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

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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 redesign of existing, natural biological systems for useful purposes" 41 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 incudes food production, new materials and manufacturing, waste processing and 47 water purification, ecological restoration, health (http://www.parliament.uk/mps-48 lords-and-offices/offices/bicameral/post/post-events/future-environmental-49 impacts-of-synthetic-biology/).

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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-56 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 difference and common ground. This paper reflects on our experiences with that 61

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

65 Thinking in the two Fields

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

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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

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

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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 areas112 such as agriculture, healthcare, and energy.

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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.

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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).

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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.

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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

Characterisations are easy to draw, and exceptions (particularly in individual
thoughtful people) are quickly found. Despite this limitation, the oversimplification
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 fromboth 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; <u>http://igem.org/Main_Page</u>), 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.

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

Distinctions between synthetic biology and biotechnology more generally, between
technologies and the issue of how they are controlled and who profits from their use
(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.

As discussed at the meeting, there is the potential for synthetic biology to be used to
reduce the impact of human land use on biodiversity and support ecosystem services.
New technologies based on synthetic biology may be able to reduce the ultimate
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.

3 Potential applications of Synthetic Biology to Conservation

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

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

261 *Restore* - <u>http://longnow.org/revive/</u>), 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.

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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

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

iv) Address problems arising from detrimental patterns of human of production and
consumption (e.g. the consequences of greenhouse gas accumulation and
anthropogenic climate change). Thus, could the physiological adaptation to
relatively acidic ocean waters that is known to have evolved in some species be used
to support adaptation in sensitive species that are now facing the threats posed by
ocean acidification? Ocean temperature and acidity are set on long-term changes
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.

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333 3. Strategies for Finding Common Ground

There is a great need for more careful and inclusive thought about the implications ofsynthetic 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 instigated by participants in synthetic biology. Institutions such as the Woodrow 345 346 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.

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

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

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

ii) Research on synthetic biology is already transdisciplinary. Conservation biology 372 373 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.

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

doing anything: inaction may be a risk greater than that of taking action without fullknowledge 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.

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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 form 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.

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

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

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

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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 practitioners in the two fields currently think (discussed above). Perhaps modelling 434 435 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 publics among whom scientists work. The alternative to greater engagement 443 444 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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