Molecular drivers of insecticide resistance in the Sahelo-Sudanian populations of a major malaria vector

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Abstract

Information on common markers of metabolic resistance in malaria vectors from

countries/regions sharing similar eco-climatic characteristics can facilitate coordination of

malaria control. Here, we characterized populations of the major malaria vector *Anopheles*

coluzzii from Sahelian transect/region, spanning four sub-Saharan African countries: Nigeria,

Niger, Chad and Cameroon. Genome-wide transcriptional analysis identified major genes

previously implicated in pyrethroid and/or cross resistance to other insecticides,

overexpressed across the Sahel, including CYP450s, glutathione S-transferases,

carboxylesterases, and cuticular proteins. Several, well-known variants/markers of insecticide

resistance were found in high frequencies - including in the voltage-gated sodium channel

(V402L, I940T, L995F, I1527T and N1570Y), the *acetylcholinesterase*-1 gene (G280S) and the

CYP4J5-L43F, which is fixed. High frequencies of the phenotypically important chromosomal

inversions, 2La, 2Rb and 2Rc were observed (~80% for 2La and 2Rb). The 2La alternative

arrangement is fixed across the Sahel. Low frequencies of these inversions (<10%) were

observed in the fully insecticide susceptible laboratory colony of *An. coluzzii* (Ngoussou).

Several of the most commonly overexpressed metabolic resistance genes sit in these three

inversions. Two commonly overexpressed genes, *GSTe2* and *CYP6Z2* were functionally

validated. Transgenic *Drosophila melanogaster* expressing *GSTe2* exhibited extremely high DDT

and permethrin resistance (mortalities < 10% in 24h). Serial deletion of the 5' intergenic region,

to identify putative nucleotide(s) associated with *GSTe2* overexpression, revealed that

simultaneous insertion of adenine nucleotide and a transition (T->C), between Fork-head box

L1 and c-EST putative binding sites are responsible for the high overexpression of *GSTe2* in

the resistant mosquitoes, across the Sahel. Transgenic flies expressing *CYP6Z2* exhibited

marginal resistance towards 3-phenoxybenzylalcohol (a primary product of pyrethroid

hydrolysis by carboxylesterases) and a type II pyrethroid, α-cypermethrin. However,

significantly higher mortalities were obtained in *CYP6Z2* transgenic flies compared with

controls, on exposure to the neonicotinoid, clothianidin. This suggests a possible bioactivation

of clothianidin into a toxic intermediate, which if true make it an ideal insecticide against

populations of *An. coluzzii* overexpressing this P450. These findings will facilitate regional

collaborations within the Sahel region, and refine implementation strategies through re-

focusing interventions, improving evidence-based, cross-border policy towards local and

regional malaria pre-elimination.

Keywords: *Anopheles coluzzii*, Sahel, insecticides, pyrethroid, DDT, metabolic, resistance,

genes, inversions.

Background

Since the year 2000 the massive scale-up in vector control interventions and treatment with antimalarial drugs had cut malaria incidence by ~40 % across Africa (1). Bolstered by this progress the World Health Organization (WHO) has been pushing to eliminate malaria, as proposed in the Global Technical Strategy (GTS) 2016-2030 (2). Unfortunately, the GTS, an ambitious framework with targets to reduce global malaria burden by 90 % in 15 years was dealt an immediate blow by a rebound in malaria transmission, with increased cases between 2016 and 2019 (3, 4). This stark warning of the risk posed to control and elimination efforts was a reflection of the lack of progress in the primary regions of interest in sub-Saharan Africa, which constitute 96 % of the 627,000 malaria-related deaths in 2020 alone (4, 5). Indeed, as the WHO widens the net of malaria elimination (E-2025) its important to acknowledge that no meaningful progress will be made without progress in sub-Saharan Africa, where none of the six countries having the highest global burden of malaria (e.g. Nigeria alone contributing ~27 % of all cases) is on the path to elimination (6).

The recent escalation of insecticide resistance in the major malaria vectors (7-9) makes the development of molecular tools to anticipate emergence and predict spread of resistance across the African continent imperative, in order to achieve malaria control and elimination. For decades no simple molecular assays were available to track metabolic resistance and assess its impact on malaria control and transmission, until the recent discovery of two DNA markers in the *cis*-regulatory region of two cytochrome P450s, *CYP6P9a* (10) and *CYP6P9b* (11) in the major malaria vector *Anopheles funestus*; findings which allowed the design of simple PCR assays to detect and track metabolic resistance in the field. Unfortunately, these markers explain resistance only in southern Africa for *An. funestus*, since genetic basis of pyrethroid

resistance, and cross-resistance with other insecticides is complex in other African regions

with different fronts, driven by distinct genes in the presence of barriers to gene flow (10, 12,

13). No major metabolic resistance markers for P450s and/or GSTs (functionally validated and

characterised for epidemiological impact in the natural populations) exist for the major

malaria vectors of the *Anopheles gambiae* Complex, though it is the omnipresent vector species

with widespread presence across Africa (14). This is hindering early detection and tracking of

molecular drivers of resistance in this species, slowing down evidence-based control measures

and resistance management.

Major genomic regions associated with metabolic resistance to pyrethroids in *An. gambiae*

sensu lato include the *CYP6* P450 clusters on the 2R and 3R chromosomes, and a *GST* epsilon

(*GSTe*) cluster on chromosome 3R (15), with some key resistance-associated genes functionally

validated. These genes include *CYP6P3* shown to confer cross resistance to pyrethroids and

organophosphates (16, 17), *CYP6M2* conferring cross resistance to pyrethroids (18, 19) and

DDT (19), as well as *GSTe2* shown to confer resistance to DDT (20). For *GSTe2*, in addition to

the I114T marker (20), a recent study has found a novel mutation (*Gste2*-119V) associated with

resistance (21) using a high-throughput genotypic panel for markers. Functional validation

and fild data is required establish the empirical evidence of the role of this mutation in

resistance. What has been missing in the case of *Anopheles gambiae/coluzzii* is reliable molecular

markers of resistance for major metabolic gene families, e.g. P450s (with field and laboratory

validated data) to aid creation of DNA-based diagnostic assays which will allow (i) easy

tracking of resistance in the field (e.g. the case of 119F-*GSTe2* mutation in *An. funestus* (22),

and (ii) determination of the operational impact of the resistance markers in the field, as

recently done for 119F-*GSTe2* (23) and *CYP6P9a*_R/*CYP6P9b*_R markers (10, 11) in *An.*

funestus.

The *An. gambiae s.l.*, especially populations in the semi-arid steppe, exhibit high frequency of

paracentric chromosomal inversions [one of the most effective instruments for speciation and

local adaptations (Ayala et al., 2014, Dobzhansky, 1971, Kirkpatrick, 2010)], maintained in

spatially and temporally heterogenous environment, and which segregate along climatic

gradients of increasing aridity (24)]. The 2La inversions are associated with resistance to

desiccation in adults (Fouet et al., 2012, Gray et al., 2009) and thermal stress in larvae (Cassone

et al., 2011). It was also shown that inversion 2La assorts with insecticide resistance, e.g.,

dieldrin plus fipronil (Brooke et al., 2000), and is associated with thermotolerance and

permethrin resistance in the Sahelain *An. coluzzii* (Ibrahim et al., 2021).

To support malaria pre-elimination effort in sub-Saharan Africa we targeted the Sahelo-

Sudanian region, which represent northern-most limit of malaria endemicity in sub-Saharan

Africa, and where malaria is highly seasonal [offering excellent target for pre-elimination

effort through sustained seasonal vector control and seasonal malaria chemoprevention (25)].

Focusing on the predominant malaria vector, *An. coluzzii* from Sudan/Sahel transects of four

countries, Nigeria, Niger, Chad and Cameroon (7, 26-28) we identified the major metabolic

resistance genes mediating pyrethroid resistance and cross-resistance in this region,

established the genetic variants which explained the resistance. We also functionally validated

the roles of two major candidate genes in the resistance (*CYP6Z2* and *GSTe2*), as well as single

nucleotide polymorphism in the 5′ regulatory elements of *GSTe2*, responsible for its

overexpression in the resistant population.

Materials and Methods

Study Site and Mosquito Sampling

Blood fed female *An. coluzzii* mosquitoes, resting indoor were collected at one locality each in Sudan/Sahel (Additional Figure S1): Hadiyau (HAD: 12°21′38″N, 9°59′15″E), a Sudan/sub-Sahel village in northern Nigeria; Takatsaba (TAK: 13°44'01.8"N 7°59'05.2"E), a Sahel village in southern Niger; Simatou (SIMAT: 10°50'40.7"N 14°56'40.9"E), a Sudan/sub-Sahel village in Maga Department, far north of Cameroon; and Massakory (CHAD: 12° 6′ N, 15° 02′ E), a Sahel town in Chad Republic. Details of sampling approaches and resistance profiles of mosquitoes collected from Nigeria, Niger, and Chad are available in previously published articles (7, 26, 28). As in the above countries the Simatou F_1 females were also highly pyrethroid resistant, with a mortality of only 3.7% from WHO tube bioassays using 0.05% deltamethrin, and no mortality at all with 0.75% permethrin (data not published).

Genome-wide transcriptional analysis for common insecticide resistance genes in the Sahel/sub-Sahel regions

RNA extraction, library preparation and sequencing

The RNA was extracted using the Arcturus PicoPure RNA isolation Kit (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA) from three pools of 8 F_1 *An. coluzzii* females (2-4 day old) alive after exposure to deltamethrin (resistant, R), unexposed (control, C), and also from unexposed females of the fully susceptible laboratory colony of *An. coluzzii*, Ngoussou (susceptible, S) (29). RNA isolation was carried out following the manufacturer's protocol with *Dnase* I-treatment to

remove contaminating DNA. The quantity and quality of RNA was measured using a

NanoDrop spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher, MA, USA) and Bioanalyzer (Agilent, CA,

USA).

