

1 Why are NGOs sceptical of genome editing?

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11 Abstract

12
13
14 NGO arguments against agricultural biotechnology are often dismissed as based on emotion
15 and dogma. This article draws on qualitative research to understand these arguments and
16 shows that NGO opposition is grounded in three types of scepticism concerning the problem
17 framing, the solution framing and the motivations.

18 Introduction

19
20 In 2016, 107 Nobel Laureates signed an open letter calling on Greenpeace to desist from
21 campaigning against agricultural biotechnology and for governments to reject and resist such
22 campaigning, arguing that “[o]pposition based on emotion and dogma contradicted by data
23 must be stopped” (Support Precision Agriculture, 2016). The letter marked the latest, heated
24 chapter in a long-running and apparently intractable debate around agricultural biotechnology
25 (Burke, 2004; Kuntz, 2012; Tagliabue, 2016). Genome editing is an important case within the
26 broader portfolio of agricultural biotechnologies. The European Commission has delayed
27 deciding on the regulatory status of genome editing and New Plant Breeding Techniques
28 (NPBT) for use in agriculture. Numerous groups are attempting to shape the debate through
29 representations to the Commission, including biotechnology companies, scientists and NGOs.
30 In contrast to previous public debates around agricultural biotechnology, scientist
31 representations have been particularly prominent in contrast to a more muted position from
32 commercial interests, reflecting commercial companies’ adopting a wait and see strategy with
33 regards to the pending regulatory decision on genome editing (Nuffield Council on Bioethics,
34 2016). As with genetically modified (GM) crops, NGOs have become the subject of intense
35 criticism from leading scientists advocating genome editing in agriculture. The subsequent
36 debates have aroused passions on all sides, but rarely appear to result in greater mutual
37 understanding. In this paper, we use the case of genome editing to show that the Nobel
38 Laureate letter may have mischaracterised opposition to agricultural biotechnology as rooted
39 in emotion and dogma. Rather, our results suggest this opposition is grounded in three
40 specific types of scepticism concerning: 1) the framing of food security; 2) the focus on
41 intensive agriculture and scientific and technological solutions to the problem of food
42 security, and, 3) contesting the motivations for adopting agricultural biotechnology.

43
44 Our findings are based on the results of a one-day focus group and nine additional semi-
45 structured interviews involving fourteen participants from UK and EU-based NGOs with an
46 interest in genome editing in agriculture. These NGOs include, Beyond GM, Compassion in
47 World Farming, Corporate Europe Observatory, Eonexus, FARM, Food Ethics Council,
48 Friends of the Earth, GeneWatch UK, GM Freeze, GM Watch, Greenpeace, Logos

49 Environmental, Sustain, and Permaculture Association. Due to the small nature of several
50 participant NGOs, to remain consistent with the consent provided by participants at the start
51 of the project, and in accordance with the ethical procedure approve by the host institution
52 (University of Nottingham), all quotes have been anonymised.

53
54 We draw on the concept of framing as a means of clarifying and improving understanding of
55 NGO scepticism towards agricultural biotechnology. Framing is described as the process
56 through which some aspect of a perceived reality is emphasised in such a way as to promote a
57 particular problem definition, motivation for action, and solution recommendation (Entman,
58 1993). Frame analysis is therefore a means through which to analyse how groups articulate
59 and promote a particular understanding of an issue and mode of action, while excluding
60 alternatives. To identify NGO framings the data analysis focused on delineating key framing
61 tasks, diagnostic framing (identification of problem and its cause/attribution of blame),
62 motivational framing (impetus for action), and prognosis framing (presentation of solutions)
63 (Morris, et al., 2016) undertaken by NGO participants when constructing their arguments for
64 opposing agricultural biotechnology. Following this methodological approach we have
65 identified how NGO participants expressed an alternative framing of agricultural
66 biotechnology that was sceptical of the dominant problem and solution framing as well as
67 articulating their motivations for rejecting agricultural biotechnologies. The analysis
68 highlighted a large amount of consensus between the NGOs although some areas of
69 divergence exist which we identify here.

70
71 The focus group and interviews examined the social and ethical issues raised by NGOs in the
72 context of agricultural biotechnology with a specific focus on genome editing techniques as a
73 newly emergent subset of this broader category. The interviews highlighted that NGOs are
74 not a unified group. NGOs undertake different roles dependent on their organisational
75 structure and mission statement, and with different emphasis on the issues at stake. We report
76 the most prominent themes expressed by NGOs related to their scepticism of the problem and
77 solution framing of agricultural biotechnology and the anticipated outcomes. Quotes are
78 presented where they represent key messages from the wider data set and have been lightly
79 edited for clarity.

