

**Summary Report of the Meeting to Discuss
Data Needs and Testing Methods for Assessing the
Safety of Environmental Introduction of Synthetically
Designed Algae for Biofuel Production**

A Joint Workshop of the Woodrow Wilson Center, the MIT
Program on Emerging Technologies, and the U.S. EPA

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NOTICE

This report was prepared by the Wilson Center and MIT PoET as a general record of discussion from the workshop *Data Needs and Testing Methods for Assessing the Safety of Environmental Introduction of Synthetically Designed Algae for Biofuel Production*. This report captures the main points and highlights of the meeting. It is not a complete record of all details discussed, and it does not interpret or enlarge upon statements made over the course of the meeting that were incomplete or unclear. All included points represent the individual views of meeting participants and should not be viewed as a consensus. Except where specifically noted, no statements in this report represent analyses by or positions of any of the meeting hosts or report authors.

MEETING SUMMARY

During 2011 and 2012, The Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars (Wilson Center) and the MIT Program on Emerging Technologies (PoET) co-hosted multiple workshops studying varying aspects of synthetic biology. Discussions repeatedly illuminated conspicuous data gaps throughout the field, with such uncertainties often significantly impeding forward progress on safety and security discussions. These findings, in combination with an interest by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to more explicitly consider the ramifications of such gaps in the face of future Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) applications, led to the organization of this meeting, *Data Needs and Testing Methods for Assessing the Safety of Environmental Introduction of Synthetically Designed Algae for Biofuel Production*. Co-hosted by the Wilson Center with funding from the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, MIT PoET, and EPA, the meeting was designed to bring together industry, academics, non-governmental organizations, and several agency stakeholders to discuss what the relevant data gaps are—and how they might be addressed—when considering the implications of environmental release of synthetically engineered organisms. For the purposes of considering a tangible concept, the meeting was conducted specifically through the lens of algae engineered to produce biofuels

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Agenda

This workshop provides an opportunity for academia, industry, government, and non-governmental organizations to improve scientific understandings of ecological issues of relevance to evaluation of synthetically designed organisms, and to identify what methods exist or should be developed to assess the safety of a field release regardless of statutory or regulatory mandates. This workshop is one of a series dealing with scientific issues surrounding synthetic biology put on by the Wilson Center and the MIT Program on Emerging Technologies, with the support of the Sloan Foundation and the NSF Synthetic Biology Engineering Research Center. These workshops have assessed risks; identified scientific uncertainty associated with synthetic organisms and their interaction with the environment, and developed research agendas to address some sources of scientific uncertainty.

Session I: Introduction 8:00-8:30

Welcome	David Rejeski, Woodrow Wilson Center
Overview of Schedule	Kenneth Oye, MIT and NSF SynBERC
Self-Introductions	All Participants

Session II: Overview of Current and Emerging Industrial Applications 8:30-10:15

Synthetic Genomics	David Hanselman
Algenol	Pat Ahlm
Sapphire	Yan Poon/Tim Zenk
UCSD	Stephen Mayfield
Agilent Technologies	Stephen Laderman
Discussion:	What are the properties of algae optimized for biofuels production?

Break 10:15 – 10:30

Session III: Overview of Current Review Process 10:30-11:00

EPA perspective	Mark Segal
DOE perspective	Daniel Fishman, Kristen Johnson

Session IV: Previous Workshops - Addressing Data Needs 11:00-11:45

EPA findings from 1990s workshops on biotechnology	Gwen McClung
Wilson Center and MIT findings from previous workshops	Todd Kuiken

Session V. Identification of Ecological Endpoints to be Assessed 11:45-12:00

Lunch 12:00-1:00

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Session V. Identification of Ecological Endpoints to be Assessed 1:00 – 3:00

Defining potential receiving environments (terrestrial, freshwater, marine)

Defining endpoints within these environments

Defining immediate vs. long-term data needs to assess endpoints

Defining minimum data set needed prior to any environmental introduction vs. data set needed for large scale acreage

Panelists: Rex Lowe, Bowling Green University; Bruce Tonn, University of Tennessee; Kent Redford, Archipelago Consulting; Robert Stevenson, Michigan State University; and others.

Break 3:00-3:15

Session VI. Methodology & Protocols 3:15-4:15

Methods/Tools

Instrumentation

Session VII. Wrap-Up 4:15-5:00

Summary of data needs

Summary of instrumentation needs

Identification of areas of uncertainty

Identification of research paths to address uncertainty

List of Acronyms

ASU	Arizona State University
CBI	Confidential Business Information
CWA	Clean Water Act
DARPA	Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic Acid
DOD	Department of Defense
DOE	Department of Energy
EISA	Energy Independence and Security Act
EPA	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
FIFRA	Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act
FISH	Fluorescence <i>In Situ</i> Hybridization
FOIA	Freedom of Information Act
GFP	Green Fluorescent Protein
GM	Genetically Modified
GMO	Genetically Modified Organism
HAB	Harmful Algal Bloom
HGT	Horizontal Gene Transfer
HPLC	High-Performance Liquid Chromatography
JBEI	Joint Bio-Energy Institute
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
NIH	National Institutes of Health
NREL	National Renewable Energy Laboratory
NSF	National Science Foundation
ORNL	Oak Ridge National Laboratory
OPPT	Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics
PBR	Photo-bioreactor
PERF	Petroleum Environmental Research Forum
PNNL	Pacific Northwest National Laboratory
TERA	TSCA Experimental Release Application
TSCA	Toxic Substances Control Act
UCSD	University of California, San Diego
USDA	U.S. Department of Agriculture

1 **Summary of Session II: Overview of Current and Emerging** 2 **Industrial Applications**

3
4 Representatives from Agilent, Algenol, Sapphire Energy, and Synthetic Genomics
5 provided brief updates to inform workshop participants of the present state of the
6 industry. Following, new research findings and possible future collaborations in the
7 development of measurements and standards were presented. In closing, the floor was
8 opened to all participants to discuss the characteristics of a hypothetical “ideal” organism.

9 **Industry Update**

10
11 Industry representatives covered three main areas in their presentations: methods of
12 organism development, approaches to cultivation and containment, and mechanisms for
13 hazard assessment. Several questions were also raised without immediate resolution.

