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Plant defense resistance in natural enemies of a specialist insect herbivore

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26 **Abstract:** Plants defend themselves against herbivores through the production of toxic and
27 deterrent metabolites. Adapted herbivores can tolerate and sequester these metabolites, allowing
28 them to feed on defended plants and become toxic to their own enemies. Can herbivore natural
29 enemies overcome sequestered plant defense metabolites to prey on adapted herbivores? To
30 address this question, we studied how entomopathogenic nematodes cope with benzoxazinoid
31 defense metabolites that are produced by grasses and sequestered by a specialist maize herbivore,
32 the western corn rootworm. We find that nematodes from US maize fields in regions in which the
33 western corn rootworm was present over the last 50 years are behaviorally and metabolically
34 resistant to sequestered benzoxazinoids and more infective towards the western corn rootworm
35 than nematodes from other parts of the world. Exposure of a benzoxazinoid-susceptible nematode
36 strain to the western corn rootworm for five generations results in higher behavioral and metabolic
37 resistance and benzoxazinoid-dependent infectivity towards the western corn rootworm. Thus,
38 herbivores that are exposed to a plant defense sequestering herbivore can evolve both behavioral
39 and metabolic resistance to plant defense metabolites, and these traits are associated with higher
40 infectivity towards a defense sequestering herbivore. We conclude that plant defense metabolites
41 that are transferred through adapted herbivores may result in the evolution of resistance in
42 herbivore natural enemies. Our study also identifies plant defense resistance as a novel target for
43 the improvement of biological control agents.

44

45 **Key words:** Tritrophic interactions, plant secondary metabolism, biological control.

46 **Introduction**

47 Despite the high abundance and diversity of arthropod herbivores, plants dominate terrestrial
48 (agro)-ecosystems (1). Predation by herbivore natural enemies and plant defenses are thought to
49 contribute to this phenomenon (2, 3). Plants defend themselves against herbivores using a variety
50 of strategies, including the production of specialized defense metabolites that are toxic and/or
51 reduce their attractivity and digestibility (4-7). However, many herbivores evolved mechanisms to
52 overcome the negative effects of plant defense metabolites, including behavioral avoidance,
53 excretion, target site insensitivity and detoxification through conjugation and breakdown (6, 8, 9).
54 As a result, herbivores are often able to feed on defended plants and to ingest plant toxins without
55 suffering major fitness consequences.

56 The ability to tolerate plant toxins has also enabled some specialized herbivores to co-opt plant
57 defense metabolites for self-defense against their own natural enemies (10, 11). Sequestration of
58 plant toxins as a form of adaptation is relatively widespread in specialized insect herbivores (12,
59 13). Plant toxins may also accumulate in non-adapted insect herbivores, which are often inefficient
60 at metabolizing and/or detoxifying plant defense compounds (14-16). Consequently, predators,
61 parasites and parasitoids are often exposed to plant toxins as they feed on herbivores. Despite the
62 fact that plant toxin exposure of the third trophic level is common in nature, herbivore natural
63 enemies succeed at controlling herbivores and reduce their negative impact on plant fitness and
64 yield (3). How top-down control of herbivores is maintained in the face of the abundance, diversity
65 and ubiquity of plant defense metabolites is a potentially important open question in multitrophic
66 interaction research and chemical ecology.

67 One possible explanation for the success of herbivore natural enemies is that, similar to herbivores,
68 they may have evolved the capacity to resist or tolerate plant defense metabolites (17). Different
69 degrees of resistance to plant toxins have been observed in predators and parasitoids (18-21).
70 However, whether plant defense metabolites can drive the evolution of resistance of members of
71 the third trophic level, and to what extent resistance to plant defense metabolites improves the
72 capacity of herbivore natural enemies to prey on adapted herbivores, is not well understood.

73 To address the questions above, we studied the impact of plant-derived benzoxazinoids on
74 entomopathogenic nematodes. Benzoxazinoids are multifunctional defense metabolites that are
75 produced by grasses such as wheat and maize (22) and protect them against generalist herbivores
76 (23-25). The western corn rootworm (*Diabrotica virgifera virgifera*), a specialized maize
77 herbivore and important agricultural pest, is fully resistant to benzoxazinoids (26). The rootworm

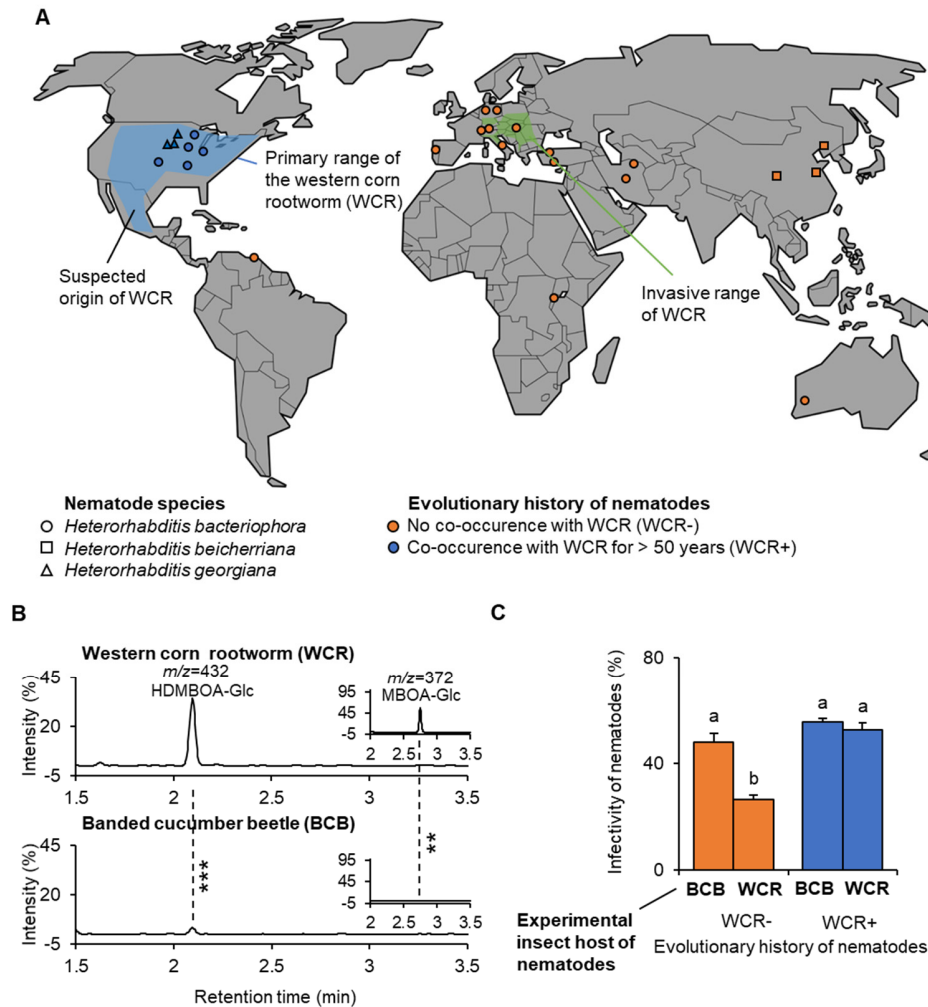
78 larvae are attracted to benzoxazinoids (27) and accumulate them in their bodies (28).
79 Entomopathogenic nematodes such as *Heterorhabditis bacteriophora* are common in natural and
80 agricultural ecosystems across the globe and co-occur with the western corn rootworm in some
81 areas. They are used as biological control agents against many different root pests, including the
82 western corn rootworm (29, 30). Benzoxazinoid sequestration by the western corn rootworm
83 reduces the capacity of a commercial *H. bacteriophora* strain to infect and kill the herbivore,
84 suggesting that the corn rootworm co-opts these plant defense metabolites for self-protection
85 against entomopathogenic nematodes (28). Using natural variation and forward evolution, we
86 investigated whether adapted *H. bacteriophora* nematodes are able to overcome this defenses
87 strategy of the western corn rootworm, and whether their capacity to resist benzoxazinoids is
88 associated with increased infectivity towards the western corn rootworm.

89 **Results**

90 To test whether entomopathogenic nematodes that share an evolutionary history with the western
91 corn rootworm may be able to resist benzoxazinoids, we established a global collection of 25
92 *Heterorhabditis spp.* strains, including strains collected from regions in which the western corn
93 rootworm has been present for more than 50 years (henceforth called the primary range), and
94 strains collected from other regions of the world in which the western corn rootworm is not present
95 or has not been present until recently (Fig. 1A, table S1). Nematodes from the primary range where
96 isolated from maize fields in which the western corn rootworm is regularly present. They are thus
97 likely to have encountered this herbivore in the past. *H. bacteriophora* has a broad host range, and
98 the strains may also have infected other root herbivores occurring in maize fields, including
99 wireworms and other rootworm species. Benzoxazinoids and their breakdown products can be
100 found in the midgut of a wide range of insect herbivores (31, 32), but the western corn rootworm
101 is the only herbivore known to selectively accumulate benzoxazinoids in its hemolymph (28).
102 Nematode strains from other parts of the world never encountered the western corn rootworm, as
103 they came from regions where the rootworm is not present, or they were isolated before the western
104 corn rootworm invaded these regions (table S1).

105 Using internal transcribed spacer rRNA gene sequencing, 19 nematode strains within our
106 collection were confirmed to be *H. bacteriophora*. Three strains from China were re-classified as
107 *H. beicheriana*, and three strains from the US were identified as *H. georgiana*, both of which are
108 closely related to *H. bacteriophora*. In a first experiment, we compared the infectiveness of the
109 different nematode strains towards larvae of the western corn rootworm and larvae of the banded

110 cucumber beetle (*D. balteata*). In contrast to the western corn rootworm, the banded cucumber
 111 beetle feeds on many different plant species apart from maize and does not sequester
 112 benzoxazinoids (Fig. 1B and S1) (28). The banded cucumber beetle occurs mainly in Central
 113 America, Mexico and the Southern US, outside of our collection range. Thus, none of the tested
 114 nematode strains are likely to share an evolutionary history with this herbivore.

