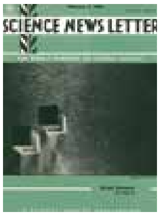


Excerpt from the February 5, 1966, issue of *Science News Letter*

50 YEARS AGO

‘Quarks’ may be source of quasars’ energy

The mysterious nuclear particles called “quarks,” which have not yet been detected but might nevertheless be basic building blocks of the atom’s core, could be the source of the tremendous energy generated by the puzzling star-like objects known as quasars.... Quarks, if they exist, would have a charge either one-third or two-thirds that of an electron ... [and] masses of at least five billion electron volts.

UPDATE: Experimental evidence of quarks first came in 1968 from scientists smashing together subatomic particles at the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center. By 1995, researchers had identified six quark “flavors”: up, down, strange, charm, bottom and top. Quarks are a core ingredient of atoms. But they are not responsible for the huge energy outputs of quasars (which are more like galaxies than stars). Quasars are probably fueled by black holes. Although all quarks have a charge that is either one-third or two-thirds an electron’s, only the top quark is as heavy as the 1966 prediction.

These technicolor trees aren’t plants. They’re the gills of Christmas tree worms, which hide below in tubes within the coral.

IT’S ALIVE

Gills gone visionary

Christmas tree worms have eyes “in a really silly place,” says Michael Bok. Which is part of their charm.

This widespread marine worm (*Spirobranchus giganteus*) gets its holiday nickname from its gills: a wildly colored pair of tapering, feathery spires that protrude from the top of the worm’s buried retreat like ornamental trees. Bok, of Lund University in Sweden, says he has seen worm gills in red, orange, blue, yellow — even stripes.

When a shadow looms, the Christmas tree gills drop down into the protective tube where the rest of the worm hides. Yet the eyes that check for scary things lie beneath the branches like forgotten presents. To see the bright orange compound eyes, “you have to kind of sneak up on them and look at them from the right angle,” Bok says.

Orange compound eyes are easier to spot in a young Christmas tree worm with sparse gills.

That tucked-under spot limits what those eyes can do, because they can only see directly in front or behind. To human thinking, the top of a tree seems a better place for lookouts, and another kind of fan worm does grow compound eyes there.

But Bok relishes the way the gill eyes in Christmas tree worms and other fan worms seem so improvised, such odd mixes of features cobbled together. “These things are their own evolutionary tangent,” he says.

Bok is exploring fan worms’ barely studied vision, possibly the only case of animals growing eyes on their gills. Fan worms have some rudiments of a more typical visual system. Like other worms, some have patches of light-catching compounds on the segments of their bodies, even their tails, and a lump of light-sensitive tissue in their heads that monitors light-dark rhythms. But hiding in tubes, those visual bits seem useless for detecting danger. So the gills, which also double as feeding tentacles, went visionary. Evolution scattered them with light-catching molecules or even eyes.

This took some doing. The nerves from these gill eyes don’t go to the usual optic section of the brain. They connect to another, less-characterized area not usually thought to be involved in vision. And the light-sensitive opsin proteins in the eyes aren’t typical eye compounds, Bok is finding. They are a form of opsin hardly ever found outside the brain.

Even the fanciest of these gill-based eyes, like those in the Christmas tree worm, may just detect scary shadows. But that’s a lot. Without their make-do warning systems for predators, Bok says, “they’d get their gills and ‘mouth’ ripped off all the time.” — *Susan Milius*

FROM TOP: NICK HOBGOOD/WIKIMEDIA COMMONS (CC BY-SA 3.0); MICHAEL BOK

News

GENES & CELLS

Human body not overrun by bacteria

New calculation suggests people's cell counts are about 50-50

BY TINA HESMAN SAEY

Human bodies don't contain 10 times as many bacterial as human cells, new calculations suggest.

A "standard man" weighing 70 kilograms has roughly the same number of bacteria and human cells, researchers report online January 6 at bioRxiv.org. This average guy would be composed of about 40 trillion bacteria and 30 trillion human cells, calculate researchers at the Weizmann Institute of Science in Rehovot, Israel, and the Hospital for Sick Children in Toronto. That's a ratio of 1.3 bacteria to every one human cell.

That estimate could be off by as much as 25 percent, with the average number of bacteria ranging from 30 trillion to 50 trillion. Among individuals, the bacterial count could vary as much as 52 percent, say Ron Sender, Shai Fuchs and Ron Milo. With a fudge factor of 10 trillion to 20 trillion bacteria, the number of microbes may pretty well match the number of human cells in the body, which also varies somewhat. "Indeed, the numbers are similar enough that each defecation event may flip the ratio to favor human cells over bacteria," the researchers write.

Scientists who study the microbiome, the collection of microorganisms that live in and on the human body, have peppered research papers with an estimate that bacteria outnumber human cells 10-to-1 (*SN: 6/18/11, p. 26*) or even 100-to-1. In recent years, those estimates have come into question, with the American Academy of Microbiology suggesting in 2013 that the real figure is probably closer to three bacterial cells for each human cell.

Judah Rosner, a molecular biologist at the National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases in Bethesda, Md., called the 10-to-1 ratio a "fake fact" in a 2014 issue of *Microbe*. It probably wormed its way into scientific literature because it sounds good, he says. "Everybody likes a nice, round number. And it had such impact. It was good PR." But Rosner and others wondered where the number had come from.

Sender and Milo, of the Weizmann Institute, and Fuchs, now at the Hospital for Sick Children, traced the figure to a single back-of-the-envelope calculation in a 1972 paper. The researchers then combed the scientific literature to come up with their own estimates.

Plenty of cocktail party fodder is buried in the results. For instance, the team finds that red blood cells are the most numerous cells in the body, accounting for 84 percent of cells. By weight, muscle and fat are the heavy hitters, making up 75 percent of cell mass. But those cells tend to be big and represent only about 0.2 percent of the human body cell number. As expected, most of the bacteria — about 39 trillion — live in the colon.

Women tend to have smaller blood volume than men, so their bacterial-to-human cell ratio may be about 30 percent higher, the researchers calculate. Growing children probably fall within the range of bacterial-to-human cell ratios of adult men. Obesity doesn't change the ratio much, the team calculates.

