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TITLE:

Synthesis and Bioconjugation of Thiol-Reactive Reagents for the Creation of Site-Selectively Modified Immunoconjugates

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Site-specific bioconjugation; site-selective bioconjugation; maleimide; thiol; sulfhydryl; radioimmunoconjugate; immunoconjugate

SUMMARY:

In this protocol, we will describe the synthesis of PODS, a phenyloxadiazolyl methyl sulfone-based reagent for the site-selective attachment of cargos to the thiols of biomolecules, particularly antibodies. In addition, we will describe the synthesis and characterization of a PODS-bearing bifunctional chelator and its conjugation to a model antibody.

ABSTRACT:

Maleimide-bearing bifunctional probes have been employed for decades for the site-selective modification of thiols in biomolecules, especially antibodies. Yet maleimide-based conjugates display limited stability in vivo because the succinimidyl thioether linkage can undergo a retro-Michael reaction. This, of course, can lead to the release of the radioactive payload or its exchange with thiol-bearing biomolecules in circulation. Both of these processes can produce elevated activity concentrations in healthy organs as well as decreased activity concentrations in target tissues, resulting in reduced imaging contrast and lower therapeutic ratios. In 2018, we reported the creation of a modular, stable, and easily accessible phenyloxadiazolyl methyl sulfone reagent — dubbed ‘PODS’ — as a platform for thiol-based bioconjugations. We have clearly demonstrated that PODS-based site-selective bioconjugations reproducibly and robustly

create homogenous, well-defined, highly immunoreactive, and highly stable radioimmunoconjugates. Furthermore, preclinical experiments in murine models of colorectal cancer have shown that these site-selectively labeled radioimmunoconjugates exhibit far superior in vivo performance compared to radiolabeled antibodies synthesized via maleimide-based conjugations. In this protocol, we will describe the four-step synthesis of PODS, the creation of a bifunctional PODS-bearing variant of the ubiquitous chelator DOTA (PODS-DOTA), and the conjugation of PODS-DOTA to the HER2-targeting antibody trastuzumab.

INTRODUCTION:

Radiopharmaceutical chemists have long exploited the selectivity and specificity of antibodies for biomarkers of disease for both nuclear imaging and targeted radiotherapy¹. Far and away the most common approach to the radiolabeling of antibodies is predicated on the indiscriminate attachment of radiolabeled prosthetic groups or radiometal chelators to amino acids — most often lysines — within the structure of the immunoglobulin (**Figure 1A**)². While this strategy is certainly effective, its random, non-site-specific nature can create problems. Specifically, traditional bioconjugation approaches produce poorly-defined and heterogeneous immunoconjugates composed of mixtures of thousands of different regioisomers, each with its own set of biological and pharmacological properties³. Furthermore, random bioconjugation can impede the immunoreactivity of antibodies if the cargo is appended to the immunoglobulin's antigen-binding domains.

Over the years, a variety of site-specific and site-selective bioconjugation strategies have been developed in order to address these problems^{4,5}. The most common of these approaches relies on the ligation of maleimide-bearing probes to the sulfhydryl groups of cysteines (**Figure 1B**). IgG1 antibodies naturally contain 4 inter-chain disulfide bridges, linkages that can be selectively reduced to yield free thiols capable of undergoing Michael addition reactions with maleimides to form succinimidyl thioether bonds. The use of thiols and maleimides is certainly an improvement over traditional methods, and a wide variety of maleimide-bearing synthons and bifunctional chelators are currently available. However, it is important to note that this methodology has serious limitations as well. Maleimide-based immunoconjugates exhibit limited stability in vivo because the thioether linkage can undergo a retro-Michael reaction (**Figure 2**)⁶⁻¹⁰. This, of course, can lead to the release of the radioactive payload or its exchange with thiol-bearing biomolecules in circulation (e.g., glutathione or serum albumin). Both of these processes can increase activity concentrations in healthy organs as well as decrease activity concentrations in target tissues, resulting in reduced imaging contrast and lower therapeutic ratios. Several alternative thiol-reactive reagents have been developed in an effort to circumvent these issues, including tosylates, bromo- and iodo-acetyls, and vinyl sulfones¹¹⁻¹⁷. However, all of these approaches have limitations that have hampered their widespread application.

About five years ago, the laboratory of the late Carlos Barbas III at Scripps Research Institute pioneered the use of phenyloxadiazolyl methyl sulfones as reagents for the selective formation of highly stable linkages with thiols (**Figure 1C and Figure 3**)^{18,19}. The authors employed a phenyloxadiazolyl methyl sulfone-bearing variant of fluorescein to modify several antibodies

engineered to contain free cysteine residues, ultimately producing immunoconjugates with higher stability than analogous constructs created using maleimide-based probes. Upon seeing this promising work, we were somewhat surprised that this technology had only been used scarcely in radiochemistry and had not yet been used at all in the synthesis of bifunctional chelators or radioimmunoconjugates^{20,21}. This dearth of applications, however, soon began to make more sense: several attempts at procuring the reagent from Sigma-Aldrich resulted in the receipt of complex mixtures of degradation products with <15% of the desired compound. In addition, synthesizing the reported reagent ourselves was not a realistic option either, as the published synthetic route is somewhat cumbersome and requires sophisticated organic chemistry equipment that most radiochemistry and molecular imaging laboratories — including ours — simply do not possess.

In response to these obstacles, we set out to create an easily accessible and highly stable phenyloxadiazolyl methyl sulfone reagent that can be obtained via a robust and reasonably facile synthetic route. Earlier this year, we reported the creation of a modular, stable, and easily accessible phenyloxadiazolyl methyl sulfone reagent — dubbed ‘PODS’ — as a platform for thiol-based bioconjugations (**Figure 1C and Figure 3**)²². The key difference between PODS and the reagent reported by Barbas, et al. is that the former employs an aniline ring attached to the phenyloxadiazolyl methyl sulfone moiety, while the latter features a phenol in the same position (**Figure 4**). This change facilitates a more straightforward and accessible synthetic route as well as — if our experience with the commercially available compound is emblematic — a more stable final reagent. In this work, we also synthesized a pair of PODS-bearing bifunctional chelators — PODS-DFO and PODS-CHX-A''-DTPA — to facilitate the creation of ⁸⁹Zr- and ¹⁷⁷Lu-labeled radioimmunoconjugates, respectively. As we will discuss, we have demonstrated that PODS-based site-selective bioconjugations reproducibly and robustly create homogenous, well-defined, highly immunoreactive, and highly stable radioimmunoconjugates. Furthermore, preclinical experiments in murine models of colorectal cancer have shown that these site-selectively labeled radioimmunoconjugates exhibit superior in vivo performance compared to radiolabeled antibodies synthesized via maleimide-based conjugations. The over-arching goal of this work is to facilitate the creation of well-defined, homogeneous, highly stable, and highly immunoreactive immunoconjugates for in vitro and in vivo applications. The synthetic approach is simple enough to be performed in almost any laboratory, and the parent PODS reagent can be modified with a plethora of different chelators, fluorophores, or cargoes. In this protocol and the accompanying video, we will describe the simple, four-step synthesis of PODS (**Figure 5**); the creation of a PODS-bearing variant of DOTA, a widely used chelator for the coordination of ⁶⁴Cu, ⁶⁸Ga, ¹¹¹In, ¹⁷⁷Lu, and ²²⁵Ac (**Figure 6**); and the bioconjugation of PODS-DOTA to a model antibody, the HER2 targeting IgG1 trastuzumab (**Figure 7**).

PROTOCOL:

1. The synthesis of 4-[5-(methylthio)-1,3,4-oxadiazol-2-yl]-aniline (1)

NOTE: Due to the light-sensitivity of the compound, keep all reactions in foil-covered vessels.

1.1. In a 10 mL round bottom flask, dissolve 100 mg (0.517 mmol, 1 equivalent) of 5-(4-aminophenyl)-1,3,4-oxadiazole-2-thiol in 3 mL of methanol.

1.2. To this solution, add 360 μ L of diisopropylethylamine (DIPEA; 2.07 mmol; 4 equivalents; anhydrous) and a small magnetic stir bar. Cover the flask with a rubber stopper and stir the solution for 10 minutes at room temperature.

1.3. Using a 1 mL glass syringe, poke a hole through the rubber stopper and quickly add 32 μ L (0.517 mmol, 1 equivalent) of iodomethane to this mixture. Allow the mixture to react for 45 minutes at room temperature.

NOTE: Due to the potential harmful effects of iodomethane, this reaction should be done in a chemical fume hood.

1.4. Set the water bath of a rotary evaporator to 40 $^{\circ}$ C and slowly reduce the pressure to remove the solvent to afford a white solid.

1.5. Dissolve the solid in 3 mL of ethyl acetate and wash at least three times with a 5 mL solution of 0.1 M sodium carbonate using a separatory funnel.

NOTE: Periodically take spot-tests of the aqueous phase under a UV lamp; once nothing is seen under the lamp, you can stop the washes.

1.6. Collect the organic phase in a separatory funnel and wash it with water until the pH of the aqueous phase reaches 6.8-7.0 (using pH paper).

1.7. Collect the organic phase and add magnesium sulfate to remove any traces of water.

NOTE: The magnesium sulfate should be added with a small spatula, after which the solution should be swirled. If fine particles of the drying agent are still seen, the solution is dry. If not, add small amounts of magnesium sulfate until fine particles can be seen.

1.8. Filter the mixture using a medium glass frit or filter paper.

1.9. Evaporate the volatiles using a rotary evaporator, a process which should produce the desired product as white needles.

2. The synthesis of tert-butyl[18-({4-[5-(methylthio)-1,3,4-oxadiazol-2-yl]phenyl}amino)-15,18-dioxo-4,7,10-trioxa-14-azaoctadecyl] carbamate (2)

NOTE: Due to the light-sensitivity of the compound, keep all reactions in foil-covered vessels.

2.1. In a 25 mL round bottom flask, dissolve 387 mg (0.92 mmol, 1.0 equivalent) of NBoc-N'-

177 succinyl-4,7,10-trioxa-1,13-tridecanediamine in 10 mL of dichloromethane.

178
179 2.2. To this solution, add 480 μ L (2.76 mmol, 3 equivalents) of DIPEA, 264 mg (1.38 mmol; 1.5
180 equivalents) of N-ethyl-N'-[3-(dimethylamino)propyl]carbodiimide hydrochloride (EDCI), and
181 200 mg (0.97 mmol, 1.1 equivalents) of **1**. Seal the vessel with a glass stopper and let the
182 reaction stir for 5 days at room temperature.

183
184 NOTE: Be mindful of the evaporation of dichloromethane. If needed, add more throughout the
185 week.

