

# Gamma irradiation as a tool to produce cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp.) genotypes resistant to aphid pests

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1 **Gamma irradiation as a tool to produce cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp.) genotypes resistant to aphid**  
2 **pests**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Cowpea aphid (*Aphis craccivora* Koch.) is an important pest of cowpea. This study aimed to identify aphid resistant  
15 cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp.) genotypes derived from three susceptible varieties widely grown in Zambia  
16 (Bubebe; Lutembwe and Msandile) after mutagenesis by gamma radiation. Eleven genotypes derived in this way were  
17 evaluated: six (BB3, BB7, BB8, BB10, BB14 and BBV) from Bubebe, three (LT3, LT4 and LT11) from Lutembwe  
18 and two (MS1 and MS10) from Msandile. Aphid resistance was evaluated by recording aphid colony growth, mean  
19 relative growth rate (MRGR), intrinsic rate of natural increase ( $r_m$ ), doubling time (DT) and feeding behaviour when  
20 reared on each genotype. Where colony growth was recorded, significantly lower numbers of aphids were recorded  
21 on genotypes BB7, LT3, LT4 and LT11 compared to their parents (Bubebe and Lutembwe). Genotypes LT3, LT4 and  
22 LT11 also resulted in lower aphid MRGRs,  $r_m$  and DT compared to the parent. Slower colony growth, MRGRs,  $r_m$   
23 and DT on genotypes LT3, LT4 and LT11 and slower colony growth only on genotype BB7 suggests the presence of  
24 mutation derived resistance to cowpea aphid. Characterisation of feeding behaviour on LT3, LT4 and LT11 using  
25 electrical penetration graph recording showed that resistance to cowpea aphid is mediated by epidermal and  
26 mesophyll-based resistance factors. BB7, LT3, LT4 and LT11 are therefore promising genotypes that should be  
27 evaluated further for genetic improvement of cowpea against the cowpea aphid. This study highlights the potential  
28 contribution of induced mutagenesis in the integrated management of aphid pests.

29 **Keywords** mutagenesis· resistant varieties· colony growth· gamma radiation· genetic variation

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31

## 32 INTRODUCTION

33 Cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp.), also known as black eye pea, is an important leguminous food crop  
34 cultivated across Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) (Boukar et al. 2019). The grain and leaves of this staple crop have a high  
35 protein content, approximately 23 and 44 % respectively, providing an excellent source of dietary protein and livestock  
36 fodder (Horn et al. 2016; Samireddypalle et al. 2017). Alongside high protein content, cowpea is also a rich source of  
37 vitamins, micronutrients and amino acids (Jayathilake et al. 2018), which are extremely low in SSA diets typically  
38 dominated by cereals (Okoth et al. 2017). Cowpea consumption is further encouraged due to their high polyphenolic,  
39 flavonoids and bioactive peptide levels, which can reduce risk of certain health conditions like obesity or heart disease  
40 (Jayathilake et al. 2018). Being drought tolerant, cowpea can be grown in areas with marginal rainfall and limited  
41 irrigation potential (Agbicodo et al. 2009). Like most legumes, cowpea is able to fix atmospheric nitrogen through  
42 rhizobium symbiosis (Ehlers and Hall 1996) and adapted to grow in nutrient deficient soils (Elowad and Hall 1987).  
43 Despite the economic and agronomic importance of cowpea, yields produced by this crop in SSA are low, ranging  
44 from 250-350 kg/ha, compared to potential yields of 2000 kg/ha (Boukar et al. 2019). Insect pests, particularly aphids  
45 and the viral diseases they transmit, are among major constraints to achieving optimal yields (Saranya et al. 2010).

46 Cowpea aphid (*Aphis craccivora* Koch.) (Hemiptera: Aphididae), is an economically important cowpea pest  
47 in SSA (Pettersson et al. 1998). Aphids damage crops directly by feeding on phloem sap or indirectly through  
48 transmission of diseases (Ofuya 1997; Obopile and Ositile 2010). As aphids preferentially feed on seedlings, when  
49 plants are at their most vulnerable stage, large populations can reduce plant health (e.g., stunting) through direct  
50 feeding (Huynh et al. 2015). Ingestion of large volumes of phloem sap by aphids results in excretion of excess sugars  
51 as honeydew (Wilkinson and Douglas 2003), which provides a growth substrate for sooty moulds that reduce  
52 photosynthesis (Ouédraogo et al. 2018). The cumulative effect of feeding damage and sooty mould growth is stunting,  
53 delayed flowering, abortion of flower buds and plant death (Jackai and Daoust 1986). Cowpea aphid also transmits  
54 cowpea aphid-borne virus (CMV), a major disease that causes between 10% and 100% yield losses (Atiri et al. 1986;  
55 Taiwo et al. 2007). Cowpea aphid can cause yield losses of up to 50 % in the absence of control measures.

56 Foliar application of synthetic chemical insecticides, such as cypermethrin, deltamethrin, lambda-  
57 cyhalothrin, pirimicarb or thiamethoxam, are often used to reduce cowpea aphid populations (Musenga et al. 2016;  
58 Ezeaku et al. 2017; Reddy et al. 2018). However, the majority of SSA cowpea growers are unable to rely on chemical  
59 control due to these products often not being affordable or available (Bata et al. 1987; Ofuya 1997). This issue is  
60 further compounded by an overreliance on these products causing target organism resistance to certain active  
61 ingredients and therefore reducing their efficacy (Chen et al. 2007; Foster et al. 2014). It is also widely accepted that  
62 synthetic chemical insecticides can have negative impacts on human health and the environment if not sustainably  
63 used within an integrated pest management (IPM) framework (Desneux et al. 2006; James et al. 2016). In Europe, for  
64 example, several insecticides have been withdrawn for these reasons, leaving growers with few effective options for  
65 aphid management (Holland et al. 2019). There is an urgent need for cost-effective and sustainable alternatives to  
66 synthetic insecticides for managing cowpea aphid populations.

