

Biodiversity Assessment and Environmental Risk Analysis of the Single Line Transgenic Pod Borer Resistant Cowpea

Abraham Isah^{1,2}, Rebecca Wusa Ndana¹, Malann David Yoila¹, Francis Nwankwo Onyekachi³, Abdulrazak Baba Ibrahim⁴, Rose Suniso Gidado^{2,5}

¹ Department of Biological Sciences, University of Abuja, Abuja, FCT, Nigeria

² Open Forum on Agricultural Biotechnology (OFAB) in Africa, Nigeria Chapter, National Biotechnology Development Agency, (NABDA), Abuja, FCT, Nigeria

³ Product Stewardship, African Agricultural Technology Foundation, ILRI Campus, Old, Naivasha Road, Nairobi, Kenya

⁴ Forum for Agricultural Research in Africa, Accra, Ghana

⁵ Department of Agricultural Biotechnology, National Biotechnology Development Agency

Corresponding Author:

Abraham Isah¹

National Biotechnology Research and Development Agency, Umar Musa Yar'dua Way, Lugbe, Abuja, FCT, 900107, Nigeria.

Email address: abraham2637@gmail.com

Abstract

Background: The discussion surrounding biological diversity has reached a critical point with the introduction of Nigeria's first transgenic food crop, the pod borer-resistant (PBR) cowpea. Questions have been raised about the potential risks of the transgenic Maruca vitrata-resistant cowpea to human health and beneficial insects. Public apprehension, coupled with social activists' calling for the removal of this crop from the nation's food market, persists. However, there is a lack of data to counter the assertion that cultivating PBR cowpea may have adverse effects on biodiversity and the overall ecological system. This research, with its multifaceted objective of examining the environmental safety of PBR cowpea and assessing its impact on biodiversity compared to its non-transgenic counterpart, IT97KN, is of utmost importance in providing the necessary data to address these concerns.

Methods: Seeds for both the transgenic PBR cowpea and its isoline were obtained from the Institute for Agricultural Research (IAR) Zaria before planting at various farm sites (Addae et al., 2020). Throughout the experiment, local cultural practices were strictly followed to cultivate both transgenic and non-transgenic cowpeas. Elaborate taxonomic keys were used to identify arthropods and other non-targeted organisms. Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to evaluate potential modifications in all ecological niches of the crops. The lmer function of the R package lme4 (Bates et al., 2015) was used to analyze diversity indices, including Shannon, Pielou, and Simpson. The Bray-Curtis index was used to analyzed potential modifications in the dissimilarities of non-targeted organisms' communities.

Results: Examination of ecological species abundance per counting week (CW) revealed no disruption in the biological properties of non-targeted species due to the cultivation of

Formatted

Commented [U1]: Unless allowed by the journal guidelines, you should avoid including references in the abstract

Commented [U2]:

Formatted: Font: Italic

transgenic PBR cowpea. Analysis of species evenness and diversity indices indicated no significant difference between the fields of transgenic PBR cowpea and its isolate. Principal Component Analysis results demonstrated that planting PBR cowpea did not create an imbalance in the distribution of ecological species. All species and families observed during this study were more abundant in transgenic PBR cowpea fields than in non-transgenic cowpea fields, suggesting that the transformation of cowpea does not negatively impact non-targeted organisms and their communities. Evolution dynamics of the species community between transgenic and non-transgenic cowpea fields showed a similar trend throughout the study period, with no significant divergence induced in the community structure because of PBR cowpea planting. This study concludes that planting transgenic PBR cowpea positively influences biodiversity and the environment.

Introduction

Researchers coined the term biodiversity from the word biological diversity to refer to the heterogeneity and variability of the total number of biological organisms found within a given habitat or ecosystem at any given time (Roe *et al.*, 2019; Dickson *et al.*, 2019; Meine, 2018; Rawat and Agarwal, 2015). The concept of biodiversity is multidimensional, encompassing genetics, species, and ecology. Several studies, including Tilman *et al.* (2014) and Malhi *et al.* (2020), have revealed that the degree of variability of living organisms on earth plays a crucial role in sustaining the ecosystem and could serve as a major indicator for predicting the safety of any environment at any given time. The productivity and efficiency of any agricultural system around the world can be strongly influenced by its varietal and species diversity over an extensive scale of conditions (Pawlak and Kołodziejczak, 2020; Carpenter, 2011; Krishna *et al.*, 2009). Biodiversity also plays a crucial role in enhancing an organism's resilience to stress and shocks, as well as its adaptability to new and challenging environmental conditions. Additionally, it is a vital factor in the sustainability of production systems and genetic improvement (Vasiliev, 2022; Ortiz *et al.*, 2021). With the negative impact of climate change, characterized by increased crop pest infestation and decreased agricultural soil fertility on a global scale (Malhi *et al.*, 2021; Habib-ur-Rahman *et al.*, 2022; Subedi *et al.*, 2023), it is crucial to emphasize the importance of sustaining and enhancing the variability of crop and animal genetic resources. This variability is essential for ensuring the resilience and stability of living organisms over time. After about thirty years of the safe use of transgenic crops with more than 3 million hectares planted across Africa (Endale *et al.*, 2022) and their recorded benefits (Gbadegesin *et al.*, 2022; Smyth, 2022), debate and concerns about their environmental effects have continued to persist (Gbadegesin *et al.*, 2022; Gbashi *et al.*, 2021; Smyth *et al.*, 2021). Critical among the issues discussed so far is its potential impact on biodiversity (Fernandes *et al.*, 2022; Lucht, 2015). The quest to safeguard the orphan crop, cowpea, often referred to as "poor man's meat" for its vital role as an affordable protein source in third-world countries, from the devastating impact of the *Maruca vitrata* insect pest has led to its transformation using the *Cry1Ab* protein. Derived from the soil bacterium *Bacillus thuringiensis*, *Cry1Ab* selectively targets specific receptors in the digestive systems of susceptible pests, making it a widely utilized biopesticide in agricultural biotechnology,

87 effectively conferring resistance against certain insect pests such as the pod borer *Maruca*
88 *vitrata* and reducing reliance on chemical pesticides. Though some studies, including
89 O'Callaghan *et al.* (2005) and Romeis *et al.* (2014), have suggested that the insecticidal
90 property of the *Cry1Ab* protein may be toxic to non-target species, including herbivores,
91 parasitoids, and predators, many of these studies examined the impact of this protein on
92 species in non-natural systems without taking into account ecological interactions or the
93 actual level of exposure of vulnerable stages in natural settings (Dale *et al.*, 2002).
94 Conducting additional studies that consider complex systems and exposure conditions akin
95 to those encountered in the field could offer more realistic insights into the potential
96 detrimental effects of *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) crops on non-target organisms (Sears *et al.*,
97 2001).

