



A review of the mechanisms of acaricide resistance in *Varroa destructor* affecting honey bees

Shah ALAM^{1*} , Muhammad Asif AZIZ¹ , Muhammad SHEHZAD¹ , Sumaira MAQSOOD²

¹Department of Entomology, Pir Mehr Ali Shah Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi, Pakistan

Corresponding author E-mail: shahalamkhanrabbani@gmail.com

²Department of Environmental Sciences, Kohsar University, Murree, Pakistan

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Abstract

Honey bees (*Apis mellifera*) are crucial pollinators for economically significant crops. However, their colonies are increasingly threatened by a wide range of pathogens and parasites. Among these, the ectoparasitic mite, *Varroa destructor*, poses the most serious threat to bees worldwide. To combat *Varroa* mite infestations, beekeepers use a range of synthetic and organic acaricides. Nonetheless, the continuous use of these acaricides has led to the development of resistance in *Varroa* mites, thereby complicating control efforts. Key resistance mechanisms include enhanced detoxification and target-site insensitivity, which are influenced by genetic, anthropogenic, and ecological factors. While resistance mechanisms to pyrethroids are well documented, those related to organophosphates and formamidines remain less well understood. This review summarizes the current knowledge of *Varroa* mites' resistance mechanisms to pyrethroids, organophosphates, and formamidines. It highlights recent advancements in non-chemical mite management approaches in the context of integrated pest management, and suggests future research directions to develop effective and sustainable mite control strategies.

Keywords: *Varroa destructor*, *Apis mellifera*, Acaricide resistance, Pyrethroids, Formamidines, Detoxification mechanisms

INTRODUCTION

Honeybees are vital pollinators of both wildflowers and agricultural crops (Genersch 2010) and contribute more than €153 billion euros in the world's economy annually (Gallai 2009, Puranik et al. 2023). However, multiple stressors affect honeybees, including infections, pests, and habitat degradation (Giacobino et al. 2018). *Varroa* mites, scientifically known as *Varroa destructor* (Trueman & Anderson 2000), are detrimental parasites with a substantial global impact, particularly on the European honey bee (*Apis mellifera* Linnaeus 1756), the economically most important bee species (Morawetz et al. 2019, Traynor et al. 2020). These mites primarily invade fat bodies and hemolymph of honey bees during their reproductive phase to get nutrition, impairing the immune system of their hosts through the toxins they inject (Ramsey et al. 2019, Han et al. 2024). In addition to the aforementioned aspects, *Varroa* mites are vectors for several pathogens that cause severe viral infections within bee colonies (Giacobino et al. 2018, Hubert et al. 2015, Wilfert et al. 2016). To manage *Varroa* during its global spread, synthetic pesticides have been a vital tool for beekeepers. Chemical agents commonly used

against this parasite include formamidines, organophosphates, and pyrethroids. Beekeepers have a natural tendency towards these chemicals due to their ease of use and historical efficacy (Evans & Cook 2018, Kamler et al., 2016).

A thorough review of literature indicates 23-31% of beekeepers in New Zealand exclusively employed either amitraz or flumethrin, while in the United Kingdom, 18% of beekeepers used amitraz exclusively (Stahlmann-Brown et al. 2022, Valentine & Martin 2023). However, due to their rapid reproductive potential, short developmental period, and frequent exposure to acaricides, resistance has evolved in these mites, rendering control measures inefficient in many cases (Zhan et al. 2015, Boi et al. 2016, Erban et al. 2017). Pesticide resistance is a relative decrease in a pest population's susceptibility to a particular pesticide (Siddiqui et al. 2023). It has become an important issue to understand the status of acaricide resistance and mechanisms involved in resistance development so that new, eco-friendly and effective control measures could be formulated for this arthropod. To provide deep insights into

effective preventive and control strategies, this review focuses on the resistance status and potential mechanisms of Varroa mites to acaricides.

Literature review and data analysis

To investigate the mechanisms of various acaricide resistance in *V. destructor*, an ectoparasitic mite of the honey bee *Apis mellifera*, a systematic search of peer-reviewed literature was conducted across Google Scholar, PubMed, Science Direct, Scopus, and Research Gate, for articles published between 1998 and 2025, following PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis) guidelines (Page et al. 2021). The search employed the following keywords: *A. mellifera*, European honeybee, pyrethroids, organophosphates, amitraz, formamidines, target-site mutation, detoxification enzymes, metabolic resistance, resistance, esterases, glutathione S-transferases, mechanisms, and management.

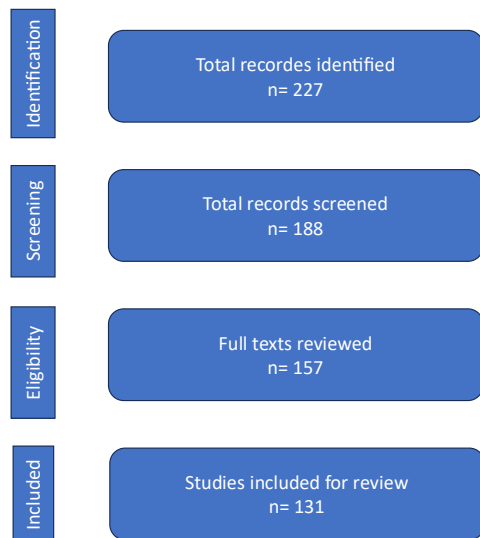


Fig. 1. PRISMA flowchart depicting literature selection

Articles that were theoretical and commentaries were excluded. Studies focusing on *A. ceranae* or other mite host relationships were also excluded. Only original articles investigating the biochemical and genetic mechanisms underlying acaricide resistance in *V. destructor* infesting *A. mellifera* were retained. After screening, a total of 188 articles were assessed for eligibility; 131 were retained, reviewed in detail, and synthesized for this review (Fig 1). Each identified article was examined to determine whether it was an original article describing pyrethroids, organophosphates, amitraz, formamidines, target-site mutations, detoxification

