

Figure 15. Honeydew test with variety, colony and nitrogen level (since down to up) in the X-axis. White columns are excretion of xylem and blues are phloem.

There were significant factor or interaction effects on nymphal survival, as a variety ($F=6.633^a$, $P \leq 0.001$), colony ($F=47.686^a$, $P \leq 0.001$) and nitrogen ($F=6.214^a$, $P \leq 0.005$). Also was significant variety \times colony interaction ($F=4.463^a$, $P \leq 0.005$), because the survival hoppers were younger, when the variety was resistant and the colony susceptible. And the colony \times nitrogen level effect ($F=4.800^a$, $P \leq 0.05$), because survival of adapted hoppers decreased overall with increasing Nitrogen, whereas high nitrogen levels caused an increase in survival on non-adapted hoppers (Annex1). Patterns in total survivor biomass were similar to those described above for phloem spots (as in Figure 13): Hopper biomass on TN1 and the IR62-adapted colony was higher with a significant variety \times colony interaction ($F=6.144$, $P \leq 0.005$) because the biomass of non-adapted hoppers was lower on IR62 plants than on TN1 (Annex 1). Planthopper development was significantly more advanced on TN1 and for the adapted colony (Annex 1).

In the population build-up bioassay, many of the TN1 plants had symptoms of herbivore and other stresses (possibly heat) and hopperburn. Plant biomass was generally lower for TN1 and twice as many plants had died compared to IR62 at the end of the experiment. Biomass of both varieties increased with nitrogen fertilizer and was generally lower where adapted hoppers had fed. Therefore, results for dead plants of TN1 were eliminated from the analyses.

The numbers of hopper progeny from adapted females were higher on IR62 than from non-adapted females, therefore, colony factor was significant ($F=2.611^a$, $P \leq 0.05$); however, differences were not significant (Number of hoppers: Nitrogen, ($F=0.992^a$, $P = 0.428$), variety ($F=2.393^a$, $P = 0.074$) and all interactions; total hopper biomass: Colony-type ($F = 0.002$, $P = 0.924$) and all interactions). The relative proportions of lifestages on IR62 were affected by colony type. However, unexpectedly, lifestages of non-adapted hoppers were more advanced (Annex 2). Nitrogen had no effect on development, and the interaction was non-significant.

Effects of adaptation to *bph3* gene and related genes (*bph20* and *bph4*)

The relative amounts of phloem spots produced was affected by variety ($F = 8.336$, $P \leq 0.001$), hopper colony ($F = 0.660$, $P \leq 0.005$) and variety x colony ($F = 5.182$, $P \leq 0.001$). However, the production of xylem spots was significantly higher for hoppers from the non-adapted colony, but was not affected by rice variety ($F = 2.139$, $P = 0.084$) or interactions ($F = 0.893$, $P = 0.472$).

Table 3. Statistical analyses of the bioassays (honeydew test, population build up and nymphal and adults survival) of the effects of adaptation to *bph3* gene and related genes (*bph20* and *bph4*).

	HONEYDEW TEST		POPULATION BUILD UP		NYMPHAL SURVIVAL			ADULTS SURVIVAL	
	XYLEM	PHLOEM	POPULATION BUILD UP	PBBIOMASS OF BPH	SURVIVAL	Tests of Between-Subjects Effects	SVBIOMASS OF BPH	SURVIVAL ADULTS	Tests of Between-Subjects Effects
Variety (V)	2,139 NS	8,663 ***	0,821 NS+	4,869 **	6,209 ***	1st *** 2nd * 5th *** Adult ***	5,498 ***	2,177 *	
BPH Colony (C)	13,286 ***	10,370 **	0,691 ^a NS+	0,660 NS+	27,991 ^a ***	1st *** 4th *** 5th *** Adult ***	10,465 **	3,014 ^a *	SWMALE *
V x C	0,893 NS+	5,182 ***	0,761 NS+	1,306 NS+	5,956 ***	1st *** 2nd * 5th *** Adult ***	9,637 ***	3,179 ***	LWMALE * SWFEMALE ***
Biomass plant				0,243 NS+					

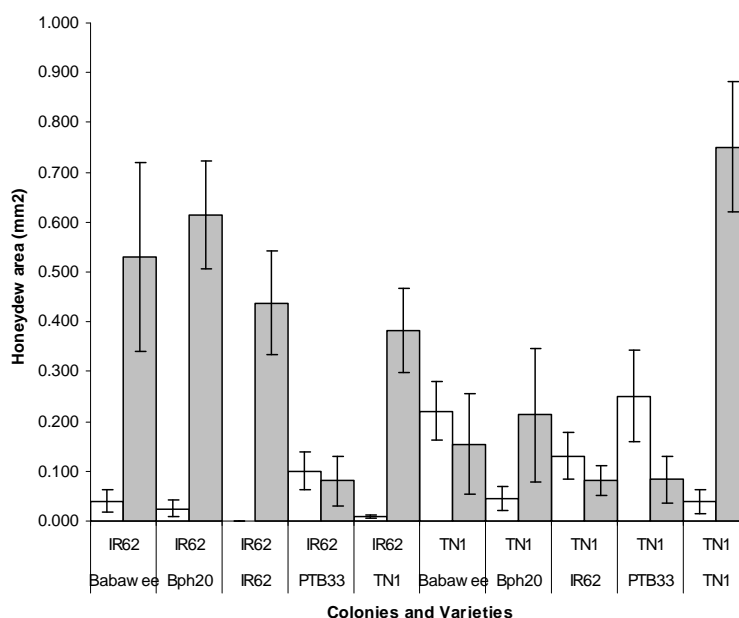


Figure 16. Honeydew test with variety and colony (since down to up) in the X-axis. White columns are excretion of xylem and blues are phloem.

The, largest xylem spots were produced on PTB33 with TN1 colony and the smallest on TN1 with IR62 colony and IR62 colony on IR62 plants. The largest phloem spots were associated with BPH20 with IR62 colony and TN1 colony on TN1 plants. The smallest phloem spots were produced PTB33 with both colonies. Phloem spots were larger for the adapted colony and the interaction was significant, because phloem spot production was high for the adapted colony on Babawee, BPH20 and IR62, but low for these plants for the non-adapted colony (Figure 14).

In the nymphal survival experiment, final plant biomass was affected in BPH20 and TN1 plants, because of hopper feeding, therefore were generally smaller. Their was also a significant interaction because IR62 and Babawee plants were smaller when feed-on by adapted hoppers only.

Nymphal survival was affected by variety ($F = 6.209$, $P \leq 0.001$), colony ($F = 27.991^a$, $P = 0.001$) and interactions ($F = 5.956$, $P \leq 0.001$). Final hopper biomass was affected by variety ($F = 5.498$, $P \leq 0.001$), colony ($F = 10.465$, $P = 0.005$) and variety x colony ($F = 9.637$, $P \leq 0.001$) (Table 3).

Development was significantly slower for TN1 colony on Babawee, IR62 and PTB33 than for the adapted colony (higher proportions of first instars, few fifth instars and adults (Annex 3).

