1

Selection of Single Domain Anti-Transferrin Receptor Antibodies for Blood-Brain Barrier Transcytosis

Using a Neurotensin Based Assay and Histological Assessment of Target Engagement in a Mouse

Model of Alzheimer's Disease-Related Amyloid-Beta Pathology

Authors: Shiran Su[1,2], Thomas J. Esparza[1,3,4], & David L. Brody[1,2,3,5*]

[1]Laboratory of Functional and Molecular Imaging, National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA, 20892

[2]Department of Biomedical Engineering, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, MO, USA, 63130

[3]Center for Neuroscience and Regenerative Medicine, Henry M. Jackson Foundation for the Advancement of Military Medicine, Bethesda, MD, USA, 20817

[4]Henry M. Jackson Foundation for the Advancement of Military Medicine, Inc, Bethesda, MD, USA, 20817

[5]Department of Neurology, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, MD, USA, 20814

*Correspondence should be addressed to david.brody@nih.gov or david.brody@usuhs.edu

Abstract

Background: The blood-brain barrier (BBB) presents a major obstacle in developing specific diagnostic imaging agents for many neurological disorders. In this study we aimed to generate single domain anti-mouse transferrin receptor antibodies (anti-mTfR VHHs) to mediate BBB transcytosis as components of novel MRI molecular contrast imaging agents.

Methods: Anti-mTfR VHHs were produced by immunizing a llama with mTfR, generation of a VHH phage

display library, immunopanning, and *in vitro* characterization of candidates. Site directed mutagenesis

was used to generate additional variants. VHH fusions with neurotensin (NT) allowed rapid,

hypothermia-based screening for VHH-mediated BBB transcytosis in wild-type mice. One anti-mTfR VHH

variant was fused with an anti-amyloid-beta (Aβ) VHH dimer and labeled with fluorescent dye for direct

assessment of *in vivo* target engagement in a mouse model of AD-related Aβ plaque pathology.

Results: An anti-mTfR VHH called M1 and variants had binding affinities to mTfR of <1nM to 1.52nM.

The affinity of the VHH binding to mTfR correlated with the efficiency of the VHH-NT induced

hypothermia effects after intravenous injection of 600 nmol/kg body weight, ranging from undetectable

for nonbinding mutants to -6°C for the best mutants. The anti-mTfR VHH variant $M1_{P96H}$ with the

strongest hypothermia effect was fused to the anti-Aβ VHH dimer and labeled with Alexa647; the dye-

labeled VHH fusion construct still bound both mTfR and Aβ plaques. However, after intravenous

injection at 600 nmol/kg body weight into APP/PS1 transgenic mice, there was no detectible labeling of

plaques above control levels. Thus, NT-induced hypothermia did not correlate with direct target

engagement in cortex.

Conclusions: There was a surprising dissociation between NT-induced hypothermia, presumably

mediated by hypothalamus, and direct engagement with Aβ-plaques in cortex. Alternative methods to

assess anti-mTfR VHH BBB transcytosis will need to be developed for anti-mTfR VHH screening and the

development of novel MRI molecular contrast agents.

Keywords

Background

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is one of the most important causes of dementia in the elderly[1]. About 6.2

million Americans are living with AD, and it's predicted that the number will increase to 13.8 million by

2050 [2]. With no effective therapies to cure or inhibit significant AD symptom progression[3], AD

severely decreases patients' quality of life and creates an enormous burden on the health care system

and society [1, 4]. Currently, clinical AD diagnosis is based on cognition and the relative impact of

impairments on daily activities [5]. However, multiple neurodegenerative and vascular pathologies can

coexist and produce cognitive and behavioral symptoms which could overlap with each other [6]. This

makes it difficult to accurately identify pathology based solely on clinical symptoms. The accuracy of

clinical diagnosis of AD at the National Institute of Aging and National Institute of Aging sponsored AD

centers varies depending on the clinical and neuropathologic criteria used [7]. The sensitivity of AD

diagnosis ranges from 70.9% to 87.3%, whereas specificity ranges from 44.3% to 70.8%, which need to

be improved. AD has a very long prodrome stage before clinically observable symptoms [8]. Early

diagnosis is preferred to help with early intervention and the development of preventive therapeutics to

slow AD development [5]. Detection of patients in the preclinical stages of AD can also help to provide

diagnostic information, monitor disease progression, and even monitor the effect of newly developed

treatment methods. Imaging methods including MRI and PET have been developed to aid the diagnosis

of AD [9, 10]. However, PET imaging for AD provides limited resolution and requires radiation exposure.

Structural MRI lacks specificity and does not allow direct visualization of Aβ or tau, the histological

hallmarks of AD. There is an unmet need for developing methods like molecular contrast MRI which

have better resolution than PET and better specificity than structural MRI imaging.

The blood-brain barrier (BBB) represents a significant obstacle in delivering diagnostic and therapeutic

agents to the central nervous system (CNS), preventing uptake of more than 98% of potential

neurotherapeutics to brain [11-14]. The BBB consists of endothelial cells held together by tight junctions

which hinder paracellular passage. Most molecules do not transfer from blood to brain through the BBB,

which protects the brain from toxicity and maintains brain homeostasis. Several methods have been

developed to improve the transport of diagnostic and therapeutic agents into the CNS. For instance, the

BBB may be temporarily opened by administration of hypertonic agents or focused ultrasound.

Alternatively, very high doses of an agent can be given so that even if a small fraction enters the brain

the desired effect will be achieved. In some cases, direct injection of agents into the cerebrospinal fluid

can be employed [14]. However, these methods are invasive and have a risk of causing infection,

toxicity, and neurological dysfunction [13, 14].

BBB crossing based on receptor mediated transcytosis (RMT) is potentially especially promising. The use

of protein shuttles has the potential to facilitate the transport of therapeutic agents across the BBB

using specific endogenous receptor systems. Candidate receptor systems including transferrin receptors

(TfR), low-density lipoprotein receptors, insulin receptors and neuropeptide receptors are highly

expressed on the BBB where they mediate receptor-mediated transcytosis [13]. Among the different

receptors, TfR has been widely used for transporting macromolecules across the BBB [15, 16]. Based on

the study of Yu et al., there is a nonlinear relationship between an antibody's affinity for TfR and its

uptake in brain. At tracer doses, antibodies with higher affinity to TfR have higher uptake into the brain,

while at therapeutic doses, antibodies with lower affinity to brain have higher uptake into the brain [17].

The effect of TfR affinity on brain uptake has been confirmed by the study of Wiley et al [18]. Transferrin

conjugated gold nanoparticles with high avidity to TfR remain strongly attached to brain endothelial cells

and reduced accumulation in brain parenchyma compared with nanoparticles with lower avidity to TfR

[18]. Thus, to achieve optimal brain uptake, it is important to optimize anti-TfR concentration and

antibody affinity to TfR. Jefferies et al. identified a monoclonal antibody OX-26 specific for transferrin

receptors [19]. This antibody was tested and was confirmed to be able to facilitate TfR-mediated

transcytosis across BBB [20]. Yu et al. generated a bispecific antibody that binds to TfR for transcytosis

and also to the enzyme β-secretase for inhibiting Aβ production[17]. However, the existing anti-TfR

antibodies have relatively large size, especially when conjugated to additional components for RMT or

other payloads such as imaging contrast agents. Also, it is expensive to engineer and synthesize

monoclonal antibodies, which are typically produced in mammalian cell culture. Thus, there is an unmet

need for smaller, less expensive, and easier to engineer system for BBB transcytosis.

Camelids produce functional antibodies devoid of light chains called heavy chain-only antibodies

(HCAbs) [21, 22]. HCAbs recognize their cognate antigens by one single domain, the variable domain

(VHH). The VHH in isolation is very small compared with other antibodies. The molecular weights of

VHHs are typically ~15kDa, which is about 1/10 of the molecular weight of a conventional IgG and about

half the molecular weight of a single chain variable fragment (Scfv) [22, 23]. VHHs have affinities at the

same order of magnitude as conventional IgGs, often in the nanomolar or subnanomolar range [24].

Because of their small size, VHHs can also bind to epitopes not recognized by conventional antibodies

and can have better tissue penetration capacities [25, 26]. Caplacizumab was the first VHH approved by

FDA for treatment of acquired thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura in humans [27]. There are several

more VHHs which are in clinical trials, with safety profiles similar to other antibody therapeutics in

humans [28, 29]. Importantly, VHHs have been found that can facilitate BBB penetration and allow

brain target binding. The use of VHHs for BBB transcytosis and target engagement is promising.

Specifically, Stanimirovic et al. identified an insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor binding VHH which

crosses the BBB by receptor mediated transcytosis [30, 31]. Danis et al. identified and optimized VHHs to

mitigate brain accumulation of pathological tau in a tauopathy mouse model [32]. Dupre et al.,

identified VHHs which could be used to detect tau in transgenic mice brain tissues [33]. However, the

extent to which VHHs that engage in receptor mediated transcytosis using the TfR can carry diagnostic

and therapeutic payloads across the BBB still has not been assessed. Here we tested the hypothesis that

VHHs that bind to TfR and cross the BBB through RMT in mice could be coupled with additional VHHs

that bind to amyloid plaques as a proof of concept for a platform which could be generalized to other

neurological diseases.

Current methods to evaluate BBB crossing require substantial resources and can be time-consuming [17,

34]. An efficient way to screen for BBB crossing *in vivo* would be helpful since *in vitro* models may not be

fully predictive of *in vivo* results. Neurotensin (NT) is a 13 amino acid peptide first identified by Carraway

and Leeman in 1973 from bovine hypothalamic extracts [35]. NT is expressed in CNS as well as in

peripheral tissues, mostly in the gastrointestinal tract. NT is involved in regulating appetite, nociception,

and thermoregulation in the CNS, and alters nutrient absorption, gastrointestinal motility, and secretion

in the peripheral gastrointestinal tract [36]. It was found that NT induces rapid and transient

hypothermia in mice and rats when injected to CNS [37, 38]. The hypothermia was likely to be due to

effects in hypothalamus. Young & Kuhar found that NT receptors had moderate to high densities in

hypothalamus [39]. Injection of NT to medial, lateral preoptic area and anterior parts of hypothalamus

induced the hypothermia effect [39]. Meanwhile, intravenously injected NT does not typically cause

hypothermia [40]. On the other hand, when NT-conjugated mouse TfR (mTfR)-binding VHHs were

injected intravenously to mice, the NT-mTfR VHH conjugates induced hypothermia in mice, presumably

because they get across the BBB and bind to NT receptors in hypothalamus [34, 41]. These properties of

the NT system make it an apparently attractive assay platform for rapid testing of VHH BBB transcytosis.

