- Selectivity and molecular stress responses to classical and botanical
- 2 acaricides in the predatory mite Phytoseiulus persimilis Athias-
- Henriot (Acari: Phytoseiidae).
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Abstract

 BACKGROUND: Acaricide application remains an integral component of IPM for the two-spotted 34 spider mite Tetranychus urticae. Species and strains of phytoseiid predatory mites can vary significantly in their response to acaricides. For the success of IPM, it is imperative to identify the determinants of selectivity and molecular stress responses of acaricides in predatory mites.

 RESULTS: The three classical acaricides bifenazate, cyflumetofen, and fenbutatin oxide did not 38 affect survival and fecundity of *Phytoseiulus persimilis* regardless of the route of exposure. Selectivity of the orange oil- and terpenoid blend- based botanical acaricides was low via a combination of direct exposure, acaricide-laced diet, and residual exposure but improved when limiting exposure only to the diet. To gain insights into the molecular stress responses, the 42 transcriptome of P. persimilis was assembled. Subsequent gene expression analysis of predatory 43 mites orally exposed to fenbutatin oxide and orange oil yielded only a limited xenobiotic stress 44 response. In contrast, *P. persimilis* exhibited target-site resistance mutations, including I260M in SdhB, I1017M in CHS1, and kdr and super-kdr in VGSC. Extending the screen using available Phytoseiidae sequences uncovered I136T, S141F in cytb, G119S in AChE, and A2083V in ACC, well-known target sites of acaricides.

48 CONCLUSION: Selectivity of the tested botanical acaricides to P. persimilis was low but could be enhanced by restricting exposure to a single route. Differential gene expression analysis did not show a robust induced stress response after sub-lethal exposure. In contrast, this study uncovered target-site mutations that may help explain the physiological selectivity of several classical acaricides to phytoseiid predators.

⁷⁴ 1. Introduction

75 Predatory mites, mainly from the family Phytoseiidae, are key Biological Control Agents (BCAs), 76 reducing the populations of a range of agricultural pests, including spider mites, thrips, and 77 whiteflies. Amblyseius swirskii Athias-Henriot, Phytoseiulus persimilis Athias-Henriot, Neoseiulus 78 californicus McGregor, and N. cucumeris Oudemans are among the most economically important 79 arthropod BCAs used in augmentative biological control¹.

80 Due to its economic importance and global distribution, *P. persimilis* is the species attracting the 81 most interest and has been the focus of the largest number of studies among Phytoseiidae 82 predators ². P. persimilis is a specialist that feeds primarily on the herbivorous Tetranychidae 83 spider mites and has been employed worldwide to control spider mite populations infesting 84 various crops³.

85 The two-spotted spider mite, Tetranychus urticae Koch (Acari: Tetranychidae), a major 86 polyphagous pest in greenhouses and field crops, is the main target of P. persimilis⁴. T. urticae is 87 characterized by a tremendous reproductive potential, short generation time, and an 88 arrhenotokous mode of reproduction, allowing unfertilized females to lay eggs. *Phytoseiulus* 89 persimilis mediated strategies successfully keep T. urticae damage below the economic threshold 90 level, in a range of greenhouse crops. However, chemical control remains an integral component 91 of spider mite management $5,6$. Spider mite outbreaks can often only be contained by the tandem 92 use of acaricides with distinctive modes of action (MoAs)⁷. It is clear that exposure of naive P. 93 persimilis to acaricides may reduce the efficacy of augmentative control and, consequently, the 94 success of an integrated pest management (IPM) program 8 .

95 The global acaricide portfolio recommended for spider mite control continues to evolve $9,10$. As a 96 general trend, older chemistries like organophosphates and carbamates are gradually replaced

97 with more selective compounds . Among classical acaricides, electron transport inhibition at the mitochondrial respiratory chain has been a remarkably successful MoA. Several commercial 99 acaricides target these processes at different sites . Mitochondrial electron transport Inhibitors (METI) III, like bifenazate inhibiting cytochrome b at the Q0-site in complex III (IRAC group 20) ^{13,14}, METI II including cyflumetofen specifically inhibiting complex II and most likely interacting 102 with succinate dehydrogenase subunits B (SDhB) and C (SdhC) (IRAC group 25)¹⁵ and acaricides that directly interfere with ATP synthesis at complex V (IRAC group 12), such as the organotin 104 compound fenbutatin oxide are known for their excellent efficacy in controlling spider mites 12 . Surprisingly, despite their conserved mode of action in the mitochondria, many of these compounds are fairly selective, not only between insects and mites but also between 107 Tetranychidae and Phytoseiidae $5,16-18$.

 A number of botanical extracts with often non-specified MoA, have been recently included in the 109 IRAC MoA classification scheme as part of the 'biologics' group . Botanicals have gained considerable attention in agriculture, addressing the need for inexpensive, easily sourced, and 111 biodegradable alternatives to classical pesticides . Prev-Am and Requiem are novel botanical products recommended to manage soft-bodied arthropod pests, including spider mites. Prev- Am (60 g/L active ingredient 'organge oil') consists of a naturally occurring essential oil extracted 114 from orange peel rich in D-limonene, the main constituent of the terpenoid fractions . Requiem (153 g/L active ingredient 'terpenoid blend') is a synthetic terpenoid blend composed of D-116 limonene, p-cymene, and α -terpinene, mimicking the terpene composition of Mexican tea, 117 Chenopodium ambrosioides²².

118 Selective toxicity is an essential quality for acaricides, particularly the ones used in IPM programs. 119 Selectivity can be attained either on the ecological or physiological level 23 . Ecological selectivity builds on the bio-ecology of a given arthropod and exploits its habitat characteristics allowing for

121 the accommodation of compounds essential for plant protection that are otherwise non-selective. 122 The physiological selectivity accounts for similarities and differences in toxicokinetics (TK) and 123 toxicodynamics (TD) pathways. The TK mechanisms encompass physiological pathways that 124 determine if and how much of the pesticide reaches the target site and include penetration, 125 activation, metabolism, transport, and excretion processes. TD mechanisms describe a toxicant's 126 interactions with its target site and the biological consequences of this interaction 24 . In addition 127 to the intrinsic differences between arthropod species, exposure to pesticides and selection leads 128 to the development of resistance in both pests and BCAs, which is generally caused by decreased 129 exposure due to quantitative or qualitative changes in major detoxification enzymes and 130 transporters (TK) and/or mechanisms that decrease sensitivity due to changes in target site 131 sequence (TD) $24,25$.

132 Many studies have previously addressed the issue of compatibility between P. persimilis and 133 acaricides, some of them simultaneously investigating compounds from different MoA groups, 134 including classical and botanical acaricides $26-28$. Although most studies test only a single 135 population of a certain predatory mite species, it becomes apparent that different strains of P. 136 persimilis vary in their susceptibility to a given MoA 26,29,30 and are capable of developing acaricide 137 resistance as a result of selection pressure $25,31,32$.

