



UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH

**OPTIMISATION OF A RECOMBINANT HEPATITIS B
VACCINE THROUGH THE CULTIVATION AND
FERMENTATION OF *ASPERGILLUS NIGER***

Presented by

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Supervised by

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DECLARATION

I , the undersigned hereby declare that the work contained in this document is of my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

The experiments in this thesis constitute work carried out by the candidate unless otherwise stated and complies with the stipulations set out for the degree of Masters of Science in Process Engineering, by the University of Stellenbosch.

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This Work Is Dedicated To

My Mother and My Father

and

All my Teachers

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I SYNOPSIS

The development of non-replicating vaccines is an emerging option for safe, effective vaccines, several of which contain virus-like particles (VLPs). Many recombinant expression systems have been evaluated as hosts for VLP production for the prevention of infectious diseases. The filamentous fungi *Aspergillus niger* has emerged as a potential alternative expression system for cost effective VLP vaccine production. Hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) was used as a model VLP product to benchmark *A. niger*'s production capacity with those of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Pichia pastoris* and *Hansenula polymorpha*. Bioprocessing strategies were used to optimise VLP production by recombinant *A. niger* in batch culture. In particular, the effect of the parameters culture temperature, inoculum concentration, agitation intensity, dissolved oxygen (dO₂) concentration and culture pH on biomass formation, morphology and VLP (HBsAg) production concentration was quantified. At an optimum agitation of 100 rpm and optimum dO₂ concentration of 50 %, HBsAg production levels were increased 9-fold compared to yields obtained in shakeflask cultivation. Highest HBsAg production levels of 3.6 mg.ℓ_{culture}⁻¹ and 350 μg.g_{DW}⁻¹ were recorded, at a biomass concentration of 10.5 g_{DW}.ℓ_{culture}⁻¹. These production levels compare favourable with those obtained by other production systems under similar conditions. HBsAg VLPs mostly accumulated intracellularly, although under optimum bioreactor conditions significant HBsAg accumulation in the cytoplasm and culture supernatant was also observed. The impact of these process parameters on VLP production and cell morphology was attributed to environmental stress conditions. Volumetric biomass and HBsAg production levels were maximised under conditions of lowest environmental stress, resulting in the most optimal small-pelleted morphology. These results indicate a substantial potential for further engineering of the *A. niger* production system for the high level of intracellular and extracellular VLP production.



OPSOMMING

Die ontwikkeling van nie-repliserende vaksienes is tans 'n ontluikende opsie vir die produksie van veilig en effektiewe vaksienes, waarvan meeste pseudovirale partikels (VLPs) bevat. 'n Groot aantal potensiele gasheer organismes is reeds ge-evalueer om te dien as rekombinante uitdrukings sisteme vir die produksie van pseudovirale partikels. 'n Filamentagtige fungi, *Aspergillus niger*, toon groot potensiaal om as 'n alternatiewe gasheer te dien vir die produksie van pseudovirale partikels. 'n Rekombinante stam van die fungi, wat die Hepatitis B oppervlak antigeen (HBsAg) uitdruk, is gebruik om die produksie kapasiteit van *A. niger* te evalueer en te vergelyk met standaard vlakke van produksie sisteme wat gegrond is op *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Pichia pastoris* en *Hansenula polymorpha*. Die produksie van die Hepatitis B pseudovirale partikels, deur die rekombinante *A. niger* stam in 'n lot kultuur, is geoptimaliseer deur middel van bioproseserings strategie. Die effek van bioproseserings parameters insluitend temperatuur, inokulum konsentrasie, meng temp, dO_2 konsentrasie en pH, op biomassa konsentrasie, selmorfologie en pseudovirale partikel konsentrasie, is geanaliseer. Daar is vasgestel dat 'n 9-voud verhoging, in vergelyking met skudfles kulture, in die HBsAg produksie vlakke bereik is by 'n optimale meng tempo van 100 rpm en dO_2 konsentrasie van 50 %. Die hoogste gedokumenteerde HBsAg produksie vlakke was $3.6 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{kultuur}}^{-1}$ en $350 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ by 'n biomassa konsentrasie van $10.5 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{kultuur}}^{-1}$. In vergelyking met produksie vlakke gedokumenteer uit ander produksie sisteme, was die waardes verkry tydens hierdie studie goed vergelykbaar. Die HBsAg pseudovirale partikels het meestal intrasellulêr geakkumuleer, maar tydens optimale bioreaktor kondisies is daar 'n noemenswaardige hoeveelheid HBsAg in die sitoplasma en die kultuur bostand waargeneem. Die impak van die bioproseserings parameters op die produksie van pseudovirale partikels kan toegeskryf word aan omgewings druk kondisies. Biomassa en HBsAg produksie vlakke kon dus verhoog word deur die vermindering van omgewings druk, wat terselfde tyd korrel-agtige morfologie teweë gebring het. Hierdie studie het bewys dat daar aansienlike potensiaal is om hoë vlakke van beide intrasellulêre en ekstrasellulêre pseudovirale partikel produksie te bereik deur verdere ontwikkeling van die *A. niger* produksie sisteem.



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III LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

TABLE III.1: List of Abbreviations.

Abbreviation	Full Text
ADH	Alcohol dehydrogenase
AIDS	Acquired Immune deficiency syndrome
AOX	Alcohol Oxidase
Au	Australian antigen
BSA	Bovine Serum Albumin
CCRD	Central Composite Rotary Design
CHO	Chinese Hamster Ovary
CMIA	Chemiluminescent Micoparticle
DST	Department of Science and Technology
DW	Dry weight
EPI	Expanded Programme of Immunisation
ER	endoplasmic reticulum
FCCC	Fox Chase Cancer Centre
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
GPD	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate
GRAS	Generally Regarded As Safe
HBsAg	Hepatitis B surface Antigen



TABLE III.1: List of Abbreviations (Continued).

Abbreviation	Full Text
HBV	Hepatitis B Virus
HEWL	Hen Egg White Lysozyme
HBV	Hepatitis B Virus
HEWL	Hen Egg White Lysozyme
HPLC	High Pressure Liquid Chromatography
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency virus
L protein	Large protein
M protein	Middle protein
MOX	Methanol oxidase
NBS	New Brunswick Scientific
OTR	Oxygen Transfer Rate
OUR	Oxygen Uptake Rate
PGK	3-phosphoglycerate kinase
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
S protein	Major protein
VLP	Virus-like particle
vvm	Volume of gas inlet flow rate per volume of
WHO	World Health Organisation



IV LIST OF SYMBOLS

TABLE IV.1: List of Symbols

Symbols	Units
a_w	Water activity, %
C_L	Dissolved oxygen concentration (mol.m^{-3})
C_L^o	Pseudo-steady-state dissolved oxygen concentration at 0.242 mol.m^{-3}
C_L^*	Dissolved oxygen concentration in equilibrium with gaseous oxygen concentration (mol.m^{-3})
k_La	Volumetric mass transfer coefficient
P	Pressure (Pa)
Q_G	Gas flow rate ($\text{m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$)
$Q_{O_2}X$	Oxygen uptake rate ($\text{mol.m}^{-3}.\text{s}^{-1}$)
OTR	Oxygen transfer rate ($\text{mol.m}^{-3}.\text{s}^{-1}$)
OUR	Oxygen uptake rate ($\text{mol.m}^{-3}.\text{s}^{-1}$)
R	Gas constant ($8.306 \text{ Pa.m}^3.(\text{mol.K})^{-1}$)
Specific OUR	Specific oxygen uptake rate ($\text{mol.g}_{DW}^{-1}.\text{s}^{-1}$)
T	Temperature (K)
V_L	Liquid volume in bioreactor (m^3)
y	gaseous mole fraction



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1 INTRODUCTION

Besides malaria and HIV/AIDS, Hepatitis B represents one of the major diseases facing humanity in Africa and elsewhere in the world (WHO, 2004). An estimated 2 billion people have been infected by the hepatitis B virus (HBV) and 15-17 % of those infected become chronic carriers, with the highest endemicity occurring in developing countries (Beutel, 1998; Kane, 1998).

The development of safe and efficient vaccines have been one of the most far-reaching and important public health initiatives of the 20th century. Considerable attention is being paid to the development of subunit vaccines as a means of curbing the spread of infectious disease (Hansson *et al.*, 2000). Vaccines for the hepatitis B virus (HBV), produced by recombinant yeast and mammalian cultures with excellent safety and efficacy profiles, have been commercially available for the last 20 years, and have proved to be an example of a very successful production process based on the application of modern techniques in biotechnology. The vaccine has been successfully incorporated into universal infant immunization programs in a 100 countries and from an economic standpoint compare favourably to other EPI (Expanded Program of Immunization) vaccines (Kane, 1998).

Despite this success, the purchasing price of the vaccine still represents the principal barrier to the vaccine's use in many developing countries, especially Africa and Asia where virus endemicity are highest and government health care is lowest (Beutel, 1998; Kane, 1998). However, with the recent expiration of the original patents on the production of this vaccine, the opportunity for the development of a cheaper, generic production process has become available. In an effort to develop such a generic process, investigations have been carried out to identify alternative production hosts capable of succeeding current recombinant based systems. There are five major microbial and eukaryotic expression hosts that are commonly used to produce recombinant vaccine antigens; bacterial, yeast, insect, mammalian and transgenic plant expression systems.



However, each has manifested limitations, such as absence of phosphorylation and posttranslational processing in bacteria, hyperglycosylation with the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, expensive media demands for insect and animal cells, and long development times and low production levels for transgenic plant cells.

1.1 Background

Within the last decade, the cultivation of filamentous fungi has brought much attention upon itself. Filamentous fungi are eukaryotic microorganisms that influence our everyday lives in diverse areas such as medicine, agriculture, and basic science. The use of filamentous fungi for the production of commercial products is not a recent discovery, but an ancient practise, which has increased rapidly over the last 50 years. With the advent of gene technology, this capability has been further expanded and now fungi are employed to produce not only homologous, but heterologous proteins as well (Davies, 1994; Kinghorn and Unkles, 1994; van den Hondel *et al.*, 1991). They have been extensively used in industrial processes and have been harnessed for the production of antibiotics, enzymes, fermented foods, vitamins, pharmaceuticals and organic acids, to name just a few, and therefore large-scale fermentation technology and downstream processing are already well established (Bodie *et al.*, 1994).

Traditionally, bacteria, yeast and mammalian cells have been the workhorses for recombinant heterologous protein production in the biopharmaceutical industry. However, each has manifested limitations, such as hyperglycosylation with yeast, absence of glycosylation and phosphorylation in bacteria, and expensive media demands for animal cells. Compared to the above-mentioned expression systems, several characteristics of filamentous fungi as expression hosts present potential advantages, particularly their efficient secretion of endogenous proteins. The issue of hyperglycosylation is less of a problem in filamentous fungi compared to *S. cerevisiae*, as their glycosylation patterns closely resemble those found in mammalian cells. Filamentous fungi can also be described as robust and can grow on various substrates



and organic compounds (Jeenes *et al.*, 1991; van den Hondel *et al.*, 1991). They are known to produce and secrete enzymes in large quantities and through their use in the food and food processing industry, the species *Aspergillus oryzae* and *Aspergillus niger* have gained GRAS (Generally Regarded As Safe) status. Several heterologous proteins of pharmaceutical importance have also been successfully produced in *Aspergillus*; tissue plasminogen activator ($1 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) (Upshall *et al.*, 1987), human interleukin-6 ($5\text{-}10 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) (Gouka and van den Hondel, 1997), human lactoferrin ($2 \text{ g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) (Ward *et al.*, 1995), human interferon α -2 ($1 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) (Gwynne *et al.*, 1987) and an industrial process for human superoxide dismutase via intracellular expression in *Aspergillus nidulans* has been developed (Davies, 1994).

With the increasing demand for vaccines as a means to control and eradicate disease and the inherent advantages of filamentous fungi as a heterologous protein production system, the evaluation of *Aspergillus* for the production of complex immunogenic viral proteins has emerged as a promising alternative to current subunit vaccine production technologies. For HBsAg virus-like particle (VLP) production, *A. niger* was transformed with the Hepatitis B virus *S* gene encoding the major viral envelope protein (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003). Production of the 24 kDa S protein, as well as a 48 kDa S protein dimer, in the membrane-associated protein fraction of the recombinant *A. niger* strain was observed. The yield of Hepatitis B pseudoviral particles, with a diameter of 22 nm, from mycelium of the recombinant *Aspergillus* strain was estimated at $0.4 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ and $200 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ during shakeflask cultivation (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003). These results compared favourably with the reported levels initially obtained in yeasts (Valenzuela, 1982; Hsieh *et al.*, 1988; Gu *et al.*, 1991; Cregg *et al.*, 1987) indicating the potential of the *Aspergillus* expression system as an alternative cost-effective vaccine production system.

In order to develop a successful, cost effective vaccine production system, bioreactor development and design are of paramount importance. This is not a simple task due to the inherent complications in filamentous fungi cultivations. Filamentous fungi are morphologically complex organisms, differing in structure during various cultivation



periods in their life cycle, differing in form between surface and submerged growth, differing also with the nature of the growth medium and physical environment. Many genes and physiological mechanisms are involved in the process of morphogenesis. In submerged culture, a large number of factors contribute to the development of any particular morphological form. Particular morphological forms achieve maximum performance and thus it is a very difficult task to deduce unequivocal general relationships between process variables, product formation, biomass concentration and fungal morphology. Too many parameters influence these interrelationships and the role of many of them is still not fully understood. Biochemical engineers are trying to elucidate these factors, in order to optimise operating conditions in bioreactors for product and process improvement.

1.2 Aim of research project

The inherent advantages of filamentous fungi as a heterologous protein production system merit the quantification of the capacity of *A niger* to produce and assemble complex immunogenic viral proteins into VLPs. This study addresses the production of HBsAg as a model VLP by recombinant *A. niger* by analysing the influence of the bioprocessing parameters, culture temperature, inoculum concentration, agitation intensity, dissolved oxygen (dO₂) concentration and culture pH, on VLP production during micro-pelleted growth in batch cultivation. The complex and dynamic relationships existing between the environmental conditions, VLP production and microbial behaviour are assessed. Benchmark comparisons set by alternative recombinant production systems *S. cerevisiae*, *P. pastoris* and *H. polymorpha* are used to determine the feasibility of the current *Aspergillus* system as a VLP production system.

Thus, in order to optimise the HBsAg VLP production, the following aspects will be the focus of attention:



- 1) The effect and impact the bioprocess parameters, temperature, inoculum concentration, pH, dissolved oxygen (dO_2) concentration and agitation intensity have on the following:
 - a) Intracellular HBsAg production.
 - b) Total cellular protein production.
 - c) Macro-morphological properties.
 - d) Rheological properties as well as the specific oxygen uptake rate (SOUR).
 - e) Growth characteristics as well as biomass concentrations.

- 2) Plüddemann and van Zyl (2003) discovered that the HBsAg produced in the *A. niger* strain remains within intracellular sites associated with the membrane organelles. An objective of this study is to determine whether, under certain process conditions, HBsAg production can be associated not only intracellularly but released extracellularly as well.

- 3) The effect and impact cell fragmentation have on mycelial morphology and HBsAg production levels in terms of the following:
 - a) Stability and robustness of HBsAg pseudoparticles assembly, by the protease-deficient *A. niger* strain, during the latter stages of the cultivation.

- 4) Compare optimum HBsAg production levels with other benchmark production systems based on the yeasts *S. cerevisiae*, *H. polymorpha* and *P. pastoris*.

Successful optimisation of the Hepatitis B vaccine on laboratory-scale will be complimented by further scale-up and bioprocess development in future investigations.



1.3 Implications of such a study

The present research project is a critical step towards the development of a South African production process for a recombinant Hepatitis B vaccine, which may have significant benefits to the African continent as a whole. The proposed local commercial process has the potential to significantly reduce the cost of the commercial vaccine by obtaining lower production and purification costs. Besides the economic benefits to the local government (South African intellectual property), South Africa can also help to improve the Hepatitis B vaccination status of the rest of Africa.

The present project is also in line with recent investments by the Department of Science and Technology (DST) in the development of a local biotechnology industry, which is considered as a major economic growth area for the future. The development of a biotechnology industry is dependent on the availability of chemical engineers with suitable training. The present project will directly contribute to this need.

The successful completion of the present research project will give South Africa First World recognition with regards to Biotechnology, contribute to the development of an engineering work force in biotechnology and advance the cause of lower Hepatitis B vaccination costs for Africa.



2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Filamentous fungi, *Aspergillus niger*: Vaccine system of the future

2.1.1 Introduction

The use of filamentous fungi for the production of commercial products is an ancient practise, which has increased rapidly over the last 50 years. The fermentation of alcoholic beverages, practiced in the days of the Pharaohs, is one of the earliest known examples of the exploitation of the biochemical activities of a fungus by humans. The use of yeast to leaven bread also dates back to biblical times. The production of alcoholic beverages, biomass and the manufacture of therapeutic compounds, together with the production of simple organic compounds, remain the major fields in which fungi are used. Apart from the rather unsophisticated techniques used for the production and maintenance of yeast in the brewing and baking industries, the deliberate growth of fungi for commercial purposes did not commence until well into the twentieth century. The development of the sulfite process for the production of glycerol by a yeast fermentation, which was widely used during World War I, probably marks the beginning of industrial mycology (Papagianni, 2004).

However, it is since the advent of recombinant DNA technology that this capability has been further expanded and now fungi are employed to produce not only homologous, but heterologous proteins as well (Davies, 1994; Kinghorn and Unkles, 1994; van den Hondel *et al.*, 1991). Today, filamentous fungi, in particular *Aspergilli*, are emerging as another important eukaryotic host for the cost-effective production of functional proteins from a variety of sources (Davies, 1994; van den Hondel *et al.*, 1991). They have been extensively used in industrial processes and have been harnessed for the production of antibiotics, enzymes, fermented foods, vitamins, pharmaceutical products and organic acids, to name just a few (Alexopoulos and Mims, 1979), and therefore



large-scale fermentation technology and downstream processing are already well established (Bodie *et al.*, 1994).

Therefore, with the increasing demand for vaccines as a means to control and eradicate disease, the answer lies in the abilities of the recombinant host. Thus, does the filamentous fungi, *A. niger*, offer sufficient advantages to be viewed as a prominent heterologous protein production host, and furthermore, an effective alternative for current vaccine production technologies?

2.1.2 *Aspergillus*, a potential host for heterologous protein production

When the new age of recombinant DNA technology dawned, scientists were able to manipulate biological host genomes in order to produce heterologous proteins. The organism of choice for the host of foreign genes was, for a long period of time, the bacterium *Escherichia coli*. *E. coli* is a single-celled organism that reproduces mainly through asexual reproduction. The simplicity of the organism makes it easy and cheap to work with. The food source is simple, and it does not require elaborate facilities for growth and maintenance. Its rapid growth cycle allows for a quick increase in the population size of a particular strain, as an *E. coli* population can double in less than an hour. However, while the simplicity of *E. coli* makes it a desirable host for the production of heterologous proteins, it also has its disadvantages as a host. *E. coli* is a prokaryote, and thus does not have any of the membrane bound organelles found in eukaryotes. In eukaryotes, a protein is often post-translationally modified in different organelles, such as the ER or the Golgi apparatus. These modifications are often necessary to convert the protein into a functional form, and often involve addition of different forms of glycolation. Without these organelles heterologous proteins expressed in *E. coli* are incorrectly folded and thus non-functional (Miyanochara *et al.*, 1983; Baneyx, 1999). Due to these shortcomings, other microorganisms, such as mammalian cells, plant cells and yeasts, have been studied as suitable replacements for *E. coli*.



In order to produce complex proteins that are identical to the human version, (a main prerequisite for approval by the drug-regulatory authorities), scientists often resort to mammalian hosts (Michel *et al.*, 1984; MacNab *et al.*, 1976). The mammalian cell lines have been successfully cultured in bioreactors. However, such production systems require complex and costly equipment, methodology, culture media, and poses problems in the scaling up of production. Furthermore, heterologous protein production in mammalian cells is time consuming and the risk of contamination is high. There are also fears relating to the safety of the protein products derived from mammalian cells, because these cells may become tumorigenic as well as the possible presence of retroviruses. Thus, even though mammalian cultures have many advantages, these constraints have made this method unfavourable for other heterologous protein production systems (Moir and Mao, 1990).

Yeast cells have been found to be most favourable hosts in many heterologous protein production systems. It combines the ease of genetic manipulation and rapid growth characteristics of prokaryotic cells, with the ability to perform post-translational modifications of eukaryotic cells (Cregg *et al.*, 1993). Traditionally, *S. cerevisiae* has been used as a heterologous host for the production of pharmaceutical products, but the use of *S. cerevisiae* too has several limitations. Firstly, the heterologous product yields have been found to be generally low (1 to 5 percent of the total protein) (Cregg *et al.*, 1985). In addition to difficulties with scaling up the protein production to increase yield, hyperglycosylation of secreted glycoproteins not only diminishes activity of the foreign protein but it has been shown that these proteins tend to be antigenic when introduced into mammals. Another negative aspect of *S. cerevisiae* is that it does not have a strong inducible promoter. Finally, some heterologous proteins produced by *S. cerevisiae* are not secreted, but found in the periplasmic space. This leads to problems with purification and ultimately decreases production yields (Buckholz and Gleeson, 1991). This has therefore led to further investigations for alternative host cells.

Several characteristics of the yeast, *P. pastoris*, as expression hosts give them potential advantages over *S. cerevisiae*. Firstly, hyperglycosylation of proteins produced by



P. pastoris is less, and differs from that of *S. cerevisiae*, in that *P. pastoris* glycans do not have α 1,3-linked mannose residues. These have been found to be responsible for the highly antigenic nature of the glycoproteins produced by *S. cerevisiae* (Cregg *et al.*, 1993). Thus, the post-translational modifications made by *P. pastoris* are more suitable for use in humans. *P. pastoris* has a strong inducible promoter, which is related to the fact that it is a methylotrophic yeast. The first step in methanol utilisation is the oxidation of methanol to formaldehyde and hydrogen peroxide (Ledeboer *et al.*, 1985), which is catalysed by the enzyme alcohol oxidase (AOX). When grown on methanol, AOX can make up to thirty-five percent of the total cellular protein (Cregg *et al.*, 1985). Thus, favourable production levels can be obtained if a heterologous protein were to be expressed under control of the AOX gene promoter. Furthermore, since transcription of the promoter is highly inducible, the production of the foreign protein can be strictly controlled. Lastly, *P. pastoris* grows on a simple medium and does not secrete high amounts of endogenous protein. Thus, the heterologous protein secreted into the culture is relatively pure and purification is easier to accomplish (Faber *et al.*, 1995).

During the past few years, numerous studies have been presented on *A. niger*, potentially one of the most important fungi host cells for production and secretion of heterologous proteins. The employment of *A. niger* as a host organism for production and secretion of homologous and heterologous proteins demonstrates many advantages over *E. coli*, *S. cerevisiae*, and *P. pastoris* (Saunders *et al.*, 1989). *A. niger* is a prodigious exporter species of homologous proteins and is able to produce certain enzymes in quantities of kilograms per cubic meter. Filamentous fungi are also rather robust and can grow on many organic compounds (Jeenes *et al.*, 1991; van den Hondel *et al.*, 1991). *A. niger* has a long history of usage within the fermentation industry and has gained GRAS status. This often facilitates the path toward regulatory approval of the production system. Even though empirical optimisation is required for each new production system, the fermentation industries are familiar with the baseline conditions required to maximize production of homologous proteins in *Aspergillus* (Bodie *et al.*, 1994). Thus, it provides a good foundation for the identification of



physicochemical influences that are likely to be of greatest importance to heterologous protein production and secretion using a similar strain. *Aspergillus* is capable of carrying out efficient post-translational modifications of products. Hyperglycosylation is less of a problem in filamentous fungi than in *S. cerevisiae*, as their glycosylation patterns more closely resemble those found in mammalian cells (Upshall *et al.*, 1987). This is especially important for some proteins derived from higher eukaryotes. Several proteins of pharmaceutical importance have also been successfully produced in *Aspergillus*, including tissue plasminogen activator ($1 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) (Upshall *et al.*, 1987), human interleukin-6 ($5\text{-}10 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) (Gouka *et al.*, 1997), human lactoferrin ($2 \text{ g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) (Ward *et al.*, 1995), human interferon α -2 ($1 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) (Gwynne *et al.*, 1987), and an industrial process for human superoxide dismutase through intracellular expression in *Aspergillus nidulans* has been developed (Davies, 1994). Furthermore, *Aspergillus* species are effective secretors of proteins, often in a native, correctly folded form. They tend not to accumulate large quantities of the protein intracellularly, in the form of inclusion bodies, as some bacteria and yeast do. Finally, transformation stability is relatively high; therefore, the threat of revertants is less pronounced (Saunders *et al.*, 1989).

2.1.3 General Information on filamentous fungi

Filamentous fungi are eukaryotic microorganisms. As the name implies, most filamentous fungi grow as hyphae (branched filaments of cells joined together) which are collectively called mycelia. Filamentous fungi account for virtually all the fungal kingdom, excluding that of yeast, which represent a group of essentially unicellular fungi. Most fungi grow as septate hyphae (the hyphae contain cross-walls called septa) which divide them into distinct uninucleate cell-like units.

Filamentous fungi are morphologically complex microorganisms, exhibiting different structural forms throughout their life cycles. They can reproduce asexually by fragmentation of their hyphae as well as by forming spores both asexually and, less frequently, sexually (Tortora *et al.*, 1998). The basic vegetative structure of growth



consists of a tubular filament known as hypha that originates from the germination of a single reproductive spore. Hyphae grow by the elongation of the tips. As the hypha continues to grow, it frequently branches repeatedly to form a mass of hyphal filaments referred to as mycelium. When grown in submerged culture, these fungi exhibit different morphological forms, ranging from dispersed mycelial filaments to densely interwoven mycelial masses referred to as pellets. The particular form exhibited, is determined not only by the genetic material of the fungal species but also by the nature of the inoculum as well as the chemical (medium constituents) and by physical (temperature, pH, mechanical forces) culturing conditions (Atkinson and Daoud, 1976; Kossen, 2000).

2.1.4 The fungus *Aspergillus*

The first person to study the *Aspergilli* was a priest by the name of Micheli in 1729, who published *Nova Plantarum Genera* in which his microscopical research on fungi was included, distinguishing stalks and spore heads (Alexopoulos and Mims, 1979; Raper and Fennell, 1965). He noted that the spore chains or columns radiated from a central structure to produce a pattern that suggested the aspergillum (a device used to sprinkle holy water) and thus he applied the name *Aspergillus* to the moulds he observed. Species of *Aspergillus* belong to the first fungal organisms that were cultivated on artificial media and studied for their biochemical properties and they are one of the most common fungi found in man's environment (Samson, 1994). Since ancient times, *Aspergillus* species have been used in fermentation of food in Japan and other Asian countries and the early discovery of their ability to produce organic acids was made at the turn of the century. By 1928 more than 2000 papers had been published which in some way concerned *Aspergilli* (Raper and Fennell, 1965).

A. niger is a member of the genus *Aspergillus*, asexual (anamorphic) filamentous fungi. The genus is widely distributed, and has been observed in a broad range of habitats because they can colonize on a wide variety of substrates. *A. niger* is commonly found as a saprophyte growing on dead leaves, stored grain, compost piles, and other decaying



vegetation. The spores are widespread, and are often associated with organic materials and soil.

2.1.5 Homologous and Heterologous protein production in *Aspergillus*

The fungus *Aspergillus* is the basis of a number of industrial processes involving fermentation, such as the fermentation of the cacao bean and the preparation of certain cheeses. It is employed in the commercial production of many organic acids, plant growth regulators, mycotoxins, some drugs such as ergometrine and cortisone and some vitamin preparations, and is responsible for the manufacture of a number of antibiotics, particularly penicillin and griseofulvin (Harvey and McNiel, 1994).

Citric acid is the most extensively produced organic acid by means of modern biotechnological means (Bodie *et al.*, 1994). At the advent of the previous century, citric acid could only be obtained commercially from citrus fruits (Johnson, 1954). Today, however, the product is obtained by submerged fungal fermentation. Advantages of submerged cultures include lower labour cost, higher yield, shorter time cycle, simpler operation, and easier maintenance of asepsis. TABLE 2.1 presents the major classes of *Aspergilli* organic acids of commercial importance and some of their sources.

TABLE 2.1: Major classes of *Aspergilli* organic acids of commercial importance and some of their sources (Papagianni, 2004).

Organic Acid	Sources
Citric Acid	<i>A. niger</i>
Gluconic acid	<i>A. niger</i> , <i>A. oryzae</i>
Kojic acid	<i>A. flavus</i> , <i>A. oryzae</i>
L-Malic acid	<i>A. citricus</i> , <i>A. niger</i> , <i>A. ochraceus</i> , <i>A. oryzae</i>

The major applications for industrial enzymes are in the manufacture of foods and beverages, wastewater treatment and the manufacturing of fine chemicals (Bodie *et al.*, 1994). The current world market for industrial enzymes is estimated at



US \$1.6 billion a year and a significant growth is predicted for the future (refer to TABLE 2.2. Filamentous fungi are sources of about 40% of available enzymes (Archer and Peberdy, 1997; Maister, 2001).

TABLE 2.2: Global sales (in millions of US \$) of industrial enzymes from 1992 to 1998 and projected to 2009 (Godfrey, 2001).

Year	Global Sales (in millions of US \$)	Change (%)
1992	600	
1993	720	+20
1994	864	+20
1995	933	+8
1996	1138	+22
1997	1434	+26
1998	1550	+8
2005 predicted	1700	+5 average
2009 predicted	2250	+8.1 average

As new and improved molecular-biological techniques have developed, new methods and ideas to use filamentous fungi for the production of homologous and heterologous proteins have emerged. Many fungal and non-fungal proteins have been expressed with varying success (Gouka *et al.*, 1997b; Kinghorn and Unkles, 1994; Verdoes *et al.*, 1995). A large market exists for recombinant enzymes in various industries, including animal feed, glucose syrup, alcohol, wine, brewing, baking, fruit juice and dairy industries (Archer, 2000; Archer and Peberdy, 1997; Bennett, 1998; Bodie *et al.*, 1994). Some bacterial and fungal enzymes of commercial importance that have been produced by recombinant *Aspergilli* are summarised in TABLE 2.3. For extensive lists of industrial products and the preferred names of the filamentous fungi that produce them, the reader is referred to the “ATCC names of industrial fungi” (Jong *et al.*, 1994).



TABLE 2.3: Enzymes expressed in *Aspergillus* (Adapted from Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003).

Enzyme	Source	Expression host	Production levels	Reference
Acid phosphatase	<i>Aspergillus awamori</i>	<i>A. awamori</i>	24.2 U	Piddington <i>et al.</i> , 1993
Acid protease	<i>Aspergillus oryzae</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	5236 U.g dry mycelium ⁻¹	Gomi <i>et al.</i> , 1993
Alkaline protease	<i>A. oryzae</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	41529 U.g substrate ⁻¹	Cheevadhanarak <i>et al.</i> , 1991
α -Amylase	Barley	<i>A. niger</i>	60 mg.ℓ _{culture} ⁻¹	Juge <i>et al.</i> , 1998
scFv Antibody fragments	Human	<i>A. awamori</i>	200mg.ℓ _{culture} ⁻¹	Frenken <i>et al.</i> , 1998
α -L-Arabinofuranosidase	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	2.48 U.mℓ ⁻¹	Flippi <i>et al.</i> , 1993
		<i>A. nidulans</i>	2.64 U.mℓ ⁻¹	
Aspartic proteinase	<i>Rhizomucor miehei</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	3.3 g.ℓ ⁻¹	Christensen <i>et al.</i> , 1988
		<i>A. awamori</i>	1.97 g.ℓ ⁻¹	Ward <i>et al.</i> , 1993
	<i>Mucor pusillus</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	20 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Murakami <i>et al.</i> , 1993
Bovine enterokinase	Cattle	<i>A. niger</i>	5 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Svetina <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Bovine pancreatic trypsin inhibitor	Cattle	<i>A. niger</i>	10 - 20 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	MacKenzie <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Catalase	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	11 U.mg protein ⁻¹	Fowler <i>et al.</i> , 1993
Cell surface glycoprotein Bm86	Cattle tick (<i>Boophilus microplus</i>)	<i>A. nidulans</i>	1.8 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Turnbull <i>et al.</i> , 1990
		<i>A. niger</i>	NR	
Chloroperoxidase	<i>Caldariomyces fumago</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	10 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Conesa <i>et al.</i> , 2001
Chymosin	Calf	<i>A. oryzae</i>	0.16 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Tsuchiya <i>et al.</i> , 1993



TABLE 2.3: Enzymes expressed in *Aspergillus* (Adapted from Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003) (continued).

Enzyme	Source	Expression host	Production levels	Reference
Cutinase	<i>Fusarium solani pisi</i>	<i>A. awamori</i>	30 – 70 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	van Gemeren <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Endoglucanase	<i>Cellulomonas fimi</i>	<i>A. nidulans</i>	~20 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Gwynne <i>et al.</i> , 1987
1,4-β-Endoxylanase	<i>A. awamori</i>	<i>A. awamori</i>	58 kU.mℓ ⁻¹	Hessing <i>et al.</i> , 1994
Δ6-Fatty acid desaturase	<i>Mortierella alpina</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	NR	Sakuradani <i>et al.</i> , 1999
α -Galactosidase	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	NR	Den Herder <i>et al.</i> , 1992
		<i>A. awamori</i>	4.6 g.ℓ ⁻¹	Finkelstein <i>et al.</i> , 1989
	Plants	<i>A. awamori</i>	0.4mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Gouka <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Glucoamylase	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	7.5 g.ℓ ⁻¹	Finkelstein <i>et al.</i> , 1989
		<i>A. nidulans</i>	1.2 g.ℓ ⁻¹	Devchand <i>et al.</i> , 1989
		<i>A. awamori</i>	4.6g.ℓ ⁻¹	Finkelstein <i>et al.</i> , 1989
	<i>A. oryzae</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	29.4 U.mℓ ⁻¹	Hata <i>et al.</i> , 1991
Glucose oxidase	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	14 U.mg protein ⁻¹	Whittington <i>et al.</i> , 1990
		<i>A. nidulans</i>	5 U.mg protein ⁻¹	
α -Glucosidase	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. nidulans</i>	18 U.g protein ⁻¹	Nakamura <i>et al.</i> , 1997
β-Glucosidase			Co-expressed,	
Cellobiohydrolase	<i>Trichoderma reesei</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	several hundred	Takashima <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Endoglucanase			mg.ℓ ⁻¹ cellulases	



TABLE 2.3: Enzymes expressed in *Aspergillus* (Adapted from Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003) (continued).

Enzyme	Source	Expression host	Production levels	Reference
β -1,4-Endoglucanase	<i>T. reesei</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	138 U.m ℓ^{-1}	Rose and van Zyl, 2002
Insulin	Human	<i>A. niger</i>	776 mU. ℓ^{-1}	Mestric <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Interferon alpha-2	Human	<i>A. nidulans</i>	0.2 mg. ℓ^{-1}	MacRae <i>et al.</i> , 1993
			1 mg. ℓ^{-1}	Gwynne <i>et al.</i> , 1989
Interleukin-6	Human	<i>A. nidulans</i>	4.8 mg. ℓ^{-1}	Contreras <i>et al.</i> , 1991
Laccase	<i>Coprinus cinereus</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	8 – 135 mg. ℓ^{-1}	Yaver <i>et al.</i> , 1999
	<i>Myceliophthora thermophila</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	11 – 19 mg. ℓ^{-1}	Berka <i>et al.</i> , 1997
	<i>Pycnoporus cinnabarinus</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	70 mg. ℓ^{-1}	Record <i>et al.</i> , 2002
	<i>Trametes villosa</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	NR	Yaver <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Lactoferrin	Human	<i>A. oryzae</i>	2 g. ℓ^{-1}	Ward <i>et al.</i> , 1995
Lignin peroxidase	<i>Phanerochaete chrysosporium</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	Enzyme inactive	Conesa <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Lipase	<i>Thermomyces lanuginosa</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	2.1 relative lipase units.m ℓ^{-1}	Yaver <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Lysozyme	Hen egg white	<i>A. niger</i>	1 mg. ℓ^{-1}	Archer <i>et al.</i> , 1990
Manganese peroxidase	<i>P. chrysosporium</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	100 mg. ℓ^{-1}	Conesa <i>et al.</i> , 2000
		<i>A. oryzae</i>	5 mg. ℓ^{-1}	Stewart <i>et al.</i> , 1996
	<i>Pleurotus eryngii</i>	<i>A. nidulans</i>	148.5 U.mg protein $^{-1}$	Ruiz-Duenas <i>et al.</i> , 1999
		<i>A. oryzae</i>	5 mg. ℓ^{-1}	Stewart <i>et al.</i> , 1996
β 2-microglobulin	Human	<i>A. nidulans</i>	117 μ g. ℓ^{-1}	O'Herrin <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Mucus proteinase inhibitor	Human	<i>A. niger</i>	3 mg. ℓ^{-1}	Mikosch <i>et al.</i> , 1996



TABLE 2.3: Enzymes expressed in *Aspergillus* (Adapted from Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003) (continued).

Enzyme	Source	Expression host	Production levels	Reference
Pectate lyase	<i>Erwinia carotovora</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	0.4 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Bartling <i>et al.</i> , 1996
		<i>A. nidulans</i>	2.0 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	
		<i>A. awamori</i>	0.8 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	
Pectin lyase A	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	NR	Harmsen <i>et al.</i> , 1990
Pectin methyl esterase	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	45 U.mg protein ⁻¹	Khanh <i>et al.</i> , 1991
Phenol oxidase	<i>Acremonium murorum</i>	<i>A. awamori</i>	0.6 g.ℓ ⁻¹	Gouka <i>et al.</i> , 2001
Phytase	<i>A. awamori</i>	<i>A. awamori</i>	328.9 U	Piddington <i>et al.</i> , 1993
Polygalacturonase I	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. nidulans</i>	510 U.mℓ ⁻¹	Bussink <i>et al.</i> , 1992a
Polygalacturonase II	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	88 U.mℓ ⁻¹	Bussink <i>et al.</i> , 1990; Bussink <i>et al.</i> , 1992b
Polygalacturonase C	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. nidulans</i>	33 U.mℓ ⁻¹	Bussink <i>et al.</i> , 1992a
Porcine pancreatic phospholipase A ₂	Human	<i>A. niger</i>	10 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Roberts <i>et al.</i> , 1992
Taka amylase	<i>A. oryzae</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	12 g.ℓ ⁻¹	Christensen <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Thaumatococin	(Thaumatococcus danielli)	Plant		Hahm and Batt, 1990
		<i>A. oryzae</i>	50 ng.ℓ ⁻¹	
		<i>A. awamori</i>	5 - 7 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Faus <i>et al.</i> , 1998
			100 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Moralejo <i>et al.</i> , 1999
Pancreatic phospholipase	Pig	<i>A. niger</i>	10 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Roberts <i>et al.</i> , 1992



TABLE 3.2: Enzymes expressed in *Aspergillus* (Adapted from Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003) (continued).

Enzyme	Source	Expression host	Production levels	Reference
Tissue plasminogen activator	Human	<i>A. nidulans</i>	1 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Upshall <i>et al.</i> , 1987
		<i>A. niger</i>	12 - 25 mg.ℓ ⁻¹	Wiebe <i>et al.</i> , 2001
Triglyceride lipase	<i>R. miehei</i>	<i>A. oryzae</i>	8810 U.mg protein ⁻¹	Huge-Jensen <i>et al.</i> , 1989
Vanillyl-alcohol oxidase	<i>Penicillium simplicissimum</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	NR	Benen <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Xylanase	<i>A. awamori</i>	<i>A. awamori</i>	58 kU.mℓ ⁻¹	Hessing <i>et al.</i> , 1994
	<i>A. awamori</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	140 kU.mℓ ⁻¹	
	<i>T. reesei</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	480 U.mℓ ⁻¹	Rose and van Zyl, 2002

NR = Not Reported

In addition to the expression of fungal enzymes, many studies on heterologous gene expression have considered the genes of higher eukaryotes using the expression hosts *A. nidulans*, *A. niger* and *Aspergillus awamori* for commercial reasons (van den Hondel *et al.*, 1991; Radzio and Kuck, 1997).

High-level heterologous protein production facilitates the study of the structure and/or biological function of a protein. Where the availability of a certain protein may be erratic, expression in a microbial host can fulfil demand and pharmaceutically important proteins that were previously only obtained from biological samples such as serum can be obtained more easily with less risk of contaminating biological agents, such as viruses (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003). The success of *A. niger* for industrial production of biotechnological products is largely due to the metabolic versatility of this strain. The industrial importance of *A. niger* is not limited on its more than 35 native products but also on the development and commercialisation of the new products which are derived by modern molecular biology techniques.



2.1.6 Future directions for the *Aspergillus* expression system

The results described in the previous section indicate that although considerable progress has been made in the development of *Aspergillus* for the production of complex mammalian proteins, not all problems have been resolved. However, the utility of this host for effective expression of mammalian proteins has been proven with the numerous successes that have been achieved. However, despite the apparent success of expressing higher eukaryotic proteins in *Aspergillus*, the potential of this host to produce another pharmaceutically important group of proteins, namely viral proteins, is largely unknown. Only one report has been published in a Chinese journal of the production of Hepatitis B surface antigen in *Aspergillus foetidus* (Liu *et al.*, 1990). No other reports have been found to date detailing the production of viral proteins in *Aspergillus*.

2.1.7 Conclusion

Therefore, with the increasing demand for vaccines as a means to control and eradicate disease and the inherent advantages of filamentous fungi as a protein production host, the evaluation of *Aspergillus* for the production of immunogenic viral proteins has emerged as a promising and exciting alternative to the current vaccine production technologies.



2.2 Hepatitis B

2.2.1 Introduction

Hepatitis B, caused by the infectious Hepatitis B virus (HBV), is a major public health concern. It is deemed as one of the most widespread and infectious diseases in the world today, causing serious liver disease. Between one-third and one-quarter of people infected chronically with HBV are expected to develop progressive liver disease, which includes cirrhosis and primary liver cancer. In fact, The World Health Organisation (WHO) ranks Hepatitis B as the ninth leading cause of death worldwide. An estimated 400 million people worldwide are diagnosed with chronic HBV infection, of which 1 million carriers are estimated to die annually due to Hepatitis B and its consequences. HBV is second only to tobacco as a known human carcinogen (WHO, 2004).

There is no effective cure or treatment in current existence for individuals already infected. Much more research is required before completely understanding and controlling the spread of this infectious agent (Kassianides *et al.*, 1988). Furthermore, safe and effective vaccines against HBV have been available since 1982. Since 1991, WHO has recommended that a Hepatitis B vaccine be included in routine immunization schedules for all children in all countries (Vryheid *et al.*, 2001).

2.2.2 Global distribution

Even though HBVs have been found in other primates, humans remain the principal reservoir (Mosley, 1975). Many individuals are affected worldwide; approximately 6% of the world's population is infected with the HBV and 45% of the world population occupy areas in which chronic HBV infection is highly endemic. The problem is most prominent in developing countries with 95% of chronic carriers residing in the developing world (Ayoola, 1988). In Southeast Asia and tropical Africa, chronic carriers of the virus represent 10% or more of the population, whereas they make up less



than one percent in North America and Western Europe. It is estimated that there are about 110 million HBV carriers in Africa alone with 60% to 99% of healthy African adults, from rural areas, showing evidence of exposure to HBV. The estimated data of the world prevalence of the HBV carrier state in 2003 is tabulated in TABLE 2.4.

TABLE 2.4: Estimated world prevalence of HBV carrier state, (WHO, 2004).

Region	Estimated population (in millions)	Carrier prevalence (%)	Number of carriers (in millions)
Asia	3200	8	254
Africa	680	16	108
Former USSR	296	4	9.8
Latin and South America	430	3	12.6
Europe	503	1	6
Japan	135	2	2.7
North America	360	0.5	1.8
Oceania	26	2-4	0.6
TOTAL	5630	5.55	395.5

Hepatitis B researchers have divided the world into areas of “high”, “intermediate”, and “low” HBV endemicity, basing this division on markers and on the primary modes of HBV transmission.

In the western industrialised countries (developed countries) such as the United States, the prevalence of chronic HBV infection is low (<2%). This is a result of immunisation programmes, where children and adolescents are routinely vaccinated against Hepatitis B. The highest incidence of disease is in persons in direct contact with chronic carriers or with their blood samples (nurses, doctors, dentists), recipients of blood or blood products (haemophiliacs, patients receiving blood transfusions or dialysis treatments), prison inmates, intravenous drug abusers, homosexuals and persons with multiple sex partners.



Regions of intermediate chronic HBV infection (2%–7%) include the developing countries such as South Central and Southwest Asia, Israel, Japan, Eastern and Southern Europe, Russia, most areas surrounding the Amazon River basin, Honduras, and Guatemala. Viral transmission in these areas occurs most frequently from an infected mother to her infant (Hino *et al.*, 2001), and to a lesser extent, adult transmission.

The prevalence of chronic HBV infection is high (>8%) in all third world countries and some developing countries such as; all of Africa; Southeast Asia, including China, Korea, Indonesia, and the Philippines; the Middle East, except Israel; south and Western Pacific islands; the interior Amazon River basin; and certain parts of the Caribbean (Haiti and the Dominican Republic). With regard to southern Africa specifically, in a study performed in Swaziland in 1983 and in Namibia in 1985, 82.6% and 98.9%, amongst those tested showed exposure to HBV, respectively (Ayoola, 1988). In South Africa, more than 70% of the population has been exposed to HBV, with an estimated 10% being carriers (i.e. HBsAg positive) of the virus (Tsebe *et al.*, 2001). The carrier rate differs regionally, with higher rates of infection in rural areas (5-25%) than urban areas (<5%). In Africa all susceptible groups (i.e. those who are negative for HBV markers) are at high risk of infection, with the highest risk occurring among children (Ayoola, 1988; Garrison and Baker, 1991; Tiollais and Buendia, 1991). A pre-immunisation survey conducted in South Africa in 1999 indicated HBsAg carriage of 8.9% in 1-year-olds, increasing to 12.8% in 3-year-olds and rising to 15.7% by the age of 6 years (Vardas *et al.*, 1999). Amongst African adults, blood scarification in tribal rituals, tattooing, blood-sucking vectors, sexual intercourse and uncontrolled injections have been incriminated in transmitting HBV (Ayoola, 1988). FIG. 2.1 illustrates the geographical distribution of the Hepatitis B prevalence in 2002 and categorises the areas in terms of high, intermediate and low infection.



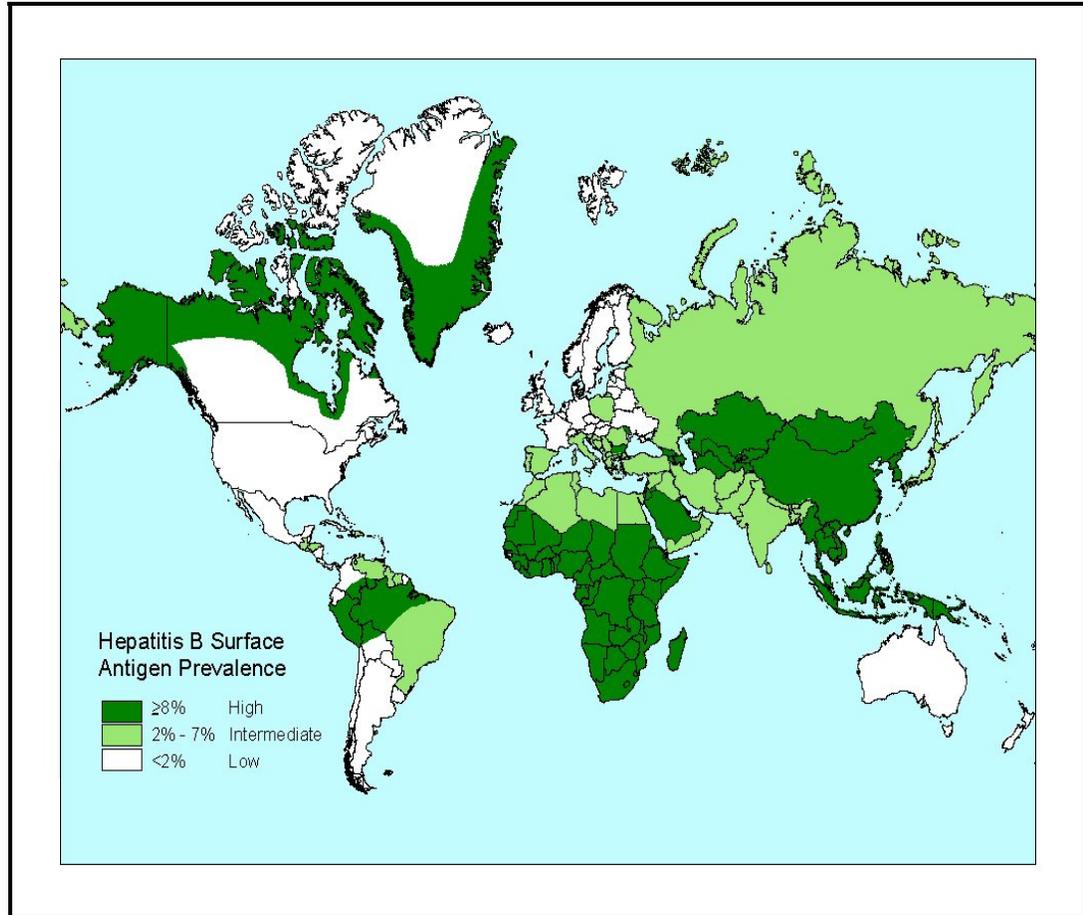


FIGURE 2.1: Geographic Distribution of Hepatitis B Prevalence, 2004, (WHO, 2004).

HBV is therefore primarily a disease of infants in third world and developing nations, whereas in Western countries it is mostly confined to adults, due to the availability of various Hepatitis B vaccines and the increasing knowledge of how the virus is spread. Due the burden of HBV disease in the developing world, it is essential that these populations are vaccinated against the Hepatitis B virus. WHO has recommended, since 1991 that Hepatitis B vaccine be included in routine immunization schedules for all children in all countries (Vryheid *et al.*, 2001). However, these same populations have the least access to the vaccine. The primary reason for limited access to vaccines is due to cost. One dose of the vaccine can cost approximately US \$30-\$55, bringing the three-dose cost to upwards of US \$100-\$150. Unfortunately, this is far too expensive for



many countries in the developing world that spend about US \$12 or less per capita per year for all organized health care. Therefore, even though the WHO recommends that the HBV vaccine is added to the Expanded Programme of Immunization (EPI), many countries have been unable to do so. FIG. 2.2 represents a geographical representation of the countries using a Hepatitis B vaccine in their national immunisation programme in the year 2001.

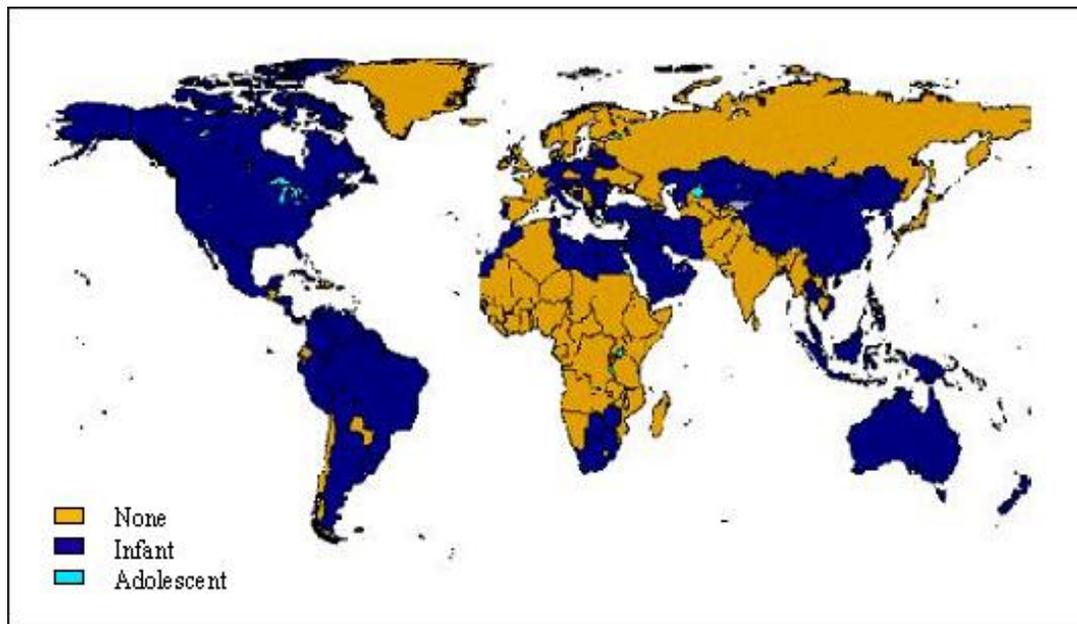


FIGURE 2.2: Countries using Hepatitis B vaccine in their national immunisation programme, 2003 (WHO, 2004).