Here, we independently generated additional mTfR-binding VHHs and used a similar NT based modular

Fig. 1. Schematic of the modular system for VHH-mediated BBB transcytosis and target engagement. Module 1: anti-mTfR VHH for RMT across BBB. Module 2: neurotensin peptide (NT) for rapid assessment of *in vivo* target engagement via measurement of hypothermia. Module 3: anti-Aβ VHH dimer for disease-relevant target engagement in brain parenchyma. Module 4: 647 dye for visualization of VHH constructs in situ. The anti-mTfR VHH was combined with NT for anti-mTfR VHH screening through monitoring hypothermia effect. The anti-mTfR VHH were combined with VHH dimer and NT or 647 to test the effect of anti-mTfR VHH together with other components of the module. This schematic figure also shows the TfR mediated transcytosis across BBB. The anti-mTfR VHH conjugates binds to TfR on the endothelial cells which comprise a major portion of the BBB. Then the TfR-VHH complex is endocytosed across the endothelial cells in the endosomes. VHHs dissociate from the TfR-VHH complex with decreased pH level in endosome and are released on the brain side of the BBB. There were two different targets in the brain parenchyma in this study, the NT receptor in hypothalamus and amyloid plaques in cortex and hippocampus. (Figure generated using BioRender.com)

system to screen these VHHs for mTfR-mediated BBB transcytosis (**Fig. 1**). We hypothesized that this

modular screening system can be used to identify and optimize anti-mTfR VHHs for BBB transcytosis and

brain target binding.

This screening system includes four modules. The first module is an anti-mTfR VHH for receptor

mediated transcytosis across the BBB; the second module is the neurotensin peptide for assessment of

target engagement *in vivo* through measurement of hypothermia. The third module is a dimer of anti -

Aβ VHHs for disease-relevant brain target engagement. The fourth module is a fluorescence dye for

visualization of VHH constructs in situ. We tested different VHH variants and found one variant which

showed good BBB penetration based on this screening system. The VHH variant with the best BBB

transcytosis ability fused to a tandem VHH dimer called Nb3-Nb3 which binds to amyloid plaques in

brain parenchyma. This VHH triplet was conjugated to a fluorescent dye and post-mortem confocal

microscopy was performed to directly evaluate brain target engagement.

Methods

Immunization of llama with mouse transferrin receptor.

A single adult male llama (*Lama glama*) was immunized under contract agreement through Triple J

Farms (Kent Laboratories, Bellingham, WA) following the method previously described [42]. Briefly,

subcutaneous injections of 100 μg ectodomain (Cys89-Phe763) mTfR (50741-M07H, SinoBiological) were

performed with protein emulsified with complete Freund's adjuvant on day 0, followed by additional

100 μg immunizations emulsified with incomplete Freund's adjuvant on days 14, 28, and 42. On day 49,

peripheral blood was drawn for peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) isolation. Triple J Farms

operates under established National Institutes of Health Office of Laboratory Animal Welfare Assurance

certification number A4335-01 and United States Department of Agriculture registration number 91-R-

0054.

Generation of VHH immune phage display library.

The generation of an immune phage display library and isolation of mTfR binding VHH clones was

performed using the methods previously described [42]. Briefly, total RNA extracted from PBMCs was

used for synthesis of first-strand complimentary DNA (cDNA) using the SuperScript IV First-Strand

Synthesis kit (#1891050, Invitrogen). The heavy-chain variable domain was then amplified from the

cDNA using Q5 high-fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs) with the described primers

(CALL001: 5′-GTCCTGGCTGCTCTTCTACAAGG-3′ and CALL002: 5′-GGTACGTGCTGTTGAACTGTTCC-

3'). The heavy-chain specific amplicon was isolated using electrophoresis with low-melting point agarose

extraction with the QIAquick Gel Extraction kit (Qiagen). A secondary amplification was performed using

a modification of the primers (VHH-Esp-For: 5′-

CCGGCCATGGCTGATGTGCAGCTGCAGGAGTCTGGRGGAGG-3′ and VHH-Esp-Rev: 5′-

GTGCGGCCGCTGAGGAGACGGTGACCTGGG T-3′) used by Pardon et al. to facilitate cloning into the

phagemid pHEN2 [43]. The amplified sequences were cleaved with the restriction endonucleases NcoI

and NotI (New England Biolabs) and subsequently ligated into compatibly cleaved pHEN2 phagemid at a

3:1 (insert:phagemid) ratio overnight at 16°C followed by purification. The resulting ligation mixture was

electroporated into TG-1 phage-display competent cells (#60502-1, Lucigen) and plated onto 2xYT agar

containing 100 μg/mL carbenicillin and 2% (w/v) glucose at 37°C overnight. The resulting library

contained > 10^7 independent clones. Phage was produced for screening using the M13KO7 helper phage

(#18311019, Invitrogen) followed by precipitation by addition of one-fifth volume 20% polyethylene

glycol 6000 / 2.5 M sodium chloride solution on ice and centrifugation to purify the phage particles.

Immunopanning and clone screening.

Selection of mTfR specific VHH was performed using direct binding of phage to immobilize mTfR.

Standard radioimmunoassay (RIA) tubes were coated with 500 μL mTfR solution at 5 μg/mL in sodium

carbonate buffer, pH 9.6 overnight at 4°C. The coating solution was removed, and the RIA tube filled

with a 2% (w/v) non-specific blocking solution (bovine serum albumin or nonfat dry milk) in 1x

Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS). Amplified phage (~10^{11} phage) was mixed with blocking solution to a

final volume of 500 μL and then transferred into the RIA tube to allow for association at room

temperature and 600 rpm mixing. The RIA tube was then washed 20 times with 1x PBS and then the

bound phage eluted with 100 mM triethylamine solution for 20 mins. The eluted phage solution was

neutralized with 1:10 volume 1 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.0. The eluted phage was amplified in TG-1 cells and a

second round of immunopanning was performed.

Following the second round of immunopanning, individual colonies were selected and cultured in 96-

well blocks containing 2xYT containing carbenicillin at 37°C with 300 rpm shaking for 4-6 hours.

Expression of VHH was induced by addition of isopropyl-beta-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG) to a final

concentration of 1 mM and incubation overnight at 37°C. The culture blocks were centrifuged to pellet

the cells and frozen at -80°C for 1 hour following removal of the culture supernatant. The culture block

was then equilibrated to room temperature and 500 μL 1xPBS added to each well followed by shaking at

1500 rpm to resuspend the cell pellets and allow for release of VHH from the cells. The culture block was

centrifuged for 20 min at 2000xg. Nunc Maxisorp plates were coated with mTfR at 1 μg/mL as described

above and blocked with 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA). The clarified VHH supernatants were incubated

on the mTfR plates for 1 hour at room temperature. The assay plate was washed and peroxidase

conjugated goat anti-alpaca VHH domain specific antibody (#128-035-232, Jackson ImmunoResearch) at

0.8 μg/mL was transferred to the plate and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. Following a final

wash, the assay was developed by addition of tetramethylbenzidine (#T5569, Sigma-Aldrich) and

absorbance was measured at 650 nm on a Biotek Synergy 2 plate reader. Clones with absorbance values

greater than two standard deviations above background were considered of interest and subsequently

sequenced.

Amyloid beta specific VHH production.

Paraschiv et al. previously reported the isolation of amyloid beta binding VHH clones [44]. We selected

the sequence for the named Nb3 clone for use in this study. The Nb3 amino acid sequence was imported

into SnapGene software (GSL Biotech LLC) and reverse translation performed using preferred codon

usage for expression in *E. coli*. Additional sequence, including a (Gly-Gly-Gly-Ser)$_3$ between VHH

domains, was incorporated for cloning into pHEN2 as a tandem dimer as part of the heterotrimer clones

synthesized with TfR binders. To reduce the potential for recombination events, the DNA sequence was

manually curated to adjust the codon usage and reduce the frequency of repetitive sequence within the

Nb3-Nb3 dimer. The affinity of the Nb3-Nb3 dimer was measured using bio-layer intergerometry as

described below.

Bio-layer interferometry (BLI) assessment of VHH binding kinetics.

The binding kinetics of the selected VHH clone against mTfR and Aβ was assessed by BLI. For

measurements of mTfR kinetics, biotinylated VHH was diluted into assay buffer at 1 μg/mL and

immobilized onto streptavidin coated biosensors (#18-5019, Sartorius) to a minimum response value of

1 nm on the Octet Red96 System (Sartorius). For measurements of amyloid beta, beta-amyloid(1-40)-

Lys(biotin-LC) (AS-23517, Anaspec), was diluted into assay buffer at 1 μg/mL and immobilized onto

streptavidin coated biosensors (#18-5019, Sartorius) to a minimum response value of 1 nm on the Octet

Red96 System (Sartorius). Purified mTfR or VHH clones were diluted into assay buffer at the specified

concentrations. The immobilized antigen biosensors were allowed to associate at 37C° followed by

dissociation in the baseline buffer well location. All assays included a background correction condition to

allow for sensor normalization. The ForteBio Data Analysis suite was used to normalize the association

curves following background subtraction and Savitzky-Golay filtering. Curve fitting was applied using

global fitting of the sensor data and a steady state analysis calculated to determine the association and

dissociation constants. All assay steps were prepared in Greiner 96-well plates (#655209) in a volume of

300 µL. Assay buffer was defined as 0.1% BSA (w/v) in 1xPBS.

Synthesis and expression of VHH constructs.

Based on the methods described in **Immunopanning and clone screening** and **BLI assessment of VHH**

binding kinetics sections, we synthesized several neurotensin-fused VHH monomers with different

binding affinities to mouse transferrin receptor. In addition, we produced single polypeptide VHH

heterotrimers that consisted of $M1_{P96H}$, a (Gly-Gly-Gly-Ser)$_3$ linker, Nb3, a (Gly-Gly-Gly-Ser)$_3$ linker, and

Nb3 using the method described in **Amyloid beta specific VHH production**. The VHH dimer Nb3-Nb3

binds to amyloid plaques in brain parenchymal of APP/PS1 mice. These constructs were termed "$M1_{WT}$-

NT", "$M1_{P96H}$-NT", "$M1_{AA}$-NT", "$M1_{R100dH}$-NT" and "$M1_{P96H}$-triplet". The VHH naming convention for P96H

and R100dH are based on the Kabat nomenclature and refer to the specific amino acid residue

modification positions within the VHH sequence [45]. Another neurotensin fusion with a VHH generated

against human TfR, which does not bind mouse TfR called "H1-NT," was used as control. All VHH

constructs were designed using SnapGene Software and synthesized (Twist Bioscience) with

corresponding restriction endonuclease sites for direct cloning into pHEN2. Sequence confirmed pHEN2

clones with the various constructs were transferred into BL21(DE3) competent *E. coli* cells (C2527I, New

England Biolabs). Transformed cells were grown in terrific broth medium containing carbenicillin at 37°C

and 300rpm shaking in baffled flasks. Once the culture density reached an optical density equal to 0.6,

IPTG was added to a final concentration of 1mM to induce protein expression. For monomer VHH

expression the post-induction incubation temperature was maintained at 37C but reduced to 30C for

the $M1_{P96H}$-triplet. Following overnight expression, cells were pelleted by centrifugation and VHHs were

extracted through osmotic shock and recovery of the periplasmic fraction [42, 46]. Clarified periplasmic

fraction was purified using HisPur™ Ni-NTA Resin (88222, Thermo Fisher Scientific) column

chromatography. The eluted VHH proteins were further purified by size-exclusion chromatography (SEC)

over a Superdex75 10/300 column on an AKTA Pure (Cytiva). Protein purity was assessed by SDS-PAGE

on a 10% Bis-Tris MES acrylamide gel and found to be >95% pure.