138 Compatibility achieved by acquiring heritable insecticide/acaricide resistance has been a highly 139 desirable characteristic for commercial BCAs $25,33,34$. However, the molecular mechanisms behind 140 varying susceptibility to acaricides in Phytoseiidae mites remain largely unknown. In several 141 phytoseiid species, the mechanism of acaricide detoxification has been studied exclusively via 142 biochemical assays and with acaricide synergists, and target site resistance has been studied to 143 an even lesser degree $23,35$. Transcriptomic studies on phytoseiid mites rarely address the 144 molecular mechanism of acaricide adaptation 36 . The general lack of genomic and transcriptomic resources for Phytoseiidae impedes the development of functional genetic tools and 146 ecotoxicological biomarkers assessing acaricide effects and the health status of a predator $33,34$. This study attempted to explore the prospect of increasing ecological selectivity and simultaneously investigated the molecular basis of physiological selectivity of three classical selective acaricides, fenbutatin oxide, cyflumetofen, bifenazate, and two plant-based botanical 150 acaricides, Prev-Am and Requiem, towards the predatory mite P. persimilis. The survival and 151 fecundity of P. persimilis were assessed following acaricide administration via different routes: direct contact, pesticide-laced diet (prey), or a combination of diet, direct and residual contact. The transcriptomic changes affiliated with oral exposure to sublethal doses of fenbutatin oxide and Prev-Am were explored. Further, the transcripts encoding known target sites of acaricides 155 routinely used against T. urticae were identified in the search for single nucleotide substitutions 156 (SNP) potentially associated with acaricide target-site based selectivity in P. persimilis. Lastly, a comprehensive search of NCBI databases was performed to estimate the incidence of acaricide-target site mutations across predatory mite species within the family Phytoseiidae.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Chemicals

 Commercial formulations of the mitochondrial complex III electron transport inhibitors bifenazate 162 (Floramite® 240 g L⁻¹ SC) and cyflumetofen (Scelta® 20 g L⁻¹ SC) were purchased from Intergrow 163 (Aalter, Belgium). Fenbutatin oxide (Torque® 550 g L⁻¹) was originally bought from Fyto Vanhulle 164 (Belgium). The commercial formulation of orange oil (Prev-Am® Plus 60 g L⁻¹ SL) was purchased from Intergrow (Aalter, Belgium). Orange oil is a common name for an extract from the rind of 166 Citrus aurantium of which D-limonene is the active substance at a content of 94.5 – 96.5 %. Bayer CropScience (Diegem, Belgium) provided an experimental sample of terpenoid blend QRD 460

168 (Requiem 152.3 g L-¹ SC). Terpenoid blend QRD 460 consists of three components: α -terpinene, 169 p-cymene and D-limonene. The nominal concentration of each technical grade component in the 170 active substance as manufactured is as follows: α-terpinene 59.7% w/w, p-cymene 22.4% w/w, D-171 limonene 17.9% w/w. Both 'orange oil' and 'terpenoid blend QRD 460' are registered and 172 approved active ingredients in the EU [\(https://ec.europa.eu/food/plants/pesticides/eu-](https://ec.europa.eu/food/plants/pesticides/eu-pesticides-database_en)173 pesticides-database en)

174 2.2. Predatory mite and spider mite populations

175 A stock culture of P. persimilis was obtained from Koppert Biological Systems (Berkel en Rodenrijs, 176 the Netherlands) and reared on detached T. urticae-infested bean leaves resting on a moist cotton 177 sheet in a water-filled plastic tray. The London strain of T. urticae was used to maintain the P. 178 *persimilis* stock culture 37 . The London strain was also used as a diet for *P. persimilis* in orange oil 179 and terpenoid blend tests. In the experiments with bifenazate, cyflumetofen, and fenbutatin oxide 180 T. urticae strains BR-VL, Tu008R, and MR-VL, known for their high resistance levels to the 181 respective compounds, were used as a food for P. persimilis $38-40$.

182 2.3. Survival and fecundity of acaricide treated *Phytoseiulus persimilis*

183 The impact of acaricides on P. persimilis fecundity and survival was investigated via three delivery 184 routes (Figure 1A): (1) via direct contact (SCC), (2) via the diet (CSC), and (3) a combination of 185 direct contact, residual contact, and diet (SSS). All treatments consisted of spraying 0.8 ml of spray 186 fluid at 1 bar pressure in a Cornelis spray tower (1.5 \pm 0.06 mg aqueous acaricide deposit cm²)⁴¹. 187 Acaricide solutions were applied at the field rate recommended for spider mite management. These were 96 mg L⁻¹ active ingredient (a.i.) bifenazate, 200 mg L⁻¹ a. i. cyflumetofen, 247 mg L⁻¹ 188 189 a. i. fenbutatin oxide, 0.4% of commercial formulation orange oil, and 0.6% of commercial 190 formulation terpenoid blend. A water-sprayed control accompanied each acaricide treatment 191 (CCC).

192 Acaricide bioassays were performed in experimental units consisting of a 3 cm diameter plastic 193 dish with a lid having a circular opening secured with mite-proof mesh. A 4 cm² bean leaf square 194 was placed on cooled but not yet solidified 1% agarose. The abundance of prey for the control 195 (CCC), direct (SCC), and combined (SSS) treatments was ensured by allowing five adult females 196 of T. urticae to propagate on the arenas three days before the start of the experiment. Prey for 197 the acaricide-laced diet-treatment (CSC) was sprayed on a separate full-leaf arena and brushed 198 onto clean experimental arenas after drying. Any emerging adult females of T. urticae were 199 removed from the arenas to prevent the predatory mites from feeding on unsprayed eggs. The 200 impact of an acaricide via direct contact (SCC) was investigated by spraying adult females of P . 201 *persimilis*, which were then moved to clean arenas with unsprayed *T. urticae* prey. The combined 202 effect of direct, residual contact and diet was investigated by directly spraying the experimental 203 arena with P. persimilis and T. urticae (SSS).

204 Once acaricides were administered via one of three routes, single, two-day-old P. persimilis 205 females were allowed to feed on the same T. urticae-populated arena for four days (Figure 1B). 206 Predatory mite eggs were counted daily and removed from the arena, and the mortality of the 207 predators was recorded. The experiment was kept in a climatically controlled chamber (PHCBI 208 MLR-352H-PE) at 25 \pm 0.5 °C, 70 \pm 5% RH, and 16/8 h (light/dark) photoperiod. For practical 209 reasons, experiments were performed in 2-4 time blocks.

210 Fecundity data were checked for normality and homoscedasticity before statistical analysis and 211 analyzed with a linear mixed-effects model (lmer of the package" lme4") with acaricide-delivery-212 mode (CCC, CSC, SCC, SSS) as a fixed factor and time block as a random factor. The contrast 213 among treatments was assessed using Tukey's HSD (package" multcomp", 42). Mortality data were

214 analyzed with a Cox proportional hazards model from package" survival" to test whether 215 differences in P . persimilis survival depended on the acaricide delivery mode. Function 216 pairwise survdiff (package" survminer") was used to perform pairwise comparisons between the 217 different delivery modes. P-values were Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted. Statistical analysis was 218 performed in R, version $3.6.3⁴³$.

219 2.4. Acaricide treatment for differential gene expression studies

220 Fenbutatin oxide and orange oil were used to investigate gene expression patterns in predatory 221 mites exposed to T. urticae diet sprayed with the field rate of acaricide (247 mg L^{-1} and 0.4% 222 respectively) vs. water (Figure 1C, CSC). T. urticae prey was obtained from heavily infested bean 223 leaves. They had been mostly abandoned by adult spider mites for their lack of nutrients but were 224 still infested by other life stages. By eliminating adult females, we limited the number of unsprayed 225 eggs in the diet. T. urticae infested bean leaves were sprayed until run-off with a hand atomizer 226 and allowed to air-dry. An excess of either acaricide- or water-sprayed T. urticae mites was 227 brushed into a plastic container (9.5cm x 7cm) with a tightly fitted lid. The lid had a 4 cm diameter 228 opening secured with mite-proof netting. A moist piece of cotton was placed inside the container 229 to maintain humidity. Approximately one hundred two-day-old female P. persimilis were added. 230 Experimental units were kept in a climatically controlled chamber at 25 ± 0.5 °C, 70 ± 5 % RH, and 231 16/8 h (light/dark) photoperiod. Live predatory mites were collected after a two-day and four-day 232 exposure to orange oil and fenbutatin oxide, respectively. Sampling time was chosen based on 233 the daily fecundity values to maximize the chance of capturing transcriptomic changes related to 234 the sublethal acaricide exposure (Figure 1C, 2A, 2E). A water control accompanied each acaricide 235 treatment to account for the difference in age between the orange oil, and fenbutatin oxide 236 treated samples (Figure 1C). The experiment was repeated four times.

237 2.5. RNA extraction, sequencing, and quality control

238 Total RNA was isolated from 80 live adult females of P. persimilis using the RNEasy Plus mini kit 239 (Qiagen, Belgium). RNA quality and quantity were estimated using a DeNovix DS-11 240 spectrophotometer (DeNovix, U.S.A.) and running an aliquot on a 1% agarose gel. Illumina 241 libraries were constructed following a standard protocol with size fractionation (Illumina, USA). 242 The resulting libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000, and strand-specific paired 243 reads (2×100 bp) were generated. Library construction and sequencing were performed at the 244 Fasteris sequencing facility (Geneva, Switzerland). Before read-mapping, the quality of the reads 245 was verified using FASTQC version 0.11.8⁴⁴.

