

OPEN Proteomic analysis of Cry2Aa-binding proteins and their receptor function in

Lin Qiu, Boyao Zhang, Lang Liu, Weihua Ma, Xiaoping Wang, Chaoliang Lei & Lizhen Chen

Received: 21 September 2016

Accepted: 01 December 2016

Published: 09 January 2017

The bacterium *Bacillus thuringiensis* produces Crystal (Cry) proteins that are toxic to a diverse range of insects. Transgenic crops that produce Bt Cry proteins are grown worldwide because of their improved resistance to insect pests. Although Bt “pyramid” cotton that produces both Cry1A and Cry2A is predicted to be more resistant to several lepidopteran pests, including the beet armyworm, than plants that produce Cry1Ac alone, the mechanisms responsible for the toxicity of Cry2Aa in cotton are not well understood. We identified several proteins that bind Cry2Aa (polycalin, V-ATPase subunits A and B, actin, 4-hydroxybutyrate CoA-transferase [4-HB-CoAT]), and a receptor for activated protein kinase C (Rack), in cotton. Recombinant, expressed versions of these proteins were able to bind the Cry2Aa toxin in *in vitro* assays. RNA interference gene knockdown of the V-ATPase subunit B significantly decreased the susceptibility of cotton larvae to Cry2Aa, whereas knockdown of the other putative binding proteins did not. Moreover, an *in vitro* homologous competition assay demonstrated that the V-ATPase subunit B binds specifically to the Cry2Aa toxin, suggesting that this protein acts as a functional receptor of Cry2Aa in cotton. This is the first Cry2Aa toxin receptor identified in brush-border membrane vesicles.

The Crystal (Cry) toxins produced by *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) are a diverse group of proteins that are used to control a broad range of insect pests¹. Not only are Bt compounds used worldwide as pesticides, but *Cry* genes have been used to create transgenic crops with enhanced resistance to pest insects. Of the Cry2A subfamily, both Cry2Aa and Cry2Ab have been successfully incorporated into plants to produce transgenic insect-resistant crops^{2,3}.

In China, transgenic Bt cotton expressing the Cry2Ab toxin has not been commercialized. In contrast, transgenic Cry1Ac cotton, which was first cultivated in 1997, is now grown on more than 3 million hectares in 2015⁴. Adoption of this Bt cotton variety has resulted in the decline of several important pest populations at the landscape level in China, as well as reductions in the application of broad-spectrum insecticides⁵. Nonetheless, the continued large-scale planting of Bt cotton has led to new problems, including the evolution of resistance among target pests^{6,7} and rapid increases in non-target hemipteran⁸ and lepidopteran pests^{9–11}. Developing plants that express more than one Cry toxin could, however, both delay insect resistance to Bt crops and increase the target pest spectrum^{12,13}. For example, transgenic plants that express both Cry1Ac and Cry2Ab toxin would be expected to be much more resistant to lepidopteran pests, especially the beet armyworm *Spodoptera frugiperda*^{3,14}.

S. frugiperda (Hübner; Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) is a polyphagous insect that has not been a significant crop pest in China for some time¹¹. However, because of the recent reduction in pesticide usage in cotton fields, and because it is insensitive to Cry1Ac, the beet armyworm has once again become a major economic pest of cotton in China^{3,15–17}. Although some studies suggest that *S. frugiperda* is less sensitive to Cry2Aa/b than to Cry1B, Cry1C or other toxins^{18,19}, Bt crops producing both Cry1Ac and Cry2Aa/b (Cry2Ab in the case of cotton) are predicted to be more resistant to *S. frugiperda*, and several other lepidopteran pests, than those currently cultivated in China which produce only Cry1Ac^{3,15,20–22}. However, except for cadherin²³, little is known about the receptor proteins that mediate the toxicity of the Cry2A subfamily of proteins in the Lepidoptera.