98
99 In the guidance documents of the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) (2016), conserving
100 biodiversity is emphasized as a major goal in environmental protection, highlighting its
101 magnitude and significance. Quantifying biodiversity is a prerequisite for reaching set
102 targets. Since Nigeria commercialized its first transgenic crop, insect-resistant (IR) cotton, in
103 2018 and joined the league of biotech countries, it has triggered a general debate in Africa
104 on the potential impact of transgenic crops on biodiversity (Endale *et al.*, 2022). The
105 introduction of her first transgenic food crop, pod borer resistant (PBR) cowpea, in 2019,
106 has further exacerbated these concerns among Nigeria's stakeholders. A significant concern
107 in Nigeria regarding the safety of introducing transgenic PBR cowpea revolves around its
108 potential to negatively impact species and ecosystem diversity. Key stakeholders speculate
109 that its toxicity to the targeted insect, *Maruca vitrata*, raises concerns about its impact on
110 non-targeted organisms (NTOs), including those crucial for ecosystem functioning.
111 Currently, there is a paucity of data to refute claims that this transgenic PBR cowpea
112 supports biodiversity and is safe for our environment. This study, therefore, focuses on the
113 biodiversity assessment of the single-line transgenic pod borer-resistant cowpea to evaluate
114 its potential impacts on non-target organisms.

115
116

117 **Materials & Methods**

118 **PBR Cowpea Seeds and its Isoline**

119 Seeds of both transgenic PBR cowpea (IT97KT) and its isoline, IT97KN, were provided by the
120 Institute for Agricultural Research (IAR) Zaria before planting at various farm sites. The *Cry1Ab*
121 event in the PBR cowpea was confirmed using the lateral flow strip kits obtained from Qiagen
122 Inc. at the Mary Halaway Laboratory, Department of Biochemistry, Faculty of Life Sciences,
123 Ahmadu Bello University: 5g, each of transgenic and non-transgenic seeds were mashed
124 separately in two different mortars and pestles, after which the extraction buffer was added
125 to each container. The flow strip was then inserted and allowed to stay for about 10 minutes,
126 after which the lines were read (Fig. S1).

127

128 **Experimental Design and Sampling**

Formatted: Font: Italic

Formatted: Font: Italic

The two cowpea lines, IT97KT and IT97KN were planted in three different farms of the National Biotechnology Research and Development Agency (NBRDA) from February to May, August to November 2022, and February to May 2023 using the irrigation farming method during the dry season with three replications on each farm site (Figure S2). Both cowpea lines were grown following local cultural practices throughout the experiment. The two crop varieties, transgenic (IT97KT) and non-transgenic isoline cowpea (ITN97KN) were planted in a randomized block design with 3 replications (Figure S2). The measurement of each plot was estimated at 10m by 15 m, encompassing eight 30cm interspaced rows with 25 cm of space between each plant. 3 m of plain boundaries were created to function as seclusion among plots (Figure S2). No crop was planted on the three research farms one year before the research. In addition, no herbicide or insecticide was used before or during the study period.

Identification of species to family and to functional groups

Arthropods and other non-targeted organisms were identified by using suitable and elaborated dichotomous taxonomic keys, according to Goulet and Huber (1993), Triplehorn *et al.* (2005), and Jenny *et al.* (2017). The taxonomic grouping was done using the family level as default, while in cases where classification based on family level was not obtainable, priority was given to the order and suborder to which the organism belongs (Jenny *et al.*, 2017). The individual organisms were further grouped into predator, parasitoid, and herbivore ecological functional groups. Throughout the study period, no organisms were recorded as unknown. The counting of individual organisms across all three sites commenced 21 days after planting and was designated as the counting week (CW).

Non-Target Organism Community Structure

Possible moderations that may have accrued from planting the transgenic PBR cowpea were analyzed using a precise redundancy analysis (RDA) ordination method called the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Vanden-Brink *et al.*, 2009), as recommended by Cuppen *et al.* (2000) and Moser *et al.* (2007) to be suitable for assessing the impacts of any plants or animals on the ecosystem. The PCA multivariate technique facilitates the understanding of the interaction between the organisms and their environment (Moser *et al.*, 2007) by analyzing the possible effects of the transgenic PBR Cowpea on the community species and the resulting changes in the community structure throughout the study period.

Structural Dissimilarity analysis

The analysis for the potential modification in the dissimilarities of the non-targeted organisms' communities between the transgenic PBR cowpea (IT97KT) and its non-transgenic isoline (IT97KN) was done using the Bray-Curtis index. It evaluates the degree of dissimilarity or similarity between two or more samples using a range of zero (similar) to one (dissimilar) (Krebs, 1989; Bray and Curtis, 1957). The structural dissimilarity analysis was divided into two phases. In the first phase of the analysis, the Bray Curtis (BC) Index was computed using the data collected between all the pairs of the sample plots, IT97KT and IT97KN, on each sampling date. Bray-Curtis dissimilarity ranges between 0 and 1, where 0 indicates that the niches have no dissimilarity, while 1 indicates that the two niches have complete dissimilarity (Ricotta and Podani, 2017). Similar procedures were repeated for the second phase of the analysis, where data was collected within each cowpea plot (Collins *et al.*, 2000) and then followed by a computation of the mean abundance for the respective taxonomic group in line IT97KT and IT97KN per sampling date.

176 The Bray-Curtis Dissimilarity was calculated as: $BC_{ij} = 1 - (2 \cdot C_{ij}) / (S_i + S_j)$
177 Where C_{ij} = The sum of the lesser values for the species found in each site.
178 S_i : The total number of specimens counted at site i
179 S_j : The total number of specimens counted at site j
180 The values for the mean abundance were thereafter used to estimate the BC distance
181 between the respective treatment sampling dates. A linear regression analysis of the data
182 obtained from the BC distance estimation was conducted versus the time-lag data.
183

184 **Statistical Analysis**

185 The total number (N) of arthropods on each plot in the three different farm sites was taken
186 per CW and over the entire period of the study and then divided by the total number of farm
187 sites to get the average. All statistical analyses were performed using R version 4.2.0 (R Core
188 Team, 2022) and an Excel spreadsheet. The analysis of the diversity indices, including Shannon
189 (H), Pielou (J), and Simpson (D), facilitates a comparative assessment of the community
190 structures between different treatments in the fields (Boyle et al., 1990; Magurran, 2004;
191 Pielou, 1966; Oksanen, 2013) using the lmer function of R package lme4 (Bates et al., 2015)
192 with cowpea variety (Bt or non-Bt) and time (date of sampling) as fixed factors (Guo et al.,
193 2014). A comparison of the mean values of all the scoring parameters, including H, D, J, and
194 N, was done using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).
195

196 A covariance analysis was used to conduct a comparative study of the slopes of the regression
197 lines of the two treatments. The parasitoid, herbivore, and predator nutritional relationships
198 were used to classify the whole organisms into three guilds according to Heong et al. (1991)
199 and Zhang et al. (2011). The density of the three guilds was analyzed using One-way ANOVA
200 for each cowpea variety and sampling date. The population of various treatments, herbivore,
201 parasitoid, and predator nutritional guild was defined by using the formula $P_i N_i / N$, where
202 the population of the herbivore, parasitoid, and predator was connoted as N_i while the
203 treatment's entire summed abundance was connoted as N. The species count for each
204 community organism in the various guilds was defined by the formula $P_i N_i / N$, where N_i was
205 defined as the summed ith species and N was the guild count in the respective treatment. The
206 rare, common, and dominant groups were denoted by $P_i < 1\%$, $1\% \leq P_i < 10\%$, and $P_i \geq 10\%$,
207 respectively (Li and Liu, 2013).
208
209