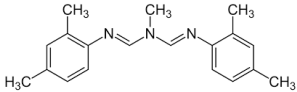
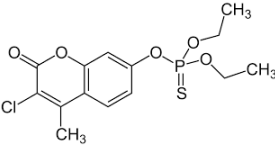
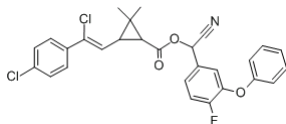
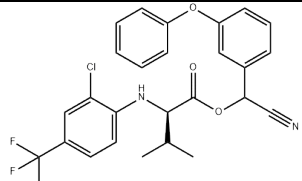
enzymes, metabolic resistance, esterases, glutathione S-transferases, mechanisms, and management. All citations of previous resistance in Varroa or of reviews that might include citations of previously reported works were noted, and these works were added to the list of articles to be reviewed.

Global status of Varroa Mite Resistance to acaricides

The development of acaricide resistance has emerged as a persistent and escalating issue, and has become an unabated phenomenon over the course of the last few decades. As a result, many management strategies do not yield effective mite suppression, and ultimately, mites cause significant economic losses to apiculture worldwide (De Rouck et al. 2023). Acaricide resistance in Varroa mite populations has been continuously documented across multiple regions of the world (Table 1), posing a significant challenge to controlling this parasite (Higes et al. 2020). The empirical evidence indicates that mite resistance has developed to repeatedly applied acaricides, particularly those belonging to the organophosphate and pyrethroid groups (Marsky et al. 2024, Celikkol & Dogac 2025). The evolution of resistance has been driven by strong selection pressure from repeated exposure of a single group and is often accompanied by cross-resistance to other groups having a similar mode of action or chemical nature (Rodriguez-Vivas et al., 2018). This has complicated the mite management strategies and reduced the effectiveness of alternative treatments within the same chemical group.

A comparative analysis of studies highlights the severity of resistance levels across regions. An increase of 34-39 fold resistance against amitraz has been reported in Argentina and Uruguay, respectively, from field-collected populations as compared to reference populations (Maggi et al. 2010, Mitton et al. 2016). In contrast, Kamler et al. (2016) reported resistance not only to amitraz but also to tau-fluvalinate and acrinathrin, suggesting broad-spectrum resistance in mites from Czech bee colonies. Such regional differences may reflect the influence of local beekeeping practices, acaricide application frequency, alternate treatments rotation strategies on the development of resistance. Several reports highlight the diverse cross-resistance in mites, further complicating the control efforts. A detailed overview of resistance status across different regions is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Chemical structure of acaricides used against *Varroa destructor* and resistance reports in different regions of the globe

Acaricides	Chemical Structure	Countries	References
Amitraz		Yugoslavia United States of America France, México, Argentina, Croatia Canada	(Dujin et al. 1991) (Elzen et al. 1999) (Mathieu & Faucon 2000) (Rodríguez-Dehaibes et al. 2005) (Maggi et al. 2010) (Tlak Gajger et al. 2019) Bahreini et al. 2025
Coumaphos		Italy Argentina United States of America Uruguay	(Spreafico et al. 2001) (Sammataro et al. 2005) (Maggi et al. 2009) (Maggi et al. 2011) (Kanga et al. 2016)
Flumethrin		Italy, France, Poland, Germany, Belgium, Austria, Hungary, Finland United Kingdom, United States of America, Argentina, México, New Zealand, Uruguay, Finland	(Lodesani et al. 1995) (Thompson et al. 2002) (Sanford 2001) (Goodwin et al. 2005) (Mitton et al. 2016)
tau-Fluvalinatelinate		Italy France Finland United Kingdom United States	(Fernandez & Omar 1997) (Mozes-Koch et al. 2000) (Rodríguez-Dehaibes et al. 2005)

Genetic Factors Leading to the Development of Resistance in Mites

Genetic factors play a critical role in the development and spread of acaricide resistance in different mite populations. Key factors include the number of dominant resistant genes, their frequency within populations, genetic diversity, and adaptive capacity of the resistant populations (Georghiou & Taylor, 1977). Initially, upon the introduction of novel acaricides, resistance-related genes in the *Varroa* population are typically present at low frequencies. However, their repeated and sometimes indiscriminate exposure imposed strong selection pressure, resulting in a rapid increase in the frequency of resistance-conferring genes (González-Cabrera et al. 2018).

Comparative genetic studies provide important insights into the dynamics of resistance development. For example, González-Cabrera et al. (2016, 2018) demonstrated that resistance to pyrethroids such as tau-fluvalinate and flumethrin is linked with a marked increase in the frequency of

resistant homozygotes in mite populations. Such studies also reveal that selection pressure not only increases the frequency of resistance alleles but also drives their fixation in certain populations. Conversely, Beaurepaire et al. (2017) argued that the haplodiploid reproductive nature and frequent inbreeding are the reasons for the overall low genetic variability in *Varroa* mites. As a result, resistant homozygosity is promoted, thereby facilitating the expression of resistance phenotypes even in small mite populations. Both studies suggest that intrinsic genetic structure, in combination with selection pressure, shapes resistance trajectories.

The resistance to pyrethroids is strongly linked to the mutations in the voltage-gated sodium channel proteins (VGSC) gene, which is a very important component of the mite's nervous system. Almecija et al. (2022) suggested that insensitivity to tau-fluvalinate is associated with the structural alterations in the VGSC proteins. More specifically, Millán-Leiva et al. (2021) identified mutations that replace the amino acid at position 925 in VGSC, which are documented as key markers conferring

resistance to pyrethroids in *V. destructor* populations. Although these findings provide strong evidence of target-site resistance mechanisms, their distribution and prevalence vary across regions, suggesting localized evolutionary patterns.