$M1_{P96H}$-triplets and H1-triplets were fluorescently labeled with using Alexa Fluor^{TM} 647 succinimidyl ester

dye to allow fluorescence confocal microscopy of tissue sections. The triplets were incubated with the

succinimidyl ester dye for 1 hour in 50mM sodium carbonate buffer, pH 9.6 and purified by desalting

using a 5mL HiTrap desalting column in-line with the AKTA Pure. The binding fidelity of the VHH

heterotriplet was assessed by ELISA against mTfR. The fluorescence dye labeled $M1_{P96H}$-triplet and H1-

triplet were named "$M1_{P96H}$-triplet-647" and "H1-triplet-647"

Endotoxin removal.

Removal of contaminating endotoxin was achieved using High-Capacity Endotoxin Removal Resin

(88270, Pierce) from the VHH preparations. A volume of 0.25ml endotoxin removal resin was added to

1ml of VHH sample. The VHH and resin were mixed for 2hr at room temperature to allow for absorption

of endotoxin. The mixture was centrifuged to pellet the resin and the supernatant collected. A volume of

0.25ml fresh endotoxin removal resin was added to the first-pass solution and mixed for another 2hr at

room temperature. Following a final centrifugation to pellet the resin, the solution was collected for

endotoxin level testing. Endotoxin levels were measured using the Chromagenic Endotoxin Quant kit

(A39552, Pierce) according to the manufacturers protocol to ensure a level of endotoxin <0.5 endotoxin

units/mg of total protein.

Binding assessment of histidine mutations by ELISA.

To determine the effect on histidine mutation introduction, an ELISA was performed with the post VHH

binding wash buffer at normal and reduced pH. Nunc Maxisorp plates were coated with mTfR at 1

µg/mL in 50mM sodium carbonate, pH 9.6 overnight at 4°C. The plates were blocked with 1% BSA in

1xPBS buffer and then triplicate dilutions of each VHH prepared in 0.5% BSA in 1xPBS buffer and

transferred to the plate. Binding at room temperature for 2 hours was followed by three cycles of 5-

minute washes with either 1xPBS, pH 7.2 or 1xPBS, pH 5.5. Following the pH dependent wash step, the

bound VHH was detected with peroxidase conjugated goat anti-alpaca VHH domain specific antibody

(#128-035-232, Jackson ImmunoResearch) at 0.8 µg/mL incubated for 1 hour at room temperature.

Following a final wash, the assay was developed by addition of tetramethylbenzidine (#T5569, Sigma-

Aldrich), the reaction was terminated by addition of 50 µL 1M hydrochloric acid and absorbance was

measured at 450 nm on a Biotek Synergy 2 plate reader.

Animals

All animal experiments were conducted under protocols approved by the National Institute of

Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS)/ National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication

Disorders (NIDCD) Animal Care and Use Committee in the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Clinical

Center. C57BL/6J female mice were purchased from Jackson labs at 6-7 weeks of age and used at 7-12

weeks of age. Fifteen mice were divided into five groups with three mice in each group to test the five

VHH-NT fusions. Anesthetized mice were injected via tail vein with VHH-NT fusions: $M1_{WT}$-NT, $M1_{P96H}$-

NT, $M1_{AA}$-NT, $M1_{R100dH}$-NT and H1-NT for screening. Experiments were performed at the same time each

day. Three mice were injected with VHH triplet-NT to assess the ability of VHH triplet-NT to get across

the BBB. To confirm the result from the five VHH-NT fusions, a blinded replication experiment was

performed with additional fifteen mice randomized using a random number generator into five groups

with three mice in each group.

APP_{SWE}/PSEN1dE9 (MMRRC Strain #034832) positive transgenic mice were purchased from Jackson labs

[47, 48], maintained on a hybrid (C57BL/6xC3H) background, and raised under protocols approved by

the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS)/ National Institute on Deafness and

Other Communication Disorders (NIDCD) Animal Care and Use Committee in the National Institutes of

Health (NIH) Clinical Center. Ten transgenic mice ages between 13-15 months, eight males and two

females, were randomly assigned to two groups. Five mice were injected with $M1_{P96H}$-triplet-647 and

five mice were injected with H1-triplet-647.

Injection of VHH-NTs and VHH-triplet-647s

Mice were anesthetized with 60% oxygen/ 40% medical air gas mixture containing 5% isoflurane in an

induction box. After a stable anesthesia plane was established, mice were maintained at 1.5-2%

isoflurane level. Artificial tears ointment was applied to prevent eye injury due to drying. Mice were

placed on an electrical heating pad to maintain body temperature at 37C°. The VHH-NTs, $M1_{WT}$-NT,

$M1_{P96H}$-NT, $M1_{AA}$-NT, $M1_{R100dH}$-NT and H1-NT were injected into wild-type C57BL/6J mice through the tail

vein using a 30 Gauge needle in a single bolus at a dose of 600nmol/kg body weight in 1xPBS. The VHH-

triplet-647s, $M1_{P96H}$-triplet-647 and H1-triplet-647, were injected intravenously through single bolus

injection at a dose of 1000nmol/kg body weight. Mice were maintained under anesthesia for

approximately 2-3 minutes. Following the procedure, the mice were allowed to recover on a heating pad

until fully ambulatory and then returned to their home cage with immediate access to food and water.

Temperature measurement

Infrared thermometry was used for temperature measurement using an infrared thermometer (Model#

62 MAX+, Fluke). Abdominal fur was removed by application of topical depilatory cream prior to

temperature measurement for precise data collection. Baseline temperature was measured three times

before intravenous (IV) injection with a time interval of 30min between measurements. Then, mouse

temperatures were measured at the time intervals of 30min, 1hr, 1.5hr, 2hr, 2.5hr, 3hr, 3.5hr, 4hr, 4.5hr

and 5hr after injection. All temperature measurements were performed by investigators blinded to the

identity of the injected VHH sample. Mice were briefly anesthetized (<20 seconds) with isoflurane for

each temperature measurement. In preliminary experiments we confirmed that this brief anesthesia did

not affect temperature.

Confocal microscopy of mice brains injected with triplet-647

Two hours post IV injection mice were sacrificed under isoflurane anesthesia by cardiac perfusion with

1X PBS + Heparin (10 units Heparin per milliliter 1X PBS). Following perfusion, mice were decapitated

using a pair of sharp surgical shears and the brain was carefully excised from the cranium. Brains were

fixed in 4% PFA for 24hrs then equilibrated in 30% sucrose for 48 hours. Then, mouse brains were

sectioned at 50 µm thickness using a freezing sliding microtome. Staining was performed to visualize

amyloid plaques using the Congo Red derivative X34.[49] Tissue was rinsed with 1xPBS two times. Then,

tissues were incubated in 40%EtOH/60%PBS at pH10 containing 10 µM X34 (SML1954-5MG, Sigma) for

10min. After X34 incubation, tissue was rinsed with milliQ water five times then differentiated in

40%EtOH/60%PBS at pH10 for 2min. After differentiation, the tissue was rinsed with miliQ water for

10min then mounted onto positively charged slides (EF15978Z, Daigger®). The mounted tissue sections

were allowed to dry overnight at room temperature and cover slipped using fluoromount-G (00-4958-

02, Invitrogen™).

To objectively evaluate the effect of intravenous injection of $M1_{P96H}$-Triplet-647 and H1-Triplet-647 on

APP/PS1 mice, brain sections at around 2.5mm posterior to bregma were selected for confocal

fluorescence imaging. The brain sections were equally divided into 10 parts in both horizontal (x) and

vertical (y) directions (**Additional file 1: Fig. S1**). X and y coordinates were randomly selected using by

random numbers from 1 to 10. When (x, y) coordinates fell onto a cortical area, stacks of images were

taken which covered 16µm depth (z direction) starting from the top of the brain section. When (x, y)

coordinates fell outside of the cortex, the microscope was moved to the next randomized (x, y)

coordinates without taking images. Brain sections were imaged using a Zeiss LSM 510 microscope.

Stacks of images were acquired with eight images per stack and 2μm optical thickness at 20x

magnification using a Zeiss Plan-Apochromat 20x/0.8NA lens. Images were acquired using laser

wavelength at 633nm to visualize the VHH triplets conjugated with 647 dye and 405 nm wavelength

laser to visualize the X-34 dye. For 647 channel images, laser at wavelength 633nm was used with a

LP650 filter and laser power set to be at transmission 100%. For X34 channel images, laser at

wavelength 405nm was used with a BP420-480 filter and laser power set to be at transmission 15%. The

images were exported in lsm file format for image analysis using ImageJ.

Fluorescent confocal microscopy - Naïve brain as controls

Naïve APP/PS1 positive mouse brain sections stained only with X-34 for fluorescence confocal

microscopy were used as a negative control. Naïve APP/PS1 positive mouse brain sections stained with

both X34 and *ex vivo* M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-647 for fluorescence confocal microscopy were used as a positive

control. For *ex vivo* M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-647 staining, naïve brains were sectioned and washed in 1XPBS.

Sections were incubated in 3% normal donkey serum for 30min to block non-specific binding. After

blocking, tissue sections were incubated overnight at 4C° in M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-647 at a concentration of

10ug/ml in blocking solution. Tissues were then washed in 1xPBS three times followed by X34 staining as

described.

Automated image analysis

To quantitatively analyze the confocal microscope images, thresholding and particle analysis were

performed to remove background signals and isolate target structures of interest. The percent area of

X34 stained amyloid plaques was quantified with thresholding at (0, 30) followed by Particle analysis. To

remove low signal background, 647 channel image thresholding was set at 0-1000. Then the 647 channel

images was analyzed with particle analysis. The parameters for particle analysis were set to be 0-1000

pixels for size and 0.1-1.0 for circularity. The parameters for thresholding and particle analysis were

determined through testing of different parameters to capture the qualitative morphology of amyloid

plaques as assessed by experienced investigators. Amyloid plaque levels were represented as % area of

X34 coverage and VHH triplet-647 entry into the brain parenchyma was represented as % area of Alexa

647 dye coverage in the areas with X34 staining. Because there is mouse-to-mouse variability in plaque

size and X34 staining intensity, we analyzed the ratio of the Triplet-647 coverage to X34 coverage.

Statistical analysis

Unpaired student t-test were performed to evaluate the differences between the transcytosis ability of

M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647 and H1-triplet-647 to amyloid plaques in APP/PS1 transgenic mice brains. Graphs

were created using Prism. Sample sizes were based on availability of transgenic mice and previous

experiments. No formal power calculations were performed.