Library preparation, sequencing and data quality control were carried out by the Centre for

Genomic Research (CGR), University of Liverpool, UK. RNA samples were subjected to

poly(A) mRNA enrichment and libraries prepared from the poly(A) mRNA-enriched

materials (dual-indexed, strand-specific RNAseq libraries were prepared using the NEBNext

polyA selection and Ultra Directional RNA library preparation kits). Libraries were

sequenced on a single lane of an Illumina HiSeq 4000 (paired-end, 2x150 bp sequencing,

generating data from >280 M clusters per lane). Basecalling and de-multiplexing of indexed

reads were performed by CASAVA version 1.8.2 (Illumina). De-multiplexed fastq files were

trimmed to remove Illumina adapter sequences using Cutadapt version 1.2.1 (30). Option -O

3 was used, so that the 3' end of any reads which matched the adapter sequence for 3 bp or

more were trimmed. Reads were further trimmed to remove low quality bases

using Sickle version 1.200 (31) with a minimum window quality score of 20. Reads shorter

than 20 bp after trimming were removed. If both reads from a pair passed this filter, each was

included in either the R1 (forward reads) or R2 (reverse reads) file. If only one of a read pair

passed this filter, it is included in the R0 (unpaired) file. Statistics were generated using fastq-

stats from EAUtils (32). Summary of total number of reads for each sample and distribution

of trimmed read length for forward (R1) and reverse (R2) reads and reads unpaired after

trimming (R0) are provided in Additional Figure S2.

Data analysis and estimation of transcript abundance by tag counting and differential gene

expression

Paired data for each replicate per country was aligned to the *An. gambiae* reference transcript

ome AgamP4.10 downloaded from VectorBase (https://vectorbase.org/) in salmon (0.11.4),

using 'validate mappings', 'seqBias', 'gcBias' and 'rangeFactorizationBins 4' flags. Read

mapping results (pre-alignment and post-alignment descriptive statistics (flagstat output

files) showing sequencing depth and coverage are given in Additional Tables 1 and -2,

respectively. Salmon results were converted into a gene expression matrix using the

Bioconductor package 'tximport' for input to DESeq2 1.26.0 (33). Differential gene expression

was tested for the three possible combinations of Exposed (R, deltamethrin resistant),

Unexposed (C, control) and Susceptible replicates (S). For results interpretation $\log_2$-fold

change thresholds of 1 was imposed, with false discovery rate adjusted p-values of 0.05

applied to accept significance. Principal components analysis implemented in DESeq2 was

used to examine relationships between respective replicates and treatments. This was carried

out based on the 500 most variable genes, with data transformation (normalisation/scaling) as

implemented in VST (DESeq2). For visualisation of expression results, volcano plots were

created using the Enhanced Volcano package (34) using the top most overexpressed genes

from lists which were prepared with $\log_2$FC cut off of 1 and p value of 0.01. Heatmaps were

generated (35) using the list of the top 50 most overexpressed metabolic resistance genes with

$\log_2$FC cut off of 1 and p value of 0.01.

Gene Ontology Enrichment and Mapping/Functional annotations

The enrichment analysis for GO terms was carried out using a topGO package (36) against

An. gambiae (AgamP4.10), with data reannotated using EggNOG v5.0

(http://eggnog5.embl.de/#/app/home). Gene lists used in topGO are from the $\log_2 FC = 0$, p

<0.05 analysis (the default in DESeq2). For the data from each site (country) six set of results

were generated (R, C and S contrasts) for genes either up- or down-regulated in each contrast,

for molecular function (MF) and biological process (BP) ontologies. For analysis the GO terms

lists for MF were used as input into the Revigo (37) for interpretation and visualisation,

querying the Whole Uniprot database, and SimRel setting for semantic similarity

measurements.

Quantitative PCR measurement of expression profiles of metabolic resistance

genes

The level of expression of 12 resistance-associated genes was validated by qRT-PCR using the

primers provided in Additional Table 3. These include the *GSTe2* (AGAP009194), *GSTZ1*

(AGAP002898), *CYP6Z2* (AGAP008218), *CYP6Z3* (AGAP008217), *CYP4C27* (AGAP009246),

CYP4G16 (AGAP001076), *CYP4G17* (AGAP000877), *CYP6P3* (AGAP002865), *CYP6M2*

(AGAP008212), *CYP9K1* (AGAP000818), a *UGT-B19* (AGAP007920) and *COEBE3C*

(AGAP005372). The qRT-PCR was carried out using three technical replicates each of cDNA

extracted from 1 μg of total RNA of three biological replicates each from the Resistant (R),

Control (C) and Ngoussou (S). Protocol followed was as established in previous studies (38),

with relative expression level and fold change (FC) of each target gene in R and C relative to

S calculated according to the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method incorporating the PCR efficiency (39), after

normalization with the housekeeping genes ribosomal protein S7, *RPS7* (AGAP010592) and

glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase, *GPDH* (AGAP007593). Significant differences were

calculated using ANOVA with Dunnett's post hoc test.

Detection of Signatures of Selective Sweep

To detect signature of select sweeps in the major metabolic resistance genes of interest, a

RNAseq population genetics pipeline, the Snakemake workflow

(https://zenodo.org/record/6078337) was utilised. The workflow aligns RNA-Seq reads to the

reference genome, and calls genomic variants with *Freebayes*, at a user-provided level of

ploidy, in our case 16 (8 diploid pooled mosquitoes). F_{st} (40) per gene between population

pairs and Tajima's D per gene within population were estimated. This was performed against

all SNPs passing quality and missingness filters. Population branch statistic (PBS) scans may

also be performed with the Snakemake, conditional on the presence of three suitable

populations (41). It is also possible to run Hudson's F_{st} and PBS scans, taking the average for

each protein-coding gene, as opposed to in windows. The population genetics statistical

analyses were calculated in scikit-allel v1.2.1 (42).

Establishment of allele frequencies of variants in genes of interest

After genome alignment, RNA-Seq-Pop utilises samtools (43) to query specific positions of

the genome, calculating raw allele frequencies at those sites with a custom R script.

Detection of chromosomal inversion polymorphisms and metabolic genes within its

breakpoint

A modified version of the Python 3 program, compkaryo (44) was used to karyoptype the

major, *An. coluzzii/gambiae* phenotypically important inversion polymorphisms in

chromosome 2, and calculate its frequencies, *in silico*, using the previously identified tag SNPs

significantly associated with inversions. This allows to predict with high confidence

genotypes of the six common polymorphic inversions on chromosome 2 in individually

sequenced genomes of the field *An. coluzzii,* as well as in the Ngoussou. Compkaryo uses the

Ag1000 database (The *Anopheles gambiae* 1000 Genomes Consortium 2017) (15) by leveraging

a subset of cytologically karyotyped specimens to develop a computational approach for

karyotyping applicable to whole genome sequence. Modifications in the Snakemake pipeline

allows for variable ploidy (useful in the case of replicates from our pooled RNAsequencing

samples) here.

Functional validation of the commonly overexpressed resistance-associated genes

Comparative analysis of coding sequences of major resistance genes

To establish presence of allelic variants which could impact catalytic activities, full length

coding sequences (cDNAs) of the two resistance-associated genes, *GSTe2* and *CYP6Z2* were

amplified and sequenced from alive mosquitoes in the four Sahel countries, as well as from

Ngoussou. This was done using total RNA extracted from 5 individual pools of 8 F_1 *An.*

coluzzii females (2-4 day old) alive after exposure to deltamethrin (resistant, R for *CYP6Z2*) or

DDT (R for *GSTe2*). Protocol for RNA extraction was as described in previous section, above.

Amplification was done using Phusion HotStart II Taq Polymerase (ThermoFisher

SCIENTIFIC, MA, USA) and the Full primers listed in Additional Table 4. The PCR mix

comprised 5x Phusion HF Buffer (containing 1.5 mM $MgCl_2$), 85.7 μM deoxynucleotides

(dNTPs), 0.34 μM each of forward and reverse primers, 0.015 U of Phusion HotStart II DNA

Polymerase (Fermentas, MA, USA), 10.71 μL of ddH_20 and 1 μL cDNA. Thermocycling

conditions were 1 cycle at 95 °C for 5 min; followed by 35 cycles each of 94 °C for 20 s, 60 °C

for 30 s, 72 °C for 2 min (1 min for *GSTe2*); and finally, one cycle at 72 °C for 5 min. PCR

products were cleaned with a QIAquick® PCR Purification Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany)

and ligated into the pJET1.2/blunt cloning vector using the CloneJET PCR Cloning Kit

(ThermoFisher SCIENTIFIC, MA, USA). These were then cloned into *E. coli DH5α*, plasmids

miniprepped with the QIAprep® Spin Miniprep Kit (QIAGEN) and sequenced on both strands

using pJET1.2 primers.

Polymorphisms were detected through examination and manual editing of sequence traces

using BioEdit version 7.2.3.0 (45) and nucleotide differences in sequences aligned using CLC

Sequence Viewer 7.0 (http://www.clcbio.com/). Different haplotypes were compared by

constructing a phylogenetic maximum likelihood tree using MEGA X (46). Genetic parameters

of polymorphism including number of haplotypes (h) and its diversity (H_d), number of

polymorphic sites (S) and nucleotide diversity (π) were computed using DnaSP v6.12.03 (47).

Characterization of the 5' regulatory regions of GSTe2 and CYP6Z2

Amplification, cloning and sequence characterisation of 5' regulatory element

To investigate presence of genetic variants in the regulatory elements, which could be

responsible for overexpression of *GSTe2*, 351 bp intergenic regions (spanning the 43 bp 3' UTR

of *GSTe1*, 248 bp flanking sequence and 60 bp 5'UTR of *GSTe2*) preceding the start codon were

amplified from 10 each of DDT-alive and -dead females from the 4 Sahel countries, as well as

from the Ngoussou females (primers provided in Additional Table 4). For *CYP6Z2*, a 1078 bp

intergenic region was retrieved from the VectorBase and used for amplification of the putative

5'-regulatory elements. Primers spanning 38 bp 3' UTR of *CYP6Z1*, a 937 bp flanking sequence

and 103 bp 5'UTR of *CYP6Z2*, preceding the start codon of *CYP6Z2* were used to amplify

fragments from 10 each of deltamethrin-alive and -dead females from Nigeria and Niger, as

well as from the Ngoussou females. Amplification was carried out using HotStart II

Polymerase (ThermoFisher SCIENTIFIC, MA, USA) with similar thermocycling conditions as

outlined above for coding region of *GSTe2* and *CYP6Z2*, respectively. Purification of PCR

amplicons, cloning into pJET1.2 vector, sequencing and polymorphism analysis were done as

outlined above.

The 351 bp 5'-UTR fragments of *GSTe2* and 1078 bp fragment of the *CYP6Z2* were analysed

with the Gene Promoter Miner (http://gpminer.mbc.nctu.edu.tw/) and MatInspector (48) to

identify putative promoter elements, predict transcription start (TSS) and potential

transcription factor binding sites.