14 *Organism development*

- 15
16
- 17 ■ Researchers aim to first identify organisms naturally displaying desired
18 characteristics, including through conducting bio prospecting ventures in varied
19 environments around the world. Wide-ranging screening has been made possible
20 through metagenomics and high-throughput analysis of promising strains.
 - 21 ■ Follow-on genetic manipulation includes support of natural and directed evolution
22 processes. Active techniques include radiation and pathway engineering.
 - 23 ■ Once organism performance has been tested within the laboratory, the top
24 performing strains are moved on to larger-scale trials (e.g., pond screening). A
25 field-validated strain is one shown to grow robustly in the field and proves
26 capable of cultivation; a production strain is further treated to increase pest
27 tolerance. For example, one company reported taking a production strain,
28 subjecting it to several rounds of mutagenesis, and ultimately finding that the
29 evolved line grew better (noting that the parasitic fungi originally in question
30 continued to grow). Pond crashes were noted as occurring over as short a time as
one to two days.

31 *Cultivation and containment*

- 32
33
- 34 ■ Cultivation and containment methods vary depending on a company’s biofuel
35 production technique. For open pond production, cultivation is akin to farming, as
36 crops must hold up against threats such as pests and weather. For photo bioreactor
(PBR) systems, most external cultivation threats are controllable.
 - 37 ■ Containment methods can be broken out as biological and physical:
 - 38 ○ **Biological.** The hazard assessment process (described in the following
39 section) precedes strain scale-up and aims to eliminate the most overt of
40 biological threats, such as invasiveness and toxicity. One pilot facility is
41 beginning to test the invasiveness of strains in each type of water an
42 escaped organism would encounter prior to reaching the ocean.

- 43 Preliminary findings have seen no evidence of invasiveness, although the
44 screening has only newly begun and the adequacy of the mesocosms has
45 not been verified.
- 46 ○ **Physical.** With PBR systems, physical containment is focused on
47 structural soundness of the PBRs to prevent leaks; concrete pads and
48 earthen berms to prevent spreading should a leak occur; and
49 comprehensive treatment of effluent. One company cited physical
50 containment levels designed to meet 500-year storm threats. For open
51 pond systems, operations proceed under a general assumption of field
52 release. One company noted that while birds and other creatures have been
53 observed along the pond edges, it is only now moving forward in a
54 partnership to develop monitoring tools to better characterize their
55 presence. Finally, one open pond company is currently trialing the use of
56 unlined (soil only) ponds.
 - 57 ■ One company posited that metagenomic analysis could serve as a useful tool for
58 studying an environment prior to release. Citing a study finding significant
59 reductions in species diversity around power plant effluent as compared to in a
60 mangrove swamp, the company noted that receiving waters could be tested for
61 species diversity before, during, and after release as part of the general monitoring
62 process.

63 *Hazard assessment*

- 64
- 65 ■ Once a species has been identified as of interest, a hazard assessment is conducted
66 to ascertain its practicality as a commercial starting point. Several properties are
67 instant disqualifications, including one company citing risk level rankings above
68 Biosafety Level (BL) 1 and another screening through bioinformatics analysis to
69 evaluate the presence of enzymes required to produce known toxins.
 - 70 ○ Multiple presenters noted that the hazard assessment process is regularly
71 stymied by a lack of available information. While much information is
72 available on a select few strains (i.e., those responsible for repeated
73 harmful algal blooms and those already employed in commercial
74 processes), little is available for others. Further, general taxonomy has
75 become increasingly complex as actors have repeatedly shifted between
76 “good” and “bad” groups.
 - 77 ■ One company reported that of approximately 40 high level hazard analyses
78 conducted at the genus level, only a handful have subsequently resulted in strain
79 abandonment.
 - 80 ■ In terms of hazard assessment, one company suggested that there was little value
81 in identifying a strain as “native” or “non-native” based on state-level
82 communications.
 - 83 ■ Post initial strain selection, companies noted performing various types of
84 horizontal gene transfer (HGT) studies prior to advancing strains further.
85 Additionally, beyond the initial bioinformatics analyses, high-performance liquid
86 chromatography (HPLC) is routinely performed to assure toxins are not being
87 produced.
- 88

89 *Other*

90

91 ▪ During the presentations, multiple companies highlighted data and/or knowledge
92 gaps requiring further attention:

93 ○ Additional information on taxonomy is needed, as the data are highly
94 valuable for understanding risks yet are lacking in multiple areas.

95 ○ No good exposure assessment model exists, though it is important and
96 would be useful.

97 ○ Does a well-characterized “bad bug” list exist? For example, a
98 compilation of organisms and parts that should be avoided? One company
99 stressed the importance of companies facilitating a collegial sharing of
100 information so as to better advance the industry as a whole.

101 ○ If a strain is completely non-toxic, should zero release be expected?

102 ○ If an organism displays a three-fold increase in growth rate, what would
103 be the implications upon escape into the wild?

104 ○ If escape results in the replacement of one species by another, would that
105 be considered harming the population in a substantial way?

106 **New Research Developments**

107

108 An algal researcher and product developer presented a brief summary of recent advances
109 in the field. In particular, the participant emphasized the following key areas:

110

111 ▪ Whereas much of the original algal biofuels research focused on freshwater
112 species, such advances are now being tackled with saltwater organisms.

113 ▪ Regulators will need to consider a wide range of products from synthetically
114 engineered algae in the future, as many applications beyond biofuels are
115 advancing toward commercial production. For example, the researcher explained
116 a successful trial algal production of nutrients traditionally found in colostrum.

117 ▪ In developing countries, it is unlikely that products will be able to bear the
118 additional costs associated with production in PBRs; therefore, it should be
119 assumed that applications will be produced in open ponds in such locations.

120 ▪ Presented data displaying the successful incorporation of a synthetically
121 engineered gene into another organism (in this instance, involving sensitivity to
122 high- versus low-light).

123 ▪ Cited research by Susan Golden identifying four traits that successfully decrease
124 grazers.

125

126 **Tools for Developing Methods and Standards**

127

128 A representative from a company specializing in measurement methodologies provided
129 an overview of their technology development process alongside emerging technologies,
130 and highlighted some possible areas for collaboration in the algal field.

131

132 ▪ The representative emphasized the importance of identification of current
133 unknowns and data needs within the industry so as to allow for targeted product

134 development, and noted the utility of public-private partnerships in such
135 endeavors.
136 ■ As examples of current applicable technologies, microarrays—enabling the
137 development of large libraries of sequences as well as for genome partitioning
138 products—and oligo fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH)—allowing high
139 sequence specificity for targeting microbial applications—were described.

