

PROCESS FOR THE PRODUCTION OF RECOMBINANT PROTEINS IN MAMMALIAN CELLS USING GENE EDITING TECHNOLOGY

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Abstract

The production of recombinant proteins in mammalian cells has emerged as a cornerstone of modern biotechnology, enabling the large-scale synthesis of complex therapeutic proteins with post-translational modifications comparable to those in humans. Traditional recombinant protein production relies on transfection-based expression systems that often suffer from low yield, instability, and heterogeneity. The advent of advanced gene editing technologies—particularly CRISPR/Cas9, TALENs, and zinc-finger nucleases—has revolutionized this process by allowing precise genomic modifications, stable gene integration, and controlled expression. This paper presents a comprehensive overview of the optimized process for recombinant protein production in mammalian cells through gene editing techniques. The study outlines key steps including selection of host cell lines (e.g., CHO, HEK293), targeted insertion of expression cassettes, promoter engineering, and enhancement of protein folding and secretion pathways. Emphasis is placed on improving yield, product consistency, and scalability while minimizing off-target effects and genetic instability. Furthermore, the paper explores the integration of gene editing with high-throughput screening, bioinformatics-driven design, and bioprocess optimization to streamline production workflows. Case studies of recombinant monoclonal antibodies and therapeutic enzymes are discussed to illustrate practical applications and challenges. Ethical considerations, regulatory frameworks, and potential biosafety issues associated with genome-edited cell lines are also examined. The findings underscore that gene editing-based strategies represent a transformative approach in biomanufacturing, offering precise, efficient, and sustainable methods for producing high-quality recombinant proteins. This advancement paves the way for next-generation biologics and accelerates the development of personalized therapeutics.

Keywords: Recombinant protein production; Mammalian cell culture; Gene editing; CRISPR/Cas9; TALEN; Zinc-finger nuclease; CHO cells; HEK293; Biopharmaceuticals; Protein expression; Genomic integration; Bioprocess optimization; Post-translational modification; Therapeutic proteins; Biotechnology.

1. INTRODUCTION

The production of recombinant proteins in mammalian cells represents one of the most significant achievements in modern biotechnology and biopharmaceutical development. Recombinant proteins—engineered biomolecules produced by the expression of cloned genes—play critical roles in therapeutics, diagnostics, and industrial applications (1). They include hormones, monoclonal antibodies, cytokines, growth factors, and enzymes that are vital for treating diseases ranging from cancer and autoimmune disorders to infectious diseases. The ability to produce these proteins with correct folding, glycosylation, and other post-translational modifications (PTMs) is essential for ensuring their biological functionality and therapeutic efficacy. Among the various host systems available—such as bacteria, yeast, insect, and plant cells—mammalian cells have emerged as the preferred platform for producing complex recombinant proteins due to their capacity to perform human-like PTMs and secrete properly folded proteins into the extracellular medium.

Traditionally, recombinant protein production in mammalian cells relies on transient or stable transfection techniques, where plasmid DNA carrying the gene of interest is introduced into the host genome. While effective, these methods often suffer from low integration efficiency, random insertion events, and variable expression levels among clones (2). Moreover, random integration can disrupt essential genes or lead to transcriptional silencing, thereby affecting product yield and quality. These limitations have driven the search for more precise and efficient genetic manipulation techniques. In recent years, the emergence of gene editing technologies—particularly CRISPR/Cas9 (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats), Transcription Activator-Like Effector Nucleases (TALENs), and Zinc-Finger Nucleases (ZFNs)—has transformed the landscape of recombinant protein production. These tools allow scientists to perform site-specific genome modifications with unprecedented accuracy, enabling the stable integration of expression cassettes into defined genomic loci and the fine-tuning of endogenous gene expression.

Gene editing offers several advantages over conventional random-integration systems. For instance, targeted insertion of genes into “safe harbor” sites such as AAVS1 or ROSA26 ensures consistent expression and predictable phenotypes. Additionally, CRISPR-based approaches can be used to knock out negative regulatory genes, enhance secretion pathways, or engineer glycosylation patterns to optimize protein functionality. Beyond genome modification, gene editing also facilitates the generation of isogenic cell lines—genetically identical clones differing only at the edited locus—which reduces batch-to-batch variability in protein production and improves product consistency in industrial bioprocessing.

Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) and Human Embryonic Kidney (HEK293) cells are the most widely used mammalian hosts for recombinant protein expression. CHO cells, in particular, dominate the biopharmaceutical industry due to their adaptability to suspension culture, scalability, and regulatory acceptance. The integration of gene editing technologies with CHO cell engineering has led to significant progress in optimizing productivity, enhancing protein folding and secretion, and extending cell culture longevity. Similarly, HEK293 cells are increasingly employed for the production of viral vectors and therapeutic proteins requiring human-specific PTMs. Advanced gene editing methods have allowed the customization of these cell lines to meet the stringent quality and safety standards required for biopharmaceutical manufacturing.

Furthermore, the convergence of gene editing with other enabling technologies—such as synthetic biology, omics-driven analysis, and high-throughput screening—has accelerated the design of optimized expression systems. Computational modeling and systems biology approaches now allow for predictive control over gene expression and metabolic pathways, facilitating the rational design of cell lines with superior productivity and stability (3). In parallel, advances in bioprocess engineering, including the development of chemically defined media, fed-batch and perfusion culture systems, and continuous manufacturing processes, have enhanced yield and scalability.

Despite these advances, challenges remain in ensuring the precision, efficiency, and safety of gene editing applications in mammalian systems. Off-target effects, genomic instability, and regulatory hurdles surrounding genome-edited organisms are areas of active research and debate. Ethical considerations also arise from the use of gene editing in human-derived cells and the potential implications for future therapeutic development.