In order to curb the spread of the disease a mass vaccination strategy must be made feasible, where large amounts of safe, affordable vaccine must be produced and made available to the public.

2.2.3 Origin and History of the Hepatitis B virus

The origin of the Hepatitis B virus is unclear. With human HBV as the archetype, the members of the *hepadnaviridae* family include the Eastern woodchuck Hepatitis B



virus, the Beechy ground squirrel Hepatitis B virus, and the Beijing duck Hepatitis B virus. The various strains of this virus have been found to be species specific. They all target the liver as the primary site of infection and have the ability to cause persistent infection.

In 1883, Lürman reported an epidemic of hepatitis that occurred in shipyard workers in Bremen. This was the first possible report of a Hepatitis B epidemic (Purcell, 1994; Zuckerman, 1975). The concept of Hepatitis B was only introduced in 1947, when MacCallum categorized infectious (epidemic) and serum hepatitis (MacCallum, 1947), and was only accepted by the World Health Organisation in 1973 (WHO, 1973).

2.2.4 The Hepatitis B virus life cycle

The Hepatitis B virus is primarily found in the blood of infected individuals. However, HBV has also been detected in other bodily fluids including urine, saliva/nasopharyngeal fluids, semen, and menstrual fluids (Alter *et al.*, 1977 and Davison *et al.*, 1987). This virus has not been detected in faeces, perhaps due to inactivation and degradation within the intestinal mucosa or by the bacterial flora (Grabow *et al.*, 1975).

Transmission of HBV is done most efficiently via percutaneous introduction (i.e. needle stick injury). Sexual transmission is also possible, though inefficient. There are other potential routes of transmission, but their efficiency is not easily measured. Children of mothers with active HBV are also at risk of acquiring HBV. Uninfected individuals living with an HBV carrier are at greater risk of contracting HBV than those not living with a carrier. This is likely because HBV can survive even on a dry surface for over a week (Bond *et al.*, 1981). However, it should be noted that for HBV to infect, it still must gain entry into the bloodstream of an uninfected individual. Once the virus invades the body, it binds to the cell surface and penetrates it with the help of its envelope proteins. Inside the plasma membrane of the cell, the virus is not degraded but is transported to the nucleus where the partially circular DNA is made into covalently



closed circular DNA (cccDNA). cccDNA functions as the template for RNA synthesis. This RNA is then reverse transcribed into an open, circular DNA molecule. The new, circular DNA is subsequently packaged into viral envelopes in the endoplasmic reticulum and then transported out of the cell. Unlike other viruses, HBV does not integrate itself onto the host genome but retains a core of cccDNA in the nucleus of the cell by transporting some of the newly synthesized HBV DNA back to the nucleus. Thus, the HBV continues to replicate itself inside the host's liver cells (Plotkin and Orenstein, 1994 and Mahoney *et al.*, 1999).

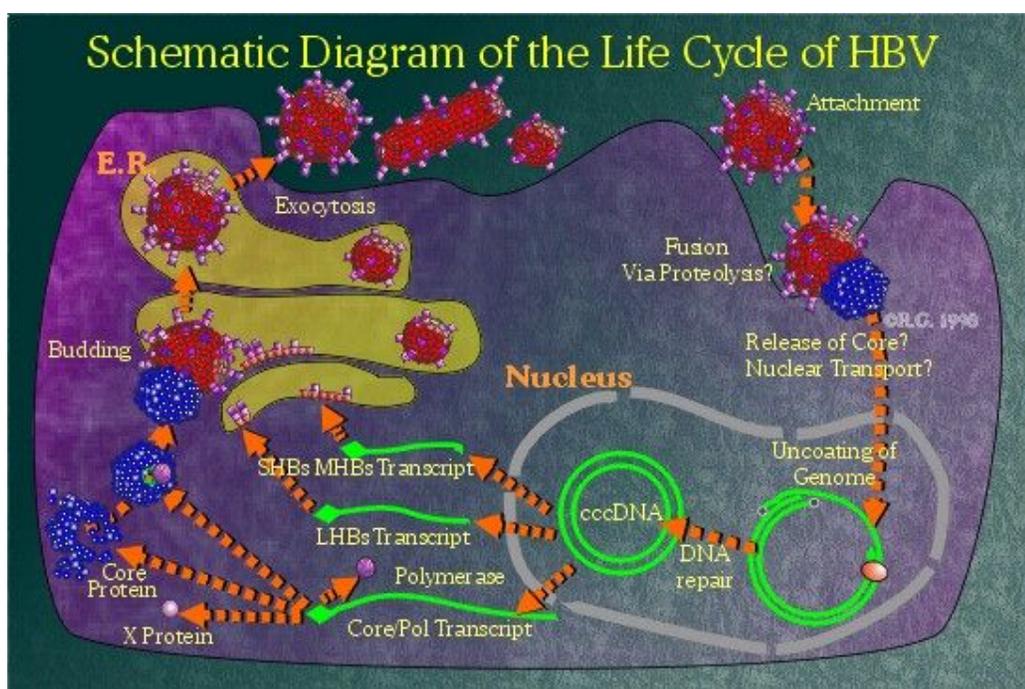


FIGURE 2.3: The Life Cycle of the Hepatitis B Virus. (<http://www.globalserve.net/HBV.htm>).

2.2.5 Structure of the Hepatitis B Virus

The Hepatitis B virus is a small (440Å), enveloped, double-stranded DNA virus classified in the family *Hepadnaviridae* (hepatropic DNA viruses), genus *Orthohepadnavirus* (Huovila *et al.*, 1992; Purcell, 1994). The HBV comprises of a



double-walled structure consisting of two concentric protein coats (Ganem and Varmus, 1987; Huovila *et al.*, 1992; Purcell, 1994).

The envelope, or outer coat, contains three surface proteins that stimulate the production of antibodies in the infected host and are known as the Hepatitis B surface antigens (HBsAgs). Due to the multiple start codons, polypeptides of three different sizes called the major (S) (24 kDa), middle (M) (33 kDa) and large (L) (39 kDa) protein can all be produced by the same HBsAg coding gene. All three-envelope components are glycosylated, type II transmembrane proteins that form multimers. These multimers are stabilised by disulphide bridges, which are formed by cysteine residues present in the S domain (Seeger and Mason, 2000). The viral particle also has a host-derived lipid composition consisting of phospholipids (principally phosphatidyl choline), free and esterified cholesterol, and small quantities of triglycerides (Ganem and Varmus, 1987). The capsid, or inner coat also known as the core, comprises of a single core protein species that surrounds and interacts with the viral DNA.

The Hepatitis B virion, known as the Dane particle, has a diameter around 42 nm and is deemed as an infectious particle. The envelope surrounds the inner nucleocapsid which is comprised of 180 Hepatitis B core proteins arranged in an icosahedral arrangement with T=3 and T=4 symmetry (Crowther *et al.*, 1994; Nassal and Schaller, 1993; Onodera *et al.*, 1982). The nucleocapsid also contains at least one Hepatitis B polymerase protein as well as the infectious HBV genome (Gerlich and Robinson, 1980). One Dane particle contains 300 to 400 major S protein molecules and 40 to 80 middle and large protein molecules (Tiollais *et al.*, 1985), which together with the capsid form the 42 nm diameter infectious viral particle (virion) (Ganem and Varmus, 1987).

The S protein together with the larger envelope proteins spontaneously assemble into filamentous and spherical particles 22 nm in diameter. These particles are secreted from infected cells in a ratio of 10^3 to 10^6 for every virion present. These two particles are



termed pseudo viral particles; the sphere is composed of the small and middle Hepatitis B surface proteins, whereas the filament also includes the large Hepatitis B surface protein.

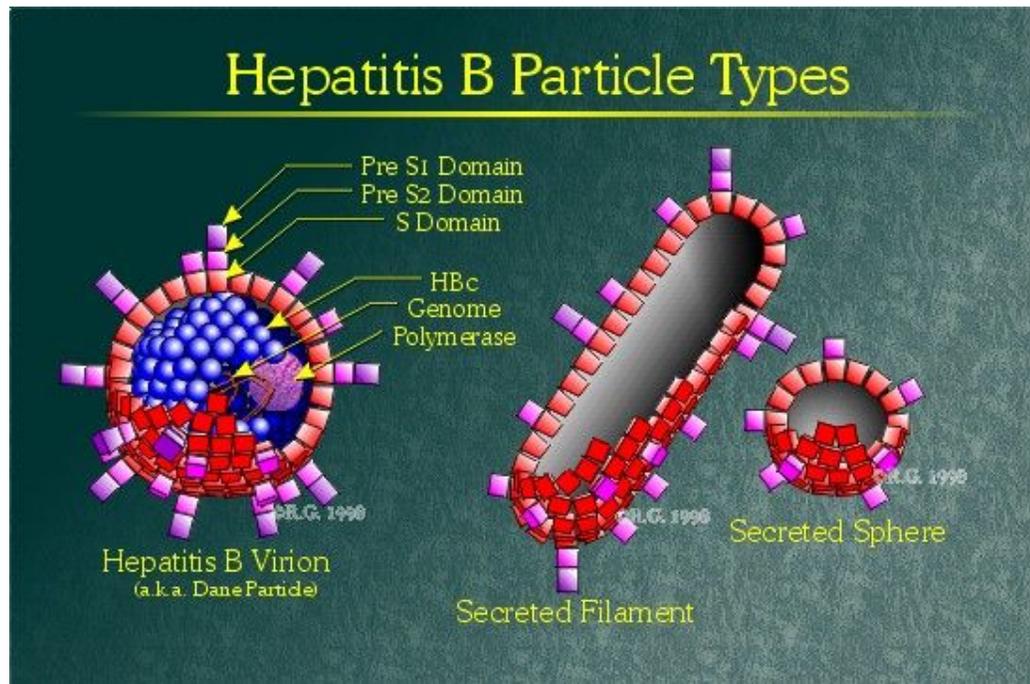


FIGURE 2.4: Hepatitis B particle Types (<http://www.globalserve.net/HBV.htm>).

These pseudoviral particles, termed the Hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), are absent of viral DNA, namely the Hepatitis B core, polymerase, and genome, which confers a non-infectious nature to these particles. In terms of the HBV vaccine, the most important part of the genome is the HBsAg gene. It is particularly important because the S protein product contains an epitope that generates a protective host immune response against the virus, and is thus the key in the current HBV vaccine. High levels of these non-infectious particles can be found during the early and acute phases of infection (Hoofnagle, 1981) on the surface of the viral envelope as well as in excess in the blood. As a result, these S domain proteins are believed to allow the infectious viral particles to traverse the blood stream undetected by neutralizing host antibodies (Thomas, *et al.*, 1988). In addition, non-infectious particles have been reported to



enhance HBV infection in the duck Hepatitis B system, having important functions in the viral life cycle, such as binding and penetration, envelopment and virus maturation. Binding of non-infectious particles to potential host cells appears to activate the cells, possibly to prime the cells for infection (Gerlich, 1991). Whether or not this is also true for the human Hepatitis B virus remains to be proven.

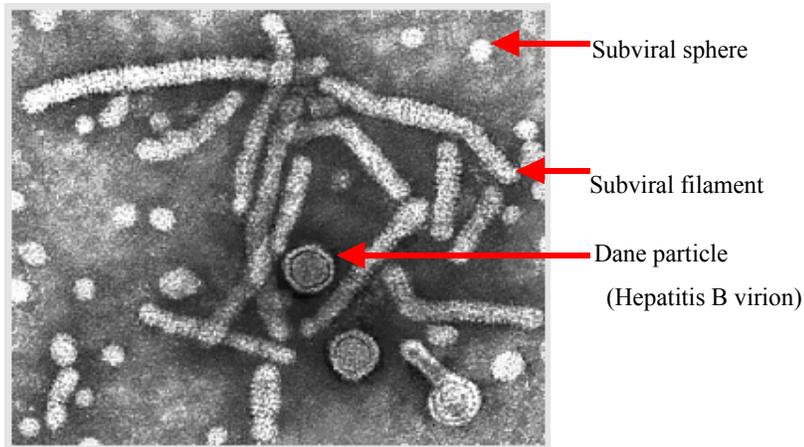


FIGURE 2.5: Electron micrograph of serum containing the three distinct morphological forms of the Hepatitis B viral particles. Magnification: 252 000x (Zuckerman, 1975).

These pseudoviral particles have thus been targeted for heterologous expression to produce recombinant vaccines. Recombinant DNA methods have provided an alternative to the blood-origin vaccine obtained from plasma of chronic carriers. To date, yeasts (Dehoux *et al.*, 1986; Hardy *et al.*, 2000; Valenzuela *et al.*, 1982), plants (Domansky *et al.*, 1995; Mason *et al.*, 1992) and mammalian cells (Michel *et al.*, 1984) transformed with appropriate expression vectors are able to synthesise HBsAg for immunisation purposes.

2.2.6 Hepatitis B vaccine

2.2.6.1 Background

While searching for polymorphic serum proteins in 1963, Blumberg accidentally discovered a previously unknown protein in the blood of an Australian aborigine (Blumberg, *et al.*, 1967). This protein was denoted as the Australia (Au) antigen, and it

became apparent that this protein was related to the Hepatitis B virus. Later, Prince, Okochi, and Murakami established that the Au antigen (now known as the HBsAg) was only found in the serum of Hepatitis B infected patients, thus confirming the relation between the antigen and the HBV (Prince, 1968; Okochi and Murakami, 1968). The following year, Blumberg isolated small particles from HBsAg-positive blood, and with further investigation revealed that some of the particles were whole viruses, whereas the genes responsible for causing infection and disease were absent from some of the other isolated particles (Blumberg, 1997). Similarly, in 1970, Dane and co-workers found virus-like particles (VLPs) in the serum of patients suffering from Hepatitis B, and designated these particles as the HBV (Dane *et al.*, 1970). Kaplan detected an endogenous DNA-dependent DNA polymerase within the core of these VLPs (Kaplan *et al.*, 1973). This discovery allowed for the detection and characterisation of the HBV genome (Robinson and Greenman, 1974).

Consequent experiments revealed that certain Hepatitis B particles could induce protective immunity against HBV infection. In 1971, Krugman discovered that injections of Hepatitis B-contaminated blood containing heat-killed HBVs, gave some protection against Hepatitis B (Krugman, 1985). It was also suggested that the nucleic-acid-free particles, isolated by Blumberg, could be used to stimulate immunity against the infectious virus (Blumberg, 1997). Okochi and Murakami discovered that patients, who received blood containing HBsAg antibodies during blood transfusions, were less likely to develop post-transfusion hepatitis than patients who received blood from which the antibodies were absent (Okochi and Murakami, 1968).



2.2.6.2 Development

Blumberg and Millman were intrigued by the fact that HBsAgs initiated an immune response that protected people from Hepatitis B. Thus, they proposed the development of a vaccine from HBsAg particles obtained from the blood of Hepatitis B carriers.

At first, vaccine production strategies comprised of live attenuated forms of the virus to stimulate an immune response. However, the concept of producing a subunit vaccine from purified human blood infected with the virus soon became apparent as a safer and more efficient method for vaccine production. Although the Fox Chase Cancer Centre (FCCC) filed a patent concerning the proof of concept in 1969, many years of subsequent research and development was dedicated to this production strategy, and only in 1981 a serum, derived vaccine was made available for general use. This vaccine provided more than 90% protection against Hepatitis B and had no adverse side effects (Szmuness *et al.*, 1981).

With the availability of this new plasma-derived vaccine, a Hepatitis B immunisation strategy was developed in the United States in the 1980s, targeting groups at high-risk of HBV infection (Katkov and Dienstag, 1995). This serum-derived vaccine production system contained a few unforeseen obstacles (Prince and Vnek, 1982). One of these obstacles was that large quantities of blood were required from Hepatitis B carriers, and that the extensive use of this subunit vaccine was affected by the limited availability of acceptable carrier plasma. Furthermore, there was a need for strict procedures for the purification and inactivation of the Hepatitis B virus, as well as prolonged safety tests necessary for clearance of the batches of vaccines. Finally, the probability that other infectious agents, which cause blood-transmissible diseases, may be present in the sera and may escape the process of inactivation during vaccine production, raised great concern. Consequently, the supply of the antigen was so expensive that the vaccine was generally only available to particular high-risk groups, thus not being a solution to the widespread problem in third world countries (Barr *et al.*, 1989; Kitano *et al.*, 1987).



Furthermore, the prevailing strategy of targeting the Hepatitis B vaccine to specific high-risk groups was shown to be ineffective in curbing the HBV epidemic in the U.S., suggesting the necessity for more widespread immunisation programs (Katkov and Dienstag, 1995). On account of these obstacles, there was a general tendency to develop and replace these blood-derived vaccines with vaccines obtained through genetic engineering techniques, which requires being safe and inexpensive.

Safer and more cost effective production strategies were considered with the advent of recombinant DNA technology. In 1977, Rutter and co-workers proposed the development of a Hepatitis B vaccine by producing HBsAg particles through recombinant technology. This production process would ensure no contamination from other sources as well as allow production of large quantities of the vaccine. Once the HBV genome was successfully sequenced (Valenzuela *et al.*, 1979), genes encoding non-infectious particles could be determined. Thus, various non-infectious particle producing biological systems could be explored using the new recombinant techniques. The first of these systems was carried out using bacterial cells, but these experiments were unsuccessful (Valenzuela *et al.*, 1979). Following this, Hall developed a model system using yeast cells, and in 1982 Rutter and Hall successfully produced pure HBsAg particles from genetically altered yeast cells (Valenzuela *et al.*, 1982). Finally, in 1986, after nine years of research, this recombinant vaccine was the first of its kind for use in humans and was licensed by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for general use.

Shortly after the yeast vector was created, French researchers created a similar particle, which was able to induce the correlate of immunity. In this system, the recombinant plasmid was transfected into Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells. The plasmid varied slightly from the recombinant yeast plasmid, since it contained an additional piece of the HBV genome. While the yeast plasmid included only the *S* gene of HBV, the CHO clones used the *S* gene plus the pre-S2 portion of the genome, creating a vector that began one start codon upstream in the genome. Although this system was somewhat different, the same 22 nm particle containing the immunogenic HBsAg was produced.



The efficacy of this vaccine was tested against the efficacy of HBsAg molecules purified from human systems, and the efficacies were found to be identical (Crosnier *et al.*, 1980). This confirmed the fact that the artificial immunogens, or better known as virus-like particles (VLPs), produced in CHO cells, could be used as an alternative production system concerning a Hepatitis B vaccine. Until this day, research has continued in this field, exploring alternative and genetically improved expression systems.

2.2.6.3 Development of the Recombinant Hepatitis B Virus Vaccine

Since the advent of recombinant DNA technology, the Hepatitis B virus surface antigen gene has been cloned and expressed in prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells. TABLE 2.5 is a tabulated summary of the HBsAg production yields from some of the recombinant hosts.

TABLE 2.5: Summary of HBsAg yields from various microbial hosts.

Heterologous Host	Initial Yield [mg.ℓ ⁻¹]	Reference	Optimised Yield [mg.ℓ ⁻¹]	Reference
<i>E. coli</i>	-	(Burrell <i>et al.</i> , 1979)	-	(Miyano-hara <i>et al.</i> , 1983)
<i>S. cerevisiae</i>	0.0025	(Valenzuela <i>et al.</i> , 1982)	25	(Gu <i>et al.</i> , 1991)
<i>P. pastoris</i>	0.14	(Hardy <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	1300	(Hardy <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
<i>A. niger</i>	0.4	(Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003)	?	-

The first non-infectious particle producing biological system used was the prokaryotic cell, *E. coli*. However, the levels of expression obtained in bacteria were low, and efficient incorporation of the antigen in immunogenic 22 nm particles was not complete and hence, non-functional. Furthermore, the HBsAg gene product produced by these cells seemed to be either unstable or caused effects deleterious to the host, or both (Valenzuela *et al.*, 1979; Miyano-hara *et al.*, 1983). Due to this, this system was not



utilised as an antigen source for the production of vaccines (Valenzuela *et al.*, 1979; Burrell *et al.*, 1979).

The recombinant vaccines against Hepatitis B, which are available commercially, are fundamentally based on the production of HBsAg by genetically manipulated yeasts. The yeast *S. cerevisiae* has been widely used for the production of biologically active heterologous proteins for wide use (Kingsman *et al.*, 1987) and for obtaining HBsAg in large quantities (McAleer *et al.*, 1984; Bitter *et al.*, 1988). The first plasmid transformed into *S. cerevisiae*, was constructed by Valenzuela and co-workers, and allowed for the expression of the *S* gene, which codes for HBsAg, under the control of the ADH1 promoter. This system yielded 10 to 25 $\mu\text{g}_{\text{HBsAg}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ (Valenzuela *et al.*, 1982). Subsequently, the expression of the *S* gene, under control of the constitutive *S. cerevisiae* 3-phosphoglycerate kinase (*PGK*) gene promoter, yielded 50 $\mu\text{g}_{\text{HBsAg}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ (Hitzeman *et al.*, 1983). Miyanohara and co-workers managed a yield of 2.8 $\text{mg}_{\text{HBsAg}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ by expression of the *S* gene under control of the repressible yeast acid phosphatase gene promoter in *S. cerevisiae* (Miyanohara *et al.*, 1983). Under control of the glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (*GPD*) gene promoter in *S. cerevisiae*, *S* gene expression levels of 3 $\text{mg}_{\text{HBsAg}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ were measured (Hsieh *et al.*, 1988), in batch cultivations. Under fed batch conditions, the HBsAg production was enhanced almost six times to 20 $\text{mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ or 700 $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ dry weight (DW). This phenomenon can be explained by the fact that the HBsAg production is expressed as an exponential function of time when the specific growth rate is controlled to a constant value in growth associated product formation (Gu *et al.*, 1991).

It is important to note that the antigen produced by *S. cerevisiae*, remains intracellularly. Chen and co-workers attempted to express HBsAg in the secretion pathway of *S. cerevisiae*, but the yeast was still unable to secrete the protein extracellularly (Chen *et al.*, 1995). The intracellular product is extracted by different methods of cellular disruption and purified by various physicochemical methods. These methods have made it possible to achieve levels of purity greater than 97%, and the product has an



antigenic behaviour similar to the plasma antigen as demonstrated in animals and humans (Hauser *et al.*, 1988).

M and L proteins have also been targeted for expression in *S. cerevisiae*, since the preS regions contain important antigenic determinants. These antigenic properties became apparent when it was noted that during HBV infections, antibodies were produced against preS regions. The immunogenicity of S sequences in normally non-responding animals appear to be increased by preS sequences (Peterson, 1987; Yap *et al.*, 1995).

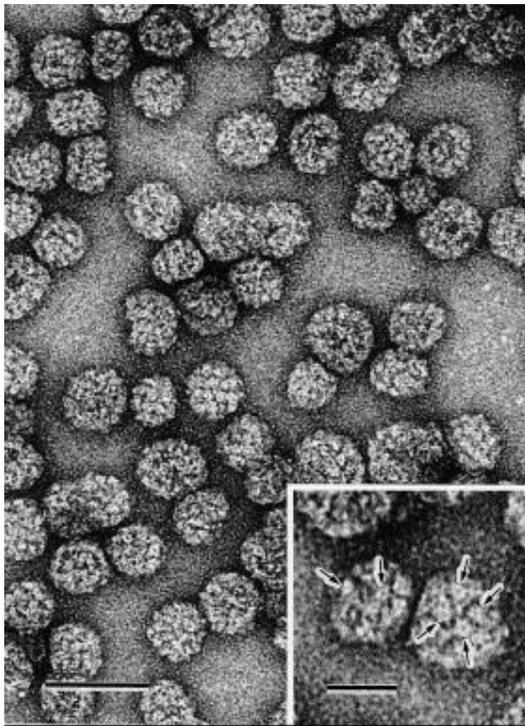


FIGURE 2.6: Negatively stained HBsAg particles isolated from recombinant yeasts. $\times 280000$. Bar=50 nm. Inset: $\times 465000$. Bar=20 nm. Note subunit structures with pores (arrows) (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 1998).

The methylotropic yeasts, *P. pastoris* and *Hansenula polymorpha* were also investigated as a HBsAg vaccine production system and were proved to be very effective HBsAg producing hosts. Initially *P. pastoris* was found to produce high levels of protein, with HBsAg comprising 2-3% of the soluble protein of the cell, reaching concentration levels of $48 \text{ mg}_{\text{HBsAg}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ or $6.6 \text{ mg}_{\text{HBsAg}} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ (Cregg *et al.*, 1987).



During industrial scale production, a genetic construct is utilised in which the *S* gene is cloned under the regulation signals of the promoter of the enzyme Alcohol Oxidase I, and levels of $1.3 \pm 0.2 \text{ g}_{\text{HBsAg}} \cdot \ell^{-1}$ purified sample or $17 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ was obtained, using a polyclonal HBsAg assay, under fed batch conditions (Hardy *et al.*, 2000). To date this is the highest published HBsAg expression rate achieved, and consequently this *P. pastoris*-derived HBsAg has been employed as a safe, efficacious vaccine (HEBERBIOVAC HB, Heberbiotec S. A., Cuba). A recombinant *P. pastoris* strain expressing the *S* gene under control of the constitutive *P. pastoris* glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase promoter has also been constructed.

Production with this strain reduces fermentation time for peak production levels, since this strain, unlike those described above, does not need methanol induction (Vassileva *et al.*, 2001). An important advantage the *P. pastoris* system offers, in comparison to that of *S. cerevisiae*, is the very efficient incorporation of the antigen into particles of 22 nm. Virtually all the antigen produced is in particulated form, unlike that in *S. cerevisiae*, in which only a small proportion of the monomer of 24 kDa is incorporated into the antigen particles (Valenzuela *et al.*, 1982, Hitzeman *et al.*, 1983, Miyanochara *et al.*, 1983).

H. polymorpha also produced high levels of antigen (5% to 8% of total cell protein) containing both S and L surface antigens and has also been shown to successfully express M protein (Gellissen, 2000; Janowicz *et al.*, 1991; Shen *et al.*, 1989). The proteins were also found to be glycosylated far less than in *S. cerevisiae*, making this an attractive alternative host (Janowicz *et al.*, 1991). A production strain was generated by introducing a plasmid with the *S* gene fused to the *H. polymorpha* methanol oxidase (*MOX*) promoter (Gellissen, 2000). The transformed strain is able to grow on glycerol and methanol as carbon sources. Currently, two *H. polymorpha*-derived Hepatitis B vaccines are commercially available: Hepavax-Gene, produced by KGCC (Korea) and AgB, produced by LPC (Argentina). No publicised HBsAg production levels have been found in the literature. The two major producers of HBV vaccine containing the HBsAg that are available in the United States are Merck and SmithKline Beecham. In other



parts of the world, there are several companies producing recombinant vaccines (such as Pasteur Merieux Connaught in France) as well as a few that are still selling plasma derived vaccines. The two vaccines produced by Merck contain only the S protein, whereas the vaccine produced in France, GENHEVAC B, contains the pre-S2 peptide as well. Yeast-based vaccines are most widely used.

TABLE 2.6: Major producers of HBV vaccine containing the HBsAg psuedo-viral particles (Mahoney and Kane, 1999; Plotkin and Orenstein, 1994; <http://www.sb.com>; <http://www.merck.com>; <http://www.aventispasteur.com/>).

Manufacturer	Brand Name	Type of Vaccine
Centro de Ingeniera Genetica Y Biolotecnologia	Enivac-HB	Recombinant DNA
Chiel Jedang	Hepaccine-B	Plasma derived
Korea Green Cross	Hepavax B	Plasma derived
Korea Green Cross	Hepavax-Gene	Recombinant DNA
LG Chemical	Euvax B	Recombinant DNA
Merck Sharpe and Dohme	Recombivax H-B	Recombinant DNA
Merck Sharpe and Dohme	Comvax	Combined Hib and recombinant DNA
Pasteur Merieux Connaught	Genhevac B	Recombinant DNA (mammalian cell)
SmithKilne Beecham	Engerix-B	Recombinant DNA
SmithKilne Beecham	Twinrix	Combined hepatitis A and B recomb.)
Heberbiotec S. A, Cuba	Heberbiovac HB	Recombinant DNA
LPC, Argentina	AgB	Recombinant DNA
SmithKilne Beecham	Tritanrix-HB	Combined DTP and recombinant
Swiss Serum and Vaccines Institute	Heprecombe	Recombinant DNA (mammalian cell)

2.2.6.4 Alternative hosts for the Recombinant Hepatitis B Virus Vaccine

Alternative hosts that have previously been used for the expression of Hepatitis B antigens include; mammalian cells, vaccinia virus, the yeast *Kluyveromyces lactis*, plant hosts and the filamentous fungi, *A. niger* (Barr *et al.*, 1989; Gellissen, 2000; Gellissen



and Hollenberg, 1997; Gellissen and Veenhuis, 2001; Michel *et al.*, 1984; Rutter *et al.*, 1983; MacNab *et al.*, 1976; Cheng *et al.*, 1986; Hadfield *et al.*, 1993; Hollenberg and Gellissen, 1997; Martinez *et al.*, 1992; Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003; Thanavala, 1996).

Eukaryotic mammalian cells have also been used in the production of HBsAg (Michel *et al.*, 1984; Rutter *et al.*, 1983; MacNab *et al.*, 1976). However, the production of vaccines using this method requires both complex and costly equipment, methodology and culture media. Furthermore, the scale-up of the production system poses a great problem. There are also fears relating to the safety of vaccines derived from mammalian cell lines, which are tumorigenic due to the risk of the presence of retrovirus. Due to these complications mammalian cell cultures are not the preferred choice for the HBsAg production system.

The genetically manipulated vaccinia virus makes it possible to obtain recombinant viruses, which express HBsAg alone or in combination with other antigens for the production of live vaccines against infectious agents (Cheng *et al.*, 1986). The vaccines obtained in this way have not been approved for large-scale use in humans because of numerous technical and ethical considerations.

The HBsAg has also been expressed in tobacco plants and potato plants as a means to produce edible vaccines (Domansky *et al.*, 1995; Thanavala, 1996). The transgenic tobacco-derived HBsAg was shown to retain the immunological characteristics needed to generate HBsAg-specific B and T cell responses. However, the maximal level of HBsAg obtained was not sufficient to use the plants for the production of a vaccine (Domansky *et al.*, 1995).

Recently, the filamentous fungus *A. niger* has been considered as a heterologous host for the expression of the HBV *S* gene (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003). The *A. niger* strain was transformed with the *S* gene under control of the constitutive *A. nidulans* glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*gpdA*) promoter. Approximately seven



copies of the expression cassette were integrated on the genome, resulting in high level transcription of the *S* gene. Production of the 24 kDa S protein and a 48 kDa S protein dimer in the membrane-associated protein fraction of the recombinant *A. niger* strain was obtained (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003). It was found that this fungus produces 22 nm pseudoviral particles similar to that isolated from human serum as well as that produced by yeast cells. Initial production levels of $0.4 \text{ mg}_{\text{HBsAg}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ ($200 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$) were obtained during shake-flask experiments. Furthermore, by implementing a well-optimised fermentation, yields at least five to ten times greater than shake-flask yields should theoretically be achieved, thus indicating the potential of such an *Aspergillus* system (Davies, 1994).

2.2.7 Conclusion

The recombinant fungal HBsAg producing system (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003) could allow for the production of a cheaper generic Hepatitis B vaccine. Thus, the already firmly established base not only demands for continued research and development in this area, but also a detailed investigation on other potential vaccines and pharmaceutical proteins that can be expressed in this expression system. Thus, with the inherent advantages of filamentous fungi as a protein production system, one is encouraged to recommend *A. niger*, as a “microbial factory”, having the potential to effectively and efficiently produce immunogenic viral proteins. And therefore, emerging as a promising alternative to the current vaccine production technologies.



2.3 Submerged Bioprocessing of the filamentous fungi, *A. niger*.

2.3.1 Introduction

Industrial bioprocesses with filamentous fungi embrace the production of a majority of commercially important products of biotechnology, in the sense of quality as well as the diversity of metabolites. The development of the bioreactor has been an essential factor in this success, where its purpose is to provide optimum environmental conditions that allow for the formation of the desired fungal product to proceed at the desired rate.

A dynamic relationship exists between these environmental conditions and the growth pattern of the fungal microorganisms. Distinct cultivation conditions result in different morphological and physico-chemical characteristics of the fungal elements and thereby affecting the production levels of native as well as heterologous proteins.

Filamentous fungi are morphologically complex organisms, differing in structure at different times in their life cycle, differing in form between surface and submerged growth, differing also with the nature of the growth medium and physical environment. Many genes and physiological mechanisms are involved in the process of morphogenesis and product formation. And thus, from a biochemical engineering viewpoint, a concerted effort must be made in order to identify parameters and variables that have the potential of affecting product yield. Optimisation of each parameter is then necessary to achieve process improvement and process optimisation.

2.3.2 Factors influencing heterologous protein production

Cultivation of filamentous fungi can be complex in order to produce reproducible and optimal product yields. Sentiments that must be taken into account to obtain these criteria, include various interdependent process parameters and variables, (type of cultivation, modes of operation, broth rheology, fungal morphology and biomass



concentration) that will influence the optimum levels of the desired product (heterologous protein) within the bioreactor process system. As a bioprocessing engineer, it is of vital importance to quantitatively identify the influential process parameters in the bioprocess and determine its quantitative interaction with the other process parameters. FIG. 2.7 illustrates these interdependent process parameters and variables that may be of fundamental importance to process optimization.

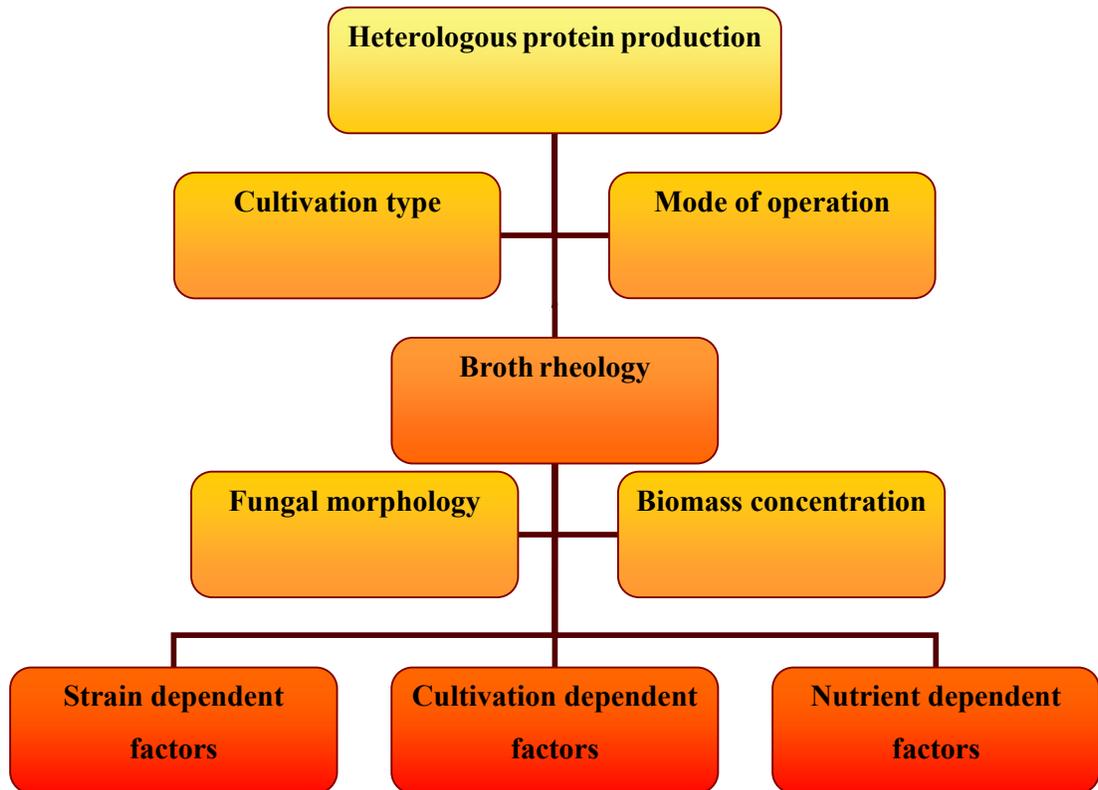


FIGURE 2.7: A simplistic illustration of the interdependent process factors that influence product yield within a submerged bioreactor process system.

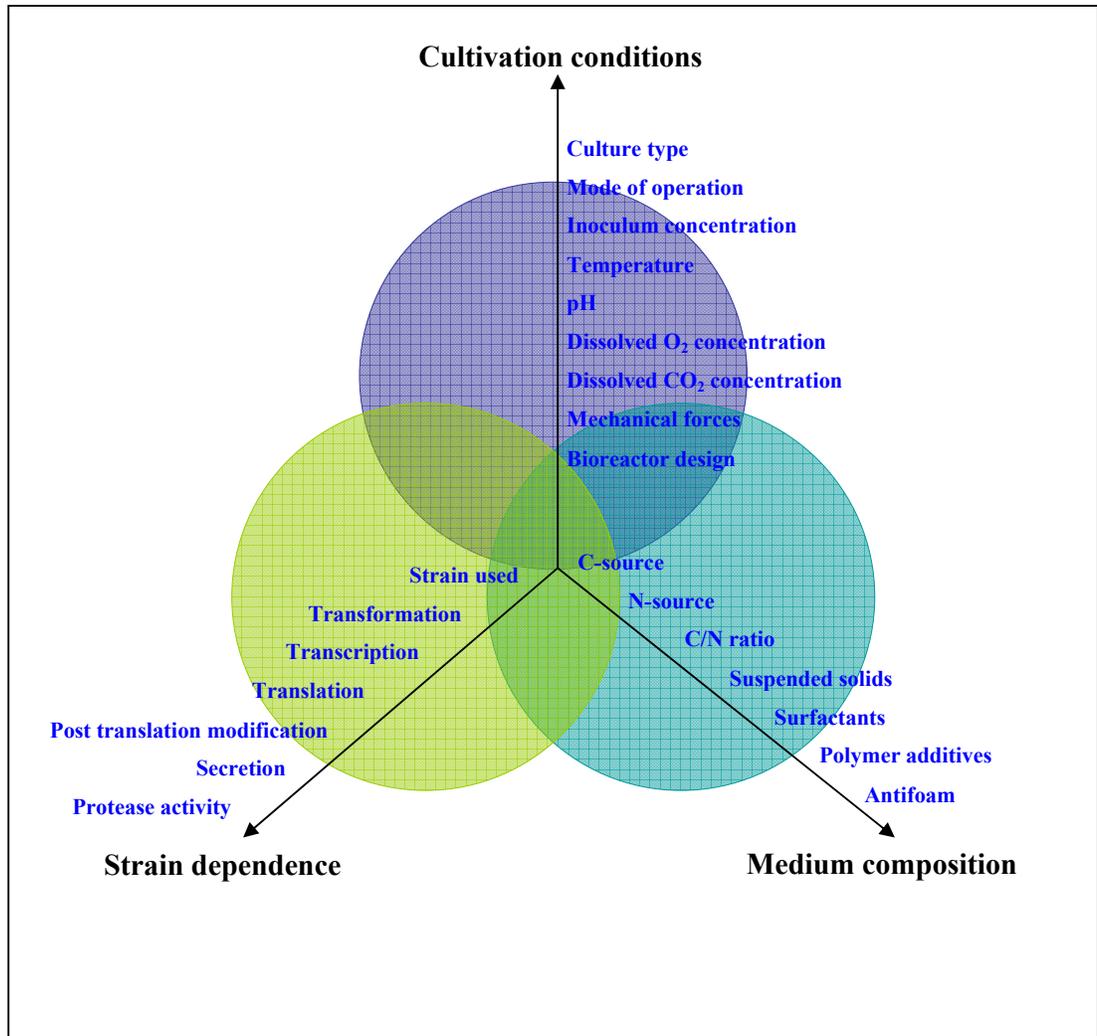


FIGURE 2.8: Factors affecting fungal biomass concentration and morphology and product yields.

2.3.3 Cultivation type: Submerged vs. Solid-State Cultures

‘Bioprocessing/fermentation industry’ usually implies an emphasis on submerged liquid cultivation systems. But solid-state cultivations have also been developed with success, especially in the Japanese traditional food and beverage industry. Industrial enzymes and vitamins have also been produced in filamentous solid-state cultures and at times have exceeded the amount of homologous as well as heterologous proteins secreted in submerged cultures (Elinbaum *et al.*, 2002; Ashokkumar *et al.*, 2001; Diaz-



Godinez *et al.*, 2001; Maldonado and Strasser de Saad, 1998; Acuna-Arguelles *et al.*, 1995; Iwashita, 2002).

The major difference between liquid fermentations and solid-state fermentations is the mixing property. Liquid fermentations are in theory perfectly mixed reactions, and so each part of the reactor contains at any time the same quantity of microorganisms, nutrients and metabolites (Gervias and Bensoussan, 1994). Solid-state fermentations, which are characterized by a reduced liquid phase, present a high viscosity. Thus mixing is very limited and if done so, leads to great shear forces that drastically injure the microbial cells (Gervias and Bensoussan, 1994). Therefore, each system, solid-state and submerged has its advantages. TABLE 2.7 illustrates some of the features commonly attributed to each system.

TABLE 2.7: Some features of solid-state and submerged cultivation of the fungus *Aspergillus* (Harvey and McNiel, 1994).

Feature	Growth on solid surface	Growth within liquid nutrient media
Shear forces	Low	Often high
O ₂ transfer	Gas phase to cell	Gas to liquid to cell
Nutrient source	Substratum	Bulk liquid
Water activity (a _w)	Low	High
Degree of differentiation	Often pronounced and usually sporulating	Usually mycelial or pellet form and rarely sporulating

Despite the success fungi based solid-state cultivations have achieved, fungi-based submerged cultures are the preferred choice of culture system. It is surprising that the filamentous fungi genus *Aspergillus*, with the type of morphology that has enabled it to successfully colonize on surfaces (i.e. soil, plants, grain animals, etc.), should be a success in the comparatively ‘unnatural’ environment found in submerged cultures. Besides this, submerged cultures attribute of preference in comparison to solid-state cultivations is justified by the allowable ease of handling and control (Iwashita, 2002).



2.3.4 Modes of operation: Batch, continuous and fed-batch

2.3.4.1 Batch Cultivation

Batch cultures have been used widely and with much success in citric acid as well as enzyme production systems. A batch culture is inoculated with a microorganism, in various forms, into complete medium required for the entire fermentation process. No additional media or inoculum is added during the fermentation process unless a titrant is added for pH control and, if necessary, antifoaming agent (Harvey and McNiel, 1994). Batch growth is typically divided into a lag phase, exponential phase and stationary phase. The lag phase represents a period during which the spores germinate and the fungal cells adapt to a new environment. This is followed by the exponential phase, which is characterized by a significant increase in cell mass and the growth rate reaches its maximum. A reduction in the specific growth rate occurs when the fungus begins to experience an unfavourable growth environment, such as the limitation of required nutrients and O₂, the development of an adverse culture pH or the accumulation of end products of the metabolism that are inhibitory. If the latter two are not reducing growth, the effect of a limiting substrate concentration is a more than a probable cause. This leads the culture into the stationary phase, where secondary metabolite production generally begins. The stationary phase may be defined simplistically as the balance between hyphal mass increase and decrease. However, if the hyphal mass accumulates intracellular storage material during the reduced growth phase, a slight increase in hyphal mass may be observed during the endogenous metabolism of these storage materials. In addition, if the hyphae begin to autolyse, new growth could be expected from the products of autolysis, e.g., release of a limited nutrient (Papagianni and Moo-Young, 2002). Thus, batch cultivations have the disadvantage of being unsuitable for fermentation involving substrate inhibition. Once the cells enter this phase of growth and before the organism enters the stationary phase, there may not be sufficient time or nutrients available to allow formation of the product at an economically viable rate. These organisms are more suited to a fed-batch process.



2.3.4.2 Fed Batch

The majority of large-scale industrial fungal fermentations involve fed-batch cultures in which a batch culture is supplied either with additional nutrients or with additives required for product formation, on a continuous or intermittent basis (pulse feeding), with the aim of avoiding inhibition by the substrate, or O₂ limitation. Fed-batch cultivations have proved to obtain increased biomass levels when compared to a batch culture. This is primarily due to an increased amount of carbon/nitrogen source that is able to accumulate within a fed-batch culture. Fed-batch cultures have also proved to produce greater production levels, particularly in fermentations regarding growth associated products i.e. greater biomass yields. It has also been noted that fed-batch cultivations can be used as a manner of reducing broth viscosity. This allows improved mass and heat transfer, particularly in fermentations in which high viscosity of the broth is due to the filamentous morphology of the microorganism (Harvey and McNiel, 1994).

If one were to compare fed-batch to continuous cultivations, there is one major difference in that specific growth rate is not constant in the former, at a constant dilution rate. It rather decreases as the culture volume increases. In order to obtain steady state (constant specific growth rate) the dilution rate must be varied exponentially. This action will increase the time constant within the exponential phase and ultimately a biomass concentration will be achieved greater than in a batch mode. This strategy can only be maintained until the maximum working volume within the bioreactor is reached. Thus, the fed-batch mode of culture represents a useful tool in maximising product formation in growth-associated systems and in studies of substrate limitations and various inhibition phenomena (Papagianni, 1995; Papagianni *et al.*, 1999c).

2.3.4.3 Continuous Culture

To date continuous cultivations have been successfully employed on an industrial scale for the treatment of wastewater, sludge, etc. Industry has been reluctant to use



Aspergillus as the primary organism in a continuous culture, but it has been well documented on a laboratory scale, where they have been used to determine various growth parameters as well as controlling the specific growth rate of filamentous fungi (Withers *et al.*, 1994; Schickx *et al.*, 1993; Smith and Robertson, 1980).

Continuous culture is usually preceded by growth of the fungus to the stationary phase in a batch culture. When supply of fresh medium is initiated, growth proceeds and material from the vessel is washed out, until the concentration of the medium is reduced to a level, at which it limits the specific growth rate. The main advantage of this type of system is that the biomass and product formation proceed under steady state and the operator's optimal conditions, thus making the process more economical from both the financial and labour saving point of view (Harvey and McNeil, 1994).

The problems of filamentous growth in submerged batch culture are exacerbated in continuous culture. Wall growth increases continuously and maintenance of steady state is difficult. Breakage of mycelia to provide new centres for growth may be a solution. Another problem of great importance is the maintenance of stability of filamentous fungi in prolonged culture. The importance of stability maintenance has increased recently because of the use of such organisms as hosts for the expression and secretion of heterologous proteins (Peberdy, 1994).

2.3.5 Broth rheology, fungal morphology and protein production

The two major factors influencing the rheology of the bulk fluid are biomass concentration and fungal cell morphology and can be related directly to the production of various microbial proteins and metabolites. As the biomass concentration increases, the number of fungal particles in the fermentation fluid increases. This leads to an increased number of potential interactions between these particles that could cause a possible increase in broth viscosity. In submerged cultivation involving filamentous organisms, the morphology can vary from discrete compact pellets of hyphae to homogeneous suspension of dispersed mycelia. These morphological differences are



associated with significant differences in growth kinetics and physiology. Growth of dispersed mycelia is effectively equivalent to that of a unicellular organism, with homogeneous distribution of biomass, substrate and products, and exponential growth at a constant specific rate in batch culture, where substrates are in excess. The filamentous form of mycelial hyphae easily causes entanglement, and the cultivation broth becomes very viscous. The rheological behaviour is usually non-Newtonian, leading to relatively low viscosities in regions of high shear rate (near the impeller) and very high viscosities in region with low shear rate (near the bioreactor wall). The high viscosity and pseudo-plasticity of the suspension cause many problems during the cultivation, decreasing the mass transfer, heat transfer and requiring more power input for mixing.

In this case, only a small part of the bioreactor, around the impeller, is maintained at the optimal condition. Increasing the agitation rate improves the overall homogeneity, but this also raises the power consumption and often damages the cells due to the high shearing (van Suijdam and Metz, 1981; Braun and Vecht-Lifshitz, 1991).



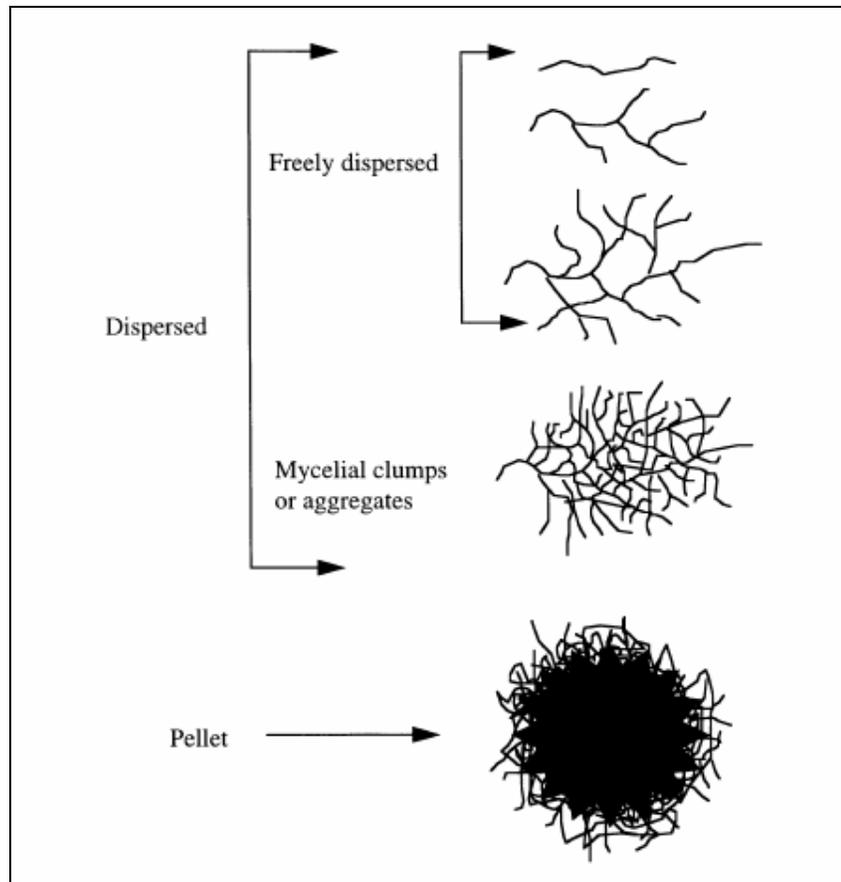


FIGURE 2.9: Schematic representation of fungal morphologies in suspension cultures.

In comparison to dispersed mycelia, the pellet form, in the macroscopic feature, can be an attractive growth form for cultivation of fungi. The most important advantages are the decrease of the viscosity of the cultivation broth and the rheological properties become Newtonian. The Newtonian fluid is characterized by good mass and heat transfer properties. Moreover, the pellet formation facilitates the separation of fluid in down stream processes (van Suijdam *et al.*, 1980). The macroscopic features of cultivation medium containing fungal pellets show homogeneity in their rheological properties. In comparison, the microscopic scale of pellet shows some heterogeneity due to the zonation in accordance with the different hyphal densities inside the pellet. The zonation process has been discussed by many authors (Kobayashi *et al.*, 1973; König *et al.*, 1982; Lawton *et al.*, 1989; Buschulte *et al.*, 1991; Pottel and Bellgardt, 1992). As



long as there is sufficient supply of oxygen to all cells within the pellet, it grows in density as well as in size. After some time, the oxygen concentration in the centre of the pellet drops to almost zero, restricting cell growth to a zone next to the pellet surface. The limitation of oxygen supply and the removal of metabolic products can lead to an alteration of the cellular metabolism and enzyme excretion kinetics (Hermersdörfer *et al.*, 1987). In studies of penicillin production using *Penicillium chrysogenum* pellets, the transfer resistance inside the fungal pellet is high in large pellets. This causes an oxygen deficiency and autolysis of the cells at the centre of the pellet. However, the thickness of the layer which contains the living cells remains constant, regardless of the pellet size (Schügerl *et al.*, 1983; Wittler *et al.*, 1986).

