

# Can synthetic biology really empower microbial biopolymers as efficient food contact materials?

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1	Can synthetic biology really empower microbial biopolymers as efficient food contact
2	materials?
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### 21 Abstract

This opinion paper explores the potential of integrating synthetic biology into microbial 22 polymers to produce tailored biopolymers for food packaging applications. Synthetic biology 23 24 has shown precise control over metabolic machinery, enabling the manipulation of pathways involved in microbial biopolymer production. However, there is limited literature available 25 on utilizing the same pathways for designing tailored biopolymers suitable as efficient food 26 contact materials. This is primarily due to the regulatory status of microbial polymers as 27 determined by food safety authorities. One possible solution is to leverage synthetic biology 28 29 tools by adopting safety assessment protocols established within the regulatory framework. By considering the advantages of synthetic biology-driven microbial polymers, this 30 31 innovative approach has the potential, not only to replace conventional methods but also to 32 provide additional value by addressing environmental concerns associated with traditional food packaging. 33

Keywords: synthetic biology; tailored biopolymers; microbial polymers; food packaging;
 microbial cell factories

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## 43 **1. Introduction**

Recently, there has been a growing interest among researchers in exploring biopolymers as 44 green and sustainable alternatives to synthetic materials for the development of active 45 packaging (Sid et al., 2021). Moreover, in the past decade, considerable research efforts have 46 been dedicated to utilizing microbial sources to obtain biobased materials, thanks to their 47 48 biocompatibility, biodegradability, and excellent barrier properties stemming from their inherent hydrophobic nature (Salgado et al., 2021). However, their use in food packaging was 49 limited due to their poor thermo-mechanical properties (Battegazzore et al., 2019). To address 50 51 this limitation, the concept of polymer tunability was introduced, enabling the production of polymers with tailored design for specific applications. This involves modifying the chemical 52 structure of the polymer (Hazer and Steinbüchel, 2007), incorporating additives into the 53 54 polymer matrix (Battegazzore et al., 2019; Carboué et al., 2021; Khan et al., 2023), or using new technologies such as electrospinning or 3D printing to develop tailored polymers (Zhao 55 et al., 2021; Zieliński et al., 2023). Still, these methodologies face challenges such as 56 precision control and scalability (NRC, 2015). This is where synthetic biology comes into 57 play. 58

Synthetic biology is a multidisciplinary field that offers a powerful toolset to design new 59 biological systems with enhanced functionalities. Notably, synthetic biology tools such as 60 61 CRISPR-cas9 (a gene-editing tool), promoter engineering, and metabolic modeling, have been effectively used to improve the production of microbial polymers for biomedical 62 applications (Katz et al., 2018). These approaches can also be employed to develop tailored 63 64 biopolymers with enhanced functionalities to cater to the needs of the food packaging industry. Several strategies have been used to produce higher amounts of polymer from 65 microbial sources, such as modifying metabolic pathways and altering the PHA 66 (Polyhydroxyalkanoates) synthase enzyme (Gahlawat et al., 2020). Similar strategies were 67

68 explored to improve thermo-mechanical properties by manipulating *phaC* gene sequence to achieve desired expression for polymerization (Tanadchangsaeng and Yu, 2012). Despite their 69 many advantages i.e., sustainable production, tailored properties, and cost-effectiveness the 70 regulatory status of certain microbial polymers (e.g., alginates and exopolysaccharides from 71 gram-negative bacteria) derived from synthetic biology is a major hurdle in using these 72 materials as active packaging (Hinchliffe et al., 2021) (Fig 1). Thus, the aim of this opinion 73 74 herein is to answer the critical question: Can synthetic biology really empower microbial biopolymers as efficient food contact materials by controlling polymer tunability? 75





Figure 1. Manipulation of microbial cell factories for tailored biopolymer production and itsstatus.

