Novel genetic basis of resistance to Bt toxin Cry1Ac in *Helicoverpa zea*

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Running Title: *A novel Bt resistance gene*

Abstract

Crops genetically engineered to produce insecticidal proteins from the bacterium *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) have advanced pest management, but their benefits are diminished when pests evolve resistance. Elucidating the genetic basis of pest resistance to Bt toxins can improve resistance monitoring, resistance management, and design of new insecticides. Here, we investigated the genetic basis of resistance to Bt toxin Cry1Ac in the lepidopteran *Helicoverpa zea*, one of the most damaging crop pests in the United States. To facilitate this research, we built the first chromosome-level genome assembly for this species. Using a genome-wide association study, fine-scale mapping, and RNA-seq, we identified a 250kb QTL on chromosome 13 that was strongly associated with resistance in a strain of *H. zea* that had been selected for resistance in the field and lab. This QTL contains no genes with a previously reported role in resistance or susceptibility to Bt toxins. However, within this QTL, we discovered a premature stop codon in a kinesin gene. We hypothesize that this mutation contributes to resistance. The results indicate the mutation on chromosome 13 was necessary but not sufficient for resistance, and therefore conclude that mutations in more than one gene contributed to resistance. Moreover, we found no changes in gene sequence or expression consistently associated with resistance for 11 genes previously implicated in lepidopteran resistance to Cry1Ac. Thus, the results reveal a novel and polygenic basis of resistance and extend the list of genes contributing to pest resistance to Bt toxins.

Keywords: *Bacillus thuringiensis*; genome wide association study; genome assembly; insecticide resistance; kinesin; Lepidoptera; transgenic crops

Introduction

Crops genetically engineered to produce insecticidal proteins from *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt)
have provided control of some key pests during the past 25 years while reducing insecticide
sprays and conserving arthropod natural enemies (Bravo *et al.* 2011; NASEM 2016; Dively *et al.*
2018, Romeis *et al.* 2018, Carrière *et al.* 2020a; Tabashnik *et al.* 2021). However, planting of a
cumulative total of more than one billion hectares of Bt crops worldwide (ISAAA 2019) has
selected for resistance that has reduced the efficacy of Bt crops against populations of at least
nine major pest species (Calles-Torrez *et al.* 2019, Smith *et al.* 2019, Tabashnik and Carrière
2019). Knowledge of the genetic basis of pest resistance to Bt toxins can be useful for improving
monitoring and management of resistance, as well as for designing new insecticides (Soberón *et*
al. 2007, Jin *et al.* 2018).

Resistance to crystalline (Cry) Bt toxins typically entails mutations that disrupt binding of the
toxins to larval midgut receptors and thus block an essential step in the mode of action (Heckel *et*
al. 2007; Peterson *et al.* 2017; Jurat-Fuentes *et al.* 2021). In particular, research has repeatedly
implicated mutations disrupting known or putative Bt toxin receptors from four protein families:
ATP-binding cassette (ABC), cadherin, aminopeptidase N (APN), and alkaline phosphatase
(ALP). Resistance mediated by mutations that disrupt binding of toxins to receptors is frequently
associated with high levels of resistance to one or a few closely related Bt toxins, weak or no
cross-resistance to unrelated Bt toxins, and recessive inheritance (Mode 1 resistance; Tabashnik
et al. 1998). Nonetheless, lepidopteran resistance to Bt toxins also includes examples where
proteins from these families are not involved, toxin binding is not reduced, and inheritance of
resistance is not recessive (Peterson *et al.* 2017, Jin *et al.* 2018).

Here we analyzed the genetic basis of resistance to Bt toxin Cry1Ac in the lepidopteran
Helicoverpa zea (corn earworm or bollworm), which is one of the most economically important
crop pests in the United States (Cook and Threet 2019; Musser *et al.* 2019). This polyphagous
pest is the first insect reported to have evolved resistance to a Bt crop, specifically to cotton
producing Cry1Ac (Luttrell *et al.* 1999; Ali *et al.* 2006; Tabashnik *et al.* 2008; Reisig *et al.*
2018). In contrast with Mode 1 resistance, inheritance of resistance to Cry1Ac in *H. zea* is not
completely recessive (Brévault *et al.* 2013, 2015; Carrière *et al.* 2020b and references therein).

Caccia *et al.* (2012) concluded that resistance in their lab-selected AR1 strain of *H. zea* was

complex, possibly polygenic, and not caused primarily by reduced binding of Cry1Ac to larval

midgut membranes. Perera *et al.* (2021) found that knocking out the gene encoding the putative

Cry1Ac receptor ABCC2 increased the concentration of Cry1Ac killing 50% of larvae (LC_{50}) by

7- to 40-fold. Because >100-fold resistance to Cry1Ac is common in lab- and field-selected *H.*

zea (Caccia *et al.* 2012, Brévault *et al.* 2013, Reisig *et al.* 2018; Kaur *et al.* 2019), they inferred

that mutations disrupting ABCC2 are not the sole or primary mechanism of resistance to Cry1Ac

in *H. zea.* Although mechanistic studies of Bt resistance in *H. zea* have emphasized the gene

families listed above (Caccia *et al.* 2012; Zhang *et al.* 2019; Perera *et al.* 2021), promising

additional candidates have been identified using population genomics and RNA-seq (Fritz *et al.*

2020, 2021; Lawrie *et al.* 2020).

Our work focuses on the GA-R strain of *H. zea*, which had been selected for resistance to

Cry1Ac in the field and lab (Brévault *et al.* 2013, Welch *et al.* 2015). GA-R was derived from

the moderately resistant GA strain, which had been selected for resistance to Bt toxins only in

the field (Brévault *et al.* 2013). Relative to an unrelated susceptible lab strain (LAB-S) of *H. zea*,

the LC_{50} of Cry1Ac was >500 times higher for GA-R and 55 times higher for GA (Brévault *et al.*

2013). Previous work identified reduced activation of Cry1Ac by midgut proteases as a potential

field-selected mechanism of resistance that could explain part but not all of the resistance in GA-

R relative to LAB-S (Zhang *et al.* 2019). Overall, the previous results with GA-R and other

strains of *H. zea* summarized above led us to hypothesize that resistance to Cry1Ac in this

species is polygenic and entails novel genetic mechanisms. Accordingly, genome-wide mapping

approaches are warranted, but have been hindered because the only *H. zea* genome assembly

available is highly fragmented (Pearce *et al.* 2017).

Here, we generated a chromosome-level genome for *H. zea*, then used a genome wide

association study (GWAS), fine-scale mapping, and RNA-seq to elucidate the genetic basis of

resistance to Cry1Ac in the GA-R strain of *H. zea.* We identified a quantitative trait locus (QTL)

of 250kb on chromosome 13 that was strongly associated with resistance to Cry1Ac. This QTL

contains no genes in families previously implicated in resistance or susceptibility to Bt toxins.

