An aphid-resistant plant metabolite as a candidate aphicide: Insight into the bioactivity

and action mode of betulin against aphids

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ABSTRACT

Pest-resistant plants usually utilize secondary metabolites to cope with insect infestation. Betulin, a key bioactive compound in aphid-resistant wild peach, possesses promising applications in crop protection. Here, betulin, in both greenhouse and field experiments, displayed excellent control efficacy against *Myzus persicae*. RNA-seq, qRT–PCR, and western blotting revealed that betulin significantly inhibited the expression of *MpGABR* (encoding a GABA$_A$ receptor). Besides, RNAi-mediated silencing of *MpGABR* markedly increased aphid sensitivity to betulin. Furthermore, MST and voltage-clamp assays indicated that betulin bound to MpGABR (K_d = 2.24 μM) and acted as an inhibitor of MpGABR. Molecular docking, mutagenesis and genome editing suggested that THR228 is a critical and highly conserved site in MpGABR that betulin binds to specifically, causing aphid death. Overall, the activity of betulin depends on specific targeting and inhibition of MpGABR. Elucidating the mechanism of action of this peach-derived insecticide may offer a sustainable green strategy for aphid control.

KEYWORDS: betulin; aphid; GABA$_A$ receptor; insecticide; insecticidal mechanism

1. INTRODUCTION

Over more than 400 million years of coevolution with herbivores, plants have developed a variety of morphological,[1] biochemical,[2] and molecular[3] defense strategies against insect herbivore attack. Plant secondary metabolites are highly valuable natural compounds, offering abundant and potent biochemical defense driven by plant-insect coevolution.[4] Interestingly, wild relatives of crops with insect resistance usually accumulate large amounts of biologically active compounds.[5, 6] Accordingly, investigating the bioactivities and potential mechanisms of action of compounds derived from wild resistant germplasms may provide effective and sustainable strategies for pest control in crop protection.

Myzus persicae (Sülzer) is one of the most destructive sap-feeding pests worldwide. It is able to settle on more than 400 plant species globally, displaying extraordinary polyphagia and a wide range of hazards.[7] In addition to ingesting phloem saps and secreting honeydew, *M. persicae* can transmit various plant viruses,[8] resulting in severe losses in crop yields. To date, the principal control strategy for *M. persicae* has relied on synthetic insecticides, including pyrethroids, organophosphorus compounds, carbamates and neonicotinoids.[9-11] However, long-term irrational application of these chemical insecticides has led to environmental pollution and promoted the resistance of aphids to insecticides.[11-13] Therefore, it is necessary to develop novel green insecticides as potential alternatives to synthetic insecticides. Fortunately, plant secondary metabolites are a "treasure trove of active compounds" that serve as a rich resource for the development of promising green insecticides.

Our previous study revealed that *Prunus davidiana*, a close wild relative of cultivated peach, displays strong resistance to *M. persicae* through the accumulation of high levels of

betulin.[3, 5] In addition, betulin, a lupane-type triterpene, possesses strong insecticidal activity

and is a promising substance for the development of novel aphid-control insecticides. A

number of studies have reported that betulin and its derivatives exhibit a wide range of

pharmacological activities,[14] which have been used to treat various diseases, such as cancer,[15]

glioblastoma,[16] inflammation[17] and hyperlipidemia.[18] However, the insecticidal mechanism of

betulin against aphids remains unclear.

Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptors have been confirmed to be targets of

terpenoids that impair neuronal function in insect herbivores.[19] In mammals, there are two

types of GABA receptors: ionotropic (GABA$_A$) and metabotropic (GABA$_B$) receptors. GABA$_A$

receptors (GABRs) are heteropentameric ligand-gated ion channels in the central nervous

system that conduct chloride and bicarbonate ions and are the target of numerous drugs for

the treatment of neuropsychiatric disorders.[20] GABRs are composed of 5 different types of

subunits, each with 4 helical transmembrane domains (TM1-TM4), of which TM2 is located at

the center of the pentamer and forms an ion channel.[21] However, the structure and assembly

of insect GABRs have not been fully elucidated. The first GABA receptor subunit identified in

insects is encoded by *Rdl*, which confers resistance to dieldrin in *Drosophila melanogaster*.[22]

Although a variety of terpenoids play roles as positive allosteric modulators or

noncompetitive antagonists at GABRs,[19] whether betulin targets the GABR in *M. persicae*

needs to be further investigated.

In this study, betulin was confirmed to have excellent control efficacy against *M. persicae*

in both greenhouse and field experiments. RNA-seq, qRT–PCR, and western blotting assays

revealed that betulin significantly inhibited the expression of *MpGABR* in aphids. In addition,

RNAi-mediated silencing of *MpGABR* markedly increased aphid sensitivity to betulin.

Furthermore, microscale thermophoresis (MST) and voltage-clamp assays indicated that

betulin can bind to MpGABR (K_d = 2.24 μM) and act as an inhibitor (EC50 = 20.66 μM) of

MpGABR. Molecular docking analysis suggested that betulin bound to MpGABR via the

THR228 amino acid residue. This site is highly conserved in the family Hemiptera and may

be a critical specific binding site for betulin in MpGABR in aphids. Mutagenesis and genome

editing experiments revealed that betulin bound specifically to this amino acid residue in

aphids but not in *Drosophila*, resulting in aphid death. This study elucidated the insecticidal

mechanism of betulin involving the targeting of MpGABR, providing a sustainable green

strategy for aphid control.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Test insects

M. persicae populations were collected from tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum* L.) leaves.

Wild-type (WT) flies (*D. melanogaster*) were purchased from Fungene Biotechnology Co., Ltd.,

Jiangsu, China. The test insects were cultured in a greenhouse (25 °C, 70% relative humidity

and 14 h light/10 h dark cycle) in Beibei, Chongqing, China.

