

RADIOIMMUNOCONJUGATES OF VARIOUS MONOCLONAL ANTIBODIES AS POTENTIAL ANTICANCER THERAPY – REVIEW

Marija AREV^{1*}, Paulina APOSTOLOVA¹, Emilija JANEVIK-IVANOVSKA¹

¹Goce Delčev University, Faculty of Medical Sciences, str. "Krstе Misirkov" No. 10-A, 2000 Štip, Republic of North Macedonia

*Corresponding author e-mail: marija.arev@ugd.edu.mk

Abstract

Radioimmunoconjugates consists of a monoclonal antibody (mAb) linked to a radionuclide. Monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) are immunoglobulins able to recognize unique epitopes on a single antigen. MAb therapy has emerged as a significant therapeutic choice for different types of cancer. When they contain a radioactive isotope for diagnostic or therapeutic purposes they belong to the group of radiopharmaceuticals. Radioisotopes are atoms that emit radiation and are used based on the type of radiation that is emitted. There are three types of radiation, alpha, beta, and gamma radiation. Alpha and beta radiation has a short range and are primarily used for radiotherapy purposes. Gamma radiation, on the other hand, has a wider range, is used for diagnostics, and can be detected using specialized detection systems.

To formulate a stable radiopharmaceutical, it is important to provide a stable link between the isotope and the carrier molecules (proteins, monoclonal antibodies, peptides, nanoparticles). The bifunctional chelators (BFC) contain a metal chelating group on one side and covalently binding to the biological molecules on the other side. Radioimmunoconjugates are the majority applied radiopharmaceuticals worldwide for diagnostic and therapeutic purposes and are composed of radioactive elements attached to the immune molecules, like monoclonal antibodies. Diagnostic radioimmunoconjugates can be used for body imaging and mostly for the identification of positive lesions and metastasis, while radiotherapeutics has shown efficacy in the treatment of solid tumors and hematologic malignancies.

Keywords: monoclonal antibodies, radioactive isotopes, bifunctional chelators, radioimmunoconjugates.

1. Development and structure of monoclonal antibodies

Antibodies are large Y-shaped proteins with a molecular weight of 150 kDa. They are composed of four polypeptide chains linked together by disulfide bonds: two light and two heavy chains. The heavy and the light chains have constant regions (c), which are identical to the same class of antibody, and unique variable regions (v), which contains antigen-binding region at the ends of the heavy and light chains. By enzymatic cleavage with papain, the antibody can be fragmented into two Fab and one Fc fragments. Fab fragments contain one variable region and one constant region. To be specific, the variable regions on Fab fragments contain three loops that are responsible for binding to the antigen, complementary determining regions - CDRs (CDR1, CDR2, CDR3). Fc fragment contains two constant regions and determines the antibody isotype (IgA, IgD, IgE, IgG, and IgM) and participates in the binding of effector cells and complement (Schroeder et al, 2010).

Human antibodies protect the body by two mechanisms: (I) direct binding and neutralization of the toxins and (II) activating of domestic immune response in two ways: complement-dependent cytotoxicity (CDC) and antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) (Stern et al, 2005, Brekke et al, 2003).

A monoclonal antibody is a laboratory-produced protein that is engineered to attach specific cancer cells. The progress of genetic engineering over the years has provided many opportunities for the design and production of four main categories of monoclonal antibodies (pure murine, chimeric, humanized, and pure human) (Reichert et al, 2007). At first, pure murine antibodies were used, but they showed two major

disadvantages. Because hail from rodents they are recognized by the human immune system and leads to the development of human anti-murine antibodies (HAMA). HAMA inactivates and eliminates the murine antibodies and generates allergic reactions and anaphylactic shock, because of the formation of the antibody-HAMA complex. Murine Fc fragment provides a restricted binding to effector cells and activation of indirect pathways CDC and ADCC (Kricka, 1999). To overcome these problems and to minimize immunogenicity, the murine antibody was engineered and were obtained new antibodies like human antibodies, which provided a good pharmacological response [Stern et al, 2005, Hosono et al, 1992].