186
187 2.3. Wash the mixture in a separatory funnel with a solution of 1 M hydrochloric acid (3 x 5 mL).

188
189 2.4. Collect the organic phase and continue to wash it in a separatory funnel, first with a
190 solution of 1 M Na_2CO_3 (2 x 5 mL) and then with water (3 x 5 mL).

191
192 2.5. Collect the organic phase and add magnesium sulfate to remove any traces of water (see
193 Step 1.7). Filter the mixture using a medium glass frit or filter paper.

194
195 2.6. Using a rotary evaporator, remove the volatile solvents under reduced pressure to afford
196 an off-white solid.

197
198 2.7. Re-dissolve this solid in 10 mL of ethyl acetate and precipitate the product via the gradual
199 (e.g., 2 mL at a time) addition of 30 mL of cyclohexane.

200
201 2.8. Filter the solution with filter paper or a medium glass frit to obtain the product as a white
202 powder.

203
204 **3. The synthesis of tert-butyl[18-({4-[5-(methylsulfonyl)-1,3,4-oxadiazol-2-yl]phenyl}amino)-**
205 **15,18-dioxo-4,7,10-trioxa-14-azaoctadecyl] carbamate (3)**

206
207 NOTE: Due to the light-sensitivity of the compound, keep all reactions in foil-covered vessels.

208
209 3.1. In a 10 mL round-bottom flask, dissolve 30 mg (0.05 mmol; 1 equivalent) of **2** in 4 mL of
210 dichloromethane.

211
212 3.2. Slowly add in 49 mg (0.2 mmol; 4 equivalents) of 70% m-chloroperbenzoic acid to this
213 mixture and cover the reaction vessel with a glass stopper. Stir the solution overnight at room
214 temperature, ultimately yielding a yellow mixture.

215
216 3.3. Wash the yellow mixture in a separatory funnel, first with a 0.1 M solution of NaOH (3 x 5
217 mL) and then with water (3 x 5 mL).

218
219 3.4. Dry the organic phase with magnesium sulfate and filter the mixture using a medium glass
220 frit or filter paper.

3.5. Using a rotary evaporator, remove the solvents under reduced pressure to obtain the product as a pale solid.

4. The synthesis of N¹-(3-{2-[2-(3-aminopropoxy)ethoxy]ethoxy}propyl)-N⁴-[4-[5-(methylsulfonyl)-1,3,4-oxadiazol-2-yl] phenyl] succinamide (PODS)

4.1. In a 25 mL round bottom flask, dissolve 30 mg of **3** in 2.0 mL of dichloromethane.

4.2. Add 400 µL of trifluoroacetic acid and seal the flask with a glass stopper.

4.3. Stir the reaction mixture at room temperature for 3 hours.

4.4. Using a rotary evaporator, remove the volatiles under reduced pressure at room temperature, leaving an oily residue.

4.5. Dissolve the oily residue in 7 mL of water and, using a separatory funnel, wash with ethyl acetate (3 x 4 mL). Keep the aqueous layer.

4.6. Lyophilize the aqueous layer to afford **PODS** as a white powder.

NOTE: The molar absorption coefficients for **PODS** at 280 and 298 nm are 9,900 and 12,400 cm⁻¹M⁻¹, respectively.

5. The synthesis of **PODS-DOTA**

5.1. In a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube, dissolve 10 mg of **PODS** in 300 µL of dimethyl sulfoxide (0.018 mmol; 1 equivalent) and add 26 µL of N,N-diisopropylethylamine (0.15 mmol; 8 equivalents).

5.2. Dissolve 15.2 mg of DOTA-Bn-NCS (0.02 mmol; 1.2 equivalents) in 100 µL of dimethylsulfoxide and combine this solution with the solution from Step 5.1. Seal the microcentrifuge tube.

5.3. Allow the reaction to incubate overnight at room temperature.

5.4. Purify the product using reverse-phase C₁₈ HPLC chromatography to remove any unreacted DOTA-Bn-NCS.

NOTE: Retention times are obviously highly dependent on the HPLC equipment of each laboratory (pumps, columns, tubing, etc.), and appropriate controls should be run prior to purification. However, to present an example, if a gradient of 5:95 MeCN/H₂O (both with 0.1% TFA) to 70:30 MeCN/H₂O (both with 0.1% TFA) over 30 min, a semi-preparative 19 x 250 mm

C₁₈ column, and a flow rate of 6 mL/min are used, PODS, p-SCN-Bn-DOTA, and PODS-DOTA will have retention times of around 14.4, 18.8, and 19.6 min, respectively. All three compounds can be monitored at 254 nm.

6. The bioconjugation of PODS-DOTA to trastuzumab

NOTE: For this step, we started with a 16.4 mg/mL stock solution of trastuzumab.

6.1. In a low protein binding 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube, dilute 61 µL of the trastuzumab stock solution (1 mg; 6.67 nmol, 1 equivalent) with 859 µL of phosphate buffered saline (pH 7.4).

6.2. To this mixture, add 6.7 µL of a freshly made 10 mM solution of TCEP in H₂O (66.7 nmol, 10 equivalents).

6.3. Prepare a 1 mg/mL solution of PODS-DOTA in DMSO and add 73 µL of this PODS-DOTA solution to the reaction mixture (66.67 nmol, 10 equivalents).

6.4. Seal the microcentrifuge tube and incubate the solution for 2 hours at room temperature.

6.5. After 2 hours, purify the immunoconjugate using a pre-packed disposable size exclusion desalting column.

6.5.1. First, equilibrate the size exclusion column as described by the supplier to remove any preservatives present in the column during storage. A typical procedure involves washing the column 5 times with a volume of PBS that corresponds to the volume of the column: 5 x 2.5 mL of PBS.

6.5.2. Next, add the reaction mixture to the size exclusion column noting the volume of the reaction mixture.

6.5.3. After the reaction mixture has entered the column, add an appropriate amount of PBS to bring the total volume of solution added to the column up to 2.5 mL. For example, if the conjugation reaction resulted in a total volume of 1.3 mL, 1.2 mL of additional PBS would need to be added to the column.

6.5.4. Finally, collect the product using 2 mL of PBS as the eluent.

6.6. Concentrate the final immunoconjugate with centrifugal filtration units with a 50 kDa molecular weight cut-off.

REPRESENTATIVE RESULTS:

The first four steps of this protocol — the synthesis of PODS — have been designed to be robust and reliable. The deprotonation and substitution of 5-(4-aminophenyl)-1,3,4-oxadiazole-2-thiol to form the desired thioether product affords the thioether in >99% yield after just 45

minutes. Next, the ligation between **1** and N-Boc-N'-succinyl-4,7,10-trioxa-1,13-tridecanediamine was achieved via a standard peptide coupling procedure, resulting in the collection of the product (**2**) in 55% yield. Then, the oxidation of **2** was performed using m-chloroperoxybenzoic acid, a widely used oxidant. Following the washing steps, **3** was obtained as a pale solid in ~90% yield. Finally, the removal of the tert-butyloxycarbonyl protecting group from **3** was done according to standard procedures, using a 4:1 ratio of dichloromethane:trifluoroacetic acid. After the lyophilization of the aqueous phase, our product — PODS — was obtained as a white powder in 98% yield. The progress of the reaction was followed via thin layer chromatography, and the identity of each product was confirmed via ¹H-NMR, ¹³C-NMR, and HRMS-ESI (**Table 1**).

One of the principal advantages of the PODS reagent is its modularity. A variety of chelators, fluorophores, toxins, or other cargoes can be appended to the compound's pendant amine. In the protocol at hand, we are using the ubiquitous chelator DOTA (1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7,10-tetraacetic acid) as a representative payload. DOTA, of course, has been used in a wide range of biomolecular radiopharmaceuticals as a chelator for radiometals including ⁶⁸Ga, ⁶⁴Cu, ¹¹¹In, ⁹⁰Y, ¹⁷⁷Lu, and ²²⁵Ac. To this end, an isothiocyanate-bearing variant of DOTA (p-SCN-Bn-DOTA) was employed and coupled to the pendant amine of PODS via straightforward coupling conditions. The resultant bifunctional chelator was then purified via reverse phase C₁₈ HPLC and isolated in ~75% yield. As with the other precursors, the progress of the reaction was followed via thin layer chromatography, and the identity of the product was confirmed via ¹H-NMR, ¹³C-NMR, and HRMS-ESI (**Table 1**).

In the final step of the protocol, we discuss the site-selective bioconjugation of PODS-DOTA to a model immunoglobulin, the HER2-targeting antibody trastuzumab. To this end, the disulfide linkages of the antibody's hinge region are selectively reduced with the reducing agent TCEP [tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine]. Following this reduction step, the antibody is incubated with PODS-DOTA for 2 h at room temperature and subsequently purified via size exclusion chromatography. In this case, the purified, DOTA-bearing immunoconjugate was obtained in ~80% yield, and MALDI-ToF analysis revealed a degree of labeling (DOL) of ~1.8 DOTA/mAb. Generally speaking, we have found that 10 equivalents of TCEP, 10 equivalents of the PODS reagent, and a 2 h incubation are sufficient to yield an immunoconjugate with a DOL of 2 PODS/mAb (**Table 2**). This result remains consistent across a range of human, humanized, and chimeric IgG1 antibodies; however, the same conditions produce immunoconjugates with a DOL of only ~1.5 when working with murine IgG1 antibodies. All this said, researchers should optimize these reaction conditions for new antibodies and PODS-bearing cargoes. Finally, and importantly, with respect to the final product, we have repeatedly and reproducibly found that PODS-based immunoconjugates exhibit immunoreactivities equal to or better than analogous constructs created using random or maleimide-based conjugation strategies.

FIGURE AND TABLE LEGENDS:

Figure 1. Schematic illustration of bioconjugations using (A) amine-reactive, (B) maleimide-bearing, and (C) PODS-bearing cargoes.

Figure 2. The Michael addition of a thiol-bearing biomolecule (green) and a radionuclide-bearing maleimide (yellow) to form a radiolabeled bioconjugate, as well as the additional reactions that the radiolabeled construct can undergo in the presence of endogenous thiol-bearing molecules (pink). RT = Room temperature. Figure reprinted with permission from Adumeau, P., Davydova, M., Zeglis, B. M. Thiol-Reactive Bifunctional Chelators for the Creation of Site-Selectively Modified Radioimmunoconjugates with Improved Stability. *Bioconjugate Chemistry*. **29**, 1364-1372 (2018). Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

Figure 3. Schematic of the reaction between PODS and a thiol. Figure reprinted with permission from Adumeau, P., Davydova, M., Zeglis, B. M. Thiol-Reactive Bifunctional Chelators for the Creation of Site-Selectively Modified Radioimmunoconjugates with Improved Stability. *Bioconjugate Chemistry*. **29**, 1364-1372 (2018). Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

Figure 4. The structure of PODS as well as the reagent reported by Barbas, et al.^{18,19}

Figure 5 Scheme of the four-step synthesis of PODS. Figure reprinted with permission from Adumeau, P., Davydova, M., Zeglis, B. M. Thiol-Reactive Bifunctional Chelators for the Creation of Site-Selectively Modified Radioimmunoconjugates with Improved Stability. *Bioconjugate Chemistry*. **29**, 1364-1372 (2018). Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

Figure 6. Scheme of the synthesis of PODS-DOTA

Figure 7. Scheme of the bioconjugation of trastuzumab with PODS-DOTA.

