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1 **TITLE: Why are NGOs sceptical of genome editing?**

2 **SUBTITLE:**

3

4 By Richard Helliwell¹, Sarah Hartley², Warren Pearce³, Liz O’Neill⁴

5

6 ¹ lqzrh@nottingham.ac.uk

7 ² sarah.hartley@exeter.ac.uk

8 ³ warren.pearce@sheffield.ac.uk

9 ⁴ liz@gmfreeze.org

10

11 Corresponding Author: Tel: +44 115 951 5559 Email: lqzrh@nottingham.ac.uk

12

13 In 2016, 107 Nobel Laureates signed an open letter calling on Greenpeace to desist from
14 campaigning against agricultural biotechnology and for governments to reject and resist such
15 campaigning, arguing that “[o]pposition based on emotion and dogma contradicted by data
16 must be stopped” (Support Precision Agriculture, 2016). The letter marked the latest chapter
17 in a long-running, heated and apparently intractable debate around agricultural biotechnology
18 (Burke, 2004; Kuntz, 2012; Tagliabue, 2016). Yet, while the arguments by Greenpeace and
19 other non-governmental organisations (NGOs) against agricultural biotechnology are
20 frequently dismissed as based on emotion and dogma, their opposition is often grounded on
21 more general skepticisms concerning the framing of the problem and its solutions and the
22 motivations of actors to employ biotechnology in agriculture.

23

24 Genome editing is an important case of agricultural biotechnology. In Europe, however, the
25 European Commission has been delaying a decision on the regulation of genome editing and
26 New Plant Breeding Techniques (NPBT) for use in agriculture. In the meantime, numerous
27 groups are attempting to influence the debate, including biotechnology companies, scientists
28 and NGOs. Scientists and their representations have been particularly prominent in these
29 debates in contrast to a more muted position from commercial interests as companies have
30 adopted a ‘wait and see’ strategy with regards to the pending regulatory decision on genome
31 editing (Nuffield Council on Bioethics, 2016). As with earlier debates on genetically
32 modified (GM) crops, NGOs have become the subject of intense criticism from leading
33 scientists who support genome editing in agriculture. The subsequent debates have aroused

34 passions on all sides, but rarely led to greater mutual understanding. In this paper, we use the
35 case of genome editing to argue that the Nobel Laureate letter may have mischaracterised
36 opposition to agricultural biotechnology as rooted in emotion and dogma. Rather, our results
37 suggest that this opposition is grounded in three specific types of scepticism concerning the
38 problem framing of food security; the focus on intensive agriculture and technological
39 solutions to the problem of food security; and the motivations for adopting agricultural
40 biotechnology. Below, we describe our methods for analysing NGO scepticism, before
41 providing more detail on each of three types of scepticism.

42

43 **Frame analysis**

44

45 Our findings are based on a one-day focus group and nine semi-structured interviews
46 involving fourteen participants from UK and EU-based NGOs with an interest in genome
47 editing in agriculture: Beyond GM, Compassion in World Farming, Corporate Europe
48 Observatory, Econexus, FARM, Food Ethics Council, Friends of the Earth, GeneWatch UK,
49 GM Freeze, GM Watch, Greenpeace, Logos Environmental, Sustain, and Permaculture
50 Association. Owing to the small size of several NGOs, to remain consistent with the consent
51 provided by participants at the start of the project, and in accordance with the ethical
52 procedure approve by the host institution (University of Nottingham), all quotes have been
53 anonymised.

54

55 We draw on the concept of framing to clarify understanding of NGO scepticism towards
56 agricultural biotechnology. Framing is a process through which some aspect of a perceived
57 reality is emphasised so as to promote a particular problem definition, motivation for action
58 or solution (Entman, 1993). Frame analysis is therefore a tool to analyse how groups
59 articulate and promote a particular understanding of an issue, and why they exclude
60 alternatives. To identify NGO framings of agricultural biotechnology, we focused on
61 delineating key framing tasks: diagnostic framing (identification of problem and its
62 cause/attribution of blame), motivational framing (impetus for action), and prognosis framing
63 (presentation of solutions) (Morris, et al., 2016) by the participants when constructing their
64 arguments. Following this approach, we identified how NGO participants expressed an
65 alternative framing of agricultural biotechnology that was sceptical of the dominant problem
66 and solution framing and articulated their motivations for rejecting agricultural

67 biotechnologies. The analysis highlighted a large amount of consensus between the NGOs
68 although some areas of divergence exist.