However, we did identify a premature stop codon in a gene encoding a kinesin-related protein

within the QTL. We hypothesize that this mutation contributes to resistance. We additionally

found no consistent association between resistance to Cry1Ac and any of 11 genes previously

implicated in lepidopteran resistance to Bt toxins. Our results suggest that the mutation on

chromosome 13 is necessary, but not sufficient, for resistance in GA-R. Thus, we conclude the

genetic basis of resistance to Cry1Ac in the GA-R strain of *H. zea* is both novel and polygenic.

Materials and methods

Insect strains

We used four strains of *H. zea*: the highly resistant strain GA-R, its moderately resistant parent

strain GA, the unrelated susceptible strain LAB-S, and the heterogeneous strain GA-RS that we

created by crossing GA-R with LAB-S as described below. LAB-S was obtained from Benzon

Research Inc. (Carlisle, PA, USA) and has not been exposed to Bt toxins or other insecticides.

The resistant strain GA-R was derived from the GA strain, which was started with 180 larvae

collected on Cry1Ab corn from Tifton, Georgia in 2008 (Brévault *et al.*, 2013). GA-R was

initially selected with Cry1Ac for nine generations and with MVPII thereafter (Brévault *et al.*

2013, Fritz *et al.* 2020, Carrière *et al.* 2020b). MVPII is a liquid formulation of a hybrid protoxin

produced by transgenic *Pseudomonas fluorescens*. The amino acid sequence of the active portion

of the protoxin is identical to the hybrid protoxin and Cry1Ac (Welch *et al.* 2015). For

simplicity, hereafter we refer to MVPII as Cry1Ac.

We conducted all rearing in walk-in growth chambers at $27 \pm 1°C$ with 14h light: 10h dark

photoperiod. We reared larvae on a casein-based wheat germ diet (Orpet *et al.* 2015a,b) and

conducted larval bioassays on Southland diet (Southland Products, Inc., Lake Village, AR,

USA). We use these two different diets to optimize larval development and surface uniformity

for toxin overlay in bioassays, respectively (Carrière *et al.* 2020b). Moths were kept in walk-in

growth chambers under the same temperature and photoperiod mentioned above but under higher

relative humidity than for larvae (60% Rh for moths and 20% Rh for larvae). Moths had access

to a 10% sugar water solution for feeding and cheese cloth for oviposition (Welch *et al.* 2015).

Relative to GA, GA-R had significantly higher survival on Bt cotton (producing Cry1Ac,

Cry1Ac + Cry2Ab, or Cry1Ac + Cry1F) and Bt corn producing Cry1A.105 + Cry2Ab (Brévault

et al. 2013, 2015; Carrière *et al.* 2018, 2019, 2020b, 2021). At the time we crossed GA-R with

LAB-S in May 2018, we had selected GA-R with Cry1Ac for 58 generations. The GA-RS strain

was created using reciprocal crosses between GA-R and LAB-S adults. One hundred twenty

mating pairs were used for each reciprocal cross (i.e., GA-R females × LAB-S males and LAB-S

females × GA-R males). GA-RS was founded with 450 neonates from each reciprocal cross. In

the founding and subsequent generations, 900 larvae were reared and 600 adults (sex ratio 1:1)

produced the neonates used for propagating the next generation.

Genome sequencing of resistant strain GA-R

We generated a *de novo* genome assembly for GA-R using an approach combining a hybrid

short- and long-read assembly with a long-read only assembly (Jaworski *et al.* 2020). For the

short-read assembly, we collected and sequenced 30 GA-R larvae as described below. We

trimmed reads and generated the assembly using Platanus (Kajitani *et al.* 2014). For the long-

read assembly, we extracted DNA from the gut of a single GA-R fifth instar using a chloroform-

based extraction method (Jaworski *et al.* 2020). PacBio libraries were constructed at the Arizona

Genomics Institute (Tucson, AZ, USA). We then sequenced the library on a single lane of

PacBio Sequel II, also at the Arizona Genomics Institute. We formatted raw PacBio reads using

bam2fastq (https://github.com/jts/bam2fastq) and SeqKit (Shen *et al.* 2016) before filtering out

all reads under 30kb in length using Filtlong (https://github.com/rrwick/Filtlong). We mapped

contigs from the short-read assembly to the long reads using DBG2OLC (Ye *et al.* 2016) before

running three iterations of Sparc (Ye and Ma 2016) to correct the resulting contigs. We realigned

the raw PacBio reads to the resulting assembly with pbmm2

(https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/pbmm2) and polished contigs using Arrow (Chin *et al.*

2013; https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/GenomicConsensus). Lastly, we mapped raw short

reads to the assembly with Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) to perform a final polishing

step using Pilon (Walker *et al.* 2014).

We generated the PacBio only assembled with Canu (Koren *et al.* 2017), using the reads longer

than 30kb after filtering described above. We then polished the assembly using Arrow and Pilon

as described above. Finally, we used Purge Haplotigs (Roach *et al.* 2018) to remove spurious

backbones generated due to high heterozygosity.

We aligned the two assemblies using nucmer within MUMmer4 (Marçais *et al.* 2018), keeping

only alignments greater than 10kb. We then generated the merged assembly using Quickmerge

(Chakraborty *et al.* 2016). We performed manual curation of each chromosome after comparison

to the *Helicoverpa armigera* genome (Pearce *et al.* 2017; Valencia-Montoya *et al.* 2020) and

polished the final assembly using Arrow, Pilon, and Purge Haplotigs as above. Lastly, we

ordered and named each chromosome to align with those of *H. armigera*. We generated a

synteny plot comparing our genome to the *H. armigera* genome using Dot

(https://github.com/marianattestad/dot) after filtering out alignments under 4000 bp in NUCmer.

We analyzed the completeness of the GA-R genome using BUSCO v.4 (Seppey *et al.* 2019),

comparing genomic content against the lepidodpteraodb10 set of conserved single copy genes.

We calculated genome summary statistics with bbmap stats

(https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/). We calculated repeat content with RepeatModeler2

(Flynn *et al.* 2020) and RepeatMasker (Smit *et al.* 2015). We provide a preliminary annotation

produced following the funannotate pipeline (https://github.com/nextgenusfs/funannotate) with

transcripts from *H. armigera* and proteins from *B. mori* used as evidence supporting putative

annotations.

Phenotyping of Cry1Ac-susceptible and -resistant larvae for genetic mapping

We used our standard diet overlay bioassay (Welch *et al.* 2015) to characterize GA-RS larvae as

susceptible or resistant to Cry1Ac. We added 40 µl of a dilution containing Triton X-100 and the

desired concentration of Cry1Ac to the surface of solidified Southland diet in each well of 128-

well bioassay trays (C-D International, Pitman, NJ, USA). One neonate (< 8 h old) was

transferred to each well and trays were covered with ventilated plastic lids (C-D International)

and held for 7 days under the abiotic conditions mentioned above.

