

Impact of insect-resistant transgenic rice on target insect pests and non-target arthropods in China

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Abstract Progress on the research and development of insect-resistant transgenic rice, especially expressing insecticidal proteins from *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt), in China has been rapid in recent years. A number of insect-resistant transgenic rice lines/varieties have passed restricted and enlarged field testing, and several have been approved for productive testing since 2002 in China, although none was approved for commercial use until 2006. Extensive laboratory and field trials have been conducted for evaluation of the efficiency of transgenic rice on target lepidopteran pests and potential ecological risks on non-target arthropods. The efficacy of a number of transgenic rice lines currently tested in China was excellent for control of the major target insect pests, the rice stem borers (*Chilo suppressalis*, *Scirpophaga incertulas*, *Sesamia inferens*) and leaffolder (*Cnaphalocrocis medinalis*), and was better than most insecticides extensively used by millions of farmers at present in China. No significantly negative or unintended effects of transgenic rice on non-target arthropods were found compared with non-transgenic rice. In contrast, most of the current insecticides used for the control of rice stem borers and leaffolders proved harmful to natural enemies, and some insecticides may directly induce resurgence of rice planthoppers. Studies for developing a proactive insect resistance management of transgenic rice in the future are discussed to ensure the sustainable use of transgenic rice.

Key words Bt toxin, insect resistance, non-target effect, target insects, transgenic rice
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Introduction

As one of the centers of the origin of rice, China has more than a 7000-year history of planting rice, which is a staple food not only for China, but also for over half of those living in Asia and for nearly two billion people worldwide (Khush, 1997). Since the 1980s, rice yields have increased due to adoption of high-yielding rice varieties and hybrid rice. However, the growth rate of the rice-consuming

population is now higher than that of rice yields. Therefore, severe food shortages will probably occur in the future if the trend is not reversed (Khush, 1995). Simultaneously, rice yield loss caused by rice insect pests, such as the striped stem borer *Chilo suppressalis* (Walker), yellow stem borer *Scirpophaga incertulas* (Walker), pink stem borer *Sesamia inferens* (Walker) and leaffolder *Cnaphalocrocis medinalis* (Guenée), is a threat to rice production. Savary *et al.* (2000) reported that 24%–41% of rice yield was lost every year because of rice stem borers and other insect pests, diseases and weeds. Rice stem borers could annually cause 5%–10% yield loss (Pathak & Khan, 1994). In China, although different chemical insecticides were applied frequently in order to control rice stem borers, 3.1% of gross rice production, being equal to 6.45

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billion yuan, was lost annually because of the damage of stem borers (Sheng *et al.*, 2003). The cryptic habits of stem borers protect them from insecticidal sprays, making careful timing of systemic insecticide applications at high rates necessary for effective control. Resistance development to the major classes of insecticides in rice stem borers further decreased their efficacy in rice fields (Jiang *et al.*, 2001, 2005b; Li *et al.*, 2001; Chi *et al.*, 2005; Peng *et al.*, 2001).

Transgenic plants expressing insecticidal proteins from the bacterium *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) were grown in 2005 on 26.3 million ha worldwide (James, 2005). These crops have provided economic benefits to growers and reduced the use of insecticides (Shelton *et al.*, 2002; James, 2005). Advances in insect-resistant transgenic rice in China and other countries in recent years also offer a promising alternative to chemical insecticides for control of lepidopteran pests in rice (Zhu, 2001; High *et al.*, 2004). Bt rice has the potential to eliminate yield losses caused by lepidopteran pests of up to 2%–10% of Asia's annual rice yield of 523 million tons (High *et al.*, 2004). In the past decade, numerous transgenic rice lines conferring high resistance against rice stem borers and leafhoppers have been developed (Tu *et al.*, 2000; High *et al.*, 2004; Chen *et al.*, 2005b). Academic institutions and scientists in China, the leading country in rice production and consumption, have been involved in Bt rice research in recent years, supported primarily by the government (Huang *et al.*, 2002, 2005). Although not yet commercialized in China, large-scale productive testing of different Bt rice lines were approved in 2002 both in experimental station fields and in farmer fields in at least 13 sites. Restricted (up to 0.26 ha in total in one or two provinces and up to three locations in each province) and enlarged (0.27–2.0 ha in total in one or two provinces and up to seven locations in each province) field testing has been conducted for more transgenic rice lines since 1998 before applying the productive testing (2.1–66.7 ha in total in one or two provinces and up to five locations in each province for each application). These large-scale trials verified yield increases of approximately 6%–9% with an 80% reduction in pesticide usage (Huang *et al.*, 2005) and an overall increase in net income per hectare of US\$80–100 (James, 2005). All these efforts have made China one of the most advanced countries for research and development of transgenic insecticidal rice, although Iran was the first country to commercialize Bt rice in 2005 (James, 2005) and several other Asian countries are interested in commercial use of Bt rice in the future. This paper reviews briefly the transgenic insecticidal rice developed or field-tested in China, focusing on evaluating the impact of transgenic rice on target and non-target arthropods.

