RESEARCH ARTICLE

P-glycoprotein Detoxification by the Malpighian Tubules
of the Desert Locust

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ABSTRACT

Detoxification is essential for allowing animals to remove toxic substances present in
their diet or generated as a biproduct of their metabolism. By transporting a wide range
of potentially noxious substrates, active transporters of the ABC transporter family play
an important role in detoxification. One such class of transporters are the multidrug
resistance P-glycoprotein transporters. Here, we investigated P-glycoprotein transport
in the Malpighian tubules of the desert locust (*Schistocerca gregaria*), a species whose
diet includes plants that contain toxic secondary metabolites. To this end, we studied
transporter physiology using a modified Ramsay assay in which *ex vivo* Malpighian
tubules are incubated in different solutions containing the P-glycoprotein substrate dye
rhodamine B in combination with different concentrations of the P-glycoprotein
inhibitor verapamil. Our evidence shows that: (i) the Malpighian tubules contain a P-
glycoprotein; (ii) tubule surface area is positively correlated with the tubule fluid
secretion rate; and (iii) as the fluid secretion rate increases so too does the net
extrusion of rhodamine B. We were able to quantify precisely the relationships between
the fluid secretion, surface area, and net extrusion. We interpret these results in the
context of the life history and foraging ecology of desert locusts. We argue that P-
glycoproteins play an important role in the detoxification by contributing to the removal
of xenobiotic substances from the haemolymph, thereby enabling gregarious desert

locusts to maintain toxicity through the ingestion of toxic plants without suffering the
deleterious effects themselves.

INTRODUCTION

Insect excretory systems consist primarily of the Malpighian tubules and the hindgut, which
act synergistically to regulate haemolymph composition (e.g. Maddrell *et al.,* 1974; Ramsay,
1958). Malpighian tubules are blind ended tubules that float in the haemolymph and empty
into the gut at the midgut-hindgut junction, secreting primary urine, the composition of which
is modified by water and ion reabsorption in the hindgut (Phillips, 1964). The tubules are
considered analogous to vertebrate nephrons (Ramsay, 1958). Cells of the epithelium forming
the tubule wall express primary and secondary active transporters that move K^+, Na^+ and Cl^-
ions into the lumen creating an osmotic gradient that produces water secretion (for a review
see O'Donnell, 2008). Insects regulate ion and water secretion according to their feeding
habits and ecological niche. For example, haematophagous insects must cope with an excess
of NaCl and water after a blood meal (Williams *et al.*, 1983), whereas phytophagous insects
must often cope with a diet rich in K^+ as well as with secondary metabolites (Maddrell and
Klunsuwan, 1973; Wieczorek, 1992).

In addition to osmoregulation, Malpighian tubules play a fundamental role in the
removal of metabolic waste and potentially noxious substances that have been ingested
(Maddrell and Gardiner, 1976; Maddrell *et al.*, 1974). Alkaloids and organic anions and cations
are actively transported by ATP-dependant transporters such as the multidrug resistance-
associated protein 2 (MRP2) and P-glycoproteins (P-gps, multidrug resistance protein (MDR1)
or ABCB1), both members of the ABC transporter family (Gaertner *et al.*, 1998; Karnaky Jr *et*
al., 2000). Multidrug resistance-associated protein 2 (MRP2) transporters are involved in the
transport of organic anions (Leader and O'Donnell, 2005; O'Donnell and Leader, 2006), while
P-glycoproteins transport type II organic cations (>500 Da), hydrophobic and often polyvalent
compounds (e.g. alkaloids and quinones) (Wright and Dantzler, 2004).

The presence and physiology of these multidrug transporters have been explored
using specific substrates and selective inhibitors (e.g. Gaertner *et al.*, 1998; Hawthorne and
Dively, 2011; Leader and O'Donnell, 2005). In the Malpighian tubules of the cricket
(*Teleogryllus commodus*) and the fruit fly (*Drosophila melanogaster*), the transepithelial
transport of the fluorescent MRP2 substrate Texas Red is reduced by the MRP2 inhibitors
MK571 and probenecid (Leader and O'Donnell, 2005), while the transport of the fluorescent
P-glycoprotein substrate daunorubicin is selectively reduced by the P-glycoprotein inhibitor
verapamil (Leader and O'Donnell, 2005). The transport of nicotine by P-glycoprotein
transporters has also been demonstrated in numerous insect species, including the tobacco

hornworm (*Manduca sexta*; Gaertner *et al*., 1998), fruit fly (*D. melanogaster*), kissing bug

(*Rhodnius prolixus*)*,* large milkweed bug (*Oncopeltus fasciatus*)*,* yellow fever mosquito (*Aedes*

aegypti)*,* house cricket (*Acheta domesticus*)*,* migratory locust (*Locusta migratoria*)*,* mealworm

beetle (*Tenebrio molitor*)*,* American cockroach (*Periplaneta americana*) and cabbage looper

(*Trichoplusia ni*) (Rheault *et al*., 2006). In insects, the understanding of the interaction between

xenobiotics (i.e. insecticides, herbicides, miticides and secondary plant metabolites) and P-

glycoprotein transporters is still limited, but there is an increasing interest in understanding

how different xenobiotics can act synergistically to maximize the efficacy of insecticides in

pests or impair the xenobiotic detoxification if beneficial insects such as honey bees (Guseman

et al., 2016).

Desert locusts (*Schistocerca gregaria*) are generalist phytophagous insects with

aposematic coloration in the gregarious phase. They feed on a wide range of plants including

those, such as *Schouwia purpurea* and *Hyoscyamus muticus*, that contain toxins to become

unpalatable for and toxic to predators (Despland and Simpson, 2005; Mainguet *et al*., 2000;

Sword *et al*., 2000; for a review see Pener and Simpson, 2009). Nevertheless, it is likely that

gregarious desert locusts excrete some of the toxins that they ingest, relying instead on their

gut contents to maintain toxicity (Sword, 2001, 1999). Two lines of evidence suggest that this

excretion is likely to involve P-glycoproteins: (1) they are expressed in the Malpighian tubules

of numerous species (e.g. *A. domesticus, L. migratoria, P. americana*) from orthopteroid

orders (Rheault *et al*., 2006); and (2) they are expressed in the blood brain barrier of the desert

locust (Andersson *et al*., 2014). However, P-glycoproteins in the Malpighian tubules of desert

locusts have not been studied previously.

Here we show that xenobiotic transport and extrusion in the Malpighian tubules of the

desert locust is an active process dependent upon P-glycoprotein like transporters using

isolated tubules to perform a modified Ramsay secretion assay (Ramsay, 1954). We

evaluated the extrusion of the P-glycoprotein substrate dye rhodamine B (e.g. Eytan *et al*.,

1997; Mayer *et al*., 2009) with or without the addition of the selective P-glycoprotein inhibitor

verapamil (e.g. Andersson *et al*., 2014; Dermauw and Van Leeuwen, 2014; Hamada *et al*.,

1987). Our results suggest that P-glycoprotein transporters may play an important role in the

xenobiotic detoxification in the Malpighian tubules of the desert locust. By using linear mixed

effect models to account for repeated observations of single tubules and obtaining multiple

tubules from single locusts, we found that tubule surface area more accurately predicts fluid

secretion rate than diameter or length. Moreover, this statistical model allowed us to quantify

the influence of the surface area on the fluid secretion rate in different treatments, and how it

changes over time. We found that the surface area of the tubules positively influences their

fluid secretion rate and that the fluid secretion rate influences the net extrusion of rhodamine

