We are IntechOpen, the world’s leading publisher of Open Access books
Built by scientists, for scientists

6,600
Open access books available

177,000
International authors and editors

195M
Downloads

154
Countries delivered to

TOP 1%
Our authors are among the most cited scientists

12.2%
Contributors from top 500 universities

WEB OF SCIENCE™
Selection of our books indexed in the Book Citation Index in Web of Science™ Core Collection (BKCI)

Interested in publishing with us?
Contact book.department@intechopen.com

Numbers displayed above are based on latest data collected.
For more information visit www.intechopen.com
Chapter 6

Current Status of the Insecticide Resistance in *Aedes aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae) from Mexico

Adriana E. Flores-Suarez, Gustavo Ponce-Garcia, Beatriz Lopez-Monroy, Olga Karina Villanueva-Segura, Iram Pablo Rodriguez-Sanchez, Juan Ignacio Arredondo-Jimenez and Pablo Manrique-Saide

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/61526

Abstract

The mosquito *Aedes aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae) is the primary vector of dengue in Mexico and lately virus Chikungunya, although *Aedes albopictus* is widely distributed; its role in both diseases' transmission has not been confirmed. The control of mosquitoes in Mexico includes source reduction consisting in the elimination of containers that are favorable sites for oviposition and development of the aquatic stage. The use of insecticides is to control larvae and adulticides as outdoor ultra-low volume applications and indoor residual spray and more recently impregnated materials. The health department regulates the use of insecticides, and such regulations are revised and adapted over time. Since 1999, the vector control regulations gave preference to the use of pyrethroids, a permethrin-based formulation to control adult forms. This insecticide was used as the only adulticide in Mexico for more than 10 years. The consequences of this actions has evolved in a widespread and strong resistance to other insecticides, mainly pyrethroids. We include in this revision evidence of resistance reported in *Ae. aegypti* in Mexico.

Keywords: *Aedes aegypti*, pyrethroids, kdr, V1016I, F1534C, Mexico

1. Introduction

*Aedes aegypti* is the primary urban vector of the viruses causing dengue, Chikungunya, and yellow fever [1–4]. The females are primarily endophagic (feeds indoors) and endophilic (lives indoors) day-biting vectors that feed preferentially on humans [5–7]. They take multiple blood meals before producing an egg batch [8,9], creating the potential for a single infectious female to transmit the virus to more than one person. The females lay their eggs
in containers found in the peridomestic environment, and that is where the immature larvae and pupae develop [10,11]. *Ae. aegypti* is ubiquitous in populated areas of Mexico up to ~1,500 m above sea level [12]. *Aedes albopictus*, which is the primary vector of dengue and Chikungunya viruses, is ubiquitous in rural settings [13–15]. This human biter was introduced into Texas in the 1980s and has spread widely in northern and central Mexico, and the far southern part of the country [16–18]. Urban environments have favored the presence and abundance of *Ae. aegypti* in 30 of 32 states of Mexico (with exception of Tlaxcala and the Federal District) [19–21], and consequently, they have caused the endemic transmission of dengue and more recently, in 2014, of Chikungunya [22].

2. Study area

Mexico is in the southern part of North America, between 14° 32 and 32° 43 North and 86° 42 and 118° 27 West. The country is divided administratively into 31 states and one federal district (Mexico City). Mexico has a land area of 1,964,375 km². It is surrounded by the Gulf of Mexico and Caribbean Sea to the east, the United States of America to the north, the Pacific Ocean to the south and west, and Belize and Guatemala to the southeast. The main features of the physiography of Mexico are Northern and Southern Plateau. Two mountain chains, the Sierra Madre Oriental on the east and The Sierra Madre Occidental on the west, leave plains along the shores of the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific Ocean. The Sierra Madre Oriental obstructs the circulation of air from the Gulf of Mexico toward Northern and Central Mexico. This characteristic on physiography allows a variety of climates, and the altitude performs a dominant effect on temperature. The prevalent climate conditions are dry to arid in the country. The North territory (47.7%) presents arid and semiarid conditions (23.5%), subhumid with 7 months of long dry season prevailing in Central Mexico, 16.3% presents dry tropical mainly the shores, 12.4% of the territory located in Southern Mexico presents humid tropical climate, and in both mountain chains small areas with humid temperate climate are found [23].

