

**Review Paper:**

# Enhancing insect resistance in rice through biotechnological techniques

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**Abstract**

Plants are subjected to a variety of biotic and abiotic stresses throughout their entire life cycle. Like other biotic stress factors, insect pests have raised severe issues about yield losses, putting agricultural productivity at risk. Rice is a key source of nutrition for the world's growing population and insect infestations are particularly severe in rice which grow in warm, humid climates. Many phytophagous insects find rice plants to be an attractive and nutritious food source. Hundreds of insect species cause damage to rice to varying degrees, but only a few cause major damage regularly. Insect resistance capacity can be improved either by breeding or by biotechnology to reduce yield loss in rice.

However, scientists have turned to biotechnological techniques because of the long duration in traditional breeding and restricted availability of gene(s) of interest in the primary gene pool. The purpose of this review is to analyse the current state of biotechnological intervention for the resistance of a few important insects in rice.

**Keywords:** Biotechnology, genetic resistance, insects, rice.

**Introduction**

Rice (*Oryza sativa*) is one of the world's most important crops supplying food over half of the global population. It is the staple food of more than 70% of Indians and is crucial to their food security. It is predominantly grown in States like West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Odisha, Chhattisgarh, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh and Telengana. Rice is grown on 43.79 million hectares in India, with a production of 116.42 million tonnes and a yield of 2659 kg/ha<sup>1</sup>. Crop losses are caused by a variety of biotic and abiotic stressors.

Among the biotic stresses, insect pests remain a significant threat to enhanced rice production. Hundreds of insect species inflict damage to rice to various extents, but only a few occur on a regular basis and cause significant damage. Insects feed on all parts of a rice plant at all stages of development, reducing production. One of the most important aspects of meeting the rising demand for rice is the development and execution of appropriate rice pest management measures<sup>14</sup>. Insect control can be divided into two categories: biological (predators, parasites, natural pesticides etc.) and chemical (chemical pesticides,

insecticides etc.). The biological process is inexpensive and has no negative consequences for the environment.

The best way of insect control in crop plants is genetic resistance. It is the ability of some genotypes to produce higher yields of good quality than susceptible kinds under equal environmental conditions and at the same starting level of insect attack. Both breeding and biotechnological approaches can be used to enhance insect resistance.

Traditional plant breeding techniques are more reliable for developing resistance in plants. The procedure, however, takes a long duration to complete. To overcome this major problem, marker-assisted selection (MAS) offers a method by which selection for specific traits can be greatly accelerated. MAS is more successful with relatively simple traits and inherited in a Mendelian fashion. However, genomic selection in combination with the increase in the resolution markers and the decrease in the cost, will result in enhanced breeding strategies that make use of huge amounts of genomic data, paired with estimated breeding values assigned to markers to speed up breeding processes and increase the rate of gain. The genetic mapping of QTLs (Quantitative Trait Loci) has been ongoing for many years. These QTLs identify the chromosome region where the gene(s) affecting traits are most likely to exist within a statistical range.

However, in order to fully benefit from QTLs, it is required to identify the genes responsible for trait variation and to comprehend the molecular basis of QTLs. Apart from breeding methods, biotechnological techniques have a significant role in introduction of a new trait to the plant which does not occur naturally in the species (e.g. resistance to certain insects, diseases, herbicides, environmental conditions or improving the nutrient profile of the crop etc.).

Through improvements in biotechnology, horizontal resistance breeding, in which resistance is based on many genes, is becoming increasingly popular as genetically enhanced sustained pest resistance with fusion genes<sup>58</sup>.

**Advantages of biotechnology over breeding**

Choosing biotechnology over conventional approaches has advantages<sup>7</sup>:

- i. It provides access to non-rice genes that are otherwise unavailable to rice breeders.
- ii. It allows purified rice genes into rice after modifications that give enhanced performance not attainable through recombination and mutation *in vivo*.

iii. It allows the addition of specific character to rice without the linkage drag and the requirement for backcrossing that accompany sexual hybridization.

