

1 **Recombinant biologic products versus nutraceuticals from plants –**
2 **a regulatory choice?**

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16 **Abstract**

17 Biotechnology has transformed the potential for plants to be a manufacturing source
18 of pharmaceutical compounds. Now, with transgenic and transient expression
19 techniques, virtually any biologic, including vaccines and therapeutics, could be
20 manufactured in plants. But uncertainty over the regulatory path for such new
21 pharmaceuticals has been a deterrent. Consideration has been given to using
22 alternative regulatory paths, including those for nutraceuticals or cosmetic agents.
23 This review will consider these possibilities, and discuss the difficulties in
24 establishing regulatory guidelines for new pharmaceutical manufacturing
25 technologies.

26 Plants have always been a rich source of compounds to maintain or improve human
27 health [1]. Historically these have been compounds that occur naturally in plants, but
28 with the introduction of new plant biotechnology at the end of the last century, the
29 possibility emerged to engineer plants to manufacture new compounds, including
30 small molecules and biologics, that originate from non-plant sources [2]. Very rapidly,
31 the technology to genetically modify almost any plant species was developed,
32 including all of the world's major food and feed crops, and with that arrived the
33 prospect of delivering recombinant compounds of potential medical benefit, by the
34 oral route [3].

35 This boom in plant biotechnology occurred at the same time as the explosion in
36 university enterprise activities. A number of new companies including spin-outs were
37 established to take advantage of growing interest in the field of "molecular pharming"
38 [4]. Although most of these ventures were clearly developing pharmaceutical drug
39 targets, for some the regulatory path was not so clear and alternative routes for
40 commercial development became of interest. For example, it was considered that
41 some products could be developed as nutraceuticals (or food supplements),
42 cosmetic ingredients or medical devices, the regulatory path for which are different
43 (and less onerous) than for medicines.

44 In this article, we shall consider the circumstances under which a plant biotechnology
45 product might be regarded as a nutraceutical or food supplement. We shall contrast
46 this with how new medicines are regulated with specific reference to plant derived
47 products and how this was applied to a monoclonal antibody produced in genetically
48 modified plants [5]. We also consider the difficulties in establishing a new regulatory
49 path for a novel biotechnology.

50 **Nutraceuticals and related products**

51 The populist term "nutraceutical" was coined in 1989 [6, 7], but actually has no
52 definition in US or European law. Nutraceuticals are sometimes also described as
53 dietary supplements, functional foods, natural health products and "foods for special
54 health use" and as such, the term tends to blur the distinction between food and
55 medicines. Dietary supplements for example, are recognised in the USA as a
56 separate regulatory category of food and are neither food nor drug (Dietary
57 Supplement, Health and Education Act, 1994). They are defined as "a product (other
58 than tobacco) intended to supplement the diet that contains one or more of the
59 following dietary ingredients; vitamins, minerals, amino acids, herbs or other
60 botanicals; a concentrate, metabolite, constituent, extract or combination of the
61 ingredients listed above". They must also conform to other criteria:

- 62 • be intended for ingestion in pill, capsule, tablet, powder or liquid form;
- 63 • not be represented for use as a conventional food or as sole item of a
64 meal/diet; and
- 65 • be labelled as a "dietary supplement".

66 This definition is quite distinct from a drug, which according to the US Food and Drug
67 Administration (FDA) is "an article intended to diagnose, cure, mitigate, treat or

68 prevent disease”, although clearly the marketing objectives of dietary supplements
69 often crosses into this spectrum.

70 In fact, dietary supplements do not fall under the remit of the US FDA, whose remit is
71 restricted to foods, additives, drugs and cosmetics. So whereas for new food
72 additives and drugs, the manufacturer must conduct safety studies and submit the
73 results to FDA for review and pre-market approval, dietary supplements can be
74 marketed without satisfying these criteria and need no pre-market testing.

75 In Europe, products are either regulated as foods or medicines, and on a European-
76 wide basis, allowing each member state to apply its own regulatory framework. In the
77 UK for example, the Medicines and Healthcare Products Regulatory Authority has
78 indicated that there are no plans to alter legislation to make specific provision for
79 nutraceuticals

80 (www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/358665/App
81 [endix6.pdf](http://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/358665/App)).

