ACCEPTED VERSION

Lukas Gerstweiler, Jagan Billakanti, Jingxiu Bi, Anton Middelberg Comparative evaluation of integrated purification pathways for bacterial modular polyomavirus major capsid protein VP1 to produce virus-like particles using high throughput process technologies

Journal of Chromatography A, 2021; 1639:461924-1-461924-11

© 2021 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license <u>http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/</u>

Final publication at: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2021.461924

PERMISSIONS

https://www.elsevier.com/about/policies/sharing

Accepted Manuscript

Authors can share their accepted manuscript:

24 Month Embargo

After the embargo period

- via non-commercial hosting platforms such as their institutional repository
- via commercial sites with which Elsevier has an agreement

In all cases <u>accepted manuscripts</u> should:

- link to the formal publication via its DOI
- bear a CC-BY-NC-ND license this is easy to do
- if aggregated with other manuscripts, for example in a repository or other site, be shared in alignment with our <u>hosting policy</u>
- not be added to or enhanced in any way to appear more like, or to substitute for, the published journal article

6 June 2023

2	Comparative evaluation of integrated purification pathways for bacterial modular polyomavirus				
3	major capsid protein VP1 to produce virus-like particles using high throughput process				
4	technologies				
5	Lukas Gerstweiler ¹ , Jagan Billakanti ² , Jingxiu Bi ¹ , Anton Middelberg ³				
6	¹ The University of Adelaide, School of Chemical Engineering and Advanced Materials, Adelaide SA				
7	5005, Australia				
8	² Cytiva, Product and Application Specialist Downstream Design-In ANZ, Suite 547, Level 5, 7 Eden				
9	Park Drive, Macquarie Park NSW 2113, Australia				
10	³ The University of Adelaide, Division of Research and Innovation, Adelaide SA 5005, Australia				
11	Correspodence concerning this article should be addressed to A.P.J. Middelberg at				
12	anton.middelberg@adelaide.edu.au				
13	Tel.: +61 831 35665				
14					
15					
16	Abstract				
17	Modular virus-like particles and capsomeres are potential vaccine candidates that can induce strong				
18	immune responses. There are many described protocols for the purification of microbially-produced				
19	viral protein in the literature, however, they suffer from inherent limitations in efficiency, scalability				
20	and overall process costs. In this study, we investigated alternative purification pathways to identify				
21	and optimise a suitable purification pathway to overcome some of the current challenges. Among				
22	the methods, the optimised purification strategy consists of an anion exchange step in flow through				
23	mode followed by a multi modal cation exchange step in bind and elute mode. This approach allows				
24	an integrated process without any buffer adjustment between the purification steps. The major				

25	contaminants like host cell proteins, DNA and aggregates can be efficiently removed by the				
26	optimised strategy, without the need for a size exclusion polishing chromatography step, which				
27	otherwise could complicate the process scalability and increase overall cost. High throughput				
28	process technology studies were conducted to optimise binding and elution conditions for multi				
29	modal cation exchanger, Capto™ MMC and strong anion exchanger Capto™ Q. A dynamic binding				
30	capacity of 14 mg ml ⁻¹ was achieved for Capto™ MMC resin. Samples derived from each purification				
31	process were thoroughly characterized by RP-HPLC, SEC-HPLC, SDS-PAGE and LC-ESI-MS/MS Mass				
32	Spectrometry analytical methods. Modular polyomavirus major capsid protein could be purified				
33	within hours using the optimised process achieving purities above 87% and above 96% with inclusion				
34	of an initial precipitation step. Purified capsid protein could be easily assembled in-vitro into well-				
35	defined virus-like particles by lowering pH with addition of calcium chloride to the eluate. High				
36	throughout studies allowed the screening of a vast design space within weeks, rather than months,				
37	and unveiled complicated binding behaviour for Capto [™] MMC.				
38					
20					
39					
40					
41	Keywords				
42	virus-like particles, downstream processing, VP1, high-throughput development, multi modal				
43	chromatography				
44					
45					
46					
47					

49 1. Introduction

50 The current outbreak of COVID-19 shows dramatically the threat of global pandemics and the need 51 for potent vaccines that can be mass-manufactured efficiently. In a globally-mobile world pathogens 52 such as corona virus, influenza virus, Ebola virus etc. can spread rapidly so keeping a local outbreak 53 under control is challenging. Once emerged a sustainable control can only be achieved by mass 54 vaccination as demonstrated for example for Polio and Measles [1–3]. An ideal vaccine candidate to 55 do so is highly immunogenic, exceptionally safe and can be quickly mass produced. Another 56 important point that is often neglected is the need for low production costs, thus enabling 57 affordable to use in low income countries, which often suffer the most from infectious diseases and 58 otherwise may function as a residual reservoir for global threat [4,5]. Conventional vaccines such as 59 inactivated and attenuated viruses however, have a lengthy production time, expensive production 60 costs and might be risky for people with immunodeficiency [6,7]. 61 Promising future vaccine candidates that incorporate most of the desired properties are virus-like

62 particles (VLPs). VLPs are self-assembled spherical particles of viral structural proteins, mimicking the 63 overall appearance and structure of a native virus and due to a lack of genetic material are unable to 64 replicate or infect, making them generally safe [8]. As the antigens are presented in a highly repetitive and native structure, VLPs induce a strong immunogenic response both humoral and 65 66 cellular, even in the absence of any adjuvant [9]. The structural viral proteins can be amended to 67 present foreign antigens on the surface of the VLP. These so called modular or chimeric VLPs widen 68 the possible applications and enabled the development of vaccine platform technologies [10,11]. 69 VLPs as vaccines are commercially available against human papilloma virus and hepatitis B/E virus 70 (Cervarix[®], Gardasil[®], Cecolin[®], Recombivax HB[®], Energix-B[®], Hecolin[®] etc.) and are heavily 71 examined against many diverse pathogens including influenza A, Norovirus, Chikungunya virus, 72 cytomegalovirus, rotavirus and Group A Streptococcus, to name a few [8,12–15]. However, the

73 production and purification of existing commercial VLPs is challenging, making them comparatively 74 expensive vaccines [11,16,17]. VLPs can be expressed in a variety of eukaryotic and prokaryotic 75 systems, ranging from mammalian and insect cells to microbial, yeast and plant based systems [18]. 76 Expression in eukaryotic cells leads to self-assembly of VLPs in vivo, which always bears the risk of 77 co-assembled impurities such as host cell proteins and nucleic acids, therefore leading to product 78 deviations that require a subsequent disassembly-reassembly step [19,20]. Another pathway is the 79 expression in prokaryotic systems, which allow the purification of unassembled structural protein 80 and a subsequent in vitro assembly in a controlled environment [20–22].

81 VLPs produced in a prokaryotic expression system are an exciting alternative due to their inherent 82 advantages over eukaryotic ones in terms of speed and productivity, enabling possible costs of cents 83 per vaccine dose [23–25]. China approved E. coli produced VLP vaccines Hecolin® and Cecolin® 84 showing high efficiency and safety and providing proof of concept for E. coli produced VLP vaccines 85 [26,27]. Several modular and non-modular VLPs based on a variety of structural viral protein such as 86 hepatitis B core antigen (HBcAg), papilloma major capsid protein L1, bacteriophage Q β , adeno-87 associated virus structural protein VP3 and polyomavirus major capsid protein VP1 have been 88 produced in E. coli [24,25,28,29]. One of the most advanced approaches is the platform technology 89 using modularized murine polyomavirus major capsid protein VP1 [10]. The viral protein can be 90 expressed at grams per litre in *E. coli* giving VLPs able to induce a strong immune response against 91 Group A Streptococcus, Influenza, Rotavirus, Plasmodium, and others [12,13,30–33]. However, 92 described purification and production pathways for VP1, the related L1 and other microbial VLPs 93 currently rely on hard-to-scale laboratory unit operations. Major issues during purification are the 94 removal of DNA and aggregates and low binding on chromatographic resin caused by aggregates and 95 the large size of capsomeres and VLPs [34–37]. Common practice is the use of affinity tags (GST, poly 96 HIS, SUMO), which require a subsequent enzymatic cleavage and removal of the tag, leading to 97 aggregation during long processing times and other process challenges, and subsequent preparative 98 size exclusion chromatography (SEC) followed by dialysis to trigger assembly [10,34,38,39]. Other

described pathways use furthermore various combinations of density gradient centrifugation,
benzonase treatment, filtration, membrane columns, refolding of inclusion bodies and ammonium
sulphate/PEG precipitation [27,34,35,40–42].

102 To overcome these challenges, we developed and optimised an integrated purification process using multi modal cation exchanger Capto[™] MMC as the main purification step. Multi modal ion exchange 103 104 resin combines ion exchange with hydrophobic interaction and other modes, which lead to unique 105 binding behaviour and high salt tolerance [43]. The salt tolerance of Capto[™] MMC enables 106 processing at intermediate salt concentrations, which enables dis-aggregation of non-specific DNA-107 protein interactions, which otherwise hinder separation. The developed process produces well 108 defined VLPs, removes aggregates, DNA and most host cell proteins, is designed for scale-up and 109 does not require any buffer exchange during the optimized purification process, thus reducing 110 overall process cost and time.