High mortality of plants and a low biomass of survivors (especially BPh20 and TN1) at the end of the population build-up experiment, irrespective of colony, suggested that these varieties were heavily damaged by hopper feeding. Many of the surviving plants also showed signs of hopperburn. For this reason, the results from the experiment are not presented.

Effects of adaptation to *bph3* gene on related varieties (each containing the *bph3* gene)

The production of xylem spots was significantly higher for hoppers from TN1 colony (F= 48.16, $P \leq 0.001$), but was not affected by rice variety (F = 0.809, $P = 0.596$) or interactions (F = 1.203, $P = 0.302$). In contrast, the production of phloem spots was higher by hoppers from IR62 colony (F = 31.546, $P \leq 0.001$) and differed between host plants (F = 7.667, $P \leq 0.001$): Significantly less phloem spots were produced when feeding on Rathu Heenati (with both colonies) and more phloem IR72 variety when TN1 colony was feeding compared to all other varieties (Figure 15).

Table 4. Statistical analyses of the bioassays (honeydew test, population build up and nymphal and adults survival) of the effects of adaptation to *bph3* gene on related varieties (each containing the *bph3* gene).

	HONEYDEW TEST		POPULATION BUILD UP			NYMPHAL SURVIVAL			SURVIVAL ADULTS
	XYLEM	PHLOEM	POPULATION BUILD UP	Tests of Between-Subjects Effects	PBBIOMASS OF BPH	SURVIVAL	Tests of Between-Subjects Effects	SVBIOMASS OF BPH	
Variety (V)	0,809 NS+	7,667 ***	3,558 ***	1st *** 4th * 5th ***	4,326 ***	4,626 ***	1st *** 2nd ** 4th ** 5th ***	9,232 ***	1,042 NS+
BPH Colony (C)	48,16 ***	31,546 ***	1,633 ^a NS+	1st * 4th *	2,283 NS+	19,206 ***	1st *** 2nd *** 5th ***	0,300 NS+	2,625 NS+
V x C	1,203 NS+	0,818 NS+	1,241 NS+	1st *	0,990 NS+	3,368 ***	1st *** 2nd *** 5th *	3,975 ***	1,702 NS+
Biomass plant					3,714 NS			4,068 *	

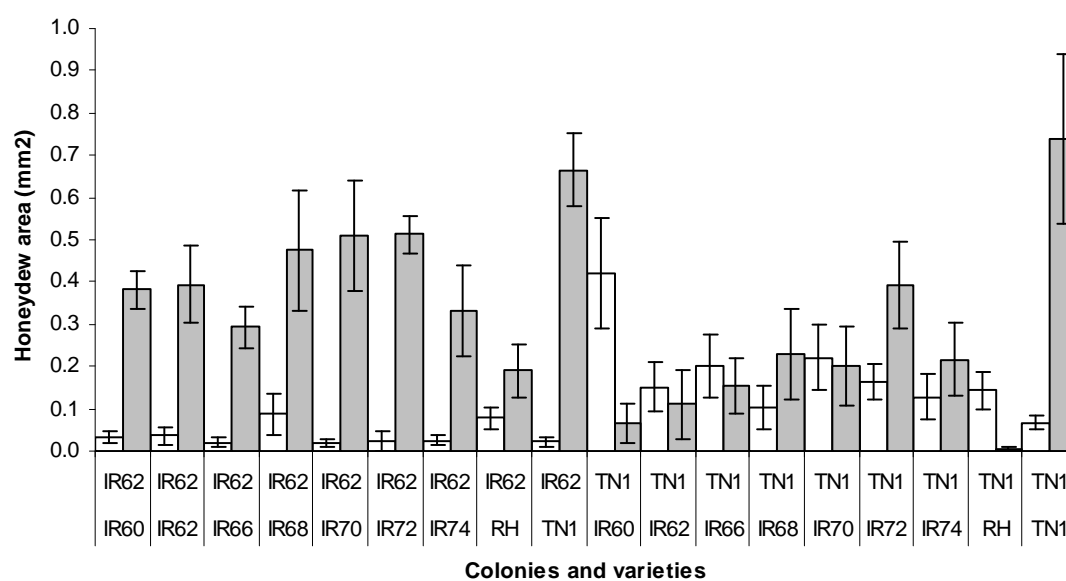


Figure 17. Honeydew test with variety and colony (since down to up) in the X-axis. White columns are excretion of xylem and blues are phloem.

Nymphal survival was affected by variety ($F = 4.626$, $P \leq 0.001$), colony ($F = 19.206$, $P \leq 0.001$) or their interaction ($F = 3.368$, $P \leq 0.001$); Variety ($F = 9.232$, $P \leq 0.001$) but not colony ($F = 0.300$, $P = 0.585$) affected the total hopper biomass; however, the covariate, final plant biomass, had a significant effect ($F_{1,151} = 4.068$, $P = 0.045$). The interaction term was non-significant. The relative proportions of hopper lifestages among the surviving nymphs was affected by variety, colony, and their interaction. A significant interaction occurred because of faster development of IR62 colony hoppers on some varieties (IR60, IR62, IR66 and Rathu Heenati), but not on others (IR68, IR70, IR72, IR74 and TN1) compared to the TN1 hoppers (Annex 4).

In the population build-up bioassay, plant biomass was affected by variety, colony and their interaction. IR62 and IR68 plants were significantly larger than all other varieties at the end of the experiment, after feeding by hoppers from both colonies. Plants tended to be smaller following feeding by IR62 hoppers. The numbers of hoppers on the plants was affected by variety ($F = 3.558$, $P \leq 0.001$), but was not affected by colony and their interaction (Table 4). Variety affected total hopper biomass ($F = 4.326$, $P \leq 0.001$), biomass was lowest on IR60 and highest on IR74. Was an interaction between the variety and colony, because of slower development of IR62 colony hoppers on IR60 and faster development on Rathu Heenati compared to the TN1 colony hoppers (Annex 5).

DISCUSSION

Ecological fitness characters of the BPH increased proportionally with increasing nitrogen content of the rice plants they were bred on (Lu et al, 2004). In nitrogen-rich host plants the hoppers survive better (Cheng, 1971) and lay more eggs (Sogawa, 1971) and as in the choice test of Lu and Heong (2004), the BPH adults would select nitrogen-rich plants over nitrogen-poor plants to feed and oviposit. The results of the study of the effects of nitrogen on resistance, indicated that the biomass of the plants was greater with more nitrogen even for the non-adapted colony and planthopper fitness increased on resistant and susceptible plants whether adapted or not, when the levels of nitrogen were increased.