Results

Endotoxin removal

VHHs contamination by endotoxins is a byproduct of expression in *E. Coli* cells [50]. Endotoxin can

induce systemic inflammation and cause disruptive BBB changes [51]. It was found that the excess

endotoxin level in VHH-NT fusions can cause additional hypothermia (**Additional file 1: Fig. S2**). To avoid

potential hypothermia effects caused by endotoxin, endotoxin was removed after purification. After

endotoxin removal, the level of endotoxin level in VHHs was less than 0.1 endotoxin unit/ml (EU/ml)

within normal range [52].

Anti-mTfR VHH variant screening based on binding affinity measurement

VHH monomer-NT (M1-NT and H1-NT) and VHH-heterotrimer-NT (M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-NT) had characteristics

consistent with expectation. **Fig. S3 and S4** showed the SDS-PAGE gel and exemplar size-exclusion

column results of the VHH monomer-NT and VHH-heterotrimer-NT after purification (**Additional file 1:**

Fig. S3 and S4). VHH monomer-NTs had size around 14kDa (**Additional file 1: Fig. S3**) and VHH

heterotrimer-NTs had size between 38-49kDa (**Additional file 1: Fig. S4**).

Histidine mutations could potentially impart pH dependence of binding [53]. Histidine protonation at

lower pH-values can increase dissociation rate of antibodies to their receptors. Maeda et al. found that

the dissociation rate was less rapid in the intracellular acidic compartments once histidine was deleted

from human epidermal growth factor [54]. In this study, we generated different M1 variants based on

the effect of histidine on VHH dissociation rate. **Fig. S5.** shows the mTfR ELISA on M1 variants: $M1_{P96H}$,

$M1_{WT}$ and $M1_{R100dH}$ (**Additional file 1: Fig. S5**). Comparing M1 variant binding to mTfR under normal

physiological pH (pH = 7.2) and acidic pH (pH = 5.5), lower pH did not alter the dissociation of $M1_{WT}$ to

mTfR but substantially impacted the dissociation of $M1_{P96H}$ to mTfR.

Fig. 2. Affinity binding curves of the five M1-NT variants: M1$_{WT}$-NT (**a.**), M1$_{P96H}$-NT (**b.**), M1$_{R100dH}$-NT (**c.**), M1$_{AA}$-NT (**d.**) and H1-NT (**e.**) binding affinity (K$_D$) to mTfR. Using biolayer interferometry on an Octet Red96 system, association and dissociation rates were determined by immobilizing biotinylated VHH onto streptavidin-coated optical sensors. The M1-NT variant association and dissociation curves to mTfR were plotted and the affinity of each to mTfR was calculated. (n.b. = no binding)

408   Then the affinity of M1 variants to mTfR was measured using Octet. Based on Octet measurement, the

409   affinity (KD) of M1$_{WT}$-NT, M1$_{P96H}$-NT, and M1$_{R100dH}$-NT to mTfR were <1nM, 1.12nM, 1.52nM. While the

410   affinity (KD) of M1$_{AA}$-NT and H1-NT to mTfR was not detectable. **Fig. 2** shows the association and

411   dissociation curves of the M1$_{WT}$-NT, M1$_{P96H}$-NT, M1$_{AA}$-NT, M1$_{R100dH}$-NT and H1-NT to mTfR. M1$_{WT}$-NT,

412   M1$_{P96H}$-NT, and M1$_{R100dH}$-NT bond to mTfR well while M1$_{AA}$-NT and H1-NT showed no binding.

M1 variant screening for BBB transcytosis using neurotensin fusion and hypothermia assessment

To assess BBB transcytosis ability, several M1 variants were fused to NT and screened based on the

extent of hypothermia effects. Three M1 variant NT fusions, including M1$_{WT}$-NT, M1$_{R100dH}$-NT and M1$_{P96H}$-

NT were injected to WT mice. NT alone was injected into WT mice at the same molarity as an initial

Fig. 3. The use of NT fusion to VHHs for VHH screening via hypothermia as an indication of CNS target engagement. The M1 variants with different affinities to mTfR have different hypothermic effects. Among the three M1 variants injected to mice at the same dose 600nmol/kg body weight (n = 3 per group), M1$_{P96H}$-NT produced the most prominent hypothermia effect, with a maximum temperature drop of about 6C° and duration for about 4hrs.

negative control. At a dose of 600nmol/kg body weight, the M1 variants with different binding affinities

to mTfR show different hypothermia effects (**Fig. 3**). M1$_{WT}$-NT reduced temperatures by approximately

2C°, with an effect that lasted approximately 2 hours. M1$_{P96H}$-NT, at the same dose, decreased

temperature by 6C° with effects that lasted more than 4 hours, indicating that M1$_{P96H}$-NT appeared to

improve CNS penetration. NT alone did not show any hypothermia effect, indicating that peripherally

administered NT alone does not appear to cross the BBB into the CNS. M1$_{R100dH}$-NT gave less than 2C° of

hypothermia effect. Mouse body temperatures were stable at baseline.

To confirm and extend these findings, a blinded experiment was performed. The previous three M1

variants, plus a fourth mutant M1$_{AA}$-NT that has minimal TfR binding and a different VHH that binds to

human TfR called H1 were tested by an investigator blinded to the identity of the injected materials.

M1$_{AA}$-NT and H1-NT were tested at a higher molarity in a previous experiment and showed no obvious

hypothermia effects (**Additional file 1: Fig. S6**). The blinded experiment results were consistent with the

430   previous finding: M1$_{P96H}$-NT clearly reduced the temperature the most, with a maximum drop of about

431   4C°. The other M1-NTs and H1-NT did not reduce the temperature substantially (**Fig. 4**). These results

Fig. 4. Hypothermic effect of M1 VHH-NT fusions in a randomized, blinded cohort. Five VHH-NT fusions M1$_{WT}$-NT, M1$_{P96H}$-NT, M1$_{AA}$-NT, M1$_{R100dH}$-NT and H1-NT were blinded by an independent investigator. Each blinded VHH-NT fusion was injected in a randomized fashion at a dose of 600nmol/kg body weight (n=3 per group) and body temperature measured over the indicated time interval. Following complete data collection of the temperature measurements, the results were unblinded. Consistent with previous finding, M1$_{P96H}$-NT gave the most prominent hypothermia effect.

432   indicate that temperature measurement experiments facilitated the identification of an anti-mTfR VHH

433   variant which induced substantial CNS effects.

434   **M1$_{P96H}$-NT dose effect**

435   To understand whether the amount of M1$_{P96H}$-NT injected to mice affects the extent of hypothermia

436   effects, we injected M1$_{P96H}$-NT to WT mice at four different doses: 67nmol/kg body weight, 200nmol/kg

Fig. 5. M1$_{P96H}$-NT dose effect in WT mice after IV injection. This figure shows the dose effect of M1$_{P96H}$-NT in WT mice after tail vein injection (n = 3 per group). The hypothermia effect was stronger and lasted longer time with dose increased from 67nmol/kg body weight to 1800nmol/kg body weight.

body weight, 600nmol/kg body weight, and 1800nmol/kg body weight. Twelve mice were used in this

experiment, with three mice at each dose (**Fig. 5**). At the two lower doses, there was minimal

hypothermia effects. With increased M1$_{P96H}$-NT concentration, the maximum temperature drop

increased to about 8C° and also the duration of hypothermia was extended to as long as 5 hours. Thus,

these was an apparently monotonic dose-response relationship between intravenous M1$_{P96H}$-NT and

hypothermia.

Temperature effect of M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-NT

Based on the octet results and temperature measurement, M1$_{P96H}$ was chosen as the variant to use to

assess ability to cross the BBB after conjugating to a payload. As a proof of concept, we used the anti-Aβ

VHH dimer Nb3-Nb3 as the payload fused in a single polypeptide with M1$_{P96H}$ and NT and named M1$_{P96H}$-

Triplet-NT, the M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet NT, was injected intravenously into three WT mice. Body temperature was

Fig. 6. Measurement of M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-NT hypothermia effect. M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-NT was injected
at dose of 600nmol/kg body weight (n = 3) and caused a temperature drop of about 4C°.

measured as described in the Temperature measurement section. **Fig. 6** shows the temperature change

after tail vein injection of M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-NT. There was about 4C° temperature drop after the

intravenous injection and the hypothermia effect peaked at about 1 hour post injection. This result

confirmed that after fusing to an anti-Aβ VHH dimer payload, the M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-NT was still able to get

across the BBB and exert a CNS effect.

Affinity measurement of VHH-Triplet

To confirm that fusion with Nb3-Nb3 did not affect the binding ability of M1$_{P96H}$ and Nb3-Nb3 dimer to

their targets, the affinity of M1$_{P96H}$-triplet to mTfR and to Aβ were measured to be 1.63nM and 9.98nM

using Octet (**Additional file 1: Fig. S7**). The affinity of the M1$_{P96H}$-triplet to mTfR was on the same order

before and after the fusion. The affinity of H1-Triplet-647 to mTfR and Aβ was also assessed using Octet

and measured to be no binding to mTfR and 9.44nM to Aβ (**Additional file 1: Fig. S7**). It was verified that

the fusion of M1$_{P96H}$ and H1 to VHH dimer Nb3-Nb3 did not change their binding affinities.

To ensure that the dye labeling did not affect M1$_{P96H}$-triplet binding to mTfR, a mTfR ELISA on M1$_{P96H}$-

triplet before and after Alexa 647 dye labelling was performed. The binding curves before and after

labeling overlapped with each other (**Additional file 1: Fig. S8**), indicating that the Alexa 647 dye labeling

did not affect the binding.

Direct assessment of brain target engagement after intravenous injection of VHHs using confocal

microscopy

VHH-Triplets were injected to APP/PS1 positive transgenic mice to directly assess brain target (Aβ)

engagement. Ten transgenic mice were randomized into two groups, with five mice in each group. Five

mice were injected with M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-647 and five mice were injected with H1-Triplet-647 as a

negative control which does not bind to mTfR. Because the hypothermia effect was most prominent in

the first two hours post injection in previous experiments using NT fusions, transgenic mice were

Fig 7. Representative immunofluorescent confocal microscopy of mice brains 2 hours after intravenous injection. 647 channel (**a.**) and X34 channel (**b.**) microscopy of mice brains injected with H1-Triplet-647. 647 channel (**c.**) and X34 channel (**d.**) microscopy of mice injected with M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-647.

sacrificed two hours post IV injection. **Fig. 7** shows exemplar confocal images of brains injected with

M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647 or H1-triplet-647. From the exemplar images, it appeared that most of the 647 signals

were similar to background, with some areas that had morphology consistent with amyloid plaque

labeling. However, surprisingly, the confocal imaging patterns were similar in both M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647

and H1-triplet-647 injected mice, suggesting a modest amount of non-specific BBB crossing and Aβ

plaque binding plus background autofluorescence, rather than the expected extensive mTfR-mediated

transcytosis and Aβ plaque binding.