2.2 Bioassay

The toxicity of betulin against *M. persicae* was measured using a slip-dip bioassay as

previously described.[5] Thirty apterous adult *M. persicae* individuals were gently transferred

on tobacco (*N. tabacum*) leaves using a fine brush. The tobacco leaves were subsequently

immersed in 0.1% (v/v) Tween-80 and 3% (v/v) acetone solution containing betulin or

pymetrozine (as a positive control) at 6 doses (0, 0.0625, 0.125, 0.25, 0.5, 1, and 2 mg· mL^{-1}) for

105 5 seconds. After drying, the leaves with *M. persicae* were placed on wet filter paper and

106 cultured on a water-soaked sponge for 48 h. Three replicates were tested for each treatment.

107 Furthermore, the LC_{30}, LC_{50} and LC_{70} values of betulin were calculated using log-probit

108 analysis via IBM SPSS Statistics (v.22.0, Chicago, IL, USA).[2]

109 **2.3 Control effect of betulin against *M. persicae***

110 The control effects of betulin against *M. persicae* in the greenhouse and field were

111 evaluated by a spraying-based method as described previously.[23] The commercial insecticide

112 pymetrozine and an aqueous solution containing 3% (v/v) acetone and 0.1% (v/v) Tween-80

113 were employed as positive and negative controls, respectively. Sprays of 0.1641 mg·mL^{-1} (LC_{50})

114 betulin and 1.0612 mg·mL^{-1} (LC_{50}) pymetrozine (Table S1) were prepared in aqueous solutions

115 including 3% (v/v) acetone and 0.1% (v/v) Tween-80, respectively. Before the control effect

116 assays, each tobacco (*N. tabacum* L.) seedling was pre-inoculated with 60 apterous adults of *M.*

117 *persicae*. In the greenhouse trial, each treatment included 8 replications, and each replication

118 consisted of 3 tobacco plants growing under controlled conditions as described above. The

119 field trial (Beibei District, Chongqing, China.) was conducted under natural conditions with

120 an average temperature of 20 °C. Each treatment had 8 replications, covering an area of 20 m^2,

121 with 3 protected rows per replication. Furthermore, each tobacco plant was sprayed with 20

122 mL of the corresponding solution with an electric sprayer. Mortality was recorded after 1, 5, 9,

123 and 14 days of treatment. The control efficacy of betulin against *M. persicae* was calculated

124 according to the methods of Zhou.[23]

125 **2.4 RNA-seq assay**

126 After exposure to 0.1641 mg· mL^{-1} (48 h LC_{50}) betulin for 48 h, 100 wingless *M. persicae*

adults were sampled, and total RNA was extracted via TRIzol reagent (Tiangen, Beijing,

China) to construct mRNA sequencing libraries. RNA-seq analysis was performed on the Ion

Proton BGISEQ-500 platform (Beijing Genomic Institute, BGI, China). After the raw reads

were filtered, the clean reads were aligned to the *M. persicae* reference genome, which was

downloaded from the National Center for Biotechnology Information database, using

HISAT2 (v2.1.0).[24] The expression levels of genes in each sample were normalized to the

fragments per kilobase million mapped reads (FPKM) value. The differentially expressed

genes (DEGs) between groups were identified using the fold change factor ($|\text{Log}_2(FC)| > 1$).

Functional enrichment analysis of DEGs was performed using the Gene Ontology (GO) and

Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) databases.

2.5 Validation by quantitative real-time PCR (qRT–PCR)

The gene-specific primers used for qRT–PCR, which were designed with Primer 5.0, are

listed in Table S2. According to the manufacturer's specifications for the Bio-Rad iQ™ SYBR®

Green Supermix Kit, qRT–PCR was performed with the following conditions: 60 °C for 15 s,

followed by 48 cycles of 60 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C for 30 s. The *ribosomal protein S18* gene

(*RPS18*) was used as the reference gene to normalize the expression levels. The relative

expression levels of the target genes were calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ approach.[2] Three

biological replicates were used for each assay.

2.6 Cloning, bioinformatics and phylogenetic analysis

The cDNA of *M. persicae* was synthesized from the extracted total RNA using the

PrimeScript® 1st Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (TaKaRa, Japan). The coding sequences of

MpGABR (encoding GABA$_A$ receptor), *MpGABRAP* (encoding GABA$_A$ receptor-associated

protein) and *MpGABRB* (encoding GABA_A receptor β subunit) were cloned from *M. persicae*

cDNA using the corresponding specific primers (Table S2) and then inserted separately into

the pGEM-T Easy vector. The recombinant plasmids were subsequently transferred into

Escherichia   coli   DH5α   competent   cells   for   sequencing.   BioXM   (v2.7.1)

(http://202.195.246.60/BioXM/) was used to analyze the sequence information of these three

genes, including the length, molecular weight, and isoelectric point of the deduced amino

acid sequence. MEGA7 was used for multiple amino acid sequence alignment (ClustalW) and

phylogenetic analysis (neighbor-joining method with 1000 replicates) of MpGABR.

2.5 *In vitro* RNAi assay

To knock down the target genes (*MpGABR*, *MpGABRAP*, and *MpGABRB*), *MpGABR-*,

MpGABRAP-, and *MpGABRB*-dsRNA were artificially synthesized using the dsRNA

Synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific, Vilnius, Lithuania, EU). In accordance with a previously

described method,[25] fresh tobacco leaves were cut into 3.0 cm-diameter discs and placed in an

oven at 50 °C for 3 min. Subsequently, the dried leaf discs were exposed to 10 μL of diethyl

pyrocarbonate-treated nuclease-free water (DEPC-water), dsGFP (green fluorescent protein,

1000 ng· μL^{-1}, negative control), and *MpGABR-*, *MpGABRAP-*, or *MpGABRB*-dsRNA (1000

ng/·μL^{-1}) at 25 °C for 5 h. After the leaf discs had absorbed the solution, they were placed on

wet filter paper on a water-soaked sponge. Subsequently, 30 wingless adult *M. persicae*,

starved for 24 h, were fed on the treated leaf discs for 48 h. The surviving aphids were

collected after exposure for qRT–PCR.