We conducted five sets of bioassays using GA-RS neonates from the F2 (July 2018), F12 (July

2019), F22 and F23 (July 2020), and F26 (October 2020) generations (Table S1). Neonates were

exposed to diet with 0 (control), 1, or 10 µg Cry1Ac per cm^2 diet. After 7 days, live first instar

larvae on diet with 1 µg Cry1Ac per cm^2 were considered susceptible because this low toxin

concentration inhibited their growth, whereas live larvae on diet with 10 µg Cry1Ac per cm^2 that

were third or subsequent instars were considered resistant because they grew well despite this

high toxin concentration. For control larvae reared on diet without Cry1Ac, mean survival to

third instar was 96% (range: 91-100%, mean n = 99 larvae per bioassay in five bioassays).

Susceptible and resistant larvae were transferred individually to plastic cups containing non-Bt

diet, reared to fifth instar, transferred individually to 1.5 ml plastic tubes, and frozen at -80°C for

subsequent genomic comparison.

Genomic comparison of GA-R and LAB-S

We sequenced pools of larvae from the parental strains GA-R and LAB-S, which allowed us to

evaluate genetic variation between and within these parental strains. This also allowed us to

check if SNPs associated with resistance in the GWAS of GA-RS were more common in GA-R,

and if those associated with susceptibility were more common in LAB-S. In April 2019, we

collected 30 third instars from each strain, extracted DNA using Qiagen DNeasy Blood and

Tissue Kits (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), and constructed Illumina libraries using KAPA LTP

Library Preparation Kits (Roche, Basel, Switzerland). We sequenced both libraries on an

Illumina HiSeq4000 at Novogene (Beijing, China). We called variants with Platypus after read

trimming and alignment to the genome using Trimmomatic and bwa-mem as described above.

To detect potential selective sweeps in each strain, we used SAMtools mpileup (Li 2011) and

PoPoolation (Kofler *et al.* 2011) to calculate Tajima's D in overlapping 50kb windows across the

genome.

Genome-wide association study for Cry1Ac resistance

From the heterogeneous strain GA-RS F12 larvae phenotyped in July 2019, we extracted DNA

from 144 resistant and 144 susceptible larvae using ZYMO *Quick-DNA* 96 Plus Kits and

quantified the DNA concentration of each individual using a Nanodrop (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). We combined equal amounts of DNA from each of the 144

resistant larvae to make a resistant pool and from each of the 144 susceptible larvae to make a

susceptible pool, then generated libraries using KAPA LTP Library Preparation Kits for each

pool. We sequenced both libraries on an Illumina HiSeq4000 at Novogene (Beijing, China).

We demultiplexed reads and trimmed for adapter contamination and low-quality sequence using

Trimmomatic (Bolger *et al.* 2014). We mapped reads to the *de novo H. zea* genome using bwa-

mem (Li and Durbin 2009). We used Platypus (Rimmer *et al.* 2014) to call and quantify SNP

variants and short INDELs. We extracted biallelic SNPs from the Platypus output for statistical

analysis, for which we used two approaches (Benowitz *et al.* 2019). First, we calculated a Z-

statistic (Huang *et al.* 2012), using the formula $Z = \frac{\rho_1 - \rho_2}{\sqrt{(\rho_0(1-\rho_0)(\frac{1}{n}+\frac{1}{c_1}+\frac{1}{c_2})}}$, where ρ_1 and ρ_2 are the

reference alleles frequencies of each bulk, ρ_0 is the mean allele frequency across bulks, n is the

sample size of each bulk, and c_1 and c_2 are the read depth of each bulk. We evaluated statistical

significance of Z against the standard normal distribution. Following convention (Barsh *et al.*

2012, Welter *et al.* 2014), we used $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ as a threshold for significance. To estimate the

density of significant sites, we used the R package WindowScanR

(https://github.com/tavareshugo/WindowScanR) to calculate the percentage of SNPs with a more

liberal threshold of $P < 10^{-5}$ in overlapping 10kb windows. Density of significant sites may be a

particularly useful parameter because the magnitude of the *P*-values from a bulk segregant

analysis are highly sensitive to noise. Close linkage to the causal allele, however, should result in

a higher density of significant sites even if the *P*-value itself varies. Second, we performed a

500kb sliding-window analysis using the R package QTLseqr (Mansfeld and Grumet 2018),

which implements the G′ method of Magwene *et al.* (2011). This method provides a statistical

determination of whether an entire QTL, rather than an individual SNP, is significant, and also

defines borders to QTLs deemed significant.

Fine-scale mapping within chromosome 13

We conducted fine-scale mapping within the *r1* locus using larvae from the F22 and F23 generation (July 2020). Using the methods described above, larvae were scored as resistant or susceptible. After phenotyping, we reared susceptible larvae to fifth instars on untreated diet before storing all larvae (62 resistant and 51 susceptible) at -80°C. We extracted DNA from each sample using Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kits and genotyped each larva individually via high-resolution melt curve (HRM) analysis at 12 SNP marker sites within the chromosome 13 QTL (Table S2). For each site, we performed PCR in 10uL reactions using Apex Taq DNA polymerase and EvaGreen Dye (Biotium, Fremont, CA, USA) as the intercalating dye. We ran rt-PCR in a QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR machine (Thermo Fisher) using continuous capture with a 0.025°C/s ramp. We used QuantStudio Design and Analysis Software (Thermo Fisher) to manually score melt curves for the identity of the focal SNP. We compared test melt curves against control curves generated from the parental LAB-S and GA-R strains. We used Fisher's Exact Test to assess significant differences between allele frequencies of resistant and susceptible individuals.

The lack of amplification from some individuals for some markers yielded variation in sample size among the 12 markers. These ranged from 40 to 60 for resistant larvae (mean = 56) and 20 to 50 (mean = 45) for susceptible larvae. We also used HRM to obtain genotypes at marker #4 for 23 of 25 resistant larvae and 89 of 95 control larvae tested from the F26 generation. The control larvae were not screened with a bioassay and thus contained a mixture of resistant and susceptible individuals.

To confirm the accuracy of HRM genotyping, we Sanger sequenced a single site (marker 4; Table S2) for all 62 resistant and a subset (33) of susceptible individuals. We designed new primers to produce a longer amplicon, and confirmed the quality of the resultant amplicons with gel electrophoresis. We cleaned the PCR product with Exonuclease I and Antarctic Phosphatase (New England BioLabs, Ipswich, MA, USA) before sending to Eurofins Genomics (Louisville, KY, USA) for Sanger sequencing.

In addition to the fine mapping data from the HRM, we used the data on significant SNP density

from the original GWAS experiment as well as the Tajima's D results from comparison of the

GA-R and LAB-S strains to provide additional support for narrowing the region associated with

resistance within chromosome 13.

Inheritance and trajectory of resistance in GA-RS

We performed several analyses of genotype frequencies at marker 4 to understand how *r1* affects

resistance. We used the genotypes from the RNA-seq study (see below) as a control group to

examine the frequency of marker 4 in the GA-RS strain at the F25 generation. We also used a χ^2

test to examine departure from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium.