Cloning of GSTe2 and CYP6Z2 5' regulatory elements in PGL3-Basic vector and dual luciferase

reporter assay

Following analysis of the above sequences the 351 bp intergenic fragments of *GSTe2* were

amplified from the most predominant sequences of DDT-alive, DDT-dead and Ngoussou.

Same was done for for *CYP6Z2* amplifying 1087 bp fragment from deltamethrin-alive and -

dead, and Ngoussou. Primers bearing *kpn*I and *BgL*II sites (Additional Table 4) allowed

incorporation into pGL3-Basic reporter vector containing luciferase gene from the firefly

Photinus pyralis (Promega, Wisconsin, USA). Amplification was carried out using Phusion

HotStart II Polymerase, with conditions as above, followed by purification of PCR amplicons,

and cloning into pJET1.2 vector. Positive colonies (sequencing primers for pGL3-Basic

provided in Additional Table 4) were miniprepped; the minipreps digested with the above

restriction enzymes, gel-purified and ligated upstream of luciferase gene in pGL3-Basic vector

already linearized with the same restriction enzymes. Positive colonies were cloned and

miniprepped and concentrations of the recombinant plasmids adjusted to 200 ng/μL before

co-transfection. Protocols for maintenance of the *An. gambiae* cell line 4a-3B (MRA-919,

https://www.beiresources.org/), co-transfection of 200 ng of either *GSTe2* or *CYP6Z2* promoter

constructs, LRIM promoter in pGL3-Basic vector (49), or promoter-less pGL3-Basic control,

with 1 ng/μL of internal control, sea pansy *Renilla reniformis* luciferase containing the

Drosophila Actin *5C* promoter in pRL-null (49), are provided in Additional File 1 (additional

text for Methods and Results). Protocol for cell lysis and measurement of the activities of the

firefly luciferase (Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay kit, Promega), with normalisation using the

Renilla luciferase activity, were as outlined in the Promega Quick Protocol, and provided in

detail in Additional File 1.

Assay background was also measured using lysate from non-transfected control cells. Results

were compared using a two-tailed Chi-Square test of independence using GraphPad Prism

7.02 (GraphPad Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA).

Generation of GSTe2 promoter deletion constructs and assays

The intergenic region separating *GSTe1* from *GSTe2* was progressively delineated. Partial

fragments of the 5′ regions (encompassing the 3′-UTR of *GSTe1*, the *GSTe1/GSTe2* flanking

region and the 5′-UTR of the *GSTe2*) were created by sequential deletion using forward

primers (provided in Additional Table 4, with numbers in primer names referring to distances

from the AUG start codon of *GSTe2*). Reverse primers were those initially used for

amplification of the full 351 bp nucleotide fragments. These fragments include (i) 308

nucleotides fragment generated from deletion of the 43 bp 3′-UTR of the *GSTe1* (-308 primers)

obliterating cellular-Myb (c-Myb) transcriptional factor binding site; (ii) 291 nucleotide

fragments generated from deletion of *GSTe1* 3′-UTR plus 38 nucleotides of the flanking region

(-270 primers), which removed in addition δ elongation factor 1 (δEF1) binding site; (iii) 262

nucleotide fragments produced from deletion of *GSTe1* 3′-UTR plus 46 nucleotides of the

flanking region (-262 primers), which obliterated in addition Forkhead box L1 (FOX-L1)

putative binding site; as well as (iv) 232 nucleotide fragments produced from deletion of

GSTe1 3′-UTR plus 75 nucleotides of the flanking region (-232 primers), located 11 nucleotides

from the c-EST/grainy head transcription factor binding site. Also, to assess the importance of

the *GSTe2* 5′UTR, 43 nucleotides upstream the AUG codon were deleted (from the 60

nucleotide 5′-UTR of both the Sahel-alive and Ngoussou), leaving the putative transcription

start site motif untouched. This was done using the original forward primer for the 351

nucleotides intergenic region, with a newly designed primer, GSTe2_minus_5'-UTR-R

(Additional Table 4).

Characterisation of major resistance genes using transgenic analysis

Cloning and microinjection of GSTe2 and CYP6Z2 in Drosophila melanogaster

Transgenic flies expressing recombinant GSTe2 and CYP6Z2 were generated using

GAL4/UAS system and used in contact bioassays, to confirm if over-expression of these genes

alone can confer resistance to insecticides. Transgenic flies were created as outlined in a

previous publication (50). Details of amplification of full-length *GSTe2* and *CYP6Z2* from the

predominant alleles of sequences of cDNA, cloning into pUASattB vector, microinjection into

germ-line *D. melanogaster* lines, crossing of the UAS-lines with the GAL4-Actin driver strain

are outlined in Additional File 1.

To confirm overexpression of *GSTe2* and *CYP6Z2* in the transgenic flies three replicates each

of 6 females (both experimental and control group) were used for qRT-PCR using a previously

established protocol (38). Total RNA and cDNA were extracted as described above, and the

relative expression levels of transgenes were assessed, with normalization using the *RPL11*

housekeeping gene. The qtrg primers used for the two genes and the *RPL11* primers are

provided in Additional Table 4.

Insecticide Susceptibility Contact Bioassay

For insecticide bioassays, 3- to 4-day old experimental and control F_1 females were exposed to

0.15 % deltamethrin, 2 % permethrin, 0.05 % α-cypermethrin, 4 % DDT and 2 % clothianidin-

impregnated papers prepared in acetone and Dow Corning 556 Silicone Fluid (BHD/Merck,

Hesse, Germany). Flies overexpressing *CYP6Z2* were also exposed to the primary product of

hydrolysis of pyrethroids: 4 % and 20 % (5x) 3-phenoxybenzaldehyde (PBAld) and 3-

phenoxybenzylalcohol (PBAlc). Transgenic flies expressing *GSTe2* were exposed to 2 %

permethrin, 0.15 % deltamethrin, 0.05 % α-cypermethrin and 4 % DDT only. Impregnated

papers were rolled and introduced into 45 cc plastic vials to cover the entire wall and the vials

plugged with cotton soaked in 10 % sucrose (38). 20–25 flies were placed in each vial, and the

mortality plus knockdown scored at 1 h, 3 h, 6 h, 12 h and 24 h of exposure to the insecticides.

For each insecticide, assays were performed in 6 replicates and Student's t-test used to

compare the mortality plus knockdown between the experimental groups and the control.

Results

Genome-wide transcriptional profile of the Sahelian *An. coluzzii* populations

A three-way pairwise comparison was conducted for the data from each country: resistant *vs*

susceptible (R-S), resistant *vs* unexposed control (R-C) and unexposed control *vs* susceptible

(C-S). This captures background variations due to geographical differences in the resistant vs

susceptible (R-S) comparison, accounts for genes overexpressed due to induction (R-C

comparison), as well as genes that are constitutively overexpressed (C-S comparison). A total

of 1384 genes were significantly differentially expressed (FDR-adjusted p <0.05 and $\log_2$ fold

change threshold of 1/FC ≥ 2) in R-S comparison in Nigeria (1077 upregulated and 307 down-

regulated); 1185 genes were differentially expressed in C-S (1002 upregulated and 183

downregulated); and 295 genes in R-C (129 upregulated and 166 downregulated). Of these,

52 genes were commonly differentially expressed in all 3 comparisons (Figure S3, panel a),

including the upregulated genes, *COEAE80* (AGAP006700), *CYP4H18* (AGAP028019),

CYP4H17 (AGAP008358) and cuticular proteins, *CPLCX3* (AGAP006149), *CPR59*

(AGAP006829), *CPR76* (AGAP009874) and *CPR75* (AGAP009871). The Additional Figure S3,

panels a-d depicts the differentially expressed genes for the four countries. For Niger, 881

genes were differentially expressed in R-S comparison (619 upregulated and 262 down-

regulated) (Additional Figure S3b); 1256 genes were differentially expressed in C-S (986

upregulated and 270 downregulated); and 196 genes in R-C (81 upregulated and 115

downregulated). Of these, 22 genes were commonly differentially expressed in all 3

comparisons [including the upregulated *aminopeptidase N1* (AGAP012757), *CYP6Z2*

(AGAP008218), *chymotrypsin-3* (AGAP006711) and *chymotrypsin-2* (AGAP006710), and an acid

trehalase (AGAP008547)]. For Chad, 1392 genes were differentially expressed in R-S

comparison (975 upregulated and 417 down-regulated) (Additonal Figure S3c); 1284 in C-S

(105 upregulated and 269 downregulated); and 526 genes in R-C (270 upregulated and 256

downregulated). Of these, 97 genes were commonly differentially expressed in all 3

comparisons [including *CYP4C27* (AGAP009246), *SULTD1* (AGAP012672), *aminopeptidase N1*,

and diverse cuticular proteins, e.g. chitinase (*Cht24*, AGAP006191, *CPFL1* (AGAP010902),

CPCFC1 (AGAP007980), *CPLCX3*, *CPR24* (AGAP005999), *CPR106* (AGAP006095) and *CPR130*

(AGAP000047). Finally, for Cameroon, 376 genes were differentially expressed in R-S

comparison (204 upregulated and 172 down-regulated) (Additional Figure S3d); 932 in C-S

(778 upregulated and 154 downregulated); and 116 genes in R-C [only 9 upregulated and 107

downregulated (probably due to a single, low quality replicate in the raw data from

Cameroon (Additional Figure S2). Not surprising, only 7 genes were commonly differentially

expressed in all 3 comparisons. These include the highly upregulated gene, *GSTe2*

(AGAP009194) and *chymotrypsin-1* (AGAP006709).

All data analysed together (Additional Figure S3e) revealed no single gene differentially

expressed in common; possibly due to the low quality with the Chad unexposed (C) data.

Analysis of data from Nigeria, Niger and Chad, revealed a single gene (AGAP000046,

transporter major facilitator superfamily) differentially expressed across all countries

(Additional Figure S3f). Niger and Chad shared *hexamerin* (AGAP010658), *aminopeptidase N1*,

and unknown protein, AGAP0290967; Nigeria and Niger share only a single gene,

AGAP003248; while seven genes were common to Nigeria and Chad, including *CPLCX3*.

Principal component analysis for the top 500 most variable genes in all experimental arms

revealed data from field samples (R and C) from all four countries clustering closer in PC1

and PC2 axes, away from the data from the susceptible females, Ngoussou (Additional Figure

S4).

