- 1 Classification: Biological Sciences, Evolutionary Biology
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The generalist herbivore *Tetranychus urticae* (Koch) adapts to novel plant hosts through rapid
 evolution of metabolic resistance

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20 Abstract

21 Genetic adaptation, occurring over long evolutionary time, enables host-specialized herbivores 22 to develop novel resistance traits and to counteract the defenses of a narrow range of host 23 plants. In contrast, physiological acclimation, leading to the suppression and/or detoxification of 24 host defenses is hypothesized to enable generalists to shift between plant hosts. Here, we 25 examined the long-term response of an extreme generalist, the two-spotted spider mite, 26 Tetranychus urticae Koch (TSSM), to the shift to the non-preferred and novel host plant 27 Arabidopsis thaliana. We identified the key requirement of two tiers of cytochrome P450 monooxygenases for TSSM adaptation to Arabidopsis: general xenobiotic-responsive P450s that 28 29 have a limited contribution to mite adaptation to Arabidopsis and adaptation-associated P450s 30 that efficiently counteract Arabidopsis defenses, illustrating that in about 25 generations of 31 TSSM selection on Arabidopsis plants mites evolved metabolic resistances characteristic of both 32 generalist and specialist herbivores.

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34 **Keywords**: *Arabidopsis*, host shift, biochemical adaptation, plant allelochemicals, metabolic 35 resistance, suppression of plant defenses, xenobiotic responsiveness, detoxification, *NADPH*-

36 cytochrome P450 reductase, RNAi, plant-herbivore interaction

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38 Introduction

39 During millions of years of co-evolution with their host plants, herbivores have developed two 40 main strategies to counteract plant resistance traits. Specialist herbivores have evolved highly 41 efficient adaptation mechanisms against a limited set of host defenses, including: modified 42 feeding behavior (Helmus and Dussourd, 2005), suppression of plant defenses (Zhao et al., 43 2015), reduced xenobiotic target site sensitivity (Dobler et al., 2012), sequestration (Beran et al., 44 2018) and detoxification of plant toxins (Ratzka et al., 2002). In contrast, generalist herbivores 45 evolved an innate ability to feed on a broad range of host plants that display a wide array of 46 resistance traits (Despres et al., 2007; Barrett and Heil, 2012; Heidel-Fischer and Vogel, 2015). 47 Attenuation of plant responses induced by herbivore feeding, consistent with the suppression of 48 host defenses, have been described for many generalists (Zarate et al., 2007; Kant et al., 2008; 49 Musser et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2012). Consistently, effectors that modulate plant defenses have 50 been identified in secretions of a number of generalist herbivores belonging to different feeding 51 guilds (Musser et al., 2002; Hogenhout and Bos, 2011; Wu et al., 2012; Bass et al., 2013; 52 Jonckheere et al., 2016; Kaloshian and Walling, 2016; Basu et al., 2018). Their mode of action is 53 largely unknown but, to be effective against many host plants, it is assumed that they either target conserved compounds or pathways associated with plant defense, or that they 54 55 collectively have a very broad spectrum activity with only a specific subset being effective 56 against any particular host. Another mechanism of host-adaptation is metabolic resistance 57 whereby herbivores effectively detoxify ingested plant toxins. In specialists, metabolic resistance 58 is based on a limited number of detoxification enzymes that have high specificity and efficiency 59 for a given plant toxin (Ratzka et al., 2002; Li et al., 2003; Wittstock et al., 2004; Mao et al., 2006; Gloss et al., 2014; Heidel-Fischer et al., 2019). Genes encoding these enzymes are usually 60 61 expressed constitutively at high level and can be further induced in the presence of plant toxin. 62 In contrast, it is assumed that generalist herbivores rely on ubiquitous classes of detoxification 63 enzymes (e.g. carboxyl/cholinesterases (CCEs), cytochrome P450 monooxygenases (CYP450s), 64 glutathione S-transferases (GSTs), UDP-glycosyltransferases (UGTs), and ABC transporters (ABCs)) that were shown to accept structurally diverse substrates which they metabolize with 65 66 low levels of activity (Li et al., 2004; Halon et al., 2015; Shi et al., 2018; Snoeck et al., 2019). 67 Genes encoding general detoxification enzymes underwent extensive amplification and 68 neofunctionalization, and are transcriptionally responsive to a wide range of xenobiotics (Govind 69 et al., 2010; Grbic et al., 2011; Zhurov et al., 2014; Wybouw et al., 2015; Muller et al., 2017; 70 Schweizer et al., 2017). Thus, it is hypothesized that attenuation of plant defenses combined 71 with the expanded and functionally versatile detoxification capabilities enable generalist 72 herbivores to cope with diverse allelochemicals and to feed on many host plants.

73 Tetranychus urticae Koch (TSSM) is a striking example of generalist herbivore that feeds 74 on more than 1,100 plant species from over 100 families (Migeon and Dorkeld, 2006-2019). 75 Such a wide host range indicates that TSSM can counteract a great diversity of plant resistance 76 traits. However, individual TSSM populations do not perform equally well on all potential host 77 plants. Instead, TSSM has the outstanding ability to adapt to new hosts, in just 20 to 25 78 generations (Gould, 1979; Fry, 1989; Magalhaes et al., 2007; Wybouw et al., 2015). The 79 mechanism of this extremely rapid host adaptability is not known. The analysis of plant 80 transcriptional changes following the host shift revealed that some TSSM populations can 81 suppress plant induced responses (Kant et al., 2008; Wybouw et al., 2015). At the same time, 82 TSSM massively reprograms its detoxification capacity (Dermauw et al., 2013; Zhurov et al., 83 2014: Wybouw et al., 2015) and the complement of its salivary secretions (Jonckheere et al., 84 2016; Villarroel et al., 2016; Jonckheere et al., 2018). However, no functional evidence explains 85 whether these changes contribute to TSSM host adaptation or if they merely reflect stress

86 responses or a different feeding physiology due to the host shift. Thus, it remains unclear 87 whether adaptation to the new host plant by *T. urticae* requires manipulation of host plant 88 defenses, detoxification of host allelochemicals or both, and if the initial xenobiotic responses 89 are sufficient for TSSM adaptation to a new host, or if changes over a longer period of time are 90 required for the evolution of TSSM host-adaptation.

91 Arabidopsis thaliana is a non-preferred host for the TSSM London reference population 92 that is reared on beans – Phaseolus vulgaris (Zhurov et al., 2014). In an experimental 93 evolutionary setup, we adapted the TSSM London ancestral population to Arabidopsis. Taking 94 advantage of well characterized Arabidopsis induced defenses against mite herbivory (Zhurov et 95 al., 2014), we show that Arabidopsis-adapted TSSM do not suppress them. Using manipulative 96 pharmacological and reverse genetics experiments that independently suppressed the activities 97 of families of detoxification enzymes we provide, for the first time, in vivo functional evidence 98 that T. urticae requires two tiers of P450 enzyme activities for host adaptation. We show that 99 P450s responsive to the initial encounter of the new host have a small contribution to mite 100 adaptation to Arabidopsis. Instead, a second tier of P450 activity, specific to Arabidopsis-101 adapted mites, is the major contributor to mite adaptation. Our data demonstrate that the reprogramming of the mite detoxification system occurred over approximately 25 generations 102 103 of TSSM selection on Arabidopsis resulting in metabolic resistance with features characterized in 104 both generalist and specialist herbivores. Our results show that the detoxification mechanisms 105 involved in herbivore adaptation to novel host plants can evolve extremely rapidly and are key 106 to TSSM adaptation to Arabidopsis.

