

Abstract

 The development of insecticide resistance in malaria vectors is a challenge for the global effort to control and eradicate malaria. Glutathione S-transferases (GSTs) are multifunctional enzymes involved in the detoxification of many classes of insecticides. For mosquitoes, it is known that overexpression of an epsilon GST, *GSTe2,* confers resistance towards DDT and pyrethroids. In addition to *GSTe2*, consistent overexpression of a delta class GST, *GSTd3*, has been observed in insecticide resistant populations of different malaria vector species. However, the functional role of GSTd3 towards DDT resistance has not yet been investigated. Here, we recombinantly expressed both *GSTe2* and *GSTd3* from *Anopheles arabiensis* and compared their metabolic activities against DDT. Both AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2 exhibited CDNB- conjugating and glutathione peroxidase activity and DDT metabolism was observed for both GSTs. However, the DDT dehydrochlorinase activity exhibited by AaGSTe2 was much higher than for AaGSTd3, and AaGSTe2 was also able to eliminate DDE although the metabolite could not be identified. Molecular modeling revealed subtle differences in the binding pocket of both enzymes and a better fit of DDT within the H- site of AaGSTe2. The overexpression but much lower DDT metabolic activity of AaGSTd3, might suggest that AaGSTd3 sequesters DDT. These findings highlight the complexity of insecticide resistance in the major malaria vectors and the difficulties associated with control of the vectors using DDT, which is still used for indoor residual spraying.

 Keywords*: Anopheles arabiensis*, GSTd3, GSTe2*,* DDTase activity, insecticide resistance

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1. Introduction

 Malaria is a mosquito-borne disease that has affected humans for thousands of years. During the last decades, several interventions, mainly chemical based vector control, have been implemented to combat malaria. As a result, the number of malaria deaths has been reduced to 568,000 in 2019, while in 2020, malaria deaths slightly increased by 12% due to the COVID-19 pandemic and remained stable in 2021 (WHO, 2022). The reduction of malaria mortality and morbidity in the last decade is mainly due to indoor residual spraying (IRS) and the use of long-lasting insecticidal nets (LLINs) (Dhiman, 2019; WHO, 2022). However, insecticide resistance of malaria vectors to at least one of the commonly-used insecticide classes has been reported in 78 countries and is a challenge for the global efforts to control and eradicate malaria (WHO, 2022). More specifically, the widespread insecticide resistance in the major malaria vector species of the *Anopheles gambiae* complex (*An. coluzzii*, *An. gambiae sensu stricto* and *An. arabiensis*) and *An. funestus* jeopardize malaria control and elimination strategies (Antonio-Nkondjio et al., 2017; Hancock et al., 2020; Kleinschmidt et al., 2018; Matiya et al., 2019; Wiebe et al., 2017). In addition to widespread resistance, the invasion of *Anopheles stephensi*, native to southern and western Asia, into cities of eastern Africa makes it also more difficult to control malaria vectors (Takken and Lindsay, 2019).

 In general, resistance is either caused by mutations in the gene encoding the target site of insecticides (toxicodynamic resistance) and/or by decreased exposure (pharmacokinetic resistance) due to quantitative or qualitative changes in major detoxification enzymes and transporters, such as cytochrome P450 monooxygenases (P450s), carboxyl/cholinesterases, glutathione S-transferases (GSTs) and ABC transporters (Feyereisen et al., 2015; Hemingway and Ranson, 2000). The most common target site mutation known to confer resistance against pyrethroids and DDT is the *k*nock*d*own *r*esistance (*kdr*) mutation in the voltage-gated sodium channel (VGSC) gene, resulting in a leucine to phenylalanine (L1014F) or a leucine to serine (L1014S) substitution at position 1014 (Liu, 2015; Silva et al., 2014). On the other hand, P450s, such as CYP6M2, CYP6P3 and/or CYP6P4, and GSTs are well-known for their role in pyrethroid and DDT metabolism (Müller et al., 2008; Riveron et al., 2017; Riveron et al., 2014b; Stevenson et al., 2011).

 Insect GSTs catalyze the detoxification of several major classes of insecticides through glutathione conjugation, dehydrochlorination or passive binding, or protect insects against oxidative damage caused by insecticides via glutathione peroxidase activity (Abel et al., 2004; Hayes and Wolf, 1988; Mannervik et al., 1988; Pickett and Lu, 1989; Wongtrakul et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2001). Glutathione-based dehydrochlorination of the organochlorine compound DDT has been reported to confer resistance in *Aedes aegypti*, *An. dirus* and *An. gambiae*, but is also a common detoxification mechanism in other insects (Clark and Shamaan, 1984; Clark et al., 1986; Enayati et al., 2005; Grant et al., 1991; Lumjuan et al., 2005; Ortelli et al., 2003; Pavlidi et al., 2018; Prapanthadara et al., 1995; Prapanthadara et al., 1996; Prapanthadara et al., 2000; Prapanthadara et al., 1993; Ranson et al., 2001; You et al., 2015). Mosquito GSTs have also been reported to play a role in the sequestration and/or detoxification of pyrethroids and glutathione peroxidase activity of GSTs has been detected in *An. gambiae, An. cracens*, *Ae. aegypti* and other insects (Kostaropoulos et al., 2001; Lumjuan et al., 2005; Ortelli et al., 2003; Sawicki et al., 2003; Singh et al., 2001; Vontas et al., 2001; Wongtrakul et al., 2014).