On the other hand, if the pellets consist of a loose, open, more filamentous mycelium, agitation of the cultures allows nutrients and oxygen to reach all constituent hyphae and supports exponential growth of the entire biomass. The latter type of growth is also more easily controlled because, in the ideal state, all of the hyphae are growing exponentially and all are in contact with well-stirred medium, so all can respond rapidly to manipulation of the medium. These advantages have to be traded off against increased viscosity caused by the filamentous growth. Thus, the ability to control the morphology of a fungus in submerged culture is vitally important, in order to manipulate and optimise product yield.

2.3.6 Process Problems associated with submerged fungal fermentations

Special focus is given to the growth and methods of growth of suitable microorganisms on various substrates, in order to optimise the synthesis of useful products, (including heterologous proteins). This is not always possible due to problem factors associated with morphology and broth rheology within the bioreactor. Many of these problem factors are particularly pronounced in fermentations involving filamentous fungi, such as the genus *Aspergillus*.



Process problem factors associated with fungal fermentations are difficult to isolate and correct. These problem factors have complex interactions with each other and the solution to one problem factor may often lead to the activation of another process problem. Biochemical engineers are trying to elucidate these factors, in order to optimise operating conditions in bioreactors for product and process improvement.

Attachment and growth on bioreactors' walls, agitators, probes and baffles (surface growth), can also lead to a degree of heterogeneity within the biomass which is more pronounced in the case of pelleted growth. Areas of growing and non-growing biomass inside the bioreactor influence the overall growth kinetics.

The viscous nature of some submerged filamentous fungi cultivations causes several difficulties. Generally, the more viscous a fermentation fluid, the harder and more expensive it is to achieve sufficient momentum transfer to generate a homogenous, well-mixed cell suspension. Therefore, mixing is of vital importance to ensure that the system is not heterogenous and that there is no formation of stagnant non-mixed zones. If mixing is not sufficient, nutrient gradients become established with O₂ limitations particularly becoming a problem with aerobic fermentations (Charles, 1978, Metz *et al.*, 1979 and McNiel and Harvey, 1993).

The sufficient O₂ transfer to active cells is critical in order to ensure an aerobic fermentation. Oxygen mass-transfer is even more complex in relation to viscous broths as it is transferred from the sparged gas into the bulk liquid and then only into the O₂ demanding metabolic sites within the cell. The dispersal of the sparged gas has been noted to be restricted in viscous broths resulting in coalescence and increasing bubble volume (Oosterhuis and Kossen, 1984). These phenomena drastically affect the O₂ transfer rate within the reactor, resulting in rapid depletion of dissolved O₂ in the outer stagnant regions of the vessel (Charles, 1978). The strong negative influence of broth viscosity on O₂ transfer has been clearly demonstrated by Moo-Young and co-workers (Moo-Young *et al.*, 1987).



Oxygen is not the only variable that may become limiting due to high viscosities and poor mixing. Other nutrients, such as carbon- and nitrogen sources as well as vital trace elements may also become limiting. This has catastrophic implications in the bioreaction, as these limitations may result in the suppression or even total inhibition of metabolite and native as well as heterologous protein production. Poor mixing in bioreactors can result in problems other than those associated with nutrient limitations. Heat transfer, pH control and sampling also pose problems due to poor mixing (Metz, 1979). These potential effects of non-homogenous mixing, together with nutritional limitations give rise to a level of cellular stress which when elevated can result in strain degradation (Humphrey, 1998). Down-stream processing problems may also occur with viscous fermentations, with regards to maintaining fluid flow in pipelines used to transport the broth from the bioreactor to the product recovery plant (Hyde and Scott, 1992; Oolman and Lui, 1991).

It is important to understand the causes and consequences of these problem factors and their effects on product yield and broth rheology. By further identifying influential factors, classified in the categories of strain dependent factors, nutritional dependent factors and cultivation dependent factors, these difficulties in fungal cultivations can either be avoided or rectified.

2.3.7 Strain dependent factors

Strategies for optimising the production of proteins have to ensure that strain dependent factors do not limit protein yields. Several strain dependent factors that may negatively affect the production levels of heterologous protein production include, transformation, transcription, translation, post translation.

2.3.7.1 Transformation, transcription, translation and post translation

The transformation frequency in *Aspergillus* is low (Fincham, 1989), but conversely, the mitotic stability of transformants is high (Cullen *et al.*, 1987). Thus, once



transformants have been isolated, the loss of transforming DNA is unlikely. Despite this, problems may arise due to persistence and replication of untransformed nuclei. In order to avoid this, the necessary precautions must be undertaken (Buxton and Radford, 1984). Furthermore, there seems to be no simple relationship between copy number of the transforming gene and protein production in some species. This ambiguity can be explained by the consequence of the often random nature of the integration process (Harvey and McNeil, 1994). Finally, the specific area or areas of the genome into which the foreign DNA is introduced may also affect the expression level (Saunders *et al.*, 1989).

Several strong promoters from highly expressed genes are currently being exploited for the expression of recombinant genes. Highly inducible promoters (e.g., the promoter of the *glaA* gene encoding glucoamylase from *A. niger*) and strong constitutive promoters (glyceralaldehyde-3-phosphate-dehydrogenase from *A. nidulans*) are available and have been described by Jeenes *et al.* (1991) and Saunders *et al.* (1989). Due to the strength of these promoters, Jeenes *et al.* (1991) have implied that the messenger RNA levels of the heterologous genes are relatively stable in the cytoplasm and the pre-heterologous protein secretion process is not restricted in the transcriptional level (Harvey and McNeil, 1994). An approach to transcriptional enhancement has been to alter gene dosage (Verdoes *et al.*, 1993; Verdoes *et al.*, 1994a,b). For a fermentation process involving heterologous protein production, an inducible promoter that can be switched on at any point in the fermentation is usually favoured.

Kozak (1986) has demonstrated the influence of a specific sequence upstream of the initiation code that may influence translation. It is yet unclear whether protein production is markedly influenced in the filamentous fungi at the stage of translation (Jeenes *et al.*, 1991).

One of most important events associated with the post-translational modification of proteins, is glycosylation. Glycosylation plays an important role in protein folding, stability and function (Sorensen *et al.*, 1996; Wang *et al.*, 1996). It is perceived that



there are limitations during this process at several levels, which affects biosynthesis and secretion of homologous and heterologous glycoproteins. An understanding of the glycosylation of proteins is important when using filamentous fungi as hosts for heterologous protein production as the diversity in the composition of glycans associated with proteins could have major consequences with respect to their antigenicity and functionality (Speake *et al.*, 1980).

2.3.7.2 Protein secretion

Few studies of protein secretion have been done with filamentous fungi. This is primarily due to the lack of knowledge, on a molecular basis, with regards to protein secretion in filamentous fungi. This led Peberdy to refer to protein secretion in filamentous fungi as “a highly productive black box” (Peberdy, 1994). It is known that the secretory pathway has the functions of protein folding, glycosylation, processing, and targeting either to the outside of the cell or to intracellular sites. The cell wall acts as a barrier to all secreted proteins to some extent and many fungal enzymes are partially cell wall-associated (Gordon *et al.*, 2000b; Archer and Peberdy, 1997). The secretory pathway may be limited in capacity/ability in the production of many secreted proteins.

To identify possible limitations in the secretory pathway, the processes involved in secretion is required to be elucidated. The protein secretion pathway processes in filamentous fungi do not essentially differ from those in yeast and mammalian cells (Moir and Mao, 1990) and are reviewed by Gouka *et al.* (1997b).

Essentially, co-translational entry of a protein into the lumen of the ER with concomitant processing of the N-terminal signal peptide is followed by translocation through the ER lumen to membrane-bound vesicles and targeting to the Golgi compartment. In the Golgi compartment processes such as glycosylation and processing occur, and finally the protein is transported to the cell wall, again in vesicles, and is



secreted into the extracellular medium through the fusion of the vesicles with the hyphal membrane. The precise location of protein secretion is under debate, but is suggested to occur primarily at the hyphal tips (Gordon *et al.*, 2000a; Gordon *et al.*, 2000b). The wall at the hyphal tips is newly synthesised and may be more porous than elsewhere, thereby facilitating secretion. Therefore, those factors that increase the number of active tips may improve yield (Pluschkell *et al.*, 1996; Juge *et al.*, 1998).

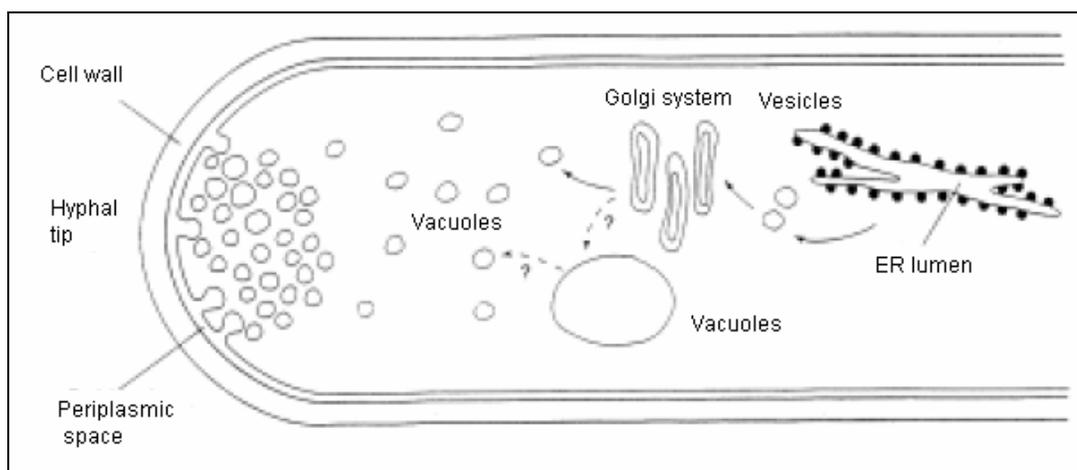


FIGURE 2.10: A hypothetical secretory pathway in filamentous fungi (Peberdy, 1994).

Heterologous proteins of biotechnological importance produced in filamentous fungi either remain within the cell (i.e. bound to membrane organelles, cytoplasm, or periplasm) or are secreted extracellularly into the medium. In many heterologous protein production systems extracellular secretion is favourable, because it makes the product easier and cheaper to purify (Archer and Peberdy, 1997). Continuous cultivation types are a favourable option reducing product loss which can occur due to inefficient cell lysis or internal proteolysis during intracellular product recovery (Jeenes *et al.*, 1991; Smart, 1991). Furthermore, possible toxic effects of intracellular product build-up are reduced and, by passing through the secretory pathway, processing events such as glycosylation and proteolytic maturation can occur to yield correctly folded fully active molecules. However, there are some disadvantages to secreting



heterologous proteins into the growth medium. Even with the successful secretion of heterologous proteins, some considerable fraction of the yield could be lost due to extracellular protease degradation (see next section). Furthermore, many fungi also produce large amounts of organic acid, resulting in a low pH (pH 1.5-2.0 in some cases), which can alter the structure of certain proteins or lead to increased sensitivity to acid proteases active in the culture broth (Jeenes *et al.*, 1991).

2.3.7.3 Proteases

Proteolytic degradation by fungal proteases is recognised as one of the major problems interfering with efficient heterologous protein production (van den Hombergh *et al.*, 1997c; Archer and Peberdy, 1997). *Aspergilli* can secrete a diversity of proteases and it has been shown that proteases are responsible for the degradation of many heterologous proteins. Degradation can occur intracellularly during the secretion process and after secretion in the culture fluid as a result of host cell proteases (Jarai, 1997). Hyphal disruption in older cultures and a decrease in culture pH are major factors that influence the enhanced synthesis causing intracellular degradation (Gouka *et al.*, 1996) and release of proteases into the broth culture (Archer *et al.*, 1992). Many filamentous fungi secrete considerable amounts of proteolytic enzymes, some of which are of interest in industrial applications, such as soy sauce production, *sake* brewing and milk coagulation in cheese manufacturing (Cheevadhanarak *et al.*, 1991; Gomi *et al.*, 1993; Thompson, 1991).

Proteolytic activity can be reduced by growing cultures of recombinant *Aspergillus* strains in buffered media containing glucose as the carbon source at high concentrations to prevent depletion of preferred carbon source and acidification or alkalinisation of the medium with concomitant protease induction (Bartling *et al.*, 1996). Some problems with proteolysis may also be overcome by the inclusion of protease inhibitors in the growth media, but this is unlikely to be a cost-effective measure (Archer and Peberdy, 1997).



2.3.7.4 Strategies to improve heterologous protein production

Other strategies that should be considered for the improvement of protein production include the following genetic strategies:

- 1) The introduction of multicopies of genes,
- 2) random mutagenesis (MacKenzie *et al.*, 2000),
- 3) DNA-tagged mutagenesis involving restriction enzyme-mediated integration as a mutagen (Yaver *et al.*, 2000),
- 4) The use of strong promoters and efficient secretion signals,
- 5) Gene fusion with a gene encoding part or whole of a well-expressed and secreted protein,
- 6) The construction and use of protease-deficient host strains, and
- 7) Physiological optimisation through temperature or substrate adjustments (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1994).

Although considerable progress has been made concerning the understanding of protein overproduction, it should be considered that overcoming limitations at, for example, the level of transcription would probably reveal new limitations at other levels concerning cell physiology and protein secretion. In addition, protein secretion in filamentous fungi has proven to be very expensive in relation to energy consumption. Therefore extensive protein overproduction may affect cell physiology, which could in turn affect gene expression and genetic stability (Verdoes *et al.*, 1995).

Gene fusion strategies have been successful in the past few years. Fusion has resulted in increases in heterologous protein production levels up to a 1000-fold. Along the secretory pathway, in most cases the fusion protein is cleaved, resulting in the secretion of separate proteins. Cleavage occurs either by autocatalytic processing of the heterologous protein by an unknown fungal protease or by a *KEX2*-like protease, for which a recognition site has been introduced specifically into the fusion gene (van den Hombergh *et al.*, 1997).



Various strategies have been employed to address the problem of proteolytic degradation of heterologous protein products. Many protease-encoding genes have been cloned and used to provide specific protease deletion strains and protease-deficient mutants have also been produced (Archer and Peberdy, 1997). Several protease-deficient UV mutants of *A. niger* have also been isolated and characterised (Mattern *et al.*, 1992; van den Hombergh *et al.*, 1995; van den Hombergh *et al.*, 1997a). Another strategy to construct protease-deficient mutants is the antisense control strategy (Zheng *et al.*, 1998). Mutagenesis has also been employed to yield strains that acidify the medium less, thereby preventing induction of acid protease expression and degradation of heterologous protein products (Gordon *et al.*, 2000b). This kind of protease-deficient, non-acidifying strain is commonly used in the expression of heterologous proteins, particularly non-fungal proteins, and was also utilised for the expression of viral proteins (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003; Gordon *et al.*, 2000b; Wiebe *et al.*, 2001). Down regulation of protease expression could also help resolve the problem. The extracellular fungal proteases are also strictly pH regulated, e.g., acid proteases are only expressed at an acidic pH (Denison, 2000). Thus, development of an optimal production medium and improved bioreactor operation strategies may benefit the heterologous protein production significantly. Unfortunately, little work concerning this has been done.

In conclusion, the factors influencing heterologous protein yield are complex and include biochemical and biophysical properties of the protein itself. Therefore, optimisation strategies must be individually designed and assessed for each heterologous protein production system.

2.3.8 Nutrient dependent factors

The media used in fungal submerged industrial fermentations influence growth, morphology and product formation and therefore must contain all the required elements in a suitable form: conidial fungi require water, molecular oxygen, an organic source of carbon and energy, a source of nitrogen other than molecular nitrogen and several other



elements. Besides the elements mentioned above, at least 10 are essential for growth namely; hydrogen, phosphorus, potassium, sulphur, magnesium, manganese, iron, zinc, copper and molybdenum. The first five are needed in relatively large quantities (macronutrients). The latter five are required in small amounts (micronutrients).

In laboratory research with microorganisms, pure defined chemicals (synthetic) may be used in the production of culture media; however, in the industry complex substrates are frequently used for economic reasons. These complex substrates may comprise of various forms of carbon and nitrogen sources. Trace elements are also required to deliver various metal ions and salts to the microorganism. Within these complex substrates, additives are often included. These additives may be in the form of complex organic material, suspended solids, surfactants, polymer additives, antifoam, etc. Collectively these media components are classified as the ingredients for the fermentation media; and due to various component forms, concentration, and ability to interact with other components, heterologous protein production, broth rheology, biomass concentration, and fungal morphology may be influenced. Thus in order to obtain an optimally balanced culture media for maximal process production, a thorough evaluation of media component form, concentration, and interactiveness must be performed. TABLE 2.8 highlights various media components that are necessary in certain fungal cultivations and may have the ability to manipulate product yield.



TABLE 2.8: Some nutritional dependent factors affecting heterologous protein production.

Nutritional dependent factors	Microorganism	Reference
Carbon source	<i>A. niger</i>	Hermersdörfer <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Nitrogen source	<i>A. niger</i>	Hermersdörfer <i>et al.</i> , 1987
C/N ratio	Various	Braun and Vecht-Lifshitz, 1991
Complex organic material	<i>Rhizopus arrhizus</i>	Byrne and Ward, 1987
Polymer	<i>A. niger</i>	Elmayergi, 1975
	<i>Pe. chrysogenum</i>	Pedersen <i>et al.</i> , 1994
Surfactants	<i>A. niger</i>	Metz and Kossen, 1977
Metal ions	Various	Clark and Lentz, 1961
Solid particles	<i>A. niger</i>	Metz and Kossen, 1977

Both the type and concentration of the carbon source appear particularly influential with regards to process optimisation (Papagianni, 2004). Filamentous fungi are heterotrophic. Organic compounds supporting most growth are usually sugars (e.g., D-glucose, D-fructose, sucrose), which are rapidly taken up. Other carbon sources include, molasses, malt extract, starch, dextrin, sulfite waste liquors, polysaccharides, amino acids, lipids, organic acids, proteins, alcohols and hydrocarbons are also used. A small amount of exogenous carbon may be required to maintain the fungus even when it is not growing. According to the work done on *Penicillium chrysogenum* by Cundell *et al.* (1976), protein production, rheology, morphology and specific growth rate are all influenced by the type of carbon source. Experiments performed by Papagianni *et al.* (1999c) confirmed that initial glucose concentration in the fermentation medium affected both the rate of citric acid production by *A. niger* and the morphology of the producer organism. It was also noted that the level of glucose had a marked effect on production rates; the specific growth rate of citric acid formation increased with increasing initial glucose concentration from 1% to 14%, and the specific growth rate increased with decreasing glucose concentration (Papagianni, 2004). In addition, carbon



limitation contributes greatly to the process of cell aging and autolysis in fungal cultures, resulting in heavily vacuolated hyphae and fragmentation (Papagianni, 2004).

Nitrogen sources have also been recorded to have a large influence regarding process optimisation. Nitrogen may be supplied as ammonia, as nitrate or in organic compounds, such as amino acids or proteins. Beet or cane molasses, corn-steep liquor, Pharmamedia, whey powder, soy flour, yeast extract and others are used as industrial raw materials, rich in nitrogen. Phosphate is a convenient and readily used source of phosphorus, while organic forms are also used in industrial processes. Both play an important role in metabolite overproduction and affect fungal morphology. Factors favouring increased growth rates, including excess phosphate concentrations, and have been shown to reduce pellet formation (Katz *et al.*, 1972). Contradictions exist however, where in the work of Znidarsic *et al.* (2000), increased nitrogen concentrations led to larger and denser pellet structures of *Rhizopus nigricans*, while at the low nitrogen levels, pellets appeared small, very light and fluffy, and the fungus showed an increased tendency to form clumps. Du *et al.* (2002) studied the effect of the nitrogen source on morphology and antibiotic production with *Rhizopus chinensis*. In media containing different nitrogen compounds, the morphology, in terms of hyphal length and degree of branching, varied significantly. The activity of the antibiotic also varied with the nitrogen source, where the highest antibiotic production, accompanied by pellet growth, was achieved in a medium containing corn-steep liquor (CSL). The pellets were fluffy with a compact core and a loose outer zone. When ammonium sulfate was used as nitrogen source, the pellets were larger, compact, with a smooth surface and antibiotic productivity was lower. The same was the effect with *Pe. chrysogenum* in the study of Pirt and Callow (1959); ammonium sulfate in the medium caused compact pellet growth, while CSL produced looser structures. Omission of nitrogen in the medium greatly affects fungal growth and metabolite production. Schrickx *et al.* (1995) studied the growth behaviour and protein production by *A. niger* without a nitrogen source, where low metabolic activity was observed and fragmentation became the dominant characteristic in the culture.



Certain trace elements and metals are essential for fungal growth, and at various concentrations influence process production levels. Much work has been done on trace metals with *A. niger* concerning the growth and citric acid production. Zinc, manganese, copper, iron, heavy metals and alkaline metals have been shown to affect both fungal morphology and citric acid production (Shu and Johnson, 1984; Matthey, 1992; Wold and Suzuki, 1976; Haq *et al.*, 2002). The influence of Mn^{2+} ions on protein synthesis was considered to be of major importance since cycloheximide, an inhibitor of *de novo* protein synthesis, was found to antagonize the effect of manganese addition (Clark, 1961 and Kissler *et al.*, 1980). Cellular anabolism of *A. niger* is impaired under manganese deficiency and/or nitrogen and phosphate limitation. The protein breakdown under Mn^{2+} deficiency results in a high intracellular NH_4^+ concentration, which causes inhibition of the enzyme phosphofructokinase (an essential enzyme in the conversion of glucose and fructose to pyruvate), leading to a flux through glycolysis and the formation of citric acid (Kubicek and Röhr, 1977; Habison *et al.*, 1979).

Manganese ions are also known to be specifically involved in many cellular processes, such as cell wall synthesis and sporulation. Kissler *et al.* (1980) studied the development of morphology and cell wall composition of *A. niger* under conditions of manganese deficient and sufficient cultivations in an otherwise citric acid producing medium. Omission of manganese ions from the nutrient medium resulted in abnormal morphological development, characterized by increased spore swelling and squat, bulbous hyphae. The inhibition of glucoprotein turnover caused by the absence of manganese ions in the medium led to the loss of hyphal polarity and increased branching and chitin synthesis.

Often medium formulations for pilot- and industrial-scale fungal fermentations contain solid or semi-solid components because of economic considerations. These components can provide attachment sites for fungal growth and hence encourage hyphal aggregates of no distinct form as opposed to the regularly shaped pellets or mycelia commonly seen in synthetic media.



The presence of surfactants (surface-active agents) in the growth medium has also been found to have a profound effect on fungal morphology and broth rheology (Metz and Kossen, 1977). The addition of polymers such as, carboxypolymethylene, polyacrylic acid and polyacrylate reduce spore agglomeration and hence decrease pellet formation in a number of filamentous fungi (van Suijdam *et al.*, 1980; Takahashi *et al.*, 1960; Elmayergi *et al.*, 1973; Jones *et al.*, 1988b; Trinci, 1983). It has also been suggested that these polymers act by adsorbing to the spore surface and prevent aggregation through electrostatic repulsion (Seviour and Read, 1985; Elmayergi *et al.*, 1973; Jones *et al.*, 1988a). Using antifoaming agents have also been found to affect morphology and protein production. Van Suijdam *et al.* (1980) observed in *Pe. chrysogenum*, uneven spore germination, irregular pellet formation and hence a drop in metabolite production, when droplets of antifoam (polypropylene glycerol 2000) were added.

From the above mentioned paragraphs concerning nutrient dependent factors, there is a point of criticism concerning some of the published work regarding this topic. Many of the experiments published in the literature have been designed to isolate, improve and optimise a single causative factor and ignore other process factors that are also likely to be affected by a change in media composition. A typical example of this is culture pH. By increasing or decreasing a component source concentration, the question is whether it alters the culture pH significantly to affect biomass concentration, cell morphology, product formation, etc. It is recommended that media components be evaluated at various constant pH levels in order to determine optimum process control.

2.3.9 Cultivation condition dependent factors

From an engineering point of view, the cultivation condition parameters used in submerged fungal cultivations are of paramount importance regarding bioprocess design, as their influence on growth, morphology and product formation can be used to maximise product yield. As illustrated in FIG. 2.11, complex interactions exist between the process conditions, the productivity and the morphology in fermentations of filamentous microorganisms. The cultivation condition dependent factors have a central



role, together with product formation, and as a bioprocessing engineer, considerable efforts must be undertaken to optimise each process parameter in order to maximise product yield for a particular bioprocess system.

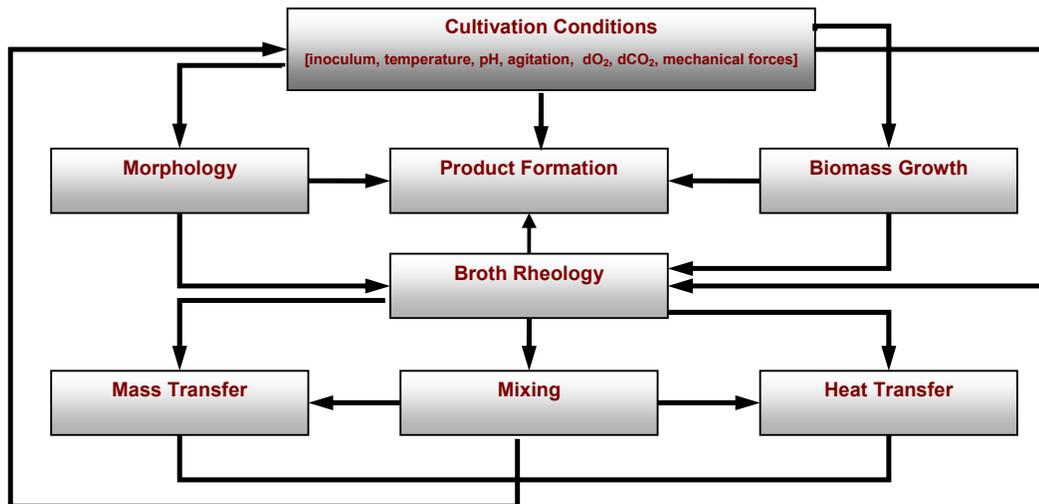


FIGURE 2.11: Complex interactions between process conditions, productivity, and morphology in submerged fermentations of filamentous microorganisms (adapted from Metz, 1976).

2.3.9.1 Inoculum

Among the factors that define process optimisation, the amount, type (spore or vegetative) and age of the inoculum are of prime importance. In early studies, the effect of the inoculum was assessed mainly by the presence or absence of pellets and their characteristics (Vecht-Lifshitz *et al.*, 1989; Smith and Calam, 1980). This was due to a lack of an adequate method to monitor mycelial morphology during fermentations. During the last decade, the application of image analysis techniques for quantification of morphology in fungal fermentations resulted in more systematic studies on the inoculum effects, and since then many relevant studies have contributed to the understanding of inoculum effects on fungal fermentations. TABLE 2.9 highlights the inoculum related effects on filamentous fungi cultivations found in the literature.



TABLE 2.9: Inoculum related effects on filamentous fungi cultivations.

Factor	Fungus	Reference
Coagulation of spores favours pellet formation.	<i>A. niger</i>	Metz and Kossen, 1977
Low spore inoculum favours pellet formation.	<i>A. niger</i> <i>A. oryzae</i> <i>Pe. chrysogenum</i>	Hermersodofer <i>et al.</i> , 1989 Calam, 1976 Whitaker and Long, 1973
Low inoculum concentration favours pellet formation.	<i>Ca. fumago</i>	Carmichael and Pickard, 1989
Inoculum levels at 5×10^5 spores.m ℓ^{-1} favours pellet formation.	<i>Pe. chrysogenum</i>	Tucker and Thomas, 1992
Low spore inoculum produces dense pellets, high spore inoculum produces open pellets.	<i>Penicillium patulum</i>	Smith and Calam, 1980
Type of inocula (spore or vegetative) affects pellet size and clump formation.	<i>A. niger</i>	Papagianni <i>et al.</i> , 1999d; Papagianni <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Papagianni and Moo-Young, 2002
Mycelial pellets formed from a fragmented hyphae inocula.	<i>Cunninghamella echinulate</i>	Chen and Liu, 1997

2.3.9.2 Temperature

In theory, temperature can definitely have an effect on metabolite production and broth rheology. This process parameter has not been investigated thoroughly in filamentous fungi cultivations, but it is a known fact that a change in temperature brings about simultaneous changes in other culture variables, such as growth rate and morphology (Bull and Bushell, 1976; Miles and Trinci 1983; Papagianni, 2004). Dissolved oxygen tension is also temperature dependent and varies inversely with increasing temperature (refer to TABLE 2.10). Similarly, nutritional and pH requirements for growth may be influenced by the temperature as well as the rate of medium evaporation. This is seen to have its greatest effect in continuous cultures and could lead to erroneous results concerning growth kinetic interpretations. TABLE 2.10 highlights temperature related effects on filamentous fungi cultivations found in the literature.



TABLE 2.10: Temperature related effects on filamentous fungi cultivations.

Factor affected by temperature increase	Fungus	Reference
An increase in specific growth rate, (27 °C to 35 °C), with a max. at 35 °C.	<i>A. oryzae</i>	Carlsen <i>et al.</i> , 1995
Increase of the hyphal growth unit length and wall thickness, (15 °C –30 °C).	<i>Pe. chrysogenum</i>	Miles and Trinci 1983
Oxygen supply becomes inadequate	Various	Schügerl <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Morphology manipulation (pelleted growth)	<i>A. awamori</i>	Braun and Vecht-Lifshitz, 1991 Schügerl <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Metabolite and protein production enhancement. Optimum between 25 °C to 30 °C	<i>A. awamori</i> Various	Schügerl <i>et al.</i> , 1998 Papagianni, 2004
Autolysis enhancement.	Various	Papagianni, 2004

2.3.9.3 pH

The pH of the medium is an environmental factor that is often neglected and can often affect productivity most significantly. pH profiles may be interpreted in terms of effects on transport of nutrients, nutrient solubilities, enzyme reactions or surface phenomena. The composition of the medium generally contributes significantly towards initial pH and the extent and direction of pH drifts during growth of the fungus. Poorly buffered media containing ammonium salts are likely to become more acidic during growth, while media containing nitrate are likely to become alkaline. A desired objective that is not always possible is to minimize the pH drifts. High concentrations of ions such as phosphate are often used to stabilise the pH, but to the detriment of biological activity,

(e.g., growth and enzyme activity) (Papagianni, 2004). TABLE 2.11 highlights the pH related effects on filamentous fungi cultivations found in the literature.



TABLE 2.10: pH related effects on filamentous fungi cultivations.

Factor affected by pH	Fungus	Reference
Optimum biomass yield under glucose limitations @ pH 6.9 and 30 °C.	<i>A. nidulans</i>	Bull and Bushell, 1976
Growth inhibition @ pH 3 and lower.	<i>A. nidulans</i>	Rowley and Pirt, 1972
Hyphal length reduction as pH increases between 6 and 7.4.	<i>Pe. chrysogenum</i>	Pirt and Callow, 1959
Maximum hyphal length @ pH 6	<i>Pe. chrysogenum</i>	Miles and Trinci, 1983
A tendency to form pellets as pH increases.	Various	Whitaker and Long, 1973 Gerlach <i>et al.</i> , 1998 Braun and Vecht-Lifshitz, 1991
pH affects surface properties of spores thus affecting morphology.	<i>A. niger</i> <i>A. oryzae</i>	Galbraith and Smith 1969 Carlsen <i>et al.</i> , 1995
Optimum α -amylase production @ pH 6	<i>A. oryzae</i>	Carlsen <i>et al.</i> , 1995
Optimum pH 4.5 in HEWL production	<i>A. niger</i>	Mainwaring <i>et al.</i> , 1999
Biomass decreases and heterologous protein increases as pH levels rise between pH 6 and 7	<i>A. niger</i>	Punt <i>et al.</i> , 2002

2.3.9.4 Dissolved oxygen concentration

Present information suggests that most fungi require molecular oxygen to grow and can grow over very wide ranges of dissolved oxygen (dO_2) concentrations. Changes in dO_2 concentrations in the growth media have been reported to dramatically influence heterologous protein synthesis in fungi (Varder and Lilly, 1982; Zhou *et al.*, 1992; Gomez *et al.*, 1988; Gibbs and Seviqur, 1996). However, from studies found in the literature, dO_2 concentration appears to exert little or no influence on mycelial macro-morphology (van Suijdam and Metz, 1981 and Carter and Bull, 1971), but a significant influence towards the micro-morphology, (pellet size, hyphal length, diameter and number) and rheological properties of the fermentation broth (Olsvik and Kristiansen,



1992a). Some of these reports in the literature seem to contradict each other so special thought must be undertaken in determining optimum dO_2 levels for a start up operation. A possible explanation for the so-called change in micro-morphology and broth rheology phenomenon is that the variations in dO_2 concentration induce changes in hyphal tensile strength and flexibility (Zetelaki and Vas, 1968). The work done by Zetelaki and Vas (1968) suggest that O_2 enriched *A. niger* cultures have thinner cell walls than normal aerated cultures. This leads to the hypothesis that if the cell walls become thinner, protein secretion through the cell wall is enhanced. At this point, no reports in the literature have been found to support this claim.

Furthermore, events such as hyphal tip formation have been noted to be the main visible expression of the differentiation processes of *A. niger* in an O_2 enriched environment, which have been shown to play an important role in the process of extracellular enzyme production. Under different oxygen enrichment conditions, *A. niger* seems to develop different growth strategies by undergoing both physiological and micro-morphological changes. *A. niger* has been noted to adapt to high dO_2 concentrations in a number of ways. These include; an increased specific growth rate, a decreased size of hyphal elements and an increase in the proportion of active cytoplasm, i.e., in the active compartment (“active length”) by switching from mostly inactive vacuolated, long filaments with few branches, to a shorter, active cytoplasm abundant branch form. Enzyme production has been found to be best with short mycelia with high active length when the O_2 supply was in excess. Biomass concentration has not been reported to affect the enzyme concentrations (either native or heterologous) directly (Wongwicharn *et al.*, 1999).

2.3.9.5 Dissolved carbon dioxide concentration

The production of carbon dioxide (CO_2) in large amounts is common in many aerobic fermentations as a consequence of cell respiratory activity. For filamentous fungi, pronounced effects on both morphology and product formation have been associated with elevated levels of dissolved CO_2 (dCO_2) and its effects have been reviewed



(McIntyre and McNeil, 1998). McIntyre and McNeil (1997a) studied the effects of dCO₂ on morphology, growth and citric acid production by *A. niger* in batch cultures and reported quantitative information on morphological changes by using image analysis. In processes where the inlet gas stream contained more than 3% dCO₂, raised dCO₂ concentration was associated with decreased biomass and citrate concentrations, decreased substrate consumption, and morphological changes. An increase in the value of the hyphal growth unit, mean hyphal length, and mean branch length was observed as influent CO₂ was increased above 5%.

Studies with *Pe. chrysogenum* (Pirt and Mancini, 1975; Smith and Ho, 1985; Ho and Smith, 1986) showed in *Pe. chrysogenum* that levels lower than 3% saturation of dCO₂ concentration in the inlet gas stream had no marked effects on morphology and production. Between 3% and 5% dCO₂ concentration the hyphal branching frequency was increased. Further increases in dCO₂ concentration (15% to 20%) gave rise to a decrease in penicillin production levels and the development of an aberrant morphology was noted. Light microscopy led to the observation that dCO₂ affected the morphology of *Pe. chrysogenum* with the normal, healthy hyphae becoming long, thin and diffuse when exposed to increased concentrations (Smith and Ho, 1985). It was proposed that the effects observed on *Pe. chrysogenum* were due to the fact that high levels of CO₂ could affect membrane transport properties of the cell or that the cells were subject to osmotic swelling (Smith and Ho, 1985; Ho and Smith, 1986).

2.3.9.6 Mechanical forces

In submerged fermentations, the purpose of agitation is to mix the cultivation broth in such a way that a uniform suspension of microbes is achieved. Good mixing is of vital importance in submerged cultivations, ensuring good mass (oxygen and nutrient) and heat transfer and thus providing a homogenous, well-mixed cell suspension. In the case of a conventional stirred tank bioreactor, especially in fungal cultivations, the vessel can be divided into two regions. The region around the impeller represents a zone of high energy dissipation and, hence, good mass and heat transfer. The remainder of the



fermentation volume may be subject to an inadequate supply of oxygen and nutrients, due to poor mixing. In large fermenters, mass transfer gradients across the vessel become significant and this can affect mycelial growth and product formation. Agitation applied during fermentation creates shear forces, which can affect microorganisms in several ways, e.g., damage to cell structure, morphological changes, as well as variations in growth rate and product formation. The magnitude and variation of shear and other forces in submerged bioreactors have been discussed extensively in the literature (Chisti 1999a).

Exposure to a high shear zone may not cause instantaneous damage to the cells of the microorganism, but damage may occur gradually due to shear as well as hydrodynamic stresses. This implies that the microorganism has the ability to adapt to a certain level of mechanical stress. On the other hand, these effects may depend on the age of the cell. Potential damage to microorganisms can limit the impeller speed or power input. Consequently, the oxygen and nutrient transfer capability of a fermenter can be limited, ultimately reducing the volumetric productivity. Furthermore, changes in morphology can alter the viscosity of filamentous fermentation broths, with additional effects on mixing and mass transfer. For each culture, optimum conditions of agitation will exist that will partly depend on the resistance of the hyphae to mechanical forces and also on their physiological state (Moo-Young *et al.*, 1992; Paul *et al.*, 1994a; Papagianni *et al.*, 1999b). TABLE 2.12 highlights the mechanical force related effects on filamentous fungi cultivations found in the literature. The studies described in TABLE 2.12 have demonstrated the effects of mechanical forces on protein as well as metabolite production, biomass concentration, broth rheology, and morphology of filamentous microorganisms. However, it must be emphasised that the superimposed effects of agitation on these variables are sometimes difficult to quantify and compare to one another. For instance, bioreactor geometry and impellor type, diameter and area, (the greater the impellor area the greater the shear force), differ from experiment to experiment. This data, which is obviously required for benchmark comparisons, is often left out of research articles. Another point of criticism refers to many research reports,



where improved mycelial growth, due to increased oxygen transfer rates, is claimed as an agitation effect, possibly counteracting shear damage.

TABLE 2.12: Mechanical force related effects on filamentous fungi cultivations.

Results in an increase in agitation	Fungus	Reference
Decrease in biomass yield as a result of high agitation.	<i>A. oryzae</i>	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2002
Increase in biomass yield as a result of high agitation.	<i>Pe. chrysogenum</i>	König <i>et al.</i> , 1981
Decrease in hyphal length; increase in hyphal diameter, increase in hyphal branching frequency.	<i>Pe. chrysogenum</i> <i>A. niger</i>	Smith <i>et al.</i> , 1990; Metz <i>et al.</i> , 1981; Nielsen <i>et al.</i> , 1995; Papagianni <i>et al.</i> , 1998; Papagianni <i>et al.</i> , 1999b
Reduction in clump or pellet size at high agitation.	<i>Pe. chrysogenum</i>	Nielsen <i>et al.</i> , 1995
A decrease in specific growth rate at high agitation.	<i>A. niger</i>	Mitard and Riba, 1988
An increase in specific growth rate at high agitation.	<i>A. niger</i>	Papagianni <i>et al.</i> , 1999b
Compactness of pellets increase.	<i>A. niger</i>	Gomez <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Increased fragmentation.	<i>A. oryzae</i> <i>A. niger</i>	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2002 Papagianni, 1995; Papagianni <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Increased viscosity.	<i>A. oryzae</i>	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2002
Decrease in metabolite including heterologous as well as native protein production yield as a result of high agitation.	<i>A. clavayus</i> <i>A. fumigatus</i> <i>A. niger</i> <i>A. terreus</i> <i>Pe. chrysogenum</i> <i>A. oryzae</i>	Manolov, 1992 Wase <i>et al.</i> , 1985 Ujacova, 1980; Roukas, 1991 Park <i>et al.</i> , 1993 Smith <i>et al.</i> , 1990; Makagiansar <i>et al.</i> , 1993; Li <i>et al.</i> , 2002
Protein production independent of agitation.	<i>A. oryzae</i>	Amanullah <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Amanullah <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Increase in protein production yield as a result of high agitation.	<i>A. niger</i>	Gomez <i>et al.</i> , 1988; Papagianni, 1995; Papagianni <i>et al.</i> , 1994; Papagianni <i>et al.</i> , 1998



2.3.10 Bioreactor design considerations

An efficient large-scale bioprocess relies very much on optimisation of the abiotic phase, *i.e.* bioreactor design and performance. A primary step in optimising the bioprocess is obviously the choice of a suitable bioreactor type. The proper scale-up and design should ensure growth in the appropriate morphology.

2.3.10.1 Choice of bioreactor

The viscosity of the culture broth, appropriate morphology, shear sensitivity of the organism, oxygen demand and therefore the potential oxygen supply, as well as heat evolution and the necessary cooling, are the main parameters, which dictate the choice of the bioreactor. However, product price, productivity, reactor size, the necessary control of process parameters, and the mode of operation also influence this choice. Generally, the stirred tank reactor (STR) is better for viscous broths, but is impractical at volumes greater than 500 m³ because the agitation power becomes too high when good mixing is required. These high agitation rates obviously enforce great shear stress on filamentous fungi and in some cases cause a decrease in metabolite production including heterologous protein production. This problem can be solved with the bubble column or airlift bioreactors, which can reach volumes of several thousands of cubic meters, but are not suitable for viscous broths. Here, a significant reduction of energy consumption and consequently of operating costs can be achieved. Since only gas sparging provides the agitation, the mechanical complexity of the system and the risk of contamination is reduced. Compared to stirred tanks, airlift bioreactors are considered low-shear systems with more evenly distributed energy dissipation and shear stress throughout the reactor. In addition, the efficiency of oxygen transfer in these reactors is comparable with stirred tanks. Theoretically, airlift reactors are preferred when operating conditions demand a minimum shear rate without losing out on a well-mixed cell suspension. Considering these advantages, there are numerous successful industrial applications regarding these reactors. TABLE 2.13 compares protein yields, in fungi



cultivations of various production systems, in STRs with Ruston turbines compared to bioreactors with other configurations.

TABLE 2.13: Comparing metabolite production, including heterologous as well as native protein production, in fungi cultivations in STRs with Rushton turbines compared to bioreactors with other configurations.

Reactor type and configuration	Fungus	Influence on yield compared to STR (protein)	Reference
Airlift	<i>Acremonium persicinum</i>	Increase (<i>B</i> -Glucan)	Stasinopoulos and Seviour, 1992
	<i>A. fumigatus</i>	Increase (Cellulase)	Wase <i>et al.</i> , 1985
	<i>A. niger</i>	No difference (Gluconic acid)	Träger <i>et al.</i> , 1989
	<i>Aureobasidium pullulans</i>	No difference (Pullulans)	Gibbs and Seviour, 1992
	<i>Au. pullulans</i>	Decrease (Pullulans)	Gibbs and Seviour, 1998
	<i>Fusarium graminearum</i>	Increase (Quorn acid)	Trinci, 1994
Airlift (stainless steel sieves in draught tube)	<i>A. terreus</i>	Increase (Itaconic acid)	Okabe <i>et al.</i> , 1993
Airlift tower loop reactor	<i>Ce. acremonium</i>	Decrease (Cephalosporin C)	Bayer <i>et al.</i> , 1989
Assisted airlift base	<i>Au. pullulans</i>	Increase (Pullulans)	Gibbs and Seviour, 1998
Airlift with external loop	<i>Sc. glucanicum</i>	Comparable (Scleroglucan)	Wang and McNeil, 1995
Tower loop reactor	<i>Pe. chrysogenum</i>	Decrease (Penicillin)	König <i>et al.</i> , 1981

2.3.10.2 Choice of impellor

Generally, high power inputs are required to obtain high transfer rates. Moreover, the more viscous a culture broth becomes, the higher the power input required. This is one



of the reasons why the stirred tank bioreactor is the most frequently used reactors for submerged fungal cultivations. Oxygen and heat transfer rates, which are a function of rheological properties of the fermentation broth, shear rate and the power input, also depend on the type and size of impellor. Most STRs are fitted with standard radial flow Rushton impellors. However, several alternative impellor designs appear to be more effective at simultaneously reducing shear as well as achieving bulk mixing in viscous filamentous fermentation fluids (Nienow, 1990; Humphrey, 1998), as well as affecting protein production. TABLE 2.14 compares fungal protein yields in STRs fitted with rushton turbines to STRs with other impellor designs.

TABLE 2.14: Comparing metabolite yields, including heterologous as well as native protein yields, in fungi cultivations in STRs fitted with rushton turbines to STRs with other impellor designs.

Impellor type and configuration	Fungus	Influence on yield compared to radial flow Rushton impellor (product yield)	Reference
Variable pitch axial flow	<i>Au. pullulans</i>	Little difference (Pullulans)	Gibbs and Seviour, 1998
Helical ribbon	<i>Au. pullulans</i>	Little difference (Pullulans)	Gibbs and Seviour, 1998
	<i>Sc. commune</i>	Decrease (B-glucan)	Rau <i>et al.</i> , 1992
Axial flow impellors positioned to create counterflow mixing	<i>F. monilliformis</i>	Decrease (Gibberellic)	Priede <i>et al.</i> , 1995
Draft tube/propeller system	<i>Sc. commune</i>	Increase (B-glucan)	Rau <i>et al.</i> , 1992
Fan impellor	<i>Sc. commune</i>	Increase (B-glucan)	Rau <i>et al.</i> , 1992
Fundaspin	<i>Sc. commune</i>	Decrease (B-glucan)	Rau <i>et al.</i> , 1992
Intermig	<i>Sc. commune</i>	Increase (B-glucan)	Rau <i>et al.</i> , 1992



2.3.11 Conclusions

The literature review confirms that rheological properties, including fungal morphology and biomass yield are the key variables, necessary to explain and predict the bioreactor performance and to design a bioprocess capable of maximising product yield, (heterologous protein production). These key variables have an interactive relationship with a number of environmental parameters, including strain, nutritional and cultivation dependent factors that have the ability, when manipulated, to dramatically alter morphology, biomass yield, rheology and ultimately HBsAg product yield.



3 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

3.1 Experimental Material and Methods

This section provides the information on the filamentous fungi strain and other materials used in the experiments. In addition, this section also outlines the fungal culture materials as well as describes the various protocols utilised.

3.1.1 Recombinant fungal strain

The recombinant microorganism used in this study was the protease-deficient *Aspergillus niger* DAHB11#8 strain (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003). This strain carries the Hepatitis B *S* gene under the transcriptional control of the constitutive *A. nidulans* glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*gpdA*) promoter. The host (*A. niger* D 15) strain was originally developed at the TNO Nutrition & Food Research Institute in the Netherlands as the *Aspergillus niger* D15 strain and was generously donated by Prof. C.A.M.J.J van den Hondel (TNO, Zeist, The Netherlands).

3.1.2 Inoculum preparation

As a stock culture, a spore suspension stored at -80°C in 15% glycerol solution was used. Using this method of strain preservation, neither change in cell productivity nor morphology was observed throughout this study. Unless otherwise stated, inoculation was carried out for both shake flask and bioreactor cultures at 1×10^6 spores. mL^{-1} obtained from a densely conidiating culture grown on rich agar medium for 96 to 120 hours. The spores were harvested with a sterile physiological saline solution, NaCl (0.9 % w/v) at high concentrations of approximately 1×10^9 spores. mL^{-1} and stored at 4°C for less than 2 months. The inoculum was prepared in two stages, which included an inoculum and a preculture. This method was performed in order to ensure reproducible growth rates and morphological properties, nullifying any effects caused by spore age.



The preculture consisted of exactly 10% of the primary culture's total volume, and was inoculated with a predetermined concentration of spores to allow for the exact amount of required spores in the primary culture (1×10^6 spores. $\text{m}l^{-1}$). The preculture was then incubated on a shaker at 30°C and 120 rpm for 12 hours.

3.1.3 Spore counting

Spore concentration for inoculation was controlled by counting the number of spores on a haemocytometer. The haemocytometer has a grid pattern that indicates a standard volume under a cover slip. In order to determine the spore count, it is common practice to make a 1/10 dilution of the spore suspension in water. 10 μ l of the diluted suspension was placed on a counting chamber (depth 0.1 mm, Area 0.0025 mm^2), covered with a cover slide and placed under 10 x magnification. The spores in 5 of the blocks (4 corners and centre) were then counted, refer to FIG. 3.1. Equation 3.1 was used as the standard equation for the type and make of haemocytometer to determine the spore concentration of spores per $\text{m}l$.

$$\text{Spore concentration (spores/ } \ell) = (\text{Total no. of spores from 5 block}) \times (\text{Chamber factor of } 50\,000) \times (\text{dilution factor of } 10) \quad \text{Eq. 3.1}$$

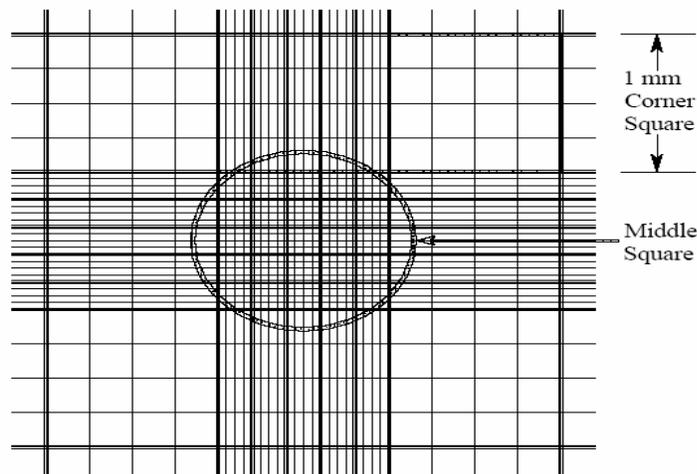


FIGURE 3.1: Standard haemocytometer chamber.



3.1.4 Cultivation media

The cultivation medium was based on the work of Plüddemann and van Zyl (2003). Modifications were made according to experimental requirements, and the basic compositions of the medium are tabulated in Tables 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3.

A rich agar plate medium was used for the sporulation of the recombinant strain *A. niger* and composed of the following:

TABLE 3.1: Rich medium composition of sporulation agar plates.

Ingredients of medium	Concentration [grams.litre ⁻¹]
Glucose	10 g.l ⁻¹
Neopeptone	2 g.l ⁻¹
Yeast extract	1 g.l ⁻¹
Casamino acids	1 g.l ⁻¹
Agar	18 g.l ⁻¹
50x AspA	20 ml.l ⁻¹
1M MgSO ₄	2 ml.l ⁻¹
1000x trace elements	1 ml.l ⁻¹
Distilled H ₂ O	± 900 ml.l ⁻¹ to add up to 1000 ml



The liquid culture medium, used for cultivation of the recombinant *A. niger* strain was composed of the following:

TABLE 3.2: The composition of basic rich media used for the liquid batch cultivations.

Ingredients of medium	Concentration[grams.litre ⁻¹]
Glucose	35 g.l ⁻¹
Yeast extract	5 g.l ⁻¹
Casamino acids	1 g.l ⁻¹
50x AspA	20 ml.l ⁻¹
1M MgSO ₄	2 ml.l ⁻¹
1000x trace elements	1 ml.l ⁻¹
Distilled H ₂ O	± 900 ml.l ⁻¹ to add up to 1000 ml

The final pH was adjusted to pH 5.5 before sterilization (121°C, 15 min). The trace element solution was stored at 1000x concentrated sterile-filtered stock solution and comprised of the following:

TABLE 3.3: The composition of the 1000 x concentrated trace elements stock solutions.

