

1 **Synthetic Biology and the Conservation of Biodiversity**

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## 12 **Synthetic Biology and the Conservation of Biodiversity**

13 Abstract: Synthetic biology is a broad and fast-moving field of innovation involving  
14 the design and construction of new biological parts, and the re-design of existing,  
15 natural biological systems in an endeavor to generate products of usefulness to  
16 humans. It has many potential applications that may change human relations to the  
17 natural world. Synthetic biology is virtually unknown to the conservation  
18 community. Based on a meeting bringing together these two communities we  
19 consider first the differences between the two fields, and second the kinds of  
20 opportunities and risks that arise.

21 Keywords: conservation, synthetic biology

22

23 The advent of synthetic biology presents an interesting conundrum for biodiversity  
24 conservation (Redford *et al.* 2013). Is the new technology to be welcomed because it  
25 holds out the possibility of novel and radical solutions to global challenges such as  
26 the perfect storm of shortages in food, water and energy resources (Beddington  
27 2010)? Or is it to be feared, for the impact of novel organisms and associated new  
28 economic arrangements on ecosystems and rural societies (e.g. ETC Group 2010)?

29 Synthetic biology is a broad and fast-moving field of research and innovation,  
30 inspired by the distributed development and exponential rates of innovation and  
31 growth in computing throughout the last three decades (Carlson 2010, Church and  
32 Regis 2012). It is a hybrid of engineering and biology, and definitions of synthetic  
33 biology are broad and open-ended with many, though not all, explicitly directed at  
34 real world uses. Key elements in the field are 1) its engineering approach to natural  
35 systems (designing and fabricating 'components' and 'systems' using standardized

36 and automatable processes; 2) an emphasis on novelty: fabricating parts and systems  
37 that do not exist in the natural world (or re-designing and fabricating those that do);  
38 3) doing so, most frequently, to address real world problems (ECNH 2010,  
39 Presidential Commission 2010). Thus a typical definition of synthetic biology is “the  
40 design and construction of new biological parts, devices and systems and the re-  
41 design of existing, natural biological systems for useful purposes”  
42 [www.syntheticbiology.org accessed 9 July, 2013]. Practically, this “design and  
43 construction” generally currently means modifying single-celled organisms by  
44 inserting up to 15 genes in the form of pathways designed to accomplish specific  
45 tasks. The range of fields where synthetic biology may be applied is wide, but  
46 includes food production, new materials and manufacturing, waste processing and  
47 water purification, ecological restoration, health ([http://www.parliament.uk/mps-](http://www.parliament.uk/mps-lords-and-offices/offices/bicameral/post/post-events/future-environmental-impacts-of-synthetic-biology/)  
48 [lords-and-offices/offices/bicameral/post/post-events/future-environmental-](http://www.parliament.uk/mps-lords-and-offices/offices/bicameral/post/post-events/future-environmental-impacts-of-synthetic-biology/)  
49 [impacts-of-synthetic-biology/](http://www.parliament.uk/mps-lords-and-offices/offices/bicameral/post/post-events/future-environmental-impacts-of-synthetic-biology/)).

50

51 Almost all new technologies and industrial sectors have implications for biodiversity  
52 conservation, as markets and human consumption drive change in the biosphere,  
53 and synthetic biology is no exception. The question of the relationship between  
54 synthetic biology and conservation was addressed at a conference organized by the  
55 Wildlife Conservation Society in April 2013 ([http://www.wcs.org/news-and-](http://www.wcs.org/news-and-features-main/synthetic-conservation-biology-conference.aspx)  
56 [features-main/synthetic-conservation-biology-conference.aspx](http://www.wcs.org/news-and-features-main/synthetic-conservation-biology-conference.aspx)). That meeting, that  
57 included 19 people speaking from the conservation perspective and 21 speaking from  
58 the perspective of synthetic biology in addition to speakers with expertise in  
59 journalism, psychology and advertising took the approach of exploring ideas and  
60 practices in synthetic biology and conservation, before considering areas of  
61 difference and common ground. This paper reflects on our experiences with that

62 process. We consider first the differences between the two fields, and second the  
63 kinds of opportunities and risks that arise. This paper does not report the findings of  
64 the meeting, but summarizes our personal reflections.