 Cytosolic GSTs are grouped into eight classes: delta, epsilon, omega, sigma, theta, zeta, xi and iota, with delta and/or epsilon classes being only present in mites or insects (Che- Mendoza et al., 2009; Ding et al., 2003; Ranson et al., 2002; Ranson et al., 2001; Tu and Akgül, 2005). Delta and epsilon GSTs were previously shown to play a vital role in resistance to insecticides in different species of Diptera and metabolism of DDT in *An. gambiae*, *Culex quinquefasciatus* and *Ae. aegypti* has been linked to increased epsilon class GST dehydrochlorinase activity (Ding et al., 2003; Hemingway et al., 2004; Lumjuan et al., 2011; Lumjuan et al., 2007; Ortelli et al., 2003; Polson et al., 2011; Prapanthadara et al., 2000; Ranson et al., 1997; Ranson et al., 2001). Twenty- eight cytosolic GST genes were identified in the *An. gambiae* genome, and 12 and 8 of these genes encode delta and epsilon GSTs, respectively (Strode et al., 2008). Of the eight *An. gambiae* epsilon GSTs, the *GSTe2* gene is most conserved and consistently associated with DDT and, to a lower extent, pyrethroid resistance (Ayres et al., 2011; Djouaka et al., 2011; Lumjuan et al., 2005; Lumjuan et al., 2011; Mitchell et al., 2014; Ortelli et al., 2003). For example, GSTe2 is also thought to metabolize the pyrethroid permethrin in *An*. *funestus*, although the nature of the permethrin metabolites has not been identified yet (Riveron et al., 2014b).

 Genes that were overexpressed in resistant *An. arabiensis* populations from Ethiopia have been recently identified by RNAseq analysis and, amongst others, included a delta GST gene, *GSTd3* (Messenger et al., 2021; Simma et al., 2019). *GSTd3* overexpression has been reported earlier for several pyrethroid/DDT resistant anopheline populations (Table S1). However, in contrast to GSTe2, the contribution of GSTd3 to DDT resistance has not yet been studied. Here, we functionally characterized *An. arabiensis GSTd3* and investigated the potency of GSTd3 to metabolize DDT in comparison with GSTe2.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Expression of *GSTd3* **in DDT resistant anopheline mosquito populations**

 2.1.1. RT-qPCR of *GSTd3* in DDT resistant *An. arabiensis* populations from Ethiopia

 The DDT and deltamethrin resistant *An. arabiensis* populations from Ethiopia [Asendabo (ASN), Chewaka (CHW), and Tolay (TOL)] and the Ethiopian susceptible population Sekoru (SEK) have been previously described .(Alemayehu et al., 2017; 132 Simma et al., 2019). RNA was extracted from these populations, and stored at -80 °C until further use, as described in Simma et al. 2019. RNA was reverse transcribed using the Maxima First Strand cDNA synthesis for RT-qPCR kit [Fermentas (Thermo Fisher 135 Scientific), Belgium using 2 µg of total RNA as the template according to the protocol. The RT-qPCR reactions were performed on a Mx3005P qPCR system [Stratagene (Agilent Technologies), Belgium)] using the Maxima SYBR Green qPCR master mix with ROX solution [Fermentas (Thermo Fisher Scientific), Belgium] according to the manufacturer's instructions. The optimized qPCR program was an initial denaturation 140 at 95 °C for 10 min, followed by 35 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s, 55 °C for 30 s and 72 °C 141 for 30 s. At the end, a melting curve was constructed by ramping from 65 \degree C to 95 \degree C, at 1 °C per 2 s. RT-qPCR primers for *GSTd3* as well as for reference genes, *40S ribosomal protein S7* (*RpS7*) and *elongation factor Tu* (*EF-Tu*) can be found in Table S2. All qPCR experiments were conducted using four biological and two technical replicates. Relative expression levels and significant gene expression differences (independent t-test) were calculated with qbase+2 (Biogazelle, Zwijnaarde, Belgium - www.qbaseplus.com) and SPSS 28 (IBM, USA).

 2.1.2. Expression levels of *GSTe2* and *GSTd3* in other anopheline mosquito populations

 Relative *GSTd3* (VectorBase ID: AGAP004382 for *An. gambiae* and AARA015764 for *An. arabiensis*) and *GSTe2* (VectorBase ID: AGAP009194 for *An. gambiae*, AARA008732 for *An. arabiensis*) expression data were obtained from previous reports, using the IR-TEx database as a guidance (http://opteron.lstmed.ac.uk/shiny/IR-TEx/) (Ingham et al., 2018). In addition, the Google scholar database was mined for studies using the keywords "mosquitoes" and "*GSTd3*".

2.2. Analyzing *AaGSTd3* **and** *AaGSTe2* **sequences of the DDT resistant TOL population**

 Based on a previously published RNAseq dataset (Simma et al., 2019), we compared the *AaGSTd3* CDS between the DDT and deltamethrin resistant TOL population and

 the susceptible SEK population. The *AaGSTd3* CDS of the TOL population was also compared against the *An. arabiensis* reference (Dongola) strain in VectorBase. The *AaGSTe2* CDS of the TOL population was PCR amplified using primers listed in Table S2. PCR amplification was performed on newly synthesized cDNA from the TOL population using GoTaq G2 DNA Polymerase (Promega, Belgium) and the following 165 conditions: 1 cycle at 95 °C for 2 min; 35 cycles of 95 °C for 30s, 55 °C for 30s and 166 72 °C for 60 s; and 1 cycle at 72 °C for 5 min. The PCR products were purified using the E.Z.N.A Cycle Pure Kit (Omega Bio-Tek, Belgium) and then sequenced (LGC Genomics, Germany). The obtained *AaGSTe2* CDS of the TOL population was compared against the *An. arabiensis* reference (Dongola) strain and the *An. gambiae* reference (PEST) strain in VectorBase (Lawson et al., 2009).