### Biotechnological techniques

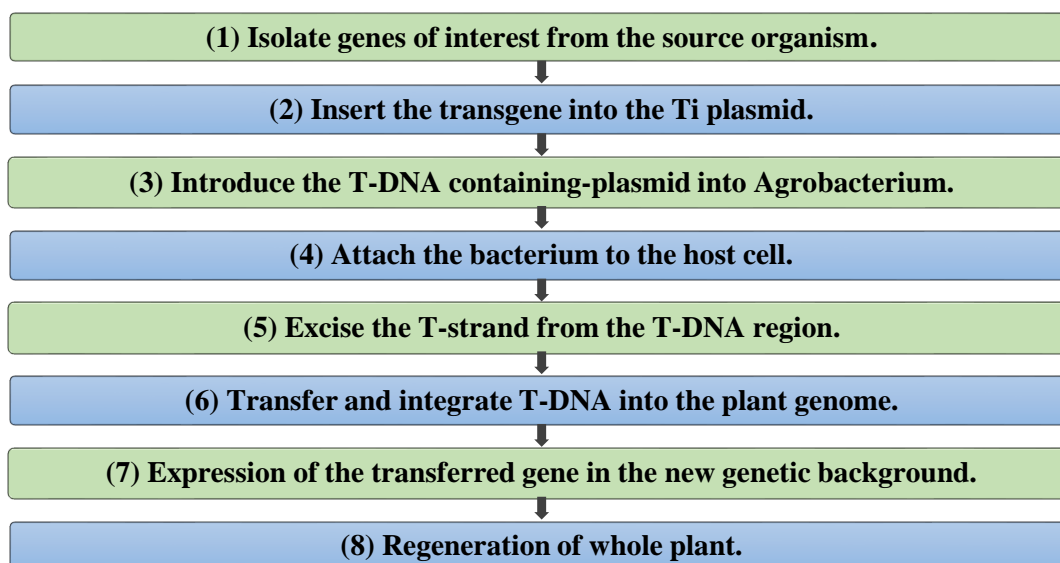
In biotechnology, a variety of approaches are employed for crop improvement. Some of them are utilised to create resistance against insect pests in rice.

**Agrobacterium-mediated transformation:** From a commercial and biosafety standpoint, *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation is acknowledged to be the ideal way of producing transgenic plants due to its great efficiency. *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* is a naturally occurring soil microbe known for infecting susceptible plant species with crown gall disease. *Agrobacterium*

*tumefaciens*, which carries the tumor-inducing (Ti) plasmid, causes galls on the roots and crowns of many dicot angiosperm species as well as some gymnosperms, whereas *Agrobacterium rhizogenes*, which carries the root-inducing (Ri) plasmid, causes abnormal root production on the host plants.

The production of oncogenes is found in transferred-DNA (T-DNA) carried from these bacteria into the plant nucleus and integrated into the plant genome and the plant then reads and expresses the transferred genes as if they were its own. *Agrobacterium*-mediated gene transfer is known to result in the integration of foreign genes at a single locus in the host plant without the use of a vector backbone and to create marker-free plants which are required for transgenic crop commercialization.

The following are the steps in the *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation process:

