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Techno-Economic Modelling and Assessment of Cultivated Meat: Impact of Production Bioreactor Scale

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11 Abstract

12 Increases in global meat demands cannot be sustainably met with current methods of livestock 13 farming, which has a substantial impact on greenhouse gas emissions, land use, and water consumption. Cultivated meat is a rapidly advancing technology that produces meat products by 14 proliferating and differentiating animal stem cells in large bioreactors, avoiding conventional live-15 16 animal farming. While many companies are working in this area, there is a lack of existing infrastructure and experience at commercial scale, resulting in many technical bottlenecks such as 17 scale-up of cell fermentation and media availability and costs. In this study, we evaluate theoretical 18 19 cultivated beef production facilities with the goal of envisioning an industry with multiple facilities 20 to produce in total 100,000,000 kg of cultured beef per year or ~0.14% of the annual global beef production. Using the computer-aided process design software, SuperPro Designer[®], facilities are 21 22 modelled to create a comprehensive techno-economic analysis (TEA) to highlight improvements that can lower the cost of such a production system and allow cultivated meat products to be 23 competitive. Three facility scenarios are presented with different sized production reactors; 42,000 24 L stirred tank bioreactor (STR) with a base case cost of goods sold (COGS) of \$30.4/kg, 210,000 25 L STR with a COGS of \$20.8/kg, and 260,000 L airlift reactor (ALR) with a COGS of \$13.0/kg. 26

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27	This study outlines how advances in scaled up bioreactors and decreased media costs are necessary
28	for commercialization of cultured meat products.
29	Keywords
30	Cultivated meat, cultured meat, cell-based meat, process and production facility modelling,
31	techno-economic analysis, mammalian cell culture, large-scale model
32	
33	Abbreviations
34	TEA, Techno-economic analysis; CM, cultivated meat; GHG, greenhouse gas; USP, United
35	States Pharmacopeia; STR, stirred-tank reactor; ALR, air-lift reactor; CAPEX, capital
36	expenditures; OPEX, operating expenditures; COGS, cost of goods sold; CHO, Chinese hamster
37	ovary cells; OUR, oxygen uptake rate; OTR, oxygen transfer rate; SS, stainless steel

38 1. Introduction

39 1.1 Challenges with conventional meat production

There is an increase in global meat demand due to an increase in population and income. Since 1961, total meat production has more than quadrupled (Ritchie & Roser, 2019). Globally, the most produced and consumed meat types are poultry, pork, and beef, and the total annual meat production is estimated at 328 million metric tons or 3.28 x 10¹¹ kg as of 2020, with an expected 14% increase in production by 2030, coinciding with an 11% global population increase (OCED-FAO, 2021). There are significant challenges to meeting the global population's nutritional needs and food preferences while also meeting environmental goals and supporting animal welfare.

The environmental sustainability of conventional meat production is an often-explored issue. In 47 recent years, global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from meat production make up 54% of all 48 agriculture-based emissions on a CO₂-equivalent basis (OCED-FAO, 2021), and the agriculture 49 economic sector (including crops, livestock, and land use) makes up around 17% of all global 50 51 GHG emissions (FAO, 2020). Looking at GHG emissions data in terms of kilograms of carbon dioxide equivalents (kg CO₂eq) generated per kilogram of food product, beef meat tops all foods 52 with 99.5 kg CO₂ eq/kg meat (Poore & Nemecek, 2018). Looking at resource usage, the dry mass 53 54 of animal feed required to produce one kilogram of edible beef product is 25 kg (Alexander et al., 2016), and there is a need for comparison of such environmental and resource metrics across 55 56 different food production technologies. These simple statistics make it clear that a new method of 57 food production is needed, one that is more efficient and capable of sustaining the growing population while also avoiding deleterious environmental effects. 58

59 **1.2 Opportunities for alternative protein and cultivated meat products**

In recent years, there has been growth in the investment and development of alternative proteins; 60 sources of protein from plants, algae, and filamentous fungi have been developed into meat-like 61 products. (Here we refer to plant-based meat, eggs, and dairy products that are designed to mimic 62 the consumption experience of the non-plant-based products) (Ignaszewski, 2021). This is an 63 active area of research with several success stories in large-scale commercialization, including 64 65 Beyond Meat, Impossible Foods, and Quorn. Environmental and life cycle assessments (LCA) show that when looking at the global warming potential, aquatic eutrophication, and land use, 66 alternative protein products perform better than currently conventional beef products, with the 67 exception of microalgae-based production (Barzee et al., 2022). 68