246 2.6. De novo transcriptome assembly and annotation

247 The *de novo* assembly, transcript annotation, and differential expression analysis were performed 248 according to Alavijeh et al., 2020, with minor deviations from the pipeline. In an attempt to 249 estimate the number of reads sufficient to create a complete assembly of the P . persimilis 250 transcriptome, we subsampled a random selection of 2.5 and 5 million reads per replicate, totaling 251 40 and 80 million reads. De novo assemblies were created using CLC Genomics Workbench 10. 252 Next, long open reading frames (ORFs) were extracted from the resulting assemblies using 253 Transdecoder v. 5.5.0 46 with a minimum ORF length of 100 amino acids. CD-HIT-EST 47 was used 254 to filter extracted ORFs at the identity threshold of 98% (−c 0.98) and word size of 10 (−n 10). The 255 transcripts to which the filtered ORFs belonged were retained for further analysis. The transcripts 256 of the two assemblies were then loaded into OmicsBox 1.3.11 and used as a query in a CloudBlast, 257 BLASTx search, using an E-value threshold of E^{-3} and the" fast" setting ⁴⁸, against the NCBI non-258 redundant (nr) protein database (the version of 23rd June 2020). Blast2GO was subsequently used 259 to map and annotate gene ontology (GO) terms to transcripts based on the sequences retrieved 260 by the BLASTx search 49 . Finally, the InterProScan pipeline 50 was run, and InterPro identified GO 261 terms were merged to the Blast2GO annotated GO terms. Subsequently, the transcripts having a 262 first BLASTx hit with viruses, bacteria, protozoa, fungi, or T. urticae were excluded from the 263 assemblies. Other sequences were removed from the assembly if the mean sequence similarity 264 value was \geq 98% with members of the genus *Tetranychus*. Based on the overall mapping success 265 rate against an assembly (before removing contamination) and the total amount of sequences 266 with a blast hit (after removing contamination), the" 40 million reads assembly" was selected for 267 further analysis, Table S1.

268 2.7. Expression quantification, principal component analysis (PCA)

269 Once contaminating sequences were removed from the final" 40 million read assembly", paired-270 end sequences were pseudo-aligned with kallisto (100 bootstraps) to create abundance estimates 271 ⁵¹. Differential expression analyses were performed in R version 4.0.2 using sleuth 0.30.0 running 272 on the default settings and an additional package, gridExtra. The Wald test in sleuth was used to 273 analyze the kallisto bootstrap estimates 52 , while the transformation function log2(x + 0.5) 53 274 option in the sleuth_prep command was used to calculate the effect size (β value) as log2-based 275 fold changes (log2FC). Transcripts with log2FC>0 and a q-value (Benjamini-Hochberg multiple 276 testing corrected p-value) \leq 0.05 between the fenbutatin oxide and orange oil samples and their 277 respective controls were considered differentially expressed. For each comparison's differentially 278 expressed transcripts (DETs), a GO enrichment analysis was performed using Fisher's exact test in 279 the functional analysis toolbox of OmicsBox 1.3.11. Only the GO categories with an FDR adjusted 280 p-value of <0.05 were considered significantly enriched. Finally, a PCA was created using the 281 interactive sleuth visualization package, Shiny 1.4.0.2.

282 2.8. Identification of target-site mutations in Phytoseiidae

283 The P. persimilis transcriptome assembled in this study, the nucleotide collection (nr/ nt), and 284 Transcriptome Shotgun Assembly (TSA) databases available from NCBI, were screened to identify 285 orthologues of acaricide target genes across the family Phytoseiidae. These included known 286 target sites of acaricidal compounds frequently used against T . urticae: PSST subunit of 287 Mitochondrial Complex I, cytb, Succinate dehydrogenase, subunits B (SdhB) and C (SdhC), ATP 288 synthase, subunits a and c, Chitin Synthase 1 (CHS1), Glutamate-gated Chloride channel (GluCl), 289 Acetyl CoA carboxylase (ACC), Acetylcholinesterase (AChE), and Voltage-Gated Sodium Channel 290 (VGSC). Only well-documented substitutions, located in the protein most conserved regions 291 across different species, were considered. Although there are no identified target site mutations 292 in arthropods against inhibitors of mitochondrial ATP synthase, conserved domains within a and 293 c subunits were also screened for SNPs.

294 The P. persimilis transcriptome and NCBI databases were mined for contigs encoding target-sites 295 of acaricides using tBLASTn (E-value cutoff < 1E⁻⁵)⁵⁴ and T. urticae protein sequences as a query. 296 When obtaining a complete and continuous target site sequence was impossible, we made sure 297 to identify P. persimilis ORFs extending over the regions carrying a known target-site mutation. 298 Cytochrome b sequence was not present in the final" 40 million read assembly" and was instead 299 identified in an earlier version of this assembly with tBLASTx (E-value cutoff < 1E⁻⁵, File S1). Open 300 reading frames were extracted using Transdecoder v. 5.5.0⁴⁶ with TransDecoder.LongORFs. A 301 minimum ORF length of 100 amino acids was set for AChE, GluCl, and VGSC. These genes belong 302 to multimember gene families of Carboxy/Cholinesterases (CCEs), Cys-loop ligand-gated 303 channels, and voltage-gated channels, respectively, and their identification was facilitated by 304 phylogenetic analysis. For the remaining target sites, there was no minimum ORF length specified. 305 To further maximize sensitivity for capturing ORFs that may have functional significance, 306 candidate peptides were screened for homology using BLASTp against T. urticae amino acid (aa) 307 sequence (Table 1, E-value cutoff < 1E⁻⁵). Subsequently TransDecoder.Predict was used to predict 308 the likely coding regions, and the best hit per sequence was retained with function –

309 single best only. Amino acid sequences were aligned using MAFFT v 7.475 55 , and misaligning 310 sequences were removed.

311 The phylogenetic analysis of cys-loop channels was performed on P . persimilis (this study), 312 Metaseiulus occidentalis (Nesbitt), and A. swirskii. Protein sequences of T. urticae and Drosophila 313 melanogaster (Meigen) were used as a reference. For the phylogenetic analysis of CCEs, a 314 reference set of T. urticae CCE protein sequences was included in the alignment with P. persimilis 315 (this study), M. occidentalis, A. swirskii and Kampimodromus aberrans (Oudemans), and 316 representatives of insect CCEs; *D. melanogaster, Apis mellifera L.* and *Bombyx mori L.* ⁵⁶. As N-317 and C- termini of CCEs are highly variable, divergent regions were trimmed according to 318 Claudianos et al., 2006. Phylogenetic analysis on voltage-gated channels was performed with 319 sequences of P. persimilis (this study), A. swirskii, M. occidentalis, and Neoseiulus barkeri (Hughes). 320 VGSC protein sequences of T. urticae (tetur34g00970) and Musca domestica L. (Q25439) were 321 used as a reference. Phylogenetic trees were built using IQ-TREE v 2.0.3 with 1,000 ultrafast 322 bootstrap (-B 1,000) combined with automatic model finding through ModelFinder Plus (-m MFP) 323 -58 . The resulting trees were midpoint rooted and edited with MEGA v 10.2.4 software 59 . Only 324 bootstrap support values \geq 85% were shown in the tree.

³²⁵ 3. Results

326 3.1. Survival and fecundity of *P. persimilis* after acaricide treatment

 Survival and fecundity of predatory mites treated with the acaricides bifenazate, cyflumetofen, bifenazate, fenbutatin oxide, and botanicals terpenoid blend and orange oil, either directly (SCC), only via acaricide-treated diet (CSC) or by a combination of exposure routes (SSS) (Figure 1A), were scored daily for four days (Figure 1B, 2). Figure 3 presents a graphical overview of total fecundity and survival for all acaricide treatments.