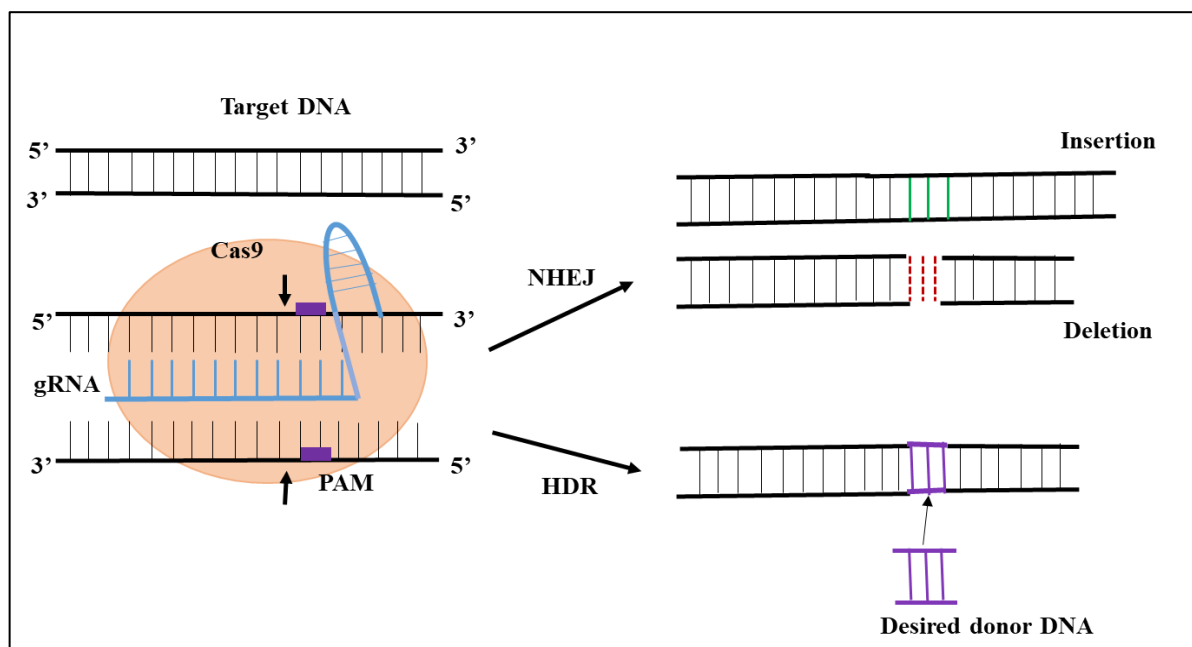


**Protoplast fusion:** Recent advancements in tissue-culture technology have created new possibilities for combining genes from various plant sources. Protoplast fusion is a technique in which cells in a culture media are stripped of their protective walls utilizing enzymes such as pectinase, cellulase and hemicellulase. These stripped cells, known as protoplasts, are collected from various sources and fused together using various ways such as electrical shock, PEG (Polyethylene Glycol) method and so on. When two protoplasts merge, a somatic hybrid is formed that contains genetic material from both plants.

**Particle bombardment:** Particle bombardment, also known as biolistics, is a common technique for genetically modifying plants and other organisms. The DNA to be used for transformation is coated on gold or tungsten particles (1–2 µm). The coated particles are put into a particle gun and accelerated to high speed utilizing electrostatic energy supplied by a droplet of water subjected to high voltage or compressed helium gas; the target might be plant cell

suspensions, callus cultures, or tissues. Plant cell walls and membranes are penetrated by the bullets. Transgenes are liberated from the particle surface as the microprojectiles reach the cells and they are then incorporated into the plant's chromosomal DNA<sup>41</sup>.

**CRISPR/Cas9:** CRISPR/Cas9 (clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats) is a latest genome editing technology, which holds great promise because of its specificity, simplicity, efficiency and versatility by addressing key challenges posed by other genome editing tools<sup>57</sup>. It has two components: a CRISPR-associated endonuclease (Cas protein) and a guide RNA (gRNA/sgRNA). Cas9 is an enzyme that recognises and cleaves certain strands of DNA that are complementary to the CRISPR sequence using CRISPR sequences as a guide. The gRNA is a short synthetic RNA that contains a Cas-binding scaffold sequence as well as a user-defined approximately 20-nucleotide spacer that specifies the genomic target to be changed.



**Fig. 1: Strategies of CRISPR/Cas9 based genome editing**

The sgRNA binds to the Cas9 nuclease and instructs it to cleave complementary target DNA sequences close to a protospacer adjacent motif (PAM), usually the sequence NGG (where N represents any base), resulting in a double-strand break (DSB) in the DNA sequence<sup>30</sup>.

Non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) and homology-directed repair (HDR) are two key techniques for repairing Cas9 nuclease-induced DSBs<sup>50</sup>. NHEJ will result in insertion or deletion (Indel) mutations that disrupt the open reading frame of target genes, allowing us to achieve knockout (KO) of the target DNA sequence. HDR, on the other hand, can be used to introduce specific mutations or insert sequences of interest in accordance with the invading DNA template via homologous recombination, allowing us to achieve knock-in of a specific gene. By using this method, both plant and insect genomes can be modified for insect pest management<sup>56</sup>.

