

## Bacterial Cellulose as a Building Material: Identifying opportunities, limitations and challenges

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### Abstract

Bacterial cellulose (BC), a bacteria-synthesised cellulose material, has been intensively researched in biomedical, food and packaging over several decades. However, its application in the built environment (BE) has received less attention. This paper scopes out BC's original properties and the methods used to modify them. This capability to modify the properties of BC offers exciting possibilities for creating building components with low environmental impact, enhanced properties and targeted performance. In its unprocessed hydrogel state, BC yields promising strength and durability. This biodegradable material's production process can be sustained by several waste streams, making it a promising material for the circular economy. When used in composites, BC can act as a scaffold for multiple nanoparticles and polymers, extending its properties to, for example, provide electrical conductivity or antimicrobial surfaces. However, to support BC's application in the BE, the material must be studied at multiple scales, namely nano-, micro- and macro-scale. Standardised tests need to be developed and tailored to measure BC behaviour under complex BE scenarios. Its interaction with humidity, durability and its regenerative properties are identified as potentially fruitful areas for further investigation.

### Introduction

Bacterial cellulose, usually generated as a pure cellulose gelatinous mat, secreted by a genus of bacteria known as *Komagataeibacter*, has garnered increased attention over recent years. Its first appearance in scientific paper dates to 19th century. Since then, traditional modification methods applicable to other cellulosic materials have been tested on BC, such as acetylation: a chemical surface treatment that makes this hydrophilic hydrogel repellent to water [1]. Other modification methods followed, attempting to add additional functionality or to optimise its performance. Hu et al., has made BC membranes that are antimicrobial or resistant to water [2]. Due to its high purity and biocompatibility, BC has been the focus of biomedical research, as a drug delivery substrate or as artificial tissue [3]. It has also been studied as a bio-degradable material source for packaging [4]. To date, the only BE-related application identified for BC has been as a reinforcing admixture for concrete [5].

BC is a product of a distinctive group of bacteria. Its formation, or fermentation, is typically sustained in a liquid nutritious culture medium in the presence of oxygen. The culture medium provides the bacteria with carbon and nitrogen sources, both indispensable to support the producer bacteria's metabolism. Several additives can be used in the culture medium to alter the BC membrane property, embedding extra functionality or interfering with its formation. The cellulose-genesis process will initiate once the required conditions are met, the carbon source will be consumed and extruded into  $\beta$ -1,4-glucan chains, a polysaccharide [6]. During extrusion, the cellulose-producing bacterium cell divides, creating numerous entangled and interconnected branches of polysaccharide chains, forming cellulosic ribbons, approx. 40 – 60 nm wide [7]. With hydroxyl groups interacting with each other and with the water, these ribbons form a 3D meshed polysaccharide network in the form of a hydrogel mat that floats on the medium-to-air interface [8].

This paper draws on an extensive body of BC research. Over 250 sources from both fundamental science, applied science and DIY experimentation were reviewed, with only the most significant sources cited in this abstract. The paper reflects on the demands and requirements of BC as a building material in terms of production efficiency (yield), mechanical properties, durability, aesthetics and

functionality. Chemical substances, treatments and growing methods are reviewed in terms of their utility and efficiency. The paper also looks for a trajectory of research that indicates possible application of BC in the built environment.

### **Intrinsic properties**

The key properties of BC are hydrophilicity, high crystallinity, high purity, excellent biocompatibility and probable UV-resistance. BC hydrogel membrane has a high water holding capacity, thanks to the hydroxyl groups on the entangled cellulose chains [8]. The consistently repeating biosynthetic process also gives BC a high crystallinity, as well as purity [6]. Its high crystallinity indicates higher tensile strength in comparison with other cellulosic materials [9]. Some researchers have suggested that BC is formed by the producer bacteria as a protection mechanism against UV radiation, whilst allowing liquid culture media to access oxygen [8]. Whilst these properties show potential for a range of applications in the built environment, a deeper understanding of both BC properties and the functional requirements of different building components is required to identify beneficial applications. In terms of the tensile strength and elastic modulus of BC, there is considerable variation, across scientific papers due to the varied nature of BC and means of testing. For example, following some simple loading experiments Cazón et al, record them as 20 MPa and 1GPa respectively [10]; Dayal and Catchmark report the elastic modulus to be around 7.55 MPa [11]; and according to Damsin, an unsterilised wet BC pellicle has an elastic modulus of 25 MPa, compared to 100 MPa for a sterilised, dried BC pellicle [12]. The literature search revealed little data regarding durability against chemical, biological or atmospheric corrosive agents, all of which are present in external BE applications. As a biopolymer, BC is considered to have low resistance to photo-degradation, similar to petrol-chemical-based polymers, which usually exhibit low UV-resistance in the absence of antioxidants or stabilizers [13]. Furthermore, BC mechanical performance, UV resistance and insulative properties are reported to be humidity-sensitive [10].

### **Properties enhanced through modifications**

**In-situ modification methods** can be carried out through selecting producer bacteria, co-culturing, choosing nutritional sources, additives and bioreactors.

The type of **producer bacteria** can influence production efficiency and BC grown form, among them *Komagataeibacter* is the most productive genus, producing long, consistent fibrils in the form of a gelatinous mat [14]. As the core concept of engineered living materials, the producer bacteria can be edited at a genetic level [15] and material microstructural patterns can be generated through a genetic strategy [16]. Levantis, a biodesigner, has proposed editing bacteria in a way that allows their production to be activated by light, enabling localised control of cellulose production, similar to a 3D printer [17]. This method could potentially be used to *grow* BC with complex geometry.

