

Review: A guide to manufacturing CAR T cell therapies

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Abstract

In recent years, chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) modified T cells have been used as a treatment for haematological malignancies in several phase I and II trials and with *Kymriah* of Novartis and *Yescarta* of KITE Pharma, the first CAR T cell therapy products have been approved. Promising clinical outcomes have yet been tempered by the fact that many therapies may be prohibitively expensive to manufacture. The process is not yet defined, far from being standardised and often requires extensive manual handling steps. For academia, big pharma and contract manufacturers it is difficult to obtain an overview over the process strategies and their respective advantages and disadvantages. This review details current production processes being used for CAR T cells with a particular focus on efficacy, reproducibility, manufacturing costs and release testing. By undertaking a systematic analysis of the manufacture of CAR T cells from reported clinical trial data to date, we have been able to quantify recent trends and track the uptake of new process technology. Delivering new processing options will be key to the success of the CAR-T cells ensuring that excessive manufacturing costs do not disrupt the delivery of exciting new therapies to the wide possible patient cohort.

Introduction

Over the last few decades, cell therapy has emerged as a promising new approach to treat malignancies that could only be treated on a palliative basis. Among those therapies, chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) modified T cell therapies proved to be effective for haematological malignancies [1]. To generate CAR T cells, patient- (autologous) or donor-derived (allogeneic) T cells are modified to express a CAR. The CAR is a chimeric construct containing at least one signalling domain of the T cell receptor and a single chain variable fragment (scFv) [2].

The production of autologous CAR T cells is carried out by a variety of manufacturing approaches all comprising the same common steps. First, the patient's white blood cells (WBCs) are isolated by leukapheresis and washed. Then, the T cells are activated, transduced with the CAR transgene, expanded to the required cell numbers for therapy, formulated and filled. After quality control testing and preparatory lymphodepleting chemotherapy for the patient, the product is injected into the patient.

Although the general outline of the process is similar in current trials, there are various options to carry out process steps during manufacturing of the CAR T cell product. The early stage of the current clinical trials mean that target cell numbers have not been established. Therefore, the scale of the process is still not defined. In addition, the degree of cell expansion varies from patient to patient and process to process. Recent estimates calculate an overall cost of 150,000-300,000 \$ for CAR T

cell therapy products generated using current manufacturing approaches, whereas Novartis' *Kymriah* exceeds these estimates costing 475,000 \$ per treatment [3]. It is therefore particularly important to recognize the major cost drivers and scale of the process, and current trends in manufacturing strategies.

This review aims to give an overview of CAR T cell therapy manufacturing with considerations of process scale and economics. Current published clinical trials on CAR T cell therapy are investigated in order to analyse the manufacturing strategies for CAR T cell products.

Production technologies used in published clinical trials

Outcomes of many clinical phase I and II studies are promising and with *Kymriah* of Novartis and *Yescarta* of KITE Pharma, the first CAR T cell products have been approved. However, research and development has still not created a mature, fully understood process and thus product. A number of CAR T products are manufactured using manual processing which is labour intensive, difficult to scale and prone to high failure rates [4,5]. This is mainly due to the personalised nature of CAR T therapies coupled with a lack of small-scale production technologies tailored for cell therapy coupled with a need to produce material for early phase trials quickly. Production processes consistently comprise of the same common steps shown in **Figure 2**.

Leukapheresis, cell washing and enrichment

Leukapheresis and cell washing

T cell therapy starts with obtaining the patient's WBCs by leukapheresis, an apheresis method that separates white blood cells from whole blood. The blood components are usually separated by density with continuous or intermittent centrifugation methods using density gradient media.

Anticoagulants added during the apheresis process, red blood cells and platelets are contaminations which are usually removed in a washing step. Anticoagulants potentially alter the behaviour of the cells during activation [6], red blood cells can influence clinical efficacy and platelets can lead to clumping of the cells [7,8]. To remove red blood cells and platelets, manual Ficoll density gradient centrifugation is applied in early reports and again in more recent clinical trials (NCT01886976; NCT01864902) [9–11]. Alternatively, automated cell-washers such as the COBE 2991 Cell Processor (Terumo BCT, Lakewood, CO, USA) [12] (NCT02215967), the Haemonetics CellSaver (Braintree, MA, USA) [13], the discontinued Baxter Cytomate [14] (NCT00466531, NCT01044069), the Biosafe Sepax II [15,16] (NCT00968760, NCT01497184, NCT01362452) or the monocyte depleting CaridianBCT Elutra [17] (NCT01029366) are used. After washing, the WBCs are either directly used or frozen in controlled rate freezers such as the Cryomed [14].

Enrichment and depletion

Some groups enrich for or deplete specific cell subsets using the CliniMACS system with the respective antibody linked to paramagnetic beads. The Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center and Seattle Children's Hospital enrich WBCs for CD4⁺ (T helper cells) and CD8⁺ (cytotoxic T cells) in order to infuse a product with a defined CD8⁺/CD4⁺ cell ratio (Gardner *et al.* 2014, Turtle *et al.* 2014, 2015a, 2015b; Reference in **Table 2**). Similarly, Brown *et al.* (2016) (Ref. **Table 2**) opted to produce treatment that was enriched for central memory T cells (CD62L⁺). Singh and colleagues from MD Anderson Cancer Center found that high numbers of natural killer (NK) cells impede T cell culture [15]. They performed NK depletion using CD56⁺ magnetic beads if the NK cell number exceeded 10% in the process. Ramos *et al.* (2013) (Ref. **Table 2**) performed CD3⁺ selection in two patients that had >95% circulating leukemic cells to enable expansion from an apheresis product containing a low percentage of T cells.

Activation

In vivo, naïve T cells are stimulated for proliferation and differentiation by antigen presenting cells such as dendritic cells (DCs). T cells are activated by interactions between the T cell receptor (TCR) and the major histocompatibility complex located on the DC cell surface and through costimulatory molecules such as CD28, 4-1BB and OX40 [18]. To avoid the cumbersome process of co-culture with DCs, several methods that mimic the natural stimulation of T cells have been developed and implemented [13].

Monoclonal antibodies and interleukins

A common approach is to add OKT3 (anti-CD3 monoclonal antibody (mAb)) and interleukin (IL) 2. Simultaneous co-culture with irradiated healthy donor peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) and lymphoblastoid cell lines (LCL; human Epstein-Barr-virus (EBV) infected PBMCs) [19] is sometimes referred to as the 'rapid expansion protocol' [20]. The concentration of IL-2 used varies considerably from one trial to the next. Gattinoni *et al.* 2011 [21] suggest that the use of IL-2, especially in excessive concentrations, can lead to an exhausted T cell product that has entered into stages of dysfunction, displaying poor effector function and quickly approaching apoptosis [22]. Barrett *et al.* (2014) [23] and Ghassemi *et al.* 2016 [24] found that replacing IL-2 with IL-7 and IL-15 resulted in a higher percentage of memory subsets.