Despite substantial research on identifying resistance-associated mutations and understanding genetic markers, considerable areas still require investigation. Thus, include studies on metabolic resistance mechanisms, long-term population-level genetic monitoring to explore temporal dynamics of resistance allele frequencies, and the interaction between genetic resistance and environmental factors. Moreover, the pace of translating research findings on genetic resistance into apicultural management practices remains relatively slow.

Human Operating Factors

Furthermore, human operational factors have played a critical role in the development of acaricide resistance. These include selection of acaricide compound, its properties, application techniques, frequency and timing of treatments (Obaid et al. 2022). Over-reliance on a specific group of acaricides with a similar mode of action exerts stronger selection pressure. This practice eventually, rapidly eliminates the susceptible members, and replaces them with resistant and difficult to manage ones. When resistant parasites outweigh susceptible ones, the acaricides lose their efficacy significantly (Sparks et al. 2021). Empirical evidence from several studies supports such impacts. As reported by Johnson et al. (2013),

Mozes-Koch et al. (2000), and Thompson et al. (2002), these trends have been observed with repeated and prolonged use of a single acaricide treatment. To overcome resistance, acaricide rotation is widely recommended as a key component of the integrated resistance management (IRM) strategy. However, the robust empirical validation of this approach for the long-term effectiveness of Varroa mites is still needed.

The method of application may significantly influence acaricide efficacy by affecting the dosage. Santiago et al. (2000) observed variations in median lethal concentrations (LC50) when three acaricides were applied via different routes. Such variability may result in suboptimal dosing, repeated treatments, and, consequently, increased selection pressure.

Miscellaneous Factors

Several other factors related to the host-environment interactions, like bee activity, brood population, disease infection level in the colony, and the hive architecture, can impact the effectiveness of acaricides, thereby contributing to the selection for resistance in mites (Gracia et al. 2017, de Mattos et al. 2017) (Fig. 2). While systematic research on these factors is lacking, and currently they serve only as potential indicators of resistance development. However, future evaluation of acaricide efficacy should incorporate on-site studies to quantify the influence of these variables on acaricide exposure and the resulting selection pressure.

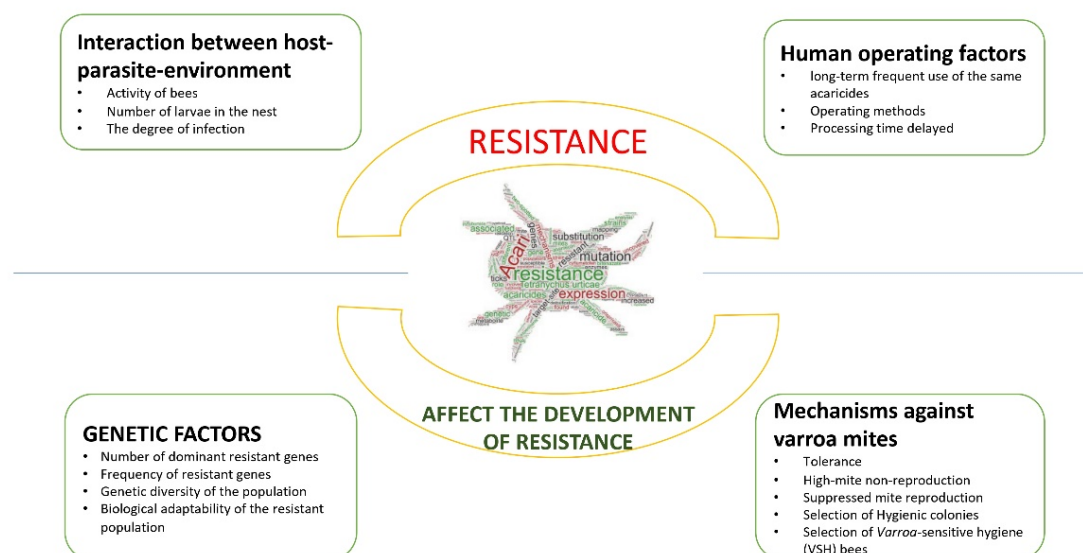


Fig. 2. Schematic diagram of different factors leading the way toward development of resistance in the Varroa mite; human-operated factors, genetic factors and associated aspects

Mechanism of Resistance Evolution in *Varroa* mite to Acaricides

Several mechanisms are involved in the development of resistance in insects including *V. destructor*. These include cuticular resistance, metabolic resistance, and target site insensitivity (Abbott 2006, Le Conte et al. 2015, Sammataro et al. 2005). The process underlying cuticular resistance remains relatively underexplored, a number of studies present information about resistance, metabolic, and target-site development in different groups of arthropods (Balabanidou et al. 2018, Shehzad et al. 2023, Strachecka et al. 2015).

Target Site Resistance

Target site resistance arises from the gene's structural modifications or point mutations encoding the target proteins that interact directly with the acaricides (Casida & Durkin 2013). Resistance to pyrethroid acaricides is most commonly associated with alterations in the voltage-gated sodium channel (VGSC), a critical transmembrane protein that initiates and propagates action potentials in neuronal

membranes (Dong et al. 2014, Vu 2016). Synthetic pyrethroid acaricides can modify the function of these sodium ion channels by binding to specific sites, leading to continuous electrical discharges in the insect nervous system and ultimately causing paralysis and death (Liu 2015). Diverse VGSC mutation sites are linked with pyrethroid resistance. For instance, Wang et al. (2002) identified four novel mutation sites, F1528L (IIS6), L1595P (IIS6-IVS1 linker), I1752V (IVS5), and M1823I (IVS6), associated with pyrethroid resistance (Fig. 3).