111

112

113 2 Material and methods

114 2.1 Buffers and Chemicals

115 Milli-Q[®] water (MQW) was used for the preparation of all buffers. *E. coli* culture was grown in

116 Terrific Broth (TB) medium (12 g l⁻¹ tryptone (LP0042, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), 24 g l⁻¹ yeast

extract (P0021, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), 5 g l⁻¹ Glycerol (GL010, ChemSupply, Australia), 2.31 g

118 l⁻¹ potassium dihydrogen phosphate (PO02600, ChemSupply Australia), 12.5 g l⁻¹ dipotassium

hydrogen phosphate (PA020. ChemSupply, Australia)), supplemented with 35 μg ml⁻¹

120 chloramphenicol (GA0258, ChemSupply, Australia) and 100 μg ml⁻¹ ampicillin (GA0283, ChemSupply,

121 Australia). IPTG (15529019, Thermo Fisher Scientific. USA) and antibiotics were prepared in 1000x

stock solutions and added before use. Sodium chloride (SL046, ChemSupply, Australia) solution, 9 g l⁻
 ¹, was used as a washing saline.

124	Loading buffer (L buffer) consisted of 40mM buffer salt (Tris-hydrochloride (GB4431, ChemSupply,
125	Australia) for pH 8 and 9, Glycine (GA007, ChemSupply, Australia) for pH 10 and sodium hydrogen
126	orthophosphate (SL061, ChemSupply, Australia) for pH 11 and 12 buffer preparation) plus 2mM
127	EDTA (EA023, ChemSupply, Australia), 5 % w w ⁻¹ glycerol, 5mM dithiothreitol (DTT) (DL131,
128	ChemSupply, Australia) and 0 – 500 mM NaCl (SL046, ChemSupply, Australia). DTT and 1x
129	SigmaFast [™] protease inhibitor (SA8820 Millipore Sigma, USA), which were added during cell lysis,
130	were added freshly before use. Loading buffer was prepared from a 5x stock solution originally
131	prepared, filtered (0.2 μ m, KYL Scientific, Australia) and vacuum degassed before use. Calcium
132	chloride (CA033, ChemSupply, Australia) was used to induce the assembly of VLPs.
133	TruPAGE [™] 4x LDS sample buffer (PCG3009) and 20x Tris-MOPS SDS express running buffer
134	(PCG3003) were purchased from MilliporeSigma, USA. The 10x DTT sample reducer and 800x
135	running oxidant (sodium bisulfite, 243973, Millipore Sigma, USA) reagents were freshly prepared
136	before use. For staining of SDS-APGE gels a solution containing Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250 (Bio-
137	Rad Laboratories, USA), and for destaining a mixture of 10 % v v $^{-1}$ ethanol (EA043, ChemSupply,
138	Australia) and 10 % v v ⁻¹ acetic acid (AA009, ChemSupply, Australia) was used.
139	HPLC grade acetonitrile (LC1005) and Trifluoroacetic Acid (TFA) (TS181) were purchased from Chem-
140	Supply, Australia
141	PEG-6000 (PL113, ChemSupply, Australia) was used for precipitation experiments.

142

143 **2.2** *Plasmid construction and protein expression*

144 Group A Streptococcus antigen GCN4-J8 was inserted with flanking G4S linkers into murine

polyomavirus major capsid protein VP1 sequence (M34958) and cloned into pETDuet-1 at multiple

cloning site 2 (MCS2) at *Ndel* and *Pacl* restriction sites. The plasmid was constructed by the Protein
Expression Facility of the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia and the sequence was
verified by the Australian Genome Research facility (AGRF), Brisbane, Australia.

Rosetta[™] 2(DE3) Singles[™] competent cells (Merck KGaA, Germany) were used as an expression 149 150 system. The VP1-J8 plasmid was transformed by heat shock transformation. In brief, competent cells 151 were mixed with plasmid DNA and incubated on ice for 5 min, followed by a heat shock at 42 °C for 152 30 s and 2 min cooling on ice. Subsequently, they were diluted with TOC medium and inoculated on TB agar plates containing 100 µg ml⁻¹ ampicillin and 35 µg ml⁻¹ chloramphenicol. The Master Cell 153 154 Bank (MCB) glycerol stocks were produced by growing a single colony at 37 °C in 50 ml TB medium in a 250 ml shake flask until an optical density OD₆₀₀ of 0.5 AU was reached and subsequent adding of 155 glycerol to a final concentration of 25 % w w⁻¹. Samples of 100 μ l were collected and vials stored at -156 157 80 °C until further use.

Cells were grown overnight in 50 ml of TB medium containing 35 μ g ml⁻¹ chloramphenicol and 100 μ g 158 ml⁻¹ ampicillin in a 250 ml shake flask at 37 °C and 200 rpm. A 5 ml sample of the overnight culture 159 was transferred into a 200 ml of fresh TB medium in a 1 l shake flask and cells were grown under the 160 161 same conditions till an OD₆₀₀ of 0.5 AU was reached. Protein expression was induced by adding IPTG 162 to a final concentration of 0.1 mmol and performed for 16 h at a reduced temperature of 27 °C and 200 rpm. Cells were harvested by centrifugation in an A5920R centrifuge (Eppendorf, Germany) at 163 164 3200 g for 10 min at 4 °C, resuspended in 0.9 % w w⁻¹ saline and split into 50 ml aliquots. After 165 centrifugation for 10 min at 20,130 g at 4 °C the supernatant was discarded and the pellets were stored at -80 °C until further process. 166

167 Clarified lysate was produced by resuspending approximately 1 g of cell pellet per 50 ml of L buffer
168 pH 8, 0 M NaCl on ice. Cells were disrupted by ultrasonic homogenization using a Scientz-IID
169 Ultrasonic homogeniser (Ningbo Scientz Biotechnology, China) equipped with a 6 mm diameter
170 horn. The suspension was sonicated with 10 s bursts at 400 W followed by 40 s cool down on ice, for

a total time of 15 min. Subsequently the lysed cell suspension was centrifuged for 45 min at 20130 g
at 4 °C to remove cell debris.

173

174 2.3 Characterisation

175 Expression was visualised by SDS-PAGE analysis under reducing and denaturing conditions using TruPAGE[™] precast Gels 4-12 %, 10 x 10 cm 12-well (PCG2003, Millipore Sigma, USA), following the 176 177 manufacturer's protocol. Total protein concentration of the samples was measured by Bradford 178 protein assay and the amount of protein loaded on each well was normalised. Samples were 179 prepared by mixing with 4X loading buffer prior heating for 10 min at 75°C. Gel electrophoresis 180 carried out at 180 V fixed current was applied for separation until finished, followed by 1 h of staining and 4 h of destaining using the described buffers. Precision Plus Protein[™] Standard 181 182 (1610363, Bio-Rad, USA) was used as a protein marker. 183 Bradford Protein Assay for determination of total protein concentration used standard protocol as 184 described by BioRad in 200 µl 96 well plates format [44]. As a reference bovine serum albumin was 185 used. Concentration of the reference solutions was verified by A₂₈₀ absorbance on a NanoDrop[™] 186 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA).

quantification of host cell DNA. Fluorescence at 485/530 nm was measured on a 2300 Victor X5
 multilabel reader (PerkinElmer, US). The DNA content is given as g_{DNA} g_{protein}-1, which is measured by
 Bradford.

Quant-iT[™] High-Sensitivity dsDNA Assay Kit (Q33232, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) was used for

191 VP1-J8 concentration was measured by RP-HPLC using a method described in the literature [45–47],

192 on a Shimadzu UFLC-XR system (pump: LC-20AD-XR, autosampler: SIL-20AXR, diode array detector:

193 SPD-M20A, column oven: CTO-20) with detection at 280 nm. A Vydac Protein C4 column 2.1x100

194 mm, 5 μm (214TP521) was used. Briefly, samples were mixed 1:4 with denaturing buffer (8 M

8

guanidine (GE1914, ChemSupply, Australia), 50 mM DTT, 20 mM Tris pH 8) and incubated at 75 °C
for 10 min. Samples, 3 μl, were injected and separated by gradient elution with a water (Mobile
Phase A, 0.5 % TFA) and acetonitrile (Mobile Phase B, 0.4 % TFA) system. The elution program was as
following: 6 min gradient from 35 % B to 60 % B, 30 s gradient from 60 % B to 100 % B, 1 min 100 %
B, 30 s from 100 % B to 35 % B and 4 min of 35 % B, giving a total analysis time of 12 min, at a flow
rate of 1 ml min⁻¹ and a column temperature of 60 °C. As a reference purified VP1-J8 was used of
which the concentration was determined by Bradford assay.

202 The same Shimadzu system was used for SEC-HPLC with a TSKgel G3000SW column (5 μm,

203 7.8x300 mm, Tosoh Corp.). 40 % v v⁻¹ acetonitrile, 0.1 v v⁻¹ TFA was used as a running buffer at a

flow rate of 1 ml min⁻¹ and 30 °C column temperature. Samples received no pre-treatment except

filtering through a 0.22 μ m cellulose acetate filter (THCCH2213, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). The

206 peak areas at A₂₈₀ nm were analysed and categorized into high-molecular-weight impurities (HMWI)

207 and low-molecular-weight (LMHI) impurities depending on if they elute before or after the VP1-J8

208 peak. An example chromatogram can be found in the appendix (figure A1).