Cell-sized anti-CD3/CD28 antibody coated magnetic beads

Kalos *et al.* (2011) [17] used anti-CD3/CD28 antibody coated magnetic beads as artificial antigen presenting particles and found that activation with these allows for engraftment of cells that retain their memory phenotype more than with OKT3/IL-2. The superparamagnetic beads have a diameter of 4.5 µm and are efficiently removed with a strong electromagnet, leaving <100 residual beads per 3×10^6 cells at the end of production, as shown by Hollyman *et al.* (2009) [14]. During expansion, the

beads were used to continuously stimulate the cells. Cytokine production was 10-100 fold higher suggesting that activation is stronger using bead-activation compared to other methods such as activation with anti-CD3 antibodies and IL-2 [13,25]. Antibody-coated paramagnetic beads also present several processing advantages. By magnetically retaining the beads bound with cells, cell culture steps such as washing and enrichment are more easily facilitated. The beads can be used for selection and activation of the cells without the need to remove them until harvest. Perfusion or media exchange is possible without losing great amounts of expensive stimulating antibodies since they are coupled to the beads. It has been shown, that activation with anti-CD3/CD28 beads results in less exhausted and thus more persistent T cells than activation with OKT3 (anti-CD3 mAb) and IL-2 [23].

Artificial antigen presenting cells

In a few recent clinical studies CAR-T cells were activated with non-viable antigen presenting cells, such as K562 cell lines that co-express the desired stimulating molecules and a tumour-associated antigen (TAA) [16]. Irradiated, the dead cells are compliant with current good manufacturing practice (cGMP). They do not express human leukocyte antigen A and B and selectively stimulate the CAR T cells specific for the TAA [16,26]. For generation of CAR T cells with EBV-specific TCRs, EBV transformed LCL are used for activation [27].

Activation in current clinical trials

We investigated the frequency of use of different technologies for the manufacturing of the products used in clinical trials (listed in **Table 1**). To the best of our knowledge, data from all trials published from 2002 to September 2017 were analysed in this study. If the number of patients was not specified or neither process technology nor product characteristics were detailed in a publication, it was not included in this analysis. The term 'evaluable product' describes a product given to one patient and that is reported as activated, transduced or expanded in a certain way. A CAR T cell product that is reported with indistinct or no data is not an 'evaluable product'. Studies that were reported without any details on the manufacturing process were excluded. In total, manufacturing data of products for 1000 patients have been analysed.

The dominant method for activation of the T cells is the activation with anti-CD3/CD28 antibody-coated paramagnetic beads with 626 out of 952 evaluable products. Anti-CD3/CD28 mAbs and IL-2 were used for 279 of 952 evaluable products, 107 of which were KTE-019 by KITE Pharma (now approved as *Yescarta*). The first groups to report the use of magnetic beads in the reviewed studies were Deeks *et al.* [28] (2002) in a study on anti-gp120 CAR T cells for HIV. The high number of studies using this approach is associated with Novartis and Juno Therapeutics products CTL019 (now approved as *Kymriah*) and JCAR014, JCAR015, JCAR017 and JCAR018.

Gene delivery

Gene delivery can be divided into viral and non-viral methods. In CAR T cell therapy, electroporation of naked DNA, plasmid-based transposon/transposase systems and viral vectors, in particular retro- or lentiviruses have been applied for gene delivery (**Table 1**).

Viral transduction

A retro- or lentiviral gene transfer can result in high transduction efficiencies (anywhere between 4-70% in investigated studies [11,29]) but is significantly more expensive than plasmid transfection. High efficiency transduction using retro- or lentiviruses requires activation of the T cells. Especially in retroviruses, that only transduce dividing cells, proliferation is essential for gene delivery. With both approaches, there is a risk of oncogenic gene insertion, while lentiviral integration is theoretically less prone [30]. However, to the best of our knowledge, no such cases have been reported in the clinic with CAR T cell therapy.

Viral gene delivery methods require packaging cell lines for the cGMP production of the viral vector. This is labour intensive and expensive mainly because vector production has to be carried out in a separate clean room facility and additional vector release testing has to be performed. Lentiviral vectors are typically produced via transient transfection using large amounts of plasmid DNA; making them more expensive than retroviral vectors that can be produced using stable packaging cell lines [31,32]. Development of stable packaging cell lines, such as WinPac, for lentiviral vector production may reduce this cost [33]. Furthermore, viral vectors require costly testing for replication competent virus resulting in costs of several ten thousand dollars per patient [31]. The production of both retroviruses and lentiviruses has been reviewed in detail elsewhere [34].

Plasmid-based gene delivery

A relatively new method of CAR gene delivery is the use of transposon/transposase systems. A transposon is a sequence of DNA with the ability to change position within a genome via transposase excision and insertion [35]. The CAR transgene can be inserted into a transposon sequence on a plasmid, with the transposase encoded either within the transposon or separately. Plasmids are electroporated into T-cells prior to activation, where then the transposase excises the CAR-containing-transposon and inserts the sequence into the T-cell genome [26,36,37]. The use of a transposon system was found to increase the efficiency of gene integration in comparison to the electroporation of naked DNA, giving efficiencies closer to that of viral transduction [16].

The Sleeping Beauty (SB) transposon/transposase system has been used to produce CAR T-cells. This method of gene delivery eliminates the requirement for clinical grade viral vector generation and is comparably inexpensive [31]. One drawback is that the culture-time for generation of required cell numbers is higher than with virus transduced CAR T cells [36]. It is important to note that, as with

viral gene delivery methods, insertion of the gene can lead to oncogenesis or disruption of other relevant genes [38]. However, in a recent study, SB gene integration into T cells was considered the method with the lowest chance of insertional oncogenesis compared to viral methods and the *piggyBac* transposon/transposase system [39]. The first in-patient use of the SB transposon/transposase system for CAR T-cell therapy has shown promising outcomes [26,37].

Gene delivery in current clinical trials

Viral transduction is the most common gene delivery method with 919 of 978 evaluable products (**Figure 3**). Lentiviral transduction is predominant with 521 products whereas retroviral transduction is the second most used method with 398 products. With both methods, safe and efficacious products can be generated with high transduction efficiencies but they are somewhat expensive. Early studies with simple plasmid DNA transfection yielded less impressive clinical results [9,10,40]. Methods based on a transposon/transposase system (*i.e.* the SB system, see above) entered the clinics more recently treating 39 patients. If it can be proved that creating a safe and efficacious product using this route is feasible, this approach becomes particularly interesting for the field of CAR T cell therapies as transposon/transposase based gene delivery offers significant economic advantages over viral transduction [31].