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108 Results and discussion

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110 TSSM feeding induces JA-regulated Arabidopsis defense compounds

111 Jasmonic acid (JA) and its bioactive conjugate jasmonoyl-isoleucine (JA-Ile) were shown to be required for Arabidopsis defenses against TSSM herbivory (Zhurov et al., 2014). To determine if 112 113 JA-induced processes are sufficient for Arabidopsis resistance against TSSM, we sprayed 114 Arabidopsis plants with methyl jasmonate (MeJA) and determined the effect of induced JA-115 responses on mite performance. Mite fecundity dramatically decreased (5-fold) on MeJA 116 treated Col-0 plants, Figure 1A, indicating that JA-induced defenses are major components of Arabidopsis resistance against mite herbivory. JA responsiveness is mediated by COI1 as well as 117 118 the MYC2, MYC3 and MYC4 (MYC2,3,4) transcriptional activators that induce the expression of a 119 wide spectrum of JA-regulated genes, Figure 1B and (Devoto et al., 2005; Fernandez-Calvo et al., 120 2011). The myc2,3,4 mutant plants were extremely susceptible to T. urticae, Figure 1A. Among 121 MYC2,3,4-regulated genes are CYP79B2 and CYP79B3 that are required for the synthesis of Trp-122 derived secondary metabolites, Figure 1A and (Hull et al., 2000; Mikkelsen et al., 2000; 123 Schweizer et al., 2013). Trp-derived secondary metabolites include several known 124 allelochemicals (indole glucosinolates, camalexin and cyanogenic glucosides) directly 125 synthesized from Trp and callose whose synthesis is indirectly regulated through this pathway (Bednarek, 2012; Rajniak et al., 2015). Of these compounds, indole glucosinolates (IGs) were 126 127 implicated in deterrence of aphid (Kim and Jander, 2007; Kim et al., 2008), whiteflies (Elbaz et 128 al., 2012), TSSM (Zhurov et al., 2014) and leaf mining drosophilid (Whiteman et al., 2011; 129 Whiteman et al., 2012) herbivory. The modest increase in TSSM fecundity when mites fed on 130 cyp79b2 cyp79b3 plants, Figure 1A, indicates that Trp-dependent defenses have a relatively minor contribution to Arabidopsis defenses against TSSM. These data further indicate that 131 132 MYC2,3,4 induce synthesis of additional CYP79B2 CYP79B3-independent Arabidopsis defense 133 compounds that prominently contribute to Arabidopsis resistance to TSSM. The identity of these

compounds is at present not known. Thus, upon TSSM herbivory, *Arabidopsis* plants induce
 synthesis of JA-regulated defense compounds against TSSM, including Trp-derived secondary
 metabolites and, *CYP79B2 CYP79B3*-independent molecules, Figure 1B.

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138 Mites can adapt to a complex array of Arabidopsis defenses

Because of the complexity of Arabidopsis induced defenses against TSSM herbivory, how could a 139 140 mite population adapted to a specific host plant switch to Arabidopsis? In an experimental 141 evolutionary setup, the reference London strain, an ancestral TSSM population reared on bean 142 and highly susceptible to Arabidopsis defenses (Zhurov et al., 2014), was transferred and continuously maintained on Arabidopsis plants for 18 months (\geq 25 generations). Figure 2A. We 143 144 initially infested Arabidopsis plants with approximately 1,000 fertilized female mites in a triplicated experiment on two Arabidopsis genotypes: a) Col-0 wild-type plants, and b) cyp79b2 145 146 *cyp79b3* mutant plants that lack Trp-derived defenses but express the remaining of JA-regulated 147 defenses, Figures 1B and 2A. The performance of the ancestral and selected mite populations was subsequently quantified by counting the number of eggs, larvae, nymphs and adults derived 148 149 from 20 adult females in 7 days. Performance was measured in two experimental regimes: a) direct transfer, where the initial mites were moved from their corresponding rearing plant hosts 150 151 directly to the experimental plants, and b) indirect transfer, that included mite maintenance on 152 bean plants for two generations prior to their transfer to the experimental plants. The 153 performance of the ancestral and selected mite populations on bean, or Arabidopsis cyp79b2 154 cvp79b3 and Col-0 plants had similar patterns in both direct (Supplemental Figure 1) and 155 indirect (Figure 2B) transfer regimes, indicative of genetic adaptation that is independent of 156 maternal and environmental physiological effects.

157 On bean plants, Figure 2B top, Arabidopsis-selected mite populations had slight but 158 significantly lower performance relative to the ancestral population, indicating that TSSMs can 159 evolve the ability to exploit different hosts without major reduction in their performance on the ancestral plants. On cyp79b2 cyp79b3 plants, Figure 2B middle, Arabidopsis-selected mite 160 161 populations performed significantly better than the ancestral population, suggesting that they 162 are able to overcome CYP79B2 CYP79B3-independent Arabidopsis defenses to a similar extent. 163 On Col-0 plants, Figure 2B bottom, only mites selected on Col-0 had increased performance over the ancestral population, showing that Col-0 selected mites were able to adapt to CYP79B2 164 CYP79B3-dependent defenses. However, mites selected on cyp79b2 cyp79b3 plants and the 165 166 ancestral mite population that were not exposed to CYP79B2 CYP79B3-dependent Arabidopsis defenses were susceptible to these defenses and had similar and low performances when they 167 168 fed on Col-0 plants.

169 We have arbitrarily chosen populations #3 of cyp79b2 cyp79b3 and Col-0 selected mites 170 for further studies that were performed in indirect transfer regimes. The analysis of additional 171 mite fitness parameters, fecundity and Arabidopsis leaf damage caused by mite feeding (Figure 172 2C and D, respectively) confirmed the adaptation status of these mite populations (from now on 173 referred to as cyp-a (for #3 cyp79b2 cyp79b3 selected mite population), Col-a (for #3 Col-0 selected mite population) and bean-a (for the ancestral London TSSM population)). Thus, our 174 175 data demonstrate that TSSM can adapt to novel plant hosts with a complex array of defenses. 176 Moreover, mite adaptation to CYP79B2 CYP79B3-independent Arabidopsis defenses (present in both types of Arabidopsis-selected mite populations) can be uncoupled from mite adaptation to 177 178 Trp-derived defenses (present only in mites selected on Col-0 plants).

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182 Arabidopsis-adapted mites do not suppress Arabidopsis defenses

183 Suppression of induced plant defenses was proposed to be the common and most efficient mechanism of TSSM adaptation to new host plants (Jonckheere et al., 2016; Villarroel et al., 184 185 2016; Blaazer et al., 2018; Jonckheere et al., 2018). Indeed, interference with either JA-186 biosynthesis or its signalling appears to be an effective way to attenuate a whole range of 187 Arabidopsis defense compounds that restrict TSSM herbivory (Figure 1). Furthermore, the 188 ancestral London strain previously gave rise to tomato-adapted populations that, in the process, 189 gained the ability to suppress tomato JA-regulated responses (Wybouw et al., 2015), indicating that London mites are able to evolve the defense suppression trait. 190

- 191 If Arabidopsis-adapted mites suppress Arabidopsis defenses, then it is expected that 192 they elicit attenuated Arabidopsis responses relative to those triggered by the ancestral bean-a 193 mites. The previous transcriptome and metabolome analysis of Arabidopsis responses to TSSM 194 herbivory established that the expression of the AOS, MYC2, CYP79B2 and CYP79B3 genes 195 (labeled in red in Figure 1B) and the abundance of JA, JA-Ile and indol-3-ylmethylglucosinolate 196 (I3M) metabolites (labeled in green in Figure 1B) are reliable markers of Arabidopsis induced 197 defenses, at 24 h following mite infestation (Zhurov et al., 2014). Thus, to investigate whether 198 mite adaptation to Arabidopsis relies on the attenuation of JA-induced defenses, we determined 199 the levels of defense marker transcripts (RT-qPCR) and metabolites (liquid chromatography-200 mass spectrometry, LC-MS) in Col-0 plants that were challenged with bean-a, cyp-a or Col-a 201 mites, after 24 h of mite herbivory. Contrary to what would be expected if plant defenses were 202 attenuated, cyp-a and Col-a mites induced all JA-regulated marker genes to similar or higher 203 levels relative to non-adapted bean-a mites, Figure 3A. Likewise, JA, JA-Ile and I3M metabolites 204 accumulated at comparable levels in bean-a, cyp-a and Col-a challenged Col-0 plants (Figure 3B), 205 indicating that Arabidopsis defenses are augmented and not attenuated by mite adaptation. In 206 addition, one of the hallmarks of defense-suppressing TSSM populations is the similarity of their 207 performance on wild-type and defense-deficient host plants (Kant et al., 2008). However, 208 Arabidopsis-adapted mites, like the ancestral population, performed better on cyp79b2 cyp79b3 209 than on Col-0 plants, Figure 2C and D, indicating that Arabidopsis-adapted mites do not 210 manipulate the onset of Arabidopsis defenses. Cumulatively, these data demonstrate that 211 adaptation of mites to Arabidopsis is not based on the suppression of host defenses.
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213 Arabidopsis-adapted mites are responsive to Arabidopsis xenobiotics