## 80 2. Using synthetic biology as a tool for microbial biopolymers production

Recently, synthetic biologists have embraced genetic engineering approaches such as modulating DNA fragments and employing computational models to engineer living organisms efficiently (Tang et al., 2021). This involves controlling microbial cellular behavior by using advanced synthetic biology methods, including the construction of metabolic pathways to engineer biological circuits, rapid assembly of DNA fragments, and the utilization of CRISPR/Cas systems for gene deletion, insertion, and transcription control (McCarty and Ledesma, 2019). Nonetheless, the focus of these technologies has been limited to obtaining functional biomaterials with applications such as medicines, biofuels, inexpensive carbon sources, and nutraceuticals (Ghosh et al., 2021). Nevertheless, these techniques hold the potential for producing tunable microbial biopolymers as efficient food contact materials (An et al., 2022).

Over the past decade, the combined knowledge of systems biology, synthetic biology, and biosynthesis of microbial polymers has revolutionized the design of microbial cell factories for enhanced production of functional biomaterials, including poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-*co*-4hydroxybutyrate) (P(3HB-*co*-4HB)), poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-*co*-3-hydroxyvalerate) (P(3HB*co*-3HV)) and poly(3-hydroxybutyrate) (P(3HB)) (Fig 2). Consequently, the prospect of producing these novel materials with adjustable thermo-mechanical and barrier properties appears achievable (Moradali and Rehm, 2020).



Figure 2. Synthesis of some novel PHAs i.e., P(3HB-*co*-4HB) and P(3HB-*co*-3HV)
polymers with *phaC* as a key player in their production (adopted from Lv et al., 2015 and
Chen et al., 2019).

## 103 2.1 Regulatory pathways for controlling biosynthesis of microbial biopolymers

The biosynthesis of biopolymers such as cellulose, alginate, polyphosphate, and PHAs in 104 microbes is controlled by regulatory pathways that facilitate their production and response to 105 environmental signals. These pathways regulate gene expression through transcription level 106 (conversion of DNA to RNA) and post-translational level (modification occurring after 107 protein synthesis) modifications. Microbes can precisely control the synthesis of biopolymers 108 in response to changes in their environments. Transcription factors activate promoters that 109 110 influence the expression of genes responsible for the bioproduction of functional materials 111 such as P(3HB) and P(3HB-co-4HB) (Babele et al., 2019). By controlling the expression of 112 these genes providing a specific external stimulus (temperature-sensitive or promoters/circuits, chemical inducers, pH levels, nutrient availability, light, and quorum 113 sensing) we can exercise control over biomaterial production (Fig 2). 114

115 While the mechanism of bacterial exopolysaccharides, a key component of virulence, is extensively studied, limited information is available on using similar pathways to obtain 116 functional biomaterial from non-pathogenic species (Hay et al., 2014). Several proof-of-117 concept studies have demonstrated the potential of genetic engineering approaches to 118 enhance biopolymer production. Another example of using a combination of genetic 119 engineering approaches to get enhanced biopolymer production was reported by Dumon et al. 120 121 (2001). The authors enhanced fucosylated oligosaccharide production by redirecting cellular carbon and energy influx towards biomaterial production, rather than biomass/metabolic 122 byproducts. This was achieved by identifying and downregulating competing pathways that 123

led to the formation of unwanted byproducts. Sim et al. (1997) reported a reduced molecular
weight (1.3×106 Da) for the produced polyhydroxy butyrate (PHB) polymer by genetically
modified E. coli in comparison to the native E. coli (4.0×106 Da) by modulating PHA
synthase activity which indeed can impact the structural and mechanical properties of the
polymeric materials (Tanadchangsaeng and Yu, 2012). Despite the potential of utilizing
microbial biopolymers as food contact materials, exploration of these avenues remains
limited in literature.