67 Insect resistant crop varieties offer a cost effective and environmentally friendly method for managing aphids  
68 in agricultural systems (Stout and Davis 2009). Such varieties may reduce reliance on synthetic pesticides to promote  
69 increased biodiversity and natural pest suppression (Pertot et al. 2017). Varietal resistance, however, is often overcome  
70 by the emergence of aphid biotypes adapted to survive on resistant plants (Yates and Michel 2018). For example,  
71 single dominant genes *Rac-1* (Bata et al. 1987) and *Rac-2* (Ombakho et al. 1987) that conferred resistance in most  
72 SSA cowpea cultivars succumbed to resistance-breaking cowpea aphid biotypes (Boukar et al. 2019). To maintain the  
73 effectiveness of insect resistant crop varieties, therefore, requires a regular supply of plant material with new sources  
74 of aphid resistance (Yates and Michel 2018).

75 Aphid resistance traits in plants may be classified in to three categories: (i) chemical deterrence to settling,  
76 (ii) physical barriers to feeding, and (iii) reduction in palatability (Züst and Agrawal 2016, Nalam et al. 2019). Plant  
77 cells on leaf surfaces often harbour lipids and secondary metabolites that may release aphid deterrent volatiles (Nalam  
78 et al. 2019). Trichomes on plant surfaces provide a physical barrier to aphid movement and feeding (Jaouannet et al.  
79 2014). Plants may contain compounds such as protease inhibitors and lectins which reduce palatability of phloem sap  
80 to aphids. Lectins bind to carbohydrates in the midgut of insects, interfering with their digestion processes and  
81 consequently reducing the performance of aphids (Chougule and Bonning 2012). Protease inhibitors interfere with  
82 protease function in herbivorous insects and inhibit protein metabolism (Zhu-Salzman and Zeng 2015). These anti-  
83 aphid plant traits may be expressed either constitutively or induced by feeding (Smith and Chuang 2014). To  
84 successfully breed aphid resistant cultivars, sources of resistance are needed. Such resistance sources could include  
85 wild relatives of crops, germplasm collections or induced mutations (Olasupo et al. 2018).

86 Mutations can be induced by exposing plant propagules to physical or chemical mutagens that cause genetic  
87 changes within the crop and generate different crop phenotypes (Novak and Brunner 1992; Mba et al. 2010). Such  
88 induced mutations often produce genes or alleles not present in the natural population, increasing the chances of  
89 generating novel resistance traits (Novak and Brunner 1992). Genotypes showing desired traits could be used as  
90 parental genotypes for future breeding programs or further processed into varieties using systematic breeding  
91 procedures (Mba et al. 2010). Much focus, however, has been given to addressing pathogen resistance in crops using  
92 induced mutagenesis (Gottschalk and Wolff 2012; Oladosu et al. 2016) while few studies have considered using this  
93 approach to develop aphid resistant cultivars (Kharkwal et al. 2004; Gottschalk and Wolff 2012). Induced mutagenesis  
94 usually results in loss-of-gene function and produces alleles that are often recessive to wild type plants (Sikora et al.  
95 2011). Additionally, induced mutagenesis may alter only one or a few genes producing minor changes in amino acid  
96 composition (Mba et al. 2010). Since aphid resistance in crops is mediated by polygenic dominant alleles (Dogimont  
97 et al. 2010), creating dominant gain-of-gene function to produce novel aphicidal amino acids is rare using induced  
98 mutagenesis. However, owing to the lack of access to modern breeding tools particularly in SSA (Botha et al. 2020;  
99 Qaim 2020) as well as increasing legislative restrictions on insecticide use, induced mutagenesis could support genetic  
100 enhancement of cowpea for aphid resistance to mitigate the yield losses associated with these pests. Given the above  
101 mentioned potential of induced mutagenesis, it was hypothesised that gamma irradiation of cowpea genotypes would  
102 induce genetic variation for cowpea aphid resistance. This study identified aphid resistant genotypes after gamma

103 irradiation of three susceptible cowpea varieties widely grown in Zambia and the mechanism(s) underpinning this  
104 resistance.

105

## 106 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 107 **Plants**

108 A total of eleven genotypes derived from three susceptible cowpea varieties were evaluated for aphid  
109 resistance. Susceptible cowpea varieties were Bubebe (BB), Lutembwe (LT) and Msandile (MS). Six genotypes BB  
110 3-9-7-5 (BB3), BB 7-9-7-5 (BB7), BB 8-1-7-5 (BB8), BB 10-4-2-3 (BB10), BB 14-16-2-2 (BB14) and BBV (BBVN1)  
111 were derived from BB, three LT 3-8-4-6 (LT3), LT 4-2-4-1 (LT4) and LT 11-3-3-12 (LT11) from LT, and two MS 1-  
112 8-1-4 (MS1) and MS 10-7-2-1 (MS10) from MS. Seed from the susceptible varieties Bubebe and Lutembwe were  
113 treated with 150 gray of gamma rays while Msandile was treated at a lower dose of 100 gray because it was more  
114 sensitive to radiation. Radiation of seed was carried out using a Co60 source at the National Institute for Scientific  
115 and Industrial Research (NISIR), Plant Science Centre, Zambia. Resulting mutation derived genotypes were then  
116 advanced to stable generations 8 -10 ( $M_8 - M_{10}$ ) before agronomic traits were evaluated. Genotypes used in this study  
117 were selected based on potential pesticidal traits including resistance to cowpea bruchid (*Callosobruchus maculatus*  
118 F.) (BB 7 and BB 14) (Tembo et al. 2017), anecdotal evidence of resistance to cowpea aphid (BB 10, BB 14 and LT  
119 3) and cowpea leaf blight (*Ascochyta* spp.) (BB 8, LT 11 and LT 4).