214 Metabolic resistance is another mechanism of herbivore adaptation to xenobiotic challenges 215 previously implicated in the evolution of TSSM resistance to pesticides (Van Leeuwen and 216 Dermauw, 2016) and mite adaptation to several plant hosts (Agrawal et al., 2002; Wybouw et al., 217 2012; Wybouw et al., 2014; Wybouw et al., 2015). These previous studies established that 218 constitutive overexpression and/or increased expression of genes encoding xenobiotic-219 metabolizing enzymes upon exposure to a novel host (transcriptional plasticity) are correlated 220 with TSSM's increased detoxification potential and resistance to pesticides or host 221 allelochemicals. Moreover, the requirement for rapid transcriptional plasticity has been 222 demonstrated in the adaptation of the generalist M. persicae to a new host plant (Mathers et al., 223 2017).

We have previously identified forty genes, whose expression levels correlated with increasing levels of *Arabidopsis* defenses (Zhurov et al., 2014). They primarily encoded cytochrome P450 monooxygenases (P450s) and UDP-glycosyltransferase (UGTs) detoxifying enzymes. We have arbitrarily chosen three genes within each class (*CYP392A1, CYP392A16, CYP392D8, UGT201A2v2, UGT204B1* and *UGT204A5*) and tracked their expression (RT-qPCR) in bean-a, *cyp*-a and Col-a mites feeding on bean, *cyp79b2 cyp79b3* and Col-0 *Arabidopsis* plants.

230 On the ancestral bean plants, all marker transcripts were at similar low levels in both bean- and 231 Arabidopsis-adapted mites, Figure 4, indicating that none of the tested genes underwent 232 constitutive upregulation during mite adaptation to Arabidopsis. Consistent with the previous 233 report (Zhurov et al., 2014), transfer of bean-a mites to cyp79b2 cyp79b3 or Col-0 plants 234 resulted in induced expression of all tested CYP and UGT genes. Their expression was also 235 induced in cyp-a and Col-a mites when they were shifted from bean to cyp79b2 cyp79b3 or Col-0 236 plants. Even though there was variability in the relative expression of CYP and UGT genes in 237 these mites, their levels were either comparable or lower than in bean-a mites, Figure 4. Thus, 238 neither constitutive expression nor inducibility of tested CYP and UGT genes increased in 239 Arabidopsis-adapted mites, demonstrating that: a) Arabidopsis-adapted mites retained 240 responsiveness to Arabidopsis xenobiotics, and b) mite genes initially induced by the shift from 241 bean to Arabidopsis plants do not associate with TSSM long-term adaptation to Arabidopsis.

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243 Metabolic resistance underlies TSSM adaptation to Arabidopsis

244 To identify changes in the detoxification potential associated with mite adaptation to 245 Arabidopsis, we determined global enzymatic activity for three main protein families - esterases, 246 glutathione-S-transferases (GSTs) and P450s - in ancestral and adapted mite populations upon 247 feeding on bean and Arabidopsis plants. Overall, activities of all three enzymatic classes were 248 responsive to the host plant challenge: they were lowest when mites fed on the ancestral bean 249 plants and they progressively increased with the complexity of Arabidopsis defenses, Figure 5A, 250 D and Supplemental Figure 2. However, of the three classes of detoxification enzymes, the 251 detoxification potential of P450s is the only one that was associated with TSSM adaptation to 252 Arabidopsis. P450 activity was consistently higher in Col-a mites across all plant hosts, indicating that both constitutive and inducible levels of P450 activity increased in Col-a mites, Figure 5D 253 254 (three-way ANOVA; plant host: mite strain interaction F = 103.93, p = 5.451e-16, followed by 255 Tukey's HSD test, p < 0.01, n = 4).

To further test the requirement of esterase, GST and P450 activities for TSSM 256 257 adaptation to Arabidopsis, we examined whether the separate enzymatic classes may be 258 correlated with the mite's ability to use Arabidopsis as a host. If a particular class of enzymes is 259 required for mite adaptation to Arabidopsis, then the reduction of its activity is expected to 260 restore the susceptibility of Arabidopsis-adapted mites to Arabidopsis defense compounds. We 261 used S,S,S tributyl-phosphorotrithioate (DEF, an inhibitor of esterase activity), diethyl maleate (DEM, an inhibitor of GST activity), and piperonyl butoxide (PBO) and trichlorophenylpropynyl 262 263 ether (TCPPE) (inhibitors of P450 activity) to inhibit the activity of the indicated enzymatic 264 classes. In preliminary experiments, concentrations of 2000 mg/L (DEF), 100 mg/L (DEM), 1000 265 mg/L (PBO), and 1500 mg/L (TCPPE) were identified as sublethal but nevertheless capable of 266 significantly reducing the matching enzymes in Col-a mites feeding on Col-0 plants, Figure 5B, E 267 and G, and Supplemental Figure 2. Note that inhibitors do not affect all enzymes equally within 268 the targeted enzymatic class (Feyereisen, 2014). Therefore, the lack of inhibitory effect on mite 269 performance is not a strong evidence against the involvement of a particular enzymatic class in 270 mite host adaptation. Conversely, the significant decrease of mite performance on a new host 271 plant upon the application of a given inhibitor strongly supports the requirement of enzyme(s) 272 within the matching class for mite host adaptation.

The application of DEF reduced esterase activities by 32% but had no effect on the fitness of Col-a mites when feeding on either Col-0 or *cyp79b2 cyp79b3* plants, Supplemental Figure 2, indicating that esterases may not be required for mite adaptation to *Arabidopsis*. The application of DEM decreased the GST enzymatic activity by 43%, Figure 5B. Inhibition of GST activity had a minor but significant effect on the fecundity of Col-a mites, suggesting that GST 278 activity is required for the high Col-a performance on Arabidopsis, Figure 5C. Isothiocvanates are 279 the major Arabidopsis anti-herbivore defense compounds that are detoxified by GSTs in many 280 generalist caterpillars (Wadleigh and Yu, 1988; Schramm et al., 2012; Jeschke et al., 2016) and 281 leaf mining drosophilids (Gloss et al., 2014). However, isothiocyanates are toxic breakdown 282 products of aliphatic glucosinolates, shown to be ineffective against T. urticae (Zhurov et al., 283 2014). Isothiocyanates from Trp-derived indole glucosinolates, a glucosinolate class proposed to 284 be toxic to T. urticae (Zhurov et al., 2014), are unstable and are converted to alternative 285 products (Wittstock and Burow, 2010). Whether some of these alternative products confer 286 toxicity against T. urticae and are one of the potential substrates for adaptation-associated GSTs 287 remains to be determined.

288 While esterase and GST inhibitors had no or little effect on TSSM fecundity and fitness, 289 the application of PBO significantly reduced the P450 activity (25%) and dramatically reduced 290 (44%) the fecundity of Col-a mites feeding on Col-a host plants, Figure 5E and F. Since the PBO 291 does not interfere with all P450s equally and also inhibits esterases in some arthropods 292 (Feyereisen, 2014), we applied another structurally unrelated P450 inhibitor, TCPPE, to confirm 293 that the observed effects were due to the decreased P450 activity. TCPPE, like PBO, significantly 294 inhibited P450 enzyme activity in Col-a mites (13%), Figure 5G. It dramatically reduced the 295 fecundity of Col-a mites when they fed on Col-0 (39%) and cyp79b2 cyp79b3 plants (33%), Figure 296 5H, suggesting that P450 activity is required for the ability of Col-a mites to counteract 297 Arabidopsis defenses.

