

INSECT TRANSGENESIS

Methods and Applications



EDITED BY

Alfred M. Handler
Anthony A. James

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Preface

The transfer of genetic material into the genome of insects has been a goal of geneticists and entomologists for more than 30 years, and with the successful transposon-mediated transformation of *Drosophila melanogaster* reported by Rubin and Spradling in 1982, efforts have been focused on duplicating this methodology in insects of agricultural and medical importance. The transfer of *Drosophila* transformation systems to other insects, however, has not been straightforward, and only in the past several years have notable successes been reported. These recent successes have resulted from a maturation over the past decade of all aspects of gene transfer technology. As with *Drosophila*, transformation in tephritid fruit flies, mosquitoes, and moths has been achieved with transposon-based vectors, although most have taken advantage of newly discovered elements. Viral transformation vectors are beginning to meet with success, and symbiont-mediated transformation is already finding practical application. The development of reliable marker gene systems has been important to the progress achieved in transgenesis. Genes encoding the green fluorescent protein or its variants appear to have broad utility as marker genes for screening transformants, and these genes may be used as reporter genes in transformation-based analyses of promoter function. Furthermore, genes encoding enzymes important in establishing eye color in insects continue to be useful when appropriate mutant recipient strains are available. Work continues on selectable marker genes such as those that encode enzymes involved in insecticide or antibiotic resistance, and these may be available soon for analyzing large numbers of potential transformants.

The high level of interest in insect transgenesis has resulted in two major forums for the discussion of this research: the Keystone Symposium, Toward the Genetic Manipulation of Insects, held in 1995 and 1998, and the International Workshop Series on Transgenesis of Invertebrate Organisms, held every 2 years since 1995. The idea for this book arose, in part, from discussions at these meetings that indicated that the field was at a turning point where rapid progress was being made and a wider dissemination of ideas was necessary for these results and techniques to reach the scientific mainstream. This was especially important since many of the researchers worldwide who might take greatest advantage of the methodology have remained unaware of the current state of the art. It also has become clear that despite recent breakthroughs, none of the successful systems or specific techniques will be useful for all insects. Thus, it seemed important to present the existing methodologies so that others might understand the potentials and pitfalls relevant to their species of interest (which also includes noninsect invertebrate systems). While some of the available systems might be directly utilized, it is also a hope that the information provided here will serve as a foundation and guide for independent investigation leading to new methods and strategies. Only in this way will the field continue to advance.

As insect transgenesis becomes more routine and widespread, more applications will depend on the release, if not mass release, of transgenic strains. This raises important ecological concerns that undoubtedly will be challenging, and the need for biological risk assessment to address these concerns in a rational and comprehensive manner cannot be understated. Many of the chapters in this volume address these questions relevant to particular systems, with a more in-depth consideration given in the final two chapters that discuss risk assessment from a scientific and regulatory standpoint. It is clear that these issues will differ for each release in terms of the specific transgene, the transgenic host, and the particular ecological niches into which the insects are released or which they must invade. Each investigator interested in creating transgenic strains for release must be highly aware of these issues, and take them into consideration in the planning stages of vector

development and strategies for use of the transgenic strain. We also hope that the information provided here will be a starting point for what will be an ongoing discussion.

The contributors to this book include many of the invited speakers to the Keystone Symposia and Transgenesis Workshops, all of whom are held in high regard in their fields of expertise. While we have tried to include all of the major areas of importance to insect transgenesis, some existing or potential vector and marker systems may have been given only limited attention. In a rapidly developing field such as this, new systems appearing close to the time of publication may have been omitted, although we have tried as much as possible to anticipate these possibilities. In terms of strategies for the use of transgenic insects, there are numerous possibilities for both basic and applied purposes, and here we provide only a sampling of strategies for insects that are plant predators and vectors of disease. Again, the purpose of this book is to serve as a foundation and guide to this emerging field, and as with most scientific disciplines, it is important if not critical to be continually kept up to date by frequent literature reviews. Comprehensive reference lists, appendices, and Web-site listings have been included in this volume to help with this process.

In many ways, and possibly due to the many roadblocks encountered early on, the field of insect transgenesis has become a large, collaborative effort. We therefore very sincerely thank the contributors to this book who have been on the vanguard of this effort, as well as numerous other colleagues who have helped lay the foundation for this technology in past years and those who have more recently provided data and ideas that have contributed to successes. We especially acknowledge the contribution of one of our mentors, Howard A. Schneiderman, to whom this book is dedicated. Schneiderman was the founder and first director of the Developmental Biology Center (DBC) at the University of California, Irvine, where we did research as a student (AAJ) and post-doc (AMH). Schneiderman was a leading insect physiologist, who early on appreciated the power of genetics to understand all phases of insect biology, and this led him to become one of the first insect biologists to turn a large portion of his research efforts toward the use of *Drosophila* as a model system. This was not only to understand genetics, but also to understand insects. It is not surprising that some of the first attempts at *Drosophila* transformation were undertaken at the DBC. Later on in his career, Schneiderman became Vice President for Research and Development at Monsanto where he led this company's pioneering endeavors into plant transgenics. Beyond ourselves, others who were trained as *Drosophila* geneticists at the DBC have gone on to become leaders in genetic analysis and transgenesis of non-drosophilid insects and other organisms and, by doing so, are hopefully carrying forward and helping complete the circle of Schneiderman's original thoughts and inspiration.