210 **Results**

211 **Transgene Status Confirmation of the Cowpea Samples**

212 The confirmation of the Cry1Ab event expressed in the PBR cowpea shows a positive result,
213 as seen in Figure S1. Further tests for the presence of the Cry1Ab gene using the event-
214 specific flow strip in the isoline of the PBR cowpea showed negative results, meaning that the
215 isoline is not transgenic (Figure S1).
216

217 **Ecological Pattern of the transgenic and Non-Transgenic Cowpea Field**

218 This study identified the following species in both fields of transgenic cowpea and non-
219 transgenic cowpea: *Pirata piraticus* Clerck, 1757 (pp), *Conozoa hyaline* Forbes, 1848 (GS); *Graphoderus*
220 *bilineatus* De Geer, 1774 (GB); *Sarcophaga crassipalpis* Macquart, 1850 (SaC); *Ahydus eurinus* Say, 1832
221 (AE); *Zonecerus variegatus* Fabricius, 1775 (ZV); *Romalea microptera* Beauvois, 1817 (EL); *Deudorix antalus*

Formatted: Font: Italic

Formatted: Font: Not Bold

Formatted: Font: Not Bold

222 Hopffer, 1855 (DA); *Musca domestica* Linnaeus, 1758 (MD); *Atta cephalotes* Linnaeus, 1758 (AC); *Apis*
223 *dorsata* Fabricius, 1793 (AD); *Messor barbarus* Linnaeus, 1767 (MB); *Scarabaeus satyrus* Fabricius, 1787
224 (SS); *Odontoponera transversa*, Smith, 1858 (OT); *Dysdercus cingulatus* Fabricius, 1798 (DC); *Junonia oenone*
225 Linnaeus, 1758 (JO); *Bombus terrestris* Linnaeus, 1758 (BT); *Chrysomya megacephala* Fabricius, 1794 (CM);
226 *Hypolycaena erylus* Godart, 1824 (HE); *Conozoa carinata* Lamarck, 1816 (CC); *Stenolophus lecontei* Chaudoir,
227 1869 (SL); *Chorthippus biguttulus* Linnaeus, 1758 (CB); *Carausius morosus* Sinéty, 1901 (Cam); *Camponotus*
228 *cruentatus* Latreille, 1802 (CaC); *Liliocercis merdigera* Linnaeus, 1758 (LM); *Chilocorus stigma* Say, 1832
229 (Cst); *Euptoieta claudia* Cramer, 1776 (vf).

230
231 The examination of species disparities and distribution indicates no variations between both
232 treatments during CW 1, which commenced 21 days after planting (Figure 1 and Table 1).
233 However, from CW 2 to 12, a notable discrepancy was noted in species activities between
234 the transgenic crop field and the non-transgenic cowpea field, with the former exhibiting
235 notably higher species activities.

236
237 **Estimated Species Diversity**
238 From the results of the univariate analyses of the ecological niches of both line IT97KT and
239 line IT97KN, the estimated biodiversity indices (H, J, and D) revealed no significant difference
240 between the two treatments, except during the differentiated flowering time observed
241 between the two cowpea lines (Table 1 and Figures 2a, b, and c). The habitat information
242 provided from the Shannon diversity index analysis shows that both habitats dominated by
243 the transgenic and non-transgenic cowpea have high species richness and evenness
244 throughout the CWs. Results obtained from the analysis using the Shannon diversity index
245 revealed a close-range value between the transgenic and non-transgenic cowpea habitats. A
246 higher Shannon score was observed for transgenic cowpea fields within the counting weeks
247 of 3 to 8, where flowering was peak. The diversity index score for IT97KN went slightly
248 higher during the counting weeks when its flowering was also at its peak. Results from the
249 analysis of variance show no significant difference at weeks 1, 2, 9, 10, 11, and 12 against
250 the subsequent counting weeks of 4, 5, 6, and 7 (Figure 2a). Analysis of the Simpson diversity
251 indices shows similar trends in both transgenic and non-transgenic cowpea fields, with both fields
252 recording their lowest Simpson score at CW 1 and 2, respectively. Figure 2b shows that the
253 highest Simpson scores were observed during CWs 11 and 12 in both transgenic and non-
254 transgenic cowpea fields. Analysis of the Pielou Evenness Index shows that the distribution
255 of the individual species is even across the habitat of transgenic and non-transgenic cowpea
256 (Figure 2c). Further analysis using the regression line plot between the ecological niches of
257 transgenic and non-transgenic cowpea shows a strong positive correlation with a p and r
258 value of 1.810599e-06 and 0.9522146, respectively (Figure 3a). As the number of species in
259 the ecological niches of PBR cowpea increases, the number of species in its non-transgenic
260 isolate, IT97KN, also increases (Figure 3a).
261 Similar results were observed when the ecological niches of transgenic cowpea (IT97KT) and
262 its non-transgenic isolate (IT97KN) were correlated with time (Figure 3b). The p and r values
263 of 3.42862e-09 and 0.9865187, respectively, were observed for transgenic cowpea vs time,

264 while p and r values of 1.535e-07 and 0.9522146 respectively, were observed for non-
265 transgenic cowpea vs time (Table 2).

267 Analysis of the Evolution Dynamics of the Transgenic and Non-Transgenic Cowpea

Formatted: Font: Not Bold

268 i. Component Analysis

269 Analysis using the multivariate principal component technique reveals no significant
270 differences in the ecological composition of the entire study fields throughout the counting
271 weeks (Figures 4a and 4b). The essence of the principal component analysis (PCA) output is
272 to give a clear interpretation of the species points with similar composition—the species
273 scores, which are represented by arrows, point in the direction of increasing abundance.
274 The angle size between a species arrow and another species arrow is inversely correlated,
275 meaning that the smaller the angle size between two species arrows, the stronger the
276 correlation, and the reverse means a weaker correlation within the space. The result output
277 shows a strong positive correlation between EI and DC in both transgenic and non-
278 transgenic cowpea fields. The formation of a right angle between two species arrows means
279 no correlation, while the formation of an opposite angle means a strong negative
280 correlation (BioTuring, 2018). The PCA output also attributes significant value to the
281 direction of the species arrow regarding its angle with the principal component axes within
282 the space. The PC analysis from this study shows that AC and Cs strongly influence PC1,
283 while PP and Zv strongly influence PC2, having a heavier weight in the transgenic cowpea
284 field. Md and SaC are the most heavily weighted in PC1, strongly influencing the PC1 of the
285 non-transgenic cowpea, while GB and PP are the most heavily weighted species of PC2 in
286 the non-transgenic cowpea field.
287 The estimation of the number of statistically significant principal components for the
288 ecological niches of both transgenic and non-transgenic cowpea is presented in Figure 5
289 below. The number of breakpoints (10) distribution is similar for both ecological niches.