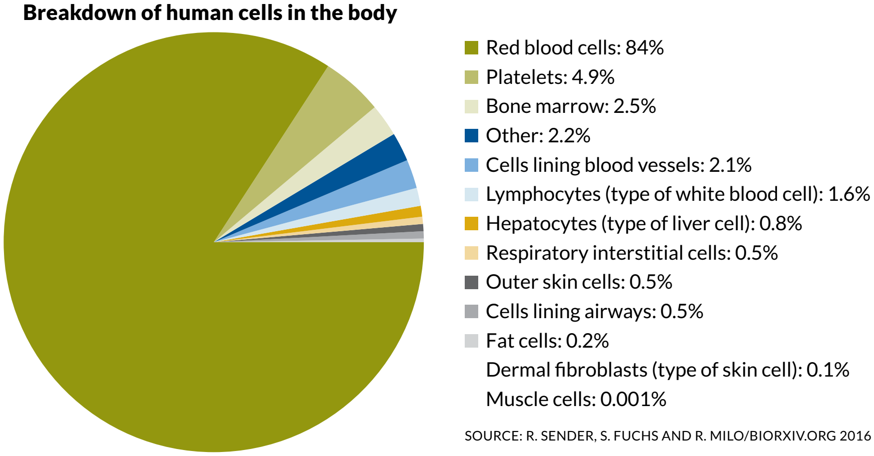
These estimates haven't been checked by other scientists yet, but microbiome researchers say they appreciate the effort. "Anytime people can add more precision it's good," says microbiologist Martin Blaser of New York University School of Medicine. The researchers didn't do any experiments, and Blaser says others should begin actually measuring bacterial and human cell numbers to get an even more accurate number.

Other researchers point out that the calculations considered only bacteria, while viruses, fungi, archaea and other microbes are also part of the human microbiome. Viruses vastly outnumber bacteria (*SN: 1/11/14, p. 18*) and could skew the microbe-to-human cell ratio upward if included, says geneticist Julie Segre of the National Human Genome Research Institute in Bethesda, Md.

Most microbiome research has focused on how relative amounts of bacteria change between health and disease, but scientists don't yet know whether absolute abundance of bacteria is important, says microbiologist Ran Blekhman of the University of Minnesota, Twin Cities.

The reduced ratio in no way diminishes the effect bacteria have on health. Several commenters said it doesn't matter what the real number is, just that it's right. Besides, even "1-to-1 is pretty impressive," Rosner says. "There's as much of them as there is of us." ■

Breakdown of human cells in the body



SOURCE: R. SENDER, S. FUCHS AND R. MILO/BIORXIV.ORG 2016

Cell count An average adult man's body has about 30 trillion human cells, most of them red blood cells. Although only a small percentage, fat and muscle cells account for most cell mass.

HUMANS & SOCIETY

Mystery hominid settled Sulawesi

Stone tools point to early colonization of remote island

BY BRUCE BOWER

Toolmakers ventured from Southeast Asia to the Indonesian island of Sulawesi deep in the Stone Age, far earlier than previously thought and probably before *Homo sapiens* originated in Africa 200,000 years ago, researchers say.

The discovery of ancient stone tools on Sulawesi, some of which date to a minimum of 194,000 years ago, also renews speculation about the evolutionary background of *Homo floresiensis*. Better known as the hobbit, *H. floresiensis* was a diminutive hominid that lived roughly 500 kilometers south of Sulawesi on the island of Flores at around the same time the Sulawesi tools were made.

"I wouldn't be surprised if *H. floresiensis* or a closely related lineage was responsible for the Sulawesi artifacts," says Harvard University archaeologist Christian Tryon, who did not participate in the new excavations. But the Sulawesi finds look much like stone tools made over the last 1.8 million years by several hominid species at sites throughout Southeast Asia, Tryon cautions. What's certain, he says, is that Sulawesi hominids fractured stones to make sharp-edged cutting implements.

Hominids left stone tools at four sites located by a team led by archaeologist Gerrit van den Bergh of the University of Wollongong in Australia. Excavations at one site, Talepu, unearthed 315 securely dated stone artifacts. These sharp-edged rocks range in age from at least 194,000 years ago to about 118,000 years ago, the team reports in the Jan. 14 *Nature*. Age estimates for the finds rest on calculations of the time since artifact-bearing soil was last exposed to sunlight.

Sulawesi and Flores are the only islands in the area known to have hosted hominids before modern humans reached several islands further east and Australia between 60,000 and 40,000 years ago. *Homo sapiens* arrived on Sulawesi roughly 40,000 years ago (*SN: 11/15/14, p. 6*).

Previous excavations on Flores led by study coauthor Adam Brumm of Griffith University in Nathan, Australia, uncovered 1-million-year-old stone tools made by presumed hobbit ancestors. Artifacts and fossils attributed to hobbits range in age from around 190,000 to 12,000 years ago.

No hominid fossils have been found with Sulawesi's artifacts, leaving the toolmakers' identity a mystery.

But several candidates exist, the researchers say. Hobbits or their ancestors may have floated over from Flores, as Tryon suggests. Neandertal-like Denisovans — a Stone Age population that lived in East Asia and left a genetic legacy in New Guinea, Melanesia and Australia (*SN: 11/5/11, p. 13*) — can't be excluded. Or *H. sapiens* might have trekked from Africa shortly after evolving there.

There's still another option. "I think *Homo erectus* is the most likely candidate," van den Bergh says. *H. erectus* fossils range in age from 1.5 million to 140,000 years ago on nearby Java, which was connected to Asia when sea levels periodically receded in the Stone Age.

These stone artifacts found on the Indonesian island of Sulawesi were made by hominids that probably made ocean crossings from mainland Asia by 194,000 years ago, scientists report.