**Map based cloning:** Forward genetics demands the cloning of sequences underlying a particular mutant trait. Map based cloning or positional cloning is a tedious forward genetic approach, hampering the quick identification of candidate genes. With the unprecedented advancement in whole genome sequencing and possibly even more so with the advent of saturating marker technologies, map-based cloning can now be done so quickly that candidate genes can now be identified in a couple of months, at least for some model plants. As a result, the use of map based cloning to isolate genes involved in natural variation and genes producing phenotypic mutations as determined by mutagenesis screens has increased nowadays<sup>43</sup>.

Three major steps involved in map based cloning are:

(i) Isolation of a mutant strain with a recognizable change in phenotype and mapping of the mutant allele within a short

genomic region to identify a pair of markers flanking the mutant allele;

(ii) Use of these markers for the identification and isolation of the DNA fragment containing the mutant allele and  
(iii) Determination of the function of concerned gene.

### Rice biotechnology and insect resistance

**Brown Plant Hopper (*Nilaparvata lugens*):** The brown plant hopper (BPH) is a rice insect pest that has been regarded as one of Asia's major rice production restrictions<sup>32</sup>. The insect pest is currently regarded as Asia's most devastating rice pest<sup>33</sup>. In susceptible cultivars, BPH infection can cause direct and indirect yield losses of 20–80 percent<sup>3</sup>. BPH attacks caused significant damage in China, Japan, Korea and Vietnam. Between 2005 and 2008, BPH attack caused yield losses of 2.7 million tonnes of rice in China alone. BPH-transmitted diseases like rice's ragged-stunt virus and grassy-stunt virus resulted in a decrease of 400,000 tonnes in Vietnam<sup>12</sup>. The most serious BPH outbreak in India happened in Kerala state between the end of 1973 and the beginning of 1974<sup>40</sup>.

Molecular breeding promises a long-term solution for developing BPH resistant rice, however, the method's usefulness is limited by enormous genetic drag and time and resource needs as discussed earlier. As a result, using biotechnology to introduce genetic variants from other sources provides an alternate technique for managing BPH in rice. Under the control of a phloem-specific promoter from the rice sucrose synthase gene, as well as constitutively in the region of the maize ubiquitin promoter (*Ubi*), the snowdrop lectin gene (*Galanthus nivalis* agglutinin, GNA) was inserted into transgenic rice plants. According to insect bioassays and feeding observations, the expression of GNA in transgenic rice plants reduces the nymphal survival and overall fecundity of BPH<sup>39</sup>.

Plant defensin is another protein class that confers resistance to fungus and bacteria and it has been thoroughly studied in plants<sup>55</sup>. BPH resistance is conferred by introducing the plant defensin *BrDI* from *Brassica rapa* into rice<sup>19</sup>. Although transgenic techniques to BPH resistance in rice have been successful, their deployment has been hampered by regulatory hurdles and political objections, notably in India and other developing countries.

The use of genome editing tools allows for the production of new alleles, the deletion of undesirable alleles/genes and the pyramiding of alleles without the need of linkage drags. CRISPR/Cas9 technology was used to modify the *CYP71A1* (encoding tryptamine 5-hydroxylase) gene in order to generate BPH resistant rice cultivars<sup>36</sup>. In rice, the modified plants displayed lower serotonin levels and higher salicylic acid (SA) levels, resulting in improved BPH resistance. CRISPR/Cas9 technology can be utilized to create novel allelic series from cloned BPH resistance genes, which could aid in the creation of broad-spectrum resistance in rice cultivars.