291 Composition of Organism Community of both the Transgenic and Non-Transgenic Species

293 As shown in the figure below, three major guilds, herbivores, parasitoids, and predators
294 were identified throughout the study period (Figures 6a, 6b, and 6c). The guild analysis for
295 both the transgenic (IT97KT) and non-transgenic (IT97KN) fields reveals the identification of
296 12, 8, and 7 different species in the herbivore, parasitoid, and predator guild. Most species
297 in both fields are herbivores, while the predatory guild has the least number of organisms.
298 SC represents the most abundant species in the parasitoid guild of IT97KT and IT97KN
299 ecological niches, while MB and AC are the most abundant species in the herbivore guild.
300 CaC is the most abundant species in the predator guild. SL, LM, and vf represent the least
301 abundant species in the predator, parasitoid, and herbivore guild of both ecological niches,
302 as shown in Figure 6. A uniform composition of the organisms in all the ecological niches
303 was observed throughout the study period (Figures 6a, 6b, and 6c).

Deleted: ¶

306 **Dissimilarity Index**
307 The result of the Bray Curtis dissimilarity Index is presented in Table 3. The dissimilarity index
308 between the ecological niches of PBR Cowpea and non-transgenic isoline is 0.2, which
309 indicates that all the niches had similar evolutionary trends with no divergence in the
310 community structure of the non-targeted organisms.

Formatted: Font: Not Bold

312 **Discussion**
313 In this study, the potential impact of Nigeria's transgenic Pod Borer Resistant (PBR) Cowpea,
314 which is the first transgenic cowpea to be commercialized in the world, was assessed to
315 evaluate the possible threats and harm that the crop may pose to the environment and the
316 ecological niches of the diverse useful soil and plant organisms.
317 The current study observed a greater abundance of species and families across various
318 ecological niches in transgenic PBR Cowpea fields than in non-transgenic cowpea fields. This
319 disparity may be attributed to the higher evenness and intensity of flowers in the IT97KT
320 transgenic cowpea variety, leading to increased pod, leaf, and overall yield production. This
321 speculation aligns with findings from several studies, including those by Fragkiadaki et al.
322 (2023), Carolin et al. (2023), Bonelliet al. (2022), Otiobo et al., Braatz et al. (2021), and
323 Adedoja et al. (2018), all of which have linked flowering and podding to insect population
324 dynamics.

Formatted: Font: Not Bold

326 According to Guo et al. (2014), the various functional ecological indices of the surrounding
327 species to any newly introduced crop such as the PBR cowpea would be significantly altered
328 if disruption of any biological property occurs because of planting such crop. However, the
329 findings from this research show that the total species count throughout the study period is
330 similar in value. Analysis of the various ecological indices, including Shannon Diversity index,
331 Brays Curtis Dissimilarity Index, Pielou evenness index, Principal Component Analysis (PCA),
332 and Renyi Diversity silhouettes, all showed a close range of values between the ecological
333 niches of the transgenic cowpea and its non-transgenic Isoline. A similar study conducted at
334 Germany's Oderbruch European Corn Borer infestation area by Schorling and Freier (2006)
335 on a Six-year assessment of the impact of transgenic maize expressing Cry1Ab gene on non-
336 target organisms reported the same results. In contrast to Fernandes et al. (2022), who
337 postulated that genetic modification of crops has the tendency to reduce crop biodiversity,
338 findings by Abdul et al. (2022) and Anderson (2019) indicated that the transformation of
339 crops for insect resistance is beneficial because it can enable plant species that are near
340 extinction because of the heavy burden of insect infestation to be revived by improving
341 their adaptation to diverse environmental conditions. The findings from the current study
342 demonstrate that the incorporation of the Cry1Abgene into PBR cowpea does not adversely
343 affect biodiversity.

Commented [U3]: Please be consistent with the reference style you choose

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

344 The PCA of both the transgenic and non-transgenic cowpea fields reveals that the
345 distribution of the NTOs was not significantly different throughout the study period. This
346 finding is consistent with the report of Guo et al. (2014) and Candolfi et al. (2004), who
347 reported that the Cry1Ab event expressed in the transgenic Corn does not affect the

Deleted: unequivocally

community structure of the NTOs. Higgins et al. (2009), also showed that the community structure of the organisms remained intact during a three-year field monitoring of the potential impacts of Cry1F events expressed in a maize hybrid on NTOs. Though previous research only centred on the comparative NTO abundance between transgenic and non-transgenic plots, the present study further analyzed the possible evolutionary dynamics of the transgenic PBR cowpea by carrying out a dissimilarity index analysis. The results show that there was a gradual change in the species composition of both transgenic fields and non-transgenic fields, and this change increased with time. For instance, the number of species present during CW 2 of the study increased compared to CW 1. A similar occurrence was also observed when CW 3 was compared with CW 2. The Bray Curtis Dissimilarity Index analysis showed an index of 0.2, suggesting that the evolutionary dynamic for transgenic and non-transgenic crops was significantly similar. Similar studies conducted by Guo et al. (2014) also recorded a similar evolutionary dynamic between non-transgenic and transgenic maize expressing CryIAc event. The potential toxicity of PBR cowpea can also be assessed by monitoring and evaluating the exposure of the various species' different life stages to cowpea in the ecosystem (Devos et al., 2012). The assessment of the different nutritional guilds of organisms identified in this study shows a rich representation of the herbivores, parasitoids, and predators in all the ecological niches. Despite the high tendency of herbivores to have direct exposure to Cry proteins expressed in PBR cowpea when feeding on its crop residue and pollen (Devos et al., 2012; Romeis et al., 2008), a high population density was still recorded in the ecological niches of PBR cowpea compared to non-transgenic cowpea. The number of herbivore species present in the ecological niches of transgenic cowpea is higher than in the non-transgenic cowpea ecological niches but the same species type including *Messor barbarus* (Linnaeus, 1767), *Alydus eurinus* (Say, 1832); *Romalea microptera* (Beauvois, 1817), *Euptoieta claudia* (Cramer, 1775), *Deudorix antalus* (Hopffer, 1855), *Scarabaeus satyrus* (Fabricius, 1787), *Atta cephalotes* (Linnaeus, 1758), *Dysdercus cingulatus* (Fabricius, 1798), *Junonia oenone* (Linnaeus, 1758), *Chorthippus biguttulus* (Linnaeus, 1758) and *Carausius morosus* (Sinéty, 1901) were observed for all the ecological niches. This result is in line with findings from Wolfenbarger et al. (2008) who carried out a study on the potential impacts of transgenic crops on the functional guild of NTOs. A further critical analysis of the population density of the predator guild in both transgenic and non-transgenic fields revealed no significant difference. Assessing the population density of the predator guild can provide valid assertions on the extent of biological, as well as environmental safety of the transgenic crop since predators have multiple ways by which they come in contact with the Cry1Ab gene, including direct feeding on the pollen of the PBR cowpea, herbivores that have feed on PBR cowpea or via the surrounding soil in which the PBR Cowpea is planted. The number of predator species present in the ecological niches of transgenic cowpea is higher than in the non-transgenic cowpea ecological niches though both had the same species type, including *Chilocorus stigma* (Say, 1832), *Odontoponera transversa* (Smith,

Deleted: Another research study by

Deleted: where a three-year field monitoring of the potential impacts of Cry1F events expressed in a maize hybrid on NTOs