Expansion

T-Flasks and static culture bags

During expansion of transduced or transfected CAR T cells, the culture volume is changed. With increasing numbers of cells either vessels with increased volume or a greater number of vessels are used, e.g. multiple tissue culture plates or flasks [9,10]. This is labour intensive since flasks need frequent medium changes by trained operators in clean rooms or biosafety cabinets (class 100 environment) [5]. Using tissue culture plates or flasks is not suitable for large-scale manufacturing as it involves a plurality of open-handling steps and is not acceptable as an industry standard at the state of the art. Static culture bags are commonly used for expansion (**Table 1**) and can be connected by tubings in a sterile way. Tumaini *et al.* (2013) [41] developed a semi-closed system that minimises open-handling interaction by using connected static culture bags. Static culture bags are comparably easy to implement and are suited better for manufacturing than tissue culture flasks, as sample and media transfer requires less manual open-handling, increasing safety.

The rocking motion bioreactor

The rocking motion (RM) bioreactor (e.g. WAVE bioreactor/Xuri Cell Expansion System) further minimises operator interaction by application of a media perfusion regime. A perfusion regime removes growth-inhibiting substances and ensures constant amounts of nutrients; thus, enabling culture in smaller volumes than with static culture bags [42]. Sadeghi *et al.* (2011) [43] found that using a RM bioreactor system instead of static culture bags to expand TILs reduced labour intensity

to 33% and media consumption to 50%. Interestingly, it has been observed that using RM bioreactor systems results in a final product comprising more CD4⁺ T cells [44]. Scaling up is a challenge with this type of bioreactor and mechanical failure of the rocking device can result in a batch failure [44]. The Xuri technology offers the advantages of (semi-)automated production.

Expansion in current clinical trials

In current cell culture processes, the media volume is usually increased; typically by increasing the size of a bag or flask or by changing from plates to flasks, flasks to static culture bags or static culture bags to a RM bioreactor. The variety of methods in the expansion process can be divided into three approaches. First, 147 of 679 evaluable products were expanded using plates or T-flasks ('T-Flasks' in **Figure 3**). This approach has a high requirement of trained operators manufacturing the product in an open-handling manner in safety cabinets usually using multiple flasks/ plates per product [5]. Tissue culture flasks and plates are used for smaller patient cohorts in particular. 237 products were expanded in static culture bags, or eventually scaled up to static culture bags after initiating expansion in flasks or plates ('Static Culture Bags' in **Figure 3**). Scaling up using larger static culture bags instead of increasing the number of flasks or plates has a number of advantages. In particular, bags can be connected in a sterile way reducing the amount of open-handling steps [41]. The third approach utilises the most advanced technology. Starting in bags or flasks, the expansion finally takes place in a RM bioreactor that runs in perfusion. With 295 of 679 evaluable products, the RM bioreactor approach for expansion is prevailing, which was due to its use in larger patient cohorts.

Common combinations of activation, gene delivery and expansion methods in current clinical trials

As shown in **Figure 3**, with 295 of 679 evaluable products (43%), the combination of bead activation, viral transduction and expansion in the RM bioreactor is most common production method (CTL019, JCAR014, JCAR017 and JCAR018 playing a major role). The second most frequent approach, with 129 products (19%), is activation with mAbs/IL-2, viral transduction and expansion in flasks. This approach is the most manual and unautomated production strategy. Third most used is the combination of bead activation, viral transduction and expansion in static culture bags (119 products, 18%). Our analysis reveals that the overall culture process typically has a duration of <20 days (**Figure 1**).

Challenges and novel solutions in CAR T cell therapy manufacturing

Messenger RNA Transfection and other means to control CAR function

Off-tumour on-target toxicities are potential fatal risks when testing novel receptors in clinical trials [45]. Solutions to mitigate these risks include messenger RNA (mRNA) transfection of the T cells, so that they express the CAR only in a transient manner limiting the effect of CAR toxicity issues [45–47]. Repeated infusions of mRNA have been shown to successfully induce antitumor activity in

patients [47]. Another design includes a drug dependent “kill switch” for inducible apoptosis, useful for mitigating long-term off-tumour toxicities such as B cell aplasia in CD19-CARs [48]. This approach was applied in the clinical trial NCT02028455, in which T cells were transduced with the suicide construct EGFRt, in addition to the CAR (Gardner *et al.* 2016, Ref. **Table 2**) [49]. Other designs have been reviewed further elsewhere [50].

Variability and the lack of a defined process scale are major challenges

Current processes use a variety of technologies, which, as already discussed, can lead to variations in subset composition in the final product. Additionally, primary apheresis products are individually different for each patient. Brentjens *et al.* (2011) [29] reported anywhere between 23.6-385-fold expansion in ten patients. Interestingly, the two extremes of expansion were achieved in almost the same culture time. 23.6-fold expansion was achieved in 18 days and 385-fold expansion in 16 days, with the final dose being 1.1×10^9 and 1.4×10^9 CAR T cells, respectively. The varied expansion rates obtained are indicative of the considerably different and unpredictable behaviour of the cells. The variability of the process is also apparent in the reported transduction efficiencies. In the same study, retroviral transduction resulted in efficiencies of 4-70% [29]. Guo *et al.* (2015) [11] obtained lentiviral transduction efficiencies from 5.5% to 45.3%, with other groups reporting similar [51,52]. This inherent variability makes it difficult to compare between studies and manufacturing platforms. It is also important to note that the design of the CAR molecule varies between the studies. For detailed reviews on the design of CAR T cells the reader is referred to Sadelain, Brentjens and Rivière 2013, Abate-Daga and Davila 2016 and Jaspers and Brentjens 2017 [53–55].

In clinical studies, CAR T cell doses vary widely. Recent clinical trials with promising outcomes applied an intended dose range of 10^6 - 10^7 cells/kg bodyweight (Sauter *et al.* 2014, Park *et al.* 2013, 2015, Schuster *et al.* 2015a, Popplewell *et al.* 2015, Ref. **Table 2**). Lee *et al.* (2015) [56] reported the clinical outcomes of two ALL patients that received a lower dose than planned. Patient 2 received 0.03×10^6 CAR T cells/kg bodyweight and Patient 5 received 0.48×10^6 CAR T cells/kg bodyweight instead of $1-3 \times 10^6$ CAR T cells/kg bodyweight. Patient 2 achieved stable disease and patient 5 achieved complete response that was minimum residual disease negative. Interestingly, the numbers of blood circulating CAR T cells in patients 2 and 5 at the day of evaluation were not significantly different from patients receiving the correct dosage. Thus, infusion of a lower than anticipated CAR T cell dose can be therapeutically effective, as long as sufficient expansion is seen after infusion.

CAR T cell therapy quality assurance and control (QA/QC)

Current published protocols adhere to guidelines of current good manufacturing practice (cGMP) on testing of safety, purity and potency [14,15,57]. Release criteria with respect to safety are sterility and the absence of replication competent viruses (in case of virally transduced cells). The presence of replication competent retro- or lentivirus is usually tested with a cell-based assay or a quantitative

polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) assay [14,58]. In the United States Code of Federal Regulation (CFR) on “General Biological Product Standards” (21 CFR 610, 2 January 2018), the test methods for sterility are specified as either culture or non-culture based. One culture based method is based on the observation of growth of viable microorganisms after inoculating culture media with test material over several days [15,57]. Gram staining was used as a non-culture method for in-process samples by Hollyman *et al.* 2009 [14]. All implemented sterility tests have to be validated for the product they are used for. As cell and gene therapy is a rapidly evolving field, it is mandatory for drug developers to track the constant evolution of regulatory requirements.