Ingredients of medium	Composition [grams]
Distilled H ₂ O	80 ml
ZnSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	2.2 g
H ₃ BO ₃	1.1 g
MnCl ₂ .4H ₂ O	0.5 g
FeSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.5 g
CoCl ₂ .6H ₂ O	0.17 g
CuSO ₄ .5H ₂ O	0.16 g
Na ₂ MoO ₄ .2H ₂ O	0.15 g
EDTA	5.0 g
Total volume	100 ml



Compounds were added one by one in the order given, boiled, allowed to cool to 60 °C, adjusted to pH 6.5 with KOH, cooled to room temperature and thereafter adjusted to 100 mL with dH₂O and autoclaved at 121 °C for 15 minutes. The sugar carbon source (glucose) and the antifoam reagent, antifoam 289 (Sigma-Aldrich) were sterilized separately at 121°C for 15 minutes at 15 psig and added to the medium before inoculation.

3.1.5 Cultivation conditions

3.1.5.1 Shake flask cultivation

Shake flask experiments were carried out in 2 L Erlenmeyer flasks. Cultivation was carried out on a rotary shaker (New Brunswick Scientific, Edison, W. J., U.S.A.) for 216 hours, at 120 rpm, 30 °C and 1×10^6 spores.mL⁻¹ unless otherwise stated, and 300 mL working volume.

3.1.5.2 Bioreactor cultivation

Two 10 L bioreactors were used in this study, (BioFlo 110 Non-Jacketed Vessels, New Brunswick Scientific (NBS) Co., USA) with a working volume of 8 L. In both bioreactors a single 30×20 mm 3-bladed down-flow pitched blade impeller was used and agitation speeds ranged between 100-600 rpm. The agitation rate was carried out at 100 rpm for the first 4 hours of the cultivation and increased up to the various agitation rates for the rest of cultivation. Similarly, aeration, performed by filtered sterile air (0.2 μ absolute filters, resterilizable), entered the bioreactor at 0.25 vvm (volume of gas inlet flow rate per volume of culture per minute), during the first four hours of cultivation and increased to 0.5 vvm afterwards, where it would remain for the duration of the cultivation. The decreased agitation and aeration in the first hours was performed to prevent spore flotation and adhesion to the walls of the culture vessels.



The air supply was passed through a rotameter to control the aeration rate (0.5 vvm). In oxygen enriched cultures or in cultivations where the culture dO_2 concentration required control independent from the agitation and aeration rate, NBS gas mixers were used. Pure oxygen was mixed with air and N_2 gas. Dissolved oxygen (dO_2) concentrations were analysed by an online NBS polarographic electrode, an online NBS pH electrode measured the acidity of the culture broth and the temperature was controlled at a constant 30°C ($\pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$) by a heating blanket as well as a cooling water stream ($0.7 \text{ l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) that passed through a stainless steel heat transfer coil.

The exhaust gases left the top of the reactor through a condenser cooled with water circulating at -4°C and at $1.1 \text{ l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$. The exhaust gases then passed through a sterile filter (0.2μ absolute filters, resterilizable) to prevent contaminating the laboratory with *A. niger* spores. In the exhaust gas of bioreactor cultures, the concentration of O_2 and CO_2 were determined by infrared gas analysis systems (INNOVA AirTech Instruments 1301 Gas Analyser). Aeration rate and off-gas analysis data were used to calculate the specific oxygen uptake rate (SOUR). The pH, when it was controlled, was controlled by the addition of a $2 \text{ mol}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ KOH and $2 \text{ mol}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ H_2SO_4 titrant. Foam was suppressed by the addition of antifoam reagent, with the aid of a level sensor. A foam trap was also present as an extra precaution.



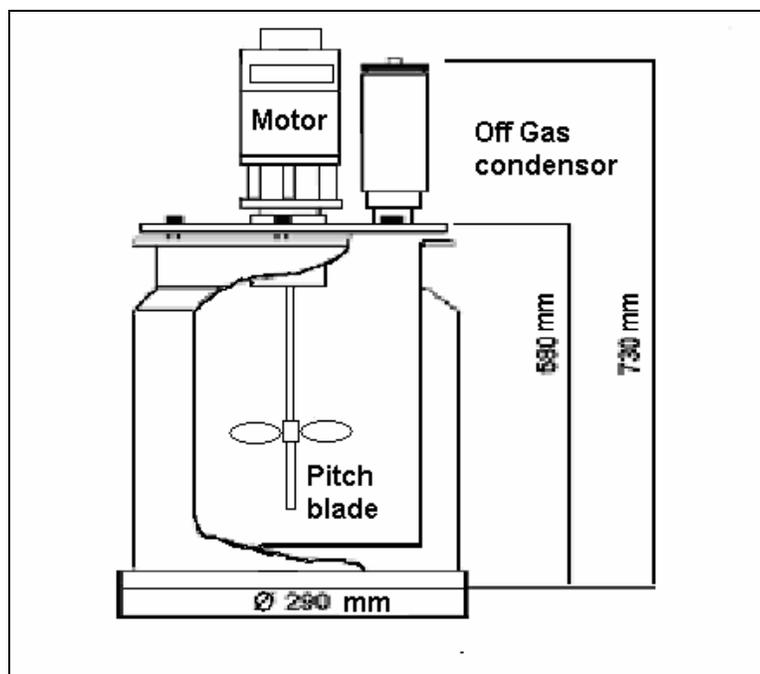


FIGURE 3.2: Schematic structure of this 10 l bioreactor and its geometric dimensions.

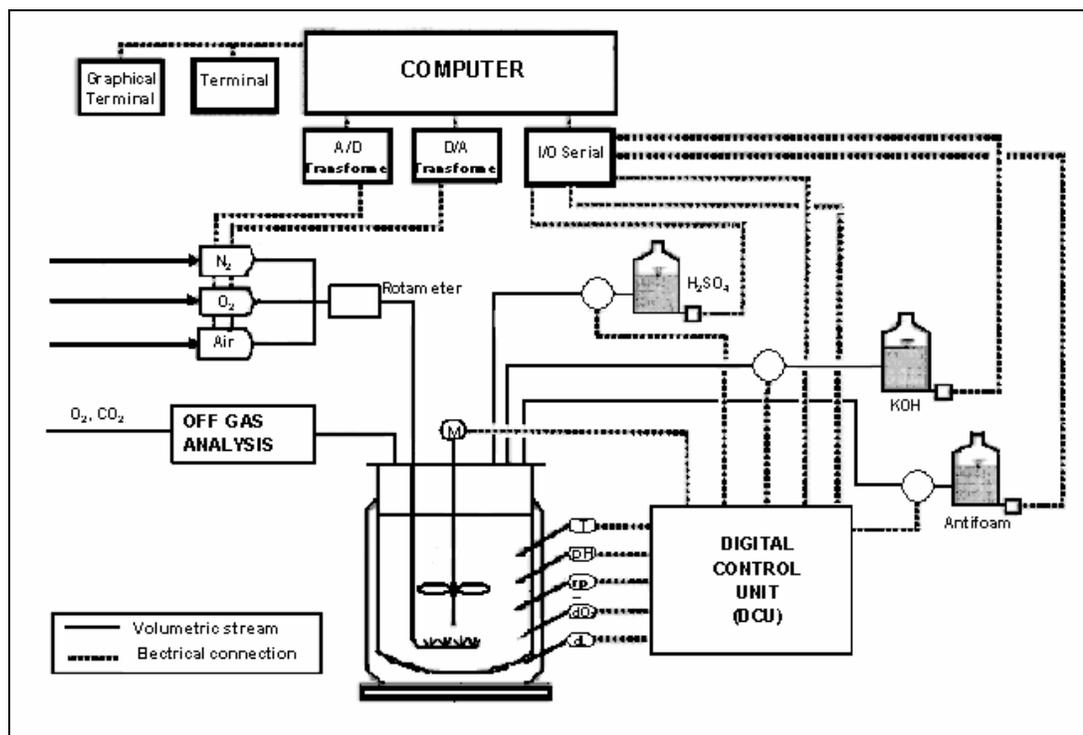


FIGURE 3.3: A schematic of the NBS bioreactor with all connected instruments as used in this study.



3.1.6 Sample preparation

Samples within the shake flask cultivations were taken in the form of 25 ml samples every 24 hours. Samples were taken by manually agitating the flask to ensure mycelia were in a well mixed suspension. Thereafter 25 ml was poured into a pre-weighed sterile falcon tube. During bioreactor cultivation, aliquots of the culture were removed from the vessel through a sampling tube of 4 mm diameter. The sample (30 ml of broth) was withdrawn using a syringe acting through an in-line air filter. Samples were collected in pre-weighed sterile falcon tube every six to twelve hours. Mycelia were separated from the sample liquid broth by filtering the sample through sterile Miracloth. Mycelia were then squeezed well to remove excess liquid. The filtered medium was collected into a sterile tube, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C (this is the extracellular fraction). Mycelia were collected into pre-weighed foil, wrapped up, weighed, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C .

3.1.7 Assay preparation

In the shake flask cultivations 15 ml culture broth was used for assay preparation and in the bioreactor cultivations, 40 ml culture broth was required. After the filtering and freezing process was performed (see above), mycelium samples were ground in a mortar and pestle under liquid nitrogen to a fine powder and an aliquot of 0.3 g mycelium powder was placed into 2 ml Eppendorf microfuge tubes. These were also stored at -80°C . Two 0.3 g samples were prepared, one for intracellular protein extraction and analysis and the other for dry weight determination. Once the samples were ground, two extraction buffers were prepared, one with Triton X-100 for the extraction of both the intracellular membrane and cytoplasmic associated proteins and one without the Triton for the extraction of the cytoplasmic fraction. The buffer composition included: 50mM NaP (pH7) / 1mM EDTA / 20 μM PMSF / 0.1% SDS (or 0.1% Triton X-100). The extraction of the intracellular cytoplasmic fraction was performed first, followed by the membrane fraction and was performed according to the following protocol:



- 1) 1 ml extraction buffer was added to the 0.3g ground mycelia and vortexed to ensure good mixing.
- 2) Sample placed on ice for 10 min.
- 3) Centrifuged at 14 000 rpm for 15 min at 4°C to remove debris.
- 4) Extraction of upper aqueous layer to clean Eppendorf microfuge tube. This is the crude intracellular total protein extract.

With regards to extracellular protein determination, samples were concentrated using size exclusion membranes in the Amicon.

3.1.8 Dry weight

In the shake flask cultivations 10 ml culture broth was used for biomass determination and in the bioreactor cultivations 40 ml culture broth was required. A biomass growth curve was determined by measuring dry cell weight. Samples were filtered through dried, sterile Miracloth, followed by washing with distilled water (two to five ml). The wet mycelia were then placed in pre-weighed foil and weighed. After this, mycelia samples were placed in an oven for drying at 60 °C for 168 hours. Consequently, average dry weight (DW) was determined, divided by broth sample volume to give biomass DW as $\text{mg}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \text{ml}^{-1}$ or $\text{g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$.

3.1.9 HBsAg concentration determination

The HBsAg analysis was performed at Dr Davies Pathologists, Cape Town. The ARCHITECT HBsAg assay was used (Abbott laboratories), and can be described as a Chemiluminescent Micoparticle Immunoassay (CMIA). It allows for the quantitative determination of fully assembled HBsAg particles (VLPs) by using microparticles coated with monoclonal anti-HBs, derived from human serum, to detect the HBsAg present in the sample. Results from the ARCHITECT were obtained in $\text{IU} \cdot \text{ml}^{-1}$ and the concentration of the specimen was determined using a previously generated ARCHITECT HBsAg calibration curve.



3.1.10 Total protein concentration determination

Intracellular total protein was determined using the Bradford method (Bradford, 1976) with bovine serum albumin (BSA) as a standard.

3.1.11 Calculation of SOUR

The specific oxygen uptake rate (SOUR) was calculated according to the stationary method depicted in equations 3.2-3.6, as performed by Patel and Thibault, (2004). The

basis of the calculations is stated in equation 3.1, which states that the rate of change of the dissolved oxygen concentration in the fermentation medium is equal to the rate of the oxygen mass transfer from the gas to the liquid-phase minus the rate of the oxygen utilization rate by the microorganism.

$$\frac{dC_L}{dt} = OTR - OUR \quad \text{Eq. 3.2}$$

$$\frac{dC_L}{dt} = k_L a (C_L^* - C_L) - OUR \quad \text{Eq. 3.3}$$

$$\frac{dC_L}{dt} = k_L a (C_L^* - C_L) - Q_{O_2} X \quad \text{Eq. 3.4}$$

Under steady state conditions it is assumed $\frac{dC}{dt} \rightarrow 0$; $OTR = OUR$

Therefore under psuedo-steady-state conditions, equation 3.4 can be rearranged to calculated the mass transfer coefficient ($k_L a$) as follows:

$$k_L a = \frac{Q_{O_2} X}{C_L^* - C_L^0} \quad \text{Eq. 3.5}$$



And similarly, the OUR is calculated in equation 3.5 as follows:

$$OUR = Q_{O_2} X \quad \text{Eq. 3.6}$$

Equation 3.5 requires an estimate of $Q_{O_2} X$ that can be obtained using the difference in oxygen concentration between the inlet and the outlet gas streams as it represents the oxygen consumption by microorganisms. A total inlet and outlet gas balance is required and can be done with the data obtained by the gas mixer and the off gas analyser.

$$OUR = \frac{1}{V_L} \left(\frac{P_1}{RT_1} Q_{1,G} y_{IN,O_2} - \frac{P_2}{RT_2} Q_{2,G} y_{OUT,O_2} \right) \quad \text{Eq. 3.7}$$

The SOUR is then determined by dividing the OUR by the fungal biomass concentration (fungal dry weight per liter culture).

$$SOUR = \frac{OUR}{DW} \quad \text{Eq. 3.8}$$

Where:

C_L	Dissolved oxygen concentration (mol.m^{-3})
C_L^0	Pseudo-steady-state dissolved oxygen concentration at 0.242 mol.m^{-3}
C_L^*	Dissolved oxygen concentration in equilibrium with gaseous oxygen concentration (mol.m^{-3})
DW	Gram dry weight biomass per liter culture
k_{La}	Volumetric oxygen mass transfer coefficient (s^{-1})
P	Pressure (Pa)
Q_G	Gas flow rate ($\text{m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$)
$Q_{O_2} X$	Oxygen uptake rate ($\text{mol.m}^{-3}.\text{s}^{-1}$)
OTR	Oxygen transfer rate ($\text{mol.m}^{-3}.\text{s}^{-1}$)
OUR	Oxygen uptake rate ($\text{mol.m}^{-3}.\text{s}^{-1}$)



R	Gas constant ($8.306 \text{ Pa}\cdot\text{m}^3\cdot(\text{mol}\cdot\text{K})^{-1}$)
SOUR	Specific oxygen uptake rate ($\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)
T	Temperature (K)
V_L	Liquid volume in bioreactor (m^3)
y	gaseous mole fraction

3.1.12 High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) method

The quantitative determinations of carbohydrates (glucose, fructose and xylose), organic acids (gluconic acid, pyruvate, formate, acetate, acetoin, succin, citric acid and oxalic acid), etc. were determined by HPLC analysis using an Aminex HXP-87H column (BioRad) for separation ($T = 25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and ultraviolet (UV) and refractive index detector (Techlab, Germany) for detection. Sulfuric acid (0.01 N) was used as the mobile phase (flow rate = 0.5 ml min^{-1}). It must be mentioned that even though all this data was gathered using the HPLC, only the glucose concentration during the fermentation was analysed and discussed in this study.

3.2 Experimental Philosophy

From the literature review it was evident that the cultivation of the filamentous fungi is indeed a complex operation, especially with regards to achieving reproducible and optimal product yields. As described in the literature review, various interdependent process parameters have been identified to influence the production levels of the desired product. From a bioprocess-engineering point of view, a methodical and deliberate process of elimination quantitatively isolated the most significant process parameters. Hence, this section discusses the development of the project, the thought process behind the scenes, concept justification, as well as experimental design and analysis.



3.2.1 Type of cultivation

Solid-state cultivations have many advantages and have been used with success in terms of protein production systems. Despite this, submerged cultivations have been the preferred choice of cultivation type in this study. This approach was justified by the fact that submerged cultivations allow for a high level of control, equipment and maintenance is relatively cost efficient, and the infrastructure of submerged cultivations is well established in the laboratories in which the experiments were performed (Biotechnology laboratory, University of Stellenbosch).

3.2.2 Mode of operation

The choice of operation mode was a difficult concept to reason in relation to this study. Each mode, as noted in the literature review, either batch, fed-batch or continuous systems, have advantages. In terms of a primary step in the development of the VLP production process, a batch mode of operation was selected. Factors that justify the mode of operation include the following:

- 1) Batch systems are preferred for the cultivation of non-growth associated product formation.
- 2) Due to the reduced culturing period, batch systems have a lower risk of contamination.
- 3) Batch systems have an increased genetic stability due to a freshly produced inoculum used for each batch.
- 4) Batch systems are more flexible compared to continuous cultures. A continuous system is dedicated to one product, while the batch system can be used to produce different products at different periods of the cultivation.



3.2.3 Process factors influencing product yield

As discussed in detail in the literature review, many variables have the potential to influence product yields. These factors are classified in three categories, namely; strain dependent factors, nutrition dependent factors and cultivation dependent factors. For a successful bioprocess design, all three of these categories must be investigated thoroughly. However, with regards to the aim of the present study, cultivation dependent factors (bioprocessing parameters) were investigated in detail. The strain dependent factors were initially investigated by Plüddemann and van Zyl (2003). A few new ideas have been suggested in the literature review, but have been set aside for the time being. Nutrition dependent factors are currently being investigated under a different project title and hence will not be discussed in this study.

3.2.4 Experimental design of cultivation dependent factors

The cultivation dependent factors require a labour intensive effort in order to obtain optimised levels. From the literature review, the following factors were identified to theoretically have the most significant impact on VLP production yields on the bioprocess of this study.

- 1) Temperature,
- 2) Inoculum concentration,
- 3) pH,
- 4) Agitation, and
- 5) dO_2

3.2.4.1 Shake flask cultivations

Shake flask cultivations are the simplest and least labour intensive cultivation. In addition, shake flask cultures are cost efficient and large amounts of simultaneous experimental runs can be executed. A disadvantage in shake flask cultivations is the low



quality of control when compared to bioreactor cultivations. As already discussed in the literature review, complex interactions exist between process conditions. These interactions differ quantitatively from process factor to process factor. In direct relation to the process parameters, temperature and inoculum concentration, no direct interaction was suspected to occur between these two parameters. Thus, the high quality of control obtained in bioreactor cultivation was not necessary. Hence, temperature optimisation as well as inoculum concentration investigations was performed in shake flask cultures, and the experimental design of these cultivations is tabulated in TABLE 3.4.

TABLE 3.4: Experimental design in shake flask cultivations.

Optimisation	Temperature [°C]	Inoculum concentration [spores.mt ⁻¹]	Agitation [rpm]	pH	dO ₂ [%]
Temperature	16				
	23				
	30	1×10 ⁶	120	Uncontrolled	Oxygen limited
	37				
Inoculum concentration	30	1×10 ³			
		1×10 ⁵			
		1×10 ⁶	120	Uncontrolled	Oxygen limited
		1×10 ⁸			

Each experimental run was performed in triplicate. 40 ml Samples were taken every 24 hours for a total time of 216 hours. These samples were processed and analysed according to the following forms tabulated in TABLE 3.5. For more precise information on shake flask cultivation methodology, refer to section 3.1.5.1.



TABLE 3.5: Experimental analysis format of processed samples from shake flask cultivations.

Shake Flask Processed Data	Shake Flask Processed Data Units
Biomass growth curve	$\text{g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$
Total intracellular protein	$\text{mg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ and $\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$, $\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$
Intracellular HBsAg	$\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ and $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$, $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$
pH	pH profile with regards to time
Broth morphology	Photographs of cultivation liquid

3.2.4.2 Bioreactor cultivations

Bioreactor based cultures accommodate processes that require a high level of control. In order to determine the production effects of certain process parameters, a high level of control was required, especially when complex interactions between the process parameters were suspected. The cultivation dependent factors agitation, dO_2 concentration and pH, require this high level of control, which justifies the execution of these related experimental runs in a bioreactor. With regards to experimental design, it has been noted from the literature review that the relationship between dO_2 and agitation is significant. Agitation within a culture ensures a well mixed cell suspension. As the rate of agitation increases, so does the efficacy of the mixing, thereby causing the increase in dO_2 concentration. This complex interaction between these two parameters has caused much debate on the credibility and accuracy of many studies published in the literature. The question being, is product yield directly affected by the variance in agitation, or indirectly affected by dO_2 concentration as a result of a change in agitation? Therefore, it was decided that the experimental design would have to consist of a method where both the dO_2 concentration as well as the agitation effects could be analysed simultaneously. To achieve this, the plan was to maintain the dO_2 concentration as well as the agitation rate constant, during each experiment, and only varying the two parameters between experimental runs (see FIG. 3.4). For more precise information on bioreactor cultivation methodology, refer to section 3.1.5.2



Several experimental designs were considered (Akhnazarova and Kafarov, 1982; Box and Wilson, 1951; Cochran and Cox, 1992; Deshayes, 1980; Fannin *et al.*, 1981; Khuri and Cornell, 1987). A 2^2 factorial design and central composite rotary design (CCRD), as described by Box *et al.* (1978) and Box and Draper (1959), was eventually selected, and utilised not only to analyse the individual effects of agitation rate and dO_2 concentration, but also the response surface contour plots of the process interaction of these two parameters (see FIG. 3.4). The advantages of these techniques include a larger operating window in which accurate experimental data may be processed with a lesser number of experiments. The basic CCRD comprises of 6 star points with an added central point. The number of repetitions per experiment depends on the reproducibility of the results and thus is directly responsible for the number of experimental runs required (see TABLE 3.6).

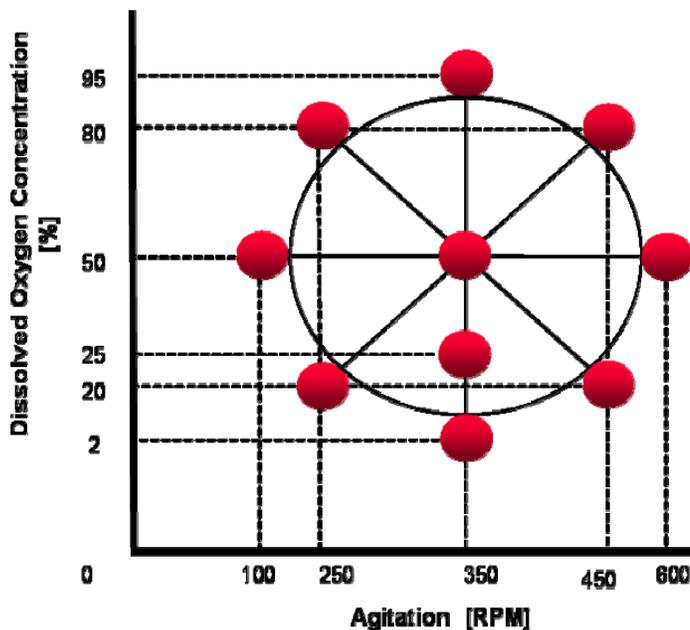


FIGURE 3.4: Illustration of central composite rotary design set-up.

According to this study (see FIG. 3.4), the Y-axis (dO_2 concentration) and X-axis (agitation) comprise of the basic CCRD structure with an additional 2 points. On the Y-axis a full range of dO_2 concentrations were investigated from high oxygen enrichment



levels of 95% and 80% to the oxygen limited levels of 2% and <2% cultures (surface culture aeration). On the X-axis a full range of agitation rates were also investigated from the low agitation rate of 100 rpm to the high agitation of 600 rpm. The additional point on the CCRD was characterised as critical: The point labelled (25%; 350 rpm) was thought in theory to be the point of optimum volumetric HBsAg product yield. The thought process behind this theory was that under these conditions, the microorganism would obtain sufficient O₂ transfer to the active cells, with minimal injury due to shear (Pappagianni, 2004) and minimal O₂ toxicity which could occur due to high O₂ concentrations within the cultivation (Bai *et al.*, 2003). A control was also required to determine the effect of product yield without the control of the dO₂ concentration. The agitation was fixed at 350 rpm, while the dO₂ concentration was allowed to fluctuate according to the oxygen transfer rate of the broth and the oxygen utilisation rate of the microorganism.

The final parameter to be investigated was pH. From the literature review, it was evident that pH had a significant impact on production yield (Punt *et al.*, 2002). It was shown that by using a similar *A. niger* D15 strain, production yield of a heterologous protein hen egg-white lysozyme (HEWL) reached a maximum at pH 7 with a low biomass yield, while at pH 6 a maximum biomass yield was achieved with a lower protein yield. This valuable piece of research induced the curiosity as to whether similar observations would be noted in the HBsAg fungal production system. Hence, pH 6 and pH 7 culture conditions were investigated. Experiments were performed in a bioreactor, where the dO₂ concentration and agitation rate remained constant during and between experiments (350 rpm and 50% dO₂ concentration), while the pH conditions were controlled during experiments and altered between experiments. A control was required to determine the effect of product yield without pH control. Therefore the agitation and dO₂ concentration was fixed (350 rpm and 50% dO₂ concentration), while the pH was allowed to fluctuate accordingly.



Thus, an experimental design was set-up and a total of 22 fermentations were performed. The number of fermentation runs performed, including repetitions in the 10ℓ NBS bioreactor is illustrated in TABLE 3.6.

TABLE 3.6: Experimental design in bioreactor cultivations (inoculum concentration of 1×10^6 and a temperature of 30°C).

dO₂ [%]	Agitation [rpm]	pH	Repetitions
50	350	uncontrolled	3
50	100	uncontrolled	2
50	600	uncontrolled	2
95	350	uncontrolled	2
2	350	uncontrolled	2
80	250	uncontrolled	1
20	250	uncontrolled	1
80	450	uncontrolled	1
20	450	uncontrolled	1
25	350	uncontrolled	1
50	350	6	2
50	350	7	2
Control	350	uncontrolled	2

Samples were taken every 6 to 12 hours in accurate 40 ml quantities. These samples were then processed according to the following forms tabulated TABLE 3.7.



TABLE 3.7: Experimental analysis format of processed samples from bioreactor cultivations.

Bioreactor Processed Data	Bioreactor Processed Data Units
Biomass growth	$\text{g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$
Total intracellular protein	$\text{mg} \cdot \text{m} \ell^{-1}$, $\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$, $\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$
Intracellular HBsAg	$\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{m} \ell^{-1}$ and $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$, $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$
Glucose utilisation rate	$\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$
pH	pH profile with regards to time
Broth morphology	Photographs of cultivation liquid
SOUR	$\text{mmolO}_2 \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$

3.2.5 Experimental analysis

As already described, two types of cultivation vessels were used to determine the effects various process parameters have on the HBsAg production system, shake flask cultivations and bioreactor cultivations. TABLE 3.8 illustrates the type of vessel used for the investigation of the following effects on the production system of each process parameter:

- 1) Biomass growth curve,
- 2) Total intracellular protein,
- 3) Intracellular HBsAg,
- 4) Broth glucose concentration profile,
- 5) pH, and
- 6) Broth rheology.



TABLE 3.8: Vessel type used for the analysis of each process parameter.

Cultivation vessel	Process Parameters	Parameter range
Shake flask	Inoculum concentration	1×10^3 , 1×10^5 , 1×10^6 , 1×10^8 spores.m ℓ^{-1}
	Temperature	16, 23, 30, 37 °C
Bioreactor	Agitation	Central composite rotary design 100, 250, 350, 450, 600 rpm
	dO ₂ concentration	Central composite rotary design 2, 20, 25, 50, 80, 95 % control: 350 rpm without dO ₂ control
	pH	6 and 7 control: 350 rpm 50% dO ₂ without pH control

In both, shake flask and bioreactor cultivations, the results illustrating biomass growth curve concentrations are processed in terms of $g_{DW} \cdot \ell_{culture}^{-1}$ and portray the four distinct growth phases in a typical microbial cultivation; lag phase, exponential phase, stationary phase and the death phase. The analysis of these growth phases is vital in terms of determining optimum growth conditions and supplies crucial information as to the most effective harvesting period.

Protein concentration (total protein and HBsAg production) was processed volumetrically (mg. ℓ^{-1}) and specifically (mg. g_{DW}^{-1}). The importance of processing both these formats are fundamentally significant with regards to processes optimisation, as specific yields define the amount of protein concentration per an equivalent mass, while volumetric yields define protein concentration per biomass yield in a litre of culture. It must be mentioned that, in relation to protein extraction, Plüddemann and van Zyl (2003), demonstrated that heterologous protein concentration was not secreted extracellularly and that the protein assembly was membrane associated. One of the aims of this study was determine whether in fact, under certain growth conditions,



intracellular cytoplasmic as well as extracellular HBsAg concentration could be observed.

The costs involved in determining the HBsAg concentration within samples was extremely high and thus certain HBsAg analysis was prioritised. Due to a lower expected product yield in shake flask experiments, it was decided that the cytoplasmic fraction of the intracellular composition would be ignored in both HBsAg and total protein analysis. In bioreactor cultivations, the protein production was expected to be considerably higher than shake flask cultivations and thus justified the investigation of HBsAg and total protein concentration in the cytoplasmic fraction. As a result, cytoplasmic analysis on HBsAg and total protein concentration was performed at (50% dO₂ and 100 rpm; 50% dO₂ and 350 rpm; 50% dO₂ and 600 rpm; 95% dO₂ and 350 rpm; 2% dO₂ and 350 rpm).

The primary carbon source (glucose) was measured (HPLC analysis) in intervals during bioreactor cultivations only. pH profiles were constructed in both shake flask and bioreactor cultivations. This allowed for the analysis of the pH fluctuations in the various cultures and as a result, any correlations that existed between the culture pH and other process variables were investigated. Broth morphology was analysed by observations made by the process operator during various intervals of the cultivation. In shake flask cultures photographs were taken of the fungal broth in the Erlenmeyer flasks, while in bioreactor cultivations photographs were taken of 7 ml broth samples poured into petri dishes.

3.2.6 Experimental development

Shake flask experiments were performed without any problems. Initially, bioreactor experiments, were performed in 1.3 l NBS reactors, and could not boast of similar success. The required high level of control was unattainable. Biomass levels became uncontrollably high. The cells showed signs of stress causing large amount of foam formation (FIG. 3.5A). Relatively high viscosities were observed (FIG. 3.5D). Wall



growth became a critical issue and well-mixed cell suspensions became impossible (FIG. 3.5A, B, C and D). Sample ports and probes became blocked, rendering it impossible to obtain periodic samples and online measurements became erroneous (FIG. 3.5C). The Rushton type impellers also caused problems at high agitation rates causing irregular cell growth and pellet shape (FIG. 3.5B and C). This was attributed to an excessive shear rate that was considered to increase cellular stress within the culture. Repetitions were not reproducible and were ascribed to the inappropriate scaling of the 1.3 l bioreactor and thus an alternate experimental approach had to be formulated. FIG. 3.5 illustrates process problems obtained in the 1.3 l bioreactors.

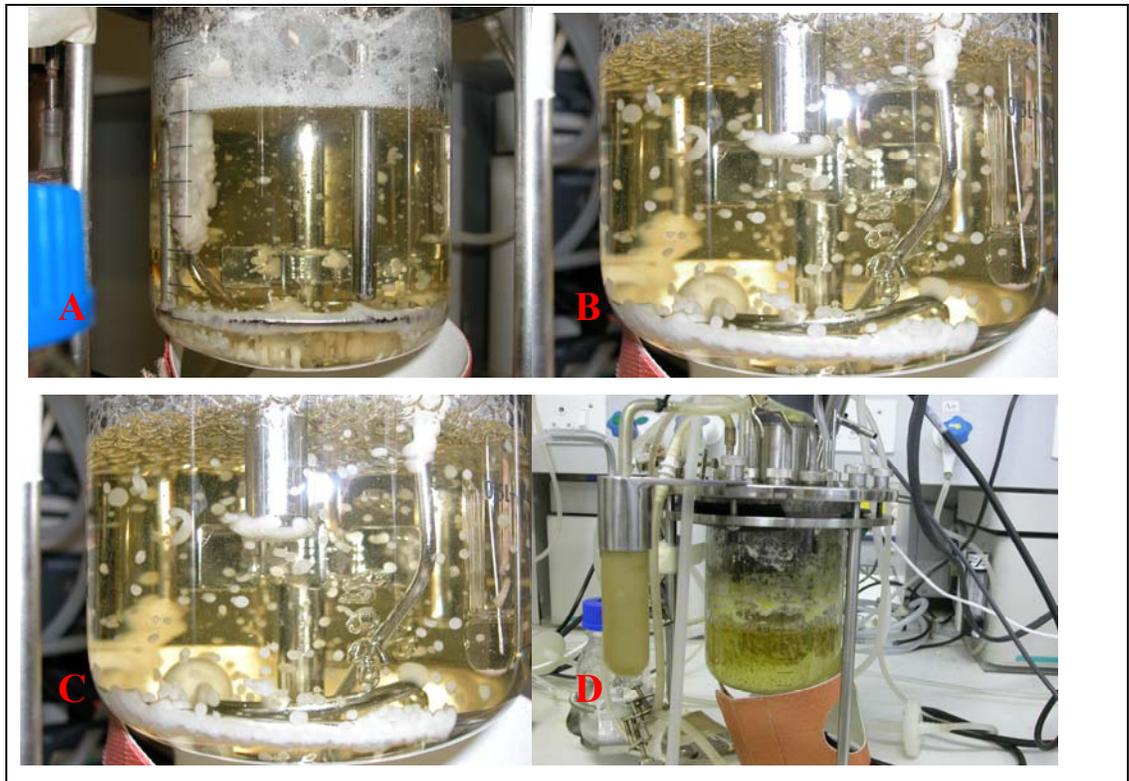


FIGURE 3.5: Photograph of NBS 1.3 l bioreactor illustrating operating problems caused by high viscosities, irregular pellet shape, and wall growth.



Two adaptations were made to the process design:

- 1) A larger cultivation vessel (10ℓ NBS bioreactor) of geometric similarity replaced the 1.3 ℓ reactor in an effort to reduce the percentage wall growth. i.e. surface/volume ratio decreases as the size of a geometrically similar vessel increases, thus decreasing the percentage wall growth.
- 2) The introduction of a down-flow pitch-blade impellor to reduce the shear rate on the apparent shear sensitive microorganism.

The introduction of these process modifications proved successful. Cell wall growth percentage was reduced. Foam control, morphology control, increased HBsAg concentration and most importantly reproducible results were achieved. FIG. 3.6 illustrates the laboratory set-up of the 10ℓ NBS bioreactors.



FIGURE 3.6: Photograph of 10 ℓ NBS bioreactor set up.



4 RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This work reports on the effects of various process parameters on the VLP (HBsAg) production, biomass formation and the percentage (%) of cellular protein consisting of HBsAg, as well as the mycelial morphology of recombinant *A. niger* under submerged culturing conditions. The outline of this section is divided into two sub-sections, namely shake flask and bioreactor cultivations. The aim of this study was the optimisation of the bioprocessing parameters in order to maximise HBsAg production levels within the *Aspergillus* production process. Cell morphology was tightly monitored and the effects of the bioprocessing parameters (temperature, inoculum concentration, agitation, dO₂ concentration, and pH) on biomass concentration as well as homologous and VLP (HBsAg) production were assessed.

4.2 Shake flask cultivations

4.2.1 Introduction

The aim of the shake flask cultivations was to determine the effects of culture temperature and inoculum concentration on mycelial morphology, culture growth, and homologous as well as VLP (HBsAg) production. All processed data is available in a tabulated form in Appendix A & B.

4.2.2 Temperature optimisation

4.2.2.1 Effect of temperature on biomass production

The analysis of biomass production over varying temperature, illustrated in FIG. 4.1A, demonstrates a similar lag phase of approximately 24 hours in cultures grown at 16 and 23 °C, while cultivations grown at 30 and 37 °C were observed to have a reduced lag phase that only



lasted 12 and 8 hours, respectively. The exponential growth phase was dependent on the culture temperature. Specific growth rates were observed to increase with the increase in culture temperature from 0.02 h^{-1} at $16 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ to 0.029 h^{-1} at $37 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. A maximum peak was observed to form in all cultivations followed by a temporary stationary phase and finally a death phase. An optimum biomass concentration of $20.5 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 120 hours was observed in cultures grown at $30 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.

4.2.2.2 Effect of temperature on protein production yield

- **Total protein production**

The analysis of total cellular protein concentration demonstrated variance in terms of production profiles. Specific total cellular protein concentration (FIG. 4.2B) obtained maximum levels at a culture temperature of $30 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ of $106 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ at 96 hours with a intracellular specific production rate of $0.063 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$. Cultures grown at $37 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ obtained similar specific levels of $100 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ at 120 hours, however the intracellular specific total protein production rate was significantly lower ($0.012 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$). Cultures grown at 16 and $23 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ obtained very low production levels below $65 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ and specific production rates. In comparison, volumetric total intracellular protein concentration (FIG. 4.2A) obtained maximum levels of $2000 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 120 hours and a culture temperature of $30 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, while cultures grown at 16 , 23 and $30 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ obtained very low levels below $1000 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$.

- **HBsAg production**

The analysis of intracellular HBsAg concentration demonstrated the suppression of production at the cultivation temperatures of 16 and $37 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, where production levels below $20 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ (FIG. 4.1D) and $200 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ (FIG. 4.1C) were obtained, respectively. Specific and volumetric HBsAg production was enhanced in culture temperatures of 23 and $30 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. In these cultures specific HBsAg production was most efficient during the latter stages of the cultivation. Cultures grown at $30 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ obtained the optimum specific HBsAg concentration of $57 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ at 216 hours,



while optimum volumetric HBsAg concentration was measured at 30 °C in the range of 1000 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 144 hours.

- **Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents**

The significance of the percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents (FIG. 4.1B) demonstrated the stability and robustness of the HBsAg particles during the latter stages of the cultivation grown at 23 and 30 °C. Cultures grown at 16 °C remained constant during the latter periods of the cultivation at values of approximately 0.03%, while cultivations grown at 37 °C increased gradually to 0.1% at 192 hours, followed by a rapid decrease until 216 hours. Cultures grown at 30 °C obtained the highest percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents of 0.42% at 216 hours.

4.2.2.3 Effect of temperature on culture pH

The analysis of the culture pH profile in relation to varying temperature cultures, illustrated in FIG. 4.2C, clearly demonstrated a sudden decrease in pH (initial pH 6.35) within the first 24 hours of culture growth. The largest decrease in pH during this period was observed in cultures grown at 37 °C (pH 5.65), followed by 30 °C cultures (pH 5.76), 23 °C cultures (pH 5.85) and finally 16 °C cultures (pH 5.94). For cultures grown at 37 °C, a decrease in pH was followed by a gradual increase to a final pH of 7.56 at 216 hours. A similar trend was observed in 30 °C cultures, where a final pH of 7.4 was reached. Conversely, the pH for the 23 °C cultures increased gradually to a pH of 6.54 at 72 hours, which was followed by a gradual decrease in pH until a final value of pH 5.42 was reached at 216 hours. After 24 hours, cultures grown at 16 °C were not observed to undergo a pH increase, but decreased gradually in pH to a final value of pH 3.82 at 216 hours.



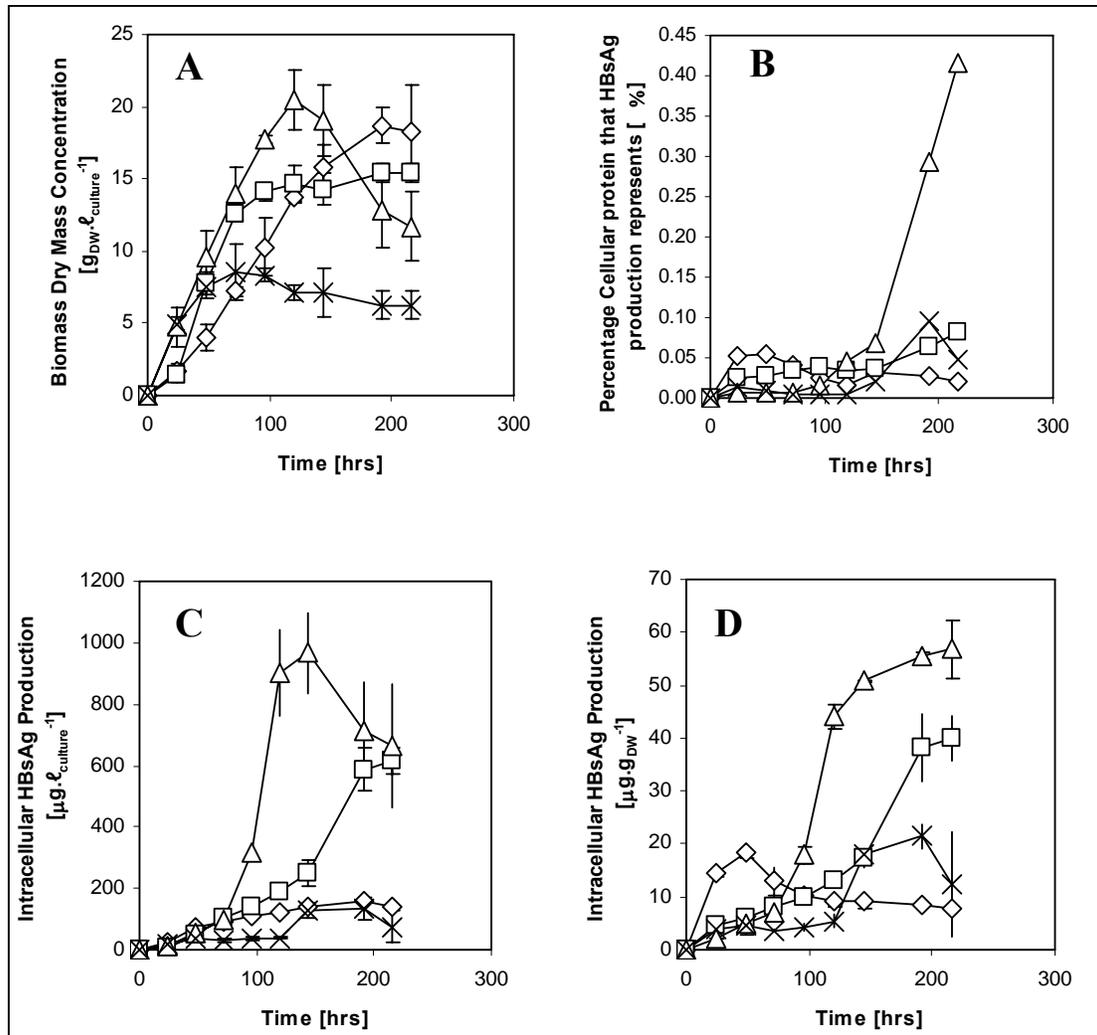


FIGURE 4.1: Effect of the bioprocessing parameter temperature (°C) in a batch culture (shake flask) on (A) Biomass dry mass concentration. Results are given in grams dry weight liter_{culture}⁻¹. (B) Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents. Results are given in % HBsAg. (C) Intracellular HBsAg production. Results are given in micro grams liter_{culture}⁻¹ and (D) micro grams per gram_{dry weight}⁻¹. Shown are data for (◇) 16 °C, (□) 23 °C, (△) 30 °C and (×) 37 °C. Results are based on three replications over a cultivation time of 220 hours.



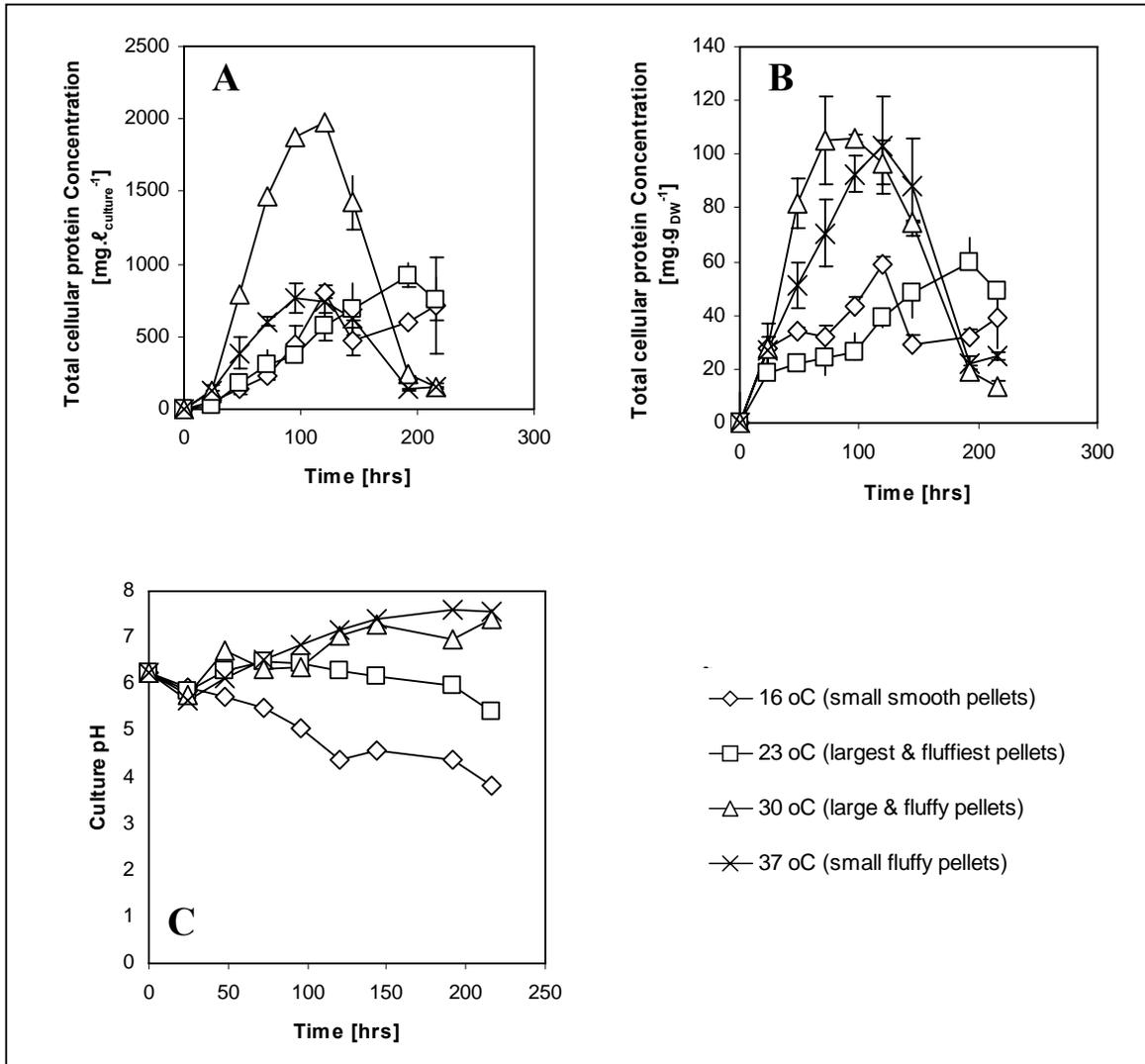


FIGURE 4.2: Effect of the bioprocessing parameter temperature (°C) in a batch culture (shake flask) on (A) Total cellular protein production. Results are given in milligrams liter_{culture}⁻¹ and (B) milligrams per gram_{dry weight}⁻¹. (C) Profile of culture pH. Shown are data for (◇) 16 °C, (□) 23 °C, (△) 30 °C and (×) 37 °C.

4.2.2.4 Effect of temperature on cell morphology

In cultures grown at 16 °C small pellets with a black inner core were formed within the first 36 hours. Pellet formation was noted to be small and smooth throughout the culture period, indicating suppressed growth of hyphal structures. Only at 216 hours, pellets were noted to become fluffy and the first signs of cell fragmentation were evident (fluffy bits of hyphae were



observed in the media). Due to a low biomass yield, the culture was observed to have a low viscosity.

At the culture temperature of 23 °C, an increase in pellet size was observed, in comparison to 16 °C cultures. These pellets were also described as small and white, and increased in size and number during the exponential growth phase. Similar to 16 °C cultures, the morphology of the pellets was also smooth, implying that growth of hyphae were restricted. After 120 hours, the media became stained with a dark orange colour, resulting in an orange-like coloured pellets. At 192 hours pellets became fluffy. At 216 hours cell fragmentation was observed.

The pellet formation of cultures at 30 °C was noted to be of similar magnitude to that observed in the 23 °C cultures, although a larger number of pellets were noted in the 30 °C cultures. Pellet morphology was fluffy, indicating the growth of protruding hyphal structures. This phenomenon became increasingly pronounced with culture age. At 96 hours cell fragmentation occurred and progressed until 216 hours. With culture age, media staining increased. At 120 hours, pellet formation could not be identified and after 216 hours the broth just contained cell fragments.

Cultures grown at 37 °C, could initially be described as small, fluffy and white. These pellets were smaller than and not as numerous as cultivations grown at 30 °C. Fragmentation was noted after just 48 hours and the pellets were noted to be an off-white/cream colour becoming increasingly fluffy with culture age. Media became rapidly darker with culture age. After 216 hours the broth was observed to contain only tiny pellet fragments.

FIG. 4.3 graphically depicts cell morphology on the macro-scale of shake flask cultivations grown under varying temperature conditions. Photographs were taken after just 24 hours.



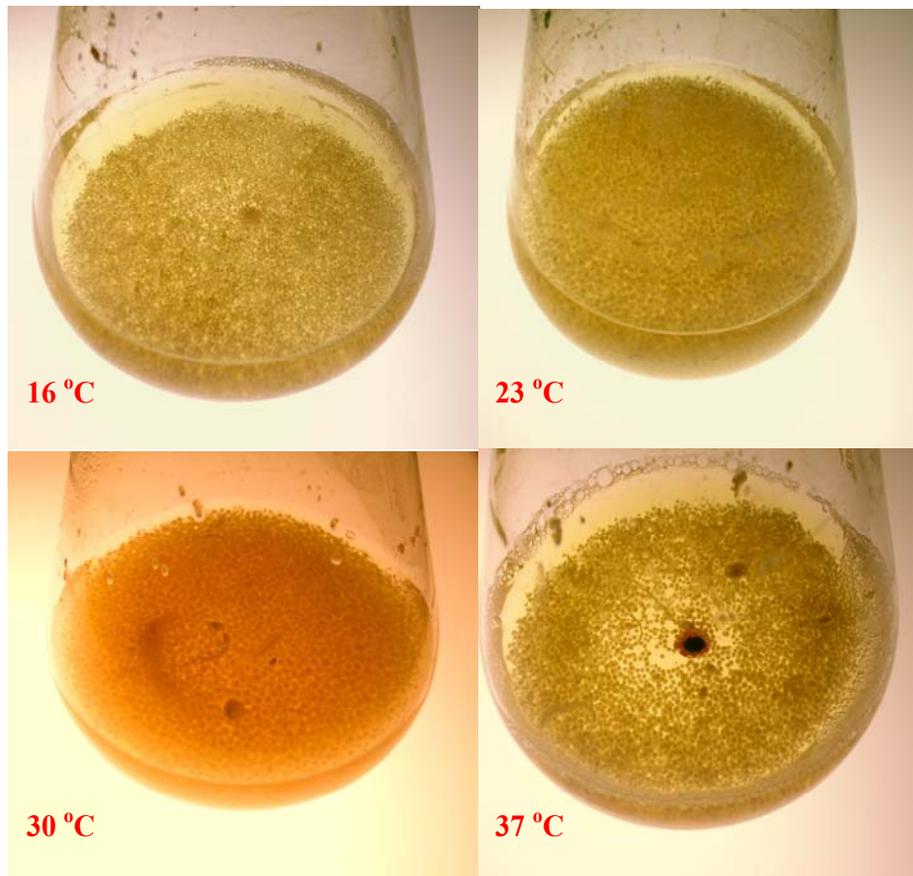


FIGURE 4.3: Effect of temperature on cell morphology. Photographs taken after 24 hours of growth at an initial inoculum concentration of 1×10^6 spores. mL^{-1} .