2.6 Prokaryotic expression of *MpGABR* and western blotting

To produce the MpGABR protein *in vitro*, an *Escherichia coli* expression system was

constructed.[26] Briefly, the coding sequence of *MpGABR* was inserted into the expression

vector PET-B2M and transformed into BL21 (*DE3*) competent cells. To induce the expression

of the MpGABR protein, 2 mM isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) was used, and

then, the transformed BL21 cells were incubated at 180 rpm and 30 °C for 24 h. Finally, the

protein was extracted and purified using Solarbio GST-tag Purification Resin for subsequent

assays.

The purified MpGABR protein resolved on a 15% SDS–PAGE (sodium dodecyl sulfate–

polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis) gel and then transferred to a polyvinylidene fluoride

(PVDF) membrane at 20 V for 1 h. Moreover, 1 × TBST (Tris-Borate-Sodium Tween-20)

containing 5% fat-free milk powder was used to block the PVDF membrane. Then, the PVDF

membrane was incubated with an antibody against MpGABR (polyclonal rabbit antibody,

provided by GeneCreate Biotechnology) at 25 °C for 1 h. Subsequently, the membrane was

further incubated with the corresponding horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated goat

anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (IgG) antibody at 25 °C for 1 h and then washed three times

with TBST. Finally, the bands on the membrane were visualized using a Chemi Doc MP

Imaging System (Bio-Rad) after incubation with a chemiluminescence reagent (ECL,

Bio-Rad).

2.7 Molecular docking

In accordance with a previously reported method,[23] the protein structure and function of

MpGABR were predicted via the I-TASSER server (Iterative Threading ASSEmbly

Refinement). AutoDockTools software (v1.5.7) was used to conduct molecular docking.

Furthermore, PyMOL (v3.1) and Discovery Studio (v4.5) were used to evaluate the molecular

docking model.

2.8 Site-directed mutagenesis

The cDNA of *MpGABR* was inserted into the PET-B2M vector and used as the template

for site-directed mutagenesis. In accordance with the manufacturer's specifications, the Fast

MultiSite Mutagenesis Kit (TransGen, Beijing, China) was used to generate the multisite

mutations in MpGABR.[27] Then, the MpGABR mutants, with the mutations R224A (ARG224

replaced by ALA), A226T (ALA226 replaced by THR), F227Y (PHE227 replaced by TYR), and

T228R (THR228 replaced by ARG), were amplified, and the amplicons were used to replace

the *Bam*HI-*Sma*I fragment in the recombinant MpGABR plasmid.

2.9 Method for *Drosophila* genome editing

To generate *Drosophila* mutants bearing the DmGABR[R122T] mutation, homologous to

THR228 in MpGABR, the Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats-Cas9

(CRISPR/Cas9) genomic editing strategy was used. First, CRISPR Optimal Target Finder

(http://targetfinder.flycrispr.neuro.brown.edu/) was used to generate short guide RNA

(sgRNA) targets without off-target hits. Then, the Precision gRNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo

Scientific) was used to synthesize the sgRNA. The 228 bp homologous arm in R122T, for

homology-directed repair, was subsequently employed to synthetize single-stranded DNA

(ssDNA) bearing the desired mutation (DmGABR[R122T]). Subsequently, 1 nL of a mixture

containing 160 ng· μL^{-1} ssDNA, 300 ng· μL^{-1} both sgRNAs, or 90 ng· μL^{-1} Cas9 protein was

injected into *Drosophila* embryos via the Drummond Nanoject III (Broomall, PA, USA) system.

CRISPR/Cas9-induced mutations were verified by amplifying and sequencing gDNA flanking

the genome editing target site. Finally, according to the traditional topical application and

bioassay approach described previously,[23] the acute insect toxicity of betulin in

genome-modified or nonmodified (WT) 3-day-old adult flies was determined. The

oligonucleotide sequences used for PCR, the sgRNA synthesis template and the fragment of

donor DNA used for homology-directed repair (HDR) are listed in Table S3.

2.10 Microscale thermophoresis (MST) assay

The binding affinity of MpGABR for betulin was measured via a NanoTemper

Technologies Monolith Kit (MO, Munich, Germany) according to the manufacturer's

specifications. Briefly, MpGABR was fluorescently labeled via a protein labeling kit

(RED-NHS 2nd generation, Monolith™) and then mixed with sixteen concentrations (from 5

nM to 60 mM) of betulin. The mixtures were subsequently loaded into NanoTemper

capillaries for MST measurements with 40% LED and 60% MST power at 25 °C. MO Control

NanoTemper Technologies GmbH software (v2.3) and MO Affinity Analysis software (v2.3,

NanoTemper Technologies GmbH) were used to acquire and analyze the recorded data,

respectively. The dissociation constant (K_d), indicating the binding affinity, was calculated

using data from three replicates for each experiment.

2.11 Electrophysiological recording

In accordance with previously described methods,[28] oocytes isolated from mature

healthy *Xenopus* females were digested at 25 °C for 1 h to remove the follicular layer.