This paper aims to present a detailed exploration of the process for the production of recombinant proteins in mammalian cells using gene editing technologies. It discusses the underlying principles of gene editing tools, the workflow of mammalian cell-based expression systems, strategies for enhancing yield and product quality, and the integration of emerging bioprocessing technologies. The discussion also highlights current challenges, safety concerns, and regulatory perspectives that shape the industrial application of gene editing in recombinant protein production. Ultimately, this research underscores how gene editing represents not only a technological breakthrough but also a paradigm shift toward precision biomanufacturing and next-generation therapeutic development.

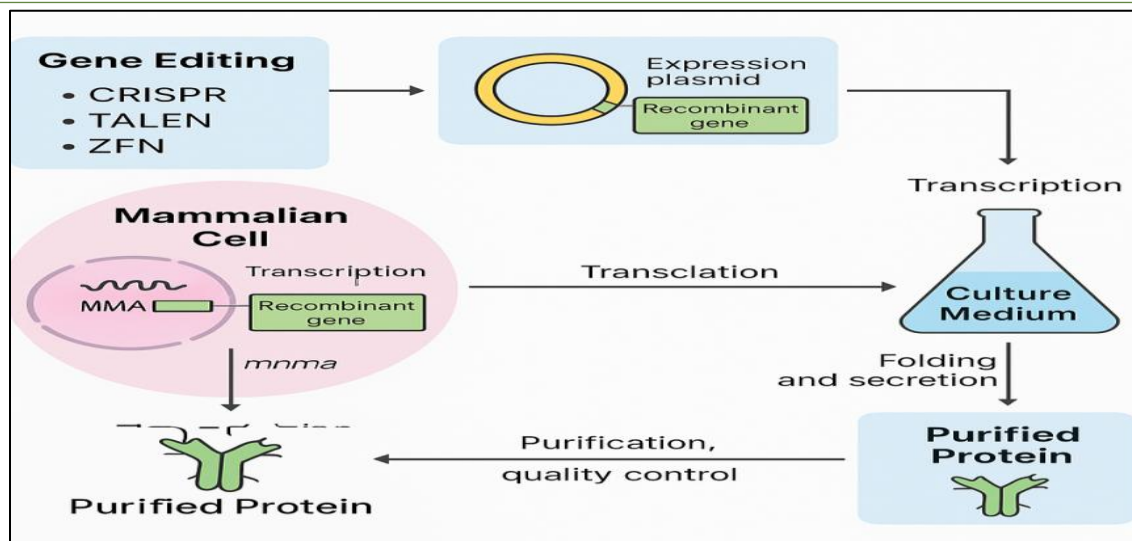


Figure 1 Overview of Recombinant Protein Production in Mammalian Cells

As an overview, Figure 1 summarizes the end-to-end process for recombinant protein production in mammalian cells, from gene editing and targeted genomic integration to secretion, purification, and quality control. The schematic traces the workflow: gene design/editing → targeted genomic integration → transcription/translation → folding and secretion → downstream purification and QC. It orients the reader before the detailed sections and highlights how gene editing underpins stability and consistency of expression.

2. Overview of Gene Editing Technologies in Mammalian Systems

2.1 Mechanisms and Principles of CRISPR/Cas9, TALENs, and ZFNs

The development of precise gene editing technologies has revolutionized molecular biotechnology by allowing site-specific modifications in mammalian genomes. Among the most influential systems are CRISPR/Cas9 (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats and CRISPR-associated protein 9), Transcription Activator-Like Effector Nucleases (TALENs), and Zinc-Finger Nucleases (ZFNs) (4). These systems operate on a shared principle: creating targeted double-stranded breaks (DSBs) at specific genomic locations, which are then repaired by the cell's endogenous DNA repair mechanisms—namely, non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) or homology-directed repair (HDR). This repair process is harnessed to introduce gene disruptions, insertions, deletions, or targeted integrations. The distinct nuclease architectures and targeting rules are contrasted in Figure 2, which depicts gRNA-guided Cas9 cleavage near PAM sites versus dimeric FokI-based cutting by TALENs and ZFNs. CRISPR/Cas9 uses a guide RNA and PAM recognition to direct site-specific cleavage, while TALENs and ZFNs use modular DNA-binding proteins fused to FokI that dimerize on opposite strands. The visual comparison clarifies how programmability (CRISPR) and binding specificity (TALEN/ZFN) trade off in cell-line engineering.

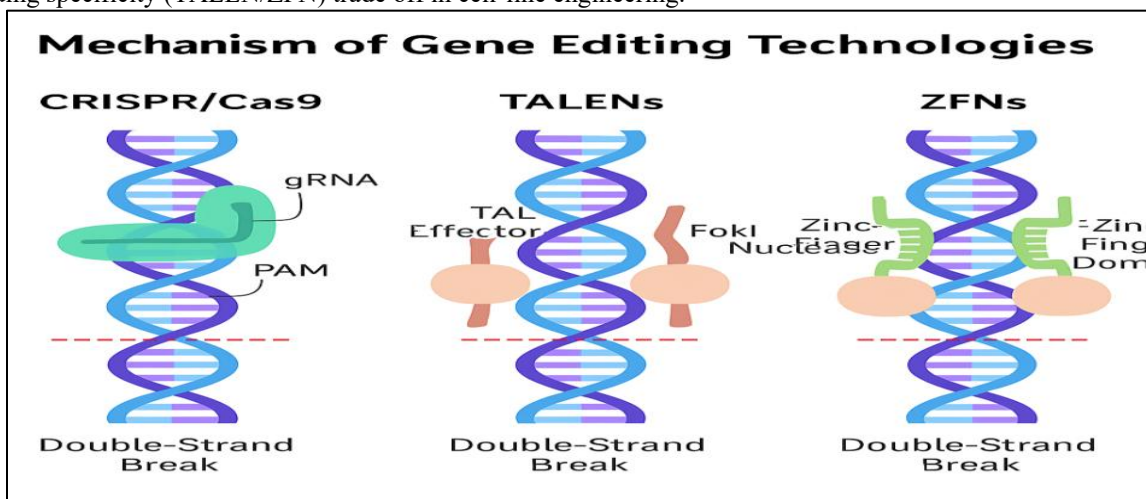


Figure 2 Mechanism of Gene Editing Technologies (CRISPR, TALEN, and ZFN)