Figure 8. Comparison of the in vivo behavior of ⁸⁹Zr-labeled radioimmunoconjugates of huA33 created using PODS-based (⁸⁹Zr-DFO-PODS-huA33) and maleimide-based (⁸⁹Zr-DFO-mal-huA33) bioconjugation strategies. Planar (left) and maximum intensity projection (right) PET images of athymic nude mice bearing A33 antigen-expressing SW1222 colorectal cancer xenografts (white arrow) following the injection of ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-PODS-huA33 and ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-mal-huA33 (140 µCi, 60-65 µg). The coronal slices intersect the center of the tumors. Figure reprinted with permission from Adumeau, P., Davydova, M., Zeglis, B. M. Thiol-Reactive Bifunctional Chelators for the Creation of Site-Selectively Modified Radioimmunoconjugates with Improved Stability. *Bioconjugate Chemistry*. **29**, 1364-1372 (2018). Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

Figure 9. Comparison of the in vivo behavior of ⁸⁹Zr-labeled radioimmunoconjugates of huA33 created using PODS-based (⁸⁹Zr-DFO-PODS-huA33) and maleimide-based (⁸⁹Zr-DFO-mal-huA33) bioconjugation strategies. Biodistribution data after the administration of ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-PODS-huA33 and ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-mal-huA33 (30 µCi, 15-18 µg) to athymic nude mice bearing A33 antigen-expressing subcutaneous SW1222 human colorectal cancer xenografts. The values for the stomach, small intestine, and large intestine include contents. Figure reprinted with permission from Adumeau, P., Davydova, M., Zeglis, B. M. Thiol-Reactive Bifunctional Chelators for the Creation of Site-Selectively Modified Radioimmunoconjugates with Improved Stability. *Bioconjugate Chemistry*. **29**, 1364-1372 (2018). Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

Table 1. Characterization data for the synthetic intermediates described as well as PODS and PODS-DOTA.

Table 2. Degree of labeling of different antibodies following conjugation with a PODS-bearing fluorophore. Values are shown \pm standard deviations. Table reprinted with permission from Adumeau, P., Davydova, M., Zeglis, B. M. Thiol-Reactive Bifunctional Chelators for the Creation of Site-Selectively Modified Radioimmunoconjugates with Improved Stability. *Bioconjugate Chemistry*. **29**, 1364-1372 (2018). Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

DISCUSSION:

In this report, we have chosen not to include any protocols for radiolabeling or in vivo experimentation. Our reasons are straightforward. With respect to the former, the radiolabeling of a PODS-based immunoconjugate does not differ at all from that of an immunoconjugate synthesized using other bioconjugation strategies, and these procedures have been comprehensively reviewed elsewhere². With regard to the latter, the specifics of preclinical in vivo experiments (i.e., mouse models, doses, etc.) can vary broadly according to both the application and the antibody/antigen system.

Our previous investigations with ⁸⁹Zr-labeled variants of huA33 provide a compelling illustration of the advantages of PODS-based bioconjugations. HuA33 is a humanized IgG1 antibody that targets the A33 antigen, a transmembrane glycoprotein expressed on >95% of colorectal cancers^{23,24}. In our previous manuscript²², we report the synthesis of ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-huA33 radioimmunoconjugate using both PODS- and maleimide-based bioconjugation strategies. The two radiolabeled antibodies — ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-PODS-huA33 and ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-mal-huA33 — were produced in nearly identical yield, purity, specificity activity, and immunoreactivity. Critically, however, the two radioimmunoconjugates exhibited dramatically different stabilities in human serum: after incubation for seven days at 37 °C, ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-PODS-huA33 remained $86 \pm 1\%$ intact, while its maleimide-based cousin was only $61 \pm 5\%$ intact. In vivo PET imaging and biodistribution experiments in athymic nude mice bearing A33 antigen-expressing SW1222 human colorectal cancer xenografts revealed stark differences in the in vivo behavior of the two radioimmunoconjugates (**Figure 8 and Figure 9**). Both ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-PODS-huA33 and ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-mal-huA33 produce high activity concentrations in tumor tissue: $56.4 \pm 6.9\%$ ID/g and $49.6 \pm 9.3\%$ ID/g, respectively, 48 h after administration. However, the maleimide-based radioimmunoconjugate produced significantly higher activity concentrations in healthy tissues than the PODS-based agent. For example, ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-mal-huA33 produced activity concentrations of 3.1 ± 0.5 , 2.7 ± 0.4 , and $12.2 \pm 0.4\%$ ID/g in the kidneys, liver, and bone, respectively, at 120 h post-injection, values which dramatically exceed the activity concentrations produced by ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-PODS-huA33 in the same tissues (1.4 ± 0.1 , 1.2 ± 0.3 , and $4.3 \pm 0.6\%$ ID/g). Indeed, ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-PODS-huA33 produced lower activity concentrations in all non-target tissues (except the large intestine) at 120 h post-injection compared to ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-mal-huA33. As a result, the tumor-to-organ activity concentration ratios for ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-PODS-huA33 are generally superior to those of ⁸⁹Zr-DFO-mal-huA33; in particular, the tumor-to-liver, tumor-to-spleen, tumor-to-kidney, and tumor-to-bone activity concentration ratios are nearly double for the PODS-based immunoconjugate compared to its maleimide-derived cousin.

440 Considering that the principal difference between the two radioimmunoconjugates was the
441 bioconjugation handle of the chelator, the increased stability of the PODS-thiol linkage is almost
442 certainly responsible for this improved in vivo performance.

443
444 Taking a broader view, the non-site-selective bioconjugation of probes to lysines within
445 antibodies is admittedly a straightforward and facile approach to the modification of
446 antibodies. However, the presence of multiple lysines distributed throughout the structure of
447 immunoglobulins means that it is impossible to exert control over the precise site or degree of
448 bioconjugation². As a result, this random strategy often produces poorly-defined and highly
449 heterogeneous immunoconjugates that can exhibit decreased immunoreactivity if ligations
450 occur within the antigen-binding domains³. The benefits of site-selective approaches to
451 bioconjugation have been illustrated repeatedly for both radioimmunoconjugates and
452 antibody-drug conjugates^{8,14,25-30}. In short, not only do site-selective bioconjugation strategies
453 produce more well-defined and homogenous immunoconjugates than traditional
454 methodologies, they also create imaging agents, radioimmunotherapeutics, and ADCs with
455 improved in vivo performance. Yet where do PODS-based ligations stand in comparison to
456 other site-selective modification strategies? Generally speaking, the approaches to the site-
457 selective modification of antibodies can be classified into four categories: (1) ligations to
458 cysteine residues, (2) the manipulation of the heavy chain glycans, (3) chemoenzymatic
459 transformations, and (4) the use of genetic engineering^{4,5}. Of course, this classification system is
460 not perfect, and some approaches (e.g., the modification of the heavy chain glycans with
461 enzymes) inevitably qualify for two categories. Each strategy has its own advantages and
462 disadvantages. Genetic engineering-based approaches provide exquisite control over the site of
463 conjugation, yet they are complex and expensive³¹⁻³³. Oxidative couplings to the heavy chain
464 glycans are inexpensive and straightforward, yet they risk oxidative damage to the structural
465 integrity of the immunoglobulin³⁴⁻³⁸.

466
467 The chief advantage of thiol-based bioconjugations — PODS included — is their simplicity and
468 modularity. Their principal limitation, on the other hand, stems from the presence of multiple
469 thiols within an antibody, a trait which reduces the degree of control over both the site of
470 conjugation and the number of modifications per antibody. In this sense, the combination of
471 thiol-based ligations and antibodies that have been genetically engineered to possess free
472 cysteine residues is a particularly attractive approach. As we have noted, another limitation of
473 maleimide-based thiol ligations is the susceptibility of the succinimidyl thioether bond to retro-
474 Michael additions in vivo. Yet critically, the use of PODS abrogates this problem.

475
476 Before we conclude, it is important to note that the emergent nature of PODS technology can
477 create its own set of obstacles. For example, no PODS-bearing bifunctional chelators are
478 (currently) commercially available, and there is no data addressing the clinical pharmacology,
479 toxicology, or immunogenicity of PODS-based immunoconjugates. However, we believe that
480 PODS-based bioconjugations have the potential to fundamentally change the way
481 immunoconjugates are synthesized in both the laboratory and clinic. At present, we have only
482 applied this chemical technology to the development of radioimmunoconjugates for nuclear
483 imaging and radioimmunotherapy, though investigations into the utility of this approach for the

construction of antibody-drug conjugates and other biomolecular medicines are currently underway. In the end, we earnestly hope that this protocol — and particularly the straightforward and simple chemistry that we have developed — will help promote the use of phenyloxadiazolyl methyl sulfones for sulfhydryl-based conjugations and spur a shift in the field from maleimides to more stable and more reliable alternatives.

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The authors have nothing to disclose.

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A.