3. The situation of dengue and Chikungunya fever in Mexico

A recent study estimated that up to 390 million dengue virus (DENV) infections, including close to 100 million cases of dengue disease manifestations, occur annually across the world [24]. *Ae. aegypti* and DENV were widely distributed in the Americas in the early 1900s, but a campaign against yellow fever initiated in 1947 and continued to the early 1970s resulted in both the mosquito and its associated viruses being eliminated from most of Central and South America and from Mexico [25]. Success then bred failure as resources were diverted to other health problems. From the 1980s, *Ae. aegypti* has reemerged in the Americas, facilitated by uncontrolled urbanization providing ample opportunities for mosquito breeding and population growth [1,25]. The mosquito now has regained the full extent of its range from a century
ago. This reemergence of the vector combined with global trafficking of DENV in infected humans through increased air travel have led to the Americas becoming hyperendemic, with cocirculation of all four DENV serotypes in many areas [26,27]. In Mexico, dengue reemerged with a DENV-1 outbreak in 1979 followed by outbreaks of the other serotypes in the next two decades [25,28,29]. In 2009, a major dengue epidemic with nearly 250,000 reported clinical cases occurred in Mexico (55,363 confirmed) and this epidemic has continued through 2010 with ~58,000 clinical cases (22,352 confirmed) , 2011 with ~68,000 cases (15,578 confirmed) , 2012 with ~165,000 cases (84,612 confirmed) , 2013 with ~232,000 cases (62,330 confirmed) , 2014 with 125,000 cases (32,100 confirmed), and 2015 (up to September 25, 2015 ~125,000 clinical cases with 13,454 confirmed) [30].

The autochthonous transmission of Chikungunya in the Region of the Americas was first detected on December 2013. By July 2014, an imported case was reported in Mexico, two more imported cases appeared on September 5. By the end of 2014, a total of 131 autochthonous confirmed cases were reported as well as a total of 13 imported cases; and ~7,500 confirmed cases by October 2, 2015 [30].

4. Vector control in Mexico

Since 1950, operational vector control programs in Mexico have used a series of insecticides to control *Ae. aegypti* [31]. The organochlorine insecticide DDT was used extensively for indoor house spraying from 1950 to 1960 and was used in some locations as recently as 1998. In recent decades, the chemical control of mosquito larvae has relied on the use of organophosphate insecticides with temephos as the active ingredient. The adulticide malathion was used for ultra-low volume (ULV) space spraying from 1981 to 1989. An oil-based formulation of chlorpyrifos was registered for use in some locations in Mexico to control the adult stage of the mosquito from 1996 to 1999. The organophosphates as adulticides were replaced by pyrethroids according to the Norma Official Mexicana NOM-032-SSA2-2002 [32]. The pyrethroid permethrin was applied as a sole adulticide in Mexico for more than a decade.

On June 1, 2011, a new policy was published in NOM-032-SSA2-2010 [33] that established the characteristics of the insecticides to be used for vector control in Mexico. The selection of the insecticides should be based on vector resistance, effectiveness, and safety related to exposure. The list of insecticides has since been updated each year [34]. A new policy published on April 16, 2015 (NOM-032-SSA2-2014) [35], maintained the same requirements practically as the regulation published in 2011.

5. Insecticide resistance in *Ae. aegypti* — A threat to its control

The extensive use of DDT to control *Ae. aegypti* in Mexico and other parts of the Americas during the 1950s and 1960s resulted in the development of resistance [36]. This action was unfortunate because both DDT and pyrethroids target voltage-gated sodium channels in the
insect nerve sheath where structure-related interactions occur in specific regions of the sodium channels that prolong their opening and produce paralysis. Indeed, the similar mode of action probably produced cross-resistance to pyrethroids in DDT-resistant *Ae. aegypti* [37–41].