Ideally, the product has a high purity. Enrichment or depletion of specific cell types or subsets can ensure a starting material with higher purity (see section ‘Enrichment and depletion’). It can also be beneficial to test for contaminating cell populations, e.g. NK cells [15]. Other impurities are endotoxins, mycoplasma or residuals of the process, e.g. activating beads that might cause harm e.g. by being capable of activating endogenous T cells if transferred into the patient [14].

The product needs to be effective which is typically tested indirectly by assessment of transduction efficiency or by *in vitro* cytotoxicity tests. The CAR T vector copy number can be determined in process and be a measure of transduction efficiency [14]. However, the copy number does not necessarily reflect the level of CAR expression. The number of CAR positive cells can be determined by immunophenotyping of the CAR T cells at the end of production. For detection of the CAR, researchers introduced a tag into the transgene or CAR-specific mAbs were developed [14,59]. Some centres perform cytotoxicity assays *in vitro*, e.g. a chromium release assay. These consume time after the end of production and valuable cells. Singh *et al.* (2013) [15] used more than 0.5×10^6 T cells for a chromium release assay for a single product. Although methods are available to test potency of the T cells, no standardised method is used, making it difficult to compare CAR T cell potency across studies or platforms. To date, potency assays are one of the main challenges in CAR T cell product characterisation during QC. This is mainly due to the complexity of the mode of action of CAR T cell therapies and the lack of standardised methods [60].

Manufacturing – A future perspective

Batch production of monoclonal antibodies at commercial scale results in several thousand doses of mAbs [61]. This scale has not yet been considered in cell therapy. Currently, autologous small-scale processes for haematological malignancies dominate the field. Although some allogeneic CAR T cell therapy products have entered the clinics [27,62], they have a number of safety concerns regarding the potential development of a graft-versus-host-disease (GvHD) [63]. Allogeneic therapies have, so far, been less efficacious than autologous therapies [64] and strategies to mediate the risk of a GvHD,

such as inactivation of the TCR α and β chain by genome editing, are currently under evaluation [65,66].

Acute lymphoblastic leukaemia (ALL) is the target of the first-ever approved CAR T cell therapy *Kymriah* and the disease most treated in clinical trials (440 of 1000 patients) even though it accounts for less than 0.4% of all cancer diagnoses in USA (2015), UK (2013) and Germany (2012) (National Cancer Institute, Cancer Research UK, Robert-Koch-Institut Germany, Ref. **Table 2**). However, if cellular therapies for the 'big' cancers like lung and pancreatic cancer prove to be successful in clinical trials, a large production scale has to be considered.

Producing thousands of autologous products with individual processes is a new challenge that has to be faced in pharmaceutical production. Increasing the number of individual processes for personalised products is frequently termed scaling-out. Automated cell therapy manufacturing devices can enable manufacturing of a large number of personalised CAR T cell therapies. Mock *et al.* (2016) [67] used the CliniMACS Prodigy, an automated cell therapy production platform, for the generation of clinically relevant numbers of CD19-CAR T cells. They showed that the man hours needed for manufacturing can be greatly decreased with this system compared to a production process with the rocking motion bioreactor. The economic, infrastructural and regulatory feasibility of distributed manufacturing in hospitals in comparison to a centralised production model has to be evaluated.

Conclusion

Cell and gene therapies, particularly CAR-T cells, are an exciting new class of therapeutic offering potential cures to a number of diseases. Unfortunately, there are a number of concerns regarding costly and highly variable manufacturing processes. Here we have undertaken a systematic analysis of CAR-T clinical trials covering 1000 patients. Whilst there is a common set of processing steps, further scrutiny uncovered three dominant process routes and a wide range of process scales, associated with uncertainty over dose size. To date the majority of clinical trials have applied off the shelf processing equipment however there are major concerns regarding their ability to minimise run-to-run variability and production costs. The future trend will be towards a new breed of technology offering automation and integrated closed manufacturing solutions leading the field towards low cost manufacturing processes.

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Figures and tables

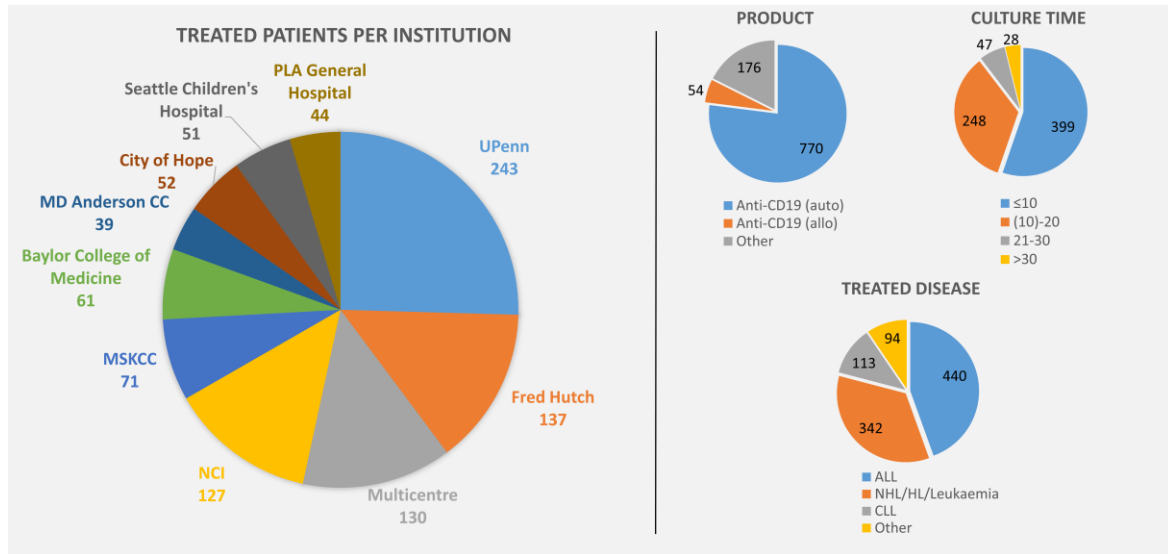


Figure 1: Characteristics of current CAR T cell treatments and products: a) Treated patients per institution – University of Pennsylvania treated most of the patients to date; b) Target and origin of cells – Products are mainly autologous anti-CD19 CAR T cells; c) Culture time during manufacturing of CAR T cells – most products are manufactured in <20 days; d) Treated disease – Hematologic malignancies (ALL especially) are mainly treated; Abbreviations: Fred Hutch: Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center; MSKCC: Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center; UPenn: University of Pennsylvania; MD Anderson CC: MD Anderson Cancer Center; PLA General Hospital: Chinese People’s Liberation Army General Hospital; CLL: Chronic lymphocytic leukaemia; ALL: Acute lymphoblastic lymphoma; NHL: Non-Hodgkin lymphoma; HL: Hodgkin lymphoma.