H_2N $-\text{NH}_2$

Amine-Reactive Cargo

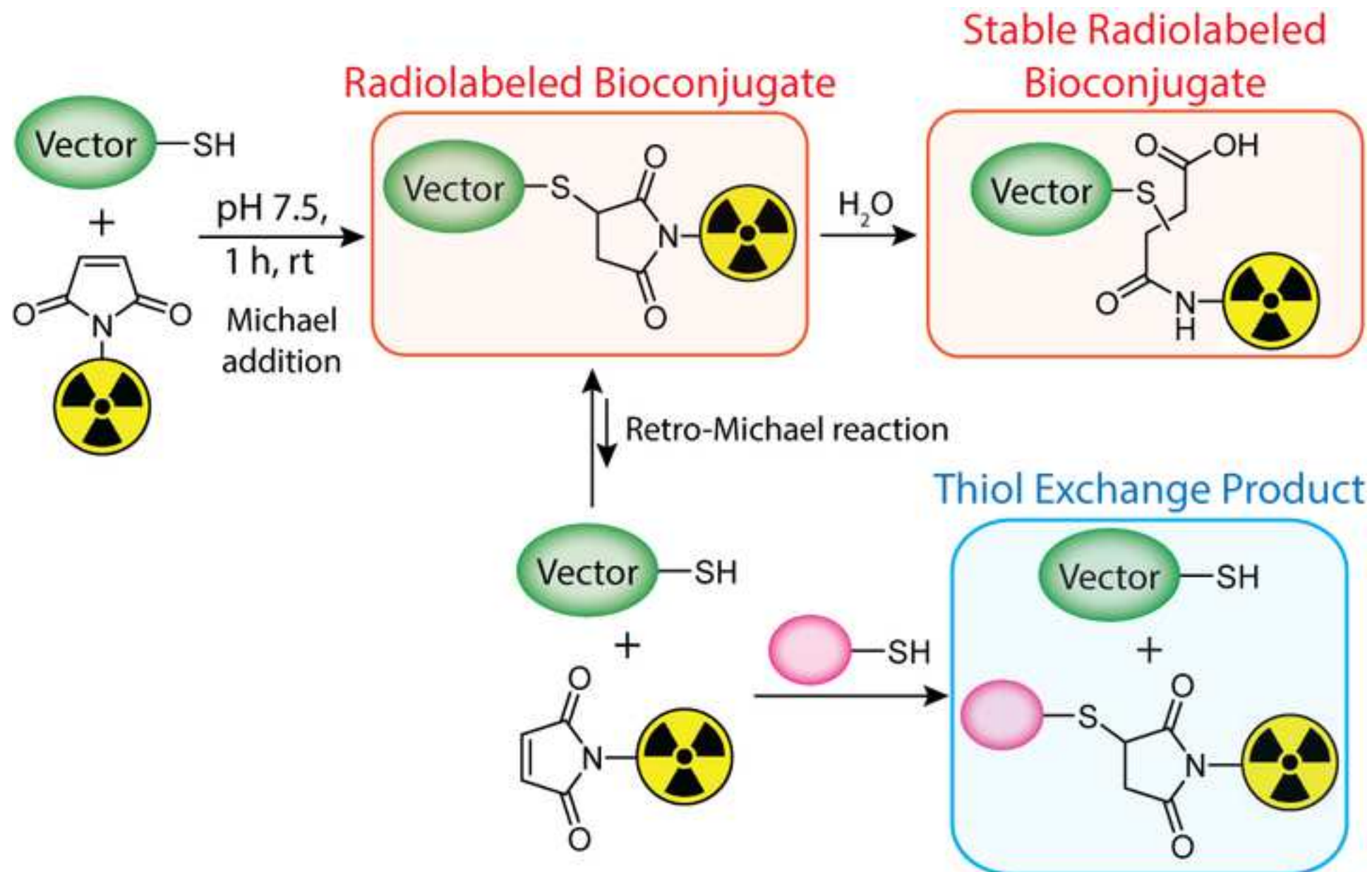
B.

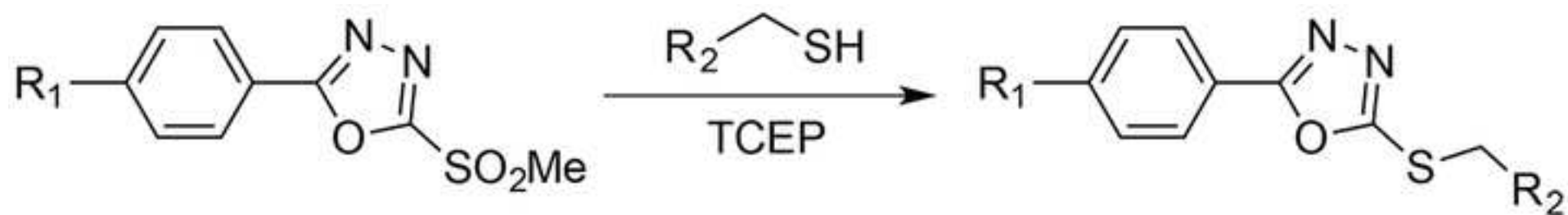
1. Reducing Agent
2. Maleimide-Bearing Cargo

C.

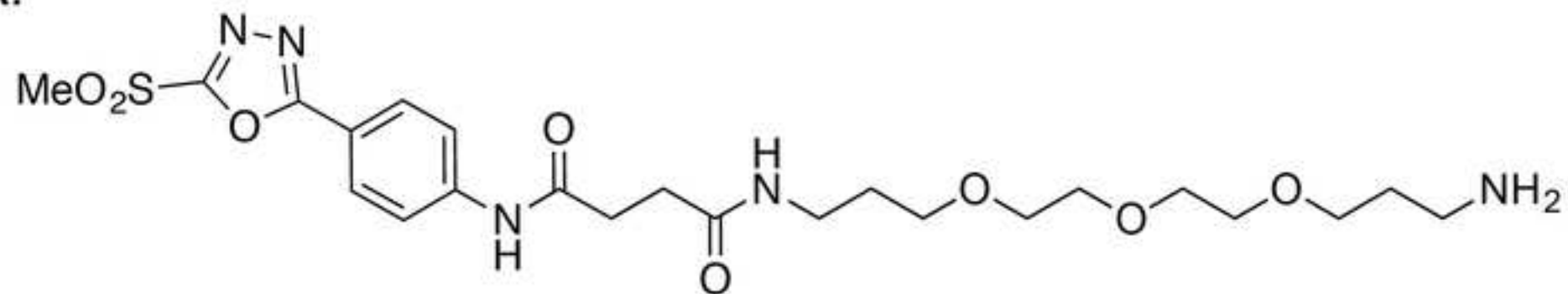
MeO₂S $\text{N}=\text{N}$ O C_6H_4

1. Reducing Agent
2. PODS-Bearing Cargo

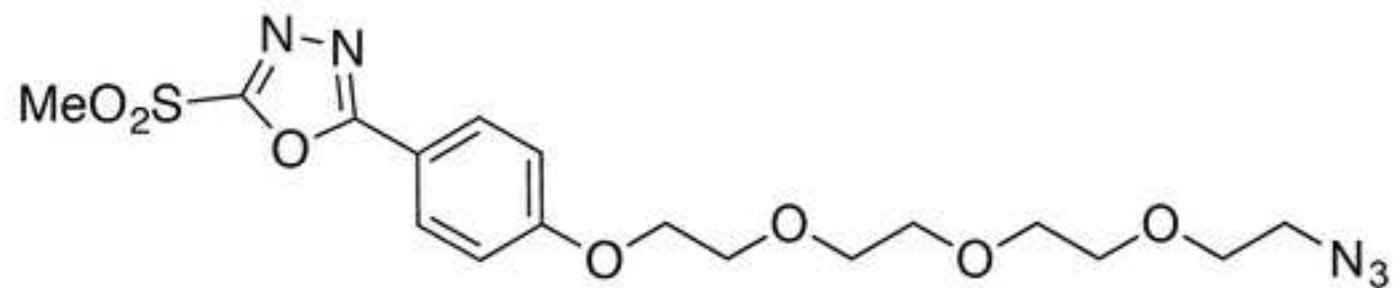




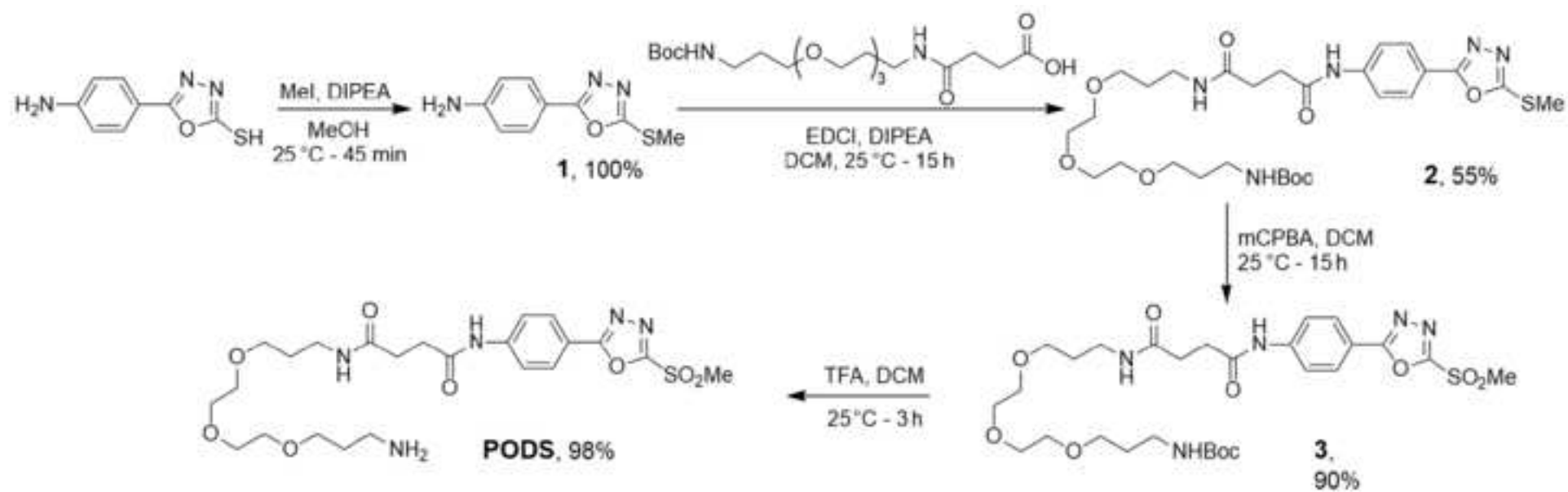
A.