B. We propose that this assay may be used in future to understand the physiology of the P-
glycoproteins when exposed to a wide range of different substances.
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MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals
Fifth instar desert locusts (*Schistocerca gregaria;* Forskål, 1775) were obtained from
Peregrine Livefoods (Essex, UK) and raised under crowded conditions at 28-30°C with 12:12
photoperiod. Locusts were fed with organic lettuce, fresh wheat seedlings and wheat germ *ad*
libitum. Fifth instar nymphs were checked daily and, within 24 hours post-eclosion, were
marked with acrylic paint (Quay Imports Ltd, Kirkham, Lancashire, UK). Only adult males
between 20 and 22 days post-eclosion were used in the experiments.
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Saline and chemicals
The saline used was adapted from the Ringer solution of Maddrell and Klunsuwan (1973). Its
composition was: 5.73 g/L NaCl (98 mM), 0.30 g/L KCl (4 mM), 2 mL $CaCl_2$ solution 1M (2
mM), 1.86 g/L $NaHCO_3$ (22 mM), 1.09 g/L $NaH_2P0_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ (7 mM), 0.19 g/L $MgCl_2$ (2 mM),
1.80 g/L glucose (10 mM), 0.83 g/L sodium glutamate (4.9 mM), 0.88 g/L sodium citrate (3.5
mM) and 0.37 g/L malic acid (2.8 mM). The final pH of the saline was 7.15. It was stored at
4°C for a maximum of three days. Stock solutions of rhodamine B (50 mM and 3 mM) and
verapamil hydrochloride (20 mM) were prepared in water and diluted to the final concentration
in the saline. Rhodamine B was applied at 60 µM and verapamil at 125 µM or 250 µM. All
chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (UK) or Fisher Scientific (UK).
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Locust dissection
The locusts were placed in the freezer for 4-5 minutes until sedated. Upon removal from the
freezer, the abdomen was cut transversely ~5 mm from the anus, and holding the head with
one hand and the thorax with the other hand, the head was pulled away from the remainder
of the body (Figure 1A) (Maddrell and Klunsuwan, 1973). In this way, the entire gut with the
Malpighian tubules attached was removed from the body. The gut was placed onto an 8 cm
Sylgard® 184 (Dow Corning, Midland, MI, USA) coated Petri dish, filled with saline. The head
was separated from the saline using modelling clay (Plasticine®) (Figure 1B). The preparation
was pinned at the cut distal end of the gut to prevent it from floating.
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Malpighian tubules dissection
Using a Nikon SMZ-U (Nikon Corp., Tokyo, Japan) stereoscopic microscope, the Malpighian
tubules were removed by gently pulling the distal part to release them from the trachea and

cutting the proximal end at ~5 mm from the gut. Each isolated tubule was moved immediately

into a 30 µL drop of saline on a 5 cm Sylgard® coated Petri dish and covered with paraffin oil

to prevent desiccation. Both ends of each Malpighian tubule were pulled out from the saline

drop in opposite directions and wrapped around steel pins pushed into the Sylgard® layer

(Figure 1C). Three anterior tubules were removed from each locust.

Fluid secretion (Ramsay) assay

Using a sharpened glass capillary tube, each tubule was punctured near the proximal end to

allow the fluid secretion (Figure 2A). The first droplet secreted immediately after puncturing

was discarded. After 30 minutes of preincubation in the saline bath, the secreted droplet was

removed (Figure 2B) using a P10 pipette (Gilson Scientific UK, Dunstable, Bedfordshire, UK)

and photographed with a digital camera (Canon EOS 7D; Canon, Tokyo, Japan) mounted with

two custom attachments (Best scientific A clamp via 1.6 x Canon mount; Leica 10445930 1.0

x) on the stereoscopic microscope (Nikon SMZ-U; Nikon Corp., Tokyo, Japan). Images were

shot in raw format and processed with ImageJ v.1.51p software (Schneider *et al.,* 2012). The

saline bath was then replaced with 30 µL drop containing one of the four different treatments

we tested: (i) saline, (ii) rhodamine B 60 µM, (iii) rhodamine B 60 µM + verapamil 125 µM, (iv)

rhodamine B 60 µM + verapamil 250 µM (Figure 2C). Again, the first droplet secreted after

drop replacement was discarded. For the subsequent 90 minutes, the secreted droplet was

removed at intervals of 30 minutes and photographed (Figure 2D). To prevent the

photobleaching of the rhodamine B, we minimised light exposure by conducting the

experiment under red light and keeping the sample in a custom designed dark box between

measurements.

Droplet measurement

The diameter (µm) of each secreted droplet (Figure 3A) was measured to permit its volume

(nL) to be calculated using the sphere formula, where V is the drop volume and d the droplet

diameter. The volume was converted from µm^3 to nL using the following formula:

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$$V = \frac{4}{3} \pi \left(\frac{d}{2} \right)^3 10^{-6}$$

For each tubule, we calculated the fluid secretion rate (nL/min), given by the droplet volume

divided by the time between samples (30 mins). For each droplet, we also measured colour

intensity to estimate the rhodamine B concentration (µM) from a calibration curve (see below).

To estimate the number of moles of rhodamine B extruded per minute, we calculated the net

extrusion of rhodamine B (fmol/min) as the product of the secretion rate and the rhodamine B

concentration.

Rhodamine B calibration curve

The intensity of the droplets depends not only on rhodamine B concentration, but also on the droplet diameter (see Supplemental Methods; Supplemental Figure 1,2). So, we constructed a calibration curve for rhodamine B concentration to estimate the rhodamine B concentration of the droplets secreted. We prepared standard solutions of known rhodamine B concentrations: 0, 15, 30, 50, 60, 75, 120, 150, 240 and 480 µM. For each concentration, droplets of different sizes were placed on a Petri dish coated with Sylgard® and covered with paraffin oil. We photographed the droplets against a white background at the same light intensity, and white balancing the camera before shooting. All the images were analysed subsequently using ImageJ v.1.51p software (Schneider *et al.,* 2012).

Droplet colour varied from white (transparent droplet at rhodamine B concentration = 0 µM) to intense pink, depending upon the rhodamine B concentration. We split each image into the component colour channels and measured the intensity of the green channel. To control for the background, we compared the mean intensity inside the droplet with that outside (Figure 3B) using the formula:

$$I = I_i - I_o$$

where I is the intensity, I_i is the intensity inside the droplet, and I_o is the intensity outside the droplet. We used a range of droplet diameters from 138 to 999 µm.

To validate the reliability of using the green channel, we also measured the magenta channel and the total intensity using Adobe Photoshop CC v. 19.1.1 (Adobe Systems Incorporated, CA, USA). Both the magenta channel and total intensity correlated with the intensity of green channel (Pearson's correlation, Magenta: $p<.001$, df=17, R^2=1; Total intensity: $p<.001$, df=17, R^2=0.99).

Malpighian tubule measurement

At the end of the assay, the tubule was photographed to measure its diameter (µm). The length (mm) of the tubule in contact with the treatment solution, was measured by cutting off the two extremities of the tubule outside the bath, laying the remaining section of tubule flat on the Sylgard® base, and photographing it. The surface (mm^2) of the tubule in contact with the bath, was calculated from the cylinder formula:

$$S = 2\pi \left(\frac{d}{2}\right) l$$

where S is the tubule surface, d is the tubule diameter, and l is the tubule length.