Aggregates were quantified by SEC chromatography with a Superose[®] 6 Increase 10/300 GL (Cytiva,

Sweden) with L buffer pH 8, 0.5 M NaCl as a running buffer and a flow rate of 0.6 ml min⁻¹ on an

211 ÄKTA pure system equipped with a sample pump (Cytiva, Sweden). Aggregates have been defined as

the fraction remaining in the excluded volume of the Superose[®] 6 column. The identity as VP1-J8

aggregates was verified by SDS-PAGE. Absorbance was measured at 280 nm and 260 nm. Aggregates
are expressed as the peak area in relation to the VP1-J8 peak area.

Liquid chromatography – electrospray ionisation tandem mass spectrometry (LC-ESI-MS/MS was
used to analyse and identify the protein bands in the purified samples. Mass spectrometric analysis
was performed at the Adelaide Proteomic Centre, University of Adelaide. In brief gel bands were
destained and dried followed by in-gel reduction plus alkylation and subsequent trypsin digestion.
Peptide separation was performed using a 75 µm ID C18 column (Acclaim PepMap100 C18 75 µm ×

15 cm, Thermo-Fisher Scientific, USA). Raw MS/MS data was searched against the target sequence of
 VP1-J8 and *E. coli* entries present in the Swiss-Pro database in Proteome Discovery (v.2.4, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Full protocol can be found in appendix.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to analyse VLPs. Samples of 5 μl were diluted 1:10
with MQW and pipetted on carbon coated square meshed grids (GSCU100C, ProSciTec, Australia)
and incubated for 5 min. After removal of excess liquid, the sample was washed twice with MQW to
reduce the formation of salt crystals. Negative staining was conducted for 2 min with 2 % w v⁻¹
uranyl acetate. A FEI Tecnai G2 Spirit with an Olympus SIS Veleta CCD camera was used to obtain
images at 120 kV voltage. Particle diameter was measured by counting pixels using GIMP 2.10.18.

229 **2.4** High throughput process technology strategies applied for studying binding capacity of resins

230 Briefly, 96 well PreDictor[®] (Cytiva, Sweden) plates filled with 20 µl of Capto[™] MMC or Capto[™] Q 231 were used for high throughput binding screening. The pH values 7.5, 8.0, 8.5 and 9.0 and NaCl 232 concentrations from 0 – 500 mM were screened. L buffers at the desired pH values, containing 0 M 233 NaCl, were prepared 6 times concentrated as well as 3 M NaCl solution and a VP1-J8 stock solution. 234 The stock solutions were finally mixed in the PreDictor[®] plate wells to a total volume of 300 µl (50 µl 235 6x L buffer, 0-50 μl 3 M NaCl, 0-50 μl MQW, 200 μl VP1-stock solution or MQW for equilibration). 236 The protocol followed standard procedure. Solutions in the PreDictor[®] plates were removed by 2 237 min centrifugation at 500 g. The wells were equilibrated 3 times with desired buffer (5 min shaking 238 at 1200 rpm). After equilibration, buffer with VP1-J8 stock solution instead of MQW was added and 239 shacked for 60 min at 1200 rpm. The bound VP1-J8 was calculated by measuring the concentration 240 in the unbound samples by HPLC and subtract it from the initial VP1-J8 concentration for loading. 241 The DNA concentration was measured as described and compared to the initial DNA concentration 242 for loading. The experiments were automated using a Microlab® Nimbus4® automated liquid 243 handler (Hamilton, USA). The results presented here are an average of duplicates (experiments and 244 samples).

245 VP1-J8 stock solution was prepared by adding PEG-6000 and NaCl to a final concentration of 7 % w v⁻ 246 ¹ and 0.5 M respectively to clarified lysate to precipitate the VP1-J8 out. After gently shaking and 10 247 min incubation on ice, the precipitated VP1-J8 was separated by centrifugation at 20,130 g for 10 248 min at 4 °C. The pellet was washed several times with 5 ml MQW to remove PEG and salts. 249 Thereafter the pellet was resolubilized in 15 ml L buffer containing no buffer salt (MQW, 5 % w w⁻¹ 250 glycerol, 5 mM DTT, 2 mM EDTA, 1x protease inhibitor) and the pH was readjusted to 8.25. Any 251 undissolved residues were removed by centrifugation for 10 min at 20130 g, 4 °C, and filtering 252 through a 0.22 μm filter (16532 Minisart[®], Sartorius, Germany).

253

254 **2.5 High throughput elution study**

255 To establish the optimal elution conditions elution studies on 96 well PreDictor® plates filled with 20 256 µl Capto[™] MMC were performed. Elution buffers at pH values of 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 and NaCl 257 concentrations of 0 - 2 M were examined. Pipetting was done with a Nimbus automated liquid 258 handler (Hamilton, US). L buffers at different pH values were prepared 2 times concentrated, as well 259 as a 4 M NaCl stock solution and mixed to a final volume of 200 μ l inside the wells (100 μ l 2x L 260 buffer, 0-100 µl 4 M NaCl solution and 0-100 µl MQW). The VP1-J8 stock solution was prepared as 261 described in the previous section, except precipitated VP1-J8 was resolubilized in L buffer pH 8, 0.5 M NaCl (40mM Tris, 5 % w w⁻¹ glycerol, 5 mM DTT, 2 mM EDTA, 1x protease inhibitor). Predictor 262 263 plates were equilibrated 3 times for 5 min at 1200 rpm with L buffer pH 8, 0.5 M NaCl and loaded 60 264 min at 1200 rpm with 200 µl of VP1-J8 stock solution. After loading the wells were washed 3 times at 265 1200 rpms for 5 min with L buffer pH 8, 0.5 M NaCl containing no DTT, to remove optical interfering 266 substances like oxidized DTT and other impurities. Two elution steps were conducted in which the 267 wells were filled with elution buffers, incubated for 5 min at 1200 rpm and centrifuged for 2 min at 268 500 g. The Absorbance A₂₈₀ of the eluent solution was measured on a 2300 Victor X5 multilabel 269 reader (PerkinElmer, US). The absorbances of both elution steps were added and normalized to the

270 measured maximum. The results presented here are an average of duplicates (experiments and271 samples).

272

273 2.6 Dynamic binding capacity

274 The resin dynamic binding capacity at 10 % breakthrough (DBC₁₀) was measured at a flow rate of 0.33 ml min⁻¹ on a 1 ml pre-packed Capto[™] MMC column. VP1-J8 stock solution (VP1-J8 275 276 concentration: 2.13 mg_{VP1-J8} ml⁻¹) at pH 8.9, 0.35 M NaCl, prepared as described by PEG precipitation, 277 was used and loaded onto the column. The flowthrough was collected in 2 ml fractions and the VP1-278 J8 contend determined by RP-HPLC. To verify the results and to test the influence of the starting 279 impurity level or product concentration, purified sample by Capto[™] MMC were diluted with L buffer pH 8 and readjusted to pH 8.9, 0.35 M NaCl (VP1-J8 concentration: 0.79 mg_{VP1-J8} ml⁻¹), fractions were 280 281 analysed by Bradford assay.

282

283 **2.7 Process integration and further polishing**

Several possible purification pathways in which Capto[™] MMC is incorporated have been examined
as shown in figure 1 (pathway A to F). Pathway A and B started with PEG precipitation, followed by
Capto[™] MMC purification and an additional polishing step, either by SEC or by Capto[™] Q. Pathway
C and D also started with PEG precipitation, however, followed by Capto[™] Q flow through
chromatography and either SEC or Capto[™] MMC was used as a third/polishing purification step.
Pathway E combined Capto[™] Q with Capto[™] MMC without a PEG precipitation. Pathway F
combined diafiltration with Capto[™] MMC.

291 PEG precipitation was conducted as described in section 2.4, except the precipitate was resolubilized

in L buffer pH 8.9, 0.35 M NaCl. Under this condition VP1-J8 bound strongly to Capto™ MMC and

293 basically did not bind to Capto[™] Q. The salt concentration in the load material also minimizes DNA-

294 protein interaction and therefore beneficially influenced the purification process by minimising 295 product loss in the first step. Capto[™] Q flow through experiments were done either with a custom-296 packed column containing 14 ml of resin (XK 16/20 Column, Cytiva, Sweden) or with a 1 ml pre-297 packed column on an ÄKTA pure system at flow rates of 1 ml min⁻¹ or 0.33 ml min⁻¹ respectively with 298 L buffer pH 8.9, 0.35 M NaCl as a running buffer. Samples obtained from Capto[™]Q flowthrough, PEG 299 precipitation or clarified lysate were loaded on 1 ml Capto[™] MMC with L buffer pH 8.9, 0.35 M NaCl 300 at a flow rate of 0.33 ml min⁻¹. Elution from Capto[™] MMC was achieved by applying a step gradient 301 with L buffer pH 12, 0 M NaCl at 1 ml min⁻¹. In the case in which Capto[™] Q flow through purification 302 was performed after Capto[™] MMC, the sample was diluted 1:4 with L buffer pH 8 and the pH and 303 NaCl concentration were adjusted to 8.9 and 0.35 M respectively. A Superose[®]6 (Cytiva, Sweden) 304 column was used for SEC polishing with L buffer pH 8, 0.5 M NaCl at a flow rate of 0.6 ml min⁻¹. For 305 batch diafiltration 15 ml Amicon® Ultra-15 centrifugal filter units with a molecular weight cut-off of 306 100 kDa were used (UFC9100, MilliporeSigma, USA). A sample of 15 ml crude lysate (pH 8.9, 0.35 M 307 NaCl) was centrifuged at 5000 g till the volume reached 2 ml. It was then diluted 1:1 with L buffer pH 308 8.9 0.35 M NaCl, and centrifuged till a volume of 2 ml. This step was repeated 5 times and it took 309 about 8 h.