4.2.3 Inoculum concentration optimisation

4.2.3.1 Effect of inoculum concentration on biomass production

The analysis of biomass production over varying inoculum concentrations, illustrated in FIG. 4.4A, demonstrated an increased lag phase of 24 hours, at low inoculum concentrations of 10^3 and 10^5 spores. mL^{-1} . As the spore concentration increased to 10^6 and 10^8 spores. mL^{-1} , the lag phase was reduced to 12 hours and 6 hours, respectively. Similar specific growth rates were observed for all inoculum concentrations and were recorded to be in the range of 0.028 h^{-1} . However, biomass production levels varied significantly with the optimum of $20.5 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$



at 120 hours in cultures grown at 10^6 spores. mL^{-1} . Thereafter, cell death phase was evident in all cultures that progressed for the remainder of the cultivation.

4.2.3.2 Effect of inoculum concentration on protein production yield

- **Total protein production**

The analysis of specific total intracellular protein concentration (FIG. 4.5B) demonstrated a correlation with the change in inoculum concentration. With the increase in inoculum concentration, the specific production rate ($0.0346 \text{ mg.g}^{-1}_{\text{DW}}.\text{h}^{-1}$ at 10^3 spores/ml; $0.0416 \text{ mg.g}^{-1}_{\text{DW}}.\text{h}^{-1}$ at 10^5 spores/ml; $0.0627 \text{ mg.g}^{-1}_{\text{DW}}.\text{h}^{-1}$ at 10^6 spores/ml; $0.1021 \text{ mg.g}^{-1}_{\text{DW}}.\text{h}^{-1}$ at 10^8 spores. mL^{-1}) as well as the production levels of total intracellular protein. All cultures peaked at varying intervals, which was followed by a decrease in total intracellular protein concentration that corresponded with the cell death phase (FIG. 4.5B). An optimum specific total intracellular protein concentration of $135 \text{ mg.g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ at 120 hours was observed in cultures grown at 10^8 spores. mL^{-1} . The analysis of volumetric (FIG. 4.5A) total intracellular protein concentration indicated a clear resemblance to the biomass growth profile (FIG. 4.4A). Optimum levels of $2000 \text{ mg.l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 120 hours at an inoculum concentration of 10^6 spores. mL^{-1} was obtained.

- **HBsAg production**

The specific intracellular HBsAg production (FIG. 4.4D) was significantly low for all cultures until the 72nd hour. This was followed by a rapid increase in HBsAg production, where all cultures had a similar HBsAg production rate ($0.0386 \text{ }\mu\text{g.g}^{-1}_{\text{DW}}.\text{h}^{-1}$). Similar to the culture temperature experiments, specific HBsAg production was most efficient during the latter stages of the cultivation. Neither the rate nor the yield of the specific HBsAg production was directly dependent on inoculum concentration. Maximum specific HBsAg production of 59 and 57 $\mu\text{g.g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ at 216 hours was obtained by cultures grown at 10^5 and 10^6 spores. mL^{-1} , respectively. The volumetric HBsAg production followed similar trends to the biomass growth profile (FIG. 4.4C). Due to the high biomass concentrations obtained by cultures grown at 10^6 spores. mL^{-1} ,



optimum volumetric HBsAg production of $1000 \mu\text{g}\cdot\ell^{-1}$ at 144 hours was obtained at these inoculum concentrations.

- **Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents**

Similar to the culture temperature experiments, the significance of the percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents (FIG. 4.4B) demonstrated the stability and robustness of the HBsAg particles during the latter stages of the cultivation. A distinct relation between inoculum concentration and the percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents was also evident at 192 and 216 hours. The ratio increased with the increase in inoculum concentration from 10^3 and 10^6 spores. $\text{m}\ell^{-1}$. Thereafter, a rapid decrease in the percentage HBsAg was observed at 10^8 spores. $\text{m}\ell^{-1}$. Thus, cultures grown at 10^6 spores. $\text{m}\ell^{-1}$ obtained the highest ratio of percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents of 0.42% at 216 hours.

4.2.3.3 Effect of inoculum concentration on culture pH

The analysis of the culture pH profile in relation to varying inoculum concentration illustrated in FIG. 4.5C, demonstrated a sudden decrease in pH (initial pH 6.5) within the first 24 hours of culture growth. The largest decrease in pH during this period was observed to be cultures grown at 10^3 spores. $\text{m}\ell^{-1}$ (pH 4.28), followed by 10^5 spores. $\text{m}\ell^{-1}$ (pH 4.5), 10^8 (pH 5.3) and finally 10^6 spores. $\text{m}\ell^{-1}$ (pH 5.76). Thereafter, all cultures rapidly increased to a pH above 6 at 72 hours, where the culture pH stabilised at approximately 7 for the remainder of the cultivation.



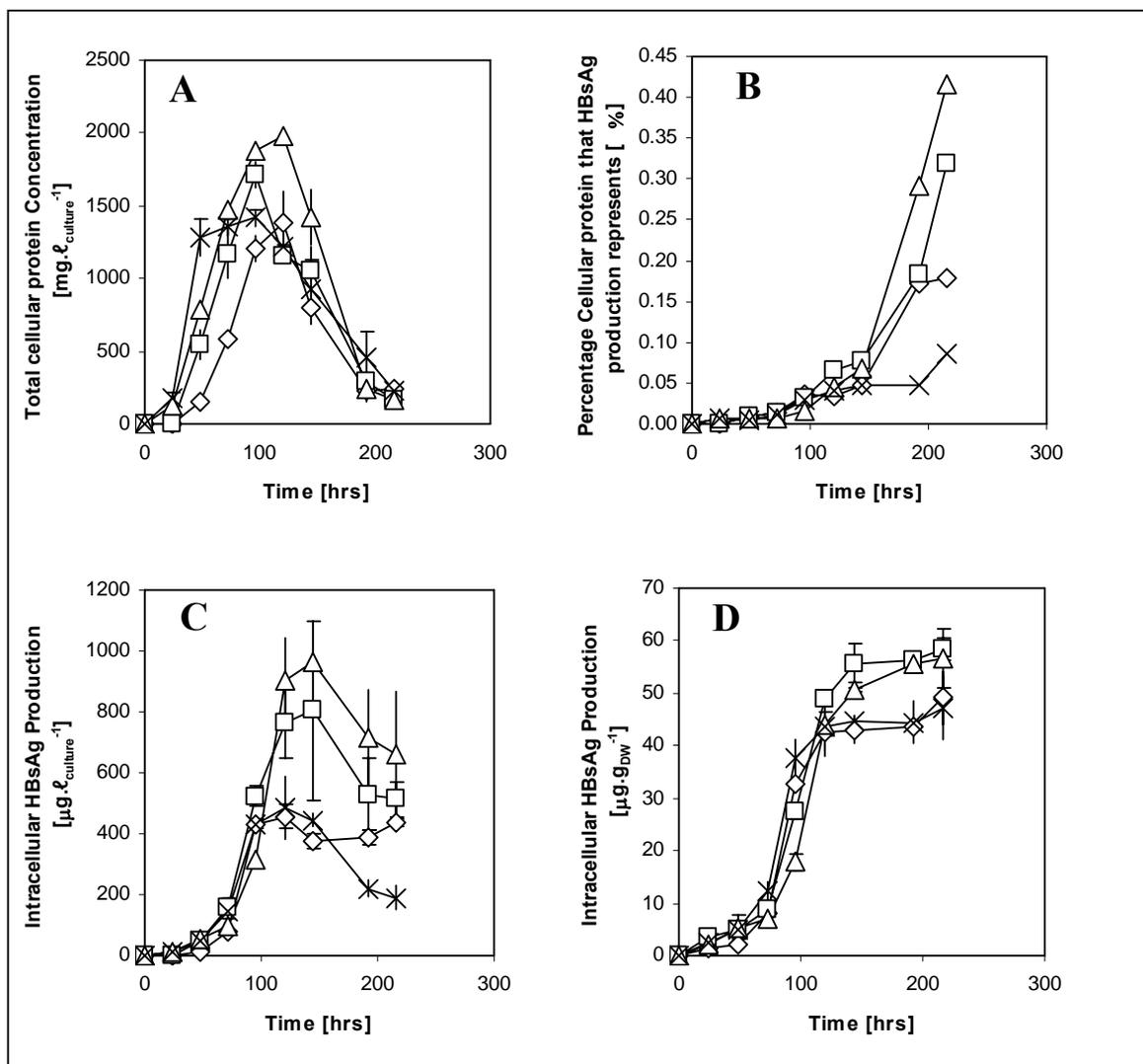


FIGURE 4.4: Effect of the bioprocessing parameter inoculum concentration (spores/ml) in a batch culture (shake flask) on (A) Biomass dry mass concentration. Results are given in grams dry weight liter_{culture}⁻¹. (B) Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents. Results are given in % HBsAg. (C) Intracellular HBsAg production. Results are given in micro grams liter_{culture}⁻¹ and (D) micro grams per gram_{dry weight}⁻¹. Shown are data for (◇) 1×10^3 spores/ml, (□) 1×10^5 spores/ml, (△) 1×10^6 spores/ml and (×) 1×10^8 spores/ml. Results are based on three replications over a cultivation time of 220 hours.



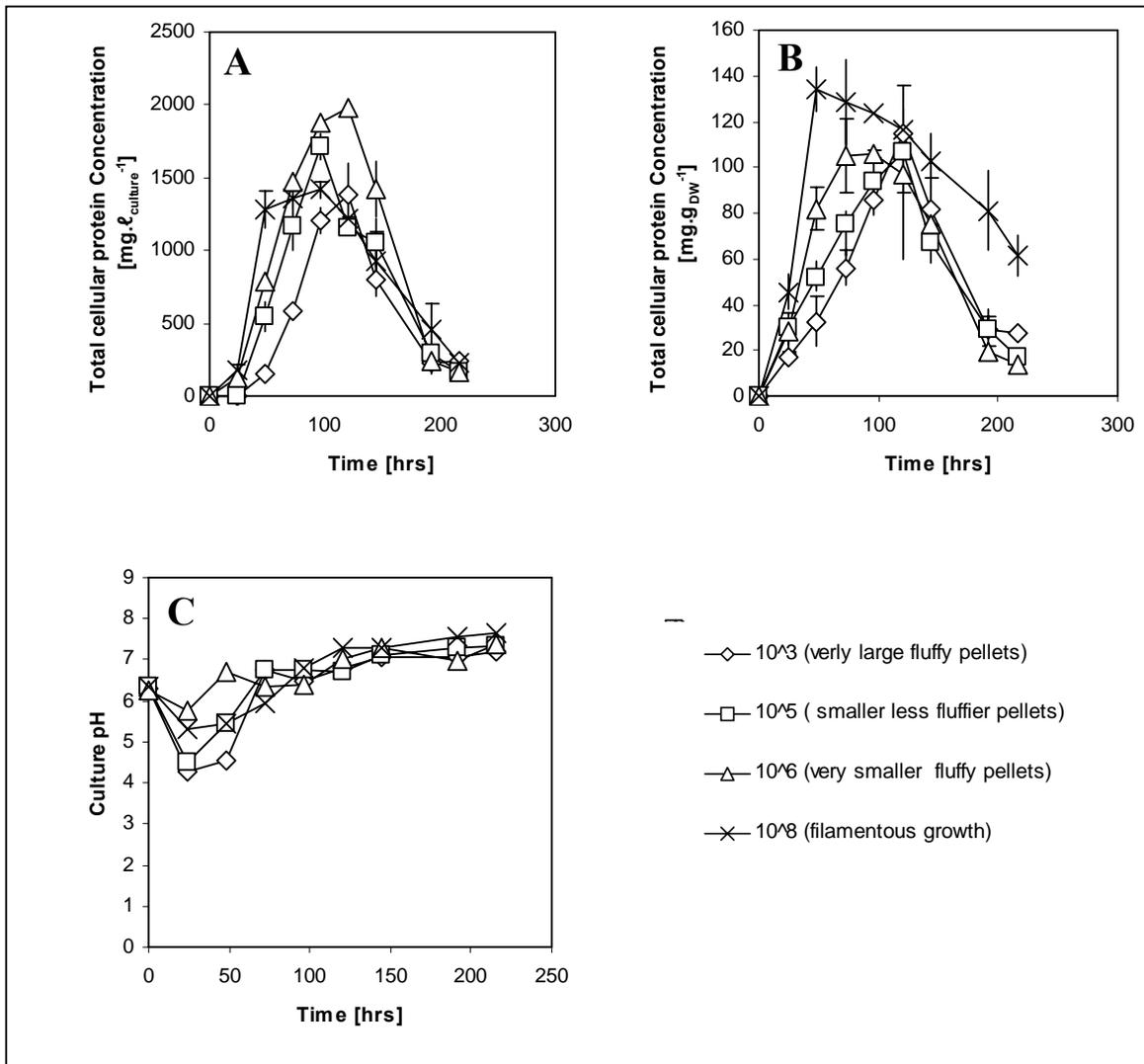


FIGURE 4.5: Effect of the bioprocessing parameter inoculum concentration (spores/ml) in a batch culture (shake flask) on (A) Total cellular protein production. Results are given in milligrams liter_{culture}⁻¹ and (B) milligrams per gram_{dry weight}⁻¹. (C) Profile of culture pH. Shown are data for (◇) 1×10³ spores/ml, (□)1×10⁵ spores/ml, (△)1×10⁶ spores/ml and (×)1×10⁸ spores/ml. Results are based on three replications over a cultivation time of 220 hours.



4.2.3.4 Effect of inoculum concentration on broth morphology

Cell morphology was affected by inoculum concentration. In cultures grown at 10^3 spores.m ℓ^{-1} , pellet formation was observed. Pellets grew very large in size but did not significantly increase in number after 72 hours. During this period, pellets were observed to be very large, white and fluffy (suggesting long and numerous hyphae structures). After 96 hours, the media started to darken and the first signs of cell fragmentation were evident. After 192 hours, pellets could not be identified, and after 216 hours the broth was observed to contain only bits of cell fragments.

10^5 spores.m ℓ^{-1} cultures also formed pellets. Pellets were smaller in size but present in larger numbers. After 40 hours, pellets were large, white and fluffy (suggesting long hyphae structures). After 72 hours, the first signs of cell fragmentation were evident, broth became darker and pellet colour changed to a cream colour. Cell fragmentation increased as the culture age increased. After 192 hours pellet formation could not be identified in the culture, and the broth could be described as bits of cell fragments in suspension.

In cultures grown at 10^6 spores.m ℓ^{-1} , pellet growth was observed. Pellets were very small in comparison to the above mentioned cultures and were in large numbers. Pellet morphology was noted to be fluffy and became increasingly pronounced with culture age. At 96 hours fragmentation occurred. As the fragmentation increased, media colour darkened. At 120 hours, pellet formation could not be identified in the culture, and after 192 hours the broth could be described as bits of cell fragments in suspension.

10^8 spores.m ℓ^{-1} cultures formed filamentous clumps. At 24 hours, dispersed mycelia was noted and as the culture age increased these mycelia formed thick filamentous clumps. The biomass production levels in this culture was not high. Cell fragmentation was observed after 72 hours, after which the rapid disintegration of clumps was observed until just fragments of dispersed mycelia was visible in the broth at 216 hours. The colour of the media remained black throughout the culturing period, which indicated that many of the spores did not germinate.



FIG. 4.6 graphically depicts cell morphology on the macro-scale of shake flask cultivations grown under varying inoculum concentrations. Photographs were taken after just 24 hours.

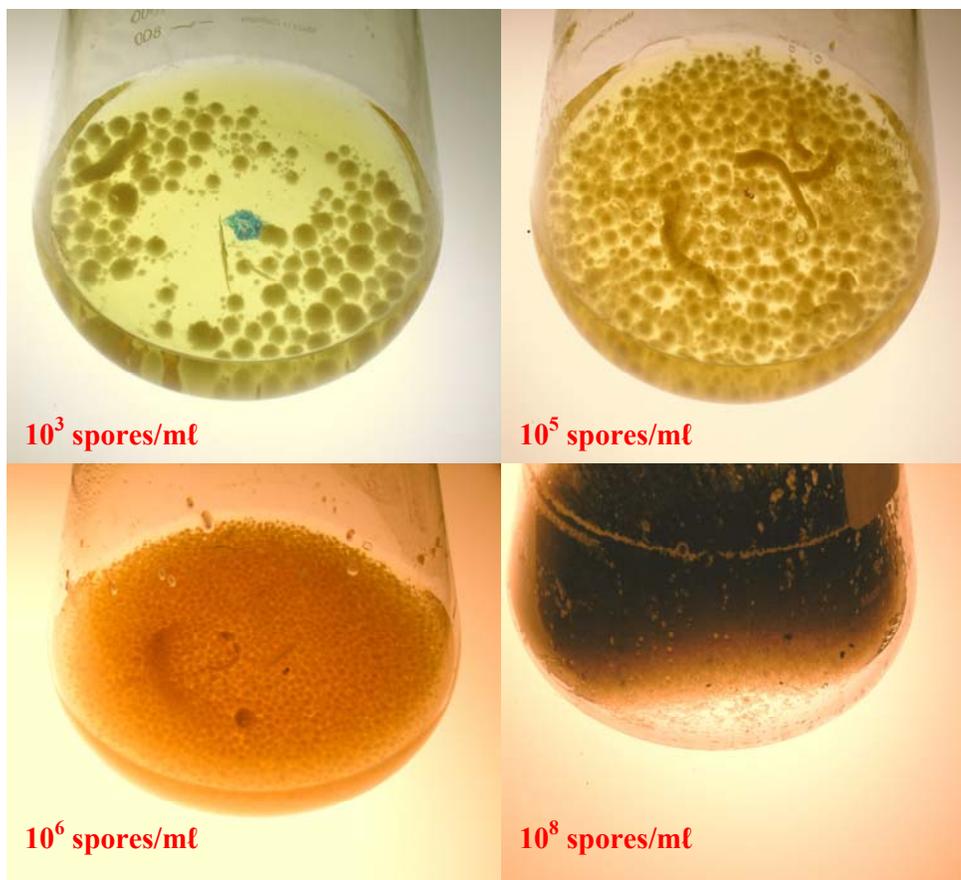


FIGURE 4.6: Effect of inoculum concentration on cell morphology. Photographs taken after 24 hours of growth at a cultivation temperature of 30 °C.



4.3 Bioreactor cultivations

4.3.1 Introduction

The aim of the bioreactor cultivations was to determine the effects of agitation, dO_2 concentration and culture pH on mycelial morphology, culture growth, and homologous as well as VLP (HBsAg) concentration levels and the glucose utilisation and specific oxygen uptake rates. Special interest was also taken in the potential interdependent relationship existing between agitation and dO_2 concentration. In cases where high levels of HBsAg production was measured in the cytoplasmic fraction of the microorganism, further analysis of extracellular HBsAg production was performed on the broth supernatant. All processed data illustrated in these graphs are available in a tabulated form in Appendix C & D.

4.3.2 Agitation rate optimisation

4.3.2.1 Effect of agitation rate on biomass yield

High agitation intensity (600 rpm) demonstrated the highest biomass specific growth rate (0.062 h^{-1}). Lower biomass specific growth rates of 0.051 h^{-1} and 0.043 h^{-1} were observed at agitation rates of 100 rpm and 350 rpm, respectively (TABLE. 4.1). High maximum biomass concentrations of $12.9 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ (60 hours) and $12.8 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ (42 hours) were recorded at agitation rates of 100 rpm and 600 rpm, respectively, while maximum growth at 350 rpm was significantly less at $7.8 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ (48 hours) (FIG. 4.7A).

4.3.2.2 Effect of agitation rate on protein production yield

- **Total protein production**

No direct correlation between specific total intracellular protein concentration and agitation rate was observed (FIG. 4.8A, B). Maximum concentrations for all cultures were obtained at



approximately 90 hours. This was followed by a decrease in total intracellular protein concentration that corresponded with the cell death phase. An optimum specific total intracellular protein concentration of $150 \text{ mg.g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ at 90 hours was observed in cultures grown at 100 rpm (FIG. 4.8B). Cultures grown at 600 rpm also obtained high specific yields of $120 \text{ mg.g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ after 90 hours, while at 350 rpm specific concentration was reduced to $100 \text{ mg.g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ after 90 hours. The analysis of volumetric total intracellular protein concentration (FIG. 4.8A) indicated a clear resemblance to the biomass growth profile (FIG. 4.7A). Optimum levels of $1250 \text{ mg.l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 82 hours with an agitation rate of 100 rpm was obtained.

- **HBsAg production**

HBsAg production was localised intracellularly (intracellular membrane + cytoplasmic fraction) (FIG. 7C, D). No intracellular HBsAg production was observed during the first 37 hours of cultivation, followed by a sudden exponential increase. The intracellular HBsAg specific production rate ($\mu\text{g.g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}.\text{h}^{-1}$) increased with the increase in agitation intensity (TABLE 4.1). However, maximum volumetric HBsAg production levels increased with the decrease in agitation intensity (FIG. 7C). In cultures grown at 100 rpm, optimum intracellular HBsAg levels of $3600 \mu\text{g.l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ (82 hours) were obtained. Cultures grown at 350 rpm demonstrated maximum levels of approximately $1000 \mu\text{g.l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$, while volumetric yields were reduced to $600 \mu\text{g.l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 600 rpm.

Although the majority of HBsAg production was associated with the intracellular membrane fraction, production of HBsAg in the intracellular cytoplasmic fraction could be achieved by varying agitation rates. No significant amount of cytoplasmic associated HBsAg (i.e. less than $25 \mu\text{g.l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) was observed in cultures grown at 350 rpm and 600 rpm (data not shown). However, cultures grown at 100 rpm demonstrated significant amounts of HBsAg production in both the intracellular membrane ($3000 \mu\text{g.l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) and cytoplasmic fraction ($584 \mu\text{g.l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$). In these cultures the HBsAg concentration in the membrane and cytoplasmic fractions peaked after 82 hours, followed by a rapid decrease in VLP concentration and the release of significant amounts of HBsAg into the culture supernatant (FIG. 6). The highest level of $970 \mu\text{g.l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ of HBsAg in



the extracellular medium was achieved at 160 hours, while the volumetric HBsAg levels of the membrane and cytoplasmic fractions were reduced to 557 and 156 $\mu\text{g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ respectively, during the corresponding cultivation period (see FIG. 4.18).

- **Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents**

In cultures where agitation rates were varied, the percentage of total cellular protein represented by HBsAg (%) increased steadily with cultivation time (FIG. 7B), emphasising the stability, robustness and recalcitrance of the HBsAg VLPs to proteolytic degradation. The stability of the HBsAg VLP also increased with the decrease in agitation intensity. At the highest levels, the percentage HBsAg decreased from 0.45 % to 0.18 % of the total cellular protein with the increase in agitation intensity.

4.3.2.3 Effect of agitation rate on culture glucose concentration

No direct correlation between agitation intensity and the rate of specific glucose consumption ($\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$) of the microorganism was noted (TABLE 4.1). Cultures grown under high agitation intensity of 600 rpm had the highest specific glucose consumption rate of $0.214 \text{ g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$. Cultures grown at low agitation intensities of 100 rpm recorded levels of $0.147 \text{ g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$, while cultures grown at an intermediate level of 350 rpm had the lowest specific glucose consumption rate of $0.127 \text{ g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$. Glucose was completely consumed in all cultures: At 600 rpm glucose was depleted after 42 hours, while cultures at 350 rpm and 100 rpm glucose were depleted after 50 and 48 hours, respectively (data not shown).

4.3.2.4 Effect of agitation rate on culture pH

The analysis of the culture pH profile in relation to varying agitation rates (FIG. 4.19C), demonstrated a sudden decrease in pH (initial pH 6.5) within the first 28 hours of culture growth. The largest decrease in pH during this period was observed to be cultures grown at 600 rpm (pH 3.6 at 17 hours), followed by 350 rpm (pH 4.3 at 28 Hours), and finally 100 rpm (pH 5.1 at 22



hours). Thereafter, the culture pH of all cultures rapidly increased and stabilised between the hours of 58 and 82. Cultures grown at 100 rpm stabilised at a pH value of approximately 8, while cultures grown at 350 rpm and 600 rpm stabilised at a pH value around 7.4 and 6.7, respectively.

4.3.2.5 Effect of agitation rate on broth morphology

From FIG. 4.9, pellet formation was observed in cultures grown at 100 rpm and grew greater in size compared to cultures grown at higher agitation rates. The fluffiness of the pellets (indicating the growth of hyphal structures) became increasingly pronounced with culture age. Pellet colour turned from a white to a brown colour after 48 hours. Cell fragmentation occurred at 103 hours. As cell fragmentation increased in these cultures, biomass as well as broth viscosity decreased.

In cultures grown at 350 rpm, pellet formation was also observed, but slightly smaller and less fluffy compared to cultures grown at 100 rpm. Pellet discoloration was observed and cell fragmentation was evident after a culture age of 40 hours, progressively increasing for the remainder of the cultivation.

In cultures grown at high agitation rates of 600 rpm, the broth was observed to consist of brown filamentous clumps. Biomass concentration rapidly increased during the exponential growth phase. With culture age, filamentous clumps became dispersed with the action of cell fragmentation. Cell fragmentation was evident from as early as the 30th hour. This phenomenon progressively increased during the latter stages of the cultivation and as a result biomass concentration decreased from the 58th hour onwards.

4.3.2.6 Effect of agitation rate on the specific oxygen uptake rate (SOUR)

The maximum specific oxygen uptake rate (max. SOUR; $\text{mmolO}_2\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) of the microorganism had no distinct relation to the agitation intensity (TABLE 4.1). Cultures grown at 100 rpm and 600 rpm obtained high SOURs ($7.13 \text{ mmolO}_2\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ and $6.41 \text{ mmolO}_2\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, respectively), while 350 rpm cultures obtained the lowest ($4.44 \text{ mmolO}_2\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$).



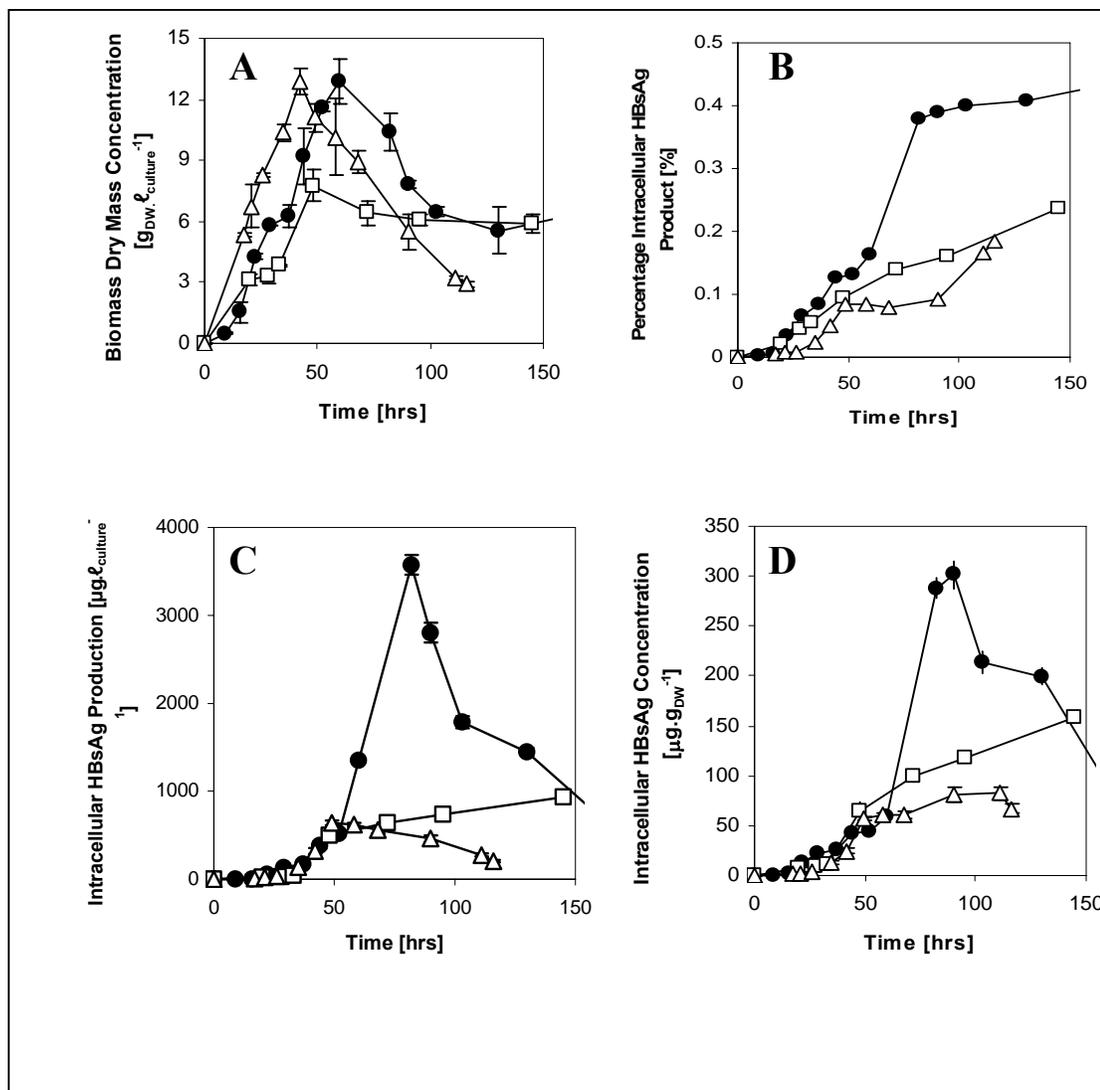


FIGURE 4.7: Effect of the bioprocessing parameter agitation (rpm) in a batch culture (bioreactor) on (A) Biomass dry mass concentration. Results are given in grams dry weight liter_{culture}⁻¹. (B) Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents. Results are given in % HBsAg. (C) Intracellular HBsAg production. Results are given in micro grams liter_{culture}⁻¹ and (D) micro grams per gram_{dry weight}⁻¹. Shown are data for (●) 100 rpm, (□) 350 rpm, (△) 600 rpm. Results are based on two replications over a cultivation time of 150 hours. Points without error bars have an associated error that is < 10 % of the value of the point.



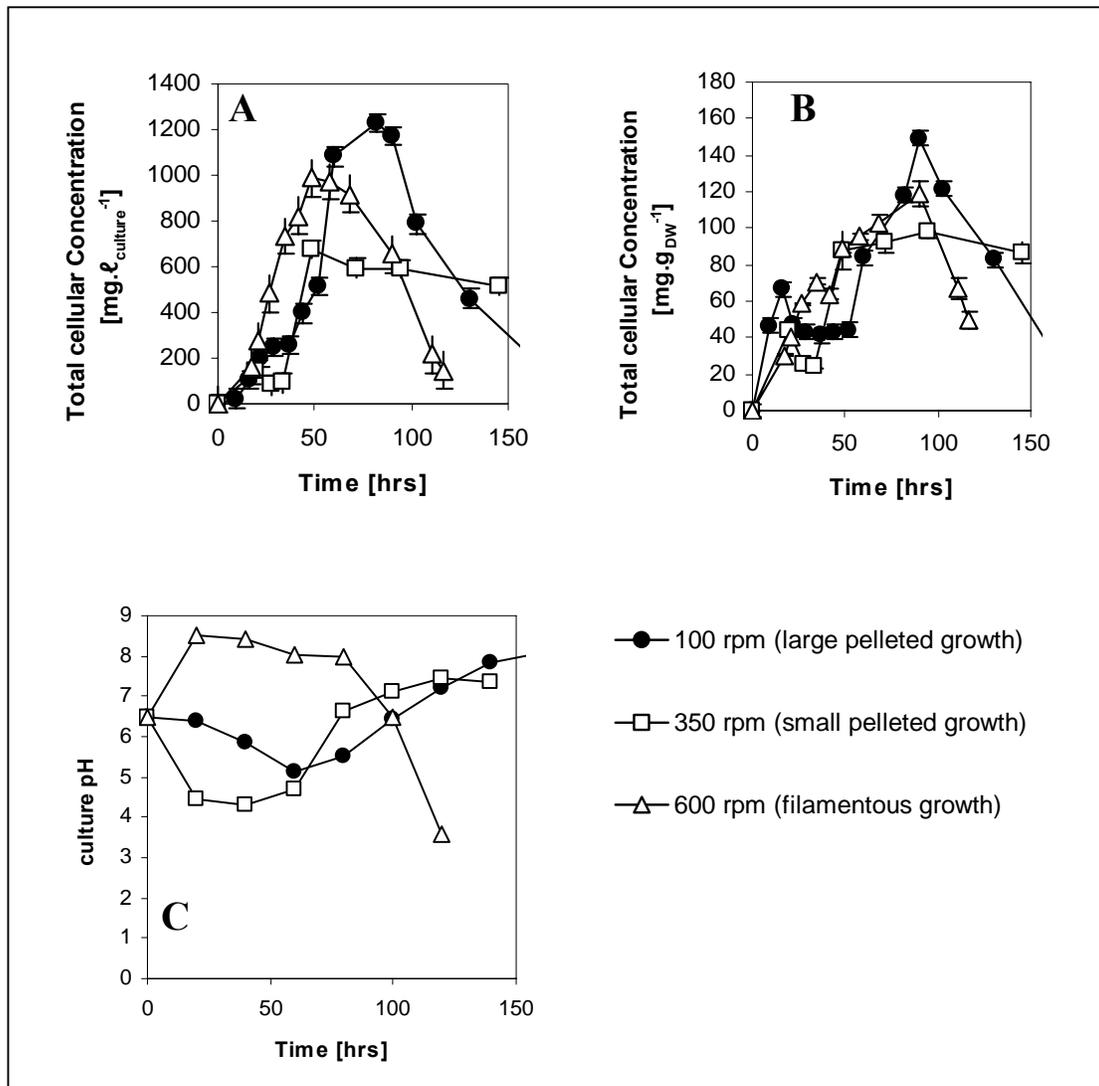


FIGURE 4.8: Effect of the bioprocessing parameter agitation (rpm) in a batch culture (bioreactor) on (A) Total cellular protein production. Results are given in milligrams liter_{culture}⁻¹ and (B) milligrams per gram_{dry weight}⁻¹. (C) Profile of culture pH. Shown are data for (●) 100 rpm, (□) 350 rpm, (△) 600 rpm. Results are based on two replications over a cultivation time of 150 hours. Points without error bars have an associated error that is < 10 % of the value of the point.



TABLE 4.1: Calculated yields and specific rate parameters from the three different agitation intensities



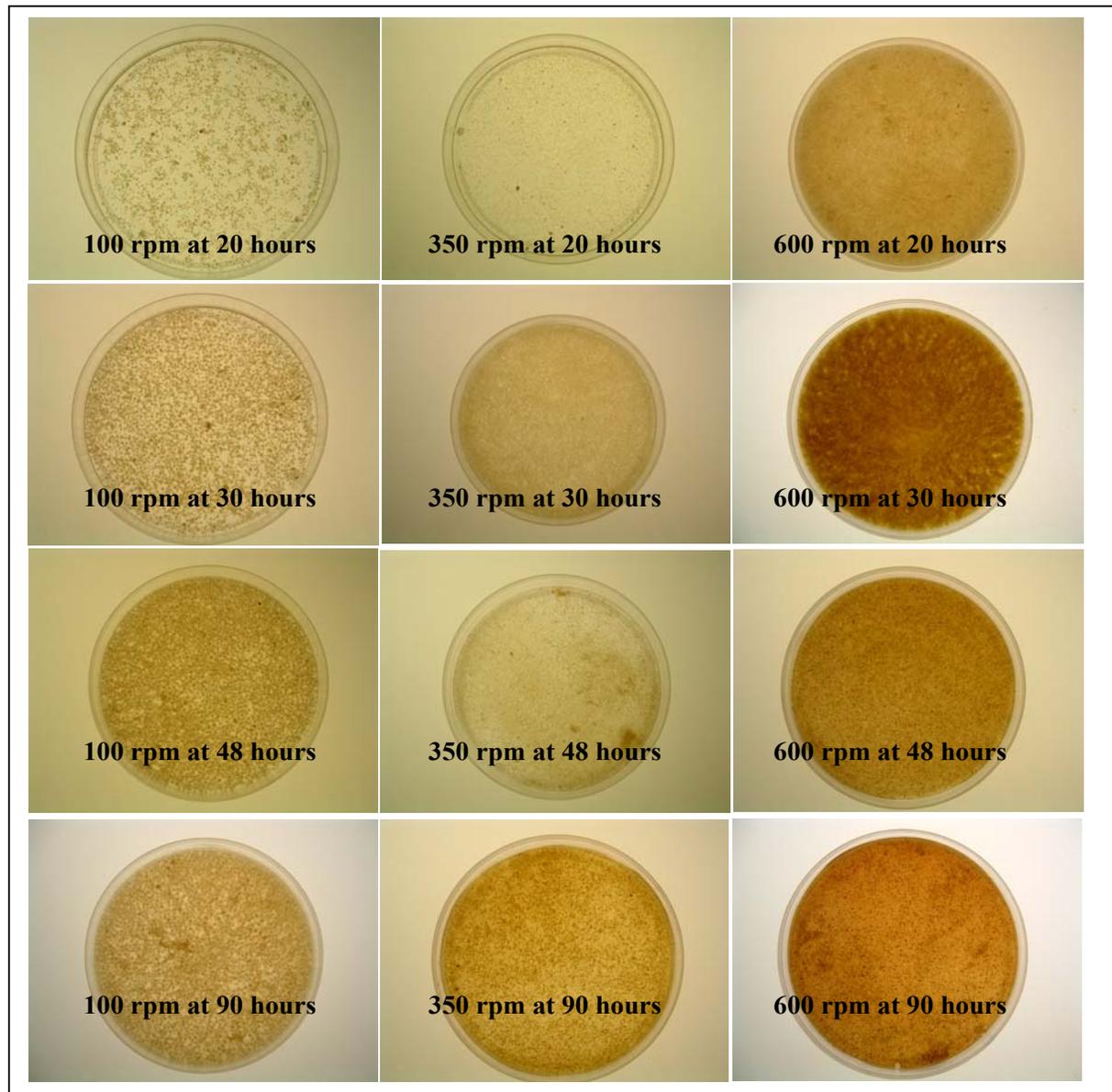


FIGURE 4.10: Effect of agitation on cell morphology. All cultivations were controlled at 50% dO_2 concentration.



4.3.3 dO₂ concentration optimisation

4.3.3.1 Effect of dO₂ concentration on biomass yield

A distinct relation between dO₂ concentration and the biomass specific growth rate was observed (TABLE. 4.2), where the specific growth rate (h⁻¹) increased with an increase in culture dO₂ concentration. However, the highest biomass production levels were obtained at the lower oxygenation levels under oxygen-limited conditions (2 % dO₂ concentration; 11.9 g_{DW}·ℓ_{culture}⁻¹ after 101 hours) and intermediate oxygen levels (25 % dO₂ concentration; 11.1 g_{DW}·ℓ_{culture}⁻¹ after 72 hours) (FIG. 4.10A). Cultures grown under oxygen-rich conditions of 95 % and 50 % dO₂ obtained lower biomass concentrations of 9.6 g_{DW}·ℓ_{culture}⁻¹ (55 hours) and 7.8 g_{DW}·ℓ_{culture}⁻¹ (48 hours), respectively.

4.3.3.2 Effect of dO₂ concentration on protein production yield

- **Total protein production**

No relation between specific total (membrane associated) intracellular protein concentration and dO₂ concentration was observed (FIG. 4.11B). All cultures obtained similar maximum specific yields between 100 and 80 mg·g_{DW}⁻¹. These production levels were observed to stabilise at these levels for most of the cultivation period. The analysis of volumetric total intracellular protein concentration (FIG. 4.11A) indicated a clear resemblance to the biomass growth profile (FIG. 4.10A). Optimum levels of 1020 mg·ℓ_{culture}⁻¹ at 86 hours without dO₂ control were recorded and was followed by cultures grown at 25% dO₂ concentration, 930 mg·ℓ_{culture}⁻¹ at 72 hours.

The levels of intracellular cytoplasmic associated total protein production were not affected by dO₂ concentration. No significant amount of specific as well as volumetric production was observed in all dO₂ concentration varied cultures (data not shown). Recorded values were observed to be below the range of 25 mg·g_{DW}⁻¹ and 200 mg·ℓ_{culture}⁻¹ through out the cultivation.



- **HBsAg production**

Similar to cultures grown at various agitation intensities, no intracellular HBsAg production was observed during the first 35 hours of cultivation, followed by a sudden exponential increase (FIG. 4.10C, D). VLP production was most efficient in cultures grown at intermediate oxygen levels (25 % dO₂), with optimum intracellular HBsAg levels of 1710 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ (72 hours). Under oxygen limited conditions (2 % dO₂) and oxygen-rich conditions (50 % and 95 % dO₂ concentration), HBsAg production was significantly reduced. The maximum specific rate of intracellular HBsAg production in cultures grown at 25 % dO₂ concentration was 0.116 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (TABLE 4.2). Cultures grown at 50 % dO₂ concentration had lower rates (0.104 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$), while cultures grown at 2 % and 95 % had the lowest HBsAg specific production rates of 0.072 and 0.090 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, respectively (TABLE 4.2).

- **Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents**

The percentage of total cellular protein represented by HBsAg (%) increased steadily with cultivation time (FIG. 4.10B), emphasising the stability, robustness and recalcitrance of the HBsAg VLPs to proteolytic degradation. The highest levels were observed in cultivation of intermediate oxygen levels and low levels were obtained in oxygen rich/limited cultivations. Cultures grown without dO₂ control obtained the optimum ratio of 0.31% at 52 hours. This was followed by cultivations grown at 25% dO₂ concentration at 0.24% at 145 hours, 50% cultivations of 0.182% at 145 hours, 2% cultivations of 0.172% at 140 hours, and 95% cultivations of 0.16% at 101 hours. Insignificant levels of intracellular cytoplasmic associated production ratios were recorded in all cultures. Values in the range of below 0.04% were observed (data not shown).

4.3.3.3 Effect of dO₂ concentration on culture glucose concentration

The specific glucose consumption rate ($\text{g}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) increased with an increase in dO₂ concentration (TABLE 4.2). Glucose was depleted after 43 hours in cultures grown at 95 % dO₂,



while cultures grown at 50 %, 25 % and 2 % dO₂ concentration depleted the supply of glucose by the 50th, 54th and 64th hour, respectively (data not shown).

4.3.3.4 Effect of dO₂ concentration on culture pH

The analysis of the culture pH profile in relation to varying dO₂ concentrations illustrated in FIG. 11C, clearly demonstrated a sudden decrease in pH (initial pH 6.5) within the first 40 hours of culture growth at 50 % and 95 % dO₂. Thereafter, the culture pH of all cultivations increased and stabilised at various levels. Cultures grown at 2% dO₂ concentrations stabilised at a pH value of approximately 6. Similarly, cultures grown at 25% and 50% dO₂ concentrations stabilised at approximately pH 7, while at 95% pH stabilisation was measured at approximately 6.5.

4.3.3.5 Effect of dO₂ concentrations on broth morphology

From FIG. 4.12, filamentous formation was observed in cultures grown at 2% dO₂ concentration, which was noted to form large clumps as the culture age increased. No broth or cell discoloration was evident throughout the cultivation, but cell fragmentation occurred at 52 hours and was seen to progressively increase for the remainder of the cultivation. High biomass levels were associated with filamentous clump formation. With culture age and the action of cell fragmentation, filamentous clumps became increasingly dispersed.

In cultures grown at 25% dO₂ concentration, pellet growth was observed. The pellets were very small in size and the pronounced fluffiness suggested long hyphae. Discoloration of broth and cells was noted, as pellets being initially white gradually changed to a brown/orange colour. Cell fragmentation was observed after 48 hours and was seen to progressively increase for the remainder of the cultivation.

In cultures grown at 50% dO₂ concentration (not illustrated in fig), pellet formation was observed. The fluffiness of the pellets was considerably less pronounced when compared to cultures grown of lesser dO₂ concentration. Similarly, to cultures grown at 25%, pellet coloration



was observed and cell fragmentation was evident after a culture age of 40 hours. This phenomenon increased rapidly during the remainder of the cultivation.

In cultures grown at high dO_2 concentrations of 95%, the broth was observed to consist of very small pellets. Pellets were smooth in texture, suggesting a significant reduction in hyphae length and number). After 34 hours the broth was seen to change to a dark brown/orange colour and cell fragmentation was observed. These phenomena were seen to rapidly increase during the remainder of the cultivation.

4.3.3.6 Effect of dO_2 concentrations on specific oxygen uptake rate (SOUR)

The maximum SOUR ($\text{mmol}_{O_2} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$) of the microorganism had no significant relation to the culture dO_2 concentration (TABLE 4.2). Cultures grown at intermediate culture dO_2 concentration (25 %) obtained the highest maximum SOUR ($6.45 \text{ mmol}_{O_2} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$). Under oxygen limited conditions (2 % dO_2) and oxygen-rich conditions (50 % and 95 % dO_2) the SOUR of the microorganism was significantly lower (TABLE 4.2).



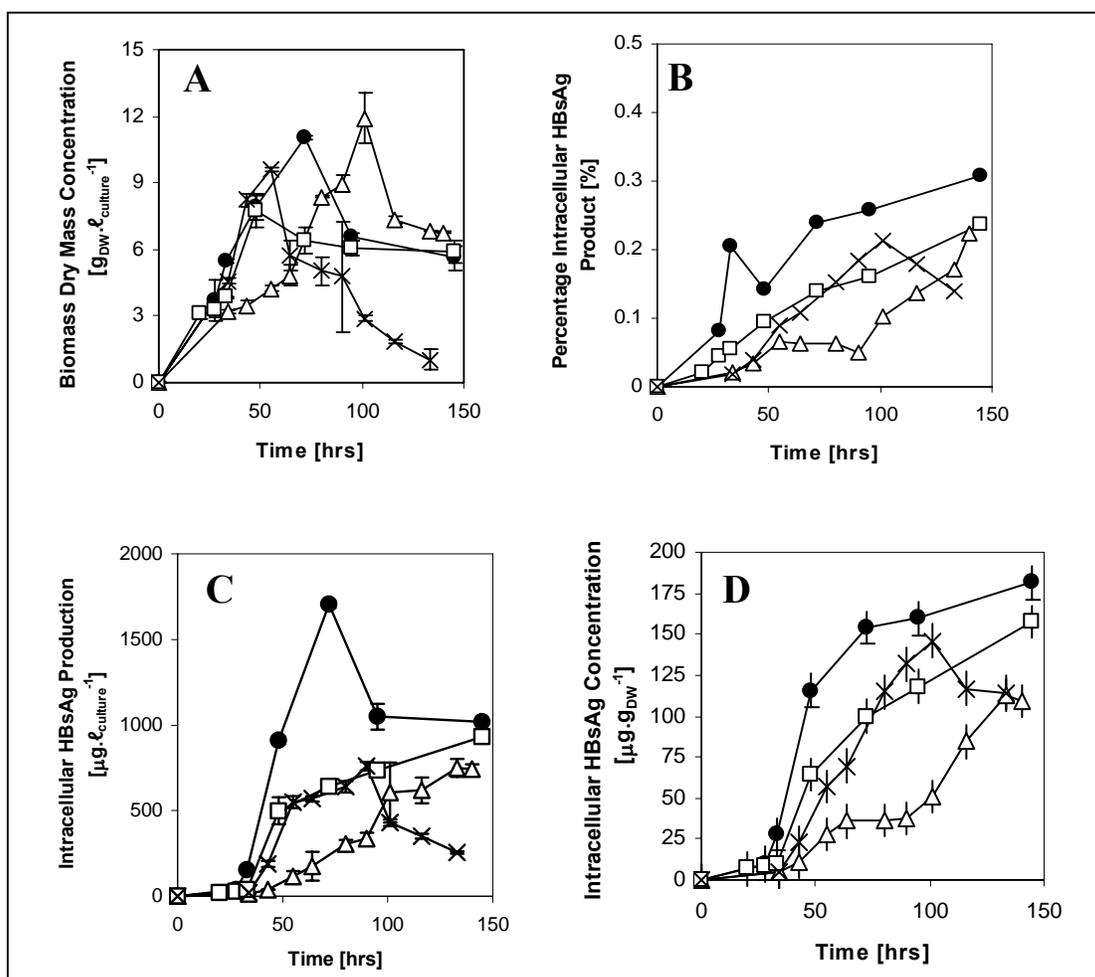


FIGURE 4.11: Effect of the bioprocessing parameter dissolved oxygen concentration (dO₂ %) in a batch culture (bioreactor) on (A) Biomass dry mass concentration. Results are given in grams dry weight liter_{culture}⁻¹. (B) Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents. Results are given in % HBsAg. (C) Intracellular HBsAg production. Results are given in micro grams liter_{culture}⁻¹ and (D) micro grams per gram_{dry weight}⁻¹. Shown are data for (Δ) 2 dO₂ %, (●) 25 dO₂ %, (□) 50 dO₂ %, (×) 95 dO₂ %. Points without error bars have an associated error that is < 10 % of the value of the point.



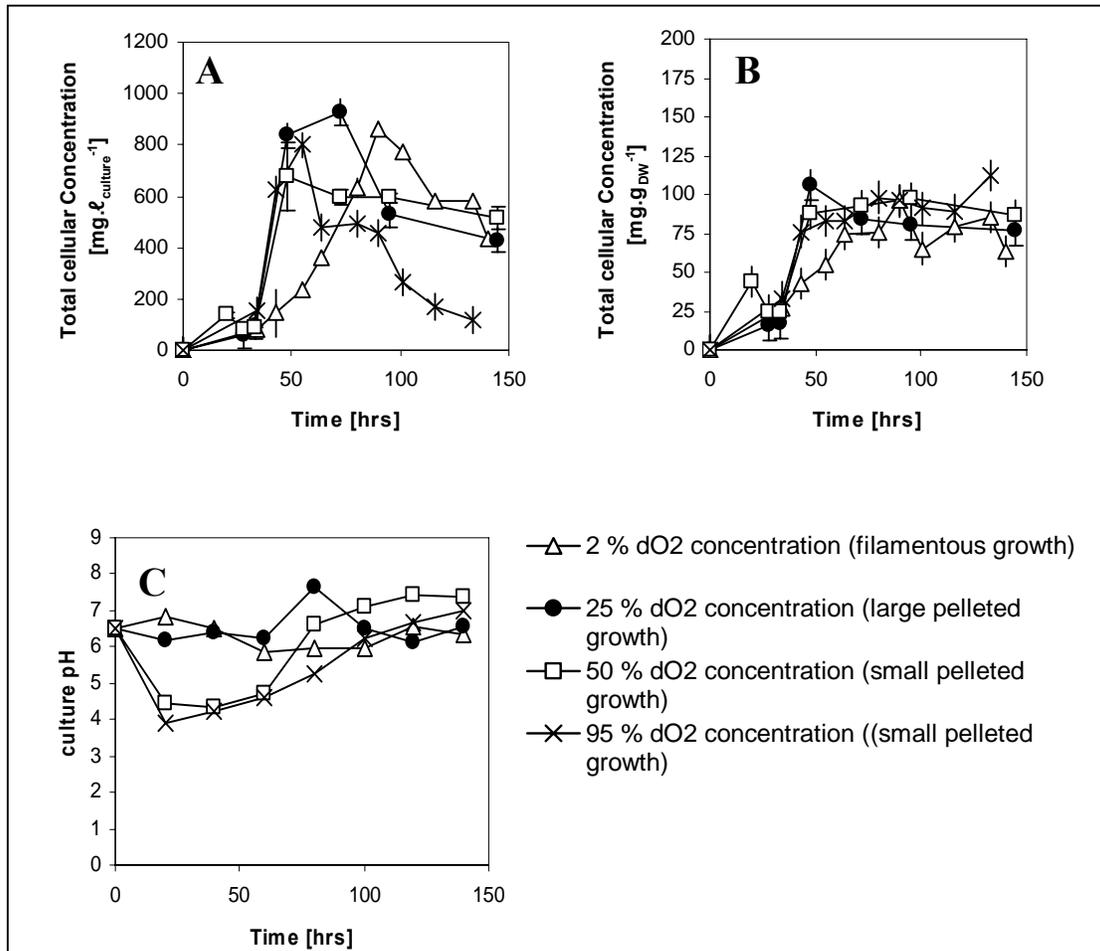


FIGURE 4.13: Effect of the bioprocessing parameter dissolved oxygen concentration (dO_2 %) in a batch culture (bioreactor) on (A) Total cellular protein production. Results are given in milligrams liter $_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ and (B) milligrams per gram $_{\text{dry weight}}^{-1}$. (C) Profile of culture pH. Shown are data for (Δ) 2 dO_2 %, (\bullet) 25 dO_2 %, (\square) 50 dO_2 %, (\times) 95 dO_2 %. Points without error bars have an associated error that is < 10 % of the value of the point.