The CRISPR/Cas9 system, derived from the adaptive immune system of bacteria, employs a guide RNA (gRNA) to direct the Cas9 endonuclease to a complementary DNA sequence adjacent to a protospacer adjacent motif (PAM). Upon binding, Cas9 introduces a DSB, facilitating precise genome editing. CRISPR's simplicity, programmability, and high efficiency have made it the most widely adopted platform for genome manipulation in mammalian systems. In contrast, TALENs utilize customizable DNA-binding domains derived from *Xanthomonas* transcription activator-like effectors fused to the FokI nuclease domain. Each TALEN pair binds opposite strands of a target DNA sequence, allowing FokI dimerization and subsequent cleavage. TALENs offer high specificity and reduced off-target activity but are more labor-intensive to design and construct than CRISPR components.

Zinc-Finger Nucleases (ZFNs) represent an earlier generation of gene editing tools, comprising arrays of engineered zinc-finger motifs that recognize triplet DNA sequences, also fused to the FokI nuclease. Although ZFNs were pioneering in enabling site-specific genome cleavage, their design complexity and context-dependent binding limit their widespread use. Nevertheless, ZFNs have been successfully applied in therapeutic gene correction and remain a robust option for stable mammalian genome modification when high precision is required.

2.2 Comparison of Gene Editing Tools in Terms of Precision, Efficiency, and Applications

Each of the three gene editing platforms possesses distinct strengths and limitations that influence their suitability for recombinant protein production. CRISPR/Cas9 stands out for its ease of use, scalability, and cost-effectiveness. The ability to design gRNAs computationally within hours enables high-throughput screening of target sites. However, off-target effects, though minimized with advanced Cas variants (such as SpCas9-HF1 or SpCas9), remain a concern, especially in industrial contexts where product consistency is critical.

TALENs, while more laborious to construct, exhibit excellent sequence specificity due to their longer recognition motifs (typically 15–20 bp per TALEN monomer). This reduces the risk of undesired genomic alterations. TALEN-based systems are frequently employed for creating isogenic mammalian cell lines for biomanufacturing, where precision outweighs throughput.

ZFNs, although less versatile than the newer systems, maintain an advantage in terms of regulatory familiarity and demonstrated clinical safety. They have been used successfully in human gene therapy trials, which lends credibility to their use in the production of therapeutic proteins where safety validation is stringent.

From an efficiency perspective, CRISPR systems enable rapid generation of edited clones, making them ideal for cell line development pipelines in recombinant protein production. Conversely, TALENs and ZFNs are favored for applications demanding minimal off-target activity, such as engineering cell lines for glycosylation control or metabolic pathway optimization.

Overall, the selection of a suitable editing system depends on the balance between precision, efficiency, and the complexity of the desired genetic modification.

2.3 Selection of Target Loci and Safe-Harbor Integration Sites for Recombinant Expression

A critical factor in achieving consistent and stable recombinant protein expression in mammalian cells is the choice of genomic integration site. Random insertion of expression constructs can result in position effect variegation, where local chromatin structure influences transcriptional activity (5). To circumvent this, gene editing enables targeted integration into “safe-harbor” loci—regions of the genome that permit sustained transgene expression without perturbing endogenous gene function or causing genomic instability.

Commonly used safe-harbor sites in mammalian cells include the AAVS1 locus (on chromosome 19) in human cells and the Rosa26 locus in mouse cells, both characterized by stable, ubiquitous expression of inserted genes. In Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) cells—the predominant host for industrial protein production—researchers have identified analogous loci such as C12orf35 and H11, which support high and consistent transgene expression. The integration of expression cassettes into these regions using CRISPR or TALENs ensures predictable transcriptional profiles, facilitating reproducibility and regulatory compliance in biopharmaceutical manufacturing.

Furthermore, targeted integration allows the use of promoter-optimized systems, wherein promoters like CMV, EF1 α , or synthetic constitutive sequences can be placed under controlled chromatin contexts to modulate expression levels. Safe-harbor engineering also supports multiplexed editing strategies, enabling the co-expression of multiple subunits (e.g., heavy and light chains in antibodies) from defined genomic sites.

Recent developments in CRISPR-mediated homology-independent targeted integration (HITI) and prime editing further expand the precision and versatility of gene insertion strategies, enabling efficient knock-in of large constructs even in non-dividing mammalian cells. Such advances are pivotal for the next generation of stable, high-yield cell lines optimized for recombinant protein production.

To illustrate the concept and outcomes of targeted knock-in, Figure 3 shows CRISPR-HDR-mediated insertion of an expression cassette into safe-harbor loci (e.g., AAVS1, C12orf35) and the resulting stable transcription. The figure highlights CRISPR/Cas-guided cleavage and donor-template-mediated knock-in at validated safe-harbor sites, yielding predictable, durable transgene expression. It visually reinforces why locus choice mitigates position effects and supports regulatory consistency.