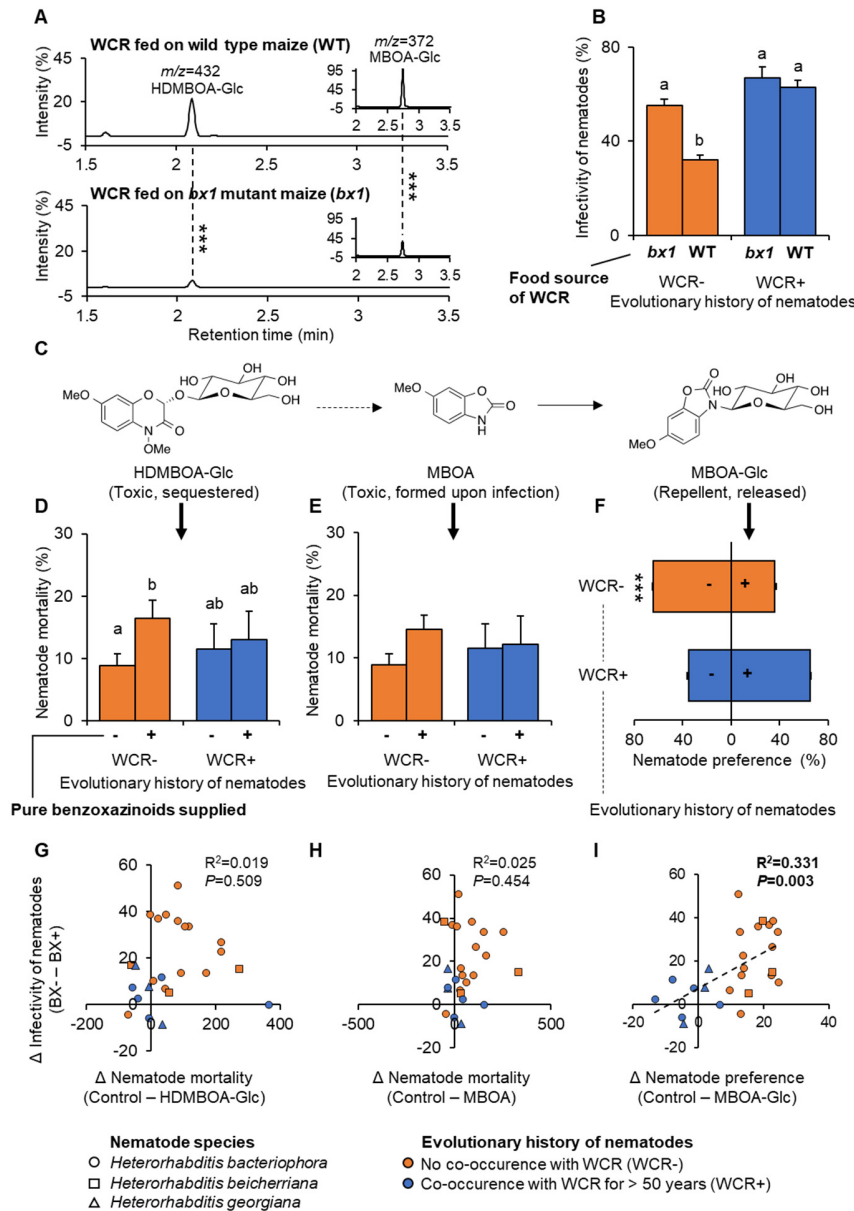


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116 **Fig. 1. Entomopathogenic nematodes from the primary range of the benzoxazinoid-sequestering western corn**
 117 **rootworm are more infective towards the western corn rootworm than the non-sequestering banded cucumber**
 118 **beetle.** (A) World map showing the origin of the collected entomopathogenic nematode strains together with the
 119 primary and invasive ranges of the western corn rootworm, a specialized maize herbivore (WCR; data from 2012).
 120 Note that nematode strains from the invasive range do not share any evolutionary history with WCR, as they were
 121 collected before invasion. For detailed information about the different strains, refer to table S1. (B) Chromatograms
 122 of plant-derived benzoxazinoids in the body of WCR (top), and the banded cucumber beetle (BCB, bottom) a
 123 generalist root herbivore which does not sequester benzoxazinoids and is mainly present in Central America, Mexico
 124 and the Southern US, outside of the nematode sampling range. Asterisks indicate significant differences between
 125 herbivore species ($P < 0.001$). For quantitative comparisons, refer to Fig. S1. (C) Infectivity of nematodes towards
 126 WCR and BCB. Average (+SEM) infectivity is shown for nematodes with an evolutionary history with WCR of more
 127 than 50 years (blue) and nematodes without evolutionary history with WCR (orange). Different letters indicate
 128 significant differences between treatments (False discovery rate corrected $P < 0.05$).

129 Infectivity tests revealed a significant interaction between the host herbivore species and the
130 evolutionary history of the nematodes (Fig. 1C, table S3). Nematode strains from the primary range
131 of the western corn rootworm were able to infect and kill the western corn rootworm and the
132 banded cucumber equally well. By contrast, the infectivity of nematodes from outside the primary
133 range was significantly lower for the western corn rootworm than the banded cucumber beetle
134 (Fig. 1C). Thus, nematodes that evolved in the presence of the western corn rootworm have an
135 increased capacity to infect and kill this specific herbivore. This pattern was similar when only
136 strains belonging to *H. bacteriophora* were considered (Fig. S2). The infectivity of *H. georgiana*
137 strains, all of which come from the primary range of the western corn rootworm, was higher
138 towards the western corn rootworm than the infectivity of *H. beicheriana* strains, which come from
139 Asia where the western corn rootworm is not present (Fig. S2).

140 The banded cucumber beetle and western corn rootworm differ in many traits apart from
141 benzoxazinoids that may explain the pattern observed in Fig. 1. To specifically test for the role of
142 benzoxazinoids in determining the higher infectivity of nematode strains from the primary range
143 of the western corn rootworm, we exposed the different nematode strains to western corn rootworm
144 larvae that previously fed on wild type or benzoxazinoid-deficient *bx1* maize mutant plants. *Bx1*-
145 mutant fed western corn rootworm larvae accumulate only low amounts of benzoxazinoids (Fig.
146 2A and S3) (28). Nematodes from the primary range were able to infect western corn rootworm
147 larvae equally well, independently of whether the larvae fed on benzoxazinoid-containing wild
148 type or benzoxazinoid-deficient *bx1* mutant maize roots (Fig. 2B). By contrast, nematodes from
149 other parts of the world suffered from a suppression of infectivity when exposed to larvae fed on
150 wild type plants compared to *bx1* mutant fed larvae (Fig. 2B). This pattern was largely consistent
151 across strains (Fig. S4). The benzoxazinoid susceptibility of the different nematode strains (i.e. the
152 difference in infectivity towards wild type and *bx1*-fed western corn rootworm larvae) was
153 negatively correlated to their infectivity towards the western corn rootworm (as measured in the
154 previous experiment; Fig. 2), but not correlated to their infectivity towards the banded cucumber
155 beetle (Fig. S5). Thus, nematodes from the primary range are less susceptible to the benzoxazinoid-
156 dependent defenses of the western corn rootworm than nematodes from other parts of the world,
157 and this trait is associated with higher infectivity towards the western corn rootworm.