Analysis of the common differentially expressed genes across the Sahel

The most differentially expressed genes were presented in Figure 1, a volcano plot of fold

change *vs* significance levels for Nigeria and Niger, and Figure 2, for Chad and Cameroon.

Exhaustive lits of these genes of interest is provided in Additional File 2. Comparisons of

genes commonly, upregulated and/or downregulated in R-S/R-C/C-S, from the four countries

revealed similar transcriptomic profiles between R and C compared with the S. The most

commonly and consistently overexpressed genes across the Sahel (taking account mean

expressions) are the chymotrypsins, 3, -2 and -1 (*CHYM3*/AGAP006711 and

CHYM2/AGAP006710 and *CHYM1*/AGAP006709) (Figures 1 and 2, Additional File 2), the

glutathione S-transferase, *GSTe2* (AGAP009194), an aquaporin, *AQP3* (AGAP010326),

CYP6Z2 (AGAP008218), *CYP6Z3* (AGAP008217), *CYP4C27* (AGAP009246), a chitinase, *Cht24*

(AGAP006191), a thioester-containing protein-1, *TEP-1* (AGAP010815),), a trehalose 6-

phosphate synthase/phosphatase, *TPS*1/2 (AGAP008227), a lipase (AGAP002353), and

AGAP012818 (V-type protein ATPase subunit A). More on these genes is provided in the

sections, below.

Other genes commonly overexpressed in data from two or three countries include

AGAP005501 (dehydrogenase/reductase SDR family 11) upregulated in Nigeria and Niger (R-

S and C-S comparisons), and in R-S for Chad and Cameroon; AGAP008091 (CLIP-domain

serine protease, *CLIPE1*), upregulated in all countries in R-S and C-S comparisons; a chitinase,

Cht5-5, AGAP013260) upregulated in Nigeria, Nigeria and Chad R-S and C-S, with both

induced upregulated in R-C in Chad, as heme peroxidase (*HPX15*), upregulated in R-S and C-

S comparisons in Nigeria, Chad and Cameroon, as well as malate dehydrogenase

(AGAP000184), upregulated in Nigeria, Chad and Cameroon, R-S and C-S.

However, the most overexpressed genes in Nigeria are a cubilin, a histone (H2B), carbonic

anhydrase I, and a cuticular protein, *CPR131* (Additional File 2), while for Cameroon its H2B,

Serpin 9 inhibitory serine protease inhibitor, galectin 4 and a Protease m1 zinc

metalloprotease.

Several genes were significantly downregulated across the four countries, particularly the

cytochrome P450s and the ATP-binding cassette transporters. The most consistently down-

regulated P450s were *CYP6AK1* (AGAP010961), downregulated in R-S and C-S comparisons

in Nigeria, Niger and Cameroon, while down-regulated in all comparisons in Chad; *CYP4H24*

(AGAP013490), downregulated in R-S and C-S comparisons for Nigeria and Cameroon, and

downregulated in all comparisons in Niger and Chad; *CYP6M4* (AGAP008214),

downregulated in R-S and C-S comparisons in Nigeria, Niger and Cameroon, while

downregulated in all comparisons in Chad; and finally *CYP6P5* (AGAP002866),

downregulated in R-S and C-S comparisons in Niger and Chad, but only in C-S in Nigeria.

Analysis of commonly overexpressed metabolic resistance genes across the Sahel

Special attention was given to the known metabolic resistance genes, implicated in insecticide

resistance in *Anopheles* and/or other insects, including, CYP450s, GSTs, carboxylesterases,

cuticular proteins, chemosensory proteins/SAPs, uridine diphosphoglucuronosyltransferases,

etc, in addition to other important genes, e.g., the immune proteins. Analysis of the data from

the list of genes significantly, differentially expressed (FDR-adjusted $p < 0.05$ and $\log_2 FC = 1/$

$FC \geq 2$) revealed the major, commonly upregulated metabolic resistance genes in the four

Sahel countries. Top 50 genes from these lists (Additional File 3) from each country are

displayed as heatmaps of fold changes in Additional Figure S5a, -b, -c and -d). The most

common genes linked with resistance and/or other physiologically important phenotypes are

tabulated in Table 1, showing fold changes of 55 genes (R-S and C-S comparisons), common

to all countries, or three or two countries at least. The most commonly and consistently

overexpressed genes across the Sahel (taking account mean expressions) are the

chymotrypsins, -1, -2 and -3 (*CHYM1*/AGAP006709, *CHYM3*/AGAP006711 and

CHYM2/AGAP006710) (Table 1, Additional Figure S5, Additional File 2, Results section), with

fold change for *CHYM1* in R-S and C-S comparisons of 31.62 and 54.41 for Nigeria, 12.31 and

41.59 for Niger, and 18.00 and 18.08 for Chad, and 5.69 and 11.77 for Cameroon; for *CHYM3*,

32.45 and 58.43 for Nigeria R-S and C-S, respectively, 7.30 and 43.27 for Niger, 13.40 and 7.24

for Chad, and 2.59 and 8.15 for Cameroon. Of *Anopheles* metabolic resistance genes, *GSTe2*

(AGAP009194) was the most consistently upregulated gene across the Sahel, FC = 9.61 and

7.16, respectively for Nigeria R-S and C-S comparisons; 6.55 and 11.32 for Niger; 9.09 and 10.02

for Chad, 9.68 and 20.67 for Cameroon. Other common GSTs were *GSTZ1*, upregulated in

three countries (Nigeria, Niger and Chad), *GSTe4*, *GSTU1*, *GSTD1-4* and *GSTD3*.

Other most consistently and highly upregulated genes include a lipase, AGAP002353: FC of

26.73 and 20.80 for Nigeria R-S and C-S comparisons, 16.53 and 29.76 for Niger, 14.95 and 9.95

for Chad, 14.58 and 14.53 for Cameroon; a chitinase, *Cht24* (AGAP006191), FC = 21.12 and

38.55 for Nigeria R-S and C-S, 40.08 and 67.18 for Niger, 91.42 and 5.71 for Chad, 44.26 and

40.53 for Cameroon); a V-type protein ATPase subunit a (AGAP012818, FC = 22.12 and 14.61

for Nigeria, 31.05 and 25.43 for Nigeri, 6.00 and 4.31 for Chad, 44.92 and 43.4 for Cameroon),

and an aquaporin, *AQP3* (AGAP010326, FC = 14.81 and 11.03 for Nigeria, 12.09 and 21.94 for

Niger, 14.86 and 1.21 for Chad, 14.17 and 17.3 for Cameroon).

The most overrepresented gene family, and most consistently upregulated across the Sahel

were the cytochrome P450s, with *CYP6Z2*, *CYP6Z3*, and *CYP4C27* taking the front seat, in

addition to the two P450s linked to cuticular resistance, *CYP4G16* (upregulated in Nigeria and

Chad) and *CYP4G17* (upregulated in Nigeria, Niger and Chad). The three P450s, *CYP6Z2,*

CYP6Z3 and CYP4C27 are consistently overexpressed: FC for *CYP6Z2* is 6.55 and 2.10 for

Nigeria R-S and C-S comparisons, 6.73 and 2.32 for Niger, 13.96 and 1.48 for Chad, 11.84 and

8.39 for Cameroon; FC for *CYP6Z3* is 4.73 and 1.82 for Nigeria, 6.09 and 1.42 for Niger, 3.51

and 1.11 for Chad, 7.11 and 3.79 for Cameroon; and FC for *CYP4C27* is 7.36 and 4.6 for Nigeria,

4.03 and 5.64 for Niger, 6.04 and 2.62 for Chad, 2.01 and 2.63 for Cameroon. The two well-

known insecticide resistance genes *CYP6P3* and *CYP6M2* did not future prominently across

the Sahel of these countries.

The second most commonly overrepresented gene families belong to cuticular proteins,

including cuticular proteins Rebers and Riddiford (RR), several cuticular proteins of low

complexity (CPLC) and chitin-binding cuticular proteins (CPAP), with the commonly

upregulated ones across all four countries being *CPR75* (AGAP009871) and *CPR76*

(AGAP009874).

Two carboxylesterases picture prominently across the Sahel – the beta esterase, *COEBE3C*

(AGAP005372) upregulated in all four countries, while *COEJHE5E* was common to Nigeria,

Niger and Chad. For Phase II metabolism enzymes, several uridine-diphospho-

glucuronosyltransferases, UGTs were upregulated, including the *UGT-B19*, which is

upregulated in Nigeria and Niger (Table 1), and unknown UGT (AGAP006222) upregulated

across all the countries (Additional File 2).

Other genes in the top 55 metabolic genes include the malate dehydrogenase, *TPS* (*TPS1/2*),

AQP2, thioester-containing proteins, *TEP1, -12* and *-14*, a cyanogenic-beta-glucosidase

(AGAP006422) and three chemosensory proteins, *CSP5*, sensory appendage proteins, -1 and -

2.