Chimeric antibodies are produced by cloning recombinant DNA containing the genes of the variable region of the murine antibody and the genes of the constant region of human antibodies (Morrison et al, 1984). These antibodies have over 65% of the human parts and have shown less immunogenicity in comparison with pure murine antibodies (Hosono et al, 1992). The humanized antibodies contain more than 90% of human protein sequences and are obtained by transplanting the CDR of the murine antibody into a human antibody. Because they have only 5-10% of murine proteins, humanized antibodies have shown the lowest immunogenicity (Riechmann et al, 1988). The nomenclature of the antibodies originates from the type of antibody. The suffix of the drug name can be: -momab (murine), -ximab (chimeric), -zumab (humanized) and -mumab (human) (Gerber et al, 2008).

2. Radioisotopes

Radioisotopes employed in nuclear medicine can be divided according to the application (diagnostic or therapeutics) and the method of production (generator, cyclotron, or reactor). Radionuclides which are gamma ray emitters are used as imaging agents (Radioimmunoimaging), using gamma cameras and single-photon emission tomography (SPECT) as imaging methods or radionuclides that are positron emitters using positron emission tomography (PET). Radionuclides that emit beta rays (electrons) or alfa emitters are used for therapy (Radioimmunotherapy - RIT) (Barbet et al, 2012).

The choice of appropriate radionuclide is critical for the efficiency of radioimmunotherapy. Alfa emitters should have a short range in tissue, which lead to good specificity and linear energy transfer, which makes them very cytotoxic and physical half-life which is relevant to carrier biological half-life. Considering all these criteria, a few α -emitters can be appropriate for RIT: ^{212}Bi , ^{225}Ac , ^{213}Bi , ^{211}At , and ^{223}Ra (Larson et al, 2015, Imam et al, 2001). The advantage of these agents over beta and gamma radiation is that the inactivation of tumor cells is with few alfa particles, but on the other hand, alfa particles bind to their neighbor cells and irradiate them also. In some approved radiopharmaceuticals ^{223}Ra dichloride is indicated for castration-resistant to prostate cancer, symptomatic bone metastases, and no known visceral metastatic disease (Volkert et al, 1991).

^{131}I or ^{90}Y both are β - emitters approved from regulatory authorities, used for therapy for a long time, because of their emission characteristics, availability, and radiochemistry (Larson et al, 2015, Francoise et al, 2015). ^{131}I is for treatment of thyroid-related diseases such as Graves' disease, solitary hyper-functioning nodule, and toxic multinodular goiter (Yeong et al, 2014). ^{131}I and ^{90}Y both also can emit γ -rays which make them useful as imaging agents (Schubiger et al, 2006). Another beta emitter is ^{89}Sr used for painful bone metastases (Yeong et al, 2014). Under clinical trial are many beta emitters as ^{32}P , ^{153}Sm , ^{177}Lu , and ^{188}Re . Phase II clinical study of therapeutic effect of ^{177}Lu labeled J591 have shown accurate tumor targeting, well toleration and reversible tumor suppression (Schubiger et al, 2006, Tagawa et al, 2013, Holland et al, 2010).

Several radiopharmaceuticals of ^{131}I and ^{90}Y used as therapeutics and diagnostic agents are approved. Another radioisotope from the group of radiometals taking part as an RIT agent is ^{67}Cu which is a β -emitter, but its use is limited in contrast to ^{131}I (Vivier et al, 2018).

Term molecular imaging can be precisely described as 'in vivo imaging of biological processes with

appropriate molecular probes' and is a powerful technique for diagnosis purposes (Holland et al, 2010). As methods for imaging are employed: radiotracers, gamma (γ)- camera (planar) scintigraphy, SPECT, and PET (Boswell et al, 2007). Radioisotopes produced from cyclotrons suitable for PET are ^{11}C , ^{13}N , ^{15}O , and ^{18}F . Unconventional radioisotopes produced from the generator for PET are ^{62}Cu , ^{68}Ga , ^{82}Rb , ^{118}Sb , and ^{122}I (Holland et al, 2010). ^{89}Zr is also a positron emitter that binds to mAbs and has been used for PET imaging (Poot et al, 2018).