120 Three seeds of each cowpea genotype were sown in plastic pots (diameter and height: 9 cm) (LBS worldwide  
121 Ltd., Lancashire, UK) containing potting soil (John Innes No. 2, J. Arthur Bower's, Westland Horticulture Limited,  
122 Cheshire, UK) and placed in an insect proof mesh cage (60 x 60 x 60 cm, BugDorm-6S610, MegaView Science Co.  
123 Ltd, Taichung, Taiwan) within a controlled environment room maintained at 20 °C and 60 % relative humidity with  
124 a 16:8 photoperiod (Fitotron, Weiss Technik UK limited, Loughborough, UK). Seeds were allowed to germinate and  
125 grow until they were eight days old (BBCH growth stage 10) (Lancashire et al. 1991) before being thinned to leave  
126 one seedling per pot. No fertiliser was applied to the plants and irrigation was done by adding water to trays twice  
127 weekly throughout the study period. Plants used for each of the bioassays completed were 10-15 days old (BBCH  
128 growth stage 11-15).

129

### 130 **Aphid culture and age-synchronised cohort production**

131 A stock culture of cowpea aphid (*Aphis craccivora* Koch) was reared on cowpea seedlings in an insect proof  
132 mesh cage (47.5 x 47.5 x 47.5 cm, BugDorm-4S4545, MegaView Science Co. Ltd, Taichung, Taiwan) within a  
133 controlled environment room maintained at 20 °C and 60 % relative humidity with a 16:8 photoperiod. The culture  
134 was maintained by transferring aphids onto new cowpea seedlings weekly throughout the study period.

135 To produce a cohort of age-synchronised apterous adult aphids for use in bioassays, two to five apterous  
136 adult aphids were transferred onto individual cowpea seedlings within an insect proof mesh cage. After 24 hours, adult  
137 aphids were removed from the plants using a size 000 paintbrush to leave only first instar nymphs. To prevent escape  
138 of nymphs and plants becoming infested with other insects, each plant was covered with a fine light-transmitting mesh  
139 bag (0.3 x 0.4 m large organza bags; mesh size 0.5 mm, TtS Ltd, UK), secured around the pot using an elastic band.  
140 Plants were maintained in a controlled environment room at 20 °C and 60 % relative humidity with a 16:8 photoperiod  
141 until the nymphs moulted into adults (approximately seven to eight days).

142

### 143 **Cowpea aphid colony growth**

144 Colony growth of cowpea aphid nymphs was assessed using a procedure adapted from Soffan and Aldawood  
145 (2014). Using a size 000 paintbrush, 1-2-day old age-synchronised adult apterous aphids were individually placed  
146 onto cowpea plant leaves in an insect proof mesh cage (as described before) within a controlled environment room at  
147 20 °C and 60 % relative humidity with a 16:8 photoperiod. After 24 hours, all aphids were removed, leaving three  
148 first instar nymphs per plant. Each plant was covered with a fine light-transmitting mesh bag and returned to the  
149 controlled environment room. Fourteen days after infestation, total numbers of aphids (adults and nymphs) were  
150 counted and recorded. This experiment was replicated ten times for each cowpea genotype.

151

### 152 **Individual cowpea aphid performance**

153 Performance of individual cowpea aphids was evaluated as described by Hu et al. (2018). Aphids were  
154 individually placed onto cowpea plant leaves and maintained as described for the colony growth experiment. After 24  
155 hours, all aphids were removed, leaving a single first instar nymph per plant. Each plant was covered with a fine light-  
156 transmitting mesh bag and returned to the controlled environment room. Nymphs were monitored daily to record  
157 development time, fecundity, intrinsic rate of natural increase ( $r_m$ ), and population doubling time (DT). Measurement  
158 and calculation of each biological parameter was carried out as described in Table 1. A replicate was regarded as a  
159 single nymph placed on each cowpea genotype. This experiment was replicated fifteen times.

160 Mean relative growth rate of aphids was evaluated as described by Thieme and Heimbach, (1996). Aphids  
161 were individually placed onto cowpea plant leaves and maintained as described for the colony growth experiment.  
162 After 24 hours, all aphids were removed except ten first instar nymphs per plant which were weighed using a  
163 microbalance (XPR10 Ultra-microbalance, Mettler Toledo, Greifensee, Switzerland) to record the initial mean weight.  
164 After weighing, nymphs were placed back onto their respective plants and covered with a fine light-transmitting mesh  
165 bag. Plants were maintained in the controlled environment room for four days, when a single nymph from each plant  
166 was re-weighed to record the final weight. Mean relative growth rate was calculated as described in Table 1. Ten  
167 replications for each genotype were completed for the MRGR experiment.

168

## 169 **Feeding behaviour**

170 Direct-current (DC) electrical penetration graph (EPG) recording was used to monitor probing and feeding  
171 behaviour of apterous adult aphids (Tjallingii 1978). A plant probe, soldered to an electrical wire, was inserted into  
172 the moist soil of a potted plant while the free end of the wire was connected to the out-put voltage socket of the Giga-  
173 8-EPG device (EPG Systems, Wageningen, The Netherlands). An aphid probe was assembled by attaching a 3-4 cm  
174 piece of gold wire (diameter 20  $\mu\text{m}$ , EPG Systems) to the copper electrode end of brass pin using conductive silver  
175 glue (EPG Systems). Using this glue, the other end of the gold wire was attached onto the aphid dorsum. Brass pins  
176 with wired aphids were then inserted into the EPG probes mounted on retort stands. The EPG probes were carefully  
177 lowered to allow aphids contact with leaves of wired individual plants. Feeding behaviour of eight aphids was  
178 monitored simultaneously over a four-hour period using a Giga-8-EPG device connected to a laptop computer. Twenty  
179 recordings were carried out for each cowpea genotype. Plants and aphids were contained in a grounded faraday cage  
180 during EPG recording.

181 Data was acquired using the stylet+ D software (EPG Systems) while waveforms; non-probing (np), pathway  
182 phase (pp), sieve element phase (SEP) and xylem ingestion (G) were annotated using the stylet+ A software (EPG  
183 Systems) based on the wave categories described by Tjallingii (1978). Annotated waveforms were transformed into  
184 time-series data using the Excel macro software developed by (Sarria et al. 2009).