Another strategy for meat production that is gaining attention recently is cultivated meat or 69 cultured meat, abbreviated as CM in this study. This technology consists of growing animal cells 70 in vitro, beginning with a proliferation stage in cell-culture bioreactors, and then differentiating 71 the cells into muscle, fat, and connective tissue, and possibly growing them or 3-D printing them 72 on edible scaffolds, to replicate a meat texture without any livestock rearing or animal 73 slaughtering. CM products could increase the market slice of alternative protein "meat" foods 74 since CM products have the potential to more closely replicate the appearance, taste, texture, and 75 76 nutritional profile of any meat type, including beef, chicken, and fish. There are also claims of increased resource use efficiency (Thavamani et al., 2020) and the potential to create "designer 77 foods" with novel nutritional, flavor, and/or organoleptic profiles. Nonetheless, techno-economic 78 79 models and analyses are needed at this stage to identify the most promising biomanufacturing paradigms and to indicate where research and engineering efforts are most likely to reduce 80 81 manufacturing costs, capital costs, and environmental impacts.

Much of the early development of CM was based on mammalian cell culture technology 82 implemented in the biopharmaceutical industry, which is fundamentally different than the food 83 industry from both a scale and economic perspective. In particular, production scales and profit 84 margins are very different - mammalian biologic drug products are made in small volumes and 85 sold at high prices whereas food products are made in much larger volumes and sold at much lower 86 87 prices. The mammalian cell culture industry has a typical throughput of ~0.1-1 tons/year (Li et al., 2020; Oosterhuis, 2018) compared to a global beef production of $\sim 6 \times 10^7$ tons/year (Knight et al., 88 2022). Compared to the \sim \$10³-10⁴/kg prices of typical mammalian cell therapeutic products (Li et 89 al., 2020; Oosterhuis, 2018), the average export price of U.S. bulk processed beef in 2021 was 90 \$8.95/kg and the average wholesale price of choice grade beef in the U.S. was ~\$9.35/kg (USDA, 91 2022; USTR, 2022)(Market Insider, 2022; USDA, 2022). So, in order to be directly competitive 92 with beef, CM products, or at least the cost of production, must drop to a level below \$9/kg meat. 93

94 1.3 Existing techno-economic analysis (TEA) research for CM production

TEAs are computer-based simulations of manufacturing facilities (real or conceptual designs) 95 based on mathematical models for mass and energy balances for each unit operation and utilizing 96 necessary biological, engineering, and cost assumptions. TEAs are often used at the conceptual 97 98 design stage to evaluate the economic feasibility of alternative facility designs, identify economic and environmental "hot spots", and focus research and development efforts on process steps that 99 100 reduce manufacturing costs, capital expenditures, and environmental impacts. Such a model and 101 its corresponding economic outputs can give the scientific community a benchmark of how this technology could play out in the path towards commercialization of a product. In the context of a 102 103 CM TEA, biomanufacturing production models could utilize any cell type, although recently

published TEAs have focused on bovine cells considering the aforementioned challengesassociated with conventional beef production.

There are several published TEAs, which we summarize here to provide context for the TEA 106 presented in this study. One TEA model was created and published in 2020 by Risner et al with 107 detailed assumptions and scenarios, primarily modelled in Python and was limited to the 108 production bioreactors and associated costs (Risner et al., 2020). A 20 m³ food-grade stirred tank 109 bioreactor was modelled (without a seed train, medium preparation, or downstream processing), 110 and multiple reactors were combined to reach a target production of 121,000,000 kg of cultured 111 beef per year, which is ~1% of the United States market for beef. The medium used was Essential 112 8TM, an animal-free, or serum-free, medium with over 50 components. The prices of these 113 components were taken from a Good Food Institute (GFI) report which used vendor prices, 114 resulting in an exorbitant media cost of ~\$377/L (Specht, 2020). The base case scenario required 115 5,205 x 20 m³ bioreactors and a unit production cost of \sim \$4 x 10⁵ per kg to account for operating 116 117 costs and amortized capital expenses. In the best-case scenario presented, very optimistic technical and cost assumptions are implemented, including an inexpensive medium price of \$0.24/L, 118 extremely high cell density, efficient glucose/media consumption, significantly increased cell 119 120 growth rate, and a significantly decreased differentiation time. This ambitious scenario results in only 50 x 20 m³ bioreactors needed and a price of ~\$2/kg of CM (Risner et al., 2020). The platform 121 122 can be found on the following website: https://acbmcostcalculator.ucdavis.edu/.