In contrast, other studies indicate that mutations in the S5 segment of domain II of the VGSC are associated with pyrethroid resistance (Cheng et al. 2019). Similarly, L925V substitution has been reported as a key factor conferring resistance in pyrethroid-treated colonies (González-Cabrera et al. 2013). Comparatively, although a broader set of potential mutation sites has been reported (Wang et al. 2003), only a limited subset appears to be more consistent and evolutionarily stable across different geographical regions (González-Cabrera et al. 2013, Hubert et al. 2014).

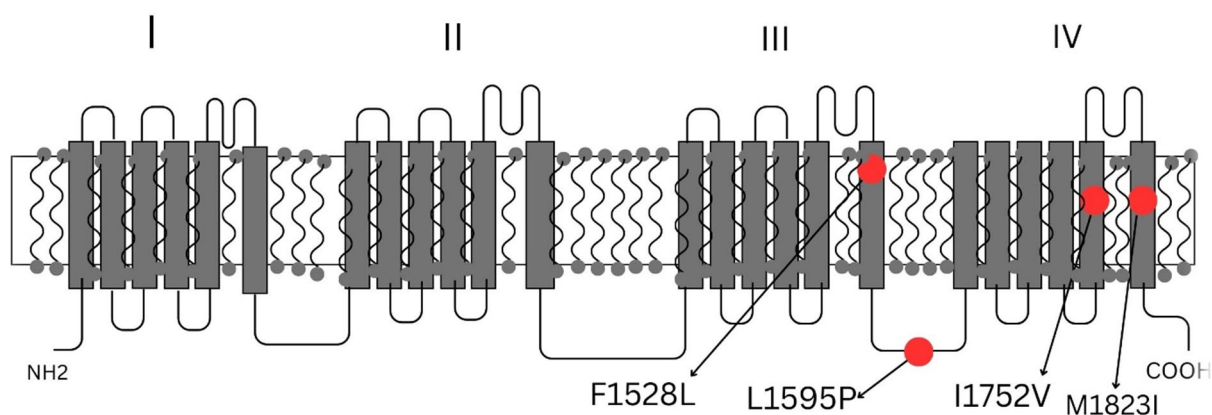


Fig. 3. Amino acid changes on the sodium channel in four different locations. Red circles indicate mutations in *V. destructor* that confer pyrethroid resistance (Wang et al. 2003).

Gonzalez-Cabrera et al. (2013) investigated resistance in UK *Varroa* mite samples through PCR amplification and sequencing. In the IIS5 helix of the sodium channel protein, they identified a leucine-to-valine substitution (L925V) as a hotspot for resistance. This mutation, proposed to be involved in pyrethroid (tau-fluvaliante) resistance, was present in 100% resistant mites as compared to 8% in the control mites. Strachecka et al. (2015) used the Polymerase chain reaction-single-strand conformational polymorphism (PCR-SSCP) and reported lower global DNA methylation levels in the resistant populations compared to the sensitive ones.

This study provided insight into a previously undescribed mechanism of resistance: epigenetic regulation as a contributing factor. Millán-Leiva et al. (2018) introduced a novel PCR-RFLP-based genotyping assay to discriminate among known

mutations at amino acid position 925 (L925V, L925I, L925M) of the VGSC for rapid differentiation between sensitive and resistant strains. As a cheap and easy-to-perform assay in the lab, this assay also offered accuracy and robustness comparable to TaqMan®. Stara et al. (2019) applied the in vitro Vail test through the PCR-RFLP method to detect the L925 knockdown resistance (*kdr*) mutations in the sodium channel gene (*NavCh*), at codon L925 (L925V/I/M). The resistant mites showed higher resistance values (0.400) than the susceptible ones (0.00783). During viability tests, 97% of susceptible phenotypes died; however, 63% of resistant phenotypes carried the L925V mutation, highlighting the test's reliability.

Comparative studies across different geographical regions (Alissandrakis et al. 2017, Cabrera et al. 2016, Farjamfar et al. 2018, Gonzalez-Cabrera et al. 2013, González- Hubert et al. 2014, Stara et al.

2019) indicate both shared and region-specific mutation patterns, suggesting convergent and localized evolutionary responses to acaricide selection pressure. While target-site resistance to erythroid is relatively well understood, there is a need for deeper investigation to gain further insights into the interactions among multiple mutations (epistatic effects) and how they influence resistant phenotypes.

Metabolic Detoxification Mechanisms

Metabolic detoxification is an important mechanism for explaining acaricide resistance in *Varroa* mites,

driven by altered expression or activity of detoxification enzymes (Fig. 4). Overexpression or enhanced activity of these enzymes modulates detoxification, allowing xenobiotic compounds to be rapidly broken down and eliminated from the body (Sammataro et al. 2005). It is believed that alterations in the regulation of three major enzyme families, viz. esterases, glutathione-S transferases, and P450 monooxygenases in arthropods, are primarily responsible for resistance by modulating both the rate and efficacy of metabolism (Namountougou et al. 2012).

