

The Technology, Opportunities and Challenges of Synthetic Biological Intelligence

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Abstract

Integrating neural cultures developed through synthetic biology methods with digital computing has enabled the early development of Synthetic Biological Intelligence (SBI). Recently key studies have emphasized the advantages of biological neural systems in some information processing tasks. However, neither the technology behind this early development, nor the potential ethical opportunities or challenges, have been explored in detail yet. Here we review the key aspects that facilitate the development of SBI and explore potential applications. Considering these foreseeable use cases, various ethical implications are proposed. Ultimately this work aims to provide a robust framework to structure ethical considerations to ensure that SBI technology can be both researched and applied responsibly. **Keywords:** *Biocomputing, neuroscience, synthetic biology, intelligence, ethics.*

Introduction

Advancements in hardware, software, and synthetic biology (wetware) have resulted in new methods for interacting with *in vitro* biological neural systems. The most advanced of these have sought to embody these neural systems into simulated environments to elicit dynamic goal-directed behavior, referred to as Synthetic Biological Intelligence (SBI)¹. SBI systems can be broadly defined as the result of intentionally synthesizing a combination of biological and silicon substrates *in vitro* for the purpose of goal-directed or otherwise intelligent behavior. SBI is distinct from brain-computer interface (BCI) and similar approaches as it does not involve whole organisms, using only specific biological material, usually neural tissue derived typically through synthetic biology processes, as a biomimetic material within the larger system.

34 It is only relatively recent that the ethics of experimenting with brain tissue has been seriously
35 considered, with the overwhelming focus on cells from a human origin². The majority of these ethical
36 considerations also focus on the generation of 3-dimensional (3D) neural structures generally referred
37 to as “organoids” derived from human stem cells³⁻⁸. Typically, these discussions do not account for
38 the significant variability amongst different organoids or that a continuum exists between simpler
39 monolayers of neural tissue and various assemblies of more complicated organoids. This discourse is
40 further complicated by inconsistencies in terminology and nomenclature, and uncertainties around the
41 ontological and potential moral status of these structures^{5,7-9,10}. Here we outline details of SBI as an
42 emerging technology, along with the foreseeable applications and ethical considerations that may
43 arise. Finally, we propose a pathway for promoting constructive dialogue and adopting an ethical
44 approach that balances potential utility with foreseeable risks of harm and the uncertainty inherent to
45 novel technologies.

46 **The Development of Closed-Loop Systems to Embody *in vitro* Neural Systems**

47 The use of closed-loop paradigms for *in vitro* neurons – whereby activity from a neural system is
48 measured, applied to an environment, and updated environmental information communicated back to
49 the neural system – has received relatively limited exploration. Early work supported the proposition
50 that *in vitro* neurons would respond to incoming stimulation adaptively or engage in behaviors
51 consistent with blind-source separation phenomena^{11,12}. Following on from this, several studies
52 developed tools for, or identified interesting neural response patterns from, *in vitro* closed loop
53 stimulation paradigms, e.g.¹³⁻¹⁸. Preliminary investigations into goal-directed *in vitro* neural behavior
54 displayed limited robustness or details which precluded any conclusion of goal-directed learning
55 and/or did not pass through full independent peer review (e.g.¹⁹⁻²²). Yet key work demonstrated that
56 closed-loop stimulation resulted in significantly greater functional plasticity over time and potentially
57 exhibited some other shaped behavior^{17,23-25}.