In the honeydew bioassays of this study, it was confirmed the adaptation of the IR62 colony to the two varieties of rice, whereas fitness of the TN1 colony declined when fed on IR62 (the high amount of phloem spots indicated the adaptation of the IR62 colony to its host plant (IR62)). A high amount of xylem spots indicates that the colony was still likely affected by resistance factors of the variety. Nitrogen fertilization increased honeydew production, indicating that even the TN1 colony had improved survival on the resistant variety. Similar results were found with the survival bioassays, but in this case, the adaptation was detected only through the rate of development of the BPH. Accordingly, the most resistant treatment was IR62 with the TN1 colony, with most planthoppers still at 3rd instar or below whereas, in for the adapted colony many individuals had already reached to adult stage. Also, it was possible to detect the effect of the nitrogen on development rate: the development was faster under increased nitrogen levels, even where the plant was resistant to the colony.

Also, this work demonstrated that the population and biomass of hoppers were higher when plants were applied with nitrogen fertilizer. Although, the development of the hoppers from the eggs was generally not faster under increased nitrogen levels in the population build up bioassays, development of the IR62-adapted colony bred on TN1 plants was accelerated.

The use of BPH-resistant host plants has been recognized as the most economic, effective measure for BPH management and the most environmentally friendly (Jairin et al, 2006). Rice varieties have been bred to carry *bph1*, *bph2* and *bph4* genes; however, many varieties have lost their ability to protect against BPH in most of the rice growing areas of Thailand and Indochina, whereas rice cultivars carrying *bph3* have shown a higher degree and broader-spectrum of resistance against the BPH (Jairin et al, 2006). In the study of the effects of adaptation to *bph3* gene and related genes (*bph20* and *bph4*), it was showed that *bph4* gene is still resistance against BPH from the Philippines because, phloem spots were generally small and xylem spots large with the TN1-colony when fed on Babawee (the *bph4* donor) rice variety. Also, when IR62-adapted planthoppers were fed on Babawee they produced large phloem spots, indicating that the IR62-colony had also adapted to *bph4* gene. This suggests that the *bph4* and *bph3* genes likely code for the same resistance mechanisms and that adaptation to one, results in breakdown of the other gene.

The rice variety PTB33 (containing *bph3* and *bph2* genes) demonstrated resistance to all BPH biotypes identified at IRRI and in some field populations in Asia, including India, Philippines, Vietnam, China, Bangladesh, Laos and Thailand (Angeles et al. 1986; Jairin et al. 2005; Khush 1984; Li et al. 2002; Soundararajan et al. 2004; Velusamy et al. 1995). In this study, resistance to BPH in this variety of rice was also demonstrated, but this resistance was not compared with Babawee or IR62 variety once planthoppers had adapted to the *bph3* gene (IR62-colony). However, PTB33 did show high resistance against the TN1 colony. The interaction between *bph3* and *bph2* genes in PTB33, would require further investigation, perhaps these genes work together to increase resistance even against *bph3* adapted hoppers and in spite of *bph2* gene not functioning against hoppers in either colony. However, it is also likely that PTB33 contains further genes or resistance QTLs that have so-far been undetected. Curiously, Ikeda and Kaneda (1981) demonstrated that BPH resistance of the cultivar PTB21, was controlled by two sets of genes, either *bph1* and *bph4* or *bph2* and *bph3*. The mechanisms in these related rice varieties require further research attention.

Rahman et al. (2009) conducted QTL (Quantitative trait loci) analyses on the resistant variety ASD7 and determined two new BPH-resistance loci; These they designated as *bph20(t)* on chromosome 4 and *bph21(t)* on chromosome 12. Myint et al. (2008) demonstrated that the *bph20(t)* gene was resistant to different strains of BPH from across Asia. These authors have also shown that a resistance mechanism such as feeding inhibition is caused by these resistance gene, and similarly affects nymphal and adults stages causing low adult survivorship, low nymphal survivorship, prolonged nymphal developmental period and lower adult biomass. In this study, plants with the *bph20(t)* gene showed resistance to the TN1-colony in the honeydew test compared to the IR62-colony. Nevertheless, all further bioassays indicated that, the TN1-colony was not affected by the *bph20(t)* gene that allegedly, was resistant. The results of this study therefore indicate that the *bph20(t)* gene does not affect planthoppers in the Philippines, and that adaptation to IR62 (*bph3*) likely further facilitated hopper feeding on varieties with this gene.

Kawaguchi et al. (2001) using two backcross mapping populations indicated that *bph3* and *bph4* are localized on the short arm of rice chromosome 6 and also, the newly identified resistance gene *bph20(t)* is also localized on chromosome 6 (Fujita et al, 2009). This study suggests that these genes may have similar characteristics and code for similar resistance affects, and because of this many of the varieties with these genes had no protection against the IR62-adapted colony. However, it should be noted that some of these genes had broken down at different times since the TN1-colony was already adapted to *bph20(t)* before this study commenced.

In another study, 29 additional resistant varieties were analyzed genetically and two new genes, *bph3* and *bph4*, were identified (Lakshminarayana and Khush, 1977). These genes were incorporated into improved germplasm. In 1982, when a biotype capable of damaging IR36 appeared in small pockets in the Philippines and in Indonesia, IR56 and IR60 with the *bph3* gene for resistance were released (IRRI 1983). IR66 with *bph4* for resistance was released in 1987 (there is confusion as to the identity of the gene in IR66: Khush and Virk (2005) and Khush et al. (2007) indicate that IR66 contains the *bph3* gene and not *bph4*; however, recently Virk has indicated that the original study is likely correct and IR68, IR70, and IR72, all with *bph3*, were released in 1988. These varieties

were widely grown in tropical and subtropical rice-growing countries (Brar et al, 2009). The tightly linked markers to *bph3* gene will facilitate marker-assisted breeding to improve BPH resistance of rice cultivars as well. The resistant gene *bph3* has been used extensively in rice breeding programs in Asia since 1980 (Khush 1984). In this study (Effects of adaptation to *bph3* gene on related varieties (each containing the *bph3* gene) it has been demonstrated that the adaptation of the IR62-colony to IR62, permitted the planthoppers to feed freely on others varieties which contain the *bph3* or *bph4* gene. When planthoppers from the IR62-colony fed on IR60, IR62, IR66, IR68, IR70, IR72, IR74 and RH varieties, they produced a high amount of phloem and almost no xylem spots. Furthermore, the planthoppers from the TN1 colony produced high amounts of xylem spots comparing with the phloem spots, indicating that these planthoppers had not adapted to most of these varieties. However, on the IR72 variety the TN1-planthoppers did produce high amounts of phloem spots suggesting that the *bph3* derived resistance in this varietal background is weaker. The IR60 variety of rice was especially resistant to this colony, as indicated by a high production of xylem spots when planthoppers fed on the variety (this also occurred with the IR62-adapted colony), suggesting that IR60 contains further unidentified resistance. A low BPH biomass, higher mortality and slow development of planthoppers was often linked to the observed feeding trends as detected in the honeydew test and confirmed the generally high resistance of IR60 and weaker resistance of IR70, IR72 and IR74.

