A genomic duplication spanning multiple P450s contributes to insecticide resistance in the dengue mosquito *Aedes aegypti*

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Abstract

Resistance of mosquitoes to insecticides is one example of rapid adaptation to anthropogenic

selection pressures having a strong impact on human health and activities. Target-site modification

and increased insecticide detoxification are the two main mechanisms underlying insecticide

resistance in mosquitoes. While target-sites mutations are well characterised and often used to track

resistance in the field, the genomic events associated with insecticide detoxification remain partially

characterised. Recent studies evidenced the key role of gene duplications in the over-expression of

detoxification enzymes and their potential use to track metabolic resistance alleles in the field.

However, such genomic events remain difficult to characterise due to their complex genomic

architecture and their co-occurrence with other resistance alleles. In this concern, the present work

investigated the role of a large genomic duplication affecting a cluster of detoxification enzymes in

conferring resistance to the pyrethroid insecticide deltamethrin in the mosquito *Aedes aegypti*.

Two isofemale lines originating from French Guiana and being deprived from major target-site

mutations showed distinct insecticide resistance levels. Combining RNA-seq and whole genome pool-

seq identified a 220 Kb genomic duplication spanning multiple cytochrome P450s carried by the

resistant line. The genomic architecture of the duplicated loci was elucidated through long read

sequencing, evidencing its transposon-mediated evolutionary origin. The importance of this P450

duplication in deltamethrin survival was supported by genotype-phenotype association and RNA

interference. Experimental evolution suggested that this P450 duplication is associated with a

significant fitness cost, potentially affecting its adaptive value in presence of other resistance alleles.

Overall, this study supports the importance of genomic duplications affecting detoxification enzymes

in the rapid adaptation of mosquitoes to insecticides. Deciphering their genomic architecture

provides new insights into the evolutionary processes underlying such rapid adaptation. Such

findings and provides new tools for the surveillance and management of resistance in the field.

Key words: Mosquito; Insecticide resistance; P450; Gene duplication; Kdr mutation; *Aedes aegypti*

Introduction

Natural populations experience a wide range of selective pressures, leading to the accumulation of locally adaptive features and the expression of complex phenotypes (Orr, 2005). Among them, those driven by human activities promote novel and strong selective pressures. Understanding the genetic mechanisms allowing populations to quickly respond to rapid environmental changes has become a major goal (Hendry et al., 2008, 2017; Palumbi, 2001). Resistance of insects to insecticides is a key example of rapid evolution under strong anthropogenic selective pressures. This adaptation has occurred quickly and independently in a large number of taxa with frequent parallel trajectories (Ffrench-Constant et al., 2004; Liu, 2015). As a consequence of local and temporal variations of the selection pressures, the genetic modifications affecting resistant populations are often complex and combine several resistance mechanisms that are potentially additive, each of them bringing variable fitness costs. In addition, the very strong selection pressure exerted by insecticides is prone to produce demographic effects. Such complexity makes the identification of resistance alleles and the assessment of their respective contribution challenging (Ffrench-Constant et al., 2004; Li et al., 2007).

Besides the understanding of the genetics of rapid adaptation and the origins of complex traits, deciphering the molecular bases of insecticide resistance is also essential for improving pest management strategies (Hawkins et al., 2018). Among taxa of major economic and medical importance, mosquitoes represent a major threat for public health worldwide because of their ability to transmit human viruses and pathogens (Lounibos, 2002). Among them, *Aedes aegypti* is of particular importance because of its wide distribution and its capacity to transmit Yellow fever, Dengue, Zika and Chikungunya viruses (Brown et al., 2014). These arboviruses are now re-emerging worldwide following the expansion of mosquitoes' distribution area as a consequence of global warming, global transportation network and land perturbations (Kraemer et al., 2015). Although efforts are invested in improving vaccine-based prevention strategies (Carvalho & Long, 2021; Garg et al., 2020; Silva et al., 2018), vector control remains the cornerstone of arboviral diseases control. However, decades of insecticide usage have led to the selection and spread of insecticide resistance in this mosquito species, affecting all public health insecticides, including the most-used pyrethroids (Moyes et al., 2017). High pyrethroid resistance has been shown to reduce vector control efficacy (Dusfour et al., 2011; Marcombe, Carron, et al., 2009; Marcombe et al., 2011; Valle et al., 2019). Though greener vector control strategies are being developed, insecticides will likely remain a key component of integrated vector control in high transmission areas for the next decades (Achee et al., 2019). In this concern, identifying the genetic factors underlying resistance is crucial for tracking resistance alleles in the field and making a better use of the few authorised public health insecticides

through resistance management actions (Cattel et al., 2020; Corbel & N'Guessan, 2013; Dusfour et
al., 2019).

In mosquitoes, resistance to chemical insecticides is mainly caused by genetic changes decreasing the
affinity of the insecticide for its target (target-site resistance), decreasing its penetration (cuticular
resistance), or increasing its detoxification through complex biochemical pathways (metabolic
resistance) (Li et al., 2007). Pyrethroid insecticides target the neuronal voltage-gated sodium channel
(*VGSC* gene), and the selection of *knockdown resistance* (*kdr*) mutations affecting this protein can
lead to resistance. Multiple *kdr* mutations, often combined as haplotypes, have been identified in *Ae.*
aegypti with the following ones shown to play a key role in pyrethroid resistance: Val410Leu,
Leu982Trp, Ser989Pro, Val1016Gly/Ile and Phe1534Cys (Brengues et al., 2003; Haddi et al., 2017;
Hirata et al., 2014; Kasai et al., 2022; Saavedra-Rodriguez et al., 2007; Smith et al., 2016; Yanola et al.,
2011). Today, these mutations can be tracked in the field using PCR-based diagnostic assays or mass
sequencing approaches, providing essential information for resistance management programmes
(Melo Costa et al., 2020).

Conversely, the genetic bases of metabolic resistance are far less understood, though it often
accounts for a significant part of the phenotype (David et al., 2013). Indeed, the complexity and
redundancy of xenobiotic biodegradation pathways often lead to multigenic adaptations that can
differ according to the nature and intensity of the selection pressure together with the demographic
and ecological context (Feyereisen et al., 2015; Li et al., 2007). Metabolic resistance to pyrethroids
usually results from an increased activity of detoxification enzymes such as cytochrome P450
monooxygenases (P450s or *CYPs* for genes), glutathione S-transferases (GSTs)
carboxy/cholinesterases (CCEs) and UDP-glycosyl-transferases (UDPGTs) (David et al., 2013;
Hemingway et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2016). At the genetic level, this can result from the selection of
enzyme variants showing a higher insecticide metabolism rate, or their overexpression through cis-
or trans- regulation. Genomic duplications can also contribute to overexpression, and duplications
affecting detoxification genes appear frequently associated with insecticide resistance in mosquitoes
(Cattel et al., 2020, 2021; Faucon et al., 2015; Weetman et al., 2018).