Pyrethroid resistance is clearly increasing despite the initial optimism over their rapid action and novelty [42]. Evidence of resistance to permethrin insecticide used in Mexico for more than 10 years in *Ae. aegypti* populations in Mexico due to enzymatic mechanisms such as α- and β-esterases was reported in Baja California North and South [43], in Quintana Roo, south f Mexico [31], and some states of northeast Mexico [44]. More recently, Aponte et al. [45] found increased levels of esterases and glutathione S-transferase related with resistance to DDT, permethrin, and deltamethrin in *Ae. aegypti* populations from the state of Guerrero located on the west coast of Mexico.

The presence of a kdr mutation V1016I in the voltage-gated sodium channel gene is also associated with resistance to pyrethroids. This mutation was originally found in a permethrin resistant strain from Isla Mujeres, off the coast of Cancun [46,47]. High frequencies of this resistance allele were subsequently found in collections of *Ae. aegypti* from 78 sites in Mexico with some of the highest frequencies detected in collections from Veracruz state [48,49].

Flores et al. [50] reported an extensive monitoring of the frequency of kdr Ile1,016 in *Ae. aegypti* populations from Merida, Yucatan, south of Mexico, as part of the “Casa Segura” project. *Ae. aegypti* collections were characterized by both molecular kdr and biochemical resistance to pyrethroid insecticides such as permethrin and deltamethrin. Ile1,016 allele frequencies varied among collection sites ranging from 0.14 to 0.98. Within Merida City, fifteen collection sites had medium to high homozygote frequencies. The lowest Ile/Ile homozygote frequencies corresponded to small towns nearby Merida City.

A second mutation F1534C on the IIIS6 domain of the same gene was also detected in *Ae. aegypti* populations from Guerrero state located on the west coast of Mexico [45] and the Yucatan Peninsula [51] conferring resistance to pyrethroids.

The practice of utilizing a single insecticide until the appearance of resistance has become a standard practice that quickly reduces the number of insecticides available for vector control. Rotations, mosaics, and mixtures have instead been proposed as strategies for insecticide resistance management [52–54]. Mathematical models have been applied for estimating how these tools could be used in an optimal manner [55]. However, these models have been rarely tested under field conditions, especially for insect vectors, due to the difficulties in determining changes in frequencies of resistance genes in large samples of insects from resistant populations [56].

In Mexico, there was a large-scale field trial with *Anopheles albimanus* that used rotations or mosaics of insecticides substituting the simple use of DDT or of specific pyrethroids [56,57]. Changes in the frequency of resistance genes were monitored for 4 years [57]. The results were promising and predicted that rotations or mosaics of insecticides are viable long-term strategies for the sustainable use of insecticides in disease control programs.

With that goal in mind [58], the resistance to eight pyrethroids in collections of *Ae. aegypti* from the state of Veracruz located on the east coast of Mexico was examined, considering that this
knowledge would facilitate the selection of viable alternative pyrethroids besides permethrin for use in a rotation program for sustained control of *Ae. aegypti* at the local, regional, and possibly statewide levels. The results obtained showed that the strains analyzed were resistant to δ-phenothrin, deltamethrin, cypermethrin, α-cypermethrin, z-cypermethrin, λ-cyhalothrin, bifenthrin, as well as permethrin and suggested that populations in the state of Veracruz have been exposed to strong selection pressure, resulting from the continuous application of permethrin for more than a decade. They also evaluated resistance to chlorpyrifos [59] in the same strains, and overall, the populations in this study were less resistant to chlorpyrifos than to pyrethroids, so the rotation of insecticides in the control activities is suggested to delay or minimize the occurrence of high levels of resistance to chlorpyrifos among local populations of *Ae. aegypti*.