140 **Characteristics of an Ideal Organism**

141
142 In a discussion of ideal organism traits from a *production* perspective, workshop
143 participants built off an initially prepared slide highlighting eight broad areas likely to be
144 of focus. Following discussions, clarifications, and some points of debate, the following
145 list was derived (with qualifiers noted):

- 146
- 147 ■ Enhanced photosynthesis
- 148 ■ Enhanced lipid production
- 149 ■ Rapid growth
- 150 ■ Enhanced nutrient uptake, production, or utilization
- 151 ■ Enhanced survival in pond monoculture (e.g., resistant to herbicides, pests, and
152 pathogens)
- 153 ■ Increased tolerance to adverse environments
- 154 ■ Allelopathic [*allelopathy*: the inhibition of growth of one species of plants by
155 chemicals produced by another species]
- 156 ■ Geared toward more cost-effective sections of supply chain
- 157 ■ Genetic malleability, or increased ease of modifying genomes (at least initially to
158 facilitate further strain modification)
- 159

160 The topic of biological containment mechanisms was discussed, though few specifics
161 arose owing to significant knowledge gaps remaining in the area. Additionally,
162 participants debated the merits of ease of organism traceability, though no resolution was
163 reached. Finally, many participants expressed concern that the list was not ideal when
164 considered from the perspective of environmental concerns. However, the participants
165 were reminded that these traits were only being gathered so as to be able to better focus
166 discussions later in the day regarding understanding possible ecological endpoints of
167 modified traits.

168
169

170 **Summary of Session III: Overview of Current Review Process**

171
172 Regulators from the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) discussed how existing
173 rules, laws, and mandates might define the agency’s role in regulating synthetically
174 bioengineered algal biofuels. While a number of different regulatory mandates give EPA
175 potential jurisdiction in this area, none clearly defines EPA’s role or establishes a set of
176 activities and criteria to guide such a role.

177
178 The specific laws that were discussed as potential mandates for EPA regulation of
179 synthetic algal biofuels include the following:

- 180
- 181 ▪ Energy Independence and Security Act (EISA)
- 182 ▪ Toxic Substance Control Act (TSCA)
 - 183 ○ TSCA may apply because “new” microorganisms (depending on how this
 - 184 is defined) can fall under the rubric of “new chemicals,” which TSCA
 - 185 grants EPA jurisdiction over in the context of manufacturing, importation,
 - 186 and research and development for commercial purposes. TSCA would also
 - 187 require the submission of an Experimental Release Application (TERA)
 - 188 60 days prior to the introduction of microorganisms to an uncontained
 - 189 commercial facility.
- 190 ▪ Clean Water Act (CWA)
 - 191 ○ CWA might apply because engineered organisms could be considered
 - 192 “pollutants.”
- 193 ▪ Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA)
 - 194 ○ FIFRA would apply to any disinfectants or pesticides used in the
 - 195 commercial growth process. At present, however, despite the existence of
 - 196 these several potential regulatory mandates, EPA’s role is relatively
 - 197 undefined.

198
199 EPA’s regulatory role in this area will depend substantially upon the novelty of a
200 bioengineered organism. This, in turn, will hinge on what definitions and standards are
201 put in place for synthetic biology and the criteria for determining whether and how
202 genetic modifications lead to an organism possessing “new” characteristics.

203
204 EPA would likely have to expand its assessment capabilities, develop new areas of
205 expertise, and develop new standards in order to keep pace with the current and expected
206 pace of innovation in algal biofuel research, development, and production.

207
208 Representatives from the Department of Energy (DOE) approached the issue of
209 synthetically engineered algae from a very different perspective than EPA. DOE’s
210 mission in this area is driven by the government’s priorities under EISA and other acts in
211 promoting the development of new sources of fuel that can effectively substitute existing
212 fossil fuels. DOE’s primary focus has been to support industry initiatives to promote the

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213 development of new technologies by offering sources of funding, and by partnering with
214 industry to promote more effective research and development approaches.

215

216 In the regulatory area, this consists primarily of DOE offering guidance and assistance to
217 private firms on maneuvering through government regulatory requirements, establishing
218 research and development protocols that best minimize and address regulatory barriers to
219 technological innovation, and cooperating with other U.S. government agencies to
220 facilitate regulatory transparency and compliance.

221

222 DOE has also sponsored more limited work at the national laboratories on developing
223 criteria for the assessment of new synthetic biology applications in the production of
224 algal biofuels. This has consisted primarily of the development of a set of indicators
225 focused on environmental and human safety.

226

227

228 **Summary of Session IV: Previous Workshops – Addressing**
229 **Data Needs**

230

231 The December 2012 workshop is not the first time these topics have been discussed by
232 EPA. In 1994, a three-day workshop was run by EPA that focused on bacteria and fungi,
233 but not algae. As explained Gwen McClung, EPA Office of Pollution Prevention and
234 Toxics (OPPT), Risk Assessment Division, the goal was to work toward developing
235 different testing schemes. Some of the main conclusions from the 1994 report include the
236 fact that TSCA does not have any specific testing requirements. It has specific
237 informational needs, but there is no hard and fast set of rules to acquire these data. This
238 means that regulating a GMO under TSCA is different from regulating it under the
239 Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA), which has specialized,
240 required tests. The 1994 workshop also differentiated between environmental and
241 ecological effects of an organism. Risk assessments should be based on an organism and
242 its respective modifications that could alter its behavior in the environment (exposure x
243 hazard = risk). These tests would be performed in microcosm tests in tier 2. When
244 evaluating a GMO, EPA is limited to focusing on the ecological issues associated with
245 the immediate environment in which the organism is introduced.

1994 Workshop Notes

In 1994, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency’s Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics, Health and Environmental Review Division, Office of Research and Development, and Environment Canada, Commercial Chemicals Evaluation Branch, sponsored a workshop to develop ecological tier testing schemes for genetically engineered microorganisms. There was general agreement that the “potential ecological impacts of microorganisms released into the environment have not been well characterized.” Ecological effects endpoints identified as potential areas of evaluation included:

1. Effects on Primary production
2. Effects on cycling of limiting nutrients
3. Effects on community structure and diversity
4. Effects on community function
5. Trophic level changes / effects on grazers
6. Effects on sensitive species

Based on the discussion, the group of participants developed a tier testing scheme (0-3) to evaluate genetically engineered microorganisms in closed, semi-closed, and open applications. Tier 0 contains preliminary information, taxonomic identification, proposed use, and site characterization. Tier 1 contains initial exposure and hazard assessment components such as persistence, dispersal, pathogenicity, toxicity, and basic ecological effects. Tier 2 addresses additional questions about exposure and hazard from Tier 1 and contained longer term and more complex ecological effects testing. And Tier 3 contains open or limited field tests in the selected environment.