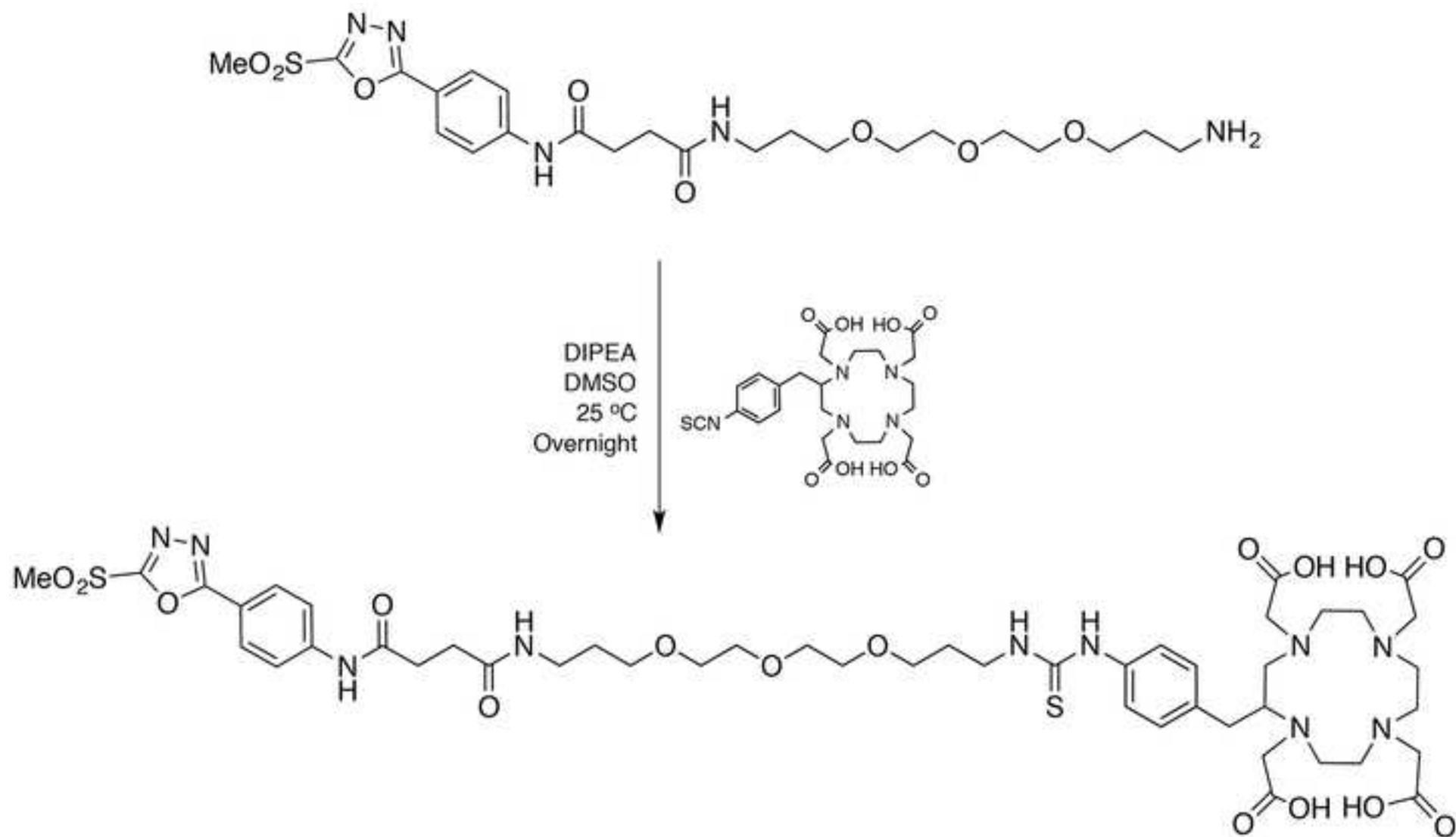
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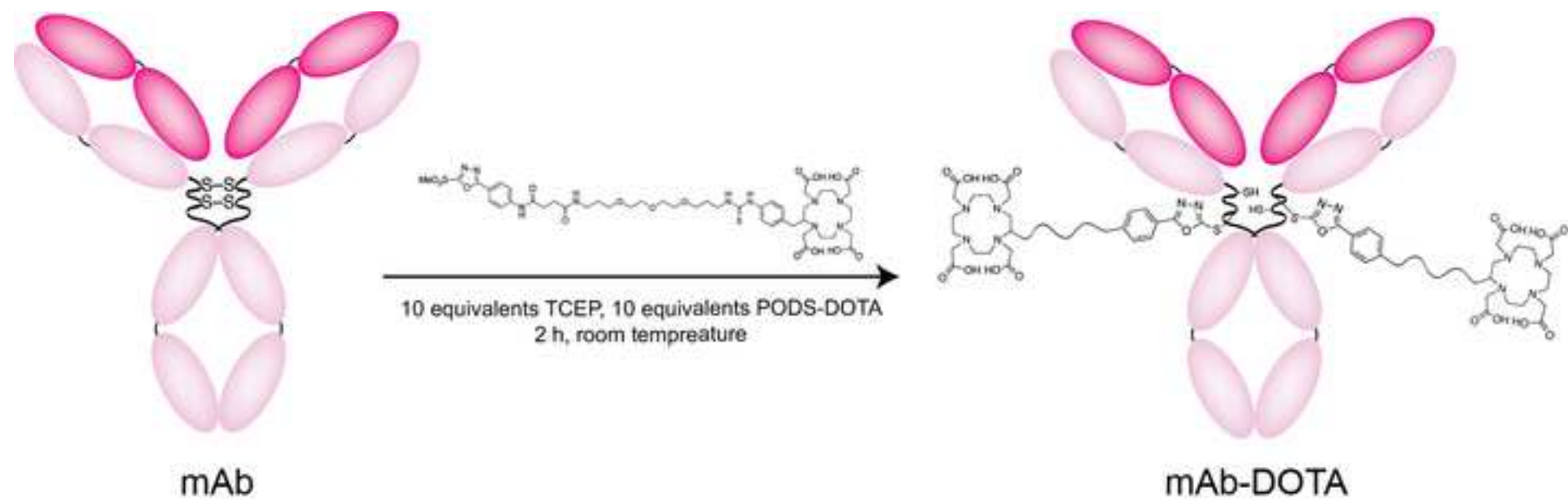


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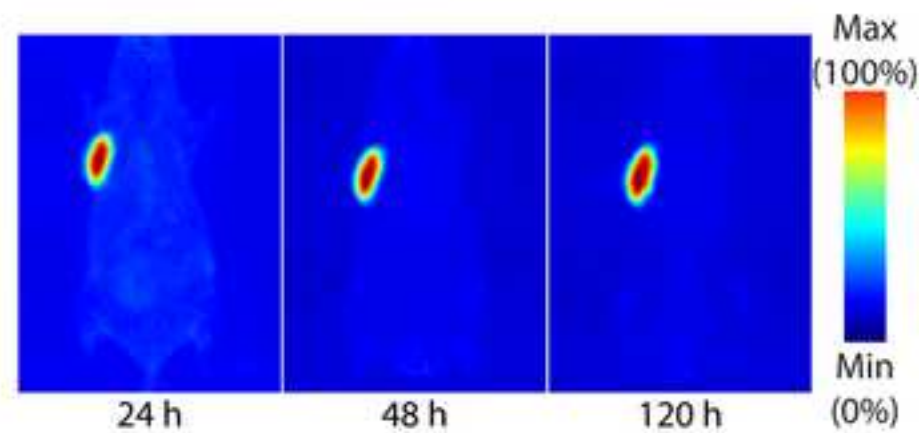
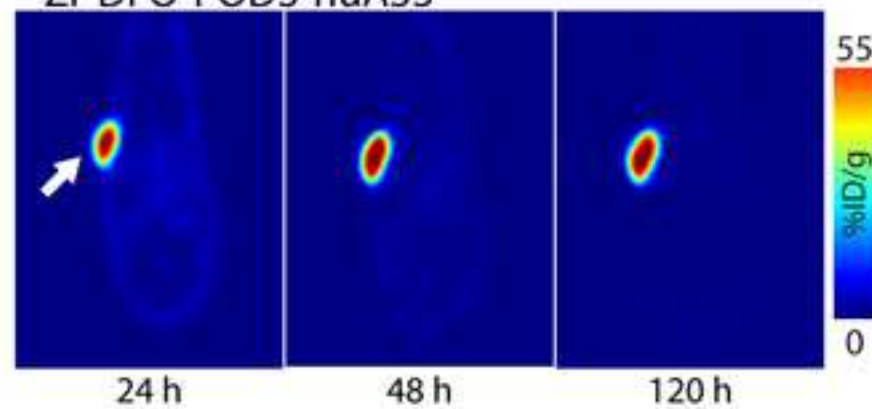


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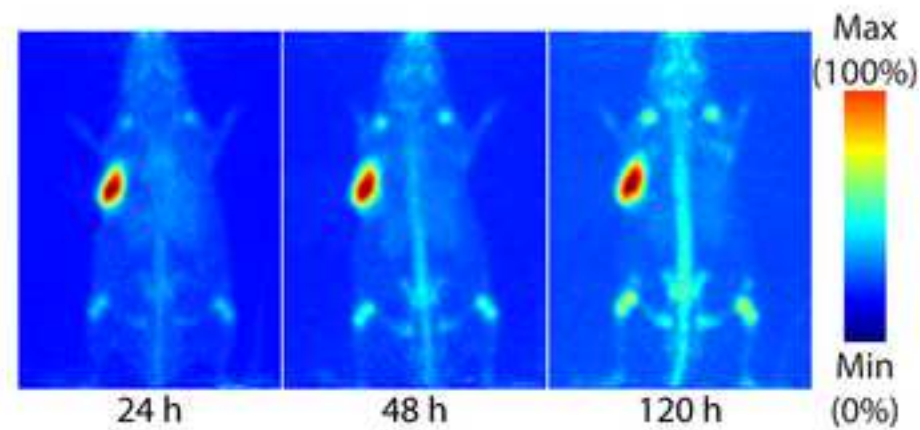
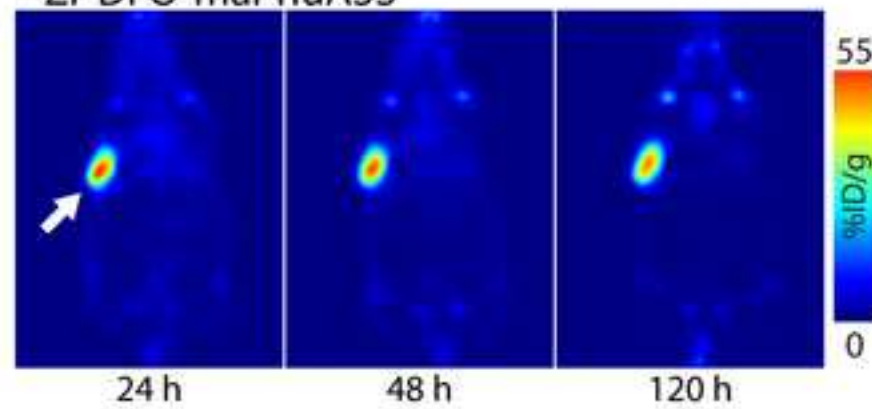