## 65 **Thinking in the two Fields**

66 The first observation to be made is that there are differences in the way  
67 conservationists and synthetic biologists approach their respective subjects. Any  
68 attempt to describe such differences runs the risk of caricature, but any attempt to  
69 understand where common ground may or may not lie demands an understanding of  
70 narratives and ways of thinking. We attempt this here.

71

72 First, there is a difference in academic training, and there are gaps between the  
73 disciplines. Participants at the 2013 meeting came more or less equally from both  
74 synthetic biology and conservation, with some other experts (for example  
75 environmental and human rights activists, and sociologists of science). While many  
76 of the synthetic biologists and many conservationists were trained in biology, their  
77 shared biological knowledge was limited. Conservationists trained in biology had  
78 restricted, and frequently dated, knowledge of genetics and molecular biology. One  
79 conservationist trained as a biologist commented of their university training in  
80 genetics and molecular biology ‘those were the courses we flunked’. The same may  
81 well be true in reverse for synthetic biologists trained in biology, who may not have  
82 detailed knowledge of biological structure, function, diversity or management at  
83 ecosystem or even organism levels. Furthermore, some synthetic biologists come  
84 primarily from an engineering background, and work in synthetic biology without  
85 much formal training in biology at all. Only systems biology is included in the  
86 ‘foundational science for synthetic biology’ by Kitney and Freemont (2012): no

87 ecology, let alone conservation biology, is mentioned; conservation science is  
88 necessarily multi-disciplinary (Meine *et al.* 2006), but its engagement with  
89 engineering is slight.

90

91 Second, with differences in knowledge come differences in experience of scientific  
92 practice. Synthetic biologists work in a world of controlled environment  
93 laboratories, where living systems are thought of deliberately in reductionist terms:  
94 as components and parts, designed and assembled to form functioning systems.  
95 Conservationists work in and for a world of complex natural systems, often poorly  
96 defined and rarely with the level of detail of even taxonomy and ecology they would  
97 like. They encounter social, economic and political factors that demand insights well  
98 beyond their biological training. Ecologists have thought of nature like a machine  
99 since the 1960s, borrowing words from cybernetics to describe equilibrium and  
100 control (Botkin 1990), but for conservationists this metaphor has had limited  
101 relevance for the way they understand nature or human interactions with it.

102 Third, there are also differences in the relationship between each field of practice and  
103 its underpinning science. Conservation is informed by several research disciplines,  
104 notably conservation biology and ecology. Conservation biology is a mission-driven  
105 discipline, but conservation itself is a professional practice undertaken by people  
106 trained to protect existing wildlife and nature. Synthetic biology, at this early stage  
107 in its development, is more tightly linked to applied research. It is more  
108 entrepreneurial, its practitioners are people motivated to discover new facts and to  
109 build new devices and some to make money doing so. Synthetic biology is often  
110 described as an endeavour bringing engineering principles to biology and, as a result,

111 many projects are conceived as potentially providing solutions to problems in areas  
112 such as agriculture, healthcare, and energy.

113

114 Fourth, the differences between synthetic biologists and conservationists, as  
115 exhibited at the meeting, are as much cultural as scientific. Conservationists and  
116 synthetic biologists seem to think differently about the future, and their role within  
117 it. At first sight it seems easy to characterise the two communities as being on  
118 opposite ends of a variety of spectra. Synthetic biologists at the meeting (along with  
119 some of the conservationists themselves) appeared to find conservationists negative  
120 about the future, even depressed. It emerged several times in debate that  
121 conservationists tended to look back and mourn the past and the biodiversity that is  
122 or may be lost. Conservationists may be *against extinction*, but are less good at  
123 saying what they are *for* (Adams 2004). On the other hand, synthetic biologists are  
124 upbeat and optimistic, seeing exciting research and beneficial applications.