Deleted: , where a three-year field monitoring of the potential impacts of Cry1F events expressed in a maize hybrid on NTOs,

Deleted: centered

1858), Conozoa hyaline (Forbes, 1848), Camponotus cruentatus (Latreille, 1802), Pirata
piraticus (Clerck, 1757), Graphoderus bilineatus (De Geer, 1774) and Stenolophus lecontei
(Chaudoir, 1869).
Analysis of the parasitoid population can provide some very useful ecological indices
because they possess the unique characteristics of having the ability to complete their life
cycle by feeding on a particular host (Salama and Zaki, 1983) or a range of herbivores in a
particular ecological niche (Romeis et al., 2008). They are, therefore, most likely to ingest
the Cry protein in the host herbivore where they are found or directly from the PBR cowpea
plant (Lit et al., 2012). The analysis shows that the population density of the parasitoids in
the PBR cowpea ecological niches was not significantly different from the non-transgenic
cowpea ecological niches throughout the study period. Research conducted by Comas et al.
(2014) and Albajes et al. (2013), who conducted a meta-analysis on the ecological impact of
Bt Maize on non-target organisms (NTOs), similarly concluded that the transgenic maize did
not exert a significant impact on the population density of predator, herbivore, and
parasitoid guilds throughout the study.
The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) result shows similar evolutionary dynamics in both
the ecological niches of the transgenic and non-transgenic Cowpea. The broken stick
distribution, which models the number of variances by adopting a stick of unit length, which
is thereafter randomly broken into n pieces, reveals no statistically significant difference
between both ecological niches. This finding aligns with the result obtained by Guo et al.
(2014), whose research study revealed that the BtCry1Ac event expressed in the insect-
resistant corn caused no alteration in the community distribution of both transgenic and
non-transgenic corn.
The strong positive correlation between both transgenic and non-transgenic cowpea vs time
shows that the increase in the species in both niches is a result of an increase in agronomic
factors as the growth of both cowpea progresses. Such factors may include the onset of
flowers and the steady increase, the onset of pods that followed thereafter, and its steady
increase, in addition to the continuous increase in the number of leaves over time. It also
means that the Cry1Ab gene expressed in the PBR cowpea had no negative impact on any of
the ecological components, including the non-targeted organisms. Other factors that may
have played significant roles include temperature, rainfall, sunshine, the nature of the soil,
and other surrounding elements and plants (Desneux and Bernal, 2010).
The higher prevalence of species in transgenic PBR cowpea fields can be linked to multiple
correlated factors, encompassing enhanced plant health and resource availability, specific
interactions between the transgenic plants and their environment, disparities in nutritional
content, and modified ecological interactions (Yizhu et al., 2024; Bijay et al., 2023; Pandey et
al., 2021; Zhe et al., 2010): Transgenic PBR Cowpea is engineered to withstand attacks
from pod borers, a significant pest in cowpea farming. With less harm inflicted by these
pests, the transgenic plants could allocate more resources towards development and
propagation, resulting in a potential rise in flower yield and enhanced nutritional value. This
enhanced plant health might offer a more prosperous and superior supply of resources for
various species, such as pollinators and herbivores. Yizhu et al. (2024) showed that healthy
soil reduces the plant disease index and increases biomass by improving the stability and

Deleted: ¶

Formatted: Left

Deleted: A research study by

Deleted: on core species impacting plant health by enhancing soil microbial cooperation and network complexity during community coalescence has further emphasized

Formatted: Highlight

complexity of the network; positive cohesion, reflecting the degree of cooperation, was also negatively correlated with the plant disease index.

The presence of the *Cry1Ab* protein in transgenic PBR cowpea could directly or indirectly affect insect populations. *Cry1Ab* protein targets specific Lepidopteran pests, reducing their numbers and thus lessening the herbivory pressure on the plants. According to Bijay et al. (2023), reducing pest pressure could lead to a more favourable environment for non-target insect species, as there would be less competition for resources and fewer damaged plants. The lower pest pressure might also reduce the need for chemical insecticides, further promoting a healthier ecosystem for a broader range of species.

Differences in the nutritional content of transgenic and non-transgenic cowpea plants could also play a role in the observed differences in species abundance (Zhe et al., 2010). Healthier, less stressed plants might produce higher levels of certain nutrients, attracting a more diverse array of herbivores and their predators (Pandey et al., 2021). This could create a cascading effect, supporting greater biodiversity in the transgenic PBR Cowpea fields. Moreover, these interactions could extend beyond herbivores to include pollinators and other beneficial insects, enhancing the overall ecological balance of the fields.

Introducing transgenic PBR cowpea could also alter the ecological interactions within the fields. For example, reducing pod borer populations might allow other species to thrive without the pressure of competition or predation from these pests. This could result in a more complex and diverse ecosystem where different species can exploit various niches. Additionally, the healthier plants might provide better habitat and resources for various organisms, from soil microbes to larger vertebrates, contributing to the observed increase in biodiversity.

A more in-depth study and analysis would contribute to substantiating the possible reasons for the observed differences in species counts. Some of these assessments may comprise detailed evaluations of insect populations, soil analyses, plant biochemical profiling, and the continuous monitoring of biodiversity throughout various growing seasons. Collaborating with ecologists, entomologists, and plant biologists can provide valuable insights and help elucidate the underlying mechanisms driving the observed patterns.

Limitation of the Current Study

The current study does not consider the impact of PBR Cowpea on the oviposition ability of non-targeted arthropods. Furthermore, the collection of data on the effect of PBR Cowpea on soil invertebrates over longer periods of time and the potential transfer of the *Cry1Ab* gene to conventional cowpea still need to be assessed.

Conclusions

The current study revealed no significant differences in the responses of non-targeted organisms between the ecological niches of the transgenic (IT97KT) and non-transgenic (IT97KN) cowpea. The findings show that the introduction of the *Cry1Ab* transgene in the PBR cowpea did not negatively impact biodiversity and the environment. The comparative assessment of the evolutionary dynamics of the non-targeted species community of the transgenic cowpea and that of the non-transgenic cowpea recorded no significant divergence throughout the study period. The data from the analysis of the species evenness and diversity indices also did not show any significant difference between the fields of

Formatted: English (US)

Formatted: Font: Italic

Formatted: Font: Italic

Formatted: Font: (Default) +Headings (Calibri), 12 pt, Italic, Highlight

Commented [SKAF4]: Does it mean we are resolving a problem but creating a chaos elsewhere. The most important is to limit overall pest damages on the crop enabling it expresses its potential yield. Please do not shoot yourself in the legs

Formatted: Font: Italic

Formatted: Font: (Default) +Body CS (Arial)

Deleted: ¶

Deleted: s

Deleted: Data accrued from the analysis of

Deleted: the

Deleted: from this study

Deleted: accrued

transgenic PBR cowpea and its isoline. However, it is imperative to note that these findings are context-dependent and may vary across different agroecosystems and geographical regions. Therefore, continuous monitoring and adaptive management strategies are essential to mitigate potential unforeseen consequences on biodiversity. This study found that the single-line transgenic cowpea (IT97KT) could thrive without or with reduced chemical pesticide usage, which, in turn, could lead to improved climate conditions and human health. However, it is important to take a cautious approach to minimize the risk of unintended ecological consequences, such as secondary pest outbreaks or disruption of natural enemy populations. The findings from this research provide valuable insights that will help shape decision-making for regulating the crop across all cowpea growing areas in the country.