^{89}Zr -DFO-PODS-huA33



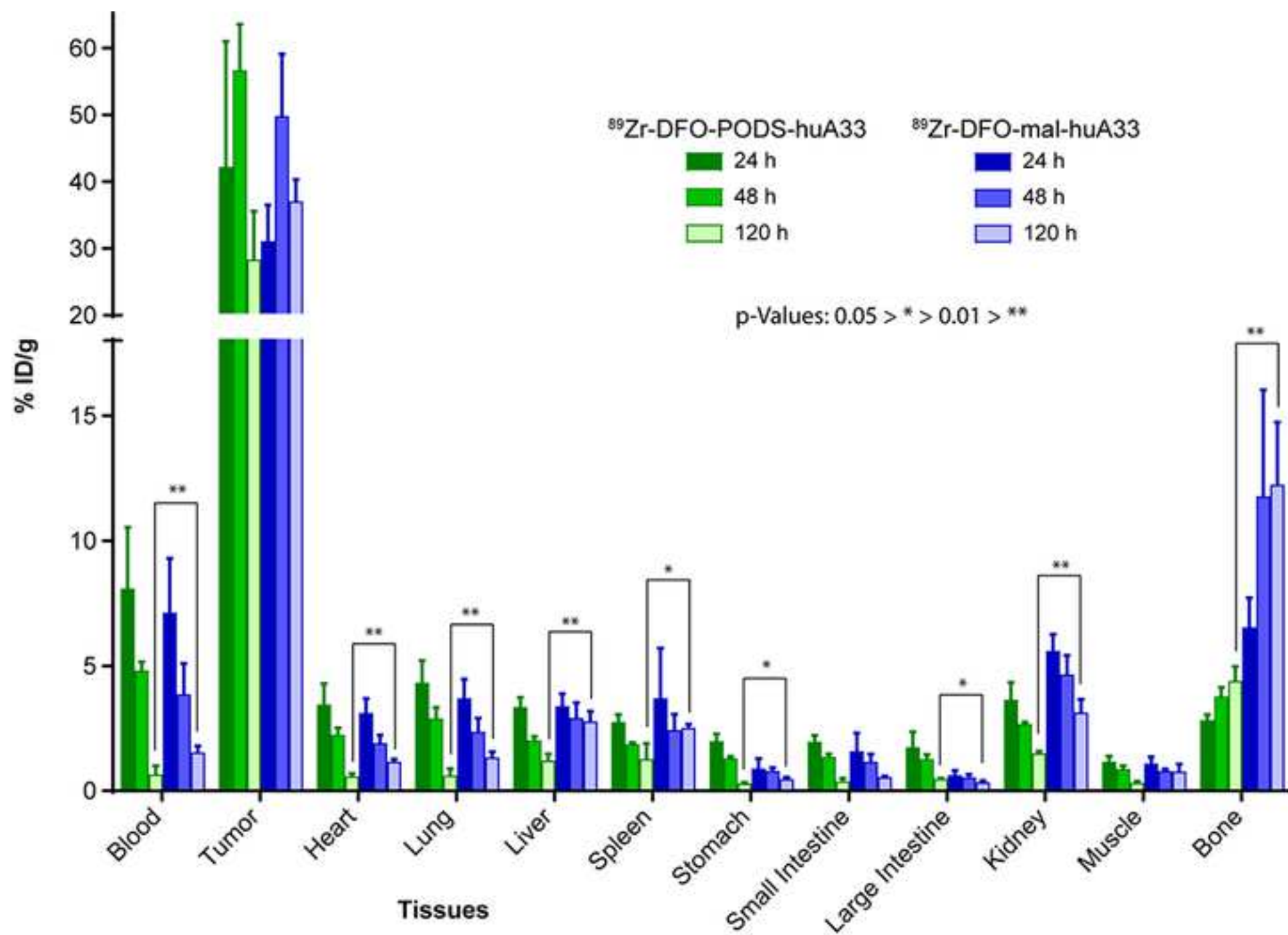
^{89}Zr -DFO-mal-huA33



Coronal slices

MIPs

Figure 9



Compound	¹ H-NMR Shifts	¹³ C-NMR Shifts
1	(500 MHz, CDCl ₃) 7.79 (2H, d, J = 8.5 Hz), 6.72 (2H, d, J = 8.5 Hz), 4.04 (2H, br s), 2.75 (3H, s)	(125 MHz, CDCl ₃) 166.3, 163.7, 149.7, 128.5, 114.8, 113.5, 14.8
2	(500 MHz, CDCl ₃) 9.68 (1H, s), 7.91 (2H, d, J = 9.0 Hz), 7.71 (2H, d, J = 8.5 Hz), 6.82 (1H, s), 4.99 (1H, s), 3.70-3.45 (12H, m), 3.41 (2H, q, J = 6.0 Hz), 3.20 (2H, q, J = 6.5 Hz), 2.76 (3H, s), 2.71 (2H, m), 2.63 (2H, m), 1.80-1.70 (4H, m), 1.42 (9H, s)	(125 MHz, CDCl ₃) 172.6, 171.3, 165.8, 164.6, 156.2, 141.8, 127.7, 119.6, 118.6, 79.2, 70.6, 70.5, 70.3, 70.1, 69.6, 38.8, 38.5, 33.5, 31.6, 29.9, 28.6, 14.8
3	(500 MHz, CDCl ₃) 9.99 (1H, s), 7.98 (2H, d, J = 9.0 Hz), 7.75 (2H, d, J = 8.5 Hz), 6.88 (1H, s), 4.99 (1H, s), 3.66-3.50 (15H, m), 3.41 (2H, q, J = 6.0 Hz), 3.20 (2H, q, J = 6.5 Hz), 2.71 (2H, m), 2.65 (2H, m), 1.80-1.70 (4H, m), 1.43 (9H, s)	(125 MHz, CDCl ₃) 172.6, 171.5, 166.5, 161.6, 156.1, 143.4, 128.7, 119.6, 116.4, 79.1, 70.5, 70.4, 70.2, 70.0, 69.4, 43.0, 38.8, 38.4, 33.2, 31.3, 29.7, 28.4

PODS	(500 MHz, D ₂ O) 7.85 (2H, d, J = 9.0 Hz), 7.55 (2H, d, J = 8.5 Hz), 3.60-3.45 (15H, m), 3.45 (2H, t, J = 6.5 Hz), 3.20 (2H, t, J = 6.5 Hz), 3.04 (2H, t, J = 7.0 Hz), 2.67 (2H, t, J = 6.5 Hz), 2.54 (2H, t, J = 6.5 Hz), 1.87 (2H, qt, J = 6.5 Hz), 1.70 (2H, qt, J = 6.5 Hz)	(125 MHz, D ₂ O) 174.5, 173.2, 166.8, 161.4, 142.2, 128.6, 120.3, 116.6, 69.4, 69.4, 69.3, 69.2, 68.2, 68.2, 42.5, 37.6, 36.2, 31.9, 30.7, 28.2, 26.4
PODS-DOTA	(600 MHz, DMSO-d ₆) 10.46 (1H, s), 9.74 (1H, bs), 8.04 (2H, d, J = 8.6 Hz), 7.99 (1H, s), 7.90 (1H, t, J = 5.0 Hz), 7.86 (2H, d, J = 6.5 Hz), 7.44 (2H, d, J = 7.9 Hz), 7.24 (2H, d, J = 7.1 Hz), 4.35-2.41 (45H, m), 3.70 (3H, s), 1.76 (2H, q, J = 6.3 Hz), 1.61 (2H, q, J = 6.5 Hz)	(125 MHz, DMSO-d ₆) 171.8, 171.4, 166.1, 162.2, 158.8, 158.6, 129.8, 129.0, 127.6, 123.3, 119.5, 118.5, 116.5, 116.4, 70.2, 70.1, 70.0, 68.7, 68.5, 43.4, 41.8, 36.3, 32.2, 30.4, 29.8, 29.1

HRMS
m/z Calcd for $[\text{C}_9\text{H}_9\text{N}_3\text{OS}+\text{H}]^+$: 208.0539; found: 208.0539; Δ : 0.0 ppm
m/z Calcd for $[\text{C}_{28}\text{H}_{43}\text{N}_5\text{O}_8\text{S}+\text{Na}]^+$: 632.2725; found: 632.2722; Δ : -0.47 ppm
m/z Calcd for $[\text{C}_{28}\text{H}_{43}\text{N}_5\text{O}_{10}\text{S}+\text{H}]^+$: 642.2803; found: 642.2797; Δ : -0.93 ppm

m/z Calcd for $[\text{C}_{23}\text{H}_{35}\text{N}_5\text{O}_8\text{S}+\text{H}]^+$: 542.2279;
found: 542.2281; Δ : 0.37 ppm

m/z Calcd for $[\text{C}_{47}\text{H}_{68}\text{N}_{10}\text{O}_{16}\text{S}_2+\text{H}]^+$:
1093.4334; found: 1093.4327; Δ : -0.64
ppm

Antibody	Type	Constant Region	Ratio of PODS:mAb
Human plasma IgG	Human	Human IgG	2.1 ± 0.1
Trastuzumab	Humanized	Human IgG1	2.0 ± 0.1
huA33	Humanized	Human IgG1	2.1 ± 0.1
Cetuximab	Chimeric	Human IgG1	2.2 ± 0.1
AR 9.6	Murine	Murine IgG1	1.4 ± 0.1
Mouse plasma IgG	Murine	Murine IgG	1.5 ± 0.1

Name	Company	Catalog Number
5-(4-aminophenyl)-1,3,4-oxadiazole-2-thiol	Sigma-Aldrich	675024
1.5 mL LoBind Microcentrifugal Tube	Eppendorf	925000090
1.5 mL Microcentrifugal Tube	Fisherbrand	05-408-129
Acetonitrile	Fisher Scientific	A998-4
Amicon Ultra-2 Centrifugal Filter Unit	EMD Millipore	EN300000141G
Cyclohexane	Fisher Scientific	C556-4
Dichloromethane	Fisher Scientific	AC383780010
Diisopropylethylamine	MP Biomedicals, LLC	150915
Dimethylsulfoxide	Fisher Scientific	31-727-5100ML
Ethyl Acetate	Fisher Scientific	E145 4
Hydrochloric Acid	Fisher Scientific	A144-500
Iodomethane	Sigma-Aldrich	289566-100G
Magnesium Sulfate	Acros Organics	413485000
m-chloroperbenzoic acid	Sigma-Aldrich	273031
Methanol	Fisher Scientific	A412 1
NBoc-N'-succinyl-4,7,10-trioxa-1,13-tridecanediamine	Sigma-Aldrich	671401
N-ethyl-N'- [3-(dimethylamino)propyl] carbodiimide hydrochloride	Sigma-Aldrich	3450
Phosphate Buffered Saline	Sigma-Aldrich	P5493
p-SCN-Bn-DOTA	Macrocyclics	B-205
Sephadex G-25 in PD-10	GE Healthcare	17085101
Sodium Carbonate	Sigma-Aldrich	S7795
Sodium Hydroxide	Fisher Scientific	S318-1
TCEP	ThermoFischer Scientific	20490
Triethylamine	Fisher Scientific	AC157911000
Trifluoroacetic Acid	Fisher Scientific	A116-50

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October 31th, 2018

Phillip Steindel, Ph.D.
Review Editor, *JoVE*

Dear Dr. Steindel,

Attached please find our revisions to the manuscript we have submitted to *JoVE* entitled “Synthesis and Bioconjugation of Thiol-Reactive reagents for the Creation of Site-Specifically Modified Immunoconjugates” (JoVE59063). We would like to thank you and the reviewers for your consideration of our work and your careful review of the manuscript. We have made a number of critical modifications to the manuscript based on the critiques offered in the review. As requested, we have addressed these changes on a point-by-point basis. Below we have listed the comments of the Reviewers 1, 2, and 3 (in **bold**) along with our responses to said comments and the changes we have made (in normal text). For the sake of clarity, any addition or modification to the text in the manuscript are listed below in *purple italics*.