In this paper, we present the first analysis of Cry2Aa receptor proteins in *S. frugiperda* brush-border membrane vesicles (BBMVs). Because the Cry2Aa protein has 87% sequence homology with Cry2Ab, and similar toxicity to both the Lepidoptera and Diptera, we chose Cry2Aa to represent the Cry2A subfamily^{24,25}. In addition, and

Hubei Insect Resources Utilization and Sustainable Pest Management Key Laboratory, College of Plant Science and Technology, Huazhong Agricultural University, Wuhan 430070, People's Republic of China. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to L.C. (email: lzchen@mail.hzau.edu.cn)

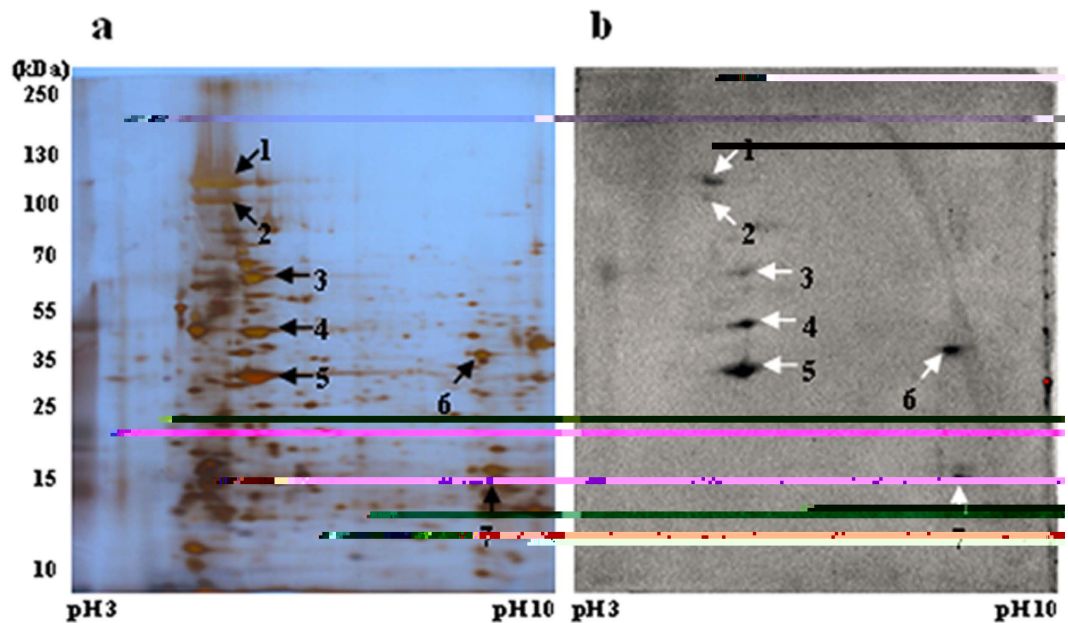


Fig. 1. R... 2DE... *S. exigua* BBM...
C 2A... BBMVs proteins (100 μ g) separated by 2DE, marker positions are indicated on the left of the gel. The pH 3–10 IPG strip used for isoelectric focusing is shown at the bottom. (...) Cry2Aa-binding proteins are the spots numbered 1 to 7; spot positions correspond to those in Fig. 1a.

	A	N	M (D)	PI	N	
1	gi 327082384		32.7	4.48	polycalin	
2	gi 327082384		32.7	4.48	polycalin	
3	gi 401323		68.46	5.14	V-type ATPase subunit A	
4	gi 401326		55.1	5.26	V-type ATPase subunit B	H...
5	gi 157111829		41.9	5.29	Actin	A...
6	gi 389613607		51.1	8.33	4-hydroxybutyrate CoA-transferase	
7	gi 328670883		36.4	7.64	Receptor for activated protein kinase C	H...