To confirm that the lack of anti-Aβ plaque binding after IV injection by M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647 was not caused

by the inability of the Nb3-Nb3 to label Aβ in the context of the M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647 fusion construct, an

ex vivo labeling experiment was performed. We labeled brain sections from a naïve APP/PS1 positive

mouse with M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-647 using modest concentrations and no antigen retrieval. **Fig. 8** shows that

Fig. 8. Representative immunofluorescent confocal microscopy of ex vivo APP/PS1 positive mouse brain sections. 647 channel (**a.**) and X34 channel (**b.**) microscopy of the ex vivo brain sections labeled with M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-647. 647 channel (**c.**) and X34 channel (**d.**) microscopy of the ex vivo brain sections without M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-647 labeling.

the Nb3-Nb3 dimer part of M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-647 was able to bind to amyloid plaques, with substantially

enhanced fluorescence signals in areas of plaques. Thus, the modest plaque labeling after intravenous

injection with M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647 is not likely to be attributed to lack of plaque binding affinity.

Autofluorescence was relatively modest in the 647 channel in sections labeled with only X34 (**Fig. 8c-d**).

Because of the possibility of subconscious bias in selecting regions for imaging and to assess for more

subtle quantitative differences between M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647 and H1-triplet-647 plaque labeling, we

performed randomized, blinded, automated analyses of the brain sections to objectively compare the

confocal imaging results. Eleven or twelve confocal stacks of images were acquired at randomly selected

x, y coordinates in cortex (**Additional file 1: Fig. S1**). Confocal images of brain sections were processed

using ImageJ for quantitative assessment.

The % area of X34 coverage, % area of Triplet-647 coverage and the % area ratio of Triplet-647/X34

coverage were averaged across the eleven to twelve images stacks acquired for each mouse brain. The

average values of % area of each mouse brain was plotted in **Fig. 9**. Comparing mouse brains injected

Fig. 9. % area and % area ratio of X34 channel images and 647 channel images. **a**. The % area of X34 coverage in the X34 images. There was no significant difference for mice injected with H1-triplet-647 or M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647; unpaired student t-test, p= 0.3341 **b.** The % area of Triplet-647 coverage in 647 channel images. There was no significant difference for mice injected with H1-triplet-647 or M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647; unpaired student t-test, p = 0.4815. **c.** The % area ratio of Triplet-647/X34 coverage. There was no significant difference for mice injected with H1-triplet-647 or M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647; unpaired student t-test, p = 0.3788. 647 channel images and the ratio of 647 channel/X34 channel images.

with M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647 or H1-triplet-647, the average values of % area of Triplet-647 coverage/% area

X34 coverage had no significant difference (**Fig. 9c**). There was also no significant difference for % area

X34 coverage or % area Triplet-647 coverage (**Fig. 9a, b**).

Alternative Confocal Image Processing – thresholding and intensity measurement

To ensure the finding was not affected by the specific analysis method, confocal images of brain sections

were analyzed in several alternative ways using ImageJ **(Additional file 1: Fig. S9)**. First, X34 images were

alternatively thresholded at (0, 10) and (0, 30) and were converted to binary images. Because amyloid-

beta pathology can extend beyond the boundaries of X34 positive fibrillar plaque cores, the X34 images

thresholded at (0, 30) were also processed with dilation in ImageJ to add pixels from the edges of

plaques. These plaque and peri-plaque regions identified on the X34 images were applied to the 647

channel images to calculate the mean 647 signal of these regions. The mean 647 signals were averaged

across image stacks acquired for each mouse brain The average values of mean 647 signals of each brain

were plotted in **Fig. 10.** There was no significant difference of the mean 647 signal between the two

Fig. 10. Averaged mean fluorescence in the 647 channel of plaques containing regions. **a.** The threshold for X34 images was set to be at (0, 10) There was no significant difference between the mean signals from mice injected with H1-triplet-647 and mice injected with M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647; unpaired student t-test, p = 0.6404. **b.** The threshold for X34 images was set to be at (0, 30), then the image was eroded for four times. There was no significant difference between the mean signals from mice injected with H1-triplet-647 and mice injected with M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647; unpaired student t-test, p = 0.5527. **c.** The threshold for X34 images was set to be at (0, 30). There was no significant difference between the mean signals from mice injected with H1-triplet-647 and mice injected with M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647; unpaired student t-test, p = 0.4829.

groups in any of these analyses. These findings confirmed that there was no detectible receptor

mediated transcytosis of M1$_{P96H}$-triplet-647 into the cortex, despite good evidence for a CNS effect for

the same construct when fused to neurotensin.

Discussion

In this study, a modular system was designed to efficiently test the ability of anti-mTfR VHHs to cross the

BBB using NT-induced hypothermia as a readout. Because only NT in the CNS can induce hypothermia

effects [34, 39, 41, 55], experimentally measured hypothermia was used to infer the VHHs' ability to

cross the BBB through transferrin receptor mediated transcytosis followed by VHH-NT fusion binding to

neurotensin receptors. Using this NT-based screening system, this study successfully identified an anti-

mTfR VHH variant, M1$_{P96H}$, which has good binding properties to the mouse TfR and appeared to

mediate BBB transport efficiently. To attempt to validate the ability of this anti-mTfR VHH to carry

cargos across BBB, this anti-mTfR VHH was fused with an anti-Aβ VHH dimer and fused to NT. The

M1$_{P96H}$-Triplet-NT retained substantial hypothermia effects after intravenous injection, confirming the

BBB transcytosis ability of this triplet-NT fusion. However, the modular system for VHH screening does

not appear to translate effectively into target binding in the cortex. To assess brain target engagement,

M1$_{P96H}$-triplet was conjugated to the fluorescent Alexa 647 dye and the dye conjugates were injected

intravenously into APP/PS1 positive transgenic mice. A similar VHH triplet dye conjugate, H1-triplet

which does not binding mTfR was used as a control. Surprisingly, there was no significant difference of

the amyloid plaque binding between these two VHH triplet dye conjugates. This result was not likely due

to failure of plaque binding, because the VHH triplet dye conjugates bound plaques well in *ex vivo*

experiments. Thus, the likely explanation for our findings was that the VHH triplet dye conjugates did

not effectively cross the BBB in the cortex; the hypothermia effect induced by NT did not correspond to

target engagement in cortex. The finding indicates that the use of NT as a rapid screening platform for

anti-mTfR VHHs does not necessarily predict generalized cargo delivery across the BBB.

The lack of correspondence between NT induced hypothermia after intravenous injection and brain

target engagement could be possibly explained by the concept that the BBB is not a unitary

phenomenon, and the permeability of BBB may be different from brain region to brain region. The

hypothalamus is the center for thermoregulation, and likely to be the site of action of NT in the brain.

The preoptic area of hypothalamus contains microcircuitry through which cutaneous and core thermal

signals are integrated for thermoregulation and temperature homeostasis [56, 57]. Studies have found

that the interface between the median eminence and the arcuate nucleus of the hypothalamus is

somewhat leaky to molecules in the circulation [58, 59]. Cheunsuang et al. confirmed the specialized

nature of median eminence and medial arcuate nucleus BBB by testing the distribution of

hydroxystilbamidine and wheat germ agglutinin after intravenous injection [58]. They found that

hydroxystilbamidine was taken into the median eminence and medial part of the arcuate nucleus, while

the wheat germ agglutinin diffusely distributed in the arcuate nucleus and median eminence following

intravenous injection. Furthermore, Morita and Miyata reported the accessibility of low molecular

weight blood-derived molecules to the parenchyma in the median eminence and arcuate nucleus [60].

The hypothermia effect caused by NT binding to NT receptor is likely to be mediated in the

hypothalamus [39]. Young et al. explored the distribution of NT receptors in rat brains and found

moderate to high density of NT receptors in hypothalamus. The hypothermia effect was induced when

NT was injected to medial, lateral preoptic and anterior area of the hypothalamus. Thus, the dissociation

between robust NT-mediated hypothermia effects vs. negligible binding to amyloid plaques in cortex

after IV injection could be explained by a relatively leaky hypothalamic BBB. Future studies will be

required to directly test this possibility.

Limitations

There are several limitations of this study. First, although the $M1_{P96H}$-NT induced substantial

hypothermia, the kinetics of this anti-mTfR VHH variant have not been fully optimized. **Fig. 2** shows that

the dissociation rate of the $M1_{P96H}$ from mTfR was 1.33×10^{-4} which could be still too low. Based on

Hultqvist et al., after the VHH binds to the TfR and the complex is internalized, the VHH needs to

dissociate from the TfR to get released efficiently into the brain parenchyma [61]. When the dissociation

rate is too slow, VHHs may not unbind from the TfR and not get released into the brain parenchyma.

Second, it is possible that dye modification with Alexa 647 affected BBB transcytosis even though it did

not affect mTfR binding affinity *in vitro* (**Additional file 1: Fig S8**). Alternative labeling strategies will

need to be tested in future experiments. Reduction in autofluorescence due to lipofuscin [62] may also

improve the sensitivity of fluorescent dye-based detection methods. Third, the APP/PS1 mice used in

the study can also develop astrogliosis [63]. It is possible that the astrogliosis around the plaques could

impair BBB transcytosis. Fourth, we do not know the mTfR binding epitope of M1, though it does not

appear to interfere with transferrin binding (not shown). Also, it is formally possible, though unlikely,

that older APP/PS1 transgenic mice have a less permeable BBB than young WT mice; we have not

directly tested hypothermia effects in older APP/PS1 mice. A minor limitation is that the temperature

measurement was conducted using an infrared thermometer. Although belly fur was removed to

decrease variation and increase the accuracy and precision of temperature measurement, the use of

infrared thermometer to measure belly temperature still introduces inter- and intra- user error. Also,

the mice need to be anesthetized for acquisition of a steady temperature using the thermometer.

Although we kept the anesthesia time short (about 20 sec) each time to minimize the influence of

anesthesia on mouse body temperature. The use of anesthesia still introduced extra variations. Other

temperature measurement methods such as the use of implanted thermometers which provide real-

time temperature readings and eliminate interference with mice should be considered for future

experiments. Finally, we acknowledge that only one brain section posterior to bregma was analyzed for

each mouse. More brain sections for each mouse which cover additional brain areas, including

hypothalamus, will need to be imaged and analyzed in the future.