246

247 The 1994 workshop was followed in 1996 by a workshop on testing methods. The goals
248 of this workshop were to identify protocols to test GMOs prior to release and to develop
249 standard operating procedures to guide data collection. Some resulting major questions
250 included:

251

252

1. Is this organism temporary or will it persist in the environment?

253

2. Will there be a recovery in the organism's population after an unknown
254 amount of time?

255

256 These questions were asked nearly 20 years ago. What is still relevant? What additional
257 information is still needed for us to be comfortable releasing microorganisms into the
258 environment?

259

260 More recently, the Wilson Center has hosted workshops on both rE. Coli and
261 cyanobacteria. Some of the major ideas raised during these discussions included
262 considerations of fate and transport of DNA, modeling gene transfer, and understanding
263 the respective time lags involved.

264

265 Findings from the previous workshops highlight the still-existing broad areas of
266 uncertainty in the field. Some of the topics discussed more recently are very similar to
267 topics discussed in the 1990s. Overall, stakeholders must be aware that history will repeat
268 itself if it is not sufficiently studied. It is important to now come up with a clear set of
269 issues that need to be worked out in order to properly test these organisms.

270

271 The system must be thought of in totality as opposed to simply comparing organisms'
272 interactions with one another. There must be objectives and ecological endpoints that are
273 considered. Overall, how can these organisms be tested for the long term? How many
274 "cycles" are needed?

275

276 Arizona State University (ASU) is developing and validating methods that deal with
277 these questions. At least one annual cycle is needed, possibly more. However, these are
278 all context-dependent and if there are more unanswered questions that arise, more data
279 will be needed.

280

281 What about the by-products of these facilities? One industry representative noted that at
282 present, all by-products are returned to the production process. Another stakeholder
283 noted that there is also an algae interagency working group that is currently looking at the
284 use of algae in animal feeds.

285

286

287

288

289

290 **Summary of Session V: Identification of Ecological Endpoints**
291 **to be Assessed**

292

293 This discussion considered immediate and long-term data needs for algae synthetically
294 engineered for biofuels production.

295 **Broad receiving environments: terrestrial, freshwater, marine**

296

- 297 ▪ Relevant questions: What are the options? What do we expect to be coming?
298 Where will facilities be located and what is the effect of location?
- 299 ▪ There are applications in bags, raceways lined and unlined in the desert, and
300 potential applications near waterways.
- 301 ▪ For companies based in deserts, which a number are, early applications will
302 potentially be in the desert.
- 303 ▪ There is a need to take things stepwise to gather information to fill in blanks
304 before proceeding to environments that are more difficult from a knowledge or
305 risk angle; i.e., not jumping right into deploying by the ocean.

306

307 **Identification of locations and environments that participants viewed as**
308 **“good” for deploying the technologies**

309

- 310 ▪ An ideal location may have: water, abundant sunlight, CO₂ from power plants or
311 other sources, nutrients, land.
 - 312 ○ Resource availability is important: Lands must meet certain criteria, such
313 as availability of saline water in sustainable supply. Availability of CO₂ is
314 important: CO₂ is one of the most expensive inputs today. Nutrients are
315 also important (N, P, K).
 - 316 ○ Co-location may be an option. Nutrients and other inputs can be sourced
317 from farming.
 - 318 ○ Pacific Northwest National Lab (PNNL)/National Renewable Energy Lab
319 (NREL)/Argonne have techno economic analysis work on availability of
320 resources, standards, fresh and salt water, specifically for algae. It may
321 provide a framework for making good decisions.
 - 322 ○ An industry member noted that his company is focused on inland
323 solutions, and that coastal applications would involve very different
324 technologies.
- 325 ▪ One good option is land that cannot be used because of former pollution:
 - 326 ○ People at DOE have tried to develop those lands for other renewable
327 energy (e.g. wind, solar).
 - 328 ○ What are issues there compared with a pristine (e.g. desert) site? The
329 polluted site is already polluted.
 - 330 ○ There are also lands that have previously had agricultural activity but are
331 now degraded to the point of no longer being useable for such purposes

- 332 (e.g. salted too much). The environmental effects have already happened.
333 The USDA does not have a program for treating such land.
334 ○ Use of polluted/degraded lands would not satisfy environmental groups,
335 due to concerns about the organisms getting out. The organism would
336 need to be shown to be safe.
- 337 ■ Identification of other examples of sites where algae facilities could be beneficial
338 or less harmful:
 - 339 ○ In Florida, citrus groves are dying near a CO₂ source. There are thousands
340 of unused acres.
 - 341 ○ Some participants noted that water is being removed from the Salton Sea
342 and argued that as the water recedes, dried material will blow to
343 populations and become a medical liability, and thus an algae pond on top
344 of it would be a benefit to mitigate environmental disaster. Some
345 participants representing environmental concerns argued otherwise,
346 particularly if there are endangered species nearby (e.g., pup fish in nearby
347 hot springs).
- 348

349 **Identification of locations and environments that participants viewed as**
350 **“bad” for deploying the technologies, and limitations**

- 351
- 352 ■ Identification of types of locations to be avoided:
 - 353 ○ Algae facilities should avoid collocating with another algae facility, e.g.
354 cultivating algae for fuel production near algae for food or dietary
355 supplement uses. Even if the genes do not integrate, if the food facility
356 tests its pond and finds algae for fuel production, it loses all of its sales for
357 a period of time, until it can prove that there is no more contamination.
358 This is a tort issue and a location question.
 - 359 ○ A “bad” location is near where there is an endangered species, one that is
360 water dependent, or worse, algae dependent. Environmental groups would
361 want to know how the producer would verify no harm done to the
362 endangered species.
 - 363 ■ Identification of other examples of poor sites:
 - 364 ○ A participant identified an “unqualified entrepreneur’s garage” as a worst
365 possible location.
 - 366 ○ A participant identified Minnesota, as an area with many lakes and lower
367 light, as a worst possible location.
 - 368 ■ Identification of location limitations:
 - 369 ○ Land use rules in general act as limitations: Where can one put a hundred
370 thousand square foot facility?
 - 371 ○ Open or semi-open ponds today are limited to areas without extreme cold.
372 Look at where everyone is locating facilities: Arizona, Florida, warm
373 areas. They have to be able to run year round to make it economically
374 feasible. If can make it yield twice as much, only half as much land is
375 needed. NREL and PNNL are conducting a study on locations, overlaying
376 many local conditions.