125

126 Fifth, conservation practice tends to be reactive to change driven by other fields of  
127 human endeavour. The techniques and approaches used have been honed by decades  
128 of experience, both trials and tribulations, and are well-defined with established  
129 practices and procedures. Synthetic biology on the other hand is extremely proactive,  
130 developing novel techniques that could solve not only the problems of today, but also  
131 others that have not yet even been identified. Much of the science is still about the  
132 development of techniques, and so it is an emerging, rapidly growing and vibrant  
133 community. To some synthetic biologists, the primary aim of the field of synthetic  
134 biology is 'industrialisation - i.e. applications leading to products' (Kitney and  
135 Freemont 2012 p. 1034). That focus on industrialised manufacture is very different  
136 from conservation's arcadian and protectionist traditions (Adams 2004).

137

138 Sixth, attitudes to innovation are closely linked to attitudes towards risk.

139 Conservationists tend to be risk-averse in their practice of conservation. The stakes

140 are high, the fear of failure constantly reinforced, and the priority is generally to

141 minimise risks of irreversible consequence of their interventions, especially given

142 many practitioners' experiences of the outcomes from experiments in conservation.

143 This culture of caution is critical to conservation's future engagement with synthetic

144 biology, and it underpins specific debates about the use or release of organisms (e.g.

145 conservationists' fear of invasive synthetic organisms, ISOs). Synthetic biologists

146 have little to lose and much to gain from experimentation; theirs is a new science

147 operating on a potentially very wide front.

148

149 Seventh, the beneficiaries of the work of the two fields are different. Though

150 changing, conservation's tradition has been of state action for the public good (for

151 example in declaring national parks or passing laws to protect wildlife). The benefits

152 of conservation are mainly seen as public goods and services. Synthetic biology is

153 much more closely engaged with business. Many of the benefits of synthetic biology,

154 and much of the excitement, is evident because of the prospect of private benefits to

155 individuals and corporations. That is creating intense investment interest. Synthetic

156 biology is lining itself up to be an enterprise and thus wealth generating (an

157 extension of the bio-economy), whereas conservation does not align itself that way.

## 158 **2. Risks and Opportunities**

159 Characterisations are easy to draw, and exceptions (particularly in individual

160 thoughtful people) are quickly found. Despite this limitation, the oversimplification

161 presented above has some explanatory power and important implications.

162 Differences between conservationists and synthetic biologists can be a barrier to  
163 communication and collaboration, but individuals from both groups appear  
164 interested in working together on problems of mutual interest. While there are likely  
165 to be sceptics in any community of thoughtful science-trained people, the April 2013  
166 meeting certainly suggested a common understanding of the global challenge of the  
167 Anthropocene: that, for example, human influences on global climate are significant,  
168 and human action is reducing global biodiversity. This creates common ground for  
169 the formation of a loose consortium that could work together. Both communities  
170 would both wish to solve major environmental problems, safely and permanently.  
171 The community of synthetic biologists have welcomed discussion with conservation  
172 biologists as well as others in the environmental community. iGEM, (International  
173 Genetically Engineered Machines; [http://igem.org/Main\\_Page](http://igem.org/Main_Page)), a competition for  
174 undergraduate students to “build biological systems and operate them in living cells”  
175 has reportedly incorporated the themes of protecting the environment, and some of  
176 its approximately 15,000 alumni have worked on projects that incorporate  
177 environmental benefits.

178 It is not difficult to imagine many potential risks to conservation in the application of  
179 the techniques of synthetic biology. These include the escape of novel organisms  
180 from containment into open ecosystems. Such ‘species’ – whether produced by more  
181 traditional recombinant DNA techniques, synthetic biology, or sophisticated  
182 breeding – will by their presence change existing ecosystems, (perhaps radically and  
183 detrimentally) and if they exchange genetic material with wild relatives they will  
184 change existing biodiversity, potentially reducing viability. There is also a risk that  
185 these novel organisms may become invasive, out-competing or displacing existing  
186 species (a particular risk to species that are endemic or already rare), (Jeschke *et al.*



187 2013). Genetic transfer between novel organisms and wild relatives might lead to  
188 hybrids that could out-compete transgenic and wild varieties, (e.g GM Atlantic  
189 salmon; Oke et al. 2013). Such risks also attend use of novel organisms for direct  
190 conservation purposes (e.g. to help restore polluted or degraded ecosystems) and  
191 these situations will require careful research and analysis, and careful balancing of  
192 potential risks versus rewards.