69

70 The focus group and interviews further examined the social and ethical issues raised by
71 NGOs in the context of agricultural biotechnology with a specific focus on genome editing.
72 The interviews highlighted that NGOs are not a homogenous or unified group. They have
73 different roles dependent on their organisational structure and mission statement, and placed
74 varying emphases on the different issues at stake. We report the most prominent themes
75 expressed by NGOs related to their scepticism of the problem and solution framing and the
76 anticipated outcomes. Quotes represent key messages from the wider data set and have been
77 lightly edited for clarity.

78

79 **Contesting problem framing**

80

81 Food security frames the problem of hunger as a lack of sufficient quantities of food to feed
82 all people, now and in the future. Consequently, farmers need to produce more crops and
83 genome editing is offered as one technology to increase crop yield. However, the majority of
84 NGO participants contested this framing, arguing that the problem is not one of quantities but
85 one of access and control. A smaller number of NGOs outlined an alternative framing, that of
86 food sovereignty. “We more and more promote food sovereignty, so it’s about farmers being
87 in control of the system and consumers having a safe, fair food supply to buy or to grow
88 themselves” (Interview Participant 4). “[T]o me it’s about, food sovereignty is about giving
89 people the right to own food systems, it’s about preserving the genetic heritage we have, it’s
90 about giving control to farmers to grow the way they need to grow ...” (Interview Participant
91 8).

92

93 In contrast to food security, food sovereignty draws attention to who controls the way food is
94 produced and the implications in terms of access to food and arable land, and decision-
95 making (Mooney & Hunt, 2009). NGOs suggest further potential problems of increased
96 corporate control of agriculture through patents and diminished consumer control through de-
97 regulation of labeling requirements. Consequently, NGOs predict that adoption of genome
98 editing to generate new crop varieties will diminish food sovereignty and thus exacerbate the
99 underlying issue of access to food and control of food production.

100
101 NGO participants repeatedly questioned whether framing food security as a crisis, which
102 often constitutes a justification for genome editing, should be taken at face value. The most
103 prominent example was the pressing need to achieve food security in the context of emerging
104 global threats, including climate change and population growth. Participants were sceptical of
105 the motives for declaring a food security crisis and thus questioned the alleged urgent need
106 for genome-edited crops to increase yields. For example: "... a guaranteed phrase whenever I
107 read a paper, it always starts off, there are so many billion people in the world, by 2020, we
108 need to feed them. If an article starts like that, I can guarantee ... it's going to tell me I should
109 be developing GM" (Focus Group R1).

110
111 Participants argued that the use of 'crisis' or 'emergency' frames to justify genome editing
112 was not simply a declaration of fact, but a political claim used for political means. They
113 suggested that declarations of a global crisis were used to silence critics, with proponents of
114 genome editing claiming the moral high ground and opposition framed as unethical. NGO
115 participants argued that this would steer publics into accepting controversial technological
116 trajectories, obscuring a political choice behind a façade of necessity.

117

118 **Contesting solution framings**

119

120 NGO participants argued that genome editing fails to address the inherent unsustainability of
121 monoculture-based agriculture. They saw genome editing as a managerial solution by
122 providing new avenues of control through modifying specific plant traits, most notably insect
123 and herbicide resistance. "[I]n a sense genetic modification is a response to how do we solve
124 the problem of monoculture. ... new plant breeding techniques are still trying to solve
125 problems that actually we don't really need to have in the first place" (Interview Participant
126 8).

127

128 As some participants noted, even if new genome editing techniques help to generate plants
129 that solve the managerial problems of intensive monocultures, they cannot solve the negative
130 externalities that intensive monocultures produce. These externalities include biodiversity
131 loss, displacement of local populations, land tenure disputes, environmental degradation and
132 pollution, many of which contribute to wider human and environmental problems of food
133 vulnerability. Participants argued that previous agricultural biotechnologies such as GM

134 crops have been developed with neither the intention nor the capacity to address these issues.
135 Intensive agriculture would therefore propagate many of the problems that NGOs argue cause
136 systemic food vulnerability. If intensive monocultures are the problem, then genome editing
137 is not the solution. Instead, NGO participants argued for the need to consider alternative
138 forms of agricultural production, which were perceived as more sustainable and equitable.