82 In Europe, a food is defined as “any substance or product whether processed,
83 partially processed or unprocessed intended to be, or reasonably expected to be,
84 ingested by humans” (Regulation (EC) No. 178/2002). Nutraceutical products can be
85 regulated as food, but there can be no implication of medical benefit, ie the
86 suggestion that the product can treat or prevent disease. However, beneficial effects
87 of nutraceuticals can be made as “health claims” rather than “medical claims”. For
88 instance, claims must not state that a nutraceutical will prevent or cure a disease,
89 only that it may help to improve health, possibly assisting in the avoidance of the
90 onset of illness.

91 **Pharmaceutical regulation of plant derived drugs**

92 Pharmaceutical manufacture by plant biotechnology is complicated by the fact that it
93 is an emerging technology. As such the regulatory framework was slow to become
94 established and still has not been thoroughly tested in any part of the world. Indeed,
95 it was not until 2009, that the European Medicines Agency (EMA) published a
96 “Guideline on the quality of biological active substances produced by stable
97 transgene expression in higher plants” [8]. Previous to that, a “Points to Consider”
98 document had been available from 2002, which had been drafted by the agency’s
99 Biologics Working Party. This document had not been challenged by any emerging
100 product candidate, and was an immature document relating to how Good
101 Manufacturing Practice might be applied to plants. The uncertainty relating to
102 regulatory requirements for plant biotechnology products, and the prospect of “being
103 the first” to engage with the regulatory authority on a new technology was a major
104 disincentive for industry to develop this area in Europe.

105

106 **Edible vaccines**

107 The prospect of manufacturing medically important recombinant proteins in plants
108 rapidly gave rise to the possibility of delivering recombinant vaccines and
109 therapeutics in edible plant material as “edible vaccines” [9]. This potentially

110 obscures the lines between pharmaceutical and dietary supplement, and given the
111 differences between regulatory oversight of drugs, foods and dietary supplements, it
112 is perhaps not surprising that some SMEs become interested in the possibility of
113 negotiating an alternative, less complicated and time-consuming regulatory path.

114 Although the initial idea of vaccination through consumption of raw plant material (eg
115 fruits) has been largely replaced by the concept of oral antigen delivery in processed
116 plant material.

117 A small number of human clinical trials involving oral delivery of antigen have been
118 undertaken. In all cases no major safety concerns were detected, and formulations
119 were well tolerated by individuals. The first trials in humans were conducted with the
120 LT-B antigen of enterotoxigenic strains of *E.coli* delivered in transgenic potato [12].
121 After consumption of transgenic potato, both serological and mucosal responses
122 were detected: 91% of volunteers developed anti LT-B specific serum IgG, and 50%
123 also developed anti-LT-B specific secretory IgA antibody (SIgA) in stool samples. In
124 a later study in which volunteers were fed the same antigen in maize [13], similar
125 results were observed. The authors noted that maize offers substantial benefits
126 compared to potato for delivery of edible vaccines, including the availability of raw
127 maize preparations, or processed options that require only minimal heat or pressure
128 treatments that would not denature antigens.

129 Antigen-specific serum antibody responses were also detected in a trial in which
130 volunteers were fed lettuce expressing hepatitis B surface [14], When volunteers
131 previously vaccinated conventionally against hepatitis B were fed the same antigen
132 in potato, antigen-specific serum antibody responses increased up to 56 fold after
133 three doses [15].

134 Tacket and co-workers expressed the Norwalk virus capsid protein (NVCP) in
135 transgenic potatoes and conducted feeding trials in 24 volunteers [16]. Nineteen of
136 the individuals developed an immune response of some kind, although the level of
137 serum antibody increases were modest, possibly because of pre-existing serum
138 antibody to NVCP.

139 Finally, human trials have been conducted with rabies glycoprotein and
140 nucleoprotein antigen peptides [17]. These antigens were fused to the alfalfa mosaic
141 virus (AIMV) coat protein and this chimaera was expressed in spinach using a
142 tobacco mosaic virus. Three out of nine volunteers, who had not previously been
143 vaccinated, showed detectable levels of rabies virus-neutralising antibodies, when
144 fed spinach infected with the recombinant virus.