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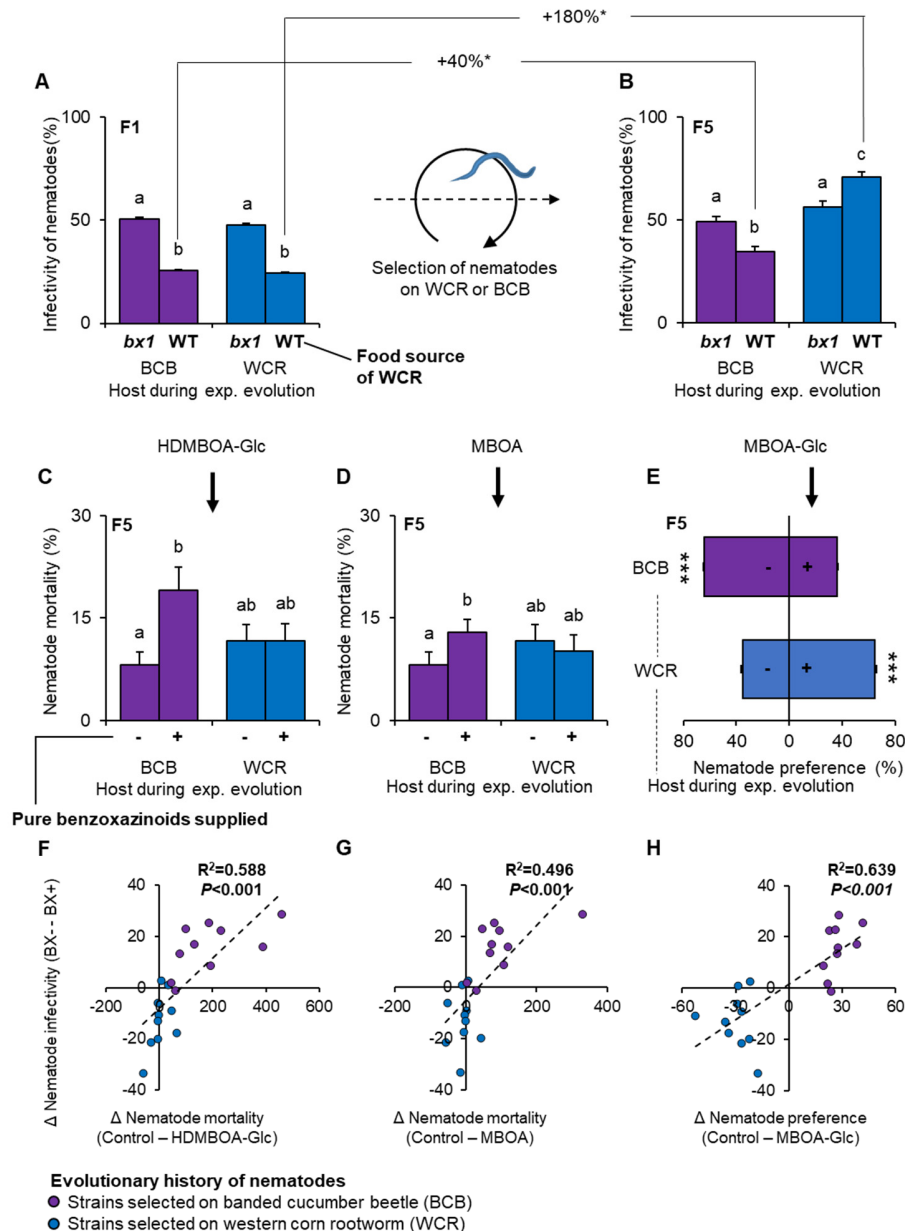
159 **Fig. 2. Nematodes from the primary range of the western corn rootworm are more resistant to sequestered**
 160 **benzoxazinoids.** (A) Chromatograms of plant-derived benzoxazinoids in the body of western corn rootworm (WCR)
 161 larvae fed on wild type (WT, top) and benzoxazinoid-deficient *bx1* mutant maize plants (bottom). Asterisks indicate
 162 significant differences ($P < 0.001$). (B) Infectivity of nematodes that share an evolutionary history with the western
 163 corn rootworm (WCR+, blue) or not (WCR-, orange) towards WCR larvae fed on WT or *bx1* mutant plants. Different
 164 letters indicate significant differences between treatments (False discovery rate corrected $P < 0.05$). (C)
 165 Benzoxazinoids found in WCR larvae. Two-hydroxy-4,7-dimethoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one *O*-glucoside (HDMBOA-
 166 Glc) accumulates in the larval body and is toxic for nematodes. Six-methoxy-2-benzoxazolinone (MBOA) is formed
 167 upon tissue disruption and nematode attack and is also toxic. Six-methoxy-2-benzoxazolinone *N*-glucoside (MBOA-
 168 Glc) is released by the larvae. It is not directly toxic but repels the nematodes. (D-E) Impact of physiologically relevant
 169 doses of HDMBOA-Glc (150 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) and MBOA (25 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) on nematode mortality. Different letters indicate
 170 significant differences between treatments (False discovery rate corrected $P < 0.05$). (F) Impact of physiological
 171 doses of MBOA-Glc (3 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) on nematode attraction. Asterisks indicate a significant effect of MBOA-Glc ($P < 0.001$).
 172 (G-I) Linear correlations between benzoxazinoid dependent infectivity (data from (B)) and in vitro benzoxazinoid
 173 resistance (data from (D-F)). R^2 and P -values of linear regressions are shown. Dashed regression lines are shown for
 174 significant linear correlations.

175 Benzoxazinoids can protect the western corn rootworm from nematodes through a series of
176 different, mutually non-exclusive mechanisms (Fig. 2C) (28). Six-methoxy-2-benzoxazolinone *N*-
177 glucoside (MBOA-Glc) is an insect-specific conjugate formed from benzoxazinoid breakdown
178 products that is released by the larvae and accumulates on their cuticle, thus making them less
179 attractive to entomopathogenic nematodes. Two-hydroxy-4,7-dimethoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one
180 *O*-glucoside (HDMBOA-Glc) is contained within the larval body and is directly toxic to the
181 nematodes (28). Upon nematode-infection, HDMBOA-Glc is broken down to 6-methoxy-2-
182 benzoxazolinone (MBOA), which also reduces nematode survival (28). In choice experiments,
183 MBOA-Glc reduced the attraction of nematodes that share no evolutionary history with the
184 western corn rootworm, while nematodes from the primary range did not show a negative response
185 towards MBOA-Glc (Fig. 2F and S6). Physiological doses of HDMBOA-Glc induced mortality in
186 strains that shared no evolutionary history with the western corn rootworm, but not in strains from
187 the primary range (Fig. 2D). No clear effects were found for MBOA-induced mortality (Fig 2E).
188 Simple linear regression analysis revealed a positive correlation between the avoidance of MBOA-
189 Glc and the benzoxazinoid-specific suppression of nematode infectivity (Fig. 2I). Model selection
190 applied on a multiple linear regression including all explanatory factors and their interactions
191 resulted in a model with the behavioral response towards MBOA-Glc alone explaining 61% of
192 benzoxazinoid-dependent nematode infectivity across the different strains (Table S4). Taken
193 together, these results show that nematodes from the primary range of the western corn rootworm
194 do not avoid an insect-specific benzoxazinoid breakdown product and are more resistant to
195 sequestered benzoxazinoids. Furthermore, the loss of behavioral avoidance of MBOA-Glc is
196 associated with an increased capacity to infect benzoxazinoid-sequestering western corn rootworm
197 larvae.

198 Benzoxazinoid tolerance in the nematode strains from maize fields of the primary range of the
199 western corn rootworm may be confounded by population structure. Furthermore, their
200 benzoxazinoid resistance may stem from exposure to benzoxazinoids exuded by maize roots rather
201 than benzoxazinoids that are sequestered by the western corn rootworm. To test whether exposure
202 to a benzoxazinoid-sequestering host can directly leads to the evolution of benzoxazinoid
203 resistance, we designed a real-time evolution experiment. The benzoxazinoid-susceptible *H.*
204 *bacteriophora* strain RW14 was multiplied and divided into 20 experimental (sub-)populations.
205 Ten populations were then reared on banded cucumber beetle larvae and ten populations were
206 reared on western corn rootworm larvae, both of which were fed on wild type maize roots. Using
207 these two herbivore species allowed us to assess evolution on two natural hosts with different

208 abilities to sequester benzoxazinoids. Subsequent infectivity tests were performed with wild-type
209 and *bx1* fed western corn rootworm larvae to specifically assess the evolution of benzoxazinoid-
210 resistance following exposure to the different herbivores. In the F1 generation, all experimental
211 nematode populations showed reduced infectiveness towards wild type-fed western corn rootworm
212 larvae compared to *bx1*-fed larvae (Fig 3A and S7). After five generations of selection, nematodes
213 reared on banded cucumber beetle larvae still showed reduced infectivity towards wild-type fed
214 western corn rootworm larvae, even though the effect was less strong than in the F1 generation
215 (Fig. 3B and S8). By contrast, nematodes reared on the western corn rootworm were overall better
216 able to infect the western corn rootworm and did no longer show a reduction in infectivity on wild
217 type fed larvae compared to *bx1*-fed larvae (Fig. 3B and S8). The nematodes were even more
218 successful on wild type fed western corn rootworm larvae than on *bx1*-mutant fed larvae (Fig. 3B).
219 Thus, selection on a benzoxazinoid-sequestering host over five generations is sufficient for
220 susceptible nematodes to evolve complete resistance to benzoxazinoid-dependent defenses.

221 To understand how the western corn rootworm-selected nematode populations may achieve higher
222 infectiveness towards benzoxazinoid-containing western corn rootworm larvae, we subjected them
223 to the same series of bioassays as the natural strain collection before (Fig. 3 C-E). Nematodes
224 selected on banded cucumber beetle larvae preferred to avoid MBOA-Glc, while nematodes
225 selected on western corn rootworm larvae were attracted by this compound (Fig. 3E and S9).
226 Furthermore, HDMBOA-Glc and MBOA reduced the survival of nematodes selected on the
227 banded cucumber beetle, but did not reduce survival of nematodes selected on the western corn
228 rootworm (Fig. 3C-D and S9). Simple linear regression analysis revealed a correlation between
229 the behavioral response to MBOA-Glc and benzoxazinoid-specific nematode infectivity as well as
230 HDMBOA-Glc and MBOA toxicity and benzoxazinoid-specific nematode infectivity (Fig. 3 F-
231 H). Multiple linear regression including all explanatory factors and their interactions, followed by
232 model selection and averaging, resulted in a model with MBOA-Glc repellence and HDMBOA-
233 Glc toxicity explaining 82% of the benzoxazinoid-dependent nematode infectivity across strains
234 (Table S4). Thus, similar to the pattern observed for the natural strains, nematodes exposed to the
235 western corn rootworm for five generations do no longer avoid an insect-specific benzoxazinoid
236 breakdown product and become resistant to a sequestered benzoxazinoid and its breakdown
237 product. Furthermore, their increased capacity to infect benzoxazinoid-sequestering western corn
238 rootworm larvae is associated with both a loss of behavioral aversion and reduced benzoxazinoid
239 toxicity.



240

241 **Fig. 3. Rapid evolution of benzoxazinoid resistance and infectivity in nematodes exposed to the western corn**
 242 **rootworm.** (A) Infectivity of F1 nematodes reared on the western corn rootworm (WCR+, blue) or the banded
 243 cucumber beetle (BCB, purple) for one generation, exposed to WCR larvae fed on WT or *bx1* mutant plants. Different
 244 letters indicate significant differences between treatments (False discovery rate corrected least square means, $P<0.05$).
 245 (B) Infectivity of F5 nematodes reared on the western corn rootworm (WCR+, blue) or the banded cucumber beetle
 246 (BCB, purple) for five generations and exposed to WCR larvae fed on WT or *bx1* mutant plants. Different letters
 247 indicate significant differences between treatments (False discovery rate corrected $P<0.05$). Significant changes
 248 ($P<0.05$) in infectivity between F1 and F5 nematodes are indicated by asterisks. (C-D) Impact of physiologically
 249 relevant doses of HDMBOA-Glc (150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) and MBOA (25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) on nematode mortality. Different letters
 250 indicate significant differences between treatments (False discovery rate corrected $P<0.05$). (E) Impact of
 251 physiological doses of MBOA-Glc (3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) on nematode attraction. Asterisks indicate a significant effect of
 252 MBOA-Glc ($P<0.001$). (F-H) Linear correlations between benzoxazinoid dependent infectivity (data from (B)) and
 253 in vitro benzoxazinoid resistance (data from (C-E)). R^2 and P -values of linear regressions are shown. Dashed
 254 regression lines are drawn for significant correlations.