3.1.1. Daily and total fecundity

 Except for the first day of cyflumetofen treatment, when the fecundity of the water sprayed control (CCC) in this setup was significantly lower than in the combined acaricide treatment (SSS) (Figure 2C), average daily fecundity did not differ between different acaricide delivery routes for the classical acaricides (fenbutatin oxide, bifenazate, and cyflumetofen) and the respective control (Figure 2A, B and C, respectively).

338 However, the negative effect of consuming terpenoid blend-sprayed T. urticae (CSC) on daily fecundity became significant on the first day of scoring and remained so throughout the experiment (Figure 2D). The combination of diet, direct and residual contact (SSS) also had immediate and even more pronounced consequences for daily fecundity (Figure 2D). Direct spraying with terpenoid blend (SCC) had a negligible effect on daily fecundity (Figure 2D). Consuming orange oil-treated prey (CSC) had little influence on the fecundity of the predator during the first two days but became significant with time. The direct contact (SCC) and combined treatment (SSS) immediately and acutely affected predator fecundity (Figure 2D). The results of 346 the variance analysis for the daily fecundity are listed in Table S2.

 There was no significant difference in total fecundity after four days of egg-laying between the 348 different delivery modes and the control for bifenazate $(F_3=0.93, p>0.05, Figure S1A)$, 349 cyflumetofen (F₃=1.2, p>0.05, Figure S1B) and fenbutatin oxide (F₃= 1.71, p>0.05, Figure S1C). Total fecundity differed significantly between the water sprayed control (CCC), terpenoid blend sprayed diet (CSC), and the combined treatment (SSS), and between the direct contact (SCC) and 352 combined treatment (SSS) (F₃=12.68, p<0.05, Figure S1E). All comparisons except SSS vs. SCC for 353 orange oil yielded a significant difference in the total number of eggs laid (F_3 = 95.50, p<0.05, Figure S1D).

3.1.2. Survival

356 A significant difference in the survival rate of P. persimilis mites could not be observed between water sprayed control (CCC) and the treatments involving different routes of acaricide delivery 358 (CSC, SCC, SSS), for either of the classical acaricides, fenbutatin oxide (χ^2 = 0.64 on 3 df, p>0.05), 359 bifenazate (χ^2 = 0.09 on 3 df, p>0.05) or cyflumetofen (χ^2 = 0.14 on 3 df, p>0.05).

 On the contrary, the survival rate of predatory mites sprayed with a combination treatment of 361 terpenoid blend (SSS) differed significantly from all the other treatments (CCC, CSC, SCC) $(x^2 =$ 8.14 df=3, p<0.05). All comparisons except SSS vs. SCC for orange oil yielded a significant 363 difference in the survival rate $(\chi^2 = 59.02$ on 3 df, p<0.05). P-values for the log-rank pairwise comparison between survival rates for orange oil and terpenoid blend can be found in Table S3.

365 3.2. Phytoseiulus persimilis transcriptome and transcriptional responses

366 RNA from adult P. persimilis females exposed via diet (sprayed immature T. urticae) to orange oil and fenbutatin oxide and a water-control was isolated and Illumina-sequenced. RNA from predators exposed to orange oil was sampled after two days of acaricide exposure, whereas fenbutatin oxide-exposed predators were sampled after four days. The sampling time was chosen based on the daily fecundity data (Figure 2 A, E) in the hope of detecting transcriptomic changes 371 preceding the statistically significant drop in P. persimilis fecundity. Illumina sequenced short reads of each treatment are available in the Gene-Expression Omnibus (GEO) repository with accession number (SRA submission in progress, submission number, SUB10153985). Two transcriptome assemblies were generated, and detailed comparisons of the" 80 million" and" 40 million" assemblies along the preprocessing and annotation pipeline can be found in Table S1. The" 40 million" and" 80 million" assemblies initially consisted of 19,696 (file S2) and 25,076 (file S3) transcripts (Table S1). The average pseudo-alignment mapping rate of reads against the 19,696 and 25,076 transcripts were 87.9% and 86.8%, respectively. A Blast2GO analysis revealed that for the" 40 million read assembly" 16,410 (83.5%) of the 19,696 transcripts had a BLASTx hit, and 3,395 380 (17.2%) transcripts were either protozoan, viral, bacterial, T. urticae, or other members of the 381 genus *Tetranychus*, showing a mean sequence similarity value \geq 98% (Table S4). Consequently, after the 3,395 transcripts were removed, 12,969 (79.6%) reads out of the final assembly of 16,301 reads (file S4) had a blast hit (Table S5). For the" 80 million read assembly", 20,100 (80,2%) of the 25,076 transcripts had a BLASTx hit, and 7,286 (29.1%) transcripts were either protozoan, viral, 385 bacterial, fungal, T. urticae, or other members of the genus Tetranychus, showing a mean sequence similarity value ≥ 98% (Table S6). After removing the 7,286 transcripts, 12,755 (71.7%) reads out of 17,790 (file S5) had a blast hit (Table S7). Based on the pseudo alignment mapping 388 rate and the absolute number of transcripts with a blast hit, the" 40 million read assembly" was chosen for further analysis (Table S1). The reads were pseudo-aligned against the remaining 16,301 transcripts using kallisto. A principal component analysis (PCA) across all RNAseq samples revealed that 35.0% of the total variation could be explained by PC1, while 16.7% could be explained by PC2 (Figure 4). Clustering by treatment was not apparent, indicating that the treatment is not the primary source of variation. Fenbutatin oxide treated replicates occupied an area mainly overlapping with the control. For the orange oil-treated samples, however, all but one replicate clustered away from the control. We used sleuth to perform a differential transcript expression analysis (logfc2>0, q-value ≤0.05). Transcript expression levels were pairwise compared between acaricide treatment (orange oil and fenbutatin oxide) and the relevant control (orange oil_c and fenbutatin oxide_c). Unsurprisingly only two transcripts were found differentially regulated between fenbutatin oxide and fenbutatin oxide_c. Contig_22124 and contig_24988 were upregulated in fenbutatin oxide (log2FC= 3.04 and 3.24, respectively), and neither contig 401 had a BLASTx hit against the NCBI nr protein database at the threshold of E⁻³. We found only 34 402 DETs between orange oil and orange oil_c, with fold changes being overall modest. Among the 403 34 DETs, 27 were up-, and seven were down-regulated. Eleven DETs did not have a BLASTx hit with the nr protein database. The remaining 23 annotated transcripts are listed in Table S8. Contings upregulated after treatment with orange oil coded for proteins involved in DNA integration and binding, including tigger transposable element (contig_20133, contig_15792, contig_9434), mRNA binding, processing and splicing factors (contig_1302, contig_1223, 408 contig 7063, contig 7578, contig 10832, contig 226), and endoplasmic reticulum activity (ER) 409 (conting_7415). Apart from one transcript blasting with *M. occidentalis* cytochrome P450 1A1 (contig_5327) sequence, no representatives of other gene families typically involved in xenobiotic metabolism were found among DETs. There were no significantly enriched GO-terms in orange 412 oil vs. orange oil_c nor fenbutatin oxide vs. fenbutatin oxide_c.

3.3. Presence of target site substitutions in Phytoseiidae

414 The transcriptome of P. persimilis allowed for successfully identifying sequences coding for CHS1, PSST subunit of Complex I, ACCase, AChE, SdhB and SdhC, cytb, GluCl, ATP synthase subunit c, 416 and a and partial sequence of VGSC (File S6). The IDs of P. persimilis contigs coding for the target site sequences can be found in Table S9.

 Except for cytb, which sequence is routinely used to discriminate between phylogenetically related species, and for which 303 sequences of 51 Phytoseiidae genera could be screened, tBLASTn searches across Phytoseiidae performed on NCBI servers yielded a modest overall outcome with 421 M. occidentalis and A. swirskii being often the only identified species (Table 1, Table S10). Subsequent phylogenetic analysis identified Phytoseiidae orthologues of AChE (Figure S2), VGSC (Figure S3), and GluCl (Figure S4) within multigene families of cholinesterase, voltage-gated channels, and cys-loop channels, respectively. In many cases, protein sequences were incomplete, preventing screening for target site mutations at know conserved sites (Table 1).