310

311 **2.8 Virus-like particle assembly**

Purified VP1-J8 capsomeres were assembled by adding calcium chloride directly into the protein
solution, based on a method described by Liew et al. [46].

Purified VP1-J8 capsomeres were obtained as described in table 1 pathway E. Clarified supernatant
was purified on Capto[™] Q in flow through mode (pH 8.9, 0.35 M NaCl) and without further buffer
adjustment loaded onto a 1 ml Capto[™] MMC column. After loading, the column was washed for 10
CV with washing buffer without DTT (20mM Tris, 5 % w w⁻¹ glycerol, 1 mM EDTA, 0.35 M NaCl,
pH 8.9) and step eluted with a sodium hydrogen orthophosphate buffer at pH 12 containing 1 M

NaCl (20mM sodium hydrogen orthophosphate, 5 % w w⁻¹ glycerol, 1 mM EDTA, 1 M NaCl, pH 12).
The increased NaCl was chosen as it supports VLP assembly. The eluate was diluted with elution
buffer to a VP1-J8 concentration of 0.6 mg ml⁻¹ and pH adjusted to pH 7.2 with HCl. After pH
adjustment 100 mM CaCl₂ stock solution was added to a final concentration of 3 mM CaCl₂ and
subsequently incubated for 12h at room temperature. The solution was analysed by TEM as
described in section 2.3.

325

326 3. Results

327 **3.1 High throughput binding studies**

328 Figures 2 and 3 show contour plots of the static binding of VP1-J8 on Capto[™] Q and Capto[™] MMC resins, respectively. Figure 4 shows bound DNA on Capto[™] Q expressed as percent of the loaded 329 330 DNA. Values in the figures are rounded to the closest colour level. For Capto[™] MMC initially 29.1 331 mg VP1-J8 per ml resin was loaded, and for Capto[™] Q 53.5 mg VP1-J8 per ml resin. In general, VP1-J8 showed poor binding affinity towards Capto[™] Q at all examined conditions with a maximum 332 measured binding capacity of 4.2 mg ml⁻¹ at pH 8.5, 0.5 M NaCl and capacities ranging from -1.4 to 333 334 3.8 mg ml⁻¹ at the other conditions. The negative value might be derived from measurement 335 uncertainty, due to the high concentration of loaded material. Therefore, negative values should not 336 be considered in this instance. The binding capacity slightly increased with increasing NaCl concentration. DNA binding on Capto[™] Q was low if no NaCl was present in the buffer (< 5 % for pH 337 7.5 – 8.5, and 15 % at pH 9.0, 0 M NaCl in each case) and increased with increasing NaCl 338 339 concentrations, eventually reaching an optimum at 0.3 M NaCl and decreased at higher NaCl 340 concentrations. The highest DNA binding was measured at pH 7.5 at NaCl concentrations between 341 0.3 and 0.4 M, at which 38 % of the loaded DNA bound to the resin, as shown in figure 4.

342 In contrast, VP1-J8 showed a strong binding towards Capto[™] MMC at elevated NaCl concentrations. The highest binding capacity was measured at pH 9, 0.3 M NaCl with 16.0 mg ml⁻¹ and binding at 0 M 343 344 NaCl was below 4 mg ml⁻¹ at all pH values. There is a clear trend that VP1-J8 poorly binds to Capto[™] MMC at low salt concentrations and starts binding with increasing NaCl concentrations. This effect is 345 346 also pH dependent. While at pH 7.5, 0.4 M NaCl is required to obtain a binding capacity of 10 mg ml⁻ 347 ¹, only 0.2 M NaCl is required at pH 9. The binding shows an optimum at a certain NaCl concentration and at higher NaCl binding decreases. For example, maximum binding at pH 9 is at 0.3 M NaCl (16.0 348 349 mg ml⁻¹) and at 0.5 M NaCl it decreased to 13.2 mg ml^{-1} .

350

351 **3.2 High throughput elution studies**

The best elution from Capto[™] MMC was observed at pH 12, 0 M NaCl, and no elution was measured 352 353 at pH values and NaCl concentrations below the loading condition (pH 8, 0.5 M NaCl). As can be seen 354 as a general trend in figure 5, increasing NaCl concentration led to better elution with a maximum at 355 around 1.2 – 1.4 M NaCl. At higher salt concentrations however, VP1-J8 elutes less. This trend is only 356 true for pH values below 12, as at pH 12 the strongest elution is at 0 M NaCl. Increasing NaCl 357 concentration led to lower elution, but still high, compared to other elution conditions tested. Rising 358 pH supports elution gradually at all NaCl concentrations and showed a steep increase from pH 11 to 359 12.

360

361 **3.3 Dynamic binding capacity**

362 As can be seen in figure 6, the purity and concentration of the starting material had a negligible

influence on dynamic binding capacity. Both experiments showed a DBC_{10%} of around 14 mg ml_{resin}⁻¹

at a residence time of 1 min for VP1-J8 on Capto[™] MMC. The dynamic binding is comparable to high

throughput results, but in this case slightly lower, to the static binding measured with high

throughput binding studies in which a binding of 15-16 mg ml⁻¹ was obtained for the chosen buffer
conditions.

368

369 **3.4 Process integration and further polishing**

Although the binding of VP1-J8 on Capto[™] MMC at a pH above 8 seems to be highly specific it was
found that purification by Capto[™] MMC alone does not result in a pure product.

The purity analysis of the different purification pathways is summarized in table 1. The results of

373 SDS-PAGE analysis are shown in figure 7. Purity analysis by size exclusion methods of the products

374 obtained by PEG precipitation and diafiltration was not expedient as the impurity levels, in particular

375 DNA levels, were too high and therefore distorted the results.

PEG precipitation followed by Capto[™] MMC purification led to SEC purities of around 80 % and

377 removed the majority of DNA. Very low levels of aggregates (0.6 %) could be measured, however the

378 identity of the aggregates could not be verified as VP1-J8 aggregates. Both subsequent polishing

379 steps, either by size exclusion chromatography or by flow through polishing on Capto[™] Q further

increased the purity to levels above 90 % and DNA levels below 0.04 μ g mg_{protein}⁻¹. No aggregates

381 could be detected after polishing.

PEG precipitation followed by Capto[™] Q flow through purification lowered DNA levels to 0.04 µg
 mg_{protein}⁻¹, and achieved a SEC purity of around 70 %. Around 3.1 % VP1-J8 aggregates were present
 in the sample. Polishing by SEC led to the removal of aggregates, however HMWI remained high with
 18.1 %. Polishing with Capto[™] MMC removed aggregates and also removed most of the HMWI

386 (HMWI: 2.1 %).

The combination of AEX flowthrough followed by Capto[™] MMC purification, without a prior PEG
precipitation step, showed similar results, with slightly higher impurities. After the flow through step
the DNA level was very low, but VP1-J8 aggregates were present (2.8 % aggregates). HMWI (42.7 %)

and LMWI (22.9 %) were higher than with a prior PEG precipitation step (HMWI: 25.2 %, LMWI: 3.6 %). The subsequent CaptoTM MMC step strongly reduced HMWI and LMWI impurities to 10.9 % and 1.7 % respectively, and aggregates could not be detected. The remaining DNA content of 0.004 μ g mg_{protein}⁻¹ was the lowest measured for all purification steps and is below the detection limit of the assay.

Diafiltration as an alternative first purification step resulted in insufficient outcomes. DNA levels could not be lowered in the diafiltration step and impurity levels remained high. Also the subsequent CaptoTM MMC step showed poor performance and very high HMWI impurities of 50.0 % remained. Furthermore 14.6 % aggregates could be measured and DNA at a comparable very high level of 1.85 µg mg_{protein}⁻¹ was present. Nonetheless, the aggregates could not be identified by SDS-PAGE as VP1-J8 aggregates or any other protein and a comparison of the A₂₆₀/A₂₈₀ ratio of 1.96 indicates that the measured aggregate fraction is in fact nucleic acid (data not shown).

