is the first report of 1085 oviposition preference to Bt soybean of A. gemmatalis, when refuge is used as IRM 1086 practice and is a clear indication that refuge area must be carried out under IPM 1087 practices. Therefore, pest outbreaks should be controlled whenever economic thresholds 1088 are reached or surpassed, thus IPM and IRM are complementary, which means, using Bt

technology still requires an IPM strategies either for monitoring resistance to Bt toxins
 in field or monitoring the pests that are not Bt target and needs an adequate management
 ⁴⁴.

1092 Considering the high efficacy of Cry1Ac at controlling this species for 8 years 1093 already ⁴, maintaining that is essential to prevent yield losses in soybean. Therefore, 1094 managing the refuge with IPM appears to be an important practice that might reduce the 1095 oviposition preference for Bt, which means, the oviposition by the adults will be 1096 random, and larvae exposure to Bt will be regular.

1097 Although, no oviposition preference was observed at any refuge situations for C. includens, preference behavior was detected in A. gemmatalis in semi-field and field 1098 1099 experiments. Therefore, in order to preserve the technology, it is necessary to consider 1100 the worse scenario, which means, the current recommendation to implement refuges for 1101 Bt soybean, considering the synchronization of planting date for Bt and refuge fields, 1102 non-influence of the cultivar adopted for the refuge area, and adoption of IPM in refuge 1103 based on economic threshold are necessary in order to decrease level of defoliation of A. 1104 gemmatalis and guarantee the refuge effectiveness.

1105

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L'unaimant	Species/		Soybean	Mean of percentage of eggs			Statistics	CS
PAPer menu	population	Treatment	growth stage	± standard error		CV ¹	Ц	Q
narc)	(number of eggs)		(%)	4	4
	A. gemmatalis/	Bt	R1	37.21 ±1.67 (544.67 ±92.83)	a ³			
February 2018	Laboratory (n ² =3)	Non-Bt		$31.02 \pm 6.76 (453.33 \pm 138.81)$	а	32.23	0.30	0.7584
		Injured non-Bt		31.77 ±5.33 (457.67 ±99.25)	а			
	A. gemmatalis/	Bt	R2	$42.73 \pm 0.98 (132.00 \pm 35.00)$	а			
February 2019	Field (n=3)	Non-Bt		$28.68 \pm 8.10 \ (89.00 \pm 29.30)$	а	39.78	1.13	0.4083
		Injured non-Bt		$28.58 \pm 7.12 \ (88.33 \pm 35.36)$	а			
	A. gemmatalis/	Bt	R3	$39.54 \pm 2.89 (764.40 \pm 87.09)$	а			
April 2019	Field (n=5)	Non-Bt		$33.84 \pm 2.88 (648.40 \pm 69.46)$	ab	20.61	4.44	0.0504
		Injured non-Bt		$26.62 \pm 1.50 (521.20 \pm 69.34)$	þ			
	C. includens/	Bt	R2	42.52 ±4.92 (669.70 ±119.84)	а			
April 2019	Field (n=3)	Non-Bt		$33.37 \pm 5.70 (532.0 \pm 145.34)$	а	30.17	2.51	0.1964
		Injured non-Bt		$24.11 \pm 3.27 \ (409.7 \pm 133.37)$	а			
	C. includens/	Bt	R5.1	29.77 ±2.82 (641.7 ±88.68)	а			
January 2020	Field (n=3)	Non-Bt		$34.67 \pm 6.26 (746.3 \pm 150.86)$	а	29.78	0.30	0.7584
		Injured non-Bt		35.57 ± 4.27 (757.7 ± 80.47)	а			

Table 1 - Oviposition of Anticarsia gemmatalis and Chrysodeixis includens in Bt and non-Bt plants with and without injury by larvae in multi-

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Table 2 - Information of the field oviposition preference experiments of Anticarsiagemmatalisand Chrysodeixis includensin Btand non-Btsoybeancultivarsduringseasons.Londrina, Paraná, Brazil (23° 11' 27.4" S 51° 10' 20.2 W").

		Season	
	2018-2019	2019-2020	2020-2021
Bt cultivar			
(Relative maturity group)	DM61i59 (6.1)	BRS1010IPRO (6.1)	BRS1010IPRO (6.1)
Non-Bt cultivar			
(Relative maturity group)	BRS413RR (6.2)	BRS413RR (6.2)	BRS413RR (6.2)
Sowing date	11/7/2018	11/18/2019	11/17/2020
First evaluation date	12/5/2018	12/19/2019	12/17/2020
Last evaluation date	02/25/2019	03/02/2020	02/24/2021
	V2, V3, V4, V6,		W5 W6 D1 D2 D2
Soybean growth stages evaluated	R1, R2, R3, R4, R5.2, R5.3, R5.5, R6	V5, R1, R2, R3, R4, R5.1, R5.2, R5.3, R5.4, R5.5, R6	V5, V6, R1, R2, R3, R4, R5.1, R5.3, R5.4, R5.5, R6

Species	Southaan oultivar	Mean of egg percentage ± standard			Statistics	CS
	buybean cumvar	error (number of eggs)		CV ¹ (%) F	Ц	Р
	BRS 413	$31.15 \pm 2.16 (156.75 \pm 35.19)$	\mathbf{a}^2			
A. gemmatalis	DM61i59 IPRO	$31.25 \pm 6.11 \ (170 \pm 52.71)$	а	37.58	0.35	0.7202
	BRS 1010IPRO	$37.59 \pm 6.04 \; (176.50 \pm 29.15)$	а			
	BRS 413	$24.19 \pm 3.12 \ (369.50 \pm 54.37)$	а			
C. includens	DM61i59 IPRO	$35.53 \pm 4.85 \ (570.75 \pm 138.46)$	а	29.80	2.77	0.1404
	BRS 1010IPRO	$40.28 \pm 4.02 \ (623.00 \pm 116.67)$	ы			

Table 3 - Oviposition of Anticarsia gemmatalis and Chrysodeixis includens in different soybean cultivars in multi-choice preference tests carried

out in semi-field conditions in January 2021. Londrina, PR, Brazil (23° 11' 27.4" S 51° 10' 20.2 W").

by 2 2 5 2 1), Tukey test (P < 0.05). Number of replicates: 4.