In addition to the genetic complexity of metabolic resistance alleles, their frequent co-occurrence
with other resistance mechanisms in natural mosquito populations makes them difficult to
characterise. This is the case in French Guiana, where the use of the pyrethroid deltamethrin for
decades has led to the selection of highly resistant *Ae. aegypti* populations combining metabolic
resistance alleles and multiple *kdr* mutations such as Val410Leu, Val1016Ile or Phe1534Cys (Dusfour
et al., 2015; Haddi et al., 2017). Although the over-expression of several detoxification enzymes was
supported by transcriptomics and proteomics (Dusfour et al., 2015; Epelboin et al., 2021; Faucon et

al., 2017), detoxification enzymes most contributing to deltamethrin resistance and the underlying

genetic events remain to be identified. A recent study using a composite population from French

Guiana identified copy number variations (CNV) as a probable cause of overexpression of

detoxification enzymes in this region (Cattel et al., 2020). One particular locus spanning multiple

P450s showed some evidence of duplication, however the high frequency of *kdr* mutations

decreased the association power while the exon-sequencing approach did not allow resolving the

genomic architecture of the duplicated locus.

In this context, the present study aimed at confirming the contribution of this duplication in the

resistance of *Ae. aegypti* to deltamethrin and at deciphering its genomic architecture. Two isofemale

lines originating from French Guiana and showing contrasted pyrethroid resistance levels were used;

both lacking two major *kdr* mutations Val1016Ile and Val410Leu occurring in South America

(Epelboin et al., 2021). Controlled crosses were used to remove the Phe1534Cys *kdr* mutation from

the resistant line, which retained a P450-mediated resistance phenotype. Then, RNA-seq and whole

genome pool-seq confirmed the presence of a ~200 Kb genomic duplication enhancing the

expression of a cluster of multiple P450 genes in the resistant line. The genomic architecture of the

duplicated loci was elucidated through long read sequencing, providing clues about its evolutionary

origin. Association studies, experimental evolution and reverse genetic were then used to investigate

the contribution of this duplicated allele in deltamethrin resistance.

Results

Deltamethrin resistance is associated with P450 activity

Individual crossings within the resistant line IR03 allowed producing the IR0F line deprived of *kdr*

mutations majorly associated with pyrethroid resistance in South America (*i.e.* Val410Leu,

Val1016Ile, Phe1534Cys). However, our attempts to remove the only *kdr* mutation remaining,

Ile1011Met were not successful (see below). Comparative deltamethrin bioassays showed that the

IR0F line remained highly resistant to deltamethrin with 44% mortality, as compared to the IR13 line

and the fully susceptible strain Bora-Bora showing 95% and 100% mortality respectively (**Table 1**).

Mortality levels remains similar between the IR03 line and the IR0F line suggesting that the removal

of the Phe1534Cys *kdr* mutation did not affect the resistance phenotype, or was compensated by the

retaining of the Ile1011Met *kdr* mutation.

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130 **Table 1. Origin, resistance status and *kdr* mutations frequencies of the studied lines**

Line	Origin, type	Deltamethrin mortality[1]	Resistance status	f(410Leu) [2,3]	f(1016Ile) [2,3]	f(1534Cys) [2,3]	f(1011Met) [3]
Bora-Bora	Fr. Polynesia, Lab	100	Susceptible	0	0	0	0
IR13	Fr. Guiana, isofemale	95 (91-99)	Low resistance	0	0	0.26	0
IR03	Fr. Guiana, isofemale	43 (26-60)	Resistant	0	0	0.26	0.33
IROF	IR03 cross	44 (34-54)	Resistant	0	0	0	0.50

[1] Mortality rates (mean ±SD) previously obtained on 3 days-old females using 0.05% deltamethrin for 40 min (N=10).
[2] *Kdr* mutation frequencies estimated by qPCR genotyping (N=30).
[3] *Kdr* mutation frequencies estimated from pool-seq data.

In order to test the involvement of P450s in the pyrethroid resistance phenotype, we sequentially

exposed adult mosquitoes to the P450 inhibitor piperonyl butoxide (PBO) and to deltamethrin. Such

PBO pre-exposure did not significantly affect survival in the susceptible IR13 line, but increased

mortality by 20% in the IROF line (Wilcoxon test P value = 0.009), supporting the contribution of

P450-mediated detoxification in the resistance of the IROF line (**Figure 1**).

The resistance phenotype is autosomal and semi-dominant

Comparative deltamethrin bioassays performed on F1 and F2 males and females from '*Bora-Bora x*

IROF' reciprocal crosses did not support any significant bias affecting the transmission of resistance

alleles (**Supplementary file 1**). The mortality levels in F1 upon deltamethrin exposure were

intermediate to those of the parental lines for both males and females in both crosses, indicating the

absence of a maternal effect. Intermediate mortality levels were again observed in F2, suggesting the

lack of a sex transmission bias. Overall, the resistance phenotype behaved as semi-dominant.

The resistance phenotype is associated with a duplication affecting multiple P450s

RNA-seq was used to identify differentially transcribed genes between the two resistant lines (IR03

and IROF), and the two susceptible lines (IR13 and Bora-Bora). Among the 11078 genes detected, 84

genes showed a significant and consistent differential transcription level in the four '*resistant Vs*

susceptible' pairwise comparisons (see methods, expression fold change ≥ 1.5 and adjusted P value ≤

0.0005). The 39 genes under-transcribed in resistant lines did not include any gene belonging to any

family known to be associated with insecticide resistance. Conversely, the 45 genes over-transcribed

in resistant lines included 8 genes belonging to gene families associated with metabolic resistance

(**Figure 2** and **Supplementary file 2**). These included five P450s (*CYP6BB2* AAEL014893, *CYP6-like*

AAEL026852, *CYP6-like* AAEL017061, *CYP6P12* AAEL014891 and *CYP9F-like* AAEL028635). The four

CYP6 genes showed mean fold changes up to 4.0 folds and belong to a cluster of five consecutive

CYP6 genes located at ~271 Mb on chromosome 1. Among them, *CYP6P12* (AAEL014891) was

annotated as a single accession in the reference genome while both protein sequence and RNA-seq

data support the presence of two genes hereafter referred to as *CYP6P12v1* and *CYP6P12v2* when

appropriate.