Statistical Analysis

All the statistical analysis was conducted in R version 3.4.1 (R Core Team, 2018). We performed Linear Mixed Effect Models (LMEM) with the maximum likelihood estimation by

using the `lmer` function from the 'lme4' package (Bates *et al.*, 2014). We performed ANOVA

Type II Wald chi-square tests by using the `Anova` function from the 'car' package (Fox and

Weisberg, 2012). We used the Akaike information criterion (AIC) (Akaike, 1987) for model

selection.

To investigate the effect of the treatments on the fluid secretion rate and the net

extrusion of rhodamine B, we analysed the interaction between the treatment (categorical)

and the surface area (continuous (mm^2)) at each level of time (Table 3,7). For the rhodamine

B concentration, we analysed the interaction between treatment (categorical) and secretion

rate (continuous (nL/min)) at each time interval (Table 5). To account for the nested structure

of data, we included the individual locust as random intercept in the model.

To investigate the effect of the incubation time on the fluid secretion rate and the net

extrusion of Rhodamine B, we analysed the interaction of the variables time, surface area,

and treatment (Table 2,6), whereas for the rhodamine B concentration we analysed the

interaction of the variables time, secretion rate, and treatment (Table 4). Again, to account for

the nested structure of data, we included the individual locust as random intercept in the

model. We also included tubule identity as a random intercept and time as random slope to

account for the repeated measurements on the same individual tubule.

To investigate the effect of the fluid secretion rate on the net extrusion of Rhodamine

B we analysed the interaction of the variables secretion rate and treatment, including as before

the individual locust as random intercept (Table 8).

To simplify the interpretation of the regression estimates, we centred the surface

variable on 2 mm^2. Therefore, all the estimates and comparisons are referred to a tubule with

a surface area of 2 mm^2. The models were tested using type II Wald chi-square tests and the

non-significant interactions ($P>0.05$) were removed. However, we retained all the main effects

even if they were not statistically significant to avoid an increase in the type I error rate

(Forstmeier and Schielzeth, 2011).

RESULTS

We prepared three Malpighian tubules from each locust (see Materials and Methods; Figure

1). Each tubule was punctured near the proximal end to allow the luminal fluid to be secreted

(Figure 2A), and the first droplet secreted immediately after puncturing discarded. The tubules

were then bathed in saline for 30 minutes and the droplet secreted at the end of this period

was removed (Figure 2B, Figure 3). The saline was then replaced with one of four treatments:

saline (control); rhodamine B 60 μM (R60); rhodamine B 60 μM + verapamil 125 μM (V125);

and rhodamine B 60 μM + verapamil 250 μM (V250). Six locusts were used for each of the

treatments except for the R60 treatment in which eight locusts were used. Every 30 minutes

the droplet secreted by the tubule during the Ramsay assay was removed.

Fluid secretion rate and surface area

We determined the fluid secretion rate of each tubule from the volume of the droplet secreted

after each 30 minute interval up to 90 minutes after the start of the treatment. Thus, for each

tubule we had a measure of the secretion rate in saline during preincubation, and three

measurements of the secretion rate in each of the four treatments. In total, there were 76

preincubation observations and 233 treatment observations (two droplets were lost during

preincubation and another at 60 minutes for the V250 treatment) from 78 Malpighian tubules.

To determine whether the surface area of the Malpighian tubules exposed to the bath

solution influences the fluid secretion rate, we measured the length and diameter of each

tubule immersed in the saline or treatment. By comparing linear mixed effect models that

incorporated these measurements of length, diameter or surface area, we determined that

surface area was the best explanatory variable (Table 1). There was no difference in the

surface area of Malpighian tubules exposed to the bathing solution among the treatments

(ANOVA type II Wald, χ^2 =1.72, df=3, P=0.633; Control: 2.00 ± 0.09 mm^2; R60: 2.01 ± 0.06

mm^2; V125: 2.27 ± 0.06 mm^2; V250: 2.29 ± 0.07 mm^2).

The surface area of the tubule exposed in the bathing solution influenced the fluid

secretion rate (ANOVA type II Wald, χ^2 = 47.44, df=1, p<0.001; Table 2, Figure 4). During

preincubation the surface area correlated positively with the fluid secretion rate (ANOVA type

II Wald, χ^2 = 35.02, df=1, p<.001; Table 3A, Figure 4A). Again, after 30 and 60 minutes of

incubation the surface area positively influenced the fluid secretion rate and there was no

interaction between surface area and treatment (ANOVA type II Wald, Time 30: χ^2 = 3.19,

df=3, p=0.364; Time 60: χ^2 = 2.56, df=3, p=0.465; Table 3A, Figure 4B,C). However, after 90

minutes of incubation there was an interaction between surface area and treatment(ANOVA

type II Wald, χ^2 = 10.73, df=3, p=0.013; Table 3A, Figure 4D); the R60 and V125 treatment

tubules showed a positive correlation between surface area and fluid secretion rate, whereas

the V250 treatment tubules showed no significant correlation (Table 3A, Figure 4D).

Having incorporated tubule surface area into our statistical model, we were able to

compare the fluid secretion rates of our control and treatments objectively. Irrespective of the

treatment, the fluid secretion rate decreased significantly in comparison to the secretion rate

during preincubation as the experiment progressed (ANOVA type II Wald, χ^2 =283.94, df=3,

p<0.001; Table 2, Figure 5). On average, the secretion rate after 90 minutes dropped by 55%

in the R60 treatment, by 65% in the control treatment, by 64% in the V125 treatment, and by

80% in the V250 treatment (Table 9). Moreover, there was a significant interaction between

treatment and time in our statistical model (ANOVA type II Wald, χ^2 =23.81, df=9, p=0.005;

Table 2), indicating that although fluid secretion rate decreased with the time of incubation for

all treatments, the rate at which it changed depended upon the treatment. Specifically, in

comparison to the preincubation baseline, the V250 and the control treatments showed a
significantly more pronounced decrease in the secretion rate compared to the R60 treatment,
whereas the V125 treatment did not differ from the R60 treatment (Table 2, Figure 5).
However, when comparing the fluid secretion rate between treatments at each time point,
there was no significant difference between the R60 tubules' secretion rates and those of the
three other treatments (Table 3B, Figure 5).
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Net extrusion of Rhodamine B
We determined the concentration of Rhodamine B in each of the droplets collected from the
Malpighian tubules exposed to the R60, V125 and V250 treatments at each time point. The
concentration of rhodamine B in the droplets increased significantly during the incubation time
in all the treatments (ANOVA type II Wald, χ^2 = 259.29, df=2, p<.001; Table 4, Figure 6). There
was a significant interaction between treatment and time (ANOVA type II Wald, χ^2 =85.32,
df=4, p<.001; Table 4, Figure 6), indicating that the increase in the rhodamine B concentration
over time depended upon the treatment. In particular, the increase in rhodamine B
concentration in the R60 treatment was more pronounced than in either the V125 or V250
treatments (Table 4, Figure 6). At each time point, the treatment significantly affected the
rhodamine B concentration (ANOVA type II Wald, Time 30: χ^2=58.17, df=2, p<.001; Time 60:
χ^2=81.86, df=2, p<.001; Time 90: χ^2=89.27, df=2, p<.001; Table 5, Figure 6). Compared to the
R60 treatment, the addition of verapamil in the V125 and V250 treatments reduced the
rhodamine B concentration of the secreted droplets after 30, 60, and 90 minutes (Table 5,
Figure 6). However, there was no significant difference in the rhodamine B concentration
between the V125 and V250 treatments at any time point (Table 5, Figure 6).
We calculated the total number of moles of rhodamine B extruded by the Malpighian
tubules per minute as the product of the secretion rate and the rhodamine B concentration of
the droplets secreted, which we termed the net extrusion rate. The net extrusion increased
significantly during the incubation time (ANOVA type II Wald, χ^2 = 153.2, df=2, p<.001; Table
6, Figure 7). At each time point, treatment affected the net extrusion of rhodamine B (ANOVA
type II Wald, time 30: χ^2=23.97, df=2, p<.001; time 60: χ^2=23.69, df=2, p<.001; time 90: χ^2
=28.75, df=2, p<.001; Table 7A, Figure 7A). In comparison to the R60 treatment, the addition
of verapamil in the V125 and V250 treatments significantly reduced the net extrusion of
rhodamine B after 30, 60 and 90 minutes, however, there was no significant difference
between the V125 and V250 treatments (Table 7A, Figure 7A).
There was also an interaction between treatment, time and surface (ANOVA type II
Wald, χ^2 = 11.36, df=4, p=.023; Table 6, Figure 8), indicating that the dependency of the net
extrusion of rhodamine B upon tubule surface area was influenced by the incubation time and
the treatment (Table 6, Figure 8). There was no interaction between surface and treatment