ERICK SETIABUDI

Ancient *H. erectus* colonizers probably didn't navigate the ocean in canoes or other vessels, van den Bergh holds. Instead, occasional tsunamis could have washed small numbers of *H. erectus* into the sea from Southeast Asia's coast, he suggests. Southerly currents would have pushed castaways floating on vegetation or debris to Sulawesi. Accidental journeys of that kind probably explain how extinct elephants and other animals, known from fossils, ended up on Sulawesi more than 200,000 years ago, van den Bergh adds. ■

MATTER & ENERGY

Periodic table gets 4 more elements

Naming rights go to U.S., Russian and Japanese scientists

BY ANDREW GRANT

The seventh row of the periodic table is officially full with the addition of four new elements.

On December 30, the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry announced that a Russian-U.S. collaboration had sufficient evidence to claim the discovery of elements 115, 117 and 118. IUPAC awarded credit for the discovery of element 113 to scientists at RIKEN in Wako, Japan (*SN Online: 9/27/12*). Both groups synthesized the elements by slamming lighter nuclei into each other and tracking the decay of the radioactive superheavy elements that followed.

Researchers at the Joint Institute for Nuclear Research in Dubna, Russia, and Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory in California, which are among the institutions credited with elements 115, 117 and 118, had also laid claim to element 113 after experiments reported in 2004 (*SN: 2/7/04, p. 84*) and 2007. But garnering recognition for the three other elements softened the blow, says Dawn Shaughnessy, who leads the experimental nuclear and radiochemistry group at Livermore. "I'm personally very happy with IUPAC's decision," she says.

Published reports on the newly recognized elements will appear early this year, says IUPAC executive director Lynn Soby. Official recognition of the elements means that their discoverers earn the right to suggest names and symbols. Element 113 will be the first element discovered and named by researchers in Asia. ■

ATOM & COSMOS

Red giants map how Milky Way grew

Mass of 70,000 stars reveals older center, younger outskirts

BY ANDREW GRANT

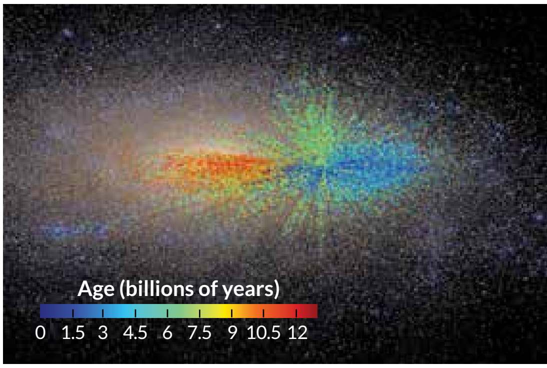
Our galaxy was built from the inside out. That's the clear conclusion from an unprecedented survey of the ages of tens of thousands of the galaxy's stars, reported January 8. "The Milky Way grew up by growing out," Melissa Ness, an astronomer at the Max Planck Institute for Astronomy in Heidelberg, Germany, said at a news conference.

Ness and colleagues developed a computer program that analyzed the light emitted by red giants — bright stars that started out like the sun but exhausted their hydrogen fuel — to determine the stars' masses and ages. Although scientists were pretty sure that galaxies grow outward, this new census of the galactic interior to the outskirts will help researchers chart that development in impressive detail. "It's a galactic archaeology project," says Mario Pasquato, an astrophysicist at Yonsei University in Seoul, South Korea, who was not involved in the research.

Most stars don't easily divulge their ages. Red giants are slightly more helpful because their age depends on their mass — but determining mass isn't so easy either. Ness and colleagues hit on a clever trick to figure out masses and ages by combing data from two telescopes. NASA's Kepler space telescope, best known for spotting distant planets, had previously delivered accurate mass readings for about 2,000 red giants. Using a small ground-based telescope in New Mexico, the Sloan Digital Sky Survey precisely measured the light from those Kepler stars plus that from about 150,000 others.

The researchers trained a computer program to learn how the intensity of light emitted at different wavelengths by the Kepler stars varied depending on the stars' mass. Once the algorithm had determined that relationship, the researchers simply plugged in Sloan light measurements to determine the masses, and thus the ages, of about 70,000 galactic red giants. The ages are accurate to within about 40 percent, which is admirable, Pasquato says, because of the difficulties in estimating star ages. As expected, the Milky Way's oldest stars reside in the center of the galaxy, while the youngest generation lives in the distant suburbs.

This year, a new Sloan telescope in Chile will begin scanning the Southern Hemisphere skies, potentially adding more red giants to the age catalog. ■



The ages of tens of thousands of red giant stars, charted here atop a map of the Milky Way, confirm that the galaxy grew outward. The oldest stars (red) are near the galactic center.

M. NESS, G. STINSON/MPIA

MEETING NOTES

Gas cloud may be graveyard of first stars

A newly discovered gas cloud contains hydrogen and helium but little else. The scarcity of heavier elements suggests that the cloud houses the remains of the universe's first stars, astronomer John O'Meara reported January 8. Scientists want to learn more about these ancient stars, which have never been observed directly, because when they later exploded, they injected the first doses of carbon, oxygen and other crucial elements into the cosmos.

First-generation stars, forged from pristine hydrogen and helium gas produced just minutes after the Big Bang, burst onto the scene about 13.4 billion years ago. Astronomers don't yet have the ability to see objects from that long ago.

O'Meara, of Saint Michael's College in Colchester, Vt., and colleagues looked at the next best thing: a roughly 12-billion-year-old gas cloud. Analysis of the gas's absorption of light from a distant galaxy revealed that the cloud contains about 0.04 percent the concentration of heavy elements as that in the sun. The mix of ingredients matches the expected yield from explosions of the universe's earliest stars, O'Meara reported. *— Andrew Grant*

Supermassive black hole is extreme recycler

Like a cosmic water fountain, a supermassive black hole is cycling gas through a galaxy-sized pump. The black hole powers jets that blast gas over 30,000 light-years away from the galaxy only to rain back down on a reservoir from which the black hole feeds. Yale University astronomer Grant Tremblay described this phenomenon January 6.