Whole genome Pool-seq data were then used to identify genes affected by copy number variations in

association with resistance base on their normalised exonic coverage. This analysis identified 43

genes showing congruent copy number variations between resistant and susceptible lines (FC ≥ 1.5 in

all *'resistant Vs susceptible'* pairwise comparisons). The 22 genes showing an elevated copy number

in resistant lines included seven P450s. One of them (AAEL009018) was located at ~58.8 Mb on

chromosome 1 and was not detected as over-transcribed from RNA-seq. The six others were located

at ~271 Mb on chromosome 1 and included the five *CYP6s* found over-transcribed in resistant lines

(see above) and another *CYP6* (*CYP6CC1*) from the same gene cluster that was filtered out from RNA-

seq analysis due to a very low transcription level (**Figure 2** and **Supplementary file 2**). A closer look at

the genomic coverage at this locus revealed a ~2 folds increased coverage affecting a region of ~200

Kb spanning the entire *CYP6* cluster. Such duplication was observed in both resistant lines (IR03 and

IROF). Altogether, these genomic data suggest that the deltamethrin resistance phenotype observed

in the IR03 and IROF lines is associated with a large duplication on chromosome 1 affecting the

transcription level of six clustered *CYP6* genes.

Whole genome pool-seq data confirmed the absence of the major Val410Leu, Val1016Ile and

Phe1534Cys *kdr* mutations in the resistant IROF line, while another *kdr* mutation (Ile1011Met) was

identified at an exact 0.5 frequency (141/282 reads supporting the 1011Met allele). Indeed, both

short read and long read data revealed that this Ile1011Met mutation is part of an imperfect

genomic duplication covering the 21 last exons of the *VGSC* gene AAEL023266 (**Supplementary file**

3), the partial copy bearing the wild type (Ile) allele and the full-length copy bearing the resistant

(Met) allele (Martins et al., 2013). A 0.5 frequency thus indicates that the Ile-Met/Ile-Met genotype is

fixed in the IROF line. As expected from an imperfect duplication, RNA-seq data support the sole

expression of the Met allele in the IROF line, leading to a Met/Met phenotype.

Genomic architecture of the duplication

The genomic structure of the duplicated region previously identified on chromosome 1 from short

read data was further investigated in light of long reads data obtained from the IR13 susceptible line

and the IROF resistant line. This revealed the presence of a 220.4 Kb duplication in the IROF line, with

the two tandem repeats separated by a 6 Kb insertion (**Figure 3**). The right breakpoint of the

duplication (RB) was found ~50 Kb right to *CYP6CC1* at position 271,472,082 bp, and the left

breakpoint (LB) ~77 Kb left to *CYP6BB2* at 271,251,705 bp. These breakpoints were supported by split

reads from both long and short read data (**Supplementary file 4**). The duplication is flanked by two

distinct transposons, each having its own terminal inverted repeats (TIR): a 2.4 Kb PiggyBac-like

transposon on the right (PYL), and 9 Kb hAT-related transposon on the left (hAT-CYP6). These

transposons are described in more detail in **Supplementary file 5**. The central sequence joining the

tandem copies is chimeric, with 60 bp from the left end of PYL transposon followed by 6001 bp from

the right end of the hAT transposon. This duplication is absent from the IR13 susceptible line (no

read joining RB and LB sequences and no PYL transposon sequence, neither full nor partial at RB).

However, the hAT-CYP6 transposon was identified at the LB in one IR13 haplotype, much like in the

IROF line, while a second haplotype was devoid of hAT insertion, much like the reference genome. An

excess of tri-allelic SNPs is expected within the duplication if the two copies have diverged. To

investigate this, Pool-seq data from the IROF line were searched for such tri-allelic SNPs within the

duplication and 100 Kb upward and downward. Loci were considered as tri-allelic if they carried two

distinct variant alleles at the same position with a minimum allele frequency > 20%. Among the 1401

substitutions sites identified within the duplication, five were tri-allelic. No such tri-allelic variant was

identified among the 1334 substitutions identified in flanking regions, representing a slight but

significant enrichment in the duplicated region (Fisher test p value = 0.035). These tri-allelic sites

were all located within a 11.2 Kb intergenic region between the two *CYP6-like* genes AAEL017061 and

AAEL014891v1.

The P450 duplication is associated with deltamethrin survival

The association of the P450 duplication and the *kdr* Ile1011Met mutation with deltamethrin survival

were investigated in F2 individuals obtained from both 'Bora-Bora x IROF' reciprocal crosses. F2

females were then segregated with a high dose of deltamethrin (85.5% mortality) before quantifying

CYP6BB2 gene copy number and the frequency of the 1011Met *kdr* allele using ddPCR (**Figure 4**). As

expected in the presence of a fixed duplication, a 2-fold increase of *CYP6BB2* copy number was

observed in the IROF line (4.31 ± 0.21 copies) as compared to Bora-Bora line (2.07 ± 0.10 copies)

while F1 individuals showed an intermediate copy number (3.58 ± 0.14 copies). In deltamethrin

segregated F2 individuals, *CYP6BB2* copy number was higher in survivors than in dead individuals

(4.00 ± 0.16 copies versus 3.31 ± 0.15 copies) supporting a genetic linkage between the P450

duplication and resistance. Resistance was also linked to the *kdr* mutation Ile1011Met on

chromosome 3. In line with an heterogenous *kdr* duplication, the frequency of the Met allele was

close to 0.5 in the IROF resistant line and close to 0.33 in F1 individuals. In deltamethrin-segregated

F2 individuals, the Met allele frequency was higher in survivors than in dead individuals (0.41 ± 0.02

versus 0.30 ± 0.02).

Multiple P450s carried by the duplication may contribute to deltamethrin survival

The relative importance of the P450s carried by the duplication in deltamethrin survival was then

examined by RNA interference. Direct dsRNA injections in adult females of the IROF line were used to

specifically knock down the five *CYP6* genes showing sufficient expression to be detected by RNA-seq

(*CYP6BB2*, *CYP6-like* AAEL026582, *CYP6-like* AAEL017061, *CYP6P12v1* and *CYP6P12v2*). Such

approach allowed reaching an acceptable silencing specificity and a moderate silencing efficiency

(from 42.2% for AAEL017061 to 69.7% for AAEL026582). Comparative deltamethrin bioassays

performed on dsCYP6-injected mosquitoes and dsGFP-injected controls suggested that the two first

CYP gene of the duplicated cluster (*CYP6BB2* and *CYP6-like* AAEL026582) contribute to deltamethrin

survival (see methods and results in **Supplementary file 6**). However, data generated across multiple

injection experiments were not fully conclusive because a high mortality was frequently observed in

dsGFP-injected controls and because the increased mortality observed in dsCYP-injected mosquitoes

were relatively low probably due to the moderate silencing efficiency and the presence of the *kdr*

1011Met allele in the IROF line.