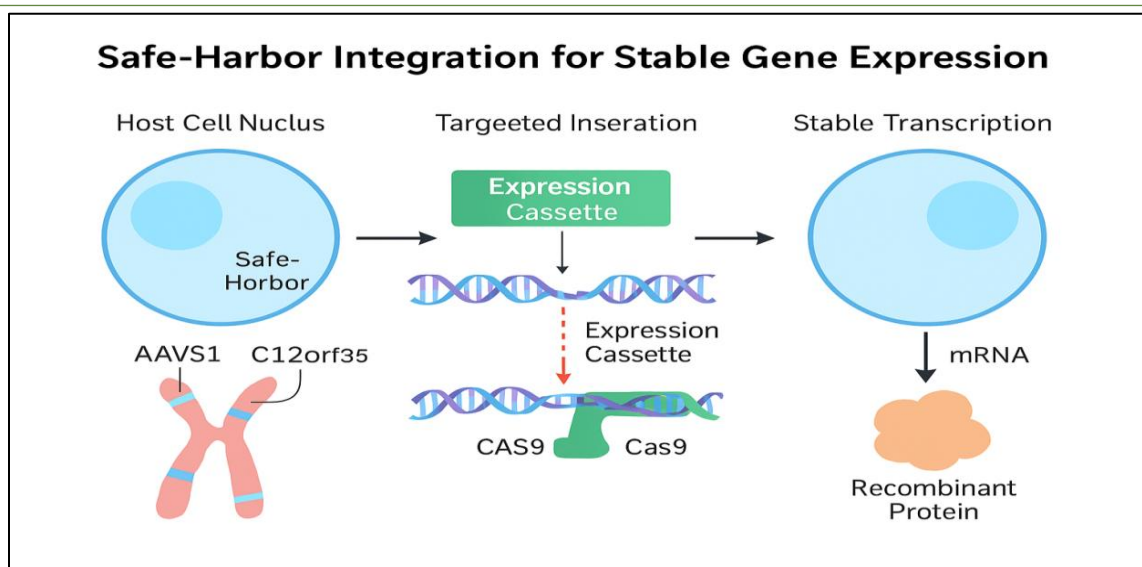


Figure 3 Safe-Harbor Integration for Stable Gene Expression

3. Process Workflow for Recombinant Protein Production in Mammalian Cells

The production of recombinant proteins in mammalian systems follows a multi-stage process that integrates molecular biology, cell line engineering, and bioprocess optimization. The workflow typically involves host cell line selection, design and construction of expression cassettes, gene integration and expression enhancement, and screening of high-yielding clones. Each stage plays a crucial role in determining the productivity, quality, and stability of the final recombinant product. With the incorporation of gene editing technologies such as CRISPR/Cas9, TALENs, and ZFNs, this workflow has evolved from a random, trial-and-error process into a rationally designed and highly controllable platform for precision biomanufacturing.

The stage-gated pipeline is summarized in Figure 4, spanning host selection, gene editing and cassette insertion, clone screening, expansion, and bioreactor production. A stepwise flowchart links upstream genetic steps to downstream process steps, emphasizing where editing decisions affect clone stability and manufacturability. It serves as a roadmap for Sections 3.1–3.4.

3.1 Host Cell Line Selection (CHO, HEK293, and Others)

The choice of an appropriate mammalian host cell line is fundamental to the success of recombinant protein production. The ideal host should offer high productivity, scalability, post-translational modification fidelity, and regulatory acceptability. Among available mammalian systems, Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) and Human Embryonic Kidney 293 (HEK293) cells dominate industrial and research settings due to their proven performance and adaptability.

CHO cells are the gold standard for therapeutic protein production, particularly monoclonal antibodies, due to their robust growth in suspension culture, tolerance to serum-free media, and ability to perform human-compatible glycosylation (6). They exhibit high adaptability to large-scale bioreactors and are well-documented in regulatory filings, making them the preferred choice for commercial biologics. The introduction of gene editing tools has further enhanced CHO cell utility by allowing targeted modifications such as knockouts of glycosylation-related genes (FUT8, GS, BAX), which improve product homogeneity and cell viability.

HEK293 cells, on the other hand, are frequently used for the production of recombinant proteins requiring authentic human post-translational modifications or viral vectors. They offer ease of transfection and are suitable for transient as well as stable expression systems. Gene editing technologies have enabled the creation of HEK293 variants with optimized metabolic pathways, enhanced secretion systems, and improved protein folding capacity.

Other mammalian lines, including NS0, SP2/0, and PER.C6, are used for specialized products but are less common due to proprietary or metabolic limitations. The emergence of engineered cell lines through CRISPR-mediated pathway rewiring continues to expand the host repertoire, allowing custom-tailored systems for specific protein types and therapeutic applications.

3.2 Design and Construction of Expression Cassettes

The next critical step involves designing and constructing expression cassettes—engineered DNA sequences that drive efficient transcription, translation, and secretion of the recombinant protein. A typical expression cassette includes the promoter, enhancer, signal peptide, coding sequence of the gene of interest, and terminator or polyadenylation (polyA) signal.

Promoter selection plays a vital role in controlling transcriptional strength and stability. Commonly used promoters in mammalian systems include cytomegalovirus (CMV), elongation factor 1- α (EF1 α), and CAG promoters. Synthetic or hybrid promoters designed through computational modeling can fine-tune expression levels to optimize protein folding and secretion.

The signal peptide sequence directs the nascent protein into the endoplasmic reticulum for proper folding and post-translational modification. Optimized signal peptides derived from immunoglobulins or viral glycoproteins often enhance secretion efficiency. In addition, codon optimization of the target gene, based on the host's tRNA abundance, further improves translational efficiency.

With gene editing tools, expression cassettes can now be precisely inserted into defined genomic loci using homology-directed repair (HDR) or homology-independent targeted integration (HITI). This eliminates the variability associated with random integration and ensures consistent gene expression across cell populations. Moreover, multiplexed CRISPR systems enable co-expression of multiple genes (e.g., heavy and light chains of antibodies) from coordinated promoters within the same genomic locus.

3.3 Gene Integration and Expression Optimization

Following cassette design, stable integration into the host genome ensures sustained production over multiple generations. Traditionally, this was achieved through random integration mediated by transfection or viral transduction, leading to variable expression profiles. Gene editing now allows targeted integration into safe-harbor sites such as AAVS1 (in human cells) or C12orf35 (in CHO cells), resulting in stable, predictable, and high-level expression.

Optimization of gene expression involves fine-tuning transcriptional and translational factors. Strategies include the use of enhancer elements, intron sequences, and matrix attachment regions (MARs) to boost transcriptional efficiency (7). Moreover, co-expression of molecular chaperones such as BiP, PDI, and calnexin assists in proper protein folding, while modulation of secretory pathway components enhances yield.