Editorial Comments:

“Please take this opportunity to thoroughly proofread the manuscript to ensure that there are no spelling or grammar issues.”

Thank you! We have now thoroughly proof-read the manuscript.

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All of the figures in this manuscript are either original or have been modified from our own work that was recently published in *Bioconjugate Chemistry*. Therefore, according to the rules of the American Chemical Society, permissions are not required. However, we have added the appropriate references to the original manuscript where appropriate: *“Figure reprinted with permission from Adumeau, P., Davydova, M., Zeglis, B. M. Thiol-Reactive Bifunctional Chelators for the Creation of Site-Selectively Modified Radioimmunoconjugates with Improved Stability. Bioconjugate Chemistry. 29, 1364-1372, (2018). Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.”*

“Please shorten the Summary to no more than 50 words.”

The summary has now been shortened to 49 words: *“The in vivo performance of radiolabeled immunoconjugates for nuclear imaging and radioimmunotherapy is dependent on the stable bioconjugation of the radionuclide to the immunoglobulin. In this protocol, we will describe the synthesis of PODS, a phenyloxadiazolyl methyl sulfone-based reagent for the site-specific attachment of cargos to the thiols of biomolecules, particularly antibodies. In addition, we will describe the synthesis and characterization of a PODS-bearing bifunctional chelator and its conjugation to a model*

antibody.”

“Please rephrase the Introduction to include a clear statement of the overall goal of this method.”

We have now added the following sentence to make the goal clear, *“The over-arching goal of our development of PODS is to facilitate the creation of well-defined, homogeneous, highly stable, and highly immunoreactive immunoconjugates for in vitro and in vivo applications.”*

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All commercial language has been removed from the manuscript.

“Please add more details to your protocol steps. There should be enough detail in each step to supplement the actions seen in the video so that viewers can easily replicate the protocol. Please ensure you answer the “how” question, i.e., how is the step performed? Alternatively, add references to published material specifying how to perform the protocol action. See examples below.”

We have added many more details to the protocol in the manuscript. Please see our responses to **Reviewer #2** for the exact edits.

“1.4: This is not clear. Is a vacuum dryer used?”

This has been revised. It now reads, *“1.4 Using a rotary evaporator, set the water bath to 40°C and slowly reduce the pressure to remove the solvent to afford a white solid.”*

“1.5: What volume of sodium carbonate is used to wash? Please specify how to perform the wash step.”

This has been revised. It now reads, *“1.5 Dissolve the solid in 3 mL of ethyl acetate and wash at least three times with a 5 mL solution of 0.1 M sodium carbonate using a separatory funnel.”*

“1.7: Is magnesium sulfate added to the organic phase? What amount is added?”

This has been revised. It now reads, *“1.7 Collect the organic phase and add magnesium sulfate to remove any traces of water. Note: The magnesium sulfate should be added with a small spatula and the solution should be swirled. If fine particles of the drying agent are still seen, the solution is dry. If not, add another small amount of the magnesium sulfate.”*

“6.5: Please describe how to purify via size exclusion chromatography.”

This has been revised. It now reads:

“6.5 After 2 hours, purify the immunoconjugate using a pre-packed disposable size exclusion desalting column.

6.5.1 First, equilibrate the size exclusion column as described by the supplier to remove any preservatives present in the column during storage. A typical procedure involves washing the column 5 times with a volume of PBS that corresponds to the volume of the column: 5 x 2.5 mL of PBS.

6.5.2 Next, add the reaction mixture to the size exclusion column noting the volume of the reaction mixture.

6.5.3 After the reaction mixture has entered the column, add an appropriate amount of PBS to bring the total volume of solution added to the column up to 2.5 mL. For example, if the conjugation reaction resulted in a total volume of 1.3 mL, 1.2 mL of additional PBS would need to be added to the column.

6.5.4 Finally, collect the product using 2 mL of PBS as the eluent.”

“6.6: Please specify the molecular weight cut-off of the filtration unit.”

This has been revised. It now reads, *“6.6 Concentrate the final immunoconjugate with centrifugal filtration units with a 50 kDa molecular weight cut-off.”*

“After you have made all the recommended changes to your protocol (listed above), please highlight 2.75 pages or less of the Protocol (including headings and spacing) that identifies the essential steps of the protocol for the video, i.e., the steps that should be visualized to tell the most cohesive story of the Protocol. Please note that some of the shorter Protocol steps can be combined so that individual steps contain 2-3 actions and maximum of 4 sentences per step.”

We have highlighted the relevant sections.

“Figure 2 and Figure 4: Please insert a space between numbers and their corresponding units (1 h, 3 h, 45 min, 25 °C). Please define “rt” in the figure legend.”

These edits have been made to Figures 2 and 4. The legend for Figure 2 now reads, *“rt = room temperature”*.

“Table 2: Please insert a space before and after the “±” symbol (i.e., 2.1 ± 0.1). Please also explain what the numbers after the “±” symbol represent.”

These edits have been made to Table 2. The legend for Table 2 now reads, *“Values are shown ± standard deviations.”*

“JoVE articles are focused on the methods and the protocol, thus the discussion should be similarly focused. Please revise the Discussion to explicitly cover the following in detail in 3-6 paragraphs with citations: (a) Critical steps within the protocol; (b) Any modifications and troubleshooting of the technique; (c) Any limitations of the technique; (d) The significance with respect to existing methods; (e) Any future applications of the technique.”

We have intentionally designed the synthetic scheme and the bioconjugation strategy to be simple, and thus, there are very few critical steps or points for troubleshooting within the protocol. That said, in the “Representative Results”, we have addressed a couple of key areas in which the protocol may need to be amended (underlining added for emphasis), *“This result remains consistent across a range of human, humanized, and chimeric IgG1 antibodies; however, the same conditions produce immunoconjugates with a DOL of only ~1.5 when working with murine IgG1 antibodies. All this said, researchers should optimize these reaction conditions for new antibodies and PODS-bearing cargoes.”*

At bottom, while it is no doubt important to address *how* things are done in this protocol — and we believe we have done so ably — we believe it is just as important to describe *why* readers should adopt this new technology over chemical tools (maleimides) that the field has used for decades. In light of this, the second paragraph of the “Discussion” is dedicated to a clear, data-driven description of how PODS-based radioimmunoconjugates are superior to maleimide-based radioimmunoconjugates. This is *critical* to the manuscript as whole. The third and fourth paragraphs of the “Discussion” aim to place PODS-based ligations within the scientific context of site-specific bioconjugations as a whole and explain the relative advantages of thiol-based — and specificity PODS-based — bioconjugations. Finally, the fifth paragraph of the “Discussion” clearly states some of the potential drawbacks of PODS-based bioconjugations.

Admittedly, we had not addressed any possible future directions of research. As a result, we have now added the

following passage to the “Discussion”: *“At present, we have only applied this chemical technology to the development of radioimmunoconjugates for nuclear imaging and radioimmunotherapy, though investigations into the utility of this approach to the construction of antibody-drug conjugates and other biomolecular medicines are currently underway.”* With this addition, we sincerely believe we have covered all of the points that you wish us to address in the “Discussion” while also adding some “why” information for readers along the way.

“Please revise the table of the essential supplies, reagents, and equipment to include the name, company, and catalog number of all relevant materials/equipment.”

The Table of Materials has been revised accordingly.

Reviewer #1:

“In this manuscript the authors provide a useful and very well described protocol ... The interest of the method lies in its modularity (other cargos can be appended to PODS) and in the improved stability of the link between PODS and thiols groups when compared to the classical approach using maleimide compounds. This was demonstrated in a previous work reported by the authors (Bioconjugate Chem 2018) involving a PODS-DFO bifunctional chelating agent for ⁸⁹Zr radioimmunoPET. Some results of this previous study (in vivo imaging, biodistribution) are presented in the manuscript. The radiometallation of the conjugate and in vivo studies are not reported in this manuscript because these steps are not different from those used for any other conjugates obtained by classical bioconjugation routes.”

We thank the reviewer for their thorough and thoughtful review of our work.

“Lines 89 to 108. The name (phenyloxadiazolylmethyl sulfone) and the structure (Figures 1C and 3) of PODS reported in the manuscript (lines 107 & 108) are exactly the same as the one reported by Barbas (lines 90 & 91). It is said in the paragraph (lines 89 to 103) that the commercially available reagent was not pure enough, and that the synthesis of this reagent was not a realistic option. But, in the following paragraph, it appears that the synthesis of the same compound was actually the purpose of the work. This point has to be clarified.”

This is an excellent point! The difference between the reagent published by Barbas and the PODS reagent is that the former is based on a phenol ring while the latter is based on an aniline ring. This small change makes the synthesis of the molecule much more accessible and facile and makes the molecule itself more stable. In order to clarify this point, we have added the following sentences to the introduction, *“The key difference between PODS and the reagent reported by Barbas, et al. is that the former employs an aniline ring attached to the phenyloxadiazolyl methyl sulfone moiety, while the latter features a phenol in the same position. This change facilitates a more straightforward and accessible synthetic route as well as — if our experience with the commercially available reagent is emblematic — a more stable final reagent.”* In addition, we have added a new figure — Figure 4 — that makes the distinction more clear.

“In the structure of compounds 2, 3 and PODS in figure 4, there are 3 carbon atoms between the oxygen atom and the NHBoc or NH₂ group, which seems to correspond to the molecular formula of the commercial compound used. In the next figures (5 and 6), there are only 2 carbon atoms in the chain. This has to be corrected.”

What a fantastic catch! Thank you! We have now corrected the offending figures.

“It is not said anywhere if PODS absorb at 280 nm, and if so what is its molecular absorption coefficient at this wavelength. This is important to know for the precise determination of the concentration.”

Another excellent point! We have now added the following sentence to Step 4.6, *“NOTE: The molar absorption coefficient for PODS at 298 nm is 12,400 cm⁻¹M⁻¹.”*

“Lines 379 to 382. It is stated that the only difference between the radioimmunoconjugates prepared using the reported PODS method and the classical maleimide approach, was the bioconjugation handle of the chelators. This

statement is not completely true since the PODS bifunctional chelating agent contains also a PhNCS linker, which is not the case for the maleimide derivative.”