The duplication is hardly retained by selection in presence of the 1011Met kdr allele

The co-occurence of the P450 duplication and the Ile1011Met *kdr* mutation in the IROF resistant line

was taken as an opportunity to compare their responses to deltamethrin selection. Four independent

lines obtained from 'Bora-Bora x IROF' F3 offspring and representing two replicated selection regimes

(selected lines: SelA and SelB, non-selected lines: NSA and NSB) were compared for their resistance

level, *CYP6BB2* copy number and *kdr* 1011Met allele frequency (**Figure 5**). An increase of

deltamethrin resistance was observed for both Sel lines, with mortality dropping from ~80% in F4 to

less than 20% in F9. Relaxing deltamethrin selection for three successive generations (F9 to F11) lead

to an increased mortality in both Sel lines, suggesting that the resistance phenotype is costly. Though

subjected to sampling effects, ddPCR data showed that the *kdr* 1011Met allele was rapidly selected

by deltamethrin. Its frequency was close to 0.5 in F9 of both Sel lines, supporting the near fixation of

the Ile-Met duplicated allele. Such increased frequency was not seen in NS lines where Met allele

frequency decreased to less than 10% in one line and fluctuated under 0.25 in the other line. No such

strong response to selection was observed for the P450 duplication, with *CYP6BB2* copy number

showing a gradual decrease through generations in both Sel and NS lines. However, *CYP6BB2* mean

copy number were significantly higher in Sel lines than in NS lines across generations, supporting a

higher retention rate of the duplicated allele upon deltamethrin selection (Linear Mixed Effect

Model, p value = 0.0088).

264 Discussion

In line with their high probability of occurrence, genomic duplications have been shown to frequently

contribute to short-term adaptation in various organisms (Kondrashov, 2012). In arthropods facing

strong selection pressures from insecticides, duplications are known to be adaptive via two distinct

mechanisms (Bass & Field, 2011). First, heterogeneous duplications affecting key insecticide target

genes and tethering both susceptible and resistant alleles have been associated with a reduction of

fitness costs (Labbe et al., 2007). Second, duplications of detoxification genes can contribute

quantitatively to their over-expression, leading to resistance through increased insecticide

metabolism (Faucon et al., 2015; Weetman et al., 2018). As opposed to target-site resistance

mutations that can be easily tracked by PCR in natural populations, the paucity of DNA markers

underlying metabolic resistance hinders their tracking in the field. In this concern, identifying gene

duplications associated with metabolic resistance can provide new tools to monitor the dynamics of

resistance alleles (Cattel et al., 2021).

A genomic duplication affects a cluster of P450s previously associated with resistance

The present study confirmed the occurrence of a large genomic duplication affecting a cluster of six

P450s from the *CYP6* family in *Ae. aegypti* populations from French Guiana. The presence of such a

duplication was previously suspected though the structure of the duplicated loci could not be

resolved from targeted-sequencing data (Faucon et al., 2015). The association of this P450

duplication with deltamethrin resistance was supported by controlled crosses, although the presence

of other resistance alleles limited the association power (Cattel et al., 2020). A duplication

encompassing the *CYP6BB2* gene was also associated with pyrethroid resistance in Lao PDR

(Marcombe et al., 2019), suggesting a wider geographic distribution. Though gene duplication was

not looked for, the over-transcription of CYP6 genes from this cluster (e.g. *CYP6BB2*, *CYP6P12* and

CYP6CC1) was frequently associated with pyrethroid resistance worldwide (Bariami et al., 2012;

Dusfour et al., 2015; Goindin et al., 2017; Kasai et al., 2014; Marcombe, Poupardin, et al., 2009;

Moyes et al., 2017; Reid et al., 2014; Saavedra-Rodriguez et al., 2012; Seixas et al., 2017). These

genes were also found under directional selection in association with pyrethroid survival in a

Mexican resistant line from whole exome SNP data (Saavedra-Rodriguez et al., 2021). In addition,

CYP6BB2 was also shown capable of metabolising the pyrethroid permethrin (Kasai et al., 2014). By

comparing its copy number and transcriptional level across different lines, Faucon et al. (2017)

suggested that both transcriptional regulation and genomic duplication contribute to its over-

expression in South America. Interestingly, this gene also responded to selection with the

neonicotinoid imidacloprid, suggesting that P450s from this cluster can be selected by and

metabolise other insecticides (Riaz et al., 2013; Zoh et al., 2021).

Our attempt to isolate this P450 duplication from other resistance alleles occurring in French Guiana

was partially successful. Indeed, both isofemale lines were naturally deprived from the major

Val1016Iso and Val410Leu *kdr* mutations, and controlled crosses allowed removing the Phe1534Cys

mutation. However, the resulting IROF resistant line carrying the P450 duplication still carried the

Ile1011Met *kdr* mutation as a fixed heterogenous duplication (Ile-Met/Ile-Met genotype, Met/Met

phenotype). Nevertheless, the use of the P450 inhibitor PBO showed that the resistance phenotype

was still associated with P450-mediated metabolism. Considering that four of the five P450s over-

transcribed in resistant lines belong to the duplicated loci, their contribution to the resistance

phenotype is likely. Studying the mode of transmission of resistance did not allow evidencing any

significant maternal effect or sexual transmission bias potentially associated with resistance. In line

with this, this P450 duplication is located outside of a 210 Mb region of chromosome 1 showing a low

recombination rate and a high genetic differentiation between *Ae. aegypti* males and females

(Fontaine et al., 2017).

The architecture of the P450 duplication suggests a recent ectopic recombination event

The presence of two distinct transposons at the duplication breakpoints that they have played an

active role in the generation of this genomic event. Transposon-mediated duplication often arises

from ectopic recombination between two homologous transposon copies inserted in the same

orientation at distinct positions of a same chromosome (Baker et al., 1996). However, such an event

would leave a single full-length transposon copy between the two duplicated genomic regions with

no transposon at other breakpoints (Remnant et al., 2013). Here, a more complex scenario must

have taken place because two distinct transposons are flanking the duplication, and because the

sequence joining the two copies is chimeric. A possible scenario involves independent insertion of

the two distinct transposons, then transposition of the hAT into the PiggyBac-like transposon

followed by a deletion event, and finally an ectopic homologous recombination event between the

two duplicated hAT sequences (**Supplementary File 7**). One transposon involved is related to the hAT

superfamily while the other one is distantly related to PiggyBac (see **Supplementary file 5** for more

details), both being cut and paste elements having multiple copies and being active in the *Ae. aegypti*

genome (Nene et al., 2007). The divergence of the two tandem copies was supported by the

identification of a few tri-allelic substitution sites within the duplicated region. Though the frequency

of such tri-allelic sites is likely underestimated (*i.e.* reverting mutations to the wildtype allele not

detected as tri-allelic), such low divergence supports the recent age of this duplication event.