426 We identified an I1017M substitution in the *P. persimilis* transcript coding for the CHS1 gene 427 (Figure 5, Table 1, File S6) $60,61$. NCBI search resulted in 13 hits. Two of these belonged to M. 428 *occidentalis* and 11 to A. *swirskii*. Substitution at position 1017 (*T. urticae* numbering) was absent 429 from all the examined sequences (Table 1, Table S10).

430 The H92R substitution associated with Mitochondrial Electron Transport Inhibitors I (METI I) 431 resistant phenotype in T. urticae was not detected in the P. persimilis transcript, nor were the 432 other mutations reported to debilitate the function of the respiratory Complex I in Yarrowia 433 *lypolitica* $62-66$, and Human, $67,68$. NCBI search identified three orthologous sequences for M. 434 *occidentalis* and five of A. *swirskii* that could be efficiently aligned. None of the mutations were 435 present in the sequences of M. occidentalis. Substitutions found in NQO6 (PSST orthologue in 436 bacteria) of Y. lypolitica V88I and E140D were identified in A. swirskii GHIT01053611.1 ^{63,65,69}. R145K 437 was present in A. swirskii GHIT01033895.1, GHIT01065208.1, GHIT01035679.1 (Table 1, Table S10,). 438 Phylogenetic analysis allowed for high fidelity identification of AChE genes of *M. occidentalis, A.* 439 *swirskii, P. persimilis* and *K. aberrans* (Figure S2, Table S10). We did not identify any of the 440 mutations previously associated with resistance to organophosphates and carbamates in the 441 AChE sequence of P. persimilis (File S6)⁷⁰. An NCBI search revealed that both *M. occidentalis* 442 sequences (XM018642151.1 and XM018638971.1) and a sequence of chlorpyrifos resistant strain of

443 K. aberrans (HF934044.1) carry mutation G119S^{71,72} (Table 1).

444 The recently identified A2083V in a highly conserved region of the carboxyltransferase domain 445 (CT) in ACC of a *Bemisia tabaci* (Gennadius) resistant to spiromesifen and spirotetramat 73 was 446 not found in the P. persimilis orthologue (File S6). Nineteen hits belonging to A. swirskii (12 447 sequences) and *M. occidentalis* (7 sequences) were found via the NCBI. Among five sequences 448 long enough to span the CT domain, three GHIT01022503.1, GHIT01028753.1, GHIT01031955.1 of 449 A. swirskii carried A2083V. (Table 1, Table S10).

450 Screening for VGSC mutations (reviewed in Rinkevich et al., 2013) resulted in finding kdr (L1014F) 451 and super-kdr (M918V) mutations (*M. domestica* numbering) in the transcript of P. persimilis 452 (Figure 5, Table 1, File S6). Phylogenetic analysis identified five sequences of A. swirskii, and a 453 single sequence for *N. barkeri* and *M. occidentalis* (Fig S3, Table 1). In *N. barkeri* KT768110.1, 454 Methionine at super kdr (918) was substituted with Leucine (Table 1, Table S10).

455 The phylogenetic analysis allowed the identification of GluCl genes of *M. occidentalis, A. swirskii* 456 and P. persimilis supported by high bootstrap values (Fig S4). Contig_4086 of P. persimilis (this 457 study) and accession numbers: GHIT01011578.1, GHIT01010960.1, GHIT01043426.1 of A. swirskii, 458 and XM_029110899.1 of *M. occidentalis* clustered with GluCl sequences of T. urticae and D. 459 melanogaster (Figure S4). Contig_4086 of P. persimilis (this study), transcripts XM_029110899.1 of 460 M. occidentalis, and GHIT01011578.1 of A. swirskii had sequences long enough to screen for the 461 three target site mutations. However, substitutions G314D, G326E, and I321T previously associated 462 with low resistance levels to abamectin in T. urticae were not present $75-77$ (File S6, Table S10).

463 Resistance mutations in highly conserved cd1 and ef helices of cytb were not found in the P. 464 *persimilis* orthologue of the Koppert strain analyzed in this study (File S6) ^{13,78,79}. Screening of cytb 465 orthologues within the Phytoseiidae family did not reveal the presence of any of the known 466 mutations in ef helix (Table S10). Substitutions in cd1 helix at the positions corresponding to T. 467 urticae mutations were present in Neoseiuella littoralis (Swirski & Amitai) (G126A, GU938141.1), 468 several species of genus Typhlodromus; T. pyri (Scheuten) (A133G, JF279255.1, JF279271.1, 469 JF279279.1, JF279280.1), T. aestivalis (Athias-Henriot) (S141T, A MK014109.1, MK014110.1), T. 470 verrucosus (Wainstein) (I136T, MK014112.1), T. rhenanoides (Athias-Henriot) (S141F, MK014067.1, 471 MK014068.1, MK014070.1, MK014073.1), T. ilicis (Athias-Henriot) (S141F, V, D, MK014095.1), T. laurae 472 (Arutunjan) (S141A, MK014141.1), 7. exhilaratus (Ragusa) (S141F, A, MK014144.1, MK014141.1, 473 MK014148.1), T. setubali (Dosse) (G132E, MK014116.1), genus Typhlodromalus, T. aripo (De Leon)

474 (S141T, KU318210.1, KU318209.1, KX610079.1), genus Amblydromalus, A. limonicus (Garman & 475 McGregor) (S141T in KU318220.1 and KU318219.1) and genus *Euseius, E. fustis* (Pritchard & Baker) 476 (S141T in KX610076.1, KX610078.1, KX610077.1), (Table 1, Table S10).

477 P. persimilis I260 in SdhB of Complex II was substituted with Methionine (File S6, Figure 5). 478 Similarly, I260M substitution was found in both A. swirskii orthologues, GHIT01048799.1 and 479 GHIT01059435.1. Serine substituted the residue R256⁸⁰ in the *P. persimilis* orthologue found in 480 this study (Figure 5, Table 1, File S6), and a proportion of M. occidentalis (JL035473.1, JL014348.1, 481 JL012205.1), and A. swirskii (GHIT01060452.1) sequences found via NCBI. The S56L in SdhC¹⁵ 482 causing cyenopyrafen resistance in T. urticae was not detected in P. persimilis and other 483 Phytoseiidae orthologues (File S6). However, residue R74 (T. urticae numbering) ⁸¹ was substituted 484 by Serine (Table 1, Table S10, File S6). The same substitution was found in both (GHIT01023969.1 485 and GHIT01063425.1) orthologues of A. swirskii, identified via NCBI (Figure 5, Table 1, File S6).

486 We have identified V166L, A195S, A213S (*T. urticae* numbering) in the otherwise conserved residue 487 of ATP synthase subunit a of P. persimilis (File S6). NCBI search within Phytoseiidae yielded 14 488 sequences that could be effectively aligned against T. urticae tetur01g06130. No other sequence 489 carried A195S SNP, but V166L and A213S coincided in a proportion of A. swirskii sequences 490 (GHIT01019070.1, GHIT01047891.1) and all available sequences of *M. occidentalis* (XM_003741056.1, 491 JL040066.1, JL020987.1, JL020984.1 - not long enough to confirm the presence of A213S) (Table 1, 492 Table S10). Substitution R109S (T. urticae, tetur06q03780) was detected in the conserved C-493 terminal domain of the ATP synthase subunit c (File S6). Out of 21 sequences, the same 494 substitution has been found at the corresponding position in ATP synthase subunit c of M . 495 *occidentalis* orthologue JL013409.1, JL013411.1, JL013412.1, JL028982.1, JL013416.1, JL013415.1, 496 JL021266.1, JL013413.1, and GHIT01045723.1 of A. swirskii (Table 1, Table S10).