185

## 186 **Experimental design and data analysis**

187 Due to the homogeneity of environmental conditions in the controlled environment room as well as soil used  
188 to grow plants, a complete randomised design (CRD) was used for all experiments. Statistical analyses were carried  
189 out using R version 4.0.2 (R Core Team 2020). Prior to analysis, key assumptions for parametric statistical tests were  
190 checked. Data distributions were checked using the Shapiro-Wilk test while homogeneity of variance was assessed by  
191 the Bartlett test. Data that satisfied parametric test assumptions were analysed using one-way analysis of variance  
192 (ANOVA). Non-Gaussian data that had non-homogenous variance were log-transformed to meet parametric  
193 assumptions before analysis using one-way ANOVA and pairwise comparisons with the Holm-Sidak method. Data  
194 that did not meet parametric assumptions following log-transformation such as for colony growth and feeding  
195 behaviour were analysed with Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum tests.

196

## 197 **RESULTS**

### 198 **Cowpea aphid colony growth**

199 The total number of aphids after fourteen days of colony development was influenced by plant genotype (Fig.  
200 1). Significant differences in aphid colony growth were identified between the parent Bubebe and its associated  
201 genotypes derived through mutagenesis (Kruskal-Wallis:  $X^2 = 19.67$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) (Fig. 1A), with colony size  
202 reduced by 48.5 % on BB7, 31.6 % on BB14, 17.2 % on BB10 and, 5.8 % on BB3 (Fig. 1A). Similarly, significant

203 reductions in aphid colony growth were observed between mutation derived genotypes and the parent Lutembwe  
204 (Kruskal-Wallis:  $X^2 = 18.16$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 1B), with colony size reduced by 78.7 % on LT11, 69.3 % on  
205 LT3 and, 67.5 % on LT4 (Fig. 1B). Mutagenesis had no impact in reducing colony growth in genotypes derived from  
206 the parent Msandile (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 2.19$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) (Fig. 1C).

207

## 208 **Performance of individual cowpea aphids**

209 Aphid fecundity was significantly reduced on three genotypes (BB3, BB7 and BB10) derived from Bubebe  
210 through mutagenesis (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 8.23$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Table 2). Aphids reared on genotypes BB7,  
211 BB3 and BB10 had lower fecundity compared to the parent (Table 2). Aphid intrinsic rate of natural increase ( $r_m$ )  
212 differed between Bubebe and its derived genotypes (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 4.44$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Table 2).  
213 However, none of the genotypes reduced aphid  $r_m$  significantly when compared to the parent Bubebe (Table 2). Where  
214 aphid population doubling time was calculated, differences were identified between Bubebe and its associated  
215 genotypes derived through mutagenesis (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 4.41$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Table 2). None of the  
216 genotypes derived from Bubebe, however, increased aphid population doubling time compared to the parent (Table  
217 2). Aphid mean relative growth rate (MRGR) differed between Bubebe and its derived genotypes produced through  
218 mutagenesis (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 3.92$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) (Table 2). However, none of the other genotypes affected  
219 aphid MRGR when compared to their parent (Bubebe) (Table 2). There were no differences in nymph development  
220 time between Bubebe and its derived genotypes (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 0.80$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) (Table 2).

221 Significant differences in aphid fecundity were observed between the parent Lutembwe and its derived  
222 genotypes LT3, LT4 and LT11 (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 33.73$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Table 3). Reduced fecundity was  
223 observed in aphids feeding on LT3, LT4 and LT11 compared to their parent (Table 3). Aphid  $r_m$  differed between  
224 Lutembwe and its derived genotypes (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 11.75$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Table 3). Genotypes LT3,  
225 LT4 and LT11 resulted in lower aphid  $r_m$  compared to their parent (Table 3). Where aphid population doubling time  
226 was calculated, differences were detected between Lutembwe and its derived genotypes (one-way ANOVA:  $F =$   
227  $10.76$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Table 3). Genotypes LT3, LT4 and LT11 resulted in longer aphid population doubling time  
228 compared to the parent (Table 3). Differences in MRGR were identified between Lutembwe and its derived genotypes  
229 (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 14.61$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Table 3). On genotypes LT3, LT4 and LT11, recorded MRGRs  
230 were significantly lower than the parent (Table 3). No differences in nymph development time were detected between  
231 Lutembwe and derived genotypes (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 1.60$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) (Table 3).

232 Mutagenesis had no impact on promoting aphid resistant genotypes derived from the Msandile parent.

233

## 234 **Feeding behaviour**

235 Cowpea aphids showed differences in their feeding and probing behaviour within the leaf epidermis and  
236 mesophyll tissues (Figs. 2A and 2B). Significant differences in the duration of the first probe were observed between



237 the parent Lutembwe and genotypes derived from this parent through mutagenesis (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 3.12$ ,  $df =$   
238  $3$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 2A). The first aphid probe on the parent was longer compared to the genotype LT11 (Fig. 2A). The  
239 pathway phase (duration until first phloem puncture) differed significantly between the parent and respective  
240 genotypes LT3, LT4 and LT11 (Kruskal-Wallis:  $X^2 = 25.28$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 2B). Pathway phase duration was  
241 longer on genotype LT4 compared to the parent (Fig. 2B). There were no differences between parent genotype and its  
242 derived genotypes in the duration of phloem salivation (Kruskal-Wallis:  $X^2 = 7.96$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) (Fig. 2C) or  
243 phloem ingestion (one-way ANOVA:  $F = 1.07$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) (Fig. 2D).

244

## 245 **DISCUSSION**

246 This study highlights the potential role that induced mutagenesis has in generating novel sources of resistance  
247 for breeding aphid resistant crop varieties. It is evident from this study that the population and biological parameters  
248 of the cowpea aphid were significantly influenced by mutation derived cowpea genotypes. A colony growth bioassay  
249 was initially conducted to screen cowpea genotypes for potential resistance traits. Colony growth on BB 7-9-7-5, LT  
250 3-8-4-1, LT 4-2-4-1 and LT 11-3-3-12 were lower when compared to their respective parents Bubebe and Lutembwe,  
251 indicating the presence of aphid resistance traits in these genotypes. Morphological (*e.g.*, trichomes) and biochemical  
252 (*e.g.*, alkaloids, phenols, flavonoids) traits are known to influence cowpea aphid performance on cowpea (Ofuya  
253 1997). Lower aphid colony growth on BB 7-9-7-5, LT 3-8-4-1, LT 4-2-4-2 and LT 11-3-3-12 reflects reduced host  
254 quality of these genotypes (Soffan and Aldawood 2014), likely due to mutagenesis derived resistance traits (Viana et  
255 al. 2019). Results obtained from the colony development bioassay, however, need to be tested under field conditions  
256 to establish whether they can be replicated outside of the laboratory.