SDS-PAGE analysis confirms the SEC-HPLC analysis. PEG precipitation, Capto[™] Q and Capto[™] MMC 402 403 are possible unit operations to purify VP1-J8. PEG precipitation and Capto[™] Q did not result in pure product (figure 7, line 3, 7, 12). In combination with Capto[™] MMC the purity is very high. The 404 405 Capto[™] MMC step in particular showed a high specifity towards VP1-J8 and thus strongly increased 406 the purity. This is especially evident for the purification after diafiltration (figure 7, line 14 & 15). The 407 combination of Capto[™] Q and Capto[™] MMC lead to a product of high purity, with only faint bands 408 of impurities visible (figure 7 lane 9 & 13, impurities A-E). These impurity bands could not be 409 removed in our experiments and become visible if the SDS gel was overloaded. However, the 410 pathway without prior PEG precipitation showed slightly higher impurities for proteins > 50 kDa 411 (figure 7, lane 13) and lower impurities for proteins < 50 kDa. Impurity A has a molecular weight of 412 around 90 kDa, impurity B of around 70 kDa, impurity C shows a double band at around 40 kDa and 413 impurity D & E has a molecular weight of 25 & 20 kDa, respectively. Protein identification by 414 comparing protein fingerprints of the impurity bands via LC-ESI-MS/MS as described in section 2.3

against *E.coli* proteins and VP1-J8 revealed that impurities C, D and E showed the highest coverage
with VP1-J8. Impurity C had a coverage of 69 %, impurity D of 57 % and impurity E of 59 %. Known *E. coli* proteins showed a significantly lower coverage. As impurities C, D and E have a lower molecule
weight as native VP1-J8 but showed a high fingerprint coverage of VP1-J8, it can be concluded that
impurities C, D and E are truncation products of VP1-J8. Unfortunately, Impurities A and B showed
no signal in LC-ESI-MS/MS at all and therefore could not be identified (below detection limit).

421

422 3.5 VLP assembly

As can be seen in figure 8 the capsomeres from pathway E (figure 1) could be successfully assembled
into capsid like structures by solely lowering the pH and adding calcium chloride. The measured
diameters of the particles ranged from 42 nm to 52 nm. Apart from capsid like structures also
unassembled capsomeres were visible on the TEM images but no spherical aggregates between 15
and 30 nm.

428

429 4. Discussion

430 At a pH range from 7.5 to 9.0 VP1-J8 capsomeres showed static binding capacities between -1.4 to 3.8 mg ml_{resin}⁻¹ on Capto[™]Q. Keeping in mind that at the high concentration used in these tests, 1 % 431 432 error in the concentration determination corresponds to around 0.5 mg ml_{resin}-1 difference in binding capacity it can be concluded, that VP1-J8 capsomeres do not effectively bind Capto[™] Q. This result 433 434 is unexpected given the fact that VP1-J8 has a theoretical isoelectric point of 6.57 and should 435 therefore have an overall negative charge and expected to bind to strong anion exchangers for 436 selected buffer systems. It is also contrary to reports in the literature in which VP1 capsomeres have 437 been captured on Sartobind[®] Q membranes at pH 8 having the same ligand [41]. The slightly 438 increased binding at elevated NaCl concentrations, can be explained by non-specific hydrophobic

interactions. In contrast, VP1-J8 does bind strongly towards Capto[™] MMC, a mixed mode cation 439 440 exchanger, at the examined pH range for elevated NaCl concentrations but with only low levels at 441 low salt concentrations. For a given NaCl concentration (e.g. 0.3 M NaCl) the binding capacity 442 actually increases with increasing pH. This behaviour is somewhat strange, and a plausible 443 explanation would be that hydrophobic interactions are the predominant binding mechanism between Capto[™] MMC and VP1-J8. However, that would also mean that VP1-J8 binding increases 444 445 with increasing salt concentrations [48]. As the binding capacity decreases again at high salt 446 concentrations (see figure 3 pH 9, 0.5 M NaCl) this explanation seems to be untrue. Furthermore, 447 the measured optimal salt concentrations (0.3-0.5 M NaCl) are far below reported concentrations in 448 which hydrophobic effects play a dominant role at mixed mode cation exchangers [48]. The elution 449 experiments strengthen the assumption that the binding mechanism is in fact an electrostatic 450 binding. At salt concentrations down to 0 M NaCl VP1-J8 does not elute from Capto[™] MMC, which is 451 contrary to the observations made during binding studies, in which VP1-J8 does poorly bind at this 452 condition. If hydrophobic interactions are responsible for the binding it would be expected to show 453 some elution at very low salt concentrations which cannot be observed [48]. The elution behaviour 454 with a maximum elution at salt concentrations around 1.4 M NaCl and lower elution at higher salt 455 concentrations shows that hydrophobic effects only play a dominant role at very high salt 456 concentrations. Increasing the pH beneficially affects the elution as expected and as described by 457 the manufacturer [49]. At a high pH value of 12 binding strongly decreased at all salt concentrations 458 having the highest elution at 0 M NaCl. This might be explained by that fact that ionic binding occurs 459 at a charged patch, rather than by the overall net charge of the protein. A possible binding site is the 460 exposed N-terminal DNA binding site of VP1, which is rich in arginine and lysine, having pKa's of 461 12.48 and 10.53, respectively [50].

Assuming that the binding is predominantly caused by localised electrostatic interactions, the
binding behaviour still opens questions. Comparing the binding of VP1-J8 on Capto[™] MMC with the
binding of DNA onto Capto[™] Q the similarities are obvious. As shown in literature DNA binds to

465 anion exchangers such Capto[™] Q especially well at low ionic strengths [51]. However, at low ionic strengths neither DNA on Capto[™] Q nor VP1-J8 on Capto[™] MMC bind properly on the resin and 466 467 binding increased with increasing NaCl concentrations; a phenomenon between the two types of interactions are evident. We could show that VP1-J8 is forming soluble DNA-protein aggregates at 468 469 low ionic strengths, caused by the strong DNA binding site on VP1 subunits, which effectively hinders 470 VP1-J8 of accessing the pores of chromatographic resin and thus lead to very low binding capacities 471 at low ionic strengths (results submitted to publication). At salt concentrations having an optimum 472 binding (0.3 – 0.4 M NaCl) the ionic strength leads to dissociation of DNA-protein complexes, but due to the salt tolerance of Capto[™] MMC, only minimally affect the overall binding capacity. This effect 473 474 explains the divergence between binding and eluting at low ionic strengths, the overall binding behaviour and also explains why DNA cannot be properly removed on Capto[™] Q at low ionic 475 476 strengths. Combing the data, it can be concluded that processing of VP1-J8 requires a NaCl above 0.3 477 M NaCl. Optimal loading conditions on Capto[™] MMC are NaCl concentrations between 0.3 and 0.4 at pH values above 8.5 and for DNA removal on Capto[™] Q a pH of 7.5 should be chosen, but also 478 479 higher pH values are applicable. Preferable elution conditions are at pH 12 at low ionic strengths, but 480 NaCl can be added in concentrations up to 2 M with only minimal negative effects on elution. 481 The optimal elution conditions at a pH of 12 are generally considered as very harsh and should be 482 avoided in protein processing as proteins at very high pH values might degenerate over time due to 483 micro chemical changes. These reactions are favoured by long exposure time and high temperatures 484 [52]. However, such harsh conditions are only used for a few minutes during elution and could be 485 neutralized immediately. Therefore, it can be assumed that the degeneration is minimal. This is also 486 supported by the fact that the acquired capsomeres show no abnormal behaviour compared to 487 capsomeres obtained without a high pH elution step (e.g. pathway C, data not shown). Alternatively, 488 as many other mixed mode ligands than Capto[™] MMC exist, a broad screening likely will find a 489 ligand with enhanced elution at lower pH values [53].

The measured dynamic binding capacity was nearly independent from product concentration and product purity. Thus, a Capto[™] MMC purification step can be used at every step during purification without any negative impact on the performance. Although, the measured DBC_{10%} of 14 mg ml⁻¹ is significantly lower than reported DBCs for e.g. BSA on Capto[™] MMC (30 mg ml⁻¹) [54], the capacity is comparable to highly overloaded affinity ligands (GSTrap HP, 22 mg ml⁻¹) [37] and far higher than reported dynamic binding capacities of 5.7 mg mL⁻¹ for human B19 parvovirus-like particles on Sartobind[®] Q [55].

497 The obtained design space allows the construction of several purification pathways, of which a few 498 have been examined. As expected, a three-step purification (pathway A - D) with capturing by 499 selective precipitation leads to higher purities compared to a two-step purification (pathway E & F). Surprisingly, VP1-J8 aggregates seem not bind to Capto[™] MMC as can be clearly seen in pathway E 500 501 and D. This is unexpected as usually, even after an affinity purification step, aggregates are present 502 and must be subsequently separated by SEC [56]. Steric hindrance of the aggregates might be an explanation; another rational could be that the binding site might be inaccessible in aggregated 503 form. Although the mechanism is unknown, purification by Capto[™] MMC eradicates the need for a 504 505 size exclusion step, which is an expensive purification step.

506 Selective precipitation is a valuable process for lab scale purification, however, the scale-up raises 507 issues, as the resolubilisation of the precipitate is challenging at large scale, especially if captured by 508 centrifugation, which compresses the pellet and therefore hinders the resolubilisation [57]. 509 Diafiltration, although widely used in industry for initial purification of VLPs, was impractical as an 510 alternative to precipitation as it showed low removal of impurities, lead to aggregation of the 511 product and proved to be very time consuming. Tangential flow filtration might increase the 512 performance but was not tested. The two-step purification pathway (pathway E), without PEG precipitation, consisting of a Capto[™]Q flow through step followed by a Capto[™] MMC bind and elute 513 514 step, showed similar process characteristics as pathway D. Aggregates and DNA are completely

removed and SEC-HPLC purities close to 90 % are achieved. Furthermore, less truncation product
could be identified, which might be a result of the faster processing compared to the three-step
pathway. If higher purities are required, new multi modal size exclusion resins such as Capto[™]
Core[™] might be a promising approach that yet has to be tested.