4. Discussion

 This study finds that the classical acaricides targeting different complexes of the mitochondrial electron transport chain, bifenazate (Complex III), cyflumetofen (Complex II), and fenbutatin oxide 500 (complex V) did not adversely affect the fecundity or survival of adult P. persimilis in our experimental setup, regardless of whether predators were exposed via diet, by direct contact or a combination of direct contact, residual contact, and diet (Figure 2, Figure 3, Figure S1). The impact of the three acaricides on herbivorous spider mites and predatory mites has been studied 504 extensively $5,17,18,23,27,39$. While very effective against T. urticae, there have been conflicting reports 505 of their safety to key phytoseiids . Particularly for fenbutatin oxide, prolonged surveillance of 506 treated predatory mites saw increased mortality in the laboratory tests and fewer P. persimilis 507 in the field experiments . Despite that, and in line with the results of this study, the risk of acute toxicity of bifenazate, cyflumetofen, and fenbutatin oxide is generally low, and these MoAs are 509 often recommended for the control of T. urticae^{17,18,26,83–86}.

 Surprisingly, in contrast with the classical acaricides, the botanical acaricides containing orange 511 oil and terpenoid blend as active ingredients were harmful to P. persimilis. When tested in an identical setup, their impact varied depending on their route of administration (Figure 2, 3, S1). Upon contact, lipophilic monoterpene constituents of orange oil and terpenoid blend exert their toxic properties by directly altering epicuticular waxes' components and entering arthropod 515 bodies via cuticle or respiratory tracheoles 87 . D-limonene is efficient as a contact acaricide $^{88-90}$. 516 Its high content in orange oil may explain the acute contact toxicity towards P. persimilis. Indeed, orange oil and terpenoid blend-based acaricides are thought to act mainly by physical contact, but their target sites can be broad-spectrum from a physiological perspective. Monoterpene mode of action inside the arthropod's body is unclear but most likely relies on interference with

520 biological membrane properties $44,91$. Monoterpenes are also suspected of sharing some of the intracellular target sites with classical insecticides/acaricides acting on the insect nervous system 522 $88,89,92$. The sublethal effect of providing P. persimilis with orange oil and terpenoid blend laced-523 diet could be mediated by the repellent properties of monoterpenes, particularly D-limonene $93,94$. Orange oil and terpenoid blend-based acaricides may offer little physiological selectivity towards non-target organisms, interfering with arthropods' essential biochemical and physiological functions. However, our results suggest that the utility of these acaricides in the integrated control 527 of T. urticae can be preserved by smart management practices that increase their selectivity on 528 the ecological level 23 .

529 Phytoseiulus persimilis females surviving ingestion of orange oil-laced diet showed diminished fecundity (Figure 2E and S1D). Although the same could not be seen for fenbutatin oxide in our setup (Figure 2A and S1C), prolonged exposure to this acaricide was harmful to BCAs elsewhere $18,82$. We thus selected fenbutatin oxide and orange oil to investigate differences in gene 533 expression profiles of P. persimilis, attempting to identify genetic signatures associated with ingestion of sublethal doses of classical and botanical acaricides. The clustering by treatment was not readily apparent, indicating that the treatment did not cause large reproducible shifts in gene expression (Figure 4, Table S8). In support of the empirical data, differential gene expression in fenbutatin oxide treated samples was negligible, with only two unidentified transcripts being differentially regulated between the treatment and the control. Treatment with orange oil resulted in the 23 annotated DETs (log2FC>0, qvalue<0.05). None but one downregulated contig encoded a member of a classical detoxification gene family, P450 1A1. The remaining differentially 541 regulated transcripts may suggest increased transcriptional regulation , modulation of proteome 542 diversity by alternative splicing $96,97$, and enhanced protein production and export 98 as a response to orange oil treatment (Table S8). However, overall, the data also suggests that molecular 544 markers of stress responses are difficult to identify in P. persimilis, especially when the phenotype 545 resulting from the treatment is subtle. Similarly, Paspati et al., 2019 have found only 39 DETs in A. *swirskii* exposed to a challenging host, tomato vs. pepper, suggesting that mild transcriptomic response towards synthetic and natural xenobiotics may characterize Phytoseiidae mites.

548 Phytoseiidae mites, including P. persimilis, belong to Parasitiformes, while T. urticae belons to 549 Acariformes. These two lineages of Acari separated approximately 400 mln years ago $100,101$. Therefore, differences in target sites sequences that might affect the response to acaricide application could result from a phylogenetic distance and be naturally present. However, direct acaricide selection might act in some populations. Different life histories (herbivory versus 553 carnivory) might have also selected for differences in detoxification machinery .

 The prevalence of nucleotide differences (mutations) in target-site sequences potentially involved 555 in natural tolerance or evolved resistance was screened for in the assembled here P. persimilis transcriptome and sequences of other Phytoseiidae species available via public sequence repositories. We encountered a limited availability of genetic data that prevents a realistic estimate of the frequency of mutations in acaricide target sites in Phytoseiidae. However, even in the small sequence pool, we identified SNPs previously validated for their role in resistance to at least six out of nine acaricide/insecticide MoA groups considered in this study (Table 1, Figure 5). In several cases, a target site substitution was present in a proportion of all sequences available for a given Phytoseiidae species, suggesting that these SNPs could be the result of acaricide selection in some populations (Table 1).

 In pro-acaricides such as bifenazate and cyflumetofen that must undergo metabolic conversion 565 before becoming pharmacologically active $40,103$, differential metabolism can result in selectivity 566 . As the screening of the cytb did not reveal any SNPs associated with resistant phenotype in P. 567 persimilis, the excellent selectivity of bifenazate observed in this study (Figure 2, Figure 3) might 568 rely on the inability to convert the pro-acaricide to a biologically active metabolite 86 . Interestingly, 569 the NCBI searches found bifenazate target site mutations in 12 other Phytoseiidae species. 570 Mutation of a conserved and strongly validated residue S141 in the cd1 helix of cytb was especially 571 ubiquitous across the genera $14,75$. In the genus Typhlodromus, S141 is substituted with 572 Phenylalanine as in T. urticae. But substitutions with Alanine, Valine, and Aspartic acid could also 573 be found (Table 1). All the identified cytb sequences of T. aripo, A. limonicus, and E. fustis carried 574 S141T (Table 1). Whether different substitutions of S141 are reflected in bifenazate resistance levels 575 is not known.

576 Cyflumetofen, cyenopyrafen, and pyflubumide are relatively novel compounds with a new mode 577 of action in the arthropods as inhibitors at Complex II (succinate dehydrogenase; Sdh) in the 578 mitochondrial electron transport chain (METI II)^{39,105}. The genetic basis of METI II resistance in T. 579 *urticae* was clarified using quantitative trait locus (QTL) analysis, revealing that cyflumetofen and 580 pyflumubide resistance was associated with I260T and I260V in SdhB, respectively. In contrast, 581 cyenopyrafen resistance was mapped to SdhC carrying S56L substitution ^{15,106}. We have identified 582 the substitution I260 (I260M) in SdhB of P. persimilis, which may explain the high selectivity of 583 cyflumetofen seen in this study (Figure 2, Figure 3, File S6). The same substitution has been found 584 in sequences of A. swirskii available via NCBI (Table 1). The cyenopyrafen resistance mutation, 585 S56L in SdhC was absent in all the examined Phytoseiidae species, but residue R74 (T. urticae 586 numbering) known to bind ubiquinone at the Q2-site in *Escherichia coli*⁸¹ was substituted with 587 Serine in P. persimilis, and A. swirskii, suggesting that exact residues interacting with METI II 588 acaricides may differ between T. urticae and Phytoseiidae species (Figure 5).

589 Newly discovered SNPs in ATP synthase subunits a (A195S, V116L and A213S, T. urticae 590 numbering), and c (R109S, T. urticae numbering) of P. persimilis, A. swirskii and M. occidentalis 591 are present at the conserved positions within proteins previously identified as binding sites of 592 organotin compounds ^{107,108}. They could potentially decrease the efficiency of organotin binding, 593 leading to resistance. However, their contribution to fenbutatin oxide insensitivity in P. persimilis 594 must be verified beyond this article's scope.