139

140 All participants argued that commercial and government responses to the problem of food
141 security rely heavily on technological solutions such as genome editing. Although some
142 alternative agriculture NGOs saw this as a necessary part of sustainable transitions in
143 agriculture, all NGOs regarded this continued reliance on scientific and technological
144 solutions as crowding out much needed discussion of alternative means of addressing global
145 food vulnerabilities. “I think there will be a significant body of people out there who don’t
146 think it’ll be worth the bother really and that there are other ways that we can tackle the
147 problems that the technologies purport to solve” (Interview P1).

148

149 The majority of participants argued that because agricultural biotechnology was entangled
150 with intensive agriculture, it closed down discussions of alternative systems of agricultural
151 production that, in the long term, might be more socially, environmentally and economically
152 sustainable. “So whilst new plant breeding techniques can offer some potentially really
153 significant breakthroughs ... I think it’s the small scale, diversified agro-ecological farming
154 systems which are actually mostly the future of farming in the world” (Interview P8).

155

156 Overall, investments in agricultural biotechnology were seen as out of step with these
157 alternatives systems. Rather, emergent interest in genome editing was regarded as drawing on
158 research funding that could be better spent elsewhere, if the debate was opened up to discuss
159 alternatives. NGO participants argued that this reliance on scientific and technological
160 solutions to foods security was shaped by special interests capturing policy-making and the
161 reliance on technology for economic growth. “[P]rogress is always good and growth is driven
162 by technology and any kind of debate about which technology we want to choose as a society
163 is seen as a barrier to growth” (Interview P5).

164

165 The reliance on scientific and technological solutions was therefore linked strongly to
166 commercial and national interests. Participants argued that one major consequence of this
167 linkage between technology and economic growth was that public engagement did not

168 function to discuss publicly acceptable solutions, but instead to persuade the public that the
169 chosen technologies were the right ones, and were safe and useful.

170

171 All participants were sceptical about claims that genome editing was a novel and sufficiently
172 different solution to established techniques and the extent to which it requires de-regulation.
173 In particular, they argue that advocates of genome editing attempt to create a rhetorical space
174 between genome editing and ‘traditional’ genetic modification, through the use of categories
175 such as New Plant Breeding Techniques. “Industry basically planned the name to divorce the
176 new techniques from what people generally see as a bad old GM story” (Focus Group P5).
177 “And they describe this technology as very precise ... But they were describing that as
178 meaning it’s going to be so much better” (Interview P4). Participants argued that the goal of
179 this use of language was to de-stigmatise genome editing and separate it from first-generation
180 GM technologies, thereby increasing its acceptability to policy makers and the public.

181

182 **Contesting motivations**

183

184 NGO participants made repeated reference to the commercial dimension of genome editing
185 and were highly sceptical of the way in which this matter was routinely marginalised in
186 debates. “[O]ur primary concerns were that these technologies were being used to make rich
187 people richer, not to make the world less hungry or more bio-diverse or more resilient to
188 climate change” (Interview P8). Specifically, they argued that crops produced through
189 genome editing will be commercial products and continue to offer ambiguous benefits to the
190 people, places and systems that are most vulnerable, particular farmers in the South.
191 Consequently, NGO participants perceived public and private research as creating
192 opportunities for increased corporate capture of the agricultural and food system at the
193 expense of farmers, citizens and consumers. Ultimately, the scientific advancement of
194 genome editing could not be disentangled from commercial interests within agricultural
195 regimes.

196

197 NGO participants argued that this dynamic also played out through narrowing the debate to
198 scientific assessments of risk and safety. Rather than engaging with this commercial
199 dimension, advocates for genome editing support risk assessment as the sole basis upon
200 which to make decisions about genome editing (Support Precision Agriculture, 2016). “Well
201 there’s a vested interest in those that are trying to promote the technology to not talk about

202 those wider issues and they are more complex ... they are about power.... It's much easier to
203 talk about whether it's safe or not" (Interview P4).