- 377 ○ There may be international treaty issues, for example: There are ducks
378 regulated by treaty with Canada and Mexico that eat algae. They may
379 want to know whether those ponds are replacing ponds that ducks
380 normally eat.
381

382 **Risks of engineered/synthetic biology vs. natural strains**

- 383
- 384 ▪ If natural strains used for biofuels production are located in areas identified as
385 “problematic,” are the natural and engineered strains so different that alternative
386 conclusions on siting would be reached? Are there things about engineered algae
387 that have stakeholders worried in comparison with natural algae?
 - 388 ○ Natural species are only regulated through land use laws. Now added
389 regulatory/safety constraints are being introduced due to synthetically
390 engineered traits.
 - 391 ○ The natural ones have been reproducing and living there for thousands of
392 years.
 - 393 ▪ Most current-generation algal biofuel strains are generated using directed
394 evolution. Are there concerns about directed evolution strains vs. natural strains?
395 Should directed evolution be added to methods of creation to be concerned about?
 - 396 ○ Some participants argued that yes it should be added; it is not clear how
397 concerned to be about it, but concerns exist. There are concerns about the
398 effects of speeding up the rate of evolution.
 - 399 ○ A participant argued that directed evolution means speeding up one
400 organism in relation to others, so directed evolution could result in a
401 mismatch of competition, by creating an ecological imbalance in how
402 systems react to change.
 - 403 ○ However, another participant argued that directed evolution is a means of
404 finding “the needle in the proverbial haystack”: Making the organism
405 through directed evolution is just easier than finding it naturally.
 - 406 ▪ A participant argued that the idea that humans can make an organism that is better
407 than what nature can produce is false. There are millions of organisms all
408 competing with one another. Humans are the only organism that has outcompeted
409 everything. Whatever humans could do is to benefit people, not provide the
410 organism with a competitive advantage. There is no organism that can outcompete
411 everything. The ones that produce damage are already there, producing harmful
412 algal blooms. One wants to avoid making more of those, and must consider
413 whether an algae that had never been in an environment before will cause
414 perturbances when introduced.
415

416 **Invasiveness, escape, and effects of natural dispersal on risk**

- 417
- 418 ▪ Some participants argued that algae have already been transported everywhere
419 (e.g. by wind) so there is no need for concern about invasion.
 - 420 ○ There are examples of where algae are not as cosmopolitan, but as a rule
421 they tend to be well distributed.

- 422 ○ Some participants noted the uniqueness of the case of using a very
423 localized/endemic algal strain for such applications. Does the potential
424 uniqueness of localized algal strains factor into risk characterizations?
425 Regulators may base a history of being able to use an organism safely on
426 the scientific literature. However, a company’s one submitted paper may
427 be the only scientific literature on that organism. It would have to pass
428 other tests: Could it be grown in a suitable environment, could the
429 molecules of interest be made with it? A localized organism is probably
430 too unique; it could not be grown in different places. Industry would want
431 to find something easier to use. But lacking information, companies would
432 need to study about it. This relates to discussions of the idea that the first-
433 in-class gets more scrutiny.
- 434 ○ Rock snot is an example of a plant exhibiting invasiveness in a new
435 environment. There are more examples of that. A participant noted that
436 rock snot is a naturally occurring species, unlike the engineered algae
437 being discussed. Some participants argued that animals may be less widely
438 distributed, so concern about animal invasives such as cane toads could be
439 different from concerns about widespread organisms such as algal strains.
- 440 ■ Some participants argued that invasion is a concern.
- 441 ○ There are whole algal genera that are common in the southern hemisphere
442 but not found here. Common general ones are everywhere, but more
443 specifically evolved ones are not as widespread. There are some very
444 restricted environments and microorganisms that have not spread
445 everywhere.
- 446 ○ Even if a population of algae is found everywhere, does having a large
447 number of a species in one area change the risk? If there are hundreds of
448 thousands of times more of those algae in ponds than in the surrounding
449 ecosystem, does that affect its ability to survive and affect the ecosystem?
450 One participant argued that it may affect dispersal events, but that if the
451 organism is local, if it could be in that environment then it would be.
- 452 ○ Dispersal events are important. Invasion rate matters regarding turnover of
453 species populations. That problem is occurring now: As climate change
454 occurs, it is opening new environments to different organisms. It is
455 important to think about where the evolutionary constraints are.
- 456 ■ Florida has adopted an Invasiveness Index, first developed by Australia. Is this for
457 consideration of synthetic organisms?
- 458 ■ An algae industry participant noted that they were using advanced technologies to
459 sample and study organisms that cannot be cultured, and are culturing organisms
460 better; this is where further development of tools and instrumentation would be
461 important to understand existing biodiversity.
- 462 ■ Some participants compared synthetic biology to historical domestication of crops
463 and argued that domestication is not the process of making organisms more fit for
464 the environment. Others argued that there are many examples of organisms
465 becoming more environmentally fit and invasive due to domestication, so an
466 analogy with domestication does not suggest that one should not worry about
467 domestic algae.

- 468 ▪ These questions will look different to the environmental community.
469 ▪ Need to consider fitness, genetic stability, and gene transfer.
470

471 **Additional location considerations**

- 472
- 473 ▪ Participants mentioned dispersed production facilities, which people put where
474 they wish.
- 475 ○ The distributed approach includes only environment types already
476 discussed for centralized facilities (cropland, urban, deserts, freshwater,
477 saltwater).
- 478 ○ Distributed systems still have to be big and near adequate infrastructure.
479 They will have oil to be refined, which will need to be piped/trucked, so
480 such facilities will still be located near refineries, with the ability to move
481 oil/fuel to where it can be refined/distributed. They will need to be near
482 existing infrastructure and labor pools to avoid creating a shantytown in
483 the desert.
- 484 ▪ The discussion has dealt with variables one at a time (siting, etc.), but the factors
485 interact; for example, an organism’s intended use may affect the ideal location.
- 486 ○ For example, is making lipids dependent on availability of customers?
487 Should they be grown in urban environments to use available CO₂? How
488 should we separate the variables?
- 489 ○ Techno economic approach to decisions. Social, labor impacts. It comes
490 down to techno economic. It is all economics, particularly in energy,
491 which is a low-margin commodity.
- 492 ▪ A participant argued that the organism should be contained. If it is not contained,
493 the environmental parties would oppose it because of concerns about its getting
494 out, unless the organism was shown to be safe through better testing that was
495 public and not deemed Confidential Business Information (CBI).
- 496 ○ A participant argued that there is a need for a better tool than TSCA for
497 regulating these things.
- 498 ○ A participant stated that testing is not CBI. All testing must be publicly
499 disclosed. EPA has a mechanism for looking at that and making it open
500 under Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) requests.
- 501 ○ Some participants stated that all participants could agree that they were
502 looking for a set of data that shows release is safe.
- 503 ▪ Facilities are now located in Hawaii, China, and other places. They are in places
504 participants have noted as not being ideal, but some are in the “best” locations as
505 well.
- 506 ▪ What if more people were doing this? There was a problem with chemicals
507 because of synergistic effects. No work was done on interaction effects. What if
508 there were lots of GM or synthetic biology organisms out there? How would that
509 affect things and how would it be regulated? Other than foods, assume they are
510 making chemicals or other things that are in EPA’s regulatory space.
- 511 ○ Some argued that such a situation exists for bacteria now, and that an
512 analogy between bacteria and algae is valid because algae from different
513 facilities do not go and mate/cross with each other.