Insect-resistant transgenic rice lines in China

Several insect-resistant transgenic rice events and over a dozen transgenic rice lines have been developed or field-tested in China (Table 1). Some of these contain a single Bt insecticidal gene such as *cry1Ab* in Kemingdo (KMD) (Shu *et al.*, 2000), *cry1Ab/1Ac* fusion gene in hybrid line Bt Shanyou 63 (Tu *et al.*, 2000) or *cry2A* (Chen *et al.*, 2005a). Others are pyramided with dual insecticidal genes of modified *CpTI* (cowpea trypsin inhibitor) and *cry1Ac* in MSA/MSB (Zhao *et al.*, 2004) that have different binding sites and insecticidal mechanisms with increased potential to delay insect resistance development (Zhao *et al.*, 2003). Some transgenic Bt rice lines were stacked with other types of genes, including *bar* for herbicide tolerance (Zhu *et al.*, 1999; Yao *et al.*, 2002), and *xa21* for disease resistance (Wang *et al.*, 2002a). Such stacked traits reflect the needs of rice growers who have to simultaneously address the multiple yield constraints associated with various biotic and abiotic stresses, and will likely become widely adapted (James, 2005). The different insecticidal genes with different promoters were transferred into several rice varieties, and the expression levels of the insecticidal proteins varied in different events or lines, as shown in Table 1.

Among the different transgenic insecticidal rice lines, KMD (containing *cry1Ab*), Bt Shanyou 63 (containing *cry1A*) and GM Youming 86 (containing modified *CpTI*) have been in productive testing in fields since 2002 as the first batch of transgenic rice in China entered the last step before commercialization. KMD was developed at Zhejiang University in collaboration with the University of Ottawa (Cheng *et al.*, 1998). From KMD several hybrid lines (such as B1 and B6) (Chen *et al.*, 2003c) were developed. The Bt rice lines Shanyou 63 and Huahui 1 (Bt Minghui 63), both expressing *cry1Ab/1Ac* fusion gene, were developed at Huazhong Agricultural University in collaboration with the International Rice Research Institute (Tu *et al.*, 2000), and several hybrid varieties, such as Bt Shanyou 63, were derived from this Bt restorer line (Tu *et al.*, 1998, 2000). GM Youming 86, as well as GM Minghui 86 (MSA and MSB restorer lines) and hybrid lines Kefeng 6 (II-32A/MSB) containing *CpTI+cry1Ac* genes, were developed at the Institute of Genetics and the Developmental Biology of the Chinese Academy of Sciences collaborated in this with other laboratories (An *et al.*, 2001; Zhu, 2001; Zhao *et al.*, 2004).

Efficacy of transgenic rice lines on target lepidopteran pests

In order to evaluate the efficacy of transgenic rice on target

Table 1 Transgenic rice with resistance to lepidopteran pests in China.