## 131 2.2 Microbial self-assembly structures as packaging material

Bacterial self-assembly structures (e.g., fimbriae, pili, and flagella) are used for adhesion in 132 response to chemical and physical stimuli especially during pathogenesis, due to this unique 133 134 property they hold promise for producing nanomaterials for their application in packaging. 135 The precise arrangement of protein building blocks in self-assembling structures such as flagella, high surface area to volume ratio, and their polymorphic nature can be useful in the 136 production of nanostructures for novel food packaging. These nanostructures can transform 137 the polymer matrix in such a way that they restrict polymer chain mobility, thereby 138 improving tensile properties. Additionally, they create convoluted pathways for gas/water 139 140 molecule transport and improve the barrier properties of the packaging material (Abbineni and Mao, 2010; Bera et al., 2019). Chen et al. (2014) reported a dual-functioning Escherichia 141 coli strain capable of acting as a material synthesis platform and producing functional 142 material i.e., amyloid. This work prompted further investigations, including the improvement 143 of the tunability of the above system by using three-dimensional (3D) printing (Cao et al., 144 2017). The utilization of 3D patterned curli fibrils has demonstrated the capability to 145 assemble inorganic materials upon external stimuli, resulting in the development of structural 146 materials with well-defined physiochemical properties. 147

**Table 1.** Comparison of methods available for tailored biopolymer design.

Method	Pros	Cons	Challenges	References
Synthetic biology	<ul> <li>Precise control over material production and properties.</li> <li>Utilizing renewable resources and reducing environmental impact.</li> <li>Cost-effective once established.</li> <li>Biodegradation control.</li> </ul>	- Long developmental phase for strain engineering and its optimization.	-Regulatory constraints	Anderson et al., 2018
Chemical modification	<ul> <li>Using simple chemical reactions to make tailored biopolymers.</li> <li>Availability of (green) chemical modification techniques.</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Chemical reactions may use toxic, non-food grade materials.</li> <li>Loss of biopolymer inherent property.</li> </ul>	- Impact on biocompatibility and biodegradability.	El Itawi et al., 2022; Fadlallah et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2015
Using additives	<ul> <li>Easy processing method and incorporation for desired properties.</li> <li>Wide range of additives catering to fine-tuning the material properties.</li> <li>Modulating material properties based on additive concentration.</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Limited control over additive distribution in the polymer matrix.</li> <li>Migration of additives into foods.</li> <li>Compatibility issues between polymer and additive.</li> </ul>	- Additive homogeneity and stability.	Samyn and Taheri, 2020
3D printing	<ul> <li>Reduced material waste due to precision.</li> <li>Manufacturing flexibility.</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Difficult</li> <li>optimization of</li> <li>parameters for a</li> <li>specific polymer.</li> <li>High cost.</li> </ul>	- Inconsistent mechanical properties.	
Electrospinning	<ul> <li>Good for producing nanomaterials with high surface area.</li> <li>Enhanced barrier and mechanical properties.</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Complex setup and control over method is difficult.</li> <li>Difficulty in handling nanofibers and mats.</li> </ul>	- Scaling up at industrial level.	Romero- Araya et al., 2021