References

Abdul, A.M., Brini, F., Rouached, H. and Masmoudi, K. (2022). Genetically engineered crops for sustainably enhanced food production systems. *Front. Plant Sci.* 13:1027828. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2022.1027828.

Adedjoja, O.A., Kehinde, T. and Samways, M.J. (2018). Insect-flower interaction networks vary among endemic pollinator taxa over an elevation gradient. *PLoS One*. 29;13(11):e0207453.

Addae, P.C., Ishiyaku, M.F., Tignegre, J.B., Ba, M.N., Bationo, J.B., Atokple, I.D.K., Abudulai, M., Dabiré-Binso, C.L., Traore, F., Saba, M., Umar, M.L., Adazebra, G.A., Onyekachi, F.N., Nemeth, M.A., Huesing, J.E., Beach, L.R., Higgins, T.J.V., Hellmich, R.L. and Pittendrigh, B.R. (2020). Efficacy of a cry1Ab Gene for Control of *Maruca vitrata* (Lepidoptera: Crambidae) in Cowpea (Fabales: Fabaceae). *J Econ Entomol.* 6;113(2):974-979. doi: 10.1093/jee/toz367.

Albajes, R., Lumbierres, B., Madeira, F., Comas, C. and Ardanuy, A. (2013). Field trials for assessing risks of GM maize on non-target arthropods in Europe: the Spanish experience. *IOBC/WPRS Bulletin* 97: 1–8.

Anderson, J., Ellsworth, P., Faria, J., Head, G., Owen, M. and Pilcher, C. (2019). Genetically engineered crops: Importance of diversified integrated pest management for agricultural sustainability. *Front. Bioeng Biotechnol.* 7, 24. doi: 10.3389/fbioe.2019.00024

Bates, D., Mächler, M. and Bolker, B.W.S. (2015). Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects Models Using lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 67 (1), 1–48. doi:10.18637/jss.v067.i012.

Bijay, S., Anju, P. and Samikshya, A. (2023). The impact of climate change on insect pest biology and ecology: Implications for pest management strategies, crop production, and food security. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Research*, Volume 14, 2023, 100733, ISSN 2666-1543, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jafr.2023.100733>.

Bonelli, M., Eustacchio, E., Avesani, D., Michelsen, V., Falaschi, M., Caccianiga, M., Gobbi, M. and Casartelli, M. (2022). The Early Season Community of Flower-Visiting Arthropods in a High-Altitude Alpine Environment. *Insects*, 13, 393.

Boyle, T.P., Smillie, G.M., Anderson, J.C. and Beeson, D.R. (1990). A sensitivity analysis of nine diversity and seven similarity indices. *Res J Water Pollut Control Fed* 62: 749–762.

Braatz, E.Y., Gezon, Z.J., Rossetti, K., Maynard, L.T., Bremer, J.S., Hill, G.M., Streifel, M.A. and Daniels, J.C. (2021). Bloom evenness modulates the influence of bloom abundance on insect community structure in suburban gardens. *PeerJ*. 22;9:e11132.

Commented [U5]: Please check the format of the references and make sure they are consistent.

Commented [U6]:

Formatted: Font: Italic, Highlight

Formatted: Font: Italic

Formatted: Font: Italic

Commented [U7]:

Formatted: Font: Italic

Formatted: Font: Italic

Bray, J.R. and Curtis, J.T. (1957). An ordination of the upland forest communities of southern Wisconsin. *Ecol Monogr* 27: 325–349.

Carolin, P., Niklas, S., Christine, R., Tiffany, M.K., Isabell, H. (2023). Abiotic conditions affect nectar properties and flower visitation in four herbaceous plant species, *Flora*, Volume 303, 152279, ISSN 0367-2530.

Carpenter, J.E. (2011). Impact of GM crops on biodiversity. *GM Crops*. 2(1):7-23. doi: 10.4161/gmcr.2.1.15086.

Collins, S.L., Micheli, F. and Hartt, L. (2000). A method to determine rates and patterns of variability in ecological communities. *Oikos* 91: 285–293.

Comas, C., Lumbierres, B., Pons, X. and Albajes, R. (2014). No effects of *Bacillus thuringiensis* maize on nontarget organisms in the field in southern Europe: a meta-analysis of 26 arthropod taxa. *Transgenic Res* 23: 135–143.

Cuppen, J.G.M., Van den Brink, P.J., Camps, E., Uil, K.F. and Brock, T.C.M. (2000). Impact of the fungicide carbendazim in freshwater microcosms. I. Water quality, breakdown of particulate organic matter and responses of macroinvertebrates. *Aquat Toxicol* 48: 233–250.

Dale, P.H., Clarke, B. and Fontes, E.M.G. (2002). Potential for the environmental impact of transgenic crops. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 20, 567–574.

Dang, C., Zhou, X., Sun, C., Wang, F., Peng, Y. and Ye, G. (2021). Impacts of Bt rice on nontarget organisms assessed by the hazard quotient (HQ). *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, Volume 207, 111214, ISSN 0147-6513, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2020.111214>.

Desneux, N. and Bernal, J.S. (2010). Genetically modified crops deserve greater ecotoxicological scrutiny. *Ecotoxicology* 19: 1642–1644.

Devos Y, De Schrijver A, De Clercq P, Kiss J, Romeis J (2012) Bt-maize event MON 88017 expressing Cry3Bb1 does not cause harm to non-target organisms. *Transgenic Res* 21: 1191–1214.

Dickson, A., Krishnan, U., Parisa, Z., Barbara, S. and Paul, S. (2019). The Concept of Biodiversity and its Relevance to Mankind: A Short Review. *Journal of Agriculture and Sustainability*, Volume 12, Number 2, 219-231

EFSA. (2016). Guidance to define protection goals for environmental risk assessment in relation to biodiversity and ecosystem services. *EFSA Journal*, Volume 14, issue 6: doi: <https://doi.org/10.2903/j.efsa.2016.4499>.

Endale, G.K., Karim, M., Joseph, G. and Muffy, K. (2022). Commercialization of genetically modified crops in Africa: Opportunities and challenges. *African Journal of Biotechnology*; Vol. 21(5), pp.188-197, DOI: 10.5897/AJB2021.17434

Fernandes, G., Silva, A., Maronhas, M., Dos Santos, A. and Lima, P. (2022). Transgene flow: Challenges to the on-farm conservation of maize landraces in the Brazilian semi-arid region. *Plants (Basel)*. 11 (5), 603. doi: 10.3390/plants11050603

Fragkiadaki, V., Lazaridi, E., Suso, M.J., Tsagkarakis, A., Ortiz-Sánchez, F.J., Bebeli, P.J. (2023). The Relation between Flower Traits of Bitter Vetch Landraces and Potential Insect Pollinators' Visitation. *Ecologies*, 4, 595-613.