Future directions

There are many important future directions for this line of investigation. We are in the process of

screening other VHH variants for anti-mTfR and anti hTfR-mediated BBB transcytosis. Because the NT

induced hypothermia effect does not correspond to target engagement of targets in other brain areas

like cortex, an alternative, efficient approach to assess BBB transcytosis is needed. To allow high

throughput testing and prediction of therapeutic and diagnostic agent delivery to the CNS, *in vitro* BBB

models have been used. Cecchelli et al. developed a human *in vitro* BBB model using cord blood-derived

hematopoietic stem cells [64]. This model shows good correlation between *in vitro* predicted ratio of

unbound drug concentration in brain and *in vivo* ratio reported in humans. Shayan et al. made a murine

in vitro BBB model using murine brain microvascular endothelial cells which also shows good correlation

of compound permeability compared with *in vivo* values [65]. However, these *in vitro* models do not

always reflect the *in vivo* BBB function. Garberg et al. evaluated multiple different *in vitro* models in

comparison with an *in vivo* mouse brain uptake assay to understand the *in vitro* models' potential to

predict *in vivo* transport of compounds across BBB [66]. Low correlations between *in vitro* and *in vivo*

data were obtained with a total of twenty-two compounds. Because of the complexity of the *in vivo*

environment, *in vitro* BBB models were not recommended to be used in isolation to assess target

engagement in brain [67]. There are many other methods to assess BBB transcytosis. For example,

Stocki et al. tested the BBB transcytosis of a variable domain of new antigen receptors (VNAR) TXB2 by

fractionating capillaries from the brain parenchyma and measured the concentration in capillaries and

brain parenchyma [34]. Yu et al. assessed the uptake of an anti-TfR antibody by homogenizing the brain

target areas and measuring the antibody concentration with ELISA [17]. A new screening platform will

need to be established and tested in the future to facilitate of the discovery of optimal anti-mTfR VHHs.

There were no apparent safety concerns raised during the experiments reported here, but the safety

profile of the VHHs will be formally assessed in the future to make sure that the binding of VHHs to the

mTfR does not interfere with physiological iron uptake and that the foreign protein constructs do not

cause major immunological responses or other toxicities.

In addition, extension of VHH fusion protein half-life in the circulation may improve BBB transcytosis.

The half-life of single VHHs and VHH triplets was measured to be 2-3 minutes in the mouse after IV

injection [68]. The lack of differences in brain signal may be caused by the fast clearance of the VHHs,

which did not allow enough VHHs to bind to the TfR on the brain endothelial cells. Conjugation of the

VHHs to albumin binding domains, immunoglobulin Fc domains or PEG to prolong VHH' half-lives will be

tested in the future [69-71].

While not directly related to the main aims of the project involving development of brain MRI molecular

contrast agents, the mechanisms underlying potential differences in BBB function in the hypothalamus

vs. cortex are worthy of further investigation. To begin, target engagement of the Triplet-647 in

hypothalamus will need to be assessed. The hypothalamus area of the brain sections will be imaged with

confocal microscope and analyzed using ImageJ. Then, the $M1_{P96H}$ could be conjugated to nanobodies

against another widely distributed endogenous target such as the ATP-gated ion channel P2X7, which is

widely distributed throughout the brain [72]. $M1_{P96H}$-anti P2X7 VHH fusion would then be intravenously

injected to mice and its target engagement in cortex and hypothalamus would be assessed and

compared. Furthermore, different sizes of dextrans could be intravenously injected to the mice to

understand the BBB penetration capacity in hypothalamus and other brain regions [60].

The ultimate goal of this study is to develop a family of molecular MRI contrast agents for diagnosis and

assessment of neurodegenerative diseases. Misdiagnosis of neurodegenerative diseases is common

because of their heterogeneous nature [73]. Early diagnosis of neurodegenerative diseases could help

with early treatments and delay hospitalization, and accurate identification of target populations could

help with the development of new treatments [73, 74]. MRI has been widely used for imaging

neurodegenerative diseases; however, structural MRI provides indirect and nonspecific measurements.

Neurodegenerative diseases are characterized by abnormal accumulation of misfolded proteins

including α-synuclein, tau, TDP-43 and Huntingtin in the CNS. Novel families of MRI contrast agents with

VHH and IONPs would allow visualization of pathologically specific biomarkers in the living human brain:

each VHH would bind to the misfolded proteins while the IONPs provide T1 MRI signals. We have

characterized the *in vivo* pharmacokinetics of the contrast agent and optimized the MRI sequence for

MR T1 imaging [68, 75], but have not optimized BBB transcytosis of contrast agents. IONPs have been

widely in a research context as MRI molecular contrast agents but are not typically used in clinical

practice. Liu et al., developed an oligomer-specific scFv antibody W20 conjugated superparamagnetic

iron oxide nanoparticles which specifically bound to oligomers in transgenic mouse models of

Parkinson's disease or Huntington's disease and provided MRI signals [76]. Sillerud et al. synthesized an

anti-AβPP conjugated superparamagnetic iron oxide nanoparticle for MRI detection of amyloid plaques

in AD [77]. However, none of these contrast agents have provided optimal BBB penetration to allow high

quality *in vivo* imaging. The ability of molecular contrast agents to cross the BBB and bind to brain

targets in sufficient quantity to give conspicuous MRI signals will need be tested with *in vivo* MR imaging

in the future.

Conclusions

This study used a NT based modular system to screen anti-mTfR VHHs for transferrin receptor mediated

transcytosis across BBB. A M1 variant, $M1_{P96H}$, was identified with good performance in inducing

hypothermia, an effect which requires crossing the BBB. This M1 variant was fused to the anti-Aβ VHH

dimer and labeled with Alexa 647. Surprisingly, however, the dye labelled VHH did not show detectible

labeling of amyloid plaques compared with controls after intravenous injection into transgenic mice.

Other methods assessing VHH BBB transcytosis will need to be developed for screening VHHs to

facilitate the development of MRI molecular contrast agents.

661
662
List of abbreviations

VHH: Singlet domain antibodies

BBB: Blood brain barrier

RMT: receptor-mediated transcytosis

TfR: transferrin receptor

mTfR: mouse transferrin receptor

Aβ: Amyloid-β,

AD: Alzheimer's Disease,

NT: neurotensin

CNS: central nervous system

IV: intravenous

HCAbs: heavy chain-only antibodies

scFv: single chain variable fragment

PBMC: peripheral blood mononuclear cell

cDNA: complimentary DNA

RIA: radioimmunoassay

PBS: Phosphate Buffered Saline

IPTG: isopropyl-beta-D-thiogalactoside

BSA: bovine serum albumin

BLI: Bio-layer interferometry

683
684
Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the Intramural Research Program of the NIH, NINDS. We thank Dr. Alan

Koretsky for providing a supportive intellectual environment. We thank the NHLBI Biophysics Core

Facility for the use of BLI instrument. We thank the NINDS Light Imaging Facility for use of the confocal

microscope. We thank Elvira Rodionova and Caroline Francescutti for expressing the VHHs. We thank Dr.

Yoshimi Enose-Akahata for assistance with the blinded experiment. The first author would like to thank

her PhD thesis committee, Dr. Philip Bayly, Dr. Dennis Barbour, Dr. Hongyu An and Dr. Vijay Sharma for

insightful suggestions.

Disclaimer

University, the Department of Defense, Henry M. Jackson Foundation for the Advancement of Military

Medicine, Inc., or other government agency.

Competing Interest

None.

Funding

National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS) Intramural Research Program,

Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Availability of data and materials

The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author

on reasonable request.

Authors' contributions

Conceptualization of the study: DB, TE and SS; Data collection and analysis: SS and TE; Drafting and

revision of manuscript: SS, TE and DB. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

All animal experiments were conducted under protocols approved by the National Institute of

Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS)/ National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication

Disorders (NIDCD) Animal Care and Use Committee in the National Institutes of Health (NIH) clinical

center under protocol number: 1406-21.

719
720
Additional file 1: Figure S1. Schematic graph for the manual unbiased random selection method for

confocal image acquisition. This schematic graph shows the logic of picking coordinates for confocal

images acquisition. The right hemisphere of the brain was equally divided into ten parts in both x and y

directions. (x, y) coordinates were randomly generated using a random number generator. The

microscope stage was moved to the target (x, y) coordinates using the stage rulings. When (x, y)

coordinates fell into the areas of cortex, images were taken and cropped to include only cortical areas.

When (x, y) coordinates fell out of the cortex the coordinates were discarded and no images were taken.

Source of the mouse brain: biorender.com. **Figure S2.** The hypothermia effect of M1WT-NT before and

after endotoxin removal. Endotoxin removal from in M1WT-NT preparations from E. coli decreased

hypothermia effects at time 30min, 1hr and 1.5hr after IV injection of the M1 WT -NT (n= 3 per group).

The maximum hypothermic effect of 600nmol/kg body weight of M1 WT -NT was approximately 2C° less

after endotoxin removal. **Figure S3.** Post purification assessment of the five VHH-NT fusions M1WT-NT,

M1P96H-NT, M1AA-NT, M1R100dH-NT and H1-NT The purity of the monomer VHH by (a) SDS-PAGE gel

and exemplar (b) size-exclusion chromatography over a Superdex75 column for M1WT-NT indicating

>95% purity and homogeneity of the material. **Figure S4.** Post purification assessment of M1P96H-

triplet-NT. The purity of the triplet VHH by (a.) SDS-PAGE gel and exemplar (b.) size-exclusion

chromatography over a Superdex75 column for M1P96H-Triplet-NT indicating >95% purity and

homogeneity of the material. **Figure S5.** Histidine mutations impart a pH dependent dissociation effect

in M1 VHH variants. M1 variants (a.) M1WT, (b.) M1P96H and (c.) M1R100dH were incubated on mTfR

coated ELISA plates, followed by a stringent wash with 1x PBS buffer at pH 7.2 or pH 5.5. Following pH

dependent washing, the bound VHH was detected with an anti-alpaca-peroxidase antibody and the

reaction terminated by addition of 1M HCl. Error bars represent the standard deviation of the mean

values at each data point. **Figure S6.** Lack of hypothermic effect with mTfR non-binding VHH-NT fusions.

M1AA-NT and H1-NT were injected at doses of 1400nmol/kg body weight. M1AA-NT and H1-NT lack

prominent hypothermia effects (n=3 per group). **Figure S7.** Affinity binding curves of M1P96H-triplet-NT

and H1-triplet-NT binding affinity (KD) to mTfR and Aβ. Using biolayer interferometry on a Octet Red96

system, association and dissociation rates were determined by immobilizing biotinylated VHH (a, c) or

biotinylated amyloid beta (b, d) onto streptavidin-coated optical sensors. M1P96H-triplet-NT

association and dissociation curve to (a) mTfR and (b) Aβ. The affinity of M1P96H-triplet-NTwas

measured to be 1.63nM to mTfR and 9.98nM to Aβ. H1-triplet-NT association and dissociation curve to

(c) mTfR and (d) Aβ. The affinity of H1-triplet-NT was measured to be 9.44nM to Aβ and no binding to

mTfR. (n.b. = no binding). **Figure S8.** mTfR ELISA on M1P96H-Triplet before and after 647 labelling. VHH

was incubated with mTfR absorbed to ELISA plates and detected using an anti-alpaca-peroxidase

antibody to determine the impact of fluorophore conjugation. The near overlapping binding curves

indicate a lack of effect following fluorophore labelling. Error bars represent the standard deviation of

the mean values at each data point. **Figure S9.** Quantitative analysis procedure for confocal images with

thresholding followed by automated plaque selection and mean 647 channel signal calculation. An

APP/PS1 positive naïve brain slice with ex vivo M1P96H-Triplet-647 labeling was used as the example.