Saavedra-Rodriguez et al. [60] examined changes in gene expression before, during and after five generations of permethrin laboratory selection in five strains of *Ae. aegypti* collections from the Yucatan Peninsula of Mexico. Changes in expression of 290 metabolic detoxification genes were measured using the *Aedes Detox* microarray. Selection simultaneously increased the LC50, KC50, and Ile1,016 frequency. Ten to eight genes were differentially transcribed after selection, and it was an inverse relationship between the Ile1,016 frequency and the numbers of differentially transcribed genes. Some genes were differential transcribed among field strains, but interestingly a few cytochrome P450 genes complex were overexpressed. The authors established that adaptation to permethrin in *Ae. aegypti* laboratory strain is conditioned presumably by geographic origin and extant target site insensitivity in the para gene. The lack of uniformity in the genes that responded to artificial selection as well as differences in the direction of their responses challenges the assumption that one or a few genes control permethrin metabolic resistance.

The selection pressure by the prolonged use of pyrethroids in Mexico had resulted in resistance to all of this kind of chemicals recommended for vector control in Mexico. All studies have shown the prevalence of cross-resistance caused by metabolic mechanisms and/or point mutations. Saavedra et al. [51] demonstrated that even in the absence of barriers to gene flow, local insecticide pressure, rather than the migration of mosquitoes with kdr-conferring mutations, is the primary determinant of the local kdr profile for *Ae. aegypti*. Thus, the early detection of insecticide resistance is highly relevant to establish a rotation program for insecticide resistance management in *Ae. aegypti* in Mexico. In an attempt to establish the importance of evaluating the strength of available techniques to assess the insecticide susceptibility in *Ae. aegypti*, Lopez et al. (in press) conducted a study establishing the intensity of insecticide resistance through the Resistance Intensity Rapid Diagnostic Test (I-RDT) [61]. The RDT-I consists of exposing vector populations 1, 2, 5 and ten times the diagnostic dose previously established at a diagnosis time. For this study, they used four populations of *Ae. aegypti* from the state of Yucatan, south of Mexico, and three population from the state of Nuevo Leon, northeastern Mexico. They were exposed to the diagnostic dose (DD) of permethrin, bifenthrin, and d-(cis-trans)-phenothrin and enhanced DD at 2, 5, and 10 times. All populations resulted resistant to the pyrethroids evaluated according to WHO recommendations for assessing the significance of detected resistance (<90%) even when the DD was enhanced 5
times. To correlate these results with pyrethroid molecular resistance mechanisms, DNA from mosquitoes of each population were used to detect V1016I and F1534C mutations. The allelic frequency of Ile1,016 varied from 0.43 to 0.90 in the populations studied. For the 1534 locus, there was a predominance of homozygous mutant genotype in all populations with high frequencies of the mutant allele (0.75–1), showing that the F1534C mutation was more common than V1016I mutation. They also analyzed the co-occurrence of both V1016I and F1534C mutations, and results showed that more than 50% of mosquitoes genotyped expressed both mutations (double homozygous mutants).

6. Conclusions

The selection pressure exerted by insecticides for more than six decades on the populations of Ae. aegypti in Mexico has generated widespread resistance to a variability of insecticides and in the last 15 years to pyrethroids. It is essential that we consider actions to avoid strong resistance between pyrethroids and alternative adulticides. Going forward, strategies must include resistance monitoring, the development of advanced tools for detecting multiple insecticide resistance, and practical tools for efficient vector control.

Author details

Adriana E. Flores-Suarez1*, Gustavo Ponce-Garcia1, Beatriz Lopez-Monroy1, Olga Karina Villanueva-Segura1, Iram Pablo Rodriguez-Sanchez1, Juan Ignacio Arredondo-Jimenez1 and Pablo Manrique-Saide2

*Address all correspondence to: adriana.floressr@uanl.edu.mx

1 Facultad de Ciencias Biologicas, Universidad Autonoma de Nuevo Leon, San Nicolas de los Garza, N.L., Mexico

2 Departamento de Zoologia, Universidad Autonoma de Yucatan, Campus de Ciencias Biologicas y Agropecuarias, Carretera Merida-Xmatkuil, Merida Yucatan, Mexico

References

[1] Gubler DJ. 2004. The changing epidemiology of yellow fever and dengue, 1900 to 2003: full circle? Comparative Immunology, Microbiology and Infectious Diseases. 27: p. 319–330.