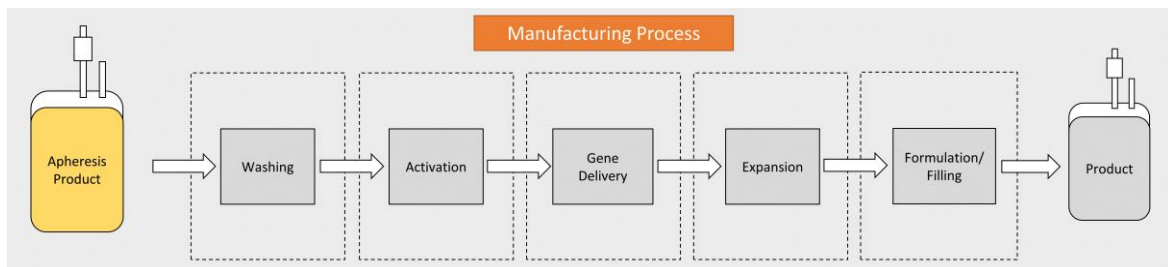


Figure 2: Flow scheme of the CAR T cell manufacturing process: The apheresis product is washed to remove anti-coagulants added during leukapheresis and then activated by stimulation through T cell activation pathways in cell culture media. Soluble monoclonal antibodies, coated magnetic beads or artificial antigen

presenting cells are frequently used for activation. The CAR transgene is delivered into the cell by lenti- or retroviral and non-viral methods such as transposon/transposase systems. The cells are then expanded in static or dynamic culture vessels or devices to the required cell numbers. Finally, cell numbers and the media composition are adjusted according to the formulation (if the product is frozen, cryopreservation media are required) and then the product is transferred to a suitable container for delivery or freezing. Dashed lines represent system borders or the physical barrier of the vessels in which the process steps are carried out; arrows represent transfer steps.

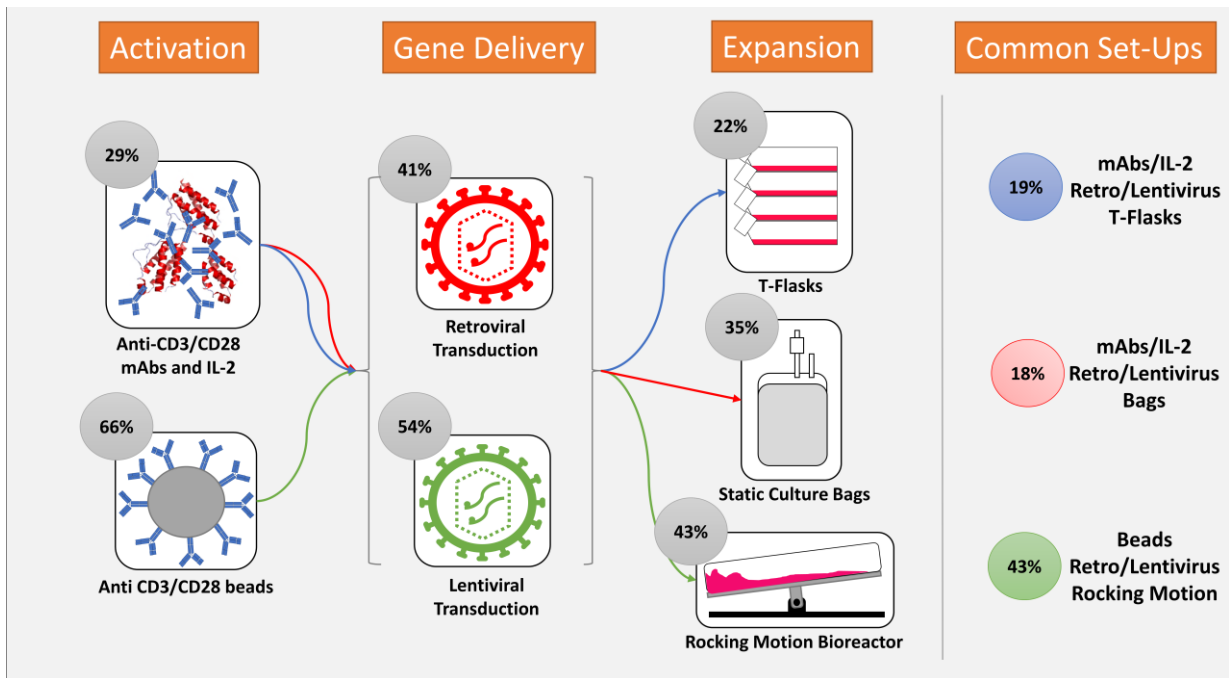


Figure 3: Current CAR T cell manufacturing routes. Frequency of technologies used for activation, gene delivery and expansion (grey circles) expressed as a percentage of evaluable products (Activation: 952/1000 products; gene delivery: 977/1000 products; expansion: 679/1000 products). The frequency of combinations (indicated by coloured arrows; coloured circles) again expressed as a percentage of evaluable products (429/679 products).

Table 1: Clinical CAR T cell therapy trials with published manufacturing process data (2002-September 2017)