Individual oocytes were selected to express *MpGABR* and incubated at 18 °C with 1× Ringer's

solution (96 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 5 mM HEPES, 2 mM KCl, and 0.8 mM CaCl$_2$)

supplemented with 550 mg·mL^{-1} sodium pyruvate, 100 mg·mL^{-1} streptomycin, 50 mg·mL^{-1}

tetracycline, and 5% dialyzed horse serum. After 3 days of incubation, the whole-cell currents

were recorded via a two-electrode voltage-clamp. The data were collected and analyzed using

Digidata 1440A and pCLAMP 10.2 software (Axon Instruments Inc., Union City, CA, USA),

respectively.[29]

2.12 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS (v22). Statistical significance was

determined using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for differences among groups. The

replicate numbers are indicated by the black dots in the figures.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Control efficacy of betulin against aphids

Bioassays revealed that the LC_{50} values of betulin and pymetrozine against *M. persicae* at

48 h were 0.1641 and 1.0612 mg·mL^{-1}, respectively (Table S1). To assess the control efficacy of

betulin, tobacco plants infected with *M. persicae* were exposed to betulin (0.1641 mg·mL^{-1}) and

pymetrozine (1.0612 mg·mL^{-1}, as a positive control) in both the greenhouse and field. In the

greenhouse test (Fig. 1A-D), after 14 days of treatment, *M. persicae* in the CK group (negative

control) reproduced rapidly, and tobacco leaves turned yellow and wrinkled, whereas

tobacco leaves in the betulin and pymetrozine treatment groups were barely affected by the

aphids (Fig. 1A). The control efficacy of betulin against *M. persicae* was significantly greater

than that of pymetrozine after 1 day of treatment, while there was no significant difference

between the control efficacies of betulin and pymetrozine after 5, 9, and 14 days of treatment

(Fig. 1E). After 14 days of treatment, the control efficacies of betulin and pymetrozine reached

91.54% and 95.15%, respectively. Throughout the field test (Fig. 1F), no difference in the

control efficacy was observed between betulin and pymetrozine, with values of 87.79% and

90.14%, respectively, after 14 days of treatment (Fig. 1G). These results suggest that betulin

has immense potential for development as a commercial aphid insecticide like pymetrozine.

3.2 Expression patterns of genes in aphids after treatment with betulin

To investigate the expression patterns of genes in *M. persicae* after exposure to betulin,

RNA-seq was performed on *M. persicae* with 0.1641 mg·mL^{-1} betulin treatment for 48 h and

without (CK) (Fig. 2A). Principal coordinate analysis (PCA) revealed that the expressed genes

were strongly clustered in the CK group and betulin group (Fig. 2B). Compared with those in

the CK group, there were 130 up- and 41 downregulated significant differentially expressed

genes (DEGs) in *M. persicae* after betulin treatment (Fig. 2C and D, Table S4). The validation

by qRT–PCR revealed that the relative expression trends of the fifteen DEGs determined via

qRT–PCR were similar to those detected via RNA–seq, supporting the reliability of the RNA–

seq data (Fig. 2E). To further analyze the functions of the DEGs, GO (Gene Ontology) and

KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes) enrichment analyses were performed.

GO term enrichment demonstrated that the DEGs were enriched mainly in the GABA$_A$

receptor activity term (Fig. 2F). Interestingly, KEGG enrichment also found that the DEGs

were enriched in the GABAergic signaling related pathway and GABAergic synapse terms

(Fig. 2G). Additionally, the expression of DEGs related to GABR, including *MpGABR*

(encoding GABA$_A$ receptor), *MpGABRAP* (encoding GABA$_A$ receptor-associated protein) and

MpGABRB (encoding GABA$_A$ receptor β subunit), in the betulin group was significantly

lower than that in the CK group (Fig. 2H). In particular, the log$_2$(fold change) value of

MpGABR was the lowest, at -3.8 (Table S4). These results suggested that *MpGABR* may be a

candidate target for betulin against *M. persicae.*

3.3 *MpGABR* expression was inhibited by betulin

Analysis of the sequence information revealed that the MpGABR, MpGABRAP and MpGABRB proteins have 694, 118, and 250 amino acids, respectively, with calculated molecular weights of 77.20, 14.08, and 28.01 kDa and isoelectric points of 9.85, 9.63, and 7.20, respectively (Table S5). Additionally, structure prediction indicated that MpGABR, MpGABRAP and MpGABRB contain 4, 0, and 1 transmembrane helical domain, respectively (Fig. 3A), implying that only MpGABR has a complete transmembrane structure.

To further verify the inhibitory effect of betulin on GABR-related gene expression, the relative expression of the three GABR-related genes was detected in *M. persicae* exposed to the LC_{30}, LC_{50}, and LC_{70} of betulin for 48 h. The relative expression of all three genes decreased gradually as the concentration of betulin increased (Fig. 3B-D). After exposure to the LC_{30} of betulin for 48 h, the relative expression of *MpGABR*, *MpGABRAP* and *MpGABRB* decreased by 82.91%, 10.53%, and 11.49%, respectively. These results indicated that *MpGABR* was most sensitive to betulin.

Furthermore, after these three genes were silenced via RNAi (Fig. 3H), the expression levels of *MpGABR*, *MpGABRAP* and *MpGABRB* in *M. persicae* decreased by 64.57%, 63.28%, and 67.33%, respectively, compared with those in the control group (DEPC-treated water) (Fig. 3E-G). After exposure to the LC_{50} of betulin for 48 h, the mortality of *M. persicae* with *MpGABR* silenced markedly increased, by 30.44%, compared with that in the control group, whereas the mortality of *M. persicae* in the *MpGABRAP*- and *MpGABRB*-silenced groups did not significantly differ from that in the control group (Fig. 3I). Additionally, western blotting analysis revealed that MpGABR protein expression decreased by 69.91% after RNAi (Fig. S1A,

303 B). These results further implied that *MpGABR* might be a target for betulin against *M.*

304 *persicae*.