[2] Pialoux G, Gaüzère BA, JauréguiBerry S, Strobel M. 2007. Chikungunya, an epidemic arbovirosis. Lancet Infectious Diseases 7: p. 319–327.
[3] Barrett AD, Higgs S. 2007. Yellow fever: a disease that has yet to be conquered. Annual Review of Entomology 52: p. 209–229.

[4] Kyle JL, Harris E. 2008. Global spread and persistence of dengue. Annual Review of Microbiology 62: p. 71–92.

[5] Halstead SB. 2008. Dengue virus–mosquito interactions. Annual Review of Entomology 53: p. 273–291.

[6] Garcia-Rejon J, Loroño-Pino MA, Farfan-Ale JA, Flores-Flores L, Rosado-Paredes EdP, Rivera-Cardenas N, Najera-Vazquez R, Gomez-Carro S, Lira-Zumbardo V, Gonzalez-Martinez P, Lozano-Fuentes S, Elizondo-Quiroga D, Beatty BJ, Eisen L. 2008. Dengue virus-infected Aedes aegypti in the home environment. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 79: p. 940–950.

[7] Scott TW, Chow E, Strickman D, Kittayapong P, Wirtz RA, Lorenz LH, Edman JD. 1993. Blood-feeding patterns of Aedes aegypti (Diptera: Culicidae) collected in a rural Thai village. Journal of Medical Entomology 30: p. 922–927.

[8] Scott TW, Amerasinghe PH, Morrison AC, Lorenz LH, Clark GG, Strickman D, Kittayapong P, Edman JD. 2000. Longitudinal studies of Aedes aegypti (Diptera: Culicidae) in Thailand and Puerto Rico: blood feeding frequency. Journal of Medical Entomology 37: p. 89–101.

[9] Benedictis JD, Chow-Shaffer E, Costero A, Clark GG, Edman JD, Scott TW. 2003. Identification of the people from whom engorged Aedes aegypti took blood meals in Florida, Puerto Rico, using polymerase chain reaction-based DNA profiling. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 68: p. 437–446.

[10] Tun-Lin W, Lenhart A, Rebollar-Tellez E, Morrison AC, Barbazan P, Cote M, Midega J, Sanchez F, Manrique-Saide P, Kroeger A, Nathan MB, Meheus F, Petsold M. 2009. Reducing costs and operational constraints of dengue vector control by targeting productive breeding places: a multi-country non-inferiority cluster randomized trial. Tropical Medicine and International Health 14: p. 1143–1153.

[11] Focks DA, Alexander N. 2006. A multi-country study on the methodology for surveys of Aedes aegypti pupal productivity: findings and recommendations. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.

[12] Lozano-Fuentes S, Hayden MH, Welsh-Rodriguez C, Ochoa-Martinez C, Tapia-Santos B, Kobylinski KC, Uejo ChK, Zielinski-Gutierrez E, Monache LD, Monaghan AJ, Steinhoff DF, Eisen L. 2012. The dengue virus mosquito vector Aedes aegypti at high elevation in Mexico. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 87: p. 902–909.

[13] Gratz NG. 2004. Critical review of the vector status of Aedes albopictus. Medical and Veterinary Entomology 18: p. 215–227.
[14] Rodhain F, Rosen L. 1997. Mosquito vectors and dengue virus-vector relationships. In: Dengue and Dengue Hemorrhagic Fever, D.J. Gubler and G. Kuno, editors. CABI Publishing: Cambridge, MA. p. 45–60.

[15] PAHO/CDC. 2011. Preparedness and Response for Chikungunya Virus Introduction in the Americas. Pan American Health Organization/United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Washington, DC.