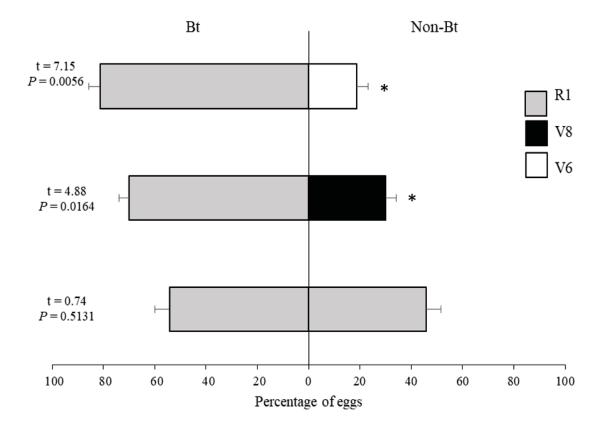


Figure 1 - Percentage (mean \pm standard error) of *Anticarsia gemmatalis* oviposition in Bt and refuge (non-Bt) compared by the one sample t test (n=4, α =0.05), in a dual choice preference test. Refuge planted 0, 5 and 10 days after Bt. Bar colors correspond to soybean growth stage at the oviposition preference test.¹ *Percentage of eggs in Bt plants was significantly higher than 50% (P<0.05).

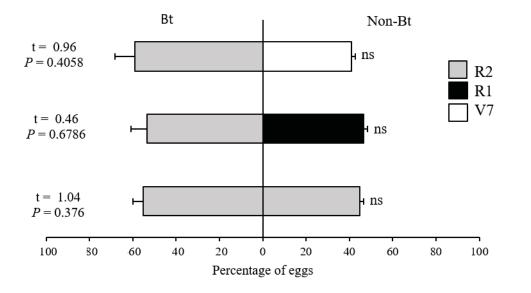


Figure 2 - Percentage (mean \pm standard error) of *Chrysodeixis includens* oviposition in Bt and refuge (non-Bt) soybean plants 24h after moth releasing compared by the one sample t test (n=4, α =0.05), in a dual choice preference test. Refuge planted 0, 5 and 10 days after Bt. Bar colors correspond to soybean growth stage at the oviposition preference test.¹ ns: Percentage of eggs in Bt plants was not significantly higher than 50% (P>0.05).

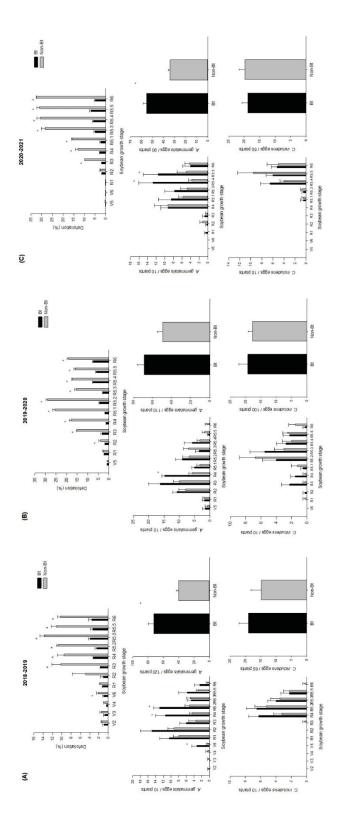


Figure 3 - Natural infestation of Anticarsia gemmatalis and Chrysodeixis includens without pest management. Percentage of defoliation (on the top), number of eggs per soybean growth stage (on the left) and the sum of eggs laid throughout the season (on the right) at soybean crop transformed. Defoliation data of the season 2020-21 were \sqrt{X} transformed *Bt and non-Bt plots are significantly different by Tukey or Mannstage. seasons (A) 2018-19, (B) 2019-20 and (C) 2020-21. Oviposition data of both species from seasons 2019-20 and 2020-21 were $\sqrt{x+1}$ growth same the within 2018-19) ш. defoliation the (only test Whitney

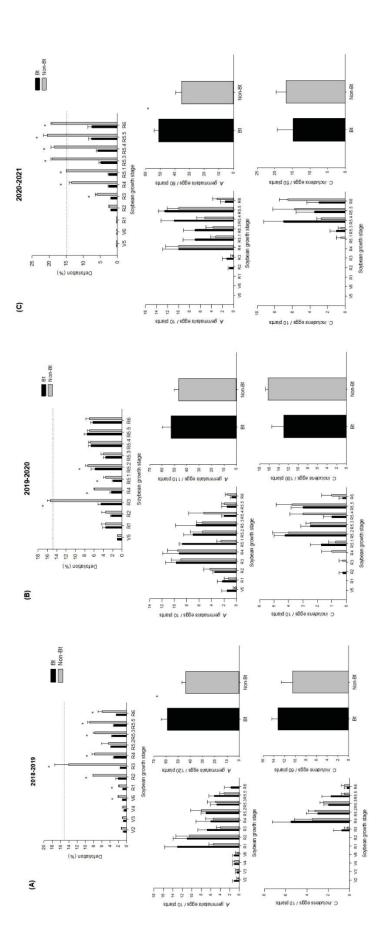


Figure 4 - Natural infestation of Anticarsia gemmatalis and Chrysodeixis includens adopting Integrated Pest Management (IPM). Percentage 21. Oviposition data of A. gemmatalis from the three seasons were $\sqrt{x+1}$ transformed. Oviposition data of C. includens from season 2018-219 were \sqrt{X} transformed. Defoliation data of the season 2020-21 were \sqrt{X} transformed.*Bt and non-Bt plots significantly different by Tukey or of defoliation (on the top). Economic threshold for insecticide spraying of 15% defoliation: dotted lines. Number of eggs per soybean growth stage (on the left) and the sum of eggs laid throughout the season (on the right) at soybean crop seasons (A) 2018-19, (B) 2019-20 and (C) 2020-Mann-Whitney test (only the defoliation in 2018-19) within the same growth stage.