3.5. Phylogenetic analysis of GABRs in insects

306 Furthermore, phylogenetic analysis of GABRs in insects was performed using the amino

307 acid sequences of 71 GARB proteins from Hemiptera, Diptera, Lepidoptera, Thysanoptera,

308 Hymenoptera, and Coleoptera. MpGABR (GenBank number: XM022318019.1) was found to

309 be genetically closely related to CAI6365831.1 from *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* (Fig. 4 and Table

310 S6), indicating that MpGABR may be functionally analogous to CAI6365831.1.

3.6. Responses of MpGABR to betulin

To investigate the effect of betulin on the MpGABR protein, *M. persicae* was exposed to

the LC_{30}, LC_{50}, and LC_{70} of betulin for 48 h. As the concentration of betulin increased, the

MpGABR protein content in *M. persicae* gradually decreased (Fig. 5A and B). Compared with

that in the CK group, the MpGABR protein content in *M. persicae* exposed to the LC_{30}, LC_{50},

and LC_{70} of betulin decreased by 33.68%, 44.89%, and 76.89%, respectively.

Moreover, the WT (wild type) MpGABR was expressed in *Escherichia coli* (Fig. 5C). The

binding affinity of betulin with WT MpGABR was further measured using MST. The K_d value

was 2.24 μM (Fig. 5D), suggesting that betulin could bind to MpGABR. Additionally,

voltage-clamp-based electrophysiological recording demonstrated that MpGABR strongly

responded to betulin (Fig. 5E). In the presence of only GABA, a fast inward current was

generated. As the concentration of added betulin increased, the current and channel activity

of MpGABR decreased correspondingly, with an EC_{50} value of 20.66 μM (Fig. 5E and F). These

results indicated that betulin acted as an inhibitor of MpGABR.

3.5 Key sites for the binding of betulin to MpGABR

To further study the binding mode of betulin in the active pocket of MpGABR, molecular docking was performed to explore the structure–function relationships between betulin and MpGABR. The docking results revealed that the predicted binding energy between betulin and MpGABR was −6.38 kcal·mol^{-1} (Table S7), verifying that betulin could act as a specific ligand for MpGABR. The three-dimensional binding pattern of betulin with MpGABR indicated that the four key amino acid residues (ARG224, ALA226, PHE227 and THR228) interacted with betulin in the MpGABR binding pocket (Fig. 6A). Among the four key amino acid residues, ALA226 and THR228 interacted with betulin via hydrogen bonding in the MpGABR binding pocket (Table S7). Betulin generated nonconventional H-bonds (C…H) with ALA226 (3.31 Å) and conventional H-bonds (C-O H) with THR228 (2.16 Å). Furthermore, sequence alignment of the key amino acid residues of GABR in different species from Hemiptera, Diptera, Lepidoptera, Hymenoptera, Thysanoptera, and Coleoptera indicated that only THR228 was conserved in Hemiptera (Fig. 6B), implying that THR228 may be an essential specific site for the action of betulin on MpGABR in aphids. Mutants of aphid MpGABR were subsequently constructed, including R224A (ARG224 replaced by ALA), A226T (ALA226 replaced by THR), F227Y (PHE227 replaced by TYR, similar to the site in *Drosophila*), and T228R (THR228 replaced by ARG, similar to the site in *Drosophila*) (Fig. 6C). The binding affinity of betulin with these mutants was measured using MST. The results revealed that the K_d values of R224A, A226T, F227Y, T228R, and WT were 2.31, 2.27, 2.25, 5321, and 2.24 μM, respectively (Fig. 6D and E, Table S8). This result suggested that the mutation at the THR228 site, with the highest K_d value, markedly reduced the binding ability of betulin to

MpGABR, implying that the THR228 site may be an essential specific site for the binding of

betulin to MpGABR.

3.6 Betulin binds specifically to MpGABR via THR228

To further prove that THR228 is the specific binding site for betulin in MpGABR, the WT

and mutant (R122T, equivalent to THR228 in MpGABR) *Drosophila* DmGABR proteins were

expressed in *E. coli* and extracted (Fig. 7A and D). The binding affinities of betulin and

pymetrozine with DmGABR[WT] and DmGABR[R122T] were evaluated using MST. As shown in

Fig. 7B, betulin was able to bind to DmGABR[R122T] (K_d = 342.4 μM) but not to DmGABR[WT].

However, pymetrozine exhibited no binding affinity for DmGABR[R122T] or DmGABR[WT] (Fig.

7C). Moreover, to generate *Drosophila* mutant individuals carrying DmGABR[R122T], the

CRISPR/Cas9 genomic editing strategy was used. After exposure to different concentrations

of betulin, the mortality rate of DmGABR[R122T] *Drosophila* was significantly greater than that of

DmGABR[WT] *Drosophila* (Fig. 7E). In addition, the LD$_{50}$ value of betulin against DmGABR[R122T]

Drosophila at 72 h was 27.19 μg·fly^{-1}, whereas the LD$_{50}$ value of betulin against DmGABR[WT]

Drosophila could not be calculated because the lethal concentration exceeded 1000 μg·fly^{-1}

(Table S9). Additionally, there was no significant difference in mortality between DmGABR[WT]

and DmGABR[R122T] *Drosophila* after exposure to pymetrozine (Fig. 7F). The LD$_{50}$ values of

pymetrozine against DmGABR[WT] and DmGABR[R122T] *Drosophila* at 72 h were 0.23 and 0.24

μg·fly^{-1}, respectively (Table S9). Moreover, THR228 is located at the neurotransmitter-gated

ion-channel ligand-binding domain in MpGABR (Fig. S2), implying that betulin may play a

role as a competitive antagonist of MpGABR. Taken together, these findings suggested that

betulin bound specifically to MpGABR via THR228, resulting in the death of *M. persicae*.