145 Overall, these studies have indicated that an immune response can be mounted in
146 individuals fed transgenic plant material expressing a disease antigen. The approach
147 so far for edible vaccines has been to adopt the pharmaceutical regulatory route,
148 which may not be surprising given the nature of the target products and that they are
149 being developed to address important medical needs.

150 All of these studies have been performed in the USA, where the regulatory burden
151 for early phase clinical trials has been easier to negotiate. In Europe, a Good
152 Manufacturing Practice (GMP) compliant manufacturing process has to be in place

153 with a GMP manufacturing licence awarded before any candidate product can be
154 tested in human volunteers.

155

156 **Creating a regulatory path for an emerging biotechnology for pharmaceuticals**

157 The manufacture of pharmaceuticals is regulated by law, and a code of practice
158 termed Good Manufacturing Practice (GMP) represents the minimum standard that a
159 medicines manufacturer must meet in their production processes. It was the absence
160 of GMP guidelines for medicinal products of plant biotechnology that was a major
161 disincentive for commercial development in this area.

162 Ultimately, it was an academic consortium, The Pharma-Planta project, funded by
163 public research money in the European Union Framework 6 programme, that
164 engaged first with the regulators and led to the maturation of the “Points to Consider”
165 document into a “Guideline”. As expected, the process was slow and complicated by
166 precedent in other regulatory areas. It does however, provide a valuable insight into
167 how new regulatory pathways are developed.

168 The Pharma-Planta project was an Integrated Project in the area of "Plant platforms
169 for immunotherapeutic biomolecule production". The research consortium
170 comprised 33 academic and industry partners in Europe and South Africa. The
171 specific objectives of the project were to:

- 172 1. Identify the key regulatory issues relating to the GMP-compliant production of
173 plant-derived antibodies, following discussions and negotiations with
174 European regulatory authorities.
- 175 2. Develop a suitable transgenic plant line producing anti-HIV mAb 2G12 (known
176 as P2G12).
- 177 3. Develop procedures for plant cultivation and downstream processing to
178 address the key regulatory issues identified above.
- 179 4. Establish specifications for plant-derived mAbs acceptable for human use.
- 180 5. Design and perform a clinical trial to establish the safety of a plant-derived
181 mAb.

182 The project was originally funded to run from 2004 to 2009, but as the development
183 of a new regulatory pathway for plant-derived pharmaceuticals was time consuming,
184 it was extended until 2011.

185 In the case of monoclonal antibodies (mAbs), the ‘gold standard’ production platform
186 is based on mammalian cell cultures that are well established in the industry and
187 compliant with GMP. The differences between platforms based on sterile cell
188 cultures and non-sterile whole organisms such as plants, was one of the major
189 concerns that led to doubts about the potential quality and consistency of mAbs
190 produced in plants [18, 19].

291 An HIV neutralising mAb (2G12) was selected, that had previously been expressed
292 in CHO cells at GMP, and tested in Phase I clinical trials in human volunteers. This
293 provided an important advantage that a target specification had already been agreed
294 with regulatory bodies and there was a considerable amount of safety data already
295 available for the mAb.

296 The production of P2G12 in tobacco for clinical trials required the development of an
297 entire production process from first principles, including transformation, the selection
298 of lead events, the establishment of working practices for tobacco cultivation that
299 satisfied the regulatory bodies in Europe, the definition of Master Seed Banks and
300 Working Seed Banks, the development of a unique GMP-compliant downstream
301 processing infrastructure and finally the completion of a first-in-human clinical trial to
302 test the product for safety [5, 20].

303 **The application and difficulties of precedent.**

304 In drawing up a new set of rules (in this case, GMP for medicinal products of plant
305 biotechnology) it is always easiest to draw upon precedent from related areas. But
306 this brings its own challenges, particularly in trying to accommodate new
307 manufacturing within existing guidelines [21, 22].