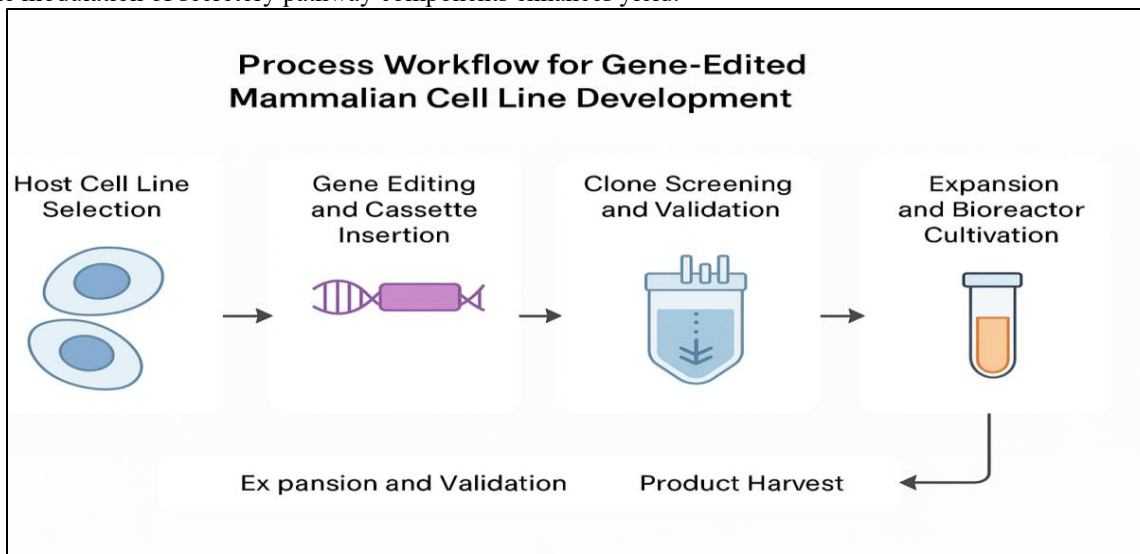


Figure 4 Process Workflow for Gene-Edited Mammalian Cell Line Development

Recent studies demonstrate that CRISPR-mediated knockout of negative regulators—such as genes involved in apoptosis or protein degradation—can significantly enhance protein yield (8). Additionally, promoter engineering and chromatin remodeling using dCas9-fusion systems enable dynamic control over gene expression without altering the underlying DNA sequence. These innovations collectively streamline the development of high-performance cell lines tailored for industrial-scale biomanufacturing.

3.4 Screening and Selection of High-Producing Clones

Once integration and expression are achieved, it is crucial to identify clones exhibiting high productivity, stability, and desirable quality attributes. Traditional screening relied on laborious methods such as limiting dilution and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA) to identify top-performing clones. The introduction of gene editing, combined with fluorescence-based reporters and automated high-throughput screening (HTS) systems, has drastically improved this process.

CRISPR-based tagging of endogenous proteins or secreted reporters allows for real-time monitoring of expression levels, while fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) enables rapid isolation of high-expressing cells (9). Advanced screening platforms now integrate single-cell sequencing, omics profiling, and machine learning to predict productivity based on early phenotypic markers.

Furthermore, clone stability assessment—ensuring that production levels are maintained across extended culture periods—is essential for regulatory approval. Edited cell lines with targeted integrations display far greater long-term stability than those derived from random insertion methods. Once identified, elite clones are expanded, cryopreserved, and subjected to process optimization in bioreactors to maximize yield and maintain product quality.

4. Optimization Strategies for Enhanced Protein Yield and Quality

The efficiency and quality of recombinant protein production in mammalian systems depend on a complex interplay of genetic, cellular, and process-level factors. Even with precise gene integration enabled by modern gene editing tools, optimization at multiple levels is essential to achieve industrial-scale productivity and consistent product quality (10). The following strategies encompass molecular and process engineering approaches aimed at enhancing transcription, translation, folding, secretion, and overall bioprocess performance.

To frame the multi-level optimization space, Figure 5 aggregates promoter/enhancer engineering, transcription/translation control, folding–secretion–glycosylation tuning, and media/process parameters that ultimately shape titer and quality. The infographic connects molecular controls (promoters, codon/UTR design, chaperones, glyco-engineering) with bioprocess levers (media, fed-batch/perfusion, scale-up). It helps readers see how edits and process conditions interact to deliver consistent CQAs.

4.1 Promoter and Enhancer Engineering

The promoter is a central regulatory element controlling the transcriptional activity of recombinant genes. Its strength, stability, and responsiveness directly determine the level of protein expression. Commonly used strong viral promoters such as cytomegalovirus (CMV), simian virus 40 (SV40), and Rous sarcoma virus (RSV) promoters have long served as workhorses for high-level expression in mammalian cells. However, these promoters can be susceptible to methylation-induced silencing during long-term culture, leading to decreased productivity over time.

To overcome this limitation, researchers have developed hybrid and synthetic promoters that combine regulatory motifs from multiple origins to sustain transcriptional activity. For instance, the CAG promoter, a hybrid of the cytomegalovirus enhancer and the chicken β -actin promoter, offers strong and stable expression across diverse mammalian cell types (11). Gene editing tools such as CRISPR/Cas9 can be employed to insert customized promoter sequences directly upstream of the target gene or to activate endogenous promoters using dCas9-based transcriptional activators (CRISPRa).

Enhancer elements—non-coding DNA sequences that augment promoter activity—can further boost transcription efficiency. Through CRISPR-guided chromatin remodeling, enhancers can be repositioned or duplicated to achieve context-dependent expression control. Recent approaches also employ epigenetic engineering, in which histone acetyltransferases or demethylases are tethered to dCas9 to maintain open chromatin states conducive to transcription. These strategies collectively enable fine-tuned, durable expression of recombinant proteins, ensuring high productivity in stable cell lines.