2.3. Functional expression of *AaGSTd3* **and** *AaGSTe2 in vitro* **and protein purification**

 The *GSTd3* CDS of the *An. arabiensis* reference strain (AARA015764-RA at VectorBase) and *GSTe2* CDS of the *An. arabiensis* TOL population were used for protein expression. GST CDS were codon optimized for expression in *E. coli*, synthesized including a C-terminal 6x His-tag, and cloned into a pet-30a+ expression vector by Genscript (Piscataway, NJ, USA) (see Table S3 for codon optimized sequence of *AaGSTd3* and *AaGSTe2*). Expression plasmids were first transformed into a non-expression host, *E. coli* DH5α [Fermentas (Thermo Fisher Scientific), Belgium]. Purified plasmids were then sequenced to confirm sequence integrity (LGC Genomics, Germany). After transformation into the expression host, *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) competent cells (New England Biolabs, Belgium), a single colony containing recombinant plasmid was grown in 20 ml of LB low salt medium containing kanamycin at 37 °C overnight. This culture was used to inoculate 1000 ml LB low salt medium 186 and grown until the OD600 reached 0.8 at 37 $^{\circ}$ C. Expression was induced by adding 0.3 mM isopropyl β-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG) followed by an additional incubation at 188 28 °C for 20 h. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4000 rpm for 20 min, freeze-thawed, re-suspended in 80 ml cell lysis buffer containing 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), 0.5 M sodium chloride, 10 mM imidazole, 2% glycerol, and 0.14% mercapto-ethanol and disrupted by sonication for 30 min using 5 s bursts at low intensity (25%) with a 5 s cooling period between each burst on ice. Cell lysates were centrifuged at 7000 g at 4 °C for 30 min in a rotor to pellet the cellular debris and the supernatant was used for the purification. Purification was performed via Ni-NTA Agarose (Qiagen, Belgium) to purify recombinant proteins containing a 6x His-tagged sequence according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, one ml of resin was

 pipetted into a 10-ml column and, subsequently, this column was pre-equilibrated with 10 ml 100 mM PBS (pH 7.4). The supernatant was then loaded on the column, unbound proteins were washed by 10 ml wash buffer consisting of 100 mM PBS (pH 7.4), 500 mM NaCl, and a series of imidazole concentrations (20, 25 and 50 mM). Recombinant proteins were collected by adding 75 and 100 mM imidazole. The 10-kDa cutoff 202 PierceTM Protein concentrator [Fermentas (Thermo Fisher Scientific), Belgium] was used to remove imidazole and NaCl and to obtain a higher concentration of protein.

 Protein concentration was measured with the Bradford assay and the quality of the samples was monitored by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Western blotting as previously described (Bradford, 1976; Wybouw et al., 2012).

2.4. Determination of enzyme activity

 Glutathione peroxidase activity with cumene hydroperoxide (CHP) was determined using the method of Samra et al. (2012). Briefly, the reaction systems in UV-STAR 96- well microplates (Greiner bio-one, Belgium) comprised 100 mM potassium phosphate 212 buffer (pH 6.5), 2 µg AaGSTd3 or AaGSTe2, 1 mM cumene hydroperoxide (CMHP), 2 units of glutathione reductase from baker's yeast, 7.5 mM reduced Glutathione (GSH), 0.3 mM NADPH (all obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, Belgium). After incubation at 215 30 °C for 5 min, CMHP was added to initiate the reaction. The oxidation of NADPH was measured at 15 s intervals at A340 for 5 min. Wells lacking enzyme but containing all of the substrates served as blanks. The assays were performed in quadruplicate and repeated 3 times using a Biotek EON microplate spectrophotometer (Biotek, France).

 GST activity against the model substrates 1-chloro-2, 4-dinitrobenzene (CDNB) and 1,2-dichloro-4-nitrobenzene (DCNB) (Sigma-Aldrich, Belgium) was measured at 221 30 °C in clear UV-STAR 96-well microplates (Greiner bio-one, Belgium) according to the method of Habig et al. (1974). CDNB and DCNB were dissolved in ethanol first and then diluted with 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 6.5), while reduced GSH was dissolved in 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 6.5). The activity with 225 1 mM CDNB or DCNB and 5 mM reduced glutathione in 300 μ l was measured at A₃₄₀ for 5 min at 15 s intervals using a Biotek EON microplate spectrophotometer. Wells containing all reagents except enzyme served as control. The assays were performed in quadruplicate and repeated 3 times. Significant differences were tested using an independent t-test.

2.5. Kinetic studies

 The steady-state kinetic parameters of GST activity were determined for the CDNB conjugating reaction by using varying concentration of CDNB and keeping the GSH concentration fixed and vice versa. For AaGSTd3, the initial rates were determined in the presence of 2 mM GSH and varying concentrations of CDNB (0.01-2.5 mM), while at 2 mM of CDNB, GSH was used in the concentration range 0.6-10 mM. The assays were performed with 0.8 µg of AaGSTd3 in 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer at 237 30 °C (pH 6.5). For AaGSTe2, the initial rates were determined in the presence of 10 mM GSH and varying concentrations of CDNB (0.0025-1 mM), while CDNB was used at a fixed concentration of 1mM when GSH was used in the concentration range 0.416- 20 mM. The assays were performed with 50 ng of AaGSTe2 in 100 mM potassium 241 phosphate buffer at 30 $^{\circ}$ C (pH 6.5). Reactions containing all reagents except recombinant enzyme served as control. The assays were performed in quadruplicate and repeated 3 times. The assays were performed as described above in section 2.3. The kinetic constants were determined by fitting the Michaelis-Menten equation or Hill equation using SigmaPlot (Systat Software Inc., San Jose, CA). Significant differences were tested using an independent t-test.