204

205 NGO participants argued that the sole reliance on scientific risk assessment came at the
206 expense of social, economic and political considerations, something they found deeply
207 frustrating and self-defeating. For them, it was not possible to disentangle the science of
208 genome editing from these political dimensions. Even if genome-edited plants were proven
209 safe, current regulations cannot demonstrate that these broader concerns have been resolved.

210

211 **An opportunity to build understanding?**

212

213 Our research suggests that opposition to agricultural biotechnology cannot be dismissed as
214 being solely emotional or dogmatic as the Noble Laureate Letter contends. Instead, NGO
215 participants' opposition to genome editing is rooted in three areas of scepticism: how the
216 problem is defined as a lack of food rather than a lack of access to food, and the urgency of
217 this crisis which closes down alternative solutions; the solutions, particularly whether further
218 entrenching intensive agriculture through science and technology can address political and
219 socio-economic inequalities; and the motivations for removing genome editing from GM
220 regulations.

221

222 Frame analysis draws attention to an important characteristic of environmental controversies:
223 that they cannot always be reduced to matters of fact. In adopting frames, individuals and
224 organisations inevitably emphasise some issues and downplay others, thereby excluding
225 'uncomfortable knowledge' (Rayner, 2012) which does not correspond with a given frame.
226 The exclusion, for example by the Nobel Laureates, of uncomfortable knowledge pertains to
227 the poor practical efficacy of crops produced through agricultural biotechnology. Despite
228 nearly 30 years of research and development, the fruits of agricultural biotechnology remain
229 largely promissory (Nuffield Council on Bioethics, 2012). Long-standing promises of more
230 stress-resistant or nitrogen-fixing plants have not been delivered (Nuffield Council on
231 Bioethics, 2016). Conversely, for NGOs, uncomfortable knowledge includes the potential of
232 genome editing to 'democratise' science owing to its increased accessibility, relative ease of
233 use, and 'off the shelf' characteristics (Nuffield Council on Bioethics, 2016), which
234 undermines their framing of corporate control over the food chain. The NGOs did not discuss
235 the democratising potential of genome-editing technologies such as CRISPR/Cas, but focused

236 on the current state of ownership regarding the products and proceeds of agricultural
237 biotechnology without considerations of how genome editing may challenge this *status quo*.
238 The way to cope with this uncomfortable knowledge is to ensure diversity in decision-making
239 processes, otherwise decisions will lack robustness (Rayner, 2012) and will get challenged.
240 The history of agricultural biotechnology provides a powerful illustration of such social
241 dynamics.

242
243 Sceptical NGOs present alternative problem and solution framings with different outcomes,
244 as part of a broader political discussion about policy impacts within society. An age-old
245 political question underpins all the scepticisms described above: who gets what, when and
246 how (Lasswell, 1936). Increasing food production through agricultural biotechnology to meet
247 imagined future demand is a political choice with political consequences for access to food,
248 land and control over how food is produced.

249
250 There is ample evidence from the social sciences that environmental controversies cannot be
251 adequately addressed through science alone, and that political issues and the values
252 underpinning them must be acknowledged (Sarewitz, 2004). Yet, there is a danger that this
253 evidence is being ignored, mirroring genome editing in a similarly polarised and intractable
254 debate as the wider field of agricultural biotechnology. Understanding and accommodating
255 different positions is vital (Hartley, et al., 2016). Opportunities are needed for considering
256 alternative technologies, agricultural practice and political solutions to food vulnerability.
257 Open and constructive debate building mutual understanding of opposing positions is needed
258 if the goal is to truly assess the potential for genome-edited crops to play a role in addressing
259 the problem of global food vulnerability.

260
261

262 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

263 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest. LO'N's position as co-author
264 represents her key role facilitating contact with research participants who have been
265 traditionally hard to access. LO'N was a focus group participant, was not interviewed and
266 played no part in research design or data analysis. WP and SH designed the research,
267 conducted data analysis and contributed to writing the paper. RH conducted data analysis and
268 led the writing of the paper.

269

270

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277

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308

309