193 Biodiversity conservation would also be affected by broader environmental, social  
194 and economic impacts of novel organisms. Human rights and environmental  
195 organizations have already begun to develop a vocal and focused anti-synthetic  
196 biology movement that might affect the ways in which synthetic biology will develop  
197 (c.f. ETC 2010). The potential impacts of synthetic biology that concern this  
198 community include effects on biodiversity, but there is particular concern about the  
199 impacts that novel organisms might have on the rural economy and society in the  
200 developing world. Thus ETC (2010) presses issues of safety and threats to  
201 livelihoods linked to the application of the field of synthetic biology, making  
202 reference to previous debates about land acquisition to grow biofuels, the production  
203 of biologically-based chemicals and plastics, and the industrial burning of biomass.  
204 Yet not all technologies are the same, nor are the people who use them. In contrast  
205 to the monopolistic manner in which some genetically modified crops have been  
206 developed and deployed, many synthetic biologists view their efforts as  
207 democratizing technology, with hopes to enable individuals around the world to  
208 better participate in the discussion about, and use of, biological technologies.

209 Distinctions between synthetic biology and biotechnology more generally, between  
210 technologies and the issue of how they are controlled and who profits from their use  
211 (e.g. corporate or public ownership), and the question of whether biological

212 innovation entrenches or reduces existing social inequalities, are all critically  
213 important. It is quite possible that the interests of biodiversity conservation  
214 specifically may lead conservationists and synthetic biologists alike to share a  
215 position on some risks with human rights and environmental campaigners, but differ  
216 on others. There is currently a great deal of rhetoric surrounding this topic and  
217 disagreement between those seeking common ground and there were marked  
218 disagreements expressed at the meeting. Consideration of possible risks needs to be  
219 open, broad and based on evidence across a broad range of studies and geographies if  
220 they are to be useful.

221 Conservation may be affected both positively and negatively by land use changes  
222 associated with the adoption of production systems using organisms developed from  
223 synthetic biology techniques. Many of these kinds of impacts already occur,  
224 sometimes increased by existing GM (genetically modified) technologies, and it is not  
225 clear what additional impact (if any) synthetic biology will have on these processes.  
226 Though often framed only in terms of negative consequences involving conversion of  
227 land under natural cover and loss of livelihoods, some genetically modified crops  
228 (and perhaps future crops modified by synthetic biology) have been shown to provide  
229 conservation and livelihood benefits (NAS 2010; Kathage and Qaim 2012). This area  
230 of indirect impact of synthetic biology and GM on conservation and livelihoods is  
231 arguably the most contested of the topics raised by at the meeting and in subsequent  
232 conversations.

233 As discussed at the meeting, there is the potential for synthetic biology to be used to  
234 reduce the impact of human land use on biodiversity and support ecosystem services.  
235 New technologies based on synthetic biology may be able to reduce the ultimate  
236 driver of most conservation problems by mitigating the impact of human activities.

237 For example, land and sea habitats that are currently unavailable to wildlife as a  
238 result of energy installations could be freed up with new methods of energy  
239 production, and the effects of climate change on conservation reduced through large  
240 scale deployments of carbon consuming algae (though these might produce their own  
241 effects). There is also an enticing prospect that synthetic biology approaches might  
242 restore degraded lands and waters for either conservation of for increased food  
243 production – potentially sparing wildlands. Finally, honeybee populations are  
244 economically important for the pollination services they provide. In some countries  
245 populations have declined in association with the colony collapse disorder. Synthetic  
246 biology techniques could be applied to develop bees that are resistant to pesticides  
247 and to mites that prey on bees and that transmit viruses. Such applications of  
248 synthetic biology may have great promise, but evaluating their utility is difficult  
249 because the problems are complex and inadequately understood.

### 250 **3 Potential applications of Synthetic Biology to Conservation**

251 Participants at the meeting expressed both concern and excitement about the  
252 potential applications of synthetic biology to conservation. Accepting that there is a  
253 need for engagement of both communities as well as the general public to consider  
254 possible risks to biodiversity from synthetic biology, what might be the possible  
255 benefits from the application of the technology? We offer a short indicative list of  
256 five.