[16] Salomón-Grajales J, Lugo-Moguel GV, Tinal-Gordillo VR, Cruz-Velázquez J de la, Beatty BJ, Eisen L, Lozano-Fuentes S, Moore ChG, García-Rejón JE. 2012. Aedes albopictus mosquitoes, Yucatan Peninsula, Mexico. Emerging Infectious Diseases 18: p. 525–527. (PMC3309596).

[17] Casas-Martínez M. Torres-Estrada J. 2003. First evidence of Aedes albopictus (Skuse) in Southern Chiapas, Mexico. Emerging Infectious Diseases 9: p. 606–607.

[18] Ibáñez-Bernal S, Martínez Campos C. 1994. Aedes albopictus in Mexico. Journal of the American Mosquito Control Association 10: p. 231–232.

[19] Cuddehe M. 2009. Mexico fights rise in dengue fever. Lancet 374: 602–602. PMID: 19708101. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(09)61509-9.

[20] Secretaría de Salud México. 2012. Perfil epidemiológico del dengue en México. Available at: http://www.epidemiologia.salud.gob.mx/doctos/infoepid/publicaciones/2012/Monografia_Dengue_2012.pdf. Accessed October 23, 2013.

[21] Hernández-Ávila JE, Rodríguez M-H, Santos-Luna R, Sánchez-Castañeda V, Román-Pérez S, Ríos-Salgado VH, Salas-Sarmiento JA. 2013. Nation-wide, web-based, geographic information system for the integrated surveillance and control of dengue fever in Mexico. PLoS One 8: e70231. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0070231 PMID: 23936394.

[22] PAHO. Pan American Health Organization, Dengue regional information, number of cases by year. http://www.paho.org/hq/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&eid=264&Itemid=363. Accessed December 11, 2014.

[23] FAO. 2015. http://www.fao.org/countryprofiles/index/es/?iso3=MEX

[24] Bhatt S, Gething PW, Brady OJ, Messina JP, Farlow AW, Moyes CL, Drake JM, Brownstein JS, Hoen AG, Sankoh O, Myers MF, George DB, Jaenisch T, Wint GRW, Simmons CP, Scott TW, Farrar JJ, Hay SI. 2013. The global distribution and burden of dengue. Nature 496: p. 504–507.

[25] Brathwaite Dick, O. San Martín JL, Montoya RH, del Diego J, Zambrano B, Dayan GH. 2012. The history of dengue outbreaks in the Americas. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 87: p. 584–593. doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.2012.11-0770.

[26] Kyle JL, Harris E. 2008. Global spread and persistence of dengue. Annual Review of Microbiology 62: p. 71–92.
[27] Wilder-Smith A, Gubler DJ. 2008. Geographic expansion of dengue: the impact of international travel. Medical Clinics Of North America 92(6): p. 1377–1390.

[28] Briseno-Garcia B, Gómez-Dantés H, Argott-Ramírez E, Montesano R, Vázquez-Martínez AL, Ibáñez-Bernal S, Madrigal-Ayala G, Ruiz-Matus C, Flisser A, Tapia-Conyer R. 1996. Potential risk for dengue hemorrhagic fever: the isolation of serotype dengue-3 in Mexico. Emerging Infectious Diseases 2(2): p. 133–135.

[29] PAHO. Pan American Health Organization. Dengue regional information, number of cases by year. http://www.paho.org/hq/index.php?option=com_topics&view=rdmore&cid=6290&Itemid=40734&lang=en. Accessed October 5, 2015.

[30] PAHO. Pan American Health Organization. Chikungunya regional information, number of cases by year. http://www.paho.org/hq/index.php?option=com_topics&view=rdmore&cid=7928&Itemid=40931&lang=en. Accessed October 5, 2015.

[31] Flores AE, Grajales JS, Fernandez IS, Ponce GG, Loaiza H, Badii MH, Lozano SF, Brogdon WG, Black WC, Beatty BJ. 2006. Mechanisms of insecticide resistance in field populations of Aedes aegypti (L.) from Quintana Roo, Southern Mexico. Journal American Mosquito Control Association 22: 672–677.