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299 P450 activity is required for TSSM adaptation to Arabidopsis

As P450 inhibitors were applied directly to *Arabidopsis* leaves, there is a possibility that PBO/TCPPE perturbed *Arabidopsis* defense physiology and only secondarily affected mite fecundity. For example, the synthesis of JA metabolites (Heitz et al., 2012; Aubert et al., 2015; Widemann et al., 2015) and Trp-derived secondary metabolites (Hull et al., 2000) occur via pathways that include many plant P450s. Therefore, to further dissect the requirement of mite P450s in TSSM adaptation to *Arabidopsis*, we took advantage of recently validated RNAi gene silencing protocol in TSSM (Suzuki et al., 2017) to silence P450 pathway.

307 Because the CYP gene family is very large in TSSM, it is difficult to characterize the 308 involvement of P450s in mite adaptation to Arabidopsis using RNAi (Grbic et al., 2011). To 309 circumvent this hurdle, we instead silenced the expression of NADPH-cytochrome P450 310 reductase (Tu-CPR), a co-enzyme required for the catalytic reactions carried out by microsomal 311 P450s (Masters and Okita, 1980). Tu-CPR is a single gene in the TSSM genome encoded by the 312 tetur18q03390 locus (Grbic et al., 2011). It is constitutively expressed in all tissues of adult 313 spider mites, including the midgut epithelial and digestive cells where digestion and 314 detoxification of dietary xenobiotics are expected to take place (Bensoussan et al., 2018), Figure 315 6A. Application of dsRNA-Tu-CPR to Col-a mites resulted in decreased expression of Tu-CPR, 316 Figure 6B. Consistent with the Tu-CPR function as an essential component of the P450 enzyme 317 complex, the P450 activity was reduced by 38% in the Tu-CPR silenced mites relative to mites 318 exposed to dsRNA-NC (the negative control, dsRNA-NC, is homologous to a non-transcribed 319 genomic region, see Supplemental Table 1 and (Suzuki et al., 2017)), Figure 6C. Strikingly, the 320 silencing of Tu-CPR reduced the fecundity of Col-a mites by almost 50% when they were 321 challenged on the Arabidopsis host, but had no effect when they infested bean, Figure 6D. 322 Similar phenotypes were obtained upon the application of a second, independent, dsRNA-Tu-323 *CPR-1* fragment. Supplemental Figure 3, confirming the specificity of the observed phenotypes 324 to a loss of Tu-CPR function and the requirement of P450 activity for the adaptation of Col-a 325 mites to Arabidopsis.

327 The RNAi reverse genetics approach combined with the application of P450 inhibitors 328 identified several features of P450 activity. First, the reduced P450 activity, through the 329 application of P450 inhibitors or dsRNA-Tu-CPR, did not affect TSSM fecundity when mites fed 330 on bean plants - an ancestral host (Figure 5H and 6D, and Supplemental Figure 3), suggesting that P450 activity is specifically required for mites' ability to use Arabidopsis as a host. Second, 331 332 the experimental treatments reduced global P450 activity but did not eliminate it, Figures 5E, 5G 333 and 6C. Despite the incomplete inhibition of P450 activity, the fitness advantage of Col-a mites 334 over the ancestral population on Col-0 plants was almost completely abolished (Figures 5F, 5H 335 6D and Supplemental Figure 2), demonstrating that P450 activity is the main contributor to 336 TSSM adaptation to Arabidopsis. Third, P450 inhibitors had a limited but significant effect on the 337 fecundity of bean-a ancestral TSSM population when these mites were challenged on the 338 Arabidopsis host (Figures 5F and H). As bean-a mites had no prior exposure to Arabidopsis plants, 339 the effect of P450 inhibitors on their fecundity uncovers the limited contribution of initially 340 induced P450s to mite fitness on Arabidopsis. Since, Arabidopsis-adapted mites retained 341 responsiveness to shift from bean to Arabidopsis plants, Figure 4, it is expected that these P450s 342 also contribute to the resistance of Arabidopsis-adapted mites to Arabidopsis defenses. Fourth, the reduced P450 activity profoundly affected the fecundity of Col-a mites when exposed to 343 344 Arabidopsis defenses (Figures 5F and H, and Supplemental Figure 2), indicating that Col-a mites 345 acquired highly efficient P450 enzymatic catalytic activity(ies) against Arabidopsis defenses during the adaptation process. At least some of these P450 proteins should be encoded by CYP 346 347 genes with increased basal expression, as increased P450 activity was detected in bean-fed Col-a 348 mites, Figure 5D. Fifth, inhibition of P450 activity affected Col-a mite fecundity when they fed on 349 both Col-0 and cyp79b2 cyp79b3 plants, Figures 5F and H. This indicates that P450s function to 350 counter CYP79B2 CYP79B3-independent defenses, shown to be major contributors to 351 deterrence of TSSM herbivory, Figure 1.

352 In summary, we provided robust in vivo functional data proving that P450 activity is 353 required for T. urticae adaptation to the Arabidopsis host plant. In an unbiased analysis, we identified two distinct modes of P450 activities, Figures 4-6. One corresponds to the early 354 355 responsive CYP genes that are induced in both ancestral and Arabidopsis-adapted mites upon 356 exposure to Arabidopsis. These CYPs enable limited adaptation to Arabidopsis defenses ((Zhurov 357 et al., 2014) and this study). This is consistent with the canonical detoxification mechanism in 358 generalist herbivores associated with physiological acclimation whereby the exposure to 359 xenobiotics results in the transcriptional induction of genes encoding enzymes capable of 360 metabolizing these defense compounds (Li et al., 2004; Sasabe et al., 2004; Mathers et al., 2017; 361 Shi et al., 2018). Typically, such enzymes recognize a wide range of substrates and have low 362 enzymatic catalytic activity, resulting in a limited contribution to the detoxification of plant 363 defense compounds. The other more significant contribution of P450-mediated metabolic 364 resistance is realized through the action of adaptation-associated P450s (Figures 5, 6 and 365 Supplemental Figure 3). This pattern of metabolic counteraction is reminiscent of strategies 366 deployed by host-specialised herbivores, in which host-adaptation associates with mutations 367 that enhance the enzyme activity (Li et al., 2007; Schuler, 2011) or with the overexpression of 368 detoxification genes (Bass et al., 2013). Therefore, we interpret the adaptation of TSSM 369 populations to Arabidopsis as a combination of metabolic resistances characteristic of both 370 generalist and specialist herbivores. Remarkably, the host-shift in TSSM occurs within an 371 ecological timeframe, over 25 generations, enabling individual TSSM populations to expand its 372 host range without losing the ability of feeding on the ancestral host.

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374 Conclusion

375 The innate ability to perceive and respond to plant defenses in a process of physiological 376 acclimation is assumed to enable generalist herbivores to utilize a wide range of host plants. On 377 the other hand, genetic adaptation, occurring over long evolutionary time scales, is presumed to 378 enable specialist herbivores to evolve novel adaptation traits that efficiently counteract 379 defenses of a narrow range of host plants (Despres et al., 2007; Barrett and Heil, 2012; Heidel-380 Fischer and Vogel, 2015). T. urticae is an extreme generalist that acclimates, like other 381 polyphagous herbivores, to host shift by reprogramming its salivary and detoxification 382 complements (Figure 4 and (Dermauw et al., 2013; Zhurov et al., 2014; Wybouw et al., 2015; Jonckheere et al., 2016; Villarroel et al., 2016; Jonckheere et al., 2018)). However, prolonged 383 384 exposure (over generations) to initially unfavorable host plants enables T. urticae to dramatically 385 increase its performance (Figure 2 and (Gould, 1979; Fry, 1989; Magalhaes et al., 2007; Wybouw 386 et al., 2015)). As demonstrated here for the Arabidopsis-adapted mite populations, these mites 387 undergo genetic adaptation to a complex mixture of defenses presented by the new host plant.