308 **Banking systems**

309 One example of a challenge is the establishment of a banking system for the starting
310 point of product manufacture. Systems for banking crop seeds have been well
311 established in the agricultural industry for many years [23]. They generally involve a
312 “master” seed bank which is used to establish “working banks” that are used for
313 distribution to the agricultural industry. The master bank is relatively small, and as it
314 diminishes, it can be replenished, thereby ensuring long-term continuity of supply.

315 Although similar terminology is used in the pharmaceutical sector the principles
316 underlying master and working banks are fundamentally different. A key issue is that
317 the master bank may not be replenished, and that sufficient master bank supplies
318 need to be established from the start for the lifetime of the product. This ensures
319 preservation of the identity of the master bank. Master and working bank systems for
320 pharmaceuticals were developed with cell culture systems in mind, rather than whole
321 organisms. The logistics of banking vials of cells for periods of up to 20 years differ
322 significantly from those for banking plants, or seeds and results in important
323 consequences for the choice of banking system for plant production, and possibly for
324 the plant species used for manufacture.

325 Following regulatory discussion, existing GMP rules were applied and replenishment
326 of plant master seed banks for pharmaceutical production was not permitted.

327 **Transformation events**

328 The transformation event refers to the specific genetic alteration that occurred in the
329 cells used for production. In the case of mammalian cells (eg CHO) for mAb
330 production, a detailed characterisation of the transformation event is not usually
331 required by the regulators.

232 However, in the case of plants a different approach was taken, due to the existing
233 precedent of GM foods. Under GM food legislation in Europe, a precise
234 characterisation of the transformation event is necessary, including flanking DNA
235 sequences, and single copy insertion events are significantly favoured [24]. This led
236 to the requirements for transformation event characterisation in genetically modified
237 plants for mAb production being much more onerous than those required from CHO
238 manufacture. It was a significant deterrent to the use of plants with multiple
239 transgene copies and insertion sites, which in turn restricted the product expression
240 yields that were achievable [25].

241 Plant cultivation

242 A key component of the acceptance of plant manufacturing being GMP compliant
243 was the establishment of Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) describing the
244 cultivation of the plants [25].

245 “Good agricultural practice” (GAP) had previously been developed for production of
246 food for consumers or further processing that is safe and wholesome. Some
247 organisations like the World Health Organisation had established GAP guidelines for
248 medicinal plants [26]. Early expectations were that this precedent could be applied to
249 GM plants for pharmaceutical production. However, it rapidly became clear that the
250 established GAP systems were inadequate for this purpose, and a major part of
251 Pharma-Planta’s effort was directed towards the establishment of revised SOPs for
252 GAP for monoclonal antibody production.

253 The three examples outlined above, illustrate some of the difficulties in developing
254 new regulatory paths. In some cases, systems that have been well established in
255 other areas (eg food crop seed banking; or good agricultural practice) are not
256 deemed appropriate for a new manufacturing platform’s compliance. In other cases,
257 a precedent that was created for a completely different reasons (eg genetic
258 characterisation of the transformation event) is applied, even though the same
259 requirements are not applied to other technologies used for the same application.

260 **Outcome of the Pharma-Planta project**

261 The most important outcomes from the Pharma-Planta project was the granting of a
262 GMP manufacturing license to Fraunhofer IME for plant derived monoclonal
263 antibodies by the national German regulatory authority, and the approval of the
264 clinical trial application by the national UK regulatory authority [5]. These two
265 achievements demonstrated that a GMP compliant process for transgenic plants
266 could be developed and was acceptable to pharmaceutical regulators. They
267 established a regulatory approach and path in Europe that could be adopted or
268 adapted by other parties.

269 The Pharma-Planta clinical trial was completed in November 2011. It represented
270 the first ever administration of a plant-derived mAb by the vaginal route in humans
271 and the first use of a GMP-compliant transgenic plant-derived mAb in humans. No
272 major safety issues were identified, the plant-derived antibody was safe and well
273 tolerated in healthy women when administered intravaginally in single doses of up to
274 28 mg.

275 **The first commercial products of Molecular Pharming.**

276 In parallel with these developments in Europe, the first two products of Molecular
277 Pharming have been brought to the market in recent years. The first, Elelyso is an
278 enzyme replacement therapy for humans, and the second, Interberry-alpha, also a
279 biologic, is targeted at the veterinary market. In both cases, the products were
280 developed and licensed as pharmaceuticals by the appropriate regulatory authority.