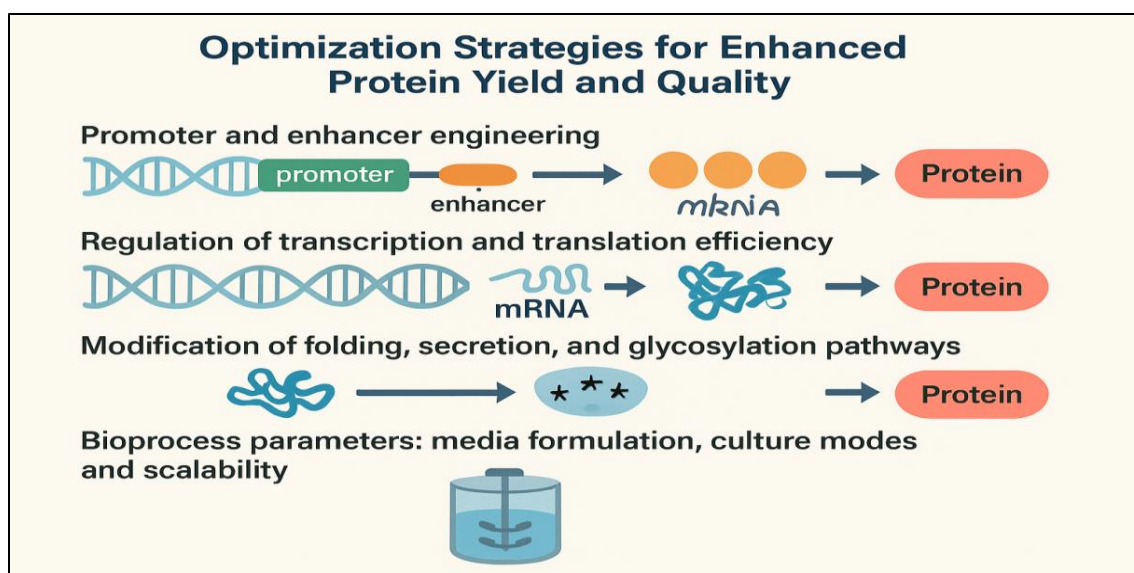


Figure 5 Optimization Strategies for Enhanced Protein Yield and Quality

4.2 Regulation of Transcription and Translation Efficiency

The optimization of transcription and translation efficiency is critical for maximizing recombinant protein yield. At the transcriptional level, the use of intron-containing expression cassettes and matrix attachment regions (MARs)

enhances mRNA synthesis and stability by creating a favorable chromatin environment (12). Furthermore, gene editing enables the integration of expression cassettes into transcriptionally active genomic regions, ensuring consistent expression and minimizing position effects.

At the translational level, codon optimization plays a key role in aligning the codon usage of the target gene with the tRNA abundance of the host cell, thereby preventing ribosomal stalling and increasing protein synthesis rates (13). Advanced algorithms can design codon-optimized sequences that balance translation speed with proper folding kinetics. Additionally, the incorporation of optimal Kozak sequences upstream of the start codon enhances ribosome recognition and translation initiation efficiency.

Another promising avenue involves mRNA stabilization and processing. By engineering untranslated regions (UTRs) and using specific polyadenylation signals, mRNA half-life can be extended, leading to higher steady-state protein levels. In parallel, ribosome profiling and translational control analysis—combined with CRISPR-based gene modulation—enable the identification of rate-limiting steps in protein synthesis, guiding targeted interventions for yield improvement.

4.3 Modification of Folding, Secretion, and Glycosylation Pathways

The proper folding and post-translational modification of recombinant proteins are essential for achieving functional and therapeutically relevant products. Misfolding, aggregation, or improper glycosylation can lead to reduced activity, immunogenicity, or instability. Therefore, engineering the protein processing and secretion pathways within mammalian cells is a key optimization strategy.

In the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), protein folding is facilitated by molecular chaperones such as BiP, calnexin, calreticulin, and protein disulfide isomerase (PDI). Overexpression of these chaperones—using CRISPR-based knock-in or transgene expression—can enhance folding capacity and reduce the accumulation of misfolded proteins (14). Additionally, CRISPR-mediated knockouts of ER stress-inducing genes, such as those involved in the unfolded protein response (UPR), can alleviate stress-induced apoptosis during high-level expression.

Glycosylation engineering represents another critical area of optimization. The structure and composition of glycans influence protein stability, solubility, and biological activity. By editing genes responsible for glycosyltransferase activity—such as FUT8, ST6GAL1, and MGAT1—researchers can tailor glycan patterns to produce human-like or functionally enhanced proteins (15). For example, knockout of FUT8 in CHO cells eliminates core fucosylation, improving the antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) of therapeutic antibodies.

Enhancement of the secretory pathway is also pivotal for increasing extracellular protein yield. CRISPR-mediated activation of vesicle trafficking genes (e.g., SEC24, SAR1B) or deletion of secretion inhibitors has been shown to significantly boost secretion efficiency. Collectively, these molecular interventions create an intracellular environment optimized for the production of high-quality, correctly folded, and fully functional recombinant proteins.

4.4 Bioprocess Parameters: Media Formulation, Culture Modes, and Scalability

Beyond genetic optimization, bioprocess parameters play a decisive role in determining the overall yield and quality of recombinant proteins. Mammalian cell cultures are highly sensitive to environmental factors such as nutrient composition, pH, temperature, and oxygen levels. Thus, fine-tuning the culture conditions is essential for maintaining cell health and productivity.

Media formulation is one of the most critical determinants of process efficiency. Chemically defined and serum-free media are now standard for industrial-scale production, ensuring reproducibility and regulatory compliance (16). Customized media enriched with specific amino acids, lipids, or trace elements can enhance cell viability and product expression. Additionally, supplements such as sodium butyrate and valproic acid are known to modulate epigenetic states, leading to transient increases in transcriptional activity.

Regarding culture modes, fed-batch and perfusion systems are widely adopted. In fed-batch culture, nutrients are supplied periodically to prolong productivity, whereas perfusion systems continuously replenish media, supporting steady-state growth and constant product output. Perfusion systems are particularly advantageous for labile or rapidly degraded proteins, offering higher yields and consistent quality.