The P450 duplication is associated with deltamethrin survival but its adaptive value may be

balanced by its fitness cost

The association study confirmed the association of the P450 duplication with deltamethrin survival

together with the Ile1011Met *kdr* mutation. As the *VGSC* gene carrying *kdr* mutations is located on

chromosome 3, a genetic linkage between these two loci is excluded. The association of the P450

duplication in F2, following limited recombination events, implies a resistance locus located on

chromosome 1, either the P450 duplication itself or another genetically linked locus. However, no

other known resistance gene was identified in this genomic region in the present study. The

association of the Ile1011Met *kdr* mutation with deltamethrin survival was expected. Indeed,

although less efficient than other *kdr* mutations (Brito et al., 2018), there is evidence that this

mutation confers some resistance to deltamethrin in the field (Brengues et al., 2003; Martins et al.,

2009). As previously suggested, we identified that this *kdr* mutation is part of a heterogenous

duplication (Martins et al., 2013). Our RNA-seq data supported the sole expression of the Met allele

in the IROF resistant line, suggesting that the wild type Ile allele is carried by a pseudo gene.

The relative importance of the different *CYP6* genes carried by the P450 duplication in deltamethrin

survival was investigated through RNA interference. Despite a limited statistical power, likely due to

the presence of the *kdr* Ile1011Met resistance allele and moderate knock down efficiencies, these

data suggest that at least two *CYP6* genes (*CYP6BB2* and AAEL026582) carried by the duplication may

contribute to deltamethrin survival.

Experimental evolution confirmed the strong positive response of the *kdr* 1011Met allele to selection

with a high dose of deltamethrin. Such experiment also evidenced a gradual decrease of this allele in

both non-selected lines, supporting a fitness costs in absence of insecticide as previously shown for

other *kdr* mutations (Rigby et al., 2020; Uemura et al., 2023). Indeed, the co-existence of the Met

allele carried by the full length *VGSC* gene and the duplicated Ile allele carried by a pseudogene

would not confer a fitness cost reduction as seen for the Ace-1 locus in *Culex pipiens sp.* and

Anopheles gambiae where both alleles contribute to the phenotype (Djogbenou et al., 2009; Labbe

et al., 2007). In this regard, further investigating the evolutionary origin and dynamics of this *kdr*

duplication in relation to insecticide selection pressure deserves further attention.

The association of the P450 duplication with resistance was less clear. A gradual decrease of *CYP6BB2*

copy number was observed in both selected and non-selected lines, even though such decay was

slower in the selected lines. Such result may indicate the presence of a significant fitness cost

associated with this large genomic duplication, that is not compensated by its adaptive value in our

laboratory conditions. Indeed, genomic duplications can be detrimental for various reasons (Schrider

et al., 2013): first, gene duplications can alter the gene dosage balance which can lead to metabolic

cost. Second, genomic duplications allow the accumulation of deleterious mutations that are less

cleared off by background selection because of the functional redundancy of duplicated copies.

Third, large duplications can impair recombination locally. In the present case, a low recombination

rate at this locus between the Bora-Bora line (well adapted to laboratory conditions) and the IR0F

line (less fitted to our laboratory conditions) may have impaired the selection of the P450 duplication

and favoured the selection of the *kdr* 1011Met allele. Finally, considering the fitness costs associated

with this *kdr* mutation, its additive cost with the P450 duplication may have prevented their

concomitant selection with the use of high insecticide dose favouring the selection of the former.

Such fitness-cost balance at two distinct loci may reflect the complex interactions occurring between

resistance alleles *in natura*, leading to distinct adaptive trajectories depending on selection pressures

and demographic effects.

Conclusions

Following previous work, the present study supports the contribution of this P450 duplication in

pyrethroid resistance. However, deciphering its adaptive value *versus* other resistance alleles and its

dynamics in natural mosquito populations deserves further work. The relative importance of the

different *CYP6* genes carried by this duplication in resistance to pyrethroids (and possibly to other

insecticides) also deserves further validation. Despite this incomplete picture, the nature of the

P450s affected by this large genomic duplication and their frequent association with insecticide

resistance call for further studying its evolutionary origin and dynamics in response to xenobiotics. In

this context, though the flanking of the duplication by repeated transposable elements prevented

the design of a specific PCR diagnostic assay targeting the breakpoints, the dual-colour quantitative

TaqMan ddPCR assay we developed (see **Supplementary file 8**) represents a good alternative to track

this resistance allele in natural mosquito populations.

Methods

Mosquitoes

The *Ae. aegypti* laboratory strain Bora-Bora, fully susceptible to insecticides was used as reference in the present study. The isofemale lines used in the present study were derived from a field population collected in 2015 in the Ile Royale (IR) island (5.287° N; 52.590° W) off the coast of French Guiana as described in Epelboin et al. (2021). Among the isofemale lines isolated from this population, the lines IR13 and IR03 showed contrasted pyrethroid resistance levels with the IR03 line being highly resistant and the IR13 line being susceptible. Both lines were shown to lack the two major voltage-gated sodium channel *kdr* mutations occurring in this geographical area (Val410Leu and Val1016Ile), yet both carried the Phe1534Cys mutation at a moderate frequency (Epelboin et al., 2021). The proteomic profiling of these lines identified multiple cytochrome P450s enriched in the IR03 resistant line as compared to a susceptible line, supporting the presence of metabolic resistance alleles (Epelboin et al., 2021). All mosquito lines were maintained under standard laboratory conditions (27 ± 2°C, 70 ± 10 % relative humidity, light/dark cycle 14:10h) and large population size to limit drift effects (N>1000). Larvae were reared in tap water and fed with hay pellets. Adults were maintained in mesh cages and fed with a 10% honey solution. Blood feedings were performed on mice.

Removal of the Phe1534Cys mutation from the IR03 line

In an attempt to isolate metabolic resistance alleles, inter-crosses assisted by genotyping were performed on the IR03 resistant line to create the IR0F line depleted from the Phe1534Cys *kdr* mutation. A total of 245 IR03 couples were individualised at the pupal stage in eppendorf tubes placed in plastic cups covered by a nylon mesh and allowed to emerge and reproduce. The Phe1534Cys Kdr mutation was first searched for from male exuvia for all couples and then from female exuvia of the 58 couples from which males were negatives for the 1534Cys allele. Genotyping was performed on qPCR using the High Resolution Melt Curve Analysis method as described in Saavedra-Rodriguez et al. (2007). The six couples in which both parents were homozygous wild type (Phe-Phe) were transferred to a mesh cage, blood fed and allowed to lay eggs. The absence of the 1534Cys allele in the offspring was confirmed by genotyping 40 individuals of both sexes. Adults were then exposed to 0.05% deltamethrin and survivors were allowed to freely reproduce to generate the IR0F resistant line. The IR0F line was then maintained in standard insectary conditions under moderate deltamethrin selection pressure (*i.e.* 50% mortality every two generations).