388 Even though suppression of plant defenses has been proposed to be the prevailing 389 mechanism of adaptation for generalist herbivores (Jonckheere et al., 2016; Villarroel et al., 390 2016; Blaazer et al., 2018; Jonckheere et al., 2018), our data show that neither cyp-a nor Col-a 391 mite populations attenuate Arabidopsis JA-induced defenses. Instead, we provide multiple 392 independent lines of evidence indicating that Arabidopsis-adapted mites evolve metabolic 393 resistances characteristic of both generalist and specialist herbivores. Notably, these adaptation 394 mechanisms unfolded over approximately 25 generations, indicating that T. urticae has the 395 ability to reset its interaction with the host plant extremely rapidly.

396 The genomic repertoire of detoxification genes in TSSM could be the versatile toolkit 397 enabling that generalist mite to respond to a wide range of plant defenses. If it is so, the 398 comparative genome and transcriptome analysis of Arabidopsis-adapted and ancestral TSSM 399 populations may identify genes within the P450 family that are required for host adaptation to 400 Arabidopsis and reveal if adaptation-associated P450 activity is achieved by altering gene 401 regulation, copy number or through specific mutation(s). Whether the long-term genetic 402 adaptation to the new host described in this study is exclusive to T. urticae or is widespread 403 among generalist herbivores remains unknown. However, understanding the mechanisms 404 involved in generalist adaptation is highly relevant in the context of anthropogenic 405 environmental alterations characterized by habitat fragmentation and loss, climate change and 406 invasion of alien species. These changes are reshaping ecological communities and ecological 407 interactions, and are expected to promote the proliferation of generalist species (DeLucia et al., 408 2012; Stireman and Singer, 2018).

409

410 Materials and methods

411 Plant growing and mite rearing conditions

412 Columbia-0 (Col-0) seeds were obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center (ABRC, 413 Ohio State University), cyp79b2 cyp79b3 from B. A. Halkier (University of Copenhagen, 414 Denmark), myc2 myc3 myc4, from R. Solano (Universidad Autónoma de Madrid) and bean (Phaseolus vulgaris, cultivar California Red Kidney) from Stokes, Thorold, Ontario, Canada. 415 416 Arabidopsis plants were grown under 100 to 150 μ mol m⁻² sec⁻¹ cool-white fluorescent light at 417 24°C with a 10-h/14-h (light/dark) photoperiod in controlled growth chambers. The two spotted 418 spider mites (Tetranychus urticae), London reference strain (Grbic et al., 2011), were reared on 419 bean plants in growth chambers at 24°C, 60% relative humidity, and with a 16-h/8-h (light/dark) 420 photoperiod for more than 100 generations.

421

422 Experimental evolution

423 The London strain, reared on bean plants over the last ten years (referred to as bean-a strain), is 424 an ancestral line used in the experimental evolution. Three independent selection lines were 425 generated by transferring approximately 1,000 randomly chosen adult bean-a females to 3-426 week-old cyp79b2 cyp79b3 or Col-0 Arabidopsis plants that were replaced biweekly. Mite 427 populations were allowed to propagate for at least 25 generations, generating six selected lines: 428 three independent lines selected on cyp79b2 cyp79b3 plants, referred to as cyp-a lines (#1-#3), 429 and three independent lines selected on Col-0 plants, referred to as Col-a lines (#1-#3). Selected 430 lines were subsequently continuously reared on their corresponding plant hosts. cyp-a line (#3) 431 and Col-a line (#3) were used for the follow-up experiments.

432

443

433 Mite performance analysis

434 Twenty 3-day-old adult female mites were transferred to each of the experimental plants (bean, 435 cyp79b2 cyp79b3 and Col-0) to be evaluated for their performance. Mite performance was 436 measured as total population size seven days post inoculation in direct (mites were moved 437 directly from their rearing hosts to experimental plants) and indirect (mites were reared on 438 bean plants for two generations prior to their transfer to the experimental plants) transfer 439 regimes. The experiment was performed in four biological replicates for each selected line. 440 Differences between selected line population sizes were determined using a one-way ANOVA, 441 followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test. All other experiments were 442 performed with mites that were propagated for two generations on bean plants.

444 Plant damage analysis

Leaf damage of cyp79b2 cyp79b3 and Col-0 Arabidopsis plants upon feeding of bean-a, cyp-a 445 446 and Col-a mite strains was performed as previously described (Zhurov et al., 2014). Briefly, ten 447 adult female mites were placed on the rosette of Arabidopsis plants and allowed to feed for 3 448 days before plants were cut at the base of the rosette. The adaxial side of the rosette was scanned using a Canon® CanoScan 8600F model scanner (Canon U.S.A. Inc., Melville, NY, U.S.A) 449 450 at a resolution of 1200 dpi and a brightness setting of +25. Scanned plants were saved as .jpg 451 files for subsequent analysis in Adobe Photoshop 5 (Adobe Systems, San Jose, CA) as previously 452 described. The experiment was performed using 6 biological replicates/trial, and in three 453 experimental trials. Differences in plant damage between mite strains on different hosts were 454 determined using a three-way ANOVA, using mite strain, plant host and experimental replication 455 as main effects, including interaction terms, followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference 456 (HSD) test. There was a lack of interaction between experimental trials and other main effects, 457 so data across trials were combined for increased statistical power by use of the three-way 458 ANOVA (Brady et al., 2015).

459

460 Mite fecundity assay

461 Fecundity of bean-a strain on Col-0, cyp79b2 cyp79b3 and myc2 myc3 myc4 as well as bean-a, 462 cyp-a and Col-a strains when feeding on cyp79b2 cyp79b3 or Col-0 Arabidopsis plants were 463 performed on detached leaves. Briefly, a petiole of a detached fully-elongated adult leaf was 464 mounted through the parafilm into a small petri plate filled with water. The detached leaf was 465 infested with a single 3-day-old adult female mite whose fecundity was monitored over two or 466 six days. A vented lid was placed on-top of the set up to ensure the mite containment. Inoculated leaves were kept under standard mite rearing conditions and were replaced every 467 468 second day in the case of 6-day period. The experiment included five to ten biological replicates 469 for each treatment that were repeated in three experimental trials. Differences in fecundity

470 between mite strains on different hosts were determined using a three-way ANOVA, using mite 471 strain, plant host and experimental trial as main effects, including interaction terms, followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test. There was a lack of interaction between 472 473 experimental trials and other main effects, so data across trials were combined for increased 474 statistical power (Brady et al., 2015). For mite fecundity assay on MeJA-treated Col-0 leaves, the 475 rosette leaves from five-week-old Col-0 plants were sprayed 3 times within 24 h with methyl 476 jasmonate (MeJA) (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat # 392707, 500 μ M in ethanol 0.4 % (v/v)), or with ethanol 477 0.4% (v/v). Subsequently, fully-elongated adult leaves were cut and each petiole was inserted in 478 a PCR tube containing 340 μ L of 0.5 mg/mL L-Tryptophan (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat # T0254). 479 Detached leaves were sprayed 3 times within 24 h with MeJA or ethanol 0.4 % solution and 480 were transferred in new PCR tubes containing fresh tryptophan solution. Each detached leaf was 481 then infested with 10 adult female mites (London strain) that were starved overnight. The 482 number of eggs were recorded 24 h after mite addition. The experiment included nine biological 483 replicates and was repeated in two experimental trials. Differences in fecundity were detected 484 by a two-way ANOVA, using treatment and experimental trials as main effects including an 485 interaction term. There was a lack of interaction between experimental trials and treatment, so data across trials were combined for increased statistical power (Brady et al., 2015). 486