Gene transformed	Promoter, method of transformation	Parental line or cultivar	Name of transgenic line	Expression level (% soluble protein or ng/mg)	Regulatory stage	Reference
<i>cryIAb/Ac</i> fusion	Actin1, Biolistic	CMS Minghui 63 (indica rice)	T51-1 (CMS), Bt Shanyou 63 (hybrid)	20.00 ng/mg	Productive testing (2002–current)	Tu <i>et al.</i> , 2000
<i>cry2A</i>	Ubiquitin, Agrobacterium-mediated	GM Minghui 63	–	9.65–12.11 ng/mg	–	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2005a
<i>cryIAb</i>	Ubiquitin, Agrobacterium-mediated	Xiushui 11 (japonica rice)	KMD (1, 2); PR16, PR18	0.018%–0.136%	Productive testing (2002–current)	Xiang <i>et al.</i> , 1998; Shu <i>et al.</i> , 2000
<i>CpTI</i>	Actin1, Biolistic	Minghui 86 (indica rice)	Kefeng (1, 2)	3.30%	Productive testing (2002–current)	An <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Zhu, 2001
<i>CpTI+cryIAc</i>	Ubiquitin and Actin1, Biolistic	Minghui 86 (indica rice)	MSA, MSB, Kefeng 6	Up to 1.20 ng/mg; Up to 1.00 ng/mg	Productive testing (2004–current)	Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2005a,b
<i>cryIAb/Ac</i> fusion	Actin1, Biolistic	IR72 (indica rice)	TT9-3, TT9-4	0.01%	–	Ye <i>et al.</i> , 2001b; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2003a
<i>cryIAb+pinII+bar</i>	Actin1, Biolistic	Zhongguo 91 (japonica rice)	–	–	–	Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 1999
<i>cryIAb+bar+Xa21</i>	Actin1, Biolistic	Zhongguo 91	C48	–	–	Yao <i>et al.</i> , 2002 Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2002a

lepidopteran pests, laboratory and field trials have been conducted in China since 1998 and the results indicate that Bt rice has effectively controlled target pests, primarily three species of stem borers (*C. suppressalis*, *S. incertulas*, *S. inferens*) and leaffolder (*C. medinalis*) (Tu *et al.*, 2000; High *et al.*, 2004; Li *et al.*, 2004, 2005; Chen *et al.*, 2005b; Han *et al.*, 2006b) (Table 2). By using leaf-section (Ye *et al.*, 2000) or stem-section (Chen *et al.*, 2005a) bioassays under laboratory conditions, and artificial release or natural infestation of rice borers under field conditions (Ye *et al.*, 2001a, b), the efficacy of different Bt rice lines has been tested against at least eight lepidopteran pests, including *C. suppressalis*, *S. incertulas*, *C. medinalis*, *Herpitogramma licarialis*, *S. inferens*, *Naranga anescens*, *Mycalasis gotama* and *Parnara guttata* (Shu *et al.*, 2000). Generally, the laboratory results indicated that the mortality of early-stage larvae of different lepidopteran pests fed with transgenic rice was more than 90%, while the mortality was < 5% in the non-transgenic parental lines. However, control of larger stem borer larvae was lower. Hu *et al.* (2005) reported that the corrected mortality of first to sixth instar *C. suppressalis* after feeding on Bt+CpTI rice for 7 days was 89.6%, 87.1%, 72.4%, 50%, 26% and 0%, respectively.

The results of plot trials (plot size up to 60–120 m²) and large-scale field trials conducted in different sites in China over multiple seasons indicated the percentages of dead-heart or white-head caused by rice stem borers in Bt rice paddies were significantly lower than those in non-Bt rice paddies. Bt rice in the field provided 90%–100% control of rice stem borers (Tu *et al.*, 2000; Wang *et al.*, 2000, 2002c; Ye *et al.*, 2003; Gao *et al.*, 2006b) and 84%–100% control of leaffolders (Tu *et al.*, 2000; Ye *et al.*, 2003; Liu *et al.*, 2005b). Ye *et al.* (2003) found Bt rice line KMD2 gave complete control for rice leaffolder; in contrast, 66.7%–92.2% of plants were damaged by rice leaffolder in non-Bt plots after one spray of a tank mixture of methamidophos and disosultap (87.7%–100% mortality). However, because *S. inferens* was more tolerant to Cry1Ab and Cry1Ac than *C. suppressalis*, the efficacy of MSA, MSB and Kefeng 6 was much lower on *S. inferens* than on *C. suppressalis* in field plot experiments, especially in double-crop late rice fields (Gao *et al.*, 2006b).