80

81 Scepticism 1: Contesting problem framing

82 a) Food security versus food sovereignty

83 Food security frames the problem of hunger as stemming from a lack of sufficient quantities
84 of food to feed all people, now and in the future. Consequently, farmers need to produce
85 more food by increasing crop yields. Genome editing is offered as one such promissory
86 technology to achieve yield increases. However, the majority of NGO participants contested
87 this framing of the problem arguing that the problem is not one of quantities but one of access
88 and control. As well as contesting the dominant food security framing, a smaller number of
89 NGOs outlined an explicit alternative framing, that of food sovereignty.

90 “We more and more promote food sovereignty, so it’s about farmers being in control
91 of the system and consumers having a safe, fair food supply to buy or to grow
92 themselves.” (Interview P4)

93 “[T]o me it’s about, food sovereignty is about giving people the right to own food
94 systems, it’s about preserving the genetic heritage we have, it’s about giving control
95 to farmers to grow the way they need to grow ...” (Interview P8)

96 In contrast to food security, food sovereignty draws attention to who controls the way food is
97 produced and the implications for access to food, land and decision making (Mooney & Hunt,

98 2009). With the problem defined as access, not supply, agricultural biotechnology is no
99 longer the solution. NGOs suggest further potential problems of increased corporate control
100 of agriculture through patenting regimes and diminished consumer control through de-
101 regulation by removing labelling requirements. Consequently, NGOs predict the adoption of
102 genome edited crops will diminish food sovereignty and thus exacerbate the underlying issue
103 of access to food and control of food production.
104

105 b) Food security as a crisis

106 “... a guaranteed phrase whenever I read a paper, it always starts off, there are so
107 many billion people in the world, by 2020, we need to feed them. If an article starts
108 like that, I can guarantee ... it’s going to tell me I should be developing GM.” (Focus
109 Group R1)

110 NGO participants repeatedly questioned whether framing food security as a crisis, which
111 often constituted the fundamental justifications for genome editing should be taken at face
112 value. The most prominent example was the pressing need to achieve food security in the
113 context of emerging global threats including climate change and population growth.

114 Participants were sceptical of the motives for declaring a food security crisis and thus
115 questioned the alleged urgent need for genome edited crops to increase yields.
116

117 Participants argued that the use of ‘crisis’ or ‘emergency’ frames to justify genome editing
118 was not simply a declaration of fact, but a political claim used for political means. In the
119 context of a global crisis, opposing genome editing has been framed as *unethical*. Claims of
120 an impending emergency were given as the reason to suspend normal controls, heightening
121 demand for sweeping de-regulation. Participants suggested declarations of a crisis were used
122 to silence critics, with proponents of genome editing claiming the moral high ground. The
123 current political climate encourages the development of emerging technologies to address
124 societal problems and impact-led research, but NGO participants argue that declaring a global
125 crisis may steer publics into accepting controversial technological trajectories, obscuring a
126 political choice behind a façade of necessity.
127

128 Scepticism 2: Contesting solution framings

129 c) Food security necessitates intensive agriculture

130 NGO participants argued that genome editing fails to address the inherent unsustainability of
131 monoculture systems. They saw proponents developing genome editing to solve the
132 managerial problems of intensive monocultures by providing new avenues of managerial
133 control through changes to specific plant traits, most notably the addition of insect and
134 herbicide resistance.

135 “[I]n a sense genetic modification is a response to how do we solve the problem of
136 monoculture. ... new plant breeding techniques are still trying to solve problems that
137 actually we don’t really need to have in the first place.” (Interview P8)

138 As some participants noted, even if new genome editing techniques deliver plants that solve
139 the managerial problems of intensive monocultures they cannot solve the negative
140 externalities that intensive monocultures produce. These externalities include issues of
141 biodiversity loss, displacement of local peoples, land tenure disputes, environmental
142 degradation and pollution, many of which contribute to wider human and environmental
143 problems of food vulnerability. Participants argued that previous agricultural biotechnologies
144 such as GM crops have been developed with neither the intention nor the capacity to address
145 these issues. Intensive agriculture is situated as propagating many of the problems that NGOs
146 argue cause systemic food vulnerability. If intensive monocultures are the problem, then

147 genome editing is not the solution. Instead, NGO participants argued for the need to consider
148 alternative forms of agricultural production which were perceived as more sustainable and
149 equitable.
150

151 d) Reliance on scientific and technological solutions

152 All participants argued that industry and government responses to the problem of food
153 security rely heavily on technological solutions such as genome editing. Although some
154 alternative agriculture NGOs saw this as a necessary part of future sustainable transitions in
155 agriculture, all NGOs saw this continued reliance on scientific and technological solutions as
156 crowding out much needed discussion of alternative means of addressing global food
157 vulnerabilities.