257 i) Revive and restore extinct species: De-extinction, using synthetic biology tools to  
258 recreate extinct species, is a fascinating idea, and has caught the public imagination  
259 through high-profile events and publications (e.g. TEDx, *National Geographic*)  
260 strongly-supported projects such as the passenger pigeon project ( *Revive and*

261 *Restore* - <http://longnow.org/revive/>), and media interest in bringing back  
262 mammoths. It is highly likely that some such projects will be pursued to completion,  
263 because the work will attract funding, inform science, help develop techniques useful  
264 in other fields, and provide an example of synthetic organisms that has public appeal.  
265 It is quite conceivable that a market will develop around the public display of de-  
266 extinct species, whether in private sector facilities (“Jurassic Parks”), or as  
267 commercial attractions in zoos. The allure of de-extinction for conservation may be  
268 obvious, although there are also good reasons to fear that in creating the ultimate  
269 ‘diva species’ (Sandbrook 2012), de-extinction will draw money away from other,  
270 legitimate conservation concerns in addition to other unknown longer term risks.  
271 There is a related discussion about restoring lost genetic diversity to species whose  
272 populations have been severely depleted, using museum specimens as new sources of  
273 genetic diversity. Certainly in conservation terms, de-extinction is far from the center  
274 of the debate and has unclear long-term benefits.

275

276 ii) Tackle persistent threats: Synthetic biology may conceivably provide options for  
277 engineering resistance to fungal diseases now emerging as a major threat to a range  
278 of wildlife (Fisher et al. 2012). For example, bats in North America are being  
279 decimated by white nose syndrome (see <http://whitenosesyndrome.org>). The  
280 syndrome, caused by a fungus apparently imported from Europe, has already killed  
281 so many insectivorous bats that we may soon see an impact on agriculture.  
282 European bats are resistant to the fungus, so one option would be to try to introduce  
283 the appropriate genes into North American bats via breeding programmes. However,  
284 bats breed very slowly, usually having only one pup a year, and only 5 or so pups in a  
285 lifetime. Given the mortality rate due to white nose syndrome, this suggests breeding

286 is probably too slow to be useful in conservation efforts. What if synthetic biology  
287 could be used to intervene in some way, either to directly attack the non-native  
288 fungus or to interfere with its attack on bats? Bats contribute an estimated \$23  
289 billion annually to U.S. farmers by eating insects and pollinating various plants  
290 (Gruner Buckley 2013). Both biodiversity and human welfare would be improved by  
291 reducing, or even eliminating, the effects of white nose syndrome.

292 iii) Enhance capacity to restore degraded (and particularly highly polluted)  
293 ecosystems. Synthetic biology could conceivably contribute directly to habitat  
294 restoration, especially in remediating pollutants, eradicating invasive pathogens or  
295 competitor species, or enhancing decomposition rates. The idea of restoration needs  
296 careful management so that it does not reduce willingness to conserve intact  
297 ecosystems (Caro et al. 2012). Biological remediation of the 2010 oil spill in the Gulf  
298 of Mexico was faster than expected, and yet the massive deep water spill caused great  
299 and on-going damage. It is possible to conceive of using synthetic biology to create  
300 and modify micro-organisms with enhanced ability to consume spilled hydrocarbons  
301 to help manage such disasters. Or perhaps synthetic biology approaches could be  
302 used to eliminate or reduce the persistent and growing impact of pharmaceuticals in  
303 the environment on wild species and ecosystems (Arnold et al. 2013).

304 iv) Address problems arising from detrimental patterns of human of production and  
305 consumption (e.g. the consequences of greenhouse gas accumulation and  
306 anthropogenic climate change). Thus, could the physiological adaptation to  
307 relatively acidic ocean waters that is known to have evolved in some species be used  
308 to support adaptation in sensitive species that are now facing the threats posed by  
309 ocean acidification? Ocean temperature and acidity are set on long-term changes  
310 that are already affecting coral health around the globe. Steve Palumbi has shown in

311 the lab that some South Pacific corals can handle remarkably difficult environmental  
312 conditions (pers. comm.). Many species of coral appear to possess the relevant  
313 genetic pathway within their genomes, but it is not yet clear why some corals have  
314 the pathway turned on and some do not. What if we could isolate these pathways  
315 and transplant them into other species, or turn them on in the genome if they are  
316 already there (e.g. constructing a coral or other species that is resilient to  
317 temperature and acidity changes)? So, to begin, the two fields can collaborate on  
318 genetics, molecular biology, and field biology to figure out why the corals do what  
319 they do. After that, if necessary, it seems that it would be worth exploring whether  
320 other coral species can be modified to use the relevant pathways. Corals are  
321 immensely important for the health of both natural ecosystems and human  
322 economies.