## **3. Tailored biopolymer design for sustainable food packaging**

151 Within the existing literature, three main methodologies have been employed to produce tailored biopolymers for food packaging applications. These methods involve: (1) modifying 152 the polymer itself by chemical modifications such as esterification, etherification, 153 154 transesterification, ring-opening polymerization, and oxidation, (2) incorporating additives such as antioxidants, antimicrobials, or plasticizers through casting or extrusion processes, 155 156 and (3) using techniques such as 3D printing by creating 3-dimensional objects by depositing 157 successive polymer layer to have more control on structure, and electrospinning which aligns polymer chains along fiber axis (Fraeye et al., 2010; Ghosal et al., 2018; Munteanu and 158 Vasille, 2019; Shahbazi and Jäger, 2020). Still, these approaches have several 159 limitations/disadvantages when compared to synthetic precision biology (Table 1). For 160 instance, synthetic biology approaches allow precise and targeted modifications of the 161 162 microbes at the genetic level to produce polymers with tunable properties. Genetic 163 engineering tools to precisely engineer the genetic makeup of the microorganism in such a way that not only optimizes production but also enhance physicochemical properties of the 164 165 resultant materials since that is not easily achievable by tunning methods i.e., 3D printing and electrospinning. Synthetic biology can provide a high level of cost-effectiveness, 166 customization, and adaptability to produce tailored biopolymers for scalable production. For 167 instance, synthetic biology has been shown to affect the microstructure of bacterial 168 cellulose/pullulan composites by decreasing the space between polymer fibers due to 169 170 hydrogen bonding between polar groups of cellulose and pullulan which led to significantly higher tensile properties (tensile strength: 27 MPa) as compared to control cellulose materials 171 (16 MPa) (Zhantlessova et al., 2022). Even though the authors did not observe the barrier 172 173 properties of these materials, microstructure analysis indicates possibly higher barrier characteristics of these composite polymer materials than cellulose. Fang et al. (2015) 174 similarly produced a cellulose copolymer by using genetic engineering and highlighted that 175

176 cellulose copolymer had a more compact structure than native cellulose which also impacted the surface hydrophobicity of the materials. The contact angle rose significantly from  $25^{\circ}$  to 177 46° for the cellulose copolymer which indicates that cellulose nanofibers can prevent water 178 179 permeation and can act as a food packaging material. Recently, Gahlawat et al. (2020) adequately highlighted the importance of using metabolic engineering strategies, i.e., 180 CRISPR/Cas9 and ribosome-binding site optimization, for high-output and cost-effective 181 182 production of PHAs. However, limited attention has been given to modifying the mechanical and barrier properties of these polymers for food contact applications. Moreover, Li et al. 183 184 (2017) recently targeted phaC gene to get improved PHA production from the overexpression of PHA synthase enzyme, however, no attention was given to utilizing *phaC* gene 185 to get tailored polymer with desired properties. To address this, we suggest altering specific 186 187 amino acid sequences (i.e., replacing glycine with alanine) to get increased polymerization 188 efficiency and non-polarity or introducing additional motifs and domains such as selfassembly peptides and elastin into PHA synthase which can improve the mechanical and 189 190 thermal properties of the films (Fig 3) (Singh et al., 2015). Altering amino acid sequence can broaden the substrate acceptance range of PHA synthase enzyme which can lead to improved 191 192 polymerization efficiency, similar trends can also be observed for improved catalytic activity of the enzyme due to mutation. On the other hand, replacing glycine with alanine in the PHA 193 194 synthase enzyme can lead to a change in the stereochemistry of the polymer thus affecting 195 polymer's properties and crystallinity. Furthermore, altering the substrate specificity of PHA synthase enzyme can redirect the polymerization process towards different monomer 196 substrates, resulting in PHA-based polymers with improved barrier characteristics for food 197 198 packaging applications. Similar concepts can also be applied to other genes, such as *phaZ*, which encodes a depolymerization enzyme. By controlling this gene, we can control the 199 200 polymer degradation rate, however, this requirement is product-specific as far as packaging is

201 concerned (Santos-Beneit et al., 2023). For instance, the gene encoding for phaZ enzyme can be controlled by using promoters that can respond to specific environmental factors i.e., pH. 202 A pH-dependent promoter can upregulate phaZ gene expression when the pH of the 203 surrounding environment or product falls below a certain range. This can allow a pH-204 dependent polymer degradation. This phenomenon can also be used for the release of 205 bioactives from the packaging material when the product displays a pH comparable to 206 207 spoilage conditions, however, in this scenario downregulation of the gene should be considered. 208

209



- Figure 3. Scheme for the increased polymerization efficiency and non-polarity by altering the
- amino acid sequence in PHA synthase.
- 213 *Potential as food contact materials*