The fountain sits at the heart of a galaxy within the Abell 2597 cluster, a galactic gathering over 1 billion light-years away in the constellation Aquarius. Observations from the Atacama Large Millimeter/submillimeter Array in Chile reveal that the fountain billows into plumes with the mass of about 1 billion suns. The force of the jets appears to trigger the formation of new stars within these plumes. Most of the ejected gas falls back down onto the central region of the galaxy and then slowly trickles back toward the black hole to start the loop again.

This galactic pump might help regulate star formation throughout the galaxy. The fountain can continually stir up gas and prevent much of it from creating stellar nurseries. *— Christopher Crockett*

GMOs Under Scrutiny

Engineered foods have withstood safety concerns, but haven't fulfilled big promises

By Rachel Ehrenberg

Arriving home after work a few summers ago, agricultural economist Matin Qaim found several disturbing messages on his home phone. A study by Qaim had shown that small-scale farmers in India who grew genetically modified cotton had larger harvests compared with conventional cotton growers. Those better yields resulted in greater profits for the mostly poor farmers and more disposable income to spend on basics like food and education.

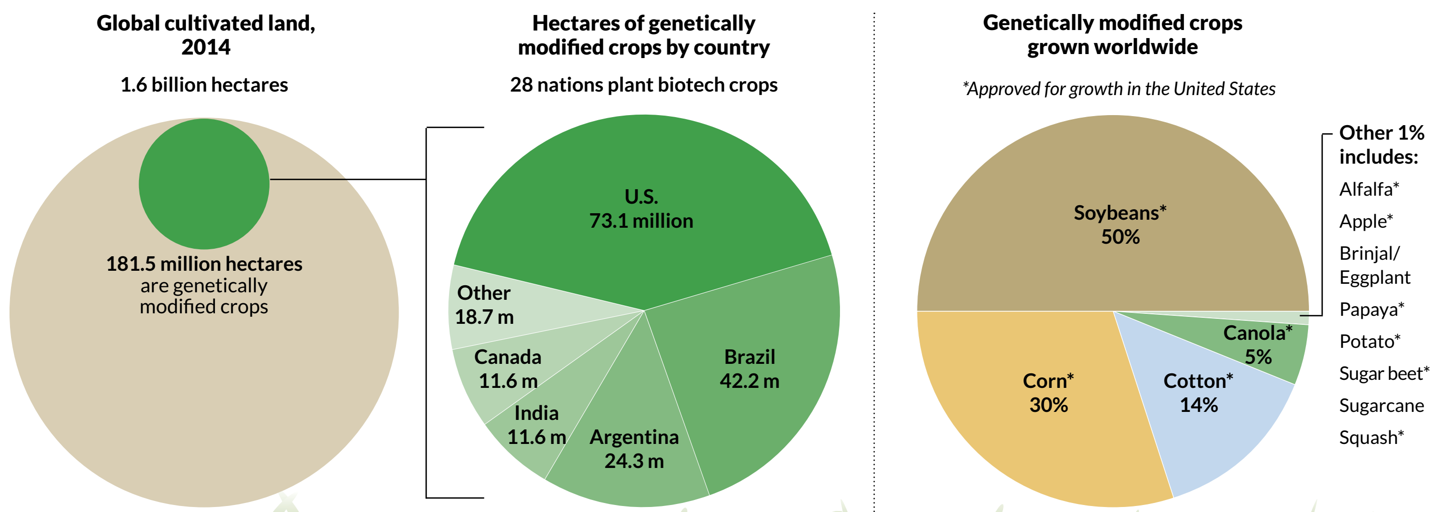
Several media outlets had covered the results, which had been published in the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. But journalists weren't the only people contacting Qaim about the research. "Don't support this irresponsible destruction to the environment," implored one caller on Qaim's answering machine. "Think of your children, think of the world's children," a woman pleaded.

Qaim, of the University of Göttingen in Germany, has been studying the social and financial impacts of genetically modified organisms for years. Yet he is not blindly pro-GMO and his interpretation of his own study's results was nuanced. The GM cotton planted by the farmers was Bt cotton, which contains genes from *Bacillus thuringiensis*, a soil bacterium often used by organic farmers. Adding the Bt genes gives the cotton a built-in pesticide against the cotton bollworm, a scourge that can decimate crops.

Among the farmers Qaim studied, those who switched to the Bt cotton lost fewer plants and saw their profits increase by 50 percent. But the adoption of Bt cotton in that part of India was relatively recent and the positive impacts wouldn't necessarily last. Area bollworms might become resistant to Bt toxins, Qaim noted both in his paper and in interviews.

Such caveats didn't matter to the hostile callers, Qaim says. He has learned to keep quiet about his work in his casual conversations with parents at his daughters' school. In the heated debate over genetically modified organisms, there's little room for nuance.

Lay of the land Since their introduction in the mid-1990s, genetically modified crops are gaining ground on their conventional counterparts. Of the 28 countries planting GM crops today, 20 are developing nations. SOURCES: INTERNATIONAL SERVICE FOR THE ACQUISITION OF AGRI-BIOTECH APPLICATIONS, FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS



Good breeding Over time, plant breeding has gained speed and precision. Traditional crossbreeding mixes entire plant genomes and can take decades to yield a new variety. Transgenics and RNA interference breeding influence a handful of genes and can bring new products within a few years. SOURCES: FAO/IAEA MUTANT VARIETY DATABASE, A.E. RICROCH AND M.-C. HÉNARD-DAMAVE/*CRITICAL REVIEWS IN BIOTECH* 2015, ISAAA

Plant modifications throughout history

What?	Date developed	How?	Safety testing required?	Examples
Traditional crossbreeding	1700s	Cross closely related plants and select offspring with desirable traits	No	Myriad, including Burbank russet potato, Santa Rosa plum, sugar beets, corn, strawberries, peas, tobacco, peaches
Mutation breeding	1930s	Expose seeds or young plants to radiation or chemicals and select desirable mutants	No	Myriad, including Star Ruby grapefruit, Rio Red grapefruit, Golden Promise brewer's barley, varieties of cocoa, cotton, green pepper, sunflower, tomato, plum, peppermint, sugarcane, kale
Transgenics	1980s	Transfer specific genes by nonsexual means from one organism into another	Yes	Herbicide- and pest-resistant crops. In development: drought-tolerant peanut, wilt-resistant banana, bacteria-resistant orange, fungus-resistant chestnut, biofortified rice (includes Golden Rice), barley, corn and potato
RNA interference	1990s	Using RNA to turn off specific genes	Yes	Nonbrowning potato and apple. In development: decaffeinated coffee, tearless onion, higher-nutrition tomato, peanut and corn

"We are in a world that's painted black and white," Qaim says. "In Europe in particular, people are deeply convinced that GM crops are bad for the world. If you say anything in favor of GM crops, you are talking in favor of evil."