158 “I think there will be a significant body of people out there who don’t think it’ll be
159 worth the bother really and that there are other ways that we can tackle the problems
160 that the technologies purport to solve.” (Interview P1)

161 The majority of participants argued that because agricultural biotechnology was entangled
162 with delivering intensive systems of agriculture, it also closed down discussions of alternative
163 systems of agricultural production that, in the long term, were more socially, environmentally
164 and economically sustainable.

165 “So whilst new plant breeding techniques can offer some potentially really significant
166 breakthroughs ... I think it’s the small scale, diversified agro-ecological farming
167 systems which are actually mostly the future of farming in the world.” (Interview P8)

168 Overall, investments in agricultural biotechnology were seen as out of step with these
169 alternatives systems. Rather, emergent interest in genome editing was seen as drawing in
170 research funds that could be better spent elsewhere if the debate was opened up to a broader
171 discussion of alternatives. NGO participants argued that this reliance on scientific and
172 technological solutions to foods security was shaped by special interests capturing policy-
173 making and the reliance on technology for economic growth.

174 “[T]he way that global capitalism works ... progress is always good and growth is
175 driven by technology and any kind of debate about which technology we want to
176 choose as a society is seen as a barrier to growth” (Interview P5)

177 The reliance on scientific and technological solutions was therefore linked strongly to
178 commercial and national economic interests. Participants argued that one major consequence
179 of this linkage between technology and economic growth was that public engagement did not
180 function to arrive at publicly acceptable solutions, but instead to persuade the public that the
181 chosen technologies were indeed the right ones, and were safe and useful.
182

183 e) The terms of debate

184 All participants were sceptical about claims that genome editing was a novel and sufficiently
185 dissimilar solution to past techniques and the extent to which it requires the revisiting of past
186 decisions with the intention of de-regulating genome edited crops. In particular, they pointed
187 to the use of language, arguing that advocates had attempted to create a rhetorical space
188 between genome editing and ‘traditional’ genetic modification, through the use of categories
189 such as New Plant Breeding Techniques.

190 “Industry basically planned the name to divorce the new techniques from what people
191 generally see as a bad old GM story.” (Focus Group P5)

192
193 “And they describe this technology as very precise ... But they were describing that
194 as meaning it’s going to be so much better” (Interview P4)

195 NGO participants argued the goal of this use of language was to de-stigmatise genome
196 editing and separate it from possible links to first generation GM technologies, increasing its
197 acceptability to policy makers and the public.
198

199 **Scepticism 3: Contesting Motivations**

200 **f) Challenging commercial interests**

201 NGO participants made repeated reference to the commercial dimension of genome editing
202 and were highly sceptical of the way in which this matter was routinely marginalised in
203 debates.

204 “[O]ur primary concerns were that these technologies were being used to make rich
205 people richer, not to make the world less hungry or more bio-diverse or more resilient to
206 climate change.” (Interview P8)

207 Specifically, they argued that crops produced through genome editing will be commercial
208 products and continue to offer ambiguous benefits to the people, places and systems that are
209 most vulnerable, particular farmers in the global South. Even in instances where there was
210 considerable public and charity involvement in funding research, this publicly funded
211 research is shaped through representatives of industry providing advice towards research
212 policy agenda setting, as well as opening up avenues for future private commercial
213 innovation to take forward to later stage development and commercialisation (Nuffield
214 Council on Bioethics, 2012). Consequently, NGO participants perceived public and private
215 agricultural biotechnology research as creating opportunities for increased corporate capture
216 of the agricultural and food system at the expense of farmers, citizens and consumers.
217 Ultimately, the scientific advancement of genome editing could not be disentangled from
218 privileging the advancement of commercial interests within agricultural regimes.
219

220 NGO participants argued that this dynamic also played out through the narrowing of debate
221 to scientific appraisals of risk and safety. Rather than engaging with this commercial
222 dimension, advocates for genome editing support narrow scientific appraisals of safety as the
223 sole basis upon which to make decisions about genome editing (see Support Precision
224 Agriculture, 2016).