We used Fisher's exact test to determine if resistant individuals from GA-RS were more likely to

be homozygous for alleles from GA-R (GG) than heterozygous with one allele from GA-R and

the other from LAB-S (GL) by comparing the frequencies of each genotype in the resistant

samples from generations F22, F23, and F26 to the control samples from generation F26. We

calculated the dominance parameter *h*, which varies from 0 for recessively inherited resistance to

1 for dominantly inherited resistance (Liu and Tabashnik 1997), using the genotype frequencies

at marker 4 in the F22, F23, and F26 for resistant, control, and susceptible larvae (Table S3).

To evaluate the relationship between genotype and resistance, we compared their trajectories

across generations in GA-RS. We used linear regressions in R 4.1.0 to test the null hypothesis of

no change in the $\log_{10}$ of percentage survival to third instar. Bioassays used 1 or 10 micrograms

of Cry1Ac per cm^2 in generations F2, F22 and F23, and only the higher concentration in the F26

test.

RNA-seq and candidate gene analysis

To generate samples for RNA sequencing, we reared LAB-S, GA-R, and GA-RS (generation 26)

individuals on untreated diet as described above in October 2020. When the larvae of the

parental strains LAB-S and GA-R reached the third instar, we dissected midguts from 15

individuals and froze them in groups of five, generating three biological replicates per strain. For

the GA-RS heterogeneous strain, we dissected 95 third instar midguts and froze them

individually, while simultaneously freezing the remainder of the carcass separately in wells of a

PCR plate. We extracted DNA from each sample using a squish extraction (Gloor *et al.* 1993)

using 50uL of buffer. We screened samples HRM as above at marker 4, which was one of two

sites we found to be the most strongly associated with resistance. We selected 15 individuals that

were homozygous for the LAB-S genotype at this site (henceforth "LL") and 15 individuals

homozygous for the GA-R genotype at this site (henceforth "GG") and pooled the midguts

corresponding to these samples into groups of five, again generating three biological replicates

for each genotype. Selecting genotypes in this way allowed us to isolate the effects that the

chromosome 13 QTL has on gene expression, giving us the potential to detect *trans*-regulatory

effects. We extracted RNA from all 12 midgut samples using ZYMO Direct-zol RNA Miniprep

Kit kits and built paired-end libraries with KAPA stranded mRNA seq kits. Libraries were

sequenced in part on an Illumina NextSeq at the University of Arizona Genetics Core (UAGC;

Tucson, AZ, USA) and part on an Illumina NovaSeq at Novogene.

We trimmed reads using Trimmomatic (Bolger *et al.* 2014) and aligned them to our *H. zea*

assembly with Hisat2 (Kim *et al.* 2019). We built genome-guided transcriptome assemblies for

each sample using StringTie (Pertea *et al.* 2016) and used StringTie merge to create a single

transcriptome. We quantified read abundance for each sample using Salmon (Patro *et al.* 2017)

and combined its transcript-level counts into gene-level counts with the R package tximport

(Soneson *et al.* 2016). We analyzed differential expression using FDR-corrected *P*-values from

negative binomial models at the gene level with edgeR (Robinson *et al.* 2010), after filtering and

normalization for library-size differences. We performed statistical comparisons of LAB-S to

GA-R and LL to GG. We performed a one-tailed (to account for directionality of gene

expression differences) χ^2 test to examine whether the overlap of differentially expressed (DE)

genes was more than expected by chance.

In addition to analyzing global differential expression, we used the RNA-seq data to better

understand gene structure and expression within the candidate QTL. For each sample, we used

Trinity (Haas *et al.* 2013) to construct *de novo* transcriptome assemblies for each sample. Using

tblastn, we identified the transcripts in each Trinity assembly corresponding to all StringTie

transcripts from the region from bp 4,370,000 – 4,620,000. We then took the longest transcript

from each Trinity assembly and used orfipy (Singh and Wurtele 2021) to extract the longest open

reading frame (ORF) for each gene. Next we compared the ORFs from each of the 12 samples,

looking for differences in predicted protein structure between the samples with resistant

chromosome 13 genotypes (GA-R and GG) and susceptible ones (LAB-S and LL). We

quantified midgut abundance of all genes expressed in this region with average log count per

million reads across all samples produced by edgeR.

We analyzed the putative *kinesin-12* gene computationally using blastp to find homologous

proteins, InterProScan 5 (Jones *et al.* 2014) to search for additional protein domains, SignalP 5.0

(Armenteros *et al.* 2019) to examine if the protein contained signal peptides, and DeepGOPlus

(Kulmanov and Hoehndorf 2020) to predict gene ontology (GO; Ashburner *et al.* 2000)

categorization based on the sequence.

Genotyping of GA strain and field samples for kinesin-12 mutation

We collected *H. zea* larvae from the field in Maricopa, Arizona in October 2020 and Tifton,

Georgia in July 2021. Both populations had high resistance to Cry1Ac (Yu *et al.* 2021; Y.

Carrière, unpubl. data). We reared larvae to adults in the lab and collected tissue from 25 of the

Maricopa samples and 39 of the Tifton samples. We extracted DNA using a squish extraction

(Gloor *et al.* 1993) in 150 µl of buffer. We analyzed five F72 GA individuals sequenced in

October 2016 (Fritz *et al.* 2020). We downloaded raw reads from NCBI (PRJNA599999),

trimmed them using Trimmomatic, aligned them to the GA-R genome with bwa-mem, and

identified the frequency of the C546T mutation with samtools and VarScan. We additionally

collected tissue from 20 F87 adults from the GA strain in May 2018 and extracted DNA with

Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kits. We designed primers (Table S2) to amplify the region

surrounding the *kinesin-12* mutation causing a stop codon. We performed PCR as above,

although with the addition of final concentration 0.1 µg/µl bovine serum albumin (Sigma-

Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) due to PCR inhibitors. Sanger sequencing was done at Eurofins

Genomics as described above. We screened sequences manually in Geneious Prime (Biomatters,

Auckland, NZ) for presence of the target mutation.

Analysis of 11 genes previously implicated in lepidopteran resistance to Cry1Ac

We used our results from GWAS and RNA-seq to test the hypothesis that one or more of 11

genes previously implicated in lepidopteran resistance to Cry1Ac contributed to resistance in our

strains. For each gene, we present the lowest *P*-value from the original GWAS of SNPs between

the start and end of the gene in the G′ analysis. We also report the FDR corrected *P*-values from

differential expression analyses in edgeR comparing GA-R versus LAB-S and within GA-RS

comparing individuals with both alleles from GA-R (GG) versus those with both alleles from

LAB-S (LL).

Results

Chromosome-level assembly of the genome of resistant strain GA-R

We generated a *de novo* chromosome-level assembly of the GA-R genome, with 31

chromosomes largely syntenic with those of *H. armigera* (Pearce *et al.* 2017; Valencia-Montoya

et al. 2020), although with different inversion karyotypes for 19 chromosomes (Fig. S1). The

genome has 375.2 Mb with 33.0% repeat content and 36.9% GC content. Of 5,286 conserved

single-copy lepidopteran genes, our genome has 98.7% present, 98.4% complete, and 97.9%

complete and single-copy. Thus, our GA-R genome is likely complete and highly accurate.