1.... **C 2A**... *S. exigua* BBM... NCBI...
M 2.2... ^aNumbers correspond to those in Fig. 1. ^bProteins in the NCBI database for which significant peptide mass matches or sequence similarity were available.

possibly more important, the purified toxin (purity > 98%) is only commercially available for Cry2Aa at present. The goal of this study was to identify Cry2Aa binding proteins in *S. exigua* BBMVs using two-dimension gel electrophoresis (2DE) and LC-MS (liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry)/MS techniques. The utility of using such a combination of protein binding assays and RNA interference to analyze the receptor function of binding proteins is also evaluated and discussed.

Results

Binding of Cry2Aa to *S. exigua* BBMVs. Proteins of *S. exigua* BBMVs were separated by 2DE and silver stained (Fig. 1a). Proteins ranging in size from 10 kDa to 130 kDa were isolated using pH 3–10 IPG strips and 8% SDS-PAGE (sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis) gels. Activated Cry2Aa toxin and a polyclonal antibody were used to identify specific proteins binding to Cry2Aa. An antibody specificity test was conducted before the binding assays to confirm that the Cry2Aa antibody recognizes Cry2Aa but not Cry1Ac (Supplementary Fig. S1).

Cry2Aa bound to seven proteins of approximately 100, 110, 65, 50, 30, 35 and 15 kDa (protein spots numbered 1 through 7 in Fig. 1b). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first evidence that Cry2Aa binds to *S. exigua* BBMVs proteins. Protein spots were excised from the silver-stained gel based on PVDF (polyvinylidene fluoride) membrane signals and analyzed by LC-ESI (electrospray ionization)-MS/MS. After searching protein databases, the protein spots in the silver-stained gel (Table 1) were identified as polycalin, V-type ATPase subunit A, V-type ATPase subunit B, actin, 4-hydroxybutyrate CoA-transferase (4-HB-CoAT), and a receptor for activated protein kinase C (Rack). Among these, 4-HB-CoAT and Rack were not previously known to bind to Cry toxin.

Cloning and sequence analysis of *S. exigua* genes encoding Cry2Aa-binding proteins. We cloned the full-length of *S. exigua* cDNA (GenBank accession no. KU234093) from the midguts of *S. exigua*.

larvae. The 3,339-bp open reading frame (ORF) encodes a protein of 1,113 residues with a predicted mass of 122 kDa. The deduced protein sequence includes a signal peptide, glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchoring site, N-glycosylation sites and O-glycosylation sites (Supplementary Fig. S2). Phylogenetic analysis shows that *Spodoptera*-polycalin clusters with lepidopteran polycalin (Supplementary Fig. S3). Alignment using DNAMAN software indicates that *Spodoptera*-polycalin has highest homology with that of *M. sexta* (47.0%) and *H. virescens* (46.2%, respectively).

Subunits A and B were also cloned, and their sequences submitted to GenBank (KX685519 and KX685520, respectively). Their respective cDNAs contained ORFs of 1,848 and 1,482 bp, encoding 616- and 494-amino acid proteins with estimated molecular weights of 68 kDa and 55 kDa. The conserved domains walker A motif/ATP-binding site, walker B motif, N-glycosylation sites, and O-glycosylation sites, are shown in Supplementary Figs S4 and S6. Phylogenetic analysis placed both proteins in the lepidopteran clade. High identity of V-ATPase subunits A and B among diverse insect species was detected; for example, *S. frugiperda* V-ATPase subunit A has 95.3% identity with that of