Finally, scalability is achieved through advanced bioreactor design and process automation. Computational modeling, process analytical technologies (PAT), and artificial intelligence (AI)-driven control systems allow for real-time monitoring and optimization of culture parameters (17). The integration of gene-edited cell lines with these smart bioprocesses enables highly reproducible, large-scale manufacturing of complex biologics with improved efficiency and reduced production costs.

5. Applications and Case Studies in Biopharmaceutical Production

The integration of gene editing technologies into mammalian cell-based expression systems has significantly advanced the field of biopharmaceutical manufacturing. These innovations have facilitated the efficient, high-quality production of a wide array of therapeutic proteins—including monoclonal antibodies, enzymes, hormones, and complex fusion proteins—that form the foundation of modern therapeutics (18). By combining precise genome modification with process engineering, researchers have been able to enhance productivity, product consistency, and scalability. This

section explores major applications and representative case studies demonstrating the transformative impact of gene editing technologies, particularly CRISPR/Cas9, in mammalian expression platforms such as CHO and HEK293 cells.

5.1 Production of Monoclonal Antibodies, Therapeutic Enzymes, and Hormones

Monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) represent the most prominent class of recombinant biopharmaceuticals produced in mammalian cells. Their structural complexity, requirement for accurate disulfide bonding, and human-like glycosylation make mammalian systems—especially CHO cells—indispensable. Traditional random integration approaches often led to heterogeneous expression and unstable clones, but gene editing now enables precise, targeted insertion of antibody genes into transcriptionally active safe-harbor loci. CRISPR/Cas9 has been employed to co-integrate heavy and light chain genes under coordinated promoters, ensuring balanced expression and improved assembly efficiency. Moreover, CRISPR-mediated knockout of the FUT8 gene in CHO cells results in afucosylated antibodies with enhanced antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC), a crucial property for oncology therapeutics.

In addition to mAbs, therapeutic enzymes such as α -galactosidase A (for Fabry disease), glucocerebrosidase (for Gaucher disease), and tissue plasminogen activator (tPA) have been successfully expressed in mammalian cells with the aid of gene editing optimization. By manipulating glycosylation pathways through CRISPR, enzymes can be engineered to display human-like or disease-specific glycan structures that improve pharmacokinetics and efficacy (19). Similarly, targeted enhancement of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) folding capacity via CRISPR-based upregulation of chaperone genes has improved secretion yields of these complex proteins.

Recombinant hormones such as human erythropoietin (EPO), insulin analogs, and growth hormones also benefit from gene editing-driven expression optimization. For instance, CRISPR has been used to modulate EPOR feedback pathways to maintain high EPO expression levels in CHO cells, while maintaining appropriate glycosylation essential for bioactivity. Collectively, these advances underscore how precise genomic control enables the production of diverse therapeutic proteins with improved yield, stability, and biofunctionality.

5.2 Examples of CRISPR-Mediated Improvements in CHO or HEK293 Systems

Both CHO and HEK293 cells have become preferred models for applying CRISPR/Cas9 to enhance recombinant protein production. In CHO cells, gene editing has been used to optimize multiple cellular pathways simultaneously. For example, knocking out genes such as BAX and Bak delays apoptosis, thereby extending culture longevity and increasing overall yield. CRISPR-mediated knockout of GS (glutamine synthetase) and subsequent selection under glutamine-deficient conditions have produced highly efficient selection systems for stable clone generation (20). Additionally, targeted modifications of glycosyltransferases (ST6GAL1, MGAT1, FUT8) have allowed the fine-tuning of glycosylation profiles to achieve human-compatible or customized glycoforms.

In HEK293 systems, CRISPR/Cas9 has been employed to enhance protein processing and secretion pathways. For instance, activation of the SEC61 translocon complex and knock-in of chaperone genes such as BiP and PDI have improved the folding and secretion of recombinant viral capsid proteins used in gene therapy applications. Moreover, the integration of recombinant genes at the AAVS1 safe-harbor locus has provided stable, predictable expression patterns without disrupting endogenous gene functions.

Another landmark example includes the use of multiplexed CRISPR editing to simultaneously modulate metabolic pathways and quality control systems. By adjusting the balance between energy metabolism and recombinant protein synthesis, researchers have achieved higher specific productivity without compromising cell viability. Collectively, these CRISPR-enabled interventions have transformed CHO and HEK293 cells into precision-engineered biomanufacturing platforms capable of consistent and high-yield recombinant protein production.

5.3 Integration with Synthetic Biology and Automation Platforms

The convergence of gene editing technologies with synthetic biology and automation platforms marks a new era in biopharmaceutical production, often referred to as “smart biomanufacturing.” Synthetic biology provides a framework for designing modular, programmable gene circuits that can dynamically control gene expression in response to environmental or metabolic cues. When integrated with CRISPR-based regulatory systems—such as CRISPR activation (CRISPRa) and CRISPR interference (CRISPRi)—these circuits enable precise, tunable control of protein expression levels within mammalian cells.

For instance, synthetic promoters responsive to small molecules or stress signals can be engineered into cell lines, allowing on-demand induction or repression of recombinant protein expression. This fine-tuned regulation reduces metabolic burden during cell growth and enhances overall yield during production phases. In addition, automation and high-throughput screening technologies, combined with machine learning algorithms, are increasingly used to optimize clone selection and culture conditions. Robotic systems can rapidly test hundreds of CRISPR-edited cell variants, while AI-driven models predict productivity based on genomic and transcriptomic data.

Moreover, digital twin bioprocessing platforms are emerging as powerful tools to simulate and optimize production systems *in silico* before large-scale implementation. By integrating real-time data from bioreactors with predictive modeling, manufacturers can dynamically adjust parameters such as nutrient feed, oxygenation, and temperature to maintain optimal productivity. This data-driven, automated approach complements gene editing by ensuring that the full potential of engineered cell lines is realized in scalable industrial settings.