after 30 minutes (ANOVA type II Wald, time 30: χ^2 =3.36, df=2, p=.186; Table 7B, Figure 8A).

However, after 60 and 90 minutes the effect of surface area upon the net extrusion of

rhodamine B was more pronounced in the R60 treatment than in the V125 and V250

treatments (ANOVA type II Wald, time 60: χ^2 =8.94, df=2, p=.011; time 90: χ^2 =17.54, df=2,

p<.001; Table 7B, Figure 8B,C).

In addition, we found that after 30 minutes the fluid secretion rate of the tubules

incubated in R60 positively influenced the net extrusion of rhodamine B, while there was no

significant effect in the V125 and V250 treatments (ANOVA type II Wald, treatment x fluid

secretion rate, time 30: χ^2 =72.26, df=2, p<.001; Table 8, Figure 9A). After 60 and 90 minutes,

the fluid secretion rate positively correlated with the net extrusion of rhodamine B in all the

treatments (Table 8, Figure 9B,C). However, the surface area of the tubules incubated in R60

showed a more pronounced effect on the net extrusion of rhodamine B than that of the tubules

incubated in V125 and V250 (ANOVA type II Wald, treatment x fluid secretion rate, time 60:

χ^2 =101.04, df=2, p<.001; time 90: χ^2 =30.13, df=2, p<.001; Table 8, Figure 9).

Net contribution of P-glycoproteins

A single Malpighian tubule with a mean surface of 2 mm^2 incubated in a solution of 60 µM

rhodamine B, extruded rhodamine B with a rate of 18.8 ± 2.6 fmol/min in the first 30 minutes,

54.7 ± 7.3 fmol/min between 30 and 60 minutes and 80.3 ± 9.3 fmol/min between 60 and 90

minutes (Table 9). The addition of verapamil significantly reduced the amount of rhodamine B

extruded, but did not block it completely (Table 9, Table 7). The rhodamine B concentration of

the droplets secreted did not differ between the V125 and V250 treatments (Table 5, Table 9).

Therefore, we assumed that 125 µM verapamil was sufficient to inhibit all the P-glycoproteins

that are verapamil sensitive and that passive diffusion and other types of pumps may

contribute to extrusion of Rhodamine B. Consequently, we subtracted the mean values of the

net extrusion of rhodamine B obtained from the V250 treatment from the net extrusion of the

R60 treatment to estimate the contribution of the P-glycoproteins alone. The average rates of

rhodamine B extruded by the P-glycoproteins were 17.2 fmol/min, 43.4 fmol/min and 59.1

fmol/min between 0-30, 30-60 and 60-90 minutes respectively (Table 9, Figure 7B, dashed

line). In percentage, the P-glycoproteins are responsible for the 91%, 79% and 74% (between

0-30, 30-60 and 60-90 minutes respectively) of the total extrusion of rhodamine B. Overall, P-

glycoproteins account for the 78% of the total extrusion of rhodamine B, over the 90 minutes

of incubation.

DISCUSSION

Our aim was to determine whether P-glycoprotein transporters are involved in the removal of
xenobiotic substances by Malpighian tubules from the haemolymph of desert locusts and, if
so, how they perform physiologically. To this end, we developed an alternative method to liquid
chromatography–mass spectrometry (Andersson *et al*., 2013), radiolabelled alkaloids
(Gaertner *et al*., 1998) or confocal microscopy (Leader and O'Donnell, 2005; O'Donnell and
Leader, 2006) based upon measuring dye concentration. A similar method has been used
previously to investigate epithelial transport in tardigrades and desert locusts using
chlorophenol red by imagining through the gut or tubules (Halberg and Møbjerg, 2012). By
imaging extruded drops from Malpighian tubules, we assessed the performance of epithelial
transporters more accurately than by imaging the lumen of the tubules. We used the P-
glycoprotein substrate rhodamine B (Eytan *et al*., 1997) and the P-glycoprotein inhibitor
verapamil (Tsuruo *et al*., 1981) to assay P-glycoprotein function through the colour of the
droplets secreted by the Malpighian tubules. Using this strategy, we obtained evidence that
desert locust Malpighian tubules express a P-glycoprotein transporter, that the fluid secretion
rate of these tubules is proportional to their surface area, and that the fluid secretion rate
influences the net extrusion of rhodamine B.

A P-glycoprotein transporter extrudes xenobiotics in desert locust Malpighian tubules
Our conclusion that desert locust Malpighian tubules express P-glycoproteins is supported by
two lines of evidence. Firstly, these tubules actively extrude the dye rhodamine B, a P-
glycoprotein substrate (e.g. Eytan *et al*., 1997; Mayer *et al*., 2009), when it is present in the
solution in which they are bathed. Rhodamine B has been widely used as a substrate for P-
glycoproteins in cell culture and blood brain barrier models (e.g. Eytan *et al*., 1997; Mayer *et
al*., 2009). Secondly, the addition of verapamil, a P-glycoprotein inhibitor (e.g. Andersson *et
al*., 2014; Dermauw and Van Leeuwen, 2014; Hamada *et al*., 1987; Tsuruo *et al*., 1981),
significantly reduced the extrusion of rhodamine B. The presence of P-glycoproteins in other
tissues of the desert locusts also supports our conclusion that they are expressed in the
Malpighian tubules; proteins with a comparable physiology and similar sequence to the human
P-glycoprotein (ABCB1 gene) are expressed within the blood brain barrier of the locusts *S.
gregaria* and *L. migratoria* (Al-Qadi *et al*., 2015; Andersson *et al*., 2014, 2013; Nielsen *et al*.,
2011). Further support comes from comparison with other insects; P-glycoprotein transporters
have been found in the Malpighian tubules of many other insects including the black field
cricket (*Teleogryllus commodus*; Leader and O'Donnell, 2005), tobacco hornworm (*Manduca
sexta*; Gaertner *et al*., 1998; Murray *et al*., 1994)*,* fruit fly (*D. melanogaster*), kissing bug
(*Rhodnius prolixus*)*,* large milkweed bug (*Oncopeltus fasciatus*)*,* yellow fever mosquito (*Aedes
aegypti*)*,* house cricket (*Acheta domesticus*)*,* migratory locust (*Locusta migratoria*)*,* mealworm

beetle (*Tenebrio molitor*), and the American cockroach (*Periplaneta americana*; Rheault *et al*.,

2006).