Another TEA report released in 2020 by Humbird illustrates several striking points on the scientific and engineering challenges of large-scale CM production (Humbird, 2020, 2021). Furthermore, there is extensive analysis on the technical and economic design aspects of modelling a single CM facility, which in this study add up to meet an industry goal of 100,000,000 kg of beef

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per year. This TEA is primarily modelled in Excel, and presents overviews of model results for 127 two scenarios of production reactor operating modes: a fed-batch case and a perfusion case. These 128 models include a seed train along with media tanks, media and equipment sterilization, and a disk-129 stacked centrifuge for concentrating the cells. For the medium cost, rather than rely on current 130 vendor prices with production volumes that don't align with required amounts, the author used 131 132 actual price-volume data of commercial amino acids and recombinant proteins produced via microbial and mammalian cell fermentation (Arbige & Pitcher, 1989; BCCResearch, 2017; 133 Gotham et al., 2018; IHS Markit, 2019; Kelley, 2009; Sanchez et al., 2017). The compiled data for 134 amino acids and proteins and their corresponding logarithmic correlations were used in order to 135 estimate what a media component's price would be at the required annual volume. The equations 136 are reproduced below with Equation 1 representing the amino acid quantity-price correlation and 137 Equation 2 representing the protein quantity-price correlation. 138

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$$\log\left(\operatorname{Price}\left[\frac{\$}{kg}\right]\right) = -0.563 \log\left(\operatorname{Production Volume}\left[\frac{MT}{y}\right]\right) + 3.65$$
 Equation 1

140
$$\log\left(\operatorname{Price}\left[\frac{\$}{kg}\right]\right) = -0.861 \log\left(\operatorname{Production Volume}\left[\frac{MT}{y}\right]\right) + 4.90$$
 Equation 2

The amino acid data includes data from the production of cysteine, tryptophan, glycine, phenylalanine, glutamine, threonine, methionine, and lysine. The protein data includes the production of monoclonal antibody, chymosin, pectinase, glucose isomerase, protease, and amylase. Furthermore, Humbird also included scenarios where the amino acid requirements are replaced by a soy hydrolysate, further reducing costs. For perfusion operation, 96 bioreactors each with sizes of 2 m³ are required, and the cost of production is \$51/kg beef with the defined medium and about \$15.5/kg beef for the hydrolysate medium (Humbird, 2020).

148 Finally, in early 2021 a TEA report commissioned by GFI was prepared by CE Delft researchers

149 (Vergeer et al., 2021). This report is not based on a publicly available model, but rather it presents

results that are based on data from sixteen companies either developing CM products or active in 150 the supply chain. The production scale of this model is smaller than the other TEAs by an order of 151 magnitude, 10,000,000 kg meat/yr. Seed reactors are modelled with stirred tank reactors leading 152 up to multiple production reactors, which are 2,000 L perfusion reactors, and media component 153 prices are taken from Alibaba, individual suppliers, and literature. The base case results are based 154 155 on current technological abilities, but several scenarios are presented which show how technological innovations could bring down the COGS. The base case scenario with current 156 technology is based on a range of data with varying media usage and component prices, resulting 157 in a range of COGS from \$149/kg to \$22,422/kg. The scenario with the most technological 158 advancement, including extremely low media costs, reduced capital expenditures, higher cell 159 density, shorter production run time, and larger cell volume, results in a COGS of \$5.66/kg 160 (Vergeer et al., 2021). 161

These published TEAs have been restricted to maximum CM bioreactor volumes of 20 m³ and 162 larger-scale production bioreactors will likely be required for the CM industry to reach economies 163 of scale. Food ingredients have been typically produced in much larger production systems with 164 reactors up to 100-1,000 m³ (Li et al., 2020). In a recent publication by Li et al, the authors make 165 166 a case, based on computational fluid dynamics (CFD) studies, that mammalian cells could be grown in airlift bioreactors at a much larger-scale, up to 300 m³. The authors designed a 300 m³, 167 13.75 m tall airlift reactor with air sparging creating a circular flow of liquid, which avoids moving 168 169 parts like impellers and creates a more homogeneous shear stress distribution. Using CHO cell data in conjunction with the designed reactor, a fluid dynamics simulation was performed to study 170 171 the effects on mammalian cell growth on microcarriers and cell viability. It was found that a cell density of at least 2 x 10⁸ cells/mL and an oxygen uptake rate (OUR) of 9.2 mol/m³/s could be 172

supported by this bioreactor configuration (Li et al., 2020). There is also progress in addition to conceptual large-scale bioreactor designs as the company GOOD Meat has announced beginning construction of 10 new bioreactors for cultivated chicken and beef, each reactor with a capacity of 250,000 L (Carrington, 2022). Another source of inspiration for exploring large-scale ALR is the 155 m³ reactors used by QuornTM to produce large amounts of mycoproteinTM meat substitute (Moore et al., 2020).