214 As discussed in previous sections, limited literature is available on the utilization of microbial biopolymers obtained from synthetic biology as efficient food contact materials. Thus, here 215 we briefly discuss how different additives were used in the literature to modify the structure 216 217 of microbial polymers in such a way that their properties (barrier and mechanical) relevant to food applications were significantly improved. For instance, the addition of essential oils into 218 PHB matrices could lead to reduced interactions between polymer chains; as a result, strong 219 polymer-polymer interactions could be replaced by weaker polymer-oil interactions in the 220 221 intermolecular film network which could lead to 10-30% decrease in tensile strength (TS) 222 and up to 100-200% improvement in elongation at break (EAB) (Mittal et al., 2023; Rech et al., 2021). Contrarily, the addition of nanoparticles (NPs) into the PHA blends could lead to 223 improved tensile properties of the films (up to a certain extent) due to uniform dispersion of 224 225 large surface area NPs which enhanced interfacial adherence and crystallinity between 226 polymer phases through hydrogen bonding (Lan and Sun, 2018; Mittal et al., 2023). On the other hand, the water vapor permeability (WVP) of the microbial biopolymers was also 227 affected by the type of additives used. For instance, the addition of oils into the PHA matrix 228 led to a 225% increase in the WVP of the packaging films (Castro-Mayorga et al., 2017; 229 230 Mittal et al., 2023). The hydrogen bond formation between polymer hydroxyl groups and oxygen atoms of the NPs has been shown to improve the permeability properties (~40%) of 231 232 the materials as compared to the neat ones (Venezia et al., 2023). These properties are 233 essential to utilize microbial biopolymers as food contact materials, for instance, PHB, PHBV, P(3HB-CO-4HB), microalgal exopolysaccharides, riclin, and bacterial cellulose have 234 been utilized to pack a variety of food products like white bread, cheese, shrimp, and fruits 235 236 and vegetables, however, their application of these materials have only been limited to keep the microbial burden below (< 6 Log CFU/g) and to serve as a colorimetric indicator of 237 spoilage as shown in Table 2. More studies needs to be conducted by utilizing synthetic 238

biology to develop food contact materials since most of the existing studies neededpolymer/additive technology to fine tune polymers according to product requirements.

Packaging	Mechanical	Barrier	Food	References
composition	properties	properties	application	
PHB, nanosilica,	TS: 6.5 to 17.3	WVP: 0.30-0.69	Brown bread	Mittal et al.,
and clove oil	Мра	g.mm/m <sup>2</sup> .kPa.day		2023
PHB/PCL,	TS: 6.29-7.49	WVP: 1.05-	Ham	Correa et al.,
organoclay, and	MPa;	2.62×10 <sup>-11</sup> g.s <sup>-</sup>		2017
nisin	EAB: 0.72-3.03	$^{1}.m^{-1}.Pa^{-1}$		
	%			
Poly (3-	TS: 51.8-87.4	WVP: 0.31-0.42	White bread	Sharma et
hydroxybutyrate-	MPa	g.mm/m2.kPa.day		al., 2022
co-4-	EAB: 28.1-40.1			
hydroxybutyrate)	%			
and thyme oil				
PHBV, eugenol,	NA	NA	Cheese, chicken	Requena et
and carvacrol			breast, pumpkin,	al., 2019
			and melon	
Riclin and PVA	TS: 25-60 MPa	WVP: 1.1-2 ×10 <sup>-</sup>	Shrimp	Miao et al.,
	EAB: 5-60 %	<sup>11</sup> g/(m.s.Pa)		2023
Bacterial	TS: 17-26 MPa	NA	Oranges and	Atta et al.,
cellulose and	EAB: 4.77-6.18		tomatoes	2021
silver NPs	%			

**Table 2.** Application of microbial biopolymers on food products

Bacterial	NA	NA	Button	Moradian et
cellulose,			mushroom	al., 2018
pomegranate peel				
extract, green tea				
extract, and				
rosemary extract				