2.6. Determination of DDT dehydrochlorinase activity using gas chromatography with electron capture detection (GC-ECD)

 The DDT dehydrochlorinase (DDTase) activity of AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2 was assessed using metabolic assays and confirmed with gas chromatography with an electron capture detector, GC-ECD (Agilent Technologies 6890 N) (see below) as previously described with some modifications (Mekonen et al., 2015). Metabolic assays were conducted at 30 °C for 6, 12, 24 and 36h while shaking at 150 rpm (Labnet 311DS) (Samra et al., 2012; Tao et al., 2022). The reaction system comprised 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 6.5), 10 mM GSH, 300 µg AaGSTd3 or AaGSTe2, and 3.4 µM 4,4'-DDT [PESTANAL® analytical standard with purity ≥ 98.0%; Sigma- Aldrich (Belgium) product number 31041] in acetone (the final concentration of acetone in the reaction system was 1.2%), in a total volume of 1 ml, which was carried out in 7 ml Supelco vials (Sigma-Aldrich, Belgium). Control samples contained the 260 same reagent mixture with the boiled recombinant enzyme $(90 °C)$ for 10 min) or the same reagent mixture without GSH. Samples with only 4,4'-DDT or 4,4'-DDE 262 [PESTANAL® analytical standard with purity $\geq 98.0\%$; Sigma-Aldrich (Belgium) product number 35487] in acetone, and 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer were used to evaluate recovery efficiency for each time point. Four replicates were assessed for each time point and for each GST.

266 After the reaction, 4 mL of 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 6.5) was added to the reaction volume to analyze DDT and possible DDT metabolites. A validated analytical method was used. DDT and its possible metabolites were extracted using a liquid-liquid extraction method from the water phase into the hexane phase by adding 5 mL hexane and then shaking by hand for at least 3 min. Hexane solutions were dried 271 with anhydrous $Na₂SO₄$ and were transferred to glass vials. The compounds were detected using an Agilent 6890N Network gas chromatograph with an auto-sampler, coupled to an electron capture detector (Agilent Technologies, Belgium). Separation was performed on a HP-5MS (5% phenyl methyl siloxane) capillary column (30 m 275 length \times 0.25 mm internal diameter, 0.25 µm film thickness) (Model number Agilent 19091 J-433). The operating conditions were as follows: The column was initially set 277 at a temperature of 60 °C, then increased at a rate of 20 °C/min to 150 °C. It was further 278 increased at a rate of 15 °C/min to 250 °C and held constant for 2 min, followed by an 279 increase at a rate of 30 \degree C/min to 270 \degree C and held constant for 10 min. It was finally 280 increased at a rate of 30 °C/min to 280 °C and held constant for 11 min. The temperature 281 of the injector and detector were maintained at 200 \degree C and 250 \degree C, respectively. Helium was used as a carrier gas at a flow rate of 20 mL/min, and the injections were made in the split mode with a split ratio of 52.7:1. The Agilent GC ChemStation version Rev. A.10.02 software was used for system control and data acquisition and analysis. The quantities of DDT and DDE were calculated with an external standard.

 The recovery efficiency was calculated based on the theoretical amount of DDT/DDE and used to calculate the concentration of DDT and DDE in control and treatment samples, to compensate for the loss during the extraction. The amount of DDE in a DDT sample was subtracted for the calculation of newly formed DDE as the standard 290 4,4'-DDT is not 100% pure (purity \geq 98.0%, see above). The DDTase activity is expressed as nmol of DDE formation/mg of enzyme protein (Che-Mendoza et al., 2009; Udomsinprasert et al., 2005).

2.7. Protein modeling and molecular docking

 A structural model for AaGSTd3 was predicted using the Swiss-model server (http://swissmodel.expasy.org/) using the protein sequence of AaGSTd3 from the TOL population (identical to GSTd3 of the *An. arabiensis* reference (Dongola) strain). The crystal structure of GST1-6 from *Anopheles dirus* species B (PDB code: 1v2a.1.B) was automatically selected by the server as the most suitable template for model construction, with 85% sequence identity and with the sequence diversity being mainly located at the C-terminal domain. The model revealed a global model quality estimation (GMQE) score of 0.93. The model was also evaluated by SAVES V5.0 (http://servicesn.mbi.ucla.edu/SAVES/) and ProQ (http://prop.bioinfo.se/cgi- bin/ProQ/ProQ.cgi). Molecular docking was performed using the Swiss-Dock server and the EADock DSS (http://www.swissdock.ch/) software. The crystal structure of *An. dirus* GST1-6 has glutathione sulfonic acid (GTS) as a cofactor instead of GSH, which did not allow to predict GSH as a cofactor of AaGSTd3 using Swiss Model server (Udomsinprasert et al., 2005). Hence, molecular docking simulation needed to be performed for both DDT and GSH for AaGSTd3. The binding modes were generated via the blind docking method to check the possibility for all target cavities. The Chemistry at HARvard Macromolecular Mechanics (CHAEMM) energies were estimated using empirical energy functions, then binding modes were evaluated with Fast Analytical Continuum Treatment of Solvation (FACTS) based on the fully analytical evaluation of the volume and spatial symmetry of the solvent (Brooks et al., 1983; Haberthür and Caflisch, 2008). The model and docking results were visualized using PyMOL v2.0.7 software (DeLano, 2002). A structural model for AaGSTe2 from the TOL population was predicted using the Swiss-model server and the crystal structure of GSTe2 ZAN/U variant from *Anopheles gambiae* (PDB code: 4gsn.1). The GMQE score was 0.99. The crystal structure of *An. gambiae* GSTe2 ZAN/U has two GSH ligands as a cofactor and, using Swiss Model server, allowed to predict GSH as a cofactor of AaGSTe2 (Mitchell et al., 2014). Hence, for AaGSTe2, molecular docking simulation only needed to be performed for DDT. DDT docking and visualization was performed as described for AaGSTd3.

3. Results

3.1. *AaGSTd3* **is overexpressed in DDT resistant anopheline mosquito populations**

327 A previous RNAseq study, showed that *GSTd3* was overexpressed in DDT-resistant *An*. *arabiensis* populations ASN, CHW, and TOL (Simma et al., 2019) and *GSTd3* overexpression was evaluated in this study using RT-qPCR. *AaGSTd3* is 3.7, 2.5, and 3.5-fold overexpressed in ASN, CHW, and TOL compared to the DDT-susceptible 331 population SEK $(P < 0.05)$ (Figure S1).