To build off of this work and explore the possibility of much larger-scale bioreactors for CM 179 production, we present three novel TEA models for production of 100,000,000 kg of unstructured 180 beef per year using SuperPro Designer[®] with assumptions informed by CM researchers in the UC 181 Davis Cultivated Meat Consortium (CMC). The target 100,000,000 kg of cultivated unstructured 182 beef per year is in line with previous TEA studies, and this amount is approximately the equivalent 183 of one slaughterhouse in the U.S., or 0.16% of global beef production (Knight et al., 2022). We 184 compare three scenarios with different production bioreactor volumes and bioreactor types: 185 ~42,000 L stirred tank bioreactor (STR), ~210,000 L STR, and 260,000 L airlift bioreactor (ALR), 186 all operating in batch mode. In each scenario we include the seed train, medium preparation tanks, 187 medium and equipment sterilization, and partial downstream processing using a decanter 188 centrifuge, and we use the correlations provided by Humbird et al (2020) to estimate costs of 189 defined medium at scale. 190

191 **2. Materials & Methods**

192 **2.1 Model overview**

193 This analysis was performed by designing facility models using a process simulation tool, 194 SuperPro Designer[®] Version 12 Build 3 Special Build 2101 (Intelligen, Inc.). The models in this 195 work are publicly available at https://mcdonald-nandi.ech.ucdavis.edu/tools/techno-economics/. A free trial download of SuperPro Designer (https://www.intelligen.com/download/) can be used to view the models, run the simulations, and change process parameters/assumptions (although changes cannot be saved). The process flow diagram for the model facilities can be seen in Figure 1, each consisting of a seed train, the production bioreactor, and a simple decanting centrifuge for concentrating the cell mass.



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Figure 1: Process flow diagrams of A) 42K L STR production bioreactor; B) 210K L STR

- 205 production bioreactor; C) 260K L ALR production bioreactor.
- 206 2.2 Basic biological assumptions

At each fermentation step in the seed train, it was assumed that cells multiplied by a factor of 5, 207 typical of large-scale mammalian cell culture fermentations. Thus, each step takes nearly 54 hours 208 based on the base case assumption of a 23-hour doubling time (specific growth rate $\mu = 0.03$ hr⁻¹) 209 as measured at the lab scale. Each fermentation step starts at 20 g fresh weight per L (g FW/L) and 210 finishes at 100 g FW/L, a density which is close to the higher-end of densities typically seen in 211 212 mammalian cell culture and in simulations (Humbird, 2020; Jagschies & Łacki, 2018). Fresh weight is assumed to be composed of 30% dry cell mass and water (Humbird, 2020). The hydrated 213 cell mass for bovine stem cells was assumed to be the average for mammalian cells, 3×10^{-9} g 214 FW/cell with a 17.7 µm diameter (Humbird, 2020), so the final cell density at each fermentation 215 step is 3.3×10^7 cells/mL. Finally, differentiation time was set to 10 days for the base case. 216

217 2.2.1 Media and stoichiometry assumptions

For the base case, a medium specifically prepared for bovine satellite cells (BSCs) was used. This 218 serum-free medium is called Beefy-9 by the authors, and it is inspired from B8 medium used for 219 human induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs) with the basal medium being DMEM/F12 (Stout 220 et al., 2022). Even though Beefy-9 medium was used for the base case, one can easily change the 221 medium composition (a "stock mixture" in SuperPro Designer[®]) once individual components are 222 223 registered in the pure component database. Although differentiation medium is likely to have an altered composition, these changes were neglected in the analysis, assuming that the difference in 224 225 the cost between the two media types would be minor. The use of antibiotics in the medium was 226 neglected because of the additional cost and need to prevent antibiotics in the environment; it is assumed that sterile design and aseptic operations are sufficient to maintain aseptic operation. The 227 228 volume of fresh medium needed for each reactor is determined using the initial cell concentration 229 of 20 g FW/L and a 20% inoculation ratio (ratio of biomass inoculum volume from the prior step

to final working volume in the subsequent step). For the sake of simplicity, the stoichiometry
equation used was based on a mass factor of media required to yield the necessary final biomass
concentration of 100 g FW/L at the end of each growth step. Based on enhanced metabolism, the
yield of oxygen to carbon dioxide in the stoichiometry is set to 1.2 as a molar ratio, as reported in
literature (Humbird, 2020).