58 Building on this work, recent research has shown that *in vitro* biological networks of cortical cells,
59 from either mouse or human origin via synthetic biology methods, were able to display real-time
60 adaptive goal-directed learning in simulated environments¹. Importantly, this work outlines key

61 methods and hypotheses which can identify the potential mechanism of actions behind goal-directed
62 or intelligent behaviors in neural systems. Interestingly, the results accorded with multiple
63 electrophysiological changes that were also observed. Intelligence, displayed through the goal-
64 directed behavior of embodied¹ *in vitro* neurons, was termed SBI. As an umbrella term, SBI has
65 unique properties that open key considerations previously less critical to consider. Three key factors
66 can be identified as technological preconditions of SBI: 1) the scalable and diverse opportunities that
67 arise from modern stem cell technology and synthetic biological methods; 2) the hardware and
68 software applications which enable the interaction with the biological tissue; 3) the
69 neurocomputational theories and subsequent inferences for eliciting behavior from the system and to
70 better understand what the implications of this may be.

71 **1) Stem Cell Technology & Synthetic Biology**

72 Perhaps the largest advancement in experimental neurobiology related to SBI has occurred with the
73 generation of renewable pluripotent stem cell cultures that can be differentiated to neural cells²⁶. Early
74 work was performed via embryonic stem cells²⁷⁻²⁹, yet the later generation of induced pluripotent
75 stem cell (iPSC) lines, generated from consenting donations of adult tissue, provides an ethical and
76 renewable process for generating neural tissue^{28,30-33}. Most previous work interacting with neural
77 tissue focused on primary cell culture, whereby neurons were obtained from living animals,
78 disassociated, and grown under controlled conditions. While this does produce viable neural cultures
79 and can be somewhat specific depending on the technical quality of those performing the work³⁴⁻³⁸, it
80 has distinct limitations.

81 Firstly, primary cell culture is, at best, linearly scalable, which means to scale up systems would
82 require a growing number of animals to be killed for tissue harvesting – an ethically fraught prospect
83 ³⁵. Secondly, there are limitations in accessing pure or specific populations of cell types. While broad
84 regions, such as hippocampal or cortex, can be targeted, the ratio of cell types and almost any other

¹ Here embodied is taken to mean separated from the external environment. Here embodiment means able to have an internal system to act and be acted upon via this external environment and is enabled through a closed-loop system of information input and output. It does not denote any inherent capacity in and of itself.

85 factor are difficult to modify. Further, although some organotypic cultures can be generated from
 86 primary tissue, the scaling and complexity of these remain limited^{39,40}. Finally, the need to breed,
 87 house, maintain and harvest neuronal tissue from animals creates a number of logistical, ethical and
 88 practical challenges. Deriving neuronal tissues from animals is thus not suited for widespread
 89 application and testing of SBI.

90 In contrast, the use of iPSCs removes all these concerns while providing new opportunities.
 91 Techniques to exponentially scale up the production of iPSCs are well established⁴¹. Neural cells can
 92 be generated from iPSCs using methods that follow natural ontogeny (i.e. ^{28,30}), with direct
 93 differentiation techniques using viral vectors to modify gene expression (i.e. ^{42,43}), or through direct
 94 genetic modification to make cell lines overexpress these genes in response to small molecules ³³.
 95 Furthermore, increasingly complex 3D structures (organoids, see **Figure 1**) can be reliably generated
 96 from iPSCs that open up yet further opportunities and challenges⁴⁴⁻⁴⁹. Finally, although technical
 97 expertise and equipment is still required to generate these neural cultures, the logistical and space
 98 requirements are significantly less than involving animal subjects. These advantages of using iPSC
 99 tissue for SBI are critical in providing a viable pathway towards wider research and development of
 100 the technology above what has previously been done.