549 **Table 1: Common detoxification and metabolic genes differentially upregulated in Sahel**
550 *An. coluzzii* **(FDR-adjusted p < 0.05).**

Gene	NIGERIA		NIGER		CHAD		CAMEROON		Gene Description
	R-S	C-S	R-S	C-S	R-S	C-S	R-S	C-S	
AGAP006400	2.2	4.2	1.7	4.5	-	-	2.1	2.8	alkaline phosphatase 2
AGAP028491	4.3	2.8	1.4	2.7	2.9	2.6	-	-	aquaporin, AQP2
AGAP010326	14.8	11.0	12.1	21.9	14.9	1.2	14.2	17.3	Aquaporin, AQP3
AGAP005372	9.5	12.2	3.3	4.3	6.6	3.6	1.4	2.6	carboxylesterase, COEBE3C
AGAP005837	4.7	5.0	1.4	3.3	1.9	2.6			carboxylesterase, COEJHE5E
AGAP004904	3.9	2.2	-	-	2.3	1.7	-	-	catalase, CAT1
AGAP029127	4.1	3.2	-	-	1.7	2.2	-	-	chemosensory protein 5, CSP5
AGAP006191	21.1	38.6	40.1	67.2	91.4	5.7	44.3	40.5	chitinase, Cht24
AGAP013260	4.4	11.5	1.3	3.9	3.1	0.8	-	-	chitinase, Cht5-5
AGAP006898	8.9	5.5	-	-	2.2	3.9	-	-	chitinase, Cht6
AGAP006709	31.6	54.4	12.3	41.6	18.0	18.1	5.7	11.8	chymotrypsin-1, CHYM1
AGAP006710	9.9	19.4	2.1	8.8	4.2	3.9	-	-	chymotrypsin-2, CHYM2
AGAP006711	32.5	58.4	7.3	43.3	13.4	7.2	2.6	8.2	chymotrypsin-3, CHYM3
AGAP000987	4.3	2.7	-	-	1.3	2.6	-	-	cuticular protein, CPAP3-A1b
AGAP000988	5.3	1.6	-	-	0.7	5.4	-	-	cuticular protein, CPAP3-A1c
AGAP000986	7.3	4.6	-	-	1.7	3.5	-	-	cuticular protein, CPAP3-D
AGAP006149	3.8	0.8	-	-	0.7	5.8	-	-	cuticular protein, CPLCX3
AGAP010123	33.3	54.9	2.4	13.2	-	-	-	-	cuticular protein, CPR131
AGAP005456	5.2	1.8	-	-	1.2	2.2	1.1	2.1	cuticular protein, CPR15
AGAP006009	-	-	2.9	1.3	-	-	3.9	1.6	cuticular protein, CPR30
AGAP009871	8.7	2.7	1.1	2.6	2.2	4.2	1.7	2.6	cuticular protein, CPR75
AGAP009874	10.6	2.2	1.1	2.6	3.7	5.6	1.1	2.0	cuticular protein, CPR76
AGAP009879	7.4	2.6	-	-	1.9	4.6	-	-	cuticular protein, CPR81
AGAP006422	7.5	9.4	-	-	8.4	7.3	2.1	2.0	cyanogenic beta-glucosidase
AGAP002417	5.5	4.2	0.9	1.2	1.9	1.9	-	-	cytochrome P450, CYP4AR1
AGAP009246	7.4	4.6	4.0	5.6	6.0	2.6	2.0	2.6	cytochrome P450, CYP4C27
AGAP012957	5.0	2.8	-	-	2.9	2.5	2.0	2.6	cytochrome P450, CYP4D17
AGAP001076	5.8	4.7	1.5	1.8	3.8	2.4	0.9	1.5	cytochrome P450, CYP4G16
AGAP000877	3.8	2.0	2.3	1.9	3.8	2.1	1.2	2.1	cytochrome P450, CYP4G17
AGAP008358	-	-	2.9	4.1	3.4	3.3	3.6	2.0	cytochrome P450, CYP4H17
AGAP007480	5.4	3.9	1.3	2.7	2.5	2.0	-	-	cytochrome P450, CYP6AH1
AGAP002865	1.11	0.5	2.3	1.9	0.7	12.8	2.1	2.3	cytochrome P450, CYP6P3
AGAP008207	3.6	1.9	-	-	2.1	1.6	1.7	2.4	cytochrome P450, CYP6Y2
AGAP008218	6.6	2.1	6.7	2.3	14.0	1.5	11.8	8.4	cytochrome P450, CYP6Z2
AGAP008217	4.7	1.8	6.1	1.4	3.5	1.1	7.1	3.8	cytochrome P450, CYP6Z3
AGAP000818	3.0	1.2	0.8	0.5	0.9	1.6	3.4	2.2	cytochrome P450, CYP9K1
AGAP010400	3.6	2.6	1.6	2.8	3.3	1.4	-	-	flavin-containing monooxygenase
AGAP007920	5.7	2.4	2.8	1.8	-	-	-	-	glucuronosyltransferases, UGT-B19
AGAP004164	2.2	1.9	1.7	2.3	1.4	1.3	-	-	glutathione S-transferase, GSTD1-4
AGAP009194	9.6	7.2	6.6	11.3	9.1	10.0	9.7	20.7	glutathione S-transferase, GSTe2
AGAP009193	3.3	2.3	1.1	2.1	1.5	1.6	-	-	glutathione S-transferase, GSTe4
AGAP000947	4.4	2.3	1.2	2.2	1.9	3.2	-	-	glutathione S-transferase, GSTU1
AGAP002898	5.5	3.5	1.7	2.6	2.8	2.4	-	-	glutathione S-transferase, GSTZ1
AGAP002198	-	-	2.0	5.8	4.8	6.6	-	-	glycine-N-methyltransferase
AGAP013327	-	-	1.2	7.3	7.9	20.1	5.1	14.8	heme peroxidase, HXP15
AGAP002353	26.7	20.8	16.5	29.8	15.0	10	14.6	14.5	lipase
AGAP000184	5.2	6.3	-	-	4.9	4.3	1.2	1.9	malate dehydrogenase
AGAP008051	3.7	4.0	1.1	1.3	1.7	1.7	-	-	sensory appendage protein 1, SAP1
AGAP008052	5.5	10.8	1.0	1.5	3.6	1.1	-	-	sensory appendage protein 2, SAP2
AGAP010815	5.7	14.4	4.1	8.6	7.8	3.8	1.7	3.1	thioester-containing protein, TEP1
AGAP008368	3.3	6.1	1.4	3.9	3.4	2.0	-	-	thioester-containing protein, TEP14
AGAP008654	4.6	17.4	2.1	10.0	-	-	-	-	thioester-containing protein, TEP12
AGAP008227	4.1	4.0	4.0	2.0	4.6	1.5	2.6	4.1	trehalose 6-phosphate synthase/phosphatase
AGAP012818	22.1	14.6	31.1	25.4	6.0	4.3	44.9	43.4	V-type proton ATPase, subunit a

Gene Ontology Enrichment Analysis

Gene ontology enrichment analysis, for genes significant in comparisons ($\log_2$FC = 1, $p < 0.05$)

revealed crucial differences in overrepresented GO terms between the up- and -

downregulated genes, in data from the four countries. For example, the most over-

represented, semantically similar GO terms associated with xenobiotics metabolism is

oxidoreductase activity ((highest frequency of 12.9 %, Additional Figure S6a, REVIGO Table

View), which cluster together in Nigerian R vs S comparison (for genes upregulated in R).

Other over-represented GO terms in this comparison include glutathione S-transferase

activity (the most enriched/specific term), peroxidase activity, odorant binding and chitin

binding. In contrast, GO terms over-represented in R vs S (down-regulated in R) were mostly

involved in neurotransmission, metal ions binding and receptor channelling activities

(Additional Figure S6b).

For R vs C comparison (upregulated in C) the over-represented GO terms include

oxidoreductase (frequency = 12.88 %), glutathione S-transferase activity (the most

enriched/specific term), peroxidase activity, glucuronosyltransferase activity, aldehyde

oxidase activity, chitin binding, carbohydrate binding activities, etc, (Additional Figure S6c).

In contrast the most enriched GO terms, downregulated in C were endopeptidase activities,

Toll binding, oxidoreductase (frequency = 1.21 %) and monooxygenase activities (Additional

Figure S6d). For the rest of the three countries similar contrasts were also observed, between

phenotypes, and detailed in Additional File 1, Results section.

Quantitative PCR validation of expression profiles of metabolic resistance genes

The relative expression levels of 12 metabolic resistance genes were validated. The qRT-PCR

results support the transcriptomic patterns obtained from the RNAseq analysis, with *GSTe2*

as the most overexpressed gene, followed by *CYP6Z2* (Figure 3). For example, for R-S and C-

S comparisons *GSTe2* had fold changes of 49.25 ± 5.05 and 28.45 ± 4.45, for Nigeria ($p \leq 0.0001$);

37.01 ± 2.22 and 33.34 ± 6.61 for Niger ($p \leq 0.0001$); 29.97 ± 5.39 and 30.16 ± 6.16 for Chad

($p \leq 0.0001$); and 28.30 ± 3.30 ($p \leq 0.0001$) and 17.03 ± 7.03 for Cameroon ($p \leq 0.001$). *CYP6Z2* has

R-S and C-S fold changes of 15.93 ± 2.54 ($p \leq 0.001$) and 7.35 ± 1.52 ($p \leq 0.05$), for Nigeria; 24.21

± 2.17 ($p \leq 0.001$) and 20.83 ± 3.02 for Niger ($p \leq 0.001$); 15.02 ($p \leq 0.001$) ± 2.01 and 6.09 ± 2.08 for

Chad ($p \leq 0.05$); and 10.58 ± 3.00 ($p \leq 0.01$) and 3.43 ± 1.43 for Cameroon. Correlation analyses

for R-S comparisons for all genes revealed positive and significant association (Additional

Figure S7) between the RNA-seq and qRT-PCR data in data from Niger ($R^2 = 0.58$, p = 0.03)

and Chad ($R^2 = 0.408$, p = 0.025), with positive, but non-significance seen in Cameron ($R^2 = 0.58$

p = 0.08) and Nigerian ($R^2 = 0.503$, p = 0.06).

Detection of Signatures of Selective Sweeps

Signatures of selection were investigated in the major metabolic resistance genes, by

estimating Tajima's D per gene within populations, and *F*st per gene between population

pairs. These tests of neutrality revealed several genes exhibiting high genetic differentiation,

or possibly undergoing expansion. Among the top 100 most overexpressed metabolic genes

across the four countries (Additional File 2), 13 genes were possibly undergoing genetic

differentiation. These include *TEP1,* and *TEP3*, with average Tajima's D of -1.4 and -1.6

respectively, in populations from Chad, and average Fst values of 0.58 and 0.49 for all

countries (Additional File 3, provide the number of SNPs and chromosomal location for each

gene), *CYP9K1* (average Tajima's D = -1.00 for Cameroon, and combined Fst = 0.55), *CPR15*

(average Tajima's D = -0.94, and Fst = 0.17); *CPAP3-A1b* (Tajima's D = -0.70 in Chad, -0.95 in

Nigeria, and -1.32 in Cameroon, with combined Fst of 0.55) and *CPLCX3*. Several genes from

the GST family exhibited strong genetic differentiation, with reduced variations prominently

in *GSTe2* (< 3 SNPs in Chad and Cameroon samples), with Tajima's D of -1.45 and -1.15 for

Nigeria and Niger, and combined Fst of 0.02. Detailed analysis is provided in Additional File

1, and Additional File 3 contain the respective frequencies of these variables.