255 **Discussion**

256 Herbivore natural enemies are often exposed to plant defense metabolites, either by coming into
257 contact with plants directly or by preying on herbivores that contain plant defenses (33-36). Many
258 herbivore natural enemies have been found to avoid plant defenses by rejecting herbivores that
259 accumulate or sequester toxins (37-39). However, avoidance comes with significant costs,
260 especially when mobility and host availability are limited. Soil-borne herbivore natural enemies
261 such as entomopathogenic nematodes can typically only cover short distances (40) and may have
262 a limited choice of hosts in agricultural environments. Thus, they are likely to be under
263 considerable pressure to overcome, rather than to avoid, plant toxins, which may explain why
264 nematodes that share an evolutionary history with the western corn rootworm show benzoxazinoid
265 resistance in the form of a loss of behavioral aversion. Together with their increased capacity to
266 withstand the toxic effects of benzoxazinoids, this behavioral shift likely allows the nematodes to
267 prey successfully on benzoxazinoid-sequestering hosts such as the western corn rootworm. The
268 exact contribution of the western corn rootworm to nematode evolution in the field relative to other
269 soil-borne organisms that are commonly present in US maize fields and may modulate
270 benzoxazinoid exposure requires further study. Given the dominance of the western corn rootworm
271 in maize fields in the areas from which the benzoxazinoid-resistant nematodes were sampled,
272 however, we consider it likely that their resistance traits originate from the selection pressure
273 exerted by the western corn rootworm.

274 The real-time evolution experiment further demonstrates that benzoxazinoid resistance in
275 nematodes can evolve rapidly following exposure to the western corn rootworm, most likely
276 through standing genetic variation. The finding that nematodes selected on the banded cucumber
277 beetle also become slightly less susceptible to benzoxazinoid-dependent defenses is noteworthy in
278 this context, as it may indicate that plant defense resistance in herbivore natural enemies can also
279 evolve in the absence of a defense-sequestering herbivore, for instance through exposure to
280 residual plant defense levels in the soil as well as the gut and the frass of the herbivore. Whether
281 evolved resistance to plant toxins is common in herbivore natural enemies remains to be
282 determined. Given that exposure of natural enemies to plant toxins is frequent in nature (33-36)
283 and that different natural enemies have been reported to resist and accumulate plant toxins (18-
284 21), we expect evolved behavioral avoidance, metabolic resistance and tolerance strategies to be
285 widespread among members of the third trophic level. Host diversity and diet breadth will likely

286 determine the prevalence and biochemical architecture of these traits in herbivore natural enemies
287 (20).

288 The diversity of plant defense metabolites and arthropod herbivores in nature is thought to be the
289 result of an ongoing co-evolutionary arms race (41-45). Herbivore natural enemies have been
290 shown to be negatively affected by plant defense metabolites in this context (46-48). The
291 possibility that herbivore natural enemies may evolve resistance to increasingly toxic herbivores
292 been considered (17,18), but, to the best of our knowledge, not been addressed through
293 manipulative experiments. Instead, adaptations of herbivore natural enemies to plant chemicals
294 have been investigated in detail in the context of plant volatiles that serve as foraging cues for
295 herbivore natural enemies (48-50), including volatiles that attracted entomopathogenic nematodes
296 (51), and in the context of extrafloral nectar as food source (50, 52). Although conducted in an
297 agricultural system, the present study does support an evolutionary link between the co-
298 evolutionary arms race of plants and herbivores and the third trophic level by showing that plant
299 defense metabolites may influence the evolution of herbivore natural enemies as they are
300 transferred through adapted herbivores. Trophic transfer of defense metabolites may promote the
301 specialization and diversification of herbivore natural enemies (46). In wild systems, resistance to
302 plant defenses by herbivore natural enemies may reduce the penalty for plants facing adapted
303 herbivores (17), which again may reduce the negative selection pressure on basal plant defense
304 metabolites and thereby contribute to within-plant chemical diversity. Detailed mechanistic and
305 evolutionary studies, including broad phylogenetic analyses of multitrophic interaction networks
306 in natural systems, could help to shed further light on these hypotheses.

307 Reducing the use of synthetic pesticides is an important aim in sustainable agriculture. The use of
308 herbivore natural enemies as biological control agents is a promising strategy in this context (53).
309 However, the efficacy of biocontrol agents is often limited, and a better understanding of the
310 factors that determine their success is thus important to improve their use (54). Our study confirms
311 that plant toxins can limit the capacity of natural enemies to control agricultural pests (17, 28), but
312 also shows that plant toxin susceptibility shows pronounced heritable variation and can be offset
313 rapidly through artificial selection. Plant toxin resistance thus represents a promising breeding
314 target for the improvement of biological control agents.

315 **Materials and Methods**

316 Insects

317 Western corn rootworm (WCR, *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera* LeConte) eggs were supplied by the
318 USDA-ARS-NCARL, Brookings, SD, USA. Banded cucumber beetle (BCB, *D. balteata*
319 LeConte) eggs were obtained from Syngenta Crop Protection AG, Stein, CH. After hatching, WCR
320 and BCB neonates were reared on freshly germinated wild type (B73) maize seeds or on the
321 benzoxazinoid mutant line *bx1* (55). Third instar WCR and BCB larvae were used for all
322 experiments. *Galleria mellonella* larvae were bought from Fischereibedarf Wenger, Bern, CH, and
323 maintained at 8°C until use for nematode rearing.

324 Nematodes

325 *Nematode collection, identification and rearing.* We established a collection of 25 different
326 *Heterorhabditis* spp. Detailed information on the different strains can be found in Table S1. Strains
327 were either obtained from collaborators or collected from the field. Field collections were realized
328 by collecting 45 soil cores (10 cm depth, 2 cm diameter) for each individual location. Soil cores
329 were pooled for each location, homogenized and separated into 20 plastic containers (250 mL,
330 Semadeni AG, CH). Five *G. mellonella* larvae were then placed on the soil surface of each
331 container. The containers were closed with a plastic lid and incubated in darkness under 24 ± 2 °C.
332 Five to ten days later, all nematode-infected *G. mellonella* larvae were individually transferred to
333 white traps (56), and emerging nematodes were used to infect another set of *G. mellonella* larvae
334 (57). Irrespective of whether they were isolated from the field or obtained from collaborators, all
335 nematodes were identified by internal transcribed spacer rRNA gene sequencing as described
336 previously (58-60). The collected nematode progeny was maintained in 250 ml flasks (Greiner
337 Bio-One GmbH, Frickenhausen, DE) at a density of one EPN per microliter tap water at 10 °C.
338 Nematode strains were refreshed by multiplying them on *G. mellonella* larvae every 2-3 months.
339 Nematodes that were less than one-month old were used for all experiments.

340 Benzoxazinoid analyses

341 Benzoxazinoids from BCB larvae and WCR larvae fed on B73 or *bx1* maize plants were extracted
342 in 50% MeOH + 50% H₂O + 0.5% formic acid. Five flash frozen larvae (~40 mg) were pooled and
343 ground in 400 µL extraction buffer, and 5 replicates (each consisting of a pool of 5 larvae) were
344 analyzed for each species and food source. The extracts were vortexed for 1 min and centrifuged
345 twice at 17,000 g, at 4 °C. The supernatants were then analyzed on an Acquity UHPLC-MS system
346 equipped with an electrospray source (Waters i-Class UHPLC-QDA, USA). The method was

347 modified from the one described previously (10). Briefly, the elution profile was: 0–3.5 min, 99–
348 72.5% A in B; 3.5–5.5 min, 100% B; 5.5–7.5 min 99% A in B. The injection volume was 1 μ L.
349 DIMBOA, MBOA, DIMBOA-Glc, HDMBOA-Glc and MBOA-Glc were all quantified in ESI-
350 using selective ion recording (SIR) and external standard curves.

351 Real-time evolution

352 An experimental selection experiment was carried out using the RW14 nematode strain. A batch
353 of newly hatched RW14 nematodes was aliquoted into 20 sub-populations, each consisting of
354 20000 nematodes. Half the sub-populations were then reared on WCR larvae, and the other half
355 on BCB larvae. Infection was performed in solo cups as described below in the section “Nematode
356 infectivity”. For each population, 30 solo cups containing 5 larvae each were infected with 500
357 nematodes. Five days later, all the infected larvae of the same sub-population were collected
358 together and transferred to white traps for collecting nematode progenies. In between each
359 generation of selection, the populations were amplified in *G. mellonella* larvae by infecting 15
360 larvae per population with 200 nematodes each. The different populations were selected on WCR
361 and BCB larvae for a total of 10 generations (5 generations within the selection host and 5
362 amplification steps in between), and F1 and F5 nematodes (referring to the number of generations
363 on the selection host) of 10 independently selected sub-populations were phenotyped.

364 Nematode infectivity

365 To quantify the infectivity of the nematodes, three to five WCR or BCB larvae were placed into
366 individual solo cups (30 mL, Frontier Scientific Services, Inc., DE) containing a 5 mm layer of
367 moist, autoclaved sand (Selmaterra, Bigler Samen AG, Thun, CH). Five hundred nematodes in
368 500 μ L tap water were applied into each solo-cup. After incubating the cups at 28 ± 0.5 °C for 5
369 days, the percentage of nematode-infected larvae in each solo-cup was determined. Larvae were
370 reared on either wild type (B73) or *bx1* mutant plants. Each solo cup was treated as an independent
371 replicate. The exact numbers of independent biological replicates for the individual experiments
372 and treatments are provided in Table S2.