TABLE 4.2: Calculated yields and specific rate parameters from the four different dissolved oxygen concentrations



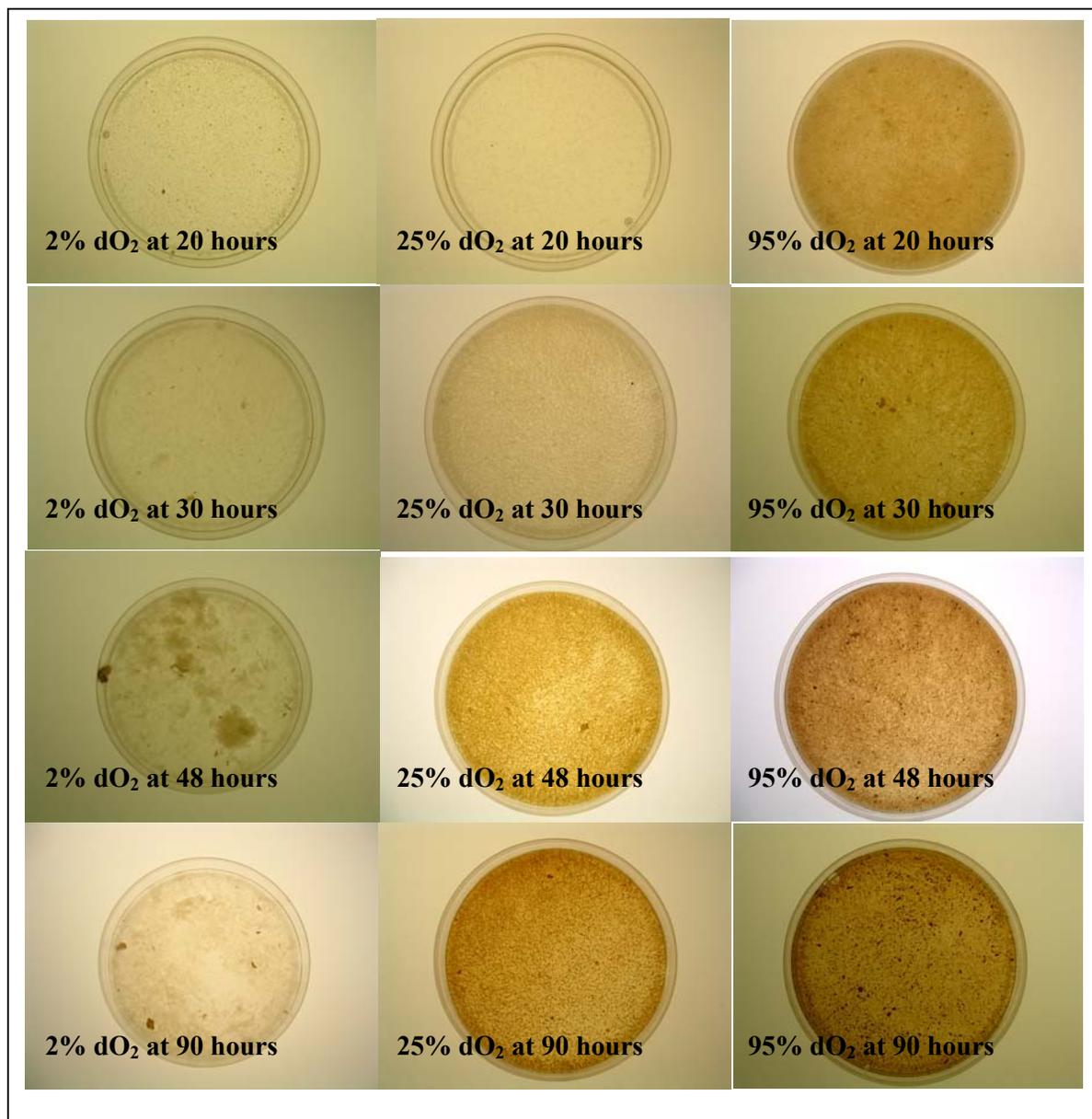


FIGURE 4.15: Effect of dO₂ concentration on broth rheology and cell morphology. All cultivations were controlled at an agitation of 350 rpm.



4.3.4 Interdependent effects of agitation rate and dO₂ concentration

4.3.4.1 Interdependent effect of agitation rate and dO₂ concentration on biomass yield

The central composite rotary design (CCRD) contour plots indicated that the highest levels of biomass concentration ($\text{g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) were obtained at low agitation rates of 100 and 250 rpm corresponding to dO₂ concentrations ranging between 20 - 50 % (FIG. 4.13). At high agitation rates (450 and 600 rpm) corresponding to dO₂ concentrations ranging between 2-50 % dO₂, high levels of biomass were also obtained. Biomass concentration was significantly reduced at agitation rates of 350, 450, and 600 rpm under severe oxygen enriched (80-95% dO₂) conditions.

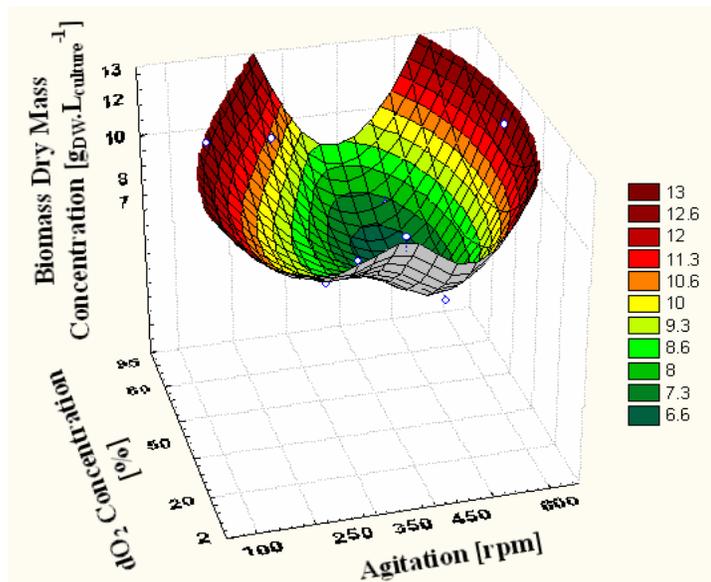


FIGURE 4.16: Biomass concentration illustrating interdependent effects of agitation and dO₂ concentration (3D Contour Plot)



4.3.4.2 Interdependent effect of agitation rate and dO_2 concentration on protein production

- **Total protein production**

A distinct correlation between total (membrane and cytoplasmic associated) intracellular protein concentration and the interdependent effect of dO_2 concentration and agitation was observed (FIG. 4.14 and FIG. 4.15). With the increase in agitation rate from 250 rpm to 600 rpm and the increase in dO_2 concentration from 2% to 95%, a significant increase in the total (membrane and cytoplasmic associated) intracellular protein concentration was observed. Similarly, the decrease in agitation rate from 250 rpm to 100 rpm and the increase in dO_2 concentration from 2% to 95% dO_2 , also resulted in a significant increase in the specific total intracellular protein concentration. One fact that was highlighted in this data was that the effects of agitation had a more pronounced effect on volumetric total (membrane and cytoplasmic associated) intracellular protein concentration than dO_2 concentration. This observation was made by substantial increases in volumetric concentration as a result of varied agitation rates, in comparison to that of dO_2 concentration.

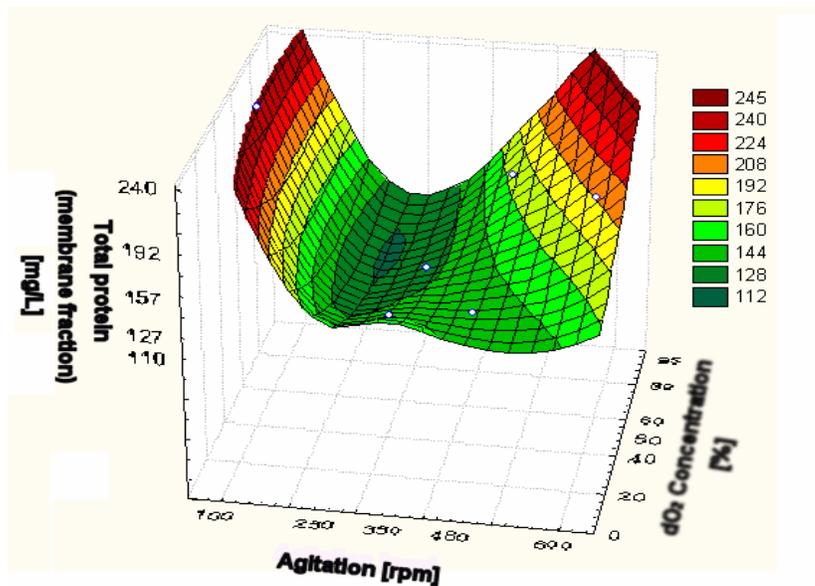


FIGURE 4.17: Volumetric total protein production (membrane fraction) [$\text{mg}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$] illustrating interdependent effects of agitation and dO_2 concentration (3D Contour Plot).



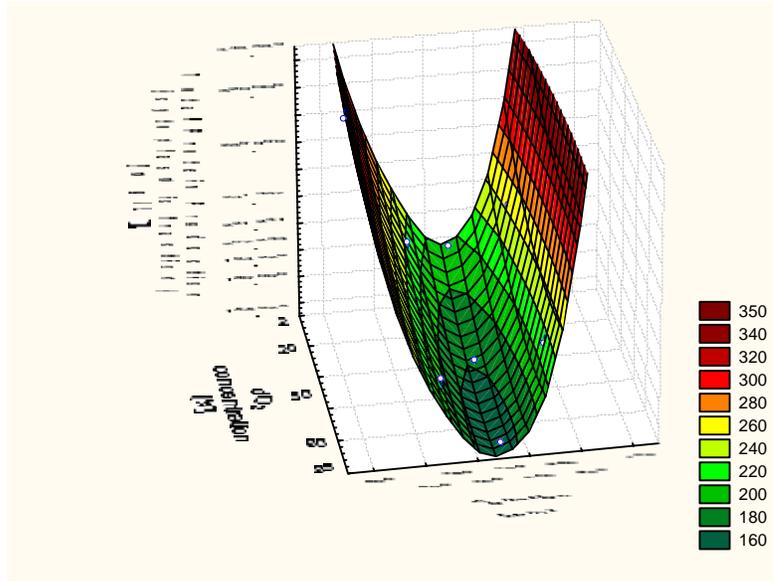


FIGURE 4.18: Volumetric total protein production (cytoplasmic fraction) [$\text{mg}\cdot\ell^{-1}$] illustrating interdependent effects of agitation and dO_2 concentration (3D Contour Plot).

- **HBsAg production**

The maximum intracellular HBsAg production ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) was primarily dominated by varying the agitation intensity (FIG. 4.16). With a decrease in agitation from 600 to 100 rpm, maximum HBsAg production levels increased substantially. Variation of the dO_2 concentration had no significant effect on intracellular HBsAg production under low agitation intensities. However, under high agitation intensities the intracellular HBsAg production increased with the increase in dO_2 concentration.

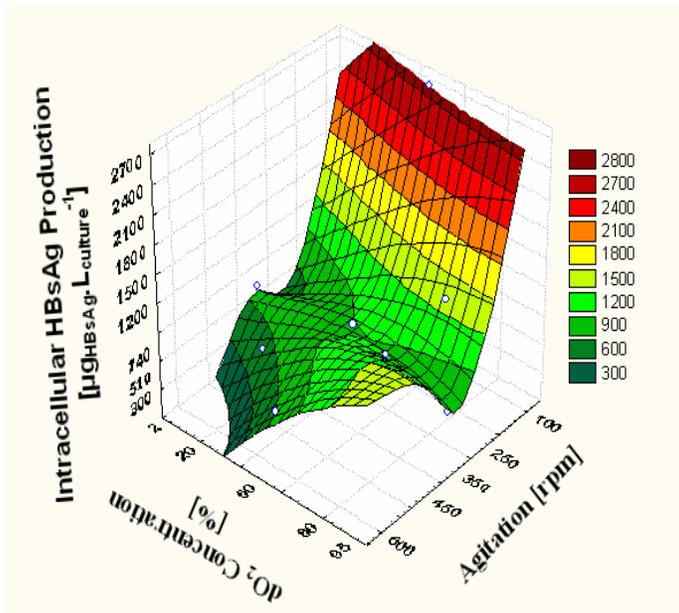


FIGURE 4.19: Volumetric HBsAg production [$\mu\text{g}\cdot\ell^{-1}$] illustrating interdependent effects of agitation and dO_2 concentration (3D Contour Plot).

- **Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents**

The percentage of total cellular protein comprising of HBsAg (%) was primarily dominated by the dO_2 concentration (FIG. 4.17). With the increase in dO_2 concentration from 2 % to 25 %, the percentage HBsAg increased considerably. No significant effects were observed by further increasing the dO_2 concentration to 50 %. However, under extreme oxygen-rich conditions (80 and 95 % dO_2), the percentage of cellular protein comprised of HBsAg decreased substantially. No significant changes in the percentage HBsAg were observed at low and intermediate agitation intensities. However under high agitation intensities (450 and 600 rpm) the percentage HBsAg in cellular protein was considerably lower.



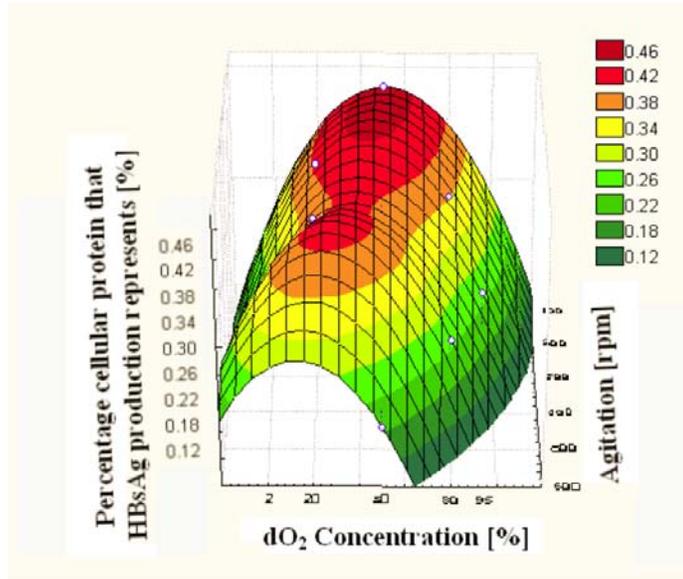


FIGURE 4.20: Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents [%] illustrating interdependent effects of agitation and dO₂ concentration (3D Contour Plot).

4.3.4.3 Interdependent effect of agitation rate and dO₂ concentration broth morphology

At low agitation rates, pellet formation was favoured and with the increase of agitation these pellets were observed to become smaller until filamentous formation facilitated growth at very high agitation rates of 600 rpm (data not shown). No significant influence with regards to pellet size was observed as a result of an increase in dO₂ concentration but a definite difference in pellet fluffiness (hyphae number and length) was evident. Similar trends were observed with regards to agitation rates, where with the increase in agitation and dO₂ concentration, the following variables were influenced;

- 1) hyphae length and number was reduced,
- 2) growth rate and product formation increased,
- 3) fragmentation increased, and
- 4) media staining increased.



4.3.5 Extracellular HBsAg production

Results show that cultures grown at an agitation rate of 100 rpm and a dO_2 concentration of 50%, demonstrated significantly high HBsAg production levels in both the intracellular membrane ($3 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 82 hours and $300 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ at 90 hours) and cytoplasmic fraction ($62 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ at 103 hours and $584 \mu\text{g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ after 60 hours). These results are illustrated in FIG. 4.18. Optimum cellular HBsAg production, including the membrane as well as the cytoplasmic cellular fractions, was achieved at 82 hours and a yield of $3.6 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ and $350 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$. In addition, after the optimum peak at 82 hours volumetric HBsAg production in the membrane fraction cytoplasmic fraction rapidly decreased as cell fragmentation increased (FIG. 4.18). Similar volumetric HBsAg concentration trends were observed in the cellular cytoplasm. Consequently, corresponding supernatant samples tested positive for HBsAg at 90 hours, and the volumetric concentration profile increased linearly for the remainder of the cultivation. As a result supernatant samples surpassed the volumetric HBsAg concentration levels of both the membrane and cytoplasmic samples. An optimum of $968.73 \mu\text{g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ HBsAg concentration was achieved at 160 hour in the extracellular media, while the volumetric HBsAg levels of the membrane and cytoplasmic fractions only managed $556.8 \mu\text{g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ and $156 \mu\text{g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ respectively, at the corresponding time period. Cumulatively, a HBsAg concentration total of $1682 \mu\text{g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ was obtained.

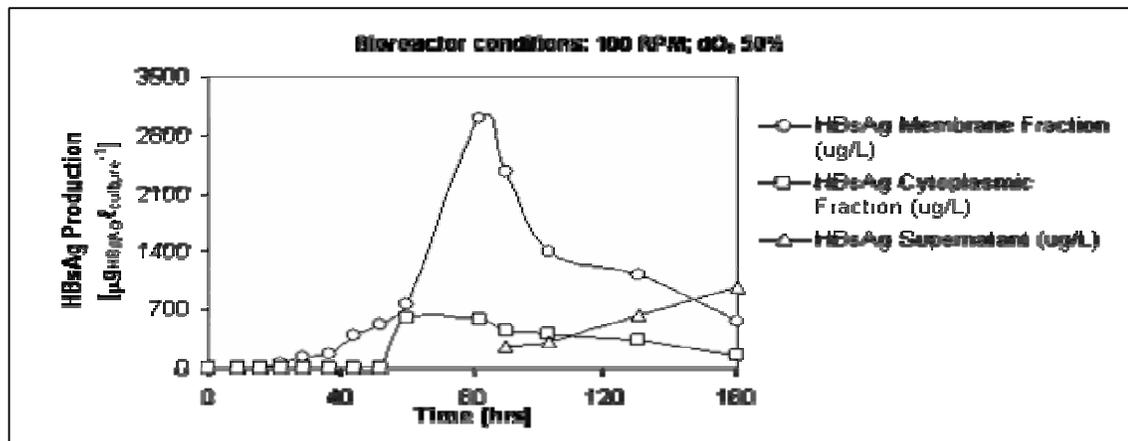


FIGURE 4.21: Volumetric HBsAg production in terms of intracellular membrane fraction, intracellular cytoplasmic fraction and extracellular supernatant [$\mu\text{g} \cdot \ell^{-1}$].



4.3.6 Culture pH optimisation

4.3.6.1 Effect of pH control on biomass yield

Culture pH had no significant impact on biomass production rate as all cultures had similar rates at approximately 0.043 h^{-1} . Culture pH affected biomass production levels at an agitation rate of 350 rpm and 50 % dO_2 concentration. Cultures grown at pH 6 had similar growth patterns to cultures grown without pH control: An optimum peak of $7.3 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 45 hours and $7.74 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 48 hours, respectively (FIG. 4.19A). Biomass production levels at cultures grown at pH 7 were significantly reduced. A maximum of $4.4 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 83 hours was obtained. Thereafter, a gradual decrease in biomass levels was observed for the remainder of the cultivation ($3.73 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ at 140 hours).

4.3.6.2 Effect of pH control on protein production yield

- **Total protein production**

Cellular protein production illustrated similar production profiles for cultures grown at pH 6 and cultures grown without pH control (FIG. 4.20A, B). A maximum biomass peak was obtained in both cultures, where at pH 6 the production stabilised to $103.5 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ ($650 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) and cultures without pH control stabilised at $98 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ ($670 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$). In comparison, cultures grown at pH 7 obtained significantly lower cellular protein concentrations in the range of $10 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ ($40 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$).

- **HBsAg production**

The intracellular HBsAg production in cultures grown at pH 6 and without pH control followed similar profiles until the 72nd hour (FIG. 4.19C, D). Thereafter, pH 6 cultures obtained a maximum yield of $100 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ ($630 \mu\text{g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) at 79 hours, while cultures grown without pH control continued to increase in HBsAg production, eventually obtaining an optimum yield of



160 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ (930 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) at 145 hours. HBsAg production was significantly reduced in cultures grown at pH 7. A maximum HBsAg yield of 60 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$ (220 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{l}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) at 47 hours was observed. In terms of pH controlled cultivations (pH 6 and pH 7), HBsAg production decreased during the latter cultivation periods, while cultivations without pH control (including shake flask and bioreactor experiments) were observed to increase. The analysis of intracellular cytoplasmic associated HBsAg production was not analysed for pH-controlled cultivations.

- **Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents**

In cultivations grown without pH control, the percentage cellular protein represented by HBsAg increased with time (FIG. 4.19B). An optimum ratio of 0.18% at 145 hours was obtained. Cultures grown at pH 6 obtained similar levels until the last 50 hours of cultivation where the % HBsAg was reduced substantially to 0.08 %. Conversely, cultures grown at pH 7 did not follow similar trends and % HBsAg levels were significantly higher. At its highest level a % HBsAg of 0.85 % was recorded.

4.3.6.3 Effect of pH control on broth morphology

In cultures grown at pH 6, the broth was observed to consist of small pellets (data not shown). Pellet fluffiness was significantly reduced in these cultures. Broth and cell discoloration was emphasized greatly and after just 36 hours the broth changed to a dark brown/orange colour. Cell fragmentation was evident after 102 hours and seen to rapidly increase during the remainder of the cultivation.

In the pH 7 cultures, pellets were noted to be smaller in size compared to pH 6 cultures (data not shown). Pellet fluffiness was also significantly reduced in these cultures and cell fragmentation was evident after a culture age of 59 hours. This phenomenon increased rapidly during the remainder of the cultivation. Broth and cell discoloration was emphasized greatly and after just 30 hours, the broth was not only seen to change to a dark brown/orange colour, but a slimy mucilage layer around individual pellets was noted to develop (indicated by very slow filtration



of the mycelial broth). The development of this mucilage layer was suggested to arise from pH adjustment of the broth and seen to become increasingly pronounced with the addition of KOH.

In cultures grown without pH control (data not shown), pellet formation was observed. The fluffiness of the pellets was considerably more pronounced when compared to cultures grown with pH control. Pellet discoloration was observed in these cultures during the latter stages of the cultivation but with the absence of a slime layer around the outer layer of the pellet. Cell fragmentation was evident after a culture age of 40 hours. This phenomenon increased rapidly during the remainder of the cultivation.

4.3.6.4 Effect of pH control on specific oxygen uptake rate (SOUR)

An apparent link between SOUR and pH control was observed (Appendix D). With the increase in culture pH control SOUR decreased. This was attributed the development of the slimy mucilage layer in pH 7 cultures. Cultures grown without pH control obtained the highest specific OUR of $4.5 \text{ mmolO}_2.\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}.\text{h}^{-1}$ at 20 hours. This was followed by pH 6 cultures ($4.4 \text{ mmolO}_2.\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}.\text{h}^{-1}$) and finally cultures grown at pH 7 obtained reduced SOUR levels of $2.1 \text{ mmolO}_2.\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}.\text{h}^{-1}$ at 20 hours Appendix D.



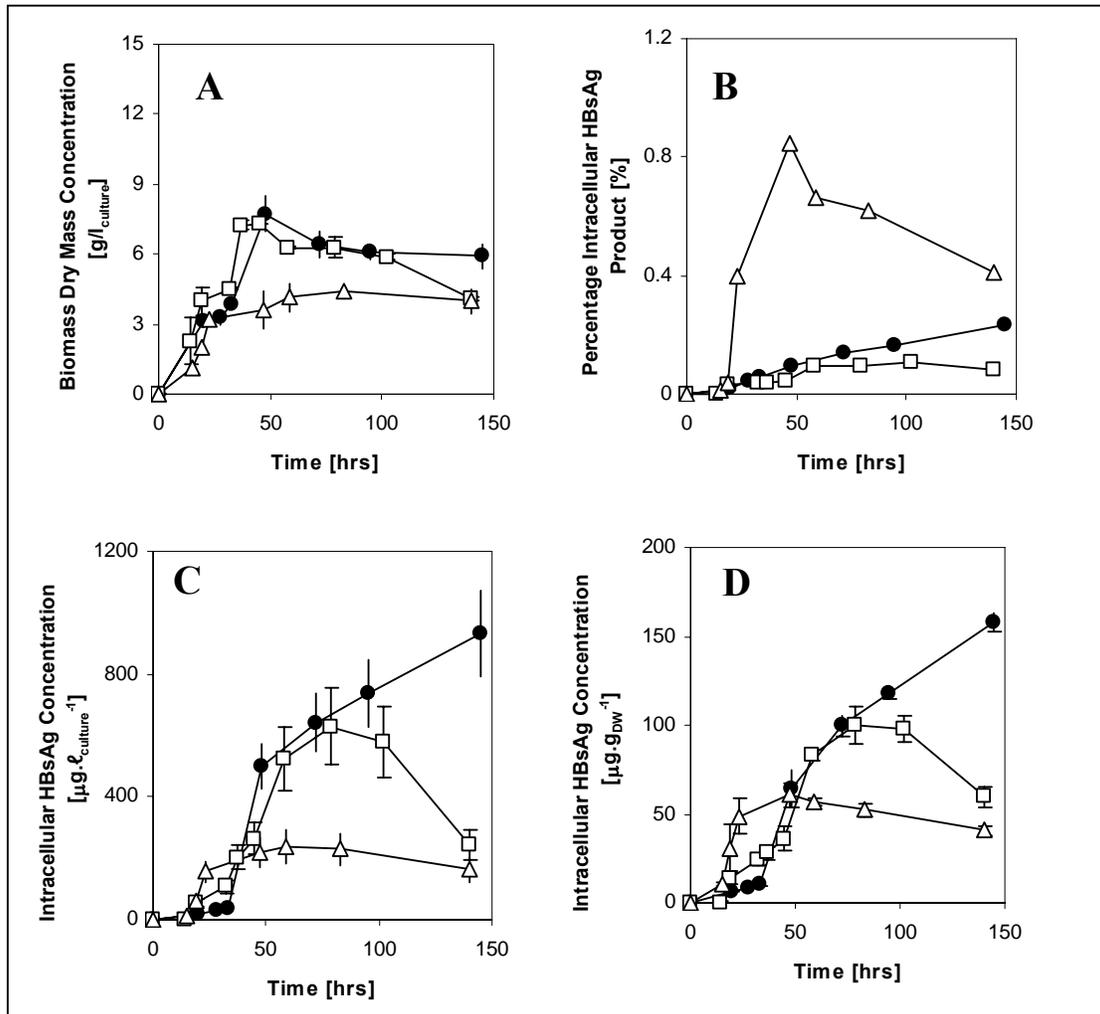


FIGURE 4.22: Effect of the bioprocessing parameter culture pH in a batch culture (bioreactor) at 350 rpm and 50 % dO₂ concentration on (A) Biomass dry mass concentration. Results are given in grams dry weight liter_{culture}⁻¹. (B) Percentage cellular protein that HBsAg represents. Results are given in % HBsAg. (C) Intracellular HBsAg production. Results are given in micro grams liter_{culture}⁻¹ and (D) micro grams per gram_{dry weight}⁻¹. Shown are data for (●) control, (△) pH 6, (□) pH 7. Points without error bars have an associated error that is < 10 % of the value of the point.



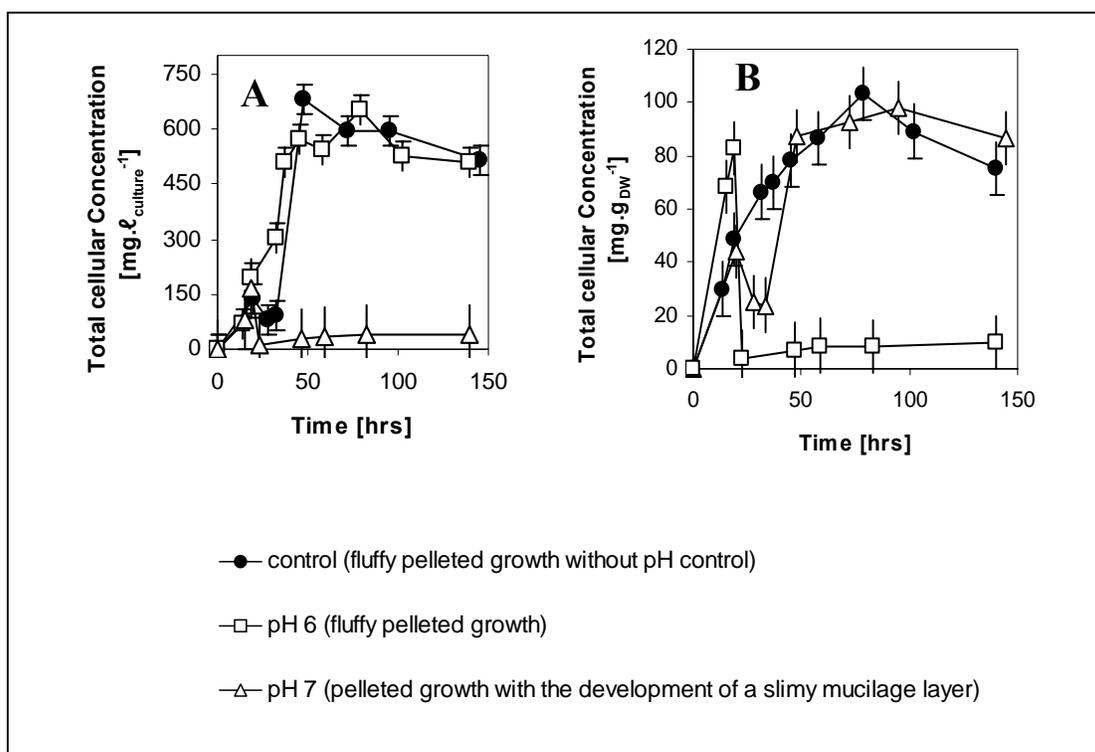


FIGURE 4.25: Effect of the bioprocessing parameter culture pH in a batch culture (bioreactor) at 350 rpm and 50 % dO_2 concentration on (A) Total cellular protein production. Results are given in milligrams $\text{liter}_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ and (B) milligrams per $\text{gram}_{\text{dry weight}}^{-1}$. Shown are data for (●) control, (□) pH 6, (△) pH 7. Points without error bars have an associated error that is < 10 % of the value of the point.



5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

HBsAg VLPs have been successfully produced in *A. niger* (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003). However, very little is known regarding the capacity of *A. niger* to produce and assemble complex immunogenic viral proteins into VLPs. The production of HBsAg as a model VLP by recombinant *A. niger* was therefore used to compare production levels with benchmarks set by *S. cerevisiae*, *P. pastoris* and *H. polymorpha* to determine the potential of the current *Aspergillus* system as a feasible VLP production system. Such comparison can only be performed under well-controlled conditions where five interrelated bioprocessing parameters, culture temperature, inoculum concentration, agitation intensity and dissolved oxygen (dO₂) concentration and culture pH, are of significant importance. The effects of these parameters on VLP production, biomass formation, the glucose consumption rate, the specific oxygen uptake rate (SOUR) and morphology of the microorganism during micro-pelleted growth in batch cultivation were therefore assessed. The dynamic relationship between the environmental conditions created by these parameters and VLP production was determined, to deduce relationships between the process variables and microbial behaviour.

5.2 Temperature effects

The culture temperature effects, in shake flask cultivations, indicated a significant impact on the specific growth rate of the microorganism. The increase in culture temperature resulted in the the increase in the specific growth rate. However, this had no effect on the maximum biomass and HBsAg production levels obtained. Beyond a culture temperature of 30°C, biomass concentration, and HBsAg production levels were lowered. (FIG. 4.1A, B, C, D). These findings correlated with the study by Carlsen *et al.* (1995) on the microorganism, *A. oryzae*, who suggested that the optimum growth



temperature, in terms of achieving maximum biomass concentrations and protein production levels for filamentous fungi, lie in the range of 28 to 30°C.

Total protein concentration (FIG. 4.2A, B) and HBsAg concentration (FIG. 4.1C, D) were growth associated, following similar trends to the biomass growth profile of the *A. niger* strain. Cellular protein production levels (FIG. 4.2A, B) decreased during the latter stages of the cultivation and were attributed to intracellular protein degradation (Archer and Peberdy, 1997). Conversely, HBsAg concentration (FIG. 4.1C, D) profiles progressed to maximum levels during the latter stages of the cultivation, bringing attention to the post-translational assembly, stability, robustness and recalcitrance of the HBsAg VLPs to proteolytic degradation (FIG. 4.1B).

Changes in the culture temperature affected culture pH during the latter stages of the cultivation (FIG. 4.2C). With the decrease in culture temperature culture pH also decreased, resulting in a decrease in the specific HBsAg concentration.

In relation to cell morphology, major morphological shifts between pelleted and filamentous growth were not enforced by the change in culture temperature, but, on a micro-scale, the distinct fluffiness of the pellets was observed to increase as the cultivation temperature increased (FIG. 4.3). This phenomenon suggested that hyphal growth increased with the increase in culture temperature and correlated with the study by Miles and Trinci (1983) on the microorganism, *Pe. chrysogenum*. These observations were also supported by the fact that dissolved oxygen tension is dependent on the culture temperature (saturated dO₂ concentration decreases with the increase in cultivation temperature). Furthermore, cell fragmentation was observed to become increasingly pronounced with the increase in culture age and culture temperature. Specific HBsAg production was influenced by cell fragmentation, increasing with culture age as well as culture temperature to 30°C. Beyond a culture temperature of 30°C, the rate of cell fragmentation continued to increase but the HBsAg concentration decreased. These results complied with the findings of Schügerl *et al.* (1998), who suggested that with the increase in culture temperature, the oxygen supply to the



microorganism became increasingly inadequate, causing an increase in environmental stress, reducing total cellular protein, and accelerating the rate of cell fragmentation.

Thus, changes in culture temperature produced simultaneous changes to culture variables (metabolic rate, growth rate, cell micro-morphology, culture pH, culture dO_2 concentration, and cell fragmentation). The interdependent effects these culture variables have on one another are not fully understood but in terms of intracellular HBsAg production levels, cell micro-morphology and cell fragmentation were observed to be the dominant culture variables affecting production. Therefore, in order to optimise the growth conditions and more importantly optimise HBsAg production in this study, results indicated that cultures grown at 30°C achieved the highest biomass as well as volumetric HBsAg yields.

5.3 Inoculum concentration effects

In shake flask cultivations, inoculum concentration was observed to have a critical role in the development of cell morphology (FIG. 4.6). At low inoculum concentrations (10^3 spores. mL^{-1}), very large fluffy white pellets with a low broth viscosity were observed, and were noted to decrease in size as the inoculum concentration and broth viscosity increased. This phenomenon became increasingly pronounced as the inoculum concentration increased, until filamentous growth forms were observed at a very high broth viscosity in cultures grown at 10^8 spores. mL^{-1} . These results correlated with many studies published in the literature (Hermersodofer *et al.*, 1989; Calam, 1976; Carmichael and Pickard, 1989), and was attributed to the competitive nature of the microorganism to survive. At low inoculum concentrations, the competition for space, oxygen, and nutrition was minimal, and thus the growth of large pellets was encouraged. As the number of spores in the culture increased, competition between the germinating spores increased. Space, oxygen, and nutrition became limiting and as a result, the growth of pellets were suppressed and the microorganism adapted to an alternative growth form (filamentous clumps).



Biomass concentration (FIG. 4.4A) and HBsAg production (FIG. 4.4C, D) were affected by changes in morphology. In cultures grown at 10^3 spores.m ℓ^{-1} , low biomass and HBsAg concentrations were obtained. These findings were attributed to the size and compactness of pellets affecting the efficacy of individual fungal cells. Oxygen as well as nutrient gradients were suggested to form with the increased size in pellet growth (Carlsen *et al.*, 1995). As pellet size increased, these gradients were predicted to increase and the inner cells became deprived of oxygen and nutritional resources. Cell growth and protein synthesis were therefore suppressed and cell starvation and consequently cell death (cell autolysis) was inevitable. As a result of cell autolysis, the development of a hollow inner layer was anticipated (Carlsen *et al.*, 1995), justifying the reduced biomass and HBsAg concentration observed in this study. Cultures grown at 10^5 spores.m ℓ^{-1} and 10^6 spores.m ℓ^{-1} were noted to have very similar morphological forms. A significant difference between the two cultures was that the pellets grown at 10^5 spores.m ℓ^{-1} were fewer in number, fluffier and slightly larger than the pellets grown at 10^6 spores.m ℓ^{-1} . As a result, biomass concentration was slightly higher at 10^6 spores.m ℓ^{-1} , while specific HBsAg concentrations achieved higher production levels in cultures grown at 10^5 spores.m ℓ^{-1} . In filamentous cultures grown at 10^8 spores.m ℓ^{-1} , low biomass and HBsAg concentration were also obtained, and were attributed to the oxygen and nutritional limitations within the culture. It was apparent that these resource limitations hindered the full development and further growth of the microorganism (retarding biomass as well as specific HBsAg concentration). Cultures were noted to remain black during the entire cultivation period (data not shown), which suggested that the limitations of these resources were so severe that the germination of many of the *A. niger* spores were suppressed.

The results of this section showed that changes in inoculum concentration had a significant impact on cell morphology. In turn, an apparent relation between cell morphology and biomass as well as specific HBsAg concentration was evident. In terms of optimising the volumetric HBsAg production yield in this study, results indicated that cultures grown at 10^6 spores.m ℓ^{-1} , attaining to numerous, small, fluffy and loosely packed pellets, achieved the highest yields.



5.4 Agitation rate effects

Agitation intensity affected a number of variables in the VLP production system. The highest levels in the specific rate parameters; biomass specific growth rate, specific HBsAg production rate, specific glucose consumption rate and maximum SOUR, were obtained under high agitation intensities of 600 rpm (TABLE 4.1). However, maximum cellular protein, intracellular HBsAg production ($\mu\text{g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$) and the percentage of cellular protein represented by HBsAg (%) increased with a decrease in agitation intensity (FIG. 4.7B, C, D and FIG. 4.8 A, B). Optimum VLP production corresponding to a high biomass concentration and large fluffy pelleted growth was observed at a low agitation intensity of 100 rpm (FIG. 4.7A, B; FIG. 4.9).

These results were attributed to the morphological adaptations by the microorganism to different agitation intensities (FIG. 2). Suppressed VLP production at the higher agitation rates were attributed to the increase in shear intensity, apparently shearing-off of protruding hyphal structures, and causing an increased level of cellular stress (Nielsen *et al.*, 1995). Shear forces apparently reached a critical point above 100 rpm, and inflicted injury to the micro-pelleted fungal cells (van Suijdam and Metz, 1981; Braun and Vecht-Lipshitz, 1991) causing increased levels of cellular stress (environmental stress). This resulted in the decrease in the intracellular HBsAg production and percentage of cellular protein consisting of HBsAg (FIG. 4.7B, C, D). The microorganism apparently adapted its morphology to these environmental changes in order to reduce the level of cellular stress: Similarly to the results obtained by Nielsen *et al.* (1995), the size and roughness of the pellets became less pronounced as the rate of agitation increased (100 to 450 rpm). Higher agitation intensities (600 rpm) demonstrated a morphological shift from pelleted to filamentous growth (FIG. 2). These findings correlated with the studies of Smith *et al.* (1990), Metz *et al.* (1981), and Papagianni *et al.* (1999), who suggested that high agitation intensities would enforce a higher shear on the microorganism that would increase cellular shearing, resulting in shorter, thicker and highly branched filamentous hyphae.



In terms of justifying these results, it should be noted that culture pH was affected by the variation in agitation activity (FIG. 4.8C). With the increase in agitation intensity, culture pH decreased. The study of O' Donnell *et al.* (2001), suggested that protease activity was dependent on the culture pH; as culture pH decreased, intracellularly as well as extracellularly protease activity increased. In the current study, one could speculate that the increase in agitation increased cellular stress and cell damage causing cell autolysis. This resulted in a decrease in culture pH and therefore actuated an increase in the protease activity. Studies by Archer and Peberdy (1997) and Van den Hombergh *et al.* (1997c) have suggested that proteolytic activity is a major factor responsible for protein degradation and retardation, especially concerning heterologous proteins. Therefore, in the current study, the estimated increase in protease activity with the increase in agitation, could have caused the suppressed specific HBsAg concentration during the latter periods of the cultivation. Under these high agitation intensities (600 rpm) and increased levels of environmental (cellular) stress, morphological adaptation to filamentous growth significantly benefited biomass production (FIG. 4.7A) and the specific rate parameters (TABLE 4.1), although HBsAg production was significantly suppressed. The highest HBsAg and biomass production occurred under low levels of cellular stress at a low agitation rate of 100 rpm, where a distinct morphology was favoured; large, loosely packed, fluffy pellets (FIG. 4.9).

5.5 dO₂ concentration effects

DO₂ concentration significantly affected the mycelial morphology and thereby VLP (HBsAg) production. Under oxygen-limited conditions (2 % dO₂), the microorganism adopted a filamentous morphology that apparently increased the surface area per volume exposed to the environment in an effort to increase the efficiency of oxygen uptake. These oxygen-limited conditions demonstrated the highest maximum biomass concentration (FIG. 4.10A). However, intracellular HBsAg production and the percentage of cellular protein represented by HBsAg as well as the SOUR was considerably reduced, which suggests that limited O₂ availability within the submerged



culture may become a limiting factor negatively affecting VLP production (FIG. 4.10B, C, D; TABLE 4.2). In addition, other specific rate parameters; biomass specific growth rate, specific HBsAg production rate and specific glucose consumption rate, demonstrated the lowest rates under these conditions (TABLE 4.2).

Intermediate oxygenation (25% dO_2) resulted in a morphology shift, which was characterised by the adhesion of mycelia and formation of large fluffy pellets (FIG. 4.12). These conditions resulted in the highest HBsAg yields (FIG. 4.10B, C, D; TABLE 4.2), which coincided with a high biomass concentration and SOUR (FIG. 4.10A; TABLE 4.2). An increase in the dO_2 concentration (50-95 %) resulted in the formation of smaller and smoother pellets (FIG. 4.12). This morphological adaptation was considered as a 'protective strategy' against the increased levels of intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) availability causing increased levels of oxidative stress within the microorganism (Bai *et al.*, 2003). Under high culture dO_2 concentrations, the studies of Bai *et al.* (2003) proposed that fungal cells generally adopt morphological forms (adhesion of mycelia, (Wongwicharn *et al.*, 1999); formation of smaller and smoother pellets (Higashiyama *et al.*, 1999; FIG. 4.12); and increased pellet density, (Cui *et al.*, 1998)) which have the net effect of protecting the inner cells of the pellet from the potential ROS-mediated damage, and thus reducing levels of intracellular oxidative stress.

Despite the efforts of reducing the intracellular oxidative stress of the inner cells of the pellet caused by elevated dO_2 concentrations in the culturing environment, lower biomass concentration, depressed HBsAg production levels and reduced maximum SOURs were observed at high dO_2 levels (FIG. 4.10A, B, C, D; TABLE 4.2). However, this had not have a detrimental effect on the microorganisms specific growth rate and glucose consumption rate, which was at its highest levels under oxygen rich conditions (95 % dO_2) (TABLE 4.2).



5.6 Interdependent effects between agitation and dO_2 concentration

The sufficient transfer of O_2 to active cells is critical for aerobic cultivation. The regulation of agitation intensity and dO_2 concentration within the bioreactor are obvious responses to overcome any O_2 limitations. However, the interdependent effects of these two process parameters have drastically affected biomass and VLP production by *A. niger* in the present study, due to morphological shifts caused by these changes in the environmental conditions. Cell morphology has therefore become a critical bioprocessing parameter for filamentous fungi (Znidarsic and Pavko, 2001). In the present study, the CCRD (FIG. 3.4) contour plots indicated that agitation had a more dominant impact on biomass, total cellular protein and intracellular HBsAg production, compared to dO_2 concentration (FIG. 4.13, 4.14, 4.15, 4.16, and 4.17). On the other hand, the dO_2 concentration had a greater impact on the percentage of cellular protein comprised of HBsAg (FIG. 4.14 and 4.15).

Morphological shifts were influenced by both process parameters. Filamentous growth was induced at high agitation intensity (600 rpm) and under oxygen-limited (2 %) conditions. Under these growth conditions VLP (HBsAg) production was suppressed and was attributed to the increased levels of environmental (cellular) stress enforced on the microorganism. Low agitation rates and intermediate oxygenated cultivations were optimal cultivation parameters resulting in the least environmental stress and stimulating the growth and formation of large, loosely packed fluffy pellets and enhancing biomass production as well as optimum HBsAg concentration (FIG. 4.16 and 4.17).



5.7 pH effects

The effect of pH had an impact on pellet morphology, biomass concentration (FIG. 4.19A) as well as HBsAg production (FIG. 4.19B, C, D). Similar fluffy pellets were observed in cultures grown without pH control and at pH 6. At an elevated culture pH of 7, reduced pellet size and fluffiness was observed. Biomass concentration obtained maximum yields in a culture pH of 6. Similar biomass yields were achieved in cultures grown without pH control, while a significant reduction in biomass concentration was observed in pH 7 cultures. These findings were attributed to a thin slimy mucilage layer that was observed to develop around the pellet surface (as indicated by very slow filtration of the mycelial broth), as a result of the pH adjustment (KOH addition). The formation of the slimy mucilage layer, whose presence in *A. niger* has already been reported (Kisser *et al.*, 1980 and Mischak *et al.*, 1985), became increasingly pronounced with culture age and appeared to lower SOUR of the microorganism. The slimy mucilage layer was considered to reduce the nutrient transfer capabilities and extracellular secretion efficiency of the microorganism and therefore retarded cell growth.

Similar total intracellular protein concentrations were obtained in cultures grown without pH control and pH 6, in the absence of the mucilage layer. The specific total intracellular protein concentrations increased significantly in pH 7 cultures and were apparently caused by the trapping of secreted proteins in the mucilage layer (Mischak *et al.*, 1985).

HBsAg concentration became increasingly suppressed as the culture pH increased to pH 7. These results suggested that the apparent development of the mucilage layer inhibited the secretion efficiency of the extracellular proteins, causing an accumulation of proteins intracellularly as well as within the mucilage layer. Consequently, the accumulation of intracellular proteins may have either blocked or suppressed the secretion pathway of the HBsAg. The study by Punt *et al.* (2002) suggested



contradictory evidence to the above mentioned results. By using a similar *A. niger* host strain, it was shown that the biomass concentration decreased and the total protein as well as the heterologous protein concentration increased as the culture pH was increased from pH 6 to pH 7.5. These findings were attributed to a less active proteolytic system at increased pH levels. In the current study, even without pH control, the protease-deficient *A. niger* strain contributed to a stable culture pH (culture pH typically remained above 6 for most of the cultivations) that suggested insignificant levels of proteolytic activity in the supernatant.

Therefore, pH control affected the development of a slimy mucilage layer that not only enforced a change in pellet morphology but also reduced biomass levels as well as inhibited the production of the HBsAg. In order to optimise the HBsAg production system in this study, results indicated that the protease-deficient *A. niger* VLP producing strain was negatively affected by pH control of the media. The impact of culture pH control on HBsAg production was significantly greater compared to the potential threat of protease activity. Thus, cultivation without pH control is recommended.

5.8 Parameter effects on HBsAg assembly and extracellular release

In the *A. niger* host strain, VLP production of the S-protein containing pseudoviral particles was achieved intracellularly and was seen to be associated with the membrane organelles of the cell (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003). These findings were confirmed in the current study. Specific intracellular HBsAg concentration accumulated slowly over time and maximum concentrations were observed during the latter stages of the cultivation. This brought attention to the HBsAg assembly, stability, robustness and recalcitrance of the HBsAg VLPs to proteolytic degradation..

The HBsAg synthesis and assembly has been extensively discussed in the literature. The HBsAg is synthesized co-translationally and incorporated into the membrane of the ER.



Rapid dimer formation by intermolecular disulfide bonding follows and the particles bud into the ER, provoking dilation and proliferation of the ER network (Patzner *et al.*, 1986). These particles accumulate in a dilated ER network (dilated ribosomes-studded vesicles), which has been observed in human hepatocytes (Tanaka *et al.*, 1977), mammalian (Patzner *et al.*, 1986), yeasts (Biemans *et al.*, 1992; Kitano *et al.*, 1987) and plant cell expression systems (Smith *et al.*, 2002). A similar HBsAg synthesis is considered for the *A. niger* expression system. Insignificant levels of HBsAg were observed in the cytoplasmic fraction of the cell, suggesting that the HBsAg particles did not progress further than the ER/Golgi apparatus.

Much has been said concerning protease accumulation during the latter periods of cultivation. This accumulation of proteases has caused the degradation of heterologous as well as native protein in many biological systems, and was therefore an issue of concern (Broekhuijsen *et al.*, 1993; van Hartingsveld *et al.*, 1990; Roberts *et al.*, 1992). The first signs of possible protein degradation in the current study were evident, when typically, specific total protein concentration levels were noted to peak, followed by a sudden decrease in concentration. This was not considered a result of protease accumulation and was substantiated by the high levels and stability of the culture pH during the latter stages of the cultivation. Degradation of cellular protein was apparent due to severe nutrient limitations within the cultivation broth, causing the cell to turn to alternative resources; incorrectly folded proteins within the cell (Schröder and Kaufman, 2004). In terms of stability and robustness of the HBsAg particles, the particle's association with the membranous ER/Golgi network was considered to be protected from intracellular degradation (Schröder and Kaufman, 2004).

The extracellular production of heterologous protein is frequently desirable as this simplifies purification procedures. In the current study, during the latter stages of the cultivation, at very low shear conditions (100 rpm) and intermediate dO_2 concentration levels (50%), significant yields of cytoplasmic associated HBsAg concentration were observed (FIG. 4.18). Furthermore, when corresponding supernatant samples were assayed, significant levels of HBsAg concentration were also noted. The intracellular



cytoplasmic and supernatant HBsAg concentration seemed to correlate with the ever-increasing effect of cell fragmentation, as the culture age increased. The mechanisms of cell fragmentation have been well documented by Papagianni (2004), and results suggest that during the latter stages of a cultivation cells fragment by the method of cell autolysis. The main cause of cell lysis is the material imbalance in hyphae caused either by internal or external factors. Of the internal factors, it could be a disturbance of the organelles or an accumulation of toxic metabolites. The external factors could be physical or chemical factors, the lack of nutrients, as well as enzyme influences, which disturb the cell wall structures (Fencl, 1978; Nombela *et al.*, 1993). Cell autolysis will also occur as a result of the weakening of structural elements caused by the natural aging process of vacuolation (Papagianni, 2004). In terms of the current study, cell autolysis appeared to result from a combination of events; cell age and the weakening of structural elements, accumulation of toxic metabolites as well as nutrient limitations, especially taking into account that glucose levels were exhausted within the 50th hour of the cultivation (Appendix D). The combination of these factors would increase stress levels and disturb the organelles within the cell. The rate of cell autolysis would be enhanced, disintegrating the cell membrane and releasing all the membrane associated HBsAg into the cytoplasmic fraction of the cell as well as into the broth supernatant. These results correlate with the study by Shen *et al.* (1989) on *H. Polymorpha*, where the partial digestion of the cell wall yielded HBsAg particle secretion.

Thus, results indicated that the optimum harvesting period of the HBsAg under the optimum growth conditions was during the latter stages of the cultivation (at 96 hours). The high yields of specific HBsAg concentration during the latter stages of the cultivation emphasised the stability and robustness of the heterologous protein. Under the optimum growth conditions (30°C, 10⁶ spores.m^l⁻¹, 100 rpm, without dO₂ control and no culture pH control), significant yields of specific HBsAg concentration were observed in the cell cytoplasm as well as in the broth supernatant. This concentration of HBsAg was noted to increase with cell age due to the apparent action of cell fragmentation and autolysis. Therefore, the stability and robustness as well as the extracellular release of the HBsAg makes the current production system commercially



attractive by simplifying purification procedures and therefore significantly reducing purification costs.