4. DISCUSSION

Although chemical pesticides are effective in pest control, the long-term unreasonable

application of these substances has led the emergence of resistant pests, environmental

deterioration, and deleterious effects on nontarget organisms, including humans, raising

widespread and intense concerns.[30] These challenges have made it urgent for the

development of alternative strategies for pest control. Recently, the utilization of plant

secondary metabolites as insecticides has become increasingly popular as an eco-friendly and

biocontrol approach.[31-33] Our previous study revealed that *P. davidiana*, a wild relative of

cultivated peach, strongly resists *M. persicae* by accumulating high contents of betulin.[3, 5] In

addition, betulin, a lupane-type triterpene, possesses potent insecticidal activity and is a

promising substance for the development of novel insecticides for aphid control. In this study,

the insecticidal effect of betulin was further evaluated by comparing the control efficacy of

betulin with that of pymetrozine against aphids in greenhouses and fields (Fig. 1A-G). These

results indicate that betulin has a similar control effect to pyrhidone and has immense

potential for development as a plant-derived insecticide.

Terpenes are a diverse group of plant secondary metabolites that can increase the

resistance of plants to insect herbivores through direct [34] and indirect [35] defense mechanisms.

In direct defense against herbivores, triterpenes play important roles in diverse biological

activities, including antiparasitic, insecticidal, and antifeedant activities.[36, 37] Azadirachtin, a

tetracyclic triterpenoid compound isolated from the Indian neem tree (*Azadirachta indica*), is

one of the most prominent commercial biopesticides, exhibiting strong insect antifeedant

properties as well as growth- and reproduction-regulating effects.[38, 39] Besides, triterpene

glycoside compounds play crucial roles in the defense of tobacco (*N. attenuata*) against

tobacco hornworm (*Manduca sexta*) larvae.[40] Although betulin exhibits various

pharmacological activities,[14-17] reports on its insecticidal activity are limited. Encouragingly,

the effects of betulin and its derivatives on pests have attracted increasing attention. Betulinic

acid and its derivatives showed larvicidal activity against *Aedes aegypti* larvae.[41]

Betulin-cinnamic acid-related hybrid compound 5b exhibited strong aphicidal activity, and

compound 2l could destroy the ultrastructure of midgut cells and significantly inhibit the

activity of α-amylase in diamondback moth (*Plutella xylostella* L.) larvae.[42] Our previous

studies also indicated that betulin possesses potent insecticidal activity and is a key

endogenous secondary metabolite related to the defense of peach against *M. persicae*.[5]

Elucidating the insecticidal mechanism of betulin against aphids will provide a basis for the

development of novel aphicides and sustainable strategies for aphid control.

GABA receptors have been confirmed to be targets of terpenoids that impair insect

neuronal function in herbivores.[19] GABRs are heteropentameric ligand-gated ion channels in

the central nervous system that conduct chloride and bicarbonate ions. These receptors are

targets of numerous drugs for the treatment of neuropsychiatric disorders.[20] A variety of

terpenoids act as positive allosteric modulators or noncompetitive antagonists of GABRs,

such as diterpenoids (isopimaric acid and miltirone), sesquiterpenoids (picrotoxin, bilobalide

and ginkgolides) and monoterpenoids (α-thujone and thymol).[19] In this study, both GO and

KEGG enrichment analyses revealed that the DEGs identified by RNA-seq were enriched in

GABAergic signaling-related pathways (Fig. 2F and G). Additionally, the expression of the

DEGs related to GABRs, particularly *MpGABR* (Table S4), in the betulin group was

significantly lower than that in the CK group (Fig. 2H). Besides, the relative expression of

MpGABR, *MpGABRAP* and *MpGABRB* decreased gradually after *M. persicae* was exposed to

the LC$_{30}$, LC$_{50}$, and LC$_{70}$ of betulin for 48 h (Fig. 3B-D). Among them, *MpGABR* was the most

sensitive to betulin, and its expression was reduced by 82.91% after exposure to the LC$_{30}$ of

betulin for 48 h. Furthermore, compared with the control group, the *M. persicae* group with

MpGABR silenced by RNAi presented a significant increase in mortality, by 30.44%, after 48 h

of exposure to the LC$_{50}$ of betulin (Fig. 3I). Collectively, these results suggest that betulin may

have insecticidal effects on aphids by inhibiting *MpGABR* expression.

Additionally, betulin has been reported to be able to bind to GABRs.[43] We further

investigated the interaction of betulin with the MpGABR protein. The MST assay revealed

that betulin was able to bind to MpGABR (K_d = 2.24 μM) (Fig. 5D), which is consistent with

previous findings showing that betulin binds to GABA receptors in mouse brains *in vitro*.[44]

Voltage-clamp-based electrophysiological recordings indicated that betulin acted as an

inhibitor (EC$_{50}$ = 20.66 μM) for MpGABR (Fig. 5E and F). Subsequent molecular docking

analysis suggested that four key amino acid residues (ARG224, ALA226, PHE227 and

THR228) interact with betulin in the MpGABR binding pocket (Fig. 6A), among which only

ALA226 and THR228 interact with betulin via hydrogen bonding (Table S7). The results of

the sequence alignment revealed that only THR228 was conserved in Hemiptera (Fig. 6B).

Furthermore, evaluation of the ability of betulin to bind to MpGABR mutants with mutations

at those four sites revealed that the ability of betulin to bind to T228R was significantly

weaker than its ability to bind to the WT (Fig. 6D and E, Table S8), indicating that THR228 is

an essential specific site for the binding of betulin to MpGABR. Moreover, to further prove

that THR228 is the specific binding site for betulin in MpGABR, the binding affinities of

betulin with the WT and mutant (R122T, equivalent to THR228 in MpGABR) *Drosophila*

DmGABR proteins were assessed using MST. The results showed that betulin was able to

bind to DmGABR[R122T] (K_d = 342.4 μM) but not DmGABR[WT] (Fig. 7B). Additionally, after

exposure to different concentrations of betulin, the mortality rate of DmGABR[R122T] *Drosophila*

was significantly greater than that of DmGABR[WT] *Drosophila* (Fig. 7E and Table S9). Similarly,

a previous study indicated that the R122G amino acid site substitution, generated via RNA

editing, affects the sensitivity of *Drosophila* to fipronil.[45] Together, these findings suggest that

betulin binds specifically to MpGABR via THR228, acting as an inhibitor of MpGABR and

causing aphid death.