Gbadegesin, L.A., Ayeni, E.A., Tettey, C.K., Uyanga, V.A., Aluko, O.O., Ahiakpa, J.K., Okoye, C.O., Mbadianya, J.I., Adekoya, M.A., Aminu, R.O., Oyawole, F.P. and Odufuwa, P. (2022). GMOs in Africa: Status, adoption and public acceptance, *Food Control*, Volume 141, 109193, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2022.109193>.

Formatted: Font: Italic

Gbashi, S., Adebo, O., Adebiyi, J.A., Targuma, S., Tebele, S., Areo, O.M., Olopade, B., Odukoya, J.O. and Njobeh, P. (2021). Food safety, food security and genetically modified organisms in Africa: a current perspective. *Biotechnology and Genetic Engineering Reviews*, 37(1):30-63. doi: 10.1080/02648725.2021.1940735.

Goulet, H. and Huber, J.T. (1993). Hymenoptera of the World: An Identification Guide to Families. *Agriculture, Canada, Ottawa*.

Guo, Y., Feng, Y., Ge, Y., Tetreau, G. and Chen, X. (2014). The Cultivation of *Bt* Corn Producing *Cry1Ac* Toxins Does Not Adversely Affect Non-Target Arthropods. *PLoS ONE* 9(12): e114228. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0114228.

Habib-ur-Rahman M, Ahmad A, Raza A, Hasnain MU, Alharby HF, Alzahrani YM, Bamagoos AA, Hakeem KR, Ahmad S, Nasim W, Ali S, Mansour F and EL Sabagh A (2022) Impact of climate change on agricultural production; Issues, challenges, and opportunities in Asia. *Front. Plant Sci.* 13:925548. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2022.925548

Heong, K.L., Aquino, G.B. and Barrion, A.T. (1991). Arthropod community structures of rice ecosystems in the Philippines. *B Entomol Res* 81: 407–416.

Jenny, L., Marcel, D., Cajo, J.F.T. and Joop, J.A.V. (2017). Biodiversity analyses for risk assessment of genetically modified potato. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*. Volume 249, 1,196-205

Krebs, C.J. (1989). *Ecological methodology*. Harper and Row, New York.

Krishna, V., Zilberman, D. and Qaim, M. (2009). Transgenic technology adoption and on-farm varietal diversity. *International Association of Agricultural Economists Conference*. Beijing, China 2009.

Li, X.G. and Liu, B.A. (2013). A 2-year field study shows little evidence that the long-term planting of transgenic insect-resistant cotton affects the community structure of soil nematodes. *PLoS ONE* 8: e61670.

Lit, I.L., Caasi-Lit, M.T., Benigno, E.A., Ramal, A.F.B. and Yap, S.A. (2012). Non-target organisms on *Bt* corn hybrids MON89034 and MON89034/NK603: Part 2. Functional guilds of arthropods in regulated field trial sites during dry season in Luzon and Mindanao, Philippines. *Philipp Entomol* 26: 28–53.

Lucht, J.M. (2015). Public Acceptance of Plant Biotechnology and GM Crops. *Viruses*. 30;7(8):4254-81. doi: 10.3390/v7082819.

Magurran, A.E. (2004). *Measuring biological diversity*. Blackwell Science, Oxford.

Malhi, G.S.; Kaur, M.; Kaushik, P. (2021). Impact of Climate Change on Agriculture and Its Mitigation Strategies: A Review. *Sustainability*, 13, 1318.

Malhi, Y., Franklin, J., Seddon, N., Solan, M., Turner, M.G., Field, C.B. and Knowlton, N. (2020). Climate change and ecosystems: threats, opportunities and solutions. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc.B*, 375:1794, <http://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2019.0104>.

Meine, C. (2018). Biodiversity Conservation. *Reference Module in Earth Systems and Environmental Sciences*, Volume 4, Pages 205-214. Doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-809665-9.10463-X>.

Moser, T., Rombke, J., Schallnass, H.J. and Van, G.C.A.M. (2007). The use of the multivariate Principal Response Curve (PRC) for community level analysis: a case study on the effects of carbendazim on enchytraeids in Terrestrial Model Ecosystems (TME). *Ecotoxicology* 16: 573–583.

O'Callaghan, M., Glare, T.R., Burgess, E.P.J. and Malone, L.A. (2005). Effects of plants genetically modified for insect resistance on non-target organisms. *Annu. Rev. Entomol.* 50, 271–292.

Commented [U8]:

Formatted: Highlight

Oksanen, J. (2013). Vegan: ecological diversity. Available at: <http://cran.rproject.org/web/packages/vegan/vignettes/diversity-vegan.pdf>.

Ortiz, A.M.D., Charlotte, L., Outhwaite, C.D. and Tim, N. (2021). A review of the interactions between biodiversity, agriculture, climate change, and international trade: research and policy priorities. *One Earth*, Volume 4, Issue 1, Pages 88-101, ISSN 2590-3322, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oneear.2020.12.008>.

Otiobo, A.E.N., Lukong, A.W., Tita, M.A. and Theresia, N. (2020). Insect Activities and their Impact on the Yield of *Abelmoschus esculentus* L (Malvaceae) in Bambili (Mezam - Cameroon). *International Journal of Sustainable Agricultural Research, Conscientia Beam*, vol. 7(4), pages 304-315.

Pandey, R., Vengavasi, K. and Hawkesford, M.J. (2021). Plant adaptation to nutrient stress. *Plant Physiol. Rep.* 26, 583–586 (2021). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40502-021-00636-7>

Pawlak, K. and Kołodziejczak, M. (2020). The Role of Agriculture in Ensuring Food Security in Developing Countries: Considerations in the Context of the Problem of Sustainable Food Production. *Sustainability*, 12, 5488. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12135488>.

Pielou, E.C. (1966). The measurement of diversity in different types of biological collections. *J Theor Biol* 13: 131–144.

R Core Team, 2022. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. <http://www.R-project.org/>

Rawat, U.S. and Agarwal, N.K. (2015). Biodiversity: Concept, threats and conservation. *Environment Conservation Journal*, 16(3) 19-28, 2015 ISSN 0972-3099.

Ricotta, C. and Podani, J. (2017). On some properties of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and their ecological meaning, *Ecological Complexity*, Volume 31, 2017, Pages 201-205, ISSN 1476-945X.

Roe, D., Seddon, N. and Elliott, J. (2019). Biodiversity loss is a development issue: a rapid review of evidence. *IIED Issue Paper. IIED, London*, <http://pubs.iied.org/17636IIED> ISBN 978-1-78431-688-4

Romeis, J., Meissle, M., Naranjo, S.E., Li, Y. and Bigler, F. (2014). The end of a myth – Bt (Cry1Ab) maize does not harm green lacewings. *Front Plant Sci* 5, 1–10.

Romeis, J., van Driesche, R.G., Barratt, B.I.P. and Bigler, F. (2008). Insect-resistant transgenic crops and biological control. In: Romeis J, Shelton AM and Kennedy GG, , editors., *Integration of insect-resistant genetically modified crops within IPM programs. Springer Science + Business Media BV*. pp. 87–117.

Salama, H.S. and Zaki, F.N. (1983). Interaction between *Bacillus thuringiensis* Berliner and the parasites and predators of *Spodoptera littoralis* in Egypt. *Z angew Entomol*, 95: 425–429.