That designation of evil is one of the two prevailing narratives concerning genetically engineered foods. GMO opponents tell the story that "Franken" organisms are a new technology that poses known and unknowable dangers to human health, the environment and society at large. On the other side, proponents argue that GMOs are a harmless and necessary tool for saving a world threatened by overpopulation and a changing climate. The loudest voices on the proponent side are typically cast as shills for Big Agriculture (some of them are), while the loudest on the anti-GMO side are typically cast as fear-mongering luddites (some of them are).

This broad brush is problematic for several reasons, Qaim and others argue. The term GMO itself is a catchall that encompasses a wide range of products developed through a variety of means, each with its own risks and benefits. There are GMOs that have led to large reductions in the use of pesticides, for example, and there are GMOs that have made herbicide use skyrocket. The broad brush also fails when labeling the developers of GM technology: Commercial giants of the agrochemical pesticide industry have developed GMOs, but so have academic scientists funded by nonprofits or the public sector.

"A technology like GM crops is neither good nor bad," Qaim says. "Talking about *the* impact of GMOs is way too broad."

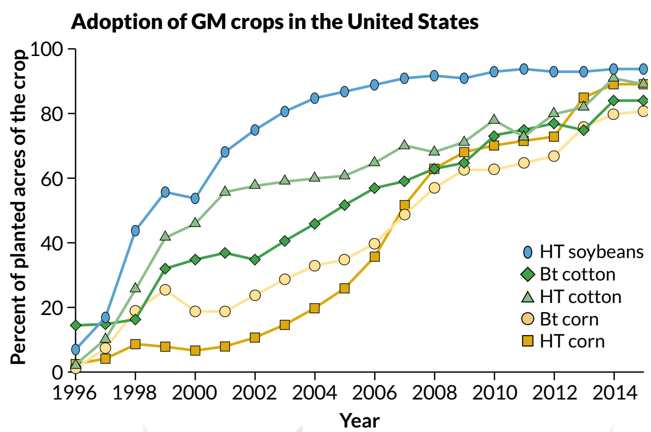
The diversity of engineering processes and the products that result will probably continue to grow. For example, the relatively new CRISPR technology, which allows for superprecise gene editing (*SN: 12/26/15, p. 18*), may soon become a GMO tool of choice. But generally speaking, the technologies behind GMOs are decades old. And despite fears of unknown risks, GMOs have been studied extensively.

The picture drawn from decades of research is out of sync with many common public perceptions. While unforeseeable health issues are often at the forefront of public concern, foods containing GMOs have been on grocery shelves for more than 20 years. Piles of evidence suggest that eating GMOs is no riskier than eating conventional foods. Effects on the environment are more mixed. Some of the problems that have arisen, such as the uptick in the use of certain herbicides, are more about farming practices than about dangers inherent to GM technology; the same problems arise with conventional, non-GM crops.

The environmental consequences of engineered genes escaping into the wild are less clear. But while the fallout can be hard to predict, the odds of such escapes actually happening can often be evaluated. With the Food and Drug Administration's recent approval of GM salmon (*SN Online: 11/19/15*), for example, scientists agree that there is a slim possibility that escapees could harm native fish populations; that risk could be curtailed, however, with strict oversight about where and how such fish are farmed.

There's also a lot of unrealized promise. GMOs are often touted as a way to boost the nutrient content of foods to fight malnutrition. Yet GMOs that are on the market have largely

GM crop creep Crops engineered to be herbicide tolerant (HT) or toxic to specific insects (Bt), or both, have taken over U.S. farming acreage since their introduction in the 1990s. These modifications can reduce pesticide use and carbon emissions, but they can also lead to herbicide resistance if overused. SOURCE: USDA ECONOMIC RESEARCH SERVICE



LUSEEN/ISTOCKPHOTO

benefited those producing them — companies and farmers — rather than consumers. There are many health-boosting GMOs in development, including bananas with increased iron; plants that make omega-3 fish oils and rice, sorghum and cassava enriched with vitamin A. New crops, such as those engineered to tolerate drought or excess salt in the soil, could play a crucial role as shifts in climate threaten the farming status quo and in turn, food supplies.

A mouthful

Foods containing GMOs have been on the market since the 1990s. Some are eaten as a whole organism — such as papaya engineered to resist the ringspot virus. Others end up as ingredients in processed foods, such as corn syrup. Genetic engineering is involved in more than two-thirds of foods sold in the United States, according to the Grocery Manufacturers Association. The processes that yield foods considered GM vary. Some contain genes from other organisms that impart a particular trait. Bt corn, for example, contains bacterial genes that make the crop toxic to soft-bodied caterpillars and some other insects. With other GMOs, the modifying entails dialing down the activity of genes that already exist in the plant, as with the just-approved Arctic apples and Innate potatoes that don't brown when cut. The genes responsible for the enzymes that brown the flesh are silenced.

Common GM ingredients, such as canola and soy oils, cornstarch and corn syrup, and sugar from beets, come from crops that have been modified to make farming them easier. Genetic engineering is also used to make minor ingredients that might be too complicated or expensive to produce via standard chemistry or too difficult or inefficient to harvest from their habitats in nature. Many microbes have been engineered to pump out vitamins, enzymes and other food additives, for example, a process that's typically much easier and more environmentally friendly than acquiring such ingredients from natural sources. The first genetically engineered food product approved by the FDA, in 1990, was a version of the bacterium *E. coli* engineered to make the enzyme chymosin, which prompts the ripening of cheese. Before the *E.coli* effort, chymosin was harvested from the stomachs of nursing calves as a by-product of the veal industry. Today, roughly 80 percent of hard cheeses sold in the United States are made with chymosin from engineered microbes.