487

488 **Real-Time Quantitative Reverse Transcription-PCR Analysis**

489 For plant marker gene analysis, bean-a, cyp-a and Col-a mite strains were collected from their 490 rearing hosts and were propagated for two generations on bean plants after which their 491 corresponding 3-day-old adult female mites were transferred to Col-0 plants. Mites were 492 allowed to feed for 24 h, after which leaves were collected and immediately frozen in liquid 493 nitrogen. These samples were used for the plant marker gene/metabolite analysis. Experiment 494 was replicated in three biological replicates/trial and in three independent trials. For TSSM 495 marker gene analysis, bean-a, cyp-a and Col-a mite strains were collected from their rearing 496 hosts and were propagated for two generations on bean plants after which their corresponding 497 3-day-old adult female mites were transferred to bean, cyp79b2 cyp79b3 or Col-0 plants for 24 h. 498 Samples of 100 mites were collected and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen. The experiment 499 was replicated in three biological replicates/trial and in three independent trials. Preparation of 500 RNA, cDNA and the real-time quantitative reverse transcription-PCR analysis was performed as 501 previously described (Zhurov et al., 2014). Primer sequences and amplification efficiencies (E) 502 used in gPCR are shown in Supplemental Table 1. PEROXIN4 (AT5G25760), was used as the 503 reference gene for Arabidopsis genes and the expression of RP49 (tetur18q03590) was used as 504 the reference for mite genes. Ct values of three technical replicates were averaged to generate a 505 biological replicate Ct value. For plotting, an expression values for each target gene (T) was 506 normalized to the reference gene (R). Normalized relative quantity (NRQ) was calculated as NRQ = $(1 + ER)^{CtR}/(1 + ET)^{CtT}$. NRQs were Log2-transformed for statistical analysis. Mite marker gene 507 508 data were analyzed by a two-way ANOVA with mite strain and plant host as main effects 509 including an interaction term, followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test 510 (Rieu and Powers, 2009). For plant marker gene analysis, the data were analysed by a two-way 511 ANOVA, using mite strain and experimental trial as main effects including an interaction term, 512 followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test. There was a lack of interaction 513 between experimental trial and mite strain, so data across trials were combined for increased 514 statistical power (Brady et al., 2015). For graphical representation of the expression of plant 515 marker genes, the NRQ data were further normalized to the 'no mite' control sample, which was 516 therefore set to one. Thus, these results represent fold change differences in the expression of 517 marker genes relative to 'no mite' control.

518 Metabolic Analysis

Plant material used for the RNA isolation toward the expression analysis of the plant marker genes was utilized for the quantification of plant metabolites (JA, JA-Ile and I3M) as described in Zhurov et al., 2014. Differences in metabolite levels were detected by a two-way ANOVA, using mite strain and experimental trial as main effects including an interaction term, followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test. There was a lack of interaction between experimental trial and mite strain, so data across trials were combined for increased statistical power (Brady et al., 2015).

526

527 Determination of cytochrome P450 monooxygenase (P450), esterase and glutathione-S-528 transferase (GST) activity

529 To perform the enzymatic activity assays, 3-day-old spider mite females of each Col-a, cyp-a and 530 bean-a strains, reared for two generations on bean plants, were placed on bean, cyp79b2 531 cyp79b3 or Col-0 plants. After 24 h, 200 females from each treatment were collected and 532 immediately frozen, to be used for protein extraction and enzymatic assays. Mites were 533 homogenized in 100 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.6. The concentration of total protein mite extracts was determined using the Quick Start[™] Bradford Protein Assay (Quick start Bradford 1x 534 535 dye reagent, Bio-Rad, Cat# 500-0205), with Bovine Serum Albumin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat # A7906) 536 as the standard. Twenty, 10 and 10 μg of protein per reaction were used for measuring 537 enzymatic activity of glutathione-S-transferases (GSTs), P450 monooxygenases, and esterases, 538 respectively. The enzymatic activities were assessed spectrophotometrically using 1-chloro-2,4-539 dinitrobenzene (CDNB) (for GSTs) (Habig and Jakoby, 1981), 7-ethoxy-4-trifluoromethylcoumarin 540 (7-EFC) (for P450s) (Buters et al., 1993), and 4-nitrophenyl acetate (pNPA) (for esterases) (Park 541 et al., 1961), as substrates. Enzymatic activities were determined in four independent samples 542 with three technical replicates per sample. Differences in enzymatic activity between mite 543 strains on different plant hosts were detected using a two-way ANOVA, with mite strain and 544 plant host as main effects including an interaction term, followed by Tukey's honestly significant 545 difference (HSD) test.

546

547 Application of enzyme inhibitors

548 Diethyl maleate (DEM, an inhibitor of glutathione S-transferase (GST) activity), S,S,S tributyl-549 phosphorotrithioate (DEF, an inhibitor of esterase activity), and piperonyl butoxide (PBO) and 550 trichlorophenylpropynyl ether (TCPPE) (inhibitors of P450 activities) were dissolved in acetone 551 (1:1 by volume) and were subsequently diluted with distilled water to reach desired 552 concentrations. A range of concentrations of DEM (100, 200, 500, 1000 and 2000 mg/L), DEF (10, 553 20, 100, 200 and 500 mg/L), PBO (30, 100, 500, 1000 and 2000 mg/L) and TCPPE (1500 and 2000 554 mg/L) were tested to identify highest sublethal inhibitor concentration (mortality below 10%). 555 Briefly, a batch of five detached bean leaves was sprayed either with a solution containing an 556 inhibitor or a mock solution to the point of run-off. Fifty 1-2-day-old adult bean-a female mites 557 were transferred to the upper (adaxial) side of a treated bean leaf that was placed on wet 558 cotton wool. After 24 h, the number of surviving mites was recorded and mortality was 559 calculated using Abbott's formula (Abbott, 1925).

560

561 For inhibitor bioassays, detached leaves of Col-O *Arabidopsis* plants were dipped in a solution 562 containing one of the inhibitors (DEF, DEM, PBO, TCPPE) or water and acetone only as control. 563 Upon drying, leaves were infested with 1-2-day-old adult female mites. For fecundity assays, 564 one adult bean-a or Col-a female was placed on the leaf and the number of eggs laid by each 565 female per day was recorded for six days. Treated Col-O leaves were replaced every other day.

566 Fecundity was determined in three independent experimental trials with ten replicates per trial. 567 For enzymatic assays, each Col-0 leaf was infested with ten 1 to 2-day-old adults Col-a female 568 mites. After 24 h, a pool of 100 spider mites was used to measure GST, esterase and P450 569 activities in DEM-, DEF-, PBO- and TCPPE-treated spider mites, respectively, using the protocol 570 described above. Enzymatic activities were determined in five independent samples with three 571 technical replicates per sample. Differences between means of fecundity and enzymatic 572 activities of control and inhibitor-treated samples were calculated using unpaired Student's t 573 tests (following tests for equal variance).

574

575 In situ hybridization

576 DIG-labelled probes were produced and the whole mount *in situ* hybridization was performed 577 according to previously published methods (Dearden et al., 2002). Images were collected using a 578 Zeiss AxioCam HRc 412-312 camera mounted on a Zeiss Axioplan II microscope.

579 580 **RNAi of** *Tu-CPR*

581 Two non-overlapping fragments (Tu-CPR, 645 nt) and (Tu-CPR-F1, 564 nt), complementary to the coding region of Tu-CPR (tetur18q03390) and dsRNA complementary to a 382 bp non-582 583 transcribed intergenic fragment spanning the region 1690614±1690995 of the genomic scaffold 584 12 (a negative control dsRNA, referred to as NC) were synthesized using primers listed in 585 Supplementary Table 1 according to previously described protocol (Suzuki et al., 2017). A BLAST 586 search against the T. urticae genome confirmed that dsRNA sequences are unique. dsRNA 587 solutions at concentrations of 500 ng/ μ L were supplemented with 6% (v/v) blue dye 588 erioglaucine (McCormick, Sparks Glencoe, MD). Newly molted adult female mites were soaked 589 in dsRNA/dye solutions at 20°C for 24 h (Suzuki et al., 2017). Post soaking, mites with visible blue 590 dye in posterior midgut were selected and were transferred in batches of 10 to either detached 591 Col-O leaves or bean leaf disks. Fecundity was determined in three independent experimental 592 trials with ten replicates/trial as number of eggs deposited by individual female mite on 3rd and 593 4^{th} day post soaking. Mites used for the analysis of CPR expression levels were further selected 594 on the basis of visual phenotype (spotless). The RT-qPCR was performed in eight (for dsRNA-CPR) 595 and three (for dsRNA-CPR-1) experimental replicas, as described above. P450 activity in CPR 596 silenced mites was determined in five independent samples with three technical replicates per 597 sample, as described above. Differences in fecundity between dsRNA treated mites was 598 detected using a two-way ANOVA, with mite treatment and experimental trial as main effects 599 including an interaction term, followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test. 600 There was a lack of interaction between experimental trial and mite treatment, so data across 601 trials were combined for increased statistical power (Brady et al., 2015). Enzyme activity and RT-602 aPCR expression levels were compared between dsRNA treated mites using unpaired Student's t 603 tests (following tests for equal variance).