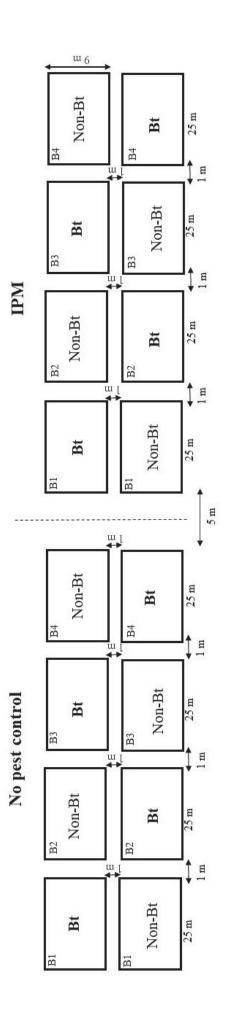


Figure S1- Experimental scheme of the field oviposition preference of A. genmatalis and C. includens in Bt and non-Bt soybean performed at 2018-19, 2019-20 and 2020-21 crop seasons. No pest control: no insecticide spraying. IPM: insecticide sprayed based on Economic threshold of 30% defoliation (vegetative stage) or 15% defoliation (reproductive stage). Bt: Cultivars DM61i59 IPRO (2018-19) and BRS 1010 IPRO RR2 (2019-20 e 2020-21). Non-Bt: Cultivar BRS 413 RR (all crop seasons).

1251 CHAPTER 3: FLIGHT RANGE OF ANTICARSIA GEMMATALIS AND 1252 CHRYSODEIXIS INCLUDENS IN SOYBEAN FIELDS: BASIS FOR THE REFUGE 1253 STRATEGY ESTABLISHMENT

1254

1255 ABSTRACT

1256 Bt soybean adoption has increased in the last crops seasons, and Brazil is responsible 1257 for the largest cultivated area. Insect resistance management strategies are necessary to delay the development of resistance to the Bt toxin in the target pests, such as Anticarsia 1258 1259 gemmatalis Hübner (Lepidoptera: Erebidae) and Chrysodeixis includens Walker 1260 (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae). One of them is planting refuges close enough to Bt areas to guarantee that rare resistant individuals will be able to fly and mate with susceptible ones 1261 from the refuge area. Limited information is available to confirm if the current maximum 800 1262 meters recommended corresponds to the flight range of these pests. We performed mark-1263 release-recapture experiments with moths of both species during 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 1264 crop seasons in a soybean production area. Based on the recapture of marked moths of A. 1265 gemmatalis, dispersal capacity of this species flight ranges from 50 to 1000 meters, and 100% 1266 1267 of recaptured female moths indicated mated status. Marked C. includens moths were 1268 recaptured in the range of 50 to 500 meters from the released point, and all females were mated. Wild moths of both species, as well as Rachiplusia nu Guenée (Lepidoptera: 1269 1270 Noctuidae), were also trapped during the study. Our results support the current refuge distance 1271 recommendation for A. gemmatalis. The high number of mated females of both species near 1272 to the release point of the marked insects indicate that this mating behavior could compromise the assortative mating assumption, which negatively affects the refuge effectiveness by 1273 1274 increasing the possibility of increase of resistant alleles in the population of both target 1275 species.

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- 1277

Keywords: Cry1Ac, resistance, IRM, mark-release-recapture, behavior, refuge design

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1279 **1. INTRODUCTION**

1280 The development of genetically modified crops expressing insecticidal proteins from 1281 Bacillus thuringiensis (Bt) provided a valuable biotechnology strategy for pest management 1282 (Brookes and Barfoot, 2018). This pest management strategy was widely and fast adopted, as 1283 the global planted area increased 113 times in the last 23 years, achieving 191.7 million 1284 hectares in 2018. The USA leads the planted area with Bt crops (75 million hectares), 1285 followed by Brazil (51.3 million hectares), with soybean, maize, and cotton as the main crops 1286 (ISAAA, 2018). The first Bt soybean generation of cultivars, expressing Cry1Ac protein, 1287 proved to be effective against important soybean pests, such as Anticarsia gemmatalis Hübner 1288 (Lepidoptera: Erebidae), Chrysodeixis includens (Walker), Chloridea virescens (Fabricius), 1289 and Helicoverpa armigera (Hübner) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) (Bernardi et al., 2014, 2012; 1290 Dourado et al., 2016) turning into an important tool for the soybean Integrated Pest 1291 Management (IPM) (Bueno et al., 2021). Particularly to Bt soybeans, Brazil was the first 1292 country to adopt Bt technology in soybean, since 2013 (James, 2013), followed later by other 1293 countries from South America and Asian countries (ISAAA, 2020).

1294

Benefits provided by Bt crops are the reduction of yield losses (Sanglestsawai et al., 1295 2014), and the decrease in insecticide adoption targeting lepidopteran pests (Brookes and 1296 Barfoot, 2020). In addition, the specific mode of action of Bt traits promotes the preservation 1297 of beneficial insects (Romeis et al., 2019). However, the high dose expression of Bt toxins in 1298 the crop and long term exposition of pests during the crop season increase the risk of selection 1299 of field resistant populations, which can compromise the technology performance (Tabashnik 1300 et al., 2014). The event MON 87701 x MON 89788, expressing Cry1Ac toxin, has provided 1301 high performance in the management of the two main defoliator species, A. gemmatalis and 1302 C. includens. However, since the 2019-2020 crop season, outbreaks of Rachiplusia nu Guenée 1303 (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) have been reported in Bt soybean in the north portion of Paraná 1304 State and in the center of São Paulo State, and Crosidosema aporema Walsingham 1305 (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae) in the central-north portion of Paraná State, in the southern São 1306 Paulo and around the Distrito Federal (Bueno and Sosa-Gómez, 2021; Nardon et al., 2021, 1307 Horikoshi et al., 2021b).

1308 Insect Resistant Management (IRM) aims to delay the evolution of resistance of 1309 insects targeted by Bt crops. Adopting of refuges is one of the IRM strategies, which consists 1310 of planting a non-Bt field near the Bt crop. This non-Bt field provides a source of susceptible 1311 individuals to Bt traits, that is expected to randomly mate with possible resistant individuals 1312 that survive from the Bt crop. This random mating results in heterozygotes insects to 1313 resistance, which are expected to be susceptible, based on the assumption that the resistance is 1314 a genetic recessive trait in target pests (Gould, 1994). However, the hypothesis of random 1315 mating based on the dispersal capacity of target pest still lack scientific data. The dispersion 1316 capacity of C. includens, also known as soybean looper, has never been documented in the 1317 literature. In the same way, the dispersal capacity of A. gemmatalis, previously reported as 1318 900 meters from released marked insects has been reported only in soybean cultivated with 1319 sugarcane (Caixeta, 2014), which is not representative crop system adopted in large areas of 1320 soybean in Brazil, and around the world. The crop environment can affect the moth biological 1321 traits, including their flight range (Qureshi et al., 2005). Currently, the recommendation of 1322 refuge in soybean for Brazilian growers is that the maximum distance between any plant from 1323 the Bt soybean field should not be further than 800 meters from the refuge (IRAC Brazil, 1324 2018). This general recommendation is based on previous studies with Ostrinia nubilalis