Identificaton of genetic variants associated with insecticide resistance

The RNA-Seq-Pop workflow calculated allele frequencies of variants of interest found in the

raw RNA-sequencing read data. Figure 4 displays allele frequencies of each variant in

respective treatment replicates used for the RNAseq, as well as Ngoussou. Several mutaions

were found within the voltage-gated sodium channel. In addition to the L995F *kdr* mutation,

the recently identified V402L and I1527T mutations exist in all the field populations across the

Sahel, at frequencies ranging from 29 % to 67 %. We also detected the N1570Y mutation, which

shares the same haplotype as L995F. The G280S *acetylcholinesterase*-1 mutation was also

observed in low to moderate frequencies in all populations except for Ngoussou and samples

from Niger. The L43F pyrethroid resistance marker of *CYP4J5* was also seen, fixed in most

populations.

Detection of chromosomal inversion polymorphisms and metabolic genes within

its breakpoints

The frequency of the major inversion polymorphisms in chromosome 2 were calculated, considering ploidy (8 individual female mosquitoes were pooled for RNA extraction, for each replicate). Additional Table 5 provided the frequencies of the respective inversions for the populations from each country, as well as for Ngoussou. High frequency of the 2La, 2Rb and 2Rc were observed, in contrast to the 2Rd, 2Rj and 2Ru which were in lower frequencies [except for the 2Rj in Nigeria (30.38 %) and 2Ru in Cameroon (24.29 %)]. The 2La inversion was found fixed in the field populations (100 % in Nigeria and Cameroon, 99.92 % in Niger and 99.21 % in Chad), in contrast with Ngoussou, with frequency of only 6.26 %. Similar pattern was observed with the 2Rb inversion, with high frequencies in three field populations (79.01 %, 84.85 %, 80.22 % in Nigeria, Niger and Chad), but lower in Cameroon (29.08 %) and Ngoussou (5.35 %). Frequencies of the 2Rc inversion were 88.54 %, 85.52 %, 88.82 %, 46.99 % and 9.89 % for Nigeria, Niger, Chad, Cameroon and Ngoussou respectively. Some genes among the top 100 most overexpressed metabolic resistance genes (above) and which were likely undergoing recent population expansion were located within the 2La, 2Rb and 2Rc inversions (Additional File 4). These include the *hsp83* (AGAP006958) and molecular chaperone hptG (AGAP006961), *CPLCX3* (AGAP006149), *CPLCA1* (AGAP006145,) within the inverted 2La chromosomal arm. Other genes within 2La inversion include a group of chitinase enzymes (*Cht6*, *-8*, *-11* and *-24*), most notably the *Cht24* and *Cht6*, which are among the top 50 most overexpressed genes in all countries. Other genes include: *COEJHE5E*, one of the 14 carboxylesterases in the 2La region, and which was among the top 100 most overexpressed genes across the Sahel; the most overexpressed chymotrypsin genes, *CHYM1*

and *CHYM2*; three ionotropic receptors, *IR136* (AGAP006440), *IR139* (AGAP006691) and

IR142 (AGAP006407); as well as five P450s, *CYP301A1, CYP302A1, CYP4J5, CYP4J9* and

CYP4J10. The most overrepresented genes within 2La inversions are the CPR cuticular

proteins (73 in total), with *CPR21, -26, -30, -59* and *-140* from the list of the top 100 resistance

genes from the Sahel.

Carbonic anhydrase I (the most overexpressed metabolic resistance in Nigeria, AGAP013402)

sits within 2Rb inversion. Four chitinases (*Cht4*, *Cht5-1*, *Cht5-3*, and *Cht5-5*) are located within

2Rb inversion; *Cht5-1* and *Cht5-5* were among the observed top 50 most overexpressed

metabolic genes in the Sahel. Lipase (*AGAP002353*) which is the among the top 6

overexpressed metabolic gene in the four countries sit within the 2Rb inversion. Eight

CYP450s reside in the 2Rb inversion, including *CYP4D15, CYP4D17* and *CYP4AR1*, which

were among the top 100 metabolic resistance genes. Three cuticular proteins, *CPR7, -8* and *-9*

were also within the 2Rb inversion.

Interesting genes sitting within 2Rc inversion include *GSTZ1*; 5 ionotropic receptor genes, *IR7i*

(AGAP013363), *IR7u* (AGAP013285), *IR7t* (AGAP002763), *IR7w* (AGAP013416) and *IR41a*

(AGAP002904); a carboxylesterase, *COEAE6O* (AGAP002863); and 11 CYP450s, including

CYP6AA1 (AGAP002862), *CYP6AA2* (AGAP013128), *CYP6P15P* (AGAP002864), *CYP6P3*

(AGAP002865), *CYP6P5* (AGAP002866), *CYP6P4* (AGAP002867), *CYP6P1* (AGAP002868),

CYP6P2 (AGAP002869), *CYP6AD1* (AGAP002870) and *CYP6Z4* (AGAP002894)

Investigation of the polymorphism in the coding sequences of *GSTe2* and *CYP6Z2*

Analysis of the polymorphism patterns of full-length cDNA sequences of *GSTe2* (666 bp) and

CYP6Z2 (1479 bp) from the Sahel region of Africa revealed complete homogeneity for *GSTe2*,

with no polymorphism detected in the field populations (all sequences were identical to those

from Ngoussou and the AGAP009194 reference). This suggests a fixed allele, consistent with

the observation from the analyses from the fixation index (Additional File 3). For *CYP6Z2*

(1479 bp), homogeneity was observed within each country and Ngoussou, except for Niger,

characterised by an unusually high polymorphism (Additional Figure S8a, -b). *CYP6Z2* is

polymorphic with 10 haplotypes across the Sahel, with 75 polymorphic sites of which 65 were

synonymous, and 12 led to amino acids substitutions. The bulk of the polymorphisms were

contributed from larger variations in the Niger and Cameroon (S = 42 and 23 respectively),

while highest homogeneity was observed in Chad, with a single haplotype. Haplotype

diversity is high (H_d = 0.921), from 10 haplotypes out of only 20 sequences, with the lowest

H_d in the Chad sequences, suggesting a directional selection/fixed allele. The haplotypes

cluster according to origin on the maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree, except for Niger

(Additional Figure S8c).

Investigation of the role of intergenic region elements in overexpression of *GSTe2*

and *CYP6Z2*

Investigation of polymorphism in the intergenic region/regulatory elements

To investigate polymorphisms in the regulatory elements of the above genes, the 351

intergenic regions of *GSTe2* (spanning the 43 bp 3'-UTR of *GSTe1*, 248 bp flanking sequence

and 60 bp 5′-UTR of *GSTe2*) preceding the start codon were amplified from 10 each of DDT-

alive and -dead females from the 4 Sahel countries, as well as from Ngoussou females,

successfully. For *CYP6Z2*, 1078 bp (spanning 38 bp 3′ UTR of *CYP6Z1*, 937 bp flanking

sequence and 103 bp 5′UTR of *CYP6Z2*, preceding the start codon of *CYP6Z2*) were used to

amplify fragments from 10 each of deltamethrin-alive and -dead females from Nigeria, and

from Ngoussou females.

Out of the 90 *GSTe2* 5′-UTR sequences analysed differences were observed between the alive

and dead mosquitoes, with a total of 65 sequences from alive and dead females (regardless of

country of origin) identical to the 10 sequences of Ngoussou. From the 40 sequences of the

dead females, 39 were identical to Ngoussou (regardless of the country). Twelve sequences,

all from the alive females (from across the four countries) were similar, with several mutations

in putative transcriptional factors binding sites, which may impact overexpression of the

GSTe2. In short, 8 mutations were shared in common between these 12 sequences of DDT-

alive females from across the countries (3 each from Nigeria, Chad and Cameroon) and

additional mutations in the Niger samples (4 sequences). These mutations include (i) T->A

transition withing the cellular myb-DNA (c-myb) binding domain (Additional Figure S9), (ii)

a T->C transversion in the zinc-finger homeodomain, δEF1 (δ elongation factor 1) binding site,

(iii) T->A transition in the nuclear matric protein 4 (NMP4), (iv) simultaneous insertion of

adenine and a transition T -> C, in positions 113 and 114 respectively, between the Fork-head

box L1 and c-EST binding sites, (v) an A -> C transversion in a second NMP4, (vi) a T -> C

transition, six nucleotides downstream the nuclear factor κB (NF-κB), (vii) followed by an A -

> G transversion 3 nucleotides downstream the NF-κB, (viii) a G -> A transversion, 7

nucleotides upstream the GC box, (ix) a C -> G transition, 2 nucleotides downstream the

arthropod initiator (Inr consensus) sequence, and finally (x) a C -> G transition, within the 5'-

UTR of the *GSTe2*, 28 nucleotides downstream the transcriptional start site/49 nucleotides

upstream the *GSTe2*, start codon.

Analysis of the 90 sequences revealed a very low polymorphism in the dead mosquitoes (S =

0, for Niger-dead, Chad-dead and Ngoussou), but high polymorphism in the alive (S = 16 for

Nigeria-alive, and 13 each for Chad-alive and Cameroon-alive) (Additional Table 6). All

sequences produced 17 polymorphic sites, with 6 haplotypes (Additional Figure S10a and -b).

High haplotype diversities were obtained from the alive mosquitoes (for example, Nigeria

alive, Hd = 0.71, Niger-, Hd = 0.53). Regardless of country of origin, the haplotypes cluster

according to phenotype on the maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree, with the alive

haplotypes forming a distinct/separate clade (Additional Figure S10c).

With regard to *CYP6Z2* no major differences were observed when comparing the

deltamethrin-alive and -dead sequences with the Ngoussou.

Measurement of activities of the 5' regulatory elements of the GSTe2 and CYP6Z2

Initial promoter analyses were conducted with the 5'- regulatory element sequences of *GSTe2*,

for the DDT-alive females (representative sequence with the 8 common polymorphic

positions, designated, Sahel-alive), comparing it with the sequence from the DDT-

dead/Ngoussou (designated Ngoussou/Sahel-dead). For *CYP6Z2*, a predominant sequence

from the Nigeria field sample (with 8 nucleotide insertion) was compared with the Ngoussou

sequence.

The ability to drive heterologous expression of the firefly luciferase was determined, with the

Sahel-alive construct and Ngoussou/Sahel-dead producing increased luciferase activity

[~3090× (normalized luciferase activity = 2.58) and 479× (normalized activity = 0.400),

respectively] compared with the promoterless pGL3-Basic vector. But the Sahel-alive

construct was significantly more active than the Ngoussou/Sahel dead counterpart [promoter

activity ~6-fold higher (Tukey HSD Q = 8.11, p = 0.004)]. In contrast, for *CYP6Z2* no significant

differences were observed when comparing the field construct (normalized luciferase activity

= 5.95 for alive/dead field construct), compared with 5.84 for the Ngoussou construct.