225 “Well there’s a vested interest in those that are trying to promote the technology to
226 not talk about those wider issues and they are more complex ... they are about
227 power.... It’s much easier to talk about whether it’s safe or not” (Interview P4)

228 NGO participants argued that the sole reliance on scientific appraisals came at the expense of
229 social, economic and political considerations, something they found deeply frustrating and
230 self-defeating. For participants, it was not possible to disentangle the science of genome
231 editing from these political dimensions. Even if genome edited plants were proven safe,
232 current regulations cannot demonstrate that these broader concerns have been resolved.
233

234 **Genome editing: An opportunity to build understanding?**

235 Our research suggests NGO opposition to agricultural biotechnology cannot be dismissed as
236 being solely emotional or dogmatic as the Noble Laureate Letter contends. Instead, NGO
237 participants’ opposition to genome editing is rooted in three areas of scepticism: 1]
238 scepticism regarding how the problem is defined as a lack of food rather than a lack of access
239 to food, and the urgency of this crisis which closes down alternative solutions in favour for
240 yield increase; 2] scepticism about the solutions, particularly whether further entrenching
241 intensive agriculture through science and technology can address an issue rooted in political
242 and socio-economic inequalities; and, 3] scepticism about the motivations for removing
243 genome editing from GM regulations.

244

245 Frame analysis draws attention to an important characteristic of environmental controversies:
246 that they cannot always be reduced to matters of fact. In adopting frames, individuals and
247 organisations inevitably emphasise some issues and downplay others, resulting in the
248 exclusion of ‘uncomfortable knowledge’ (Rayner, 2012) which does not correspond with a
249 given frame. The exclusion, for example by the Nobel Laureates, of uncomfortable
250 knowledge pertains to the poor practical efficacy of crops produced through agricultural
251 biotechnology. Despite nearly 30 years of innovation the fruits of agricultural biotechnology
252 remain largely promissory (Nuffield Council on Bioethics, 2012). Long standing promises of
253 more stress-resistant or nitrogen-fixing plants have not been delivered (Nuffield Council on
254 Bioethics, 2016). Conversely, for NGOs uncomfortable knowledge includes the potential for
255 genome editing to ‘democratise’ science due to its increased accessibility, relative ease of use,
256 and ‘off the shelf’ characteristics (Nuffield Council on Bioethics, 2016), which undermines
257 the framing of corporate control over the food chain. The NGOs did not discuss the
258 democratising potential of genome editing technologies such as CRISPR/Cas. Instead
259 participants’ focus on the current state of ownership regarding the products and proceeds of
260 agricultural biotechnology precludes consideration of the way genome editing may challenge
261 this status quo. The way to cope with this uncomfortable knowledge is to ensure diversity in
262 decision making processes, otherwise decisions will lack robustness (Rayner, 2012) and find
263 themselves challenged outside of formal decision-making processes. The history of
264 agricultural biotechnology provides a powerful illustration of such social dynamics.

265

266 Sceptical NGOs present alternative problem and solution framings with different anticipated
267 outcomes, as part of a broader political discussion about the distribution of policy impacts
268 within society. An age-old political question underpins all the NGO scepticisms described
269 above: who gets what, when and how (Lasswell, 1936). Increasing food production through
270 agricultural biotechnology to meet imagined future demand is a political choice with political
271 consequences for access to food, land and control over how food is produced. There is ample
272 social science evidence that environmental controversies cannot be adequately addressed
273 through science alone, and that political issues and the values underpinning them must be
274 acknowledged (Sarewitz, 2004). Yet there is a danger this evidence is being ignored, mirroring
275 genome editing in a similarly polarised and intractable debate as the wider field of
276 agricultural biotechnology. Understanding and accommodating different positions is vital
277 (Hartley, et al., 2016). Opportunities are needed for considering alternative technologies,
278 systems of agricultural practice and political solutions to food vulnerability. Open and
279 constructive debate building mutual understanding of opposing positions is needed if the goal
280 is to truly assess the potential for genome edited crops to play a role in addressing the
281 problem of global food vulnerability.

282

283 **Conflict of interest**

284 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest. LO’N facilitated contacts with
285 research participants who have been traditionally hard to access. LO’N was a focus group
286 participant/facilitator, was not interviewed and played no part in research design or data
287 analysis. WP and SH designed the research, conducted data analysis and contributed to
288 writing the paper. RH conducted data analysis and led the writing of the paper.

289

290 **Acknowledgements**

291 This work was supported by funding from the following sources: the Governance and
292 Public Policy Research Priority Area Award, University of Nottingham; the

293 Business, Institutions and Policy Research Cluster Award, University of Exeter; the Research
294 Development Fund, Department of Sociological Studies, University of Sheffield. We would
295 like to thank Penny Polson (University of Manchester) for her research assistance in data
296 collection.

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