 Based on a literature search, *GSTd3* is also commonly overexpressed in other resistant anopheline mosquito populations (Fossog Tene et al., 2013; Ibrahim et al., 2022; Ingham et al., 2018; Isaacs et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2012; Kouamo et al., 2021; Nardini et al., 2012; Riveron et al., 2014a; Riveron et al., 2017; Samb et al., 2016; Simma et al., 2019; Tchigossou et al., 2018; Toé et al., 2015; Wipf et al., 2022). Among 50 exposed and unexposed anopheline populations that were resistant to DDT, RNAseq analysis revealed that *GSTd3* was overexpressed in 37 populations while both *GSTd3* and *GSTe2* were overexpressed (fold change > 2) in 19 populations (Figure 1, Table S1). Noteworthy, *GSTd3* was also overexpressed in some malathion and/or pyrethroid resistant populations where the resistance level to DDT was unknown (Table S1).

3.2. *AaGSTd3* **and** *AaGSTe2* **sequence of the DDT resistant TOL population**

 The *An. arabiensis GSTd3* CDS of the DDT and deltamethrin resistant TOL population did not show non-synonymous nucleotide polymorphisms compared to the susceptible SEK population and the *An. arabiensis* reference (Dongola) strain (data not shown). However, the *An. arabiensis GSTe2* CDS of the TOL population did show three non- synonymous nucleotide polymorphisms compared to the *An. arabiensis* reference (Dongola) strain (G61A, G139T and G461C resulting in A21T, V47L, and S154T), while two non-synonymous polymorphisms were found compared to *GSTe2* of the *An. gambiae* reference (PEST) strain (C9G and G139T, resulting in N3K and V47L) (Figure S2 and Table S4).

3.3. Heterologous expression and purification of *AaGSTd3* **and** *AaGSTe2*

 AaGSTd3 and *AaGSTe2* were expressed using *E. coli* and successfully purified, as verified by both SDS-PAGE and Western blot (Figure S3). For both AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2, a single band at 25 kDa was observed, which is approximately the expected molecular weight of these proteins (including the C-terminal His tag). The yield of recombinant AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2 was about 40 mg protein /L LB broth.

3.4. Substrate specificities for model substrates and kinetic parameters

 Both AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2 displayed CDNB-conjugating activity and glutathione peroxidase activity as measured by the GSH-dependent reduction of CHP. However, the activity towards model substrates was higher for AaGSTe2 (Table 1) and also the glutathione peroxidase activity was threefold higher when compared to AaGSTd3.

 Analysis of Michaelis-Menten kinetics revealed that CDNB is a better substrate for recombinant AaGSTe2 than for recombinant AaGSTd3, as evidenced by the higher 365 V_{max} and k_{cat} values and lower K_m^{CDNB} . The K_m^{CDNB} value of AaGSTd3 is 136-fold 366 higher than the value of AaGSTe2, while the K_m^{GSH} value for recombinant AaGSTe2 was higher than for recombinant AaGSTd3 (Table 2).

3.5. AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2 exhibited DDT dehydrochlorinase activity

 The recovery of DDT and DDE after extraction ranged between 100% and 112% or 370 between 82% and 106%, respectively, with an average of $104 \pm 3\%$ or $96 \pm 5\%$. DDT metabolism was observed for both AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2. However, the DDTase activity of AaGSTe2 (100% DDT depletion after 6 h reaction in the presence of the cofactor GSH) was much higher than AaGSTd3 (7.4% DDT depletion after 6 h reaction in the presence of the cofactor GSH). For AaGSTd3, the amount of DDE increased over time while the amount of DDT decreased over time (DDTase activity 376 was 0.36 ± 0.01 , 0.75 ± 0.04 , 1.01 ± 0.07 , and 1.34 ± 0.15 nmol of DDE formation per mg protein at 6, 12, 24, and 36 h). However, for AaGSTe2, at 6 h, only very few DDE was left and no DDT was detected. After 6h incubation, neither DDT nor DDE were detected (Figure 2A, B, E, F). Control assays with no GSH or denatured recombinant AaGSTd3 had no detectable DDE production. However, control assays with no GSH but with AaGSTe2 did show DDTase activity albeit at lower rate (DDTase activity 382 was 1.55 ± 0.20 , 3.69 ± 0.09 , 4.58 ± 0.21 , and 6.28 ± 0.11 nmol of DDE formation per

383 mg at 6, 12, 24, and 36 h) (Figure 2C, D, E, F). Values are shown as mean \pm SE.

3.6. Prediction of AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2 structures and docking of DDT

 The predicted monomer of AaGSTd3 were divided into two distinct domains. The C-386 terminal domain (residues 86-210) consisted of 5 α -helices (H4-H8) in which the long α -helix H4 was not significantly bent (Figure 3, 4A). The active site can be further divided into a co-factor GSH-binding site (G-site), where one GSH molecule was bound, and a neighboring substrate-binding site (H-site), which recognizes the hydrophobic substrate. The predicted G-site in AaGSTd3 was mainly formed by Glu63, Ser64, Lys105, and Lys127 with hydrogen bonds, which were hydrophilic in nature. These four hydrogen bonds possibly form a three-dimensional hydrogen-bond-network to stabilize GSH (Figure 4C, D). The G-site in AaGSTe2 was mainly formed by His53, Ile55, Glu67, Ser68, and Arg112 with hydrogen bonds (Figure 4G, H). Comparing the 3D structure of AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2 revealed that H2 in AaGSTe2 was closer to β2 compared to AaGSTd3, and H8 was a few residues longer than in AaGSTd3.

 The most favorable binding mode for 4,4'-DDT was in the H-site of AaGSTd3, with a Gibbs free energy (ΔG) of -6.92 kcal/mol. The H-site of AaGSTd3 had an open hydrophobic pocket adjacent to the G-site. The contributing residues for this putative DDT-binding site included Ser6, Ile8, Ser9, Pro10, Thr31, Asn32, Ile33, Ile51, Ile108, Ile111, and Val115 within 4Å distance, most of which were hydrophobic in nature, while Ser6, Ser9, Thr31, and Asn32 were hydrophilic (Figure 5A, C).