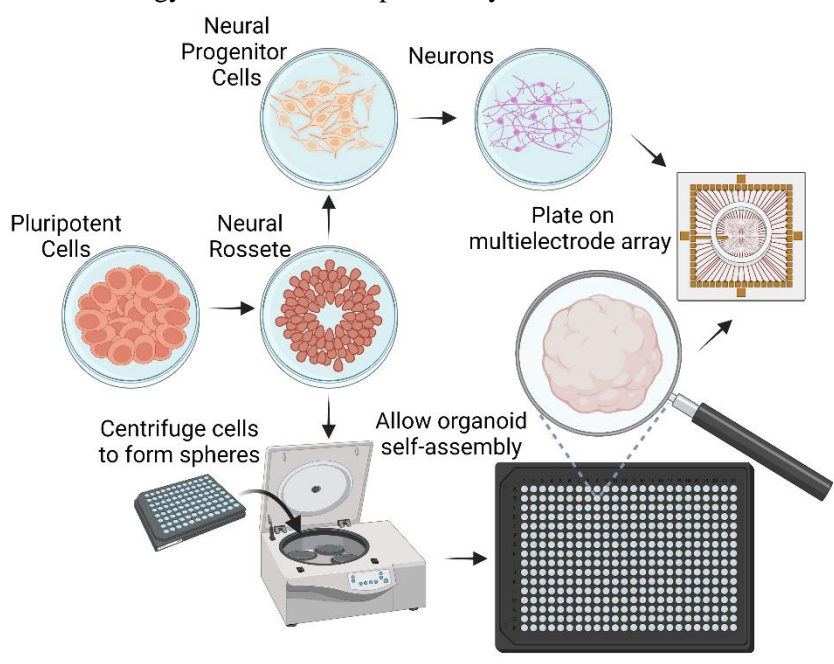


Figure 1 | A schematic of key steps and differences between generating a culture of neurons from pluripotent stem cells to 2D (monolayers) compared to 3D (organoids). The essential difference is to allow organoid self-assembly in low-adherence plates after mild centrifugation of cells at early stage of differentiation.

101 **2) Enhanced Hardware & Software applications**

102 SBI technology must be able to record activity from living biological neurons, transmit this
103 information to a virtual or physical system to allow action, and then provide information back to the
104 biological neural network that can be altered according to the action performed. Ideally this closed
105 loop occurs in real-time, so that the neural system is able to dynamically adapt to the effect of its
106 actions on the environment. Improvements in hardware and software allow for more advanced and
107 nuanced interactions with neural systems.

108 The most prevalent method of interaction remains through electrophysiological recording and
109 stimulation via multielectrode arrays (MEA)^{11,37,50,51}. However, optic approaches have also been
110 explored⁵². Previously, limitations in computational power or algorithm efficiency required work to
111 either make sacrifices as to what could be implemented computationally in these systems (i.e.,¹⁷) or
112 were unable to implement real-time closed-loop systems, requiring relatively long latencies (i.e.,²⁴).
113 Advancements in computational processing power allow greater degrees of data management for
114 signals both in and out of the neural system⁵³⁻⁵⁸.

115 Further, while passive MEA are capable of being used in sophisticated approaches^{14,18,50}, the
116 development of high-density MEA (HD-MEA) utilizing CMOS technology enabled magnitudes more
117 spatial resolution and flexibility⁵⁹⁻⁶². Future work now focuses on expanding from two-dimensional
118 arrays to better record from and stimulate 3D structures such as organoids^{63,64}. These advances can be
119 combined with better big data processing pipelines and tools to better analyze and interpret neural
120 activity, including applying machine learning approaches in novel ways^{57,65-67}. The combination of
121 these approaches provides a far greater ability to interact with biological neural networks and then
122 analyze the subsequent outcomes to enable greater expressions of SBI.

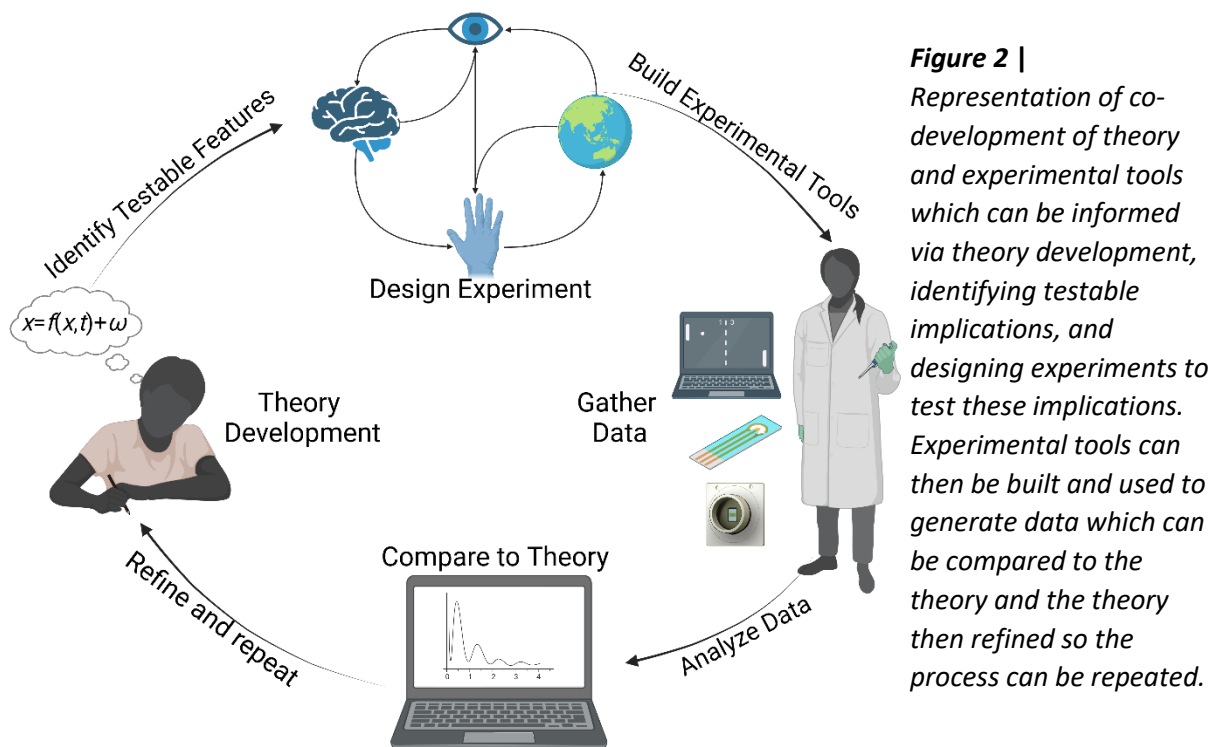
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124 **3) Neurocomputational Theories and Informatic Analysis**

125 While the ability to generate neural tissue and interact with it via hardware and software is necessary
126 for SBI, it is not sufficient. It is also critical to be able to understand mechanisms by which neural
127 systems engage in intelligent and/or goal-directed behavior in order to elicit these functions in a

128 meaningful way. Other works cover the myriad of theories postulated in greater detail (e.g. ^{68,69}), so
 129 here we provide only a brief overview.

130 Theories can either focus on organization or optimization, with the opportunity for overlap. The
 131 former attempts to explain the structural and/or functional patterns observed in neural systems (e.g. ^{70–}
 132 ⁷⁷). The latter focuses on why a neural system may exhibit such organization – i.e., why such features
 133 are optimal for a system to survive and thrive in a dynamic environment (e.g. ^{78–88}). One of the
 134 limitations of this area is that many theories about how internal states such as intelligence, cognition,
 135 sentience, consciousness etc. may arise and the implications of this are exceedingly difficult to
 136 empirically test and interrogate *in vivo*^{89–92}. Therefore, while enormous conceptual advancements have
 137 been made in this area that can potentially facilitate basic SBI, the ability to test these theories
 138 requires SBI techniques to co-develop more controlled research methods (**Figure 2**). In turn, this will
 139 also lead to more advanced applications of SBI.



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141 **Establishing Synthetic Biological Intelligence as an Ethical Platform Technology**

142 While development on each of these areas has been ongoing, the innovation through synthesis enabled
143 by combining these technologies has exceptional promise on multiple fronts. Perhaps for this reason,
144 numerous large national and international research consortia have recently arisen to investigate this
145 area including: *The Mind in Vitro* project, for which The National Science Foundation awarded a 7-
146 year, \$15 million project grant to the multi-university team led by the University of Illinois Urbana-
147 Champaign (UIUC); the EU-funded NEU-ChiP project which received €3.5 million in funding from
148 the European Commission; and the John Hopkins University-led Organoid Intelligence research focus
149 group^{55,93,94}. Industry-backed research interests have also arisen and are actively involved in pursuing
150 this research, such as Australian based Cortical Labs and USA based Koniku^{1,95,96}.

151 Preliminary studies have already attempted to integrate these neural systems into both real-world
152 applications through robotics and into virtual environments (e.g. ^{1,17,24}), although more work is
153 required. Improvements in SBI technology could allow more useful interactions and processes in
154 these environments. While it is difficult to set likely timelines on when this technology will mature,
155 there are compelling reasons to foresee SBI as a cornerstone of real-time autonomous systems.

156 Biological systems display tremendous capacity to navigate complex and dynamic environments with
157 significant flexible storage, engage in highly sample efficient learning, recover functionality despite
158 significant injury or disease to the brain, and achieve this with minimal power consumption⁹⁷⁻¹⁰⁰.

159 Even current SBI, while rudimentary, has already demonstrated higher sample efficiency compared to
160 deep reinforcement learning algorithms¹⁰¹. With future work planned to focus on moving towards
161 utilizing organoids as a substrate for intelligent processes, this potentially raises the capabilities even
162 further⁵⁵. As such, the potential of SBI systems has already been recognised as a promising pathway
163 to intelligent systems, especially when real-time, sample efficient, adaptive learning is required ^{102,103}.

164 Ethical issues around the production of SBI systems predominantly focus on donor issues which have
165 been previously identified in the fields of organoid research^{2,104}. Ensuring donors are well informed,
166 consenting, and able to negotiate compensation for their donation, coupled with the minimally
167 invasive nature of donating, should ameliorate this concern (although it should be explored in future
168 work). Yet, incorporating neural cultures into computer systems presents many opportunities for

169 novel short- and long-term applications, while also raising additional ethical challenges. Some
170 challenges are reasonably foreseeable and can be broadly broken down into two key subsets: 1)
171 concerns about applications of SBI technology; 2) uncertainty around the potential of SBI technology
172 to give rise ‘conscious’ systems that may be worthy of special moral consideration. We discuss both
173 below.

174 **Ethical Considerations using SBI for Disease Modelling and Drug Testing**

175 A key short-term benefit could focus on potentially more advanced *in vitro* preclinical drug screening
176 and modeling of brain-related diseases or disorders. Recently *in vitro* testing drug targets has become
177 increasingly more common, especially with the advent of organoids^{105–108}. Yet while this work can be
178 very effective in some instances, ultimately for diseases where neurological and psychiatric factors
179 are involved, they do not capture the essential function of a neural system. Simply put, the purpose of
180 a neural system is not to express key markers of display firing, it is to process information and
181 respond accordingly, typically in a dynamic fashion.

182 For this reason, historically this work has been conducted on animals, specifically rodent models e.g.,
183 ^{35,109–112}. Rodent models have some physiological similarities to humans, yet are extremely low
184 throughput solutions and require expensive support personnel and infrastructure to maintain^{113,114}.
185 Conversely other models, such as zebrafish are much higher throughput, yet have fewer physiological
186 linkages to humans^{113,114}. Brain organoid models have already been used as an alternative to animals
187 in research on neurological diseases¹¹⁵. Integrating lab-grown neurons into SBI’s may enable a wider
188 range of medical research to occur within *in vitro* models. SBI offers the potential to create high-
189 throughput models of brain disease that are physiologically similar to humans, facilitating better
190 research into brain disease and pre-clinical drug screening, and doing so while reducing the need for
191 animal suffering^{106,116–119}. Despite this promise, the translatability of this approach will still need to be
192 carefully assessed to ensure safety and external predictive validity¹⁰⁴.

193 One challenge with using stem cell models for drug screening is a lack of diversity in stem cell
194 lines¹²⁰. Current stem cells lines are predominately made from cells of people with European ancestry.

195 As drug responses can differ amongst people of different genetic backgrounds, results from stem cell
196 models created from a single cell line may not be generalisable. This limitation raises concerns in
197 relation to equity and justice. A short-term solution to this problem is to ensure SBIs are created
198 using multiple stem cell lines from people with diverse genetic ancestries. A medium-term solution is
199 to combine SBIs with personalised medicine approaches to the study and treatment of brain disease,
200 by allowing SBIs to be grown from patients' own cells which then exactly match their genotype. As
201 drug responses can differ from individual to individual, the personalised medicine approach is
202 particularly promising ¹²¹.

203 In this manner, SBI offers benefits both in potentially providing advanced pathways disease modeling
204 and testing novel therapies with the chance to see how metrics related to information processing are
205 impacted. While an equity issue may still exist around access to this personalized approach, here the
206 early involvement of industry research is a potential advantage. Industry inherently has a
207 predisposition to work towards more affordable solutions to enable access to broader markets.

208 Therefore, although industry research partners into SBIs may be incentivized to reduce access barriers
209 through self-interest and reduce concerns around equity, further exploration of this issue is required.

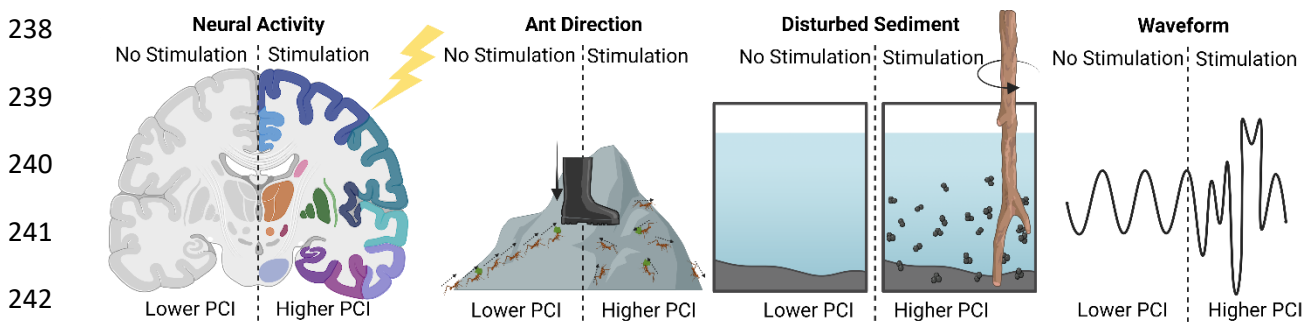
210 Coupled with the above, a related ethical benefit is that SBIs may reduce the need for animal testing
211 in certain cases. Given the animals whose cognition most closely resembles human cognition (non-
212 human primates¹²²⁻¹²⁴), are also the animals whose use in testing raises the greatest moral concern
213 (e.g. see ¹²⁵), this application of SBIs can be viewed as strongly ethically desirable ^{9,126}. A general
214 principle of research ethics is that we should aim to minimize risk of harm to research participants¹²⁷.

215 One of the ways in which this principle can be operationalized is by ensuring testing occurs in entities
216 that have the lowest moral status. This is sometimes called the 'subsidiarity principle' and has
217 previously been used to argue that we only should avoid testing on embryonic stem cells where the
218 same tests can be performed using other stem cells with fewer moral concerns to consider ¹²⁸. This
219 same principle can be used to argue that we should be testing on SBIs rather than animals wherever
220 possible and would emphasize the ethical merit of this endeavour.

221 **Ethical Considerations using SBI for Computational or Intelligent Processes**

222 Developing SBI also offers the potential to better understand how computation or intelligence arises
 223 in neural systems. This exploration offers both short- and long-term applications. Shorter term SBIs
 224 offer the chance to explore how neural systems process information and provide the potential to refine
 225 existing, or develop new, theories. Being able to better understand how neural systems display traits
 226 such as ‘intelligence’ also means that such traits could be leveraged in wider applications in the
 227 future.

228 As part of this work, from an ethical perspective, it is also necessary to consider neurocomputational
 229 and informatic approaches that try to quantify when a neural system may also display a trait requiring
 230 moral attention. Approaches such as the Integrated Information Theory (IIT), neuro-
 231 representationalism, active inference, global workspace theories (GWTs), etc., offer avenues to
 232 establish useful correlates of potential states ^{129–132}. Moreover, compelling neural correlates of
 233 consciousness in humans have been previously proposed, such as the Perturbational Complexity Index
 234 (PCI) or neural criticality, which offer other approaches to consider ^{9,118,133,134}. Yet assumptions behind
 235 these approaches means these metrics can have serious limitations in predictive validity if
 236 inappropriately applied to *in vitro* (or other) systems as similar mathematical criteria could be
 237 established in non-conscious systems (**Figure 3** for examples) ^{9,118,133}.



243 **Figure 3 |** Simplified comparison for how the Perturbational Complexity Index (PCI) as a metric is not
 244 inherently a suitable marker for consciousness, whereby a PCI metric would be increased after
 stimulation of several systems, yet not all systems could reasonably be considered conscious.

245 A potential longer-term benefit of SBI research is more sustainable computer systems which are less
 246 dependent on the availability of large amounts of power to operate. Climate change, driven by
 247 increasing carbon emissions, has been described as the greatest moral challenge of our time ¹³⁷. It
 248 results in direct harm to individuals through extreme weather events and supply disruptions for

249 essential resources. Furthermore, the burden of climate change falls predominantly on those living in
250 low-income countries and raises serious concerns about global justice. Biological intelligences are
251 much more energy efficient than traditional computer systems, with a human brain approximately
252 using 20 watts of energy, able to be distributed through a complex network¹³⁸⁻¹⁴¹. In contrast,
253 consider the K supercomputer produced by Fujitsu, which can perform 8.2 billion megaflops
254 (1,048,576 floating-point operations per second) but which requires 9.9 million watts to be powered.
255 The increased use of computer systems in all aspects of our lives has led to increased carbon
256 emissions coming from the IT industry¹⁴². These problems will be exacerbated by the increased use
257 of machine learning algorithms and systems of generative artificial intelligence, which often require
258 power intensive super-computers to operate¹⁴³. As such, if even a small proportion of these
259 information processing tasks can be done with SBI, there is a compelling environmental reason to
260 explore these alternatives.

261 **How to Approach Additional Ethical Considerations for SBI**

262 Foremost, it is imperative that a broadly agreed upon nomenclature for this field is adopted^{189,144,145}.
263 We used the words conscious and intelligence above in quotation marks precisely because there are
264 different ways of understanding these terms with different implications for how we describe SBIs^{89,146}.
265 It is preferable that the field has agreed terms to describe the different aspects of SBI to enable
266 constructive discussions and exploration of the technology, along with considering the ethical
267 challenges. Without at least broad standardisation² of terms, constructive discourse will be greatly
268 hampered. Previously, key terminology has been imprecise, with signifiers used interchangeably to
269 represent one or another concept that are themselves seldom formally defined. Even in cases where a
270 term may be defined in one paper, the lack of coherence in the field necessitates a degree of attention
271 and good faith on behalf of the reader, courtesies that are not always bestowed¹⁴⁷. Terms related to
272 complex processes or internal states that are attributed various degrees of moral status are particularly

² This standardization effort should involve a public invitation to the broad scientific community to ensure a multi-disciplinary approach is adopted and to encourage widespread adoption. The authors have recently begun work into this endeavor and welcome collaborators to join.

273 challenging. These include, but are not limited to, “sentience”, “consciousness”, “intelligence”,
274 “computation”, “cognition”, “qualia”, “agency” and “behaviour”.

275 Secondly, identifying reliable objective metrics which can track phenomena of ethical relevance
276 should remain a focus of research going forward^{55,89,91}. These can accord with challenges which fall
277 under both the applications of SBI and the moral status of SBI as described above. It will be necessary
278 to identify which candidates are necessary to consider for moral status. Functional markers such as
279 being goal-directed, autonomously responsive, or showing learning can be considered as part of this.
280 However, it should be noted that performing a function alone is not sufficient to identify a system as
281 ‘phenomenologically conscious’. Examples of function without reported conscious experience have
282 regularly been observed in Type 1 blindsight patients, who can perform relatively complex behaviors
283 with no perception of the relevant sensation^{9,148,149}. As such, regarding the moral status of SBI will
284 require development of metrics that can help researchers infer when a model might develop these
285 properties. Further, deciding the moral relevance of this status for a given application will also require
286 agreement on what properties give rise to moral status and how best to proceed. Such an approach
287 should involve a meaningful dialogue with the broader public and stakeholders to determine where
288 ethical boundaries may lie.

289 Thirdly, once these understandings have been obtained, it will become crucial to identify areas and
290 approaches that maximise benefits and minimise risks. Concerns about the application of SBI
291 technology can be informed by established ethical frameworks for emerging technologies^{150,151}. The
292 principles of anticipatory governance, whereby science is shaped towards achieving socially and
293 morally desirable outcomes in the face of scientific and ontological uncertainties, can be useful here.
294¹⁵¹. While some measures used in humans such as the PCI may have some merit, as above, there is no
295 evidence they are appropriate for *in vitro* systems. Indeed, it is entirely likely that only through further
296 development of SBI technology will the necessary knowledge to even identify these metrics be
297 obtained. This inherent uncertainty further highlights the need for an approach that can reasonably
298 anticipate morally significant properties and guide an ethical response as new evidence and

299 knowledge emerges over obstructive precautionary measures that pay insufficient attention to the
300 potential for beneficial outcomes.

301 **Conclusion**

302 Elucidating the full range of applications and associated ethical or moral issues raised by SBIs
303 exceeds the scope of this work. Therefore, here we have proposed key steps to building a viable
304 framework to explore these issues in a constructive manner. Researchers should engage with broader
305 publics and stakeholders to generate meaningful dialogue on the moral boundaries and shape SBI
306 applications towards achieving socially and ethically desired outcomes.

307 Going forward, one key question will be: What, if anything, can we deduce about the moral status of
308 these entities? For example, it has been argued that the most important feature of conscious systems
309 that gives rise to moral status is not general, or domain specific, intelligence, but rather evaluative
310 sophistication – the capacity to have a wide range of valanced subjective experiences¹⁵². This builds
311 on a view first articulated by Jeremy Bentham regarding the moral status of animals “The question is
312 not, Can they reason? nor, Can they talk? but, Can they suffer?”¹⁴² Following this perspective, even if
313 SBIs produce human-like intelligence, this does not inherently imply they have moral status. Despite
314 this, it is possible that the more sophisticated neural architecture required for human-like intelligence
315 may facilitate more complex – and more morally valuable – conscious experiences and/or cognitive
316 mental states. Determining measures that can help researchers infer when systems are likely to
317 possess evaluative sophistication should be a goal of on-going research.

318 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

319 B.J.K. is an inventor on patents for technology related to this paper along with being employed at and
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322 interests to disclose.

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