**Yellow Stem Borer (*Scirpophaga incertulas*):** Because of its widespread distribution and chronic pattern of infection, the yellow stem borer (YSB) is the most devastating monophagous insect. It is the most destructive insect pest of rice in India, producing 3 to 95 percent production losses<sup>51</sup> and accounting for half of all insecticides used in rice fields<sup>29</sup>. YSB attacks the crop from seedling to harvest resulting in the complete loss of the affected tillers<sup>49</sup>. When insects attack during the vegetative stage, it causes dead

heart and during the ear development stage causes white head<sup>21</sup>. Due to poor understanding of the genetics of resistance, lack of adequate germplasm and screening methodologies progress in developing rice cultivars resistant to YSB has been slow.

On the other hand, rice germplasm with a high level of resistance to the common YSB has been limited<sup>9</sup>. In the past, the lack of a high level of resistance to the YSB had slowed the creation of appropriate cultivars<sup>8</sup>. However, so far no gene has been specifically identified imparting tolerance to YSB<sup>21</sup>.

The crystal insecticidal protein ( $\delta$ -endotoxin) genes or cry gene proteins (Bt toxins) of *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) are particularly poisonous to Lepidoptera<sup>20</sup>, Diptera<sup>2</sup> and Coleoptera insects<sup>26</sup>. The first transgenic IR62 rice containing the Bt gene was developed in India<sup>42</sup>. Since then, various organizations have used Bt genes like *CryIAb*, *CryIAc* and others to change rice types like IR64, Karnal Local and others to achieve resistance to YSB<sup>31</sup>. Several research groups have transformed rice with Bt genes and tested their efficiency against YSB in both greenhouse<sup>18</sup> and field conditions<sup>4-6,13</sup>.

The majority of transgenic lines utilized in field studies expressed *CryIAb*, *cryIAc*, *cry2A*, or a fused gene from *cryIAb/cryIAc*. *Agrobacterium*-mediated genetic transformation is reported to be resistant to Indica rice cultivars.

**Table 1**  
**Genes and QTLs identified for BPH resistance in rice<sup>22</sup>**

Gene/QTL	Chromosome	Germplasm	Linked Markers
<i>Bph22(t)</i>	4	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	RM8212-RM261
<i>Bph23(t)</i>	8	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	RM2655-RM3572
<i>Bph24(t)</i>	—	IR73678-6-9-B ( <i>O. rufipogon</i> )	—
<i>bph25(t)</i>	6	ADR52	S0010-RM8101
<i>BPH26</i>	12	ADR52	DS72B4-DS173B
<i>BPH27</i>	4	GX2183 ( <i>O. rufipogon</i> )	RM16846-RM16853
<i>Bph27(t)</i>	4	Balamawee	Q52-Q20
<i>Bph28(t)</i>	11L	DV85	InDel155-InDel166
<i>bph29</i>	6	RBPH54 ( <i>O. rufipogon</i> )	BYL8-BID2
<i>bph30</i>	10	RBPH54 ( <i>O. rufipogon</i> )	RM222-RM244
<i>BPH30</i>	4	AC-1613	SSR28-SSR69
<i>BPH31</i>	3	CR2711-76	PA26-RM2334
<i>BPH32</i>	6	PTB33	RM19291-RM8072
<i>BPH33</i>	4	KOLAYAL/POLIYAL	H99-H101
<i>BPH34</i>	4	<i>Oryza nivara</i>	RM16994-RM17007
<i>qBPH3</i>	3	IR02W101 ( <i>O. officinalis</i> )	t6-f3
<i>qBPH4</i>	4	IR02W101 ( <i>O. officinalis</i> )	P17-xc4-27
<i>qBPH4.2</i>	4	IR65482-17-511 ( <i>O. australiensis</i> )	RM261-XC4-27
<i>qBPH4.3</i>	4	Salkathi	RM551-RM335
<i>qBPH4.4</i>	4	Salkathi	RM335-RM5633

\* Genes identified in last ten years

However, Ramesh et al<sup>45</sup> in 2004 developed YSB-resistant transgenic indica rice lines with synthetic *cryIAb* and *cryIAc* genes as well as the snowdrop lectin gene GNA. This was the first study to use *A. tumefaciens* pSB111 super-binary vectors to successfully introduce three exotic resistant genes into diverse indica rice lines. *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation was used to introduce a novel synthetic *cry2A* gene into the elite indica rice restorer line Minghui 63<sup>16</sup>.