2/3
Minimum fraction of foods sold in the United States that contain GMOs
SOURCE: GMA

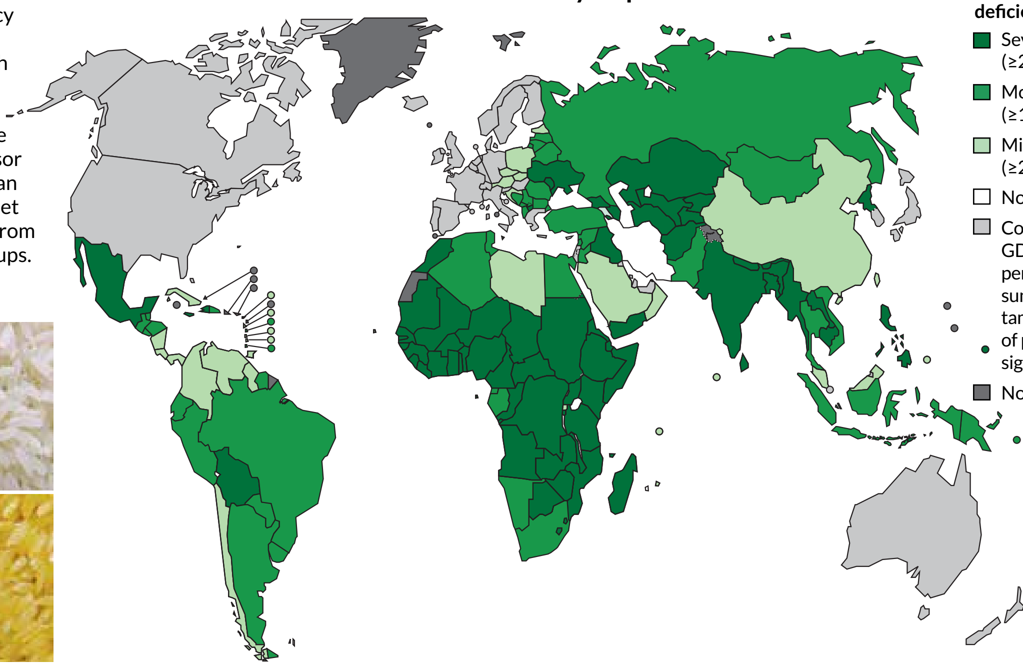
80 percent
Estimated portion of hard cheeses sold in the U.S. that are made with enzymes created by genetically modified microbes
SOURCE: GMO COMPASS

These diverse products are all subject to testing before they can be sold. While there's always concern that genetic modifications could introduce a new allergen or a toxin into the food chain, that hasn't happened yet.

Testing is typically framed in terms of the notion of "substantial equivalence." The GMO is compared in substance and nutrition with its nonengineered version. The introduced genetic material, which yields a transgenic protein that causes some change to the organism, is also scrutinized for structural similarities with toxic proteins or other biologically active molecules, such as known allergens. The temperature and acidity level at which the transgenic protein breaks down is also assessed to see how it might fare in the body. Digestibility and

Against the grain
Vitamin A deficiency is a major cause of blindness and death in children. Golden Rice (bottom), engineered to make a vitamin A precursor in the grain, offers an antidote, but has met strong opposition from environmental groups.

Countries where vitamin A deficiency is a public health issue



RICE: THE GOLDEN RICE PROJECT; MAP: WHO "GLOBAL PREVALENCE OF VITAMIN A DEFICIENCY IN POPULATIONS AT RISK 1995–2005" potential toxicity are also evaluated.

While every new modification presents a new case for scrutiny, so far the GMO health track record is clean. And GMO products have been tested by more than their developers, who have a clear interest in their approval. Independent researchers have looked for red flags in numerous studies.

"So far, there is no reason for concern," says biotechnologist Alessandro Nicolia of the Italian National Agency for New Technologies, Energy and Sustainable Economic Development in Rome. He was a coauthor of a 2013 paper analyzing 10 years of GMO studies, 770 of which related to human and animal safety.

Despite numerous studies finding that eating GMOs is no riskier than eating conventional foods, claims of adverse effects persist. GMOs are sometimes a scapegoat for allergies, including the uptick in gluten intolerance — digestive problems caused by a protein found in wheat and some other grains. But no such link is supported by the research, says Nicolia. He points out that, although GM wheat exists, it is not on the market anywhere in the world. And correlations can be easily conjured: The rise in gluten intolerance also coincides with a rise in the availability of organic foods, for instance.

The few cases in which a transgenic protein has acted as an allergen were identified via testing well before the products reached consumers. One, for example, involved transferring Brazil nut proteins, which contain an important dietary amino acid, into soybeans for animal feed. Testing revealed that the transgenic Brazil nut protein provoked an immune response in people; the study reporting the findings made headlines in 1996 when it appeared in the *New England Journal of Medicine*. Development of those soybeans was abandoned.

Of course, because evaluations look primarily for molecules that resemble known allergens, there is always a risk that something novel could spur an immune response. Absolute certainty doesn't exist, for GMOs or conventional foods. In fact, because the testing is fairly extensive and the quantities of transgenic proteins in an engineered organism are typically so low, many scientists argue that it's easier to detect a potential allergen in a GM crop than in a conventional crop. Not long after the kiwifruit's arrival in the United Kingdom, several adverse reactions revealed that some people were allergic to the fruit, according to the United Kingdom's 2003 GM Science Review Panel.

Several scientific bodies, including the U.S. National Academy of Sciences, the American Medical Association and the World Health Organization, have reviewed the existing evidence and concluded that eating GM foods is no riskier than eating conventional foods. Numerous studies, and reviews of those studies, have come to similar conclusions. Plant geneticist Agnès Ricroch coauthored several review papers assessing GMO safety, including a 2012 paper examining the long-term health of animals fed GM corn, potatoes, soybeans, rice and the grain triticale, a cross between wheat and rye.