Schorling, M. and Freier, B. (2006). Six-year monitoring of non-target arthropods in Bt maize (Cry 1Ab) in the European corn borer (*Ostrinia nubilalis*) infestation area Oderbruch (Germany). *J Verbr Lebensm* 1: 106–108.

Sears, M.K., Hellmich, R.L., Stanley-Horn, D.E., Oberhauser, K.S., Pleasants, J.M., Mattila, H.R., Siegfried, B.D. and Dively, G.P. (2001). Impact of Bt corn pollen on monarch butterfly populations: a risk assessment. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 98, 11937–11942.

Smyth, S.J. (2020). The human health benefits from GM crops. *Plant Biotechnol J.* 18(4):887-888. doi: 10.1111/pbi.13261. Epub 2019 Oct 2. PMID: 31544299; PMCID: PMC7061863.

Smyth, S.J., McHughen, A., Entine, J., Kershner, D.R. and Parrott, W. (2021). Removing politics from innovations that improve food security. *Transgenic Research*, 30, 601–612. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11248-021-00261-y>

Subedi, B., Poudel, A., Aryal, S. (2023). The impact of climate change on insect pest biology and ecology: Implications for pest management strategies, crop production, and food security. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Research*, Volume 14, ISSN 26661543.

Tilman, D., Isbell, F. and Cowles, J.M. (2014). Biodiversity and Ecosystem Functioning. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics*, Vol. 45:471-493; <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-120213-091917>

Triplehorn, C.A., Johnson, N.F. and Borror, D.J. (2005). Borror and DeLong's Introduction to the Study of Insects. *Thomson Brooks/Cole, Belmont, CA*.

Vanden-Brink, P.J., den-Besten, P.J., bijde-Vaate, A. and ter-Braak, C.J.F. (2009). Principal response curves technique for the analysis of multivariate biomonitoring time series. *Environ Monit Assess* 152: 271–281.

Vasiliev, D. (2022). The Role of Biodiversity in Ecosystem Resilience. *IOP Conference Series Earth and Environmental Science*, 1072(1):012012, DOI:10.1088/1755-1315/1072/1/012012

Wolfenbarger, L.L., Naranjo, S.E., Lundgren, J.G., Bitzer, R.J. and Watrud, L.S. (2008). Bt crop effects on functional guilds of non-target arthropods: a meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE*, 3: e2118.

Yizhu, Q., Tingting, W., Qiwei, H., Hanyue, G., He, Z., Qicheng, X., Qirong, S. and Ning, L. (2024). Core species impact plant health by enhancing soil microbial cooperation and network complexity during community coalescence. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, Volume 188, 2024, 109231, ISSN 0038-0717, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2023.109231>.

Zhang, B.Y., Chen, M., Zhang, X.F., Luan, H.H. and Tian, Y.C. (2011). Expression of Bt-Cry3A in transgenic *Populus alba* x *P. glandulosa* and its effects on target and non-target pests and the arthropod community. *Transgenic Res* 20: 523–532.

Zhe Jiao, Jianchao Deng, Gongke Li, Zhuomin Zhang, Zongwei Cai, (2010). Study on the compositional differences between transgenic and non-transgenic papaya (*Carica papaya* L.). *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis*, Volume 23, Issue 6, Pages 640-647, ISSN 0889-1575, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfca.2010.03.004>.

Deleted: Abdul, A.M., Brini, F., Rouached, H. and Masmoudi, K. (2022). Genetically engineered crops for sustainably enhanced food production systems. *Front. Plant Sci.* 13:1027828. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2022.1027828.

Adedjoja, O.A., Kehinde, T. and Samways, M.J. (2018). Insect-flower interaction networks vary among endemic pollinator taxa over an elevation gradient. *PLoS One*. 29;13(11):e0207453.

Albajes, R., Lumbierres, B., Madeira, F., Comas, C. and Ardanuy, A. (2013). Field trials for assessing risks of GM maize on non-target arthropods in Europe: the Spanish experience. *IOBC/WPRS Bulletin* 97: 1–8.

Anderson, J., Ellsworth, P., Faria, J., Head, G., Owen, M. and Pilcher, C. (2019). Genetically engineered crops: Importance of diversified integrated pest management for agricultural sustainability. *Front. Bioeng Biotechnol.* 7, 24. doi: 10.3389/fbioe.2019.00024

Bonelli, M., Eustacchio, E., Avesani, D., Michelsen, V., Falaschi, M., Caccianiga, M., Gobbi, M. and Casartelli, M. (2022). The Early Season Community of Flower-Visiting Arthropods in a High-Altitude Alpine Environment. *Insects*, 13, 393.

Boyle, T.P., Smillie, G.M., Anderson, J.C. and Beeson, D.R. (1990). A sensitivity analysis of nine diversity and seven similarity indices. *Res J Water Pollut Control Fed* 62: 749–762.

Braatz, E.Y., Gezon, Z.J., Rossetti, K., Maynard, L.T., Bremer, J.S., Hill, G.M., Streifel, M.A. and Daniels, J.C. (2021). Bloom evenness modulates the influence of bloom abundance on insect community structure in suburban gardens. *PeerJ*. 22;9:e11132.

Bray, J.R. and Curtis, J.T. (1957). An ordination of the upland forest communities of southern Wisconsin. *Ecol Monogr* 27: 325–349.

Carolin, P., Niklas, S., Christine, R., Tiffany, M.K., Isabell, H. (2023). Abiotic conditions affect nectar properties and flower visitation in four herbaceous plant species, *Flora*, Volume 303, 152279, ISSN 0367-2530.

Carpenter, J.E. (2011). Impact of GM crops on biodiversity. *GM Crops*. 2(1):7-23. doi: 10.4161/gmcr.2.1.15086.

Collins, S.L., Micheli, F. and Hartt, L. (2000). A method to determine rates and patterns of variability in ecological communities. *Oikos* 91: 285–293.

Comas, C., Lumbierres, B., Pons, X. and Albajes, R. (2014). No effects of *Bacillus thuringiensis* maize on nontarget organisms in the field in southern Europe: a meta-analysis of 26 arthropod taxa. *Transgenic Res* 23: 135–143.

Cuppen, J.G.M., Van den Brink, P.J., Camps, E., Uil, K.F. and Brock, T.C.M. (2000). Impact of the fungicide carbendazim in freshwater microcosms. I. Water quality, breakdown of particulate organic matter and responses of macroinvertebrates. *Aquat Toxicol* 48: 233–250.

Dale, P.H., Clarke, B. and Fontes, E.M.G. (2002). Potential for the environmental impact of transgenic crops. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 20, 567–574.

Dang, C., Zhou, X., Sun, C., Wang, F., Peng, Y. and Ye, G. (2021). Impacts of Bt rice on non-target organisms assessed by the hazard quotient (HQ). *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, Volume 207, 111214, ISSN 0147-6513, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2020.111214>.

Desneux, N. and Bernal, J.S. (2010). Genetically modified crops deserve greater ecotoxicological scrutiny. *Ecotoxicology* 19: 1642–1644.