Transgenic insecticidal rice showed much better control of rice stem borers than most insecticides currently and extensively used by farmers in China. Insecticide sprays have been the major method to control rice borers in the past decades in China. However, the efficiency of chemical insecticides declined because of the evolution of resistance. During the past three decades, chemical control of rice borers was difficult because of the rapid development of insect resistance, insecticide residue and effects on the environment. Farmers initially used organochlorine and

organophosphate insecticides, then changed to chlordimeform and nereistoxin, and then back to organophosphate because some new insecticides such as triazophos were reintroduced for rice stem borer control in the late 1990s. After the stem borers developed resistance to monosultap and fenuthion in the late 1990s (Li *et al.*, 2001), a high level of resistance to triazophos was also detected soon after its extensive use (Peng *et al.*, 2001; Qu *et al.*, 2003). In recent years rice stem borers developed resistance to most commonly used insecticides in several provinces in China (Chi *et al.*, 2005; Jiang *et al.*, 2005b). After approval for commercial use, transgenic insecticidal rice will become an important tool both for pest management and insecticide resistance management of the target pests.

Effects of Bt rice lines on non-target arthropods

Controversy about the benefits and ecological risks of transgenic crops has existed since their advent, and became fiercer after the first three Bt crops were commercialized in 1996 (Shelton & Sears, 2001). Potential impact, especially on non-target organisms, was a major concern with the deployment of transgenic crops (Romeis *et al.*, 2006). During the past decade of commercialization of transgenic crops, dozens of research articles or news relating to biosafety of transgenic crops were published monthly, especially after the “Pusztai case” and monarch butterfly debates (Dorcey & Serrano, 2002). Much of the controversy relates to evaluation methods of ecological risks or reasonable explanation of research data/results of risk assessments.

Rice, as a major staple food crop for humans, evokes considerable concern about food and environmental safety. Many trials have evaluated the potential impact of Bt rice on non-target organisms under laboratory and field conditions (Table 3), some over multiple years and sites. In general, compared with non-transgenic rice, transgenic rice did not negatively impact the arthropod community as determined by guild dominance, family composition, diversity index, evenness index and species richness (Chen *et al.*, 2003b, d; Liu *et al.*, 2003a; Liu *et al.*, 2005a), or by the dominant species dynamics of non-target herbivores (Chen *et al.*, 2006). No difference on feeding and oviposition behavior of non-target insects *Nilaparvata lugens* (Chen *et al.*, 2003a, c), insect development (Wang *et al.*, 2002b), or population dynamics (Zhou *et al.*, 2004) was detected. Jiang *et al.* (2004) reported that parasitization rates of *C. suppressalis* larvae feeding on Bt (Cry1Ab) rice by *Apanteles chilonis* and the percentage of cocoon formation were significantly lower than those on non-Bt rice.

Table 2 Efficacy of main transgenic Bt rice events used in China.

Gene transformed	Line	% efficacy to target pests		References
		In laboratory/greenhouse	In field	
<i>cryIAb/Ac</i>	Bt-Shanyou 63	—	100% for <i>C. medinalis</i> 98.9% for <i>S. incertulas</i> 84.8% for <i>C. medinalis</i> 91.4%–95.7% for <i>S. incertulas</i>	Tu <i>et al.</i> , 2000
	T51-1	100% for <i>S. incertulas</i>		
	KMD1 (PR16)	100% for 8 lepidopteran rice pest species (neonate or 3-instar larvae)	100% for <i>C. suppressalis</i> , <i>S. incertulas</i> and <i>C. medinalis</i>	Shu <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Ye <i>et al.</i> , 2001a; Ye <i>et al.</i> , 2003
	KMD2 (PR18)	100% for <i>C. suppressalis</i> and <i>S. incertulas</i>	100% for <i>C. suppressalis</i> and <i>C. medinalis</i>	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2002c
<i>CpTI+cryIAc</i>	MSA	92.8%–100% for <i>C. suppressalis</i> and 98.1%–100% for <i>C. medinalis</i> on different development stage of Bt rice	99.79% for <i>C. medinalis</i>	Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2004
	MSB	79.3%–98.9% for <i>C. suppressalis</i> and 94.3%–100% for <i>C. medinalis</i> on different development stage of Bt rice	> 99.82% for <i>S. inferens</i> > 92.7% for <i>C. suppressalis</i> > 99.37% for <i>S. incertulas</i> > 84% for <i>C. medinalis</i>	Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Li <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Li <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2005a,b
<i>cryIAb/Ac</i>	II-32A/MSB	—	> 99% for <i>C. medinalis</i>	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2005a,b
	TT9-3,	—	> 90% for <i>S. inferens</i> , <i>C. suppressalis</i> , <i>S. incertulas</i> , <i>C. medinalis</i> and <i>N. anescens</i>	Ye <i>et al.</i> , 2001b
	TT9-4	—		
<i>cryIAb+pinII+bar</i>	—	100% for <i>C. suppressalis</i>		Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Yao <i>et al.</i> , 2002
<i>cryIAb+bar+Xa21</i>	C48, SK(1,2,3)	—	> 99% for <i>C. suppressalis</i>	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2002a; Ci <i>et al.</i> , 2005