6. Challenges, Ethical Considerations, and Future Perspectives

Despite the remarkable advances enabled by gene editing technologies, several scientific, regulatory, and ethical challenges continue to shape their implementation in recombinant protein production. While CRISPR/Cas9, TALENs, and ZFNs have transformed the precision and efficiency of mammalian cell engineering, issues related to off-target mutations, genomic stability, biosafety, and public acceptance must be addressed to fully realize their potential in industrial and therapeutic applications. Furthermore, the integration of these technologies with precision biomanufacturing offers exciting future opportunities for next-generation biologics, provided that robust ethical and regulatory frameworks guide their development.

6.1 Off-Target Effects and Genomic Stability Issues

A critical concern in applying gene editing to mammalian cell systems is the possibility of off-target effects, where unintended DNA cleavage occurs at genomic sites resembling the target sequence. Such unintended modifications can lead to disruptions in essential genes, chromosomal rearrangements, or transcriptional dysregulation, potentially compromising cell viability and product consistency. These effects pose significant challenges in the context of biopharmaceutical manufacturing, where batch-to-batch reproducibility and product safety are paramount.

Efforts to mitigate off-target effects include the use of high-fidelity Cas9 variants (e.g., SpCas9-HF1, eSpCas9, and HypaCas9) and alternative nucleases such as Cas12a (Cpf1), which demonstrate greater sequence specificity. Computational tools for *in silico* gRNA design and empirical off-target detection assays (e.g., GUIDE-seq, Digenome-seq, and CIRCLE-seq) are now routinely employed to predict and validate editing accuracy. Furthermore, transient or inducible expression systems for Cas9 minimize prolonged exposure to the nuclease, thereby reducing unintended cleavage events.

Another related issue is genomic stability, particularly in long-term culture systems. Repeated editing or prolonged cultivation can lead to genetic drift, chromosomal aberrations, or epigenetic changes that affect gene expression. Maintaining karyotypic stability through continuous genomic surveillance and limiting editing events to essential modifications are crucial strategies to ensure the integrity of production cell lines.

6.2 Regulatory and Biosafety Challenges for Genome-Edited Cell Lines

The regulatory landscape for genome-edited organisms—including mammalian production cell lines—remains in flux, with agencies worldwide developing frameworks to ensure safety, efficacy, and traceability. Unlike traditional genetically modified organisms (GMOs) generated through random mutagenesis, gene-edited cell lines often involve precise, targeted changes without introducing foreign DNA, raising questions about how they should be classified under existing biotechnology regulations.

Regulatory authorities such as the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA), European Medicines Agency (EMA), and World Health Organization (WHO) have begun to issue guidelines addressing the use of genome editing in therapeutic production. Key considerations include the demonstration of genetic stability, absence of residual editing machinery, and comprehensive product characterization to confirm that the recombinant protein meets quality and safety standards.

Biosafety also remains a significant aspect, especially when working with viral delivery systems or editing tools that may inadvertently mobilize in host cells. The use of non-viral delivery platforms (such as electroporation or lipid nanoparticles) and self-limiting CRISPR systems has reduced these risks. However, stringent containment measures and validated quality control protocols are still necessary to prevent cross-contamination and ensure reproducibility. To gain regulatory approval, manufacturers must provide detailed documentation of the editing process, including the specific loci targeted, verification of intended modifications, and comprehensive genomic analyses to confirm the absence of off-target mutations. This level of transparency not only ensures product safety but also fosters public trust in gene-edited biopharmaceuticals.

6.3 Ethical Implications and Public Perception

The ethical considerations surrounding gene editing in mammalian systems extend beyond human germline editing to encompass broader concerns related to biosafety, environmental impact, and corporate responsibility. While recombinant protein production typically involves non-human cell lines such as CHO or HEK293, the underlying ethical debate about manipulating genomes remains significant in the public domain.

Public perception of gene editing is shaped by societal understanding of biotechnology, past controversies over GMOs, and fears of unintended consequences. Misinformation and lack of transparency can lead to skepticism or opposition, even when applications are confined to industrial cell lines with no environmental release. To address this, open communication, stakeholder engagement, and ethical governance are essential. Academic institutions and biotechnology companies must uphold high standards of ethical research conduct, emphasizing safety, transparency, and social benefit.

Furthermore, ethical considerations also encompass equitable access to gene editing technologies and the biologics they enable. The high cost of developing gene-edited systems can widen the gap between high-income and low-income countries, potentially limiting access to advanced biologics. Therefore, global collaboration and fair licensing models are necessary to ensure that the benefits of this technology reach all populations equitably.

6.4 Future Directions in Precision Biomanufacturing and Next-Generation Therapeutics

The convergence of gene editing, synthetic biology, and data-driven bioprocessing heralds a new era in precision biomanufacturing—often termed Biomanufacturing 4.0. Future directions in this field will focus on integrating intelligent automation, artificial intelligence (AI), and predictive modeling to design, monitor, and optimize recombinant protein production at an unprecedented level of precision.

One promising avenue is the use of CRISPR-based epigenetic regulators to modulate gene expression dynamically without permanent genomic alterations. This could enable reversible control of protein production, allowing for “on-demand” manufacturing systems responsive to metabolic or environmental signals. In parallel, base editing and prime editing technologies offer single-nucleotide precision, reducing the risks associated with double-strand breaks while expanding the range of possible genomic modifications.

At the process level, the future will likely see the rise of self-optimizing bioreactors that use real-time data from sensors and genomic feedback to adjust culture conditions automatically. Combined with digital twins—virtual simulations of biological systems—these technologies could drastically reduce development timelines and manufacturing costs.

In therapeutics, gene-edited mammalian cells will play a central role in producing next-generation biologics, including bispecific antibodies, antibody-drug conjugates, and personalized protein therapeutics tailored to individual patients’ genetic profiles. Moreover, the principles of gene editing applied to cell-based therapies, such as CAR-T or stem-cell-derived products, will continue to blur the line between biologic production and regenerative medicine.

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