595 In mites and insects, mutations in CHS1 were previously reported and validated to be responsible 596 for cross-resistance between acaricides Mite Growth Inhibitors (IRAC 10) and insecticides Chitin 597 Synthase Inhibitors (IRAC 15) in T. urticae (I1017F), P. xylostella (I1017M) and Culex pipiens L. 598 (I1043L,M,F)^{60,61,109}. We identified an I1017M substitution in P. persimilis transcript coding for the 599 CHS1 gene, the first report of this SNP in Phytoseiidae (Figure 5). However, no SNP was found at 600 the corresponding positions in *M. occidentalis* and A. *swirskii* CHS1 sequences found via NCBI.

601 The kdr (L1014F) and super-kdr (M918V,L,T) found in VGSC of P. persimilis are well-known 602 pyrethroid resistance mutations present in a wide range of insects. Within Tetranychidae, only T. 603 *evansi* is known to carry the super-kdr, but no kdr mutation 110 . In *T. urticae*, instead of kdr and 604 super kdr, target-site resistance relies on the presence of L1024V or F1538I ^{111,112}. P. persimilis used 605 in this study carried both insect kdr (L1014F) and super-kdr (M918V) instead of the mutations 606 typical for pyrethroid-resistant T. urticae (Figure 5). Interestingly Benavent-Albarracin et al., 2020 607 have reported commercial strains of P. persimilis with super-kdr M918L but no kdr. Instead, L925V 608 identified in Varroa destructor Anderson & Truema¹¹⁴ and previously not described mutations 609 A1536T, S1539T, were present. VGSC sequences identified via NCBI belonging to A. swirskii were 610 free of known pyrethroid-resistance mutations, but super-kdr substitution M918L was found in 611 VGSC of a fenpropathrin-resistant *N. barkeri* ^{36,74} (Table 1).

612 Interestingly, we have not found any known AChE mutations $\frac{70}{1}$ in the *P. persimilis* orthologue. 613 However, a common organophosphate/carbamate resistance mutation, G119S¹¹⁵, was identified 614 in AChE sequences belonging to M. occidentalis and K. aberrans resistant to the carbaryl-615 organophosphate-sulfur and chlorpyrifos, respectively 71,72 (Table 1). The lack of

616 organophosphate/carbamate resistance mutations in P . persimilis is surprising considering the widespread use of organophosphates/carbamates that has continued since the 1950s. It is perhaps a consequence of modern agricultural practices, increasingly relying on more selective 619 compounds .

 NCBI searches resulted in identifying two interesting SNPs in a Spanish commercial Koppert strain 621 of A. swirskii that were absent in this study's P. persimilis strain. A2083V in ACC and V88I in the PSST subunit of mitochondrial respiratory Complex I are reported for the first time in Chelicerata and Eukaryota, respectively (Table 1). The A2083V substitution was previously identified in Spanish 624 field populations of B. tabaci and caused resistance to spirotetramat, which was thoroughly 625 validated ⁷³. Given that A. swirskii is often used to control whitefly populations and hence exposed to the same insecticides, the presence of the A2083V in both species is probably reflecting strong 627 selection. In T. urticae, resistance to METI I acaricides depends partly on the presence of H92R in 628 the PSST subunit $116,117$. Although H92R was not identified in any Phytoseiidae species, residing four residues away, V88I makes a plausible candidate for the METI I target site resistance in A. *swirskii*. The residue is located in a highly conserved aa stretch previously photoaffinity labeled 631 with METI I derivatives and has undergone extensive site-directed mutagenesis in Y. lipolytica, 632 revealing its crucial role in quinone/inhibitor binding $62,63$.

 To conclude, bifenazate, cyflumetofen and fenbutatin oxide, the representatives of acaricide classes targeting Complex III, II, and V of the mitochondrial electron transport chain, appear safe 635 for the predatory mite P. persimilis irrespective of the route of exposure. In contrast, the botanical acaricides, orange oil and terpenoid blend seem much more toxic. Acute and sublethal effects were present via direct exposure, diet, and a combination of direct exposure, diet, and residual 638 contact. Orange oil appears to be particularly harmful to P. persimilis. The transcriptomic analysis of selected combinations of acaricides and exposure routes revealed only a limited molecular

 stress response, impeding the development of ecotoxicological biomarkers to detect signs of failing biological control. However, transcriptome analysis also allowed the identification of P. 642 persimilis orthologues coding for acaricide target sites of acaricide classes frequently used to 643 control T. urticae. Surprisingly, many known insecticide/acaricide target site mutations were 644 readily identified in the studied P. persimilis strain, potentially explaining its resilience to the tested acaricides. The search for target-site mutations was extended by the Phytoseiidae sequences available via public databases, revealing that an insensitive target site may be a common resistance mechanism in predatory mites of agricultural importance. Several target site mutations reported here have not been previously identified in Phytoseiidae and await functional validation.

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- Conflict of Interest Statement
- The authors state no conflict

Figure legends

- Graphical abstract-text
- Selectivity and molecular stress responses to classical and botanical acaricides in the predatory
- 660 mite *Phytoseiulus persimilis* Athias-Henriot (Acari: Phytoseiidae).
- Sabina A. Bajda, Patrick De Clercq, Thomas Van Leeuwen

662 Acaricide selectivity towards Phytoseiidae may be achieved by limiting exposure routes and 663 exploiting differences in acaricides' molecular targets.

664 Figure 1. An overview of the experiments performed in this study. The predatory mite *Phytoseiulus* 665 perimilis and Tetranychus urticae spider mites are depicted by red and green arthropods, not 666 drawn to scale. A field dose of either bifenazate, fenbutatin oxide, cyflumetofene, orange oil or 667 terpenoid blend was sprayed on two-day-old P. persimilis directly (SCC), or on T. urticae mites 668 serving as a diet to the predator (CSC), or the whole experimental arena was sprayed while P . 669 persimilis and T. urticae mites were residing on it (SSS). A water control accompanied each 670 acaricide treatment (CCC). B. Fecundity and survival of individual predatory mites was monitored 671 over four consecutive days. C. Orange oil and fenbutatin oxide were chosen to investigate 672 differential gene expression in response to acaricide treatment. Two-day-old P. persimilis mites 673 were fed with an acaricide-laced diet for two (orange oil) or four days (fenbutatin oxide). 674 Subsequently, RNA was isolated from acaricide, and water-treated samples, and Ilumina-675 sequenced. We assembled the transcriptome of P . persimilis, and differential gene expression 676 analysis was performed between the acaricide and its relevant water-spray control.

677 Figure 2. Mean daily fecundity per female of *Phytoseiulus persimilis*, depending on acaricide treatment. A- fenbutatin oxide, B- bifenazate, C- cyflumetofen, D- terpenoid blend, E- orange oil, 679 and the route of exposure, yellow – water sprayed control (CCC), gray – exposure via contaminated diet (CSC), green – direct exposure (SCC), brown – combined diet, direct and residual exposure (SSS). The numbers of eggs per day were compared between different delivery routes. Error bars represent standard error. Means labeled with the same letter are not significantly different.

684 Figure 3. Mean total fecundity of *Phytoseiulus persimilis* females vs. % surviving females after four 685 days of exposure for all acaricides and acaricide delivery modes tested in this study. Circle bifenazate, triangle- cyflumetofen, square- fenbutatin oxide, polygon- orange oil, star- terpenoid blend. Yellow – water sprayed control (CCC), gray – exposure via contaminated diet (CSC), green – direct exposure (SCC), brown – combined diet direct, and residual exposure (SSS). Error bars represent standard error

690 Figure 4. PCA plot of gene expression levels of *Phytoseiulus persimilis* mites feeding on spider mite prey laced with fenbutatin oxide and orange oil and their corresponding water-treated controls. For each treatment, convex hulls were added for a more straightforward visual interpretation.