Column a. shows a representative confocal microscope image of cortex X34 staining. Column b. shows

the X34 labeled images after thresholding. Column c. shows automated selection of regions of plaques

based on the thresholded images. Column d. shows the application of selected areas (from thresholded

X34 images) to the 647 channel images.

764
765
766

References

1.   LaFerla FM, Oddo S. Alzheimer's disease: Abeta, tau and synaptic dysfunction. Trends Mol Med. 2005;11:170-6. doi: 10.1016/j.molmed.2005.02.009.

2.   The Alzheimer's Association. 2021 Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. Alzheimers Dement. 2021;17:327-406. doi: 10.1002/alz.12328.

3.   Graham WV, Bonito-Oliva A, Sakmar TP. Update on Alzheimer's Disease Therapy and Prevention Strategies. Annu Rev Med. 2017;68:413-30. doi: 10.1146/annurev-med-042915-103753.

4.   Takizawa C, Thompson PL, van Walsem A, Faure C, Maier WC. Epidemiological and economic burden of Alzheimer's disease: a systematic literature review of data across Europe and the United States of America. J Alzheimers Dis. 2015;43:1271-84. doi: 10.3233/jad-141134.

5.   Risacher SL, Saykin AJ. Neuroimaging and other biomarkers for Alzheimer's disease: the changing landscape of early detection. Annu Rev Clin Psychol. 2013;9:621-48. doi: 10.1146/annurev-clinpsy-050212-185535.

6.   Clark CM, Davatzikos C, Borthakur A, Newberg A, Leight S, Lee VM, et al. Biomarkers for early detection of Alzheimer pathology. Neurosignals. 2008;16:11-8. doi: 10.1159/000109754.

7.   Beach TG, Monsell SE, Phillips LE, Kukull W. Accuracy of the clinical diagnosis of Alzheimer disease at National Institute on Aging Alzheimer Disease Centers, 2005-2010. J Neuropathol Exp Neurol. 2012;71:266-73. doi: 10.1097/NEN.0b013e31824b211b.

8.   Wurtman R. Biomarkers in the diagnosis and management of Alzheimer's disease. Metabolism. 2015;64:S47-50. doi: 10.1016/j.metabol.2014.10.034.

9.   ten Kate M, Redolfi A, Peira E, Bos I, Vos SJ, Vandenberghe R, et al. MRI predictors of amyloid pathology: results from the EMIF-AD Multimodal Biomarker Discovery study. Alzheimer's Research & Therapy. 2018;10:100. doi: 10.1186/s13195-018-0428-1.

10.   Morris E, Chalkidou A, Hammers A, Peacock J, Summers J, Keevil S. Diagnostic accuracy of 18F amyloid PET tracers for the diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. European Journal of Nuclear Medicine and Molecular Imaging. 2016;43:374-85. doi: 10.1007/s00259-015-3228-x.

11.   Lee G, Dallas S, Hong M, Bendayan R. Drug transporters in the central nervous system: brain barriers and brain parenchyma considerations. Pharmacol Rev. 2001;53:569-96.

12.   Pardridge WM. Drug and gene targeting to the brain with molecular Trojan horses. Nat Rev Drug Discov. 2002;1:131-9. doi: 10.1038/nrd725.

13.   Oller-Salvia B, Sánchez-Navarro M, Giralt E, Teixidó M. Blood-brain barrier shuttle peptides: an emerging paradigm for brain delivery. Chem Soc Rev. 2016;45:4690-707. doi: 10.1039/c6cs00076b.

14.   Malakoutikhah M, Teixidó M, Giralt E. Shuttle-mediated drug delivery to the brain. Angew Chem Int Ed Engl. 2011;50:7998-8014. doi: 10.1002/anie.201006565.

15.   Bien-Ly N, Yu YJ, Bumbaca D, Elstrott J, Boswell CA, Zhang Y, et al. Transferrin receptor (TfR) trafficking determines brain uptake of TfR antibody affinity variants. J Exp Med. 2014;211:233-44. doi: 10.1084/jem.20131660.

16.   Gupta Y, Jain A, Jain SK. Transferrin-conjugated solid lipid nanoparticles for enhanced delivery of quinine dihydrochloride to the brain. J Pharm Pharmacol. 2007;59:935-40. doi: 10.1211/jpp.59.7.0004.

17.   Yu YJ, Zhang Y, Kenrick M, Hoyte K, Luk W, Lu Y, et al. Boosting brain uptake of a therapeutic antibody by reducing its affinity for a transcytosis target. Sci Transl Med. 2011;3:84ra44. doi: 10.1126/scitranslmed.3002230.

18.   Wiley DT, Webster P, Gale A, Davis ME. Transcytosis and brain uptake of transferrin-containing nanoparticles by tuning avidity to transferrin receptor. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2013;110:8662-7. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1307152110.

19.   Jefferies WA, Brandon MR, Hunt SV, Williams AF, Gatter KC, Mason DY. Transferrin receptor on
endothelium of brain capillaries. Nature. 1984;312:162-3. doi: 10.1038/312162a0.
20.   Pardridge WM, Buciak JL, Friden PM. Selective transport of an anti-transferrin receptor antibody
through the blood-brain barrier in vivo. J Pharmacol Exp Ther. 1991;259:66-70.
21.   Hamers-Casterman C, Atarhouch T, Muyldermans S, Robinson G, Hamers C, Songa EB, et al.
Naturally occurring antibodies devoid of light chains. Nature. 1993;363:446-8. doi: 10.1038/363446a0.
22.   Hassanzadeh-Ghassabeh G, Devoogdt N, De Pauw P, Vincke C, Muyldermans S. Nanobodies and
their potential applications. Nanomedicine (Lond). 2013;8:1013-26. doi: 10.2217/nnm.13.86.
23.   Harmsen MM, De Haard HJ. Properties, production, and applications of camelid single-domain
antibody fragments. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol. 2007;77:13-22. doi: 10.1007/s00253-007-1142-2.
24.   van der Linden RH, Frenken LG, de Geus B, Harmsen MM, Ruuls RC, Stok W, et al. Comparison of
physical chemical properties of llama VHH antibody fragments and mouse monoclonal antibodies.
Biochim Biophys Acta. 1999;1431:37-46. doi: 10.1016/s0167-4838(99)00030-8.
25.   Oliveira S, van Dongen GA, Stigter-van Walsum M, Roovers RC, Stam JC, Mali W, et al. Rapid
visualization of human tumor xenografts through optical imaging with a near-infrared fluorescent anti-
epidermal growth factor receptor nanobody. Mol Imaging. 2012;11:33-46.
26.   Stijlemans B, Conrath K, Cortez-Retamozo V, Van Xong H, Wyns L, Senter P, et al. Efficient
targeting of conserved cryptic epitopes of infectious agents by single domain antibodies. African
trypanosomes as paradigm. J Biol Chem. 2004;279:1256-61. doi: 10.1074/jbc.M307341200.
27.   Food and Drug Administration. FDA approved caplacizumab-yhdp. February 2019.
https://www.fda.gov/drugs/resources-information-approved-drugs/fda-approved-caplacizumab-yhdp.
28.   Ishiwatari-Ogata C, Kyuuma M, Ogata H, Yamakawa M, Iwata K, Ochi M, et al. Ozoralizumab, a
Humanized Anti-TNFα NANOBODY® Compound, Exhibits Efficacy Not Only at the Onset of Arthritis in a
Human TNF Transgenic Mouse but Also During Secondary Failure of Administration of an Anti-TNFα IgG.
Frontiers in Immunology. 2022;13. doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2022.853008.
29.   D'Huyvetter M, Vos J, Caveliers V, Vaneycken I, Heemskerk J, Duhoux FP, et al. Phase I Trial of
(131)I-GMIB-Anti-HER2-VHH1, a New Promising Candidate for HER2-Targeted Radionuclide Therapy in
Breast Cancer Patients. J Nucl Med. 2021;62:1097-105. doi: 10.2967/jnumed.120.255679.
30.   Sheff J, Wang P, Xu P, Arbour M, Masson L, van Faassen H, et al. Defining the epitope of a
blood–brain barrier crossing single domain antibody specific for the type 1 insulin-like growth factor
receptor. Scientific Reports. 2021;11:4284. doi: 10.1038/s41598-021-83198-w.
31.   Stanimirovic DKK, K.; Haqqani, A.S.; Sulea, T.; Arbabi-Ghahroudi, M.; Massie, B.; Gilbert, R.,
inventorInsulin-like growth factor 1 receptor-specific antibodies and uses thereof patent
US10100117B2. 2018.
32.   Danis C, Dupré E, Zejneli O, Caillierez R, Arrial A, Bégard S, et al. Inhibition of Tau seeding by
targeting Tau nucleation core within neurons with a single domain antibody fragment. Mol Ther.
2022;30:1484-99. doi: 10.1016/j.ymthe.2022.01.009.
33.   Dupré E, Danis C, Arrial A, Hanoulle X, Homa M, Cantrelle FX, et al. Single Domain Antibody
Fragments as New Tools for the Detection of Neuronal Tau Protein in Cells and in Mice Studies. ACS
Chem Neurosci. 2019;10:3997-4006. doi: 10.1021/acschemneuro.9b00217.
34.   Stocki P, Szary J, Rasmussen CLM, Demydchuk M, Northall L, Logan DB, et al. Blood-brain barrier
transport using a high affinity, brain-selective VNAR antibody targeting transferrin receptor 1. Faseb j.
2021;35:e21172. doi: 10.1096/fj.202001787R.
35.   Carraway R, Leeman SE. The isolation of a new hypotensive peptide, neurotensin, from bovine
hypothalami. J Biol Chem. 1973;248:6854-61.
36.   Ratner C, Skov LJ, Raida Z, Bächler T, Bellmann-Sickert K, Le Foll C, et al. Effects of Peripheral
Neurotensin on Appetite Regulation and Its Role in Gastric Bypass Surgery. Endocrinology.
2016;157:3482-92. doi: 10.1210/en.2016-1329.