Ref	Author	Year	Institution (associated company)	CAR - Product (Product specification or name)	CAR Generation	Expansion	Activation	Gene Delivery	Culture Time [days]	References for Manufacturing Data	Disease (No. of Pts.)	Patients Treated	Clinical Trial No	Phase	Initiation of Study (year-month)
[28]	Deeks	2002	University of California	anti-HIVgp120	1st	N/S	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	retroviral	10-17	[68]	HIV (20)	20	N/S	II	≤ 2002
[10]	Jensen	2010	City of Hope	anti-CD19	1st	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2, irr. all. PBMCs, LCL	plasmid, electroporation, Hygromycin selection	55		FL (2)	2	BB-IND-11411/IRB 01160	I	≤ 2010
[10]	Jensen	2010	City of Hope	anti-CD20	1st	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2, irr. all. PBMCs, LCL	plasmid, electroporation, G418 selection	62		DLBCL (2)	2	BB-IND-8513/IRB 98142 and	I	≤ 2010
[40]	Park	2007	Seattle Children's	anti-CD171	1st	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2, irr. all. PBMCs, LCL	plasmid, electroporation, Hygromycin selection	> 42	[19]	NB (6)	6	N/S	I	-
[9]	Till	2008	Fred Hutch	anti-CD20	1st	static culture bags	OKT3, IL-2, irr. all. PBMCs, LCL	plasmid, electroporation, G418 selection	70-132		FL (7)	7	NCT00012207	I	2000-09
[69]	Louis	2011	Baylor College of Medicine	anti-GD2	1st	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2	retroviral	15	[70]	NB (19)	19	NCT00085930	I	2003-04
[71]	Junghans	2016	Roger Williams Medical Center	anti-PSMA	1st	flasks and/or plates	Anti-CD3	retroviral	14		Prostate Cancer (6)	6	NCT01929239	I	2006-03
[A], [29]	Brentjens, Park, Geyer	2011, 2012, 2016	MSKCC	anti-CD19	2nd: CD28	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	retroviral	11-19	[14]	CLL (11)	11	NCT00466531	I/II	2007-03
[72]	Till	2012	Fred Hutch	anti-CD20	3rd : 4-1BB + CD28	static culture bags	OKT3, IL-2, irr. all. PBMCs, LCL	plasmid, electroporation, G418 selection	69+	[9]	MCL (2) FL (1)	3	NCT00621452	I	2007-08
[73]	Savoldo	2011	Baylor College of Medicine	anti-CD19	Both 1st and 2nd (CD28)	flasks and/or plates	immobilised OKT3, IL-2	retroviral	N/S		DLBCL (5) SLL (1)	6	NCT00586391	I	
[74]	Kochenderfer	2010	National Cancer Institute	anti-CD19	2nd: CD28	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2, autologous PBMCs	retroviral	14	[75]	FL (1)	1	NCT00924326	I	2009-02
[76]	Kochenderfer	2012	National Cancer Institute	anti-CD19	2nd: CD28	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2, irr. all. PBMCs	retroviral	24	[75]	CLL (4) FL (3) SMZL (1)	8	NCT00924326	I	2009-02
[A]	Kochenderfer	2014	National Cancer Institute	anti-CD19	2nd: CD28	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2, irr. all. PBMCs	retroviral	10	[76]	DLBCL (8) FL (1)	9	NCT00924326	I	2009-02
[77]	Kochenderfer	2015	National Cancer Institute	anti-CD19	2nd: CD28	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2	retroviral	6-10	[76], Kochenderfer et al. 2013 [A]	CLL (4) SMZL (1) PBMCL (4) DLBCL (5) low grade NHL (1)	15	NCT00924326	I	2009-02
[27]	Cruz	2013	Baylor College of Medicine	anti-CD19 (Virus-specific, allogeneic)	2nd: CD28	flasks and/or plates	IL-2, LCL as APCs	retroviral	> 35-42		CLL (4) ALL (4)	8	NCT00840853	I	2009-04
[A]	Ramos, Ramos	2013, 2016	Baylor College of Medicine	anti-κ	2nd: CD28	flasks and/or plates	immobilised OKT3 or CD3/CD28 monoclonal antibodies + IL-2	retroviral	14-22		NHL (5) MM (3) CLL (2)	10	NCT00881920	I	2009-07
[A], [17,52,78]	Porter, Kalos, Porter, Porter	2011, 2011, 2013, 2015	UPenn (Novartis)	anti-CD19 (CTL019)	2nd: 4-1BB	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	8-12		CLL (14)	14	NCT01029366	I	2009-07
[79]	Ritchie	2013	UMelbourne	anti-LeY	2nd: CD28	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2	retroviral	12		AML (4)	4	CTX 08-0002	I	N/S
[A], [29,80,81]	Brentjens, Brentjens, Davila, Park, Park	2011, 2013, 2014, 2014, 2015	MSKCC (Juno)	anti-CD19 (JCAR015)	2nd: CD28	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	retroviral	11-19	[14]	ALL (44)	44	NCT01044069	I	2010-01
[A], [82]	Kochenderfer, Brudno	2013, 2016	National Cancer Institute	anti-CD19 (allogeneic)	2nd: CD28	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2	retroviral	8		ALL (5) CLL (5) DLBCL (5)	20	NCT01087294	I	2010-02
[A]	Ramos	2016	Baylor College of Medicine	anti-CD30	2nd: CD28	N/S	N/S	retroviral	12-18		MCL (5) HL (7) ALCL (2)	9	NCT01192464	I	2010-08