257 Although nymph development was not found to be lower on any cowpea genotypes produced through  
258 mutagenesis, there was a general trend of extended nymph development on BB 3-9-7-5, BB 8-1-7-5, BB 10-4-2-3 and  
259 LT 11-3-3-12 compared to their respective parents. Extended nymph development on these genotypes may indicate  
260 host resistance since aphid resistant traits are often associated with delayed adult emergence (Zimba, Sohati,  
261 Munyinda, Kamfwa, et al. 2022). However, it will be important to screen the promising genotypes with a range of  
262 widespread aphid clones to establish if the results reported here are consistent for a wider range of aphid biotypes.  
263 Particularly, such studies would help to assess if the promising genotypes in this study are effective against the  
264 previously reported resistance breaking aphid biotypes.

265 Cowpea aphid fecundity was reduced on genotypes BB 7-9-7-5, BB 3-9-7-5, BB 10-4-2-3, LT 3-8-4-1, LT  
266 4-2-4-2 and LT 11-3-3-12 compared to their respective parents, possibly indicating the presence of resistance factors  
267 including reduced nutrition quality of these genotypes. Genetic effects of induced mutagenesis such as base  
268 substitution and gene deletion (Viana et al. 2019) may have led to changes in the composition of amino acids and  
269 secondary metabolites (*i.e.*, polyphenols and flavonoids) in these genotypes, which could have led to poor nutrition  
270 and therefore lower fecundity of aphids. Indeed, Douglas and Prosser (1992) showed that exclusion of essential amino  
271 acids such as tryptophan in artificial diets reduced the fitness of the pea aphid (*Acyrtosiphon pisum*). Lattanzio et al.

272 (2000) also demonstrated that high levels of flavonoids, such as quercetin and isorhamnetin, in cowpea genotypes  
273 inhibited cowpea aphid reproduction. Mean relative growth rate (MRGR) is often used as a predictor of aphid  
274 reproductive performance since lower weight gains are correlated with reduced fecundity (Obopile and Ositile 2010).  
275 Lower aphid MRGRs on LT 3-8-4-1, LT 4-2-4-2, and LT 11-3-3-12 were also associated with lower fecundity  
276 compared to the parent, which may suggest reduced food quality of these genotypes due to potential resistant factors  
277 described above. Phytochemicals and low nutritional values associated with resistant crop cultivars may reduce fitness  
278 of omnivorous natural enemies of aphids (Lundgren et al. 2008). Therefore further studies are needed to assess if  
279 promising aphid resistant genotypes are compatible with natural enemies within IPM systems (Michereff et al. 2015).

280 Intrinsic rate of natural increase ( $r_m$ ) is a function of nymph development ( $d$ ) and fecundity ( $M_d$ ) (Wyatt and  
281 White 1977). This development metric is a useful summary parameter that provides an estimate of aphid performance  
282 when reared on different host plants and has been widely used to evaluate aphid resistance in crop cultivars (Obopile  
283 and Ositile 2010, Leybourne et al. 2019). Higher  $r_m$  values indicate greater growth potential when aphid populations  
284 are reared on susceptible host plants (Dixon 1998). Genotypes LT 3-8-4-1, LT 4-2-4-2 and LT 11-3-3-12 resulted in  
285 lower aphid  $r_m$  compared to their parent, indicating host plant resistance and an inhibition of aphid population growth.  
286 This corroborates with findings by Obopile and Ositile (2010) and Soffan and Aldawood (2014) who reported  
287 significantly lower values of aphid  $r_m$  when reared on resistant genotypes of cowpea and broad bean (*Vicia faba* L.)  
288 respectively. Indeed, aphid colony growth on genotypes LT 3-8-4-1, LT 4-2-4-2 and LT 11-3-3-12 was reduced  
289 suggesting poor aphid performance on these lines.

290 Population doubling time (DT) is the time it takes for the aphid population to double in size. Aphid  
291 populations took, on average, 0.3 days longer to double on genotypes LT 3-8-4-1, LT 4-2-4-2 and LT 11-3-3-12  
292 compared to their parent genotype. Feeding analysis by EPG indicated a reduced first probe (duration of first stylet  
293 movement within the leaf epidermal layer) duration on LT 11-3-3-12, suggesting the presence of epidermal barriers  
294 (*i.e.*, epicuticular chemical compounds) to leaf penetration by the aphid stylet (Leybourne et al. 2019). Moreover, the  
295 longer pathway phase (duration of stylet movement from leaf surface until phloem puncture) in these genotypes may  
296 further suggest the presence of resistance factors in the mesophyll. Previous studies have demonstrated the  
297 contribution of epidermal (Leybourne et al. 2019) and mesophyll (Kamphuis et al. 2012) based aphid resistance factors  
298 in plants. However, biochemical and morphological characterisation of cowpea leaves would be useful in future  
299 studies.