Table 3 Impacts of transgenic rice on non-target organisms compared with non-transgenic rice.

Non-target organisms	Insecticidal protein	Parameters measured	Result	Reference
Herbivorous	Cry1Ab/Ac	Feeding and oviposition behavior of <i>N. lugens</i> ; species composition, dispersal and dominant species dynamics of Delphacidae and Cicadellidae; guild dominance in the arthropod community, family composition, dynamics of arthropod individual density, dominant index, diversity index, evenness index and species richness, Bray-Curtis distance index	No negative impacts	Liu et al., 2003a; Liu et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2003a
	CpTI+Cry1Ac	Species richness, number of individuals, diversity, evenness and dominant concentration indices; nymphal duration, fresh weight of new adult, emergence rate, adult fecundity, rate of eggs fertilized, number of offsprings per female and their development, host preference behavior of <i>N. lugens</i> and <i>Sogatella fucifera</i>	No negative impacts except for the impact of one Bt rice line MSB on fresh weight of new adult and brachypterous rate of <i>S. fucidera</i> , fresh weight of new adult of <i>N. lugens</i>	Chen et al., 2003c; Fu et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2005a
	Cry1Ab	Development and midgut sub-microstructure of <i>Bombyx mori</i> L.; feeding and oviposition behavior of <i>Nilaparvata lugens</i> ; innate capacity of increase of <i>Nephotettix cincticeps</i>	No negative impacts except for weight of larvae and cocoons, cocoons layers and the number of grown <i>B. mori</i> ; longevity and fecundity of <i>N. cincticeps</i> as well	Wang et al., 2002b; Chen et al., 2003a; Zhou et al., 2004
Parasitoids	Cry1Ab/Ac	Dispersal dynamics of <i>Anagrus</i> spp. and <i>Lymaenon longicrus</i> ; guild dominance in the arthropod community, family composition and dominance, dynamics of arthropod individual density, dominant index, diversity index, evenness index and species richness, Bray-Curtis distance index	No negative impacts	Chen et al., 2003b; Liu et al., 2003a
	CpTI+Cry1Ac	Pupa formation, duration of egg and larva, cocoon number of simple cocoon mass, wasp emergence rate, sex ratio, longevity and forewing length of <i>Apanteles chilonis</i> on <i>C. suppressalis</i>	No negative impacts except for pupal duration, length of cocoon of <i>A. chilonis</i>	Jiang et al., 2005a
	Cry1Ab	Parasitized rates, percentages of cocoon formation, developmental period of the parasitoid pupa, longevity of male and length of cocoon of <i>A. chilonis</i> on <i>C. suppressalis</i>	Negative impacts	Jiang et al., 2004a
Predators	Cry1Ab/Ac	Guild dominance in the arthropod community, family composition, dynamics of arthropod individual density, dominant index, diversity index, evenness index and species richness, Bray-Curtis distance index	No negative impacts	Liu et al., 2003a
	Cry1Ab	Predation and functional response of <i>Pirata subpiraticus</i> and <i>Microvelia horvathi</i>	No negative impacts	Liu et al., 2003b; Bai et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2005c; Liu et al., 2003a
Detritivores	Cry1Ab/Ac	Guild dominance in the arthropod community, family composition, dynamics of arthropod individual density, dominant index, diversity index, evenness index and species richness, Bray-Curtis distance index	No negative impacts	Liu et al., 2003a
	Cry1Ab	Population densities of <i>Entomobrya griseoolivata</i> and <i>Bourletiella christianseni</i>	No negative impacts	Bai et al., 2005
Others	Cry1Ab/Ac	Guild dominance in the arthropod community, family composition, dynamics of arthropod individual density, dominant index, diversity index, evenness index and species richness, Bray-Curtis distance index; the number and species of aquatic organisms	No negative impacts	Chen et al., 2003d; Liu et al., 2003a

However, this finding is likely caused by the poor quality of the insect host rather than direct toxicity of Bt protein (Romeis *et al.*, 2006) because *C. suppressalis* was not able to complete development on Bt rice.