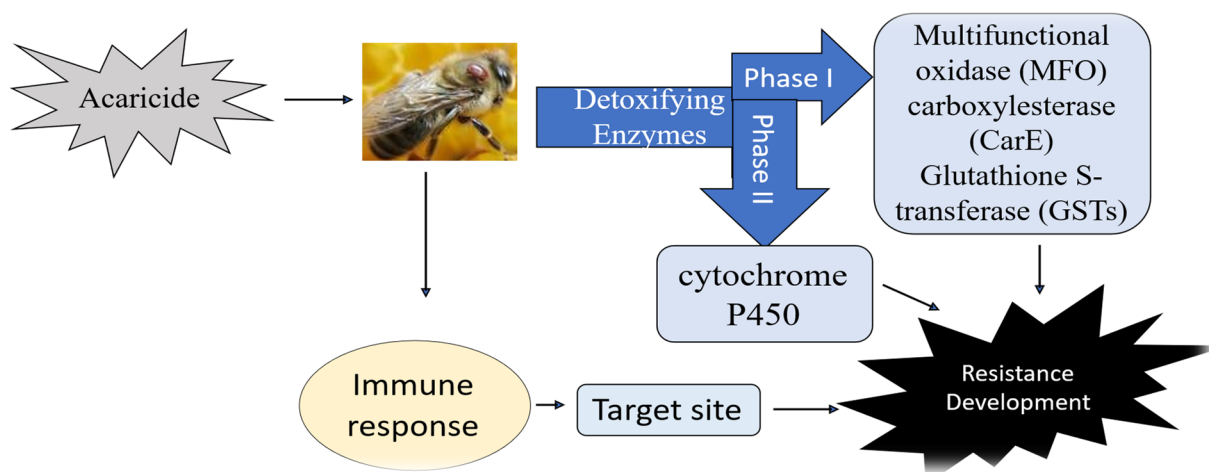


Fig. 4. The metabolic detoxification process in the *Varroa* mite. This is depicted alongside the roles of several detoxifying enzymes, including glutathione S-transferase (GST), carboxylesterase (CarE), and multifunctional oxidase (MFO). These enzymes, which are mediated by cytochrome P450 via Phase I and Phase II pathways, aid in the development of resistance and in the mites' immunological response before the acaricide reaches its target site.

Previous studies have shown variability in the enzymatic responses to different groups of acaricides. For example, a coumaphos-resistant *Varroa* population was reported to down-regulate the metabolic enzyme, P450 monooxygenase (Vlogiannitis et al. 2021). Similarly, Roth et al. (2021) reported no significant fluctuation in the activity of three primary detoxification enzymes: glutathione S-transferases (GSTs), cytochrome monooxygenases (P450s), and esterases, which have been observed frequently in the development of resistance against different acaricides in *Varroa* mites. These findings indicate that metabolic resistance is not always the sole mechanism conferring resistance in any particular mite population, and that other mechanisms may also be involved. The following sections describe reports from different geographical regions that document enzymatic variation and its association with acaricide resistance in the *Varroa* mite.

Cytochrome P450 Monooxygenases (P450s)

Cytochrome P450 monooxygenases comprise a diverse group of enzymes involved in the oxidative metabolism of xenobiotics into less toxic compounds, thereby reducing their efficacy, and hence play a key role in the detoxification processes in insects and arachnids (Lu et al. 2021).

From the perspective of *Varroa* mites, information reflecting quantitative fluctuation in cytochrome P450s is somewhat limited. Johnson et al. (2010) reported the role of cytochrome P450 enzymes in the detoxification of tau-fluvalinate and coumaphos in honey bees. Given that both bees and *Varroa* experience the same chemical exposure within the hive, it is plausible that similar detoxification processes occur in mites. Accordingly, P450 metabolic pathways are likely to be relevant to both organisms. Genath et al. (2020) demonstrated the differential expression of P450 genes in mites exposed to formic acid, with five genes upregulated and one deregulated, indicating a complex gene specific response in the context of detoxification. Furthermore, Vlogiannitis et al. (2021) demonstrated reduced bio-activation of coumaphos in *Varroa* mites, which must be converted into an active metabolite, coroxon by cytochrome P450 enzymes.

The resistant mites exhibited reduced metabolic activation of coumaphos. Since the mite genome contains 26 cytochromes P450 (CYP) genes, resistant mite populations showed overexpression of one CYP gene and underexpression of two CYP genes, which are thought to be associated with this kind of mite resistance. Collectively, most studies indicate the importance of P450 enzymes in detoxification; however, studies also highlight their

role in reduced bio-activation, suggesting that their function is not straightforward. This phenomenon underscores the need for further research to investigate gene regulation and its interactions with other resistance-conferring mechanisms.

Esterases

Esterases are key enzymes involved in the detoxification of xenobiotics and are widely associated with pesticide resistance in arthropods, including *Varroa* mites (Cao et al. 2008; Muthusamy et al. 2014). These enzymes contain nonspecific carboxylesterases and cholinesterases, which reduce the toxicity by hydrolyzing ester bonds in chemical compounds (Dang et al. 2017). The organophosphate acaricide resistance, is closely linked to acetylcholinesterase (ACHE), which is responsible for terminating the nerve impulse through acetylcholine hydrolysis (de Mattos et al. 2017). Hence, it is used to monitor resistance in *V. destructor*, mainly against organophosphates (Sammataro et al. 2005).

Mutations in the AChE gene in mites frequently lead to organophosphate resistance by attenuating the enzyme's susceptibility to inhibition by these chemicals (French-Constant et al. 2004, Hernández-Rodríguez et al. 2022). Dmitryjuk et al. (2014) observed ten-fold higher esterase activity in relation to acaricide-resistant individuals. Hillesheim et al. (2019) found that the aforementioned enzyme played a negligible role in the development of resistance. These findings suggest that esterase activity is population- or compound-dependent rather than universally associated with resistance. According to a recent study by Kim et al. (2022), *V. destructor* releases a cocktail of acetylcholinesterase enzymes. One of these isoforms, VdACHE2, was found to be predominantly active in the legs and the cuticle, suggesting that esterases may help mites defend against acaricide penetration.

Glutathione S-Transferases (GSTs)

The glutathione S-transferases (GSTs) are an important class of enzymes involved in the detoxification of xenobiotic compounds and play a central role in the metabolism of acaricides. GSTs catalyze the conjugation of reduced glutathione to toxic compounds, increasing their solubility, reducing toxicity, and facilitating excretion. This study by Gerson et al. (1991) showed that GST activity is much greater in pyrethroid-resistant mites than in susceptible populations. GSTs enable the conjugation process to neutralize the toxic effects of acaricides, allowing mites to detoxify and remove these chemicals with high efficiency.