**Co-culturing** is a process whereby multiple microorganisms are hosted in a single culture medium. This method can be used to increase the yield or build in additional functions. It was proved feasible by Liu and Catchmark, who co-cultured *Escherichia coli* to produce a yield-boosting substance for BC producer bacteria [18]. Das et al. have co-cultured BC with photosynthesising microalgae, exploring their symbiotic relationship to fabricate a new type of living biomaterial [19].

Carbon and nitrogen sources are indispensable as **nutrition** and, in many cases, influence the yield and mechanical properties. Some carbon sources can boost the production, such as arabinol [20]. In comparison, lactose and sucrose are less effective [6]. Some are reported to increase mechanical performance, like mannose [21]. An increased fire-resistance can be achieved by using glucose phosphate as carbon source [22]. Typical nitrogen sources include yeast extract and peptone and among them, substances like vitamins and nicotinic acid can increase yield [23]. It should be noted, however, that the use of refined chemicals, involves intensive energy and material input [24].

**Additives** can affect production efficiency, mechanical properties and functionality. Antibiotics, such as nalidixic acid, are reported to interfere with cell division and protein activities, influencing mechanical properties [7]. Some, including agar, can alter the viscosity of the medium, and influence the yield and mechanical properties [25]. Starch can also change the medium viscosity, causing reduced crystallinity and changes in mechanical properties in different water content [26]. Sodium carboxymethyl cellulose can inhibit the formation of nanofibril bundles, changing the material crystallisation and internal stress [27]. Caffeine is reported to stimulate the BC growth, increasing the yield [23]. Vegetable oil is reported to significantly increase the yield and water-holding capacity and potentially the mechanical strength [28]. Metal and metal oxides have been used in the biomedical context to add functions, such as antibacterial [29].

**Bioreactors**, reviewed by Campano et al., are the containers where the BC biosynthesis process occurs. Increasing the air transfer ratio is critical for biodesigners, who often use tray-like containers to produce large BC membranes [30]. Multiple designs of airlift bioreactors have also been proposed [31].

Strategies, such as intermittent feeding, can make use of limited volume to effectively interact with air [32]. Agitation or air-pumping can increase oxygen exchange and the yield at the cost of forming a disrupted BC mass [33]. Plastics such as polyvinylchloride can be used as substrate or scaffold to host BC growth [34].

**Ex-situ methods** involve sterilisation, drying, chemical and mechanical treatment.

Typically the BC hydrogels discussed in the literature are **sterilised** in boiling sodium hydroxide solution, thus disabling its bacterial activity. **Drying** can be achieved using air-convection, heat-press-drying, vacuum-drying and freeze-drying, though properties of BC are subject to change [35].

**Chemical treatment** on the surface or through impregnation has been found to change BC's water-resistance, thermal stability or structure performance and ethylene glycol etc. can alter the BC mechanical properties [12]. For example, BC impregnated with glycerol is reported to develop long-term water resistance [36]. And application of chitosan acetic acid solution allows BC to develop resistance against thermal degradation [37]. Chemical grafting is a common surface treatment to make BC antibacterial, water-repellent or transparent [38]. **Mechanical treatments** can alter physical appearance and form. Dry moulding results in shrinkage [39] and hot pressing alters the physical appearance, making it brittle but stiffer [12]. Grinding and casting BC is commonly used by designers, where BC is first shredded and a chemical binder added, before being added to a mould [40]. Stitching BC components together also appears to be durable enough for use in clothing [36].

### Opportunities and Reflection

BC can be modified at multiple scales and at many stages within the manufacturing process, but to date its behaviour and performance has been investigated in limited contexts. However the growing body of research indicates that BC has characteristics that are conducive to BE applications, in terms of production efficiency (yield), durability, mechanical properties, aesthetics and potential other unique functionalities.

Large scale BC production faces challenges, in terms of energy and material input, when using refined substances to support BC growth. However, research indicates that utilisation of waste streams offer potential nutritional alternatives for BC growth [38]. More data is needed to reveal its durability in outdoor environments, but given its similarity to other polymers, its exterior applications might be evaluated as a trade-off between decomposability and durability. However, it should be noted that when used as a blood vessel substitute, BC is relatively durable with only negligible degradation [41]. Vegetable oil offers an interesting path for further investigation, given its protective nature and ability to boost production and since some types of oil are used as wood stabilisers, this might also inform future weathering strategies [28]. Oil might also turn out to be an interesting method to achieve insulative performance, interfering with BC mesh formation and entrapping air bubbles. BC is likely to exhibit low UV-resistance, a similar challenge faced by many polymers, especially in the absence of antioxidants or stabilizers [13]. Its mechanical performance and UV resistance are also reported to be humidity-sensitive, which is a significant issue for external built environment applications [10]. In addition BC's reaction to water may offer unique strategies to manage water-related aspects. Its mechanical and aesthetic properties are demonstrated through apparel designs [42]. Although exhibiting limited strength and stiffness in its raw form, this can be compensated for by selecting the right nutrition, additives, in-situ and ex-situ composites and treatment. Notably, similar to an elastomer, BC's microstructure can realign to applied load [43]. Without sterilisation, the bacteria are likely to remain alive, maintaining a certain level of self-healing for the material. BC's unique properties, in relation to changes over time and in respect to built environmental context, need further study.

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