37.   Martin GE, Bacino CB, Papp NL. Hypothermia elicited by the intracerebral microinjection of
neurotensin. Peptides. 1980;1:333-9. doi: 10.1016/0196-9781(80)90011-x.
38.   Kokko KP, Hadden MK, Price KL, Orwig KS, See RE, Dix TA. In vivo behavioral effects of stable,
receptor-selective neurotensin[8-13] analogues that cross the blood-brain barrier. Neuropharmacology.
2005;48:417-25. doi: 10.1016/j.neuropharm.2004.10.008.
39.   Young WS, 3rd, Kuhar MJ. Neurotensin receptor localization by light microscopic
autoradiography in rat brain. Brain Res. 1981;206:273-85. doi: 10.1016/0006-8993(81)90532-1.
40.   Bissette G, Nemeroff CB, Loosen PT, Prange AJ, Lipton MA. Hypothermia and intolerance to cold
induced by intracisternal administration of the hypothalamic peptide neurotensin. Nature.
1976;262:607-9. doi: 10.1038/262607a0.
41.   Wouters Y, Jaspers T, De Strooper B, Dewilde M. Identification and in vivo characterization of a
brain-penetrating nanobody. Fluids Barriers CNS. 2020;17:62. doi: 10.1186/s12987-020-00226-z.
42.   Esparza TJ, Martin NP, Anderson GP, Goldman ER, Brody DL. High affinity nanobodies block
SARS-CoV-2 spike receptor binding domain interaction with human angiotensin converting enzyme.
Scientific Reports. 2020;10:22370. doi: 10.1038/s41598-020-79036-0.
43.   Pardon E, Laeremans T, Triest S, Rasmussen SGF, Wohlkönig A, Ruf A, et al. A general protocol
for the generation of Nanobodies for structural biology. Nature Protocols. 2014;9:674-93. doi:
10.1038/nprot.2014.039.
44.   Paraschiv G, Vincke C, Czaplewska P, Manea M, Muyldermans S, Przybylski M. Epitope structure
and binding affinity of single chain llama anti-β-amyloid antibodies revealed by proteolytic excision
affinity-mass spectrometry. J Mol Recognit. 2013;26:1-9. doi: 10.1002/jmr.2210.
45.   Martin AC. Accessing the Kabat antibody sequence database by computer. Proteins.
1996;25:130-3. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1097-0134(199605)25:1<130::AID-PROT11>3.0.CO;2-L.
46.   Quan S, Hiniker A, Collet JF, Bardwell JC. Isolation of bacteria envelope proteins. Methods Mol
Biol. 2013;966:359-66. doi: 10.1007/978-1-62703-245-2_22.
47.   Jankowsky JL, Fadale DJ, Anderson J, Xu GM, Gonzales V, Jenkins NA, et al. Mutant presenilins
specifically elevate the levels of the 42 residue beta-amyloid peptide in vivo: evidence for augmentation
of a 42-specific gamma secretase. Hum Mol Genet. 2004;13:159-70. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddh019.
48.   Jankowsky JL, Slunt HH, Ratovitski T, Jenkins NA, Copeland NG, Borchelt DR. Co-expression of
multiple transgenes in mouse CNS: a comparison of strategies. Biomol Eng. 2001;17:157-65. doi:
10.1016/s1389-0344(01)00067-3.
49.   Styren SD, Hamilton RL, Styren GC, Klunk WE. X-34, a fluorescent derivative of Congo red: a
novel histochemical stain for Alzheimer's disease pathology. J Histochem Cytochem. 2000;48:1223-32.
doi: 10.1177/002215540004800906.
50.   Mamat U, Wilke K, Bramhill D, Schromm AB, Lindner B, Kohl TA, et al. Detoxifying Escherichia
coli for endotoxin-free production of recombinant proteins. Microbial Cell Factories. 2015;14:57. doi:
10.1186/s12934-015-0241-5.
51.   Varatharaj A, Galea I. The blood-brain barrier in systemic inflammation. Brain Behav Immun.
2017;60:1-12. doi: 10.1016/j.bbi.2016.03.010.
52.   Food and Drug Administration. Bacterial Endotoxins/Pyrogens.
https://www.fda.gov/inspections-compliance-enforcement-and-criminal-investigations/inspection-
technical-guides/bacterial-endotoxinspyrogens. November 2014.
53.   Schröter C, Günther R, Rhiel L, Becker S, Toleikis L, Doerner A, et al. A generic approach to
engineer antibody pH-switches using combinatorial histidine scanning libraries and yeast display. MAbs.
2015;7:138-51. doi: 10.4161/19420862.2014.985993.
54.   Maeda K, Kato Y, Sugiyama Y. pH-dependent receptor/ligand dissociation as a determining
factor for intracellular sorting of ligands for epidermal growth factor receptors in rat hepatocytes. J
Control Release. 2002;82:71-82. doi: 10.1016/s0168-3659(02)00126-8.

55.   Tyler-McMahon BM, Boules M, Richelson E. Neurotensin: peptide for the next millennium. Regul
Pept. 2000;93:125-36. doi: 10.1016/s0167-0115(00)00183-x.
56.   Morrison SF. Central control of body temperature. F1000Res. 2016;5. doi:
10.12688/f1000research.7958.1.
57.   Yoo S, Blackshaw S. Regulation and function of neurogenesis in the adult mammalian
hypothalamus. Prog Neurobiol. 2018;170:53-66. doi: 10.1016/j.pneurobio.2018.04.001.
58.   Cheunsuang O, Stewart AL, Morris R. Differential uptake of molecules from the circulation and
CSF reveals regional and cellular specialisation in CNS detection of homeostatic signals. Cell and Tissue
Research. 2006;325:397-402. doi: 10.1007/s00441-006-0162-z.
59.   Haddad-Tóvolli R, Dragano NRV, Ramalho AFS, Velloso LA. Development and Function of the
Blood-Brain Barrier in the Context of Metabolic Control. Front Neurosci. 2017;11:224. doi:
10.3389/fnins.2017.00224.
60.   Morita S, Miyata S. Accessibility of low-molecular-mass molecules to the median eminence and
arcuate hypothalamic nucleus of adult mouse. Cell Biochem Funct. 2013;31:668-77. doi:
10.1002/cbf.2953.
61.   Hultqvist G, Syvänen S, Fang XT, Lannfelt L, Sehlin D. Bivalent Brain Shuttle Increases Antibody
Uptake by Monovalent Binding to the Transferrin Receptor. Theranostics. 2017;7:308-18. doi:
10.7150/thno.17155.
62.   Chen C, Liang Z, Zhou B, Li X, Lui C, Ip NY, et al. In Vivo Near-Infrared Two-Photon Imaging of
Amyloid Plaques in Deep Brain of Alzheimer's Disease Mouse Model. ACS Chem Neurosci. 2018;9:3128-
36. doi: 10.1021/acschemneuro.8b00306.
63.   Kamphuis W, Mamber C, Moeton M, Kooijman L, Sluijs JA, Jansen AH, et al. GFAP isoforms in
adult mouse brain with a focus on neurogenic astrocytes and reactive astrogliosis in mouse models of
Alzheimer disease. PLoS One. 2012;7:e42823. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0042823.
64.   Cecchelli R, Aday S, Sevin E, Almeida C, Culot M, Dehouck L, et al. A stable and reproducible
human blood-brain barrier model derived from hematopoietic stem cells. PLoS One. 2014;9:e99733. doi:
10.1371/journal.pone.0099733.
65.   Shayan G, Choi YS, Shusta EV, Shuler ML, Lee KH. Murine in vitro model of the blood-brain
barrier for evaluating drug transport. Eur J Pharm Sci. 2011;42:148-55. doi: 10.1016/j.ejps.2010.11.005.
66.   Garberg P, Ball M, Borg N, Cecchelli R, Fenart L, Hurst RD, et al. In vitro models for the blood-
brain barrier. Toxicol In Vitro. 2005;19:299-334. doi: 10.1016/j.tiv.2004.06.011.
67.   Stanimirovic DB, Bani-Yaghoub M, Perkins M, Haqqani AS. Blood-brain barrier models: in vitro to
in vivo translation in preclinical development of CNS-targeting biotherapeutics. Expert Opin Drug Discov.
2015;10:141-55. doi: 10.1517/17460441.2015.974545.
68.   Su S, Esparza TJ, Nguyen D, Mastrogiacomo S, Kim JH, Brody DL. Pharmacokinetics of Single
Domain Antibodies and Conjugated Nanoparticles Using a Hybrid near Infrared Method. Int J Mol Sci.
2021;22. doi: 10.3390/ijms22168695.
69.   van Faassen H, Ryan S, Henry KA, Raphael S, Yang Q, Rossotti MA, et al. Serum albumin-binding
V(H) Hs with variable pH sensitivities enable tailored half-life extension of biologics. Faseb j.
2020;34:8155-71. doi: 10.1096/fj.201903231R.
70.   Rotman M, Welling MM, van den Boogaard ML, Moursel LG, van der Graaf LM, van Buchem MA,
et al. Fusion of hIgG1-Fc to 111In-anti-amyloid single domain antibody fragment VHH-pa2H prolongs
blood residential time in APP/PS1 mice but does not increase brain uptake. Nucl Med Biol. 2015;42:695-
702. doi: 10.1016/j.nucmedbio.2015.03.003.
71.   Li Q, Barrett A, Vijayakrishnan B, Tiberghien A, Beard R, Rickert KW, et al. Improved Inhibition of
Tumor Growth by Diabody-Drug Conjugates via Half-Life Extension. Bioconjug Chem. 2019;30:1232-43.
doi: 10.1021/acs.bioconjchem.9b00170.

72. Lord B, Ameriks MK, Wang Q, Fourgeaud L, Vliegen M, Verluyten W, et al. A novel radioligand
for the ATP-gated ion channel P2X7: [3H] JNJ-54232334. Eur J Pharmacol. 2015;765:551-9. doi:
10.1016/j.ejphar.2015.09.026.
73. Basak I, Patil KS, Alves G, Larsen JP, Møller SG. microRNAs as neuroregulators, biomarkers and
therapeutic agents in neurodegenerative diseases. Cell Mol Life Sci. 2016;73:811-27. doi:
10.1007/s00018-015-2093-x.
74. Koikkalainen J, Rhodius-Meester H, Tolonen A, Barkhof F, Tijms B, Lemstra AW, et al. Differential
diagnosis of neurodegenerative diseases using structural MRI data. Neuroimage Clin. 2016;11:435-49.
doi: 10.1016/j.nicl.2016.02.019.
75. Kim JH, Dodd S, Ye FQ, Knutsen AK, Nguyen D, Wu H, et al. Sensitive detection of extremely
small iron oxide nanoparticles in living mice using MP2RAGE with advanced image co-registration.
Scientific Reports. 2021;11:106. doi: 10.1038/s41598-020-80181-9.
76. Liu XG, Lu S, Liu DQ, Zhang L, Zhang LX, Yu XL, et al. ScFv-conjugated superparamagnetic iron
oxide nanoparticles for MRI-based diagnosis in transgenic mouse models of Parkinson's and
Huntington's diseases. Brain Res. 2019;1707:141-53. doi: 10.1016/j.brainres.2018.11.034.
77. Sillerud LO, Solberg NO, Chamberlain R, Orlando RA, Heidrich JE, Brown DC, et al. SPION-
enhanced magnetic resonance imaging of Alzheimer's disease plaques in AβPP/PS-1 transgenic mouse
brain. J Alzheimers Dis. 2013;34:349-65. doi: 10.3233/jad-121171.