GABRs belong to the cysteine loop (Cys)-loop superfamily of neurotransmitter receptors

and are essential heteropentameric ligand-gated ion channels in the central nervous system.

After GABA binds to the extracellular Cys-loop of a GABR,[46] the GABR is activated and opens

up its central pore to allow chloride ions to pass through, thereby hyperpolarizing neurons

and attenuating excitatory neurotransmission.[47] In insects, GABRs play an important role in

circadian rhythms,[48] sleep,[49] movement,[50] olfactory memory,[51] and so on. Additionally, GABR

is a critical target for a variety of insecticides and ectoparasiticides. Insecticides targeting

GABRs are categorized into noncompetitive antagonists (NCAs) and competitive antagonists

(CAs) according to their different binding sites. NCAs block chloride channels in nerve cells

by interacting with amino acid residues of the GABA-gated chloride channel, causing a

conformational change in the receptor, which interferes with the normal function of the

central nervous system and ultimately leads to insect death.[19, 52] A series of first- and

second-generation NCA insecticides have been successfully developed. Picrotoxinin, isolated

from *Anamirta cocculus* fruit, is the oldest natural NCA and is toxic to houseflies.[53] Among the

first-generation NCAs, polychlorocycloalkanes, including dieldrin and lindane, were

commonly used as pesticides in the middle and late 20th centuries.[54, 55] As second-generation

NCAs, fipronil and its derivatives are commercially available phenylpyrazole insecticides

that have been widely used for agricultural pest control.[56, 57] Additionally, CAs bind to

orthogonal binding sites, such as the GABA recognition site in the extracellular region,

competitively inhibiting the binding of GABA to its receptor, leading to toxic effects in insects.

Given the lack of interference from existing insect resistance mechanisms, CAs hold promise

for the development of efficient new insecticides. Novel 1,

6-dihydro-6-iminopyridazine-derived insecticides, as CAs, have insecticidal properties

against common cutworms and houseflies.[58] Besides, nootkatone, a sesquiterpenoid, also acts

as a CA to induce insect mortality.[59] Fluralaner, an isooxazoline ectoparasiticide, inhibits both

parasites and *Aedes aegypti* by acting as a CA.[60,61] Our results revealed that the binding site

(THR228) for betulin in MpGABR was located in the extracellular neurotransmitter-gated

ion-channel ligand-binding domain (Fig. S2), implying that betulin acts as a CA of MpGABR.

Our work may have provided a novel target for developing insecticides. In this study, betulin,

on the one hand, inhibited the expression of *MpGABR* and, on the other hand, specifically

bound to MpGABR through THR228, acting as an inhibitor of MpGABR and causing aphid

death (Fig. 8).

5. CONCLUSION

Betulin, a key metabolite in the aphid-resistant wild peach *P. davidiana*, possesses potent

aphicidal effects on *M. persicae.* This study confirmed that betulin exhibited excellent control

efficacy against *M. persicae* in both greenhouse and field experiments. RNA-seq, qRT–PCR

and western blotting assays revealed that betulin significantly inhibited the expression of

MpGABR in aphids. In addition, RNAi-mediated silencing of *MpGABR* markedly increased

the sensitivity of aphids to betulin. Moreover, MST and voltage-clamp-based

electrophysiological recording assays indicated that betulin was able to bind to MpGABR (K_d

= 2.24 μM) and acted as an inhibitor (EC_{50} = 20.66 μM) of MpGABR. Molecular docking

analyses suggested that the amino acid residue THR228, which is highly conserved in

Hemiptera, might be a critical specific binding site for betulin in MpGABR. Mutagenesis and

genome editing assays revealed that betulin bound specifically to this amino acid residue in

aphids but not in *Drosophila*, resulting in aphid death. Collectively, the results suggest that the

aphicidal effects of betulin on aphids occur in a two-pronged manner: on the one hand,

betulin inhibits *MpGABR* expression; on the other hand, it specifically binds to MpGABR via

THR228 and acts as an inhibitor of MpGABR. Elucidating the insecticidal mechanism of

betulin against aphids will provide a basis for the development of novel insecticides and

sustainable strategies for aphid control.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information are available free of charge on the ACS Publications website.

Protein expression of MpGABR after RNAi (Figure S1); Betulin binding site on the domain of

MpGABR (Figure S2); LC_{50} values of betulin and pymetrozine against *M. persicae* at 48 h

(Table S1); Primers used for cloning, RNAi, heterologous expression, and qRT-PCR (Table S2);

Oligonucleotide sequences for PCR, the sgRNA synthesis template and the fragment of donor

DNA for homology-directed repair (HDR) (Table S3); Screening of genes significantly

differentially expressed in *M. persicae* in response to betulin at 48 h post treatment (Table S4);

Complete sequence information for the $GABA_A$ receptor gene of *M. persicae* (Table S5);

Sequences and relevant information for phylogenetic analysis of $GABA_A$ receptor (Table S6);

Binding energy and nonbonding interactions between betulin and $GABA_A$ receptor (Table S7);

Parameters of dose-response curves from microscale thermophoresis experiments (Table S8);

LD_{50} values of betulin and pymetrozine against *D. melanogaster* at 72 h (Table S9).

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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ABBREVIATIONS

GABA, Gamma-aminobutyric acid; GABR, GABA$_A$ receptor; GABRB, GABA$_A$ receptor β

subunit; GABRAP, GABA$_A$ receptor associated protein; MST, microscale thermophoresis; PCA, principal coordinates analysis; DEGs, differentially expressed genes; GO, Gene Ontology; KEGG, Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes; K_d, dissociation constant; RDL, resistance to dieldrin; NCA, noncompetitive antagonists; CA, competitive antagonists.