Chen et al<sup>17</sup> tested 10 transgenic Bt rice lines generated from the same variety Minghui 63 against YSB and Asiatic rice borer using different Bt genes (five *Cry9C*, three *Cry2A* and two *CryIAc* lines). Toxicity to these two rice borers was substantial in all transgenic lines. Rice plants containing *cryIAb* or *cryIAc* have been obtained by using protoplast or particle bombardment methods<sup>23</sup>.

Transgenic production of certain enzymes (chitinase, trypsins and other serine proteinases like chymotrypsin, elastases etc.) has been proposed as a possible alternative to Bt genes. *In vitro* experiments were used to measure trypsin activity in the midguts of YSB in order to find plant proteinase inhibitors that could be used in transgenic techniques to create insect resistant crops<sup>38</sup>. Bhutani et al<sup>10</sup> reported the development of transgenic Indica rice plants expressing potato proteinase inhibitor 2 (*Pin2*) genes with increased resistance to YSB. The cowpea trypsin inhibitor (*CpTi*) transgene has also been employed to develop stem borer resistance<sup>11</sup>. Yellow stem borer papain and midgut proteases were strongly inhibited by a protease inhibitor

isolated from ripe jackfruit seeds, showing the potential utility of utilizing jackfruit protease inhibitor to protect rice plants from YSB damage<sup>52</sup>.

**Rice Leaffolder (*Cnaphalocrocis medinalis*):** Rice leaffolder was previously a minor pest that has now become a serious problem throughout the country, particularly in places where fertilizer use is excessive. *Cnaphalocrocis medinalis*, *Marasmia patnalis* and *Marasmia exigua* are three leaf folder species found in Eastern India with *Cnaphalocrocis medinalis* being the most frequent and widespread<sup>46</sup>. Depending on the agro-ecological environment, yield losses can range from 63 percent to 80 percent<sup>44</sup>.

Transgenic rice lines, expressing *CryIAc* and Cowpea Trypsin Inhibitor (*CpTI*) showed resistance against *Cnaphalocrocis medinalis*. In the future, these lines could be employed as an alternate pest-control strategy and insect resistance management for Bt rice<sup>25</sup>. Kumar et al<sup>34</sup> tested 10 independently developed single-copy lines of Japonica (TNG67) and fragrant indica rice cultivars (HBC 19 and Pusa Basmati 1) for resistance to the rice leaffolder using third generation transgenic plants containing the potato proteinase inhibitor II gene (*pinII*). Five transgenic lines out of ten showed high levels of resistance to rice leaffolder with larval mortality ranging from 87.5 percent to 92.5 percent, demonstrating that *PinII* in rice can effectively regulate rice leaffolder.

**Table 2**  
**QTLs identified for rice leaf folder resistance<sup>22</sup>**

QTLs	Chromosome	Germplasm	Linked markers
<i>qRLF-1</i>	1	Taichung Native 1	RM3412-RM6716
<i>qRLF-2</i>	2	Taichung Native 1	RM207-RM48
<i>qRLF-3</i>	3	Chuanjiang 06	RM1022-RM7
<i>qRLF-4</i>	4	Chuanjiang 06	RM3276-RM255
<i>qRLF-8</i>	8	Chuanjiang 06	RM72-RM331

**Table 3**  
**Genes identified for GLH resistance in rice<sup>22</sup>**

Gene	Chromosome	Germplasm
<i>GLH1</i>	5	Pankhari 203
<i>GLH2</i>	11	ASD7
<i>GLH3</i>	6	IR8
<i>glh4</i>	3	PTB8
<i>GLH5</i>	8	ASD8, <i>O. rufipogon</i>
<i>GLH6</i>	5	TAPL796
<i>GLH7</i>	---	Maddani Karuppan
<i>glh8</i>	---	DV85
<i>GLH9</i>	---	IR28
<i>glh10</i>	---	IR36
<i>GLH11</i>	---	IR20965-11-3-3
<i>GLH12</i>	---	ARC10313
<i>GLH13</i>	---	Asmaita
<i>GLH14</i>	4	ARC11554