300 Genotypes BB 7-9-7-5 and BB 14-16-2-2 are resistant to cowpea bruchid (*C. maculatus*) (Tembo et al. 2017).  
301 Although BB 14-16-2-2 did not affect colony growth or most indicators of individual cowpea aphid performance,  
302 reduced aphid fecundity observed on BB 7-9-7-5 suggests cross-resistance to cowpea aphid. BB 7-9-7-5 resistance to  
303 cowpea aphid and cowpea bruchid may be mediated by biochemical compounds that have broader insecticidal activity,  
304 such as alpha-amylase inhibitors, tannins, phenolic compounds, lectins and protease inhibitors (War et al. 2012).  
305 Previous field observations on genotypes BB 8-1-7-5, LT 11-3-3-12 and LT 4-2-4-2 indicated low incidences of the  
306 leaf blight (*Ascochyta* spp.) (unpublished). While BB 8-1-7-5 did not affect cowpea aphid biology, several parameters  
307 (nymph development, fecundity, MRGR,  $r_m$  and DT) were adversely affected by genotypes LT 11-3-3-12 and LT 4-

308 2-4-2, which may further indicate resistance to both leaf blight and cowpea aphid. Aphid and pathogen resistance  
309 genes are often clustered on the same region of the chromosomes (Dogimont et al. 2010). For example, the *Ra* gene  
310 on chromosome 2 in lettuce, which mediates resistance against the lettuce root aphid (*Pemphigus bursarius* L.), is  
311 clustered together with downy mildew resistance genes on the chromosome (Wroblewski et al. 2007; Christopoulou  
312 et al. 2015). Typically, plants respond to aphid feeding in a similar way to plant pathogens (Zimba, Sohata, Munyinda,  
313 Roberts, et al. 2022). Due to this common genomic locale of aphid and pathogen resistance genes, supposed  
314 chromosomal alterations due to mutagenesis in LT 4-2-4-2 and LT 11-3-3-12 may have induced genetic variations for  
315 both pathogen and aphid resistance traits. However, genetic characterisation of genotypes BB 7, LT 4-2-4-2 and LT  
316 11-3-3-12 requires further work to elucidate mechanisms of resistance.

317 In conclusion, this study shows that aphids reared on genotypes LT 3-8-4-6, LT 4-2-4-1 and LT 11-3-3-12  
318 that were produced through mutagenesis had lower colony growth, fecundity, MRGR,  $r_m$  and DT compared to the  
319 parent. Among the genotypes derived from the parent Bubebe through mutagenesis, genotype BB7 had the effect of  
320 significantly reducing cowpea aphid colony growth compared to the parent. Characterisation of aphid probing and  
321 feeding behaviour using EPG indicates that resistance factors in genotypes LT 3-8-4-6, LT 4-2-4-1 and LT 11-3-3-12  
322 may predominantly reside within the epidermal and mesophyll tissues of cowpea leaves. Genotypes BB 7-9-7-5, LT  
323 3-8-4-6, LT 4-2-4-1 and LT 11-3-3-12 are therefore promising lines that should be further evaluated for useful genetic  
324 attributes that may be used to develop aphid resistant cowpea varieties. Although developing aphid resistance using  
325 induced mutagenesis is associated with several challenges as highlighted above, this study shows that using this  
326 approach could contribute to sustainable management of aphid pests in crops. Furthermore, the long history of safe  
327 use, low cost of equipment as well as wide acceptability makes induced mutagenesis an important technique that could  
328 be exploited further to speed up the delivery of aphid resistant crop varieties in SSA.

329

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334

## 335 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

336 KJZ, TWP and JMR conceived and designed the paper. KJZ wrote the manuscript while TWP, JMR, PHS and KM  
337 critically reviewed and edited the draft. All authors approved the final manuscript.

338

## 339 **Availability of data and material**

340 Data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author (KJZ), upon reasonable  
341 request.

342

343 **Code availability**

344 Not available.

345

346 **DECLARATIONS**

347 **Conflict of interest**

348 Authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

349

350 **Ethical approval**

351 Not applicable.

352

353 **Consent to participate**

354 Not applicable.

355

356 **Consent for publication**

357 Not applicable.

358

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513

## TABLES

**TABLE 1** Description of aphid parameters measured in the study

<b>Aphid parameter</b>	<b>measurement</b>
Nymph development ( $d$ )	Duration from birth to onset of reproduction
Fecundity ( $M_d$ )	Total number of nymphs born from an individual aphid after adult emergence within a duration equivalent to $d$
Intrinsic rate of natural increase ( $r_m$ )	$\frac{0.738 \ln(Md)}{d}$
Population doubling time (DT)	$\frac{\ln(2)}{r_m}$
Mean relative growth rate (MRGR)	$\frac{(\log(W_2) - \log(W_1))}{(t_2 - t_1)}$

$W_1$  = initial mean weight of nymphs,  $W_2$  = weight of a single nymph after four days,  $(t_2 - t_1)$  = period (days) between the initial ( $t_1$ ) and final weighing ( $t_2$ ).

**TABLE 2** Performance of cowpea aphid on Bubebe genotypes (mean  $\pm$  SE). SE = standard error.  $n = 10$ . Means followed by the same letter in the same row are not significantly different (Holm-Sidak post-hoc test).  $d$  = nymph development,  $M_d$  = fecundity,  $r_m$  = intrinsic rate of natural increase, DT = development time and, MRGR = mean relative growth rate

Parameters	Cowpea genotypes						
	Bubebe	BB 3-9-7-5	BB 7-9-7-5	BB 8-1-7-5	BB 10-4-2-3	BB 14-16-2-2	BB VN1
$d$	7.73 $\pm$ 0.118 a	7.87 $\pm$ 0.192 a	7.73 $\pm$ 0.153 a	7.60 $\pm$ 0.131 a	7.67 $\pm$ 0.126 a	7.60 $\pm$ 0.131 a	7.47 $\pm$ 0.133 a
$M_d$	62.00 $\pm$ 3.925 c	42.67 $\pm$ 2.499 a	42.53 $\pm$ 1.518 a	60.73 $\pm$ 2.726 bc	48.53 $\pm$ 3.458 ab	51.27 $\pm$ 3.078 abc	62.00 $\pm$ 2.926 c
$r_m$	0.39 $\pm$ 0.006 abc	0.36 $\pm$ 0.010 ab	0.36 $\pm$ 0.009 a	0.40 $\pm$ 0.010 bc	0.37 $\pm$ 0.010 abc	0.38 $\pm$ 0.009 abc	0.41 $\pm$ 0.009 c
DT	1.78 $\pm$ 0.031 ab	1.94 $\pm$ 0.051 b	1.94 $\pm$ 0.046 b	1.75 $\pm$ 0.043 ab	1.89 $\pm$ 0.052 ab	1.83 $\pm$ 0.040 ab	1.71 $\pm$ 0.040 a
MRGR	0.16 $\pm$ 0.013 ab	0.14 $\pm$ 0.010 a	0.13 $\pm$ 0.014 a	0.15 $\pm$ 0.005 b	0.14 $\pm$ 0.009 a	0.19 $\pm$ 0.009 ab	0.18 $\pm$ 0.016 ab