373 Nematode behavior

374 To test the effect of MBOA-Glc on nematode behavior, we used the approach developed earlier
375 (28). Briefly, a 5 mm agarose (5 g/L, Sigma Aldrich Chemie, CHE) layer was poured into a Petri-
376 dish (9 cm diameter, Greiner Bio-One GmbH, Frickenhausen, DE). Three 5-mm-diameter wells
377 were created equidistantly in the agar layer: one in the center of the plate, one on the right and one
378 on the left side of the plate. One hundred nematodes in 100 μ L of water were dispensed the central

379 well. The remaining two wells were filled with either 50 μ L BCB exudates and 50 μ L tap water
380 or with 50 μ L BCB exudates + 50 μ L MBOA-Glc (3 ng/ μ L in tap water). BCB exudates were used
381 to elicit nematode search behavior. Exudates were obtained by rinsing third instar BCB larva with
382 50 μ L tap water. Nematode preference was recorded 24 h after the start of the experiment by
383 counting the number of nematodes within different sectors of the Petri dishes. The dishes were
384 divided into 4 sectors of equal size, with two opposite sectors containing the treatment wells.
385 Nematodes within the treatment sectors were counted. Each petri dish was treated as independent
386 biological replicates, and 18-20 replicates were carried out for the different experiments and
387 treatments (Table S2).

388 Nematode performance

389 The effects of benzoxazinoids on nematode survival and infectivity were tested as described (28).
390 Briefly, 4000 nematodes were incubated in 4 mL tap water containing either MBOA (25 μ g/mL)
391 or HDMBOA-Glc (150 μ g/mL). These concentrations represent physiologically relevant doses
392 (28). Nematodes were kept in 50 mL flasks (Greiner Bio-One GmbH, Frickenhausen, DE) and
393 incubated at 28°C. Nematodes incubated in tap water were used as controls. The number of dead
394 and living nematodes was recorded 7 days after incubation. Flasks were treated as independent
395 biological replicates, and 8-10 replicates were carried out for the different experiments and
396 treatments (Table S2).

397 Statistical analyses

398 Generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs; distribution: binomial, link function: logit) were used
399 to analyze mortality, infectivity and preference bioassays. Effects of nematode origin /
400 experimental evolution host, different treatments and their interactions were used as main factors,
401 and nematode strains / populations were used as a random factor. Wald tests were performed to
402 assess significance of treatment effects. Pairwise comparisons of Estimated Marginal Means
403 (EMMeans) corrected by the False Discovery Rate (FDR) method were used as post hoc tests (61).
404 To determine correlations between benzoxazinoid resistance traits and benzoxazinoid dependent
405 infectivity of the different nematode strains and populations the delta between BX+ (wild type fed
406 WCR larvae) and BX- (*bx1*-mutant fed larvae) infectivity (i.e. benzoxazinoid dependent
407 infectivity) was calculated based on EMMeans. Then, different types of benzoxazinoid resistance
408 were determined for each strain by calculating the respective deltas as well. Linear models were
409 then employed using benzoxazinoid dependent infectivity as response variable and the different
410 resistance deltas as explanatory variables. A complementary approach to test for multiple

411 explanatory variables and their interactions was executed using model selection on a multiple
412 linear regression including all resistance deltas and their interactions as explanatory variables. The
413 Aikake Information Criterion corrected for small samples sizes (AICc) was used to rank
414 submodels. Models showing a $\Delta\text{AICc} \leq 2$ were combined using a model averaging procedure,
415 which allows computing the relative importance of each resistance delta in the averaged model.
416 The packages used for the different analyses were “RVAideMemoire”, “car”, “emmeans”,
417 “MASS”, “lme4”, “lmerTest” and “MuMIn” (62). All the analyses were conducted in R 3.5.1.

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428 R.A.R.M. designed experiments. M.E., C.A.M.R. R.A.R.M., B.H. and C.P. supervised
429 experiments. X.Z., C.C.M.A, R.A.R.M, D.v.C., S.G. and L.H. performed experiments. M.E.,
430 R.A.R.M, X.Z. C.P and S.G. analyzed experiments. M.E. wrote the first draft of the manuscript.
431 All authors contributed to the final version of the manuscript.

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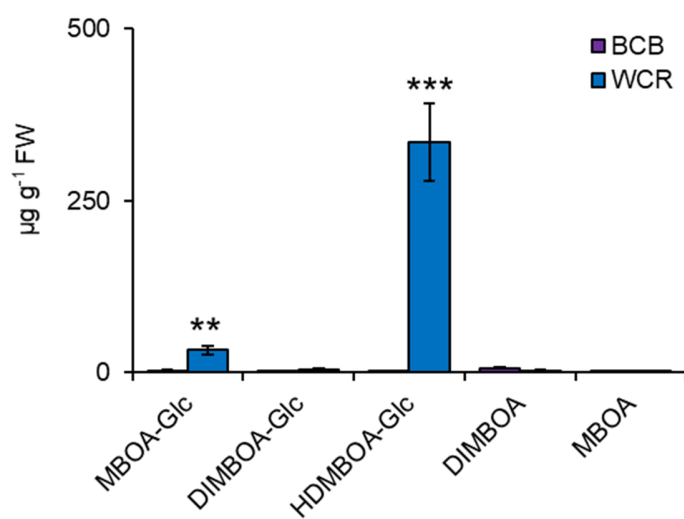
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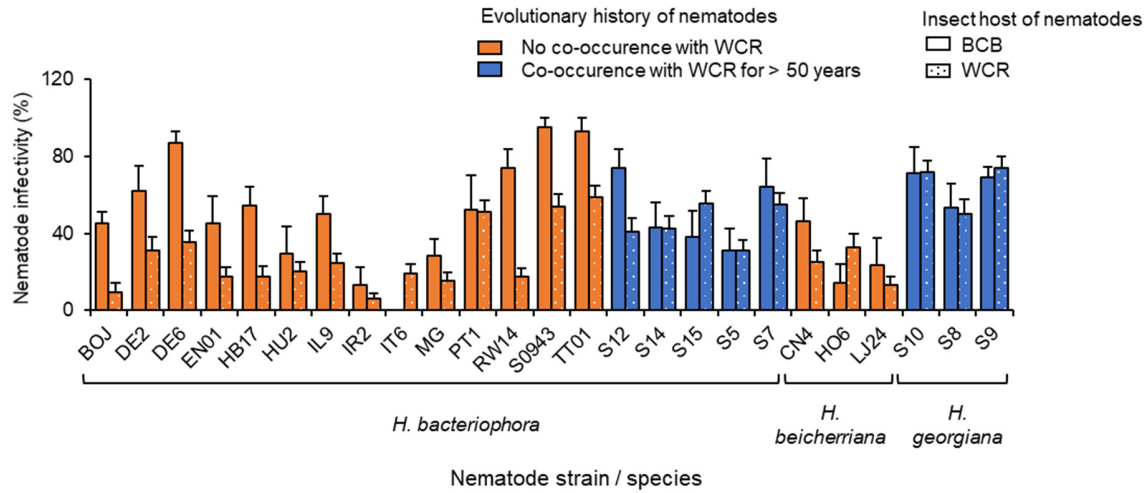
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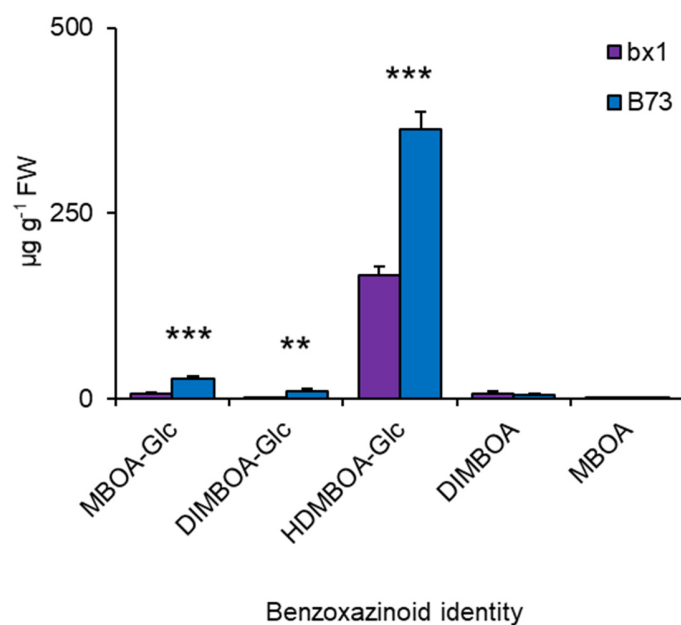


597 **Fig. S1. Quantification of plant-derived benzoxazinoids in different nematode hosts.** Absolute
598 quantities of benzoxazinoids extracted from larvae of the western corn rootworm (WCR; blue) and
599 the banded cucumber beetle (BCB) are shown. Asterisks indicate significant differences between
600 herbivore species (** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$).



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Fig. S2. Infectivity of individual nematode strains towards different herbivores. Infectivity of individual nematode strains from the primary range of the western corn rootworm (blue) and other parts of the world (orange) towards the western corn rootworm (WCR; plain filled bars) and the banded cucumber beetle (BCB; dotted bars) is shown.