Rhodamine B extrusion was not blocked entirely by 125 µM verapamil or by double

this concentration. Comparison of the extent of the reduction at both concentrations suggests

that even at the lower verapamil concentration all the P-glycoproteins were inhibited. This

suggests that approximately 78% of rhodamine B was transported by P-glycoproteins via a

verapamil sensitive mechanism, whilst the remaining 22% was verapamil insensitive.

Moreover, after 90 minutes the concentration of rhodamine B in the droplets secreted by the

Malpighian tubules was higher than that of the bathing solution suggesting that rhodamine B

transport in the presence of verapamil is not simply due to passive diffusion, but that other

active transporters may be implicated. Several potential candidates for alternative active

transporters exist. For example, in human cell lines (Calu-3), rhodamine B can interact with

multiple organic cation transporters (OCT3, OCTN1,2) (Ugwu *et al*., 2016). Potentially,

however, verapamil may be incapable of blocking rhodamine B transport completely allowing

a small number of rhodamine B molecules to be extruded by the P-glycoprotein even in the

presence of verapamil.

Verapamil inhibits P-glycoproteins and does not interact with other multidrug

resistance proteins (Cole *et al*., 1989). This suggests that the effects of verapamil in our

experiments are through its specific effects upon P-glycoproteins. The mechanistic basis of

verapamil inhibition is unclear but the most widely accepted explanation is that P-glycoproteins

extrude both verapamil and their substrate but that verapamil diffuses back across the lipid

bilayer much faster than the substrate creating a futile cycle and thereby competing with the

substrate transport (Eytan *et al*., 1996; for a review see Sharom, 1997).

Verapamil is, however, also a known L-type Ca^{2+} channel blocker (Abernethy and

Schwartz, 1999). In *Drosophila*, L-type Ca^{2+} channels are expressed in the basolateral and

apical membranes of the tubule principal cells, and are involved in the regulation of the fluid

secretion (MacPherson *et al*., 2001). Indeed, an increase of the intracellular Ca^{2+} level

mediates the effect of diuretic hormones (Paluzzi *et al*., 2013). Verapamil reduced the fluid

secretion of *Drosophila* Malpighian tubules stimulated by peptide agonists (e.g. CAP2b,

cGMP) but had no effect on unstimulated tubules (MacPherson *et al*., 2001). Our experiments

cannot exclude the possibility that verapamil affects Ca^{2+} channels in locust Malpighian

tubules by interfering with intracellular Ca^{2+}, and thereby has an indirect effect on Rhodamine

B extrusion. Because the fluid secretion rate did not differ between treatments, however, the

reduction in the net extrusion of rhodamine B was likely caused solely by verapamil inhibition

of the P-glycoproteins. Thus, when considered within the context of the expression of P-

glycoproteins in the blood brain barrier of locusts (Al-Qadi *et al*., 2015; Andersson *et al*., 2014,

2013; Nielsen *et al*., 2011) and the expression of P-glycoproteins in homologous Malpighian

tubules in other insects species (see above), it seems highly likely that the tubules of

gregarious desert locust express P-glycoproteins.

Malpighian tubule surface area and fluid secretion rate

We used linear mixed effect models to determine which physical feature of a tubule, its surface

area, length or diameter has the greatest influence on fluid secretion rate. We found that the

surface area of the Malpighian tubules positively influences their fluid secretion rate, and more

accurately predicts the fluid secretion rate than tubule diameter or length. Some previous

studies have reported that tubule length was linearly related to the fluid secretion rate

(Beyenbach *et al.*, 1993; Coast, 1988) but in our analysis length was a consistently worse than

surface area as a predictor. Even when the surface area (or length) has been accounted for

in previous studies, this has involved dividing the fluid secretion rate by the surface area (or

length) to obtain the fluid secretion rate per unit area (or unit length) (Bradley, 1983; Rheault

et al., 2006). Although this approach is useful when comparing tubules of different sizes from

different insect species, it fails to reveal the exact relationship between the surface area and

the fluid secretion rate. Our statistical models demonstrate that interactions between factors

such as surface area and fluid secretion rate depend upon the treatment applied, and are not

static changing over time with treatment. For example, our results show that the fluid secretion

rate increases with the increasing of the tubule surface apart from after 90 minutes of

incubation with 250 µM verapamil, where the surface no longer influences the fluid secretion

rate. Such interdependencies are unlikely to be detected or accounted for in simpler statistical

analyses, causing such interdependencies to be ignored.

Determining the transepithelial transport of xenobiotics by P-glycoprotein transporters

in locust Malpighian tubules

Transepithelial transport of xenobiotics by P-glycoproteins across the inner membrane of the

Malpighian tubules can be determined from the net extrusion rate we measured. The disparity

between the transepithelial transport and the net extrusion rate is due to the properties of

rhodamine B. This lipophilic dye can passively permeate the lipid bilayer of liposomes,

following the concentration gradient (Eytan *et al.*, 1997). Likewise, in desert locust Malpighian

tubules, rhodamine B can back diffuse into the bath solution when active transporters increase

its luminal concentration creating a concentration gradient. Consequently, the fluid secretion

rate affects the net extrusion rate of rhodamine B because a decrease in the fluid secretion

will increase the luminal concentration of the dye, allowing greater back diffusion whilst an

increase in the fluid secretion rate will have the opposite effect (Maddrell *et al.*, 1974).

Therefore, if a dye, like rhodamine B, can back diffuse, its net extrusion will be proportional to

the fluid secretion rate (Supplemental Figure 3A-C), while if the dye cannot back diffuse there

will be no correlation (Supplemental Figure 3D-F). When the rhodamine B concentration in the

lumen was lower or similar to the bath (60 µM) the net transport would be little affected by the

secretion rate. Conversely, when the luminal rhodamine B concentration was higher than the

bathing solution, part of the dye diffused back, so that the net extrusion was significantly

influenced by the fluid secretion rate (see supplementary material).

Previous studies demonstrated that Malpighian tubules can exhibit different degrees

of passive permeability to different substances, depending on the species and on the

properties (i.e. size, polarity) of the substrate used (e.g. dyes, alkaloid, drugs) (Maddrell *et al*.,

1974). For example, tubules of the kissing bug (*R. prolixus*) have passive permeability to the

alkaloid nicotine (Maddrell and Gardiner, 1976), but not to the dye indigo carmine (Maddrell *et*

al., 1974), whereas tubules of the blowfly (*Calliphora erythrocephala*) are permeable to indigo

carmine (Maddrell *et al.,* 1974). Thus, when studying the effect of a substance on active

transporters, it is important to take into account the fluid secretion rate because a change in

the net extrusion rate of a substrate may be caused not only by a direct effect on the

transporters, but also by an indirect consequence of a change in the fluid flow (O'Donnell and

Leader, 2006). In our experiment, the fluid secretion rate did not differ between treatments,

indicating that the reduction of net extrusion of rhodamine B following exposure to verapamil

was caused solely by inhibition of the P-glycoprotein. However, the fluid secretion rate

decreased over time, which may produce an underestimation of the net transepithelial

transport of rhodamine B.