5.9 **Benchmark comparison with alternative recombinant systems**

In the present study, a 9-fold increase in VLP production in a batch culture was achieved in comparison to the yields obtained by Plüddemann and van Zyl, (2003). HBsAg production reached $3.6 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ ($350 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$) at a biomass concentration of $10.5 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ in comparison to $0.4 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ ($200 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$) at a biomass concentration of $2 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ in shakeflask cultivation (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003). These results emphasize that HBsAg VLP production is predominantly growth-associated.

The *A. niger* production system achieved production levels comparable to the three commercially competing recombinant microorganisms. In batch cultivations, *S. cerevisiae* has achieved HBsAg yields of $2 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ ($280 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$) (Gu *et al.*, 1991). This production system has been significantly improved by using a fed-batch process, resulting in HBsAg levels of 10 - 20 $\text{mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ ($670 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$) (Hsieh *et al.*, 1988; Gu *et al.*, 1991). Similar results were obtained with *H. polymorpha*. In batch cultures HBsAg production reached levels of $1.6 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ ($46 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$). The implementation of fed-batch cultivation increased HBsAg production levels substantially to 8-9 $\text{mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ ($225 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$) (de Roubin *et al.*, 1991). In shakeflask cultivation recombinant *P. pastoris* obtained low HBsAg production levels of $0.14 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ ($270 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$), however large-scale fed-batch cultivation resulted in a significant increase in HBsAg production of $0.38 \text{ g} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ ($6.4 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$) (Cregg *et al.*, 1987).

In all of the previously reported studies, VLP production was quantified by means of polyclonal immunoassays, as opposed to the method of monoclonal immunoassays exclusively used in the current study. Comparing the HBsAg production levels of the present study to polyclonal-determined levels may not give a fair indication of the



potential of the *Aspergillus* VLP production system. Although polyclonal immunoassays have long been used as a means in detecting antigens (Harlow and Lane, 1988), this method has one major disadvantage: The antibody response to a given antigen tends to be broad, covering both specific and cross-reactive epitopes. As a result immunoassays based solely on polyclonal antibodies may not be very specific to correctly folded and assembled VLPs (Andreotti *et al.*, 2003), and result in the over-estimation of VLP production levels. Monoclonal immunoassays have improved the specificity of the assay by simplifying the selection of antibodies directed against chosen molecular targets, and has thus been deemed as a more reliable and accurate means to quantify the production of correctly folded and assembled VLPs (Andreotti *et al.*, 2003).



6 CONCLUSIONS

Bioprocessing strategies proved to be a successful tool for the optimisation of the HBsAg VLPs production in a batch culture by the *Aspergillus* expression system. In terms of highlighting the significant findings of this study, the following points are concluded:

- 1) The bioprocessing parameters (temperature, inoculum concentration, agitation, dO₂ concentration, and pH) had a significant impact on the environmental stress levels within the bioreactor. The morphological type and physiology of *A. niger* were strongly dependent on the environmental conditions created by these parameters and significantly affected biomass formation and VLP production. In an attempt to relieve stress, the recombinant *A. niger* was able to adapt into various morphological forms that not only affected biomass concentration but specific HBsAg production levels as well.
 - a) HBsAg production in the *A. niger* expression system was extremely sensitive to shear intensity, elevated O₂ levels and pH control within the bioreactor.
 - i) High shear intensities and low O₂ levels within the cultivation induced filamentous growth. Suppressed HBsAg production levels were observed under these conditions, indicating that filamentous growth is not favourable in terms of maximising HBsAg production.
 - ii) At high dO₂ concentrations an apparent toxic build up of ROS affected mycelial morphology and the metabolic OUR and specific HBsAg concentration decreased. This phenomenon indicated a shift in the respiratory pathway and was attributed to a protective strategy adopted by the microorganism in an attempt to alleviate excess (toxic) intracellular ROS. Maximum HBsAg yields were obtained under intermediate oxygen levels and were attributed to the relative energy-efficient conventional pathway.



- iii) A slimy mucilage layer developed, with the controlled adjustment of culture pH. The development of this layer negatively affected the transport properties in and out of the cell and therefore reduced pellet size and volumetric HBsAg production. Maximum HBsAg yields were obtained in cultivations without pH control.
- 2) Thus, the control of bioprocessing parameters, amounting to the least amount of environmental stress resulted in optimum fungal morphology (large, loosely packed fluffy pellets) and optimum volumetric HBsAg production yields:
- a) Optimum control of bioprocessing parameters;
 - i) culture temperature of 30°C,
 - ii) inoculum concentration of 10^6 spores.m l^{-1} ,
 - iii) low agitation rate of 100 rpm,
 - iv) intermediate oxygen enrichment (20%-30%) without dO $_2$ control, and
 - v) no culture pH control.
- 3) HBsAg production was primarily associated with the membrane protein fraction and correlated with the study of Plüddemann and van Zyl (2003).
- a) HBsAg production was most pronounced during the latter stages of the cultivation and was attributed to the stability and robustness of the HBsAg particles. Results indicate that the optimum harvesting period of the HBsAg particles, under optimum production conditions, is between 96 and 100 hours.
 - b) During optimum production conditions, significant yields of specific HBsAg concentration were observed in the cell cytoplasm as well as in the broth supernatant. This concentration of HBsAg was noted to increase with cell age due to the apparent action of cell fragmentation and autolysis. Cell fragmentation was suggested to disrupt intracellular membrane organelles, releasing HBsAg particles into the cytoplasm, as well as disintegrating the cell wall and releasing the cytoplasmic-associated HBsAg particles into the culture broth.



- c) Therefore, the stability and robustness as well as the extracellular release of the HBsAg makes the current *A. niger* production system commercially attractive, by simplifying purification procedures and therefore significantly reducing purification costs.
- 4) The optimum HBsAg production levels and benchmark comparisons:
- Initial volumetric HBsAg production yields of $0.4 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ (Plüddemann and van Zyl, 2003), were exceeded 9 fold. Optimum HBsAg production levels were in the range of $3.6 \text{ mg} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$ and $350 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}$, with a corresponding biomass concentration of $10.5 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \cdot \ell_{\text{culture}}^{-1}$.
 - In terms of a batch mode optimisation, the current *A. niger* production process demonstrated competitive HBsAg production levels compared to two commercially competing recombinant microorganisms, *S. cerevisiae* and *P. pastoris*.
 - With the implementation of an alternative fed-batch process, a realistic estimate of HBsAg production places the current *Aspergillus* expression system above the recombinant *S. cerevisiae*, *P. pastoris*, and *H. polymorpha* processes.
- 5) The competitive VLP production levels, stability and robustness of the *A. niger* expression system, along with the extracellular release of HBsAg, makes the system attractive for further development, including the use of a fed-batch cultivation strategy for growth-associated HBsAg VLP production.



7 FUTURE PROSPECTS

The results obtained from the current research project have proven that a cheaper generic Hepatitis B vaccine is indeed possible through the cultivation of *A. niger*. This current production system has by no means reached its full potential, and the already firmly established base demands for continued research and development.

Further bioprocessing strategies regarding the development of the production process will be of enormous importance for the further exploitation of the current *Aspergillus* production system. Various types of cultivation and modes of operation warrant investigation. Although most current processes rely on submerged fermentation, the use of traditional solid-state fermentation processes should be considered. Several results have indicated that the solid-state fermentation process result in improved levels of various secreted fungal hydrolases (Pandey *et al.*, 2000). Moreover, the processes involved are extremely competitive, particularly when considering process sustainability. Until now, most of the research in the field of solid-state fermentation has been focused on process and fermenter design (Weber *et al.*, 1999) treating the microorganism involved as a black box. Already, the first results of molecular research, in this type of cultivation, show distinct differences in the level of gene expression and regulation compared with submerged fermentation (Ishida *et al.*, 1998). In terms of modes of operation, fed batch process strategies are expected to have the greatest impact on biomass yields and specific HBsAg production. Statistical evidence suggests that biomass levels can potentially increase 10 to 20 fold in fed batch operations compared to batch cultivations (Cregg *et al.*, 1987; Gu *et al.*, 1991; Hsieh *et al.*, 1988). The implications of such a biomass increase implies that the volumetric HBsAg production system will also increase and a realistic estimate places the current *Aspergillus* system in a league of its own, superseding any competitive processes.

The present study confirms that the morphological type and the related physiology are the key variables, necessary to explain and predict the bioreactor performance and to



design a bioprocess. They strongly depend on the environmental conditions and affect the rheological behaviour of the broth, which in turn affect transport phenomena in a bioreactor. Image analysis is now a well-established method for the characterization of complex mycelial morphology, while in physiological studies it has provided better understanding and determination of microbial activities. Therefore, it is an important instrument for the research and design of the current filamentous production process.

Mathematical modelling has become a powerful engineering tool in a complex system such as growth of filamentous microorganisms. Besides simple unstructured models, also numerous morphologically structured models have been proposed, considering different morphological forms of mycelial culture as a consequence of metamorphosis reactions. However, they may contain a large number of parameters, which makes these models too complex and not usable for process automation. Therefore, the main goal of mathematical modelling, if it can be applied to the current filamentous system, should be to develop a reliable mathematical model of the bioprocess with minimal complexity and necessary data to control the mycelial cultivations.

Clearly, the past decade has provided an abundance of new data regarding the use of filamentous fungi as cell factories for heterologous protein production. Strain optimization is a critical step in enhancing the production levels of the current production process. The basis for strain improvement strategies lies in the development of molecular tools, which have initiated a detailed analysis of the fungal secretion pathway (Conesa *et al.*, 2001). Current research in several research groups (including the EUROFUNG consortium; www.eurofung.net) are focused on unraveling the key features of this pathway. With this information at our finger tips, the words of Peberdy, referring to protein secretion in filamentous fungi as “a highly productive black box” (Peberdy, 1994), will be something of the past and strain optimization will become a realistic approach in process design.

Another field of research with considerable promise is that of the ‘-omics’ technologies. These technologies deal with an overall analysis of gene expression (transcriptomics),



protein (proteomics) and metabolite (metabolomics) production at the level of the complete organism. Obviously, these technologies rely heavily on sophisticated laboratory techniques, development of data analysis and pattern-recognition tools (bioinformatics). Currently, the focus of the fungal research community is still primarily on the acquisition of DNA sequence data coupled with functional analysis of identified genes (Yoder and Turgeon, 2001; Sweigard and Ebbole, 2001; Hamer *et al.*, 2001). Also the first reports on fungal proteomic approaches have appeared (Lim *et al.*, 2001). In the near future, requirements for ‘-omics’ research in filamentous fungi will undoubtedly be met, allowing the fungal research community to address the various biological questions that it still faces.

Once strain, nutrient, and bioprocessing conditions have been optimised, the next step is to design a large-scale commercial production process. This involves a comprehensive scale-up analysis that is not easy and involves several compromises. In general, it is not possible to provide the same environment in large-scale and small-scale vessels because impeller tip speed, superficial air velocity and the corresponding flooding tendency, the quality of mixing and heat transfer surface to volume ratio change with size. Therefore, scale-up is still an art and not exact science, especially for the mycelial submerged cultures.



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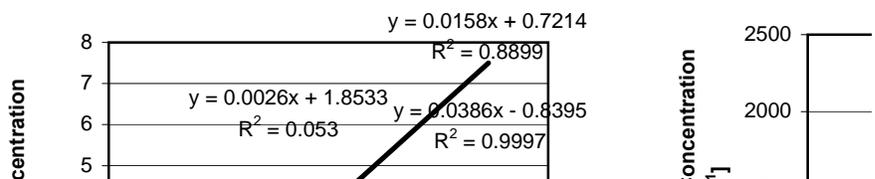


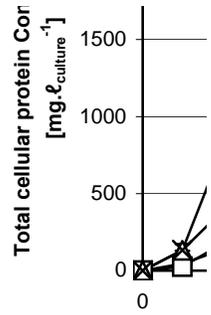
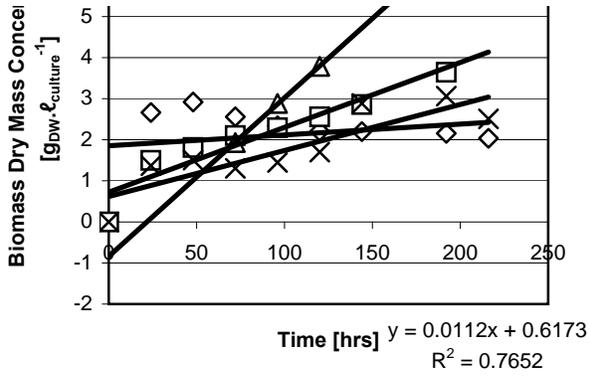
9 APPENDICES

Appendix A, B, C and D are in excel format and are written on CD, placed at the back of the manuscript. Appendix A contains all the processed data concerning shake flask experiments of temperature optimisation. Appendix B contains all the processed data concerning shake flask experiments of inoculum concentration and Appendix C contains all bioreactor related processed data. This includes agitation, dO_2 concentration and pH optimisation. Appendix D contains all the processed data relating to the specific OUR of the microorganism.

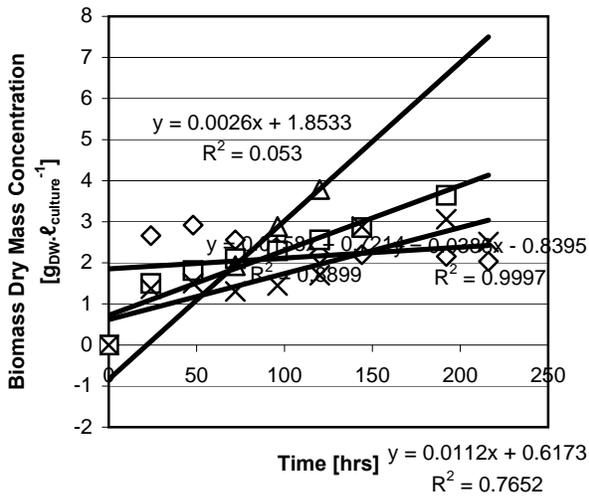
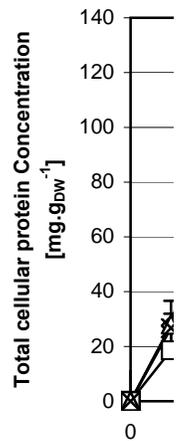


Temperature	Time	Biomass Dry Weight (DW)		Bradford Production		HBsAg P
[°C]	[Hrs]	Average [gDW/l]	Deviation [gDW/l]	Average [mg/L]	Deviation [mg/L]	Average [ug/L]
(small smooth p	0	#NUM!	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
16	24	2.664	0.545	45.403	15.055	23.599
16	48	2.919	0.883	135.655	35.078	73.720
16	72	2.559	0.299	230.493	22.280	92.991
16	96	2.341	1.976	447.053	120.716	106.934
16	120	2.207	0.160	809.688	46.860	124.385
16	144	2.200	1.472	466.221	91.316	143.142
16	192	2.155	1.215	602.911	2.437	161.061
16	216	2.036	3.202	710.179	329.791	140.116
largest & fluffiest	0	#NUM!	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
23	24	1.499	0.481	26.276	8.839	6.344
23	48	1.812	0.762	172.438	21.651	47.381
23	72	2.103	0.624	308.717	100.121	103.348
23	96	2.293	0.553	371.219	29.465	139.256
23	120	2.560	1.300	572.111	100.531	189.535
23	144	2.856	1.061	692.126	180.274	249.738
23	192	3.643	0.624	923.910	80.059	587.783
23	216		0.624	754.253	147.758	615.256
(large & fluffy p	0		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
30	24		1.348	132.229	3.307	10.176
30	48		1.750	786.879	53.192	51.844
30	72	1.932	1.788	1470.424	38.551	98.287
30	96	2.885	0.240	1873.171	49.932	316.975
30	120	3.785	2.107	1980.963	37.419	902.029
30	144		2.446	1423.514	189.622	965.955
30	192		2.666	244.846	19.604	715.322
30	216		2.423	159.369	10.186	663.558
C (small fluffy pe	0	#NUM!	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
37	24	1.369	0.484	133.161	38.950	19.383
37	48	1.505	0.811	385.035	107.593	34.563
37	72	1.304	1.962	603.372	31.863	31.726
37	96	1.448	0.470	771.040	101.558	35.636
37	120	1.698	0.534	735.878	71.912	39.284
37	144	2.885	1.682	630.348	18.229	128.644
37	192	3.063	0.999	139.515	6.759	133.919
37	216	2.507	0.997	156.666	16.288	75.789

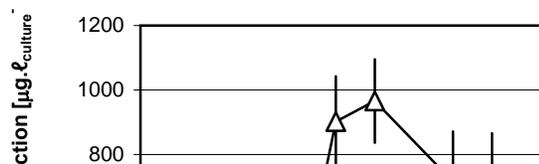
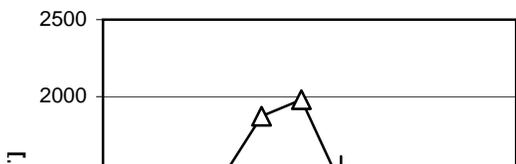


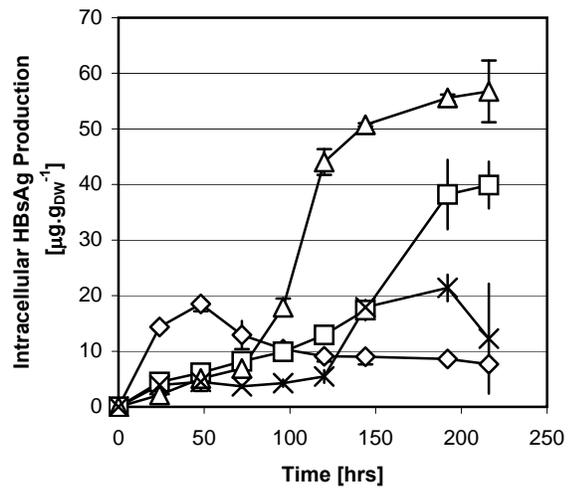
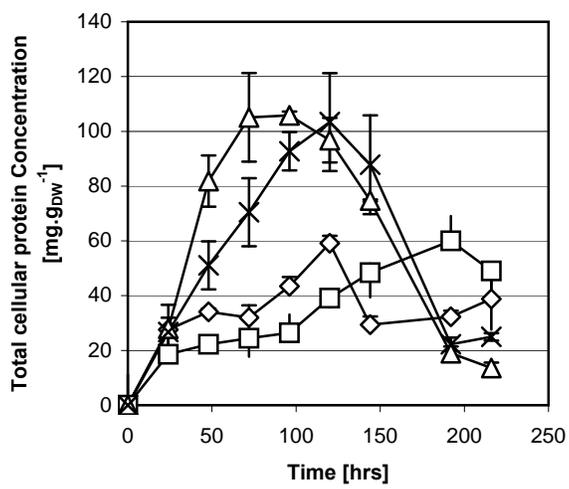
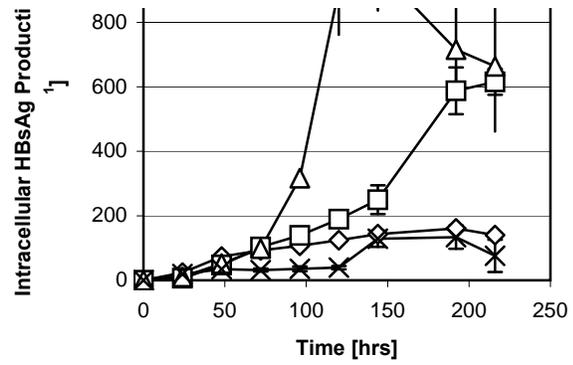
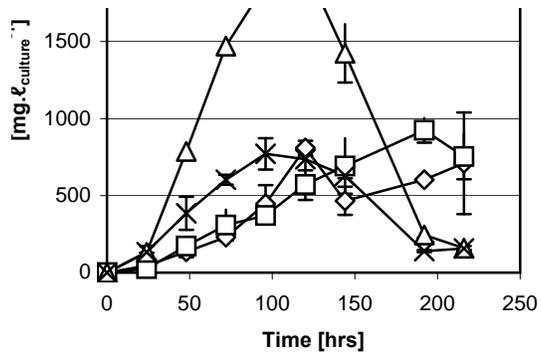


- ◇— 16 oC (small smooth pellets)
- 23 oC (largest & fluffiest pellets)
- △— 30 oC (large & fluffy pellets)
- ×— 37 oC (small fluffy pellets)

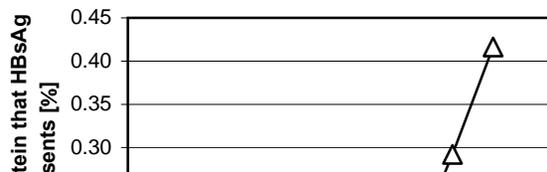


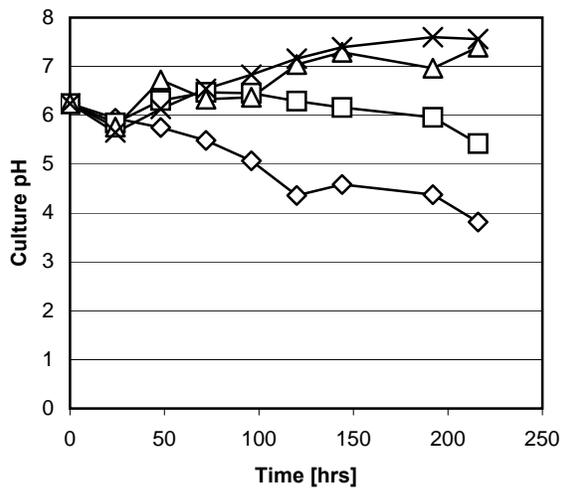
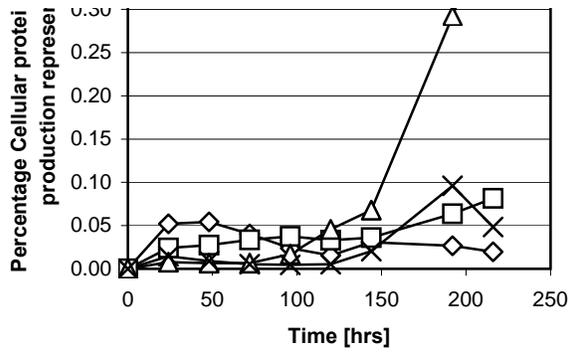
Production	HbsAg Production / Bradford Production	Bradford Production		HBsAg Production	
Deviation [ug/L]	[%]	Average [mg/gDW]	Deviation [mg/gDW]	Average [ug/gDW]	Deviation [ug/gDW]
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
7.092	0.052	27.621	0.000	14.357	0.446
11.105	0.054	34.094	1.246	18.528	1.323
14.356	0.040	32.037	4.427	12.925	2.532
7.809	0.024	43.438	3.389	10.390	1.236
14.084	0.015	59.159	2.731	9.088	0.923
8.719	0.031	29.398	3.029	9.026	1.388
11.620	0.027	32.292	2.233	8.626	0.061
24.184	0.020	38.820	11.233	7.659	0.018
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
3.102	0.024	18.594	0.069	4.476	0.668
2.245	0.027	22.260	0.607	6.124	0.311
2.773	0.033	24.446	6.720	8.188	0.185
10.269	0.038	26.411	3.136	9.904	1.121
9.374	0.033	39.093	3.397	12.932	0.510
44.677	0.036	48.379	9.014	17.397	1.829
72.449	0.064	60.030	2.770	38.203	6.254
39.775	0.082	49.006	11.586	39.899	4.204
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
2.955	0.008	27.966	8.672	2.155	0.011
11.933	0.007	81.860	9.370	5.085	2.223
5.473	0.007	105.097	16.188	6.901	1.289
23.695	0.017	105.829	1.384	17.908	1.582
140.477	0.046	96.781	8.134	44.039	2.327
129.666	0.068	74.782	0.352	50.748	0.291
155.969	0.292	19.017	2.415	55.564	0.610
202.283	0.416	13.616	1.949	56.753	5.544
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
2.597	0.015	26.735	5.222	3.931	0.900
1.661	0.009	51.066	8.778	4.505	0.713
4.681	0.005	70.467	12.427	3.685	0.302
7.512	0.005	92.740	6.975	4.254	0.661
5.219	0.005	103.392	17.856	5.462	1.147
25.176	0.020	87.823	18.039	17.910	0.692
36.357	0.096	22.239	2.465	21.398	2.395
49.994	0.048	24.968	1.373	12.265	9.887





HbsAg Production / Bradford Production	pH	
[%]	Average	Deviation
0.000	6.240	0.000
0.052	5.940	0.000
0.054	5.750	0.198
0.040	5.485	0.007
0.024	5.070	0.085
0.015	4.360	0.212
0.031	4.585	0.205
0.027	4.375	0.078
0.020	3.815	0.262
0.000	6.240	0.000
0.024	5.845	0.007
0.028	6.305	0.021
0.033	6.470	0.057
0.038	6.455	0.078
0.033	6.290	0.014
0.036	6.160	0.127
0.064	5.960	0.085
0.081	5.420	0.467
0.000	6.240	0.000
0.008	5.760	0.000
0.006	6.725	0.021
0.007	6.330	0.184
0.017	6.370	0.170
0.046	7.040	0.113
0.068	7.290	0.028
0.292	6.965	0.049
0.417	7.395	0.021
0.000	6.240	0.000
0.015	5.650	0.141
0.009	6.130	0.099
0.005	6.540	0.184
0.005	6.830	0.042
0.005	7.160	0.042
0.020	7.395	0.191
0.096	7.600	0.453
0.049	7.560	0.509



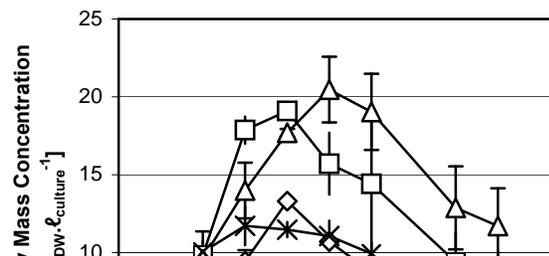


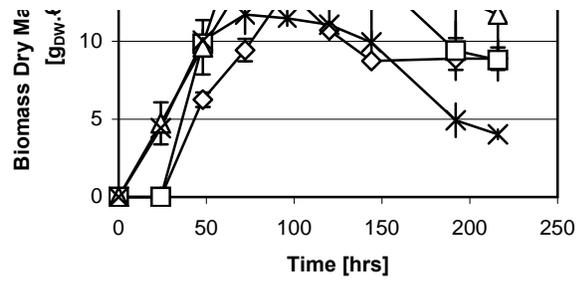
Temperature	Time	Biomass Dry Weight (DW)		Bradford Production		HBsAg P
[°C]	[Hrs]	Average [gDW/l]	Deviation [gDW/l]	Average [mg/L]	Deviation [mg/L]	Average [ug/L]
(small smooth p	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
16	24	1.644	0.545	45.403	15.055	23.599
16	48	3.979	0.883	135.655	35.078	73.720
16	72	7.195	0.299	230.493	22.280	92.991
16	96	10.292	1.976	447.053	120.716	106.934
16	120	13.687	0.160	809.688	46.860	124.385
16	144	15.859	1.472	466.221	91.316	143.142
16	192	18.671	1.215	602.911	2.437	161.061
16	216	18.294	3.202	710.179	329.791	140.116
largest & fluffiest	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
23	24	1.413	0.481	26.276	8.839	6.344
23	48	7.747	0.762	172.438	21.651	47.381
23	72	12.629	0.624	308.717	100.121	103.348
23	96	14.055	0.553	371.219	29.465	139.256
23	120	14.635	1.300	572.111	100.531	189.535
23	144	14.306	1.061	692.126	180.274	249.738
23	192	15.391	0.624	923.910	80.059	587.783
23	216	15.391	0.624	754.253	147.758	615.256
(large & fluffy p	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
30	24	4.728	1.348	132.229	3.307	10.176
30	48	9.613	1.750	786.879	53.192	51.844
30	72	13.991	1.788	1470.424	38.551	98.287
30	96	17.700	0.240	1873.171	49.932	316.975
30	120	20.468	2.107	1980.963	37.419	902.029
30	144	19.035	2.446	1423.514	189.622	965.955
30	192	12.875	2.666	244.846	19.604	715.322
30	216	11.705	2.423	159.369	10.186	663.558
C (small fluffy pe	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
37	24	4.981	0.484	133.161	38.950	19.383
37	48	7.540	0.811	385.035	107.593	34.563
37	72	8.563	1.962	603.372	31.863	31.726
37	96	8.314	0.470	771.040	101.558	35.636
37	120	7.117	0.534	735.878	71.912	39.284
37	144	7.177	1.682	630.348	18.229	128.644
37	192	6.273	0.999	139.515	6.759	133.919
37	216	6.275	0.997	156.666	16.288	75.789

Production	HbsAg Production / Bradford Production	Bradford Production		HBsAg Production	
Deviation [ug/L]	[%]	Average [mg/gDW]	Deviation [mg/gDW]	Average [ug/gDW]	Deviation [ug/gDW]
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
7.092	0.052	27.621	0.000	14.357	0.446
11.105	0.054	34.094	1.246	18.528	1.323
14.356	0.040	32.037	4.427	12.925	2.532
7.809	0.024	43.438	3.389	10.390	1.236
14.084	0.015	59.159	2.731	9.088	0.923
8.719	0.031	29.398	3.029	9.026	1.388
11.620	0.027	32.292	2.233	8.626	0.061
24.184	0.020	38.820	11.233	7.659	0.018
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
3.102	0.024	18.594	0.069	4.476	0.668
2.245	0.027	22.260	0.607	6.124	0.311
2.773	0.033	24.446	6.720	8.188	0.185
10.269	0.038	26.411	3.136	9.904	1.121
9.374	0.033	39.093	3.397	12.932	0.510
44.677	0.036	48.379	9.014	17.397	1.829
72.449	0.064	60.030	2.770	38.203	6.254
39.775	0.082	49.006	11.586	39.899	4.204
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
2.955	0.008	27.966	8.672	2.155	0.011
11.933	0.007	81.860	9.370	5.085	2.223
5.473	0.007	105.097	16.188	6.901	1.289
23.695	0.017	105.829	1.384	17.908	1.582
140.477	0.046	96.781	8.134	44.039	2.327
129.666	0.068	74.782	0.352	50.748	0.291
155.969	0.292	19.017	2.415	55.564	0.610
202.283	0.416	13.616	1.949	56.753	5.544
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
2.597	0.015	26.735	5.222	3.931	0.900
1.661	0.009	51.066	8.778	4.505	0.713
4.681	0.005	70.467	12.427	3.685	0.302
7.512	0.005	92.740	6.975	4.254	0.661
5.219	0.005	103.392	17.856	5.462	1.147
25.176	0.020	87.823	18.039	17.910	0.692
36.357	0.096	22.239	2.465	21.398	2.395
49.994	0.048	24.968	1.373	12.265	9.887

HbsAg Production / Bradford Production	pH	
[%]	Average	Deviation
0.000	6.240	0.000
0.052	5.940	0.000
0.054	5.750	0.198
0.040	5.485	0.007
0.024	5.070	0.085
0.015	4.360	0.212
0.031	4.585	0.205
0.027	4.375	0.078
0.020	3.815	0.262
0.000	6.240	0.000
0.024	5.845	0.007
0.028	6.305	0.021
0.033	6.470	0.057
0.038	6.455	0.078
0.033	6.290	0.014
0.036	6.160	0.127
0.064	5.960	0.085
0.081	5.420	0.467
0.000	6.240	0.000
0.008	5.760	0.000
0.006	6.725	0.021
0.007	6.330	0.184
0.017	6.370	0.170
0.046	7.040	0.113
0.068	7.290	0.028
0.292	6.965	0.049
0.417	7.395	0.021
0.000	6.240	0.000
0.015	5.650	0.141
0.009	6.130	0.099
0.005	6.540	0.184
0.005	6.830	0.042
0.005	7.160	0.042
0.020	7.395	0.191
0.096	7.600	0.453
0.049	7.560	0.509

Inoculum concentration	Time	Biomass Dry Weight (DW)		Bradford Production		HBsAg Production	
[spores/ml]	[Hrs]	Average [gDW/l]	Deviation [gDW/l]	Average [mg/L]	Deviation [mg/L]	Average [ug/L]	Deviation [ug/L]
(very large fluffy pe	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
(very large fluffy pe	24	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
(very large fluffy pe	48	6.249	0.468	156.698	51.319	13.057	0.977
(very large fluffy pe	72	9.432	0.721	579.407	31.194	75.852	5.799
(very large fluffy pe	96	13.306	0.000	1204.923	89.613	433.250	12.289
(very large fluffy pe	120	10.710	0.000	1386.238	218.496	456.066	37.951
(very large fluffy pe	144	8.733	0.000	795.928	115.575	375.782	22.608
(very large fluffy pe	192	8.885	0.721	224.871	71.131	386.138	24.084
(very large fluffy pe	216	8.885	0.721	243.420	19.901	436.835	9.925
smaller less fluffier	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
smaller less fluffier	24	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
smaller less fluffier	48	9.842	0.908	548.157	101.253	49.876	18.365
smaller less fluffier	72	17.866	0.871	1172.979	173.986	155.950	32.265
smaller less fluffier	96	19.092	0.271	1712.187	85.578	523.709	35.187
smaller less fluffier	120	15.706	1.989	1156.032	40.263	766.362	120.141
smaller less fluffier	144	14.415	4.320	1050.847	164.754	803.457	293.624
smaller less fluffier	192	9.395	1.880	288.499	34.322	527.680	118.224
smaller less fluffier	216	8.792	1.314	161.227	10.293	512.432	58.377
very smaller fluffier	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
very smaller fluffier	24	4.728	1.348	132.229	3.307	10.176	2.955
very smaller fluffier	48	9.613	1.750	786.879	53.192	51.844	11.933
very smaller fluffier	72	13.991	1.788	1470.424	38.551	98.287	5.473
very smaller fluffier	96	17.700	0.240	1873.171	49.932	316.975	23.695
very smaller fluffier	120	20.468	2.107	1980.963	37.419	902.029	140.477
very smaller fluffier	144	19.035	2.446	1423.514	189.622	965.955	129.666
very smaller fluffier	192	12.875	2.666	244.846	19.604	715.322	155.969
very smaller fluffier	216	11.705	2.423	159.369	10.186	663.558	202.283
8 (filamentous gro	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
8 (filamentous gro	24	4.424	0.058	176.958	36.939	11.237	2.305
8 (filamentous gro	48	10.047	0.178	1279.254	123.105	49.948	11.562
8 (filamentous gro	72	11.718	1.247	1352.031	58.178	145.162	5.929
8 (filamentous gro	96	11.477	0.482	1417.506	58.172	430.101	24.682
8 (filamentous gro	120	11.068	0.975	1216.927	16.397	483.129	103.481
8 (filamentous gro	144	9.931	0.725	929.172	198.873	444.043	20.928
8 (filamentous gro	192	4.926	1.079	460.604	173.450	219.194	27.489
8 (filamentous gro	216	4.027	0.308	222.712	15.676	190.432	38.646





- ◇— 10³ (very large fluffy pellets)
- 10⁵ (smaller less fluffier pellets)
- △— 10⁶ (very smaller fluffy pellets)
- ×— 10⁸ (filamentous growth)

HbsAg Production / Bradford Production	Bradford Production		HBsAg Production		HbsAg Production / Bradford Production
[%]	Average [mg/gDW]	Deviation [mg/gDW]	Average [ug/gDW]	Deviation [ug/gDW]	[%]
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.000	17.111	1.123	1.428	0.163	0.008
0.008	32.606	10.651	2.089	0.000	0.006
0.013	56.060	7.593	8.042	0.000	0.014
0.036	85.791	6.735	32.560	0.924	0.038
0.033	115.008	20.401	42.583	3.543	0.037
0.047	81.779	13.234	43.028	2.589	0.053
0.172	29.289	5.628	43.460	0.817	0.148
0.179	27.407	0.015	49.165	5.108	0.179
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.000	30.197	7.515	3.654	0.605	0.012
0.009	51.800	5.507	5.067	1.398	0.010
0.013	75.131	13.401	8.729	1.380	0.012
0.031	93.794	5.814	27.431	1.454	0.029
0.066	106.407	46.392	48.793	1.471	0.046
0.076	66.820	8.598	55.738	3.664	0.083
0.183	29.166	2.183	56.169	1.345	0.193
0.318	17.334	1.419	58.284	2.069	0.336
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.008	27.966	8.672	2.152	0.011	0.008
0.007	81.860	9.370	5.393	2.223	0.007
0.007	105.097	16.188	7.025	1.289	0.007
0.017	105.829	1.384	17.908	1.582	0.017
0.046	96.781	8.134	44.069	2.327	0.046
0.068	74.782	0.352	50.745	0.291	0.068
0.292	19.017	2.415	55.559	0.610	0.292
0.416	13.616	1.949	56.692	5.544	0.416
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.006	45.480	7.749	2.540	0.554	0.006
0.004	134.317	9.879	4.972	1.239	0.004
0.011	128.564	18.647	12.388	1.824	0.010
0.030	123.427	0.117	37.475	3.725	0.030
0.040	116.133	8.744	43.651	5.506	0.038
0.048	102.438	12.551	44.713	1.155	0.044
0.048	81.169	17.434	44.493	4.163	0.055
0.086	61.372	8.589	47.283	5.977	0.077

pH	
Average	Deviation
6.320	0.014
4.280	0.014
4.565	0.014
6.730	0.290
6.480	0.028
6.780	0.000
7.050	0.099
7.060	0.000
7.195	0.297
6.340	0.014
4.495	0.049
5.430	0.127
6.760	0.014
6.770	0.000
6.700	0.184
7.100	0.198
7.290	0.042
7.345	0.092
6.240	0.000
5.760	0.000
6.725	0.021
6.330	0.184
6.370	0.170
7.040	0.113
7.290	0.028
6.965	0.049
7.395	0.021
6.350	0.000
5.300	0.226
5.430	0.127
5.945	0.445
6.775	0.163
7.290	0.042
7.300	0.028
7.575	0.233
7.655	0.191

Agitation	dO ₂	Time	Biomass Dry Weight (DW)				Assay Dry w
[rpm]	[%]	Hours	Sample A [gDW/L]	Sample B [gDW/L]	Average [gDW/L]	Deviation [gDW/L]	HBsAg Average [gDW/ml]
350	50	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
350	50	20	3.323	2.948	3.135	0.265	0.012
350	50	28	3.493	3.063	3.278	0.304	0.043
350	50	33	3.800	3.877	3.838	0.054	0.057
350	50	48	7.183	8.297	7.740	0.787	0.018
350	50	72	6.840	5.996	6.418	0.597	0.046
350	50	95	5.857	6.277	6.067	0.297	0.045
350	50	145	6.250	5.553	5.902	0.493	0.050
100	50	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
100	50	9	0.500	0.453	0.477	0.033	0.031
100	50	16	1.917	1.177	1.547	0.523	0.028
100	50	22	4.343	4.163	4.253	0.127	0.041
100	50	29	5.833	5.830	5.832	0.002	0.050
100	50	37	5.907	6.687	6.297	0.552	0.053
100	50	44	8.252	10.151	9.202	1.343	0.047
100	50	52	11.475	11.800	11.638	0.230	0.051
100	50	60	13.680	12.100	12.890	1.117	0.054
100	50	82	9.752	11.075	10.413	0.936	0.046
100	50	90	7.708	7.950	7.829	0.171	0.047
100	50	103	6.653	6.290	6.472	0.257	0.032
100	50	130	6.368	4.765	5.567	1.133	0.031
100	50	160	6.334	6.248	6.291	0.061	0.055
600	50	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
600	50	17	5.370	5.273	5.322	0.068	0.053
600	50	21	5.977	7.507	6.742	1.082	0.045
600	50	26	8.203	8.363	8.283	0.113	0.047
600	50	35	10.677	10.053	10.365	0.441	0.051
600	50	42	12.410	13.306	12.858	0.633	0.056
600	50	49	10.630	11.583	11.107	0.674	0.043
600	50	58	11.489	8.840	10.164	1.873	0.051
600	50	68	9.332	8.515	8.924	0.577	0.045
600	50	90	4.885	6.106	5.496	0.863	0.043
600	50	111	3.293	3.127	3.210	0.118	0.043
600	50	116	2.837	3.013	2.925	0.125	0.050
350	95	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
350	95	34	4.513	4.653	4.583	0.099	0.057
350	95	43	8.040	8.448	8.244	0.288	0.049
350	95	55	9.690	9.520	9.605	0.120	0.038
350	95	64	6.235	5.257	5.746	0.692	0.045
350	95	80	4.592	5.480	5.036	0.628	0.038
350	95	90	6.496	3.028	4.762	2.452	0.046
350	95	101	2.971	2.804	2.888	0.118	0.036
350	95	116	1.943	1.818	1.881	0.089	0.035
350	95	133	0.710	1.377	1.043	0.471	0.008

350	2	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
350	2	34	3.137	3.247	3.192	0.078	0.036
350	2	43	3.190	3.648	3.419	0.324	0.008
350	2	55	4.140	4.320	4.230	0.127	0.030
350	2	64	4.497	5.160	4.828	0.469	0.030
350	2	80	8.320	8.393	8.356	0.052	0.029
350	2	90	8.690	9.229	8.959	0.381	0.045
350	2	101	11.104	12.696	11.900	1.125	0.040
350	2	116	7.436	7.227	7.331	0.148	0.042
350	2	133	6.833	6.808	6.821	0.018	0.041
350	2	140	6.800	6.754	6.777	0.033	0.049
250	20	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
250	20	9	0.637	0.573	0.605	0.045	0.000
250	20	16	2.733	2.823	2.778	0.064	0.000
250	20	22	5.592	4.340	4.966	0.885	0.048
250	20	29	5.907	5.960	5.933	0.038	0.053
250	20	37	6.890	6.607	6.748	0.200	0.055
250	20	44	6.973	6.714	6.844	0.183	0.053
250	20	52	8.687	8.087	8.387	0.424	0.050
250	20	60	8.463	8.615	8.539	0.107	0.050
250	20	82	8.786	8.743	8.765	0.030	0.045
250	20	90	8.048	8.030	8.039	0.013	0.041
250	20	103	7.763	7.972	7.867	0.148	0.039
250	20	130	6.147	7.121	6.634	0.689	0.049
250	20	160	6.084	5.967	6.025	0.083	0.047
250	80	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
250	80	12	3.900	4.197	4.048	0.210	0.048
250	80	21	6.237	6.060	6.148	0.125	0.059
250	80	26	6.980	6.313	6.647	0.471	0.047
250	80	35	9.313	9.930	9.622	0.436	0.056
250	80	42	10.380	10.017	10.198	0.257	0.047
250	80	49	11.400	10.483	10.942	0.648	0.043
250	80	58	11.454	10.714	11.084	0.523	0.052
250	80	68	8.660	8.797	8.728	0.097	0.042
250	80	90	8.507	8.233	8.370	0.193	0.052
250	80	111	7.127	7.157	7.142	0.022	0.047
250	80	116	6.300	6.400	6.350	0.071	0.049
450	20	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
450	20	14	0.780	0.827	0.803	0.033	0.473
450	20	19	4.097	3.823	3.960	0.193	0.039
450	20	32	7.927	8.110	8.018	0.130	0.052
450	20	37	7.833	7.277	7.555	0.394	0.044
450	20	45	6.818	6.682	6.750	0.096	0.046
450	20	58	6.510	6.740	6.625	0.163	0.048
450	20	79	6.391	6.363	6.377	0.019	0.048
450	20	102	6.297	6.118	6.207	0.127	0.050
450	20	140	5.287	5.000	5.143	0.203	0.049
450	80	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
450	80	16	5.503	4.277	4.890	0.867	0.033
450	80	38	6.913	6.104	6.508	0.572	0.041
450	80	43	8.093	7.823	7.958	0.191	0.042
450	80	50	7.793	6.787	7.290	0.712	0.045
450	80	68	6.967	7.064	7.016	0.069	0.039
450	80	74	6.990	6.938	6.964	0.037	0.036
450	80	94	5.956	6.077	6.016	0.085	0.042

350	25	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
350	25	28	4.333	3.047	3.690	0.910	0.026
350	25	33	5.430	5.550	5.490	0.085	0.051
350	25	48	8.263	7.517	7.890	0.528	0.037
350	25	72	11.017	11.113	11.065	0.068	0.047
350	25	95	6.696	6.470	6.583	0.160	0.049
350	25	145	5.992	5.237	5.614	0.534	0.047
350	<2	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.040
350	<2	15	0.440	0.480	0.460	0.028	0.040
350	<2	19	1.110	1.253	1.182	0.101	0.040
350	<2	23	2.047	1.180	1.613	0.613	0.040
350	<2	47	5.010	4.540	4.775	0.332	0.042
350	<2	59	5.750	5.440	5.595	0.219	0.046
350	<2	83	5.980	6.100	6.040	0.085	0.047
350	<2	140	7.160	6.847	7.003	0.222	0.048
350	control	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
350	control	30	1.810	1.850	1.830	0.028	0.043
350	control	50	9.550	8.253	8.902	0.917	0.043
350	control	57	8.953	10.220	9.587	0.896	0.031
350	control	68	9.547	10.273	9.910	0.514	0.032
350	control	74	11.100	10.220	10.660	0.622	0.034
350	control	80	12.220	11.373	11.797	0.599	0.036
350	control	86	12.083	11.576	11.830	0.359	0.035
350	control	94	12.070	11.747	11.908	0.229	0.034
350	control	127	12.400	14.657	13.528	1.596	0.049
350	control	152	10.783	18.203	14.493	5.247	0.040
300	pH6	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.040
300	pH6	14	1.553	2.977	2.265	1.006	0.040
300	pH6	19	3.533	4.420	3.977	0.627	0.026
300	pH6	32	4.496	4.555	4.525	0.041	0.041
300	pH6	37	7.391	7.110	7.250	0.199	0.038
300	pH6	45	7.297	7.321	7.309	0.017	0.039
300	pH6	58	6.262	6.292	6.277	0.021	0.045
300	pH6	79	5.960	6.592	6.276	0.447	0.040
300	pH6	102	5.813	5.953	5.883	0.099	0.046
300	pH6	140	4.053	4.145	4.099	0.065	0.000
300	pH7	0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
300	pH7	15	1.250	1.070	1.160	0.127	0.000
300	pH7	19	2.077	1.880	1.978	0.139	0.000
300	pH7	23	2.945	3.445	3.195	0.354	0.000
300	pH7	47	3.718	3.509	3.614	0.148	0.000
300	pH7	59	3.925	4.394	4.160	0.332	0.000
300	pH7	83	4.470	4.292	4.381	0.126	0.000
300	pH7	140	8.590	10.037	9.313	1.023	0.047

NM Not measured

weight (DW)	HBsAg Concentration Assay (membrane fraction)		Specific HBsAg Concentration (membrane fraction)	
	Average [IU/ml]	Deviation [IU/ml]	Average [ug/gDW]	Deviation [ug/gDW]
Total protein Average [gDW/ml]				
0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.040	3.470	0.416	6.723	0.805
0.033	3.635	0.294	8.668	0.702
0.047	6.205	0.699	10.134	1.141
0.008	6.263	0.994	64.282	10.201
0.036	46.815	2.691	99.947	5.746
0.035	53.453	1.634	118.019	3.608
0.040	81.653	2.882	157.803	5.570
0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.021	0.245	0.075	0.895	0.274
0.018	0.480	0.127	2.059	0.545
0.031	5.015	1.481	12.377	3.656
0.040	11.430	1.434	21.953	2.755
0.043	14.695	0.354	26.577	0.640
0.032	17.180	1.495	41.737	3.631
0.031	17.798	1.028	44.421	2.566
0.024	18.615	0.541	59.124	1.718
0.021	79.223	2.882	288.243	10.487
0.022	84.220	3.954	301.473	14.153
0.020	56.365	2.771	213.603	10.501
0.021	54.550	2.279	199.411	8.330
0.045	51.788	3.176	88.499	5.428
0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.043	0.583	0.205	1.049	0.369
0.035	1.173	0.091	2.634	0.204
0.037	1.890	0.156	3.922	0.325
0.041	7.030	0.798	13.176	1.495
0.046	14.745	1.495	24.841	2.519
0.033	24.213	1.075	57.121	2.537
0.031	24.415	0.691	60.163	1.703
0.035	27.385	2.004	60.898	4.457
0.033	34.330	2.953	80.621	6.934
0.033	34.965	2.627	82.237	6.178
0.040	34.400	2.540	66.648	4.922
0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.040	2.345	0.922	4.543	1.787
0.040	11.788	1.146	22.838	2.221
0.040	29.498	1.877	57.150	3.636
0.040	35.885	1.365	69.525	2.644
0.040	59.165	3.344	114.629	6.479
0.036	61.115	2.304	131.564	4.959
0.040	75.300	3.526	145.890	6.832
0.040	60.275	3.759	116.780	7.282
0.040	59.115	3.297	114.532	6.387

0.030	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.026	1.435	0.387	4.253	1.146
0.040	5.600	0.046	10.850	0.089
0.020	7.115	1.931	27.639	7.499
0.020	9.298	4.505	36.027	17.456
0.020	9.333	0.802	36.436	3.130
0.035	17.060	1.799	37.560	3.960
0.030	19.928	5.758	50.884	14.702
0.032	34.763	4.245	84.320	10.296
0.031	44.880	3.080	112.926	7.749
0.039	54.418	2.009	109.255	4.033
0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.040	0.328	0.095	0.635	0.184
0.040	0.565	0.210	1.095	0.407
0.038	2.378	1.335	4.823	2.708
0.043	12.713	3.993	22.753	7.146
0.045	14.888	3.354	25.525	5.751
0.043	15.268	2.571	27.548	4.639
0.040	25.058	5.522	48.487	10.684
0.040	27.595	6.297	53.000	12.094
0.035	27.853	0.312	62.205	0.697
0.031	28.390	1.167	70.518	2.900
0.029	30.053	4.447	79.761	11.803
0.039	46.533	8.703	93.183	17.427
0.037	47.313	5.637	98.433	11.727
0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.038	2.435	0.434	4.921	0.878
0.049	2.458	0.952	3.883	1.505
0.037	3.088	0.343	6.476	0.719
0.046	5.058	1.885	8.548	3.186
0.037	9.415	0.327	19.509	0.678
0.033	17.888	12.941	42.588	30.810
0.022	24.080	21.484	85.212	76.026
0.032	48.338	19.073	115.441	45.550
0.042	85.378	5.681	156.236	10.395
0.037	86.015	3.690	181.882	7.804
0.039	90.703	5.157	180.469	10.262
0.000	0.000	0.000	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!
0.463	0.280	0.050	0.047	0.008
0.029	3.263	0.962	8.779	2.588
0.042	9.798	1.801	17.950	3.300
0.034	10.955	2.848	24.824	6.454
0.036	20.260	1.489	44.042	3.237
0.038	26.440	0.247	54.065	0.506
0.038	33.765	2.836	69.594	5.846
0.040	42.573	3.061	83.210	5.983
0.039	36.443	3.280	72.323	6.510
-0.010	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.023	3.603	0.671	12.192	2.270
0.031	13.180	1.149	33.380	2.910
0.032	28.610	5.484	69.072	13.240
0.035	50.643	6.576	113.104	14.686
0.029	64.433	6.537	171.300	17.380
0.026	64.728	3.531	190.010	10.366
0.032	67.783	6.531	161.880	15.599