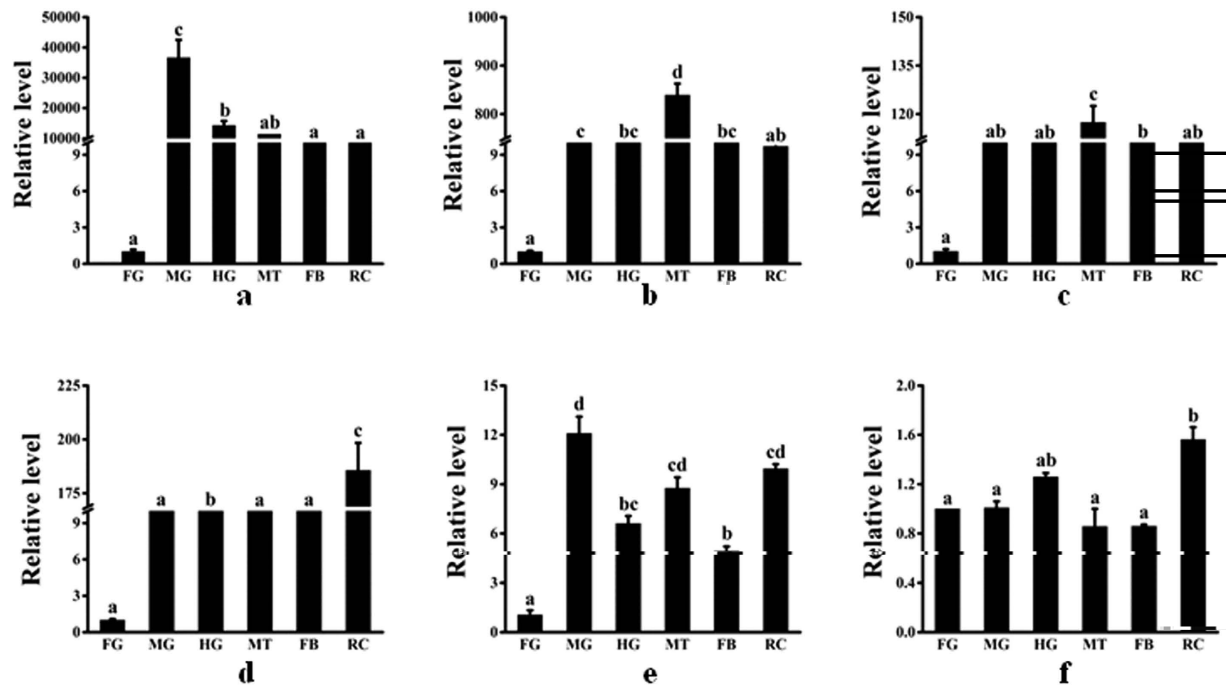


Fig. 3. Expression levels of *S. exigua* C 2A cDNA templates were derived from the foregut (FG), midgut (MG), hindgut (HG), fat body (FB), Malpighian tubules (MT), and the remainder (R), of 4th instar larvae. Three independent samples were examined for relative transcript levels using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method. a = FG, b = MG, c = HG, d = MT, e = FB, f = RC. Expression levels were normalized to those of the reference genes *L10* and *GA DH*. Bars with different letters indicate values < 0.05 (ANOVA).

RNA interference knockdown of binding proteins. Compared to dsEGFP or H₂O, larval ingestion of dsRNAs specific for the α -V-ATPase subunit A, α -V-ATPase subunit B, α -actin, α -4-HB-CoAT, α -Rack, and α -polycalin, significantly reduced transcript levels of these genes by 46.6%, 36.7%, 39.1%, 45.8%, 45.9% and 37.4%, respectively (Fig. 4a). Corrected mortalities following ingestion of Cry2Aa toxin for each of the above dsRNA treatment groups were 86.4%, 47.9%, 78.9%, 81.1%, 67.7% and 87.1%, respectively. The mortality of larvae fed dsRNA specific for α -V-ATPase subunit B was significantly lower than that of the water or dsEGFP control groups (Fig. 4b).

Production of recombinant peptides and binding assays. Expressed peptides were purified and separated by 8% SDS-PAGE gels (Fig. 5a). The results of an ELISA (enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay) indicate that the α -V-ATPase subunit A, α -V-ATPase subunit B, α -actin, α -4-HB-CoAT, α -Rack and three partial fragments of α -polycalin, all bound to Cry2Aa toxin (Fig. 5b).

Dot blot analysis of the Cry2Aa receptor in *S. exigua*. Based on the previous bioassays, we conducted homologous, competitive binding assays to test the specificity of binding between Cry2Aa and the recombinant α -V-ATPase subunit B peptide. Binding between Cry2Aa and the α -V-ATPase subunit B peptide was markedly reduced at higher concentrations of un-labelled Cry2Aa (Fig. 6).