Formamidine Resistance

Formamidines, with Amitraz as a representative, are a leading group of acaricides widely used in the treatment of animal ectoparasites, including *Varroa* (Pohorecka et al. 2018). Unlike pyrethroids,

formamidines exert their toxic effects by blocking octopamine receptors, which are essential for neurotransmission in arthropods (Casida & Durkin 2013). Overstimulation of these receptors can provoke tremors and convulsions, affecting both juvenile and adult mites (Mendes et al. 2013, Prullage et al. 2011). Although a case of formamidine resistance was identified in mites during a field trial in Minnesota in 2000, reports of resistance have been scarce, and the acaricide continues to be utilized globally for mite management (Rinkevich 2020).

Studies have demonstrated the efficacy of formamidine and formic acid in controlling mite infestations in bee colonies during the spring and fall seasons (Vandervalk et al. 2014). In 2018, a comparative analysis of five synthetic acaricides revealed their capacity to control mite populations in hives, with formamidine (amitraz) and phosphorus-based chemicals showing promising results (Bakar et al. 2018). Hernandez-Rodriguez et al. (2021) conducted a 2-year assessment of various acaricides in Spain and found that formamidines were highly effective against female *Varroa* mites. However, Corly et al. (2013) conducted an experiment on ticks and reported increased mutation frequency in the B-epinephrine octopamine receptor (RmBAOR) following formamidine exposure, leading to resistance.

A recent study suggested that the (F290L) mutation in octopamine receptors in *Varroa* mites may occur following formamidine exposure, leading to resistance (Hernández-Rodríguez et al. 2025). Collectively, these studies indicate the high effectiveness of formamidine as a cornerstone of *Varroa* control. But their long-term sustainability remains uncertain due to emerging evidence of target-site mutations. Therefore, proactive resistance monitoring and integrated management are emphasized rather than relying solely on formamidine-based control.

Emerging Technologies and Research Trends

Currently, new research directions and advanced technologies are the focus. Advancements in molecular technology are among the new opportunities for researchers in the fight against *Varroa* mites. Such advanced technology methods include RNA interference (RNAi), microbiome manipulation, CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing, and the Internet of Things (IoT).

RNA interference (RNAi)

RNA interference (RNAi) is an advanced and emerging tool to manage *Varroa* mite populations. RNAi plays an important role in regulating protein production. During the synthesis of a particular protein from messenger RNA (mRNA), RNAi targets double-stranded RNA (dsRNA), leading to the degradation of the corresponding mRNA before it can direct protein synthesis, thereby temporarily inhibiting protein production (Kim & Rossi 2008).

When introduced into mites, these molecules induce the breakdown of the target mRNA, thereby inhibiting the synthesis of essential proteins. RNAi has been successfully used to investigate gene functions in a wide range of invertebrate species (Campbell et al. 2009, Minakuchi et al. 2009, Shakesby et al. 2009, Walshe et al. 2009). Campbell et al. (2010) demonstrated the potential of RNAi-based tactics to disrupt mite development and reproduction after intra-haemocoelic injection of dsRNA targeting Vd GST-mu1, suggesting their potential as a sustainable control strategy. Similarly, Garbian et al. (2012) reported that dsRNA ingested by honey bees can be transmitted to the parasitic mite *V. destructor*, which feeds on the honey hemolymph and fat bodies, resulting in up to 60% reduction in mite population.

Gene editing with CRISPR-Cas9

By making precise changes to the genome of *V. destructor*, CRISPR-Cas9 could generate mites that are less fit or more susceptible to acaricides. CRISPR-based approaches can target the genes associated with resistance mechanisms, such as those involved in target-site insensitivity or metabolic detoxification pathways. For example, Inak et al. (2024) used CRISPR-Cas9 to produce gene-edited mites that showed reduced survival under acaricide exposure, suggesting a possible avenue for mite management strategies. Although CRISPR-Cas9 is a powerful research tool, its field application for Varroa control faces some practical, environmental, and ethical challenges and requires further validation.

Microbiome Modulation

The microbiota of honey bees (*A. mellifera*) and their parasites can influence host health and resistance dynamics. The use of probiotic treatments to modulate the bee microbiome has been proposed as a strategy to promote overall health and resilience against Varroa mites and other stressors. Anderson et al. (2011) demonstrated that alterations in the bee microbiome can influence interactions with Varroa mites, potentially moderating their effects. This suggests that a balanced, healthy microbial community in bees can enhance immune responses and reduce the negative impacts of mite infestations on bee health. Microbiome modulating is less invasive than genetic modification; however, it is influenced by a variety of factors, including diet, pesticides, and climate, which can affect its stability. Large-scale field trials are required to confirm whether microbiome-based intervention can produce reliable results under diverse beekeeping conditions.

Remote sensing and Internet of Things (IoT)

Remote sensing and Internet of Things (IoT) technologies are increasingly used to monitor the hive conditions and the extent of *Varroa* infestation. Smart hive sensor devices enable continuous, data-driven analysis and monitoring, and can even

generate real-time alerts to support timely management interventions. For example, Ferrari et al. (2007) highlighted the potential of sensor-based systems to monitor mite infestation and hive activity, including acoustic signals such as buzzing and swarming sounds, which may indicate colony health and stress levels. Although these technologies offer clear advantages in precision and early detection, they also have practical limitations, including cost, technical complexity, and the need for reliable connectivity in remote apiaries. However, these technologies can be used to complement the traditional inspection methods until their effectiveness is fully validated.