1325 Hübner (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae) in the U.S. (Hunt et al., 2001; Qureshi et al., 2005) and 1326 Spodoptera frugiperda J. E. Smith (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) (Vilarinho et al., 2011), which 1327 has been recommended by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) (USEPA, 1328 2001). The maximum distance of a plant of Bt maize to the non-Bt plant from the refuge must 1329 be approximately 800 meters (half-mile) (US EPA, 2018). However, this recommendation 1330 should not be adopted as one-size-fit-all, since there are other target lepidopteran species to Bt 1331 technology besides O. nubilalis and S. frugiperda. Additionally, the differential dispersion 1332 capacity of species target by Bt crops, region-specific information of the crop system adopted 1333 in each region should be considered when designing refuge recommendations. Therefore, this 1334 study was conduct aiming to document the dispersion capacity of two economic pests, A. 1335 gemmatalis and C. includens, in soybean, target by the Bt technology. The main contribution 1336 of the study was to validate refuge recommendations for Bt soybean, the maximum distance 1337 of 800 meters between the refuge and Bt crop.

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1339 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

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2.1.1. Insect colonies

1341 Approximately 1000 larvae of A. gemmatalis were collected in a non-Bt soybean 1342 field in December 2018, in Campo Verde, Mato Grosso. They were transferred to the insect 1343 rearing laboratory at Embrapa Soja (Londrina, Parana) and reared in artificial diet (Greene et 1344 al., 1973) until pupation. Pupae were placed inside transparent acrylic cages (Criartshop, Londrina, Paraná, Brazil) (32 x 45 x 30 cm) for adult emergence, mating, and egg collection 1345 from the sulfite paper (Chamex®, Mogi-Guaçu, São Paulo, Brazil) placed in the inner walls. 1346 Eggs were then placed inside plastic cups (200 ml) (Copaza®, Içara, SC, Brazil) for larva 1347 hatching until the 3rd instar, when 3 larvae were transfered to one plastic cup (50 ml) with 1348 1349 artificial diet. The insect colony was kept in the laboratory until used in the experiment, at the 12th and 24th generation, in 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 seasons, respectively. 1350

Eggs of *C. includens* were purchased from PROMIP (Piracicaba, São Paulo, Brazil) and once they hatched, the neonates were placed inside plastic cups (Copaza[®], Içara, Santa Catarina, Brazil) filled with a small amount of artificial diet. The 3rd instar larvae were transferred to plastic cups (50 ml) with the same artificial diet previously described, in a total of three larvae/cup, and kept in the cups until pupation. The moths were used in the experiments performed during 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 crop seasons.

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2.1.2. Insect marking, release, and recapture

Close to adult emergence, the pupae of both species were placed inside plastic boxes, 1359 11 x 11 x 3.5 x cm (Gerbox®, São José dos Pinhais, Paraná, Brazil), and covered with 1360 polystyrene balls impregnated with 1162R Luminous Powder-Red (BioQuip Products, Inc., 1361 California, USA), a fluorescent powder under black light (Taschibra, Indaial, Santa Catarina, 1362 Brazil). Moths emerging inside the plastic boxes acquired the powder in their bodies allowing 1363 their differentiation from the wild moths in the field.

The cages were daily checked for emerged moths, and at the beginning of the day the cages with the moths were taken to the release point, in the field. All the moths released were younger than 24 hours old, and the moth releasing was performed by removing the cage lids, allowing the moths to disperse in the field. The release point was in a commercial soybean field (23°7'37.66"S 51° 1'10.16"W), located in the Fazenda Santa Maria, in Sertanópolis, Paraná. The field was 30 km away from Embrapa Soja, where the insects were kept in laboratory.

Commercial ball-funnel type traps containing feeding lures, Lurex®, both from Isca (Isca Tecnologias Ltda, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil), were placed every 100 meters from the release point up to 1000 meters towards four directions: northeast, southeast, southwest and northwest. The total traps placed were 40 and 44, in the 2019-2020 season and 2020-2021 crop seasons, respectively (Fig. 1a), since 4 points were added at 50 meters from the release point towards the four directions (Fig. 1b), in the 2020-2021 crop season. In the 2020-21 season, pheromone trapping with sex lure Bio Pseudoplusia® (Biocontrole, São Paulo, Brazil) were placed at the same points of the ball-funnel type traps as an attempt to increase therecapture of *C. includens*.

1380 The ball-funnel type traps were daily inspected and replaced when there were trapped 1381 moths in the net sac. The same procedure was done for the sticky liner of delta traps with 1382 caught moths in the 2020-2021, with replacing of the liner. For both trap types, bottoms and 1383 sticky liners were identified with a label containing the position number, including direction 1384 and distance from the released point. Although trapped moths caught in the delta traps were 1385 dead, those caught in the ball-funnel were often alive, thus the net sac was placed in the 1386 refrigerator for a few minutes to kill the insects in order to facilitate the species identification 1387 and the recognition of marker presence. Under UV black light, the samples were carefully 1388 examined, and fluorescent moths were separated by the wild moths. Marked and feral moths 1389 were frozen for later sex identification and spermatophore counting of mated females.

1390 **2.1.3.** Analysis

Data collected from 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 crop seasons were presented in graphs with the numbers of females, males and the total of marked and wild moths captured at each distance towards the four directions.

1394 **3. RESULTS**

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3.1. Recapture of marked moths

The percentage of *A. gemmatalis* marked moths recapture during the 2019-2020 crop season experiment was 0.55% in the first release (Table 1). From the 14 moths recaptured, seven were males and seven females, which have mated at least once (Fig. 2a). Half of the caught marked moths was recaptured near the release point, with 43% of the marked moths at 100 m, and 7% at 200 m. The other half of the marked moths was recaptured further from the release point, with 22%, 14%, 7%, and 7% of the recaptured moths trapped at 400, 500, 700, and 1000 m, respectively (Fig. 2a). In the 2020-2021 crop season experiment, the percentage of *A. gemmatalis* recapture was lower than the previous year and only 0.11% of the marked
moths, corresponding four females were recovered (Table 1). One female was recaptured in
the closest trap to the release point, 50 m, and the other three females were recovered at 200
m. The four females had mated once (Fig. 2b).