- 514 ○ Some argued that the existing bacteria are in reactors. The potential for
515 interaction there are much less than when everyone is making their own
516 “boutique bugs.” What if there were many Bioprocess algae -type
517 locations, in which one bug was making one product, and another was
518 making another? Would it make a difference? It could be organized as an
519 eco-industrial park, but it could just be co-located.
- 520 ○ Some argued that industry is not going to be making new molecules that
521 have never been seen before, so that type of combinatorial interaction
522 would not take place.
- 523 ▪ A business plan could be to take CO₂ from a highly polluting ethanol facility to
524 make fuels, not using GM plants. Cannot answer the question on what that would
525 mean for possible synergistic effects. A participant stated that what industry is
526 coming up with now is the most efficient way of making an existing industrial
527 product (for now).
- 528 ▪ One could make a species to take advantage of a niche, but more likely as the
529 niche changes, new strains/characteristics develop, e.g. the tar sands produced a
530 new environment, organisms have evolved to take advantage of it. There are
531 many considerations in siting that have nothing to do with these considerations.
532 The cases of dispersal and of evolution to take advantage of a niche are difficult
533 because there is still a lack of understanding of what those endpoints are and how
534 they can be addressed.
- 535 ▪ It is important to be sensitive to variations in the release environment.
- 536 ▪ Siting issues become connected with facility design issues. EPA does consider
537 design of facility in approval.
538

539 **Reductions in organism fitness**

540

541 Assuming the “ideal organism” traits discussed in Session II, participants discussed
542 claims of decreased fitness. What measures or tests would they look for to identify
543 reliable evidence of reduced fitness?

544

- 545 ▪ Experimental data should be obtained to determine how an organism survives in
546 the environment and how it competes against local organisms. For example, one
547 might put the organism into ponds and see how it survives, or put algae into
548 samples from nearby water and see how they do. It is important to include
549 markers to be able to track the organism.
- 550 ▪ One may also create microcosms and test fitness. These are not expensive, and are
551 doable.
- 552 ▪ Genetic stability: What if the organism loses a trait that had lessened its fitness?
553 ○ Dependent on method. In vitro is point mutation, so it will drift
554 immediately back when the selection pressure is relieved. If one does a
555 stable transfer, then the genes are more stable. So methods affect stability.
556 Process becomes important.
- 557 ○ Reversion data exist, but are just never seen as worth publishing?

- 558 ○ With drug resistance experiments, as long as the selective pressure
559 remains, only the ones that survive continue. GFP (green fluorescent
560 protein) has existed forever.
- 561 ○ It would be valuable to test the degree to which traits shed. For example,
562 tests conducted with plants and stack traits, but used to test one-by-one.
563 Tests are only as valuable as the settings acknowledged. How to design
564 tests for this? To check stability of attributes? How to test for hazard and
565 likelihood?
- 566 ▪ Bloom algae are rapid reproducers, strong against grazers; they accumulate, and
567 then form harmful algal blooms.
- 568 ▪ A participant suggested that lessons may be learned from earlier soil
569 microbiology: When rhizobia were first being introduced, everyone said that they
570 would die out rapidly in the soil. Later, someone planted sensitive legumes in the
571 area where the rhizobia could no longer be found, and found them a decade after
572 they had disappeared. Similar studies were conducted in Oregon and there too, it
573 was found that organisms can be undetectable until the perfect conditions arise.
- 574 ○ For algae, do the organisms die or do they just become undetectable?
575 ○ A participant stated that algae do form spores. Large proportions of algae
576 are rare and become abundant only once in a while.
577 ○ How would the knowledge gained about rhizobia have changed the risk
578 assessment decision in that case? A participant argued that the situation
579 with rhizobia had been anticipated, but that the question at the time was
580 what the hazard consequences are, and stated that risk assessments for
581 algae would be approached in the same way.
582

583 **Considerations of horizontal gene transfer (HGT)**

- 584
- 585 ▪ To put this in context, the question has been do they survive or not, but the real
586 question needs to include a time variable. How many generations? 50? 100? Some
587 participants argued that it should be assumed that the organism will survive long
588 enough to transfer. Much more is known for cyanobacteria, but data are still
589 needed for eukaryotic gene transfer.
- 590 ▪ There has been some indication of rates and environment, but it would be good to
591 know information specific to eukaryotic algae. How do they work, and are there
592 appropriate recipients out there? This is an information gap that requires more
593 data.
- 594 ○ Dick Sayre’s paper suggests there may be more transfer than expected, but
595 there has been much less sequencing. Data are expected to come out
596 within the next year or so; the extent of transfer has not been seen yet, just
597 because not enough sequencing has been done yet.
- 598 ○ One company showed no HGT against local organisms. Is that useful?
599 Should companies be conducting such studies?
- 600 ○ One reference is looking at gene transfer between alga and viruses. Is this
601 really rare, or does it require further study?
- 602 ▪ What is the significance of a high probability of naturally occurring transfer? How
603 much has changed, how unique is the gene? Not all genes require further study;

604 how should it be determined which do? Transfer is not always hazardous, so the
605 consequences of transfer need to be known. How much transfer is too much?
606 Some participants argued that the limit cannot be kept to zero. Some organisms
607 will take anything (e.g., rotifers take on everything they eat), some will not. There
608 is a lack of sufficient data.
609

610 **Who should be performing the needed studies and how should data be made**
611 **available?**
612