Implications for desert locust detoxification

Gregarious desert locusts feed on a broad variety of plants including species containing

secondary metabolites such as atropine to become unpalatable to predators (Despland and

Simpson, 2005; Mainguet *et al*., 2000; Sword *et al*., 2000; for a review see Pener and Simpson,

2009). The expression of P-glycoproteins in the Malpighian tubules to extrude noxious

substances may be an adaptation to cope with the ingestion of toxic plants. This may also be

the reason for expression of P-glycoproteins on the blood brain barrier of desert locusts, which

would prevent the uptake of hydrophobic substances in the central nervous system

(Andersson *et al*., 2014). Yet the relationship between ingesting toxins and detoxification

pathways in the Malpighian tubules is not straightforward; some species of Orthoptera, as well

as Coleoptera, Lepidoptera, Heteroptera, Hymenoptera and Sternorrhyncha (for a review see

Opitz and Müller, 2009), sequester toxins from the plants they ingest to deter predators.

However, toxicity may also be conferred by gut contents, rather than through sequestration

within bodily tissues. For example, the chemical defence of the spotted bird grasshopper,

Schistocerca emarginata (=*lineata*), is mediated by the contents of toxic plant in its gut (Sword,

2001, 1999). This species is a congener of the desert locust, *S. gregaria*, which suggests that

a similar strategy may be involved in the production of toxicity in this species. If this is the

case, then the presence of toxins in the haemolymph may be a consequence of ingesting toxic

plant material for storage within the gut. In such a scenario, detoxification pathways within the

Malpighian tubules would then be essential for ensuring that toxins do not accumulate within

the haemolymph to concentrations that would affect physiological processes.

511   The P-glycoprotein detoxification pathway that we have characterised in desert locusts

is likely to be highly effective in extruding xenobiotic compounds from haemolymph, especially

when the number of Malpighian tubules within an individual locust is considered. However, it

is important to consider that the locusts used for our experiments have experienced a diet free

of toxins, such as atropine. P-glycoprotein expression can be modulated depending on the

diet (Tapadia and Lakhotia, 2005); *Drosophila* larvae fed on colchicine increased the

expression of the P-glycoprotein gene homologue mdr49 in the brain and gut. Consequently,

adult gregarious desert locusts that have fed on a diet including plant toxins may have even

stronger P-glycoprotein detoxification pathways. In contrast to their gregarious counterparts,

solitary desert locusts actively avoid plants containing atropine (Despland and Simpson,

2005), and find odours associated with it aversive (Simões *et al.*, 2013). Thus, Malpighian

tubules of solitary desert locusts may express fewer P-glycoproteins than those of the

gregarious phase, possibly due to their reduced exposure to secondary metabolites from their

diet.

Implications for insect pest control

P-glycoproteins are implicated in the resistance of some insect pests to insecticides (Lanning

et al., 1996) promoting the efflux of various xenobiotics thereby decreasing the intracellular

drug accumulation. For instance, P-glycoproteins have been detected in a resistant strain of

the pest cotton bollworm (*Helicoverpa armigera*) but not in a susceptible one (Srinivas *et al.*,

2004). P-glycoproteins have also been implicated in the protection of the mitochondria from

insecticide damage (Akbar *et al.*, 2014). In Africa and Asia, applications of insecticides are

carried out (Van Huis, 2007) to try to control desert locust plagues. To increase the efficacy,

a combination of P-glycoprotein inhibitors and insecticide may act synergistically to increase

the locust mortality, reducing the amount of insecticide used. Further investigation into the

interaction between P-glycoproteins and different xenobiotics (i.e. insecticides, herbicides,

miticides and secondary metabolites) may improve our understanding of the physiological

effect of pesticides on insects, and subsequently lead to the development of more specific

targeted insecticides.

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545

546 **Authors' contributions**
547 M.R. and J.E.N conceived the experiment; M.R. and J.E.N designed the experiments. M.R.
548 carried out the experiments, analysed the images and carried out the data analyses. D.D.B
549 provided help for the statistical analyses. M.R. and J.E.N wrote the manuscript.
550

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. The extraction and preparation of Malpighian tubules for *ex vivo*
experimentation from the desert locust, *Schistocerca gregaria*. A) Cutting the posterior
tip of the abdomen permits removal of the head and the fully intact gut. B) The gut is
submerged in saline and the Malpighian tubules are exposed. The head is separated from the
saline bath by a barrier of modelling clay. C) Three tubules are removed from each locust and

fixed on a Sylgard® surface traversing a small drop of bathing solution, and covered with
paraffin oil.

Figure 2. The experimental scheme for assaying the presence of P-glycoproteins within
the Malpighian tubules of the desert locust. A) Individual tubules are severed from the gut
and the proximal and distal ends of the tubule are wound around Minuten pins to fix them.
Once the saline bath and paraffin oil have been applied, the proximal end of the tubule is
punctured with a sharpened capillary tube. B) After 30 minutes of preincubation in saline bath
the droplet was removed. C) The saline bath was replaced by a bath containing one of the
treatments. D) Every 30 minutes the secreted droplet was removed, placed on the Petri dish
and photographed.

Figure 3. Examples of the droplets secreted by the Malpighian tubules of desert locusts
during preincubation in saline and at every 30 minutes in each of the different
treatments. The size of each droplet depends upon the fluid secretion rate whereas the colour
is determined by the net extrusion rate of rhodamine B.

Figure 4. Tubule surface area positively influences the fluid secretion rate. A) A plot of
the surface area of the tubule exposed to the bath versus the fluid secretion rate for each of
the four treatments during preincubation. B) As in 'A' but 30 minutes after the saline bath was
replaced by one of the four treatment baths. C) As in 'B' but after 60 minutes. D) As in 'B' but
after 90 minutes. Open circles indicate the fluid secretion rates of individual tubules at a
particular time point. Each line with the shaded area around represents the mixed effect model
fit with the standard error.

Figure 5. The mean fluid secretion rate of Malpighian decreased with time in all the
treatments. A plot of the time from the replacement of the preincubation saline bath with one
of the four treatments. Open circles indicate the fluid secretion rates of individual tubules at a
particular time point. Each line with the shaded area around represents the mixed effect model
fit with the standard error.

Figure 5. The mean rhodamine B concentration of the droplets secreted by the
Malpighian tubules increased over time in all the treatments. The addition of verapamil
(125 or 250 µM) reduced the rhodamine concentration of the droplets secreted compared with
the control treatment 60 µM rhodamine. Open circles indicate the rhodamine concentration of
the droplets secreted by individual tubules at a particular time point. Each line with shaded
region represents the mixed effect model fit with the standard error.

Figure 6. The mean net extrusion of rhodamine B increased over time in all the treatments. The addition of verapamil (125 or 250 µM) reduced the net extrusion of rhodamine B compared with the control treatment 60 µM Rhodamine. Open circles indicate the net extrusion of rhodamine B by individual tubules at a particular time point. Each line with shaded region represents the mixed effect model fit with the standard error. The dashed line represents the net contribution of the P-glycoproteins obtained by subtracting the net extrusion of rhodamine in the V250 treatment from the R60.

Figure 7. Tubule surface area positively influences the net extrusion rate of rhodamine B. A) A plot of the surface area of the tubule exposed to the bath versus the net extrusion of rhodamine B for each of the three treatments after 30 minutes of incubation. B) As in 'A' but after 60 minutes. C) As in 'A' but after 90 minutes. Open circles indicate the net extrusion of rhodamine B of individual tubules at a particular time point. Each line with the shaded area around represents the mixed effect model fit with the standard error.

Figure 8. The fluid secretion rate positively influences the net extrusion rate of rhodamine B. A) A plot of the fluid secretion rate versus the net extrusion of rhodamine B for each of the three treatments after 30 minutes of incubation. B) As in 'A' but after 60 minutes. C) As in 'A' but after 90 minutes. Open circles indicate the net extrusion of rhodamine B of individual tubules at a particular time point. Each line with the shaded area around represents the mixed effect model fit with the standard error.