**TABLE 3** Performance of cowpea aphid on Lutembwe genotypes (mean  $\pm$  SE). SE = standard error.  $n = 10$ . Means followed by the same letter in the same row are not significantly different (Holm-Sidak post-hoc test).  $d$  = nymph development,  $M_d$  = fecundity,  $r_m$  = intrinsic rate of natural increase, DT = development time and, MRGR = mean relative growth rate

Parameters	Cowpea genotypes			
	Lutembwe	LT 3-8-4-6	LT 4-2-4-1	LT 11-3-3-12
$d$	7.53 $\pm$ 0.133 a	7.40 $\pm$ 0.131 a	7.53 $\pm$ 0.215 a	7.87 $\pm$ 0.133 a
$M_d$	65.60 $\pm$ 1.740 b	39.33 $\pm$ 2.464 a	42.73 $\pm$ 2.357 a	37.00 $\pm$ 2.430 a
$r_m$	0.41 $\pm$ 0.008 b	0.36 $\pm$ 0.007 a	0.37 $\pm$ 0.010 a	0.34 $\pm$ 0.010 a
DT	1.70 $\pm$ 0.032 b	1.91 $\pm$ 0.036 a	1.90 $\pm$ 0.059 a	2.08 $\pm$ 0.057 a
MRGR	0.18 $\pm$ 0.009 b	0.11 $\pm$ 0.012 a	0.10 $\pm$ 0.007 a	0.09 $\pm$ 0.015 a

**TABLE 4** Performance of cowpea aphid on Msandile genotypes (mean  $\pm$  SE). SE = standard error.  $n = 10$ . Means followed by the same letter in the same row are not significantly different (Holm-Sidak post-hoc test).  $d$  = nymph development,  $M_d$  = fecundity,  $r_m$  = intrinsic rate of natural increase, DT = development time and, MRGR = mean relative growth rate

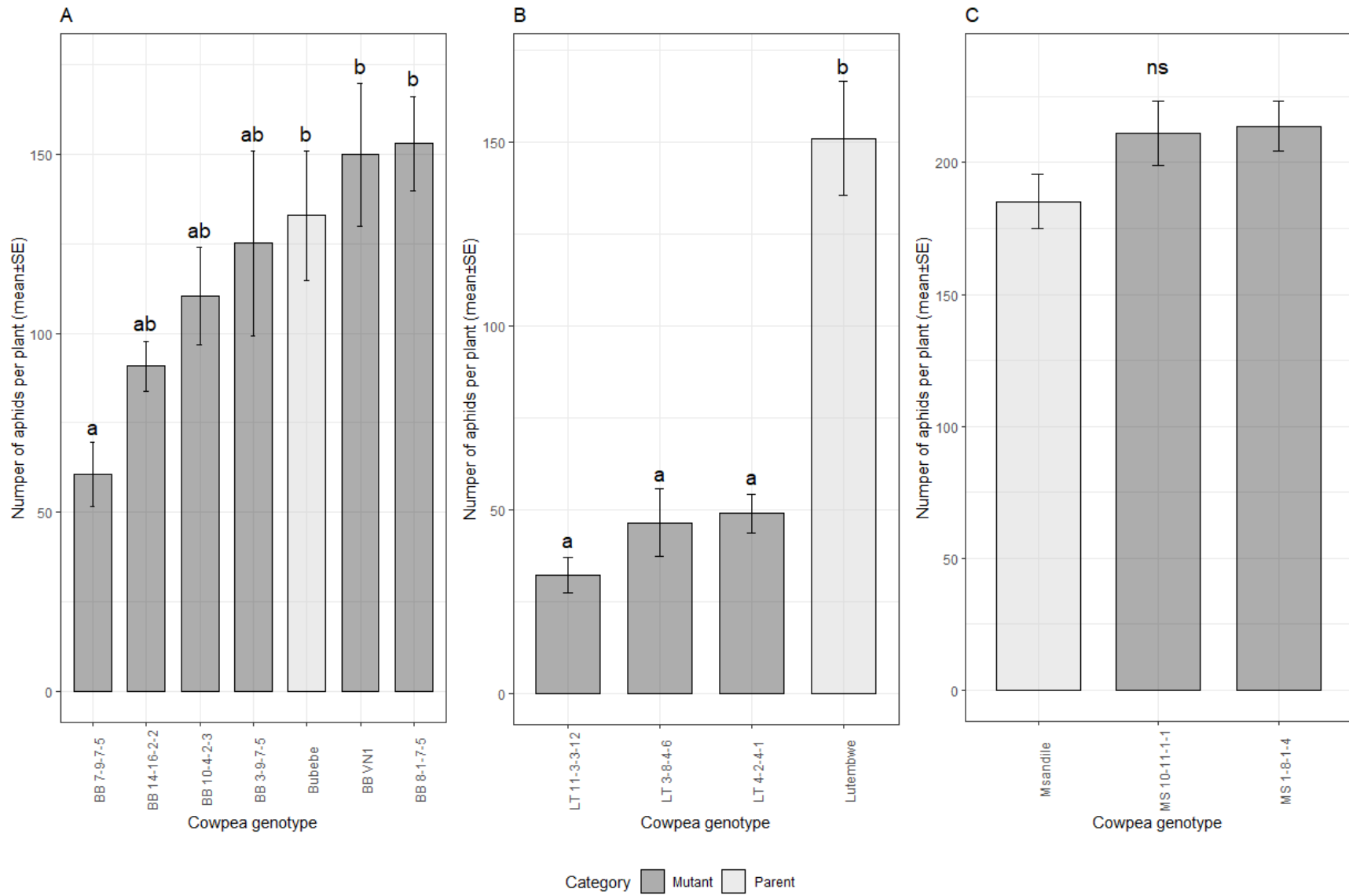
Parameters	Cowpea genotypes		
	Msandile	MS 1-8-1-4	MS 10-11-1-1
$d$	7.60 $\pm$ 0.163	7.40 $\pm$ 0.131	7.60 $\pm$ 0.163
$M_d$	72.33 $\pm$ 2.425	72.87 $\pm$ 2.569	75.67 $\pm$ 2.259
$r_m$	0.42 $\pm$ 0.007	0.43 $\pm$ 0.005	0.42 $\pm$ 0.008
DT	1.67 $\pm$ 0.031	1.62 $\pm$ 0.020	1.65 $\pm$ 0.034
MRGR	0.20 $\pm$ 0.011	0.17 $\pm$ 0.013	0.20 $\pm$ 0.010