Deltamethrin bioassays

All bioassays were performed by exposing replicates of 20-25 three days-old non-blood-fed adults to deltamethrin impregnated filter papers following the standard WHO procedure, with mortality being recorded 24h after insecticide exposure (WHO, 2022). Different doses and exposure times were used according to the nature of the mosquito tested (susceptibility status, sex, use of enzymatic inhibitor) in order to maximise the mortality variations observed. Bioassay assessing the resistance level of the different lines was performed on females using 10 replicates per line and a dose of 0.05% deltamethrin for 40 min. The involvement of P450s in the resistance phenotype was assessed by comparing deltamethrin mortality of females exposed or not to filter papers impregnated with 4% piperonyl butoxide (PBO) for 1h prior to deltamethrin bioassay. This bioassay was performed on 5 replicates for each condition and a dose of 0.03% deltamethrin for 30 min. In order to investigate the mode of inheritance of resistance, comparative bioassays were performed on males and females obtained from the susceptible Bora-Bora line and the resistant IROF line together with F1 and F2 individuals obtained from their reciprocal crosses (see below). Deltamethrin exposure conditions were 0.03% deltamethrin for 30 min for females and 0.015% deltamethrin for 25 min for the males to account for their inherent lower insecticide tolerance. Bioassays used for monitoring the resistance level of the selected and non-selected lines during experimental evolution were performed on 5 to 7 replicates per line per generation using a dose of 0.03% deltamethrin for 1h.

Controlled cross and association studies

In order to investigate the mode of inheritance of resistance, reciprocal crosses between the fully susceptible Bora-Bora line and the resistant IROF line were performed (cross A: 'Bora-Bora females x IROF males' and cross B: 'IROF females x Bora-Bora males'). Crosses were performed with 200 virgin females and males of each line. The susceptibility of F1 and F2 males and females from each cross were then compared using deltamethrin bioassays as described above. The association of the P450 duplication with deltamethrin survival was studied in F2 females obtained from both reciprocal crosses. Females were segregated with 0.03% deltamethrin for 1h leading to 88.5% mortality after a 24h recovery time. Dead and alive females were sampled and stored at -20°C until molecular analyses. The response of the P450 duplication and the Ile1011Met *kdr* mutation were further studied across multiple generations using experimental selection. F3 eggs obtained from the two reciprocal crosses A and B were pooled in equal quantity and then randomly split in 4 lines: the first two lines (NSA and NSB) were maintained without insecticide selection, while the two other lines

(SelA and SelB) were selected with deltamethrin. This duplicated line setup was used in order to

control for genetic drift that may occur across generations. Deltamethrin mass selection was

performed prior mating on both virgin males and virgin females (N>1000 for each line) at generations

F4, F6, F8, F12 and F13. A constant dose of deltamethrin was used through the selection process

leading to ~70% mortality in each sex at generation F3 (females: 0.03% for 1h; males: 0.015% for 30

min). The resistance level of each line was monitored at generations F5, F9, F12, F13 and F14 on

females prior to insecticide selection using standard bioassays (see above). Unexposed adult females

from each line were sampled at the same generations and stored at -20°C until molecular analysis.

RNA-sequencing

Gene transcription levels were compared across the four lines (Bora-Bora, IR13, IR03 and IR0F) using

RNA-seq. For each line, four RNA-seq libraries were prepared from distinct batches of 25 calibrated

three-day-old non-blood-fed females not exposed to insecticide. Total RNA was extracted using

TRIzol (Thermo Fisher Scientific) following manufacturer's instructions. RNA samples were then

treated with RNase-free DNase set (Qiagen) to remove gDNA contamination, purified on RNeasy mini

columns (Qiagen) and QC checked using Qubit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and bioanalyzer (Agilent).

RNA-seq libraries were prepared from 500 ng total RNA using the NEBNext® Ultra™ II directional RNA

library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England Biolabs) following manufacturer's instructions. Briefly,

mRNAs were captured using oligodT magnetic beads and fragmented before being reverse

transcribed using random primers. Double-stranded cDNAs were synthesised, end-repaired, and

adaptors were incorporated at both ends. Libraries were then amplified by PCR for 10 cycles and

purified before QC check using Qubit and Bioanalyzer. Libraries were then sequenced in multiplex as

single 75 bp reads using a NextSeq500 sequencer (Illumina). An average of 51.4 M reads was

generated per library. After unplexing and removing adaptors, sequenced reads from each library

were loaded into Strand NGS V3.2 (Strand Life Science) and mapped to the latest *Ae. aegypti* genome

assembly (Aaeg L5) using the following parameters: min identity = 90%, max gaps = 5%, min aligned

read length = 25, ignore reads with > 5 matches, 3 end read trimming if quality < 20, mismatch

penalty = 4, gap opening penalty = 6, gap extension penalty = 1. Mapped reads were then filtered

based on their quality and alignment score as follows: mean read quality > 25, max N allowed per

read = 5, alignment score ≥ 90, mapping quality ≥ 120, no multiple match allowed, read length ≥ 35.

These filtering steps allowed retaining ~75% of reads. Quantification of transcription levels was

performed on the 13614 protein-coding genes using the DESeq2 method with 1000 iterations

(Anders & Huber, 2010, https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/DESeq2.html). Only

the 11449 genes showing a normalised expression level ≥ 0.5 (~0.05 RPKM) in all replicates for all

lines were retained for further analysis. Differential gene transcription levels between each line

across all replicates were then computed using a one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey post hoc test

and p values were corrected using the Benjamini and Hochberg multiple testing correction

(Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995). Genes showing a transcription variation ≥ 1.5 fold (in either direction)

and an adjusted p value ≤ 0.0005 in the four pairwise comparisons between resistant and susceptible

lines (*i.e.* IR03 Vs Bora-Bora, IR03 Vs IR13, IR0F Vs Bora-Bora and IR0F Vs IR13), were considered

differentially transcribed in association with deltamethrin resistance.