The recapture of *C. includens* marked moths was lower than *A. gemmatalis* marked moths (Table 1). One mated female was recovered at 100 m, and the other female at 500 m (Fig. 3a). In the 2020-2021 crop season, only one marked male was recaptured in the delta trap at 200 m from the release point. No females were recaptured in the 2020-2021 crop season (Fig. 3b).

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1413 **3.2. Capture of wild moths**

1414 Wild A. gemmatalis moths were captured by all the ball-funnel type traps during the 1415 2019-2020 crop season experiment, totaling 959 moths caught along the trapping period 1416 (from 12/18/2019 to 01/07/2020). The highest number of captured moths were in traps 1417 positioned along the southeast direction (304), followed by southwest (249), northeast (209), 1418 and northwest (197) (Fig. 4a). At any direction, most moths captured were males (Fig. 4c). 1419 From the total of 307 females, 38 (12.38%) had not mated, and the majority, 163 (53.09%) 1420 had mated once. One hundred six caught females had mated more than once, with 79, 25, and 1421 2 moths with 2, 3, and 4 spermatophores, respectively (Table 2).

During the 2020-2021 crop season experiment, a lower number of wild *A*. *gemmatalis* were captured, 65 moths total from 12/17/2020 to 01/15/2021. Similarly, to the results from the previous crop season, the highest number of moths were captured along the southeast direction (25), followed by southwest (21), northeast (12) and northwest (7) (Fig. 4b). The same pattern of more captured males than females were, except for the northeast, where around 70% of the moths were females (Fig. 4d). From a total of 17 females captured in the traps, almost all of them, 15 females (88.24%) had mated only once, and 2 femalesmated twice (Table 2).

Soybean looper wild moths were captured, totaling 38 moths, being 13 in the southeast direction, 11 at the southwest, 10 in the northwest, and 4 at the northeast (Fig. 5a). Unlike *A. gemmatalis*, the proportion of females were slightly higher than males, except for the southwest direction (Fig. 5c). The total of 18 females were caught, and 7 female moths (38.89%) had not mated, 4 females mated once, and other 4 had mated twice. Three captured female moths indicated mating, 3, 4 e 5 times, respectively (Table 2).

In the 2020-2021 crop season, approximately the same amount of *C. includens* were caught, in a total of 39 moths, being 18 in southwest, 11 at northeast, 6 at southeast, and 4 at northwest from the release direction (Fig. 5b). Males were predominant, with more than 75% of the total captured moths, in all the directions (Fig. 5d). Only 5 females were captured during this season, from which 2 (40%) were not mated, and the other 3 females indicated mating 1, 4 and 5 times, respectively (Table 2).

Another lepidopteran species that was cross-attracted during the trapping in both crop seasons was *R. nu*, also known as sunflower looper. The total of 109 *R. nu* moths were caught in the 2019-2020 crop season at the southwest (47), southeast (43), northeast (10), and northwest (9) directions from the release point (Fig. 6a). The ratio of females and males were around 50% each (Fig. 6c). From the total of 60 females, 9 (15%) had not mated, but the majority, 23 (38.33%) mated only once, 16 (26.67%) mated twice, 3 (13.33%) three times, 2 females mated 4 times, and other 2 females mated 5 times (Table 2).

In the 2020-2021 crop season, a similar number of *R. nu* was captured, 113 moths, at the northwest (37), southwest (28), northeast (28) and southeast (20) directions from release point (Fig. 6b). Unlike the previous year, the male proportion was much higher than females (Fig. 6d). Only 10 females were captured, from which 50% had mated once, 20% (2 females) mated twice, and the 3 other females, mated 3, 4 and 7 times each moth, the later was themaximum number of spermatophores observed in a moth of all the 3 species (Table 2).

1455

1456 **4. DISCUSSION**

Primary defoliators have successfully been managed by Bt soybean, MON 87701 x MON 89788 event, expressing Cry1Ac, which is a high-dose event for *A. gemmatalis* and near-high-dose for *C. includens* (Bernardi et al., 2012). No resistant populations of these two target species have been reported after eight years of the commercial release of Bt soybean. However, it becomes essential to deeper understand the interaction of IRM practices with these species in order to maintain the efficacy of the management tool in soybean production.

1463 The trapping method used in this study demonstrated to be appropriated to capture 1464 wild moths of A. gemmatalis, C. includens and R. nu especially in the 2019-2020 crop season, 1465 when 959, 38 and 109 moths of each species were captured within 21 days, respectively. The 1466 releasing technique chosen was based on tests, where we first try to leave the pupa in the field 1467 with subsequent adult emergence. However, the study was performed during rainy season 1468 (Pereira et al., 2008), and a negative effect on the pupal infestation in field compromise the 1469 method. The alternative option adopted was to transfer emerged moths every morning to the 1470 field.

1471 Although mark-release recapture experiments have been used for several Lepidoptera 1472 species, to document the dispersal capacity, the moth recapture rate is variable between 1473 experiments and species (Caixeta, 2010, 2014; Qureshi et al., 2006; Tavares et al., 2019; 1474 Vilarinho et al., 2011). In this study, recapture of A. gemmatalis moths was 0.55% and 0.11% 1475 in 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 crop seasons, respectively. During the first moth release in 1476 2019-2020 crop season, the soybean cultivars were approximately in R2 growth stage and 40 1477 cm, height. The accumulated rain between the period of the first and last marked moth 1478 releases was 76 mm (measured by pluviometer installed in the area). In this condition, the 1479 highest number of moths recapture was 14 moths, from 100 to 10000 meters far from the 1480 release point. Fifty percent of the marked moths (7 individuals) in the 2019-2020 crop season 1481 were caught up to 200 meters from the release point, and 100% were caught up to this same 1482 distance in 2020-2021 crop season. This distance of recaptured moths is lower than the 1483 recommended maximum distance between Bt crop and refuge area. However, 50% of the A. 1484 gemmatalis marked moths from the first release was recaptured at distances between 400 and 1485 1000 meters. The rate of C. includens recapture was lower, with 0.02% and 0.07%, during the 1486 2019-2020 and 2020-21 crop seasons, respectively. Recapture distances varied between 100 1487 and 500 meters, and this are the first reported of distance dispersal capacity of C. includens.