235 Using the concentrations in Beefy-9, a total yearly quantity of each media component was calculated. The cost of glucose was set to \$0.44 per pound in line with recent 2022 global sugar 236 237 prices, which are very high by historical standards (USDA ERS, 2022). Unit prices for each amino acid and protein were approximated from the quantity-price correlations of Equations 1 and 2 using 238 the calculated yearly quantity demanded. With regards to the vitamins, salts, lipids, and other 239 components, there were no such correlations available so prices were approximated with bulk 240 prices listed online using alibaba.com, made-in-china.com, or fischersci.com. Usually, these sites 241 provided a price range for bulk or food-grade products and reasonable judgement was used to 242 243 estimate the price from those ranges for the needed demand. For example, there is a required yearly quantity demanded for sodium selenite of about 20 kg, but since the exact bulk order amount could 244 not be found a listed range of \$18-\$50/kg for an order of 1 kg of sodium selenite was used 245 246 (Alibaba.com, 2022). Since the required quantity demanded is larger than 1 kg, \$18/kg, the lower bound of the listed price range, was used. Table S1 in the Supplementary Materials shows each 247 248 component of Beefy-9 and the corresponding concentration, yearly quantity demanded for the 249 model, and different cost metrics. The components other than glucose, amino acids, and proteins were collectively found to consist of a mere $\sim 0.17\%$ of total media costs, so these were left out of 250 251 the model, leaving a calculated media cost of \sim \$1.0/L.

252 **2.3 Engineering assumptions**

Each bioreactor is assumed to be made of food-grade 304 stainless steel (SS) material, rather than 253 the pharmaceutical grade 316 SS material, and each reactor is an ASME pressure vessel since 254 between fermentations it will be steam sterilized using a steam-in-place (SIP) system. A 255 differentiation step was assumed to occur in the production bioreactor at the end of the batch 256 fermentation step. Each CM facility produces enough biomass leading up to the final step to 257 258 simultaneously fill ten production bioreactors. This number was chosen so that seven of these reactors would hold cells differentiating in muscle cells, two would differentiate cells to fat cells, 259 and one would differentiate into connective tissue to approximately replicate a meat-like 260 261 composition of 70% muscle, 20% fat, and 10% connective tissue. The final step of the process is a decanting centrifuge with 2% losses to remove most of the water and media components, 262 resulting in a product that is about 97% FW meat tissue, 3% water, and less than 0.02% impurities. 263 This model neglects some additional downstream steps that might occur to make a finished final 264 product with the desired taste and texture, including dewatering, drying, filtering, extraction of 265 266 compounds, chopping, texturizing, flavoring, and packaging and labeling (Allan et al., 2019; Barzee et al., 2022). 267

Detailed calculations were made to ensure that the oxygen transfer rates (OTR), 12.8 mmol O₂/L/hr 268 269 for STRs and 13.5 mmol $O_2/L/hr$ for the ALR, were sufficient to meet the cellular oxygen uptake rate (OUR) of about 10.3 mmol $O_2/L/hr$, which is based on the maximum cell concentration of 100 270 g FW/L. This calculated OUR is on the same order of magnitude as measured OURs of individual 271 272 mammalian cells; 0.6-4.2 mmol/hr/L for mouse embryonic stem cells and 1.0-7.1 mmol/hr/L for CHO cells (Super et al., 2016). Also, the entire volume of media utilized was steam sterilized using 273 274 high temperature short time (HTST) sterilization. It was sized assuming a maximum of 1 275 contamination per 50 years. Before each fermentation, reactors have a steam-in-place (SIP) cycle and after fermentation there is a clean-in-place (CIP) cycle. Additional information and detailedcalculations can be found in the Supplementary Materials.

The pricing of bioreactors was carefully chosen to represent food-grade based reactor setups, rather 278 than pharma-grade. The textbook Plant Food Economics has cost data for common food-based 279 stirred tank reactors, and a correlation relating price to bioreactor sizes (using a power exponent 280 of 0.6) was used to price the STRs in this model using a base price of \$300,000 for a 20 m³ STR 281 (Maroulis & Saravacos, 2008). This method was also used to price the ALR from a listed price of 282 \$174,300 for a 190 m³ ALR in a publication led by the Swiss chemical processing company, Sulzer 283 Chemtech, Ltd. (Zuber et al., 1997). The following equation is the form of these price-volume 284 correlations. 285

$$C_2 = C_1 (\frac{A_2}{A_1})^{0.6}$$
 Equation 3

In Equation 3, C₂ is the cost for equipment with "size" A₂, C₁ is the cost for equipment with "size" A₁, and A₁ and A₂ can be attributes like reactor volume, filter area, etc. In the case of adjusting prices to the current year based on inflation, linear ratios of inflation indices are used, specifically the Chemical Engineering Plant Cost Index, CEPCI, was used (Access Intelligence, 2021; Yong, n.d.).