Whole genome Pool-seq and CNV analysis

The genome of the four lines were compared using whole genome pool-seq. For each line, genomic

DNA was extracted from two batches of 50 adult females using the PureGene Core Kit A (Qiagen) and

the two gDNA extracts were then pooled in equal proportion into a single sequencing library. Whole

genome sequencing was performed from 200 ng gDNA. Sequencing libraries were prepared

according to the TruSeq DNA Nano Reference guide for Illumina Paired-end Indexed sequencing

(version oct. 2017) with an insert size of 550 bp. Sequencing was performed on a NextSeq 550

(Illumina) as 150 bp paired-reads. Sequencing depth was adjusted to reach an average coverage ≥

80X leading to the sequencing of ~713 M reads per library. Reads obtained from each line were

loaded into Strand NGS V3.2 and mapped to *Ae. aegypti* genome (Aaeg L5) using the following

parameters: min identity = 90%, max gaps = 5%, min aligned read length = 25, ignore reads with > 5

matches, 3☐ end read trimming if quality < 15, mismatch penalty = 4, gap opening penalty = 6, gap

extension penalty = 1. Mapped reads were then filtered based on their quality and alignment score

as follows: mean read quality > 25, max N allowed per read = 5, alignment score ≥ 90, mapping

quality ≥ 60, no multiple match allowed, read length ≥ 100. Finally, interchromosomal split reads and

PCR duplicates were removed. These filtering steps allowed retaining ~53% of reads. In order to

focus on duplication impacting protein expression, gene copy number variation (CNV) analysis was

performed on exons of all protein-coding genes. For each gene, raw coverages were obtained by

dividing the number of reads mapped to all (non-overlapping) exons by total exon length. Normalised

gene coverages were then obtained by dividing raw gene coverages by the total number of reads

passing mapping and quality filters from each sequenced library. In order to limit false positives in

low coverage regions, genes showing a normalised coverage value < 1E-8 in at least one line were

filtered out (12145 genes retained). As for RNA-seq, genes showing a CNV ≥ 1.5 fold (in either

direction) in the four pairwise 'resistant *vs* susceptible' comparisons were considered affected by

CNV in association with resistance.

Long read sequencing and de novo assembly of the P450 duplication

The genomic architecture of the duplicated locus was further examined in the duplicated IR0F line
versus the non-duplicated IR13 line. Both lines were submitted to long read sequencing using oxford
nanopore technology. Genomic DNA was extracted from pools of 75 adult females using the Gentra
Puregene Tissue kit (Qiagen) with 3 mL cell lysis buffer. Genomic DNA was quantified using Qubit
DNA Broad Range assay (Qiagen) and quality-checked by agarose gel electrophoresis before adjusting
concentration to 150 ng/μl. High genomic DNA fragments were selected using the Short Read
Eliminator kit (Circulomics). DNA libraries were prepared using 1 μg gDNA with the ligation
sequencing kit SQK-LSK109 kit (Oxford Nanopore) following manufacturer's instructions. Finally, 50
fmoles of the resulting DNA library were loaded on a R9.4.1 MinIon flow cell. Long read sequences
were collected from 2 independent runs of 48 h for each line. Sequencing generated a total of
515K/1017K reads with an average length of 13.5/9.8 Kb, representing 3.4/4.8-fold genome
coverage, for IR0F and IR13 lines respectively. Reads were mapped on the AaegL5 reference genome
using Winnowmap (Jain et al., 2022) and alignments were visualised using IGV (Robinson et al.,
2011). Finally, de novo genomes of the IR0F and IR13 lines were assembled using both Illumina short
reads and oxford nanopore long reads using MaSuRCA (Zimin et al., 2013). This de novo assembly
resulted into 17346/ 13160 contigs, with a median size of 40/55 kb for each line respectively.
Transposable elements were identified using BLAST against the RepBase library (10/12/2021
version).

Quantification of the P450 duplication

The detection of the P450 duplication was achieved through the quantification of *CYP6BB2* copy
number by digital droplet PCR (ddPCR). Genomic DNA was extracted from pools of mosquitoes using
the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method (Collins et al 1987), resuspended in nuclease-
free water and quantified using Qubit DNA Broad Range assay (Qiagen). The duplex ddPCR
quantification assay was based on the co-amplification of two target genes each detected with
specific Taqman probes: the gene *CYP6BB2* (AAEL014893, Fam) was used to quantify the P450
duplication copy number while the gene *CYP4D39* (AAEL007808, Hex) always found as a single copy
in various *Ae. aegypti* lines was used as control for normalisation of gDNA quantities (Faucon et al.,
2015). Before amplification, gDNA samples were digested with XhoI for 15 min at 37°C directly within
the ddPCR reaction mixture. This reaction mixture was partitioned into up to 20,000 nanoliter-sized
droplets using the QX200 droplet generator (Bio-Rad) by mixing 70 μl of synthetic oil with 20 μl PCR

mix. Then, 40µL of the partitioned reaction was then amplified for 40 cycles with an annealing

temperature of 60°C (see **Supplementary file 8** for protocol details and primers/probes). After

amplification, the number of positive and negative droplets was quantified for both Fam and Hex

channels using the QX200 droplet reader (Bio-Rad) and the positive/negative ratio was used to

estimate the initial gDNA concentration of each gene assuming a Poisson distribution. After

normalisation for gDNA quantity, *CYP6BB2* copy number were expressed as mean copy number (±

95% CI).

Quantification of the Ile1011Met kdr mutation frequency

The frequency of the Ile1011Met kdr mutation was quantified on pools of mosquitoes using ddPCR.

Genomic DNA was extracted as described above and digested with XhoI for 15 min at 37°C before

partitioning. The duplex TaqMan reaction mixture contained two amplification primers together with

two Taqman probes labelled with Fam and Hex fluorophores corresponding to the Met and Iso alleles

respectively (see **Supplementary file 8** for protocol and primer/probes details). The duplex reaction

mixture was emulsioned as described above and amplified for 40 cycles with an annealing

temperature of 59°C. After droplet reading, the positive/negative ratio obtained for each channel

was visualised as a scatterplot and was used to estimate the frequency of each allele assuming a

Poisson distribution with 95% CI.

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Authors's contributions

830 JMB and JPD designed the study. TB, CH, JG, JC, MK, LN, TG, FL and JT performed experiments and
831 analysed data. JF, FB, JV, JMB and JPD supervised data analysis. ID provided biological materials and
832 data. JMB, JF and JPD acquired the funding. TB, JMB and JPD wrote and revised the paper.

Data availability

834 RNA-seq data have been deposited at EBI short read archive (SRA) under accession number E-MTAB-
835 13325. DNA-seq short and long reads have been deposited at EBI short read archive (SRA) under
836 accession number E-MTAB-13310.