1488 Dispersal capacity of lepidopteran pests associated with corn has also reported a 1489 higher percentage of moths recaptured closer distances from the release point. For example, 1490 99% of O. nubilalis was recaptured at 350 meters from the release point in a mark-release 1491 study performed in Kansas, USA (Qureshi et al., 2005). However, in another study in Iowa, 1492 USA, high distances of 23 to 49 km from the release point were recorded for the same species 1493 (Showers et al., 2001). This contrasting data shows that environmental conditions play a role 1494 in the moth dispersion. Also, Helicoverpa zea Boddie (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) egg albumin 1495 marked moths were mostly recaptured at 150 m from the releasing point, but some individuals 1496 were recovered as far as 1600 meters (Tavares et al., 2019).

Mating status of moths is an important information, providing reproductive behavior while dispersing in the agricultural landscape. The knowledge of how far the moths disperse before they mate is crucial, as it affects the expected random mating between resistant individual that emerge from the Bt area with susceptible individuals from the refuge, and consequently decrease of allelic frequency for resistance in the population (Fitt et al., 2004). The results showed that even at very small distances, such 100 meters from the release point, females of *A. gemmatalis* and *C. includens*, indicated mated status, by the presence of at least

1504 one spermatophore. These findings show that the females of these species may find a male to 1505 mate before they disperse from the adult emergence area. In a laboratory study, A. gemmatalis 1506 was documented ovipositing before taking long flights, although they would still oviposit 1507 after flying longer distances (WALES et al., 1985). Such mating behavior, possibly around 1508 the adult emergence area and before moths engaging in dispersion negatively affects the 1509 random mating assumptions for the refuge effectiveness, since homozygote insects for 1510 resistance from the Bt area may mate prior to dispersion. The risk of selection for resistance 1511 population of C. includens from Bt soybean crop may be minimized if males of this species 1512 are prompted to fly higher distances reaching the refuge area as reported in tethered flight of 1513 males, whose flight was up to 15 km (Caixeta, 2014). In the present study, one marked male 1514 of C. includens was recovered 200 m from the release point. In the case of A. gemmatalis one 1515 marked male was recovered 700 m from the release point, and future studies should validated 1516 the male dispersion capacity of these species.

The dispersion distance of the wild (non-marked) moths of *A. gemmatalis* and *C. includens* trapped during this study cannot precisely be estimated. However, the higher number of the wild moths of these species were from traps placed towards southeast (SE) and southwest (SW) directions, which were close to the refuge (non-Bt) fields. We hypothesized that these wild moths dispersed from the non-Bt soybean field, in both crop seasons. This observation might be in accordance with our data of the marked recaptured moths, where most of the moths remained near the place they were released.

Wild moths of *R. nu* were captured in higher amounts in the northwest direction in 2020-2021 crop season, which traps were placed between two Bt fields. The occurrence of *R. nu* in Bt soybean (Bueno and Sosa-Gómez, 2021; Nardon et al., 2021) in Brazil leads to hypotized that these moths were originated from experimental Bt soybean fields. 1528 The mating status of wild moths of the A. gemmatalis, C. includens, and R. nu 1529 captured in the trapping during this study was also assessed. Both unmated and mated females 1530 were captured in the traps. Mating frequency of A. gemmatalis moths ranged from one to four 1531 times, while C. includens were found to mate one to five times, and R. nu was found with up 1532 to seven spermatophores in one female. Wild moths of A. gemmatalis and R. nu indicated to 1533 mate at least one time, independently of the distance and direction of trapping. In the case of 1534 C. includens, the wild moths captured during the trapping indicated 40% of not mated 1535 females.

1536 This is the first study documenting dispersal of both species, A. gemmatalis and C. 1537 includens, performed in fields cultivated with large fields of Bt-soybean and refuge area, in 1538 274 hectares and 193 hectares, respectively. The maximum dispersal distance of A. 1539 gemmatalis female was recorded 1000 m far from the released point of marked insects, which 1540 is further of the 800 m distance recommended (IRAC Brazil, 2018), when planting structured 1541 refuge. On the other hand, the number of spermatophores observed in the females trapped up 1542 to 500 m, demonstrates a probability of females to mate before they disperse, which may 1543 jeopardize the refuge strategy, with resistant insects from Bt field dispersing when already 1544 mated.

1545 Based on the results obtained for C. includens dispersal, the maximum distance of 1546 trapped marked insects was 500 meters, lower than the recommendation of refuge area for Bt 1547 soybean. The low dispersion capacity combined with the mating occurring around the 1548 releasing point of marked moths indicate that C. includens should be focused when designing 1549 and recommending IRM strategies in Bt soybean. This priority is based on this pest economic 1550 impact and host plant range (Baldin et al., 2014; Moscardi et al., 2012; Specht et al., 2019), 1551 and reports of insecticide resistance (Stacke et al., 2019). Thus, the near-high-dose of Cry1Ac 1552 soybean (Bernardi et al., 2012) is a value management tactic for this defoliator, which cases

of field evolved resistance has not been reported in soybean production. In addition, infestations of *R. nu* have been reported in Bt soybean (Bueno and Sosa-Gómez, 2021; Nardon et al., 2021). Since morphological differentiation of this species from *C. includens*, based on larva and wings of adults are challenging (Herzog, 1980; Shaw, T.J. et al., 2021), resistance monitoring programs should focus, on genitalia dissections or DNA analysis to differentiate the infestation of species.

1559 Although R. nu is not listed as a target pest of Cry1Ac Bt soybean, a CL₅₀ of 0.70 1560 µg.mL⁻¹ Cry1Ac toxin for one population from the southern Brazil, Rio Grande do Sul (Yano 1561 et al., 2012), which raises a concern on a field resistance evolving to Cry1Ac allowing an 1562 increase on populations of this species into soybean growing areas. The second generation of 1563 Bt soybean, with pyramided events have shown efficacy on the management of this species in 1564 preliminary studies, thus maintain structured refuges for R. nu in this second generation 1565 soybean is crucial (Bueno and Sosa-Gómez, 2021), as well as, understand its flight capacity to 1566 better design structured refuges.