292 **3. Results & Discussion**

293 **3.1 Scenario analysis overview**

At the start of each seed train there is about 2-2.5 kg of FW biomass entering the first reactor. For the first case (42K L STR), there are six fermentation steps, including the main production reactor which is 41,734 L with a final working volume of 33,320 L. The other two scenarios at largerscales have an extra step for a total of 7 fermentations. The STR is 210,268 L with a working volume of 167,875 L and the ALR is 260,712 L with a working volume of 208,148 L. In each

case, the production bioreactor is the main scheduling bottleneck due to the differentiation time. 299 So, it was decided to stagger that step, or have extra sets of equipment, thus lowering the cycle 300 time or the time between the start of two consecutive batches. This allows for more batches to be 301 run in a year and creates an overall more productive facility. Scheduling can be visualized in Figure 302 S1 in the Supplementary Materials. For each scenario, there are 5 staggered sets of the 10 303 304 production reactors, meaning 5 x 10, or 50 production bioreactors. Although 50 large production reactors per facility is unusually high, this model indicates what might be possible for this industry. 305 This setup of staggered equipment in fact has the lowest COGS compared to other setups, as 306 307 demonstrated by Table S5 in the Supplementary Materials. Table 2 shows the basic scheduling and throughput results. Each facility was sized so that the throughput per batch and thus the 308 throughput per facility per year would be close to a whole number that can be multiplied by a 309 certain number of facilities to reach the industry goal of 100,000,000 kg of CM per year. 310

Table 2: Scheduling and throughput parameters for each of the three facility sizes and how thefacility sizes add up in an industry to meet the 100 million kg of CM product.

	Production Bioreactor Scale (L)					
	42 K STR	210 K STR	260 K ALR			
Facility Parameters						
Annual Operating Time (days)	330	330	330			
Batch Time (days)	24.0	26.3	26.3			
Cycle Time (days)	2.5	2.5	2.5			
Batches Per Year	123	123	123			
Throughput per batch (thousand kg)	32.5	163	203			

Throughput per facility (million kg/yr)	4	20	25			
Industry Parameter						
Number of Facilities	25	5	4			
Total Number of Production Bioreactors	1,250	250	200			
Total media flow (L/yr)	1.03 x 10 ⁹	1.03 x 10 ⁹	1.03 x10 ⁹			

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As expected, the number of facilities required drops as the production reactor size increases. It is difficult to predict exactly how facilities will be designed and sized, but this scenario analysis shows the expected trend that with increasing bioreactor size there will be fewer facilities and fewer bioreactors necessary to replace a portion of existing slaughterhouses that produce conventional meat. In Table 3, one can clearly see that the economics favor larger reactors. Note that depreciation would not be included in cash flow based profitability analysis such as discounted cash flow rate of return calculation.

Table 3: Breakdown of CAPEX and OPEX for each facility type and corresponding industry,

and the COGS with and without depreciation.

Economic Parameter	42 K STR	210 K STR	260 K ALR
CAPEX per facility (\$ million)	431	1,158	352
OPEX per facility (\$ million per yr)	122	420	325
CAPEX for 100,000,000 kg industry (\$ million)	10,770	5,789	1,408
OPEX for 100,000,000 kg industry (\$ million per yr)	3,043	2,098	1,301
COGS with depreciation (\$/kg)	30.4	20.8	13.0
COGS without depreciation (\$/kg)	20.8	15.7	11.8

Comparing the smaller scale 42K reactor scenario to the larger 210K STR, we see that although 324 the CAPEX and OPEX per facility increases with increasing reactor size, when looking at the 325 326 entire industry these parameters actually decrease at larger-scales because there are fewer facilities needed. With COGS (\$/kg) calculated as OPEX (\$/yr) divided by total production (kg/yr), we see 327 that COGS clearly decreases with increasing production reactor size. Looking at the third scenario 328 329 with the ALR, the COGS further decreases because of the larger size, but another difference between this case and the STR cases is the much lower CAPEX due to the more efficient and 330 cheaper airlift configuration. There are significant cost advantages with ALR, largely in part due 331 to the absence of moving parts like impellers for agitation, and there are other advantages such as 332 low shearing effects (Wang & Zhong, 2007). In order to determine which reactor type is best for 333 mammalian cells at large scales, more studies need to be performed and tested, including more 334 computational fluid dynamics studies as previously mentioned (Li et al., 2020). 335