## FIGURE LEGEND

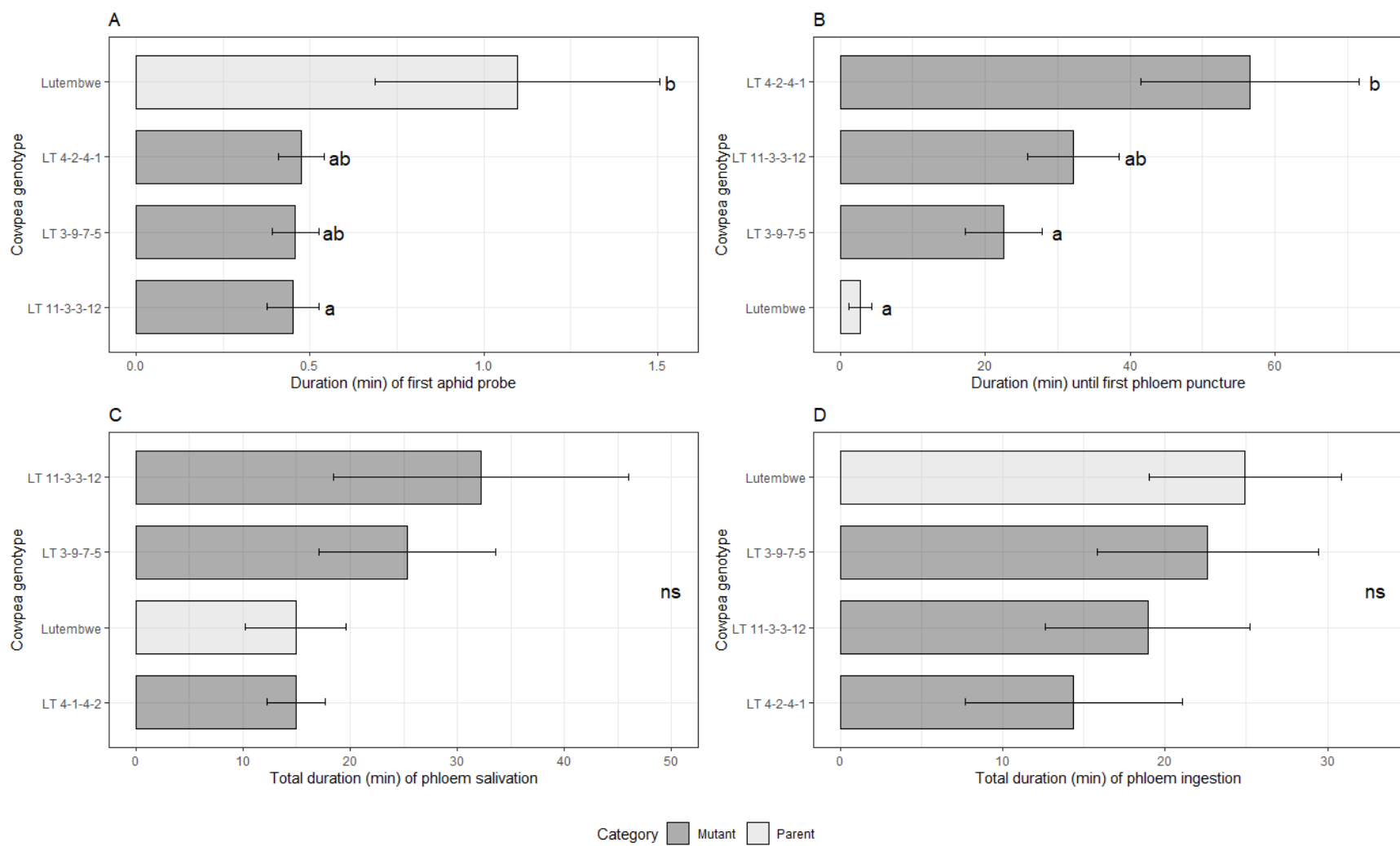
**Fig. 1** Aphid colony growth on (A) Bubebe, (B) Lutembwe and, (C) Msandile genotypes.  $n = 10$ . Error bars represent standard error of the mean (SE), Bars followed by different letters are significantly different (Holm-Sidak post-hoc test), ns = non-significant differences among bars.

**Fig. 2** Aphid probing and feeding behaviour on cowpea genotypes. (A) duration of first aphid probe, (B) duration until first phloem puncture, (C) total duration of phloem salivation and, (D) total duration of phloem ingestion. (E) total time of phloem salivation. Error bars represent standard error of the mean (SE), Bars followed by different letters are significantly different (Holm-Sidak post-hoc test), ns = non-significant differences among bars.  $n = 12$ .

**FIGURES**



**Fig. 1** Aphid colony growth on (A) Bubebe, (B) Lutembwe and, (C) Msandile genotypes.  $n = 10$ . Error bars represent standard error of the mean (SE), Bars followed by different letters are significantly different (Holm-Sidak post-hoc test), ns = non-significant differences among bars



**Fig. 2** Aphid probing and feeding behaviour on cowpea genotypes. (A) duration of first aphid probe, (B) duration until first phloem puncture, (C) total duration of phloem salivation and, (D) total duration of phloem ingestion. (E) total time of phloem salivation. Error bars represent standard error of the mean (SE), Bars followed by different letters are significantly different (Holm-Sidak post-hoc test), ns = non-significant differences among bars.  $n = 12$ .