GSTe2 promoter delineation and measurement of activity

Sequential deletion of the intergenic region of the *GSTe2* resulted in progressive reduction in

luciferase activity. Deletion of the 43 bp 3'-UTR of the *GSTe1* (-308 from the start codon of

GSTe2) reduced activity of the Sahel-alive construct by only 18.6 % suggesting that the c-Myb

transcriptional factor binding site may not be critical for overexpression (Figure 5). Deletion

of an additional 38 nucleotides from the flanking region (-270 fragment, obliterating the δEF1

binding site) had comparable impact as above, with activities reducing by 15.3 % only. But

removing the *GSTe-1* 3'-UTR and an additional 46 nucleotides from the flanking region (-262

fragment, which obliterated in addition the FOX-L1 putative binding site) reduced activity by

64.1 % (Q = 6.18, p = 0.01) indicating the importance of this binding site. Deletion of *GSTe1* 3'-

UTR plus 75 nucleotides of the flanking region (-232 fragment, located 10 nucleotides from

the c-EST binding site) significantly reduced the activity by ~70% (Q = 6.14, p = 0.01),

suggesting the importance of the simultaneous insertion of adenine and transition T -> C, in

positions 113 and 114 respectively, between the FOX-L1 and c-EST binding sites. Removing

the fragment of the 5'UTR of *GSTe2* (43 nucleotides preceding the AUG codon obliterated the

promoter activity, reducing the luciferase expression by 98 % (Q = 9.41, p = 0.002). This is

despite presence of all the above binding sites and transcriptional start site in this fragment.

Deletion of the 5'-UTR from Ngoussou significantly reduced activities as well (reduction by

88 % compared with the full Ngoussou intergenic region construct, Q = 13.75, p = 0.001).

Overall, these findings suggest that the essential binding sites for overexpression of *GSTe2*

span the FOX-L1 and c-EST binding sites, with the 5'-UTR essential for activity.

Investigating the role of *GSTe2* and *CYP6Z2* in insecticides resistance using

transgenic analysis

A qRT-PCR was conducted using the transgenic flies to first establish overexpression of the

above genes. Relative fold changes (FC) of 32.7 ± 4.6 and 25.30 ± 2.8 were obtained in flies

overexpressing the *GSTe2* and *CYP6Z2* respectively, compared with control flies (progenies

of crosses between the parental line flies with no gene insertion, crossed with GAL4/UAS

driver line) (Additional Figure S11).

Contact bioassays carried out using 0.05 % α-cypermethrin revealed a high susceptibility in

the transgenic flies expressing *GSTe2* (Act5C-GAL4-UAS-GSTe2) and controls (Figure 6a),

with mortalities increasing from 62 % and 70 % respectively in 1 h, to 94 % and 99 % in 24 h.

However, significantly reduced mortalities were observed in transgenic flies expressing

CYP6Z2 (Act5C-GAL4-UAS-CYP6Z2) compared to control flies, at 1 h (mortality = 35 % *vs* 70

% in control, p < 0.001) and 3 h (mortality = 52 % vs 89 % in the control, p < 0.001). High

susceptibilities were also seen in all the experimental flies exposed to 0.05 % deltamethrin

(both for *GSTe2* and *CYP6Z2* flies), except for 1 h with flies expressing *CYP6Z2* (mortality = 47

% compared with 58 % in the control flies, p < 0.010).

The *GSTe2* transgenic flies were highly resistant to 2 % permethrin, with no mortality at all in

1 h (Figure 6b), and average mortalities of only 8.5 % at 24 h (p < 0.0001), compared with 85 %

at 1 h for control flies, which increased to 100 % from 3 h.

Initial exposure to 4 % of 3-phenoxybenzaldehyde (PBAld) and 3-phenoxybenzyl alcohol

(PBAlc) had no toxic effect on *CYP6Z2* transgenic flies (Figure not shown). However, 5x

concentration of these primary products of pyrethroid hydrolysis induced mortalities, albeit

low in all flies (Figure 6c). For PBAld, mortalities ranged from 15.5 % and 17.5 % at 1 h, for

CYP6Z2 transgenic flies and control flies respectively, to 30 % and 27.5 % at 24 h. Although

low mortalities were observed with PBAlc, but at 1 h and 3 h exposure times the mortalities

in the transgenic flies expressing *CYP6Z2* were significantly lower compared with mortalities

from the control flies (1 h mortality = 2.5 % *vs* 12.5 %, p < 0.001; 3 h mortality = 9.5 % *vs* 17.5 %,

p < 0.001).

Marginal tolerance towards DDT was observed in the *CYP6Z2* transgenic flies when

compared with the control flies, but only at 3 h (p < 0.001) and 6 h (p < 0.01) (Figure 6d). This

is in contrast with the *GSTe2* transgenic flies, with very low mortalities, in ranges of 0 % to

9.52 % for 1 h to 24 h, when compared with control flies (mortality = 34 % in 1 h and 100 % in

6 – 24 h, p < 0.0001).

Susceptibility to clothianidin was very high (Figure 6d), but surprisingly the *CYP6Z2*

transgenic flies exhibited a contrasting phenotype, with significantly higher mortalities

compared with the control flies, at 1 h (mortality = 67 % vs 42 %, p < 0.001), 3 h (mortality = 71

% vs 53 %, p < 0.001) and 6 h (mortality = 78 % vs 62 %, p < 0.01).

Taken together, these results confirmed that over-expression of *GSTe2* alone is sufficient to

confer resistance to type I pyrethroid (permethrin) and DDT, while overexpression of *CYP6Z2*

alone, may confer marginal resistance to the α-cypermethrin and PBAlc.

Discussion

Escalating insecticide resistance across Africa (7-9, 51), if not tackled, will probably

compromise the malaria control and elimination efforts. Molecular markers of metabolic

resistance e.g., (10, 11, 21), will support evidence-based control and resistance management.

Identification and validation of resistance markers in malaria vectors across regions of sub-

Saharan Africa can promote communication, cooperation and coordination among malaria

control/elimination programs, and allow control efforts to be tailored to the vector species

involved in transmission across borders (52), and tracking of the evolution and spread of

resistance markers across regions (22). To support malaria pre-elimination efforts in Africa, in

this study we targeted the Sudan savannah and Sahel (regions of Africa sharing similar eco-

climatic conditions, and characterised by high seasonal transmission), which are ideal for

control and elimination of malaria using seasonal vector control (25) and chemoprevention.

Anopheles coluzzii **is a major malaria vector across the Sudano-Sahelian transects**

Contrary to the previous observations that *An. arabiensis* tends to predominate in arid

savannas, while *An. gambiae* is the dominant species in humid forest zones (53-55), *An. coluzzii*

has repeatedly been identified as the major malaria vector in the Sudan savannah and Sahel

of several, neighbouring countries (including in northern Nigeria, southern Niger, central

Chad, and northern Cameroon) (7, 26-28, 56) in recent years, suggesting that this vector has

adapted well in drier regions of the Sahel transects, and is probably predominating over *An.*

arabiensis and *An. gambiae s.s.* This is not surprising as this species exhibits higher exploitation

of breeding sites associated with anthropogenic activities, and behavioural plasticity to avoid

predators (57), and is known to survive a long dry season *in situ*/aestivation, which allows it

to predominate, becoming the primary force of malaria transmission (58, 59). Also,

photoperiod and lower nightly temperature have been shown to significantly increase the

longevity of the *An. coluzzii*; mechanisms which allow it to diapause in the dry season and re-

establish first in the early rainy season (60).

Common metabolic genes mediate multiple resistance in the Sahelian *An. coluzzii*

Several genes shown to confer metabolic resistance in *Anopheles* mosquitoes and other insects

were found constitutively overexpressed and/or induced in this study. *GSTe2* (AGAP009194)

is one of the most regularly encountered metabolic genes in resistant populations of the major

malaria vectors *An. gambiae*, *An. coluzzii* and *An. funestus* (20-23). *Anopheles gambiae GSTe2* has

been validated, using transgenic flies to confer DDT (20) and fenitrothion (61) resistance. It

was extensively studied in *An. funestus*, in which it was shown to confer cross-resistance to

DDT and permethrin (22), reduce efficacy of the LLINs, PermaNet 2.0 and PermaNet 3.0 (side

panels) (23), and even increase the longevity of the resistant populations carrying the 119F

mutation (62). These and our findings suggest that the overexpression of this GST alone can

confer resistance to three insecticides from three different classes (DDT, permethrin and

fenitrothion). The absence of mutations in the cDNA coding sequences of *GSTe2* in *An. coluzzii*

from these four countries, suggest that overexpression of this GST is enough to confer

resistance.

Several cytochrome P450s previously linked with insecticide resistance were found

overexpressed across the Sahel. For example, *An. gambiae CYP6Z2* (AGAP008218) known to

metabolize carbaryl (63), the insect juvenile hormone analogue insecticide, pyriproxyfen (64)

and mitochondrial complex I inhibitors, fenazaquin, pyridaben and tolfenpyrad (65). This

P450 also plays a pivotal role in the clearance of pyrethroid insecticides via further catabolism

of pyrethroid derivatives (PBAld and PBAlc) obtained by the action of carboxylesterases (66),

in line with our findings of this gene conferring marginal tolerance to high concentration of

PBAlc, and α-cypermethrin. However, our findings suggest that overexpression of this P450

may enhance the efficacy of clothianidin, which will be epidemiologically advantageous in

terms of control. Indeed, bioactivation by P450s is known to be a requirement for insecticidal

toxicity of several classes of insecticides, e.g., the organophosphates and chlorpenafyr. In

contrast to *GSTe2*, the *CYP6Z2* from across Sahel contain three cDNA mutations, which makes

it different from Ngoussou coding sequences. These are $K^{211}N$ and $T^{218}S$ mutations, both

within the substrate recognitions site 2, and an $A^{282}E$. Other important CYP450s found to be

commonly overexpressed across the Sahel include the *CYP4C27* (AGAP009246), *CYP6Z3*

(AGAP008217) and *CYP9K1* (AGAP000818), all three shown to be consistently overexpressed

in field populations of *An. gambiae/coluzzii* and *An. funestus* across Africa (9, 67, 68). *CYP9K1*

has been shown to be epidemiologically important pyrethroid-metabolising P450 linked with

metabolism of deltamethrin and pyriproxyfen in *An. gambiae* (69). We also have recently

shown that his P450 is involved in pyrethroids in *An. funestus* (70).