604

605 Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Drs. Thomas Van Leeuwen and Rene Feyereisen for their constructive comments on pharmacological experiments, and Pierre Hilson for critical comments on the manuscript. This work was supported by the Government of Canada through the Ontario Research Fund (RE08-067) and the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC) awarded to MG and VG.

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885 Figure Legends

886 Figure 1. Arabidopsis induced responses to feeding of the two-spotted spider mite (TSSM) Tetranychus urticae. (A) The fecundity of bean-reared TSSM (London strain; ancestral population) 887 888 upon feeding on +/- MeJA treated Col-0 plants (left) and on Col-0 wild type, cyp79b2 cyp79b3 889 mutant plants lacking Trp-derived secondary metabolites, and myc2 myc3 myc4 mutant plants 890 (myc2,3,4) that lack JA-dependent induced responses (right). For fecundity on +/- MeJA treated 891 Col-0 leaves, the number of eggs was counted over 24 h and is presented as mean number of 892 eggs laid by a female mite per day \pm SEM; experiment was replicated in nine biological 893 replicates/trial in two independent trials. Asterisk indicates a significant difference between 894 treated and control samples (ANOVA: ***P<0.001). For fecundity on different genotypes (right), 895 the number of eggs was counted over two days and is presented as mean number of eggs laid 896 by a female mite per day ± SEM; experiment was replicated in five biological replicates/trial in 897 three independent trials. Different letters represent significant difference between means 898 (Tukey's HSD test, $\alpha = 0.05$). (B) A simplified schematic of Arabidopsis induced responses to 899 TSSM feeding. Jasmonic acid (JA), its bioactive conjugate jasmonoyl-isoleucine (JA-Ile), and 900 MYC2, MYC3 and MYC4 (MYC2,3,4) transcriptional activators transduce the recognition of TSSM 901 herbivory and induce the expression of JA-regulated genes such as ALLENE OXIDE SYNTHASE 902 (AOS), CYP79B2 and CYP79B3. AOS is a JA biosynthetic gene, while CYP79B2 and CYP79B3 903 encode enzymes required for the biosynthesis of Trp-derived secondary metabolites.

904

905 Figure 2. Experimental evolution of Tetranychus urticae adaptation to Arabidopsis. (A) A 906 schematic of the experimental evolution procedure. The ancestral population was reared on 907 beans. Triplicated ancestral populations were selected on cyp79b2 cyp79b3 and Col-0 plants for 908 at least 25 generations. (B) Performance of ancestral and selected populations on bean (top), 909 cyp79b2 cyp79b3 (middle) and Col-0 (bottom) plants. Mites from Arabidopsis-selected 910 populations were transferred from their respective rearing hosts, cyp79b2 cyp79b3 and Col-0 911 plants, to beans for two generations prior to testing their performance (an indirect transfer 912 regime). The performance was measured as the size of total population derived from twenty 913 adult female mites and seven days post infestation. Data are represented as mean ± SEM, n=4. 914 Statistics were performed on total population counts. See also Figure S1. (C) Fecundity of the 915 ancestral (bean-a) and populations #3 of Arabidopsis-selected mites (cyp-a and Col-a) upon 916 feeding on Col-0 and cyp79b2 cyp79b3 plants. Fecundity was measured over six days and data 917 are presented as mean number of eggs laid by a female mite per day \pm SEM; experiment was 918 replicated in ten biological replicates/trial in tree independent trials. (D) Leaf damage of Col-0 919 and cyp79b2 cyp79b3 Arabidopsis plants upon herbivory of ancestral (bean-a), and populations 920 #3 of Arabidopsis-selected mites (cyp-a and Col-a). Data are represented as mean ± SEM; 921 experiment was replicated in six biological replicates/trial in three independent trials. Different 922 letters represent significant differences between means (Tukey's HSD test, $\alpha = 0.05$).

923

924 Figure 3. Induced Arabidopsis responses upon feeding of bean-a, cyp-a and Col-a mites for 24 h. 925 (A) Expression of AOS, CYP79B2, CYP79B3 and MYC2 genes in response to bean-a, cyp-a and Col-926 a mite feeding. Shown are means ± SEM of FCs of expression levels detected by RT-qPCR; 927 experiment was replicated in three biological replicates/trial in three independent trials. Primer 928 sequences and amplification efficiencies (E) used in gPCR are shown in Supplemental Table 1. 929 *PEROXIN4* (AT5G25760), was used as the reference gene. (B) Levels of JA and JA-IIe (ng g^{-1} fresh weight), and relative level of the indol-3-ylmethyl glucosinolate (I3M, shown as normalized peak 930 931 area), in 3-week-old Col-0 plants after herbivory of bean-a, cyp-a and Col-a mites for 24 h. 932 Values are means ± SEM; experiment was replicated in three biological replicates/trial in two

933 independent trials. Different letters represent significant differences between means (Tukey's 934 HSD test, $\alpha = 0.05$).

935

936 Figure 4. The effect of mite host-adaptation state and plant hosts on the expression levels of 937 candidate cytochrome P450 (CYP) and UDP-qlycosyltransferases (UGT) mite genes. (A) CYP392A1 938 (tetur07q06410), CYP392A16 (tetur06q04520) and CYP392D8 (tetur03q05070). (B) UGT201A2v2 939 (tetur02q02480), UGT204B1 (tetur02q09830) and UGT204A5 (tetur05q00090). Shown are 940 means ± SEM for relative quantity of expression normalized to RP49 (tetur18q03590) reference 941 gene, experiment was replicated in three biological replicates/trial; additional two independent 942 experimental trials had similar results. Primer sequences and amplification efficiencies (E) used 943 in qPCR are shown in Supplemental Table 1. Different letters represent significant differences 944 between means (Tukey's HSD test, $\alpha = 0.05$).

945

946 Figure 5. The requirements of glutathione-S-transferase and cytochrome P450 activities for 947 Tetranychus urticae adaptation to Arabidopsis. (A, D) The activities of glutathione-S-transferases 948 (A) and cytochrome P450s (D) in bean-a, cyp-a and Col-a mites (reared on beans for two 949 generations) feeding on bean, cyp79b2 cyp79b3 or Col-0 plants. Data are represented as mean ± 950 SEM, n=4. Different letters represent significant differences between means (Tukey's HSD test, α 951 = 0.05). (B, E, G) The activities of glutathione-S-transferases (B) and cytochrome P450s (E, G) in 952 Col-a mites feeding on Col-0 plants after the application of diethyl maleate (DEM, an inhibitor of GST activity; in B), piperonyl butoxide (PBO, an inhibitor of P450 activity; in E) and 953 954 trichlorophenylpropynyl ether (TCPPE, inhibitor of P450 activity; in G). Data are represented as 955 mean ± SEM, n=5. (C, F) The effects of DEM (C) and PBO (F) treatments on fecundity of bean-a 956 and Col-a mites upon feeding on Col-0 and cyp79b2 cyp79b3 plants. Fecundity was measured 957 over six days and data are presented as mean number of eggs laid by a female mite per day \pm 958 SEM; experiment was replicated in ten biological replicates/trial in three independent trials. (H) 959 The effect of TCPPE treatment on fecundity of bean-a and Col-a mites upon feeding on Col-0, 960 cyp79b2 cyp79b3 or bean plants. Fecundity was measured over six days and data are presented 961 as mean number of eggs laid by a female mite per day \pm SEM; experiment was replicated in ten 962 biological replicates/trial in three independent trials. Asterisks in panels B, C, E-H indicate a 963 significant difference between treated and control samples (unpaired Student's t test: *P <0.05, 964 **P<0.01, ***P<0.001). See also Figure S2.