Relative to the previous *H. zea* genome assembly (Pearce *et al.* 2017), the new assembly has a

64-fold greater N50, 10% more bp, 15% more complete BUSCO genes, and double the

percentage of repeat content.

Genomic comparison between GA-R and the susceptible strain LAB-S

Sequencing of 30 larvae from GA-R and 30 larvae from the unrelated susceptible strain LAB-S

revealed 165,416 fixed differences between the strains, as well 941,146 variable sites in GA-R

and 911,946 in LAB-S. Analysis of Tajima's D showed many regions with low genetic variation

throughout the genome in both strains (Fig. S2; S3). For both strains, these regions could reflect

genetic drift or selective sweeps caused by adaptation to lab conditions. For GA-R, regions of

low variation could also reflect selection for resistance in the lab.

Genome-Wide Association Study (GWAS) of resistance to Cry1Ac in GA-RS

We created the GA-RS strain by crossing GA-R and LAB-S. Both the Z-score and G′ sliding

window analyses of 1,578,733 SNPs from the GWAS using pools of resistant and susceptible

larvae from the F12 generation of GA-RS identified a region associated with resistance on

chromosome 13 (Figs. 1 and S4). G′ analysis via QTLseqr defined this QTL as a region from 4.0

to 6.5 Mb. This QTL contains 117 SNPs associated with resistance at $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$. All of these

117 SNPs showed the expected relationship with the parental strain. 108 alleles found at higher

frequency in the resistant larvae were more common in GA-R than LAB-S and the remaining 9

observed at higher frequency in the susceptible larvae were more common in LAB-S than GA-R.

Outside of this QTL, only 18 SNPs were associated with resistance at $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$.

Chromosomes 10 and 15 had two of these SNPs. No other chromosome had more than one. In

the G′ analysis, only the QTL on chromosome 13 was significantly associated with resistance

(Fig. S4). We henceforth refer to this QTL as the *r1* locus (resistance locus 1).

Analysis of Z-scores from the GWAS shows that SNP sites that differed significantly between

resistant and susceptible larvae were not evenly distributed across the chromosome 13 QTL (Fig.

2A). Eighteen of the 25 windows of 10 Kb with the top 5% significant SNP density were

clustered between 4.42 and 4.60 Mb. Consistent with the GWAS results, Tajima's D provides

evidence for a selective sweep in GA-R between 4.3 and 5.2 Mb on chromosome 13 (Fig. 2B).

Fine-scale mapping within the *r1* locus

We used HRM to genotype individual resistant and susceptible larvae from the F22 and F23 of

GA-RS for SNPs at 12 marker sites within *r1*. This revealed eight markers (2 to 9) from 4.3 to

5.0 Mb significantly associated with resistance (Table 1). For marker 4 at 4.5 Mb (n = 57) and

marker 5 at 4.6 Mb (n = 60), all resistant larvae genotyped from GA-RS were either homozygous

for the allele from the resistant GA-R strain (GG) or heterozygous, with one allele from GA-R

and the other from the susceptible LAB-S strain (GL) (Table 1). A similar test using only

resistant larvae from the F26 confirmed this result: all 23 resistant larvae genotyped were either

GG (16) or GL (7). By contrast, the three genotypes were in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in 89

larvae genotyped from a control sample from the F26 that was not screened for resistance and

thus contained a mixture of resistant and susceptible individuals (24 GG: 44 GL: 21 LL, $\chi^2 =$

0.0091; $P = 0.52$). Genotype frequency in the F26 larvae differed significantly between the

resistant larvae and the control larvae ($\chi^2 = 22.60$, $P = 1.2 \times 10^{-5}$).

The results from the GWAS, Tajima's D, the G´ analysis, analysis of SNP density, and fine-scale

mapping (Figs. 1 and 2 and Table 2), identify the region between 4.3 to 4.6 Mb as most likely to

contain the mutation(s) causing the effect of chromosome 13 on resistance to Cry1Ac.

Gene expression in the midgut and a stop codon in *r1*

Based on the results above and annotations from funannotate and StringTie, we focused on the

10 genes between 4.37 and 4.62 Mb on chromosome 13. Seven of these 10 genes were expressed

in the midgut of third instar larvae (Fig. 3A; Table 2). The most highly expressed gene encodes a

wild-type protein of 308 amino acids that has sequence identity of 97.4% with *kinesin-related*

protein 12 in *H. armigera* (XP_021193241) and 85.9% with its homolog in *Chloridea virescens*

(formerly *Heliothis virescens*; PCG76683.1; Fig. S5). Hereafter, we refer to this gene in *H. zea*

as *kinesin-12*.

In GA-R we found a point mutation (C546T) in *kinesin-12* that introduces a premature stop

codon expected to truncate the protein at 183 amino acids (Fig. 3B). This mutation occurred in

100% of reads from 30 GA-R larvae and in 0% of reads from 30 LAB-S larvae that were

sequenced in the genomic comparison between these strains. In the GWAS with GA-RS, this

mutation was more common in resistant larvae (71%) than susceptible larvae (32%; $P = 7.48 \times$

10^{-6}). It occurs at bp 4,547,246, between the two markers (4 and 5) most tightly associated with

resistance to Cry1Ac (Table 1). Furthermore, RNA-seq near marker 4 detected the C546T

mutation in 100% of reads of 15 GG larvae and 0% of reads of 15 LL larvae, confirming

complete linkage between this mutation and marker 4. All of this evidence identifies the C546T

mutation in *kinesin-12* as a strong candidate for underlying the *r1* allele and contributing to

resistance to Cry1Ac.

Kinesin-12 is a taxonomically-restricted gene with no homology outside of Lepidoptera and poor

conservation (< 65% sequence identity) outside of the *Helicoverpa*/*Chloridea* clade. The

identification as a kinesin derives from the annotation in *H. armigera* of a conserved *EnvC*

domain

(www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/cdd/wrpsb.cgi?INPUT_TYPE=live&SEQUENCE=XP_02119

[3241.1](3241.1)) with roles in cell cycle control, cell division, and chromosome partitioning. This domain

extends from amino acids 116-210 and would be disrupted in the mutant GA-R form of the

protein, indicating a potentially major effect. Likewise, InterProScan found a coil domain (aa

124-194) that would be disrupted. Analysis with SignalP found no evidence for a signal peptide,

indicating that this gene is not likely to be integrated into or secreted through the cell membrane.

The most specific of the GO terms associated with this protein (Table S4) is GO:0043232

(intracellular non-membrane-bounded organelle), which is most closely associated with kinesin-

related proteins in *Drosophila melanogaster*

(http://amigo.geneontology.org/amigo/term/GO:0043232).