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Figure 1. The aphicidal activity of plant-derived derivative betulin against *M. persicae.* (A-G) Representative images of the control effects of betulin (A, 0.1641 mg·mL^{-1}, 48 h LC$_{50}$ value of betulin), pymetrozine (B, 1.0612 mg·mL^{-1}, a positive control), and CK (C, a negative control) against *M. persicae* in greenhouse (A-E) and field (F, G) tests after treatment for 14 d. The data are shown as the mean ± SD from twelve independent experiments. **p < 0.01. ns, not significant.

Figure 2. RNA-Seq analysis revealed candidate targets for betulin against *M. persicae.* (A) Diagram of the candidate targets for betulin against aphids as determined by RNA-Seq. Water containing 0.1% (v/v) Tween-80 and 3% (v/v) acetone was used as the control treatment (CK). (B) Principal coordinates analysis (PCA) analysis differentially expressed genes in RNA-Seq. (C-D) Distribution (C) and heatmap (D) of the significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in *M. persicae*. (E) qPCR validation of 15 DEGs identified by RNA-Seq. (F-G) Top 10 enriched GO (F) and KEGG (G) pathways of the DEGs. The "rich ratio" was defined as the ratio of the number of DEGs enriched in the pathway to the total number of genes enriched in the same pathway. (H) Heatmap of the expression level of the GABR genes identified by RNA-Seq. *MpGABR,* encoding GABA$_A$ receptor; *MpGABRAP,* encoding GABA$_A$ receptor associated protein; *MpGABRB,* encoding GABA$_A$ receptor β subunit.

Figure 3. *MpGABR* expression in aphids was significantly inhibited by treatment with betulin. (A) Schematic drawing of MpGABR, MpGABRAP and MpGABRB. TM, transmembrane helices. (B-D) qPCR expression analysis of *MpGABR* (B), *MpGABRAP* (C) and *MpGABRB* (D) transcripts in *M. persicae* exposed to LC_{30}, LC_{50}, and LC_{70} of betulin for 48 h. The bars represent the average (± SD). Different letters above the error bars indicate significant difference (ANOVA, Tukey's test, $P < 0.05$). (E-G) qPCR expression analysis of *MpGABR* (E), *MpGABRAP* (F) and *MpGABRB* (G) after RNAi at 48 h post-dsRNA feeding relative to the expression levels after DEPC-water treatment. (H) Schematic drawing of the RNAi assay in *M. persicae*. (I) Mortality of aphids exposed to the LC_{50} of betulin for 48 h after RNAi. An asterisk (*) on the error bar indicates a significant difference between the treatment and group CK according to *t* tests, ***$P < 0.001$, ****$P < 0.0001$. ns, not significant.

Figure 4. Phylogenetic analysis of GABR in insects. Maximum likelihood based phylogenetic tree of GABR from six orders: Hemiptera, Diptera, Lepidoptera, Thysanoptera, Hymenoptera, and Coleoptera. Protein sequence alignment was performed using MUSCLE in MEGA X. The sequences used for constructing the tree were listed in Table S6.

Figure 5. The interaction of betulin with MpGABR protein. (A, B) Western blotting analysis of MpGABR protein after betulin treatment for 48 h at three different concentrations (LC_{30}, LC_{50} and LC_{70}). The bars represent the average (± SD). Different letters above the error bars indicate significant difference (ANOVA, Tukey's test, $P < 0.05$). (C) Expression of recombinant wild type-aphid MpGABR (1, WT) protein by *Escherichia coli*. (D) Quantification of the binding affinity of betulin with wild type-aphid MpGABR using MST. Current responses (E) and inhibition activity (F) of MpGABR induced by different concentration of betulin in the presence of GABA. 0 μM MpGABR indicates the presence of only GABA.

Figure 6. Molecular docking, binding site and inhibitory effect of betulin on MpGABR. (A) Best conformations of betulin docked to the binding pocket of MpGABR in aphids. An enlarged view of the betulin binding sites in MpGABR is indicated by a dashed frame. Potential Pi–alkyl (green), Alkyl (yellow), and hydrogen bond (red) interactions are indicated by dashed lines. (B) Sequence alignment of the key amino acids bound to betulin. The conserved residues among the different species in GABR are shown in orange, cyan, and light green. (C) Expression of the recombinant mutation type-aphid MpGABR by *Escherichia coli*. Lane 1: R244A, Lane 2: A226T, Lane 3: F227Y, Lane 4: T228R. (D, E) Quantification of the binding affinity of betulin with wild-type and mutant type-aphid MpGABR using MST. The bars represent the average (± SD) values. * indicates a significant difference (Student's *t* test, ****P < 0.0001).

Figure 7. Gene editing in *Drosophila* validated the species-specific binding site of betulin. (A) Expression of the recombinant wild type (WT) and mutation type (R122T) of DmGABR (*Drosophila melanogaster*) by *E. coli*. Lane 1: wild type, Lane 2: R122T. (B, C) Quantification of the binding affinity of betulin (B) and pymetrozine (C) with WT and R122T of DmGABR using MST. (D) Sanger sequencing of the *DmGABR* gene in flies. Direct sequencing chromatograms of PCR products amplified from a fragment of gDNA flanking the WT (a), and introduced R122T (b) mutant flies. (E-F) Toxicity curves of betulin (E), and pymetrozine (F) against WT, and the DmGABR[R122T] of the Cas9 *Drosophila*.

Figure 8. Proposed model for the mechanism of action against *Myzus persicae* by targeting GABA_A receptors (GABR). After exposure to betulin, the expression of *MpGABR* was inhibited the level of MpGABR protein is decreased, resulting in a decrease in the channel of chloride ion influx. Besides, betulin directly and specifically binds to the amino acid residue THR228 of MpGABR, thereby disabling it.