[A]	Kebriaei	2014	MD Anderson CC	anti-CD19	2nd: CD28	static culture bags	K562 AaPC	<i>Sleeping Beauty</i> transposon/transposase, electroporation lentiviral[15]	28-30	[15]	NHL (≥5)	7	NCT00968760 (and other)	I	2011-06
[A], [N], [83,84]	Grupp, Maude, Grupp, AACR	2013, 2014, 2015, 2016-Feb	UPenn (Novartis)	anti-CD19 (CTL019)	2nd: 4-1BB	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads		8-12	[17]	ALL (59)	59	NCT01626495	I	2011-08
[A]	Curran	2012	MSKCC	anti-CD19 (EBV-specific, allogeneic)	2nd: CD28	N/S	N/S	retroviral	N/S		ALL (3)	3	NCT01430390	I	2011-09
[A]	Popplewell	2015	City of Hope	anti-CD19	1st	static culture bags	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	14-21		DLCBCL (7) MCL (1)	8	NCT01318317	I/II	2011-09
[A]	Park	2014	MSKCC	anti-CD19	2nd: CD28	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	retroviral	11-19	[14]as confirmed by Jae Park	CLL (7)	7	NCT01416974	I	2011-11
[A]	Ramos	2015	Baylor College of Medicine	anti-CD30	2nd: CD28	flasks and/or plates	CD3/CD28 monoclonal antibodies, IL-2	retroviral	12-18		HL (7) ALCL (2)	9	NCT01316146	I	2011-12
[A]	Kebriaei, Kebriaei	2014, 2015	MD Anderson CC	anti-CD19 (allogeneic)	2nd: CD28	static culture bags	K562 AaPC	<i>Sleeping Beauty</i> transposon/transposase, electroporation retroviral	28-30	[15]	ALL (18) NHL (3)	21	NCT01497184	I	2011-12
[A], [56]	Lee, Lee	2015, 2016	National Cancer Institute	anti-CD19	2nd: CD28	static culture bags	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	retroviral	11	[41]	ALL (51) Lymphoma (2)	53	NCT01593696	I	2012-04
[A]	Porter	2014	UPenn (Novartis)	anti-CD19 (CTL019)	2nd: 4-1BB	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	8-12[52]	[17]	CLL (26)	26	NCT01747486	II	2012-12
[A]	Kebriaei	2014	MD Anderson CC	anti-CD19 (allogeneic/autologous)	2nd: CD28	static culture bags	K562 AaPC	<i>Sleeping Beauty</i> transposon/transposase, electroporation lentiviral	28-30	[15]	ALL (8) NHL (3) CLL (2)	13	NCT01362452 (and other)	I	2012-12
[85]	Wang	2014	PLA General Hospital	anti-CD20	2nd: 4-1BB	flasks and/or plates	anti-CD3 coated flasks, IL-2	lentiviral	10-12		DLBCL (7)	7	NCT01735604	I/II	2013-01
[A]	Feng	2015	PLA General Hospital	anti-Her-1	N/S	N/S	N/S	N/S	10-12		NSCLC (11)	11	NCT01869166	I/II	2013-01
[A]	Sauter	2014	MSKCC (Juno)	anti-CD19 (JCAR015)	2nd: CD28	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	retroviral	13-17	[29]as confirmed by Craig Sauter	DLBCL (3) FL (2) MZL (1)	6	NCT01840566	I	2013-04
[51]	Dai	2015	PLA General Hospital	anti-CD19	2nd: 4-1BB	flasks and/or plates	OKT3, IL-2	lentiviral	10-12		ALL (9)	9	NCT01864889	I	2013-04
[A], [86]	Turtle, Turtle, Turtle, Turtle	2014, 2015, 2016, 2016	Fred Hutch (Juno)	anti-CD19 (JCAR014)	2nd: 4-1BB	N/S	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	N/S		ALL (≥45) CLL (24) NHL (≥47 incl. DLBCL, FL, MCL)	127	NCT01865617	I/II	2013-05
[87]	Wang	2015	PLA General Hospital	anti-CD33	2nd: 4-1BB	flasks and/or plates	anti CD3 antibody, IL-2	lentiviral	10-11		AML (1)	1	NCT01864902	I/II	2013-05
[11]	Guo	2016	PLA General Hospital	anti-CD138	2nd: 4-1BB	flasks and/or plates	CD3 coated flasks, IL-2	lentiviral	11		MM (5)	5	NCT01886976	I/II	2013-06
[A]	Popplewell	2015	City of Hope	anti-CD19	2nd: CD28	bags	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	14-21		DLBCL (4) MCL (4)	8	NCT01815749	I	2013-09
[A], [N]	Schuster, Novartis news, Schuster, Schuster (web article) Schuster Chong	2015, 2015, 2015, 2016, 2016	UPenn (Novartis)	anti-CD19 (CTL019)	2nd: 4-1BB	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	8-12	[17]	DLBCL (13) FL (14) MCL (2)	29	NCT02030834	Ila	2014-01
[A], [88]	Gardner Gardner Gardner	2014, 2016, 2017 2016	Seattle Children's (Juno)	anti-CD19 (JCAR017)	2nd: 4-1BB	N/S	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	N/S		ALL (45)	45	NCT02028455	I/II	2014-01
[A]	Brown	2016	City of Hope	anti-IL13Ra2	2nd: 4-1BB	N/S	N/S	lentiviral	N/S		GBM (3)	3	NCT02208362	I	2014-01
[A]	Enblad	2015	Uppsala University	anti-CD19	3rd: CD28 and 4-1BB	N/S	Anti-CD3, Anti-CD28, IL-2	retroviral	N/S		Lymphoma (9) ALL (2)	11	NCT02132624	I/Ila	2014-04
[A]	Maude, Mueller	2016, 2017	Multicentre (Novartis)	anti-CD19 (CTL019)	2nd: 4-1BB	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	8-12		ALL (29)	29	NCT02228096 (ENSIGN)	II	2014-08
[12]	Ali	2016	National Cancer Institute	anti-BCMA	2nd: CD28	Static culture bags	Anti-CD3 antibody (MAC* GMP CD3 pure) + IL-2	retroviral	9		MM (12)	12	NCT02215967	I	2014-08
[A]	Wang	2015	PLA General Hospital	anti-CD30	N/S	N/S	N/S	N/S	N/S		HL (11)	11	NCT02259556	I/II	2014-10

[A]	Fry, Shah	2015, 2016	National Cancer Institute (Juno)	anti-CD22 (ICAR018)	2nd: 4-1BB	N/S	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	7-10	ALL (9)	9	NCT02315612	I	2014-11
[A]	Locke, Locke Neelapu and Locke	2015, 2016, 2016	Multicentre (KITE)	anti-CD19 (KTE-C19)	2nd: CD28	static culture bags	OKT3, IL-2	retroviral	6-8	DLBCL (101) PBMCL (3) TFL (3)	107	NCT02348216	I/II	2015-01
[A]	Maude, Hucks	2016, 2017	UPenn (Novartis)	humanised anti-CD19 (CTL119 or huCTL019)	2nd: 4-1BB	N/S	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	N/S	ALL (37)	37	NCT02374333	I	2015-02
[A],[N]	Grupp, Novartis news, Buechner	2016, 2016, 2017	UPenn (Novartis)	anti-CD19 (CTL019)	2nd: 4-1BB	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	8-12	ALL (68)	68	NCT02435849 (ELIANA)	II	2015-04
[A]	Ghorashian	2016	University College London	CAT-anti-CD19	2nd:4-1BB	RM bioreactor	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	8	ALL (2)	2	NCT02443831 (Carpall)	I	2015-04
[A], [66]	Qasim, Qasim	2015, 2017	University College London (Collectis)	anti-CD19 (allogeneic)	3rd: 4-1BB & suicide gene	N/S	N/S	lentiviral + TALEN	N/S	ALL (2)	2	N/S - compassionate use	N/S	2015-06
[A]	Abramson	2016	Multicentre (Juno)	anti-CD19 (ICAR017)	2nd: 4-1BB	N/S	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	N/S	DLBCL (1) MCL (1)	14	NCT02631044	I	2015-12
[A]	Gill	2017	UPenn (Novartis)	humanised anti-CD19 (CTL119 or huCTL019)	2nd: 4-1BB	N/S	anti-CD3/CD28 beads	lentiviral	N/S	CLL (10)	10	NCT02640209	I	2015-12
[A]	Berdeja	2016	Multicentre (Bluebird bio)	anti-BCMA (bc2121)	2nd: 4-1BB	N/S	N/S	lentiviral	N/S	MM (9)	9	NCT02658929	I	2016-01

Manufacturing process data and culture time originates from primary reports, references in the reports and communication with conductors of the trials. Reports covered are from 2002 until September 2017. [A] marks Conference abstracts, [N] marks news, references shown in **Table 2**; Abbreviations: Fred Hutch: Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center; MSKCC: Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center; UPenn: University of Pennsylvania; UMelbourne: University of Melbourne; MD Anderson CC: MD Anderson Cancer Center; PLA General Hospital: Chinese People's Liberation Army General Hospital; AACR: American Association for Cancer Research; HIV: Human immune deficiency virus; (T)FL: (Transformed) follicular lymphoma; DLBCL: Diffuse large B cell lymphoma; NB: Neuroblastoma; CLL: Chronic lymphocytic leukaemia; MCL: Mantle cell lymphoma; ALL: Acute lymphoblastic lymphoma; NHL: Non-Hodgkin lymphoma; MM: Multiple myeloma; AML: Acute myeloid leukaemia; HL: Hodgkin lymphoma; SLL: Small lymphocytic lymphoma; SMZL: Splenic marginal zone lymphoma; PBMCL: Primary mediastinal large B cell lymphoma; GMB: Glioblastoma; ALCL: Anaplastic large cell lymphoma; EBV: Epstein-Barr virus; RM: Rocking motion, TALEN: Transcription activator-like effector nuclease.