Bt rice did not adversely impact predation and functional response of predatory natural enemies compared with non-Bt rice (Bai *et al.*, 2005; Chen *et al.*, 2005c; Liu *et al.*, 2003b). Liu *et al.* (2004) did not find any significant differences in non-target organisms between Bt and non-Bt rice; however, the guild dominance of herbivores and parasitoids and family composition of predators and detritivores in non-Bt rice paddies were significantly impacted by chemical insecticides compared with non-insecticide treatments in Bt or non-Bt rice fields. In fact, most insecticides currently used for the control of rice stem borers and leafhopper in China are broad-spectrum chemicals that are known to be harmful to natural enemies in rice fields (Tanaka *et al.*, 2000). Insecticide-induced resurgence has been a serious problem in the management of rice planthoppers in recent years (Wang *et al.*, 1994; Wu *et al.*, 2001), especially after the outbreak of *N. lugens* in 2005 in several provinces in China (Gao *et al.*, 2006a).

Proactive insect resistance management consideration

While transgenic plants offer many unique opportunities for the management of pest populations, one of the major concerns for long-term use of Bt plants is the potential for the evolution of insect resistance (Gould, 1998; Shelton *et al.*, 2002). Insect resistance management (IRM) has generated more data, meetings, and public comments than any other issue related to the re-registration of Bt crops in the US by the USEPA (2001). After 8–10 years of extensive use of Bt crops in the field, there have been no reports of product failure caused by increased insect resistance (Tabashnik *et al.*, 2003, 2005). However, because of the evolution of resistance to Bt proteins in commercial settings by two insect species, the diamondback moth (*Plutella xylostella*) in the fields (Tabashnik *et al.*, 1990; Shelton *et al.*, 1993) and the cabbage looper (*Trichoplusia ni*) in commercial greenhouses (Janmaat & Myers, 2003; Kain *et al.*, 2004), there is concern that some insects may also evolve resistance to Bt crops in the field. Proactive IRM strategies will be critical for a sustainable use of Bt rice in the future (High *et al.*, 2004). An IRM strategy, especially the structured refuge, is a mandatory requirement for registration and commercial use of Bt crops in some countries such as the US and Australia, but not in China.

Among the various options that have been considered for IRM for Bt crops, “high dose/refuge” and gene pyramiding

strategies are most promising over the foreseeable future (Gould, 1998; Bates *et al.*, 2005). As the major IRM strategy currently used in the US, the “high dose/refuge” calls for high expression of Bt protein in Bt plants, that is, 25 times the protein concentration needed to kill susceptible target insects (SS genotype), which is expected to cause very high mortality (> 95%) of resistant heterozygotes (RS genotype) (USEPA, 1998). It is known that the Bt protein expression level in Bt rice is much lower than that in Bt corn (Tu *et al.*, 2000), and there were differences in the susceptibility of each target pest of Bt rice to the same or different Bt proteins (Fu *et al.*, unpublished data, 2006). A 95% or 100% kill of a target pest by Bt rice plants in the greenhouse or fields, or a confirmed Bt protein expression as high as 20 ng/mg might be a good indication of excellent control for certain insect species. However, an excellent control efficacy by itself cannot meet the definition of “high dose” for the IRM strategy.

Before a resistant strain (RR genotype) of target insects is available to produce the RS genotype for a direct assessment of high dose, a Bt plant could be considered to provide a “high dose” if verified by at least two of the five approaches proposed by USEPA (1998, 2001). Grower acceptance and logistical feasibility is also a key factor in designing a “high dose/refuge” strategy and program (USEPA, 1998, 2001). Similar to the Bt cotton situation in China (Zhao & Rui, 2004), a structured refuge is not feasible for millions of small farmers who grow Bt cotton or Bt rice. The uncertainty of a “high dose” of a single Bt protein in Bt rice plus the non-feasibility of planting a structured refuge by most farmers is a great challenge for the development and sustainable use of Bt rice in China and other Asian countries. Cohen *et al.* (2000) suggested that single-gene Bt rice not be released because of IRM considerations.