- 613 ▪ Models for who funds and who performs studies:
 - 614 ○ Some participants argued that it is the role of government to perform these
615 basic science studies. There are many experts in these areas, so the
616 government should spend some of its basic research dollars on this.
617 Private companies doing this research are always seen in a tainted light.
618 The companies want to know what tests to do and they do not want to
619 wait.
 - 620 ○ Petroleum Environmental Research Forum (PERF) model: a number of
621 petroleum companies have the same questions, so they pool money, DOE
622 matches (-ish), then national labs do the research and publish the answers.
623 Some proprietary data are kept confidential, but at least the answers
624 become available, and everyone benefits.
 - 625 ○ National Institutes of Health (NIH) model: “we fund, you publish, we post
626 findings and data.” Some participants stated that this is the type of model
627 they would like to see.
- 628 ▪ Many questions are being explored, but by proprietary entities. Who owns the
629 data and how public are they? If they are not presently available, how can they be
630 made public?
 - 631 ○ A participant FOIA’d DOE, and some labs gave everything while others
632 kept nearly everything confidential. The participant argued that the agency
633 needs a clear policy. The Department of Defense, on the other hand, gave
634 lots of information (the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency
635 (DARPA), however, is entirely secret).
 - 636 ○ CBI and protecting firms, vs. protecting the public interest; is this a
637 “collective interest free-rider problem”? Without scrutiny, is trust lost?
 - 638 ○ A biofuels industry member asked other participants what information
639 they would like to see. Participants responded that they would like to see
640 data from studies, and to know where variables were modified and how,
641 etc.
 - 642 ○ In pharmaceuticals, the European Union has shifted to public dossiers.
 - 643 ○ Floating around Congress are revisions to TSCA that put more of a burden
644 on the submitter for why their data should be confidential. How that will
645 play out is unknown.

646
647

648 **Summary of Session VI: Methodology and Protocols**

649
650 Participants were asked to discuss what kind of advances in instrumentation and
651 measurement methods might be required to evaluate the potential or actual environmental
652 impact of GM algae. The discussion focused on four areas: mesocosm experiments, ways
653 of measuring genetic stability and gene transfer, the need for data on a “base set” of
654 organisms, and the need for modeling, validation, and reproduction of all experiments.
655 Many participants repeatedly emphasized the need for cooperation, data sharing, and
656 replication/parallelization of experiments between industrial, government, and academic
657 labs.

658 659 **1. Technical Aspects of Mesocosm Experiments**

660 The first question is the choice of which environments to simulate. Sterile water is
661 not a representative environment, although it could be used in a control
662 experiment. Participants emphasized the need to choose a representative sample
663 of the environments that an escaping organism is most likely to encounter near the
664 site of cultivation. Although earlier discussions of land-use and siting focused on
665 polluted and degraded land, one participant described a practice of choosing to
666 sample healthy local environments, rather than those already perturbed by human
667 activity.

668
669 Self-contained mesocosms must be technically sophisticated enough to accurately
670 simulate the natural environment. They must include diurnal variation of
671 conditions, water flow, and replenishment of resources, and should not allow
672 unnatural chemical buildup. Any mesocosm experiment should be run long
673 enough to be meaningful (possibly as long as multiple years). The appropriate
674 duration of an experiment will depend on the effect being studied.

675
676 There is great desire for validated, standardized mesocosms; one participant said,
677 “I’ll buy a dozen of those reactors if it’ll help me standardize.” There is an
678 existing field of mesocosm studies, but its methods and apparatuses may need to
679 be modified to fit the needs of algae researchers. ORNL has developed flow-
680 through systems that are germane to mesocosm development. Existing and
681 proposed test bed facilities should be built with an eye to scaling up from test-tube
682 to microcosm to mesocosm experiments. JBEI reportedly has a full range of
683 production models (labs, greenhouses, open ponds).

684 685 **2. Measuring Genetic Stability and Gene Transfer**

686 Several participants stated that as the study of horizontal gene transfer (HGT) has
687 advanced, researchers have found that far more HGT is taking place than was
688 previously thought. This is due partly, but not wholly, to improvements in
689 sequencing and metagenomics techniques. There are good data on transfer
690 between bacteria, but not for eukaryotes. It is now known that gene transfer can

691 cross kingdoms. Thus, there is a great need to narrow the search space. It is
692 infeasible to do pairwise HGT tests of all organisms in the environment.
693 With current methods, researchers can establish whether or not HGT took place,
694 but there is currently no way to predict whether one organism will transfer genes
695 to another. Given the large amount of HGT already occurring in nature,
696 experimenters must also consider exactly which genes are being transferred. If a
697 particular HGT event would have occurred in nature even without human
698 intervention, then that event may not be of concern if it occurs due to a GMO.
699 Presumably, novel/engineered genes are of greater concern than naturally
700 occurring ones, but not all novel genes are equally problematic.

701
702 The stability of genes introduced into an organism is often tested by growing the
703 organism for several generations without selection pressure for those genes, and
704 seeing if the genes are retained. The stability of an introduced gene depends
705 strongly on the method by which it was introduced. Plasmids are lost relatively
706 rapidly, while genes inserted by chromosomal integration are far more stable; one
707 participant cited stability of up to “decades in the lab.” Chromosomally integrated
708 genes are not perfectly stable forever, but it would be difficult to detect reversion
709 events due to their rarity. The current EPA regulatory approach does take into
710 account the method of insertion of genes, and treats plasmids differently than
711 genes integrated into the chromosome.

712
713 Several participants stated that the group attending the current workshop did not
714 have all the necessary expertise to have a comprehensive discussion on the topic
715 of genetic stability. They suggested holding another workshop with evolutionary
716 biologists, specifically to address this question, and named some potential
717 attendees.

718 719 3. A “Base Set” of Organisms

720 The published literature on algae is very thin. Most potential commercial biofuel
721 organisms have not been thoroughly studied in a way that addresses the concerns
722 brought up at this workshop. A few food-relevant algae, such as Spirulina, have
723 been so studied, but they may not be suitable analogues for biofuel-producing
724 algae. One participant called attention to ORNL’s extensive study of vascular
725 plants for bioenergy applications in which the group examined hundreds of
726 species in cooperation with USDA and others. The participant suggested that the
727 algae community could do similarly wide-ranging studies.

728
729 Many participants agreed that it would be useful to conduct comprehensive
730 studies on a “base set” of algae species, evaluating their safety in specific
731 environments. The establishment of this “base set” could go hand-in-hand with
732 the earlier suggestion of establishing a “bad bug list” of organisms to avoid using.
733 Members of the base set could be considered as analogues when evaluating a
734 novel GMO similar to one in the base set. The eventual goal would be to make the
735 leap from specific conclusions like “organism X causes harmful outcome Y in

736 environment Z,” to general statements like “engineered feature A will likely
737 present problems, and feature B will not.”