A Sri-Lankan *indica* rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) variety Rathu Heenati was found to be resistant to all four biotypes of the brown planthopper (Sun et al, 2005). The mechanism behind BG300 and BG379/2 resistant varieties was derived from Rathu Heenati (*Bph3* gene) and Stevenson et al (1996) suggest that this is anti-feeding rather than toxic (Horgan, 2009). Rathu Heenati demonstrated resistance to all BPH biotypes identified at IRRI and in some field populations in Asia, including India, Philippines, Vietnam, China, Bangladesh, Laos and Thailand (Angeles et al. 1986; Jairin et al. 2005; Khush 1984; Li et al. 2002; Soundararajan et al. 2004; Velusamy et al. 1995). In this study, this variety remained resistant even to the IR62-adapted colony suggesting that Rathu Heenati has further resistance genes of QTLs besides the *bph3* gene. Adaptation of the IR62-colony to RH was the lowest compared with others varieties, but appeared higher along with IR60 when compared to the effects of these varieties on fitness measures of planthoppers from the TN1 colony.

The results of this study indicated, that the colonies of BPH feeding on plants with the same gene had almost the same behaviour. The IR62-colony produced high amounts of phloem spots and the TN1 colony produced high amounts of xylem spots, indicating that the colony adapted to IR62 variety of rice, was adapted also to other varieties with *bph3* gene. Furthermore, most of the varieties were resistant to the TN1-colony which was not adapted to IR62 plants. This indicates that many rice varieties with the same resistance genes and without any interactions of other genes or QTLs, should breakdown at the same time.

CONCLUSION

In the three studies, adaptation of the BPH was tested under different conditions and it was demonstrated that, with higher amounts of nitrogen, fitness of both adapted and non-adapted planthoppers was higher. Adaptation affected genes in similar chromosome locations differently (i.e., *bph4* and *bph20(t)*), and varieties bred to contain the same source of resistance, often showed similar effects on hoppers, such that adaptation to one variety affected the resistance of other, related varieties.

These results suggest that genes in the same location may code for the same effects or in some cases, might be the same genes but identified in different varieties. Plants with the same resistance gene will breakdown at the same time by the BPH, in a similar way that pesticides with the same active ingredient break down together -if insects adapt to one active ingredient, then they overcome all pesticides with this same active ingredient. Therefore, varieties with new resistance sources should be developed in the future.

The usual means to control the BPH is by spraying poisonous chemicals. This is costly in terms of labor, money and for the environment. The application of resistant cultivars has generally been considered to be the most economic and environmentally friendly strategy for pest management, however, recently, researchers have tended to look for new varieties with the same few gene. This is mainly because of the availability of markers that aid in selection. However, this strategy is not sustainable, unless new genes, and genes with different effects are employed in breeding programs.

Resistant host plants work to avoid the BPH attacks, but if farmers continue to use excessive fertilizers, the effects of the resistance decline, because the development is faster and the adaptation is higher with higher amounts of nitrogen. This is another reason to reduce the application of fertilizers in the field, in the same way that high pesticide applications must be stopped, since these results in low natural biological control. Intensive rice production areas with these characteristics, are more vulnerable to BPH outbreaks (Lu et al, 2004).

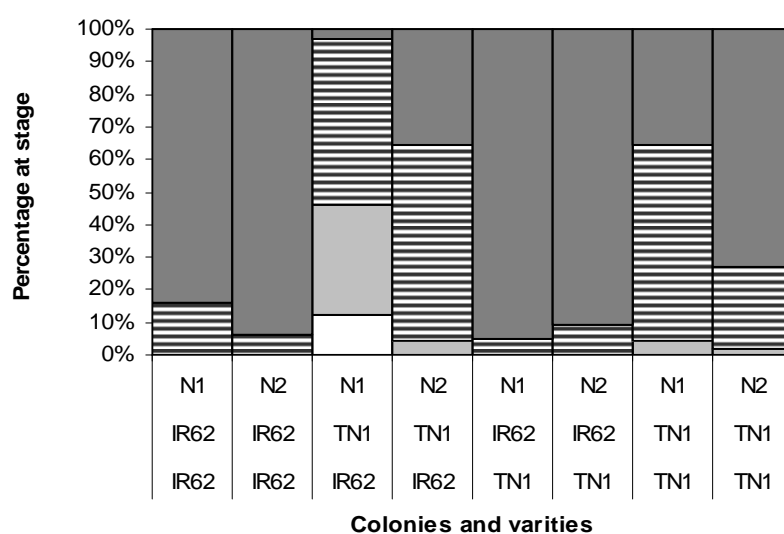
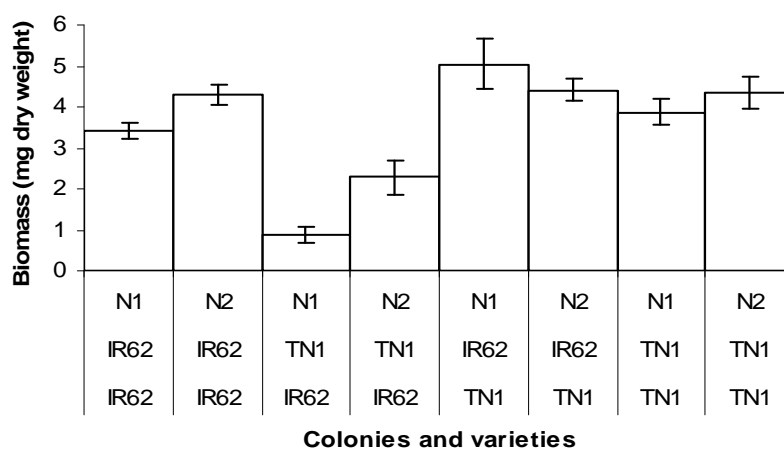
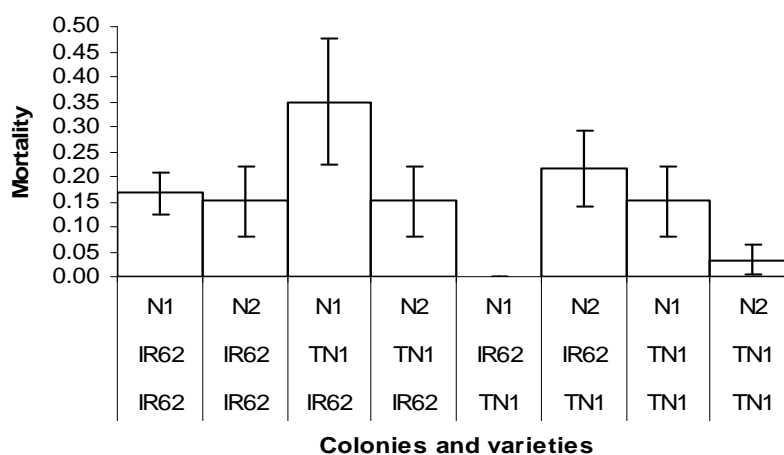
REFERENCES