Integrated Pest Management (IPM)

Integrated pest management (IPM) is a well-established approach that combines multiple methods to control *V. destructor* while minimizing harm to the bees and the environment. Nowadays, Varroa mite resistance represents a major and escalating challenge in the apicultural industry. Many researchers have proposed temporarily discontinuing certain acaricides for a few years to reverse mite resistance (Farjamfar et al. 2018). Although this approach could restore the susceptibility, it is not without practical implications. Effective management increasingly relies on IPM tactics aimed at reducing the frequency of resistance alleles in mite populations by using chemicals with different modes of action (Gonzalez-Cabrera et al. 2018, Vu et al. 2020).

Alternatives to conventional chemical control, such as oxalic acid and formic acid, have shown considerable efficacy in reducing mite populations (Papežíková et al. 2017, Pietropaoli and Formato 2018). Despite their effectiveness, these treatments are highly dependent on environmental and brood conditions, which can limit their reliability. Additionally, several biocontrol agents, such as *Metarhizium anisopliae*, *Beauveria bassiana*, *Stratiolaelaps scimitus*, and *Coccidia albicans* (Hamiduzzaman et al. 2012, Rangel and Ward 2018, Reinbacher et al., 2018, Pusceddu et al. 2019, Steenberg et al. 2010) offer novel and environmentally friendly alternatives. Nevertheless, their field-level effectiveness remains inconsistent, and large-scale validation is still limited.

Nazzi & Le-Conte (2016) used pheromone-based traps that mimic the chemical signals of bee brood, thereby reducing *Varroa* mite infestation without harming the bees. Similarly, Emsen et al. (2020) demonstrated that essential oils such as camphor and eucalyptol exhibit acaricidal activity against the Varroa mite, offering alternatives to synthetic insecticides and helping reduce acaricide residues in honey. The extracts of sandalwood and thyme also offer miticidal properties (Leza et al. 2015, Lin et al. 2020). Given that no single method provides an effective solution, a more holistic, adaptive approach is needed that integrates multiple control methods and continuously monitors resistance dynamics.

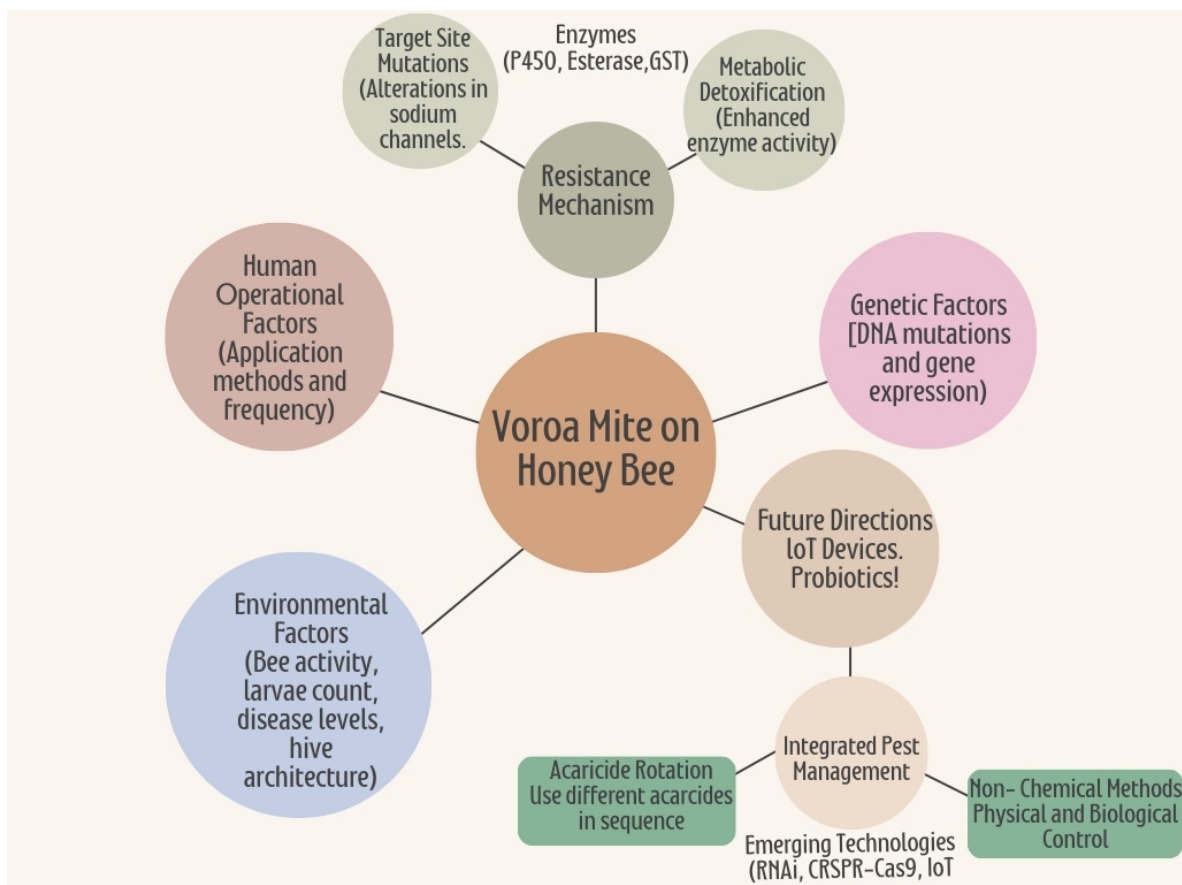


Fig 5. A diagram illustrates the mechanisms of acaricide resistance in *Varroa* mites and the management strategies used to combat them. At the center, a *Varroa* mite on a honey bee is surrounded by key factors: genetic influences such as DNA mutations, resistance mechanisms such as target-site mutations and metabolic detoxification and human operational factors such as application methods and frequency.

Possible resistance and control strategies for effective mite control under contemporary situations are illustrated in Fig. 5.