965

966 Figure 6. The requirement of CPR and P450 activity for Tetranychus urticae adaptation to 967 Arabidopsis. (A) Whole-mount in-situ hybridization with anti-sense probe of Tu-CPR in T. urticae 968 (i) adult female, (ii) adult male, (iii) background control (hybridization with sense probe), 969 enlarged view of panel 'i' showing (iv) epithelium (v) ovaries and (vi and vii) digestive cells of 970 adult female. (B-D) The effects of dsRNA-Tu-CPR. (B) Relative level of Tu-CPR transcript 971 normalized with RP49 in dsRNA treated Col-a mites (mean ± SEM, n=8, unpaired Student's t test 972 *** P<0.001). (C) The activity of cytochrome P450s in dsRNA treated Col-a mite upon feeding on Col-0 plants (mean ± SEM, n=5, unpaired Student's t test *** P<0.001). (D) The fecundity of 973 974 dsRNA treated Col-a mites feeding on Col-0 or bean plants. Fecundity was measured over two 975 days (3 and 4 dpi) and data are presented as mean number of eggs laid by a female mite per day 976 \pm SEM; the experiment was replicated in ten (for Col-0 plants) and 4 (for bean plants) biological 977 replicates/trial in three independent trials. Data are represented as mean \pm SEM (unpaired 978 Student's t test *** P<0.001). Scale bars in (F): (i-iii) 20µm; (iv-vii) 100µm. See also Figure S3.

979

980 Supplemental Data

981 **Supplemental Table 1.** Gene-specific primer sequences used for real-time quantitative RT-PCR.

Supplemental Figure 1. Experimental evolution of *Tetranychus urticae* adaptation to *Arabidopsis*.
 Performance of ancestral and selected populations on bean (top), *cyp79b2 cyp79b3* (middle) and Col-0 (bottom) plants. Mites were transferred directly from their respective rearing hosts to experimental bean, *cyp79b2 cyp79b3* and Col-0 plants. The performance was measured as the size of total population derived from twenty adult female mites and seven days post infestation. Data are represented as mean ± SEM, n=4. Statistics were performed on total population counts.

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982

990 **Supplemental Figure 2.** The requirement of esterase activity for *Tetranychus urticae* adaptation 991 to Arabidopsis. (A) The esterase activities in bean-a, cyp-a and Col-a mites (reared on beans for 992 two generations) feeding on bean, cyp79b2 cyp79b3 or Col-0 plants. Data are represented as 993 mean ± SEM, n=4. Different letters represent significant differences between means (Tukey's 994 HSD test, $\alpha = 0.05$). (B) Esterase activity in Col-a mites feeding on Col-0 plants after the 995 application of S,S,S tributyl-phosphorotrithioate (DEF, an inhibitor of esterase activity). Data are 996 represented as mean ± SEM, n=5. (C) Effects of DEF treatment on fecundity of bean-a and Col-a mites upon feeding on Col-0 and cyp79b2 cyp79b3 plants. Fecundity was assessed as mean 997 998 number of eggs laid by a female mite in six days \pm SEM; the experiment was replicated three 999 times using 10 biological replicates/trial. Asterisks in panels B, C, and E indicate a significant 1000 difference between treated and control samples (unpaired Student's t test: *P <0.05, **P<0.01).

1001

1002 Supplemental Figure 3. RNAi silencing of Tu-CPR gene. (A) A schematic of the Tu-CPR locus. DNA 1003 sequences used for the generation of dsRNA-Tu-CPR are shown in red (fragment CPR, 645 bp), 1004 and green (fragment CPR-1, 564 bp). UTR and coding sequences are shown as light and dark 1005 blue boxes, respectively. (B) The effect of dsRNA-Tu-CPR. Relative expression of Tu-CPR 1006 normalized with RP49 in dsRNA treated Col-a mites (mean ± SEM, n=8, Student's t test, ns). (C) 1007 The fecundity of dsRNA treated Col-a mites feeding on Col-0 and bean plants. Fecundity was 1008 measured over two days (3 and 4 dpi) and data are presented as mean number of eggs laid by a 1009 female mite per day ± SEM; the experiment was replicated in ten (for Col-0 plants) and 4 (for 1010 bean plants) biological replicates/trial in three independent trials. Data are represented as mean 1011 ± SEM (Student's t test *** P<0.001).













Supplemental Table 1. Gene-specific primer sequences used for the analysis of levels of gene expression (RT-qPCR), synthesis of dsRNA (RNAi) and preparation of probe for the *in situ* transcript localization.

Locus ID and name	Application	Primers	Efficiency
tetur07g06410 CYP392A1	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-GACGCCTTCGCAAATGATGC-3' R: 5'-TAACCGTCTGTGTTCACGCC-3'	0.929
tetur06g04520 CYP392A16	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-TTGATTGGGCTTGCCCTCTT-3' R: 5'-AGCCAACAATCGGAAGACCC-3'	0.903
tetur03g05070 CYP392D8	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-ACCAGAGAGATTCCTCAGCG-3' R: 5'-AAAGCCAAAGTTGCACCAGG-3'	1.030
tetur02g02480 UGT201A2v2	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-TCGAGAACTGAGTGGAGTAGC-3' R: 5'-TAGCAGGCAAAGGTGTTCCA-3'	1.090
tetur02g09830 UGT204B1	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-GCTTCGGTTGAGAAACGTGG-3' R: 5'-AAAATCGGCATTCGCTTCGG-3'	1.000
tetur05g00090 UGT204A5	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-TGGACGGAAATCGTAGTGGA-3' R: 5'-AGCTCATCAAAGACCAGCGA-3'	1.090
tetur18g03590 RP49	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-CTTCAAGCGGCATCAGAGC-3' R: 5'-CGCATCTGACCCTTGAACTTC-3'	0.976
AT5G42650 AOS	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-AAATCCAACGGCGGAGAACT-3' R: 5'-TCGTCGCCAACGGTTGATAA-3'	0.984
AT4G39950 CYP79B2	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-GAAAAGAGGTTGTGCGGCTC-3' R: 5'-TCTCACTTCACCGTCGGGTA-3'	0.994
AT2G22330 CYP79B3	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-TCTACCGATGCTTACGGGATTG-3' R: 5'-TACAAGTTCCTTAATGGTTGGTTTG-3'	0.973
AT1G32640 MYC2	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-TCGCTTACATCAACGAGCTTAAATC-3' F: 5'- TATCTTCACTTCAATCTCCATCCCC-3'	0.900
AT5G25760 PEROXIN4	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-GCTCTTATCAAAGGACCTTCGG-3' R: 5'-CGAACTTGAGGAGGTTGCAAAG-3'	0.992
tetur18g03390 Tu-CPR	RT-qPCR	F: 5'-CCATTCTTGGCACCTATCGT-3' R: 5'-GCAAGGTGATCTCCAGCTTC-3'	0.994
tetur18g03390 Tu-CPR	RNAi (fragment 1)	F: 5'-[T7]-CCTCGACTTCAGCCACGTTA-3' R: 5'-[T7]-AACATCCCGAGCCATGTTCC-3'	not applicable
tetur18g03390 Tu-CPR	RNAi (fragment 2)	F: 5'-[T7]-ACAAACCGGTACTGCAGAGG-3' R: 5'-[T7]-TGCATACACGAACGGTCTCC-3'	not applicable
<i>T. urticae</i> genomic scaffold 12, position 1690614- 1690995, NC	RNAi (negative control)	F: 5'-GCCCTCTCCTGGTTGTAAACTT-3' R: 5'-CGACCCCATCAGGCTATTGA-3'	not applicable
tetur18g03390 Tu-CPR	in situ (antisense)	F: 5'-[T7]-ACAAACCGGTACTGCAGAGG-3' R: 5'-TGCATACACGAACGGTCTCC-3'	not applicable
tetur18g03390 Tu-CPR	<i>in situ</i> (sense)	F: 5'-ACAAACCGGTACTGCAGAGG-3' R: 5'-[T7]-TGCATACACGAACGGTCTCC-3'	not applicable

[T7]: T7 RNA Polymerase promoter sequence, 5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGG-3'

SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURE 1



SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURE 2



SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURE 3