- Angeles E.R., Khush G.S. and Heinrichs E.A. 1986. Inheritance of resistance to planthoppers and leafhopper in rice. In: IRRI (ed) Rice genetics. IRRI, Los Baños, Philippines. pp. 537–549.
- Auclair J.L. 1959. Feeding and excretion by the pea aphid *Acyrtosiphon pisum* (Harr.) (Homoptera: Aphididae) reared on different varieties of peas. In: Entomologia Experimentalist et Applicata. 2: 279-286.
- Brar D.S., Virk P.S., Jena K.K. and Khush G.S. 2009. Breeding for resistance to planthoppers in rice. In: Heong KL and Hardy B (eds) Planthoppers: New threats to the sustainability of intensive rice production systems in Asia. International Rice Research Institute, Philippines. pp. 401-428.
- Begum M.N. and Wilkins R.M. 1998. A parafilm sachet technique for measuring the feeding of *Nilaparvata lugens* Stal. on rice plants with correction for evapotranspiration. In: Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata. 88: 301-304.
- Cagampang G.B., Pathak M.D. and Juliano B.O. 1974. Metabolic changes in the rice plant during infestation by the brown planthopper, *Nilaparvata lugens* Stal (Hemiptera: Delphacidae). In: Applied Entomology and Zoology. 19: 174-184.
- Catindig J.L.A. and Heong K.L. 2009. Planthopper. In: <http://www.knowledgebank.irri.org/RiceDoctor>. Philippines: International Rice Research Institute.
- Cheng C.H. 1971. Effect of nitrogen application on the susceptibility in rice to brown planthopper attack. In: Journal of Taiwan Agricultural Research. 20: 21-30.
- Dupo A.L.B. and Barrion A.T. 2009. Taxonomy and general biology of delphacid planthoppers in rice agroecosystems. In: Heong KL and Hardy B (eds) Planthoppers: New threats to the sustainability of intensive rice production systems in Asia. International Rice Research Institute, Philippines. pp. 3-156.
- Dyck V.A. and Thomas B. 1979. The brown planthopper problem. In: Brown planthopper: threat to rice production in Asia. Manila (Philippines): International Rice Research Institute. pp. 3-17.
- Fujita D., Myint K.K.M., Matsumura M. and Yasui H. 2009. The genetics of host-plant resistance to rice planthopper and leafhopper. In: Heong KL and Hardy B (eds) Planthoppers: New threats to the sustainability of intensive rice production systems in Asia. International Rice Research Institute, Philippines. pp. 389-400.
- Horgan. F. 2009. Mechanisms of resistance: a major gap in understanding planthopper-rice interactions. In: Heong KL and Hardy B (eds) Planthoppers: New threats to the sustainability of intensive rice production systems in Asia. International Rice Research Institute, Philippines. pp. 281-303.
- Ikeda R. and Kaneda C. 1981. Genetic Analysis of Resistance to Brown Planthopper, *Nilaparvata lugens* Stal., in Rice. In: Japan Journal of Breeding. 31(3): 279-285.
- Jairin J., Toojinda T., Tragoonrung S., Tayapat S. and Vanavichit A. 2005. Multiple genes determining brown planthopper (*Nilaparvata lugens* Stal.) resistance in backcross introgressed lines of Thai jasmine rice 'KDML105'. In: Journal of The Science Society of Thailand. 31: 129–135.
- Jairin J., Phengrat K., Teangdeerith S., Vanavichit A. and Toojinda T. 2006. Mapping of a broad-spectrum brown planthopper resistance gene, Bph3, on rice chromosome 6. In: Molecular Breeding. 19: 35-44.
- Kawaguchi M., Mulata K., Ishii T., Takumi S., Mori N. and Nakamura C. 2001. Assignment of a brown planthopper (*Nilaparvata lugens* Stal.) resistance gene bph4 to the rice chromosome 6. In: Breeding Science. 51: 13–18.

- Kenmore P.E., Cariño F.O., Perez C.A., Dyck V.A. and Gutierrez A.P. 1984. Population regulation of the rice brown planthopper (*Nilaparvata lugens* (Stal)) within rice fields in the Philippines. In: Journal of Plant Protection in the Tropics. 1: 19-37.
- Khush G.S. 1984. Breeding rice for resistance to insects. In: Journal of Environmental Protection and Ecology. 7: 147-165.
- Khush G.S. and Virk P.S. 2005. IR varieties and their impact. In: Los Baños (Philippines): International Rice Research Institute. pp. 163.
- Khush G.S., Angeles E.R. and Brar D.S. 2007. Genetic analysis of resistance to green leafhopper, *Nephotettix virescens* (Distant) in IR rice varieties. In: Sabrao Journal. 39: 79-88.
- Lakashminarayana A. and Khush G.S. 1977. New genes for resistance to the brown planthopper in rice. In: Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science. 17: 96-100.
- Li R.B., Qin X.Y., Wei S.M., Huang F.K., Li Q. and Luo S.Y. 2002. Identification and genetics of resistance against brown planthopper in a derivative of wild rice, *Oryza rufipogon* Griff. In: Journal of Genetics and Breeding. 56: 29-36.
- Liu G., Saxena R.C. and Wilkins R.M. 1994. Behavioral responses of the whitebacked planthopper, *Sogatella furcifera* (Homoptera: Delphacidae) on rice plants whose odors have been masked. In: Journal of Insect Behaviour. 7: 343-353.
- Lu Z.X., Heong K.L., Yu X.P. and Cui Hu. 2004. Effects of Plant Nitrogen on Ecological Fitness of the Brown Planthopper, *Nilaparvata lugens* Stal. in Rice. In: Journal of Asia-Pacific Entomology. 7(1): 97-104.
- Misra B.C. 1980. *Nilaparvata lugens* Stal. In: The leaf and plant hoppers of rice, Department of Entomology, Central Rice Research Institute, Cuttack, India. pp. 137-152.
- Mochida O. 1964. On the oviposition in the brown planthopper, *Nilaparvata lugens* (Stal) (Hom. Auchenorrhyncha). In: Japanese Journal of Applied Entomology and Zoology. 8: 141-148.
- Mochida O., Suryana T., Hendarsih and Wahyu A. 1977. Identification, biology, occurrence and appearance of the Brown Planthopper. In: Symposium on the Brown Planthopper, Bali, The Brown Planthopper, (*Nilaparvata Lugens* Stal.).
- Myint K.K.M., Matsumura M., Takagi M. and Yasui H. 2008. Demographic Parameters of Long-term Laboratory Strains of the Brown Planthopper, *Nilaparvata lugens* Stal, (Homoptera: Delphacidae) on Resistance Genes, *bph20(t)* and *bph21(t)* in rice. In: Journal of the Faculty of Agriculture Kyushu University. 54(1): 159-164.
- Paguia P., Pathak M.D. and Heinrichs E.A. 1980. Honeydew Excretion Measurement Techniques for Determining Differential Feeding Activity of Biotype of *Nilaparvata lugens* on Rice Varieties. In: Journal of Economic Entomology. 73: 35-40.
- Pathak P.K., Saxena R.C. and Heinrichs E.A. 1982. Parafilm Sachet for Measuring Honeydew Excretion by *Nilaparvata lugens* on Rice. In: Journal of Economic Entomology. 75: 194-195.
- Rahman M.L., Jiang W., Chu S.H., Qiao Y., Ham T.H., Woo M.O, Lee J., Khanam M.S., Chin J.H., Jeung J.U. et al. 2009. High-resolution mapping of two rice brown planthopper resistance genes, *Bph20(t)* and *Bph21(t)*, originating from *Oryza minuta*. In: Theoretical and Applied Genetics. 119(7): 1237-1246.
- Reissing W.H., Heinrichs E.A., Litsinger J.A., Moody K., Fiedler L., Mew T.W. and Barrion A.T. 1986. Illustrated guide to integrated pest management in rice in