Environmental factors, including bee activity and hive conditions, also play a role. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) strategies encompass acaricide rotation, non-chemical methods, and emerging technologies like RNAi and CRISPR-Cas9. Future directions highlight IoT devices for monitoring and probiotic treatments for bees. Arrows and labels connect these elements, illustrating their interactions and providing a comprehensive view of the multifaceted approach needed to manage *Varroa* mite resistance effectively.

Case studies and real-world applications

Case studies from different geographical regions provide practical insights into the effectiveness of IPM strategies. Pettis & Delaplane (2010) conducted an experiment in commercial apiaries in California, implementing drone brood removal, screened bottom boards, and organic acid treatments. These measures resulted in significant reductions in the *Varroa* mite population and improved colony health. In Europe, particularly in Germany, beekeepers have adopted IPM practices, such as alternating between natural and synthetic acaricides and using *Varroa*-resistant bee strains, resulting in sustainable

control of mite infestations and reduced colony losses (Rosenkranz et al. 2010).

Advantages and Limitations of IPM

The IPM framework by categorizing treatments into cultural mechanical, organic chemical, and synthetic chemical options, allowing beekeepers to match intervention to their colony actual varroa levels. It promotes resistance management by discouraging synthetic chemical treatments when mite loads fall below 3 mites/100 bee threshold, reducing unnecessary acaricide selection pressure. The tool respects beekeeper autonomy by not mandating specific products within a category; instead, it directs users to supplementary tables for efficacy and regional availability data. An IPM strategy that prioritizes sustainable integrated control over routine chemical application.

In IPM strategies, the beekeepers independently determine economic feasibility, a critical gap given that cost often drives treatment compliance. It offers no specific guidance on selecting among multiple options within the same IPM category, requiring users to interpret efficacy data without comparative recommendations. A less experienced beekeeper may struggle to weigh the trade-offs between different acaricides, particularly given documented resistance profiles for fluvalinate and amitraz. Finally, the exclusion of biocontrol means the

framework cannot incorporate emerging biocontrol agents if they become commercially available in the future.

Analysis of Economic and Environmental Impact

Infestations of *Varroa* mites have significant economic and environmental **consequences**. They contribute to colony losses and reduced honey production, increasing costs associated with treatments and management. Van-Engelsdorp et al. (2012) emphasized that cost-benefit analysis of different control strategies can assist beekeepers in selecting economically viable and environmentally sustainable options. Reliance on chemical acaricides can lead to environmental contamination and the development of resistance in *Varroa* mite populations. Therefore, there is an increasing need to explore and implement natural treatments and biocontrol tactics in combination with chemical treatments to reduce environmental risks (Ellis et al. 2019). Although alternative approaches require higher initial investments and greater management efforts, they are generally more environmentally sustainable and can yield long-term benefits. However, ongoing research is needed to make alternatives easier to apply, cost-effective, and accessible, thereby enabling wider adoption among beekeepers.

Regulations framework and policies

A strong regulatory framework and coherent policies are essential for the effective management of *Varroa* mites. International organizations such as the World Organization of Animal Health (OIE) and the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) provide guidelines for controlling honeybee diseases and parasitic infestations, emphasizing the careful use of acaricides and the adoption of Integrated Pest Management (FAO 2014). At the national level, policies vary; however, many countries promote sustainable beekeeping practices and support research into innovative alternative control methods. For example, the European Commission (2013) restricted the use of certain neonicotinoids, encouraging the development of safer, more sustainable pest management approaches, particularly for *Varroa* control.

Despite international guidelines, implementation in developing countries remains inconsistent due to weak national policies, limited regulatory capacity, poor enforcement, and limited access to approved treatments. This highlights the need for locally adapted, evidence-based regulations that balance agricultural productivity with pollination health and environmental sustainability.

Research Gaps and Future Directions

Although significant progress has been made in controlling *Varroa* mites, important research gaps remain. A deeper understanding of the genetics and biochemical mechanisms underlying acaricide resistance is needed to support the development of

more effective and targeted control strategies (Johnson et al. 2013). Furthermore, improving the precision and reliability of IPM techniques remains a priority. More research is required to evaluate the long-term effectiveness and adaptability across different environmental conditions and beekeeping systems (Petties & Delaplane 2010). Moreover, instead of fragmented research, there is a need for large-scale, longitudinal studies that integrate the Internet of Things (IoT) with genetic, ecological, and socio-economic factors. Efforts should also focus on improving technology transfer to beekeepers in diverse regions, particularly regarding cost-effective mite control solutions. Collaboration between researchers, beekeepers, and policymakers needs to be strengthened to ensure that scientific findings are effectively translated into practical applications.

Conclusion

Honey bees provide essential ecosystem services, particularly through pollination, which supports biodiversity and global food production. However, the worldwide infestation of *Varroa* mites continues to pose a serious threat to honey bees' health and productivity. Current control strategies heavily rely on chemical treatments, leading to the development of resistance and a gradual decline in their effectiveness. This resistance is driven by a combination of complex genetic, biochemical, and management-related factors. A thorough understanding of resistance mechanisms, such as target-site mutations and enhanced metabolic detoxification, therefore requires large-scale, longitudinal studies to devise strategies for the sustainable control of *Varroa* mites.

Continuous monitoring of insecticide resistance, rotation of acaricides, and increased use of non-chemical methods are essential cornerstones of *Varroa* management. Integration of conventional methods with emerging technologies is necessary to achieve sustainable solutions within the framework of integrated pest management.

Advances such as RNA interference (RNAi), gene-editing tools like CRISPR-Cas9, and smart monitoring systems based on the Internet of Things (IoT) offer promising directions for future control strategies. These technologies are crucial for ensuring the health and productivity of honey bee colonies.

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