Several carboxylesterases were also upregulated/induced across the Sahel, with the *COEBE3C*

(AGAP005372) upregulated in all four countries. This beta esterase is enriched in the legs

(where xenobiotic detoxification probably occur) of pyrethroid-resistant *An. coluzzii* (71).

Other genes consistently overexpressed across the Sahel, include the chymotrypsins

(*CHYM3*/AGAP006711 and *CHYM1*/AGAP006709) and a lipase (AGAP002353).

Chymotrypsins are known to defend insects against plants' proteinase inhibitors (72); and

previous transcriptional studies have shown *CHYM1* and *CHYM3* overexpressed in

insecticide resistant populations of *An. gambiae* and *An. coluzzii,* respectively (9, 67). Using *in*

vitro and *in vivo* tools, lipases have been linked with deltamethrin resistance in *Culex pipiens*

pallens (73).

Common metabolic resistance markers probably exacerbate resistance across the

Sahel

Several well-known genetic variants implicated in resistance, as well as the recently

discovered ones exist in high frequencies in the Sahelian *An. coluzzii*. For example, the

pyrethroid resistance *CYP4J5*-L43F marker (74) was found fixed across the Sahel. The

G280S/G119S *ace*-1 mutation, found in high frequencies across Sahel confers organophosphate

an carbamates resistance (75), and is shown recently to confer resistance to pirimiphos-methyl,

in *An. coluzzii/gambiae* (76). Several mutations found within the VGSC have recently been

described/validated. For example, the resistance mutation, L995F (77) and the V402L/I15227T

haplotypes have been observed across Africa (78). Recently, the two mutations

(V402L/I15227T) are described to be in tight linkage and mutually exclusive to the classical

L995F/S mutations (77). Our results suggest haplotypes carrying the V402L/I1527T

combination plus the L995 replacement do exist in the Sahel *An. coluzzii*. Not only that, it is

also in addition to the N1570Y replacement.

In contrast to *An. funestus GSTe2*, where overexpression and 119F mutation combined to

confer extreme DDT resistance (22), the absence of amino acid replacements in the *An. coluzzii*

GSTe2 from the Sahel suggests that overexpression alone is the key mediator of DDT and

permethrin resistance. This is supported by the higher activity in the regulatory regions,

harbouring an insertion and nucleotide substitutions in the alive mosquitoes. Indeed, some of

the mutations we have found within the intergenic region of *GSTe2* are similar to those

observed in a previous study (79).

Cuticular resistance mechanism probably playing a key role in Sahelian *An.*

coluzzii

Our results suggest cuticular mechanism play a role in pyrethroid resistance in these

populations. For example, the findings of *CYP4G16* (AGAP001076) and *CYP4G17*

(AGAP000877) overexpressed across the Sahel. The former P450 was previously shown to be

involved in epicuticular hydrocarbon biosynthesis associated with resistance (80).

The three major classes of the insect cuticular proteins - the CPR, CPLC and CPAP, were found

overrepresented in the top overexpressed genes across the Sahel, with the commonly

upregulated ones being *CPR76*, *CPR15* and *CPR30*, a chitin-binding cuticular protein, *CPAP3-*

A1b, and cuticular proteins of low complexity, *CPLCX3* and *CPLCA1*. Indeed, *CPAP3-A1b*

(AGAP000987) have been shown to be highly overexpressed in deltamethrin-resistant

Sahelian population of *An. coluzzii* from Burkina Faso (9) and induced by blood feeding in *An.*

gambiae (81). The CPR and CPLC cuticular proteins have been described to potentially play a

crucial role in insecticide resistance through leg cuticle remodelling/thickening, regulating

penetration rate of insecticides in *An. coluzzii* (71). Furthermore, a recent study has found most

of the cuticular proteins we have described here, as highly overexpressed in

permethrin/malathion resistant populations of Ethiopian *An. arabiensis* (82), e.g., *CPR30*,

CPR75, CPR81, and *CPLCP11*. Out of the several chitinases overexpressed across the Sahel,

four were amongst the top 50 most overexpressed metabolic genes. These include the *Cht24*

and *Cht6* that have been shown to be overexpressed in the *An. arabiensis* from the above study

(82), with the ortholog of *Cht24*, AARA007329 among the top 10 most overexpressed genes in

An. arabiensis, in line with our observations in *An. coluzzii* across the Sahel. There is an

overwhelming need to functionally investigate the role/contribution towards insecticide

resistance of these cuticular proteins, chitinases and a chitin synthase (AGAP001748)

significantly overexpressed in the field *An. coluzzii* from Nigeria and Chad.

Insecticide resistance- and thermotolerance-associated genes sit within

chromosomal inversions

In this study, the findings of high frequency of 2La, 2Rb and 2Rc inversion polymorphisms in

the populations of *An. coluzzii*, compared with the Ngoussou, suggested strong phenotypic

adaptations in this species, across the Sahel. Most importantly, in addition to several of the

cuticular protein genes associated with resistance (chitinases, chitin synthase, CPR, CPLC and

CPAP proteins), several other genes previously implicated in thermotolerance and/or

desiccation resistance in *An. gambiae/coluzzii*, and which were highly overexpressed in this

study sit within these inversions. For example, the heat shock proteins, *hsp83* (AGAP006958)

and *hsp90* hptG (AGAP006961), both of which are known to be heat- and insecticide-stress

inducible (83) and were among the core set of hsp genes involved in a common and immediate

response to thermal stress in *An. gambiae* populations (84), sit within the 2La inversion. These

two genes were among the overexpressed genes in both heat-hardened and permethrin-

resistant *An. coluzzii* populations from northern Nigeria (56). Several ionotropic glutamate

receptors were found within the 2La inversion breakpoints: *IR136* (AGAP006440), *IR139*

(AGAP006691) and *IR142* (AGAP006407). This is not surprising as ionotropic receptors are

commonly associated with chemosensation, thermosensation, and hygrosensation (85, 86),

characteristics

which can confer adaptive advantages in xeric environs. The *IR25a* (AGAP010272) and *IR21*

a (AGAP008511) are known to mediate both humidity and temperature preference in the fruit

fly, *D. melanogaster* (86, 87), in addition to *IR21a* driving heat seeking and heat-stimulated

blood feeding in *An. gambiae* (87). These two genes have been shown to be

overexpressed/induced in thermotolerant/permethrin-resistant populations of *An. coluzzii*

(56).

Conclusions

Information on molecular basis of resistance and/or resistance genes and its markers facilitates

evidence-based control measures. In this study we characterised a major malaria vector, *An.*

coluzzii from the Sahel region of four countries, with findings which could promote evidence-

based, cross-border policy towards local and regional malaria control. The study found that

across Sahel (where malaria is highly seasonal, reaching its peak in the rainy season), *An.*

coluzzii is a dominant vector. And that a handful of common cross-resistance genes are

responsible for multiple insecticide resistance in this species. Findings from this study suggest

pleotropic role of some key genes – able to confer insecticide resistance and/or stabilize the

insecticide resistance gene, at the same time conferring environmental adaptations, such as

the ability to survive thermal stress (thermotolerance), as expected in this Sahelian region.

From operational vector control perspective this study provided evidence of the role of key

insecticide metabolism gene, *CYP6Z2* in increasing insecticidal potency of clothianidin, which

could increase the efficacy of the ingredients in malaria control tools, when targeting field

populations overexpressing this key P450.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study did not use human participants, human data or human tissue. Ethical approval for

collection of indoor resting female mosquitoes in Nigeria, Niger, Chad and Cameroon have

been provided in the references cited in the Study Site and Mosquito Sampling (Materials and

Methods).

Consent for publication

Not Applicable.

Availability of data and materials

The dataset(s) supporting the conclusions of this article are available in the European

Nucleotide Archive, with accession PRJEB51644, and secondary accession of ERP136291, for

the RNA-seqe raw sequence reads. cDNA sequences of *GSTe2* and *CYP6Z2* were deposited in

GenBank (accession numbers: Submission # 2567942 for *GSTe2* and Submission # 2567961 for

CYP6Z2) and 5'-UTR DNA fragment sequences were deposited in GenBank (accession

numbers: Submission # 2568060).

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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author has applied a CC BY public copyright licence to any Author Accepted Manuscript

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Authors' contributions

Conceived and designed by SSI and CSW. SSI carried out the molecular analyses, with

support from AM, LMJM, EIP and HI. ANF and MMM, participated in field collection of

mosquitoes in Nigeria, Chad and Cameroon. SSI carried out data analysis with the support of

JH, GDW, SCN for the RNAseq component. SSI wrote the manuscript with inputs from CSW,

JH and SCN. All authors contributed to corrections of the final draft and approved final

version of the manuscript.

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Figure Titles

Figure 1: A volcano plot of differentially expressed genes showing fold changes and

significance in R-S, C-S and R-C comparisons, for Nigeria and Niger populations of *An.*

coluzzii.

Figure 2: A volcano plot of differentially expressed genes showing fold changes and

significance in R-S, C-S and R-C comparisons, for Chad and Cameroon populations of *An.*

coluzzii.

Figure 3: Validation of candidate resistance genes. qRT-PCR of twelve metabolic resistance

genes (R-S and C-S comparisons) from Sahelian *An. coluzzii.*

Figure 4: Identification of resistance variants of interest. A heatmap showing frequencies of

the resistance variants (haplotypes) in key genes of interest.

Figure 5: Characterization of intergenic region (5' regulatory element) of *GSTe2*. Results of

dual-luciferase reporter assays of the promoter (intergenic region) constructs, showing

progressive loss of activity following sequential deletion of the constructs.

Figure 6: Validation of the role of metabolic resistance genes in insecticide resistance.

Results of insecticide susceptibility bioassays with transgenic flies expressing *GSTe2* and

CYP6Z2. **a.** α-cypermethrin and deltamethrin, **b.** permethrin, **c.** 3-phenoxybenzaldehyde and

3-phenoxybenzyl alcohol, **d.** DDT and clothianidin.

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Additional Files

Additional File 1: Supplementary text for methods and results.

Additional File 2: Common differentially expressed genes across the Sahel.

Additional File 3: Population genetics analyses.

Additional File 4: Genes within 2La, 2Rb and 2Rc inversion polymorphisms.

Additional Tables: Additional tables, S1-S6.

Additional Figures: Additional figures, S1-S11.

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