607 **Fig. S3. Quantification of benzoxazinoids in western corn rootworm larvae fed on wild type**
608 **and *bx1* mutant maize roots.** Absolute quantities of benzoxazinoids extracted from larvae of the
609 western corn rootworm fed on *bx1* mutant (*bx1*) and wild type (WT) maize roots are shown.
610 Asterisks indicate significant differences between plant genotypes (** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$).
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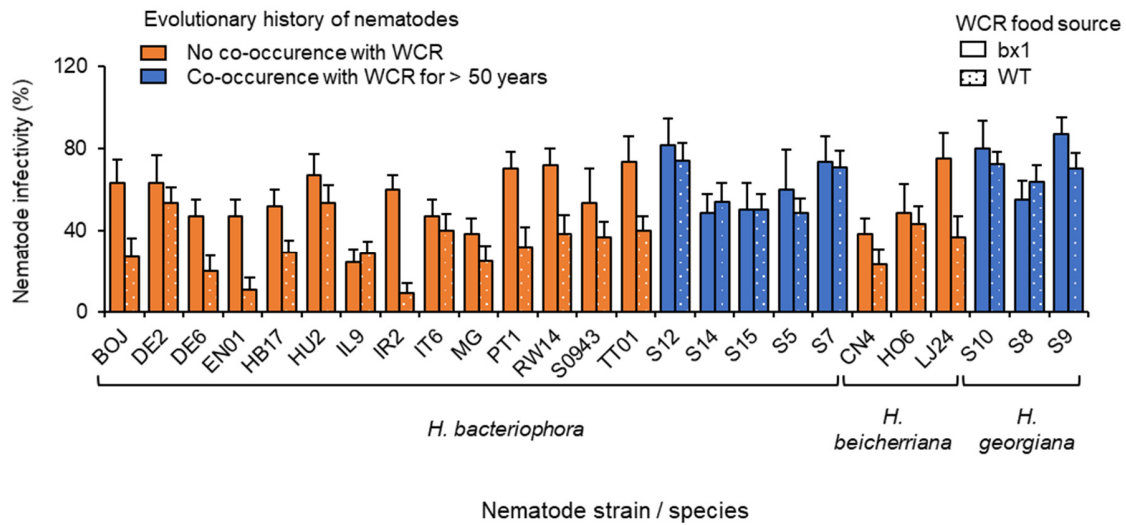
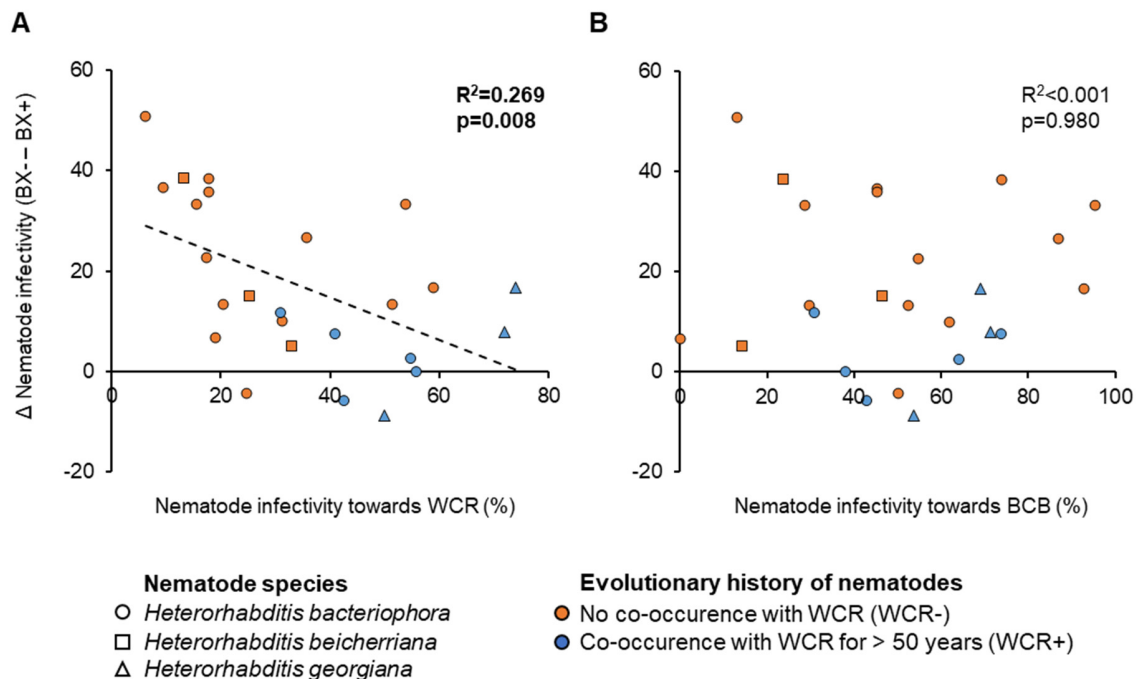


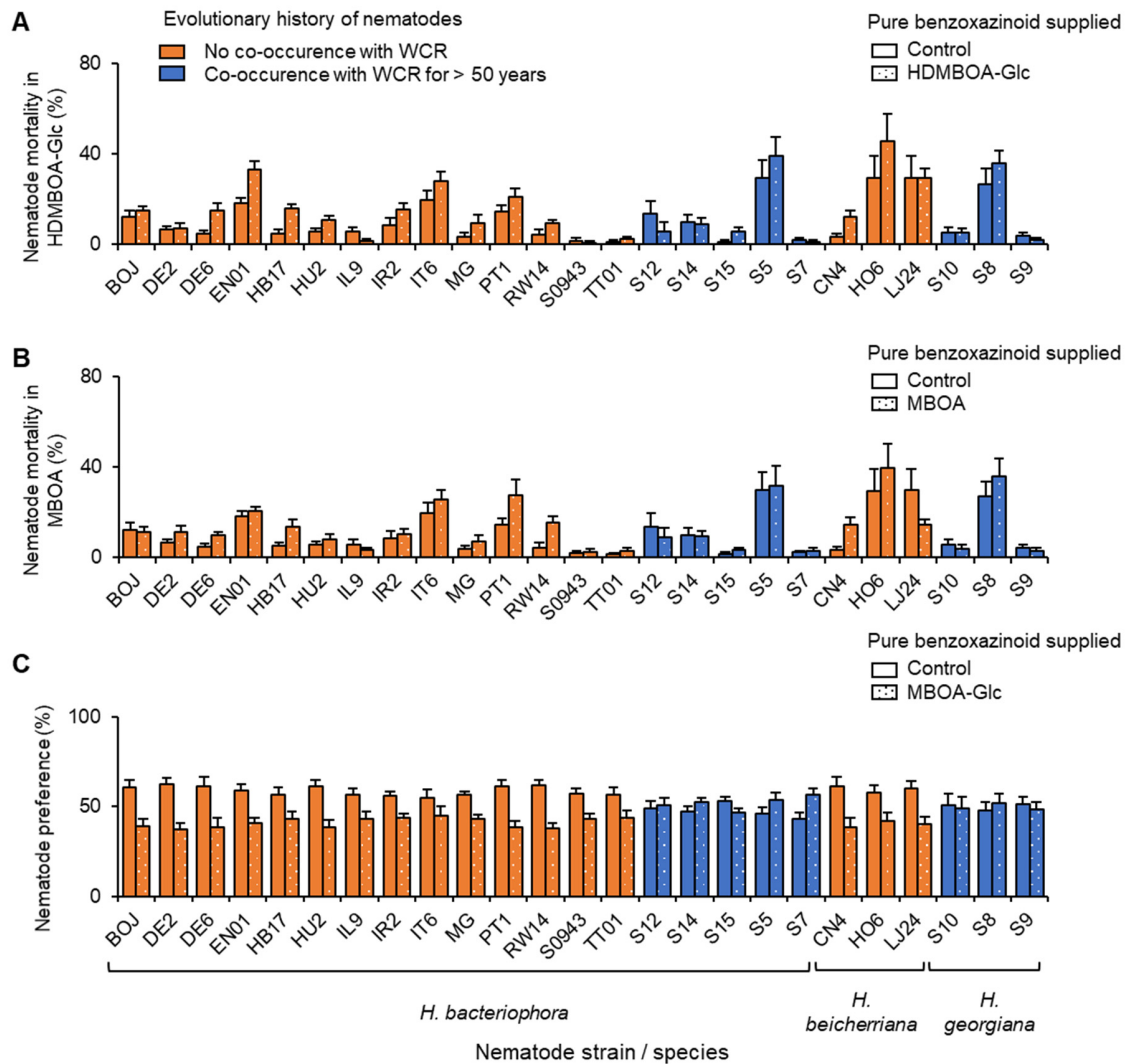
Fig. S4. Impact of herbivore-sequestered benzoxazinoids on the infectivity of individual nematode strains. Infectivity of individual nematode strains from the primary range of the western corn rootworm (WCR; blue) and other parts of the world (orange) towards WCR larvae fed on *bx1* mutant (*bx1*; plain filled bars) and wild type (WT; dotted bars) maize roots is shown.

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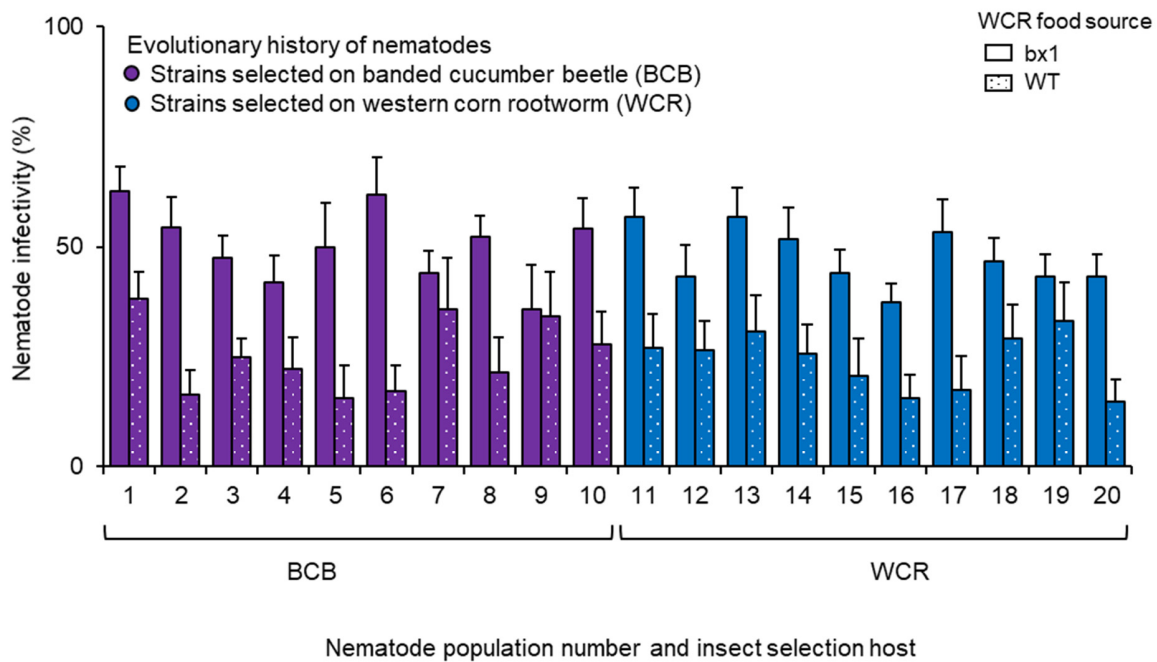