Discussion

Our results indicate that α -V-ATPase subunit B is associated with Cry2Aa toxicity. Identifying this novel putative Cry2Aa receptor is potentially crucial to understanding how Cry2Aa is toxic to lepidopteran species. Since V-ATPase was first reported in *S. exigua*²⁶, a substantial amount of evidence has demonstrated that V-ATPases, which are located in the goblet cell apical membrane and rely on ATP hydrolysis to actively pump their substrates across membranes, are involved in energy production and conversion^{27,28}. V-ATPase in the insect midgut mediates pH to create an alkaline environment and participates in ion-transport processes²⁹. V-ATPase up-regulation has been found to be related to Cry1Ac resistance in *S. exigua*^{30,31} and *H. virescens*^{30,31}. Although V-ATPase has been identified as a Cry toxin-binding protein in *H. virescens* (Cry1Ac), *H. virescens* (Cry1Ac) and *H. virescens* (Cry1Ab)^{32–34}, little is known about its function with regard to Cry toxins in other insects. Interestingly, RNA silencing of the α -V-ATPase subunit beta increased larval mortality to Cry toxins, which suggests that this protein is involved in Cry toxin resistance³⁵.

The model proposed by Jurat-Fuentes³⁶ postulates that the Cry toxin binds to cadherin and is then inserted into the cell membrane, facilitating interaction of the toxin with other molecules such as V-ATPase. In fact, Cry1Ac binds to V-ATPase and disturbs H⁺/K⁺ transport, thereby destabilizing pH³⁷. Moreover, Cry1Ac

has been found to inhibit (Na⁺, K⁺)-ATPase in mammals³⁸. Two main classes of active transporters comprise the active transmembrane transport system. Sodium solute symporter (SSS) is driven by proton or sodium transmembrane gradients³⁹, and has been shown to act as a Cry toxin receptor⁴⁰. Secondary active transporters include ATP-binding cassette (ABC) proteins and V-ATPase, both of which are ATP-dependent electrogenic proton pumps that actively move substrates across cell membranes. ABC proteins are also involved in Cry toxicity^{41–43} and our results suggest that V-ATPase interacts with Cry2Aa toxin. However, further research is required to determine whether the V-ATPase subunit B interacts with Cry toxin in a manner similar to that of the ABC transporter.

Our results show that *ATP7A* was most highly expressed in the midgut of the 3rd to 5th larval instars of *S. frugiperda*, which may protect the larval midgut from viruses or oxidative damage⁴⁴. *ATP7B* was most highly expressed in 1st instar larvae and adults, and *ATP7A*, *ATP7B*, and *4-HB-C A*, were most highly expressed in the gut and Malpighian tubules, which suggests that they may be involved in energy metabolism^{27,28,45}. *ATP7A* and *ATP7B* showed high transcript levels in other larval tissues, perhaps because their proteins comprise part of the cytoskeleton⁴⁶. We also performed *in vitro* binding assays