[32] DOF (Diario Oficial de la Federación). 2003. NOM-032-SSA-2-2002 para la vigilancia epidemiológica, prevención y control de enfermedades transmitidas por vectores. México

[33] DOF (Diario Oficial de la Federación). 2011. NOM-032-SSA-2-2010 para la vigilancia epidemiológica, prevención y control de enfermedades transmitidas por vectores. México

[34] SSM. Secretaría de Salud de México. Lista actualizada de insumos recomendados por el CENAPRECE para el combate de insectos vectores de enfermedades a partir de 2015. http://www.cenaprece.salud.gob.mx/programas/interior/vectores/descargas/pdf/ListaActualizadaInsumosRecomendadosCENAPRECE2015.pdf. Accessed July 2015.

[35] DOF (Diario Oficial de la Federación). 2015. NOM-032-SSA-2-2014 para la vigilancia epidemiológica, promoción, prevención y control de enfermedades transmitidas por vectores. México

[36] Brown AWA, Pal R. 1971. Insecticide resistance in arthropods. WHO 38.

[37] Brengues C, Hawkes NJ, Chandre F, McCarroll L, Duchon S, Guillet P, Manguin S, Morgan JC, Hemingway J. 2003. Pyrethroid and DDT cross-resistance in Aedes aegypti is correlated with novel mutations in the voltage-gated sodium channel gene. Medical and Veterinary Entomology 17: 87–94.

[38] Chadwick PR, Invest JR, Bowron MJ. 1977. An example of cross resistance to pyrethroids in DDT resistant Aedes aegypti. Pesticide Science 8:618–624.
[39] McDonald AE, Wood RJ. 1979. Mechanism of DDT resistance in larvae of the mosquito *Aedes aegypti* L.: the effect of DDT selection. Pesticide Science 10: 383–388.

[40] Prasittisuk C, Busvive JR. 1977. DDT-resistant mosquito strains with cross-resistance to pyrethroids. Pesticide Science 8: 527–533.

[41] Rongsriyam Y, Busvine JR. 1975. Cross resistance in DDT resistant strains of various mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae). Bulletin of Entomological Research 65: 459–471.

[42] Malcolm CA. 1988. Current status of pyrethroid resistance in anophelines. Parasitology Today 4: S13–S15. doi: 10.1016/0169-4758(88)90081-6

[43] Flores AE, Albeldaño WV, Fernandez IS, Badii MH, Loaiza H, Ponce GG, Lozano SF, Brogdon WG, Black WC, Beatty BJ. 2005. Elevated α-esterase levels associated with permethrin tolerance in *Aedes aegypti* (L.) from Baja California, Mexico. Pesticide Biochemistry Physiology 82: 66–78.

[44] Flores AE, Reyes G, Fernandez IS, Sanchez RFJ, Ponce GG. 2009. Resistance to permethrin in *Aedes aegypti* (L.) in northern Mexico. Southwestern Entomology 34: 167–177.

[45] Aponte HA, Penilla RP, Dzul-Manzanilla F, Che-Mendoza A, Lopez AD, Solis F, Manrique-Saide P, Ranson H, Lenhart A, McCall PJ, Rodriguez AD. 2013. The pyrethroid resistance status and mechanisms in *Aedes aegypti* from the Guerrero state, Mexico. Pesticide Biochemistry Physiology 107: 226–234.

[46] Saavedra K, Urdaneta L, Rajatileka S, Moulton M, Flores AE, Fernandez I, Bisset J, Rodriguez M, McCall PJ, Donnelly MJ, Ranson H, Hemingway J, Black IV WC. 2007. Mutations in the voltage gated sodium channel gene associated with pyrethroid resistance in Latin American *Aedes aegypti*. Insect Molecular Biology 16: 785–798.

[47] Saavedra K, Strode C, Flores A, Fernandez I, Ranson H, Hemingway J, Black IV WC. 2008. QTL mapping of genome regions controlling permethrin resistance in the mosquito *Aedes aegypti*. Genetics 180: 1137–1152.