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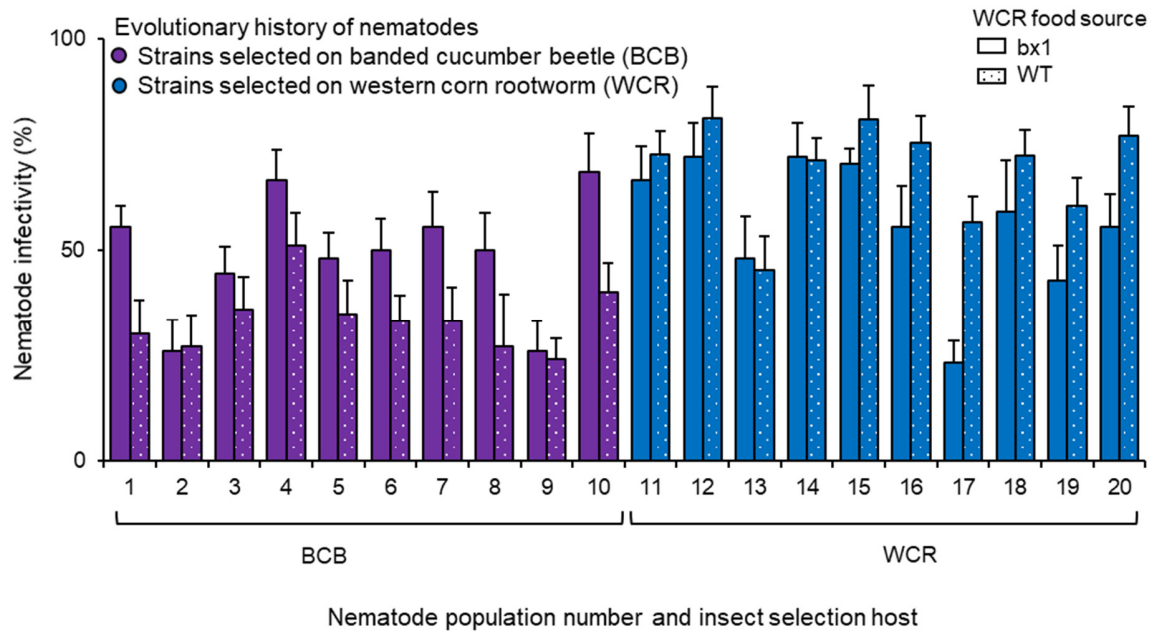
Fig. S5. Correlations between benzoxazinoid-dependent infectivity and infectivity towards different herbivores. Correlations are shown between the capacity of the different nematode strains to infect western corn rootworm (WCR) and banded cucumber beetle (BCB) larvae (Fig. S2) and their capacity to withstand sequestered benzoxazinoids (Fig. S4). Benzoxazinoid resistance is calculated by taking the difference in infectivity of the individual strains between *bx1* mutant (BX-) and wild type (BX+) maize root fed western corn rootworm larvae. Positive values correspond to higher infectiveness towards *bx1* mutant fed larvae. Significant correlations are indicated with dashed lines. R^2 and P -values from Pearson product-moment correlations are provided.



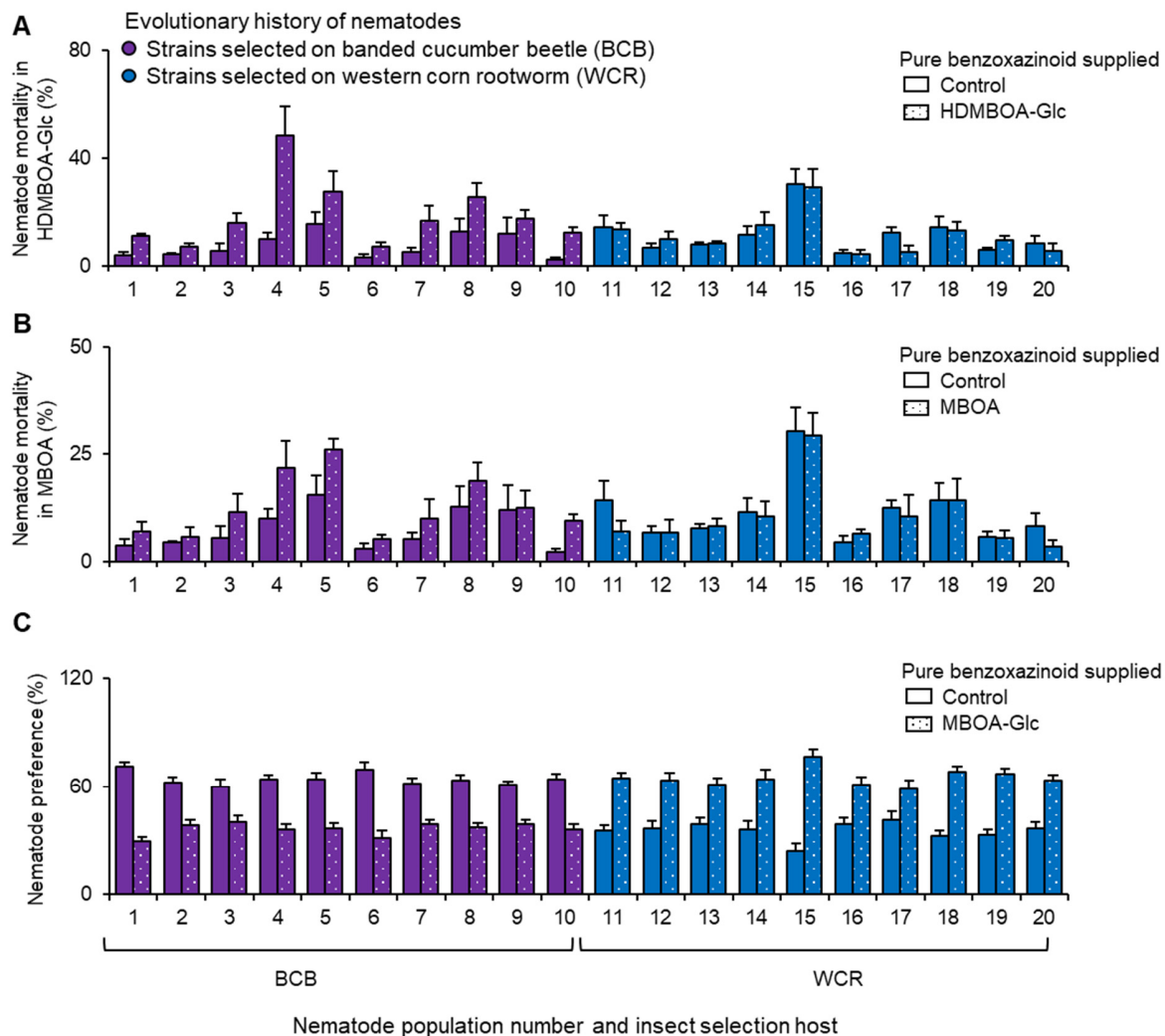
628 **Fig. S6. Impact of pure benzoxazinoids on individual nematode strains.** (A) Mortality of
 629 individual nematode strains from the primary range of the western corn rootworm (WCR; blue)
 630 and other parts of the world (orange) treated with water (plain filled bars) or 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$
 631 HDMBOA-Glc (dotted bars) is shown. (B) Mortality of nematodes treated with water or 25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$
 632 MBOA. (C) Preference of nematodes for water or 3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ MBOA-Glc.
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634 **Fig. S7. Impact of herbivore-sequestered benzoxazinoids on nematode infectivity after one**
635 **generation of artificial selection on different herbivores.** Infectivity of individual nematode
636 strains selected on the western corn rootworm (WCR; blue) or the banded cucumber beetle (BCB;
637 purple) towards WCR larvae fed on *bx1* mutant (*bx1*; plain filled bars) and wild type (WT; dotted
638 bars) maize roots is shown.
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640 **Fig. S8. Impact of herbivore-sequestered benzoxazinoids on nematode infectivity after five**
641 **generations of artificial selection on different herbivores.** Infectivity of individual nematode
642 strains selected on the western corn rootworm (WCR; blue) or the banded cucumber beetle (BCB;
643 purple) towards WCR larvae fed on $bx1$ mutant ($bx1$; plain filled bars) and wild type (WT; dotted
644 bars) maize roots is shown.
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Fig. S9. Impact of pure benzoxazinoids on individual nematode populations after 5 generations of artificial selection. (A) Mortality of individual nematode strains after five generations of selection on the western corn rootworm (WCR; blue) or the banded cucumber beetle (BCB; purple) treated with water (plain filled bars) or 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ HDMBOA-Glc (dotted bars) is shown. (B) Mortality of nematodes treated with water or 25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ MBOA. (C) Preference of nematodes for water or 3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ MBOA-Glc.