"In all of the studies published, of all GM crops authorized to be marketed, we have seen no adverse effects," says Ricroch, of France's Academy of Agriculture and AgroParisTech in Paris. "There is no risk to health for humans or animals."

Still, fears that genetically modified organisms cause health problems — from cancer to autism — linger. Such concerns have been fueled by a now thoroughly debunked but high-profile 2012 study by French researchers purporting to show that GM corn caused cancer in rats. The work was almost immediately discredited on multiple accounts, including faulty statistics and the fact that the researchers used rats from a strain that is naturally prone to tumors. The paper was widely criticized and later retracted. But the initial media campaign by the scientists, which included images of rats with enormous tumors and offers of early access only to journalists who agreed not to talk to other scientists about the results, had lasting effects. The paper, which was recently republished in a different journal, is still cited in some anti-GMO camps as evidence for a lack of consensus concerning health effects.

Discourse about the health hazards of eating GMOs is frustrating on multiple levels, says Ricroch. Controversy has slowed GMO progress in the area of enhancing foods' nutritional value. The poster child for such a crop is Golden Rice, which has been engineered to produce a vitamin A precursor, beta-carotene, in the grain (the plant normally produces the stuff in its green tissues but not in the edible endosperm).

Because of vitamin A deficiency, more than 250,000 children become blind every year, and half of them die within a year of losing their sight. By adding a gene from a bacterium and one from corn (swapped for a daffodil gene used in earlier versions), the rice makes beta-carotene that is converted to vitamin A when eaten.

The Golden Rice project was never a commercial one. When

Bye-bye butterflies

In 1999, a small study published in *Nature* found that monarch butterfly caterpillars that ate milkweed leaves dusted with Bt corn pollen died after a few days. But research reported in six studies published in the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* in 2001 found the pollen was toxic to the caterpillars only in the huge doses used in the study, which were much greater than what the insects would encounter in the field. Still, GM crops appear to pose a legitimate threat to the butterflies: Heavy use of the herbicide glyphosate, thanks to the widespread planting of crops engineered to resist it, has wiped out much of the milkweed the butterflies rely on for food. Farmland in the Midwest lost 80 percent of its milkweed from 1999 to 2010; the decline was mirrored in monarch populations, scientists reported in 2013 in *Insect Conservation and Diversity*. *— Rachel Ehrenberg*

SF PHOTO/SHUTTERSTOCK

its creators launched the project more than 20 years ago, the intention was to combat malnutrition in developing countries. Yet the crop has met serious resistance. In August 2013, fields of trial plants in the Philippines were trampled and destroyed by anti-GMO protestors. The destruction prompted thousands to sign a statement condemning the destruction of the rice fields, which was echoed in an editorial in *Science*.

The herbicide treadmill

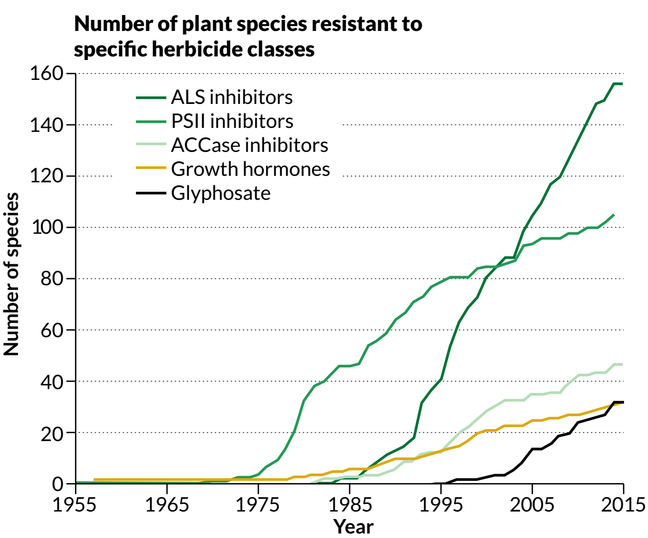
Science has repeatedly laid to rest claims about GMOs' adverse effects on human health. But some environmental impacts have surfaced. The primary problem, though — weed resistance to particular herbicides — is not unique to GM crops.

Engineered crops typically have traits that help farmers tackle very old foes. Weeds are one such headache, and they were among the earliest targets of genetic engineers. While chemical weed killers were in use before the advent of GM crops, the use of the herbicide glyphosate, marketed as Roundup, has skyrocketed since the introduction in the 1990s of crops engineered to withstand it. Glyphosate meddles with an essential plant enzyme; the engineered crops have a bacterial version of the enzyme, so the plants persist while neighboring weeds perish. "Roundup ready" plants, which now dominate U.S. fields, include soybeans, corn, canola, cotton and sugar beets.

> "We've had [herbicide] resistance problems for more than 50 years. It results from overuse and mismanagement."
>
> CAROL MALLORY-SMITH

GM crops that tolerate herbicides deserve some praise: They help minimize mechanical weed removal, which means less soil erosion, more carbon stored in the soil and fewer carbon emissions from tilling equipment making trips across fields, scientists noted in 2012 in a special issue of *Weed Science* focused on herbicide-resistance management. And compared with many of the herbicides it replaced, glyphosate is less toxic; it also offered ease and flexibility to farmers who previously had to carefully navigate the timing and selection of applying various herbicides.

Rising resistance Many herbicides interfere with a specific aspect of plant metabolism. Repeated use (across acres and time) leads to weeds resistant to the herbicides' action. A growing number of weeds are resistant to several herbicide classes (listed below), including glyphosate (black). SOURCE: IAN HEAP, WEEDSCIENCE.ORG 2015



But glyphosate-tolerant GM crops made things too easy.

"Everyone started growing them and then everyone started using glyphosate," says weed scientist Carol Mallory-Smith of Oregon State University, an expert in herbicide resistance.