[48] Ponce G, Flores A, Fernandez I, Saavedra K, Reyes G, Lozano S, Bond G, Casas M, Ramsey, Garcia J, Domínguez M, Ranson H, Hemingway J, Eisen L, Black IV WC. 2009. Recent rapid rise of a permethrin knock down resistance allele in *Aedes aegypti* in México. PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases 3: 531–560.

[49] Siller Q, Ponce G, Lozano S, Flores AE. 2011. Update on the frequency of Ile1016 mutation in voltage-gated channel gene of *Aedes aegypti* in Mexico. Journal American Mosquito Control Association 27: 357–362.

[50] Flores AE, Ponce GG, Loroño MA, García JE, Machain C, Reyes GC, Lozano S, Lars E, Beatty BJ, Black IV WC. 2012. Insecticide resistance in *Aedes aegypti* in Mexico: implications for dengue control (abstract). DMID International Research in Infectious Diseases Meeting, Bethesda, MD. p. 49.
[51] Saavedra-Rodriguez K, Beaty M, Lozano-Fuentes S, Denham S, Garcia-Rejon J, Reyes-Solis G, Machain-Williams C, Loroño-Pino MA, Flores A, Ponce G, Beaty B, Eisen L, Black IV WC. 2015. Local evolution of pyrethroid resistance offsets gene flow among *Aedes aegypti* collections in Yucatan State, Mexico. American Journal Tropical Medicine Hygiene 7:92(1): 201–209. doi: 10.4269/ajtmh.14-0277

[52] Curtis CF. 1985. Theoretical models of the use of insecticide mixtures for the management of resistance. Bulletin Entomological Research 75: 259–265.

[53] Curtis CF, Hil N, Kasim SH. 1993. Are there effective resistance management strategies for vectors of human disease? Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 48: 3–18.

[54] Roush RT. 1989. Designing resistance management programmes: how can you choose? Pesticide Science 26: 423–42.

[55] Tabashnik BE. 1989. Managing resistance with multiple pesticide tactics: theory, evidence, and recommendation. Journal of Economic Entomology 82: 1263–1269.

[56] Hemingway J, Penilla RP, Rodríguez AD, James BM, Edge W, Rogers H, Rodríguez MH. 1997. Resistance management strategies in malaria vector mosquito control. A large-scale field trial in Southern Mexico. Pesticide Science 51: p. 375–382.

[57] Penilla R.P., Rodríguez AD, Hemingway J, Torres JL, Arredondo-Jiménez JL, Rodríguez MH. 1998. Resistance management strategies in malaria vector mosquito control. Baseline data for a large-scale field trial against *Anopheles albimanus* in Mexico. Medical and Veterinary Entomology 12: 217–233.

[58] Flores AE, Ponce G, Silva BG, Gutierrez SM, Bobadilla C, Lopez B, Mercado R, Black IV WC. 2013. Wide spread cross resistance to pyrethroids in *Aedes aegypti* (L.) from Veracruz State Mexico. Journal Economic Entomology 106(2): 959:969

[59] Lopez B, Ponce G, Gonzalez JA, Gutierrez SM, Villanueva OK, Gonzalez G, Bobadilla C, Rodriguez IP, Black WC IV, Flores AE. 2014. Susceptibility to chlorpyrifos in pyrethroid-resistant populations of *Aedes aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae) form Mexico. Journal of Medical Entomology 51(3): 644–649. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1603/ME13185.

[60] Saavedra-Rodriguez K, Flores-Suarez A, Salas IF, Strode C, Ranson H, Hemingway J, Black IV WC. 2012. Transcription of detoxification genes after permethrin selection in the mosquito *Aedes aegypti*. Insect Molecular Biology 21: 61–77.

[61] CDC. 2010. Guideline for evaluating insecticide resistance in arthropod vectors using the CDC bottle bioassay. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, GA. http://www.cdc.gov/parasites/education_training/lab/bottlebioassay.html