323 v) Control invasive species. Invasive and alien species are recognised as significant  
324 threats to biodiversity in many contexts, particularly in their impacts on  
325 biogeographically isolated fauna and flora (e.g. on isolated islands, such as Guam,  
326 invaded by the brown tree snake (*Boiga irregularis*), or New Zealand or Hawaii,  
327 where many endemic bird species are affected by rats). Attempts at control using  
328 chemical (poison) or physical methods (traps) are expensive and often ineffective.  
329 Synthetic biology might offer the possibility of species-specific biological control for  
330 invasive species, although risks clearly attach to such an approach, and past attempts  
331 at biological control have often created new invasive species problems.

332

### 333 **3. Strategies for Finding Common Ground**

334 There is a great need for more careful and inclusive thought about the implications of  
335 synthetic biology for biodiversity conservation. There has been a significant effort on

336 the part of the synthetic biology community to explore ethical and philosophical  
337 dimensions of synthetic biology, and to address some of the issues of civic and  
338 environmental responsibility and biosecurity. The foundations of the field are built  
339 on the economic, design, and social infrastructure of engineering developed over the  
340 last 150 years. As examples of this commitment, the Sloan Foundation, the U.S.  
341 National Academy of Sciences, the Royal Society in the U.K., EMBO (European  
342 Molecular Biology Organization) and the BBSRC (U.K. Biotechnology and Biological  
343 Sciences Research Council) have funded research and researchers, and run meetings  
344 at the intersection of basic science, engineering, and the social sciences, often  
345 instigated by participants in synthetic biology. Institutions such as the Woodrow  
346 Wilson Center, International Risk Governance Council and the Hastings Center have  
347 devoted considerable time and resources to bringing together scientists, engineers,  
348 anthropologists, lawyers, civil society activists, ethicists, philosophers, public policy  
349 experts, and other stakeholders to consider the implications of the new field. An  
350 extension of this process is needed to more actively include the conservation  
351 community. The conservation community has an obligation to work to try to create  
352 and promote such a process. Conservation's struggles to understand and incorporate  
353 issues like human rights, livelihoods and politics into its own thinking might be  
354 useful as a model in thinking about how to address incorporation of synthetic  
355 biology.

356 Practical discussions between the two communities are likely to be more productive  
357 than abstract discussions; real problems can be presented and then the alternative  
358 approaches to dealing with them through traditional and synthetic biology can be  
359 evaluated. Here we recommend some approaches and topics to ensure a full and  
360 thorough appraisal of the alternatives.

361 i) The problem of containment of modified organisms is a critical one for biodiversity  
362 conservation (although it is also relevant in other fields). Existing categories of  
363 'laboratory' and 'field' are vague, and may not enable safe use of novel organisms.  
364 There is experience in invasive species that is relevant to novel organisms (Jeschke *et*  
365 *al.* 2013). It may be possible to develop genetic technologies to prevent the  
366 inadvertent escape of synthetic organisms.

367

368 At the same time, some applications, such as in the case of white nose syndrome, or  
369 pollution remediation (see above), require spread, rather than containment of novel  
370 organisms. How should safety considerations be incorporated in cases like this (see  
371 Marris and Jefferson 2013)?

372 ii) Research on synthetic biology is already transdisciplinary. Conservation biology  
373 and (especially) ecology have important additional contributions to make, but so too  
374 do the social sciences and those who work on economies and societies. Debates  
375 about marginalisation and the 'end of pipe' position of social enquiry, leading to poor  
376 outcomes) are critically important here. Work on values held by civil society across  
377 groups and nations needs to be a particular focus (Dietz 2012). The synthetic biology  
378 community may have learned some lessons from fields such as nanotechnology and  
379 genomics in being open to public debate and bringing in social science analyses.