Kinesin-12 mutation in the GA strain and in field samples

To test the hypothesis that the C546T mutation in *kinesin-12* originated in the field, we

determined its frequency in the GA strain of *H. zea*, which was selected for resistance in the

field, but not in the lab (Brévault *et al.* 2013, Welch *et al.* 2015). In GA, the frequency of the

C546T mutation was 80% in five larvae from the F72 generation (three with homozygous TT

genotypes and two with heterozygous CT genotypes) and 97.5% in 20 larvae from the F87

generation (19 homozygous TT and one heterozygous CT). These results imply the C546T

mutation originated in the field population from which GA was established. The high frequency

of C546T in GA after rearing for many generations in the lab without exposure to Bt toxins

implies this mutation caused little or no fitness cost when reared in the lab in the absence of Bt

toxins. However, we did not find this mutation in 39 individuals collected from the field in

Georgia in July 2021 or in 25 individuals derived from the field in Arizona in 2020, despite the

resistance to Cry1Ac in both of these field populations (Yu *et al.* 2021; Y. Carrière, unpubl.

data). Whereas all individuals from the Georgia 2021 sample had the same sequence as LAB-S at

the codon starting with bp 546, three individuals from Arizona had a single base pair substitution

(C546A) changing the encoded amino acid from glutamine to lysine. In the field samples from

Arizona in 2020 and Georgia in 2021, we detected no insertions, deletions, or other mutations

introducing a stop codon in the 200 bp upstream or downstream from the C546T mutation.

Inheritance and trajectory of resistance in GA-RS

The genotype frequencies at marker 4 in resistant and susceptible larvae indicate at least one

GA-R allele at this locus was necessary for survival at 10 mcg Cry1Ac per cm^2 diet (Table 1).

However, a substantial proportion of susceptible larvae were homozygous for the GA-R allele at

marker 4 (Table 1). Together these results suggest that the *r1* allele was necessary, but not

sufficient for resistance to Cry1Ac in our screening bioassay.

Compared to 89 control samples not screened on diet tested with Cry1Ac, 69 resistant larvae

from the F22, F23, and F26 generations had a significantly higher ratio of the GG genotype to

the GL genotype (Fisher's Exact Test; $P < 0.0001$). At marker 4, the *r1* allele had a value for

dominance (*h*) of 0.23 (Table S3), which is intermediate between completely recessive

inheritance ($h = 0$) and additive inheritance ($h = 0.5$).

To test the hypothesis that alleles at one or more other loci contributed to resistance, we

compared the trajectory of resistance based on bioassay data with the trajectory of the GA-R

allele at marker 4. Resistance to Cry1Ac decreased substantially over time (Fig 4; Table S1),

indicating that in the absence of Cry1Ac, a pleiotropic fitness cost was associated with one or

more alleles contributing to resistance. However, the frequency of the GA-R allele at marker 4

was 0.52 in 89 control larvae from the F26, which is not different than the expected 0.50 in the

F1. This suggests no fitness cost was associated with the *r1* allele, which is tightly linked with

GA-R allele at marker 4. In the F26, marker 4 was in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium as noted

above, confirming the absence of selection at this locus in GA-RS. The significant decrease in

resistance over time despite no decline in the frequency of the GA-R allele at marker 4 implies

the decrease in resistance was caused by reduced frequency of one or more resistance alleles that

carry a fitness cost in the absence of Cry1Ac and are not linked with the *r1* allele.

493   Analysis of gene expression using RNA-seq

To test the hypothesis that differential gene expression contributes to resistance, we used RNA-

seq to compare transcript levels between GA-R and LAB-S and between the GG and LL

genotypes within GA-RS. After filtering, we analyzed expression of 12,965 genes (Table S5).

We found 2,173 differentially expressed (DE) genes between the unrelated strains LAB-S and

GA-R (Table S6) and 23 DE genes between the GG and LL genotypes within GA-RS (Table

S7). None of the genes associated with *r1* in chromosome 13 differed significantly in expression

between GA-R and LAB-S or between GG and LL.

Twelve of the 23 DE genes between GG and LL were also among the set of 2,173 DE genes in

the parental strain comparison, of which nine were DE in the same direction in both comparisons

(higher expression in GA-R than LAB-S and in GG than LL and vice versa; Tables S6 and S7).

The overlap in DE genes between these two datasets is significantly greater than expected by

chance ($\chi^2 = 3.86$; $P = 0.025$), implying the within-strain comparison between GG and LL

reflects meaningful differences between the parental strains. However, none of the 23 DE genes

between GG and LL are among the 11 genes previously implicated in resistance to Cry1Ac in

lepidopterans (Table S7). Thus, we cannot rule out transcription as a mechanism mediating the

effect of *r1* on resistance, but the RNA-seq data provide no compelling evidence for this.

Analysis of 11 genes previously implicated in lepidopteran resistance to Cry1Ac

We used our results from GWAS and RNA-seq to evaluate potential contributions to resistance

of 11 genes previously implicated in lepidopteran resistance to Cry1Ac (Table 3). None of these

candidate genes are in the resistance-associated QTL on chromosome 13 or the putative minor

effect QTL on chromosome 10 (Table 3). In addition, none of them had any SNPs that were

significantly associated with resistance in the GWAS (Table 3). Although *tetraspanin-1* is on

chromosome 10 in *H. zea*, it is outside the regions of this chromosome that were moderately

associated with resistance in the GWAS. As noted above, none of the 23 DE genes between GG

and LL are among the 11 candidate genes (Table S7). Only one of the 11 pairwise comparisons

between strains based on RNA-seq showed a significant difference. Expression of *ABCC1* was

significantly lower in GA-R than LAB-S ($P = 0.0014$, Table 3; Table S6). However, within GA-

RS, expression of *ABCC1* did not differ significantly between GG and LL ($P = 0.29$; Table 3;

Table S7), which indicates reduced expression of *ABCC1* was not genetically linked with

resistance.

Discussion

We report three key results demonstrating a novel genetic basis of Cry1Ac resistance in the GA-

R strain of *H. zea*, which resulted from field selection followed by lab selection (Brévault *et al.*

2013, Welch *et al.* 2015). First, resistance was associated with a 250kb region of chromosome 13

that contains no genes with a previously identified role in Bt resistance or toxicity. Second,

within this region, resistance to Cry1Ac was associated with a point mutation that introduces a

premature stop codon in a novel candidate gene, *kinesin-12*. Third, we report evidence that one

or more other loci also contributed to resistance to Cry1Ac. To facilitate these advances, we built

the first chromosome-level genome assembly for *H. zea*, adding to a growing set of highly

contiguous genomes for lepidopteran pests (Chen *et al.* 2019; Ward *et al.* 2021; Yan *et al.* 2021).

This genome was essential for the genetic mapping reported here and will serve as a resource for

other genomic investigations into the biology of *H. zea*.