When the same herbicide is applied to the same area year after year, overuse can lead to evolved resistance, as it does with antibiotics, says William Vencill of the University of Georgia, coauthor with Mallory-Smith of a paper in the *Weed Science* special issue. There are now major weeds, such as Palmer amaranth (*Amaranthus palmeri*), that have developed resistance to glyphosate, leaving farmers scrambling for new solutions, including use of chemical controls that are more toxic than glyphosate. These weeds are not "superweeds," Mallory-Smith says. "There's nothing super about them and they can still be controlled with other herbicides." She emphasizes that this cycle, known as the herbicide treadmill, isn't unique to GM crops. "We've had resistance problems for more than 50 years," she says. "It results from overuse and mismanagement."

Into the wild

Herbicide resistance is predictable — that's Evolution 101. And the chances that genes from GM crops will spread to wild relatives is similarly predictable. It depends on basic biology, says Mallory-Smith. "The bottom line is if you have a species with compatible relatives that occur in the same area, gene flow will occur," she says.

And it has. While corn and soy don't have close wild relatives in the United States, canola, another widely planted GM crop, does. Herbicide-resistance genes from GM canola have turned up in wild, weedy mustard plants on roadsides in the United States, Canada and elsewhere. Mallory-Smith and colleagues have documented another escapee: a GM version of creeping bentgrass, a turf species that was being tested in Oregon. The grass has established itself in patches near the test site, and it has hybridized with a local weed called rabbitfootgrass.

"It's always good to ask where will the genes go and what difference will it make," says ecologist Allison Snow of Ohio State University, also an expert in transgenic gene flow. And while the documented cases of escapees suggest that regulatory agencies need to apply more caution regarding where GM plants can be grown, there haven't been any catastrophic outcomes, she says. "The things we worried about 10 years ago haven't yet happened," she says. "I can't point to anything dire."

GM escapees present legitimate legal and cultural conundrums, Snow notes. For example, an organic farmer can no

Fish out of water What would happen if GM fish escaped and bred in the wild is a big question. In experiments with GM coho salmon, the transgenic fish grow rapidly in a hatchery tank, but not in a simulated natural stream. It's unknown if the same would happen for newly approved GM Atlantic salmon.

longer call crops organic if they get contaminated by nearby GM crops. "But that's not an ecological problem," she says. "It has nothing to do with a GM species taking over."

The potential environmental implications of an escaped GM Atlantic salmon, the first GM animal to garner regulatory approval, are a little harder to predict. But there are multiple safeguards in place to prevent the fast-growing fish from escaping and breeding in the wild. There are biological precautionary measures: The fish are engineered to be all female and to have three sets of chromosomes so they can't breed with wild fish. But error rates in the sterilization process are inevitable and roughly 1 percent will probably be able to breed successfully. There are also physical hurdles: The current approved arrangement for farming the fish entails producing the eggs in an indoor facility in Canada and then shipping them to inland covered tanks in the highlands of Panama.

"There are a lot of redundant layers of strict confinement," says Virginia Tech fisheries expert Eric Hallerman. "That's why I'm comfortable with it."

The fast-growing fish contains a growth hormone gene from Chinook salmon and regulatory DNA from the eel-like ocean pout that keeps the salmon growing all year, enabling the fish to reach full size in a year and a half instead of the standard three years. And while the modified salmon look formidable next to slower-growing relatives, if they did escape and somehow managed to persist, it's not clear who would outcompete whom in the wild, says fisheries biologist Robert Devlin of Fisheries and Oceans Canada.

For several years, Devlin and his colleagues have been growing an equivalent transgenic Pacific salmon in land-bound caged tanks and mock streams. Experiments with these transgenics and wild fish present a mixed picture that plays out differently in different contexts. For example, the engineered salmon outcompete their wild relatives in the cushy tanks where food is plentiful. But they are at a disadvantage in the mock streams where there is less food and there are predators. Evidence from other studies, reviewed in June 2015 by Devlin and coauthors in *BioScience*, suggests that the GM fish take more risks than wild salmon, which makes them more likely to be eaten.

Yet different experiments, breeding GM Atlantic salmon with wild brown trout, suggest that in some contexts hybrid offspring can outcompete both their GM and wild parents, scientists reported in the *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* in 2013.

L.F. SUNDSTRÖM *ET AL*/*PNAS* 2007

90
percent
Fraction of biotech crop farmers who are in resource-poor nations

Devlin is reserved in his verdict. "I'm not against transgenic technology and I'm not for it," he says. "I'm neutral. There could be lots of benefits, but my view is we proceed with scientific information rather than speculation."

That view dominates in the scientific community, yet acceptance of GMOs by the public hinges on more than good science. Some critics take issue with GMOs, not out of misplaced fear, but because they see a yawning gap between the promise of GM foods — feeding the world's poor — and what's been realized: a handful of corporations making money selling both the GM seeds and the chemicals needed to grow them. That scenario doesn't inspire trust, Qaim notes. In the United States, a legacy of regulatory debacles, such as the delay in curtailing the use of the pesticide DDT, doesn't help either.

Yet while GMOs and profits for agribusiness seem cemented together in the public's mind, it's an inaccurate picture, Qaim says. Despite approved crops being created for markets in the developed world, farmers in developing countries have seen higher incomes, greater productivity and significant reductions in pesticide use, according to a 2014 analysis by Qaim and former Göttingen colleague Wilhelm Klümper. And the next generation of GMOs, many of which are stalled in regulatory limbo, increasingly have traits that benefit consumers, not just the producers of the crops.

Whether the specter of Big Ag's role in developing and selling many of the existing GMOs will overshadow future developments remains to be seen. Currently, even when there's funding and momentum to develop a new GMO in the lab, public sector efforts often wilt in the face of the cost, time and political will needed to gain approval — leaving the successes to the giants, Qaim notes. If the tide turns, promising crops, such as a gluten-free wheat or GM green beans with added iron to fight anemia, might make their mark alongside the yield-improving GM crops.

Hallerman says the real significance of the GM-salmon approval is that it could be a step toward opening minds among the public, although that may take generations, he says. (Whole Foods and Costco have announced they will not sell the GM salmon.) "It's not about salmon for Western consumers," he says. "It's about food security in the developing world." ■

Explore more

- National Research Council. "Public engagement on genetically modified organisms: When science and citizens connect." 2015.