281 **Elelyso**

282 Protalix, an Israeli enterprise established in 1993, had considerable success in
283 producing glucocerebrosidase (prGCD / ELELYSO™) in a carrot cell fermentation
284 system. Protalix advanced ELELYSO through clinical trials and subsequent new
285 drug approval regulation by the FDA, and it remains the only molecular pharming
286 product currently licensed for human use. Human glucocerebrosidase is an enzyme
287 involved in glycolipid metabolism, and deficiency of this enzyme leads to Gaucher's
288 disease, an incapacitating condition for which the only treatment is continuous
289 enzyme replacement therapy. Gaucher's disease is generally considered an 'orphan
290 disease', based on the relatively low incidence and distribution of the condition
291 worldwide [27].

292 Recombinant human glucocerebrosidase had previously been marketed by
293 Genzyme (Cerezyme™) and Shire (VpriV®) using a mammalian cell production
294 platform. The uptake of human glucocerebrosidase into target cells (primarily
295 macrophages) requires the correct processing of four typically occupied
296 glycosylation sites [27]. Paucimannosidic glycans are ligands for mannose receptors
297 expressed by macrophages, whereas the heterologous complex or high mannose
298 glycans formed in mammalian cell cultures do not display correctly linked mannose
299 moieties required for binding. In order to expose these residues, downstream
300 enzymatic reactions are required, which adds to process cost and complexity. In
301 contrast, Protalix took advantage of the well-characterised plant secretory pathway
302 by modifying the protein to alter its accumulation pattern within the cells, leading to a
303 homogenous population of paucimannosidic glycans.

304 In 2009, the US FDA and Genzyme issued a notification to healthcare professionals
305 about the potential for foreign particle contamination of several Genzyme products
306 including Cerezyme™ (FDA Safety Alert, 2009). This event is believed to have
307 triggered awareness of the lack of FDA-approved therapeutic alternatives and
308 interest in identifying manufacturing alternatives.

309 The subsequent commercial approval for Protalix's ELELYSO resulted almost
310 immediately in the signing of a collaboration agreement with Pfizer for further
311 development and commercialization.

312 **Interberry-alpha**

313 Interberry-alpha is recombinant canine interferon-alpha produced by the Hokusan
314 Co. Ltd in the National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology
315 (AIST), Hokkaido, Japan. Interberry-alpha is manufactured in genetically modified
316 strawberries in a hermetically sealed "Type 2" facility specifically designed for

317 transgenic plants and the avoidance of gene release into the environment.
318 Manufacturing and marketing approval for the product was granted by the Japanese
319 Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, and processed strawberries were
320 marketed from 2014 for the treatment of periodontal disease in dogs.

321 **Conclusions**

322 It is perhaps interesting that both ELELYSO and Interberry-alpha were produced in
323 edible plant species and could have adopted a food supplement regulatory path.
324 Similarly all the edible vaccines tested so far have adopted a more complicated
325 pharmaceutical regulatory route. So, despite much discussion and conjecture within
326 the field, it seems that most are choosing the conventional regulatory approach,
327 presumably to realise the advantages of medical claims, and possibly because
328 ultimately, this is considered to be the “right” path to take. It is likely however, that all
329 future decisions will be taken case-by-case, and on the basis of commercial
330 considerations and regulatory approaches taken at national level.

331 The Pharma-Planta consortium project overcame a major roadblock by taking on the
332 challenge of being the first organisation in Europe to engage with the regulatory body
333 and establish an accepted manufacturing process for transgenic plant derived
334 biologics. In so doing, it encountered many obstacles and difficulties which led to
335 considerable delay. Fortunately, this delay could be absorbed because of the public
336 nature of the project, whereas similar delay could spell disaster for a commercial
337 entity. There is thus a line of thought that suggests this type of “ice breaker” activity
338 should be a role of academia, given the commercial uncertainties that are ever
339 present. It is hoped that now this barrier has been overcome, that the decision to
340 adopt a pharmaceutical regulatory approach over other apparently simpler routes to
341 commercialisation will have become more straightforward.

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