We are grateful to those who provided enormous assistance throughout the development and production of this book including Lynn Olson at the University of California, Irvine, and members of CRC Press editorial and production staff including Christine Andreasen, Pat Roberson, and John Sulzycki.

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Editors

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Dr. Handler's research at the USDA-ARS has centered on the use of transgenic insects for biological control programs. Most of his efforts have focused on the development of efficient gene transfer vector and marker systems.

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Dr. James was a principal investigator with the Network on the Biology of Parasite Vectors funded by the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation and was a recipient of the Molecular Parasitology Award from the Burroughs-Wellcome Fund. He is a fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the Royal Entomological Society of London. He is a founding editor of *Insect Molecular Biology*, and is on the editorial board of *Experimental Parasitology*.

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*Dedicated to the memory of
Howard A. Schneiderman*

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Section I

Introduction

1 An Introduction to the History and Methodology of Insect Gene Transfer

Alfred M. Handler

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1.1 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON INSECT GENE TRANSFER

The use of genetic material as recombinant DNA and the ability to integrate it into a host genome has proved to be a powerful method for genetic analysis and manipulation, providing a major new era in the field of genetics. Prokaryotic gene transformation was actually realized early on, and in fact the pivotal bacterial transformation studies by Avery et al. (1944) gave definitive proof to DNA being the inherited genetic material. Continued prokaryotic genetic transformation studies, indeed,

helped lay the foundation for modern molecular genetics. It is thus not surprising that geneticists attempted to duplicate this methodology in eucaryotes as well, long before eucaryotic DNA could be isolated as recombinant molecules and analyzed in a meaningful way.

The genetic transformation of insects was first attempted in *Ephestia* nearly 35 years ago, when mutant larvae were injected with wild-type DNA, with some developing into adults with wild-type wing scales (Caspari and Nawa, 1965). In subsequent studies with *Ephestia* (Nawa and Yamada, 1968) and *Bombyx mori* (Nawa et al., 1971), complementation of eye color mutations was observed after treatment with wild-type DNA. While these experiments yielded wild-type adults and at least limited non-Mendelian inheritance of the normal phenotype, it is likely that these initial insect transformations were somatic with inheritance occurring extrachromosomally. Shortly after the initial studies in moths, transformation of *Drosophila melanogaster* was similarly attempted, although delivery of wild-type DNA was achieved by soaking embryos in genomic DNA within ringers or sucrose solutions. As with the moth studies, somatic mosaics resulted, but inheritance of the reverted phenotypes was not clearly Mendelian and it was concluded that genetic transformation had occurred extrachromosomally, with episomal transmission and not chromosomal integration (Fox and Yoon, 1966; 1970; Fox et al., 1970).

More recent approaches to insect transformation began with studies in *Drosophila* that relied on the direct injection of wild-type DNA into embryos. These attempts to revert the *vermilion* (*v*) mutant line met with some success (Germeraad, 1976), although integrations were not verified beyond the genetic mapping of the complementing gene outside of the *v* locus (suggesting that a direct *v* reversion had not occurred), but the transformed lines were subsequently lost without further genetic or biochemical verification.

1.1.1 P-ELEMENT TRANSFORMATION

Concurrent with the *vermilion* studies, the role of P factors in *Drosophila* hybrid dysgenesis was being elucidated (Kidwell et al., 1977), culminating in the identification and isolation of the P transposable element as the responsible agent. In now classical experiments by Rubin et al. (1982) and Rubin and Spradling (1982), P was first isolated from a P-induced mutation of *white* in *D. melanogaster*, and then developed into the first transposon-based system to transform the germline of *D. melanogaster* efficiently and stably (see Engels, 1989, for a comprehensive review of the discovery and early analysis of P).

P was found to be 2.9 kb in length with 31 bp inverted terminal repeats (O'Hare and Rubin, 1983), similar in general structure to *Activator*, the first transposable element to be discovered in maize by Barbara McClintock (see Federoff, 1989). Both of these elements, as well as all the subsequently discovered transposons used for insect germline transformation, belong to a general group of transposable elements known as Class II short inverted terminal repeat transposons (see Finnegan, 1989). These elements transpose via a DNA-intermediate and generally utilize a cut-and-paste mechanism that creates a duplication of the insertion site. Within the terminal repeats of these elements is a transcriptional unit that encodes a transposase molecule that acts at or near the termini to catalyze excision and transposition of the complete element. As first described by Rubin and Spradling (1982), the ability of the transposase to act in *trans* has allowed the development of binary vector-helper systems (Figure 1.1). Typically the vector plasmid includes the mobile terminal repeats of the element and requisite proximal internal sequences that surround a marker gene. The vector is made nonautonomous by having the transposase gene either deleted or disrupted by insertion of the marker gene, and thus it is unable to move by itself. The transposase is provided on a separate helper plasmid, and, after introduction into germ cell nuclei, the helper mediates transposition of the vector into the genome. The original helper was an autonomous P element ($p\pi 25.1$) that had the ability to integrate as well, and its presence could cause instability of the vector in subsequent generations (if not earlier). This problem was ameliorated somewhat by having much higher vector-to-helper ratios, but was solved more