 The most favorable binding mode for 4,4'-DDT was in the H-site of AaGSTe2, with a ΔG of -7.65 kcal/mol. The contributing residues for this putative DDT-binding included Leu9, Leu11, Ser12, Pro13, Leu36, Leu37, Thr54, Ile55, Phe108, Met111, Arg112, Phe115, Glu116, Leu119, Phe120, Leu207, and Phe210 within 4Å distance (Figure 5E, G). Comparing the predicted DDT-binding sites of AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2 revealed that for AaGSTd3 H4 of the H-site is not bent, while for AaGSTe2, H4 of the H-site is bent and forms a closed state pocket. Further, a closer distance between the 4,4'-DDT molecule and GSH was observed for AaGSTe2. Last, the predicted DDT-binding pocket for AaGSTe2 was surrounded by more residues - including residues from H8 - forming a nearly closed state, while the pocket for AaGSTd3 was an open state, although both of them were not predicted to have hydrogen bonds to stabilize 4,4'-DDT.

4. Discussion

 GSTs confer resistance to insecticides by metabolizing - either via conjugation or dehydrochlorination - or sequestering pesticides. In addition, GSTs display peroxidase activity which can protect arthropods such as insects and mites against oxidative stress caused by insecticides and acaricides (Pavlidi et al., 2018). In mosquitoes, the epsilon class GST, GSTe2, has been frequently implicated in resistance against DDT. *GSTe2* was overexpressed in DDT-resistant *An. gambiae*, *An funestus* and *Ae. aegypti*, and the recombinant GSTe2s of these species could efficiently dehydrochlorinate DDT (Ding et al., 2003; Lumjuan et al., 2005; Ortelli et al., 2003; Riveron et al., 2014b). In addition, overexpression of *GSTe2* in transgenic mosquitoes conferred DDT resistance (Adolfi et al., 2019). Remarkably, a delta class GST gene, *GSTd3*, was also reported to be overexpressed in DDT/pyrethroid resistant *An. arabiensis*, *An. gambiae*, *An. coluzzii* and *An. funestus* populations (see Figure1/Table S1 for overview and references). Notably, overexpression of *GSTd3* occurs more frequently than *GSTe2* overexpression in DDT resistant anopheline populations (37 vs 30, Figure 1, Table S1), suggesting that *GSTd3* might be used as a resistance marker. However, in contrast to GSTe2, GSTd3 metabolism of DDT has not yet been investigated, or at least reported, and therefore we compare in this study the AaGSTd3 metabolism of DDT with that of AaGSTe2.

 Both CDNB-conjugating and glutathione peroxidase activity was observed for AaGSTe2 and AaGSTd3. AaGSTe2 exhibited a significantly higher activity towards CDNB and showed higher glutathione peroxidase activity compared to AaGSTd3. Previously characterized AgGSTe2 CDNB-conjugating activity (12.5 µmol/mg/min) was found to be more than two-fold lower, but with similar kinetic parameters, compared to AaGSTe2. In contrast, glutathione peroxidase activity was not detected for AgGSTe2 in previous reports (Lumjuan et al., 2005; Ortelli et al., 2003). DDTase activity was also observed for both AaGSTe2 and AaGSTd3, with AaGSTd3 DDTase activity being slightly lower compared to previously characterized isoforms of *An. gambiae* GSTd1 (AgGSTd1-5 and AgGSTd1-6) but more than 80-fold lower than *An. dirus* GSTd5 and *A. sinensis* GSTd2 (Che-Mendoza et al., 2009; Ranson et al., 1998; Ranson et al., 1997; Tao et al., 2022; Udomsinprasert et al., 2005). However, caution is needed when comparing studies, as experimental conditions can significantly differ 446 (e.g. 2 hour incubation assay at 28° C or 30° C and DDE detection with HPLC, compared to 6 hour incubation at 30°C and DDE detection with GC-ECD in this study) (Prapanthadara et al., 1993; Ranson et al., 1997; Tao et al., 2022). AaGSTe2, on the other hand, completely degraded DDT and DDE in the presence of GSH, while without GSH AaGSTe2 DDTase activity was almost four times higher than DDTase activity of

 AaGSTd3 with GSH. Of important note, the DDTase activity of AaGSTe2 without GSH was about 1000-fold lower than the previously reported DDTase activity of AgGSTe2 with GSH (Ortelli et al., 2003). Complete degradation of DDE by AaGSTe2 has not yet been reported before, but might, as mentioned above, be due to different reaction conditions. It could be that, when GSTe2 is incubated with DDT for a longer period, AaGSTe2 reacts with DDE to form more water-soluble substrates (GS-DDE) or even degrades DDE beyond DDD and, consequently, DDE can no longer be extracted using organic solvents and detected by GC-ECD.