519 Using a flow through step on as an initial purification step is rather unusual, but in our process has the advantages of a direct subsequent loading onto Capto[™] MMC without any buffer adjustment 520 521 and therefore eradicates a unit operation. It also reduces the impurity level to a point at which the Capto[™] MMC loading step can be controlled by the UV signal, which is impossible if crude lysate is 522 523 loaded. This comes, however, at the cost of higher resin costs, as more resin is needed compared to 524 a flow through polishing step. The eluate obtained from Capto[™] MMC can be directly assembled 525 into well-formed VLPs by just lowering the pH and adding calcium ions to the solution; no aggregates 526 or miss formed VLPs could be identified. As expected a small amount of capsomeres remained 527 unassembled, an effect already described in the literature, which is negatively correlated to the 528 concentration during assembly [58]. A higher initial concentration can be easily achieved as VP1-J8 is 529 eluted highly concentrated, which will lead to higher recoveries during assembly. Although the 530 overall product recovery has not been evaluated, the process shows no intrinsic product loss and 531 therefore likely has a very high recovery. Compared to other described processes in the literature for 532 the production of viral capsomeres and VLPs our process has several advantages and address some 533 of the common bottlenecks like benzonase treatment for DNA removal, removal of affinity tags, 534 protein refolding, density gradient centrifugation, the use of SEC, multiple buffer exchanges, or the 535 use of low capacity membrane columns [34,35,41,59]. Furthermore, the process is fully scalable, 536 easy to integrate and rapid, as the purification is completed in less than 3 hours. The obtained VLPs 537 are also already highly concentrated in PBS buffer containing only VLPs, capsomeres, EDTA, glycerol 538 and NaCl at a physiological pH value, thus formulation can be achieved by solely diluting it to the 539 required concentration.

540 Several VP1-J8 truncation products could be identified on SDS-PAGE analysis at purified samples. 541 Although it was not possible to identify impurities A and B, it is likely that they are chaperones that 542 bound to VP1-J8. Having a size of around 70 kDa, impurity B is probably the prokaryotic hsp70 543 chaperone DnaK, which was shown to copurify with VP1 [60] and impurity A is hsp90 which interacts 544 with hsp70 [61]. Another possibility is the formation of inter-polypeptide aggregates of VP1-J8 and 545 VP1-J8 truncation products during SDS sample preparation by partial reoxidation [62]. The double 546 band on SDS-PAGE gels at 43 & 40 kDa have already been described in literature and occur due to auto digestion of VP1, as VP1 has an intrinsic serine protease activity [63]. As SEC-HPLC still reveals a 547 548 near uniform capsomere peak we conclude, that partially digested VP1-J8 still remains in pentameric 549 form together with intact VP1-J8 monomers and therefore are impossible to remove. The formation 550 of truncation products of viral protein during the expression in *E. coli* has also been reported for 551 adeno associated viral protein VP3 and might therefore also be a result of *E. coli* proteases [28]. 552 Further research needs to be undertaken to minimize the formation of these digestion products, and 553 how to remove the bound chaperons, but using protease inhibitors throughout the whole process 554 instead of only during cell disruption, run at reduced temperature and addition of ATP to remove 555 chaperones will likely solve the issue. 556 557 558 559

560 **5. Conclusion**

In this study we developed a robust and theoretically fully scalable, highly efficient process for the
 production of modular murine polyomavirus major structural protein VP1-J8 capsomeres and
 modular VLPs using high-throughput process development tools. Purification by mixed mode cation

564	exchanger at pH values above 8 showed a highly specific binding and dynamic binding of 14 mg				
565	mI_{resin} was achieved under the optimised conditions. The developed two step purification pathway,				
566	consisting of an anion exchange flow through step followed by a bind and elute step on a				
567	multimodal cation exchanger, requires no buffer adjustment during processing and is thus				
568	incomparably simple and fast. The developed process removes the majority of host cell protein,				
569	aggregates and DNA, without any of the common bottleneck unit operations in other described VLP				
570	production pathways. VLPs in PBS buffer can be obtained by simply adding calcium ions to the final				
571	eluate and lowering the pH to 7.2. This straightforward process, requiring only three integrated unit				
572	operations might lay the baseline for future cost effective, large scale production of microbial				
573	produced modular VLP vaccine candidates.				
574					
575	6. Acknowledgements				
576	The authors thank Ms Ruth Wang for technical support for LC-ESI-MS/MS and the Protein Expression				
576 577	The authors thank Ms Ruth Wang for technical support for LC-ESI-MS/MS and the Protein Expression Facility of the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia for plasmid construction.				
576 577 578	The authors thank Ms Ruth Wang for technical support for LC-ESI-MS/MS and the Protein Expression Facility of the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia for plasmid construction.				
576 577 578 579	The authors thank Ms Ruth Wang for technical support for LC-ESI-MS/MS and the Protein Expression Facility of the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia for plasmid construction.				
576 577 578 579 580	The authors thank Ms Ruth Wang for technical support for LC-ESI-MS/MS and the Protein Expression Facility of the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia for plasmid construction.				
576 577 578 579 580 581	The authors thank Ms Ruth Wang for technical support for LC-ESI-MS/MS and the Protein Expression Facility of the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia for plasmid construction.				
576 577 578 579 580 581 582	The authors thank Ms Ruth Wang for technical support for LC-ESI-MS/MS and the Protein Expression Facility of the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia for plasmid construction.				
576 577 578 579 580 581 582 583	The authors thank Ms Ruth Wang for technical support for LC-ESI-MS/MS and the Protein Expression Facility of the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia for plasmid construction.				
576 577 578 579 580 581 582 583 583	The authors thank Ms Ruth Wang for technical support for LC-ESI-MS/MS and the Protein Expression Facility of the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia for plasmid construction.				

Table:

Table 1: Different examined purification pathways. HMWI: High molecular weight impurities LMWI: Low molecular weight impurities, Aggr: Aggregates,

DNA: DNA content, NA: Not applicable if measurement was not expedient.

Pathway A	PEG precipitation	Capto™ MMC	SEC
	HMWI: NA, LMWI: NA, Aggr: NA, DNA: 29.7 μg mg ⁻¹	HMWI: 17.9 %, LMWI: 2.7 %, Aggr: 0.6 %, DNA: 0.38 μg mg ⁻¹	HMWI: 7.0 %, LMWI: 1.1 %, Aggr: 0 %, DNA: 0.04 μg mg ⁻¹
Pathway B	PEG precipitation	Capto™ MMC	Capto™ Q
	HMWI: NA, LMWI: NA, Aggr: NA, DNA: 29.7 μg mg ⁻¹	HMWI: 17.9 %, LMWI: 2.7 %, Aggr: 0.6 %, DNA: 0.38 μg mg ⁻¹	HMWI: 4.2 %, LMWI: 2.8 %, Aggr: 0 %, DNA: 0.02 μg mg ⁻¹
Pathway C	PEG precipitation	Capto™ Q	SEC
	HMWI: NA, LMWI: NA, Aggr: NA, DNA: 29.7 μg mg ⁻¹	HMWI: 25.2 %, LMWI: 3.6 %, Aggr: 3.1 %, DNA: 0.04 μg mg ⁻¹	HMWI: 18.1 %, LMWI: 1.5 %, Aggr: 0%, DNA: 0.01 μg mg ⁻¹
Pathway D	PEG precipitation	Capto™ Q	Capto™ MMC
	HMWI: NA, LMWI: NA, Aggr: NA, DNA: 29.7 μg mg ⁻¹	HMWI: 25.2 %, LMWI: 3.6 %, Aggr: 3.1 %, DNA: 0.04 μg mg ⁻¹	HMWI: 2.1 %, LMWI: 1.5 %, Aggr: 0 %, DNA: 0.04 μg mg ⁻¹
Pathway E	Capto™ Q	Capto™ MMC	
	HMWI: 42.7 %, LMWI: 22.9 %, Aggr: 2.8 %, DNA: 0.02 μg mg ⁻¹	HMWI: 10.9 %, LMWI: 1.7 %, Aggr: 0 %, DNA: 0.004 μg mg ⁻¹	
Pathway F	Diafiltration	Capto™ MMC	
	HMWI: 50.3 %, LMWI: 29.0 %, Aggr: NA, DNA: 23.61 μg mg ⁻¹	HMWI: 50.0 %, LMWI: 1.1 %, Aggr: 14.6 %, DNA: 1.85 μg mg ⁻¹	

Figures:



Figure 1: Possible purification pathways examined in this research.

Figure 2: Static binding of VP1-J8 on Capto^T Q measured with 20 µl PreDictor[®] plates in the range pH 7.5 – 9.0 and NaCl 0 – 0.5 M.



Figure 3: Static binding of VP1-J8 on CaptoTM MMC measured with 20 μ l PreDictor[®] plates in the range pH 7.5 – 9.0 and NaCl 0 – 0.5 M.



Figure 4: Bound DNA on CaptoTM Q during static binding studies with 20 μ l PreDictor[®] plates in the range pH 7.5 – 9.0 and NaCl 0 – 0.5 M. Bound DNA is expressed as percentage of initial DNA loaded onto the resin.