Table 2: Conference abstracts and news referenced in **Table 1**.

Reference abbreviation	Detailed Reference/ URL/DOI
National Cancer Institute	http://www.cancer.gov
Cancer Research UK	http://www.cancerresearchuk.org/
Robert-Koch-Institut	ISBN 978-3-89606-228-4
Curran 2012	Curran <i>et al.</i> 2012, abstract 353, American Society of Haematology, 54th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Atlanta, GA, USA, December 2012
Park 2012	Park <i>et al.</i> 2012, abstract 1797, American Society of Haematology, 54th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Atlanta, GA, USA, December 2012
Kochenderfer 2013	Kochenderfer <i>et al.</i> 2013, abstract 151, American Society of Haematology, 55th Annual Meeting & Exposition, New Orleans, LA, December 2013
Park 2013	Park <i>et al.</i> 2013, abstract 874, American Society of Haematology, 55th Annual Meeting & Exposition, New Orleans, LA, December 2013
Porter 2013	Porter <i>et al.</i> 2013, abstract 4162, American Society of Haematology, 55th Annual Meeting & Exposition, New Orleans, LA, December 2013
Ramos 2013	Ramos <i>et al.</i> 2013, abstract 506, American Society of Haematology, 55th Annual Meeting & Exposition, New Orleans, LA, December 2013
Gardner 2014	Gardner <i>et al.</i> 2014, abstract 3711, American Society of Haematology, 56th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Francisco, CA, USA, December 2014
Kebriaei 2014	Kebriaei <i>et al.</i> 2014, abstract 311, American Society of Haematology, 56th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Francisco, CA, USA, December 2014
Kochenderfer 2014	Kochenderfer <i>et al.</i> 2014, abstract 550, American Society of Haematology, 56th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Francisco, CA, USA, December 2014
Park 2014	Park <i>et al.</i> 2014, abstract 382, American Society of Haematology, 56th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Francisco, CA, USA, December 2014
Porter 2014	Porter <i>et al.</i> 2014, abstract 1982, American Society of Haematology, 56th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Francisco, CA, USA, December 2014
Sauter 2014	Sauter <i>et al.</i> 2014, abstract 677, American Society of Haematology, 56th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Francisco, CA, USA, December 2014
Turtle 2014	Turtle <i>et al.</i> 2014, abstract 384, American Society of Haematology, 56th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Francisco, CA, USA, December 2014
Feng 2015	Feng <i>et al.</i> 2015, abstract 516, 18th European Cancer Congress, Vienna, Austria, September 2015
Fry 2015	Fry <i>et al.</i> 2015, abstract 1324, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
Grupp 2015	Grupp <i>et al.</i> 2015, abstract 681, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
Kebriaei 2015	Kebriaei <i>et al.</i> 2015, abstract 862, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
Locke 2015	Locke <i>et al.</i> 2015, abstract 3991, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
Novartis 2015	Online Source: https://www.novartis.com/news/media-releases/novartis-announces-new-ctl019-study-data-demonstrating-overall-response-adult
Park 2015	Park <i>et al.</i> 2015, abstract 682, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
Popplewell 2015	Popplewell <i>et al.</i> 2015, abstract 930, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
Qasim 2015	Qasim <i>et al.</i> 2015, abstract 2046, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
Ramos 2015	Ramos <i>et al.</i> 2015, abstract 185, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
Schuster (Web Article) 2015	http://www.onclive.com/conference-coverage/ash-2015/high-response-rates-seen-with-car-t-cell-therapies-for-nhl
Schuster 2015a	Schuster <i>et al.</i> 2015a, abstract 183, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
Schuster 2015b	Schuster <i>et al.</i> 2015b, abstract 3087, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
Turtle 2015b	Turtle <i>et al.</i> 2015b, abstract 184, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015

<i>Turtle 2015a</i>	Turtle <i>et al.</i> 2015a, abstract 3773, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
<i>Wang 2015</i>	Wang <i>et al.</i> 2015, abstract S12, The Lancet - CAMS Health Summit, Beijing, China, October 2015
<i>Abramson 2016</i>	Abramson <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 4192, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Berdeja 2016</i>	Berdeja <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 14LBA, EORTC-NCI-AACR Symposium on Molecular Targets and Cancer Therapeutics, Munich, Germany, December 2016
<i>Brown 2016</i>	Brown <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 247, American Society of Gene & Cell Therapy 19th Annual Meeting, Washington, D.C., USA, May 2016
<i>Cancer Discovery 2016</i>	doi: 10.1158/2159-8290.CD-NB2015-178
<i>Chong 2016</i>	Chong <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 1100, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Enblad 2016</i>	Enblad <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 1534, American Society of Haematology, 57th Annual Meeting & Exposition, Orlando, FL, USA, December 2015
<i>Gardner 2016</i>	Gardner <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 614, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Geyer 2016</i>	Geyer <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 642, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Ghorashian 2016</i>	Ghorashian <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 4026, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Grupp 2016</i>	Grupp <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 221, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Lee 2016</i>	Lee <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 218, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Locke 2016</i>	Locke <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 998, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Neelapu and Locke 2016</i>	Neelapu and Locke <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract LBA-6, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Maude 2016a</i>	Maude <i>et al.</i> 2016a, abstract 217, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Maude 2016b</i>	Maude <i>et al.</i> 2016b, abstract 681, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Novartis news 2016</i>	https://www.novartis.com/news/media-releases/novartis-presents-results-first-global-registration-trial-ct1019-pediatric-and
<i>Ramos 2016</i>	Ramos <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 177, 2016 BMT Tandem Meetings, Honolulu, HI, USA, February 2016
<i>Schuster 2016</i>	Schuster <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 3026, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Shah 2016</i>	Shah <i>et al.</i> 2016, abstract 650, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Turtle 2016a</i>	Turtle <i>et al.</i> 2016a, abstract 56, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Turtle 2016b</i>	Turtle <i>et al.</i> 2016b, abstract 1852, American Society of Haematology, 58th Annual Meeting & Exposition, San Diego, CA, USA, December 2016
<i>Hucks 2017</i>	Hucks <i>et al.</i> 2017, abstract 7, International Society for Cellular Therapy, 2017 Annual Meeting, London, UK, May 2017
<i>Gill 2017</i>	Gill <i>et al.</i> 2017, abstract 7509, American Society of Clinical Oncology, 2017 Annual Meeting, Chicago, IL, USA, June 2017
<i>Buechner 2017</i>	Buechner <i>et al.</i> 2017, abstract ALL-152, Society of Hematologic Oncology, 2017 Annual Meeting, Houston, TX, USA, September 2017
<i>Mueller 2017</i>	Mueller <i>et al.</i> 2017, abstract ALL-152, Society of Hematologic Oncology, 2017 Annual Meeting, Houston, TX, USA, September 2017

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