Manikandan et al<sup>37</sup> inserted a novel *cry2AX1* gene into the rice cultivar ASD16, which consists of a sequence of *cry2Aa* and *cry2Ac* genes driven by rice *rbcS*. Twenty of the 27 potential rice transformants tested positive for the *cry2AX1* gene. In insect bioassay, larval mortality ranged from 83.33 percent in T<sub>0</sub> transgenic rice plants to 83.33-90.00 percent in T<sub>1</sub> transgenic rice plants. This gene can be utilized to create transgenic rice plants that are resistant to the rice leafhopper.

**Green Leafhopper (*Nephotettix virescens*):** The green leafhopper (GLH) is found all over Asia, however it is more prevalent in the tropics and subtropics. It can reduce yields by directly feeding or acting as a vector for the spread of tungro disease. GLH outbreaks were severe in India in 1968 and 1969 and in the Philippines in 1971. Previously, the peak population of green leafhoppers was observed during the Diwali festival in the 1980s and 1990s, after which the population began to decline; however, since 2001, the GLH population has continued to rise beyond the Diwali<sup>53</sup>.

Resistance against hopper pests such as BPH, GLH and WBPH (White Backed Plant Hopper) has been imparted due to a successful transformation of rice variety Chaitanya with the snowdrop (*Galanthus nivalis*) lectin gene, GNA<sup>39</sup>. The expression of GNA in rice has been shown by Tang et al<sup>54</sup> to reduce survival ability and fecundity as well as to delay the development of BPH. Additionally, the garlic lectin gene ASAL (mannose binding *Allium sativum* leaf agglutinin) has been proven to be an antifeedant and has insecticidal

properties against BPH and GLH. It has been utilized to give hopper resistance in rice by transforming IR64<sup>47</sup>.

The creation of a complex that occurs from the ASAL binding to the receptor molecule, an endosymbiotic chaperonin symbionin, located in the insect gut, has been shown to produce the insecticidal ability of ASAL against sap sucking insects. Similarly, the onion leaf lectin (*Allium Cepa* agglutinin, ACA) has been reported to have enough insecticidal properties to be a viable component in the transgenic method to sap sucking insect control management<sup>28</sup>.

**White Backed Plant Hopper (*Sogatella furcifera*):** White backed plant hopper (WBPH) attacks on paddy were first observed in India in 1903 in Surat, Pusa, Puna and Nagpur. Following that, it was seen in Bihar and Bengal in 1919, Jabalpur and its nearby Madhya Pradesh regions in 1960, Punjab in 1966 and Rajasthan in 1986. Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Delhi, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Manipur, Odisha, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal have also reported it<sup>15</sup>. In general, it is said to be more severe in places where resistant BPH cultivars have been planted. WBPH outbreaks have been reported in numerous Indian States.

The overexpression of the gene *OsWRKY89* led to increased leaf surface wax deposition, SA levels and lignification in culms, resulting in enhanced WBPH resistance<sup>59</sup>.