 Molecular modeling showed that AaGSTd3 has a positive DDT-binding capability. The most favorable binding mode for 4,4'-DDT was in the H-site of AaGSTd3 which had an open hydrophobic pocket adjacent to the G-site, suggesting appropriate shape and location of this pocket for DDT-binding capability. Surprisingly, a highly conserved G- site residue in delta GSTs (Ser9) is missing in our docking model, which is in line with DmGSTd2 and AdGSTd4-4 (Gonzalez et al., 2018; Vararattanavech and Ketterman, 2007). It could also imply that AaGSTd3 needs further formational change. Our prediction of the AaGSTe2 protein structure and DDT docking was largely in line with the findings of Wang et al. for AgGSTe2 (2008). Docking of DDT revealed that AaGSTe2 has the same V-shaped DDT-binding pocket as AfGSTe2 and AgGSTe2, but with the angle/shape of docked DDT differing between *Anopheles* GSTs, which could be due to the protein sequence differences between *Anopheles* GSTe2s or different docking software (Riveron et al., 2014b; Wang et al., 2008). Previous studies also showed that the better performance of GSTe2 could be caused by a larger entry site for DDT, a more efficient hydrogen bond network to stabilize GSH, and a better-sealed hydrophobic DDT pocket (Low et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2008). Indeed, by comparing the predicted DDT-binding sites of AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2, it was found that H4 of the H-site of AaGSTd3 is different from AaGSTe2, with H4 being bent and forming a closed state pocket in *Anopheles* GSTe2 (Riveron et al., 2014b). In addition, the predicted DDT-binding pocket for AaGSTe2 also comprised more residues compared to AaGSTd3, forming a nearly closed state. Altogether, our molecular docking experiments could explain higher DDT-detoxifying activity of AaGSTe2. In addition, a closer position between chlorine atoms of DDT and the sulfur atom of glutathione was also observed in AaGSTe2, which might facilitate the elimination of HCl from DDT to form DDE (Low et al., 2010; Wongsantichon et al., 2012).

 Although *GSTe2* is well known to confer DDT resistance, in some DDT/pyrethroid field resistant populations from Africa, *GSTe2* is not always highly expressed nor is the *GSTe2* L119F resistance mutation present, suggesting that additional mechanisms are involved in DDT resistance in mosquitoes (Riveron et al., 2015; Simma et al., 2019; Thomsen et al., 2014). Although AaGSTd3 metabolizes DDT to a lesser extent

 compared to AaGSTe2 and has lower peroxidase activity, its consistent overexpression in DDT resistant anopheline populations suggests that it might have a significant role in DDT resistance. A possible explanation might be that GSTd3 rather sequesters than metabolizes DDT. In this light, AaGSTd3 does have a five-fold higher affinity for GSH compared to AaGSTe2 and previously it has been suggested that GSTs with high affinity for GSH evolved towards increased product binding at the expense of catalytic efficiency (Meyer, 1993). Alternatively, *GSTd3* might be co-regulated with other resistance genes, and make part of a more general stress response.

 To conclude, both *GSTd3* and *GSTe2* of *An. arabiensis* were expressed and functionally characterized. CDNB-conjugating, DDTase and glutathione peroxidase activity of AaGSTd3 was lower compared to AaGSTe2. Protein modeling and DDT docking also suggested a better fit of DDT within the H-site AaGSTe2. This suggests that the contribution of AaGSTd3 towards DDT resistance in *Anopheles* mosquitoes is minor compared to that of AaGSTe2. However, the consistent overexpression of this gene in DDT resistant *Anopheles* mosquitoes, does suggest that *AaGSTd3* might have a significant role in resistance. Future experiments should focus on confirming the role of AaGSTd3 in DDT resistance, for example via genetically modified mosquitoes overexpressing *AaGSTd3* (as was done by Adolfi et al. for *AgGSTe2*), and investigate whether AaGSTd3 rather contributes to DDT resistance via sequestration instead of direct metabolism (Adolfi et al., 2019).

5. Author contributions

 TVL and WD conceived and designed study, while PS provided resources. XPL performed experiments. XPL, TVL and WD analyzed data. XPL and ES wrote the manuscript, with input from WD and TVL. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

- **6. Declaration of Competing Interest**
- The authors declare no competing of interest.

7. Acknowledgments

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9. Figure legends

Figure 1. Expression levels of *GSTd3* **and** *GSTe2* **in anopheline mosquito populations resistant to DDT**

 GSTd3 and *GSTe2* expression levels [log2(fold change (FC)] derived from previously published RNAseq studies with DDT resistant populations of *An. arabiensis*, *An. coluzzi, An gambiae s.s.*, *An. gambiae* s.l. and *An. funestus*. A horizontal line indicates a log2FC of 1. An asterisk indicates that the L119F resistance mutation was reported for GSTe2 (Riveron et al., 2017). Details for each differential expression analysis can be found in Table S1.

Figure 2. DDT Metabolic activity assays with AaGSTe2 and AaGSTd3

 (A) Concentration of DDT and its metabolite DDE at different time points in a reaction mix including AaGSTd3, GSH, and DDT. (B) Concentration of DDT and its metabolite DDE at different time points in a reaction mix system including AaGSTe2, GSH, and DDT. (C) Concentration of DDT in a reaction mix with only AaGSTd3 and DDT. (D) Concentration of DDT and its metabolite DDE in a reaction mix with only AaGSTe2 and DDT. (E) DDTase activity of AaGSTd3 with (grey bars) or without GSH (black bars). (F) DDTase activity for AaGSTe2 with (grey bars) or without GSH (black bars). A low or no DDTase activity was shown for AaGSTe2 (grey bars) as only little DDE could be detected at 6h while at other time- points DDT could not be detected. An asterisk indicates the treatment group at 6h is significantly different from the control group at 6h (detailed information can be found in Figure S4). Different letters a, b, c, d (or A, B, C, D) indicate statistically significant differences 544 between groups (one-way ANOVA, $P < 0.05$).

Figure 3. Multiple sequence alignment of *An. arabiensis* **delta and epsilon class GSTs with those of insects**

 GST protein sequences were aligned using BioEdit v. 7.2.5 (Hall, 1999). BmGSTD (3VK9), NIGSTD (3WYW), LmGSTD1(AEB91971), DmGSTD1(3EIN), AfGSTE2 (3ZML), AgGSTD1-6 (1PN9), and AdGSTD4-4 (3F63) were used in this study, which can be accessed at the NCBI (*L. migratoria*) or the RCSB Protein Data Bank (PDB accessions, other insects). Identical and highly similar residues are shaded black and grey, respectively. The positions of β sheets (β1-β4) and α-helices (H1-H8) in the AaGSTd3 protein sequence were derived from the AaGSTd3 3D-model predicted by the Swiss-model server and are shown on top of the alignment. The predicted GSH-binding pocket is indicated with an asterisk. The predicted DDT-binding pockets are indicated with black squares. Bm: *Bombyx mori*; NI: *Nilaparvata*

lugens; Lm: *Locusta migratoria*; Dm: *Drosophila melanogaster*; Af: *Anopheles funestus*; Ag:

Anopheles gambiae; Ad: *Anopheles duris*.