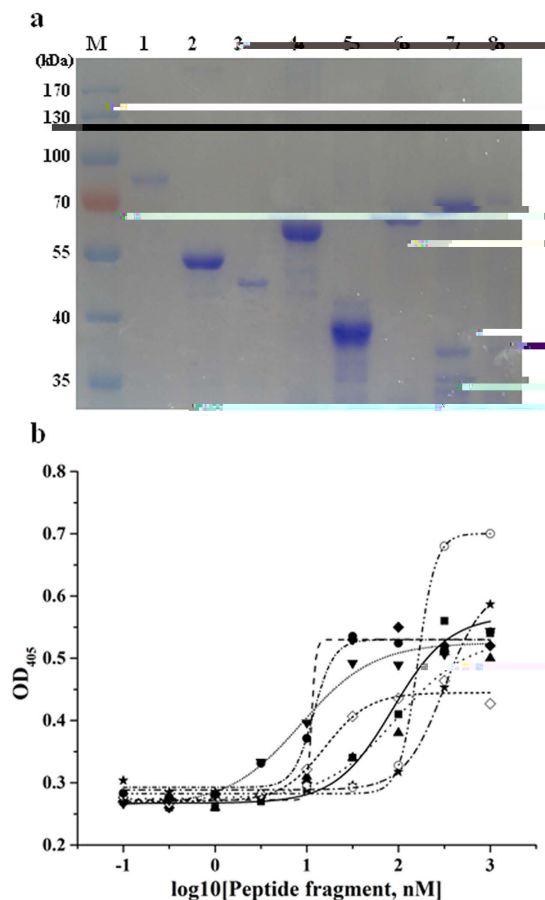


Fig. 5. **Bacterial expression and purification of recombinant peptides.** (a) Positions of purified, recombinant peptides after staining with Coomassie Blue on SDS-PAGE gel. Peptides had been bacterially expressed and purified in a nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid (Ni-NTA) affinity column. Lanes 1 to 8 are: the SeV-ATPase subunit A, SeV-ATPase subunit B, actin, 4-HB-CoAT, Rack, and three truncated recombinant polycalin peptides (6 = peptide1, 7 = peptide2, 8 = peptide3). (b) Degree of binding, as indicated by optical density (OD), of Cry2Aa to different peptide fragments. SeV-ATPase subunit A (■), SeV-ATPase subunit B (○), actin (▲), 4-HB-CoAT (★), Rack (○), polycalin peptide1 (◇), polycalin peptide2 (▼) and polycalin peptide3 (●).

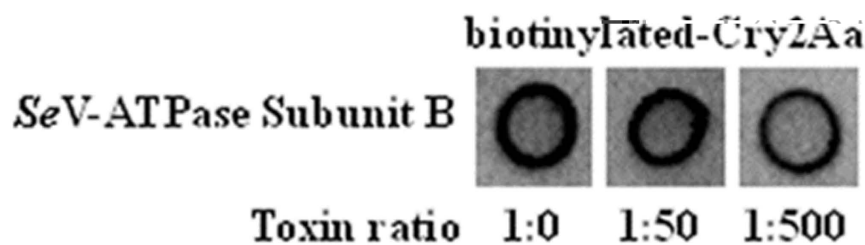


Fig. 6. **Competition assay.** Weight ratios of 1:0, 1:50 and 1:500 of unlabeled Cry2Aa toxin were used to compete with the SeV-ATPase subunit B in binding to biotinylated-Cry2Aa.

were overlaid on 8% SDS-PAGE gels for electrophoresis. The separated proteins were either stained or transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes.

After proteins had been transferred to PVDF membranes, the membranes were blocked in PBST buffer (135 mM NaCl, 2 mM KCl, 10 mM Na₂HPO₄, 1.7 mM KH₂PO₄, 0.1% Tween-20, pH 7.5) containing 5% (w/v) skim milk for 2 h, then incubated with 0.3 μg/ml activated Cry2Aa (EnviroLogix Inc., Portland, ME, USA) in blocking buffer for 2 h at room temperature. The membranes were washed in PBST buffer three times, then incubated for 2 h with a polyclonal antibody against Cry2Aa (diluted 1:3,500; Genscript Biology Company, Nanjing, China). After washing as above, the membranes were incubated with a goat anti-rabbit IgG horseradish

Competitive binding dot blot assay. Activated Cry2Aa protein was biotinylated using the EZ-Link sulpho-N-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) liquid chromatography (LC) biotinylation kit (Pierce, FL, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. A homologous competitive binding assay for Cry2Aa by recombinant peptides was then conducted. In total, 2 µg of purified peptides bound to a nitrocellulose membrane was blocked in PBST containing 3% BSA and incubated for 3 h with 0.2 µg/ml biotinylated Cry2Aa and unlabelled toxin at weight ratios of 1:0, 1:50 and 1:500. Following washing, streptavidin-HRP was used to detect biotinylated toxin using an ECL chemiluminescence detection kit (Fermentas/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA USA), as described previously²³.