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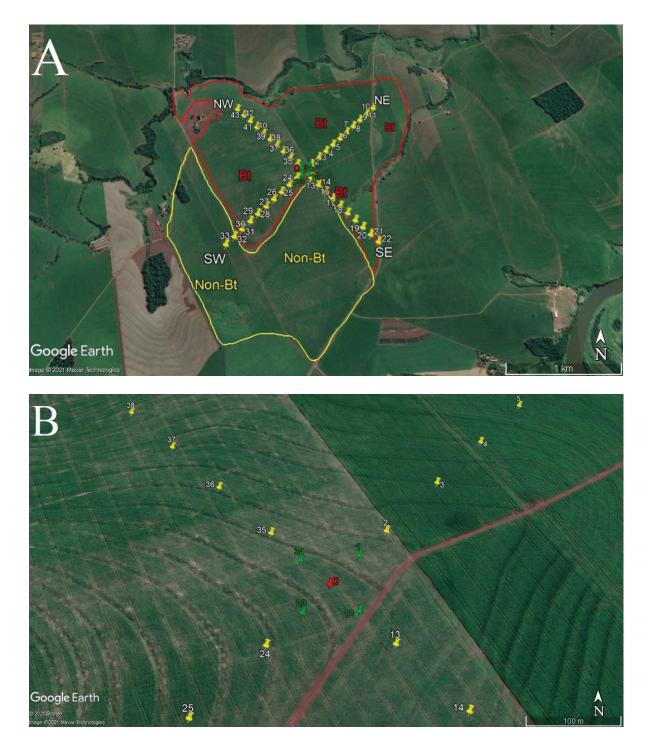


Figure 1 – **(A)** Release point and traps positions in the soybean commercial field **(B)** Highlight on the release point and nearby traps at 2020-2021 season. Point 0: release point (red); Points in yellow are 100 m distant from each other towards the four directions (only in 2019-2020 season); Points in green (1, 12, 23, 34) are 50 meters from the releasing point (only in 2020-2021 season). Sertanópolis, Paraná, Brazil.

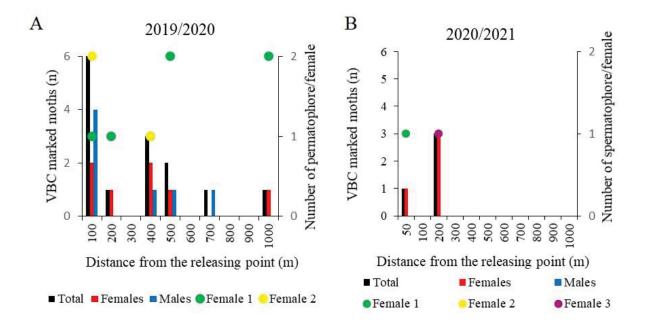


Figure 2 – Number of marked *Anticarsia gemmatalis* moths recaptured in each trapping distance (bars - left axis), and the number of spermatophores of the mated females (circles - right axis) at (A) 2019-2020 and (B) 2020-2021 crop seasons.

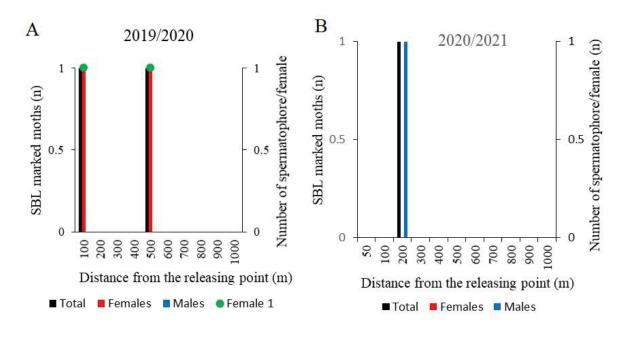


Figure 3 – Number of *Chrysodeixis includens* moths recaptured in each trapping distance (bars - left axis) and the number of spermatophores of the mated females (circles - right axis) at **(A)** 2019-2020 and **(B)** 2020-2021 crop seasons.

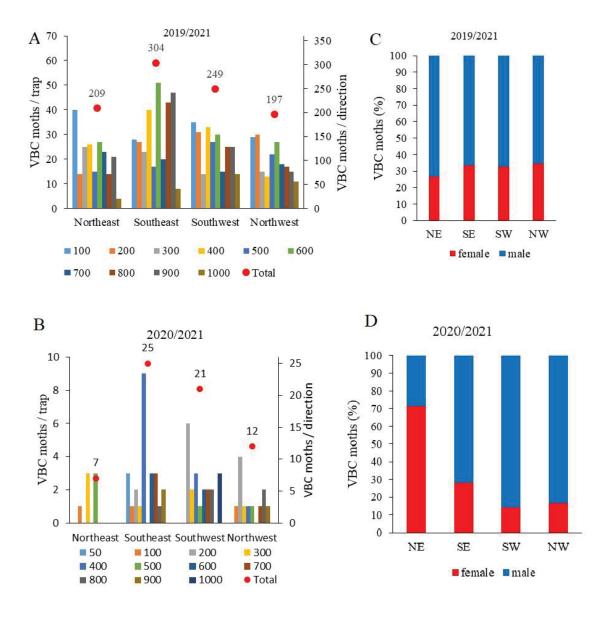


Figure 4 – Wild *Anticarsia gemmatalis* moths captured at each trapping point the four cardinal directions (bars - left axis), and the total moths captured per cardinal direction (red circles - right axis) in 2019/20 (A) and 2020-2021 (B). Proportion of females and males captured at each cardinal direction in the 2019-2020 (C) and 2020-2021 (D). NE: northeast, SE: southeast, SW: southwest, NW: northwest.

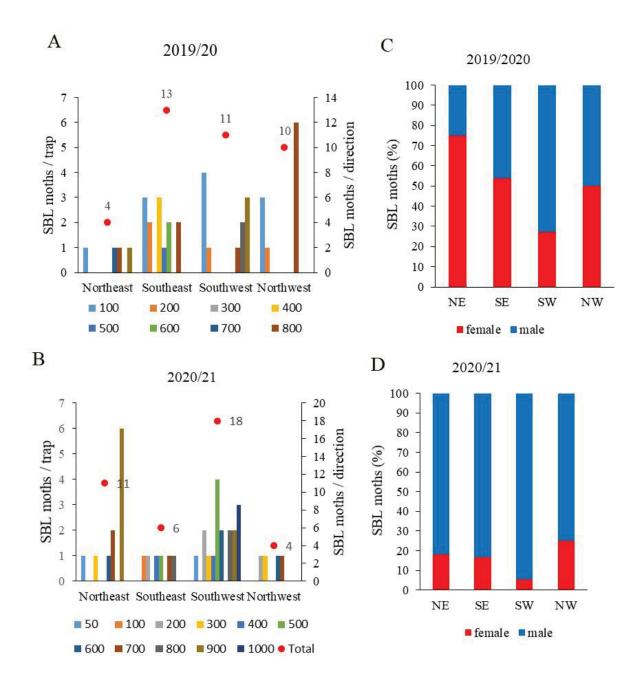


Figure 5 – Wild *Chrysodeixis includens* moths captured at each trapping point the four cardinal directions (bars - left axis), and the total moths captured per cardinal direction (red circles - right axis) in 2019/20 (A) and 2020-2021 (B). Proportion of females and males captured at each cardinal direction in the 2019-2020 (C) and 2020-2021 (D). NE: northeast, SE: southeast, SW: southwest, NW: northwest.