Ethical aspects

Mice were kept in the animal facility of the Biology department of the University of Grenoble-Alpes,
approved by the French Ministry of Animal Welfare (agreement no. B 38 421 10 001) and used in
accordance with the laws of the European Union (directive 2010/63/EU). The use of animals for this
study was approved by the ComEth Grenoble-C2EA-12 ethics committee mandated by the French
Ministry of Higher Education and Research (MENESR). The study was conducted in accordance with
the ARRIVE guidelines.

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Figures

Figure 1. Synergistic effect of PBO on deltamethrin resistance. Adult females were exposed or not to 4% PBO for 1h followed by a 30-min exposure to 0.03% deltamethrin. Mortality was recorded 24h after exposure. Mean mortality rates are indicated ± SD, and compared using a Wilcoxon test (N=5, ns: not significant; **: p-value < 0.01).

Figure 2. Genes over transcribed in resistant lines and their associated copy number variations. Only the 45 genes found significantly over transcribed from RNA-seq are shown (FC≥ 1.5 and corrected P value ≤ 0.0005 in all resistant versus susceptible pairwise comparisons). Genes also showing an elevated copy number from WG DNA-seq (FC ≥ 1.5) in all pairwise comparisons are indicated with stars. Genomic coordinates (chromosome and start position), accession number and description are indicated for all genes. Gene descriptions in grey were obtained from a BlastP against NCBI Refseq. Genes in red belong to a single duplicated region on chromosome 1. Pool-seq read coverage profiles of the susceptible IR13 and the resistant IROF lines around the duplicated locus are shown. Pie charts show the proportion of P450s in each dataset.

Figure 3. Genomic architecture of the duplication. The topology was deduced from both short and long reads sequencing data. The six CYP6 genes carried by the duplication in the resistant lines are represented by red arrows. Regions containing full or partial transposable elements are shown in greater detail. Orange and yellow triangles denote the inverted terminal repeats from hAT (17 pb) and PiggyBac-like (18 pb) elements respectively. Diagram is not to scale.

Figure 4. Genotype-phenotype association study. Genotype-phenotype association study. Left panel shows mortality data obtained by exposing adult females from the IROF and Bora-Bora lines and their F1 and F2 progeny to 0.03% deltamethrin for 1 hour. Mean mortalities ± SD 24h after insecticide exposure are shown and distinct letters indicate significant mortality differences (significant Kruskal-Wallis test followed by post hoc Wilcoxon test with Bonferroni-Holm correction, N ≥ 5, p ≤ 0.05). Middle and right panels show the copy number of *CYP6BB2* and the frequency of the *kdr* 1011Met allele respectively as inferred by ddPCR on pools of individuals (mean ± 95% CI, Bora: N=19, IROF: N=23, F1: N=17, F2D: N=113, F2S: N=15). Dead and surviving F2 individuals 24h after insecticide exposure are noted F2D and F2S respectively.

Figure 5: Response of the P450 duplication and the *kdr* 1011Met allele to deltamethrin selection. Experimental evolution was performed from the F3 offspring of 'Bora-Bora x IROF' reciprocal cross using two replicate lines for each selection regime: deltamethrin-selection (SelA and SelB lines, black) and no selection (NSA and NSB lines, grey). Circles and triangles distinguish replicates A and B. Grey dashed lines indicate the generations for which Sel lines were selected with deltamethrin. Left panel shows the resistance of each line as measured by bioassays with 0.03% deltamethrin (mean mortality ± SD). Middle and right panels show the copy number of CYP6BB2 and the frequency of the kdr 1011Met allele respectively as inferred by ddPCR on pools of individuals (mean ± 95% CI, N ≥ 30). The SelB *CYP6BB2* copy number data point marked with a '!' was caused by an unexpected sampling bias and was therefore not included in the statistical analysis comparing *CYP6BB2* copy number between Sel and NS lines across generation (Linear Mixed Effect Model, p=0.0088).

Supplementary materials

Supplementary file 1 (.tiff image). Bioassays data from F1 and F2 offspring used to investigate the mode of inheritance of the resistance phenotype. Top: Controlled crosses used to generate F1 and F2 individuals used for bioasays. Bottom: Comparative mortality data obtained from the Bora-Bora and IR0F lines together with the F1 and F2 progeny of each cross in males and females. Deltamethrin exposure conditions were 0.03% deltamethrin for 30 min for females and 0.015% deltamethrin for 25 min for males to account for their inherent lower insecticide tolerance. Mortality rates are indicated as mean ± SD. Distinct letters indicate significantly distinct means (Kruskal-Wallis test followed by post hoc pairwise Wilcoxon test with Bonferroni-Holm correction, N=5, p ≤ 0.05).

Supplementary file 2 (.xlsx file). RNA-seq and CNV data sets. All protein coding genes showing a significant differential transcription (sheet 'RNA-seq') or a significant differential exonic coverage (sheet 'CNV') are shown. See methods for filtering conditions and thresholds. Gene descriptions beginning with a # were manually inferred from Blast X result.

Supplementary File 3 (.tiff image). Genomic architecture of the *kdr* locus in the IR0F resistant line. On chromosome 3, the 3' part of the VGSC gene, including the 21 last exons, is duplicated. Black bars indicate the position of the coding exons. The duplication is 125 Kb long, and is imperfect: the two copies, R and R' mostly differing in their intronic sequences. The duplication breakpoints, left (LB) and right (RB) are located at 315,905,811 bp and 316,030,250 bp on the reference genome AaegL5. The 1011Met codon is located on the upstream copy (R) and followed by a B type intron. The 1011Ile codon is on the downstream copy and followed by an A type intron (Martins et al, 2013). RNA-seq data supported the sole expression of the 1011Met allele.

Supplementary file 4 (.xlsx file). Long reads overlapping the P450 duplication breakpoints.

Supplementary file 5 (.docx file). Data supporting the identification of the transposable elements flanking the P450 duplication.

Supplementary file 6 (.docx file). RNA interference experiment. This document includes detailed results and methods.

Supplementary file 7 (.tiff image). Proposed evolutionary steps leading to the observed duplication architecture. Theoretical structures and those inferred from short and long reads data are indicated. The hAt-like and PiggyBac-like transposons are shown in purple and green respectively. Transposition events are shown as dashed lines. The second hAt-like transposition event would have created an incomplete copy of the hAT transposon, either directly or through a posterior deletion. Recombination events are shown as blue crossed lines. Stars indicates junctions that were confirmed by short reads data.

Supplementary File 8 (.docx file). Digital droplet PCR assays used to quantify the P450 duplication and the frequency of the Ile1011Met kdr mutation. This document provides all technical details related these ddPCR assays including amplification primers, TaqMan probes, PCR conditions and data interpretation.