Figure 5: Elution study of VP1-J8 from CaptoTM MMC for a pH range from 8 – 12 and NaCl concentrations from 0 – 2 M. Cumulative recovery obtained from 2 consecutive steps normalized to the maximum.



Figure 6: Breakthrough curve of VP1-J8 on a 1 ml Capto[™] MMC column at pH 8.9, 0.35 M NaCl at a flow rate of 1 ml min⁻¹. The marked square indicates a DBC_{10%}. (•) VP1-J8 stock solution, obtained by PEG precipitation. (•) Purified VP1-J8.



Figure 7: SDS-PAGE analysis of purification pathways A-F as described in figure 1. [1 & 10] Marker, [2] clarified cell lysate, [3] resolubilized PEG precipitate (pathway A & B), [4] PEG followed by Capto[™] MMC (pathway A & B), [5] SEC polishing (pathway A), [6] Capto[™] Q polishing (pathway B), [7] PEG precipitation followed by Capto[™] Q flow through (pathway C & D), [8] SEC polishing (pathway C), [9] Capto[™] MMC polishing (pathway D), [11] clarified cell lysate, [12] Capto[™] Q flow through of clarified cell lysate (pathway E), [13] Capto[™] MMC polishing (pathway E), [14] retentate of diafiltration (pathway F), [15] Capto[™] MMC polishing (pathway F). Protein identity of impurities A – E were analysed by LC-ESI-MS/MS Mass Spectrometry.



Figure 8: TEM image of VLPs assembled by lowering the pH to 7.2 and adding calcium chloride to the eluate obtained from pathway E. Scale bar represents 200 nm.



References

 S.L. Cochi, L. Hegg, A. Kaur, C. Pandak, H. Jafari, The Global Polio Eradication Initiative: Progress, Lessons Learned, And Polio Legacy Transition Planning, Health Affairs 35 (2016) 277–283. <u>https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2015.1104</u>.

- [2] WHO, Measels fact sheet, 2019. <u>https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/measles</u> (accessed 16 September 2020).
- [3] G. Yamey, M. Schäferhoff, R. Hatchett, M. Pate, F. Zhao, K.K. McDade, Ensuring global access to COVID-19 vaccines, The Lancet 395 (2020) 1405–1406. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30763-7</u>.
- [4] M. Rahi, A. Sharma, Mass vaccination against COVID-19 may require replays of the polio vaccination drives, EClinicalMedicine 25 (2020) 100501. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eclinm.2020.100501</u>.
- [5] S. Luby, R. Arthur, Risk and Response to Biological Catastrophe in Lower Income Countries, Curr. Top. Microbiol. Immunol. 424 (2019) 85–105. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/82_2019_162</u>.
- [6] T.R. Doel, FMD vaccines, Virus Res. 91 (2003) 81–99. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/s0168-1702(02)00261-7</u>.
- [7] F. Krammer, R. Grabherr, Alternative influenza vaccines made by insect cells, Trends Mol. Med. 16 (2010) 313–320. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molmed.2010.05.002</u>.
- [8] B. Donaldson, Z. Lateef, G.F. Walker, S.L. Young, V.K. Ward, Virus-like particle vaccines: immunology and formulation for clinical translation, Expert Rev. Vaccines 17 (2018) 833–849. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/14760584.2018.1516552</u>.
- [9] M.A. Stanley, Human papillomavirus vaccines, Rev. Med. Virol. 16 (2006) 139–149. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/rmv.498</u>.
- [10] A.P.J. Middelberg, T. Rivera-Hernandez, N. Wibowo, L.H.L. Lua, Y. Fan, G. Magor, C. Chang, Y.P. Chuan, M.F. Good, M.R. Batzloff, A microbial platform for rapid and low-cost virus-like particle and capsomere vaccines, Vaccine 29 (2011) 7154–7162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2011.05.075.
- [11] H.K. Hume, J. Vidigal, M.J.T. Carrondo, A.P.J. Middelberg, A. Roldão, L.H.L. Lua, Synthetic biology for bioengineering virus-like particle vaccines, Biotechnol. Bioeng. 116 (2019) 919–935. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/bit.26890</u>.
- [12] A. Tekewe, Y. Fan, E. Tan, A.P.J. Middelberg, L.H.L. Lua, Integrated molecular and bioprocess engineering for bacterially produced immunogenic modular virus-like particle vaccine displaying 18 kDa rotavirus antigen, Biotechnol. Bioeng. 114 (2017) 397–406. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/bit.26068</u>.
- [13] A. Seth, I.G. Kong, S.-H. Lee, J.-Y. Yang, Y.-S. Lee, Y. Kim, N. Wibowo, A.P.J. Middelberg, L.H.L. Lua, M.-N. Kweon, Modular virus-like particles for sublingual vaccination against group A streptococcus, Vaccine 34 (2016) 6472–6480. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2016.11.008</u>.
- [14] T. Rivera-Hernandez, J. Hartas, Y. Wu, Y.P. Chuan, L.H.L. Lua, M. Good, M.R. Batzloff, A.P.J. Middelberg, Self-adjuvanting modular virus-like particles for mucosal vaccination against group A streptococcus (GAS), Vaccine 31 (2013) 1950–1955. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2013.02.013</u>.
- [15] M.R. Anggraeni, N.K. Connors, Y. Wu, Y.P. Chuan, L.H.L. Lua, A.P.J. Middelberg, Sensitivity of immune response quality to influenza helix 190 antigen structure displayed on a modular viruslike particle, Vaccine 31 (2013) 4428–4435. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2013.06.087</u>.
- [16] C.L. Effio, J. Hubbuch, Next generation vaccines and vectors: Designing downstream processes for recombinant protein-based virus-like particles, Biotechnol. J. 10 (2015) 715–727. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/biot.201400392</u>.
- [17] V. Qendri, J.A. Bogaards, J. Berkhof, Pricing of HPV vaccines in European tender-based settings, Eur. J. Health Econ. 20 (2019) 271–280. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10198-018-0996-9</u>.
- [18] A. Zeltins, Construction and characterization of virus-like particles: a review, Mol. Biotechnol. 53 (2013) 92–107. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s12033-012-9598-4</u>.

- [19] D.I. Lipin, Y.P. Chuan, L.H.L. Lua, A.P.J. Middelberg, Encapsulation of DNA and non-viral protein changes the structure of murine polyomavirus virus-like particles, Arch. Virol. 153 (2008) 2027– 2039. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00705-008-0220-9</u>.
- [20] L.K. Pattenden, A.P.J. Middelberg, M. Niebert, D.I. Lipin, Towards the preparative and largescale precision manufacture of virus-like particles, Trends Biotechnol. 23 (2005) 523–529. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibtech.2005.07.011</u>.
- [21] Y.P. Chuan, Y.Y. Fan, L.H.L. Lua, A.P.J. Middelberg, Virus assembly occurs following a pH- or Ca2+-triggered switch in the thermodynamic attraction between structural protein capsomeres, J. R. Soc. Interface 7 (2010) 409–421. <u>https://doi.org/10.1098/rsif.2009.0175</u>.
- [22] L.H.L. Lua, N.K. Connors, F. Sainsbury, Y.P. Chuan, N. Wibowo, A.P.J. Middelberg, Bioengineering virus-like particles as vaccines, Biotechnol. Bioeng. 111 (2014) 425–440. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/bit.25159</u>.
- [23] Y.P. Chuan, N. Wibowo, L.H.L. Lua, A.P.J. Middelberg, The economics of virus-like particle and capsomere vaccines, Biochemical Engineering Journal 90 (2014) 255–263. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bej.2014.06.005</u>.
- [24] A. Roldão, M.C.M. Mellado, L.R. Castilho, M.J.T. Carrondo, P.M. Alves, Virus-like particles in vaccine development, Expert Rev. Vaccines 9 (2010) 1149–1176. <u>https://doi.org/10.1586/erv.10.115</u>.
- [25] X. Huang, X. Wang, J. Zhang, N. Xia, Q. Zhao, Escherichia coli-derived virus-like particles in vaccine development, NPJ Vaccines 2 (2017) 3. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/s41541-017-0006-8</u>.
- [26] WHO, Weekly epidemiological record: No. 29, 2014, 89, 321-336, 2014. <u>https://www.who.int/vaccine_safety/committee/reports/wer8929.pdf</u> (accessed 17 September 2020).
- [27] Y.-M. Hu, S.-J. Huang, K. Chu, T. Wu, Z.-Z. Wang, C.-L. Yang, J.-P. Cai, H.-M. Jiang, Y.-J. Wang, M. Guo, X.-H. Liu, H.-J. Huang, F.-C. Zhu, J. Zhang, N.-S. Xia, Safety of an Escherichia coli-expressed bivalent human papillomavirus (types 16 and 18) L1 virus-like particle vaccine: an open-label phase I clinical trial, Hum. Vaccin. Immunother. 10 (2014) 469–475. https://doi.org/10.4161/hv.26846.
- [28] D.T. Le, M.T. Radukic, K.M. Müller, Adeno-associated virus capsid protein expression in Escherichia coli and chemically defined capsid assembly, Sci. Rep. 9 (2019) 18631. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-54928-y</u>.
- [29] Y. Zhang, S. Yin, B. Zhang, J. Bi, Y. Liu, Z. Su, HBc-based virus-like particle assembly from inclusion bodies using 2-methyl-2, 4-pentanediol, Process Biochemistry 89 (2020) 233–237. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procbio.2019.10.031</u>.
- [30] D.J. Pattinson, S.H. Apte, N. Wibowo, Y.P. Chuan, T. Rivera-Hernandez, P.L. Groves, L.H. Lua, A.P.J. Middelberg, D.L. Doolan, Chimeric Murine Polyomavirus Virus-Like Particles Induce Plasmodium Antigen-Specific CD8+ T Cell and Antibody Responses, Front. Cell. Infect. Microbiol. 9 (2019) 215. <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fcimb.2019.00215</u>.
- [31] M.W.O. Liew, A. Rajendran, A.P.J. Middelberg, Microbial production of virus-like particle vaccine protein at gram-per-litre levels, J. Biotechnol. 150 (2010) 224–231. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiotec.2010.08.010</u>.
- [32] J. Waneesorn, N. Wibowo, J. Bingham, A.P.J. Middelberg, L.H.L. Lua, Structural-based designed modular capsomere comprising HA1 for low-cost poultry influenza vaccination, Vaccine 36 (2016) 3064–3071. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2016.11.058</u>.
- [33] N. Wibowo, F.K. Hughes, E.J. Fairmaid, L.H.L. Lua, L.E. Brown, A.P.J. Middelberg, Protective efficacy of a bacterially produced modular capsomere presenting M2e from influenza: extending the potential of broadly cross-protecting epitopes, Vaccine 32 (2014) 3651–3655. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2014.04.062</u>.