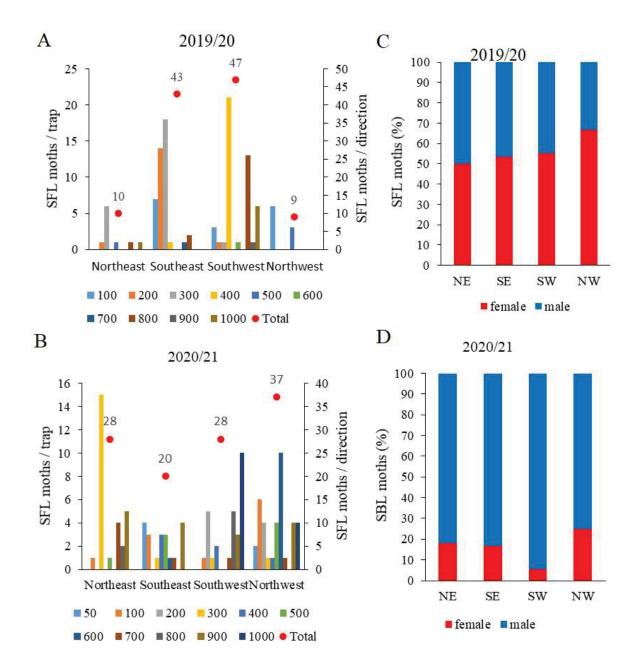


Figure 6 – Wild *Rachiplusia nu* moths captured at each trapping point the four cardinal directions (bars - left axis), and the total moths captured per cardinal direction (red circles - right axis) in 2019-2020 (**A**) and 2020-2021 (**B**). Proportion of females and males captured at each cardinal direction in the 2019-2020 (**C**) and 2020-2021 (**D**). NE: northeast, SE: southeast, SW: southwest, NW: northwest.

Species		Soybean growth	Release		Moth number			
	Season		period	Evaluation	Released	Recaptured		
		stage	-	period		N (%)		
VBC	2019-	R2	12/17/2019 to	12/18/2019 to	2530	14 (0,55%)		
	2020		12/21/2019	1/7/2021				
	2020-	V4	12/22/2020 to	12/23/2020 to	3600	4 (0,11%)		
	2021		01/02/2021	01/15/2021				
SBL	2019-	R2	26/12/2019 to	12/27/2019 to	8400	2 (0,02%)		
	2020		31/12/2019	1/7/2021				
	2020-	V4	16/12/2020 to	12/17/2020 to	1500	1 (0,07%)		
	2021		12/22/2020	01/15/2021				

Table 1 – Release and recapture of *A. gemmatalis* (VBC) and *C. includens* (SBL) marked moths in the 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 seasons.

Table 2 – Number of mating per female of wild females of Anticarsia gemmatalis,Chrysodeixis includens and Rachiplusia nu trapped during 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 cropseasons.

Number of spermatophores										
Moth species	Season	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total females
A. gemmatalis	2019-20	38	163	79	25	2	-	-	-	307
	2020-21	-	15	2	-	-	-	-	-	17
C. includens	2019-20	7	4	4	1	1	1	-	-	18
	2020-21	2	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	5
R. nu	2019-20	9	23	16	8	2	2	-	-	60
	2020-21	5	2	1	1	-	-	-	1	10

1675 FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

1676 Many studies have addressed the field resistance to Bt crops in target species. The 1677 IRM approaches are based on genetic factors related to resistance heritage such as the 1678 resistance dominance and initial resistance alleles in the populations. However, features 1679 concerned to the pest biology and behavior are limited understood, and play an important role 1680 in the success of an IRM program. Regarding refuge as one of the IRM strategies to maintain 1681 susceptible genotypes, it is important to understand the influence of having two soybean 1682 genotypes planted at the same time in the dispersal of the target pest. For eight years, the Bt 1683 soybean, event MON 87701 x MON 89788 expressing Cry1Ac toxin has been providing a 1684 high performance in the management of the main soybean defoliators, A. gemmatalis and C. 1685 includens and information to improve IRM and promote the long term performance of this 1686 technology are critical..

1687 This study supports the refuge recommendation in Bt soybean as part of the IRM high-1688 dose refuge strategy to A. gemmatalis and C. includens. The results here validate the 1689 importance of selection of similar non-Bt cultivar to the Bt cultivar, and plants from Bt 1690 soybean and correspondent structured refuge being planted as closest as possible in time in 1691 order to guarantee synchronization of phenological stages of the fields and avoid oviposition 1692 preference. In addition, the management of the target pests in the refuge area, an IPM 1693 approach by the adoption of thresholds will also decrease defoliation and effect in egg 1694 deposition. Since Bt adoption, the risk aversion from the farmers has increased, due to the 1695 high efficacy of the technology to manage the main pests (Paula-Moraes et al., 2017), thus the 1696 farmers are less tolerant for plant injury, and therefore do not contribute to refuge 1697 implementation, and when it is adopted, the IPM tactics are not applied. Altogether offers a 1698 threat for properly management of pests in a region area.

1699 Most of the marked moths in the present study was recaptured in less than 800-meter 1700 distance from release point, which is the actual recommendation or refuge in Bt soybean. In addition, females recaptured near the releasing point (up to 200 meters) were mated, which
raises a concern that mating will tend to happen before moths dispersal, between females and
males emerging from the same plots.

In conclusion, the adoption of refuge for the target pests *A. gemmatalis* and *C. includens* in Bt soybean is essential to keep this pests under control. In Brazil, the refuge should be adopted according with IRAC recommendation. In addition, as the occurrence of *Rachiplusia nu* has been increasing in Bt soybean fields, and studies on the performance of the Bt technology managing populations of this species, information regarding its behavior and biology are priorities in future researches to support adjustments in the IRM for Bt soybean.

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