380 iii) Applications of synthetic biology to conservation need to be compared on a range  
381 of metrics, at the very least including monetary costs of making the intervention,  
382 biodiversity benefits, readiness (is the approach or technique ready, tested and  
383 validated), and risks (what might be the unintended consequences). Each of these  
384 questions may have further nuances. For example, when considering the costs and  
385 benefits, who pays and who gains? Who or what is at risk, and what is the risk of not



386 doing anything: inaction may be a risk greater than that of taking action without full  
387 knowledge of the consequences.

388 When considering the risks of applying synthetic biology approaches to conservation  
389 problems it is important to incorporate counterfactual thinking. Use of  
390 counterfactuals requires knowing what outcomes would have looked like in the  
391 absence of the intervention and allows assessment of the degree to which changes in  
392 an outcome can be attributed to the intervention rather than other factors (Ferraro  
393 2009). So in the case of deciding whether or not to apply synthetic biology  
394 approaches to conservation problems we must incorporate into our risk calculus the  
395 existing threats and trajectory if such solutions are not applied.

396

397 iv) The importance of public understanding and perceptions cannot be  
398 underestimated. Indeed, the level of public acceptance of synthetic biology solutions  
399 to conservation will inform policy, funding, and regulatory frameworks. We must  
400 give careful thought to how the issues, including risks and benefits, are framed in the  
401 media and should consider collaborating with seasoned communications experts and  
402 social scientists to listen and learn from other perspectives and to help craft effective  
403 narratives. Today, the major media coverage of synthetic biology and biodiversity is  
404 dominated by sensationalist stories of de-extinction, missing the more nuanced,  
405 positive applications that synthetic biology could offer to conservation challenges,  
406 while largely overlooking the complex governance, ethical and societal issues that  
407 need debate.

408 Public opinion research in the U.S. has shown a mixed reaction to the promise of  
409 synthetic biology (Pauwels 2013). While there is guarded optimism for applications  
410 developed to address medical and environmental needs, survey participants were

411 sceptical about over-hyped futuristic visions. This research, coupled with findings  
412 from the WWViews on Biodiversity project (<http://biodiversity.wwviews.org/>) that  
413 75% of global survey participants are “very concerned” about biodiversity loss,  
414 suggests a public appetite for a rigorously tested synthetic biology solution to a  
415 singularly well-suited conservation challenge.

416 Inclusiveness will be vital as synthetic biology applications to conservation are  
417 seriously considered. Experience with other novel technologies has shown the  
418 advantage of strategic engagement of many elements of society to gauge interest and  
419 concern and to adapt accordingly. Conservation outcomes are usually social goods  
420 and as such need to be understood and valued by society.

421 v) The international regulation of the development and release of modified  
422 organisms needs considerable development that will require much wider competence  
423 in understanding both synthetic biology and ecology on the part of diplomats and  
424 lawyers.

425

426 The time is now for a targeted, strategic, respectful engagement between  
427 conservationists and synthetic biologists. There is even greater need to have this  
428 discussion given the Subsidiary Body of Scientific, Technical and Technological  
429 Assessment’s release for comment of a draft paper looking at the potential positive  
430 and negative impacts on biodiversity of organisms modified by synthetic biology  
431 (<https://www.cbd.int/emerging/>; accessed August 19, 2013). There is a need for new  
432 research, and new collaborations between researchers, civil society and other sectors  
433 of society to address both information gaps and the profound differences in the way  
434 practitioners in the two fields currently think (discussed above). Perhaps modelling  
435 and carefully limited experimental work can point the way toward a better

436 understanding of how to apply synthetic biology to conservation more broadly. Such  
437 experiments could serve to develop personal and disciplinary ties, and if properly  
438 designed could serve as a source of inspiration for adapting to a changing climate.  
439 One idea would be for young practitioners from both fields to be brought together,  
440 perhaps as members of interdisciplinary iGEM teams, to consider novel approaches  
441 and to understand the dimensions of each other's fields. Greater outreach and  
442 information sharing is also needed to inform and influence both fields, and the  
443 publics among whom scientists work. The alternative to greater engagement  
444 between synthetic biology and conservation is ignorance, missed opportunities and  
445 unrecognised and unaddressed risks. In such a scenario, biodiversity will only be the  
446 loser.

447

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