Our finding of a novel gene associated with resistance to Cry1Ac in *H. zea* adds to an

increasingly diverse list of genes associated with Bt resistance in lepidopterans (Jin *et al.* 2018;

Guo *et al.* 2021; Jurat-Fuentes *et al.* 2021). However, the novel genetic basis of resistance does

not necessarily imply a novel biochemical mechanism of resistance. The effects of *r1* could be

mediated by either decreased toxin activation or reduced binding of Cry1Ac to larval midgut

membranes, which are well known mechanisms of Bt resistance (Peterson *et al.* 2017; Jurat-

Fuentes *et al.* 2021). Indeed, previous studies of *H. zea* have found decreased protoxin activation

in GA-R (Zhang *et al.* 2019) and reduced binding of Cry1Ac to larval midgut preparations in

strains with resistance caused by knocking out the putative receptor ABCC2 (Perera *et al.* 2021).

The location of *r1* on chromosome 13 is noteworthy because it corresponds closely to the region

under the strongest selection in *H. zea* populations from Louisiana that were exposed to Bt crops

over the past 19 years (Fritz *et al.* 2021). Although Fritz *et al.* (2021) identified a narrow region

near but not containing *r1* as the most likely site of selection (~4.0 Mb in our assembly), the

broader region associated with the selective sweep in their data includes *r1* (~3.8 to 5.8 Mb) and

aligns with both our original and refined QTL for resistance. Thus, we hypothesize that *r1* is

associated with Cry1Ac resistance in the field populations of *H. zea* from Louisiana studied by

Fritz *et al.* (2021), as well as in GA-R and its parent strain GA (Fritz *et al.* 2020), which

originated from a field-selected population in Georgia in 2008 (Brévault *et al.* 2013).

We hypothesize that the effect of *r1* on resistance is mediated by the premature stop codon in the

kinesin-12 gene, which shortens the predicted protein by roughly 40%. Of the 10 genes in the

region tightly associated with resistance, midgut expression was highest for *kinesin-12*,

indicating a likely midgut function for the protein it encodes. Protein functional prediction

algorithms including DeepGoPlus provide moderate support for the original annotation as a

kinesin with a function in intracellular transport or structure. Nonetheless, we do not know the

normal function of the kinesin-12 protein and cannot infer that the C546T mutation causes

resistance. In future work, we aim to determine if knocking out this gene in a susceptible strain

causes resistance to Cry1Ac and reduces binding of Cry1Ac to larval midgut membranes, and

conversely if knocking in the wild type sequence into kinesin-12 from GA-R restores

susceptibility to and binding of Cry1Ac.

Kinesins and kinesin-related proteins are motor proteins important in microtubule function,

chromosomal movement, and organelle transport (Ali and Wang 2020) that have not been

associated previously with Bt resistance. Several kinesins are involved in MAPK signaling

cascades (Liang and Yang 2019) and MAPK signaling is implicated in Bt resistance (Guo *et al.*

2015, 2020, 2021; Qin *et al.* 2021). Furthermore, a case of xenobiotic resistance in mice involved

a mutant kinesin acting downstream of a map kinase (Watters *et al.* 2001). Thus, one hypothesis

is that *kinesin-12* acts downstream of MAPK as part of the signaling cascade initiated when

Cry1Ac binds to a midgut receptor. However, MAPK influences Bt resistance via

downregulation of Bt receptors (Guo *et al.* 2015, 2020, 2021; Qin *et al.* 2021). Here we see no

evidence for reduced transcription of putative receptors, making this an unlikely explanation for

the link between *kinesin-12* and resistance.

Kinesins also play a role in the localization of transmembrane proteins to the cell membrane

(Jana *et al.* 2021) and in intracellular cadherin trafficking (Phang *et al.* 2014). The transport

functions of kinesins and kinesin-related proteins entail motor complexes of three or more

proteins (Phang *et al.* 2014), suggesting interactions between different proteins could be

interrupted to interfere with receptor transport to the membrane. We hypothesize that in *H. zea,* a

truncated *kinesin-12* in combination with mutations affecting one or more of its interacting

partners blocks proper localization of a Bt receptor on the membrane.

Although necessary for resistance, the *r1* allele alone was not sufficient to cause resistance,

implying contributions from one or more additional loci. Polygenic resistance to Cry1Ac also has

been reported in strains of *H. zea* unrelated to GA-R (Caccia *et al.* 2012; Fritz *et al.* 2021; Perera

et al. 2021) and is consistent with the decline in resistance over time in GA-RS. While resistance

to Cry1Ac declined significantly across generations in GA-RS, the frequency of C546T and

other *r1* linked alleles did not. After 22, 23 and 26 generations without exposure to Bt toxins, it

was not lower than its expected initial frequency of 0.50. Thus, the decline in resistance reflects a

decreased resistance allele frequency at one or more other loci. Unlike the C546T mutation,

which did not have a substantial fitness cost in the lab, the observed decline in resistance

suggests that a fitness cost was associated with at least one mutation at another locus that

contributed to resistance in GA-RS.

The results summarized above have implications for understanding the trajectory of the C546T

mutation in the field. The high frequency of the C546T mutation in the field-selected GA strain

implies this mutation was common in 2008 in the moderately resistant field population in

Georgia from which GA was derived (Brévault *et al.* 2013). However, we did not detect this

mutation in Cry1Ac-resistant populations from the same site in Georgia in 2021 or in Arizona in

2020. Thus, this mutation is not associated with resistance to Cry1Ac in all field populations of

H. zea. Also, its frequency apparently decreased in the field in Georgia from 2008 to 2021. One

hypothesis is that the frequency of this mutation decreased in Georgia because it has a substantial

fitness cost under field conditions, such as reduced overwintering survival (Carrière *et al.* 2001),

that would not be evident in the lab. The C546T mutation could have been replaced by one or

more mutations that have lower fitness costs (Guillemaud *et al.* 1998), confer higher resistance to

Cry1Ac, and/or confer resistance without contributions from mutations at other loci. More

research is needed to determine the function of kinesin-12 and its role in resistance, as well as the

genetic basis of Cry1Ac resistance in current field populations of *H. zea*.

Data availability

612 All sequence data will be made available at NCBI (Bioproject: PRJNA767434). Phenotypic data

613 will be made available at OSF.