Table 1. Comparison of linear mixed effect models incorporating length, diameter or surface area. Based on the lowest AIC parameter, the surface area was the best explanatory variable for the secretion rate. Only the fixed effects are shown.

model	df	AIC	BIC	LogLik	deviance
secretion rate ~ diameter * time + treatment * time	25	-163.00	-69.75	106.50	-213.00
secretion rate ~ length * time + treatment * time	25	-178.10	-84.85	114.05	-228.10
secretion rate ~ surface * time + treatment * time	25	**-188.05**	-94.80	119.03	-238.05

Table 2. Outcomes of the linear mixed effect model investigating the effect of surface area, time of incubation, and treatment on the fluid secretion rate of Malpighian tubules. The model applied was (`Secretion rate ~ surface * time + treatment * time + (1| locust) + (1+time|tubule)`).

Predictor (reference)	ANOVA type II Wald	Mean ± SE	p
Intercept (R60, Preincubation, surface = 2 mm^2)		0.55 ± 0.06	**<.001**
Surface	χ2 = 47.44, df=1, **p<.001**	0.27 ± 0.04	**<.001**
Time 30		-0.22 ± 0.04	**<.001**
Time 60	χ2 = 283.94, df=3, **p<.001**	-0.28 ± 0.04	**<.001**
Time 90		-0.29 ± 0.05	**<.001**
Saline x Time 30		-0.09 ± 0.06	.115
Saline x Time 60		-0.17 ± 0.07	**.015**
Saline x Time 90		-0.22 ± 0.08	**.007**
V125 x Time 30		0.04 ± 0.06	.455
V125 x Time 60	χ2 = 23.81, df=9, **p=.005**	-0.02 ± 0.07	.715
V125 x Time 90		-0.05 ± 0.08	.533
V250 x Time 30		-0.17 ± 0.06	**.006**
V250 x Time 60		-0.27 ± 0.07	**<.001**
V250 x Time 90		-0.28 ± 0.08	**.001**

Table 3. Outcomes of the linear mixed effect models for each time interval . The model (`Secretion rate ~ surface + treatment + (1|locust)`) was used to investigate the effect of the tubule surface area (A) and the effect of rhodamine and verapamil (B) on the fluid secretion rate. 'A' shows the estimates of the mean influence of each unit of surface (mm^2) on the fluid secretion rate, whereas 'B' shows the estimates of the mean influence of each treatment on the fluid secretion rate.

	Predictor (reference)	Preincubation Mean ± SE	p	Time 30 Mean ± SE	p	Time 60 Mean ± SE	p	Time 90 Mean ± SE	p
A	Surface (R60)	0.29 ± 0.05	**<.001**	0.20 ± 0.03	**<.001**	0.15 ± 0.02	**<.001**	0.16 ± 0.04	**<.001**
	Surface (Saline)	0.29 ± 0.05	**<.001**	0.20 ± 0.03	**<.001**	0.15 ± 0.02	**<.001**	0.17 ± 0.04	**<.001**
	Surface (V125)	0.29 ± 0.05	**<.001**	0.20 ± 0.03	**<.001**	0.15 ± 0.02	**<.001**	0.15 ± 0.05	**.002**
	Surface (V250)	0.29 ± 0.05	**<.001**	0.20 ± 0.03	**<.001**	0.15 ± 0.02	**<.001**	0.02 ± 0.04	.512
B	Intercept (R60, surface=2)	0.55 ± 0.09		0.33 ± 0.06		0.27 ± 0.04		0.25 ± 0.04	
	Saline (R60)	0.24 ± 0.13	.070	0.14 ± 0.10	.136	0.07 ± 0.06	.242	0.02 ± 0.06	.751
	V125 (R60)	-0.02 ± 0.13	.908	0.03 ± 0.10	.756	-0.04 ± 0.06	.557	-0.07 ± 0.06	.280
	V250 (R60)	0.20 ± 0.13	.133	-0.02 ± 0.10	.800	-0.12 ± 0.06	.052	-0.10 ± 0.06	.101

Table 4. The outcomes of linear mixed effect model used to investigate the effect of incubation time and treatment on the rhodamine concentration of the droplets secreted. The model applied was (`Rhodamine concentration ~ secretion rate * time + treatment * time + (1| locust) + (1+time|tubule)`).

Predictor (reference)	ANOVA type II Wald	Mean ± SE	p
Intercept (R60, SR=0.3, time 30)		59.58 ± 6.66	**<0.001**
Time 60	χ2 = 259.29, df=2, **p<.001**	154.87 ± 10.81	**<0.001**
Time 90		296.43 ± 18.57	**<0.001**
V125 x time 30		-115.11 ± 16.41	**<0.001**
V125 x time 60	χ2 = 85.32, df=4, **p<.001**	-226.53 ± 28.08	**<0.001**
V250 x time 30		-103.03 ± 16.69	**<0.001**
V250 x time 60		-215.12 ± 28.66	**<0.001**

Table 5. Outcomes of the linear mixed effect models for each time interval upon the concentration of rhodamine within the secreted droplets. The model (`Rhodamine concentration ~ secretion rate + treatment + (1| locust)`) was used to investigate the effect of rhodamine and verapamil in the treatment bath upon the concentration of rhodamine in the droplets secreted after each interval of time.

Predictor (reference)	Time 30 Mean ± SE	p	Time 60 Mean ± SE	p	Time 90 Mean ± SE	p
Intercept (R60)	59.4 ± 4.9		215.7 ± 13.5		359.2 ± 21.7	
V125 (R60)	-48.9 ± 7.6	**<.001**	-163.7 ± 20.5	**<.001**	-273.0 ± 32.7	**<.001**
V250 (R60)	-48.2 ± 7.5	**<.001**	-151.9 ± 21.2	**<.001**	-256.6 ± 33.7	**<.001**
V250 (V125)	0.7 ± 8.0	.931	11.8 ± 22.6	.605	16.4 ± 35.4	.644

Table 6. Outcomes of a linear mixed effect model to investigate the effect of incubation time and treatment on the quantity of rhodamine extruded in the droplets secreted. The model applied was (`Net extrusion of rhodamine ~ surface * time * treatment + (1| locust) + (1+time|tubule)`).

Predictors	ANOVA type II Wald	Mean ± SE	p
Intercept (R60, surface=2, time 30)		18.75 ± 2.3	**<0.001**
time 60	χ2 = 153.17, df=2, **p<.001**	36.11 ± 2.87	**<0.001**
time 90		61.67 ± 4.8	**<0.001**
Surface x V125 x time 60		-15.98 ± 7.11	**0.025**
Surface x V250 x time 60	χ2 = 11.36, df=4, **p=.023**	-16.11 ± 6.76	**0.017**
Surface x V125 x time 90		-29.75 ± 11.89	**0.012**
Surface x V250 x time 90		-34.14 ± 11.28	**0.002**

Table 7. Outcomes of a linear mixed effects model investigating the effect of treatment and tubule surface area on the quantity of rhodamine extruded in the droplets secreted at each time interval. The model applied was (`Net extrusion of rhodamine ~ surface * treatment + (1|locust)`). (A) Shows the effect of rhodamine and verapamil on the quantity of rhodamine extruded in the droplets secreted. (B) As in 'A' but showing the effect of the tubule surface area.