738

739 One participant proposed a basic experiment: take a wild-type strain, modify it to
740 include green fluorescent protein (GFP) or to be traceable in some other way, and
741 release it into the environment. (This strain would be relatively safe to release, but
742 would still require a TERA.) Experiments like this one would be part of the “base
743 set” species evaluations, but this particular experiment would only be a starting
744 point.

745

746 **4. Experimental Design / Need for Modeling, Validation, and Reproducibility**

747 Measurement criteria should be defined ahead of time, and include consideration
748 of factors like how long the experiment must be run. In every case, the
749 experimenters must decide: what precisely is the effect of interest, and how long
750 must they wait for it to occur? For example, the concept of evolutionary fitness
751 includes much more than “yes, the organism survived” or “no, it did not survive.”
752 It also includes the relative growth/success of different species, and their prowess
753 at nutrient utilization.

754

755 Mesocosm experiments need to be extensively replicated, and parallelized
756 between different laboratories – academic, industrial, and governmental. This
757 point was made repeatedly by multiple participants, one of whom told an anecdote
758 about losing an entire summer’s worth of data from open mesocosms in Lake Erie
759 because a great blue heron defecated in one replicate and not in another.

760

761 Once mathematical models have reached an adequate level of sophistication, they
762 could help ease the burden of replication. Models and replicable analyses would
763 also help experimenters plan their measurements, controls, and duration of testing.
764 Besides the inherent usefulness of models, as one participant noted, the algae
765 community needs to reach the level of sophistication needed to produce relevant
766 models in order for anyone to have confidence in the results of their experiments,
767 whether virtual or physical.

768

769 Both models and physical experiments must always be validated against field
770 observations. Although comparison between a mesocosm and a natural stream is
771 the first step of validation, the community must decide on specific validation
772 criteria beyond “it seems similar to nature.” One proposed experiment was to see
773 if natural environments and self-contained mesocosms react similarly to the
774 introduction of a “somewhat exotic,” but non-GM, organism. Following this
775 experiment, a GMO could be introduced to the mesocosm, and its effects
776 extrapolated to nature.

777

778 Participants also mentioned the possibility of genetic manipulation having unintended
779 side effects. Metabolic networks are highly complex and redundant, and a modification to
780 one gene may change the behavior of many others, and/or have biotrophic effects. In
781 general, EPA expects applicants to know what changes they have made in a GMO

782 relative to the parent organism, but these side effects present a difficulty. Applicants
783 might address this difficulty with a comprehensive set of gene microarrays, protein,
784 RNA, and metabolite measurements. TSCA requires applicants to submit all data relevant
785 to health or environmental consequences, and does not set a standard list of testing
786 procedures. This allows EPA to be flexible, in case an applicant presents a highly unusual
787 organism.

788

789 Finally, one participant asked whether the current discussion was taking place within an
790 appropriate conceptual framework. There was some agreement that a good framework is
791 needed for any such discussion in order distinguish which questions are most important
792 and why. Several potentially applicable frameworks already exist:

- 793 ▪ The TSCA statute and regulations themselves constitute a framework, but it may
794 not be the most useful one and should certainly not be the only one used.
- 795 ▪ The EPA is using a comprehensive environmental assessment framework for the
796 evaluation of nanomaterials, and a prior Wilson Center workshop on synthetic
797 biology used this same framework to guide the conversation on possible hazards
798 from cyanobacteria.
- 799 ▪ There also exist tools specific to the field of risk assessment, such as fault trees,
800 which could provide guidance.

801

802 **Summary of Session VII: Wrap-Up**

803

804 To close the workshop, participants were asked: “If you had \$100 million to spend on
805 research to address the questions raised today, how would you allocate it?” Answers
806 focused on three areas: meta and organizational efforts; basic algal studies; and specific
807 experiments to do or technologies to develop.

808

809 **Meta / Organizational Goals**

- 810 ▪ Carefully planning the studies to be done, in accordance with an agreed-upon set
811 of priorities.
- 812 ▪ Rigorously defining concepts like “fitness”—which has so far been used in a
813 vague way—in terms of measurements, baseline conditions, environmental
814 contexts, safety targets, and best management practices to reach those targets.
- 815 ▪ Performing literature reviews, and examining the work of other countries on other
816 types of GMOs such as fish.
- 817 ▪ Examining algae-farming endeavors from the perspective of social/economic
818 sustainability, as well as environmental sustainability.
- 819 ▪ Supporting education and outreach to ensure that the algal research community
820 serves the public as well as the expert audience.
- 821 ▪ Wrapping up results from across the range of future studies into a coherent body
822 of knowledge.

823

824 **Basic Algal Studies**

- 825 ▪ Studying general algal biology to increase the community’s knowledge and tool-
826 set, ultimately endeavoring to approach the level of characterization currently
827 available for other industrially useful organisms.
- 828 ▪ Establishing environmental reference data on natural algal communities so that in
829 the future it will be apparent if a change has taken place. This could include
830 taking baseline data on natural algae, their effect on the environment, and their
831 natural lipid production. One participant considered whether baseline
832 environmental monitoring should be a condition of DOE awards or other grants
833 for biofuels development.
- 834 ▪ Establishing a “base set” of useful organisms—and accompanying comprehensive
835 characterizations—as well as a list of organisms to avoid using.
- 836 ▪ Studying what role the “base set” organisms play in natural microbial
837 communities in order to know what one might expect to see, or what one should
838 plan to measure, in a mesocosm experiment.
- 839 ▪ Studying the ability of harmful algal blooms (HABs) to produce neurotoxins, and
840 the ability of engineered organisms to do the same; sequencing genomes to look
841 for toxin-producing or allergenic gene products.

842

843 **Specific Experiments or Developments**

- 844 ▪ Developing replicable and realistic mesocosm apparatuses and protocols for use.
- 845 ▪ Modeling relevant phenomena that are already well understood, such as the
846 airflow over a typical open-pond facility.
- 847 ▪ Taking an engineered organism, knocking out the inserted genes one at a time,

- 848 and measuring how well it competes in a natural population to simulate the effect
849 of genetic instability.
- 850 ■ Studying GMOs in the context of “non-natural” environments, such as depleted
851 farmland, and the combined effect of farming/depletion and algae culture over
852 time.
 - 853 ■ Expanding previous work on probabilities of various adverse outcomes to
854 incorporate the full range of spatial and temporal scales. (See: Martin Alexander,
855 “Ecological consequences: reducing the uncertainties”. *Issues in Science and*
856 *Technology* 1:57-67 (1985).)
- 857