Author contributions

615 J.F., Y.C., B.E.T., and L.M.M. conceived and designed project. K.M.B., C.W.A., B.A.D., and

616 X.L. performed experiments and collected the data. K.M.B., C.W.A., Y.C., and B.E.T. analyzed

617 data. K.M.B. and B.E.T. wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

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Conflicts of interest

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Table 1 Genotype and allele frequencies at 12 markers on the chromosome 13 QTL for resistant
and susceptible GA-RS larvae from generations F22 and F23.
901

Marker	Bp (Chr13)	Resistant larvae		Susceptible larvae		p^b
		Genotypes (GG / GL / LL)[a]	G allele frequency	Genotypes (GG / GL / LL)[a]	G allele frequency	
1	4,110,560	41 / 15 / 4	0.81	23 / 23 / 3	0.70	1.0
2	4,281,434	30 / 23 / 7	0.69	9 / 24 / 16	0.43	9.6 e-03
3	4,379,538	41 / 18 / 1	0.83	13 / 24 / 12	0.51	2.4 e-04
4	4,475,706	40 / 17 / 0	0.85	13 / 24 / 12	0.51	4.0 e-05
5	4,596,970	43 / 17 / 0	0.86	13 / 24 / 12	0.51	3.0 e-05
6	4,720,567	39 / 17 / 2	0.82	12 / 13 / 12	0.50	1.3 e-04
7	4,829,519	40 / 18 / 1	0.83	13 / 23 / 13	0.50	1.0 e-04
8	4,902,478	38 / 21 / 1	0.81	13 / 23 / 13	0.50	1.0 e-04
9	4,998,799	38 / 19 / 1	0.82	12 / 23 / 14	0.48	5.0 e-05
10	5,226,319	27 / 19 / 3	0.75	14 / 24 / 5	0.61	0.47
11	5,727,295	11 / 22 / 7	0.55	5 / 14 / 1	0.60	0.29
12	6,232,397	15 / 19 / 8	0.58	3 / 33 / 8	0.44	1.0

[a] G indicates the allele was more common in the resistant GA-R strain,
L indicates the allele was more common in the susceptible LAB-S strain.
[b] From Fisher's exact test of the null hypothesis that allele frequency did not differ
between the resistant and susceptible larvae.

903 **Table 2** Larval midgut expression of genes in the region of chromosome 13 QTL associated with
904 resistance to Cry1Ac.

Gene ID	Start - Stop (orientation)	Name	Larval midgut expression (mean log CPM)
MSTRG.8092	4,371,598 – 4,491,148 (+)	*Cyclic AMP-response element-binding protein A*	2.44
MSTRG.8095	4,491,241 – 4,520,601 (-)	*Heparan-alpha-glucosaminide-N-acetyltransferase*	-0.02
MSTRG.8097	4,504,492 – 4,507,681 (+)	*Juvenile hormone esterase-like Carboxyl/cholinesterase CCE006D*	4.84
hz_G0000107	4,536,278 – 4,541,251 (+)	*Lipase member H-B-like*	N/A
MSTRG.8100	4,541,250 – 4,593,328 (-)	*Phosphatidylinositol 4-phosphate 3-kinase C2 domain-containing subunit alpha*	3.25
MSTRG.8101	4,546,116 – 4,547,856 (+)	Kinesin-related protein 12-like	7.08
hz_G0000111	4,593,482 – 4,595,264 (-)	Uncharacterized protein	N/A
hz_G0000112	4,600,520 – 4,606,939 (+)	Uncharacterized protein	N/A
MSTRG.8102	4,607,861 – 4,617,975 (-)	*Ubiquitin-protein ligase E3A*	3.88
MSTRG.8103	4,618,419 – 4,620,800 (+)	*Retinal rod rhodopsin-sensitive cGMP 3`, 5`-cyclic phosphodiesterase subunit delta*	2.98

907 Gene IDs refer to the StringTie annotation when expressed for correspondence with the RNA-
908 seq data. Funannotate IDs refer to non-expressed genes. N/A indicates the gene was not
909 expressed.
910

911 **Table 3** GWAS and RNA-seq results for 11 genes previously implicated in lepidopteran
912 resistance to Cry1Ac.
913

Gene	Key reference	*H. zea* genome location[a]	Gene ID[b]	GWAS: *P*-value[c]	RNA-seq: GA-R vs. LAB-S *P*-value[d]	RNA-seq: GG vs. LL *P*-value[d]
ABCC1	Chen *et al.* 2019	12: 9.24-9.29	7445	0.16	**0.0014**	0.29
ABCC2	Baxter *et al.* 2011	15: 7.07-7.09	9800	0.35	0.95	0.56
APN1	Zhang *et al.* 2009	9: 11.33-11.37	5943	0.53	0.32	0.33
Cadherin	Gahan *et al.* 2001	6: 1.89-1.97	4086	0.46	1.0	0.13
Cadherin-86C	Fritz *et al.* 2020	12: 4.60-4.62	7702	0.49	0.69	0.75
MAPK4	Guo *et al.* 2015	12: 6.80-6.82	9824	0.21	0.12	0.43
mALP	Jurat-Fuentes *et al.* 2011	8: 10.41-10.43	4895	0.37	0.11	0.62
Polycalin	Wang *et al.* 2020	25: 2.72-2.73	16287	0.48	0.73	0.14
SP2	Rajagopal *et al.* 2009	7: 1.34-1.35	4260	0.53	0.85	0.88
Tetraspanin1	Jin *et al.* 2018	10: 11.58-11.59	6160	0.087	0.061	0.20
TryR	Liu *et al.* 2014	27: 2.04-2.09	17235	0.60	0.97	1.0

914 [a] Chromosome: Mb
915 [b] Full Gene ID begins with MSTRG.
916 [c] Lowest *P*-value for any SNP in the gene based on the G' analysis
917 [d] *P*-values are FDR-corrected, bold indicates significant at < 0.05.
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921 **Figure 1** Manhattan plot of GWAS results showing $-\log_{10}$ of the *P*-values for Z-scores comparing
922 allele frequencies between resistant and susceptible larvae. The red line indicates the threshold for
923 significant association ($P = 5e^{-8}$).
924
925

Figure 2 Association between resistance to Cry1Ac and SNPs within the chromosome 13 QTL.
A. Proportion of significant SNPs ($P < 1e^{-5}$) from the Z-score analysis of the QTL data in 10 kb
sliding windows. The horizontal red line indicates the 95th percentile of the distribution.
B. Evidence of a selective sweep in GA-R from Tajima's D in 50 kb sliding windows. Blue
shading covers the QTL from 4.37 to 4.62 Mb. The vertical red bars show the locations of
markers 4 and 5 (Table 1). The red asterisk indicates the location of *kinesin-12*.

Figure 3 Ten genes including *kinesin-12* in the resistance-associated QTL on chromosome 13.
A. The four genes at the top are in the (–) orientation, the other six below are in the (+)
orientation (Table 2). The four genes in white were not expressed in the midgut. Darker red
indicates higher expression in the midgut (Table 2). **B.** The structure of *kinesin-12* in LAB-S and
GA-R. Boxes represent exons, light blue indicates UTRs, and dark blue signifies coding regions.

Figure 4 Survival of the heterogeneous GA-RS strain of *H. zea* tested on diet with 1 (blue) or 10 (red) micrograms Cry1Ac per cm^2 diet. Survival at each test concentration decreased significantly. Regressions of $\log_{10}$ (% survival to third instar) on generation: y = -0.019x + 1.97, R^2 = 0.99, df = 2, *P* = 0.004 and y = -0.028x + 1.13, R^2 = 0.90, df = 3, *P* = 0.015 for 1 and 10 micrograms Cry1Ac per cm^2 diet, respectively. Generation 26 was tested only at the higher concentration. Shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals.