

DESIGN OF A MANUFACTURING TRAIN FOR THE PRODUCTION OF RECOMBINANT THERAPEUTIC PROTEINS AND MONOCLONAL ANTIBODIES USING MAMMALIAN EXPRESSION SYSTEMS

A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree

of

MASTER OF TECHNOLOGY

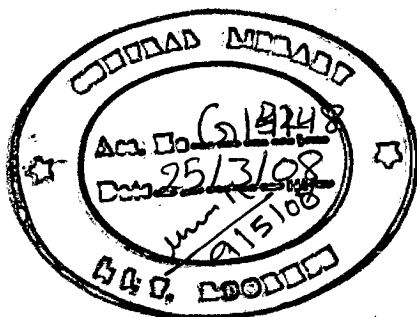
in

CHEMICAL ENGINEERING

(With Specialization in Computer Aided Process Plant Design)

By

PREENA RAJORIA



613248



DEPARTMENT OF CHEMICAL ENGINEERING
INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY ROORKEE
ROORKEE - 247 667 (INDIA)

JUNE, 2007

CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in this dissertation entitled "**Designing of a Manufacturing Train for the Production of Recombinant Therapeutic Proteins and Monoclonal Antibodies using Mammalian Expression Systems**" in the partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree **Master of Technology in Chemical Engineering** with specialization in **Computer Aided Process Plant Design (C.A.P.P.D)**, submitted in the Department of Chemical Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee, is an authentic record of my own work carried out under the esteemed guidance of **Dr. Arnab Kapat** Director, Reliance School of Life Sciences, Navi Mumbai and **Dr. Surendra Kumar** Professor, Department of Chemical Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee.

The matter embodied in this dissertation work has not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of this or any other Institute/University.

Place: IIT Roorkee

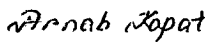
Date: JUNE, 2007


Preena Rajoria

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the above statement made by the candidate is correct to the best of my knowledge.

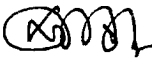
Date:


Dr. Arnab Kapat

Director

Reliance School of Life Sciences

Navi Mumbai, India


27.6.07

Dr. Surendra Kumar

Professor

Department of Chemical Engineering

Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee

Roorkee, India

ABSTRACT

Pharmaceuticals used for the treatment of various diseases in human have been usually based on the natural or synthetic organic molecules produced by microbes or synthesized in vitro by organic chemists. However, the post genomic-era projects a remarkable change in the therapeutics market, with the realization that proteins have many potential therapeutic advantages for preventing and curing diseases and disorders. Among all the therapeutic proteins currently in the biopharmaceutical market is led by monoclonal antibodies. The clinical and commercial success of monoclonal antibodies has led to the need for very large-scale production in mammalian cell culture.

The production process for monoclonal antibodies must be designed in such a way that it meets the highest requirements with regard to consistency and reproducibility. These therapeutics usually require high doses and therefore vast manufacturing capacities. On the basis of the projected market demand in this report the plant capacity is determined to be 2500 L for meeting a total protein requirement of 2250 grams per year.

Technology to manufacture high-dose therapeutic monoclonal antibodies (MAbs) at large scale has evolved in several ways over the last two decades. Major cost reductions have been reported through the use of platform technologies both upstream and downstream. The platform approach is illustrated in the present work for the downstream processing of monoclonal antibodies. On the basis of the mass balance major equipments (bioreactor, chromatography column, crossflow system, CIP system) that are used for the production of monoclonal antibodies are sized and designed as per the standards. Also the control loops for controlling the various parameters in equipments are discussed.

cGMP (Current Good Manufacturing Practices) compliance is the foundation of the pharmaceutical industry and has become the benchmark for success of an enterprise involved in the development, manufacture or testing of human and animal drug products. In the present report a designing philosophy (premises design, produc

and material flow, personnel flow and area classification) is proposed for biopharmaceutical facility which is in compliance with the cGMP requirements.

With the advancement in the level of automation available for process equipment there is a tremendous increase in the product yields and product quality. On the basis of the S88 standards the design philosophy for software, equipment, and procedures is proposed for automating the production train.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Gratitude is the memory of the heart and in carrying out this dissertation with persistent inspiration, unflinching support and encouragement of countless persons have served as the driving force.

I am deeply indebted to my supervisors **Dr. Surendra Kumar**, Professor, Department of Chemical Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee Roorkee and **Dr. Arnab Kapat**, Director, Reliance School of Life Sciences, Navi Mumbai, without whom the concept of working in this area would not have taken place. I would like to sincerely acknowledge their valuable guidance, relentless support, discerning thoughts and loads of inspiration that led me forward to delve deeper into this issue.

I am highly thankful to Dr. Shri Chand, Professor and Head, Department of Chemical Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee, and Mr. I. V. Subramaniam, CEO, Reliance Life Sciences Pvt. Ltd., Navi Mumbai for providing me all the possible support.

I wish to express my profound sense of gratitude to Dr. (Mrs.) Shashi Assistant Professor, Department of Chemical Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, for her cooperation and encouragement.

I also appreciate the support rendered to me by my friends who were always by my side during the completion of the dissertation. Special thanks are due to my friend Mr. Rajashekar Goud for his constant help and support during the course of this dissertation. The support provided by Ms. Shabina Khanam (Research Scholar, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee), and Ms. Sreela Dey (Research Scholar, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee) is unforgettable.

Last but not the least, I am thankful to God for His blessings and my family for giving me strength and motivation through out the preparation of this report.

Preena Rajoria

CONTENTS

Declaration

Abstract

Acknowledgement

List of Figures

List of Tables

Nomenclature

Chapters

1. Introduction

2. Literature Review

2.1 Therapeutic Proteins

2.2 Monoclonal Antibodies: “The Magic Bullets”

2.3 Technologies for Monoclonal Antibodies Production

2.3.1 Recombinant DNA Technology

2.3.2 Hybridoma Technology

2.4 Manufacturing Processes for Production of Monoclonal Antibodies

2.4.1 Expression Systems

2.4.2 Cell Lines

2.4.3 Mammalian Cell Culture

2.4.3.1 Cell Culture Media and Raw Material

2.4.4 Reactor Systems for Large Scale Antibody Production

2.4.5 Downstream Processing

2.4.5.1 Cell Harvest

2.4.5.2 Protein A Chromatography

2.4.5.3 Low pH Viral Inactivation

2.4.5.4 Polishing

2.4.5.5 Viral Filtration

| | |
|--|----|
| 2.4.5.6 Concentration (Ultrafiltration / Diafiltration) | 1 |
| 2.5 cGMP Manufacturing | 1 |
| 2.6 Facility Design Aspects | 2 |
| 2.6.1 Area Requirements | 2 |
| 2.6.2 Process Development Requirements | 2 |
| 2.6.3 Analytical and Quality Control Requirements | 2 |
| 2.6.4 Regulatory Requirements | 2 |
| 2.6.5 Support Area Requirements | 2 |
| 2.6.6 Facility Design process | 2 |
| 2.7 Disposable Components (Single Use) Technology | 2 |
| 2.8 Plant Automation | 24 |
| 2.8.1 Control Loop Strategy | 25 |
| 2.8.2 Distributed Control System Architecture | 26 |
| 2.8.2.1 Elements of Distributed Control System | 27 |
| | |
| 3. Objectives | 28 |
| | |
| 4. Methodology and Analysis of Plant Design | 30 |
| 4.1 Market Demand | 31 |
| 4.2 Plant Capacity Calculation | 32 |
| 4.3 Process Mass Balance | 33 |
| 4.4 Critical Analysis of Mass Balance | 36 |
| 4.5 Equipment Sizing | 38 |
| 4.5.1 Bioreactor Sizing | 38 |
| 4.5.2 Chromatography Column Sizing | 38 |
| 4.5.3 TFF System Sizing | 39 |
| 4.5.4 Buffer Preparation/Supply Tank Sizing | 40 |
| 4.5.4.1 Totals by Buffer Type for Buffer Preparation/Supply Tank Sizing | 41 |
| 4.6 WFI Requirements for Media and Buffer Solutions | 42 |
| 4.7 Process Description | 43 |

| | |
|--|----------|
| 4.7.1 Upstream Section | 4 |
| 4.7.2 Downstream Section | 4 |
| 5. Equipment Design | 4 |
| 5.1 Design of Production Bioreactor | 4 |
| 5.1.1 Characteristics and Design of Bioreactor | 4 |
| 5.1.1.1 Size and Geometry | 4 |
| 5.1.1.1.1 Vessel Shell Thickness Design | 5 |
| 5.1.1.1.2 Vessel Dish Thickness Design | 5 |
| 5.1.1.1.3 Vessel Jacket Shell Thickness Design | 5 |
| 5.1.1.2 Aeration System Design | 5 |
| 5.1.1.3 Agitation system design | 5 |
| 5.1.2 Control Strategy | 5 |
| 5.1.2.1 Sensors | 5 |
| 5.1.2.2 Control Loops | 5 |
| 5.1.2.2.1 Temperature Control Loop | 5 |
| 5.1.2.2.2 pH Control Loop | 6 |
| 5.1.2.2.3 Pressure Control Loop | 6 |
| 5.1.2.2.4 Agitator Control Loop | 6 |
| 5.1.2.2.5 Dissolved Oxygen Control Loop | 6 |
| 5.2 Design of a Continuous Centrifuge | 6 |
| 5.3 TFF System Design | 6 |
| 5.3.1 System Design | 6 |
| 5.3.2 Control Loop Strategy | 7 |
| 5.4 Chromatography Design | 7 |
| 5.4.1 Chromatography Columns Design | 7 |
| 5.4.2 Pumps | 7 |
| 5.4.3 Automated chromatography systems | 7 |
| 5.5 Nano Filter Design | 7 |
| 5.6 Vessel Design | 7 |
| 5.6.1 Vessel Shell Thickness Design | 7 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| 5.6.2 Vessel Dish Thickness Design | |
| 5.6.3 Vessel jacket shell Thickness Design | |
| 5.7 CIP System | |
| 5.7.1 Cleaning Cycle Strategy | |
| 5.7.2 CIP Skid Design | |
| 5.7.2.1 Vessel Design | |
| 5.7.2.2 Heat Exchanger Design for CIP System | |
| 5.8 Sterilization of Process Equipment | |
| 5.8.1 Sterilization of Bioreactor | |
| 6. Facility Design | 9 |
| 6.1 Design Philosophy | 9 |
| 6.1.1 Premises | 9 |
| 6.1.2 Isolation of Clean Areas | 9 |
| 6.1.3 Product flow | 9 |
| 6.1.4 Personnel flow | 9 |
| 6.1.5 Process Flow | 9 |
| 7. DCS Design | 100 |
| 7.1 Design Standards | 100 |
| 7.1.1 Functional Specification | 101 |
| 7.1.2 S88 Models | 101 |
| 7.1.1 States and Commands | 103 |
| 7.1.2 Application of S88 to the Process | 104 |
| 7.1.2.1 Defining System Boundary, Control and Equipment Modules | 105 |
| 7.1.2.2 Class based Approach | 106 |
| 7.1.2.3 Designing Cultivation Phase Class | 107 |
| 7.1.2.4 Designing Cultivation Operation | 107 |
| 7.1.2.5 Designing Cultivation Unit Procedure (UP) | 110 |
| 7.1.2.6 Defining Process Cells and Areas | 110 |

| | |
|----------------------|----------|
| 7.2 Master Recipes | 1 |
| 8. Conclusion | 1 |
| References | 1 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| Figure | Title of the Figure | Page No. |
|---------------|--|-----------------|
| Figure 1: A) | Recombinant DNA Technology | 8 |
| Figure 1: B) | Hybridoma Technology | 8 |
| Figure 2: | Schematic diagram of perfusion and fed batch processes | 13 |
| Figure 3: | Platform Downstream Process for Monoclonal Antibodies | 14 |
| Figure 4: | Basic Structure of an Automation System | 24 |
| Figure 5: | Control Loop Components | 25 |
| Figure 6: | Sales and Demand of the Monoclonal Antibodies | 31 |
| Figure 7: | Typical Affinity Purification | 37 |
| Figure 8: | Typical IEX Gradient Elution | 38 |
| Figure 9: | A Simplified Flow Diagram for Monoclonal Antibody Production | 45 |
| Figure 10: | Schematics of a Bioreactor | 58 |
| Figure 11: | Temperature Control Loop | 60 |
| Figure 12: | pH Control Loop | 61 |
| Figure 13: | Pressure Control Loop | 62 |
| Figure 14: | Agitator Control Loop | 62 |
| Figure 15: | Dissolve Oxygen Control Loop | 63 |
| Figure 16: | Schematics of Crossflow filtration system with Feed Tank | 66 |
| Figure 17: | Feed Pressure Control Loop | 71 |
| Figure 18: | Retentate Pressure Control Loop | 71 |
| Figure 19: | Schematics of a Chromatography System | 74 |
| Figure 20: | Dimensional Parameters of a Vessel | 76 |
| Figure 21: | Schematics of a CIP system | 80 |

| | | |
|---------------|--|-----|
| Figure 22: | Typical CIP Phases | 81 |
| Figure 23: A) | Sterilization Cycle of Transfer Lines | 93 |
| Figure 23: B) | Sterilization Cycle of Vessel | 93 |
| Figure 24: | Hierarchy of Physical and Procedural Model | 102 |
| Figure 25: | Hierarchy of sequences running on bioreactor | 104 |
| Figure 26: | Hierarchy of Physical Model Defining System Boundary Unit, Equipment Module and Control Modules of a Bioreactor. | 106 |
| Figure 27: | Logic Algorithm for Cultivation Phase Class | 108 |
| Figure 28: | Logic Algorithm of Cultivation Operation | 109 |
| Figure 29: | Logic Algorithm of Cultivation Unit Procedure | 109 |
| Figure 30: | Master Recipe for the whole Scenario | 111 |

LIST OF TABLES

| Table | Title of the Table | Page No. |
|--------------|--|-----------------|
| Table 1: | Modes of Chromatography | 17 |
| Table 2: | Comparison among the International Clean Room Classifications | 20 |
| Table 3: | Calculation Summary | 32 |
| Table 4: | Cell Culture Operations | 33 |
| Table 5: | Recovery and Purification Operations | 34 |
| Table 6: | Overall Mass Balance | 36 |
| Table 7: | Chromatography Column Sizes | 39 |
| Table 8: | Commercially Available Chromatography Column Sizes | 39 |
| Table 9: | TFF System Sizes | 39 |
| Table 10: | Buffer Requirements for Column-1 | 40 |
| Table 11: | Buffer Requirements for Column-2 | 40 |
| Table 12: | Buffer Requirements for Column-3 | 41 |
| Table 13: | Buffer Tank Volume Required | 42 |
| Table 14: | WFI Requirement for Buffer Solution of Chromatography | 42 |
| Table 15: | Pump Delivery Rate of all the Columns | 73 |
| Table 16: | HVAC - Classified Areas and Air Changes | 97 |

NOMENCLATURE

| | |
|--------------|--|
| ΔP_r | Return Pressure Loss |
| ΔP_T | Total tube side Pressure drop |
| A | Heat transfer area or Base area of the Chromatography column |
| AIC | pH Indicator and Controller |
| a'_t | Flow area per tube |
| a_s | Shell side flow area |
| a_t | Tube side flow area |
| B | Baffle spacing |
| C' | Baffle cut |
| CFU | Colony Forming Unit |
| CIP | Clean in Place |
| CM | Control Module |
| c_p | Water Specific heat |
| CS | Conductivity Sensor |
| D | Internal diameter of the column |
| D_a | Impeller Diameter |
| DCS | Distributed Control System |
| D_e | Equivalent diameter |
| DF | Diafiltration |
| D_i | Internal Diameter of Vessel or Tube internal Diameter |
| DIC | Dissolved Oxygen Indicator and Controller |
| DP cell | Differential Pressure sensor |
| D_o | Outer Diameter of Vessel |
| d_p | Particle diameter |
| DV | Dish Volume |
| E | Weld Joint Efficiency |
| EM | Equipment Module |

| | |
|----------|--|
| EV | Expansion Vessel |
| F | Molar flow rate of gas |
| FIC | Flow Indicator and Controller |
| F_{in} | Delivery of the pump |
| FM | Flow Meter |
| FS | Flow Sensor |
| F_T | Temperature difference factor |
| f_t | Tube side friction factor |
| f_s | Shell side friction factor |
| G or RCF | Relative Centrifugal Force |
| GPLF | GPM per Linear Foot of Vessel Circumference |
| G_s | Tube side Mass velocity |
| G_t | Shell side Mass velocity |
| h | Working Level Height |
| H | Tan to Tan height of the vessel |
| h_d | Depth of Dish excluding thickness |
| HEPA | High Efficiency Particulate Air Filter |
| h_i | Tube side heat transfer coefficient |
| h_{io} | Heat transfer coefficient (based on outside) |
| h_s | Shell side heat transfer coefficient |
| L | Length of tubes |
| LA | Foam Sensor |
| L_{fg} | Latent Heat of Steam |
| LMTD | Log Mean Temperature Difference |
| m_c | Cooling water flow rate |
| MH | Manhole |
| n | Number of disks |
| N | Impeller speed |
| N+1 | Number of Crosses |
| N_i | Number of Impellers |
| N_p | Impeller power number |

| | |
|-----------|---|
| N_q | Flow number for propellers |
| N_{Re} | Reynolds Number |
| OTR | Oxygen Transfer Rate |
| P&IDs | Piping and Instrumentation Diagrams |
| P_a | Maximum allowable external working pressure |
| PFDs | Process Flow Diagrams |
| P_g | Gassed power |
| pHS | pH Sensor |
| P_i | Shell Internal design pressure |
| PIT | Pressure Indicator and Transmitter |
| PLC | Programmable Logic Controller |
| P_o | Shell External design pressure or Un-gassed power |
| PS | Pressure Sensor |
| P_T | Tube pitch |
| PV | Process Value |
| PWM | Pulse Width Modulator |
| Q | Overall heat transfer rate or Feed flow rate |
| Q_{tot} | Total heat generated during growth |
| r | Radial position of the particle |
| R | Radius of the shell |
| RD | Rupture Disk |
| r_1 | Minimum radius of disk |
| r_2 | Maximum radius of disk |
| R_C | Crown Radius |
| R_d | Dirt Factor |
| Re_s | Shell side Reynolds number |
| Re_t | Tube side Reynolds number |
| R_J | Jacket inner Radius |
| R_K | Knuckle Radius |
| R_o | Outer crown radius |
| s | Fluid Specific gravity |

| | |
|-------------|---|
| S | Max. Allowable Stress for SS316 L |
| SIC | Speed Indicator and Controller |
| SIP | Sterilization in place |
| SG/LG | Sight Glass and Light Glass |
| SP | Set Point |
| SV | Set Value |
| T | Thickness of vessel shell |
| T_a | Approach temperature |
| $t_{c,in}$ | Cold fluid inlet Temperature |
| $t_{c,out}$ | Cold fluid outlet Temperature |
| T_{ci} | Cooling water inlet Temperature |
| T_{co} | Cooling water outlet temperature |
| TFF | Tangential Flow Filtration |
| $T_{h,in}$ | Hot Fluid inlet Temperature |
| $T_{h,out}$ | Hot fluid outlet Temperature |
| TIC | Temperature Indicator and Controller |
| T_o | Operating temperature of the bioreactor |
| TOC | Total Organic Carbon |
| TS | Temperature Sensor |
| U_c | Clean Overall Coefficient heat transfer coefficient |
| U_D | Dirty Overall Heat Transfer Coefficient |
| UF | Ultrafiltration |
| UP | Unit Procedure |
| UVS | Ultra Violet Sensor |
| V | Velocity through tubes |
| VFD | Variable Frequency Drive |
| v_g | Settling velocity |
| V_L | Volume of liquid |
| X | Cell concentration |
| Y | Mole fraction of oxygen |
| $Y_{x/o}$ | Cell yield coefficient on oxygen |

Greek Letters

| | |
|------------|--|
| ρ_p | Particle density |
| μ | Cell specific growth rate or broth viscosity |
| ϵ | Oxygen transfer efficiency |
| α | Half cone angle of the disk |
| ρ | Broth density |
| Σ | Sigma factor |
| ϕ | Viscosity correction factor |
| ω | Angular velocity of the rotor |

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The pharmaceutical industry has undergone incredible changes with the discovery and introduction of biotech drugs. Biotech drugs are medicines that are therapeutic proteins which are produced by living organisms to fight disease. They are usually produced through microbial fermentation or by mammalian cell culture.

Among Biopharmaceuticals, therapeutic proteins represent a growing market segment expected to reach an approximate 60\$ billion by 2010 [1]. As indicated by the type of products in the current development pipelines, the diversity of therapeutic proteins is anticipated to continue to increase in future. In addition, the completion of the human genome sequencing combined with high-throughput post-genomic technologies is likely to speed up disease target identification while also boosting understanding of cell regulations. This milieu will in turn enhance the discovery rate of novel potential therapeutic proteins. This diversity should also be driven by other factors such as developments of new orphan drugs, the need for cheaper drugs and also potentially by the growing market for generic therapeutic proteins.

Among all the therapeutic proteins currently biopharmaceutical market is led by monoclonal antibodies with about 28% value share. Monoclonal antibodies have played a role in several of the important advances in pharmacotherapy; agents such as Herceptin™, Enbel™, ReoPro™, and Remicade™ have contributed to the treatment of infectious diseases, cancer and autoimmune diseases [2]. However, they are amongst the most expensive drugs where annual cost per patient can reach \$35,000 for the antibodies treating cancer conditions. These high prices are a reflection of the fact that antibodies are now marketed for chronic conditions and of their relatively low potency which results in the need for high cumulative doses. Consequently expensive large-scale manufacturing capacity is required to fulfill market demand and produce 10-100s Kg/year [3].

Majority of monoclonal antibodies are produced in batch/fed-batch culture using mammalian cell followed by purification steps that rely primarily on chromatography with intermediate filtration and viral inactivation/clearance

operations. With increasing titers in mammalian cell cultures, there are also pressures to improve downstream technology.

For starting a manufacturing facility multiple options are available, such as:

- Single product v/s multi-product
- Single purpose v/s multi-purpose
- Single production train v/s multiple trains
- Pilot plant v/s commercial scale plant
- Built as per local regulatory standard v/s USFDA
- Build v/s acquired

Considering all these alternatives makes the decision making for starting a manufacturing facility a very complex job. Taking into account the current trend of market demand for large quantity of variety of drugs generally, manufacturers opt for a multi-product, multi-purpose, multiple trains and commercial scale facility.

The companies that are involved in pharmaceutical production to follow GMPs (Good Manufacturing Practices) is essential to get new products approved by regulatory agencies and for producing drugs that have the required safety, identity, potency, purity and quality. Now-a-days automation is one of the imperative element of manufacturing facility. It is implemented on the various equipments present in the plant in order to enhance the operation of the facility by improving the overall reliability, safety and quality of complex operations as well as reducing the cycle time for certain processes. All computer aided control systems are implemented using GAMP (Good Automation Manufacturing Practices) methodologies.

Technology can provide a way out of the cost-speed-quality dilemma. The ideal biomanufacturing facility would be inexpensive to build, rapidly expandable and reconfigurable to handle new processes and make product quickly- all the while maintaining or improving on the high level of quality needed for cGMP manufacturing. Current facilities make extensive use of stainless steel vessels that must be connected by stainless steel piping to other unit operations, to media and

buffer supplies, to water, and clean-in-place and steam-in-place systems. Process equipments and the utilities that support them are expensive and may involve long lead times for fabrication and installation. The resulting facility can be difficult to reconfigure and expand for new process. To address all these issues, a new technology to manufacture products in disposable (single-use) components is rapidly emerging. Single use technologies have gained increasing acceptance by the industry as a means of achieving safe, compliant, and efficient processes. As the industry awakens to the technologies benefits, there is a demand for further integration of disposables into processes.

Chapter II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Therapeutic Proteins

Proteins that are engineered in the laboratory for pharmaceutical use are known as therapeutic proteins. The advent of sophisticated genomics and proteomics based functional identification has unraveled large numbers of proteins with a potential for therapeutic intervention. The majority of drugs marketed to date are recombinant therapeutic proteins.

Today recombinant therapeutic proteins are used to relieve patients suffering from many conditions, including: Various cancers (Monoclonal antibodies, Interferons), Heart attacks, strokes, cystic fibrosis, Gaucher's disease (Enzymes, Blood factors), Diabetes (Insulin), Anaemia (Erythropoietin) and Haemophilia (Blood clotting factors) [4].

Multiple sources are available for production of therapeutic proteins [5]. Each source has different characteristics. Bioengineering allow production of therapeutic proteins in: Microorganisms (*E. coli*, *S. cerevisiae*), Animal cell lines (Chinese Hamster Ovary, Baby Hamster Kidney), Natural Sources (Blood Plasma), Transgenic Plants (Tobacco, Potato, Aquatic Plants) [6] and Transgenic Animals (Sheep, Cattle). Microbial and mammalian cell fermentation are the most common expression systems utilized. Many efforts continue to be directed at transgenic expression system development with improved characteristics. All of these systems have their own advantages and disadvantages [7].

2.2 Monoclonal Antibodies: “the Magic Bullets”

Monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) are antibodies that are identical because they were produced by one type of immune cell and are all clones of a single parent cell. Given (almost) any substance, it is possible to create monoclonal antibodies that specifically bind to that substance; they can then serve to detect or purify that substance. By contrast with polyclonal antibodies, mAbs are monospecific and homogeneous which makes them effective tools in the development of therapies and diagnostics.

The therapeutic potential of mAbs was realized after the Hybridoma Technology allowed their development. About a quarter of all biotech drugs in

development are mAb, and several products are in use or being investigated. Licensed products are available for inhibition of alloimmune, autoimmune reactivity and antiviral therapy. mAbs can be used in several diagnostic tests and in radioimmunoassay and radioimmunotherapy of cancer [8]. They are also very useful in immunohistochemistry which detect antigen in fixed tissue sections. MABs are also used to purify substances such as in affinity chromatography. A diversity of engineered antibody forms have been created to improve their efficacy, including enhancing the effector functions of full length antibodies, delivering toxins to kill cells or cytokines in order to stimulate the immune system, and biospecific antibodies to target multiple receptors.

2.3 Technologies For Biopharmaceutical Production

Over the last 20 years, there has been extraordinary growth in the biopharma industry based on the development of Recombinant DNA and Hybridoma technologies. Currently, there are more than 18 monoclonal antibodies approved for therapeutic uses out of these most of them are produced by recombinant DNA technology and only few by Hybridoma Technology.

2.3.1 Recombinant DNA Technology

Recombinant refers to DNA (or the protein resulting from such DNA) that has been genetically engineered to contain genetic material from another organism. Genetically altered microorganisms are usually referred to as recombinant, whereas plants and animals so modified are called *transgenic*.

An over view of the strategy typically employed in recombinant DNA technology is given in Figure 1A. The first step is to select a piece of DNA to be inserted into a vector. The second step is to cut that piece of DNA with a restriction enzyme and then ligate the DNA insert into the vector with DNA Ligase. The insert contains a selectable marker which allows for identification of recombinant molecules. An antibiotic marker is often used so a host cell without a vector dies when exposed to a certain antibiotic, and the host with the vector will live because it is resistant. The vector is inserted into a host cell, in a process

called transformation. The host cells must be specially prepared to take up the foreign DNA.

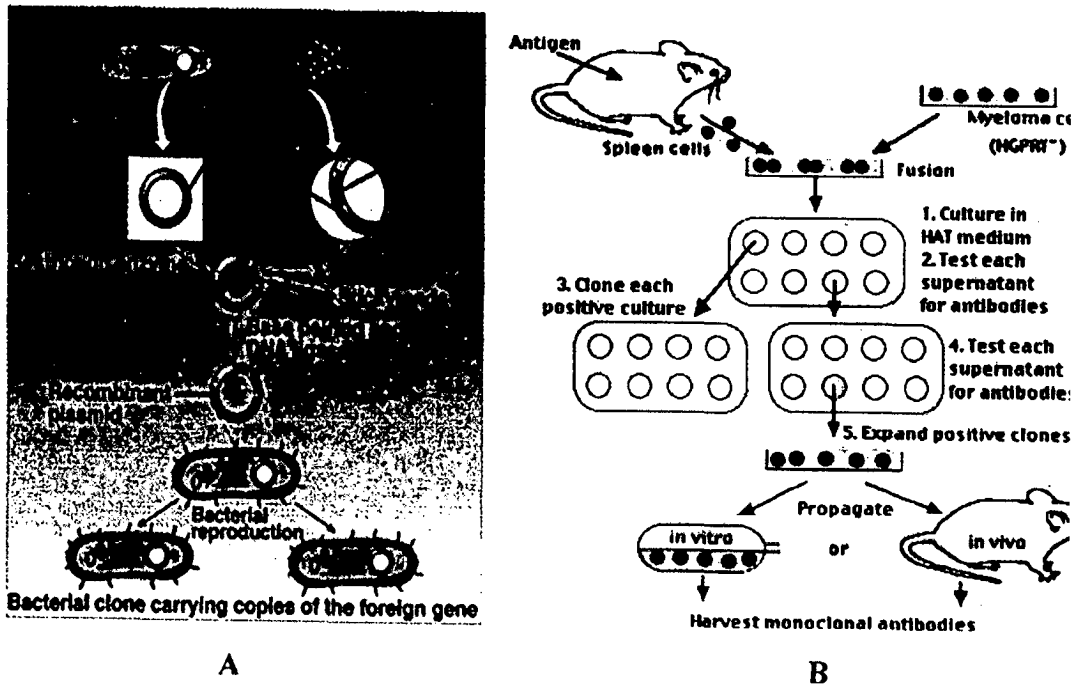


Figure 1: A) Recombinant DNA Technology
B) Hybridoma Technology

2.3.2 Hybridoma Technology

To produce monoclonal antibodies, B-cells are removed from the spleen of a mouse that has been immunized with the antigen of interest (Figure 1B). These B-cells are then fused with myeloma tumor cells that are deficient in an enzyme HGPRT (hypoxanthine-guanine phospho ribosyl transferase). Fused cells are incubated in the *HAT medium* (Hypoxanthine Aminopterin Thymidine). The fused hybrid cells, being cancer cells, will multiply indefinitely, thus producing large amounts of antibodies. MABs can be produced in cell culture or in live animals. When the hybridoma cells are injected in mice they produce tumors containing an antibody-rich fluid called ascites fluid. Fermentors have been used to produce antibodies on a larger scale.

2.4 Manufacturing Process for Production of Monoclonal Antibodies

In today's biopharmaceutical pipeline, mAbs are a predominant modality for a wide range of clinical indications. The commercial and clinical success of mAbs has led to the need for large scale production. This has resulted in rapid expansion of global manufacturing capacity of up to 2,00,000 L and a greatly increased effort to improve process efficiency with concomitant manufacturing cost reduction [3].

Most antibody therapies require high doses over a long period of time, which require large amounts of purified product per patient therefore, careful considerations need to be given with respect to selection of the host cell line, culture medium, process scale-up, culture vessel design and so forth. Two major areas of commercial antibody process developments are:

- A. Upstream Process Development:** includes cell line development, media optimization and cell culture process optimization.
- B. Downstream Process Development:** comprises cell harvest, antibody capture, viral inactivation and polishing steps.

2.4.1 Expression Systems

The most important factors to take into consideration when choosing an optimal expression system are: productivity, process economics, product quality and safety, lead times, scalability and regulatory acceptance. The ability of a cell line to achieve high volumetric productivities depends on various characteristics:

- An appropriately designed expression vector is required for efficient transcription of antibody genes.
- Cell line selected should be capable of efficiently translating antibody mRNAs, assembling and modifying the antibody at high rates with minimal accumulation of in correctly processed polypeptides.
- Cell line must be capable of achieving high viable cell concentration within an acceptable time also it must produce antibody with desired product quality characteristics such as glycosylation.

Expression vectors system most frequently used for production of therapeutic MAbs are Glutamine synthetase (GS) gene expression system and those based on Dihydrofolate reductase (DHFR) genes, an enzyme involved in nucleotide metabolism (hypoxanthine and thymidine) [9]. DHFR⁻ cell lines are transfected with an expression vector containing of DHFR gene and gene of interest and are placed in a medium containing MTX (Methotrexate). MTX inhibits DHFR production which is essential for the survival of the cell. Only cells that overproduce this enzyme will survive. Often more DNA than just target gene is amplified therefore when transfected genes are amplified, other tightly linked sequences including immunoglobulin genes on the vector are co-amplified.

GS catalyses the synthesis of glutamine from glutamate and ammonia. As glutamine is an essential amino acid, transfection of cells that lack endogenous GS, with GS vector confers the ability to grow in glutamine free media. In GS expression system, which uses GS as a selectable marker, a weak promoter is usually used for the expression of GS enzyme while a strong promoter is used to drive the product gene expression. This enables the selection of high producing transfectants where the gene of interest has integrated into transcriptionally active sites within the host cell genome. The transfectants that can survive using the weakly transcribed GS gene in glutamine free media containing a GS inhibitor, methionine sulphoximine (MSX), should produce relatively high level of desired protein due to strong promoter. Some advantages of GS expression system are that it requires fewer copies of the gene per cell to obtain an efficient production level than DHFR production system (which requires several 100 copies of the gene), it mediates a low level of toxic and inhibitory ammonia accumulation during cultivation. It is also interesting to note that cell growth using glutamate in glutamine free medium reduces the accumulation of inhibitory lactate in culture as result of reduced specific glucose consumption rate.

2.4.2 Cell Lines

The key issues affecting the choice of a cell line for use in a manufacturing process are the capability to produce high antibody concentration

in chosen production system the ability to consistently produce a product of uniform characteristics and the speed with which a high yielding cell line can be obtained. Chadd *et al* [7] described that evaluation of various expression systems depends on two factors: molecular fidelity and the cost of goods. They concluded that mammalian cell culture and transgenic organisms show the greatest promise for the expression of full-length, recombinant human antibodies, and bacterial fermentation are most favorable for the expression of antibody fragments.

2.4.3 Mammalian Cell Culture

Mammalian cells are the preferred production vehicle for many therapeutic proteins due to the requisite post-translational processing, in particular appropriate glycosylation and proper folding of the proteins produced (required for efficacy, pharmacokinetics tolerability or stability). These cell lines are often chosen as host for recombinant protein production. These are generally adapted to grow in suspension cultures which offer process scale up advantage over adherent cell cultures [10]. The most commonly used cell lines for antibody production are Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cell lines and murine lymphoid cell lines (SP2/0 Ag14 and NSO). Therapeutic proteins produced in CHO cells include tissue plasminogen activator, erythropoietin, coagulation factor IX, interferon β -1a, and several monoclonal antibodies (HerceptinTM, and RituxanTM).

CHO cells are widely used to produce recombinant antibodies using both DHFR and GS expression system. CHO cell lines have been used primarily in the commercial production of biopharmaceuticals and are readily accepted by regulatory authorities because of their safety profile (non antigenic potential related to carbohydrates), precise post translation modification and correct folding. Unlike other cell types NSO cells are obligate glutamine auxotrophs; glutamine independence can be conferred upon NSO cells following transfection with a functional GS gene. There are reports of other types of cell lines being used to produce mAbs including Hamster line BHK21 and the human retina derived PER.C6 cell line (with human glycosylation patterns, but with risk of human virus contamination) [11].

2.4.3.1 Cell Culture Media and Raw Materials

Mammalian cells require a comprehensive mixture of nutrients in order to survive and grow in vitro. Many basal media containing essential components such as carbohydrates, amino acids, vitamins and various salts are available commercially. However, supplementation of animal serum to these media is often required for cell culture viability, productivity and protein expression. But there is an increasing emphasis to remove animal serum and other animal derived components from culture media as they carry a potential risk of adventitious agent contamination. These concerns have been heightened with the identification of prions as the causative agent of transmissible spongiform encephalopathy (e.g. mad cow disease) also viruses and mycoplasma. In addition, animal sera increase the raw material cost in cell culture and cost of downstream protein purification in large scale manufacturing and batch to batch variation.

More recently, serum free media have been developed and successfully employed in large scale biological manufacturing [12, 13]. These media are more complex and typically include additives such as growth factors (e.g. insulin), iron transporting reagents (e.g. transferrin), reducing reagents (e.g. glutathione), shear protecting reagents (e.g. Pluronic F-68), trace metals (e.g. Selenium and Zn), lipids or lipid precursors and carriers (e.g. linoleic acid and lipoic acid) and protein hydrolysates (e.g. peptone) and hormones (account for cell proliferation). Defined media are inherently less expensive and make downstream processing straight forward as there are fewer contaminants to monitor and remove. Process optimization is also easier in a defined environment.

The most common approach for developing a feed medium uses concentrated basal media without salts (to avoid high osmolality). Using the traditional one-factor at a time approach to develop the serum free medium is a very time consuming and laborious process. However, the introduction of statistical design significantly reduces the labors of composition screening and concentration optimization. Liu *et al* [14] adopted pre-weaning strategy combined with experimental design to develop serum-free media of rCHO cells for production of Microphage colony stimulating factor (M-CSF), also Liu *et al* [15]

used the steepest ascent method to find optimal concentration of stimulatory ingredients for CHO cells.

2.4.4 Reactor Systems For Large Scale Antibody Production

Two types of culture system are used for large scale manufacturing are fed batch and perfusion culture (Figure 2). In perfusion system, cells are retained in the reactor and a variety of retention devices can be used which may be internal or external to the reactor [16]. Though productivity in perfusion bioreactors are greater than fed batch it has some shortcomings which makes it less attractive, such as additional time and complexity is involved in developing the process.

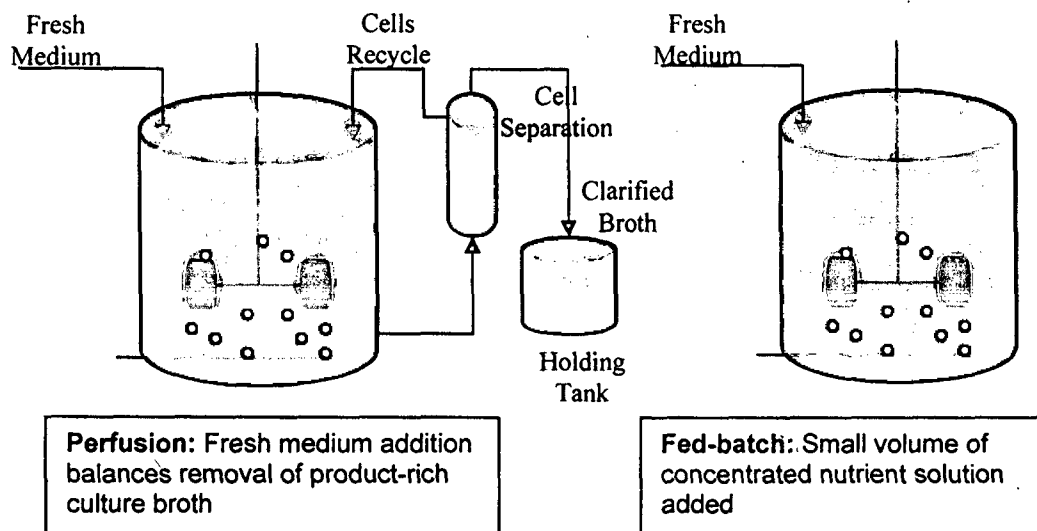


Figure 2: Schematic Diagram of Perfusion and Fed Batch Processes.

Whitford [17] suggested various operating mode choice factors to choose Batch, Fed batch or Perfusion. The prevalence of fed batch over other modes is due to many practical factors including reliability, ease of scalability and application latitude.

In fed batch optimization of feed strategies has been a major factor contribution to improvement in growth and productivity. To optimize a feeding strategy consideration should be given to nutrient consumption, by product accumulation and balance between growth and production. However frequen

feeding is less desirable for large scale production, in manufacturing due to its complexity, stepwise bolus addition of the feed solution to the production bioreactor is widely used in industry due to its simplicity and scalability. During fermentation high titer, high cell density, sustained cell viability, short process time, process robustness and high success rates are to be addressed.

2.4.5 Downstream Processing

Efficient recovery and purification of mAbs from cell culture media is a critical part of the production process. Primary considerations during downstream processing are productivity, economics, product quality, safety, dead times scalability, reliability, robustness and regulatory acceptance. Important product purity attributes include product related impurities like dimers, aggregates and isoforms resulted from amidation and oxidation and process related impurities like host cell proteins, nucleic acids, leached protein A, and potential viral contamination. All these impurities are cleared according to FDA guidelines. Generally, industries follow platform approach for downstream processing of mAbs [18]. Schematic of a platform downstream process for mAbs is shown in Figure 3.

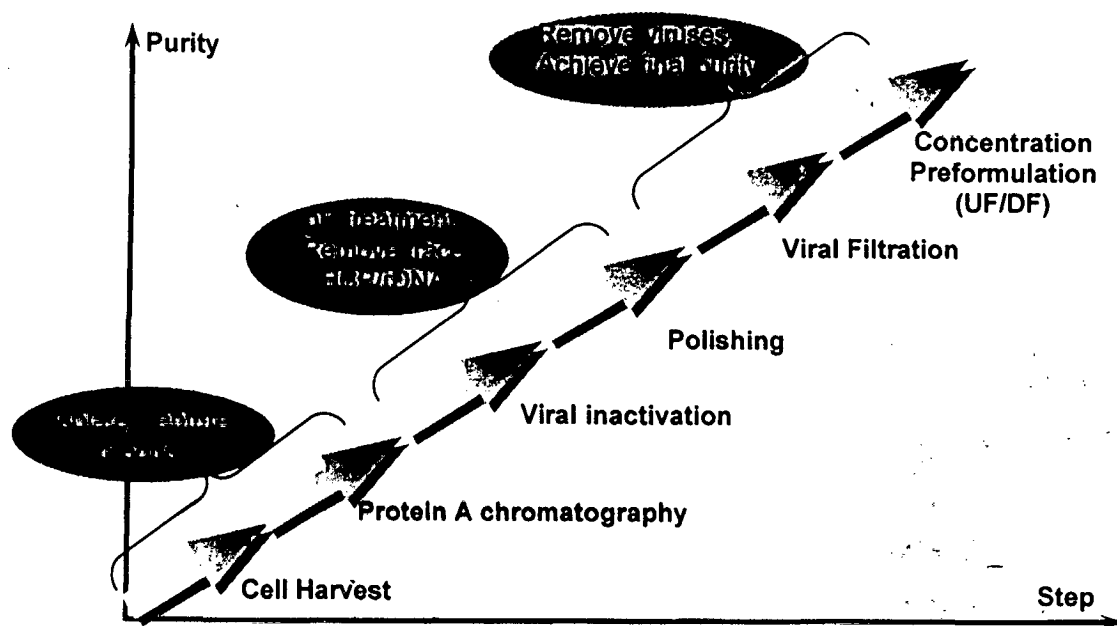


Figure 3: Platform Downstream Process for Monoclonal Antibodies.

In downstream processing, development must focus on limited number of process steps, product quality and high overall productivity. The advantage of using a platform approach include saving in time and effort and harmonization of practices and information across different functions and sites within biotech organization [19].

2.4.5.1 Cell Harvest

The harvest process separates the product released in the culture broth from the cells and cell debris. At commercial scale centrifugation is preferred over other harvesting technologies (e.g. microfiltration) due to its scalability, better clarification and economical operations for large volumes. With the advent of high cell densities and low shear centrifuges a hybrid centrifuge filter system can also be used. The supernatant is further clarified through depth filtration to remove residual cellular debris.

2.4.5.2 Protein A chromatography

Affinity chromatography separates proteins on the basis of a reversible interaction between a protein (or group of proteins) and a specific ligand coupled to a chromatographic matrix. The technique is ideal for a capture or intermediate step and can be used whenever a suitable ligand is available for the protein(s) of interest.

Protein A Chromatography is the most efficient purification step for antibodies; it can purify product to more than 99% purity and remove most of the process impurities [20], still it suffers from many shortcomings such as high cost of resin, it adds another impurity into the process in the form of leached Protein A ligand and the need to carry out product elution at low pH (this can lead to formation of soluble high molecular weight aggregates and insoluble precipitate which results in reduction in product yield and added burden on polishing steps).

As Protein A resins are unstable to alkaline cleaning agents, new engineered ligands (like MAb Select SuRe®) resins are being designed which are alkaline, stable and permits the use of sodium hydroxide for column regeneration.

[21]. Various other alternative to Protein A capture such as bioaffinity ligands tags, etc. are reviewed by Low *et al* [22]. Also membrane chromatography adsorbers can be used in place of protein A as process time is less [23 & 24].

Arunakumari *et al* [25] developed a non affinity purification platform with efficient cation exchange capture chromatography. By optimizing the ion exchange they achieved purity >97 % and recovery of 82% for various HuMAbs. In order to improve process time economics and validation activities they substituted conventional polishing steps by disposable chromatography.

2.4.5.3 Low pH Viral Inactivation

In a typical mAb purification process low pH treatment and viral filtration (0.2 μm) are specific steps designed for viral inactivation and removal. Since Protein A column eluate is at low pH, it is relatively easy to include a low pH incubation step to inactivate viruses. The choice of pH level largely depends on the stability profile of the antibody product and buffer components. Other inactivation methods like gamma irradiation or high temperature short time may gain more relevance if and when non chromatography process becomes realistic.

2.4.5.4 Polishing

Two or three polishing steps are usually require to remove impurities such as high molecular weight aggregates, trace amounts of Host cell protein, isomers of product, rDNA , leached protein A and viral contaminants.

Cation exchange chromatography (CEX), Hydrophobic interaction Chromatography (HIC), Anion exchange chromatography (AEX), Hydroxyapatite (HA) is commonly used for polishing. Table 1 shows the modes of chromatography employed as polishing steps in mAb processes for clearing specific kinds of contaminants.

Ion Exchange Chromatography. (IEX) separates proteins on the basis of differences in charge to give a very high resolution separation with high sample loading capacity. The separation is based on the reversible interaction between a charged protein and an oppositely charged chromatographic medium. Proteins

bind when they are loaded into a column. Conditions are then altered so that bound substances are eluted differentially. Elution is usually performed by increasing salt concentration or by changing pH. Changes are made stepwise or with a continuous gradient.

Table 1: Modes of Chromatography

| IMPURITY | MODE |
|---------------------------|-------------------|
| High molecular aggregates | HIC, CEX |
| Host cell protein | AEX, HIC, CEX |
| Leached Protein A | HA, HIC, CEX |
| Viral clearance | AEX, CEX, HIC, HA |

HIC separates proteins on the basis of differences in hydrophobicity. The technique is ideal for the capture or intermediate steps in purification [26]. Separation is based on the reversible interaction between a protein and the hydrophobic surface of a chromatographic medium. This interaction is enhanced by high ionic strength buffer which makes HIC an ideal 'next step' after precipitation with ammonium sulphate or elution in high salt during IEX. Elution is usually performed by decreasing in salt concentration. Changes are made stepwise or with a continuous decreasing salt gradient.

Gel Filtration (or Molecular Exclusion Chromatography) separates proteins on the basis of differences in molecular size. The technique is ideal for the final polishing steps in purification when sample volumes have been reduced (sample volume significantly influences speed and resolution in gel filtration). Samples are eluted isocratically (single buffer, no gradient).

2.4.5.5 Viral Filtration

Viral filtration is employed to compliment the low pH inactivation step. Viral filters can be classified on the basis of their pore sizes into retroviral (<50nm) and parvoviral (<20nm) grade filters [27]. The placement and size of filter vary from product to product.

2.4.5.6 Concentration (Ultrafiltration/Diafiltration)

After the completion of downstream processes, the product is buffer exchanged into the formulation using Diafiltration setup. Filter sizing can vary depending on the volume being filtered and the extent of particulates in the feed stream. Ultrafiltration (UF) membranes are used extensively in the downstream purification of recombinant monoclonal antibodies. However, the fouling of membranes after a unit operation—especially when recombinant proteins or monoclonal antibodies are highly concentrated—is a common problem. Typically normalized water permeability (NWP) of a membrane can be reduced to about 20 percent of its original permeability at the end of an UF-DF operation. Wu *et al.* [28] described an effective, safe, and economic approach for cleaning a PES (Poly Ether Sulfone) membrane at ambient temperature, using a scale-down simulation of the antibody UF-DF process with a cleaning solution of 250 ppm sodium hypochlorite in 0.5 M NaOH. The results showed that the cleaning solution at room temperature was effective in cleaning the membrane, following execution of an UF/DF step in a monoclonal antibody process.

2.5 cGMP Manufacturing

For companies involved in pharmaceutical production following GMPs (Good Manufacturing Practices) are essential to get new products approved by regulatory agencies. They are the requirements that manufacturers of regulated health care products must follow so that the products they make have the safety, identity, strength, purity and quality (SISPQ) that they purport or are represented to have. If the product does not possess the above characteristics or is not produced or tested according to GMP, the product is considered adulterated and not fit for use. The FDA (Food and Drug Administration) does state that its “current Good Manufacturing Practices” or cGMPs are the minimum requirements and that what defines a manufacturing practice as current and good is being “feasible and valuable in assuring drug quality”. Vesper [29] summarized GMP into 7 elements: Protect the product from contamination; Prevent mix ups; Know what you are to do before you do it; Document what really occurred; Strive

for consistency and control; Have an independent group make the final decisions; Solve problems, learn from mistakes, monitor and continually improve. GMP has evolved gradually, however the recent scientific risk based frame work and the Process Analytical Technology (PAT) [30] initiatives, developed by regulatory authorities to support innovation and efficiency in a cGMP environment, suggest a new way of thinking for the 21st century.

GMP principle as applied to manufacturing facilities states that premises and equipment must be located, designed, constructed, adapted and maintained to suit the operation to be carried out. Their layout and design must aim to minimize the risk of errors and permit effective cleaning and maintenance in order to avoid cross contamination, build up of dust or dirt and in general, any adverse effect on the quality of the product. Various design issues for a cGMP manufacturing facility can be categorized as: process related issues, layout issues, automation strategy issues, flow issues, regulatory issues and validation strategy issues. It should be ensured that there is absence of material crossovers or reverse flows. Also movement of personnel and equipment from “dirty” to clean and back to “gray” spaces should be challenged to ensure that contamination control guidelines for each space would not be compromised.

Lias et al [31] demonstrated a case study of a cGMP facility which has flexible design that can be expanded as conditions warrant. To manufacture multiple products simultaneously a manufacturing scheme comprises of several parallel cleanroom suites, separated by airlocks, accessed through clean corridor and served by dedicated HVAC (heating, ventilation and air conditioning) units. Area classification is done according to the criticality of an area. Generally a processing suites are designed as Class 10,000 areas accessed from inner/ white corridor. Laminar flow hoods/ biosafety cabinets are Class 100 while buffer preparation, glass washing and support areas are Class 100,000. Exterior/ gray corridor is provided for exiting the suites. The facility is usually designed for unidirectional flow i.e. personnel entering a processing suite can not re-enter the white corridor; they must exit through the gray corridor. This provision is 1

prevent cross contamination. Table 2 shows the comparison among the International clean room classifications.

Table 2: Comparison among the International Clean Room Classifications

| Particles/ m ³ > 0.5µm | US 209D non- metric | US 209E 1992 metric | EC cGMP Annex I 1997 | Germany VDI 2083 1990 | UK BS 5295 1989 | Japan JIS B 9920 1989 | ISO 14644- 1 |
|---|------------------------------|------------------------------|---|-----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| 3.5 | | | | 0 | | 2 | 2 |
| 10 | | M 1 | | | | | |
| 35 | 1 | M 1.5 | | 1 | | 3 | 3 |
| 100 | | M 2 | | | | | |
| 353 | 10 | M 2.5 | | 2 | | 4 | 4 |
| 1,000 | | M 3 | | | | | |
| 3,530 | 100 | M 3.5 | A = uni- directional B = turbulent | 3 | E or F | 5 | 5 |
| 10,000 | | M 4 | | | | | |
| 35,300 | 1,000 | M 4.5 | | 4 | G or H | 6 | 6 |
| 100,000 | | M 5 | | | | | |
| 353,000 | 10,000 | M 5.5 | C | 5 | J | 7 | 7 |
| 1,000,000 | | M 6 | | | | | |
| 3,530,000 | 100,000 | M 6.5 | D | 6 | K | 8 | 8 |
| 10,000,000 | | M 7 | | | | | |

Processing areas are served by Air Handling Units (AHUs) and controlled by Building Automation System. The air flow is also unidirectional. All classified areas have terminal High Efficiency Particulate Air (HEPA) filters with low wall returns. Walls are epoxy painted with coving at ceiling, floor and corners to prevent accumulation of dust. Facility is served by USP compliant PW system and WFI system. Materials are transferred into and out of the manufacturing area through separate vestibules.

2.6 Facility Design Aspects

An efficient manufacturing plant should accommodate growth, different products, and different phases of development. It can make large quantities of product quickly and will be inexpensive to build and operate [32]. The design

should give attention to overall security of the site and the building, including safety within the labs and GMP suites, so a person can work alone safely. It also needs to allow for easy future expansion [33]. Following are the GMP requirements for a biopharma facility:

2.6.1 Area Requirements

The facility should allow multiple products to be handled cocurrently and should be able to simultaneously process mammalian and microbial technologies. Each suite should contain separate upstream and downstream processing areas, including separate inoculum and media preparation areas, and bulk filling areas.

2.6.2 Process Development Requirements

The process development labs are critical to the overall facility, handling the upstream and downstream development of biopharmaceutical process including comprehensive cell biology studies, process derivation, design optimization, scale-up, and modeling. In addition, they should produce pilot-scale preclinical materials to Good Laboratory Practices (GLP) quality standards.

2.6.3 Analytical and Quality Control Requirements

The analytical and QC labs provide a valuable product testing facility for products generated and developed in compliance with GMP and process development areas, as well as providing QC release testing and facility monitoring. Areas for wash, preparation, stores, cold storage, fine balances and booking support the QC labs.

2.6.4 Regulatory Requirements

Two main regulatory requirements relate to product quality and operator safety. Relevant parts of the facility must comply with the current good manufacturing practices (cGMPs) of the United States and the European Union for the production of biopharmaceutical medicines. In live areas, operators must

be protected according to guidelines on the handling of genetically modified organisms and dangerous pathogens.

2.6.5 Support Area Requirements

As in all biopharmaceutical facilities, the labs, offices, and GMP suites need support in the form of utilities, wastewater treatment, storage, media and buffer preparation, cleaning and sterilization, and maintenance and workshop facilities. These should all be designed to complement the main operations. Special attention should be given to cleaning and sterilization because the performance and verification of cleaning, disinfection, and sterilization of the facility and equipment will be main contributor to down time. The following requirements need to be designed in:

- Minimization of cleaning and sterilization validation.
- Ability to perform turnaround of upstream and downstream suites independently of one another.
- Robust and rapid cleaning and sterilization methods.
- Ability to demonstrate successful cleaning between campaigns.

2.6.6 Facility Design Process

The facility design process follows definite prescribed pattern. The process is divided into five phases: Conceptual design, Design development, Construction documents, Bidding and Construction administration. During conceptual design phase, the design professional assimilates the program statements and develops concepts to solve the stated problem. The process is then advanced to the design development stage. The interior arrangement and the building mass are studied, to accommodate finer details of individual spaces within the building, and arrangement of the building on the site. Once the arrangement has been defined, construction documents are started. These documents are used to describe the building in sufficient detail so competitive bids can be obtained and construction completed. The construction phase

concludes with the physical building being completed and turned over the owner for production to begin.

2.7 Disposable Components (Single-Use) Technology

Much of the expenses in biopharmaceutical manufacturing come from the large capital investment required to build and operate a manufacturing facility. This poses a strategic problem for biopharmaceutical companies. Also the difficulty of accurately predicting capacity requirements, development timelines, dosages, market sizes and even clinical success and regulatory requirements lead to uncertainties in process development. Considering all these factors Hodge [34] discussed various emerging technologies (Single use disposable manufacturing components, electronic documentation and automation and isolators) that can be integrated to create a manufacturing platform (FlexMax) significantly different from traditional approaches and that offer economics, efficiency and quality improvements. They evaluated that a fully functional FlexMax facility can be installed for <50% of capital cost of an equivalent (100L scale train) scale traditional facility. Disposables such as tubing, filter capsules and bioprocess bag can be used in place of expensive stainless steel (SS316L) vessels and piping. Use of these components minimize capital equipment costs, reduce cleaning and turnaround time, make more efficient use of space, or ease the burden on SI (Steam-In-Place) and CIP (Cleaning-In-Place) system and the utilities that support them.

Sinclair *et al* [35 & 36] compared the leading edge design for a concept facility that exploits fully the benefits of single use disposable technologies with traditional facility based on reusable equipments. They designed a facility of 1000L capacity using disposable material and found that it enabled fast product change over, enhances product security, cost effective manufacturing, reduce labor, utilities and capital.

2.8 Plant Automation

The level of automation available in processing equipment has advanced rapidly over the past decade. Increased yields and product quality are two of the most obvious advantages obtained through deployment of automated process. Automation is viewed as a fixed and highly regulated process designed to eliminate human interaction. An equipment operation can be implemented through automated equipment, such as Programmable Logic Controller (PLC) or Distributed Control System (DCS) control, or it may be performed manually. In practice, process technology, an automation system, apart from the field instrumentation (sensors/actuators), is dominated by process control and instrumentation technology. These tools for automation are fitted into a basic structure of the automation system, which is universally accepted as a means of reference. This basic configuration comprises the typical components process control console, switch room and field level (Figure 4).

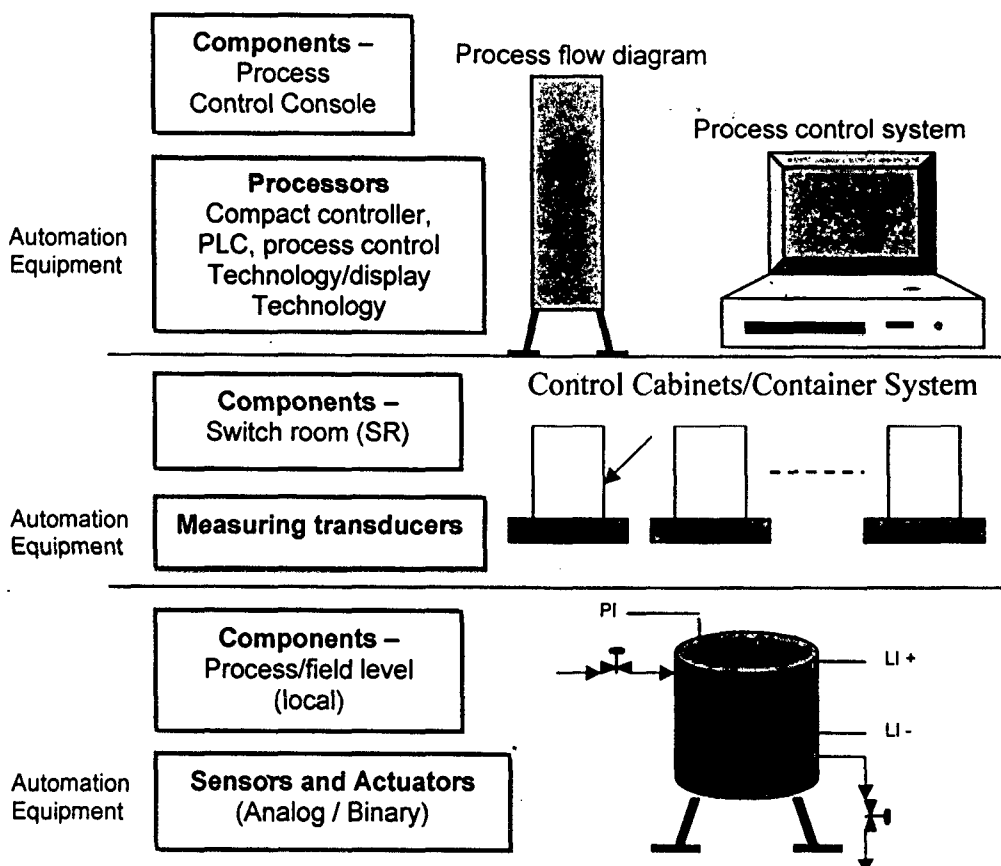


Figure 4: Basic Structure of an Automation System

2.8.1 Control Loop Strategy

In order to consistently manufacture a product that meets appropriate targets for attributes, a robust process with appropriate control should be developed. The basic element of a control system is the control loop. In Figure 5 the various components that make up the control loop are summarized.

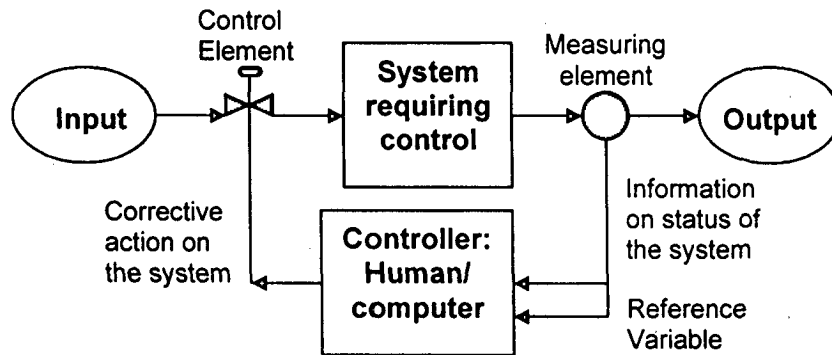


Figure 5: Control Loop Components

There are two fundamental types of controls: Sequence control and loop control. Sequence control is that part of control which permits automation of the equipment operation such as sterilization and other valve automation sequences i.e. for the most part providing an ordered array of digital (on/off) signal control. Loop control deals with combinations of digital and analog control signals. Whatever type of controller is selected for a process control, effective action will depend on the response of the controller. This response is determined by the nature of the control algorithm programmed into the system. The types of control algorithm most frequently encountered are 3-term or PID controllers. The PID controller is made up of three elements: P stands for proportional, I for integral and D for derivative control; the purpose of these functions is to provide a fast acting response to process deviation and scale the response to the output to achieve smooth control action. The characteristics of PID control are:

- Proportional control provides an output the magnitude of which is proportional to the deviation between the measured variable and set point
- Integral control tends to reduce the effect of proportional control alone helping to bring the measured variable back to set point faster by minimizing the integral of control error.

- Derivative action also tends to reduce the effect of P-control alone, by eliminating the slope of measured variable with time and maximizing the slope of the measured variable compared with the set point.

Now a days adaptive automation is used to anticipate changes under active control of a developer while maintaining precise control of all background variables not currently of interest. Kay [23] addressed various areas in which adaptive automation can be used to accelerate the process development activities.

2.8.2 Distributed Control System Architecture

A distributed control system (DCS) refers to a control system usually of a manufacturing system, process or any kind of dynamic system, in which the controller elements are not central in location, but are distributed throughout the system with each component sub-system controlled by one or more controllers. The entire system may be networked for communication and monitoring. It typically uses computers as controllers and use both proprietary interconnections and protocols for communication. Input & output modules form component parts of the DCS. The processor receives information from input modules and sends information to output modules. The input modules receive information from input instruments in the process (i.e. field) and output modules transmit instructions to the output instruments in the field. Computer buses or electrical buses connect the processor and modules through multiplexers/demultiplexers. Buses also connect the distributed controllers with the central controller and finally to the Human-Machine Interface (HMI) or control consoles. A typical DCS consists of functionally and/or geographically distributed digital controllers capable of executing from 1 to 256 or more regulatory control loops in one control box. The input/output devices (I/O) can be integral with the controller or located remotely via a field network. Today's controllers have extensive computational capabilities and, in addition to PID control, can generally perform logic and sequential control. DCSs may employ one or several workstations and can be configured at the workstation or by an off-line personal computer. Local communication is handled by a control network with transmission over twisted pair, coaxial, or fiber

optic cable. A server and/or applications processor may be included in the system for extra computational, data collection, and reporting capability.

2.8.2.1 Elements of Distributed control system

Following are the primary elements of a Distributed control system:

- **Operator Console:** All the commands, sequences and functions are shown in the operator console. Here the operator issues commands to field instruments and also acknowledges operator prompts.
- **Engineering Station:** These are stations for engineers to configure the system and also to implement control algorithms.
- **History Module:** History module stores the configurations of the DCS as well as the configurations of all the points in the plant. They also store the graphic files that are shown in the console and in most systems these days they are able to store some plant operating data.
- **Data Historian:** These are usually extra pieces of software that are dedicated to store process variables, set points and output values. They are usually of higher scanning rates than that available in the history module.
- **Control Modules:** These are customized to do control functions like PI control, ratio control, simple arithmetic and dynamic compensation.
- **I/Os:** These manage the input and output (digital or analog) of the DCS. Digital I/Os are those like on/off, start/stop signals.

S88 is a standard addressing batch control and provides a design philosophy for software, equipment and procedures. Following S88 on a process means: Defining the physical model, procedures and recipes. Deitz *et al* [3] discussed the steps required to apply S88 standard to a process. They illustrate these steps by modularizing control of a buffer preparation vessel.

Industry standards such as the FDA's 21 CFR Part 11 (which provides criteria for electronic records, electronic signatures and handwritten signatures wherever computer systems are used for regulated activities) and the newer P/ initiative [39, 40] demand increased automation capabilities in the biopharmaceutical field.

Chapter III

OBJECTIVES

The overall objective of this study is to design a manufacturing train for the production of recombinant therapeutic protein and monoclonal antibodies using mammalian cell culture which is cGMP compliant. The facility is designed for an annual production of 2250 grams of purified product.

The study is divided into four major parts:

1. **Plant Design:** In this section overall mass balance is applied on the process and Process Flow Diagram is generated. On the basis of mass balance, size (i.e. capacity) of various equipments is defined.
2. **Equipment Design:** All the major equipments are designed as per the standards.
3. **Facility Design:** In this section a manufacturing facility design is proposed which is cGMP compliant.
4. **Computer System Design:** DCS architecture as per S88 standards is discussed and control strategy of various processes is studied on the equipments.

Chapter IV

METHODOLGY AND ANALYSIS FOR PLANT DESIGN

4.1 Market Demand

MABs represent the fastest growing pharmaceutical market segment (43% compounded annual growth rate). Even with the conservative assumptions about growing attrition rates, substitution pressure and margin squeezes, mAbs sales will probably reach a stable plateau of \$ 20 Billion by 2010. Currently there are 20 therapeutic antibodies and fusion proteins on the market targeting different diseases and 150 more in various stages of clinical trials [41 and 42]. While the commercialization of mAbs is gathering momentum, the sector is facing a worldwide shortfall of available biomanufacturing capacity that is becoming a critical strategic limitation. Figure 6 shows the increasing annual sales and demands of the mAbs [43].

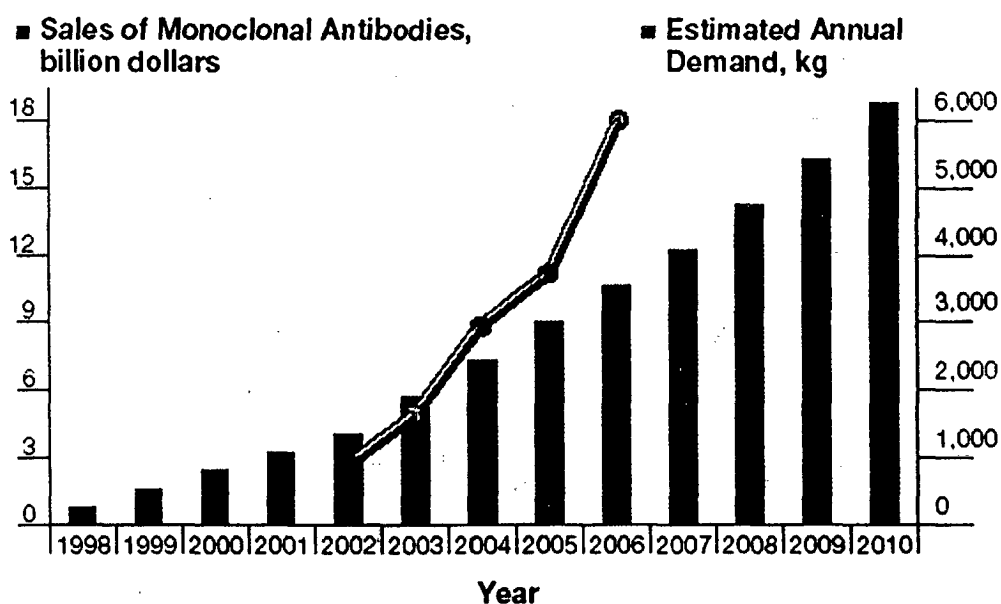


Figure 6: Annual Sales and Manufacturing Demands for Marketed MABs.

The production process for mAbs must be designed in such a way that it meets the highest requirements with regard to consistency and reproducibility. These therapeutics usually require high doses and therefore vast manufacturing capacities. The typical dose for a mAb therapeutic is assumed to be 2-5 g per patient per year. Assuming an average of 80,000-1,00,000 patients, there is a requirement of 500 kg of product per year worldwide.

4.2 Plant Capacity Calculation

The plant capacity depends upon previous planning estimates and calculation, which determine the quantity of raw material necessary to meet the demands of production per year. These estimates take into consideration the product titer, yields through the purification process, and losses during final fill operations or during sampling required for quality control and in process monitoring. This information will provide the total number of liter of cell culture medium required. Based on the mode of operation, the batch size and batches per year can be established.

In this report the design of the biotechnology facility is driven by requirements of Monoclonal Antibodies in India. From market demand we require around 90,000 vials (each of 1ml capacity) of lyophilized monoclonal antibodies expressed in mammalian cell culture to meet the dosage requirement of 25 mg per year. Therefore, total protein requirement is 2250 gm per year. The estimated product titer in bioreactor is 1.0 g/L. Considering an overall recovery efficiency of 50%, we achieve a purified product titer of 0.5 g/L. If in each run 1200 grams of product is obtained from the bioreactor so, required working volume of Bioreactor is 2400 L. After considering losses in sampling etc. reactor working volume is taken as 2500 L. In one run 1200 grams of product is produced so, in order to meet the requirement of 2250 grams of product per year two production runs are entailed. Table 3 shows the calculation summary.

Table 3: Calculation Summary

| Demand (no. of vials) | Dosage | | Total protein reqt. (gms/yr) | Bioreactor runs | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------|-------------|------------------------------------|-----------------|---------|----------------|
| | Qty mg | Nature | | Size (L) | Gms/run | No. of runs |
| 90,000 | 25 | Lyophilized | 2,250 | 2500 | 1,200 | 1.9 |

4.3 Process Mass Balance

Tables 4, 5 and 6 provide a summary of the overall material balances per batch. The quantities are in kilograms per batch. The duration of a single batch is 648 hours. The overall recovery yield of the product is taken as 50% (1224 g of product is recovered out of the 2500 g that is present in the cell culture broth).

Table 4: Cell Culture Operations

| | |
|---|----------------------|
| Bioreactor Size | 3,333 L |
| Working % | 75 |
| Bioreactor Maximum Working Volume | 2,500 L |
| Fed-Batch | |
| Product Titer in bioreactor-crude | 1 gms/L |
| Recovery/Purification overall Yield | 50 % |
| Net product Titer per bioreactor-Purified | 0.5 gms/L |
| Media/or/Harvest Volume / Batch Vol/Day | 0.11 V/V/D |
| Harvest Volume/ Day | 275 L/Day |
| Growth Cycle | 3 Days |
| Production Cycle | 9 Days |
| Turn-around time (CIP/SIP + QA +Other) | 15 Days |
| Total batch cycle | 27 Days |
| Operating days / Year | 300 Days/Year |
| Batch cycles / Year | 11 Cycles/Year |
| Productivity / Day | 136 gms/Day |
| Batch Productivity / Cycle | 1224 gms/Batch cycle |
| Annual Production | 13464 gms/Year |

| | | | Recovery (%) | Feed Volume (L) | Product Volume (L) | Protein Amount (gms) | Protein Conc. (g/L) | Solutions Volume (L) | Waste Volume (L) |
|--|--|---------------|--------------|-----------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------|----------------------|------------------|
| Nanofilter-Viral | | | | | | | | | |
| Wash Buffers | | | | | | | | 365 | |
| Post viral product stream per wash | | 1.0 * Feed | 98 | 364.6 | 729.6 | 1429 | 2 | | |
| Ultrafiltration-2 | | | | | | | | | |
| Retentate | | Conc. by | 95 | 729.6 | 73 | 1358 | 19 | | |
| Permeate | | | | | | | | | 657 |
| Chromatography-3 (GPC) | | | | | | | | | |
| Feed as % of bed | | Col. Vol. (L) | | | | | | | |
| | | 10 | | | | | | | |
| Eluate | | %Col. Vol. | 95 | 72.9 | 218.7 | 1290 | 6 | | |
| Buffer Solutions (L) | | 30 | | | | | | | |
| Waste Fractions (L) | | 10 | | | | | | 7290 | |
| | | | | | | | | | 7,144 |
| Ultrafiltration-3/Diafiltration | | | | | | | | | |
| Concentrate: | | Conc. by | | | | | | | |
| Retentate | | | 95 | 218.7 | 55 | 1226 | 22 | | |
| Permeate | | | | | | | | | 164 |
| Diafilter: Buffer | | 3*Concentrate | | | | | | 165 | |
| Permeate | | | | | | | | | 165 |
| Total | | | | | | | | 21,221 | 23,666 |

Table 6: Overall Mass Balance

| Per Batch (L) | In | | Out |
|-----------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------|------------|
| Buffer Solutions (L) | 21,221 | Waste (L) | 23,666 |
| Harvest Batch (L) | 2,500 | Purified Product (L) | 55 |
| Total | 23,721 | | 23,721 |

4.4 Critical analysis of the Mass Balance

The maximum working volume of the bioreactor is taken to be 2500 L in order to meet the annual product requirement of 2250 gms. The working volume of a bioreactor is generally taken as 70 – 85 % of the geometric volume [44]. In order to provide space for the foam a head space of 25 % is given. Therefore, the geometric volume of the bioreactor is 3333 L (~ 3400 L). A fed-batch process is selected in which media is added intermittently. A total of 2500 L of media is added, half of which is added at the start and remaining half at the end of the growth phase. The volume of harvest is taken as the volume of the media added. A total of 27 days, batch cycle runs in which 3 days are for growth of cells, 9 days for the production cycle and the remaining 15 days are dedicated to Clean in Place/Sterilization in Place and other Quality Assurance/Quality Control activities. A total of 300 operating days are used for the production while the remaining days are used for maintenance activities. For a total of 11 batches per cycle, annual productivity of the plant is 13464 grams/year.

For the recovery and purification operations a “Platform Approach” is followed. The unit operations are selected on the basis of the literature review for the use of platform approach for downstream processing of monoclonal antibody. For harvesting a low shear centrifuge is preferred over microfiltration due to its scalability, better clarification and economical operations for large scale. If viscosity increases there is a decrease in the separation efficiency. In most of the cases, a 25-50% dilution of the feed may lead to a 2 to 5 fold reduction in viscosity. Therefore, in this case feed is diluted with a buffer quantity half of the feed volume thus increasing the separation efficiency of the centrifuge. The product recovery yield of this step is 90%. Before going to Protein chromatography the product stream from the centrifuge is ultrafiltered to

concentrate the protein by 20-fold with a recovery yield of 90 %. Affinity chromatography offers high selectivity, hence high resolution, and usually high capacity for the protein(s) of interest. Protein A Chromatography is the most efficient purification step for antibodies with a recovery yield of more than 90%. For a protein load per column of 5g/l, a 405 L bed volume is opted. The key stages in affinity purification are shown in Figure 7 [45]. On the basis of this graph a total of 15 column volumes of buffer is taken.

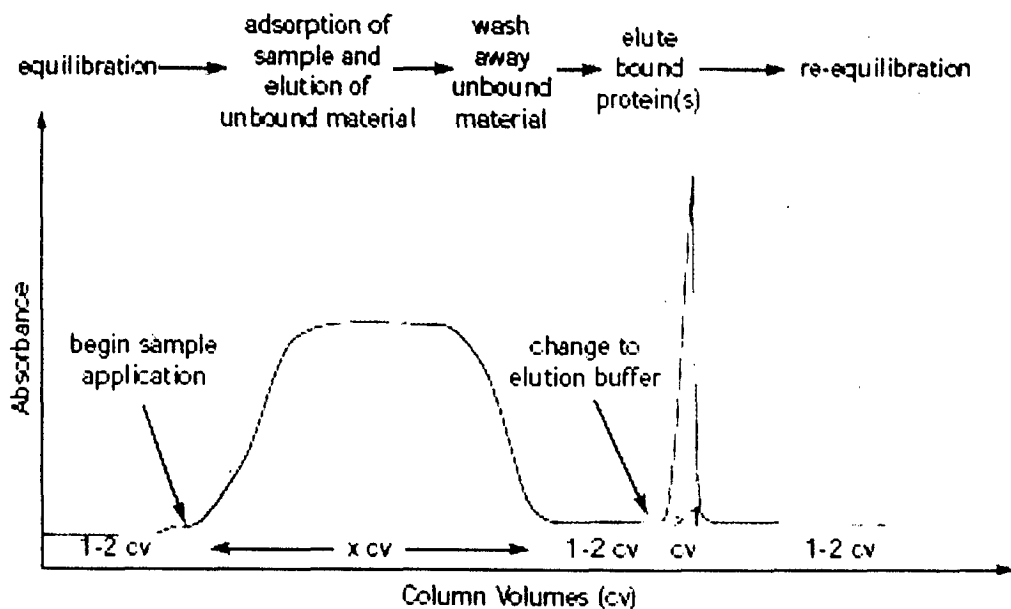


Figure 7: Typical Affinity Purification.

After chromatography the product is diafiltered with buffer solution (3 times the feed volume) in order to remove salts. Ion exchange Chromatography is used for the removal of high molecular aggregates, host cell proteins, leached Protein A and viral clearance with a recovery yield of more than 80%. For a protein load per column of 10g/l, a 182.3 L bed volume is required. The key stages in Ion exchange chromatography are shown in Figure 8 [45]. On the basis of this graph a total of around 20 column volumes of buffer solution is taken.

After ion exchange chromatography the product is sent through a nanofilter (with a recovery of 98 % in order to remove viruses) to ultrafiltration unit to increase the concentration of the product by 10-fold.

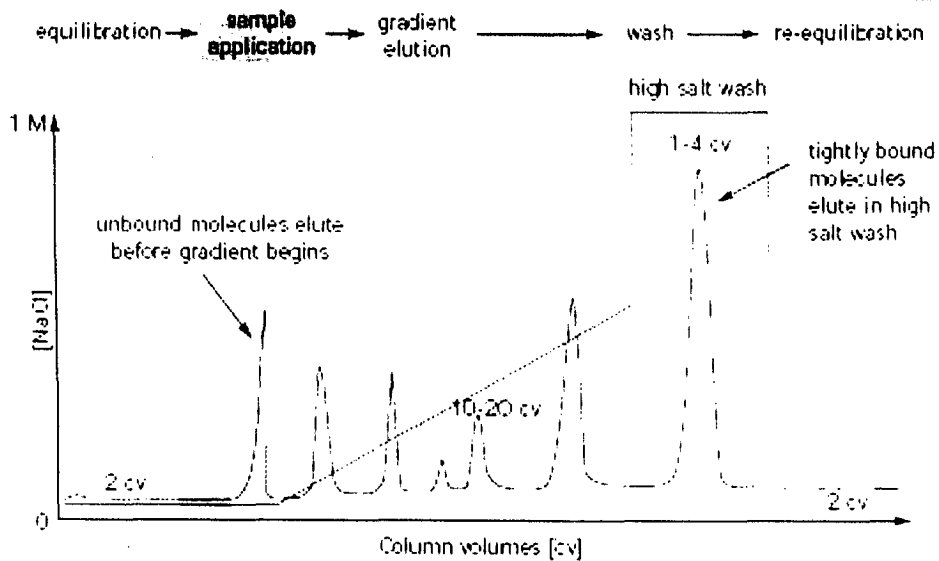


Figure 8: Typical IEX Gradient Elution.

Gel Filtration chromatography is an ideal operation for the final polishing steps in purification when sample volumes have been reduced. For a feed of 10% of bed volume a 729 liters of column volume is selected. Finally, after the completion of downstream processes, the product is concentrated (by 4-fold) and buffer exchanged into the formulation using Ultrafiltration / Diafiltration setup.

4.5 Equipment Sizing

On the basis of above calculations all the major equipments are sized.

4.5.1 Bioreactor Sizing

As discussed in the plant capacity calculation section in order to obtain 2250 grams of product annually a 2500 L bioreactor is required. For mammalian cell culture the bioreactor height and diameter ratio lies in the range of 1:1 to 2:1. Here we select height and diameter ratio of 1.5:1.

4.5.2 Chromatography column sizing

As shown in the mass balance three chromatography columns are required with a bed volume of 405 L, 182 L, and 728 L. Taking a bed height to diameter ratio of 1.2:1, column diameter and height are calculated (Table 7).

Table 7: Chromatography Column Sizes

| Chromatography Columns Bed Volumes (L) | | | Column Bed Dimensions H/D = 1.2:1 | | | |
|---|-------|-------|--------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Col-1 | Col-2 | Col-3 | | Col-1 | Col-2 | Col-3 |
| | | | Diameter | 75 | 58 | 92 |
| 405 | 182 | 728 | Height | 90 | 70 | 110 |

The commercially available columns bed volume and dimensions are selected from the vendors' catalogue (Table 8).

Table 8: Commercially Available Chromatography Column Sizes

| Chromatography Columns Bed Volumes (L) | | | Column Bed Dimensions | | | |
|---|-------|-------|-----------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Col-1 | Col-2 | Col-3 | | Col-1 | Col-2 | Col-3 |
| | | | Diameter | 44.6 | 44.6 | 50 |
| 130 | 91 | 251 | Height | 83 | 58 | 128 |
| | | | H/D | 1.9 | 1.3 | 2.6 |

Therefore, the numbers of cycles required by the columns are: Column 1 \approx 3, Column 2 \approx 2 and Column 3 \approx 3.

4.5.3 TFF System Sizing

For the first ultrafiltration step a processing time of 8 hours is estimated while for other two 5 hours of processing are sufficient as they process less amount of product volume. Generally in industrial practices for concentration a flux of 20-30 L/m².h is specified [44]. Referring to the mass balance calculations the amount of permeate coming out at the end of the ultrafiltration operation is used to calculate the membrane area (Table 9).

Table 9: TFF System Sizes

| System | Permeate (L) | Processing time (Hr) | Flux (LMH) | Membrane Area (sq. mt) |
|--------|-----------------|-------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|
| UF-1 | 2138 | 8 | 20 | 13.4 |
| UF-2 | 656 | 5 | 20 | 6.6 |
| UF-3 | 164 | 5 | 20 | 1.6 |

4.5.4 Buffer Preparation/Supply Tank Sizing

As the chromatography operations require a large amount of buffer as compared to the other unit operations such as UF/DF, the buffer tank sizing is done on the basis of the requirement by the chromatography operations. For chromatography different types and amounts of buffers are used for the various functions performed on it, summary of which is given in Tables 10, 11 and 12.

a. Column-1: Bed Volume is 130 L

Table 10: Buffer Requirements for Column-1

| Steps | Function | Buffers Name | Type | CVs | 1 Cycle (L) | 3 Cycles (L) |
|------------------|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------|--------------|
| 1 | Wash | A1 | PBS-1 | 3 | 390 | 1170 |
| 2 | Equilibration | B | PBS-2 | 3 | 390 | 1170 |
| 3 | Loading | | Product | | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | Wash | B | PBS-2 | 2 | 260 | 780 |
| 5 | Elution-1 | C | Tris+NaCl | 1 | 130 | 390 |
| | Elution-2 | D | Tris+NaCl | 1 | 130 | 390 |
| 6 | Wash | B | PBS-2 | 3 | 390 | 1170 |
| 7 | Sanitize | S1 | NaOH | 3 | 390 | 1170 |
| 8 | Wash | B | PBS-2 | 3 | 390 | 1170 |
| Subtotals / Run: | | | | 19 | 2470 | 7410 |
| 9 | Storage-Short | S2 | NaOH | 1 | 130 | 390 |
| 10 | Storage-Long | S3 | EtOH | 1 | 130 | N.A. |

Total Buffer per Run = 8,190 L

b. Column-2: Bed Volume is 90 L

Table 11: Buffer Requirements for Column-2

| Steps | Function | Buffers Name | Type | CVs | 1 Cycle (L) | 2 Cycles (L) |
|------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------|-----|-------------|--------------|
| 1 | Wash | A2 | Citrate | 3 | 270 | 540 |
| 2 | Equilibration | B | PBS-2 | 3 | 270 | 540 |
| 3 | Loading | | Product | | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | Wash | B | PBS-2 | 2 | 180 | 360 |
| 5 | Elution | A2 | Citrate | 2 | 180 | 360 |
| 6 | Wash | A2 | Citrate | 3 | 270 | 540 |
| 7 | Sanitize | E | B+Thimersol | 2 | 180 | 360 |
| Subtotals / Run: | | | | 15 | 1350 | 2700 |
| 8 | Storage-Short | S2 | NaOH | 1 | 90 | 180 |
| 9 | Storage-Long | S3 | EtOH | 1 | 90 | N.A. |

Total Buffer per Run = 2,880 L

c. Column-3: Bed Volume is 250 L

Table 12: Buffer Requirements for Column-3

| Steps | Function | Buffers Name | Type | CVs | 1 Cycle (L) | 3 Cycles (L) |
|------------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------|-----|-------------|--------------|
| 1 | Wash | A1 | PBS-1 | 2 | 500 | 1500 |
| 2 | Equilibration | A1 | PBS-1 | 1 | 250 | 750 |
| 3 | Loading | | Product | | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | Elution | A1 | PBS-1 | 2 | 500 | 1500 |
| 5 | Sanitize | S1 | NaOH | 2 | 500 | 1500 |
| Subtotals / Run: | | | | 7 | 1750 | 5250 |
| 6 | Storage-Short | S2 | NaOH | 3 | 750 | 2250 |
| 7 | Storage-Long | S3 | A1+Preservative | 1 | 250 | N.A. |

Total Buffer per Run = 7,500 L

Therefore, the total amount of Buffer solutions required in all the three columns for different functions is 18,570 L.

4.5.4.1 Totals by Buffer Type for Buffer Preparation/Supply Tank Sizing

On the basis of the amount of the various buffers required by the chromatography columns the buffer preparation or supply tank sizing is done. It is estimated that total amount of buffer prepared is three times of the concentrate preparation. Also it is assumed that the buffer in the tank is filled to 75 % of its total volume. Therefore, the buffer tank volume required to prepare different types of buffer is summarized in Table 13. This table shows that a total of around two 2400 L, two 1300 L, one 700 L and three 200 L buffer supply tanks are required to fulfill the buffer requirements in the facility. In order to prepare buffer, single buffer preparation tank of each above stated capacity can be used.

Table 13: Buffer Tank Volume Required

| Buffers Name | Type | Column Buffer Requirement | | | Totals/ Buffer (L) | Buffer Tank Volume (L) |
|--------------|-------------------|---------------------------|-------|-------|--------------------|------------------------|
| | | Col-1 | Col-2 | Col-3 | | |
| A1 | PBS-1 | 1170 | 0 | 3750 | 4920 | 2187 |
| A2 | Citrate | 0 | 1440 | 0 | 1440 | 640 |
| B | PBS-2 | 4290 | 900 | 0 | 5190 | 2307 |
| C | Tris+NaCl | 390 | 0 | 0 | 390 | 173 |
| D | Tris+NaCl | 390 | 0 | 0 | 390 | 173 |
| E | B+Thimersol | 0 | 360 | 0 | 360 | 160 |
| S1 | NaOH | 1170 | 0 | 1500 | 2670 | 1187 |
| S2 | NaOH | 390 | 180 | 2250 | 2820 | 1253 |
| | Subtotals: | 7800 | 2880 | 7500 | 18180 | |

4.6 WFI Requirements for Media and Buffer Solutions

US Pharmacopoeia based WFI (Water-For-Injection) is required for media preparation, buffer preparation and for clean-in-place operations. A summary of the total WFI needed by chromatography columns, media preparation and buffer preparation operations (excluding the CIP requirements) are given along with the peak WFI requirements by Process (Table 14).

Table 14: WFI Requirement for Buffer Solution of Chromatography

| | Chromatography Columns | | |
|--|------------------------|-------|-------|
| | Bed Volumes (L) | | |
| | Col-1 | Col-2 | Col-3 |
| Preliminary Design Basis | 405 | 182 | 728 |
| Selected Design Basis | 130 | 91 | 251 |
| No. of cycles / column | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| Column volume per column | 20 | 15 | 7 |
| Preliminary Average Buffer Volume | 8100 | 2730 | 5096 |

Total WFI needed by columns = 15,926 L

Media Solution required per run = 2,500 L

Buffer Solution required per run = 21,222 L

Total WFI per run = 23,722 L

Peak WFI requirements by "Process" only

- 2,500 L Fed-Batch cell culture use 23,722 L WFI. Three days on an average it will use 7,907 L/Day of WFI.
- Column-1 uses the maximum amount of 7,800 L WFI. One day on an average it will use 7,800 L/day of WFI.
- Average peak WFI requirements for the process (without CIP) are 7,854 L/Day.

4.7 Process Description

The entire process for manufacturing monoclonal antibodies is shown in a simplified flow diagram in Figure 9.

4.7.1 Upstream section

The serum-free and low-protein-content media powder is dissolved in WFI in a stainless steel tank, and the solution is sterilized using a 0.1 mm dead-end polishing filter. A stirred-tank bioreactor is used to grow the mammalian cells that express the therapeutic monoclonal antibody. The bioreactor operates in fed batch mode. A cycle time of 648 hours (288 hours for fermentation and 360 hours for turnaround) was assumed for the bioreactor. The volume of broth generated per bioreactor batch is around 2,500 liters containing 2500 g of product (the product titer is 1 g/L). The total volume of the bioreactor vessel is 3,400 liters.

4.7.2 Downstream section

The generated biomass and other suspended compounds are removed using a centrifuge. If viscosity increases there is a decrease in the separation efficiency. In most of the cases, a 25-50% dilution of the feed may lead to a 2 to 5 fold reduction in viscosity. Therefore, in this case feed is diluted with a buffer quantity half of the feed volume thus increasing the separation efficiency of the centrifuge. The product recovery yield of this step is 90%. This filtration step takes 5.1 h and requires a membrane area of around 30 m². The clarified solution is concentrated 20-fold using a 5,000 Dalton MW cut-off ultrafilter (UF-1). The

recovery yield of this step is 90%. This step takes 8 h and requires a membrane area of 13.4 m². The bulk of the contaminant proteins are removed using a protein A affinity chromatography column (C-1). The following operating assumptions were made: (1) Protein load per column volume is taken as 5 g/l; (2) the product is recovered in 2 CV's of eluant buffer with a recovery yield of 90%, and the pH is maintained near neutral to ensure product stability; and (3) the total volume of the solutions for column equilibration, wash, elution and regeneration is 15 CV's. This step requires a column volume of around 405 liters. The protein A elution buffer is exchanged with another buffer using Diafiltration. The purification proceeds using an ion-exchange chromatography column (C-2). The following operating assumptions were made: (1) Protein load per column volume is taken as 10 g/l; (2) the product is recovered in 2 CV's of eluant buffer with a recovery yield of 80%; and (3) the total volume of the solutions for column equilibration, wash, elution and regeneration is 20 CV's. This step requires a column volume of 182 liters. The clarified solution is concentrated 10-fold using a 30,000 Dalton MW cut-off ultrafilter (UF-2). The recovery yield of this step is 95%. This step takes 5 h and requires a membrane area of 6.6 m². The purification proceeds using a Gel Permeation chromatography column (C-3). The following operating assumptions were made for the GPC step: (1) Feed is fed in the column as 10% of the bed volume; (2) the product is recovered in 30% CV of eluant buffer with a recovery yield of 95%; and (4) the total volume of the solutions for column equilibration, wash, elution and regeneration is 10 CV's. This step requires a column volume of 729 liters. The purified product solution is concentrated four fold and elution buffer is exchanged with formulation buffer. The product concentration in the final solution is around 22 g/liter. Finally, the purified product is stored in disposable bags and is sent to Fill Finish area where it is bulk manufactured and sterile filtered to vials and finally they are lyophilized.

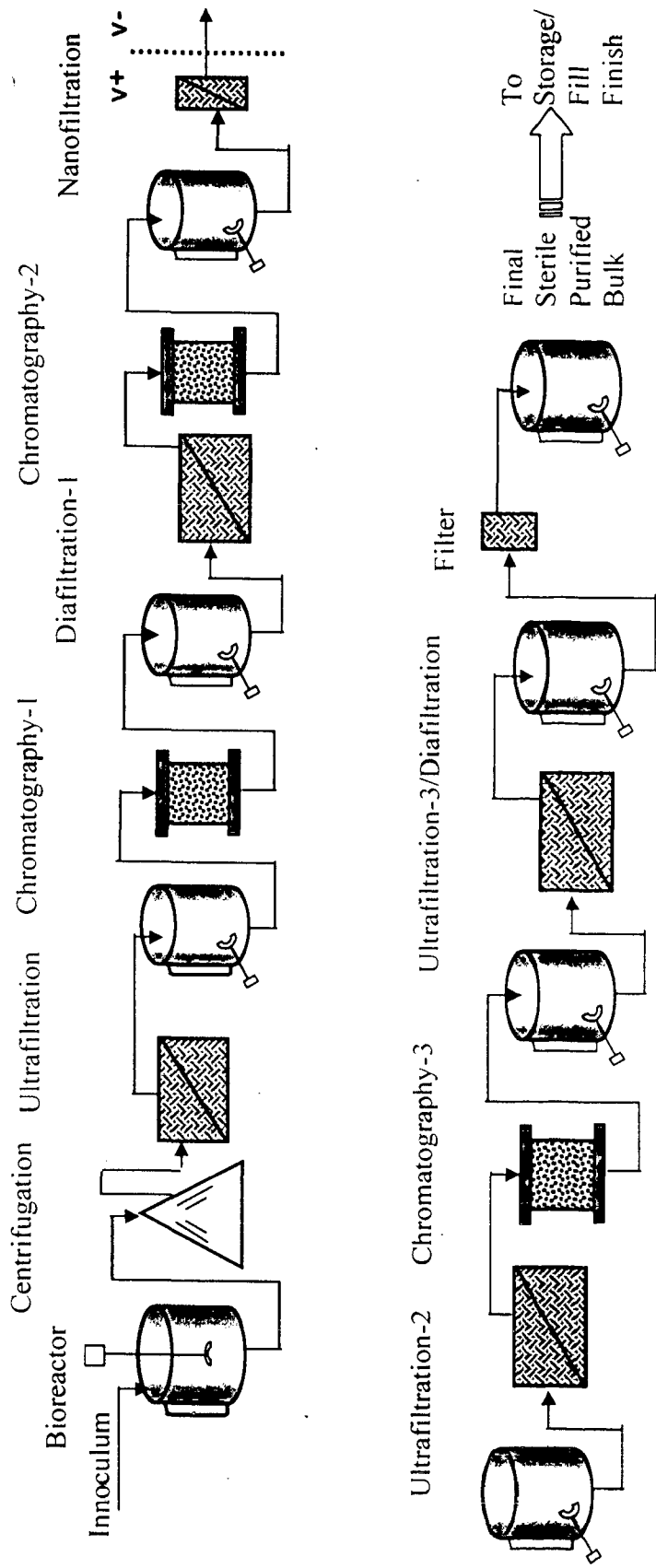


Figure 9: A Simplified Flow Diagram for Monoclonal Antibody Production

Chapter V

EQUIPMENT DESIGN

5.1 Design of Production Bioreactor

The most striking characteristic of animal cells, which makes their large scale culture fundamentally different from conventional microbial fermentation, is their fragility. These cells are easily damaged by mechanical stress, and cannot be cultured under conditions of high aeration and agitation that are the hallmarks of turbulent microbial fermentation. Animal cells are considerably larger than their microbial counterparts, and do not possess a rigid, highly resistant cell wall to protect them from the shear generating environment of a rapidly stirred and aerated tank.

Animal cells that are capable of being propagated in suspension culture have been the most attractive to industry for a variety of reasons, with monoclonal antibody production receiving most attention. Stirred tanks are perceived as being reliable, well understood, and easily scaled up. Stirred suspension cultures are amenable to various kinds of operations, including batch culture, fed-batch, semi-continuous, or continuous perfusion. Indeed, stirred tanks can support the growth both of suspension cells and of anchorage-dependent cells when used in conjunction with micro carriers.

The design of a fully functional bioreactor requires perfect integration of several components to ensure that cultures will finish at the desired productivity. These components include: a jacketed stainless steel vessel, temperature control, agitation, sparge gas control, surface gas control, pH and dissolved oxygen control, a sampling mechanism, weight indication and control, cleaning hardware, sterilization hardware, piping and tubing to deliver all services, add media, pH control solutions, and gases, feed and addition pumps, and a supervisory control and a data-acquisition system.

5.1.1 Characteristics and Design of Bioreactor

Various aspects of the mechanical design of a bioreactor are discussed as following:

- **Safety codes:** The single most important factor in vessel designing is that the vessel should be safe to operate at design conditions. For safety

operation, the vessel must be built and tested in accordance with the ASME Code for Unfired Pressure Vessels.

- **Materials:** The choice of materials for vessel construction should be based on the compatibility with the organism, corrosiveness of the fermentation broth, cost and equipment life time and material testing. Most vessels and process lines designed for aseptic operation are built from SS316L as it is less corrosive and does not shed particles. For jacket and black utility supply lines we can go with SS304 or SS304L. The primary differences among these are concentrations of carbon and alloying materials, such as molybdenum, which affect primarily corrosion resistance and welding characteristics.
- **Welds:** The quality of vessel welds is extremely important, not only for code purposes, but also to insure maximum smoothness and cleanability and to minimize corrosion problems. All vessel welding for aseptic bioreactors should be done under inert gas shielding, so as to minimize oxidation and flux residue, and to yield smoother, pit-free welds. Therefore, orbital welding and TIG welding are preferred.
- **Finish:** The smoother a surface is, the easier it is to clean. Surface roughness inside the vessel should be less than 0.3 microns and outside should be less than 0.8 micron. A vessel should be electropolished from inside to minimize the surface roughness. For outer surface mechanical polishing suffices for the purpose. During fabrication and polishing there is some destruction of the surface film that protects stainless steel from corrosion. For this we need passivation of the internal surface of the vessel. A typical passivation process involves cleaning with NaOH and citric acid followed by nitric acid and a complete water rinse.
- **Cleanability:** The Bioreactor must be designed to insure that the Cleaning-In-Place (CIP) system is not compromised and that all interior surfaces can be cleaned. There should not be any accumulation of solids; smooth and free-draining, and dead legs should be within permitted limits i.e. not more than 1 to 3 times of the pipe diameter.

- **Nozzles:** Nozzles should be aseptically connected to the external piping. Above 4" size nozzle can be selected which are flanged with O-rings. The nozzles should be mounted at an angle of 5-15 °C off the horizontal for free draining thus minimizing the trapping of material in the nozzle or J type nozzles can be mounted on the vessel head. Nozzle cavity should be kept as small as possible for easy cleaning and sterilization. It should slightly protrude from the surface in order to avoid added liquids dribbling down the surface.

5.1.1.1 Size and Geometry

Stirred cell culture tanks are almost always cylindrical vessels with a ratio of height and diameter lying in the range of 1:1 to 2:1. In this case a height to diameter ratio of 1.5:1 is taken. A flat head is not considered appropriate, due to the possible presence of stagnant areas that may accumulate solid particulates and require more forceful mixing than is desirable. The working volume of a bioreactor is 70-85 % of its geometric volume. Leaving a head space of 25 % we get a geometric volume of around 3400 L.

Considering H:D=1.5:1, and torispherical head

Total volume of Reactor = Cylindrical volume + 2 * head volume.

$$V = ((\pi/4)*D_i^2 * H) + 2 * 0.0809 * D_i^3$$
 (for Torispherical head, Table 10-65 [46])

$$D_i = 1363 \text{ mm}$$

Tan to Tan height of the vessel, $H = 1.5 * 1363 = 2044 \text{ mm}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Dish Volume (DV)} &= 0.0809 * D^3 \\ &= 0.2048 \text{ m}^3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Working Level Height, } h &= [(WV-DV) * 4] / (\pi * D^2) \\ &= 1.574 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

Crown Radius, $R_C = fD$ (where $f > 0.5$)

Knuckle Radius $R_K = kD$ (where $0 < k < 0.5$)

Considering depth for 6% Torispherical Dish, $k = 0.06$ and $f = 1$.

Crown Radius = 1.363 m

Knuckle Radius = 0.082 m

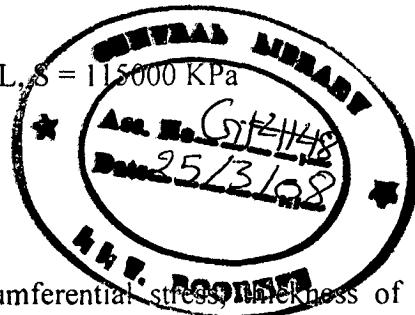
Depth of Dish excluding thickness, h_d

$$h_d = R_C - \text{SQRT}\{[(R_C - R_K)^2] - [(R_C/2) - R_K]^2\}$$
$$= 0.231 \text{ m}$$

5.1.1.1 Vessel Shell Thickness Design

Design parameters (Input parameters)

- Shell inner operating pressure = 3.1 Bar (= 310 KPa)
- Shell operating temperature = 126 °C
- Shell Internal design pressure, $P_i = 4.1$ Bar (= 410 KPa)
- Shell External design pressure, $P_o = 9.6$ Bar (= 960 KPa)
- Shell design temperature = 150 °C
- Weld Joint Efficiency, $E = 0.85$
- Max. Allowable Stress for SS316 L, $S = 115000$ KPa
- Shell inner radius, $R = 681.5$ mm



Output Parameters

For cylindrical shell under circumferential stress, thickness of shell is calculated by following equation [47].

a) Thickness for Internal Pressure

$$\text{Thickness, } t = P \cdot R / (S \cdot E - 0.6 \cdot P)$$

Where,

t = Thickness of vessel shell (mm)

P = Internal Design Pressure (KPa)

R = Radius of the shell (mm)

S = Maximum allowable circumferential stress of SS316L Material

E = Weld joint efficiency for shell seam joint

Therefore, inner shell thickness = 2.87 mm

b) Thickness for External Pressure

For cylindrical shells and tubes (seamless or with longitudinal butt joints)

Distance from top tan line to jacket closure, $D_1 = 0.0$ mm

Total length, $L = H - D_1 = 2044.5$ mm

Assumed initial thickness, $t = 20$ mm

Hence shell outer diameter, $D_o = D_i + (2*t) = 1403$ mm

$D_o/t = 70.2$

$L/D_o = 1.46$

Factor A = 0.0015 (Figure. HA-3 [47])

Factor B = 55 (at 150 °C from Figure. HA-4 [47])

Maximum allowable external working pressure, P_a

$$P_a = 4*B / (3*(D_o/t)) = 1.045 \text{ MPa}$$

As maximum allowable external working pressure is greater than the external design pressure therefore, thickness assumed is safe to use.

Hence, Vessel shell thickness for external pressure = 20 mm

5.1.1.1.2 Vessel Dish Thickness Design

a) Vessel dish thickness for Internal Pressure

For top dish weld joint efficiency is taken as 1 and External design pressure, P_o as 110 KPa

Hence, Thickness, $t = P_i * R / (S * E - 0.1 * P_i) = 2.43$ mm

b) Vessel dish thickness for 1.67 times of External Pressure

For 1.67 times the external design pressure, $P_{ii} = 1.67 * P_o = 183.7$ KPa

Hence, Thickness, $t = P_{ii} * R / (S * E - 0.1 * P_{ii}) = 1.09$ mm

c) Thickness for External Pressure

Assumed initial thickness, $t = 8$ mm

Hence outer crown radius, $R_o = R_c + t = 1371$ mm

$R_o/t = 171.4$

Factor A = 0.125 / $(R_o / t) = 0.00073$

Factor B = 46 (at 150 °C from Figure. HA-4 [47])

Maximum allowable external working pressure, $P_a = B / (R_o/t) = 0.268$ MPa

As maximum allowable external working pressure is greater than the external design pressure therefore, thickness assumed is safe to use.

Hence, Vessel dish thickness provided = 8 mm

5.1.1.1.3 Vessel Jacket Shell Thickness Design

Design parameters (Input parameters)

- Jacket inner operating pressure = 8.6 Bar (= 860 KPa)
- Jacket operating temperature = 126 °C
- Jacket Internal design pressure, $P_i = 9.6$ Bar (= 960 KPa)
- Jacket External design pressure, $P_o = 1.1$ Bar (= 110 KPa)
- Jacket design temperature = 150 °C
- Weld Joint Efficiency, $E = 0.85$
- Max. Allowable Stress for SS316 L, $S = 115000$ KPa
- Max. Allowable Stress for SS304 = 115000 KPa
- Jacket spacing = 20 mm
- Vessel shell thickness = 20 mm

Calculations (Output Parameters)

a) Vessel jacket thickness for Internal Pressure

Jacket inner Radius, $R_j = 721.5$ mm

Hence, Thickness, $t = P_i * R / (S * E - 0.6 * P_i) = 7$ mm

b) Thickness for External Pressure

For cylindrical shells and tubes (seamless or with longitudinal butt joints)

Distance from top tan line to jacket closure, $Dl = 0.0$ mm

Total length, $L = H - Dl = 2044.5$ mm

Assumed initial thickness, $t = 6$ mm

Hence jacket outer diameter, $D_o = R_j * 2 + (2 * t) = 1455$ mm

$D_o/t = 242.5$

$L/D_o = 1.41$

Factor A = 0.00026

Factor B = 23

Maximum allowable external working pressure, P_a

$$P_a = 4*B / (3*(D_o/t)) = 0.126 \text{ MPa}$$

As maximum allowable external working pressure is greater than the external design pressure therefore, thickness assumed is safe to use.

Vessel shell thickness for external pressure = 6 mm

Hence, Vessel shell thickness provided = 6 mm

5.1.1.2 Aeration System Design

In standard batch culture conditions, animal cells grow to relatively low cell concentrations compared to high biomass seen in microbial fermentations. In addition animal cells have dramatically lower metabolic oxygen requirements than those of microbial systems. Increasing oxygen mass transfer through high agitation rates and liberal sparging is often not possible in animal cell cultures, due to their sensitivity to mechanical damage and shear. These effects need to be minimized by reducing the impeller tip speed and the power input per unit volume as much as is feasible. Along with the sparger air, overlay air is also sent to the overhead space of the bioreactor in order to remove the gases accumulated in the top head via a vent filter.

$$\text{Oxygen Transfer rate OTR} = (\mu/Y_{x/o}) * X$$

Where,

μ is cell specific growth rate

$Y_{x/o}$ is cell yield coefficient on oxygen

X is cell concentration

For constant dissolved oxygen concentration, oxygen material balance gives,

$$\text{OTR} = F_i * Y_i - F_o * Y_o$$

Where,

F is molar flow rate of gas

Y is mole fraction of oxygen

For mammalian cell culture we need low gas flowrates, considering air flowrate to be 0.25 VVM,

Flow rate, $V_s = 0.25 * 2500 = 625$ SLPM

Molar flowrate of gas, $F = V_s/22.4 = 27.90$ mmol/min

Therefore,

$$OTR = (60 * 1000 * Y * F * \epsilon) / V_L = 21 \text{ mmol / L hr}$$

Where,

Y is mole fraction of oxygen in air (= 0.21)

ϵ is oxygen transfer efficiency (= 15%, [48])

V_L is Volume of liquid (= 2500L)

5.1.1.3 Agitation system design

The agitator is required to achieve a number of mixing objectives, e.g bulk fluid and gas-phase mixing, air dispersion, oxygen transfer, heat transfer suspension of solid particles and maintaining a uniform environment throughout the vessel contents. Bulk mixing and micromixing broth are influenced strongly by impeller type, broth rheology, and tank geometry and internals.

Agitation and aeration for mammalian cell culture are very different from those for microbial culture. OTR requirements are much lower, but the cells are much more easily damaged by the fluid mechanical forces generated by impeller or collapsing gas bubbles. Axial flow impellers (such as marine propellers provide good top-to-bottom mixing, but draw relatively little power and therefore do not contribute much to good oxygen transfer. The impeller called Elephant ear (2-segmented propeller) has been shown in commercial applications to scale up reliably and to provide adequate mixing and OTR. Swirling and vortexing problems can be overcome by mounting the shaft at an angle of 15° .

Here, a 2-segmented pitched blade propeller or paddle impeller (called Elephant ear) is selected with pitch 1:1 and angle 15° .

- No. of Impellers = $H * \text{Broth specific gravity} / D_i = 1.57 \approx 2$

Where,

H is height of the bioreactor, m

D_i is diameter of the bioreactor, m

Broth specific gravity = 1.05

- Impeller Diameter, $D_a = 0.5 * D_i = 682$ mm

Spacing between impeller is generally 1.0 to 1.5 times diameter [49]

Therefore, spacing between two impellers = 682 mm

- Tip Speed and Impeller speed

Tip Speed for microbial fermentation should be in the range of 300-500 m/min and for mammalian cell culture it should be in the range of 3-4 m/sec

Considering tip speed to be 3 m/sec.

$$\text{Tip speed} = \pi * D_a * N = 3 \text{ m/sec}$$

Therefore,

$$\text{Impeller speed, } N = 84 \text{ rpm}$$

- Power Requirement

Power is delivered to the fluid through two mechanisms: mechanical power from the impeller and power generated by gas expansion. Which is greater depends primarily on whether the gas flow or the impeller controls flow in the vessel.

$$\text{Un-gassed power, } P_o = N_p * N_i * N^3 * \rho * D_a^5$$

Where,

N_p is impeller power number

N_i is No. of Impellers

N is Impeller Speed, m/sec

D_a is Impeller Diameter, m

Power number is a function of impeller geometry, tank geometry, and impeller Reynolds number.

$$N_{Re} = \frac{\rho * N * Da^2}{\mu} = 6.9 * E05$$

Where,

μ is the broth viscosity (= 1 cp)

ρ is the broth density (= 1050 Kg/m³)

From N_{Re} vs N_p graph for propeller without baffles and of pitch 1:1 (Figure 18-17 [46]) Power number is determined as 0.9

Therefore,

$$\text{Ungassed power, } P_o = 0.7 \text{ KW} = 1 \text{ hp}$$

Ratio of gassed power to ungassed power depends on aeration number or flow number [48].

Flow number for propellers, $N_q = 0.5$

The ratio of gassed power to ungassed power for flow number 0.5 is

$$\frac{P_g}{P_o} = 0.45$$

Therefore, Gassed power, $P_g = 0.45 \text{ hp}$

- Heat Load

Total heat generated during growth, Q_{tot} , is approximately equal to the sum of metabolic heat generated, and the heat generated by the agitation required to provide adequate oxygen transfer and mixing [49].

$$Q_{tot} = 0.45 * \text{OTR} * V/Y_{x/O_2} + 2545 P_g$$

$$Q_{tot} = 0.017 * E06 \text{ BTU/hr}$$

Operating temperature of the bioreactor, $T_o = 37 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$

Cooling water In, $T_{ci} = 25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$

Assumed approach temperature, $T_a = 4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$

Cooling water out, $T_{co} = 33 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$

$$\Delta T_c = 8 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$$

Log Mean Temperature Difference is defined as

$$LMTD = \frac{(T_{h,out} - t_{c,in}) - (T_{h,in} - t_{c,out})}{\ln\left(\frac{T_{h,out} - t_{c,in}}{T_{h,in} - t_{c,out}}\right)}$$

Where,

$T_{h,in}$ is hot fluid inlet Temperature

$T_{h,out}$ is hot fluid outlet Temperature

$t_{c,in}$ is cold fluid inlet Temperature

$t_{c,out}$ is cold fluid outlet Temperature

c_p is specific heat of water (= 1 BTU/lb.°F)

Therefore, $LMTD = 7\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$

Generally, Overall heat transfer coefficient for fermentation broth is taken as 150 BTU/hr.ft².°F

Overall heat transfer rate, $Q = U \cdot A \cdot LMTD$

Therefore, required heat transfer area, $A = 0.24\text{ m}^2$

Required Cooling water flow rate, $m_c = Q_{tot}/c_p \cdot \Delta T_c = 166\text{ Kg/hr}$

5.1.2 Control Strategy

The principal bioreactor control requirement is population growth of the microorganism of interest. The role of the control strategy is to provide, by control of environmental effectors such as temperature, aeration, pH and dissolved oxygen, the optimum conditions for growth and colonization. Putting all the components together for the bioreactor Figure 10 shows the Schematics of a bioreactor.

5.1.2.1 Sensors

The problem with monitoring the bioreactor system is maintaining the sterile integrity of the bioreactor hence any sensor has to be capable of sterilization either in situ during steam sterilization or remotely and then aseptically introduced to the bioreactor. Typical sensors that are placed on bioreactors for monitoring and control are:

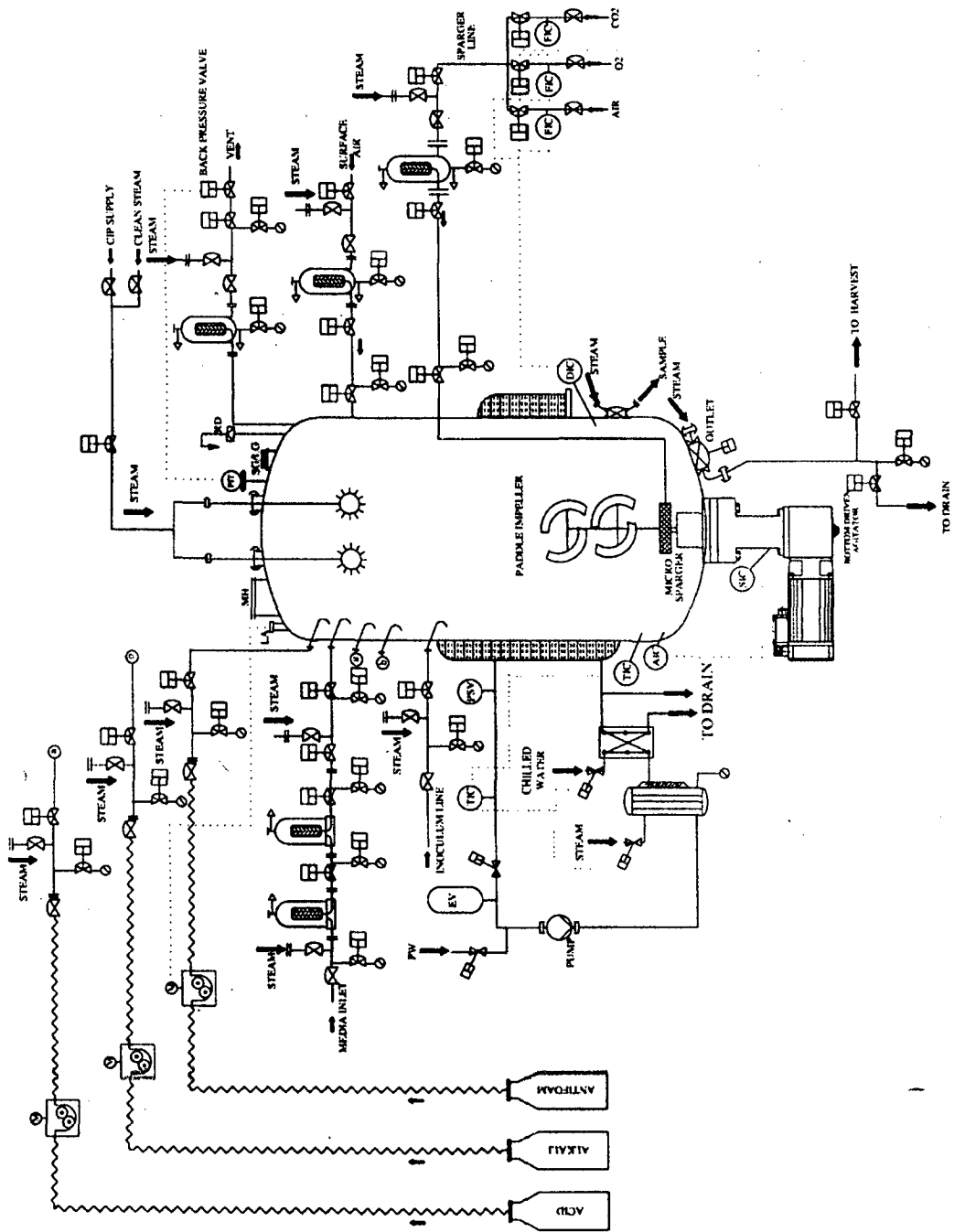


Figure 10: Schematics of a Bioreactor.

- **Temperature:** measured using a platinum resistance thermometer where the increase in temperature is proportional to increase in electrical resistance in the probe.
- **Air Flow rate:** measured using a standard pressure drop device such as variable area flow meters or thermal mass flow controllers.
- **Vessel pressure:** measured using diaphragm protected bourdon gauges or strain gauge pressure transducers.
- **pH:** Measured using steam sterilizable combined glass electrodes.
- **Dissolved oxygen:** measured using polarographic type probes. here galvanic voltages on membrane-covered oxygen reducing cathode induce a current proportional to the amount of oxygen diffusing through the membrane.
- **Foam:** detected by conductance or capacitance probes completing an electric circuit when foam is contacted.

5.1.2.2 Control Loops

5.1.2.2.1 Temperature Control Loop

Temperature needs to be controlled within narrow limits generally of 37 °C for mammalian cells. Regulation of the temperature should be within 0.5 °C of the set point. Mammalian cells can not withstand temperature above 40 °C. Temperature will be controlled by introducing cooling water into jacket and circulating the water in a closed loop using a pump. There will be two heat exchangers one Plate type for cooling and one Shell and Tube for heating. If temperature decreases plant steam will be introduced to respective heat exchanger and if temperature increases steam is shut off and chilled water is supplied to cooling heat exchanger. The temperature controller is implemented as a cascade control loop with a master controller for the vessel temperature and a slave controller for the jacket temperature. So there should be a primary temperature controller which measures the vessel temperature and gives set point to secondary temperature controller in the jacket this will in turn control by controlling chilled water and steam inlet valves (Figure 11).

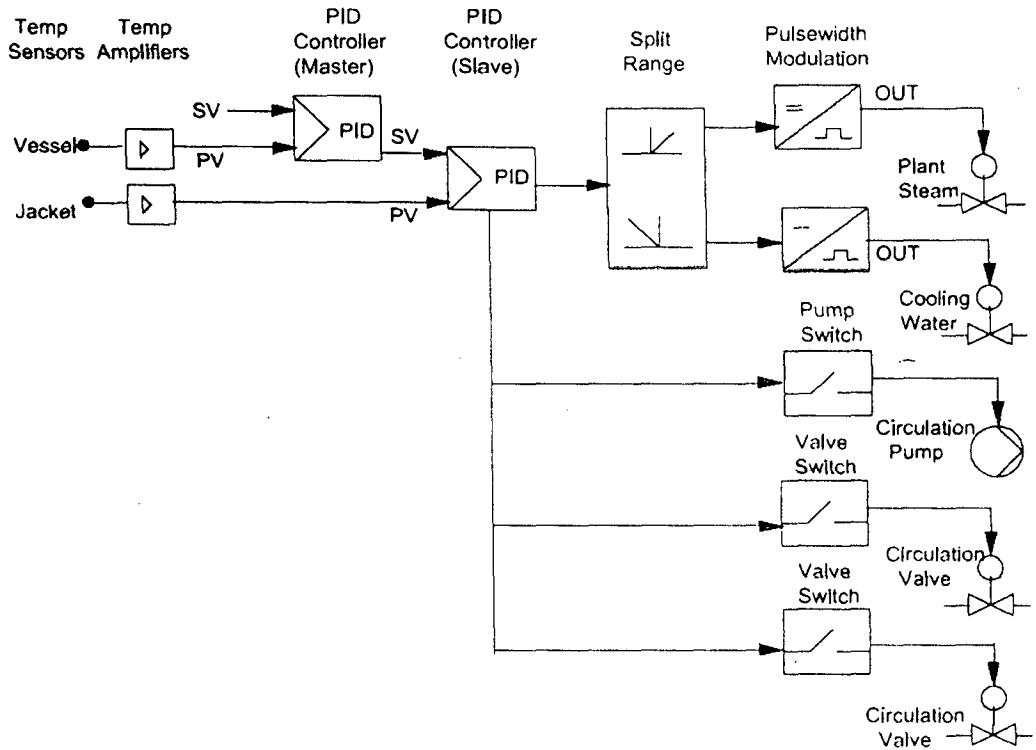


Figure 11: Temperature Control Loop

5.1.2.2.2 pH Control Loop

The pH is one of the most important parameters that affect the well-being of cultured cells, and its control needs to be closely attended. In most of traditional cell culture media, it is controlled by bicarbonate-carbon dioxide buffer system. Bicarbonate ions and carbon dioxide are also used by cells for biosynthesis to some extent. Carbonic acid equilibrates with carbon dioxide in both the liquid and the gaseous phases, and it is necessary to maintain an increased concentration of carbon dioxide in the gaseous phase to maintain the pH in appropriate range (Figure 12).

Two separate mechanisms can be used to control the pH in a bioreactor:

- pH can be controlled by controlling the acid, alkali addition pump flow rates with Pulse width modulation of On/Off of these pumps within a time interval which helps in stabilization of pH by allowing time to mix the acid or alkali in the reactor.

- pH for mammalian cell culture is generally controlled by controlling the Carbon dioxide flowrate into the bioreactor.

The pH Control Loop is built from a PID controller with split range output:

- If Output is 50% i.e. neutral position, both actuators will be OFF.
- If Output is 50% to 100%, then it will operate the base pump for increasing the pH value
- If Output 50% to 0% will operate the CO₂ mass flow controller or acid pump for decreasing the pH value.

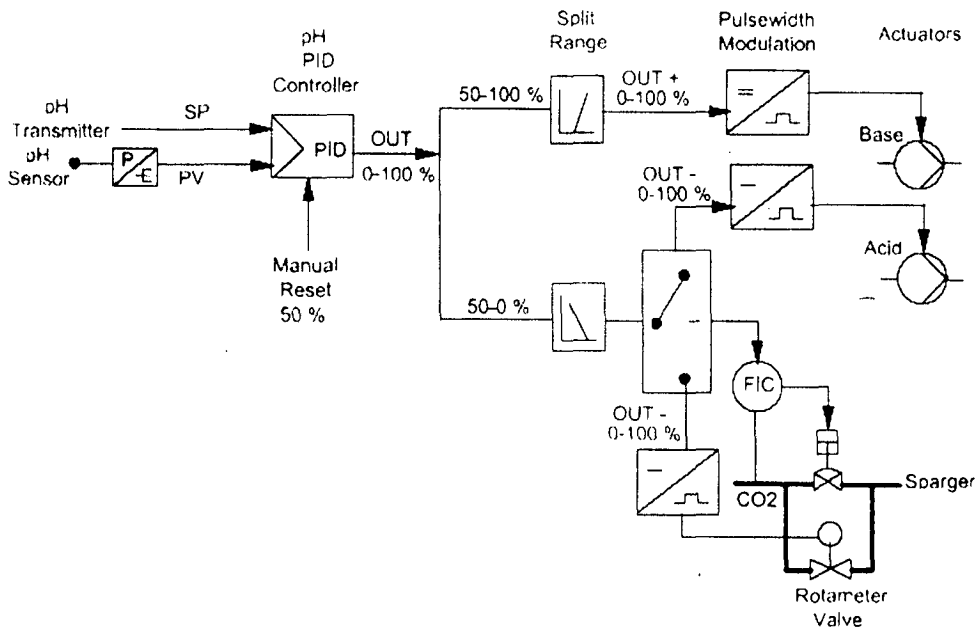


Figure 12: pH Control Loop

5.1.2.2.3 Pressure Control Loop

Pressure control loop is used to maintain the head pressure in the bioreactor. This can be achieved by using a back pressure control valve in the exhaust line. Percentage of opening of this valve will depend on the pressure inside the vessel measured by pressure indicator and transmitter mounted on the vessel top (Figure 13).

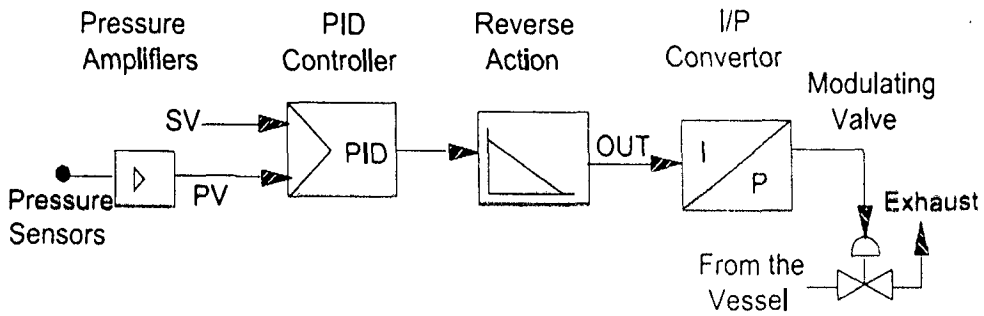


Figure 13: Pressure Control Loop

5.1.2.2.4 Agitator Control Loop

The agitator control loop adjusts the speed of the agitator motor via variable frequency drive. The agitator controller is a set point controller with continuous output, which is the set point signal for the external VFD (Figure 14).

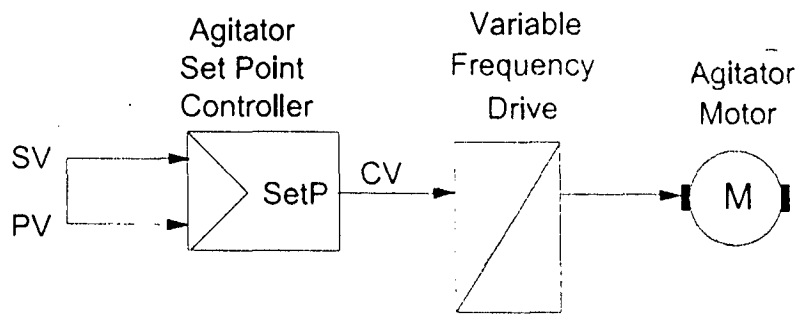


Figure 14: Agitator Control Loop

5.1.2.2.5 Dissolved Oxygen Control Loop

Dissolved oxygen control is achieved by either increasing the air flow rate or by introducing fresh oxygen into the reactor. The control strategy is DO_2 sensor gives an input to the total mass flow controller which is combination of both air and oxygen mass flow controllers. First of all air flow rate will be increased if we are unable to achieve the set point then oxygen flow rate is increased. The DO_2 control loop maintains the DO_2 in the culture broth by modulating oxygen flow through the sparger. The DO_2 Control Loop which operates O_2 mass flow controllers is part of a Total Gas flow Control Strategy with a separate Total flow Controller which adds air to sparger aeration (Figure 15).

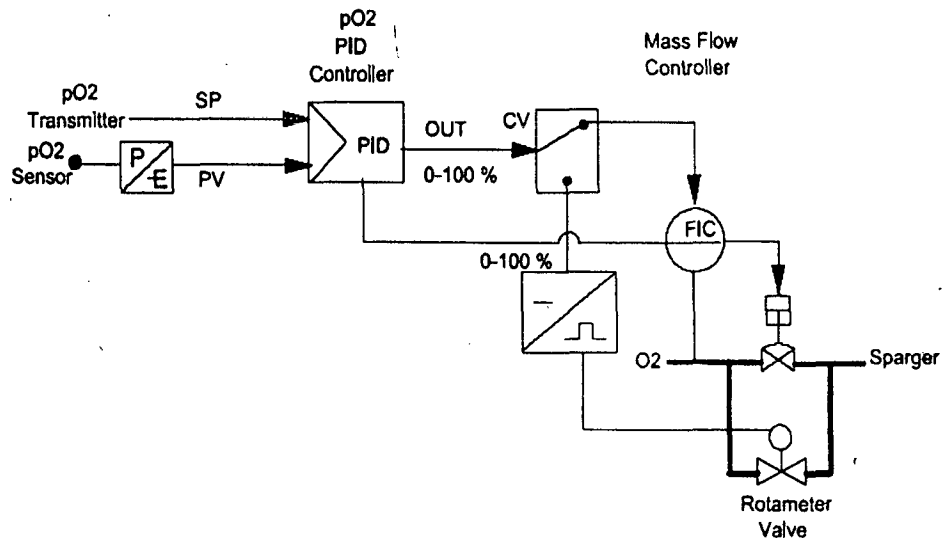


Figure 15: Dissolve Oxygen Control Loop

5.2 Design of a Continuous Centrifuge

Micro-organisms and other similar sized particles can be removed from a broth by using a centrifuge when filtration is not a satisfactory separation method. Although a centrifuge may be expensive when compared with a filter it may be essential when filtration is slow and difficult and continuous separation to a high standard of hygiene is required.

Various issues considered for selecting a type of centrifuge are: feed solids content, biomass particle size, nature or texture of solids, product quality desired, and operating environment [50]. In this case a disk stack centrifuge is selected on the basis of % solids, supernatant, solids type, and solid liquid boundary. Although their installation and operating costs are higher than those of other types of centrifuges available, the Disk stack centrifuges are often preferred because they give a better quality effluent.

According to Stoke's law, the rate of sedimentation of spherical particles suspended in a fluid of Newtonian viscosity characteristics is proportional to the square of the diameter of the particles, thus the rate of sedimentation of a particle under gravitational force is:

$$\text{Rate of sedimentation or Settling velocity, } v_g = \frac{d_p^2(\rho_p - \rho)g}{18\mu} \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

Where:

μ is viscosity of liquid (kg/m/s)

d_p is particle diameter (m)

v_g is settling velocity (m/s)

ρ_p is particle density (kg/m³)

ρ is liquid density (kg/m³)

This equation is modified for sedimentation in a centrifuge as:

$$v_c = \frac{d_p \omega^2 r (\rho_p - \rho)}{18\mu} \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

Where,

ω is angular velocity of the rotor (s⁻¹)

r is radial position of the particle (m)

Dividing equation (2) by (1) yields

$$G = \frac{\omega^2 r}{g}$$

Where,

G or RCF is Relative Centrifugal Force

RCF is a measure of the separating power of a centrifuge compared to gravity settling. G value for a disk stack centrifuge is 4000-13,000. The disks are generally spaced about 0.5-2 mm apart.

Considering, $d_p = 12 \mu\text{m}$ (Mammalian cells diameter), $\mu = 0.001 \text{ kg/m/s}$, $\rho_p = 1060 \text{ kg/m}^3$, and $\rho = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$

Therefore, Sedimentation Rate, $v_g = 4.7\text{E-}06 \text{ m/s}$

In the processing scheme, the centrifuge will be continuously fed with 2500-L solution of mammalian cells over 2.5 hours; hence centrifuge to be selected should have a throughput of 16.7 L/min.

The most used quantity to characterize centrifuge is sigma “Σ” concept. It is the calculated equivalent surface area of a static settling tank with the same theoretical performance.

For Disk Stack centrifuges, Σ factor is

$$\Sigma = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{\pi \omega^2}{g} \cdot n \cdot (r_2^3 - r_1^3) \cdot \cot \alpha$$

where,

r_2 is maximum radius of disk

r_1 is minimum radius of disk

n is number of disk

α is half cone angle of the disk

Feed flow rate, $Q = v_g * \Sigma = 16.7 \text{ L/min}$

Therefore, $\Sigma = 59.2 \text{ m}^2 (= 0.1 * 10^{-4} \text{ ft}^2)$

From Table 18-13 [46], the smallest sigma factor nearest to calculated value is $1.1 * 10^{-4} \text{ ft}^2$ for this speed of a disk stack centrifuge is 10,000 rpm with as disk Diameter of 4.1” and number of disks = 33.

For a speed of around 10,000 rpm from Table 18-12 [46] bowl diameter of 7” is selected. Therefore, required G-force = 9938. This is a satisfactory design for an industrial disk stack centrifuge as it lies in the specified range.

5.3 TFF System Design

As the process is carried out in batches, a batch TFF system is selected. With batch systems, the process flux is initially high and decreases as the retained species are concentrated. Batch systems provide the most efficient separation, while requiring minimum membrane area, being simpler and less expensive. This system requires a feed tank, pump, pressure gauges and filter. The tank serves as a reservoir for the solution being processed; as the material is filtered, the volume in the tank is reduced. The pump provides both pressure to push the fluid through the membrane and the fluid velocity to keep the retained components from

settling on and plugging the membrane. The pressure gauges are used for monitoring the recirculation rate (Figure 16).

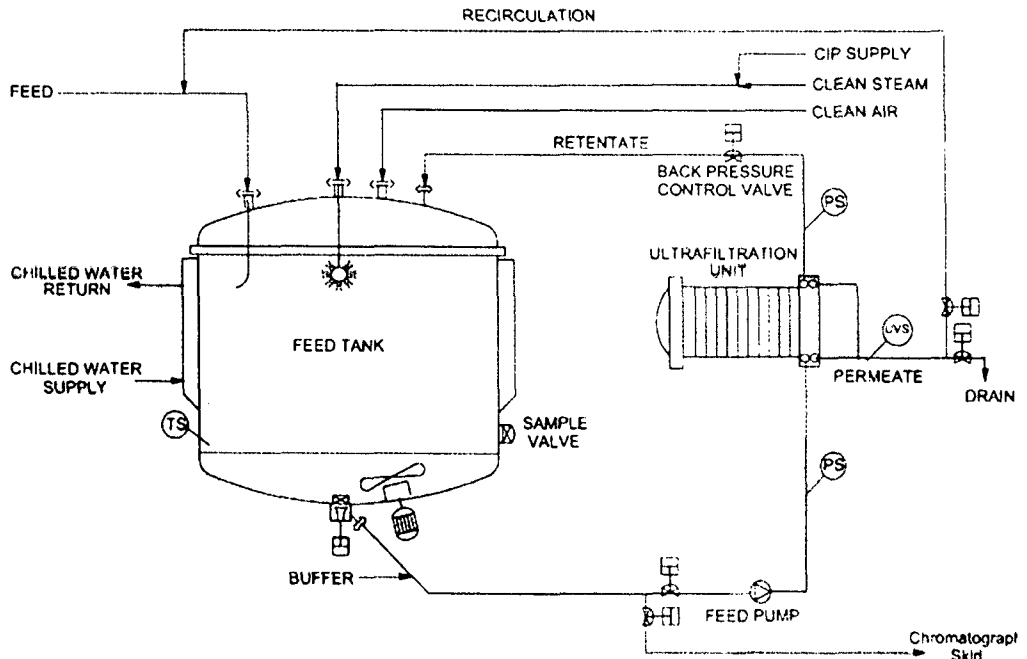


Figure 16: Schematics of Crossflow filtration system with Feed Tank.

The concentration and diafiltration of the clarified product after chromatography step also involve the handling of small volumes of expensive product. The membranes used in these applications need to be highly retentive to the product, and must allow for the exchange of appropriate buffer solutions. The membrane cutoff employed is generally one-third to one-fifth of the molecular weight cutoff of the target protein. For concentration and diafiltration transmembrane pressure is kept at 20 - 40 psi (1.4 - 2.8 bar) with flux in the range of 10-100 L/h.m² (Table 4.2 [44]). Also for cleaning of cassettes we require around 300-400 L/hr per cassette of cleaning solution.

5.3.1 Ultrafiltration (UF) System Design

- i. **UF-1:** In UF-1 there is a 20 fold concentration of the product from 2250 to 113 L. Processing conditions for proteins require a temperature of 8-10 °C

and TMP of 20-40 psi. Protein molecular weight is 150000 Dalton, we use a membrane of 5000 Dalton molecular weight cutoff.

Process Parameters:

- Concentration: Initial = 1g/L, final = 18 g/L
- Process Temperature: 8 °C
- Process Time: 8 Hr
- Flux: 20 L/h.m² (generally in the range of 10-100 L/h.m² for mammalian cell culture protein for concentration)

Design Calculations

- a) Membrane area required to concentrate batch for 8 hrs:
- Design Rate = (initial vol. – final vol.)/process time = 267 L/h
 - Membrane area = design rate/flux = 13.4 m²
The device comes in 0.685 m² increments, so we use 20 cassettes, of 13.7 m².
 - Actual rate = Flux *area = 274 L/h
- b) Pump Requirements: Assuming a maximum of 400 L/hr per cassette flow rate requirement for cleaning of cassettes. Therefore, for 20 cassettes required pump capacity is 400 L/hr per cassette * 20 Cassettes = 8000 l/hr (= 8 m³/h). Maximum pressure which membranes can withstand is 40 psi (≈ 3 bar). Therefore, presuming a worst case scenario a pump of capacity 8 m³/h at 4 barg pressure is selected. From pump performance curve maximum speed of the pump comes out to be 780 rpm and maximum motor power is 3 KW (≈ 4 hp).
- c) According to the heat exchange rule of thumb [44], 1 ft² (≈ 0.1 m²) of heat exchange area is required per motor hp, so the approximate heat exchange area is 0.4 m².

Design Considerations

- a) **Pump Selection:** A rotary lobe pump or peristaltic pump is the best choice for this application because of low internal pump volume and low flow

rate. Rotary lobe pump is preferred because it offers maximum mechanical integrity. Centrifugal pump is not selected because of the flood volume and high speed operation they entail.

b) **System tankage and piping:** For the $8 \text{ m}^3/\text{hr}$ ($\approx 35 \text{ gpm}$) flow rate to achieve suitable cleaning velocity requires 1.5" sanitary piping.

ii. **UF-2:** In UF-2 there is a 10 fold concentration of the product from 729.6 to 73 L. Processing conditions for proteins require a temperature of $8-10^\circ\text{C}$ and TMP of 20-40 psi. Protein molecular weight is 150000 Dalton, we use membrane of 30,000 Dalton molecular weight cutoff which is $1/5^{\text{th}}$ of the molecular weight cutoff of the product of interest.

Process Parameters

- Concentration: Initial = 2 g/L , final = 19 g/L
- Process Temperature: 8°C
- Process Time: 5 Hr
- Flux: 20 L/h.m^2

Design Calculations

a) Membrane area required to concentrate batch for 5 hrs:

- Design Rate = $(\text{initial vol.} - \text{final vol.})/\text{process time} = 131.3 \text{ L/h}$
- Membrane area = $\text{design rate}/\text{flux} = 6.6 \text{ m}^2$

The device comes in 0.79 m^2 increments, so we use 10 cassettes, of 7.9 m^2 .

- Actual rate = $\text{Flux} * \text{area} = 158 \text{ L/h}$

b) **Pump Requirements:** Assuming a maximum of 400 L/hr per cassette flow rate requirement for cleaning of cassettes. Therefore, for 10 cassettes required pump capacity is $400 \text{ L/hr per cassette} * 10 \text{ Cassettes} = 4000 \text{ L}$ ($= 4 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$). Maximum pressure which membranes can withstand is 40 psi ($\approx 3 \text{ bar}$). Therefore, presuming a worst case scenario a pump of capacity $4 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ at 4 bar pressure is selected. From pump performance curves

maximum speed of the pump comes out to be 550 rpm and maximum motor power is 2.3 KW (≈ 3 hp).

- c) According to the heat exchange rule of thumb, $1 \text{ ft}^2 (\approx 0.1 \text{ m}^2)$ of heat exchange area is required per motor hp, so the approximate heat exchange area is 0.3 m^2 .

Design Considerations

- a) **Pump Selection:** A rotary lobe pump or peristaltic pump is the best choice for this application.
- b) **System tankage and piping:** For the $4 \text{ m}^3/\text{hr} (\approx 17.6 \text{ gpm})$ flow rate to achieve suitable cleaning velocity requires 1.5" sanitary piping.

iii. **UF-3:** In UF-3 there is a 4 fold concentration of the product from 218.7 L to 55 L. Processing conditions for proteins require a temperature of $8-10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and TMP of 20-40 psi. Protein molecular weight is 150000 Dalton, we use a membrane of 30,000 Dalton molecular weight cutoff which is $1/5^{\text{th}}$ of the molecular weight cutoff of the product of interest.

Process Parameters

- Concentration: Initial = 6g/L, final = 22 g/L
- Process Temperature: $8 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$
- Process Time: 5 Hr
- Flux: 20 L/h.m^2

Design Calculations

- a) Membrane area required to concentrate batch for 8 hrs:
- Design Rate = (initial vol. – final vol.)/process time = 32.7 L/h
 - Membrane area = design rate/flux = 1.6 m^2
The device comes in 0.53 m^2 increments, so we use 3 cassettes, of 1.6 m^2 .
- b) **Pump Requirements:** Assuming a maximum of 400 L/hr per cassette flow rate requirement for cleaning of cassettes. Therefore, for 3 cassettes

required pump capacity is 400 L/hr per cassette * 20 Cassettes = 1200 l/hr (= 1.2 m³/h). Maximum pressure which membranes can withstand is 40 psi (\approx 3 bar). Therefore, presuming a worst case scenario a pump of capacity 4 m³/h at 4 bar pressure is selected. From pump performance curve maximum speed of the pump comes out to be 350 rpm and maximum motor power is 1.5 KW (\approx 2hp).

- c) According to the heat exchange rule of thumb, 1 ft² (\approx 0.1 m²) of heat exchange area is required per motor hp, so the approximate heat exchange area is 0.2 m².

Design Considerations

- a) **Pump Selection:** A rotary lobe pump or peristaltic pump is the best choice for this application.
- b) **System tankage and piping:** For the 4 m³/hr (\approx 17.6 gpm) flow rate to achieve suitable cleaning velocity requires 1.5" sanitary piping.

5.3.2 Control Loop Strategy

- a. **Temperature control:** The temperature can be maintained by using chilled water in the jacket of the UF feed tank. Temperature sensor mounted on the vessel control the actuated valve in the chilled water supply or return line.
- b. **Feed Pressure Control:** The Feed Line pressure Control Loop adjusts the speed of the Feed pump via a Variable Frequency Drive (VFD) unit to maintain the set pressure in the feed line. The Feed Line pressure controller is a set point controller with continuous output, which is the set point signal for the external VFD unit. The measured value output of the feed line Pressure transmitter is indicated as process value for the DCS. If the Feed Line pressure controller is switched off, separate discrete output signal will be activated which stops the Feed pump via the start/stop input of the VFD (Figure 17).

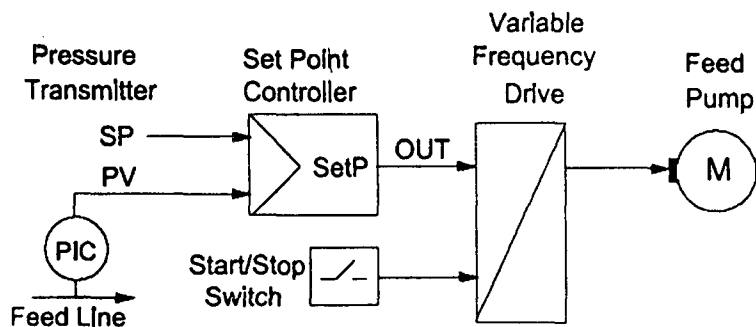


Figure 17: Feed Pressure Control Loop

c. Retentate pressure control

The Retentate Line Pressure Control Loop maintains the pressure via proportional control valve in the Retentate Line. The Retentate Pressure Control Loop is implemented as a PID Controller with Continuous output, which is the control signal for the external proportional control valve. The measured value output of the Retentate line pressure Transmitter is indicated as Process value for the DCS (Figure 18).

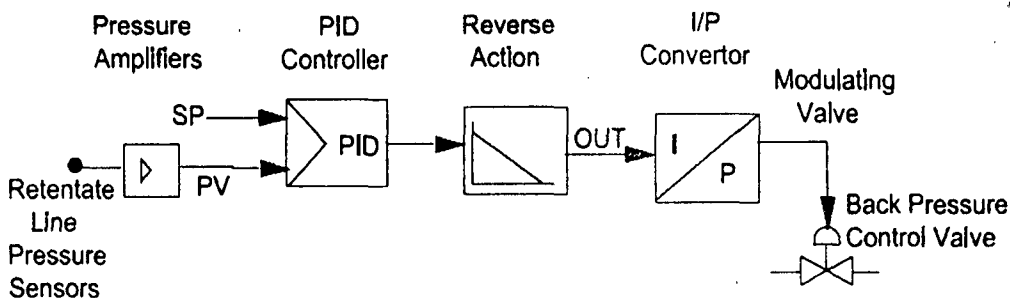


Figure 18: Retentate Pressure Control Loop

5.4 Chromatography Design

For larger-scale chromatography processes, purification becomes more challenging. Yet, the introduction of additional purification steps, such as membrane separations, often translates into higher product losses and lower overall product yield. Through the careful selection of the medium and buffer for individual chromatography steps, and the employment of these steps in the proper sequence, one can eliminate or reduce certain membrane separation stages. Chromatography is one of the few techniques that can achieve both the high

resolution and the high capacity needed to generate large quantities of highly purified product. Furthermore, it is relatively easy to increase the scale of operation economically over several orders of magnitude, and to ensure that extraneous substances are not introduced into the process stream. Other techniques, such as aqueous two phase partitioning and electrophoretic separation methods, do not have all of these attributes and consequently these techniques are not in widespread use for the purification of therapeutic-grade proteins. In general, a relatively small number of chromatographic steps, each utilizing a different aspect of the product's chemistry (such as molecular charge, size, and hydrophobicity) can be sufficient to meet the purity required for pharmaceutical applications in place of using a single high resolution chromatography.

5.4.1 Chromatography Columns Design

The one requirement that a chromatographic process must meet, regardless of scale, is achieving a uniform flow distribution across the cross-sectional area of the column, from the inlet to the outlet ports, with minimal mixing and dilution in the flow-distribution chambers at either end of the column. The column itself must be able to withstand the operating pressure without flexing. The end plate needs to be carefully designed and constructed to produce uniform laminar flow across the entire width of the gel bed. The volume of the flow distribution chamber within the end plate should be as small as possible in order to reduce zone spreading. Where low pressures are used (≈ 3 bar), transparent borosilicate glass columns have many advantages. For low-pressure chromatography, glass and acrylic columns are frequently specified. In high pressure applications, columns are generally constructed of 316L stainless steel. In most cases, Type 316 stainless steel, glass (borosilicate), and certain polymers and elastomers (such as EPDM or Kalrez) are used to ensure good material compatibility and stability. However, buffers containing chloride ions may not be compatible with stainless steels. Metallic components that are in contact with buffers containing high levels of chloride ions may be made of Hastelloy C or titanium.

Typical process design procedure for chromatography is as following:

1. Choose the best selective resins from batch binding experiments under pre-decided conditions.
2. Determine isotherms/equilibrium capacities under chosen conditions.
3. Perform breakthrough experiments with pure solute and mixture at different velocities. Estimate HETP vs velocity relation.
4. Elution at different conditions (isocratic, step gradient and linear gradient) and determine elution plate height and resolution parameters.
5. From 3 and 4 establish optimum operating conditions, so that the adsorbent is optimally used, and the elution resolves the solutes.
6. Determine the effect of scale-up on performance indicators of column e.g dynamic capacities and resolution.

5.4.2 Pumps

Pumps selected for feeding the column are diaphragm pumps. The key requirements are: the set flow rate should be maintained irrespective of back pressure and the pulsations should be minimized, to avoid disturbance of the chromatography bed. Assuming a maximum linear velocity of 3 cm/min we can find out the delivery rate of the pump (Table 15).

$$\text{Linear flow rate, } u = \frac{F_m}{6A} = \frac{2 \cdot F_m}{3 \cdot d^2 \cdot \pi}$$

Where,

F_m = Delivery of the pump, in m^3/min

A = Base area of the column in m^2

D = Internal diameter of the column, in m .

Table 15: Pump Delivery Rate of all the Columns

| Column | | Col-1 | Col-2 | Col-3 |
|--------------------|------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| Diameter | m | 0.446 | 0.446 | 0.5 |
| Linear Flow Rate | m/min | 0.03 | 0.03 | 0.03 |
| Pump Delivery Rate | m^3/min | 0.0281 | 0.0281 | 0.0353 |
| | m^3/hr | 1.6864 | 1.6864 | 2.1195 |

5.4.3 Automated Chromatography Systems

The simplest chromatographic system consists of a pump, a column, detector, fraction collector, and interconnecting tubing. The additional components incorporated into production scale systems are used to ensure that air does not get into the system (air sensors and bubble traps), that it operates in a sterile a manner as possible (in line filters). Further components are then added to control the purification process and to improve the convenience of operation (controller, automatic valves, CIP facilities etc.). An air sensor is frequently used on the sample inlet line so as to allow loading of the entire sample volume onto the column. Only after the air sensor has detected air in the sample inlet line, the next step in the purification cycle is initiated. A 0.2 micron sterile filter is often incorporated into the system before the column. If the sample itself is prefiltered off-line, this filter may be bypassed during the loading operation and used only to filter the buffer solutions. A bubble trap located immediately prior to the column serves not only to eliminate any air that may have entered the system, but also serves as a pulse damper, which may be necessary, depending on the pump design (Figure 19).

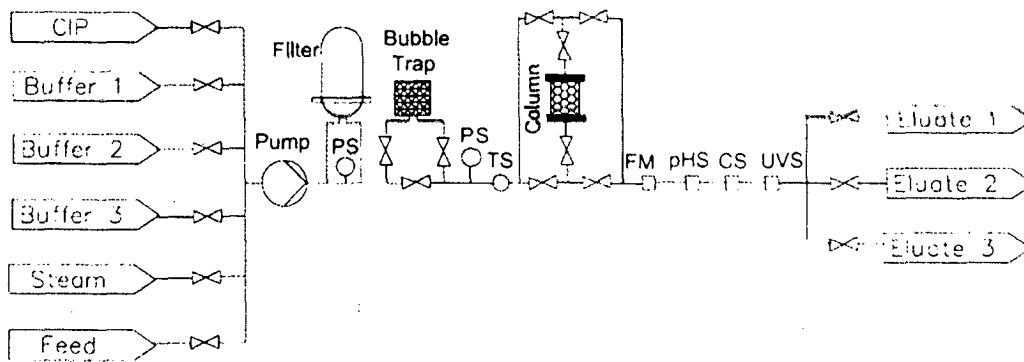


Figure 19: Schematics of Chromatography System.

5.5 Nano Filter Design

In downstream processing, viruses are de-activated by using a buffer solution followed by nanofiltration for virus removal using hydrophilic membrane pleated filters rated at $0.04 \mu\text{m}$ or less is applicable to clarified mammalian cell culture harvested fluids. The recommended position in the purification scheme is

immediately after initial clarification and 0.2 or 0.1 μ m filtration, or after subsequent concentration by ultrafiltration. Performing virus reduction filtration when protein concentration of the process feed is relatively high reduces loss of product by adsorption on the viral reduction membrane. Microporous membrane cartridge filtration is preferred as it freely passes proteins while providing a sieving mechanism for virus removal. Therefore, a hydrophilic membrane of absolute rating 0.04 μ m is selected for viral reduction and is placed after DF-1. In harvest line a 0.5 μ m absolute-rated filter for secondary cell and cell debris removal from harvested fluid and 0.2 μ m sterilizing grade filters are also selected as they act as prefilters to 0.04 μ m filters.

Typical water flow rates per 10" module is 1-2 gpm [44]. Amount of feed passing through the filter is 728 L. Assuming a processing time of 1 hr. in a depth filter thus, the feed flow rate is 12.1 L/min (\approx 3 gpm). Therefore, for 3 gpm flow rate we require a filter module of 30".

5.6 Vessel Design

Here we have considered the design of the vessel which is integrated with the first ultrafiltration system. As shown in the mass balance calculation the final concentrated product quantity in the vessel integrated to UF-1 is 113 L, therefore a tank of working volume 120 L is selected for retentate collection. Figure 20 shows the dimensional parameters of a Vessel.

Considering H:D = 1.5:1, and torispherical head

Total volume of Reactor = Cylindrical volume + 2 * head volume.

$$V = ((\pi/4) * D_i^2 * H) + 2 * 0.0809 * D_i^3 \text{ (for torispherical head)}$$

Table 10-65 [46])

$$D_i = 472 \text{ mm}$$

Tan to Tan height of the vessel H = 1.5 * 472 = 708 mm.

$$\text{Dish Volume (DV)} = 0.0809 * D^3 = 0.0085 \text{ m}^3$$

$$\text{Working Level Height, } h = [(WV - DV) * 4] / (\pi * D^2) = 0.638 \text{ m}$$

Crown Radius, $R_c = fD$ (where $f > 0.5$)

Knuckle Radius $R_K = kD$ (where $0 < k < 0.5$)

Considering depth for 6% Torispherical Dish, $k = 0.06$ and $f = 1$.

Crown Radius = 0.472 m

Knuckle Radius = 0.028 m

Depth of Dish excluding thickness, h_d

$$h_d = R_C - \text{SQRT}\{[(R_C - R_K)^2] - [(R_C/2) - R_K]^2\} = 0.08 \text{ m}$$

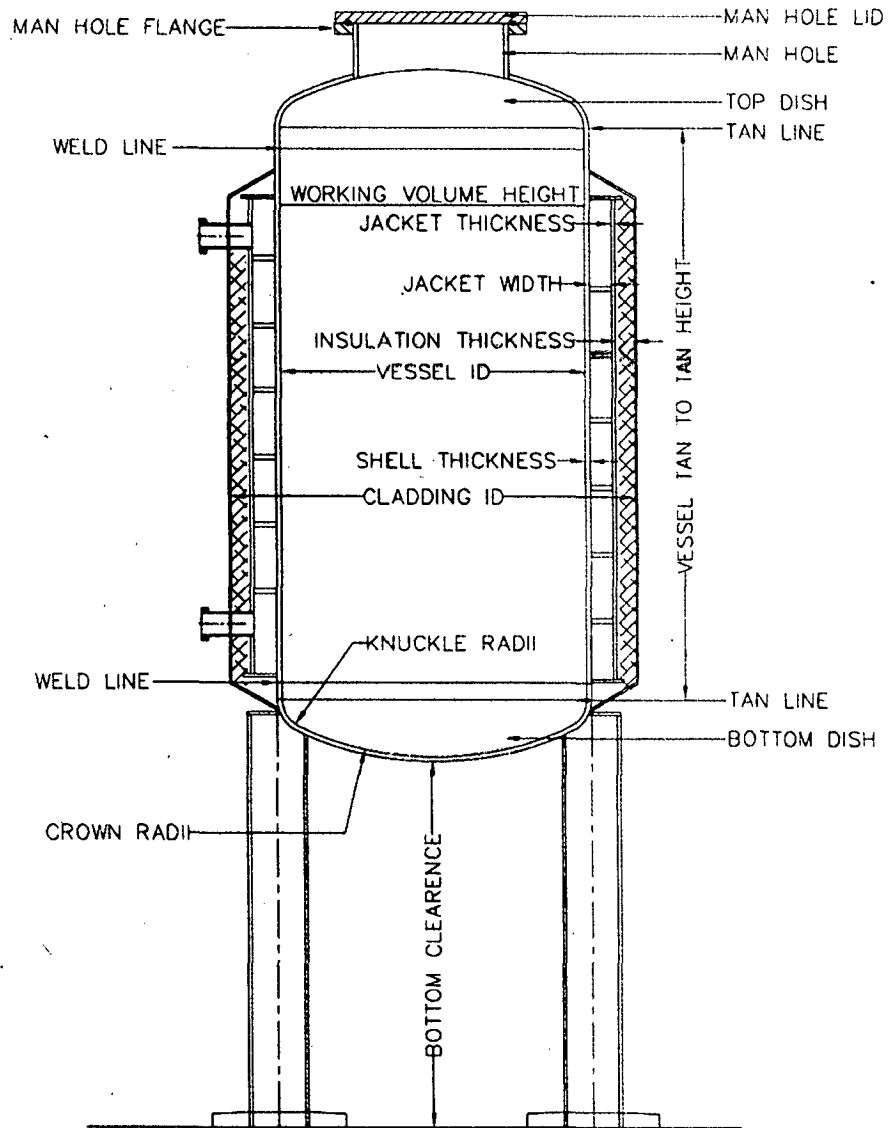


Figure 20: Dimensional Parameters of a Vessel

5.6.1 Vessel Shell Thickness Design

Design parameters (Input parameters)

- Shell inner operating pressure = 3.1 Bar (= 310 KPa)
- Shell operating temperature = 126 °C
- Shell Internal design pressure, $P_i = 4.1$ Bar (= 410 KPa)
- Shell External design pressure, $P_o = 9.6$ Bar (= 960 KPa)
- Shell design temperature = 150 °C
- Weld Joint Efficiency, $E = 0.85$
- Max. Allowable Stress for SS316 L, $S = 115000$ KPa
- Shell inner radius, $R = 0.503/2 = 0.251$ m

Output Parameters

For cylindrical shell under circumferential stress thickness of shell is calculated by following equation [47].

a. Thickness for Internal Pressure

$$\text{Thickness, } t = P \cdot R / (S \cdot E - 0.6 \cdot P)$$

Where,

t = Thickness of vessel shell (mm)

P = Internal Design Pressure (KPa)

R = Radius of the shell (mm)

S = Maximum allowable circumferential stress of SS316L Material

E = Weld joint efficiency for shell seam joint

Therefore, inner shell thickness = 0.992 mm

b. Thickness for External Pressure

For cylindrical shells and tubes (seamless or with longitudinal butt joints)

Distance from top tan line to jacket closure, $D_1 = 0.0$ mm

Total length, $L = H - D_1 = 708$ mm

Assumed initial thickness, $t = 7$ mm

Hence shell outer diameter, $D_o = D_i + (2 \cdot t) = 486$ mm

$D_o/t = 69.4$

$$L/D_o = 1.46$$

Factor A = 0.0016 (From Figure. H3-A [47])

Factor B = 55 (at 150 °C from Figure. H3-4 [47])

Maximum allowable external working pressure, P_a

$$P_a = 4*B / (3*(D_o/t)) = 1.056 \text{ MPa}$$

As maximum allowable external working pressure is greater than the external design pressure therefore, thickness assumed is safe to use.

Vessel shell thickness for external pressure = 7 mm

Hence, Vessel shell thickness provided = 8 mm

5.6.2 Vessel Dish Thickness Design

a. Vessel dish thickness for Internal Pressure

For top dish weld joint efficiency is taken as 1 and Shell External design pressure, P_o as 110 KPa

$$\text{Hence, Thickness, } t = P_i * R / (S * E - 0.1 * P_i) = 0.841 \text{ mm}$$

b. Vessel dish thickness for 1.67 times of External Pressure

For 1.67 times the external design pressure, $P_{ii} = 1.67 * P_o = 183.7 \text{ KPa}$

$$\text{Hence, Thickness, } t = P_{ii} * R / (S * E - 0.1 * P_{ii}) = 0.377 \text{ mm}$$

c. Thickness for External Pressure Assumed initial thickness. $t = 8 \text{ mm}$

Hence outer crown radius, $R_o = R + t = 488 \text{ mm}$

$$R_o/t = 60$$

$$\text{Factor A} = 0.125 / (R_o / t) = 0.0021$$

$$\text{Factor B} = 57$$

Maximum allowable external working pressure, $P_a = B / (R_o/t) = 0.95 \text{ MPa}$

As maximum allowable external working pressure is greater than the external design pressure therefore, thickness assumed is safe to use.

Hence, Vessel shell thickness provided = 8 mm

5.6.3 Vessel jacket shell Thickness Design

Design parameters (Input parameters)

- Jacket inner operating pressure = 8.6 Bar (= 860 KPa)

- Jacket operating temperature = 150 °C
- Jacket Internal design pressure, $P_i = 9.6$ Bar (= 960 KPa)
- Jacket External design pressure, $P_o = 1.1$ Bar (= 110 KPa)
- Jacket design temperature = 150 °C
- Weld Joint Efficiency, $E = 0.85$
- Max. Allowable Stress for SS316 L, $S = 115000$ KPa
- Max. Allowable Stress for SS304 = 115000 KPa
- Jacket spacing = 19 mm
- Vessel shell thickness = 8 mm

Calculations (Output Parameters)

- a. Vessel jacket thickness for Internal Pressure

Jacket inner Radius = $251 + 19 + 8 = 263$ mm

Hence, Thickness, $t = P_i * R / (S * E - 0.6 * P_i) = 2.60$ mm

- b. Thickness for External Pressure

For cylindrical shells and tubes (seamless or with longitudinal butt joints)

Distance from top tan line to jacket closure, $D_1 = 0.0$ mm

Total length, $L = H - D_1 = 708$ mm

Assumed initial thickness, $t = 3$ mm

Hence shell outer diameter, $D_o = 263 * 2 + (2 * 3) = 532$ mm

$D_o/t = 177.3$

$L/D_o = 1.33$

Factor A = 0.00038

Factor B = 33

Maximum allowable external working pressure, P_a

$$P_a = 4 * B / (3 * (D_o/t)) = 0.248 \text{ MPa}$$

As maximum allowable external working pressure is greater than the external design pressure therefore, thickness assumed is safe to use.

Vessel shell thickness for external pressure = 3 mm

Hence, Vessel shell thickness provided = 3 mm

5.7 CIP System

A mobile CIP System is selected for cleaning of various pieces of process equipment, including tanks of various sizes, as well as associated piping. A typical CIP system comprises of a tank with level probes and water inlet, a centrifugal pump for distributing the cleaning reagents around a CIP feed and returns, a heat exchanger for heating the reagents and CIP additives are injected by diaphragm metering pumps. The operation of the CIP system requires the control of several conditions, i.e., the fluid flow rates and velocities, temperatures cleaning times and the concentrations of the cleaning chemicals (detergents caustic soda). The schematics of a CIP system are shown in the Figure 21.

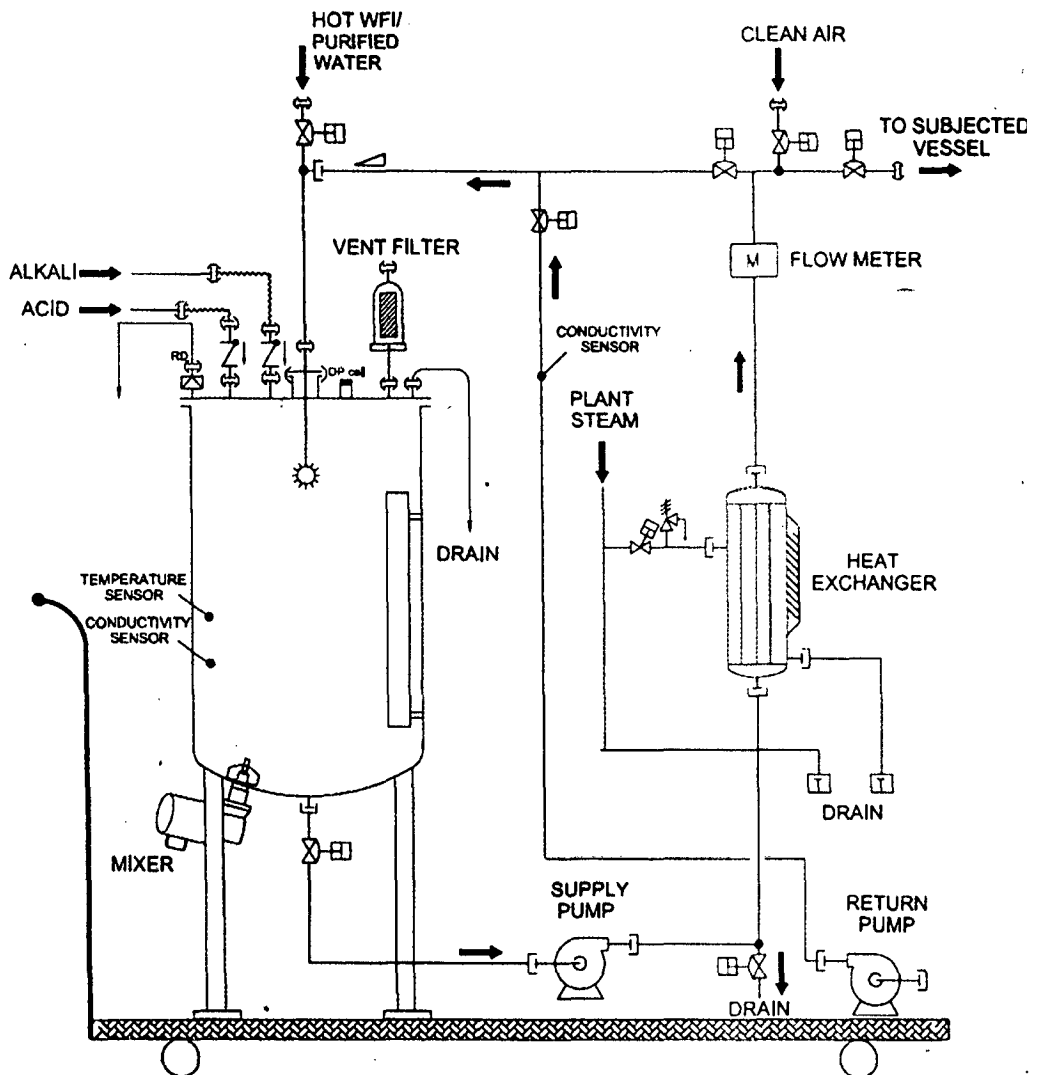


Figure 21: Schematics of a CIP System.

Figure 22 shows the typical CIP phases along with the purpose of each phase. Fluid velocities in the process piping are approximately 5 ft/s. In the case of tanks, flow rates of either water or cleaning solution are largely determined by the size of the tank, as well as the number and the properties of the spray devices. These flow rates usually range from 10 to 160 gallons per minute (~ 2–36 m³/hr). The temperature of the CIP process may vary from 135 to 175°F (~ 60 to 80°C) and control is usually critical. The necessary heat transfer demands are met either by incorporating heat exchangers into the CIP system, or by direct injection of steam. Concentrations of the cleaning solutions are monitored and controlled by the measurement of the pH or electrical conductivity. The CIP process involves a sequence of cycles that includes an initial and final drain step, a pre-rinse, wash and post-rinse. The duration of the rinse and wash cycles vary from 5 minutes to 1 hour. An integrated design will clean the process tanks and transfer lines as one circuit, potentially reducing the number of cleaning circuits by a factor of two.

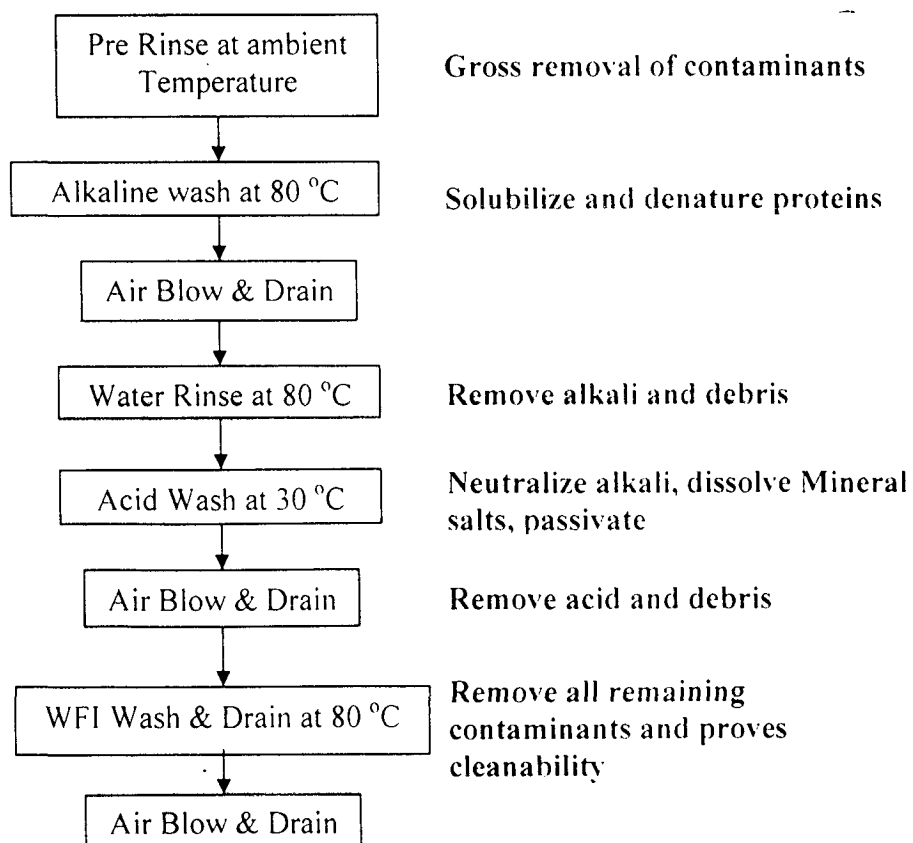


Figure 22: Typical CIP Phases.

5.7.1 Cleaning Cycle Strategy

The four most significant factors that affect the efficiency of the cleaning process are cleaning solution temperature, cleaning agent concentration, cleaning solution contact time, and the external energy put into the cleaning solution in the form of velocity and pressure, resulting in momentum and turbulence. The effective specification and control of all these factors results in efficacious, repeatable, and reliable cleaning. The highest concentration of cleaner should be used with the worst-case residues. Offline analysis of the process residues helps in determining the wash chemical concentrations. Cleaning-agent concentrations usually fall within these ranges (measured as supply conductivity) [51]:

- Alkaline cleaning agents: 20 to 25 mS/cm (1500-10,000 ppm) for bioreactors and harvest systems (highest concentration of residues), 10 to 12 mS/cm (500-3000 ppm) for media preparation (moderate concentrations of residues) and 8 to 10 mS/cm for purification systems (lower concentrations of residues)
- Acid cleaning agents: 4 to 6 mS/cm
- Buffer vessels and lines are often only water rinsed.

Alkaline wash temperatures are typically 60 to 70°C. However, if silicon based antifoam agents are present, alkaline wash temperatures are 70 to 80°C. Acid wash temperatures are typically 25 to 35°C as this is adequate for neutralization and de-mineralization, the purpose of the acid wash. A temperature just above ambient gives little cleaning benefit but helps ensure better temperature control. The alkaline wash should remove most product residues in 5 to 15 min (5 to 10 iterations through all sub-circuits). Difficult residue areas may receive 15 to 25 min of alkaline exposure. Easier residue areas may receive 5 to 10 min of alkaline exposure. Acid washes should remove alkaline and mineral residues in 5 to 10 min (recirculate 4 to 6 circuit volumes).

Spray devices are used for distribution of cleaning solutions over equipment surfaces. Generally, fixed spray devices are preferred over rotating spray devices. Fixed spray balls are used for cleaning vertical cylindrical vessels with domed head. Generally, more than one spray ball is placed in the vessel to

capacity more than 1000 Liters. Cleaning solution flow rate requirement for the subjected vessel is 2.5 GPLF (GPM per Linear Foot of Vessel Circumference). Therefore, for a 2500 L bioreactor two spray balls are placed in the vessel head with a cleaning solution of 35.1 GPM (the circumference of a 1363 diameter vessel is 4279.8 mm (~14.04 ft)).

Typical acceptance criteria for a clean vessel are:

- a. **Visual:** no residue present, no pooling or standing WFI and vessel is visibly clean and dry.
- b. **Rinse Water Samples:** Rinse Water Conductivity is USP Limit (Stage 1 or Stage 2), Rinse Water TOC is <1.0 ppm, Bioburden is < 10 CFU/100mL to 100 CFU/100mL and Endotoxin level is <0.25 EU/mL.
- c. **Surface Samples:** Surface Swabs <1.0 ppm TOC to 10 ppm TOC in 40 mL Diluent.

5.7.2 CIP SKID DESIGN

5.7.2.1 Vessel Design

For cleaning the equipments and their auxiliary lines a movable CIP skid is chosen. The volume of CIP solution required for cleaning a vessel is about 1/3rd of the vessel volume. Maximum volume in the whole manufacturing train is of the production bioreactor (2500 L). Therefore, a CIP tank volume required is around 833 L. As a movable CIP skid is selected we have space constraint, therefore, 250 L CIP tank will suffice the purpose by filling it four times to meet the cleaning requirements of the bioreactor.

Considering working volume of CIP tank as 83% of the geometric volume, therefore, geometric volume of the tank is 300 L.

Considering H:D ratio =1.5:1, with flat head and torispherical bottom.

Total volume of Reactor = Cylindrical volume + dish volume.

$$GV = [(\pi/4)*D_i^2* H] + 0.0809*D_i^3$$

$$D_i^3 = GV/\{(0.0809) + [(\pi/4) * (H/D \text{ ratio})]\}$$

$$D_i = 620 \text{ mm}$$

Tan to Tan height of the vessel H = 1.5 * 620 = 930 mm.

$$\text{Dish Volume (DV)} = 0.0809 * D^3 = 0.019 \text{ m}^3$$

$$\text{Working Level Height, } h = [(WV-DV) * 4] / (\pi * D^2) = 0.765 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Crown Radius, } R_C = fD \text{ (where } f > 0.5)$$

$$\text{Knuckle Radius } R_K = kD \text{ (where } 0 < k < 0.5)$$

Considering depth for 6% Torispherical Dish. $k = 0.06$ and $f = 1$.

$$\text{Crown Radius} = 0.62 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Knuckle Radius} = 0.0372 \text{ m}$$

Depth of Bottom Dish excluding thickness. h_D

$$h_D = R_C - \text{SQRT}\{[(R_C - R_K)^2] - [(R_C/2) - R_K]^2\} = 0.105 \text{ m}$$

Design parameters (Input parameters)

Shell inner operating pressure = 1.5 Bar (= 150 KPa)

Shell operating temperature = 80 °C

Shell Internal design pressure, $P_i = 2.5$ Bar (= 250 KPa)

Shell External design pressure, $P_o = 1.1$ Bar (= 110 KPa)

Shell design temperature = 100 °C

Weld Joint Efficiency, $E = 0.85$

Max. Allowable Stress for SS316 L. $S = 115000$ KPa

Shell inner radius, $R = 0.62/2 = 0.31$ m

Output Parameters

For cylindrical shell under circumferential stress thickness of shell is calculated by following equation [47].

• Vessel Shell Thickness Design

a. Thickness for Internal Pressure

$$\text{Thickness, } t = P * R / (S * E - 0.6 * P)$$

Where.

t = Thickness of vessel shell (mm)

P = Internal Design Pressure (KPa)

R = Radius of the shell (mm)

S = Maximum allowable circumferential stress of SS316L Material

$E =$ Weld joint efficiency for shell seam joint

Therefore, inner shell thickness = 0.794 mm

b. Thickness for External Pressure

For cylindrical shells and tubes (seamless or with longitudinal butt joints)

Distance from top tan line to jacket closure, $D_1 = 0.0$ mm

Total length, $L = H - D_1 = 930$ mm

Assumed initial thickness, $t = 9$ mm

Hence shell outer diameter, $D_o = D_i + (2*t) = 638$ mm

$D_o/t = 71$

$L/D_o = 1.46$

Factor $A = 0.0015$

Factor $B = 60$

Maximum allowable external working pressure, $P_a = 4*B / (3*(D_o/t))$
 $= 1.128$ MPa

As maximum allowable external working pressure is greater than the external design pressure therefore, thickness assumed is safe to use.

Vessel shell thickness for external pressure = 9 mm

Hence, Vessel shell thickness provided = 9 mm

• **Vessel Bottom Dish Thickness Design**

a. Vessel dish thickness for Internal Pressure

For bottom dish weld joint efficiency is taken as 1 and Shell External design pressure, P_o as 110 KPa

Hence, Thickness, $t = P_i * R / (S * E - 0.1 * P_i) = 1.106$ mm

b. Vessel dish thickness for 1.67 times of External Pressure

For 1.67 times the external design pressure, $P_{ii} = 1.67 * P_o = 183.7$ KPa

Hence, Thickness, $t = P_{ii} * R / (S * E - 0.1 * P_{ii}) = 0.495$ mm

c. Thickness for External Pressure

Assumed initial thickness, $t = 8$ mm

Hence outer crown radius, $R_o = R_c + t = 628$ mm

$$R_o/t = 79.5$$

$$\text{Factor A} = 0.125 / (R_o / t) = 0.0016$$

$$\text{Factor B} = 56$$

$$\text{Maximum allowable external working pressure, } P_a = B / (R_o/t) = 0.71 \text{ MPa}$$

As maximum allowable external working pressure is greater than the external design pressure therefore, thickness assumed is safe to use.

Hence, Vessel dish thickness provided = 8 mm

5.7.2.2 Heat Exchanger Design for CIP System

A shell and tube heat exchanger is designed for heating 4000 Kg/h (m^3/hr) water coming from CIP tank at a temperature of 25 °C to 85 °C using plain steam at 143.6 °C.

Given process conditions are

$$T_{h,in} \text{ is Steam inlet Temperature} = 143.6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} (= 290.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{F})$$

$$T_{h,out} \text{ is Steam outlet Temperature} = 143.6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} (= 290.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{F})$$

$$T_{c,in} \text{ is Water inlet Temperature} = 25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} (= 77 \text{ }^\circ\text{F})$$

$$t_{c,out} \text{ is Water outlet Temperature} = 85 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} (= 185 \text{ }^\circ\text{F})$$

$$\text{Mass Flow rate of water, } w = 4000 \text{ Kg/hr} (= 8820 \text{ lb/hr})$$

Average temperature of water at which all the properties are calculated is $t_{avg} = 55$ °C (= 131 °F)

Water Specific heat, c_p (at 55 °C) = 1 Btu/lb °F (= 1 cal/g °C)

a. Heat Balance

For water, amount of heat transfer, $Q = w * c_p * \Delta t_c = 952560 \text{ Btu/hr} (= 277.4 \text{ KW})$

From Table-7 [24], Latent Heat of Steam, $L_{fg} = 916 \text{ Btu/lb} (= 2130 \text{ KJ/Kg})$

For steam, amount of heat transfer, $Q = w * L_{fg} = 952560 \text{ Btu/hr}$

Therefore, mass flow rate of steam = 1039.9 lb/hr (= 471.7 Kg/hr)

b. True temperature difference, Δt

Log Mean Temperature Difference (LMTD)

$$R = \frac{T_{h,in} - T_{h,out}}{t_{c,out} - t_{c,in}} = 0$$

$$S = \frac{t_{c,out} - t_{c,in}}{T_{h,in} - t_{c,in}}$$

As $R = 0$ therefore, there is a true countercurrent flow (i.e. Temperature difference factor, $F_T = 1$)

$$LMTD = \frac{(T_{h,out} - t_{c,in}) - (T_{h,in} - t_{c,out})}{\ln\left(\frac{T_{h,out} - t_{c,in}}{T_{h,in} - t_{c,out}}\right)} = 153 \text{ } ^\circ\text{F} (= 67.2 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C})$$

$$\Delta t = LMTD * F_T = 153 \text{ } ^\circ\text{F} (= 67.2 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C})$$

c. Caloric Temperature

As the viscosity of both water and steam is less than 1 cP, therefore in place of caloric temperature for evaluating physical properties we use average temperature.

i) With the aid of Table 8 [52] which specifies the Dirty Overall Heat Transfer Coefficient for Steam-Water system between 200-700 Btu/ft².hr.°F, we assumed a value of $U_D = 350$ Btu/ft².hr.°F. Also for this system a dirt factor of 0.0005 is specified in Table I 1-3 [46].

ii) Shell and Tube dimensions

As the flow rate of water is larger than steam, water is placed in the tube side and steam in the shell side of the heat exchanger.

Tube side

Length of tubes, $L = 3$ ft (This much small length is taken as we have space constraints for movable CIP system)

OD, BWG, ID, pitch = ¾", 10 BWG, 0.482",

$P_T = 1$ " triangular pitch

Passes = 2

Shell side

Baffle spacing, $B = 2$ in

Baffle cut, $C' = 25$ %

Passes = 1

$$\text{Heat transfer area, } A = \frac{Q}{U_D \cdot \Delta T} = 17.79 \text{ ft}^2$$

From table 10 for 3/4" OD tubes surface area per linear ft, $a'' = 0.1963 \text{ ft}^2$

$$\text{Therefore, number of tubes} = \frac{A}{L \cdot a''} = 30$$

From Table 9 [52] for 3/4" OD tubes on 1-in triangular pitch for 2 passes number of tubes, $N_t = 30$ in a 8" shell internal diameter, are selected.

iii) Corrected coefficient, U_D

$$\text{New heat transfer area, } A = N_t \cdot L \cdot a'' = 17.67 \text{ ft}^2$$

$$\text{Therefore, } U_D = \frac{Q}{A \cdot \Delta T} = 352.34 \text{ Btu/hr.ft}^2 \cdot ^\circ\text{F}$$

Cold fluid: tube side, water

d. Flow area per tube (Table 10, [52]), $a'_t = 0.182 \text{ in}^2$

$$\text{Flow area, } a_t = \frac{N_t \cdot a'_t}{144 \cdot n} = 0.02 \text{ ft}^2$$

e. Mass velocity, $G_t = \frac{w}{a_t} = 441000 \text{ lb/hr.ft}^2$

f. Tube side Reynolds number, $Re_t = \frac{D \cdot G_t}{\mu}$

Tube internal diameter, $D_i = 0.04 \text{ ft}$

Viscosity of water (at 131 °F, from Fig.14 [52]), $\mu = 0.5315 \text{ cp} (= 1.3 \text{ lb/ft.hr})$

$$Re_t = 13466$$

$$\text{Velocity through tubes, } V = \frac{G_t}{3600 \cdot \rho} = 2 \text{ ft/s}$$

From Fig. 25 [52] for $V = 2 \text{ ft/s}$, tube side heat transfer coefficient, $h_i = 68 \text{ Btu/hr.ft}^2 \cdot ^\circ\text{F}$. From Fig. 25 the correction factor corresponding to the inside diameter of the tube is 1.4.

$$\text{Therefore, } h_i = 680 \cdot 1.4 = 986 \text{ Btu/hr.ft}^2 \cdot ^\circ\text{F}$$

$$\text{Heat transfer coefficient (based on outside), } h_m = \frac{h_i \cdot D_i}{D_o} = 634 \text{ Btu/hr.ft}^2 \cdot ^\circ\text{F}$$

g. Pressure Drop, ΔP_T

From Fig. 26 [52] for $Re_t = 13466$, tube side friction factor, $f = 0.00025 \text{ ft}^2/\text{in}^2$

$$\Delta P_t = \frac{f \cdot G_t^2 \cdot L \cdot n}{5.22 \cdot 10^{10} \cdot D_i \cdot s \cdot \phi_t}$$

Where, s is Fluid Specific gravity

Viscosity correction factor, $\phi_t = \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu} \right)^{0.14}$ is unity for less viscous fluids.

Therefore, $\Delta P_t = 0.14 \text{ psi} (= 0.009 \text{ Bar})$

$$\text{Return Pressure Loss, } \Delta P_r = \frac{4 \cdot n}{s} \cdot \frac{V^2}{2g'}$$

From Fig. 27 [24] One velocity head at $s=1$ (water),

$$\frac{V^2}{2g'} = 0.025 \text{ psi} (= 0.002 \text{ Bar})$$

Therefore, Tube side return pressure loss, $\Delta P_r = 0.2 \text{ psi} (= 0.01 \text{ Bar})$

Total Pressure drop, $\Delta P_T = \Delta P_t + \Delta P_r = 0.34 \text{ psi} (= 0.02 \text{ Bar})$

This value is within the allowable pressure drop of $10 \text{ psi} (= 0.69 \text{ Bar})$.

Hot fluid: shell side, steam

h. For shell without baffles Flow area, a_s

$$a_s = \frac{1}{144} \left(\frac{D_i \cdot C' \cdot B}{P_T} \right) = 0.028 \text{ ft}^2$$

i. Mass velocity, $G_s = \frac{w}{a_s} = 37139.7 \text{ lb/hr.ft}^2$

j. Shell side Reynolds number, $Re_s = \frac{D_e \cdot G_s}{\mu}$

Equivalent diameter, $D_e = 4 \cdot a_s / (\text{wetted perimeter})$

$$D_e = \frac{4 \cdot a_s}{N_t \cdot \pi \cdot (D_i / 12)} = 0.061 \text{ ft (from Fig. 28 for } \frac{3}{4}'' \text{ O.D. tube and } 1''$$

triangular pitch is $0.73 \text{ in})$

Viscosity of steam (at 290.5 °F, from Fig.15 [52]), $\mu = 0.016$ and $c_p (= 0.035$ lb/ft.hr). Therefore, $Re_s = 700207$

For Steam heat transfer coefficient is generally taken as, $h = 1500$ Btu/hr.ft² °F [52].

k. Pressure Drop, ΔP_s

Number of Crosses, $(N+1) = 12 \cdot L/B = 18$

From Fig. 29 [52] for shell side friction factor, $f = 0.00095$ ft²/in²

$$\Delta P_s = \frac{f \cdot G_s^2 \cdot D_s \cdot (N+1)}{5.22 \cdot 10^{10} \cdot D_e \cdot s \cdot \phi_s}$$

Where, Viscosity correction factor, $\phi_s = \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu} \right)^{0.14}$ is unity.

Therefore, $\Delta P_s = 2.22$ psi (= 0.15 Bar)

This value is within the allowable pressure drop of 10 psi (= 0.69 Bar).

l. Clean Overall Coefficient, $U_c = \frac{h_{io} \cdot h_o}{h_{io} + h_o} = 445.48$ Btu/hr.ft². °F

m. Design overall coefficient $U_D = 352.34$ Btu/hr.ft². °F

n. Dirt Factor, $R_d = \frac{U_c - U_D}{U_c \cdot U_D} = 0.0006$ hr.ft². °F/Btu

As $R_{d,calculated}$ is near to $R_{d,required}$ value and also shell and tube side pressure drop are within specified limit, the heat exchanger is satisfactory.

5.8 Sterilization of Process Equipment

The importance of proper sterilization of bioprocess equipment a solutions has long been known. In mammalian cell cultures, presence of even a contaminating micro-organism can be disastrous. At present, by far the most common technique for sterilization of large-scale process equipment is heat sterilization using steam. Heat sterilization has to kill both live microorganisms and their spores. Of the two, the spores have a thermal resistance to moist heat several thousand times greater than that of live microorganisms.

The primary challenge with *Sterilization in place* (SIP) is that it must be designed into the equipment. For successful steam sterilizing of process equipment, the time and temperature of the sterilization process are very important. The usual temperature/time combination chosen for SIP is heating at 121°C for 15 min. In practice these values are taken as minimum and the time period of steaming is often extended to ensure a good margin of safety time may go upto 30 min. Steam supplied should be saturated at 1.5 barg. In practice this means that it is adequately trapped and drained.

For mammalian cell culture, the clean steam supplied and distributed along stainless steam pipe work. Plant steam is not used as it has many impurities, which may either contaminate the product or inhibit growth of the organism being cultured.

In order to design equipment for steam sterilization the following things are taken into consideration:

- (a) All the parts of equipment should be able to withstand sterilizing temperature of upto 130°C.
- (b) Welded connections are preferred as a joint is a potential weakness.
- (c) Wherever joints are necessary, sanitary fittings must be used.
- (d) Dead spaces, crevices must be avoided as much as possible.
- (e) Sterile and nonsterile areas must be separated by more than one valve where ever possible.
- (f) Only valves that are easy to clean, maintain, and sterilize can be used therefore, diaphragm valves are generally used for sterile service.
- (g) Equipment must be designed in such a way that it can be sterilized in sections, and so that each part of the section has a unique direction of steaming.
- (h) The steam must be dry and saturated and free from particles and gases.
- (i) Steam should be introduced at highest point and condensate should be removed at lowest point.
- (j) Lines must be designed for complete drainage, without pockets where condensate can accumulate.

5.8.1 Sterilization of Bioreactor

Taking into consideration the aforementioned points a strategy for sterilization of bioreactor is developed. Inlet ports and filter should have provision of being sterilized separately and part of that can be sterilized along with the vessel. Typical sterilization scheme for a reactor is shown in the Figure 23 A and B. Before starting sterilization the vessel jacket should be drained (if not done the vessel takes longer time to heat up and may have cold spots). The vessel must be pressure tested before use, to detect minor leaks or pinholes. Sterilization is divided into various steps:

1. **Set up Equipment:** The bioreactor tank is set for sterilization by checking the availability of utilities (steam and compressed air).
2. **Condensate drain:** In this step steam is injected into the vessel through spray balls, all the drain valves are opened to remove the condensate collected at the vessel bottom.
3. **Heating:** In this step the vessel is heated till its temperature reaches around 100 °C.
4. **Evacuation:** In order to remove air pockets vent line valves are opened and steam supply is shut off.
5. **Sterilization:** In this step vent valves are closed and steam is supplied to the vessel till vessel temperature reaches 121 °C. A stabilization time of 2 mins is provided to stabilize the temperature. This temperature is maintained for 3 mins.
6. **Cooling and pressurization:** At the end of sterilization, all the drain valves should be closed. When the pressure inside the vessel has dropped to 1 bar sterile air at a pressure of 1 barg should be introduced through the air inlet filter. This ensures that as the vessel cools it does not develop vacuum. It also allows a slow replacement of the condensing steam with sterile air at a higher than ambient pressure as the vessel cools. In this way the risk of post-sterilization contamination is greatly reduced.

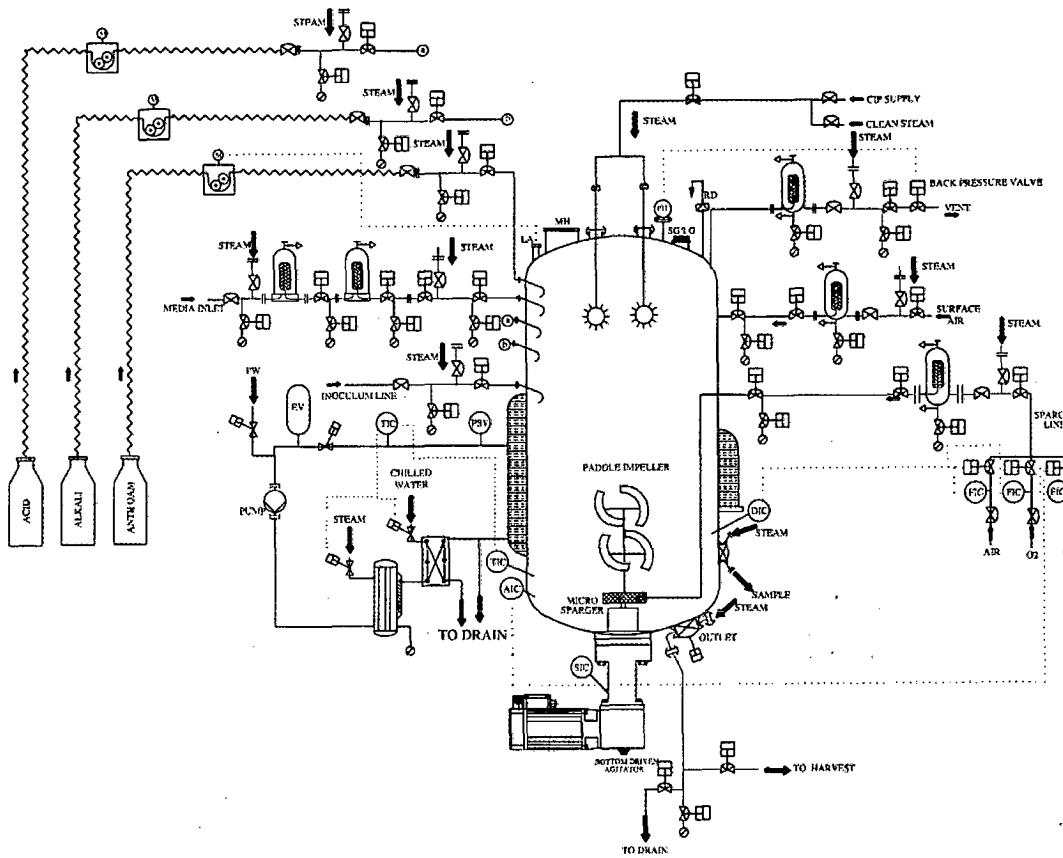


Figure 23 A: Sterilization Cycle of Transfer lines

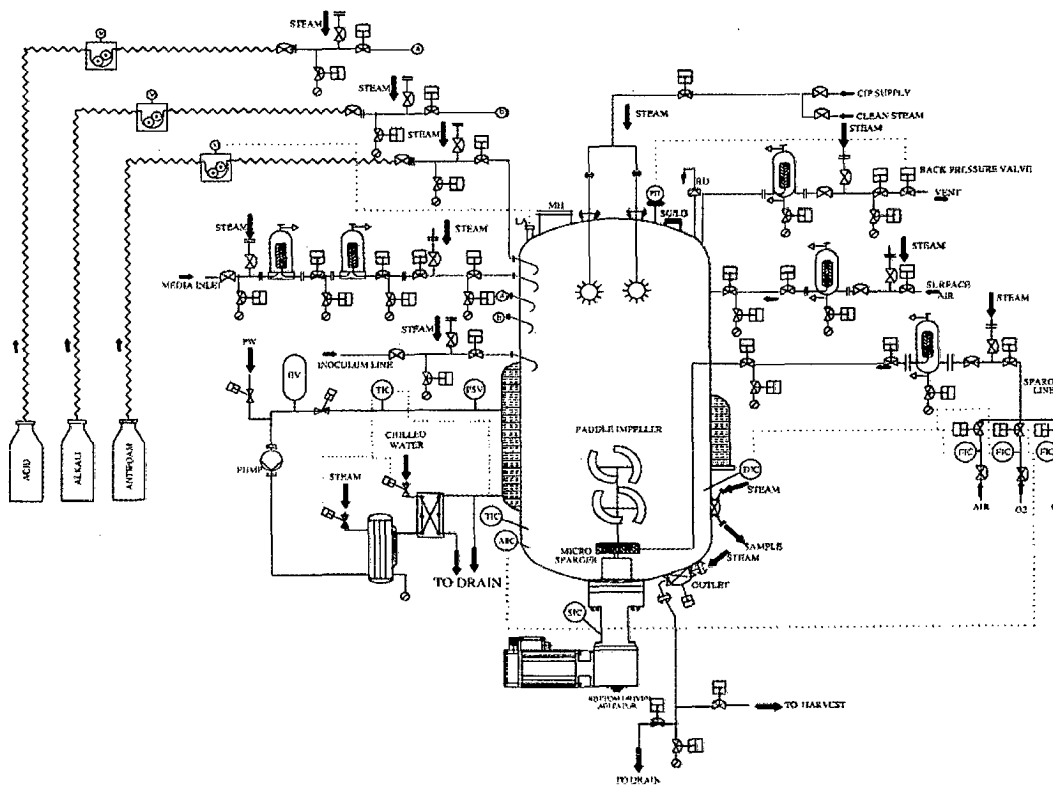


Figure 23 B: Sterilization Cycle of Vessel

Chapter VI

FACILITY DESIGN

6.1 Design Philosophy

The scope of a multipurpose development and bulk manufacturing facility should include: process development, preparation of material to meet research needs, preparation of material to support phase I, II and III clinical trials, and the preparation of material used to launch or support a licensed product. To meet these needs the facility is divided into five general areas: laboratories to support scale-up, clinical and manufacturing efforts, utility areas for the production and distribution of purified waters and other utilities, receiving and shipping areas, warehouse raw materials and the finished product, and administrative offices. The sterile product manufacturing area is further classified into several areas: Seed preparation Area, Media and Buffer preparation area, Bioreactor area, Harvest area, Downstream Processing area (V+ purification and V- Purification area) and Formulation area. The production suites, utility, and receiving/shipping area should be designed to comply with current FDA guidelines [53].

A significant portion of the expense in constructing and operating a GM facility is in providing the necessary validated utilities: deionized water, water for injection, clean air, plant steam, chilled water and clean steam. These systems require both validation and routine monitoring of the fluid quality. An area within the facility is designated for preparing the raw materials such as growth media, nutrients and buffer for use in processing. The preparation area requires equipment for weighing and dispensing solid and liquid raw materials, metering water and tanks for batching the combined raw materials. A battery of bioreactors ranging in size are provided in the bioreactor area where small ones can be skid mounted and large ones can be fixed. In Harvest area centrifuge and harvest tank can be accommodated. In purification areas skid mounted chromatography and ultrafiltration system can be placed along with the feed tanks. Transfer panels and nodes are well suited for providing the required flexibility: several transfer lines can meet at a node, and jumper connections are made from one line to another. As a portable CIP system is used suitable utility stations are required to provide the utilities for the CIP system as well as to allow the connection of CIP supply and return lines to the processing equipment. Decontaminating small volumes of solids

and liquid waste can be handled manually in an autoclave whereas large quantities of waste require a separate decontamination (i.e. kill tank type) system which is confined to a specific location in the facility.

6.1.1 Premises

Areas that are related functionally should also be physically adjacent to one another. Maintaining the required adjacencies improves the efficiency of the facility operation and reduces the amount of circulation space between related areas. Therefore, the facility should be designed in such a way that the entry to processing areas should be through airlocks. For personnel, these airlocks generally take the form of changing rooms that have a variable number of interconnecting rooms, depending on the grade of area. Ideally, separate airlocks should be provided for the entry of materials into the area. Airlocks should be flushed with filtered air. Unnecessary entry to all processing areas should be avoided. False ceilings should be sealed so that no dirt can fall from the void above. This should permit access to light fittings from above allowing maintenance without stopping production. Sinks and drains should be avoided where possible and must not be installed in aseptic areas. Drains should have cleanable traps and air breaks to prevent back flow.

6.1.2 Isolation of Clean Areas

Clean areas must be isolated with clean corridor and return corridor concept. With this concept bioreactor, cell culture, and purification areas are organized as separate suites, and may be accessed only through entry air locks from the clean corridor. Once having entered any suite from the clean corridor, personnel and equipment are considered to be in contact with biologically active material, and they must leave through an exit air lock leading to a return corridor. Control may be established by a standard operating procedure to explain the rules governing access to and exit from biological suites, or control may be maintained by interlocks integrated with door hardware and card readers or other devices which permit access in only one direction. In order to avoid cross contamination

and maintain clean environment HVAC (Heating Ventilation and Conditioning) system is employed. The close temperature tolerances used in biologics processing require the use of specialty environmental clean rooms. Air entering a production area is filtered using terminal HEPA filter mounted in near the ceiling and the air is exhausted from the room through ducts near the floor. Consequently, the rate of air flow into the room directly affects the cleanliness of the room. As the product proceeds from the fermentation through purification, the environment should be made progressively cleaner to protect the integrity of the product. The clean areas are classified according to required characteristics of air. Laminar air flow is used to obtain the required characteristics. Entries to clean areas are through air locks for personnel and goods. The inoculum room is designed as Class 10,000 area accessed from white corridor. Bioreactor room is Class 100,000. Hoods throughout the facility are Class 100. Buffer preparation, glass washing, and support areas are Class 100,000. A gray corridor is provided for visitor access and for exiting the Class 10,000 areas. Both V+ and V- purification rooms are Class 1000. A small Class 1000 filling suite is also included. For various classified rooms Table 16 shows the Air Change rate and percentage ceiling coverage for HEPA filters. Exhaust air can be either vented to the atmosphere or partially recirculated. To avoid cross-contamination, the air from different processing areas should not be mixed. Recirculated air should only be returned to the room from which it was exhausted.

Table 16: HVAC - Classified Areas and Air Changes

| Classified Areas | Class | Air Change Rate | % Ceiling Coverage for HEPA |
|-------------------------|--------------|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Inoculum Prep. | 10,000 | 50 | 10% |
| Laminar Hood | 100 | 180 | 50% |
| Bioreactor | 100,000 | 20 | NA |
| Harvest | 100,000 | 20 | NA |
| V+ Purification | 1000 | 90 | 25% |
| V- Purification | 1000 | 90 | 25% |
| Media Prep. | 100,000 | 20 | NA |
| Buffer Prep. | 100,000 | 20 | NA |
| Bulk Filling | 1000 | 90 | 25% |

Rooms of higher classification should have a positive pressure differential relative to adjacent lower classified areas. Therefore, inoculum and bioreactor area is kept at negative air pressure levels; however purification area is maintained at positive pressures. Room pressure is maintained at 0.05 inch of water (~ 12.74 Pa) in order to minimize ingress of contamination when doors are opened. Clean rooms temperature is generally maintained at 23+/- 2 deg C. In controlled environment area, Relative Humidity should be maintained at 50 +/-5 % and in non controlled area it should be maintained at 70%.

6.1.3 Product flow

The shipping, receiving and warehouse areas of the facility need to be designed to comply with cGMP requirements. The primary concern of a biotechnology facility is integrity of the product, from raw material delivery to final manufactured product shipment. Well-defined flow paths enhance the ability to maintain the product integrity. Minimizing crossing and circuitous paths also reduces the potential of contamination and mix-up of materials and products. The flow of raw materials and product through the facility should follow the production process. Raw materials classified in several distinct categories exist within the facility at the same time. At the time of receiving, the raw material need to be kept separate from other materials and product. After testing the quality of the raw materials, the materials should be segregated according to whether they are released for manufacture or rejected. During processing operation, the product could be classified as suitable for or rejected from further processing. After the final processing step, the product is quarantined until it is verified that it is suitable for release or rejected.

6.1.4 Personnel flow

Personnel flow is unlikely parallel to product flow. Product flow is located in the production area, with a prescribed path. Personnel flow occurs throughout the facility with differing intensities and paths. People cross the boundaries of the different areas, going from production to administration, to warehouse, to

research, and to other areas within the facility. There should be unidirectional personnel and product flow. The more contact personnel have with the product, the greater the chance of contamination. If the circulation paths are separated and properly placed, the risk of product contamination is reduced. To maintain cleanliness, the manufacturing staff is required to enter the controlled environment of the process areas through a plant locker and wash-up space. Personnel are required to change into appropriate garments, and then they pass through an air lock to access controlled clean areas such as the bioreactor, cell culture, and purification areas. Clothing should be such that it should not cause any possible contamination of the product or containers.

6.1.5 Process Flow

Process flow begins when raw materials are released for production. Because the primary objective of the GMP is to guarantee the quality and purity of the end product, the process flow is critical. As much as possible, the process flow must be separated from the personnel flow and material flow. The product may go through four separate classifications during production: in process, released, rejected, and quarantined. In process product is any product that is currently in a production state. Released product is any product that has completed a production stage and has been checked and verified as acceptable for the next production stage. Rejected product is any product that at any time has been found unacceptable for further production. Quarantined product is product that has completed the production process and is awaiting final release for distribution. At all times during processing, measures should be taken to ensure that contamination of product, material and components, is minimized. The processing of preparations containing live micro-organisms is not allowed in the same facility. During processing in sterile areas, it is important that the activities taken place in these areas are less. The temperature and humidity in the area should be controlled to ensure that the integrity of materials is maintained. The microbial contamination load or bio-burden for starting materials prior to sterilization should be kept to a minimum.

Chapter VII

DCS DESIGN

7.1 Design Standards

S88, a standard addressing batch control, is well known in the process automation world. It is a design philosophy for software, equipment, and procedures. S88 provides a consistent set of standards and terminology for batch control. The first step of a process-automation is to define the requirements. Typically, the main deliverable of this effort is a functional specification. In regulated industries, a written and approved functional specification is required for computer system validation. The S88 standard facilitates object-oriented class-based designs. Class-based equipment and procedures can save time and money because the software is reusable.

7.1.1 Functional Specification (FS)

A functional specification “defines what the system should do, and what functions and facilities are to be provided. It provides a list of design objectives for the system. According to GAMP, the functional specification is based on user requirement specification, which identifies the system requirements with regard to data, interfaces, environment and constraints. The functional specification defines the process-automation requirements and becomes the basis for design specification. Inputs to the FS include the process description, Piping and Instrumentation Diagrams (P&IDs), Process Flow Diagrams (PFDs), and Instrument List.

7.1.2 S88 Models

The S88 standard provides models and terminology that can be used to specify automation requirements in a modular fashion. It classifies the system into two models: physical and procedural model (Figure 24).

a. Physical Model

The physical model defines the hierarchy of equipment used in the batch processes. This model provides a means to organize and define the equipment used to control the processes. The levels are:

- **Enterprise** defines the company that owns the facility (plant).

- **Site** defines the location of the facility. These first two levels provide link to business systems, regulatory compliance requirements and possit engineering standards.
- **Area** defines a specific section of the Site, such as a building name. T area may contain one or many Process cells.
- **Process Cell** contains all of the production and supporting equipme (Units, Equipment modules, and control modules). A process cell is t collection of all equipment that is required for the production of batch A process cell is made up of all of the units that operate on the batch.
- **Unit** is a major piece of equipment that performs a specific task within t batch process. A unit consists of equipment modules and control module
- **Equipment module** is a group of equipments that can carry out mir processing activities. Typically, an equipment Module consists of Cont Modules and does not directly interface to Plant I/O (input/output).
- **Control Module** is a single entity that performs state-oriented regulatory control. A control module directly interfaces to plant I/O.

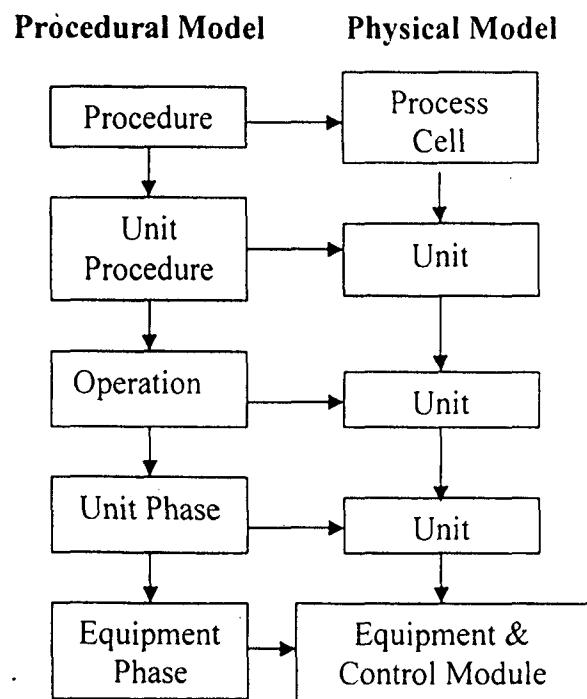


Figure 24: Hierarchy of Physical and Procedural Model

b. Procedural Model

The procedural model defines the control that enables the equipment in physical model to perform a process task. The levels are:

- **Procedure** is the sequence of Unit procedures required to make a batch orchestrates the control of equipments in the process cell.
- **Unit procedure** is a sequence of operations. It controls the function of single unit. A Unit may have more than one Unit procedure, but only one Unit procedure may control the unit at a time.
- **Operation** is a sequence of phases. Typically, an operation controls portion of the unit function.
- **Unit phase** performs a unique or independent process function on a Unit. It coordinates the control of Equipment Modules and control modules.
- **Equipment phase** performs a simple process function on an Equipment module. It coordinates the control of control modules.

7.1.1 States and Commands

Procedural states can either be transient or quiescent. Transient states typically contain a sequence of actions that must be completed in order to proceed to a corresponding quiescent state (e.g. Running and Complete). Procedural commands cause the state of procedural element to change (e.g. Start or Stop). An operator or another procedural element can issue these commands. The procedural states can be defined as follows:

- **Idle:** Waits for a start command to transition to Running.
- **Running:** Begins when the start command is received. Normal operation actions are executed.
- **Holding:** Equipment is placed in Safe State. The Running State is disrupted and placed in Holding when an exception to normal Operation is detected or the operator issues the Hold command.
- **Restarting:** The restart command has been issued by the operator when the state is Held. Action is taken to return equipment to normal operation. Once the Restarting finishes, it transitions to running state.

- Complete: The Running State has completed.
- Stopping: Equipment is placed in a safe state. The current state disrupted when the operator issues the Stop command.
- Stopped: Stopping State has completed. At this point, the recipe can be restarted.
- Aborting: Equipment is placed in safe state. Current state is disrupted when the operator issues the Abort command.

7.1.2 Application of S88 to the Process

All the above definitions and strategies are considered to design a control system for monoclonal antibody manufacturing plant as per Good Automated Manufacturing Practices. First of all one should focus on individual units present in the facility. Here we have considered "Bioreactor Area" in which one bioreactor system as a Unit. Figure 25 shows the various sequences taking place on a bioreactor.

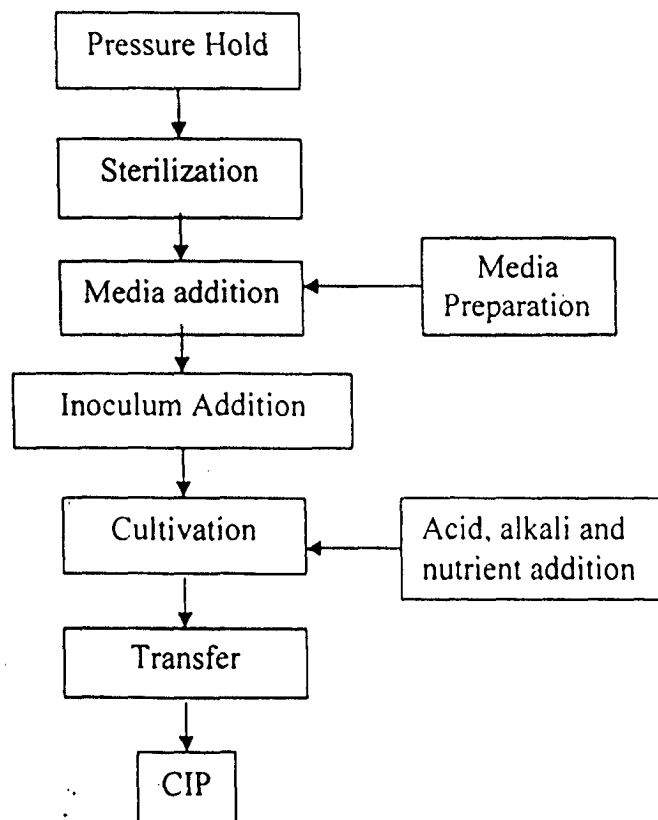


Figure 25: Hierarchy of sequences running on bioreactor.

All the sequences need to be automated completely, from media preparation and pressure hold, media addition, cultivation, and CIP. Each of these sequences represents Phase classes. For one bioreactor unit we may require more than one phases running together. So combination of phases forms a Unit operation. Then combination of these unit operations forms a Unit procedure. Unit procedures are developed for each piece of equipment and then integrate into an over all production recipe.

7.1.2.1 Defining System Boundary, Control and Equipment Modules

Boundary of the bioreactor unit needs to be defined which includes a inlet line, Utility line, product transfer line valves present in the system. The Bioreactor is used to cultivate microorganisms using media and required nutrient and transfer the product for further processing.

All the state-oriented (ON/OFF), regulatory control entities should be identified before defining the equipment modules. For bioreactor, the control modules includes all the individual valves, agitator motor, all the digital and analog indicators such as temperature, pH, DO, pressure, Mass flow controllers.

The equipment module has multiple control sequences that can be commanded to accomplish specific tasks. For the bioreactor, the equipment modules and control modules work together to perform a function. Boundaries are drawn in Figure 26 to show system boundary, control modules and different equipment modules. For example Exhaust Equipment Module comprises of all the valves, instruments including CIPS, Steam supply which are present in the exhaust lines are grouped into this equipment module. These entities are initiated according to the scheme. Similarly all the following equipment modules such as Sparger EM, Overlay EM, Spray ball EM, Addition EM, Media Filter EM, and Jacket EM are designed. Once these equipment modules are identified, phase classes are designed which runs on the particular unit to perform the given task. This needs a Class based Approach.

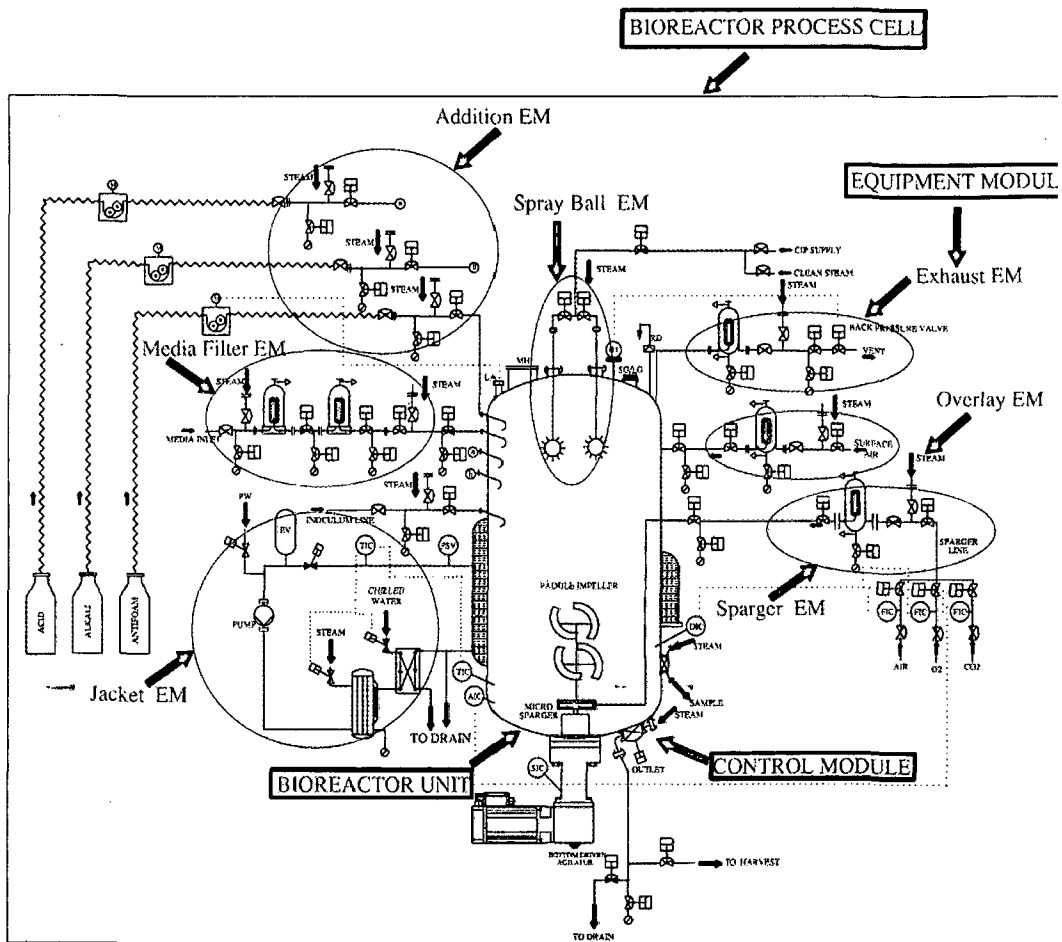


Figure 26: Hierarchy of Physical Model Defining System Boundary Unit, Equipment Module and Control Modules of a Bioreactor.

7.1.2.2 Class based Approach

Class based approach reduces the repetition of code. For example, multiple reactors in a single area are performing the similar tasks such as feed transfer, cultivation, CIP, SIP etc. Rather than creating a reactor unit each time, reactor unit class with properties and methods could be created and instantiated whenever a new reactor is needed. This approach allows unintentional deviation from one unit to other. A reactor system may contain product transfer in, media transfer in, cultivation, CIP, SIP, addition of nutrient etc., phase classes. The phase classes drive the equipment modules into specific scheme in which opening/ closing of different control modules is defined. Starting from the lo

level of hierarchy, first phase class needs to be designed. Then putting together these phase classes a unit operation is formed, and then a Unit procedure.

7.1.2.3 Designing Cultivation Phase Class

This phase class is used to perform the Mammalian Cell Cultivation process under controlled conditions of the required process parameters, like temperature, agitation speed, pressure, pH etc. The main purpose of this phase class is to activate all control loops with the set points as set up with the parameters, and to open all valves in the process line that are required for running the control loops. The logic algorithm for cultivation phase class is shown in Figure 27. First, all the equipment modules and control modules required for the sequence to run should be acquired by the reactor unit on which this phase class runs. Once these modules are acquired, they should be driven to required schemes. Input parameters, instrument set points are defined at the beginning or taken from higher hierarchical levels such as unit procedure.

7.1.2.4 Designing Cultivation Operation

This operation will be used for running all the phases required for cultivation in the following sequence. Firstly, Media and Inoculum are received in the Bioreactor, then Cultivation starts at specified conditions, then SIP of Transfer Out Line is done to sterilize the product outlet line and finally, product is transferred from the bioreactor to the harvest vessel. The logic algorithm for cultivation operation comprising all these phase classes is shown in Figure 28. All these phase classes need to be designed separately and then triggered one by one in the unit operation. All the input parameters and set-points are passed to the respective phase classes before starting the operation.

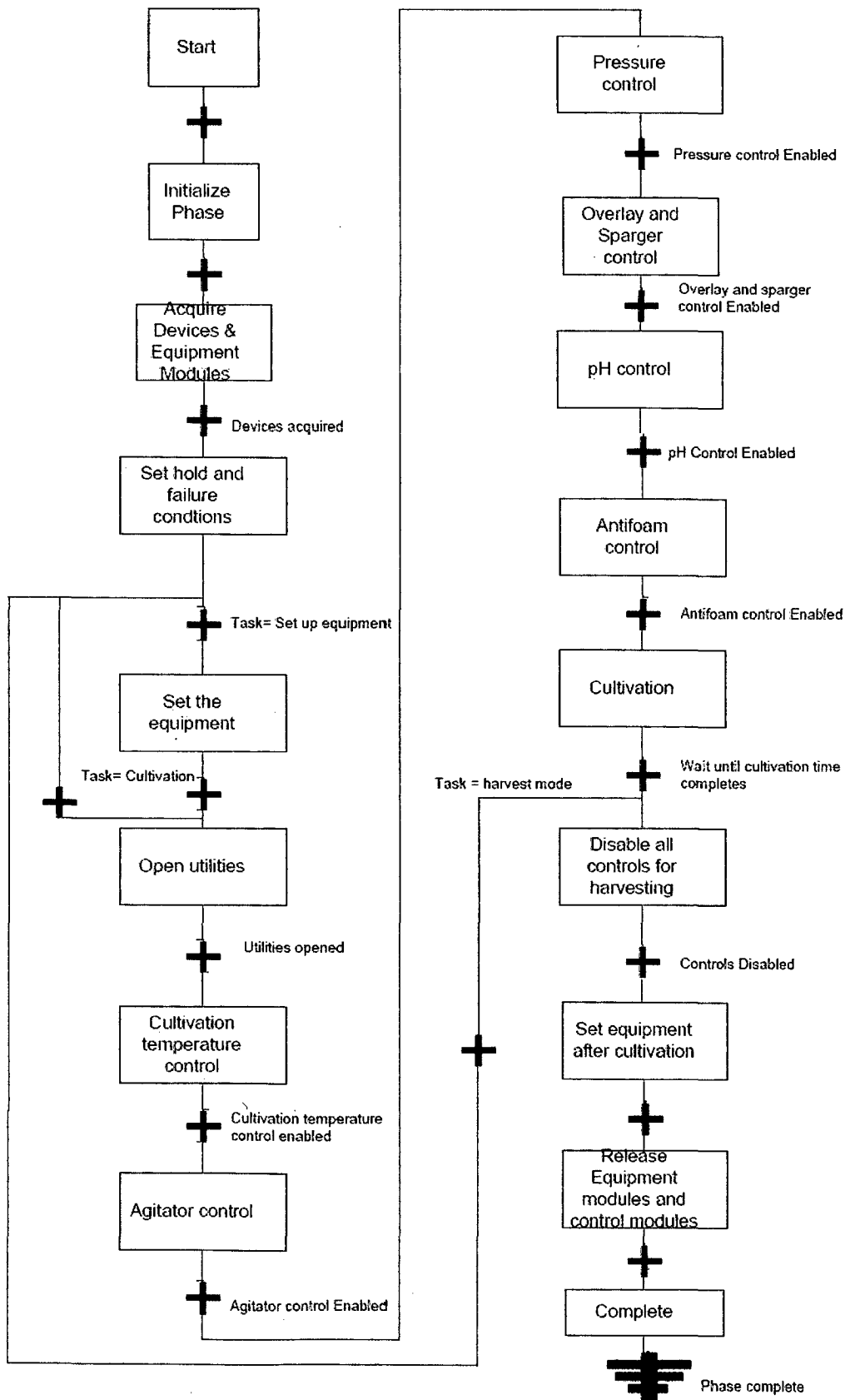


Figure 27: Logic Algorithm for Cultivation Phase Class

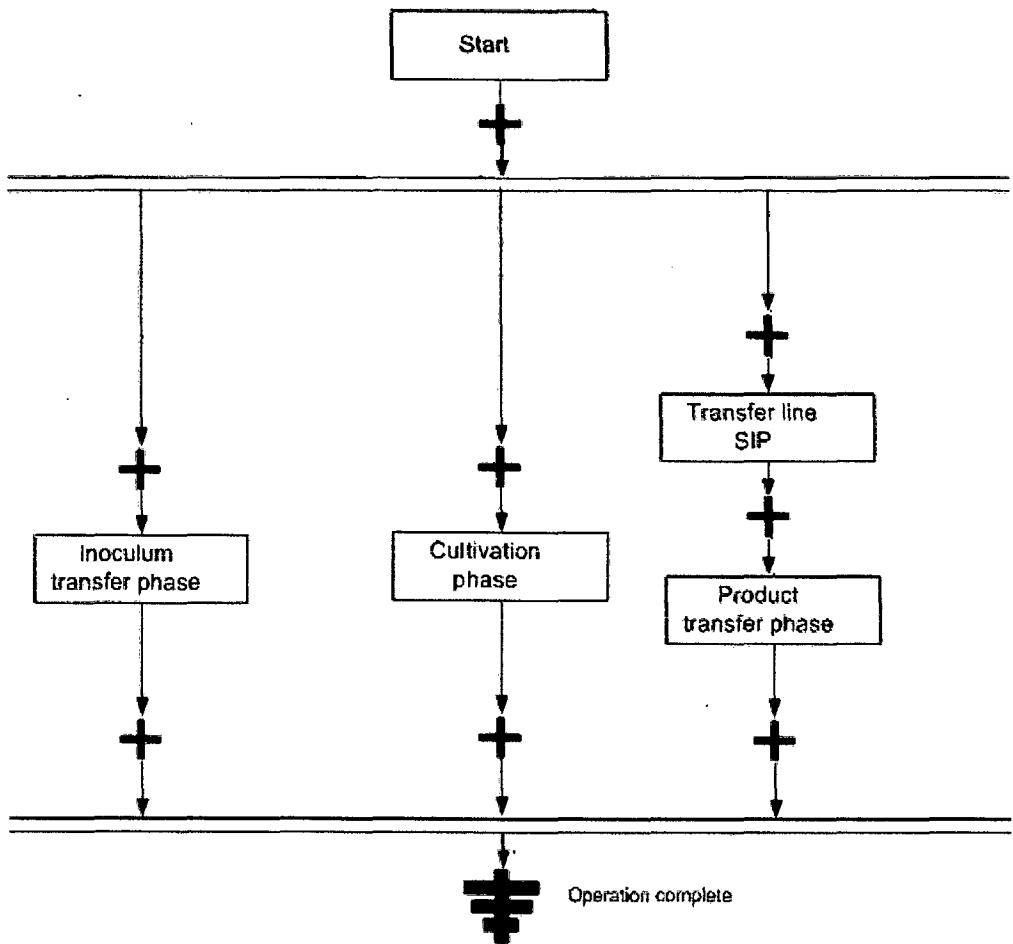


Figure 28: Logic Algorithm for Cultivation Operation.

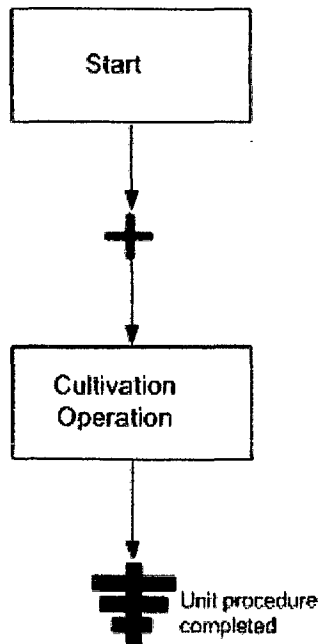


Figure 29: Logic Algorithm for Cultivation Unit Procedure.

7.1.2.5 Designing Cultivation Unit Procedure

This Unit procedure is used to perform cultivation task. Only one unit procedure can run on one reactor Unit. All the input parameters and set points are passed on to operation and then to phase classes. The logic algorithm for the cultivation unit procedure is shown in Figure 29. Similarly, other unit procedures are Media Addition UP, Inoculum Addition UP, Media filter SIP UP, Media filter CIP UP, SIP of filters, CIP of filters, SIP of Addition lines, CIP of addition lines, Transfer out, Bioreactor SIP and CIP UP. Once these UPs are in place, a decision is made which procedures need to be run in parallel for example when cultivation is going on if filters get clogged then there should be a provision for SIP those filters without disturbing the cultivation, for this phase are interlocked accordingly. These Unit procedures are applicable to Bioreactor Unit class, which includes all the bioreactors present in the Bioreactor area of the facility.

7.1.2.6 Defining Process Cells and Areas

The complete facility is divided into different process cells; they are Bioreactor Process Cell, Harvest Process Cell, TFF Skid Process Cell, TFF Feed Tanks Process Cell, Chromatography Process Cell, Chromatography Feed Tank Process Cell Etc. The Areas are defined as, Upstream (includes bioreactor process cell), Harvest, Purification (includes TFF, chromatography process cells), Utility media and buffer area.

7.2 Master Recipes

Individual recipes are prepared to operate different equipment in parallel such as bioreactor, media vessels, and CIP skid needs synchronization. When operator schedules and starts the recipe, known as master recipe, the system creates the control recipe (a working version of Master recipe), acquires all the equipment, sterilizes each, puts in production, and monitors it through to completion. As each unit procedure completes, transfer lines, tanks, bioreactors and skids are cleaned and get ready for next cycle. Figure 30 shows the master recipe for the bioreactor.

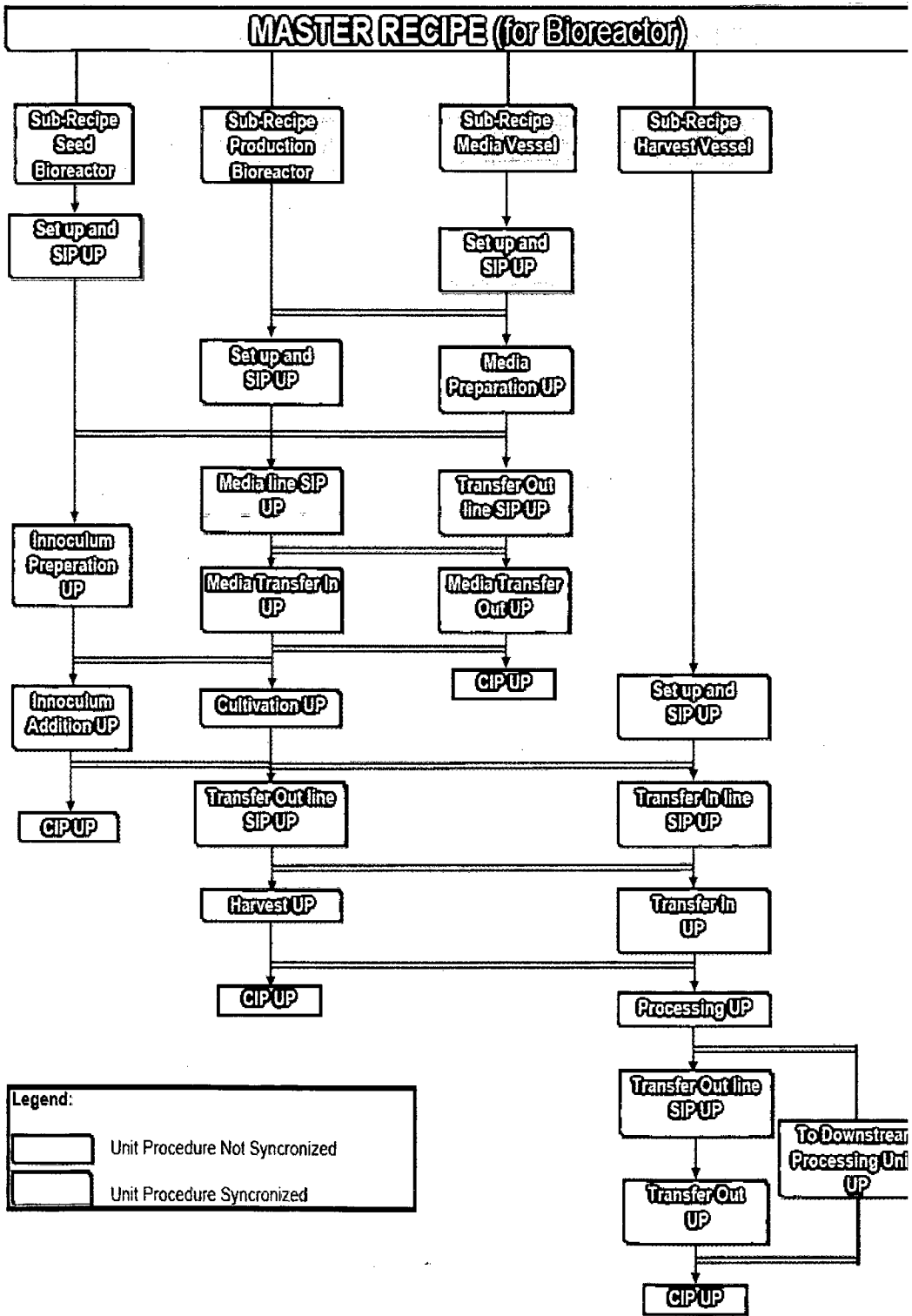


Figure 30: Master Recipe for the Bioreactor.

Chapter VIII

CONCLUSION

In this study, a method is proposed for the development of generic process for the production of therapeutic proteins. As a first step, literature and internet sources have been screened for relevant process details. The demand for monoclonal antibodies seems set to increase for the foreseeable future. This is likely to be matched by increased global capacity for mammalian cell culture on the one hand and by technological progress on the other. For this study a plant capacity of 2500 L is used for producing 2250 grams of product per year. It is likely that mammalian cell culture will be dominant for the immediate future and that those improvements will continue to be made in process efficiency. This will result from improvements to the inherent productivity of cell lines which in the future will be driven to a greater extent by a better understanding of the fundamental biology of the cell. It is generally believed that such improvements combined with further progress in media and feed development will lead to antibody concentrations of at least 10 g/L.

As concentrations increase, downstream processing will become a much more significant component of cost and this will be a driver to develop more efficient processes, potentially using radically different approaches to those used now. In this case fundamental steps in downstream processing of monoclonal antibodies have been identified. As a result, generic flowsheet has been developed based on the platform approach. Urgent needed optimization potential in scale and cost to solve the gap between therapeutic demands and bottlenecks of healthcare systems could be identified in downstream processing.

Increasingly stringent regulatory requirements in the pharmaceutical and biotechnological industries are fundamentally changing the criteria for pharmaceutical plant design and construction. A facility design philosophy is suggested which is in compliance with the cGMP requirements. To meet these needs the facility is divided into five general areas: laboratories to support scale up, clinical and manufacturing efforts, utility areas for the production and distribution of purified waters and other utilities, receiving and shipping areas, warehouse raw materials and the finished product, and administrative offices. The sterile product manufacturing area is further classified into several areas: See

preparation Area, Media and Buffer preparation area, Bioreactor area, Harvest area, Downstream Processing area (V+ purification and V- Purification area) Formulation area. The inoculum room is designed as Class 10,000 area accessed from a white corridor. Bioreactor room is Class 100,000. Hoods throughout facility are Class 100. Buffer preparation, glass washing, and support areas Class 100,000. A gray corridor is provided for visitor access and for exiting Class 10,000 areas. Both V+ and V- purification rooms are Class 1000. A small Class 1000 filling suite is also included. The facility is designed for one-way flow, meaning that personnel entering a processing suite cannot reenter the white corridor; they must exit through the gray corridor. This provision is to prevent cross-contamination.

In order to consistently manufacture a product that meets appropriate targets for attributes, a robust process with appropriate control is developed. Various control loop strategies for the critical equipments in the plant are proposed. S88 standard is used to describe the design philosophy for software equipment and procedures. Various steps are discussed which are required to apply S88 standard to a process. These steps are illustrated by modularized control of Production Bioreactor. Finally, a Master Recipe is developed for operating the whole monoclonal antibody production scenario, which shows the way in which equipment is synchronized with other equipment for executing a unit procedure.

REFERENCES

1. Pavlou A. K. and Reichert J. M. (2004). Recombinant protein Therapeutics - success rates, market trends and values to 2010. *Nature Biotechnology*, 22, 1513-1519.
2. Walsh G and Murphy B. (1999). Biopharmaceuticals, An Industrial Perspective. Chapter 3: Specific Biopharmaceutical Products. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Netherlands.
3. Farid S. S. (2007). Process economics of industrial Monoclonal Antibody manufacture. *Journal of Chromatography B*, 848, 8-18.
4. Bhopale G. M. and Nanda R. K. (2005). Recombinant DNA expression products for human therapeutic use. *Current Science*, 89, 614-622.
5. Roy N. and Agarwal S., Therapeutic Protein Production – An Overview. (2003). *Business Briefing: Future Drug Discovery*, 79-82.
6. Gasdaska J. R., Spencer D. and Dickey L. (2003). Advantages of therapeutic protein production in the aquatic plant *Lemna*. *Bioprocessing Journal*, March-April.
7. Chadd H. E. and Chamow S. M. (2001). Therapeutic antibody expression technology. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 12, 188-194.
8. Mehren M. V., Adams G. P., and Weiner L. M. (2003). Monoclonal Antibody Therapy for Cancer. *Annual Reviews Medical*, 54, 343-369.
9. Birch J. R., and Racher A. J. (2006). Antibody Production. *Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews*, 58, 671-685.
10. Wurm F. M. (2004). Production of recombinant protein therapeutics in cultivated mammalian cells. *Nature Biotechnology*, 22, 1393-1398.
11. Jones D., Kroos N., Anema R., Montfort B. V., Vooy's A., Kraats S. V. D., Helm E. V. D., Smits S., Schouten J., Brouwer K., Lagerwerf F., Berkel P. V., Opstelten D. J., Logtenberg T., and Bout A. (2003). High level expression of recombinant IgG in the human cell line PER.C6. *Biotechnology Progress*, 19, 163-168.

12. Schröder M., Matischak K. and Friedl P. (2004). Serum and protein 1 media formulation for CHO cell line DUKXB11. *Journal of Biotechnolc* 108, 279-292.
13. Kim D. Y., Lee J. C., Chang H. N. and Oh D. J. (2006). Development serum-free media for a recombinant CHO cell line producing recombin antibody. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 39, 426-433.
14. Liu C. H. and Chang T. Y. (2006). Rational development of serum-f medium for Chinese hamster ovary cells. *Process Biochemistry*. 41, 23 2319.
15. Liu C. H., Chu I. M., and Hwang S. M. (2001). Factorial designs combir with the steepest ascent method to optimize serum-free media for CHO ce *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 28, 314-321.
16. Voisard D., Meuwly F., Ruffieux P. A., Baer G., Kadouri A. (2003). Potent of cell retention techniques for large scale high density perfusion culture suspended mammalian cells. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 82, 751-76
17. Whitford W. G. (2006). Fed-batch mammalian cell culture in bioproductic *Bioprocess International*, 30-40.
18. Hahn R., Schlegel R. and Jungbauer A. (2003). Comparison of protein affinity sorbents. *Journal of chromatography B*, 790, 35-51.
19. Shukla A. A, Hubbard B., Tressel T., Guhan S and Low D. (2007). Downstream processing of monoclonal antibodies—Application of platfor approaches. *Journal of Chromatography B*, 848, 28-39.
20. Swinnen K., Krul A., Goidsenhoven I. V., Tichelt N. V, Roosen A., at Houdt K. V. (2007). Performance comparison of protein A affinity resins f the purification of monoclonal antibodies. *Journal of Chromatography B*, 84 97-107.
21. Hahn R., Shimahara K., Steindl F. and Jungbauer A. (2006). Comparison o protein A affinity sorbents III. Life time study. *Journal of chromatography* 1102, 224-231.
22. Low D., Leary R. O. and Pujar N. S. (2007). Future of antibody purification *Journal of Chromatography B*, 848, 48-63.

23. Ghosh R. and Wang L. (2006). Purification of humanized monoclonal antibody by hydrophobic interaction membrane chromatography. *Journal of Chromatography A*, 1107, 104-109.
24. Wang L., Kanani D. M. and Ghosh R. (2006). Purification of humanized monoclonal antibody by membrane-based hybrid bioseparation technique. *Journal of Immunological Methods*, 314, 1-8.
25. Arunakumari A., Wang J. M., Ferreira G. (2007). Alternatives to Protein A Improved Downstream Process Design for Human Monoclonal Antibody Production. *Biopharm International*, 2, 1-4.
26. Stein A., and Kiesewetter A. (2007). Cation exchange chromatography in antibody purification: pH screening for optimized binding and HCP removal. *Journal of Chromatography B*, 848, 151-158.
27. Ireland T., Siwak M., Bolton G. and Lutz H. (2004). Viral Filtration of Plasma-Derived Human IgG: A Case Study Using Virosolve NFP. *Biopharm International*, 11, 38-43.
28. Wu Y., Ahmed A., Waghmare R. and Kahn D. (2006). Cleaning polyethersulfone membranes after Ultrafiltration/Diafiltration in monoclonal antibody production. *BioPharm International*, 4, 1-4.
29. Vesper J. (2003). So what are GMPs anyway? *BioProcess International*, 1, 24-29.
30. Haferkamp B. (2006). Leveraging PAT, what life sciences companies can learn from other industries. *Pharmaceutical Technology*, 11, 1-3
31. Lias R. J. and Perry S. D. (2006). Case study of a clinical-scale CGMP production facility, Part-2: Facility Design. *Bioprocess International*, 6, 12-18.
32. Levin J. (2004). Designing Efficient Manufacturing Facilities. *Bioprocess International*, 3, 26-74.
33. Meyer R. (2003). A Modular Approach to Building Biotech Facilities. *Bioprocess International*, 6, 60-65.
34. Hodge G. (2004). Integrating emerging technologies to create a new multiproduct facility design. *Bioprocess International*, 5, 74-80.

35. Sinclair A. and Monge M. (2004). Biomanufacturing for 21st century. *Bioprocess International*, 10, 26-31.
36. Sinclair A. & Monge M. (2002). Quantitative Economic Evaluation of Single Use Disposables in Bioprocessing. *Pharmaceutical Engineering*, 22, 1-9.
37. Kay M. (2006). Adaptive automation accelerated process development. *Bioprocess International*.
38. Deitz C., Ham T. and Murray S. (2003). Writing a functional specification for a S88 batch project. *Chemical Engineering*, 8, 1-7.
39. Ganguly J. and Vogel G. (2006). Process Analytical Technology (PAT) and Scalable Automation for Bioprocess Control and Monitoring-A Case Study. *Pharmaceutical Engineering*, January/February, 1-9.
40. Schmelig C., Welhelm B. U., Ellert A., Peuker T., and Luttmann R. (2005). Online monitoring and automation of an integrated process with *Pichia pastoris*: A contribution to PAT initiative. *BioProcess International*, 22-25.
41. Sommerfeld S. and Strube J. (2005). Challenges in biotechnology production - generic processes and process optimization for monoclonal antibodies. *Chemical engineering and processing*, 44, 1123-1137.
42. Li F., Zhou J. X., Yang X., Tressel T, and Lee B. (2005). Current therapeutic antibody production and process optimization. *Bioprocessing Journal*. September/October, 23-29.
43. Gottschalk U. (2005). Downstream Processing of Monoclonal Antibodies: from High Dilution to High Purity. *BioPharm International*, June, 1-11.
44. Lyderson B. K., D'Elia N. A. and Nelson K. L. (1994). *Bioprocess Engineering: Systems, Equipment and Facilities*. Chapter 1: Fermentor Design, Chapter 4: Tangential Flow Filtration systems for clarification and concentration, Chapter 5: Chromatography systems and Chapter 9: Cartridge filtration for Biotechnology. A Wiley-Interscience Publication, John Wiley & Sons, Inc. United States of America.
45. Amersham Biosciences. (2002). *Proteins Separation Handbook Collections, Protein Purification Handbook*. Chapter 9: Ion Exchange Chromatography:

- Principles and Standard Conditions, and Affinity Chromatography: Principle and Standard Conditions. Amersham Pharmacia Biotech.
46. Perry R. H. and Green D. W. (1999). Perry's Chemical Engineers' Handbook 7th ed. Chapter 10 and 18. The McGraw Hill Companies Inc.
 47. ASME Boiler and Pressure Vessel Code an International Code, Rules for Construction of Pressure vessels, Section II and Section VIII, Division I (2001). The American Society of Mechanical Engineers, New York.
 48. Bailey J. E. and Ollis D. F. (1986). Biochemical Engineering Fundamentals Chapter 8: Transport Phenomena in Bioprocess Systems. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Singapore.
 49. Flickinger M. C. and Drew S. W. (1999). Encyclopedia of Bioprocess Technology: Fermentation, Biocatalysis and Bioseparation, Volumes 1-5 Topic: Fermentation Monitoring, Design and Optimization; Topic: Mammalian Cells Bioreactors and Topic: Mass Transfer. A Wiley Interscience Publication, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., USA
 50. Harrison R. G., Todd P., Rudge S. R. and Petrides D. P. (2006) Bioseparations Sciences and Engineering. Chapter 5: Sedimentation. Oxford University Press, New Delhi.
 51. Forder S. and Hyde J. M. (2005). Increasing Plant Efficiency through CIP. *Biopharm International*, 2, 2-7.
 52. Kern D. Q. (2003). Process Heat Transfer. Chapter 7: 1-2 Parallel-counterflow: Shell-and-Tube Exchangers and Chapter 11: Calculations for Process Conditions. Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Company Ltd., New Delhi.
 53. Reifferscheid M. and Bronnenmeier K. (2005). Front-End Engineering, A New Design Approach for Biotechnology Projects. *BioProcess International*, 24-28.