 Figure 5. Comparison of partial amino acid sequences of acaricide target site proteins. CHS1: Phytoseiulus persimilis (contig_1573), Tetranychus urticae (tetur03g08510), Musca domestica (AFP61787.1), Anopheles gambiae (AAL23627.1), Saccharomyces cerevisiae (NP_009579.1), Tribolium castaneum (NP001034491.1), Plutella xylostella (BAF47974.1); VGSC: M. domestica (ATZ81482.1), T. urticae (tetur34g00970), Metaseiulus occidentalis (XP_028966827.1), Bos taurus (DAA30006.1), Homo sapiens (AAA18895.1), P. persimilis (contig__4927), A. gambiae (CAM12801.1); 700 SdhB: T. urticae (tetur01q15710), P. persimilis (contig 236), Escherichia coli (REE06640.1), B. taurus (NP_001035573.1), Homo sapiens (NP_002991.2), D. melanogaster (NP_477101.1), S. cerevisiae (GAX71644.1); SdhC: T. urticae (tetur30g00210), P. persimilis (contig_7732), H. sapiens (CAG33383.1), B. taurus (NP_787008.1), D. melanogaster (NP_001262472.1), S. cerevisiae 704 (AAT93043.1), E. coli (VWQ01513.1). Universally conserved residues are marked in bold. The position of the I1017M in CHS1, kdr and super-kdr in VGSC, R256S and I260M in SdhB, R74S in 706 SdhC in P. persimilis are indicated in gray. Resistance mutations in SdhB and SdhC against 707 fungicidal SDH inhibitors reported in a previous study are indicated by asterisks. Solid squares 708 indicate the residues in SdhB and SdhC that may bind with ubiquinone at the Q2-site in E. coli⁸¹.

709 Open squares indicate resistance mutations previously reported in T. urticae ^{15,60}. The insect Kdr 710 and super-kdr are indicated with open and closed circles, respectively .

 Figure S1. The total number of eggs laid by female predatory mites over four days, depending on the acaricide they were exposed to. A- bifenazate, B- cyflumetofen, C- fenbutatin oxide, D- orange oil, E- terpenoid blend, and the route of exposure. Values in each graph represent means, and error bars represent the standard error. Means labeled with the same letter are not significantly different.

 Figure S2. Phylogenetic Identification of Phytoseiidae putative acetylcholinesterase sequences 717 (AChE). Maximum likelihood tree of Kampimodromus aberrans, Amblyseius swirskii, Metaseiulus occidentalis, Phytoseiulus persimilis, and Tetranychus urticae, Drosophila melanogaster, Apis 719 mellifera, Bombyx mori carboxylesterase (CCE) protein sequences. The phylogenetic tree was built using IQ-TREE v 2.0.3 with 1,000 ultrafast bootstrap combined with automatic model finding 721 through ModelFinder Plus . The resulting trees were midpoint rooted and edited with MEGA v 10.2.4 software. Only bootstrap support values > 85% were indicated in the tree. Colour and shape 723 codes are as follows: K. aberrans, blue circle, A. swirskii, purple circle, M. occidentalis, yellow circle, 724 P. persimilis, green circle, T. urticae, red square, D. melanogaster, pink diamond, A. mellifera, black 725 diamond, *B. mori*, gray diamond. The tree branch drew in green contains identified AChE sequences. Accession numbers and IDs of sequences that appear in the tree can be found in Table S10.

 Figure S3. Phylogenetic Identification of Phytoseiidae putative voltage-gated sodium channels 729 (VGSC). Maximum likelihood tree of Neoseiulus barkeri, Amblyseius swirskii, Metaseiulus *occidentalis,* and *Phytoseiulus persimilis* VGSC protein sequences. VGSC sequences of *Tetranychus urticae* and *Musca domestica* were included as a reference. The phylogenetic tree was built using IQ-TREE v 2.0.3 with 1,000 ultrafast bootstrap combined with automatic model

733 finding through ModelFinder Plus ⁵⁸. The resulting trees were midpoint rooted and edited with 734 MEGA v 10.2.4 software. Only bootstrap support values > 85% were indicated in the tree. Colour 735 and shape codes are as follows: N. barkeri, brown circle, A. swirskii, purple circle, M. occidentalis, 736 yellow circle, P. persimilis, green circle, T. urticae, red square, M. domestica, black diamond shape. 737 Black arrow points at the branch with identified VGSC sequences. Accession numbers and IDs of 738 sequences that appear in the tree can be found in Table S10.

739 Figure S4. Phylogenetic Identification of Phytoseiidae putative glutamate-gated chloride channels 740 (GluCls). Maximum likelihood tree of Amblyseius swirskii, Metaseiulus occidentalis, Phytoseiulus 741 *persimilis,* and *Tetranychus urticae* cys-loop ligand-gated ion channel protein sequences. The 742 phylogenetic tree was built using IQ-TREE v 2.0.3 with 1,000 ultrafast bootstrap combined with 743 automatic model finding through ModelFinder Plus ⁵⁸. The resulting trees were midpoint rooted 744 and edited with MEGA v 10.2.4 software. Only bootstrap support values > 85% were indicated in 745 the tree. Colour and shape codes are as follows: *D. melanogaster*, pink diamond shape, A. swirskii, 746 purple circle, M. occidentalis, yellow circle, P. persimilis, green circle, T. urticae, red square. Black 747 arrow points at the branch with identified GluCl sequences. Accession numbers and IDs of 748 sequences that appear in the tree can be found in Table S10.

⁷⁴⁹ Tables

750 Table 1. Occurrence and frequency of acaricide target site mutations in Phytoseiidae. Only SNPs

751 that occur in at least one of the examined predatory mite species were listed. Mutations previously

752 validated for their role in arthropod resistance to insecticides/acaricides are marked in bold.

753 Table S1. Comparison of the two *Phytoseiulus persimilis* transcriptome assemblies.

754 Table S2. Variance analysis of the daily fecundity data.

755 Table S3. P values of the log-rank pairwise comparisons between survival rates after treatment 756 with orange oil and terpenoid blend. P values are Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted.

757 Table S4. List of contigs having a BLASTx hit (E⁻³) with protozoa, viruses, bacteria, Tetranychus

758 urticae, and other members of genus Tetranychus showing a mean sequence similarity value \ge

- 759 98%, removed from the" 40 million reads assembly".
- 760 Table S5. Annotation of the 40 million reads assembly of *Phytoseiulus persimilis*.
- 761 Table S6. List of contigs having a BLASTx hit (E⁻³) with protozoa, viruses, bacteria, Tetranychus
- 762 urticae, and other members of genus Tetranychus showing a mean sequence similarity value \ge
- 763 98%, removed from the" 80 million reads assembly".
- 764 Table S7. Annotation of the "80 million reads assembly" of *Phytoseiulus persimilis*.
- 765 Table S8. Transcripts differentially expressed in *Phytoseiulus persimilis* females (log2FC>0,
- 766 qvalue<0.05) after two days of consuming orange oil treated Tetranychus urticae mites,
- 767 compared to the water-sprayed control (orange oil_c).
- 768 Contig names written in bold indicate upregulated transcripts, while contig names written with
- 769 regular letters indicate the downregulated transcripts.
- 770 Table S9. Target sites of acaricides commonly used against Tetranychus urticae, their orthologues
- 771 in Phytoseiulus persimilis, and the IRAC acaricide classes that target these proteins.
- 772 Table S10. Accession numbers and IDs of arthropod acaricide target-site proteins included in the 773 alignments and phylogenetic analysis.
- ⁷⁷⁴ Files
- 775 File S1. Preprocessed" 40 million assembly" of *Phytoseiulus persimilis* used to identify cytb 776 sequence. Requires FASTA file reader.
- 777 File S2." 40 million reads" assembly of *Phytoseiulus persimilis* transcriptome before removing the
- contaminating sequences. Requires FASTA file reader
- 779 File S3." 80 million reads" assembly of *Phytoseiulus persimilis* transcriptome before removing the
- contaminating sequences. Requires FASTA file reader
- 781 File S4. Final" 40 million reads" assembly of *Phytoseiulus persimilis* transcriptome. Requires FASTA
- file reader
- 783 File S5. Final" 80 million reads" assembly of *Phytoseiulus persimilis* transcriptome. Requires FASTA file reader
- 785 File S6. Nucleotide sequences of acaricide target sites, identified in *Phytoseiulus persimilis*
- 786 transcriptome. Requires FASTA file reader.
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Figure 1.

 Figure 3.

1107 Figure 5.

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1109 Table 1.