RNA interference knockdown of target genes. A method adapted from Ren et al.⁵⁴ was used to produce a dsRNA-expressing vector. Target gene fragments were amplified from midgut cDNA using PrimeSTAR HS DNA polymerase (TaKaRa Bio Inc., Dalian, China). The products were individually cloned into the plasmid pET-2P to generate recombinant pET2P/-target-gene plasmids. pET2P/EGFP recombinant plasmid production of EGFP dsRNA was used to generate the control EGFP dsRNA²³. Recombinant plasmids were transferred into competent *E. coli* HT115 (DE3) cells. Individual colonies were cultured at 37 °C in 500 ml LB medium containing 50 µg/ml kanamycin. After reaching an OD600 of 1.0, the production of dsRNA was induced by the addition of 0.4 mM IPTG, and the cultures were allowed to grow for an additional 5 h at 37 °C. The bacteria were precipitated by centrifugation at 5,000 rpm for 10 min, and dsRNA was extracted according to the method described by Timmons⁵⁵ and Dong⁵⁶. Nucleic acids were analyzed for appropriate size by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis.

Newly hatched larvae were allowed to feed for 48 h at 27 °C on an artificial diet to which either 50 µg/cm² -target genes, EGFP dsRNA, or water, had been added. The larvae were then transferred to the wells of a 6-well plate where they were allowed to continue feeding for 7 days at 27 °C. Each well contained 5 ml of artificial diet plus either 2.6 µg/cm² activated Cry2Aa toxin (equivalent to the LC₇₀ value determined by a pilot study), or water (the control). Five replicates were conducted with a total of 120 larvae in each treatment.

qPCR assay. Three groups of samples were prepared, including different tissues, developmental stages and dsRNA treatment groups (three replicates for each treatment). Quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) was used to measure differences in gene expression between tissues, developmental stages and dsRNA treatment groups. qPCR primers were designed using the NCBI profile server (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast>) (Supplementary Tables S1–S5). *L10* and *GA DH* were used as internal reference genes (Supplementary Table S6)^{54,57}. The following standard qPCR protocol was used: denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 10 s and 59 °C for 30 s. All qPCR samples were run in triplicate using SYBR Premix ExTaq™ (TaKaRa) and a Bio-Rad Detection iQ2 System. Melting curve analysis from 55 to 95 °C was performed to determine the specificity of the qPCR primers. To determine the efficiency of qRT-PCR primers, a 5-fold dilution series of second-instar larval cDNA corresponding to 1 µg total RNA was used to produce a standard curve (cDNA concentration vs. Ct) with efficiencies calculated from the slope using linear regression. The corresponding qRT-PCR efficiencies were calculated according to the equation: $E = (10^{1/\text{slope}} - 1) * 100$ ^{58,59} (Supplementary Table S7).

Data analysis. Quantitative expression data were analyzed using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method⁵⁸. Corrected larval mortalities were calculated using Abbott's formula⁶⁰. Means and variances of treatments were analyzed with one-way ANOVA implemented in SPSS for Windows (SPSS 18.0, Chicago, IL, USA).

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Acknowledgements

This work was funded by grants from Ministry of Agriculture of China (Grant No. 2016ZX08011002) and National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant no. 31101445).

Author Contributions

L.Q., B.Z. and L.L. performed the experiments. W.M., C.L., X.W. and L.C. conceived and designed the experiments. L.Q. and L.C. analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript.

Additional Information

Supplementary Information accompanies this paper at <http://www.nature.com/srep>

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Hence, the authors declare no competing financial interests. Qiu, L. et al. Proteomic analysis of Cry2Aa-binding proteins and their receptor function in *Plutella maculipennis*. *PLoS ONE* **12**, 40222; doi: 10.1038/srep40222 (2017).

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