This is a good point! We have amended the sentence to reflect this (underlining added for emphasis): *“Considering that the principal difference between the two radioimmunoconjugates was the bioconjugation handle of the chelator, the increased stability of the PODS-thiol linkage is almost certainly responsible for this improved in vivo performance.”*

Reviewer #2:

Suggestions for improvement:

We thank the reviewer for their careful attention to our manuscript and their suggestions as to how to improve it!

“1.1 what volume flask?”

We have clarified. Step 1.1 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“In a 10 mL round-bottom flask, dissolve 100 mg (0.517 mmol, 1 equivalent) of 5-(4-aminophenyl)-1,3,4-oxadiazole-2-thiol in 3 mL of methanol.”*

“1.2 diisopropylethylamine (anhydrous or other requirement)?”

We have clarified. Step 1.2 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“To this solution, add 360 μ L of diisopropylethylamine (DIPEA; 2.07 mmol; 4 equivalents; anhydrous) and a small magnetic stir bar. Cover the flask with a rubber stopper and stir the solution for 10 minutes at room temperature.”*

“1.3 how to add CH₃I, using glass syringe? Are vessels sealed?”

We have clarified. Step 1.3 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“1.3 Using a 1 mL glass syringe, poke a hole through the rubber stopper and quickly add 32 μ L (0.517 mmol, 1 equivalent) of iodomethane to this mixture. Allow the sealed mixture to react for 45 minutes at room temperature.”*

“1.4 at r.t.”

We have clarified. Step 1.4 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“Using a rotary evaporator, set the water bath to 40 °C and slowly reduce the pressure to remove the solvent to afford a white solid.”*

“1.5 what volume NaHCO₃? Specify multiple washes as necessary.”

We have clarified. Step 1.5 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“Dissolve the solid in 3 mL of ethyl acetate and wash at least three times with a 5 mL solution of 0.1 M sodium carbonate using a separatory funnel.”*

“1.6 DI water is acidic. Will pH 7 really be reached? Is this done using pH paper or pH meter?”

We have clarified. Step 1.6 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“Collect the organic phase in a separatory funnel and wash it with water until the pH of the aqueous phase reaches 6.8-7.0 (using pH paper).”*

“1.8 use rotavap?”

We have clarified. Step 1.9 (formerly Step 1.8) now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“Evaporate the volatiles using a rotary evaporator, a process which should produce the desired product as white needles.”*

“2.1 what volume flask?”

We have clarified. Step 2.1 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“In a 25 mL round bottom flask, dissolve*

387 mg (0.92 mmol, 1.0 equivalent) of NBoc-N'-succinyl-4,7,10-trioxa-1,13-tridecanediamine in 10 mL of dichloromethane."

"2.2 Is the vessel sealed?"

We have clarified. Step 1.9 (formerly Step 1.8) now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *"To this solution, add 480 μ L (2.76 mmol, 3 equivalents) of DIPEA, 264 mg (1.38 mmol; 1.5 equivalents) of N-ethyl-N'-[3-(dimethylamino)propyl]carbodiimide hydrochloride (EDCI), and 200 mg (0.97 mmol, 1.1 equivalents) of 1. Seal the vessel with a glass stopper and let the reaction stir for 5 days at room temperature."*

"2.5 add filtration step"

We have clarified. Step 2.5 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *"Collect the organic phase and add magnesium sulfate to remove any traces of water. Filter the mixture using a medium glass frit or filter paper."*

"2.7 how slow?"

We have clarified. Step 2.7 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *"Re-dissolve this solid in 10 mL of ethyl acetate and precipitate the product via the gradual (e.g. 2 mL at a time) addition of 30 mL of cyclohexane."*

"3.1 what volume flask?"

We have clarified. Step 2.7 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *"In a 10 mL round-bottom flask, dissolve 30 mg (0.05 mmol; 1 equivalent) of 2 in 4 mL of dichloromethane."*

"3.2 sealed?"

We have clarified. Step 3.2 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *"Slowly add in 49 mg (0.2 mmol; 4 equivalents) of 70% m-chloroperbenzoic acid to this mixture and cover the reaction vessel with a glass stopper. Stir the solution overnight at room temperature, ultimately yielding a yellow mixture."*

"3.4 and filter"

We have clarified. Step 3.4 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *"Dry the organic phase with magnesium sulfate and filter the mixture using a medium glass frit or filter paper."*

"4.1 what volume flask?"

We have clarified. Step 4.1 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *"In a 25 mL round bottom flask, dissolve 30 mg of 3 in 2.0 mL of dichloromethane."*

"4.2 sealed?"

We have clarified. Step 4.2 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *"Add 400 μ L of trifluoroacetic acid and seal the flask with a glass stopper."*

"4.4 at r.t.?"

We have clarified. Step 4.4 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *"Using a rotary evaporator, remove the volatiles under reduced pressure at room temperature, leaving an oily residue."*

“5.1 What volume vessel?”

We have clarified. Step 5.1 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“In a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube, dissolve 10 mg of PODS in 300 μ L of dimethyl sulfoxide (0.018 mmol; 1 equivalent) and add 26 μ L of N,N-diisopropylethylamine (0.15 mmol; 8 equivalents).”*

“5.2 sealed?”

We have clarified. Step 5.2 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“Dissolve 15.2 mg of DOTA-Bn-NCS (0.02 mmol; 1.2 equivalents) in 100 μ L of dimethylsulfoxide and combine this solution with the solution from Step 1. Seal the microcentrifuge tube.”*

“5.4 column dimensions and flow rate?”

We have clarified. Step 5.4 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“Purify the product using reversed-phase C₁₈ HPLC chromatography to remove any unreacted DOTA-Bn-NCS. NOTE: Retention times are obviously highly dependent on the HPLC equipment of each laboratory (pumps, columns, tubing, etc.), and appropriate controls should be run prior to purification. However, to present an example, if a gradient of 5:95 MeCN/H₂O (both with 0.1% TFA) to 70:30 MeCN/H₂O (both with 0.1% TFA) over 30 min, a semi-preparative 19 x 250 mm C₁₈ column, and a flow rate of 6 mL/min are used, PODS, DOTA, and PODS-DOTA will have retention times of around 14.4, 18.8, and 19.6 min, respectively. All three compounds can be monitored at 254 nm.”*

“6.1 Phosphate buffered saline or phosphate buffer solution? In what flask?”

We have clarified. Step 6.1 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“In a LoBind 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube, dilute 61 μ L of the trastuzumab stock solution (1 mg; 6.67 nmol, 1 equivalent) with 859 μ L of phosphate buffered saline (pH 7.4).”*

“6.4 sealed or capped?”

We have clarified. Step 6.1 now reads (underlining added for emphasis), *“Seal the microcentrifuge tube and incubate the solution for 2 hours at room temperature.”*

“6.5 how to monitor purification?”

Unfortunately, there is no way to monitor the purification of the immunoconjugate in real-time.

“Where is evidence for site-specific modification of the antibody?”

The root of the site-selective modification of the antibody lies in (a) PODS can only react with thiols and (b) there are only thiols in certain positions of human and murine IgGs. We have discussed this in the introduction, writing, *“IgG1 antibodies naturally contain 16 intra- and inter-chain disulfide bridges, linkages that can be selectively reduced to yield free thiols capable of undergoing Michael addition reactions with maleimides to form succinimidyl thioether bonds.”* In light of this comment, we have come to the conclusion that “site-selective” is a better term than “site-specific” to describe our approach to bioconjugation. As a result, we have changed all references to site-specificity throughout the manuscript to site-selectivity.

“How does one characterize the degree of modification of the antibody?”

We have already stated this in the “Representative Results”: *“MALDI-ToF analysis revealed a degree of labeling (DOL) of ~2 DOTA/mAb.”*

Reviewer #3:

“The manuscript "Synthesis and Bioconjugation of Thiol Reactive Reagents for the Creation of Site-Selectively Modified Immunoconjugates" provides a method for the site-selective conjugation to native antibodies. The authors describe the construction of a reagent (PODS) and the subsequent generation of a chelating payload (PODS-DOTA). Finally the authors describe a facile method for the reduction and conjugation of PODS-DOTA to reduced cysteines in the antibody Trastuzumab. The in vivo stability of conjugates has been an ongoing challenge in the construction of antibody conjugates to reduce payload loss and improve specificity of signal. Indeed the manuscript also presents compelling in vivo examples showing reduced background of the PODS-DOTA armed antibodies. Overall the manuscript is well written and presented and provides information that is of interest to a wide range of areas.”

We thank the reviewer for their kind words regarding our manuscript.

“Radiolabelling of antibodies has conventionally been done using conjugations to surface exposed lysines. The conjugation chemistry here is also stable. The manuscript may benefit from mentioning this in the discussion and highlighting the advantages of the presented technology over this conventional method.”

This is a good point. We have already addressed this in brief, both in the “Introduction”: *“Far and away the most common approach to the radiolabeling of antibodies is predicated on the indiscriminate attachment of radiolabeled prosthetic groups or radiometal chelators to amino acids — most often lysines — within the structure of the immunoglobulin (Figure 1A).² While this strategy is certainly effective, its random, non-site-specific nature can create problems. Specifically, traditional bioconjugation approaches produce poorly-defined and heterogeneous immunoconjugates composed of mixtures of thousands of different regioisomers, each with its own set of biological and pharmacological properties.³ Furthermore, random bioconjugation can impede the immunoreactivity of antibodies if the cargo is appended to the immunoglobulin’s antigen-binding domains.”*

In addition, we tackle this topic briefly in the “Discussion”: *“Taking a broader view, the benefits of site-selective bioconjugation have been illustrated repeatedly for both radioimmunoconjugates and antibody-drug conjugates.^{8,14,25-30} In short, not only do site-selective bioconjugation strategies produce more well-defined and homogenous immunoconjugates than traditional methodologies, they also create imaging agents, radioimmunotherapeutics, and ADCs with improved in vivo performance.”*

In response to this critique, we have added a few more sentences to the “Discussion” to drive home the point about the inadequacy of random bioconjugation: *“The non-site-selective bioconjugation of probes to lysines within antibodies is admittedly a straightforward and facile approach to the modification of antibodies. However, the presence of multiple lysines distributed throughout the structure of immunoglobulins means that it is impossible to exert control over the precise site or degree of bioconjugation. Predictably, then, this strategy often produces poorly-defined and highly heterogeneous immunoconjugates that can exhibit decreased immunoreactivity if ligations occur within the antigen-binding domains.”*

Thank you for your time, work, and consideration. Please let us know if you require any more information.

Respectfully,



Brian M. Zeglis, Ph.D.