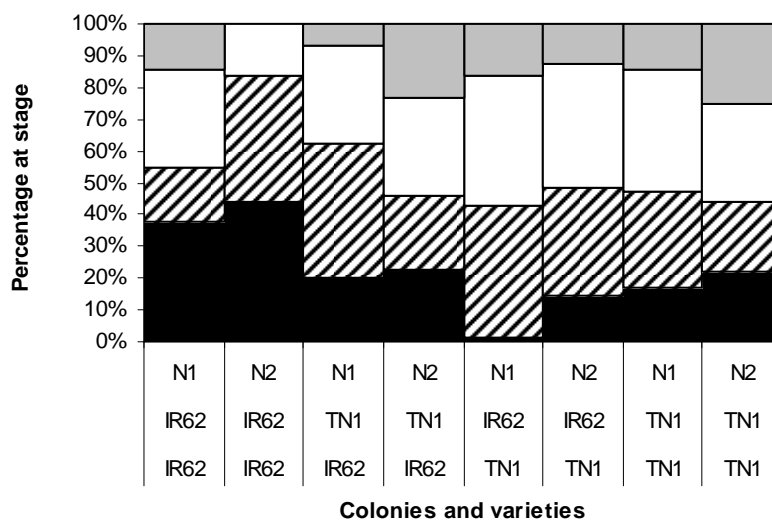
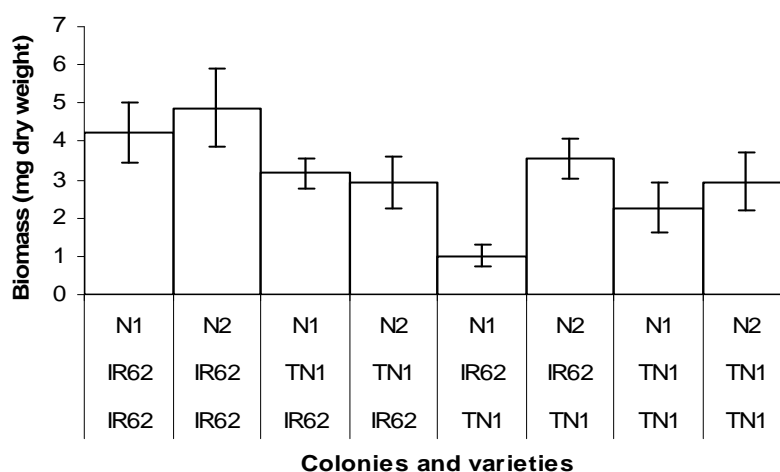
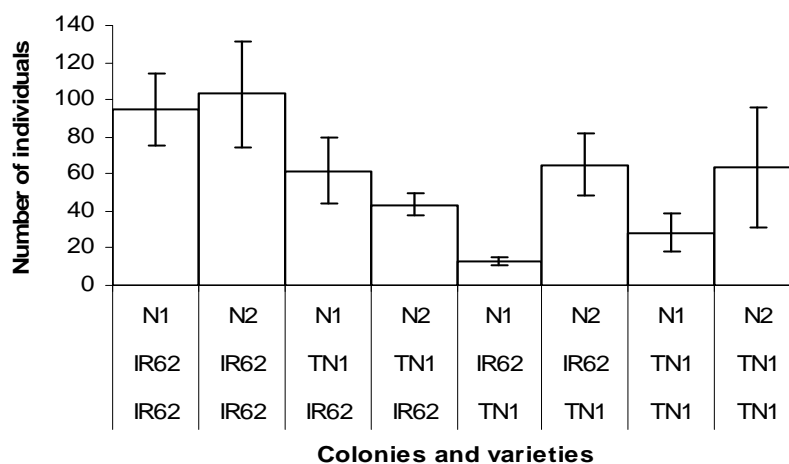
- tropical Asia. In: Manila (Philippines): International Rice Research Institute. pp. 411.
- Shepard B.M., Barrion A.T. and Litsinger J.A. 1995. Rice-feeding insects of tropical Asia. In: Manila (Philippines): International Rice Research Institute. pp. 228.
- Sogawa K. 1971. Feeding behavior of the brown planthopper and varietal resistance of rice to this insect. In: Symposium on rice insects. Proceedings of the symposium on tropical agricultural research. pp. 195-200.
- Soundararajan R.P., Kadirvel P., Gunathilagaraj K. and Maheswaran M. 2004. Mapping of quantitative trait loci associated with resistance to brown planthopper in rice by means of a doubled haploid population. In: Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science. 44: 2214–2220.
- Stevenson P.C., Kimmins F.M., Grayer R.J. and Raveendranath S. 1996. Schaftosides from rice phloem as feeding inhibitors and resistance factors to brown planthopper, *Nilaparvata lugens*. In: Entomology Experimentalis et Applicata. 80: 246-249.
- Sun L., Su C., Wang C., Zhai H. and Wan J. 2005. Mapping of a Major Resistance Gene to the Brown Planthopper in the Rice Cultivar Rathu Heenati. In: Breeding Science. 55: 391-396.
- Van Der Laan P.A. 1981. Pests of crops in Indonesia. In: Schtran Baru Van Hoeve, Jakarta. pp.151-156.
- Velusamy R., Ganesh K.M. and Johnson Y.S. 1995. Mechanisms of resistance to brown planthopper *Nilaparvata lugens* in wild rice (*Oryza* spp) cultivars. In: Entomology Experimentalis et Applicata. 74: 245–251.
- Win S.S., Muhamad R., Ahmad Z.A.M. and Adam N.A. 2010. Population Fluctuations of Brown Plant Hopper *Nilaparvata lugens* Stal. White Backed Plant Hopper *Sogatella furcifera* Horvath on Rice. In: Trends in Applied Sciences Research. 8: 183-190.

ANNEX 1: Survival bioassays graphics of effects of nitrogen on resistance (Mortality, biomass of BPH and percentage at stage).