Figure 4. Structural features of AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2 protein model

 (A) Ribbon representation of the AaGSTd3 monomer. The N-terminal domain is shown in purple, the C-terminal domain is shown in blue. (B) Ribbon representation of the AaGSTd3 homodimer. (C) Predicted residues that may contribute in the interaction of the GSH-binding pockets in AaGSTd3. Hydrogen bonds are shown in red. (D) Predicted surface representation of GSH binding in the AaGSTd3 protein model. (E) Ribbon representation of the AaGSTe2 monomer. The N-terminal domain is shown in purple while the C-terminal domain is shown in blue. (F) Ribbon representation of the AaGSTe2 homodimer. (G) Predicted residues that may contribute in the interaction of the GSH-binding pockets in AaGSTe2. Hydrogen bonds are shown in red. (H) Predicted surface representation of GSH binding in the AaGSTe2 protein model.

Figure 5. Predicted interactions between AaGSTd3 or AaGSTe2 residues and 4,4'-DDT

 (A) Predicted residues that may contribute to the interaction of AaGSTd3 with 4,4'-DDT. (B) Predicted surface representation of the DDT-binding pockets of AaGSTd3. (C) Predicted residues that may contribute in the interaction of AaGSTd3 with a GSH and a DDT molecule. (D) Predicted surface representation of the DDT-binding pockets in AaGSTd3. The bound GSH molecule is also represented. Hydrogen bonds are shown in red. (E) Predicted residues that may contribute to the interaction of AaGSTe2 with 4,4'-DDT. (F) Predicted surface representation of the DDT-binding pockets of AaGSTe2. (G) Predicted residues that may contribute to the interaction of AaGSTe2 with a GSH and a DDT molecule. (H) Predicted surface representation of the DDT-binding pockets in AaGSTe2. The bound GSH molecule is also depicted. Hydrogen bonds are shown in red.

10. Supplementary figure legends

Figure S1. Relative expression levels of *GSTd3* **in DDT resistant populations of** *An. arabiensis*

 Relative expression levels (fold change) of the *GSTd3* gene in highly DDT resistant *Anopheles arabiensis* populations ASN, CHW and TOL compared to a susceptible population SEK as assessed by RT-qPCR. An asterisk indicates a significant difference from 1 based on an 586 independent t test $(P < 0.05)$.

Figure S2. Multiple sequence alignment of *An. arabiensis* **and** *An. gambiae GSTe2*

Alignment between *AaGSTe2* protein sequence of the TOL population, the AaGSTe2 protein

sequence (VectorBase ID: AARA008732) of the *An. arabiensis* reference strain (Dongola), and

- the AgGSTe2 protein sequence (VectorBase ID: AGAP009194) of the *An. gambiae* reference
- (PEST) strain. A square indicates previously reported resistance mutations (I114T, L119F) for
- GSTe2, but these mutations were not found in the TOL population (Mitchell et al., 2014;
- Riveron et al., 2014b). BioEdit v. 7.2.5 (Hall, 1999) was used for aligning sequences.

Figure S3. SDS-PAGE and Western blot of purified fractions of recombinantly expressed GST protein

- SDS-PAGE (A) and Western blot (B) showing the expression of the AaGSTe2 and AaGSTd3
- 597 protein. Lane 1: molecular weight marker (Precision Plus ProteinTM All Blue Prestained Protein
- Standard). Lane 2: purified His-tagged AaGSTd3. Lane 3: purified His-tagged AaGSTe2. Lane
- 599 4: molecular weight marker (Precision Plus Protein™ Unstained Protein Standard).

Figure S4. DDT Metabolic activity assays with AaGSTe2 and AaGSTd3

 DDT metabolic activity assays with AaGSTd3 were performed at 6h (A), 12h (B), 24h (C), and 36h (D). DDT metabolic activity assays with AaGSTe2 were performed at 6h (E), 12h (F), 24h (G), and 36h (H). DDT, a reaction system including DDT only; DDE, a reaction system including DDE only; Control, a reaction system including boiled GST, DDT and GSH; Without GSH, a reaction system including GST and DDT; GSH, a reaction system including GST, DDT and GSH. An asterisk indicates a significant difference from the control group at each time point.

11. References

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958 **12. Tables**

959 **Table 1. Substrate specificities of AaGSTd3 and AaGSTe2 against the model substrates CDNB, DCNB, and CuOOH**

960 n.d: not detected (under assay conditions)

961 An asterisk indicates a significant difference from AaGSTd3 based on an independent t test (*P* < 0.05).

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965 **Table2. Kinetic parameters of recombinant** *Anopheles arabiensis* **GSTs**

966 Three independent assays were performed and four technical replicates were used in each independent assay. Results show mean \pm SE. One unit (U) is the 967 amount of enzyme that catalyzes the reaction of 1 µmol of substrate per minute at pH 6.5 and 30°C. An asterisk indicates a significant difference from 968 AaGSTd3 based on an independent t test $(P < 0.05)$.

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13. Supplementary Tables

- **Table S1. Relative expression level of** *GSTd3* **and** *GSTe2* **in anopheline mosquito populations**
- **Table S2. Primers used in this study**
- **Table S3. Codon optimized sequence of** *AaGSTd3* **and** *AaGSTe2* **for expression in** *Escherichia coli*
- **Table S4. CDS of** *AaGSTe2* **from reference (Dongola) and the resistant TOL population and CDS of** *AgGSTe2* **from reference (PEST) population.**

GSTd3 GSTe2