336 3.2 Overall operating costs

337 Figure 2 demonstrates how certain categories make up this OPEX in each scenario. Total material costs remain similar across all three scales, but they make up an increasing percentage of total 338 OPEX. The main differences in OPEX are caused by the facility dependent costs. Larger 339 340 production bioreactors result in fewer facilities and fewer bioreactors needed, thus lowering total facility related costs. We see drops in waste and labor as fewer facilities are needed, but overall, 341 342 they play a minor role in OPEX. Since materials make up a significant portion of the OPEX, it is 343 necessary to look at the breakdown of materials in Figure 3. In Figure 3, we see that media costs make up 94% of the materials cost in the first scenario, and 98% in the larger-scale scenarios. This 344 change is due to the decrease in acid, base, and water usage from the fewer cleaning and 345 346 sterilization operations at larger scales.



Figure 2: Breakdown of industry annual operating costs (millions \$/yr) for each of the three
facility sizes: a) 42K L STR, b) 210K L STR, and c) 260K L ALR. Facility dependent costs are
associated with the capital expenses and they include maintenance, depreciation, insurance,

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Figure 3: Breakdown of total industry raw materials costs (millions \$/yr) for each of the three

356 **3.3 Media cost sensitivity**

taxes, and factory expenses.

357 The analysis presented thus far makes it clear that other than the CAPEX and other facility costs,

- a major bottleneck is the media cost, which makes up $\sim 34\%$ of the OPEX in the 42K L STR
- scenario, $\sim 49\%$ of the OPEX in the 210K L STR scenario, and $\sim 79\%$ of the OPEX in the 260K L
- 360 ALR scenario. Even using prices from scaled up demand-price correlations, the media cost at \$1/L

facility sizes: a) 42K L STR, b) 210K L STR, and c) 260K L ALR

is still a major cost contributor. Changing the media cost allows for a useful sensitivity analysisshown in Figure 5.





Figure 5: Sensitivity analysis of COGS vs media cost for each of the three scenarios, both a)
with depreciation and b) without depreciation. A horizontal dotted line is added at \$10/kg to aid
in visualizing the target range for a competitive COGS, ~\$0/kg-\$10/kg.

As mentioned in the introduction, in order to be competitive with conventional meat products, cultivated meat must at least have a COGS comparable to wholesale beef prices, about \$9/kg or less. We can see from Figure 5 that the first scenario, the smaller scale 42K L reactor, struggles to reach that \$9/kg target even with no media costs. The 210K L STR reactor reaches under \$10/kg COGS only when neglecting depreciation and when the media cost is less than or equal to ~\$0.45/L. Finally, the 260K L ALR reaches the target range when the media cost drops to about \$0.7/L or \$0.8/L.

These are merely future projections, and it is uncertain where the industry stands with current technology, either with bioreactor scale-up, media costs, or other issues. However, it is clear that many processes, namely those producing media components, much be massively scaled up. Media prices of \$377/L were used in previous studies (Specht, 2020), and Figure 6 makes it clear that using any prices based on small or lab scales, even an optimistic \$16/L with in-house production
of growth factors (Stout et al., 2022), results in uncompetitive economics. Figure 6 shows that it
is only once media prices approach \$1/L or less that CM products have a chance to be competitive
with conventional meat products, although there are certainly commercial opportunities for
specialized products that could command higher selling prices.



COGS (with depreciation) vs Media Cost

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To further highlight just how sensitive the cost of production is to the media costs, we can visualize the effects of media costs compared to other effects. Consider the best scenario with the ALR production reactor of 260 K L ALR. Figure 7 shows that reductions in the media cost have a more significant effect on COGS than reductions in the doubling time.



COGS as a function of Media Cost and Doubling Time

Figure 7: In the 260K L scenario, COGS is displayed as a combined effect of media costs (\$/L),
represented by the x-axis, and cell growth rate in doubling time (hr), represented by each color
category in the legend.

At higher media costs such as \$4/L, a six-fold reduction in the doubling time from 72 hours to 12 hours reduces the COGS only by about \$5.5/kg, but halving the media cost can reduce the COGS by about \$20/kg. It is only around \$1/L when a six-fold reduction in the doubling time results in a similar effect on COGS as halving the media costs. With no media costs and a 12-hour cell doubling time, the COGS gets to \$2.5/kg. Thus, biological improvements are still necessary, but the current pressing challenge is finding a cheap and efficient source of media to reach that regime of less than \$1/L media in order to quickly reach an economical cost of production.

401 **3.3.1 Production scale-up of media components**

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In addition to looking at a collective media cost, it is also useful to break it down into costs ofindividual components as shown in Figure 8.