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Table S1. Source and evolutionary histories of the different nematode strains

Strain	Abbreviation	Potential evolutionary history with WCR (years)	Nematode species	Country of origin	Location within country	Source
Boj (Hbz 90,2,24)	BOJ	0	<i>H. bacteriophora</i>	Iran	Bojnourd	Kamali Shokoofeh, 2014
HU 2	HU2	0*		Hungary	N.a.	e-nema GmbH
IR 2	IR2	0		Iran	N.a.	e-nema GmbH
DE 2	DE2	0*		Germany	N.a.	e-nema GmbH
DE 6	DE6	0*		Germany	N.a.	e-nema GmbH
EN 01	EN01	0**		Commercial	N.a.	e-nema GmbH
IL 9	IL9	0		Australia	N.a.	e-nema GmbH
IT 6	IT6	0*		Italy	N.a.	e-nema GmbH
MG 618b	MG	0		Switzerland	Le Cerneux-Péquignot	Raquel Campos-Herrera
RW14-N-C4a	RW14	0		Rwanda	Nyamagabe	X. Yan, 2016
M13e	TT01	0		Republic of Trinidad and Tobago	N.a.	P. Constant, 1998
Hb 17	HB17	0		Turkey	Kirklareli	TC Ulu, 2014
PT 1	PT1	0		Portugal	N.a.	e-nema GmbH
09-43	S0943	0		Turkey	Aydin	I. Kepenekci, 2013
S12	S12	52***		USA	Minnesota	Own collection
S14	S14	62***		USA	Kansas	Own collection
S15	S15	62***		USA	Kansas	Own collection
S5P8	S5	52***		USA	Illinois	Own collection
S7	S7	52***		USA	Iowa	Own collection
CN 4	CN4	0		<i>H. beicherriana</i>	China	N.a.
H06	HO6	0	China		Shandong	R.C. Han, 1996
LJ-24	LJ24	0	China		Liaoning	J. Ma, 2013
S10	S10	62	<i>H. georgiana</i>	USA	South Dakota	Own collection
S8	S8	62		USA	Nebraska	Own collection
S9	S9	62		USA	Nebraska	Own collection

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* *Nematodes were collected prior to invasion of Europe by the western corn rootworm*

** *Artificially generated, commercial strain*

*** *Nematodes were isolated from maize fields within the primary range of the western corn rootworm*

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Table S2. Numbers of individual biological replicates measured in the different experiments

Main figure	Supplementary figure	No.	Nematode strains	Treatment	Number of independent replicates per treatment/nematode strain	Unit for replicate	
Figure 1B	Figure S1			BCB/WCR	5	Five herbivores	
Figure 1C	Figure S2		All strains	BCB	7*	Solo cup containing 3-5 individual herbivores	
			LJ24	WCR	22		
			Other strains		24		
Figure 2A	Figure S3			BX- /BX+	5	Five herbivores	
Figure 2B	Figure S4		All strains	BX-	5*	Solo cup containing 3-5 individual herbivores	
				BX+	10		
Figure 2D	Figure S6	A	All strains	Control/HDMBOA-Glc	10	Flask containing 4000 nematodes	
Figure 2E		B	All strains	Control/MBOA	10		
Figure 2F		C	Boj	MBOA-Glc		19	Petri dish containing 100 nematodes
			HU 2			18	
Other strains	20						
Figure 3A	Figure S7		All lines	BX- /BX+	10	Solo cup containing 3-5 individual herbivores	
Figure 3B	Figure S8		Line 17	BX-	10		
			Other Lines		9		
			Line 17	BX+	10		
			Line 1, 2, 6, 8, 9, 11, 13, 19		11		
			Other Lines		16		
Figure 3D	Figure S9	A	All lines	Control/HDMBOA-Glc	8	Flask containing 4000 nematodes	
Figure 3E		B	All lines	Control/MBOA	8		
Figure 3F		C	Line 12, 15, 17, 20	MBOA-Glc		19	Petri dish containing 100 nematodes
	Other Lines	20					

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* Lower number of replicates are due to the lower availability of BCB and BX- WCR larvae at the time of experiment.

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Table S3. Summary of statistical models for main factors and interactions

Figure	Model	Variable 1			Variable 2			Interactions	
		Variabe	Test stastic	P-value	Variabe	Test stastic	P-value	Test stastic	P-value of interactions
Figure 1B	Student's t test	HDMBOA-Glc	t = 5.98	<0.001					
		MBOA	t = 4.34	0.003					
Figure 1C	GLMM*	Nematode host	$\chi^2 = 41.83$	<0.001	Evolutionary history	$\chi^2 = 11.13$	<0.001	$\chi^2 = 18.97$	<0.001
Figure 2A	Student's t test	HDMBOA-Glc	t = 7.68	<0.001					
		MBOA	t = 6.94	<0.001					
Figure 2B	GLMM*	WCR food souce	$\chi^2 = 30.34$	<0.001	Evolutionary history	$\chi^2 = 24.79$	<0.001	$\chi^2 = 7.55$	0.006
Figure 2D	GLMM*	HDMBOA-Glc supplement	$\chi^2 = 5.91$	0.015	Evolutionary history	$\chi^2 = 2.32$	0.128	$\chi^2 = 1.40$	0.236
Figure 2E	GLMM*	MBOA supplement	$\chi^2 = 5.06$	0.025	Evolutionary history	$\chi^2 = 2.32$	0.128	$\chi^2 = 0.97$	0.324
Figure 2F	Wald test	WCR-	z = -9.45	<0.001	Evolutionary history	$\chi^2 = 56.33$	<0.001		
		WCR+	z = 0.70	0.483					
Figure 3A	GLMM*	Nematode host	$\chi^2 = 74.70$	<0.001	Selction host	$\chi^2 = 0.72$	0.397	$\chi^2 = 0.03$	0.857
Figure 3B	GLMM*	Nematode host	$\chi^2 = 0.06$	0.805	Selction host	$\chi^2 = 23.54$	<0.001	$\chi^2 = 29.51$	<0.001
Figure 3C	GLMM*	HDMBOA-Glc supplement	$\chi^2 = 25.85$	<0.001	Selction host	$\chi^2 = 0.07$	0.789	$\chi^2 = 25.85$	<0.001
Figure 3D	GLMM*	MBOA supplement	$\chi^2 = 6.00$	0.014	Selction host	$\chi^2 = 0.12$	0.734	$\chi^2 = 17.57$	<0.001
Figure3E	Wald test	BCB	z = -13.15	<0.001	Selction host	$\chi^2 = 306.03$	<0.001		
		WCR	z = 11.00	<0.001					

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* Generalized linear mixed model

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Table S4. Summary of model selection procedures for multivariate analyses

Model selection for Fig. 2

Intercept	HDMBOA-Glc toxicity (HG)	MBOA toxicity (M)	MBOA-Glc repellency (MG)	HG x M	HG x MG	M x MG	AICc	Δ AICc	w	R ²
0.910			-1.665				-27.9	0.00	0.547	0.374
0.852	0.258		-1.565				-25.5	2.39	0.165	0.385
0.884		0.156	-1.619				-25.2	2.75	0.138	0.376
0.729	2.250		-1.304		-4.424		-22.8	5.14	0.042	0.395
0.860	0.484	-0.351	-1.579				-22.5	5.37	0.037	0.390
0.847		1.091	-1.539			-2.163	-22.0	5.87	0.029	0.377
0.729	2.654	-0.405	-1.302		-4.741		-19.5	8.42	0.008	0.401
0.717	0.710	2.776	-1.271			-7.783	-19.4	8.48	0.008	0.399
0.874	0.382	-0.506	-1.606	1.809			-19.2	8.75	0.007	0.393
0.167							-18.8	9.10	0.006	0.000
0.129	0.679						-18.6	9.35	0.005	0.090
0.139		0.693					-17.7	10.23	0.003	0.057
0.130	0.761	-0.125					-15.7	12.20	0.001	0.090
0.740	2.507	-0.440	-1.324	0.443	-4.474		-15.6	12.33	0.001	0.401
0.735	3.018	-1.092	-1.315		-5.644	1.686	-15.6	12.34	0.001	0.401
0.727	0.678	2.576	-1.293	0.345		-7.359	-15.5	12.40	0.001	0.399
0.129	0.814	-0.042		-0.986			-12.6	15.33	0.000	0.091
0.754	3.094	-1.638	-1.354	0.570	-5.958	2.915	-11.2	16.74	0.000	0.401

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Model selection for Fig. 3

Intercept	HDMBOA-Glc toxicity (HG)	MBOA Toxicity (M)	MBOA-Glc repellency (MG)	HG x M	HG x MG	M x MG	AICc	Δ AICc	w	R ²
0.505			-0.983				-27.0	0.00	0.423	0.650
0.378	0.578		-0.792				-26.0	1.05	0.251	0.685
0.516		-0.083	-1.002				-23.9	3.16	0.087	0.650
0.434	-0.918		-0.892		3.667		-23.6	3.43	0.076	0.704
0.440	0.731	-0.697	-0.899				-23.1	3.96	0.058	0.696
0.479		3.058	-0.969			-7.371	-21.7	5.32	0.030	0.675
0.515	-0.922	-0.838	-1.033		4.129		-20.5	6.53	0.016	0.719
0.531	-2.548	4.756	-1.114		7.893	-13.190	-20.2	6.79	0.014	0.777
0.414	0.675	1.995	-0.879			-6.204	-20.0	6.98	0.013	0.713
0.219	2.175	9.359	-0.602	-29.360		-19.380	-19.9	7.10	0.012	0.774
0.414	1.018	-0.405	-0.857	-5.205			-19.2	7.85	0.008	0.700
-0.072	1.562						-17.5	9.50	0.004	0.437
0.781	-5.418	-2.536	-1.489	25.560	11.840		-17.3	9.72	0.003	0.742
-0.073	1.144	1.017					-15.6	11.46	0.001	0.470
0.408	-0.774	6.817	-0.916	-12.150	5.070	-16.150	-14.7	12.35	0.001	0.779
-0.043		2.372					-14.6	12.38	0.001	0.350
-0.077	1.969	1.670		-16.010			-13.7	13.28	0.001	0.516
0.012							-8.8	18.19	0.000	0.000

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Summary of the averaged model:

Term	Estimate	SE	Relative importance
Intercept	0.458	0.121	-
MBOA-Glc repellency	-0.912	0.210	1.00
HDMBOA-Glc toxicity	0.215	0.379	0.37

R² of the averaged model: 0.671

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