242

Whereas NA= not applicable

## 243 **4. Limitations and future directions**

McCarty and Ledesma (2019) argued that the utilization of synthetic biology in microbial 244 consortia can provide distinct advantages over monocultures in terms of enhanced production 245 of microbial biopolymers (exopolysaccharides) with tunable functional properties. These 246 properties encompass antioxidant and antibacterial properties as microbial consortia can also 247 248 release active metabolites (pyocyanin, lactic acid, and other bacteriocins) (Fouillaud and Dufossé, 2022). This advantage stems from the labor division between different species 249 within the consortium, which allows for a shared metabolic burden and broader metabolic 250 251 capabilities. While this is an interesting prospect, the use of synthetic microbial consortia has inherent limitations. These include the constraint of a limited number of genetically 252 engineered species that can be effectively incorporated into the consortium, the complexity 253 associated with designing and engineering microbial consortia, and their sensitivity to 254 environmental changes which can disrupt the delicate balance within the microbial consortia. 255 256 Concerns regarding GMOs (Genetically Modified Organisms) were also raised by the EU and the USA in the past two decades which can limit the usage of synthetic biology in fine-tuning 257 microbial polymers. Still, the US GMO approval process is less rigorous than the EU and is 258 voluntary in nature. Although, the FDA encourages developers to submit their GMO-based 259 products for pre-market clearance, however, it's not mandatory, while the EU has more 260

261 stringent labeling requirements even if the product contains more than 0.9% GMO content (Anderson and Jackson, 2003; Eriksson et al., 2018). This could be a hurdle in utilizing 262 synthetic biology for developing tunable packaging materials for food contact applications. 263 However, this problem can be resolved by adopting robust safety assessment protocols 264 implemented by manufacturers during microbial polymer production and tunning steps, 265 combined with the establishment of a clear and uniform regulatory framework by relevant 266 authorities. Nonetheless, synthetic biology can provide a way forward to develop smart 267 packaging materials with tunable properties in which materials can respond to changes in the 268 269 food environment (i.e., temperature, pH, and or freshness). For instance, intermolecular bonding between polymeric chains and bioactive can be utilized to effectively release 270 compounds from packaging into the food due to the pH sensitivity of the intermolecular 271 272 bonding as displayed by Zhou et al. (2016).

#### **5.** Conclusions

274 Despite their biodegradable and biocompatible nature, some microbial-based polymers like PHAs suffer from poor thermo-mechanical properties due to their highly crystalline structure. 275 This issue can be effectively addressed by leveraging cutting-edge genetic engineering tools 276 277 to tune their properties specifically for food packaging applications. This approach offers an alternative to costly and traditional modifying the polymer itself, adding additives into the 278 mixture, or using methods such as electrospinning and 3D printing. While the potential of 279 using genetic engineering to produce tailored biopolymers is an un-tapped gold mine, there 280 are some regulatory considerations to overcome. Currently, some microbial-based polymers 281 may not have been Generally Recognized as Safe (GRAS) by the FDA (which mainly 282 depends on the status of the production strain). These factors can limit the full utilization of 283 synthetic biology to enhance microbial biopolymers for innovative food packaging. We 284 believe that adopting robust safety assessments implemented by manufacturers during 285

microbial polymer production (by using advanced chromatographic techniques), combined with the establishment of a clear and uniform regulatory framework by relevant authorities, can address these concerns. This approach will enable the realization of the full potential of using GRAS microbial cell factories as valuable sources for tailored biopolymers, ensuring their safe and innovative utilization in the food packaging industry.

## 291 Conflicts of interest

292 The authors have no conflicts of interest.

## 293 Author contributions

Conceptualization, data curation, writing-original draft, writing-review and editing: MRK;
Conceptualization, management, supervision, writing-original draft, writing-review and
editing: SF; Supervision, writing-review and editing: ET and FA.

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