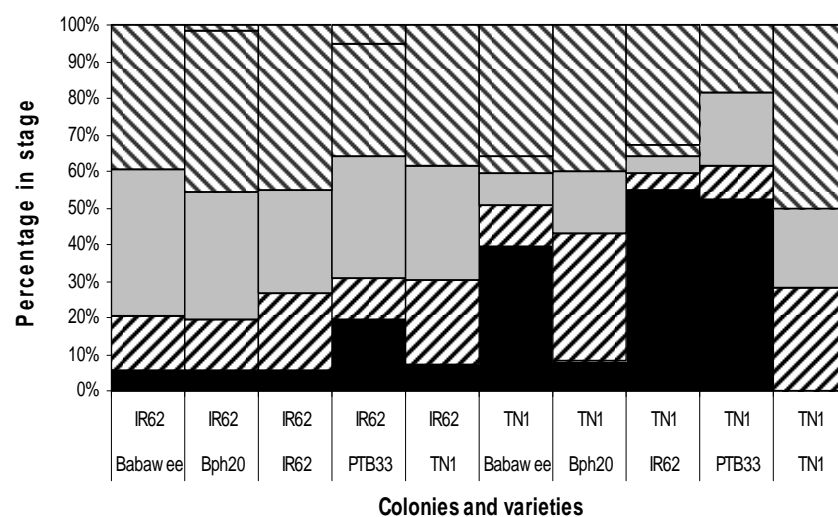
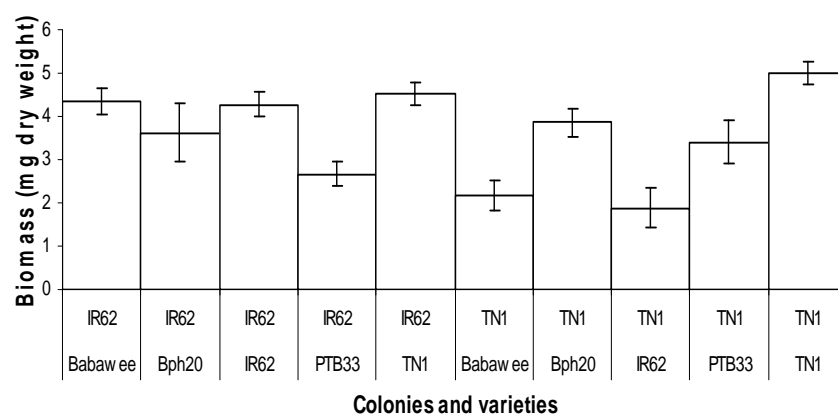
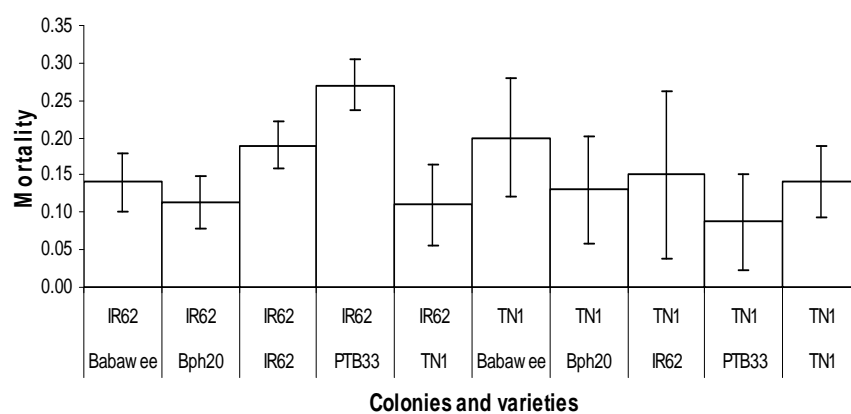
The lower stage is below that other stages (3rd, 4th, 5th and adults to up).

ANNEX 2: Population build up bioassays graphics of effects of nitrogen on resistance (Number of individuals, BPH biomass and percentage at stage graphics).



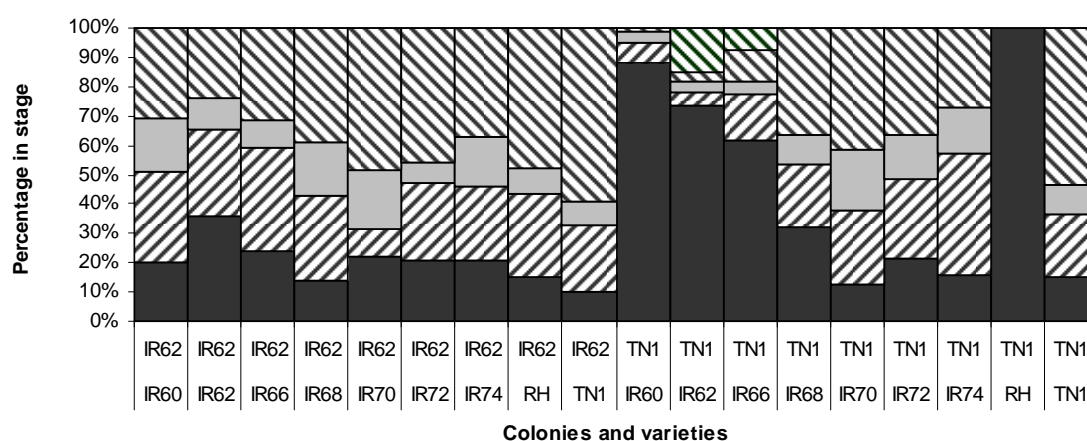
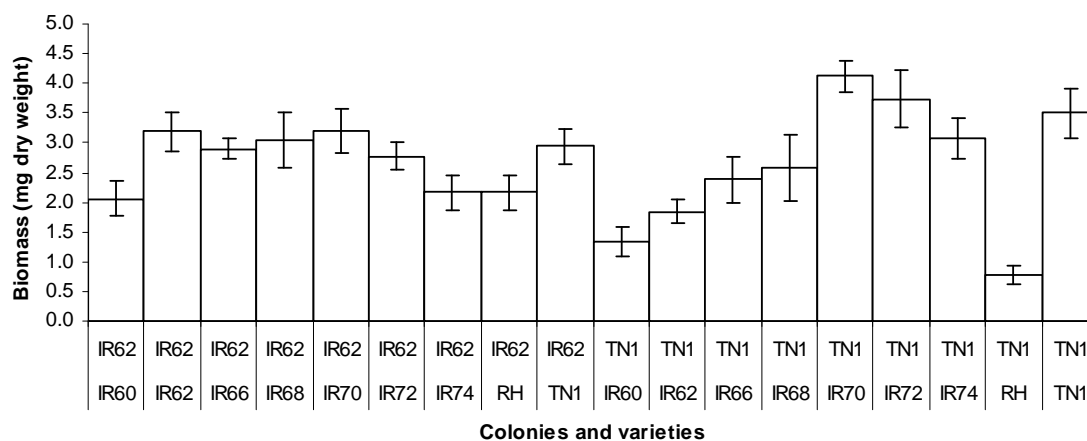
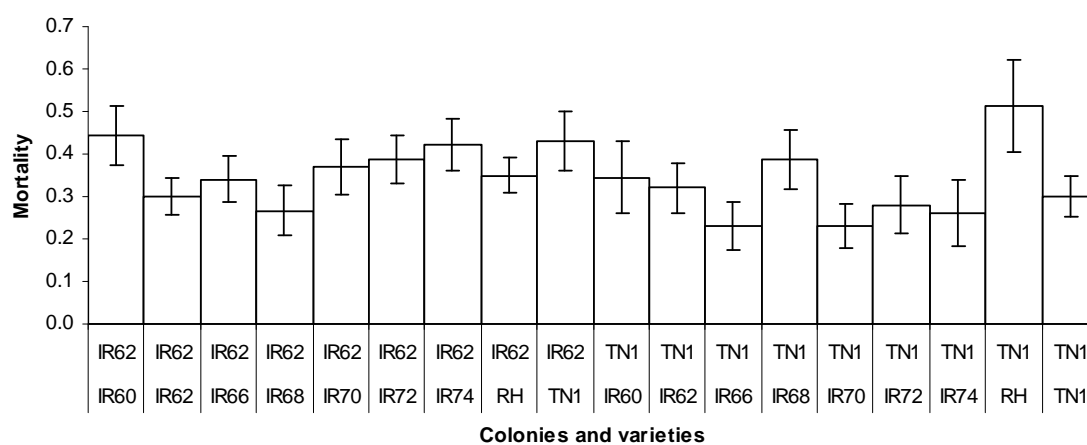
The lower stage is below that other stages (3rd, 4th, 5th and adults to up).