0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.040	5.165	2.131	10.007	4.128
0.041	14.873	1.510	27.840	2.826
0.027	40.078	0.968	115.462	2.790
0.037	73.085	0.916	154.121	1.932
0.039	80.118	5.832	159.408	11.604
0.037	85.900	1.325	181.392	2.798
0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.040	0.390	0.112	0.756	0.216
0.040	0.418	0.136	0.809	0.263
0.040	0.423	0.190	0.819	0.368
0.032	4.570	2.756	10.914	6.583
0.036	5.675	0.348	12.082	0.742
0.037	13.363	3.436	28.102	7.227
0.038	6.268	2.420	12.935	4.994
-0.010	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.033	25.580	3.078	89.707	0.769
0.033	28.968	5.174	91.334	3.564
0.021	32.565	6.657	93.953	11.304
0.022	36.020	4.442	100.895	18.022
0.024	37.983	1.533	105.816	21.631
0.026	38.025	0.326	109.470	13.499
0.025	38.715	1.511	118.453	4.782
0.024	40.870	2.534	130.343	8.081
0.049	92.613	3.661	146.775	5.803
0.040	98.808	4.975	191.435	9.640
0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.040	0.268	0.017	0.518	0.033
0.016	2.843	0.770	14.121	3.823
0.031	9.485	1.094	24.101	2.779
0.028	10.023	1.180	27.940	3.290
0.029	13.740	2.516	36.218	6.632
0.035	37.720	1.419	83.164	3.129
0.030	38.275	4.141	100.211	10.842
0.036	45.355	3.396	98.182	7.351
0.040	30.840	3.017	59.751	5.846
0.030	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.030	4.128	0.401	10.662	1.037
0.030	11.755	5.266	30.366	13.604
0.030	18.863	3.863	48.727	9.979
0.030	23.453	2.474	60.584	6.390
0.028	20.685	0.744	57.252	2.060
0.030	20.265	1.381	52.350	3.569
0.037	19.375	1.190	40.747	2.503

Volumetric HBsAg Concentration (membrane fraction)		Specific HBsAg Concentration (cytoplasmic fraction)	
Average [ug/L]	Deviation [ug/L]	Average [ug/gDW]	Deviation [ug/gDW]
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
21.079	2.525	0.000	0.000
28.416	2.302	0.000	0.000
38.899	4.379	0.000	0.000
497.545	78.955	0.103	0.000
641.473	36.877	0.181	0.141
715.981	21.888	3.317	0.476
931.301	32.874	0.019	0.000
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.427	0.131	0.037	0.000
3.184	0.843	0.086	0.000
52.645	15.550	0.037	0.014
128.022	16.064	0.029	0.011
167.348	4.032	0.018	0.000
384.048	33.411	0.024	0.000
516.949	29.866	0.050	0.029
762.108	22.147	45.347	10.172
3001.602	109.209	54.967	1.988
2360.229	110.801	56.531	17.695
1382.365	67.956	61.894	14.766
1110.079	46.372	60.509	13.751
556.781	34.147	24.800	2.770
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
5.580	1.965	0.000	0.000
17.756	1.373	0.000	0.000
32.484	2.688	0.021	0.000
136.565	15.496	0.103	0.050
319.406	32.384	0.198	0.050
634.435	28.179	0.720	0.260
611.519	17.310	0.850	0.051
543.432	39.776	1.946	0.203
443.055	38.108	3.235	0.475
263.982	19.831	3.610	1.130
194.946	14.396	3.904	0.190
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
20.824	8.189	0.000	0.000
188.272	18.310	0.000	0.000
548.925	34.925	0.019	0.000
399.468	15.190	0.029	0.011
577.273	32.627	0.993	0.176
626.506	23.615	3.681	0.870
421.289	19.728	2.955	0.257
219.616	13.695	6.403	1.421
119.495	6.664	5.919	1.040

0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
13.573	3.659	0.000	0.000
37.095	0.306	0.000	0.000
116.913	31.722	0.000	0.000
173.950	84.282	0.000	0.000
304.473	26.159	0.000	0.000
336.512	35.476	0.000	0.000
605.533	174.960	0.000	0.000
618.166	75.479	0.061	0.042
770.222	52.852	0.164	0.060
740.414	27.331	0.291	0.136
0.000	0.000	NM	NM
0.384	0.111	NM	NM
3.041	1.130	NM	NM
23.953	13.450	NM	NM
135.002	42.403	NM	NM
172.254	38.810	NM	NM
188.532	31.750	NM	NM
406.645	89.606	NM	NM
452.572	103.274	NM	NM
545.197	6.110	NM	NM
566.901	23.310	NM	NM
627.491	92.860	NM	NM
618.145	115.607	NM	NM
593.084	70.659	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	NM	NM
19.921	3.554	NM	NM
23.873	9.251	NM	NM
43.041	4.776	NM	NM
82.250	30.655	NM	NM
198.961	6.916	NM	NM
465.986	337.115	NM	NM
944.467	842.643	NM	NM
1007.613	397.582	NM	NM
1307.694	87.007	NM	NM
1298.987	55.732	NM	NM
1145.977	65.162	NM	NM
#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	NM	NM
0.038	0.007	NM	NM
34.765	10.249	NM	NM
143.929	26.462	NM	NM
187.547	48.761	NM	NM
297.286	21.853	NM	NM
358.178	3.351	NM	NM
443.807	37.280	NM	NM
516.507	37.138	NM	NM
371.982	33.482	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	NM	NM
59.617	11.099	NM	NM
217.237	18.940	NM	NM
549.700	105.367	NM	NM
824.525	107.059	NM	NM
1201.807	121.935	NM	NM
1323.220	72.190	NM	NM
973.924	93.846	NM	NM

0.000	0.000	NM	NM
36.926	15.232	NM	NM
152.843	15.515	NM	NM
910.995	22.012	NM	NM
1705.347	21.374	NM	NM
1049.396	76.390	NM	NM
1018.394	15.706	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	NM	NM
0.348	0.100	NM	NM
0.956	0.311	NM	NM
1.321	0.594	NM	NM
52.115	31.434	NM	NM
67.601	4.150	NM	NM
169.737	43.649	NM	NM
90.590	34.978	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	NM	NM
164.163	1.407	NM	NM
813.028	31.725	NM	NM
900.692	108.368	NM	NM
999.874	178.602	NM	NM
1128.003	230.590	NM	NM
1291.378	159.241	NM	NM
1401.256	56.567	NM	NM
1552.172	96.235	NM	NM
1985.617	78.498	NM	NM
2774.525	139.712	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	NM	NM
1.174	0.075	NM	NM
56.155	15.203	NM	NM
109.062	12.578	NM	NM
202.576	23.855	NM	NM
264.709	48.473	NM	NM
522.038	19.644	NM	NM
628.905	68.040	NM	NM
577.628	43.246	NM	NM
244.929	23.965	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	NM	NM
12.368	1.202	NM	NM
60.075	26.912	NM	NM
155.682	31.884	NM	NM
218.929	23.092	NM	NM
238.146	8.567	NM	NM
229.336	15.633	NM	NM
379.490	23.312	NM	NM

Volumetric HBsAg Concentration (cytoplasmic fraction)		Volumetric Total Protein Concentration (membrane fraction)		Specific Total Protein Concentration (membrane fraction)	
Average [ug/L]	Deviation [ug/L]	Average [mg/L]	Deviation [mg/L]	Total Protein (membrane fraction) Culture Average [mg/gDW]	Total Protein (membrane fraction) Culture St dev [mg/gDW]
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.000	0.000	27.649	1.975	8.818	0.630
0.000	0.000	16.323	1.377	4.979	0.420
0.000	0.000	18.363	0.655	4.784	0.171
0.794	0.000	135.450	25.915	17.500	3.348
1.165	0.905	118.852	5.825	18.518	0.908
20.126	2.886	118.591	3.856	19.548	0.636
0.114	0.000	102.456	8.713	17.361	1.476
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.017	0.000	4.434	0.150	9.303	0.315
0.133	0.000	20.542	4.672	13.282	3.021
0.157	0.061	40.183	2.681	9.447	0.630
0.168	0.065	50.059	9.109	8.584	1.562
0.114	0.000	51.884	7.714	8.240	1.225
0.224	0.000	79.324	6.360	8.621	0.691
0.581	0.335	102.559	12.968	8.813	1.114
584.529	131.113	216.234	6.919	16.775	0.537
572.397	20.698	245.558	13.473	23.581	1.294
442.578	138.536	233.900	17.448	29.876	2.229
400.559	95.564	157.296	17.455	24.305	2.697
336.839	76.550	92.024	7.615	16.531	1.368
156.028	17.430	43.258	13.667	6.876	2.172
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.000	0.000	32.309	0.803	6.071	0.151
0.000	0.000	55.026	8.170	8.162	1.212
0.172	0.000	96.573	13.814	11.659	1.668
1.068	0.514	146.591	12.021	14.143	1.160
2.545	0.647	164.661	17.218	12.806	1.339
7.992	2.890	197.256	3.426	17.760	0.308
8.641	0.521	194.430	8.671	19.128	0.853
17.364	1.808	183.607	15.004	20.575	1.681
17.778	2.610	130.726	8.667	23.788	1.577
11.589	3.628	42.931	7.771	13.374	2.421
11.419	0.556	29.167	3.712	9.972	1.269
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.000	0.000	30.651	3.431	6.688	0.749
0.000	0.000	125.626	18.176	15.239	2.205
0.186	0.000	159.792	6.052	16.636	0.630
0.167	0.064	95.489	5.079	16.619	0.884
5.000	0.888	98.693	7.628	19.597	1.515
17.530	4.143	91.332	4.731	19.179	0.993
8.532	0.743	52.608	1.129	18.218	0.391
12.042	2.672	33.701	2.838	17.920	1.509
6.175	1.085	23.428	4.846	22.455	4.645

0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.000	0.000	16.926	3.350	5.303	1.050
0.000	0.000	28.984	7.246	8.477	2.119
0.000	0.000	46.647	5.981	11.028	1.414
0.000	0.000	72.059	16.470	14.924	3.411
0.000	0.000	126.678	13.479	15.159	1.613
0.000	0.000	172.752	44.037	19.282	4.915
0.000	0.000	155.057	7.640	13.030	0.642
0.445	0.308	116.502	8.228	15.891	1.122
1.116	0.409	116.462	5.328	17.075	0.781
1.973	0.919	86.228	6.685	12.724	0.986
NM	NM	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
NM	NM	5.851	1.199	9.670	1.981
NM	NM	12.945	0.365	4.659	0.131
NM	NM	16.723	2.798	3.367	0.563
NM	NM	25.755	4.176	4.341	0.704
NM	NM	37.019	2.133	5.486	0.316
NM	NM	44.484	3.925	6.500	0.573
NM	NM	57.834	9.895	6.896	1.180
NM	NM	88.817	37.061	10.401	4.340
NM	NM	86.107	19.528	9.824	2.228
NM	NM	110.342	2.489	13.726	0.310
NM	NM	125.282	20.031	15.925	2.546
NM	NM	64.075	14.977	9.659	2.258
NM	NM	45.732	9.031	7.590	1.499
NM	NM	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
NM	NM	15.738	6.321	3.888	1.561
NM	NM	7.265	3.198	1.182	0.520
NM	NM	9.114	0.876	1.371	0.132
NM	NM	27.710	3.826	2.880	0.398
NM	NM	39.663	4.785	3.889	0.469
NM	NM	67.765	18.283	6.193	1.671
NM	NM	105.017	10.819	9.475	0.976
NM	NM	124.403	21.180	14.253	2.427
NM	NM	98.221	13.059	11.735	1.560
NM	NM	73.506	9.949	10.292	1.393
NM	NM	66.556	3.407	10.481	0.537
NM	NM	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!
NM	NM	0.532	0.094	0.663	0.117
NM	NM	29.719	3.103	7.505	0.784
NM	NM	116.363	11.620	14.512	1.449
NM	NM	143.338	11.208	18.973	1.484
NM	NM	127.030	4.302	18.819	0.637
NM	NM	120.414	6.302	18.176	0.951
NM	NM	115.061	4.373	18.043	0.686
NM	NM	108.234	3.306	17.437	0.533
NM	NM	95.934	14.689	18.652	2.856
NM	NM	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
NM	NM	72.312	12.441	14.788	2.544
NM	NM	107.114	5.677	16.459	0.872
NM	NM	151.909	7.603	19.088	0.955
NM	NM	134.807	7.681	18.492	1.054
NM	NM	161.365	4.681	23.000	0.667
NM	NM	180.994	7.198	25.990	1.034
NM	NM	130.077	2.565	21.621	0.426

NM	NM	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
NM	NM	11.804	0.598	3.199	0.162
NM	NM	19.349	3.022	3.524	0.550
NM	NM	167.253	15.369	21.198	1.948
NM	NM	185.717	10.954	16.784	0.990
NM	NM	105.864	5.467	16.081	0.830
NM	NM	85.912	1.971	15.302	0.351
NM	NM	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
NM	NM	2.467	1.449	5.364	3.149
NM	NM	10.662	0.000	9.023	0.000
NM	NM	8.103	0.212	5.023	0.131
NM	NM	27.557	8.912	5.771	1.866
NM	NM	53.938	10.011	9.640	1.789
NM	NM	48.167	15.086	7.975	2.498
NM	NM	22.805	4.110	3.256	0.587
NM	NM	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
NM	NM	17.826	3.993	9.741	2.182
NM	NM	69.531	5.597	7.811	0.629
NM	NM	133.995	17.011	13.977	1.774
NM	NM	156.007	11.291	15.742	1.139
NM	NM	156.912	27.140	14.720	2.546
NM	NM	171.945	9.416	14.576	0.798
NM	NM	203.254	16.421	17.182	1.388
NM	NM	192.903	30.029	16.199	2.522
NM	NM	138.012	18.714	10.202	1.383
NM	NM	179.602	24.731	12.392	1.706
NM	NM	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
NM	NM	13.564	1.880	5.989	0.830
NM	NM	38.562	8.125	9.697	2.043
NM	NM	60.114	3.345	13.284	0.739
NM	NM	101.300	7.296	13.972	1.006
NM	NM	114.579	7.346	15.677	1.005
NM	NM	108.449	7.518	17.277	1.198
NM	NM	129.863	5.379	20.693	0.857
NM	NM	104.988	5.728	17.845	0.974
NM	NM	63.933	0.699	15.597	0.170
NM	NM	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
NM	NM	15.845	4.323	13.659	3.727
NM	NM	32.744	2.847	16.551	1.439
NM	NM	39.211	0.000	12.273	0.000
NM	NM	77.611	15.255	21.477	4.221
NM	NM	107.773	29.454	25.909	7.081
NM	NM	111.512	36.645	25.455	8.365
NM	NM	158.937	21.830	17.065	2.344

Total Protein Bradford Optical Density (membrane fraction)						Total Protein Bradford		
A [OD]	B [OD]	C [OD]	D [OD]	Ave	Deviation	Buffer A [ug/ml]	Buffer B [ug/ml]	Buffer C [ug/ml]
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.035	0.035	0.039	0.039	0.002	0.037	31.818	31.818	35.455
0.057	0.057	0.026	0.026	0.018	0.042	51.818	51.818	23.636
0.025	0.025	0.014	0.014	0.006	0.020	22.727	22.727	12.727
0.079	0.081	0.044	0.049	0.019	0.063	71.818	73.636	40.000
0.147	0.164	0.162	0.155	0.008	0.157	133.636	149.091	147.273
0.186	0.152	0.193	0.113	0.037	0.161	169.091	138.182	175.455
0.146	0.116	0.145	0.186	0.029	0.148	132.727	105.455	131.818
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.110	0.110	0.077	0.077	0.019	0.094	100.000	100.000	70.000
0.016	0.016	0.034	0.034	0.010	0.025	14.545	14.545	30.909
0.032	0.032	0.051	0.051	0.011	0.042	29.091	29.091	46.364
0.056	0.055	0.067	0.045	0.009	0.056	50.909	50.000	60.909
0.118	0.082	0.151	0.076	0.035	0.107	107.273	74.545	137.273
0.008	0.009	0.018	0.033	0.012	0.017	7.273	8.182	16.364
0.071	0.043	0.036	0.032	0.018	0.046	64.545	39.091	32.727
0.085	0.076	0.224	0.202	0.077	0.147	77.273	69.091	203.636
0.283	0.434	0.249	0.391	0.087	0.339	257.273	394.545	226.364
0.310	0.328	0.199	0.209	0.067	0.262	281.818	298.182	180.909
0.141	0.154	0.069	0.055	0.050	0.105	128.182	140.000	62.727
0.215	0.195	0.123	0.155	0.041	0.172	195.455	177.273	111.818
0.215	0.195	0.123	0.155	0.041	0.172	195.455	177.273	111.818
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.019	0.026	0.039	0.035	0.009	0.030	17.273	23.636	35.455
0.015	0.015	0.024	0.013	0.005	0.017	13.636	13.636	21.818
0.017	0.041	0.027	0.066	0.021	0.038	15.455	37.273	24.545
0.230	0.312	0.254	0.236	0.037	0.258	209.091	283.636	230.909
0.253	0.309	0.278	0.259	0.025	0.275	230.000	280.909	252.727
0.267	0.262	0.267	0.260	0.004	0.264	242.727	238.182	242.727
0.246	0.241	0.243	0.235	0.005	0.241	223.636	219.091	220.909
0.306	0.261	0.212	0.181	0.055	0.240	278.182	237.273	192.727
0.220	0.157	0.145	0.194	0.034	0.179	200.000	142.727	131.818
0.178	0.169	0.142	0.166	0.015	0.164	161.818	153.636	129.091
0.182	0.182	0.140	0.140	0.024	0.161	165.455	165.455	127.273
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.052	0.047	0.050	0.035	0.008	0.046	47.273	42.727	45.455
0.135	0.180	0.165	0.162	0.019	0.161	122.727	163.636	150.000
0.182	0.162	0.181	0.170	0.010	0.174	165.455	147.273	164.545
0.212	0.202	0.193	0.183	0.012	0.198	192.727	183.636	175.455
0.249	0.234	0.203	0.193	0.026	0.220	226.364	212.727	184.545
0.144	0.144	0.187	0.187	0.025	0.166	130.909	130.909	170.000
0.167	0.167	0.145	0.145	0.013	0.156	151.818	151.818	131.818
0.144	0.144	0.147	0.147	0.002	0.146	130.909	130.909	133.636
0.142	0.142	0.140	0.140	0.001	0.141	129.091	129.091	127.273

0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.022	0.022	0.022	0.022	0.000	0.022	20.000	20.000	20.000
0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.000	0.004	3.636	3.636	3.636
0.038	0.038	0.038	0.018	0.010	0.033	34.545	34.545	34.545
0.076	0.052	0.052	0.037	0.016	0.054	69.091	47.273	47.273
0.039	0.113	0.066	0.075	0.031	0.073	35.455	102.727	60.000
0.081	0.038	0.041	0.091	0.027	0.063	73.636	34.545	37.273
0.108	0.111	0.126	0.104	0.010	0.112	98.182	100.909	114.545
0.110	0.111	0.161	0.182	0.036	0.141	100.000	100.909	146.364
0.150	0.257	0.155	0.264	0.062	0.207	136.364	233.636	140.909
0.136	0.244	0.266	0.127	0.072	0.193	123.636	221.818	241.818
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.151	0.151	0.155	0.155	0.002	0.153	137.273	137.273	140.909
0.055	0.055	0.119	0.119	0.037	0.087	50.000	50.000	108.182
0.046	0.046	0.046	0.046	0.000	0.046	41.818	41.818	41.818
0.047	0.031	0.035	0.026	0.009	0.035	42.727	28.182	31.818
0.139	0.142	0.134	0.122	0.009	0.134	126.364	129.091	121.818
0.071	0.091	0.048	0.076	0.018	0.072	64.545	82.727	43.636
0.149	0.090	0.183	0.145	0.038	0.142	135.455	81.818	166.364
0.141	0.165	0.163	0.150	0.011	0.155	128.182	150.000	148.182
0.169	0.137	0.273	0.218	0.059	0.199	153.636	124.545	248.182
0.171	0.223	0.231	0.185	0.029	0.203	155.455	202.727	210.000
0.127	0.172	0.258	0.209	0.056	0.192	115.455	156.364	234.545
0.106	0.097	0.166	0.217	0.056	0.147	96.364	88.182	150.909
0.035	0.084	0.068	0.146	0.047	0.083	31.818	76.364	61.818
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.101	0.101	0.067	0.067	0.020	0.084	91.818	91.818	60.909
0.053	0.020	0.013	0.021	0.018	0.027	48.182	18.182	11.818
0.044	0.025	0.020	0.020	0.011	0.027	40.000	22.727	18.182
0.092	0.051	0.075	0.108	0.024	0.082	83.636	46.364	68.182
0.080	0.094	0.086	0.073	0.009	0.083	72.727	85.455	78.182
0.183	0.180	0.127	0.118	0.034	0.152	166.364	163.636	115.455
0.086	0.120	0.098	0.074	0.020	0.095	78.182	109.091	89.091
0.148	0.134	0.141	0.122	0.011	0.136	134.545	121.818	128.182
0.113	0.118	0.153	0.163	0.025	0.137	102.727	107.273	139.091
0.169	0.133	0.143	0.136	0.016	0.145	153.636	120.909	130.000
0.140	0.160	0.083	0.091	0.037	0.119	127.273	145.455	75.455
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.025	0.025	0.028	0.035	0.005	0.028	22.727	22.727	25.455
0.270	0.270	0.121	0.146	0.079	0.202	245.455	245.455	110.000
0.218	0.218	0.198	0.221	0.011	0.214	198.182	198.182	180.000
0.273	0.196	0.232	0.256	0.033	0.239	248.182	178.182	210.909
0.235	0.212	0.216	0.218	0.010	0.220	213.636	192.727	196.364
0.116	0.138	0.129	0.129	0.009	0.128	105.455	125.455	117.273
0.125	0.121	0.148	0.150	0.015	0.136	113.636	110.000	134.545
0.100	0.115	0.101	0.096	0.008	0.103	90.909	104.545	91.818
0.043	0.094	0.076	0.084	0.022	0.074	39.091	85.455	69.091
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.092	0.092	0.054	0.054	0.022	0.073	83.636	83.636	49.091
0.097	0.140	0.080	0.123	0.027	0.110	88.182	127.273	72.727
0.129	0.211	0.158	0.157	0.034	0.164	117.273	191.818	143.636
0.207	0.198	0.270	0.230	0.032	0.226	188.182	180.000	245.455
0.139	0.149	0.145	0.158	0.008	0.148	126.364	135.455	131.818
0.155	0.178	0.165	0.209	0.023	0.177	140.909	161.818	150.000
0.112	0.132	0.156	0.163	0.023	0.141	101.818	120.000	141.818

0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.027	0.027	0.026	0.026	0.001	0.027	24.545	24.545	23.636
0.008	0.008	0.023	0.007	0.008	0.012	7.273	7.273	20.909
0.127	0.097	0.097	0.110	0.014	0.108	115.455	88.182	88.182
0.084	0.084	0.116	0.074	0.018	0.090	76.364	76.364	105.455
0.149	0.129	0.130	0.161	0.016	0.142	135.455	117.273	118.182
0.126	0.145	0.117	0.108	0.016	0.124	114.545	131.818	106.364
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.136	0.136	0.110	0.110	0.015	0.123	123.636	123.636	100.000
0.113	0.113	0.082	0.082	0.018	0.098	102.727	102.727	74.545
0.035	0.010	0.019	0.016	0.011	0.020	31.818	9.091	17.273
0.025	0.014	0.013	0.029	0.008	0.020	22.727	12.727	11.818
0.009	0.007	0.070	0.040	0.030	0.032	8.182	6.364	63.636
0.008	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.002	0.006	7.273	4.545	4.545
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.261	0.246	0.246	0.244	0.008	0.249	237.273	223.636	223.636
0.214	0.174	0.100	0.094	0.058	0.146	194.545	158.182	90.909
0.094	0.064	0.123	0.102	0.024	0.096	85.455	58.182	111.818
0.048	0.061	0.035	0.059	0.012	0.051	43.636	55.455	31.818
0.067	0.091	0.025	0.027	0.032	0.053	60.909	82.727	22.727
0.085	0.055	0.052	0.040	0.019	0.058	77.273	50.000	47.273
0.055	0.070	0.084	0.059	0.013	0.067	50.000	63.636	76.364
0.010	0.036	0.011	0.024	0.012	0.020	9.091	32.727	10.000
0.065	0.078	0.089	0.082	0.010	0.079	59.091	70.909	80.909
0.093	0.128	0.130	0.152	0.024	0.126	84.545	116.364	118.182
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.045	0.045	0.031	0.031	0.008	0.038	40.909	40.909	28.182
0.022	0.022	0.016	0.019	0.003	0.020	20.000	20.000	14.545
0.256	0.239	0.272	0.282	0.019	0.262	232.727	217.273	247.273
0.249	0.203	0.198	0.298	0.047	0.237	226.364	184.545	180.000
0.198	0.183	0.217	0.214	0.016	0.203	180.000	166.364	197.273
0.137	0.099	0.135	0.158	0.024	0.132	124.545	90.000	122.727
0.122	0.136	0.144	0.175	0.022	0.144	110.909	123.636	130.909
0.161	0.133	0.135	0.185	0.025	0.154	146.364	120.909	122.727
0.136	0.134	0.282	0.316	0.096	0.217	123.636	121.818	256.364
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.074	0.074	0.131	0.131	0.033	0.103	67.273	67.273	119.091
0.403	0.403	0.520	0.490	0.060	0.454	366.364	366.364	472.727
0.399	0.170	0.494	0.067	0.198	0.283	362.727	154.545	449.091
0.500	0.413	0.392	0.392	0.051	0.424	454.545	375.455	356.364
0.415	0.500	0.396	0.476	0.049	0.447	377.273	454.545	360.000
0.324	0.329	0.348	0.362	0.018	0.341	294.545	299.091	316.364
0.319	0.282	0.332	0.339	0.025	0.318	290.000	256.364	301.818

Concentration (cytoplasm fraction)

Volumetric Total Protein Concentration (cytoplasmic)

Buffer D [ug/ml]	Buffer Average [ug/ml]	Buffer Deviation [ug/ml]	Culture Ass A [mg/L]	Culture Ass B [mg/L]	Culture Ass C [mg/L]	Culture Ass D [mg/L]	Average [mg/L]
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
35.455	33.636	2.099	2.494	2.494	2.779	2.779	2.637
23.636	37.727	16.271	5.227	5.227	2.384	2.384	3.806
12.727	17.727	5.774	2.181	2.181	1.221	1.221	1.701
44.545	57.500	17.696	27.794	28.497	15.480	17.239	22.253
140.909	142.727	7.003	34.308	38.276	37.809	36.175	36.642
102.727	146.364	33.336	29.226	23.883	30.325	17.755	25.297
169.091	134.773	26.142	19.534	15.520	19.400	24.886	19.835
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
70.000	85.000	17.321	1.589	1.589	1.112	1.112	1.351
30.909	22.727	9.448	1.245	1.245	2.646	2.646	1.945
46.364	37.727	9.972	4.852	4.852	7.733	7.733	6.293
40.909	50.682	8.178	7.358	7.226	8.803	5.912	7.325
69.091	97.045	31.678	20.562	14.289	26.312	13.243	18.602
30.000	15.455	10.523	2.098	2.360	4.720	8.654	4.458
29.091	41.364	15.998	24.192	14.651	12.266	10.903	15.503
183.636	133.409	70.102	40.822	36.499	107.577	97.011	70.477
355.455	308.409	79.539	125.779	192.891	110.668	173.779	150.779
190.000	237.727	60.841	101.910	107.828	65.420	68.707	85.966
50.000	95.227	45.433	40.565	44.305	19.851	15.823	30.136
140.909	156.364	37.365	51.323	46.549	29.362	37.000	41.059
140.909	156.364	37.365	27.115	24.593	15.512	19.548	21.692
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
31.818	27.045	8.178	2.135	2.922	4.383	3.933	3.343
11.818	15.227	4.477	2.665	2.665	4.264	2.309	2.976
60.000	34.318	19.319	3.427	8.266	5.444	13.307	7.611
214.545	234.545	34.015	61.921	83.997	68.382	63.536	69.459
235.455	249.773	22.907	64.289	78.519	70.642	65.814	69.816
236.364	240.000	3.235	82.068	80.531	82.068	79.917	81.146
213.636	219.318	4.223	72.278	70.809	71.396	69.046	70.882
164.545	218.182	49.964	71.231	60.756	49.350	42.134	55.868
176.364	162.727	31.255	33.306	23.768	21.952	29.370	27.099
150.909	148.864	13.973	15.764	14.967	12.576	14.702	14.502
127.273	146.364	22.044	12.099	12.099	9.307	9.307	10.703
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
31.818	41.818	6.923	5.417	4.896	5.208	3.646	4.792
147.273	145.909	17.032	25.294	33.725	30.915	30.353	30.072
154.545	157.955	8.668	39.730	35.364	39.511	37.110	37.929
166.364	179.545	11.269	27.684	26.378	25.202	23.897	25.790
175.455	199.773	23.792	32.570	30.608	26.553	25.245	28.744
170.000	150.455	22.569	17.316	17.316	22.487	22.487	19.902
131.818	141.818	11.547	11.537	11.537	10.017	10.017	10.777
133.636	132.273	1.575	6.155	6.155	6.283	6.283	6.219
127.273	128.182	1.050	3.367	3.367	3.320	3.320	3.343

0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
20.000	20.000	0.000	2.128	2.128	2.128	2.128	2.128
3.636	3.636	0.000	0.622	0.622	0.622	0.622	0.622
16.364	30.000	9.091	7.325	7.325	7.325	3.470	6.361
33.636	49.318	14.666	18.533	12.680	12.680	9.023	13.229
68.182	66.591	27.817	15.391	44.594	26.046	29.598	28.907
82.727	57.045	24.712	35.092	16.463	17.763	39.424	27.185
94.545	102.045	8.732	38.497	39.566	44.913	37.071	40.012
165.455	128.182	32.954	22.946	23.154	33.584	37.965	29.412
240.000	187.727	56.775	30.198	51.738	31.204	53.148	41.572
115.455	175.682	65.418	21.707	38.944	42.456	20.270	30.844
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
140.909	139.091	2.099	2.076	2.076	2.131	2.131	2.104
108.182	79.091	33.591	3.473	3.473	7.514	7.514	5.494
41.818	41.818	0.000	5.436	5.436	5.436	5.436	5.436
23.636	31.591	8.144	7.613	5.021	5.669	4.212	5.629
110.909	122.045	8.007	18.866	19.273	18.187	16.559	18.221
69.091	65.000	16.203	11.043	14.154	7.466	11.821	11.121
131.818	128.864	34.984	29.895	18.057	36.717	29.093	28.440
136.364	140.682	10.295	35.653	41.722	41.216	37.929	39.130
198.182	181.136	53.989	38.805	31.458	62.686	50.057	45.751
168.182	184.091	26.405	44.633	58.205	60.293	48.287	52.854
190.000	174.091	50.532	31.106	42.128	63.192	51.191	46.904
197.273	133.182	50.998	22.830	20.892	35.753	46.737	31.553
132.727	75.682	42.312	5.147	12.352	9.999	21.469	12.242
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
60.909	76.364	17.845	9.693	9.693	6.430	6.430	8.061
19.091	24.318	16.235	6.040	2.279	1.481	2.393	3.048
18.182	24.773	10.375	8.862	5.035	4.028	4.028	5.489
98.182	74.091	22.175	17.551	9.729	14.308	20.604	15.548
66.364	75.682	8.110	19.831	23.302	21.319	18.096	20.637
107.273	138.182	31.166	55.923	55.006	38.810	36.060	46.450
67.273	85.909	17.838	39.568	55.211	45.089	34.047	43.479
110.909	123.864	10.079	36.190	32.767	34.478	29.832	33.317
148.182	124.318	22.689	28.661	29.929	38.806	41.343	34.685
123.636	132.045	14.889	31.350	24.672	26.527	25.229	26.944
82.727	107.727	34.019	23.770	27.166	14.092	15.451	20.120
0.000	0.000	0.000	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!
31.818	25.682	4.288	0.039	0.039	0.044	0.055	0.045
132.727	183.409	72.242	33.750	33.750	15.125	18.250	25.219
200.909	194.318	9.632	37.567	37.567	34.121	38.084	36.835
232.727	217.500	30.346	54.825	39.362	46.591	51.411	48.047
198.182	200.227	9.223	40.450	36.491	37.180	37.524	37.911
117.273	116.364	8.232	18.882	22.463	20.998	20.998	20.835
136.364	123.636	13.747	19.273	18.656	22.819	23.128	20.969
87.273	93.636	7.533	14.232	16.367	14.374	13.663	14.659
76.364	67.500	20.088	4.622	10.104	8.169	9.029	7.981
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
49.091	66.364	19.945	17.860	17.860	10.483	10.483	14.171
111.818	100.000	24.269	18.755	27.068	15.468	23.782	21.268
142.727	148.864	31.134	29.075	47.556	35.611	35.385	36.907
209.091	205.682	29.208	40.708	38.938	53.097	45.231	44.493
143.636	134.318	7.249	30.413	32.601	31.726	34.570	32.328
190.000	160.682	21.338	37.170	42.685	39.568	50.119	42.386
148.182	127.955	21.195	18.877	22.248	26.294	27.473	23.723

0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
23.636	24.091	0.525	2.264	2.264	2.180	2.180	2.222
6.364	10.455	6.983	0.964	0.964	2.773	0.844	1.386
100.000	97.955	12.929	33.864	25.864	25.864	29.331	28.731
67.273	81.364	16.623	22.992	22.992	31.751	20.255	24.498
146.364	129.318	14.110	22.894	19.821	19.974	24.737	21.857
98.182	112.727	14.374	17.523	20.165	16.271	15.020	17.245
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
100.000	111.818	13.646	3.652	3.652	2.954	2.954	3.303
74.545	88.636	16.271	4.143	4.143	3.007	3.007	3.575
14.545	18.182	9.706	4.682	1.338	2.542	2.140	2.675
26.364	18.409	7.249	3.493	1.956	1.817	4.052	2.830
36.364	28.636	27.075	1.341	1.043	10.430	5.960	4.694
4.545	5.227	1.364	1.356	0.848	0.848	0.848	0.975
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
221.818	226.591	7.173	13.218	12.458	12.458	12.357	12.623
85.455	132.273	53.079	52.718	42.864	24.634	23.156	35.843
92.727	87.045	22.223	27.307	18.592	35.732	29.632	27.816
53.636	46.136	10.868	14.415	18.318	10.511	17.718	15.240
24.545	47.727	29.218	21.643	29.396	8.076	8.722	16.959
36.364	52.727	17.392	40.514	26.215	24.785	19.065	27.645
53.636	60.909	11.807	29.574	37.640	45.168	31.725	36.027
21.818	18.409	11.168	4.455	16.038	4.901	10.692	9.021
74.545	71.364	9.166	16.348	19.617	22.384	20.623	19.743
138.182	114.318	22.174	30.634	42.162	42.821	50.068	41.421
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
28.182	34.545	7.348	2.316	2.316	1.596	1.596	1.956
17.273	17.955	2.611	2.651	2.651	1.928	2.290	2.380
256.364	238.409	17.127	26.329	24.580	27.974	29.003	26.972
270.909	215.455	42.452	59.037	48.131	46.945	70.655	56.192
194.545	184.545	14.297	44.747	41.357	49.041	48.363	45.877
143.636	120.227	22.260	22.242	16.072	21.917	25.651	21.471
159.091	131.136	20.387	23.515	26.214	27.756	33.731	27.804
168.182	139.545	22.336	24.053	19.870	20.169	27.638	22.932
287.273	197.273	87.001	12.670	12.484	26.272	29.439	20.216
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
119.091	93.182	29.917	1.951	1.951	3.454	3.454	2.702
445.455	412.727	54.682	18.120	18.120	23.380	22.031	20.413
60.909	256.818	179.838	57.946	24.689	71.742	9.730	41.027
356.364	385.682	46.783	54.752	45.225	42.926	42.926	46.457
432.727	406.136	44.767	52.311	63.025	49.916	60.000	56.313
329.091	309.773	15.944	43.012	43.676	46.198	48.056	45.235
308.182	289.091	23.082	73.294	64.792	76.280	77.889	73.064

ic fraction)	Specific Total Protein Concentration (cytoplasmic fraction)		Glucose consumption	Volumetric HBsAg in Supernatant	
	Deviation [mg/L]	Average [mg/gDW]	Deviation [mg/gDW]	[g/l]	
				[ug/L]	
	0.000	0.000	0.000	35.056	NM
	0.165	0.841	0.052	28.508	NM
	1.641	1.161	0.501	22.512	NM
	0.554	0.443	0.144	20.289	NM
	6.848	2.875	0.885	2.115	NM
	1.798	5.709	0.280	0.168	NM
	5.762	4.170	0.950	0.164	NM
	3.847	3.361	0.652	0.058	NM
	0.000	0.000	0.000	35.056	NM
	0.275	2.833	0.577	30.833	NM
	0.809	1.258	0.523	28.162	NM
	1.663	1.480	0.391	21.397	NM
	1.182	1.256	0.203	9.929	NM
	6.072	2.954	0.964	3.708	NM
	3.036	0.484	0.330	2.597	NM
	5.996	1.332	0.515	2.313	NM
	37.033	5.468	2.873	0.211	NM
	38.886	14.479	3.734	0.073	NM
	22.001	10.980	2.810	0.064	253.419
	14.378	4.657	2.222	0.060	324.000
	9.811	7.376	1.763	0.058	627.230
	5.184	3.448	0.824	0.049	968.725
	0.000	0.000	0.000	35.056	NM
	1.011	0.628	0.190	26.947	NM
	0.875	0.441	0.130	14.695	NM
	4.284	0.919	0.517	7.264	NM
	10.073	6.701	0.972	0.951	NM
	6.403	5.430	0.498	0.347	NM
	1.094	7.306	0.098	0.313	NM
	1.365	6.974	0.134	0.068	NM
	12.794	6.261	1.434	0.050	NM
	5.205	4.931	0.947	0.038	NM
	1.361	4.518	0.424	0.036	NM
	1.612	3.659	0.551	0.018	NM
	0.000	0.000	0.000	35.056	NM
	0.793	1.045	0.173	20.165	NM
	3.510	3.648	0.426	0.602	NM
	2.081	3.949	0.217	0.217	NM
	1.619	4.489	0.282	0.142	NM
	3.423	5.708	0.680	0.130	NM
	2.985	4.179	0.627	0.132	NM
	0.877	3.732	0.304	0.126	NM
	0.074	3.307	0.039	0.083	NM
	0.027	3.205	0.026	0.059	NM

0.000	0.000	0.000	35.056	NM
0.000	0.667	0.000	20.984	NM
0.000	0.182	0.000	13.090	NM
1.928	1.504	0.456	7.085	NM
3.934	2.740	0.815	1.744	NM
12.075	3.459	1.445	0.621	NM
11.777	3.034	1.314	0.030	NM
3.424	3.362	0.288	0.027	NM
7.562	4.012	1.031	0.022	NM
12.573	6.095	1.843	0.019	NM
11.485	4.551	1.695	0.014	NM
0.000	0.000	0.000	NM	NM
0.032	3.477	0.052	NM	NM
2.333	1.977	0.840	NM	NM
0.000	1.095	0.000	NM	NM
1.451	0.949	0.245	NM	NM
1.196	2.700	0.177	NM	NM
2.772	1.625	0.405	NM	NM
7.721	3.391	0.921	NM	NM
2.864	4.582	0.335	NM	NM
13.637	5.220	1.556	NM	NM
7.581	6.575	0.943	NM	NM
13.614	5.962	1.731	NM	NM
12.082	4.756	1.821	NM	NM
6.844	2.032	1.136	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	0.000	NM	NM
1.884	1.991	0.465	NM	NM
2.035	0.496	0.331	NM	NM
2.299	0.826	0.346	NM	NM
4.653	1.616	0.484	NM	NM
2.211	2.024	0.217	NM	NM
10.477	4.245	0.957	NM	NM
9.028	3.923	0.815	NM	NM
2.711	3.817	0.311	NM	NM
6.330	4.144	0.756	NM	NM
3.038	3.773	0.425	NM	NM
6.354	3.168	1.001	NM	NM
#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	NM	NM
0.007	0.055	0.009	NM	NM
9.933	6.368	2.508	NM	NM
1.826	4.594	0.228	NM	NM
6.704	6.360	0.887	NM	NM
1.746	5.616	0.259	NM	NM
1.474	3.145	0.222	NM	NM
2.332	3.288	0.366	NM	NM
1.179	2.362	0.190	NM	NM
2.375	1.552	0.462	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	0.000	NM	NM
4.259	2.898	0.871	NM	NM
5.162	3.268	0.793	NM	NM
7.719	4.637	0.970	NM	NM
6.318	6.103	0.867	NM	NM
1.745	4.608	0.249	NM	NM
5.629	6.086	0.808	NM	NM
3.930	3.943	0.653	NM	NM

0.000	0.000	0.000	NM	NM
0.048	0.602	0.013	NM	NM
0.926	0.253	0.169	NM	NM
3.792	3.641	0.481	NM	NM
5.005	2.214	0.452	NM	NM
2.385	3.320	0.362	NM	NM
2.199	3.072	0.392	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	0.000	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	0.000	NM	NM
0.403	2.795	0.341	NM	NM
0.656	2.216	0.407	NM	NM
1.428	0.560	0.299	NM	NM
1.114	0.506	0.199	NM	NM
4.438	0.777	0.735	NM	NM
0.254	0.139	0.036	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	0.000	35.056	NM
0.400	6.898	0.218	23.200	NM
14.383	4.027	1.616	6.784	NM
7.102	2.902	0.741	2.092	NM
3.590	1.538	0.362	0.940	NM
10.382	1.591	0.974	0.404	NM
9.119	2.343	0.773	0.215	NM
6.983	3.045	0.590	0.107	NM
5.473	0.758	0.460	0.056	NM
2.536	1.459	0.187	0.014	NM
8.034	2.858	0.554	0.005	NM
0.000	0.000	0.000	NM	NM
0.416	0.864	0.184	NM	NM
0.346	0.598	0.087	NM	NM
1.938	5.960	0.428	NM	NM
11.072	7.750	1.527	NM	NM
3.554	6.277	0.486	NM	NM
3.975	3.420	0.633	NM	NM
4.323	4.430	0.689	NM	NM
3.671	3.898	0.624	NM	NM
8.916	4.932	2.175	NM	NM
0.000	0.000	0.000	NM	NM
0.868	2.330	0.748	NM	NM
2.704	10.318	1.367	NM	NM
28.729	12.841	8.992	NM	NM
5.635	12.856	1.559	NM	NM
6.207	13.538	1.492	NM	NM
2.328	10.326	0.531	NM	NM
5.834	7.845	0.626	NM	NM

Agitation	dO ₂	Time	Dry Weight	O ₂ in	O ₂ out	dO ₂	pH
rpm	[%]	[hrs]	Average [g _{DW} /L]	[%]	[%]	[%]	pH
350	50	0	0.000	8.229	8.229	19.311	6.500
350	50	20	5.609	12.996	4.658	50.310	4.470
350	50	40	7.334	23.242	17.050	56.437	4.330
350	50	60	7.012	55.525	53.449	50.275	4.690
350	50	80	6.498	57.066	56.215	38.142	6.615
350	50	100	5.896	19.428	18.764	50.988	7.110
350	50	120	6.053	14.931	14.641	49.632	7.453
350	50	140	6.211	12.475	12.203	50.028	7.365
100	50	0	0.000	17.289	17.261	47.895	6.500
100	50	20	2.868	58.737	51.889	52.340	6.394
100	50	40	6.912	102.881	96.913	50.500	5.848
100	50	60	13.680	98.420	94.960	50.265	5.138
100	50	80	10.109	97.310	95.399	49.118	5.492
100	50	100	6.897	41.785	40.988	48.059	6.444
100	50	120	6.474	38.775	38.649	50.059	7.215
100	50	140	6.357	66.982	66.953	48.059	7.845
100	50	160	6.334	44.824	44.367	52.029	8.060
600	50	0	0.000	33.675	33.625	50.029	8.459
600	50	20	5.825	43.308	30.799	45.059	8.496
600	50	40	11.915	100.259	97.570	49.059	8.439
600	50	60	11.058	23.198	22.750	47.059	8.056
600	50	80	6.906	15.149	14.740	51.162	7.992
600	50	100	4.127	13.219	12.976	50.868	6.500
600	50	120	2.837	21.365	21.344	45.981	3.559
350	95	0	0.000	44.000	43.978	46.953	3.550
350	95	20	2.655	49.878	46.351	52.870	3.920
350	95	40	6.864	21.478	17.978	49.131	4.250
350	95	60	7.770	19.488	18.064	49.249	4.594
350	95	80	4.592	16.059	15.525	49.632	5.270
350	95	100	3.292	15.146	14.714	49.926	6.217
350	95	120	1.653	14.136	13.992	49.896	6.674
350	95	140	0.710	8.428	8.147	48.837	6.981
350	2	0	0.000	7.696	7.688	55.607	6.700
350	2	20	1.845	19.341	16.860	55.519	6.808
350	2	40	3.172	82.851	79.513	31.388	6.500
350	2	60	4.338	97.227	94.687	100.384	5.848
350	2	80	8.320	88.807	87.076	92.277	5.981
350	2	100	9.304	88.999	88.465	90.245	5.970
350	2	120	7.294	22.287	22.111	95.963	6.562
350	2	140	6.800	16.090	15.980	96.364	6.360
250	20	0	0.000	22.647	22.624	89.140	6.173
250	20	20	4.639	42.779	42.144	90.197	6.299
250	20	40	6.926	61.496	60.971	95.160	6.523
250	20	60	8.463	15.130	14.780	94.749	6.731
250	20	80	8.756	3.773	3.498	1.825	6.500
250	20	100	7.828	28.515	28.371	1.500	5.180

250	20	120	6.745	55.640	55.345	1.119	4.240
250	20	140	6.126	9.774	9.742	2.824	4.960
250	20	160	6.084	22.194	22.030	2.088	6.150
250	80	0	0.000	21.751	21.688	1.531	6.855
250	80	20	5.977	27.375	22.349	1.707	7.247
250	80	40	10.075	25.054	23.553	1.354	6.656
250	80	60	10.895	17.393	16.631	2.118	6.900
250	80	80	8.576	8.134	8.037	1.500	7.438
250	80	100	7.850	19.937	19.858	2.059	6.971
250	80	120	6.300	13.909	13.878	18.039	6.500
450	20	0	0.000	41.628	41.614	16.991	6.376
450	20	20	4.391	29.392	24.657	20.804	3.830
450	20	40	7.453	24.392	23.633	20.017	3.747
450	20	60	6.499	24.283	24.007	20.026	3.879
450	20	80	6.387	22.720	22.547	20.043	4.010
450	20	100	6.305	22.443	22.349	18.034	4.076
450	20	120	5.818	22.923	22.804	25.043	4.141
450	20	140	5.287	23.371	23.335	20.034	4.194
450	20	0	0.000	22.583	22.571	15.026	4.484
450	20	20	1.807	23.989	22.621	13.026	4.696
450	20	40	4.813	50.885	50.801	24.034	5.369
450	20	60	5.219	22.947	22.906	19.043	7.043
450	20	80	4.259	20.673	20.277	10.718	7.694
450	20	100	4.178	50.764	50.744	81.270	6.500
450	80	0	0.000	83.491	83.442	82.026	6.090
450	80	20	5.759	89.958	84.755	79.034	4.397
450	80	40	7.385	96.112	93.350	75.043	4.910
450	80	60	7.334	96.616	94.730	85.034	6.775
450	80	80	6.680	96.041	94.942	80.043	7.002
450	80	100	5.956	94.054	94.024	74.043	5.344
350	25	0	0.000	95.495	95.430	25.500	4.593
350	25	20	3.095	94.586	86.179	81.206	6.193
350	25	40	6.752	78.861	73.123	80.966	6.386
350	25	60	9.640	21.461	18.906	91.043	6.222
350	25	80	9.514	22.032	21.275	66.311	7.631
350	25	100	6.626	7.938	7.646	16.690	6.500
350	25	120	6.344	8.989	8.725	20.000	6.149
350	25	140	6.062	37.233	36.970	20.000	6.543
350	sur O ₂	0	0.000	61.262	61.219	23.020	6.709
350	sur O ₃	20	1.344	26.556	25.610	20.000	6.740
350	sur O ₄	40	4.146	23.623	22.733	19.811	5.631
350	sur O ₅	60	5.760	19.788	18.665	19.664	5.491
350	sur O ₆	80	5.951	15.991	15.418	20.000	7.310
350	sur O ₇	100	6.332	16.009	15.294	19.841	7.440
350	sur O ₈	120	6.746	23.705	22.990	20.000	7.363
350	sur O ₉	140	7.160	5.124	4.409	19.841	6.500
350	Normal	0	0.000	5.670	5.541	19.605	6.149
350	Normal	20	2.096	48.065	40.337	21.783	7.550
350	Normal	40	6.347	20.351	13.446	54.989	7.075
350	Normal	60	9.115	19.105	15.310	20.500	6.939

350	Normal	80	12.220	18.282	15.377	20.118	6.916
350	Normal	100	8.797	17.351	15.536	43.526	8.366
350	Normal	120	8.997	15.233	14.315	20.059	7.987
350	Normal	140	8.226	33.607	32.532	80.055	6.500
350	pH6	0	0.000	69.453	69.396	65.659	3.584
350	pH6	20	3.607	94.259	88.790	75.578	6.490
350	pH6	40	7.356	85.509	80.054	81.383	5.714
350	pH6	60	6.233	70.089	68.449	79.846	6.665
350	pH6	80	5.954	59.661	59.048	79.977	7.325
350	pH6	100	5.826	56.161	56.018	85.394	7.236
350	pH6	120	4.980	47.786	47.730	99.021	7.081
350	pH6	140	4.053	11.066	11.030	30.837	6.500
350	pH7	0	0.000	27.656	27.606	29.506	6.290
350	pH7	20	2.294	32.715	31.083	20.774	4.290
350	pH7	40	3.493	63.829	62.365	21.864	5.491
350	pH7	60	3.948	23.881	22.466	25.133	7.310
350	pH7	80	4.402	16.558	15.241	25.133	7.440
350	pH7	100	5.699	13.153	12.487	25.365	7.363
350	pH7	120	7.144	98.384	97.758	94.671	6.500
350	pH7	140	8.590	13.339	12.803	98.000	5.331

OUR	SOUR
[mmolO ₂ /L.hr]	[mmolO ₂ /g _{DW} .hr]
0.000	#DIV/0!
25.139	4.482
18.668	2.545
6.260	0.893
2.566	0.395
2.001	0.339
0.874	0.144
0.819	0.132
0.085	#DIV/0!
20.648	7.200
17.994	2.603
10.431	0.763
5.761	0.570
2.403	0.348
0.381	0.059
0.088	0.014
1.378	0.218
0.151	#DIV/0!
37.717	6.475
8.107	0.680
1.351	0.122
1.233	0.179
0.731	0.177
0.063	0.022
0.066	#DIV/0!
10.636	4.006
10.552	1.537
4.292	0.552
1.608	0.350
1.303	0.396
0.432	0.261
0.846	1.192
0.024	#DIV/0!
7.482	4.055
10.066	3.173
7.660	1.766
5.220	0.627
1.608	0.173
0.532	0.073
0.332	0.049
0.070	#DIV/0!
1.916	0.413
1.584	0.229
1.055	0.125
0.828	0.095
0.432	0.055

0.889	0.132
0.097	0.016
0.493	0.081
0.190	#DIV/0!
15.156	2.536
4.525	0.449
2.297	0.211
0.293	0.034
0.239	0.030
0.094	0.015
0.042	#DIV/0!
14.276	3.251
2.288	0.307
0.834	0.128
0.520	0.081
0.281	0.045
0.360	0.062
0.109	0.021
0.036	#DIV/0!
4.126	2.284
0.251	0.052
0.124	0.024
1.194	0.280
0.060	0.014
0.148	#DIV/0!
15.688	2.724
8.328	1.128
5.689	0.776
3.313	0.496
0.091	0.015
0.193	#DIV/0!
25.348	8.190
17.302	2.562
7.705	0.799
2.282	0.240
0.880	0.133
0.795	0.125
0.792	0.131
0.130	#DIV/0!
2.853	2.123
2.684	0.647
3.385	0.588
1.726	0.290
2.155	0.340
2.155	0.319
2.155	0.301
0.390	#DIV/0!
23.302	11.120
20.820	3.281
11.444	1.255

8.757	0.717
5.471	0.622
2.769	0.308
3.240	0.394
0.172	#DIV/0!
16.489	4.571
16.450	2.236
4.945	0.793
1.847	0.310
0.429	0.074
0.169	0.034
0.109	0.027
0.151	#DIV/0!
4.921	2.145
4.413	1.264
4.265	1.080
3.972	0.902
2.010	0.353
1.889	0.264
1.617	0.188