Theoretical models and greenhouse experiments suggested that Bt plants pyramiding two dissimilar insecticidal protein genes in the same plant have the potential to delay resistance much more effectively than single toxin plants used sequentially or in mosaics or seed mixtures, even with relatively smaller and more economically acceptable refuge sizes (Roush, 1998; Zhao *et al.*, 2003, 2005). The Bt rice lines pyramided with dual insecticidal genes of modified *CpTI* and *cryIAc* have the potential to delay insect adaptation to a single Bt protein because there are different modes of actions and insecticidal mechanisms between *CpTI* and *CryIAc*. The recent development of Bt rice expressing *Cry2A* protein (Chen *et al.*, 2005a) is an important step for pyramiding both *cryIA* and *cry2A* genes in the same Bt rice plant, as reported by Bashir *et al.* (2004) and is similar to Bollgard II in Bt cotton. Further studies to explore new insecticidal genes, to test different insecticidal

protein combinations, to develop new Bt rice with pyramided Bt genes with higher Bt protein expression, and to detect the rare allele frequency of Bt resistance in field populations of target insect pests (Meng *et al.*, 2003; Han *et al.*, 2006b) will be important for proactive IRM strategies in China in the future.

Final remarks

Extensive greenhouse and field studies documented that most of the Bt rice lines could effectively control the target lepidopteran pests and reduce chemical insecticide application both in China and some other countries, with important benefits to environmental quality and the health of rice growers and consumers. Ecological risk assessments of insect-resistant transgenic rice confirmed that transgenic Bt rice has no markedly negative or unintended impact on non-target organisms, compared with non-transgenic rice, and is safer than chemical insecticides.

The rapid adoption of Bt crops in the past decade has already reflected the substantial multiple benefits. Deployment of Bt cotton or Bt corn has resulted in significant decreases in insecticide use in developed and developing countries, and in some cases, increases in yield and profitability (Shelton *et al.*, 2002; Huang *et al.*, 2002; Qaim & Zilberman, 2003). More than 50 field studies varying in size, duration and sampling method have been carried out both in experimental and commercial fields for evaluating the impact of Bt plants on natural enemies, and no consistent negative effect has been found compared with non-Bt plants (Romeis *et al.*, 2006). In December 2005, the journal *Environmental Entomology* published 13 papers about 11 field studies, which were carried out in the US and Australia and focused on the long-term assessment of potential impact of Bt cotton and corn, including five different insecticidal proteins on non-target organisms (Naranjo *et al.*, 2005). All the studies conducted over multiple sites/years on moderately sized research plots or in commercial fields with different sampling methods did not show any significantly negative effects of Bt cotton and corn on non-target organisms. Reduced parasitization rates and cocoon formation of *A. chilonis* from *C. suppressalis* larvae feeding on Bt rice (Jiang *et al.*, 2004a) were predictable responses caused by poor quality of the target host insect instead of direct toxicity from Bt protein (Romeis *et al.*, 2006). A tiered testing strategy (Rose, 2006) will be useful for ecological risks assessment of Bt rice on non-target organisms in China in the future. The gene flow from transgenic rice to wild rice or weed rice and resistant evolution of target pest to Bt rice may be the main ecological risks for commercialization of Bt rice (Han *et al.*,

2006a). However, there were concerns on the conflicts of intellectual property rights for commercial use of the transgenic rice lines as most of the lines with Bt genes were developed in China in collaboration with international institutions (Wang, 2000). Proactive IRM considerations before and after commercial release of Bt rice lines in China will be critical for long-term sustainable use in the future.

In China, Bt cotton has been commercialized since 1997 (Hebei) and 1998 (other provinces) and has provided us with valuable experience with transgenic crops. The experience with Bt cotton, plus increased government investment in crop biotechnology, including rice (Huang *et al.*, 2005), will have a positive impact on commercial planting of transgenic rice in China in the future. Obviously, commercialization of insect-resistant transgenic rice in China will not only have crucial implications for China but for the rest of the world.

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