Figure 8: Breakdown of media cost by component. In the pie chart, the costs per L media are
stated, and in the legend the percent's of media cost and individual costs per g of the component
are stated.

Among the top four most costly media components for this model are recombinantly produced 408 proteins: albumin, insulin, and transferrin. To visualize the state of scaling up these components, 409 consider recombinant transferrin as an example. This TEA model requires ~20,500 kg of 410 411 transferrin yearly, but based on personal communication and the \$14 million global market for transferrin in 2020 (Marketandresearch.biz, 2021), it was estimated that the total global production 412 capacity of transferrin is only 200-300 kg. Evidently, even outside of scaling up mammalian cell 413 culture, there is much infrastructure to be built in order to meet the necessary media demands of a 414 CM industry. 415

416 One can expect that there will be creative solutions technically and economically. CM companies 417 may decide to produce protein media components in-house rather than rely on purchases from 418 other companies. Furthermore, many components could be taken from the same source rather than

relying on individual production of each and blending all individual components together. One
could conceive of a process where a plant recombinantly produces one or more protein media
components, and the plant biomass could also be used as a hydrolysate providing the amino acids
components.

423 **3. Conclusions and Future Work**

424 As outlined in the introduction, there are multiple challenges with conventional meat production, particularly beef production. Notably, there are several resource inefficiencies and damaging 425 environmental effects. Beef production requires 25 kg of dry feed mass to produce 1 kg of meat 426 427 and it releases 99.5 kg CO₂eq/kg meat (Alexander et al., 2016; Poore & Nemecek, 2018). Our models show that not including water or cleaning solutions, only about 5 kg feed is required to 428 produce 1 kg of meat and only 0.1 kg CO₂eq/kg meat is released from the actual fermentation 429 process. Therefore, such advantages of CM must also be taken into account when assessing the 430 future viability and success of this technology. 431

The existing published TEAs on CM give a rough estimate of future CM economic viability. 432 However, they are limited in that they assume a maximum mammalian cell culture bioreactor scale 433 of 20 m³, and they do not dive deeper into the sensitivity of media costs and possible solutions. 434 435 Results from these TEA studies display a wide and uncertain range of COGS, from thousands of dollars per kg to a few dollars per kg in the most idealistic scenarios (Humbird, 2020; Risner et 436 437 al., 2020; Vergeer et al., 2021). This TEA study portrays the effects of a much-needed scale-up of 438 cell culture bioreactors combined with low media costs. At a base case of \$1/L for an estimated future media price, CM facilities with 42K L stirred tank production bioreactors have a COGS of 439 440 \$30.4/kg, facilities with 210K L stirred tank production bioreactors result in a COGS of \$20.8/kg, 441 and finally facilities with 260K L airlift production bioreactors have a COGS as low as \$13.0/kg,

all including depreciation. As the reactor scale increases, production becomes more efficient,
facility costs decrease as fewer reactors are needed, and economic profitability becomes most
dependent on media costs.

Initially, CM products will likely engage the market as high cost, low volume products before 445 advances are made to significantly lower the OPEX. For the large-scale airlift production reactor, 446 447 the COGS becomes competitive with a value under \$10/kg when the media costs drop below ~\$0.75/L. Further decreases in COGS for this model could be made if optimized ALRs are used 448 for the entire seed train, and it is possible that some innovative reactor configuration or operation 449 450 is developed to further maximize efficiency. Nevertheless, a pressing goal for the CM industry is securing a cheap source of media or working to scale up the infrastructure and production for 451 media components. Then, at such low media costs, improvements in biology such as growth rate 452 can have more significant effects on the economic outputs. A future iteration of this TEA study 453 will explore multiple sensitivity analyses to test other biological assumptions such as biomass 454 455 yield, cell density, and differentiation time. TEA model inputs and outputs can also be used to analyze the process mass intensity, energy consumption, and environmental, health, and safety 456 impact of the designed facilities to assess sustainability and environmental impact (Biwer & 457 Heinzle, 2004; Budzinski et al., 2019). These metrics can be compared with traditional animal-458 based meat production. SuperPro Designer[®] can also be integrated with Crystal Ball (Oracle, Inc) 459 460 Monte Carlo simulation capabilities with a COM library for uncertainty quantification. So, a future 461 analysis would consist of assigning a probabilistic distribution for each parameter to generate economic output distributions based on projected parameter uncertainty distributions. As CM 462 463 research advances, this model can be easily modified to incorporate improved assumptions, thus 464 informing both academic and industrial CM development of bottlenecks to commercialization.

25

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