- [34] N. Roos, B. Breiner, L. Preuss, H. Lilie, K. Hipp, H. Herrmann, T. Horn, R. Biener, T. Iftner, C. Simon, Optimized production strategy of the major capsid protein HPV 16L1 non-assembly variant in E. coli, Protein Expr. Purif. 175 (2020) 105690. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pep.2020.105690.
- [35] N. Hillebrandt, P. Vormittag, N. Bluthardt, A. Dietrich, J. Hubbuch, Integrated Process for Capture and Purification of Virus-Like Particles: Enhancing Process Performance by Cross-Flow Filtration, Front. Bioeng. Biotechnol. 8 (2020) 489. <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2020.00489</u>.
- [36] J.C. Cook, J.G. Joyce, H.A. George, L.D. Schultz, W.M. Hurni, K.U. Jansen, R.W. Hepler, C. Ip, R.S. Lowe, P.M. Keller, E.D. Lehman, Purification of virus-like particles of recombinant human papillomavirus type 11 major capsid protein L1 from Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Protein Expr. Purif. 17 (1999) 477–484. <u>https://doi.org/10.1006/prep.1999.1155</u>.
- [37] D.I. Lipin, L.H.L. Lua, A.P.J. Middelberg, Quaternary size distribution of soluble aggregates of glutathione-S-transferase-purified viral protein as determined by asymmetrical flow field flow fractionation and dynamic light scattering, J. Chromatogr. A 1190 (2008) 204–214. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2008.03.032</u>.
- [38] N.K. Connors, Y. Wu, L.H.L. Lua, A.P.J. Middelberg, Improved fusion tag cleavage strategies in the downstream processing of self-assembling virus-like particle vaccines, Food and Bioproducts Processing 92 (2014) 143–151. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2013.08.012</u>.
- [39] A. Tekewe, N.K. Connors, F. Sainsbury, N. Wibowo, L.H.L. Lua, A.P.J. Middelberg, A rapid and simple screening method to identify conditions for enhanced stability of modular vaccine candidates, Biochemical Engineering Journal 100 (2015) 50–58. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bej.2015.04.004</u>.
- [40] J. Hirsch, B.W. Faber, J.E. Crowe, B. Verstrepen, G. Cornelissen, E. coli production process yields stable dengue 1 virus-sized particles (VSPs), Vaccine 38 (2020) 3305–3312. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2020.03.003</u>.
- [41] C. Ladd Effio, P. Baumann, C. Weigel, P. Vormittag, A. Middelberg, J. Hubbuch, High-throughput process development of an alternative platform for the production of virus-like particles in Escherichia coli, J. Biotechnol. 219 (2016) 7–19. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiotec.2015.12.018</u>.
- [42] A. Tekewe, Virus-like particle and capsomere vaccines against rotavirus, 2016.
- [43] W.K. Chung, A.S. Freed, M.A. Holstein, S.A. McCallum, S.M. Cramer, Evaluation of protein adsorption and preferred binding regions in multimodal chromatography using NMR, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 107 (2010) 16811–16816. <u>https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1002347107</u>.
- [44] M.M. Bradford, A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding, Analytical Biochemistry 72 (1976) 248– 254. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697(76)90527-3</u>.
- [45] C. Ladd Effio, L. Wenger, O. Ötes, S.A. Oelmeier, R. Kneusel, J. Hubbuch, Downstream processing of virus-like particles: single-stage and multi-stage aqueous two-phase extraction, J. Chromatogr. A 1383 (2015) 35–46. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2015.01.007</u>.
- [46] M.W.O. Liew, Y.P. Chuan, A.P.J. Middelberg, High-yield and scalable cell-free assembly of viruslike particles by dilution, Biochemical Engineering Journal 67 (2012) 88–96. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bej.2012.05.007</u>.
- [47] Y. Yuan, E. Shane, C.N. Oliver, Reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography of virus-like particles, J. Chromatogr. A 816 (1998) 21–28. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0021-</u> <u>9673(98)00065-X</u>.
- [48] B.K. Nfor, M. Noverraz, S. Chilamkurthi, P.D.E.M. Verhaert, L.A.M. van der Wielen, M. Ottens, High-throughput isotherm determination and thermodynamic modeling of protein adsorption on mixed mode adsorbents, J. Chromatogr. A 1217 (2010) 6829–6850. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2010.07.069</u>.

- [49] Cytiva, Uppsala, Sweden, Instructions 11003505 AF Capto[™] MMC, 2018.
- [50] D. Chang, X. Cai, R.A. Consigli, Characterization of the DNA binding properties of polyomavirus capsid protein, J. Virol. 67 (1993) 6327–6331. <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/jvi.67.10.6327-6331.1993</u>.
- [51] C. Tarmann, A. Jungbauer, Adsorption of plasmid DNA on anion exchange chromatography media, J. Sep. Sci. 31 (2008) 2605–2618. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/jssc.200700654</u>.
- [52] M. Friedman, M.R. Gumbmann, P.M. Masters, Protein-alkali reactions: chemistry, toxicology, and nutritional consequences, Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. 177 (1984) 367–412. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4684-4790-3_18</u>.
- [53] G. Zhao, X.-Y. Dong, Y. Sun, Ligands for mixed-mode protein chromatography: Principles, characteristics and design, J. Biotechnol. 144 (2009) 3–11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiotec.2009.04.009.
- [54] Cytiva, Uppsala, Sweden, Data File 11-0035-45 AA, 2005.
- [55] C. Ladd Effio, T. Hahn, J. Seiler, S.A. Oelmeier, I. Asen, C. Silberer, L. Villain, J. Hubbuch, Modeling and simulation of anion-exchange membrane chromatography for purification of Sf9 insect cell-derived virus-like particles, J. Chromatogr. A 1429 (2016) 142–154. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2015.12.006</u>.
- [56] D.I. Lipin, A. Raj, L.H.L. Lua, A.P.J. Middelberg, Affinity purification of viral protein having heterogeneous quaternary structure: modeling the impact of soluble aggregates on chromatographic performance, J. Chromatogr. A 1216 (2009) 5696–5708. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2009.05.082</u>.
- [57] N. Hammerschmidt, S. Hobiger, A. Jungbauer, Continuous polyethylene glycol precipitation of recombinant antibodies: Sequential precipitation and resolubilization, Process Biochemistry 51 (2016) 325–332. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procbio.2015.11.032</u>.
- [58] Y. Ding, Y.P. Chuan, L. He, A.P.J. Middelberg, Modeling the competition between aggregation and self-assembly during virus-like particle processing, Biotechnol. Bioeng. 107 (2010) 550–560. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/bit.22821</u>.
- [59] X.S. Chen, G. Casini, S.C. Harrison, R.L. Garcea, Papillomavirus capsid protein expression in Escherichia coli: purification and assembly of HPV11 and HPV16 L1, J. Mol. Biol. 307 (2001) 173–182. <u>https://doi.org/10.1006/jmbi.2000.4464</u>.
- [60] L.R. Chromy, J.M. Pipas, R.L. Garcea, Chaperone-mediated in vitro assembly of Polyomavirus capsids, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 100 (2003) 10477–10482. <u>https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1832245100</u>.
- [61] O. Genest, S. Wickner, S.M. Doyle, Hsp90 and Hsp70 chaperones: Collaborators in protein remodeling, J. Biol. Chem. 294 (2019) 2109–2120. <u>https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.REV118.002806</u>.
- [62] R. Westermeier, Frequently made mistakes in electrophoresis, Proteomics 7 Suppl 1 (2007) 60–
 63. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/pmic.200790077</u>.
- [63] J.H. Bowen, V. Chlumecky, P. D'Obrenan, J.S. Colter, Evidence that polyoma polypeptide VP1 is a serine protease, Virology 135 (1984) 551–554. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/0042-6822(84)90210-1</u>.