**Table 4**  
**Genes identified for WBPH resistance in rice<sup>22</sup>**

Genes	Chromosome	Germplasms	Linked Markers
<i>WBPH1</i>	7	Nagina 22	---
<i>WBPH2</i>	6	ARC10239	RZ667
<i>WBPH3</i>	–	ADR52	–
<i>WBPH4</i>	–	Podiwi A8	–
<i>WBPH5</i>	–	N'Diang Marie	–
<i>WBPH6</i>	11	Guiyigu	RM167
<i>WBPH7</i>	3	B5 ( <i>O.officinalis</i> )	R1925-G1318
<i>WBPH8</i>	4	B5 ( <i>O.officinalis</i> )	R288-S11182
<i>WBPH9</i>	6	Sinna Sivappu	RM589-RM539
<i>WBPH10(t)</i>	12	Sinna Sivappu	SSR12–17.2-RM28487
<i>WBPH11(t)</i>	4	Sinna Sivappu	Rm3643-rm1223
<i>WBPH12(t)</i>	4	Sinna Sivappu	RM16592-RM16649
<i>Ovc</i>	6	Asominori	R2373-C946
<i>qOVA-1-3</i>	1	Asominori	XNpb346-C112
<i>qOVA-4</i>	4	Asominori	R1854
<i>qOVA-5-1</i>	5	Asominori	XNpb251-R3313
<i>qOVA-5-2</i>	5	Asominori	C1268
<i>qWPH2</i>	2	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	RM1285-RM555
<i>qWBPH5</i>	5	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	RM3870-RZ70
<i>qWBPH9</i>	9	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	RG451-RM245
<i>qWL6</i>	6	Chunjiang 06	M3-M5
<i>qWBPH3.2</i>	3	IR54751	InDel3–23–InDel3–26
<i>qWBPH11</i>	11	IR54751	DJ53973-SNP56

**Table 5**  
**Genes identified for gall midge resistance in rice<sup>22</sup>**

Genes	Chromosome	Germplasms	Markers
<i>GM1</i>	9	W1263	RM444-RM219
<i>GM2</i>	4	Phalguna	RM241-RM317
<i>gm3</i>	4	RP2068-18-3-5	RM17480-gm3SSR4
<i>GM4</i>	8	Abhaya	RM22551-RM22562
<i>GM5</i>	12	ARC5984	RM101-RM309
<i>GM6</i>	4	Duokang #1	RG214-RG476
<i>GM7</i>	4	RP2333-156-8	F8LB-SA598
<i>GM8</i>	8	Aganni	RM22685-RM22709
<i>GM9</i>	---	Line9	---
<i>GM10</i>	---	BG 380-2	---
<i>GM11</i>	12	CR57-MR1523	RM28574-RM28706

Map-based cloning and functional characterization showed that *BPH3* is actually a cluster of three genes encoding the plasma membrane-localized proteins, lectin receptor kinases (*OsLecRK1*, *OsLecRK2* and *OsLecRK3*). Plants that co-expressed all three genes had significantly improved BPH and WBPH resistance across the range<sup>35</sup>. *BPH6* expression facilitates exocytosis and cell wall reinforcement and induces coordinated SA, cytokinin (CK) and jasmonic acid (JA) signaling. This gene confers substantial resistance to all assessed WBPH and BPH biotypes without adversely affecting rice yields<sup>24</sup>.

**Gall Midge (*Orseolia oryzae*):** Rice gall midge remained a widespread pest until the 1990s, when six biotypes emerged, inflicting significant losses in new areas such as Bihar and Manipur in the North East, as well as in certain traditional areas of Odisha, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Kerala. It has not been a serious pest for about a decade, existing exclusively in endemic regions and producing minor yield losses<sup>48</sup>. Investigations further into the genetics of rice gall midge resistance at Raipur's Indira Gandhi Agricultural University (IGAU) led to the identification of ten gall midge resistance genes known as *Gm1* to *Gm10*. The discovery of the *Gm11* gene in the breeding line CR57-MR1523 brought the total number of known gall midge-resistant genes to 11<sup>27</sup>. Combining genes with multiple resistance mechanisms in a favorable agronomic background is recommended for long-term resistance.

## Conclusion

Although we have made significant progress in the creation of insect resistant GM rice lines and are now entering the expansion phase of crop biotechnology, there are still certain areas where we can improve. There are several legitimate or imagined reservations about transgenics being the final solution to all pest problems.

The major limitations or concerns for transgenic plants are: stringent regulatory policies for risk assessment and lack of social acceptance for genetically modified crops worldwide, secondary pests are not controlled in the absence of sprays

for the major pests. The need to control secondary pests through chemical sprays may kill natural enemies, thus offsetting one of the advantages of transgenics, high cost of producing and deploying transgenics, proximity to sprayed fields will reduce the benefits of transgenics and high cost of producing and deploying transgenics. As a result, more research regarding risk assessment, effective deployment and management of transgenic plants will be a key requirement for the long-term use of biotechnology for crop enhancement.

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