ANNEX 3: Survival bioassays graphics of effects of adaptation to *bph3* gene and related genes (*bph20* and *bph4*). (Mortality, biomass of BPH and percentage at stage).



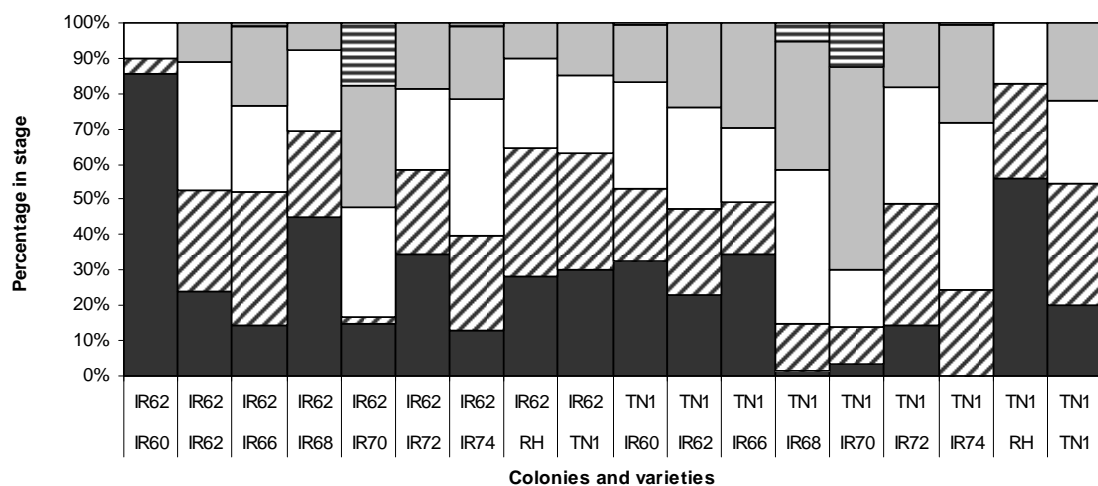
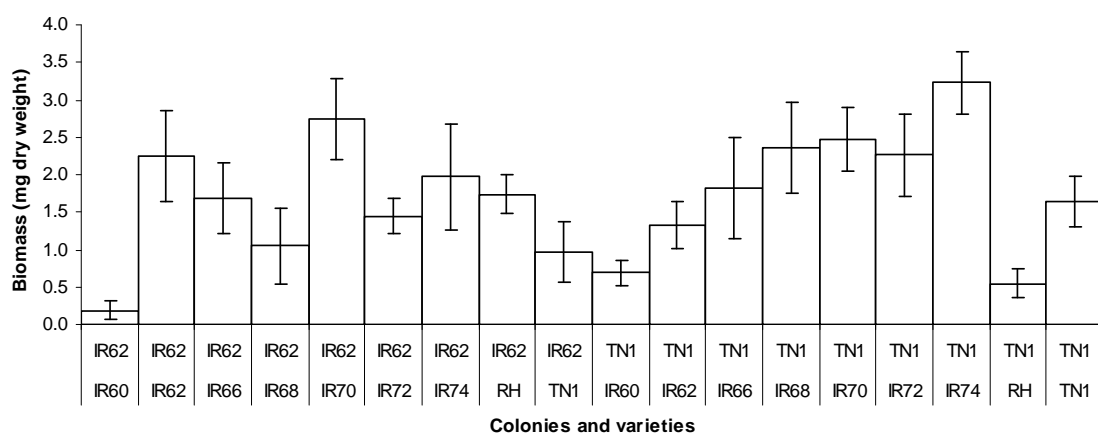
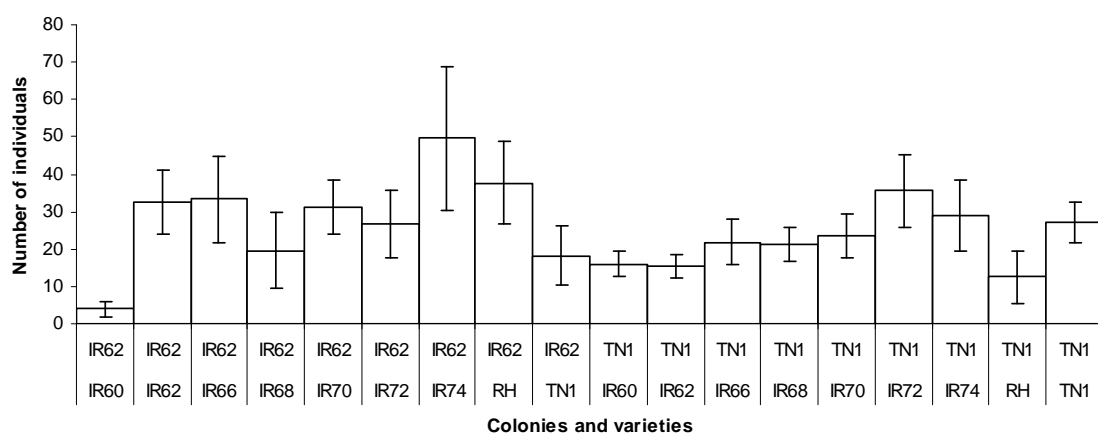
The lower stage is below that other stages (2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th and adults to up).

ANNEX 4: Survival bioassays graphics of effects of adaptation to *bph3* gene on related varieties (each containing the *bph3* gene). (Mortality, biomass of BPH and percentage at stage).



The lower stage is below that other stages (3rd, 4th, 5th and adults to up).

ANNEX 5: Population build up bioassays graphics of effects of adaptation to *bph3* gene on related varieties (each containing the *bph3* gene). (Number of individuals, BPH biomass and percentage at stage graphics).



The lower stage is below that other stages (2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th and adults to up).