		Time 30		Time 60		Time 90	
	Predictor (reference)	*Mean ± SE*	*p*	*Mean ± SE*	*p*	*Mean ± SE*	*p*
A	Intercept (R60, surface=2)	18.8 ± 2.6		54.7 ± 7.3		80.3 ± 9.3	
	V125 (R60)	-15.8 ± 4.0	**<.001**	-42.4 ± 11.3	**<.001**	-61.4 ± 14.5	**<.001**
	V250 (R60)	-17.2 ± 4.0	**<.001**	-43.4 ± 11.3	**<.001**	-59.1 ± 14.4	**<.001**
	V250 (V125)	-1.4 ± 4.2	.736	-1.1 ± 12.3	.931	2.3 ± 15.6	.884
B	Surface (R60)	2.11 ± 1.77	.231	33.05 ± 7.25	**<.001**	51.37 ± 8.61	**<.001**
	Surface (V125)	2.11 ± 1.77	.231	6.79 ± 9.10	.456	11.45 ± 10.80	.289
	Surface (V250)	2.11 ± 1.77	.231	5.20 ± 6.98	.457	3.91 ± 8.12	.630

Table 8. Outcomes of the linear mixed effects model for each time interval to investigate the effect of the secretion rate on the quantity of rhodamine extruded in the droplets secreted. The model applied was (`Net extrusion of rhodamine ~ secretion rate * treatment + (1| locust)`). The means estimate the influence of each nL/min of secretion rate on the quantity of rhodamine extruded.

Predictor (reference)	Time 30		Time 60		Time 90	
	Mean ± SE	p	Mean ± SE	p	Mean ± SE	p
Secretion rate (R60)	62.07 ± 6.12	**<.001**	235.76 ± 13.73	**<.001**	272.40 ± 19.35	**<.001**
Secretion rate (V125)	7.47 ± 6.27	.234	51.72 ± 16.71	**.002**	82.93 ± 34.60	**.017**
Secretion rate (V250)	-1.16 ± 4.56	.800	58.81 ± 16.00	**<.001**	125.53 ± 33.72	**<.001**

Table 9. Summary of the mean values of secretion rate, rhodamine concentration and net extrusion of rhodamine for each treatment at each time point.

	Treatment	Preincubation	Time 30	Time 60	Time 90	SR difference % between preincubation and Time 90
		Mean ± SE	*Mean ± SE*	*Mean ± SE*	*Mean ± SE*	
Fluid secretion rate (nL/min)	R60	0.55 ± 0.09	0.33 ± 0.06	0.27 ± 0.04	0.25 ± 0.04	-55%
	Saline	0.78 ± 0.10	0.47 ± 0.07	0.34 ± 0.05	0.27 ± 0.05	-65%
	V125	0.53 ± 0.10	0.36 ± 0.07	0.23 ± 0.05	0.19 ± 0.05	-64%
	V250	0.75 ± 0.10	0.30 ± 0.07	0.14 ± 0.05	0.15 ± 0.05	-80%
Rho concentration (µM)	R60		59.4 ± 4.9	215.7 ± 13.5	359.2 ± 21.7	
	V125		10.5 ± 5.8	52.0 ± 15.6	86.1 ± 25.6	
	V250		11.19 ± 5.7	63.8 ± 17.0	102.6 ± 27.7	
Net extrusion of Rho (fmol/min)	R60		18.8 ± 2.6	54.7 ± 7.3	80.3 ± 9.3	
	V125		3.0 ± 3.0	12.4 ± 8.7	18.9 ± 11.1	
	V250		1.6 ± 3.0	11.3 ± 8.7	21.2 ± 11.0	
	Net P-glycoprotein contribution		**17.2 (91%)**	**43.4 (79%)**	**59.1 (74%)**	**Total: 119.7 (78%)**

Figure 1. The extraction and preparation of Malpighian tubules for *ex vivo* experimentation from the desert locust, *Schistocerca gregaria*. A) Cutting the anterior tip of the abdomen permits removal of the head and the fully intact gut. B) The gut is submerged in saline and the Malpighian tubules are exposed. The head is separated from the saline bath by a barrier of modelling clay. C) Three tubules are removed from each locust and fixed on a Sylgard® surface traversing a small drop of bathing solution, and covered with paraffin oil.

Figure 2. The experimental scheme for assaying the presence of P-glycoproteins within the Malpighian tubules of the desert locust. A) Individual tubules are severed from the gut and the proximal and distal ends of the tubule are wound around Minuten pins to fix them. Once the saline bath and paraffin oil have been applied, the proximal end of the tubule is punctured with a sharpened capillary tube. B) After 30 minutes of preincubation in saline bath the droplet was removed. C) The saline bath was replaced by a bath containing one of the treatments. D) Every 30 minutes the secreted droplet was removed, placed on the Petri dish and photographed.

Figure 3. Examples of the droplets secreted by the Malpighian tubules of desert locusts during preincubation in saline and at every 30 minutes in each of the different treatments. The size of each droplet depends upon the fluid secretion rate whilst the colour is determined by the net extrusion rate.

Figure 4. Tubule surface area positively influences the fluid secretion rate. A) A plot of the surface area of the tubule exposed to the bath versus the fluid secretion rate for each of the four treatments during preincubation. B) As in 'A' but 30 minutes after the saline bath was replaced by one of the four treatment baths. C) As in 'B' but after 60 minutes. D) As in 'B' but after 90 minutes. Open circles indicate the fluid secretion rates of individual tubules at a particular time point. Each line with the shaded area around represents the mixed effect model fit with the standard error.

Figure 5. The mean fluid secretion rate of Malpighian decreased with time in all the treatments. A plot of the time from the replacement of the preincubation saline bath with one of the four treatments. Open circles indicate the fluid secretion rates of individual tubules at a particular time point. Each line with the shaded area around represents the mixed effect model fit with the standard error.

Figure 6. The mean rhodamine B concentration of the droplets secreted by the Malpighian tubules increased over time in all the treatments. The addition of verapamil (125 or 250 µM) reduced the rhodamine concentration of the droplets secreted compared with the control treatment 60 µM rhodamine. Open circles indicate the rhodamine concentration of the droplets secreted by individual tubules at a particular time point. Each line with shaded region represents the mixed effect model fit with the standard error.

Figure 7. The mean net extrusion of rhodamine B increased over time in all the treatments. The addition of verapamil (125 µM or 250 µM) reduced the net extrusion of rhodamine B compared with the control treatment 60 µM Rhodamine. Open circles indicate the net extrusion of rhodamine B by individual tubules at a particular time point. Each line with shaded region represents the mixed effect model fit with the standard error. The dashed line represents the net contribution of the P-glycoproteins obtained by subtracting the net extrusion of rhodamine in the V250 treatment from the R60.

Figure 8. Tubule surface area positively influences the net extrusion of rhodamine B. A) A plot of the surface area of the tubule exposed to the bath versus the net extrusion of rhodamine B for each of the three treatments after 30 minutes of incubation. B) As in 'A' but after 60 minutes. C) As in 'A' but after 90 minutes. Open circles indicate the net extrusion of rhodamine B of individual tubules at a particular time point. Each line with the shaded area around represents the mixed effect model fit with the standard error.

Figure 9. The fluid secretion rate positively influences the net extrusion of rhodamine B. A) A plot of the fluid secretion rate versus the net extrusion of rhodamine B for each of the three treatments after 30 minutes of incubation. B) As in 'A' but after 60 minutes. C) As in 'A' but after 90 minutes. Open circles indicate the net extrusion of rhodamine B of individual tubules at a particular time point. Each line with the shaded area around represents the mixed effect model fit with the standard error.