Isotopes of Iodine used as imaging agents are ^{123}I and ^{125}I (gamma emitters) and ^{124}I which is a positron emitter. ^{131}I can be used for both SPECT imaging and RIT (Boswell et al, 2007). Besides its advantages and its spread use, ^{131}I has prolonged γ -emission and need for patient isolation (Poot et al, 2018).

^{111}In , a gamma ray emitting radionuclide, from the group of radiometals, is used for SPECT imaging (Vivier et al, 2018, Boswell et al, 2007). The use of $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ is widespread because of its production from the ^{99}Mo generator. It is a gamma emitter agent used in SPECT imaging of prostate cancer, thrombus imaging, infection/inflammation imaging, and tumor imaging (Volkert et al, 1991, Holland et al, 2010, Liu et al, 1999).

Some of the antibodies used as radiopharmaceuticals may have direct interaction with radionuclides, which means don't need ligands for labeling, for ex. iodine and pertechnetate. For metalloradionuclides labeling is based on conjugation with most common bifunctional chelating compounds that may be linear as diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (EDTA), diethylenetriamine pentaacetic acid (DTPA) or macrocyclic as 1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7,10-tetraacetic acid (DOTA), polyaminopoly carboxylic acids, etc. These bifunctional compounds interact with lysines or cysteine residues from proteins and form a covalent bond (Barbet et al, 2012, Vivier et al, 2018, Boswell et al, 2007).

For stable complex formation, alpha radionuclide ^{212}Bi is labeled with bifunctional chelates such as: DOTA or 1,4,7,11-tetraazacyclotetradecane-1,4,7,11-tetraacetic acid (Imam, 2001).

As chelators for ^{64}Cu and ^{67}Cu labeling are triethylenetetramine (TETA), bis-amino bis-thiol (BAT), DOTA, and DTPA. For the preparation of ^{111}In labeled radioimmunocojugates with the desired uptake in targeted tissue and clearance from non-targeted tissues, are used various chelators as DTPA- ϵ -lysine, DTPA, 2-(4-isothiocyanatobenzyl)-6-methyldiethylene-triaminepentaacetic acid (1B4M-DTPA), (R)-2-amino-3-(4aminophenyl) propyl]-trans-(S, S)-cyclohexane-1,2-diamine-pentaacetic acid (CHX-B-DTPA) and cyclic anhydride of DTPA (cDTPA) which develop different characters, also on their metabolism. The same chelators (DOTA, DTPA, 1B4M-DTPA) have proved to be successful in ^{90}Y and ^{177}Lu antibody labeling. [20]. Most successful chelators to produce ^{89}Zr -mAbs, are iron-protected tetrafluorophenol-N-succinyl-desferal (TFP-N-suc-DFO-Fe) or isothiocyanatobenzyl-desferrioxamine B (DFO-Bz-NCS) (Poot et al, 2018).

As a ligand in $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ radiopharmaceuticals - $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ -sestamibi and $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ -bicisate are: 2-methoxy-2-methylpropylisonitrile (MIBI) and 1,1-ethylene dicyceteine diethyl ester, respectively (ECD). Another bifunctional ligand for $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ is hydrazinonicotinamide (HYNIC), which gives rapid and high yield radiolabeling (Liu et al, 1999).

^{68}Ga labeling via ligand 1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7,10-tetraacetic acid-D-Phe1-Tyr3-octreotide ([^{68}Ga]-DOTA-TOC) shows higher detection rate of primary neuroendocrine tumors and related bone metastasis (Gabriel et al, 2007).

3. Radioimmunoconjugates for cancer treatment

The choice of antibody-based pharmaceuticals depends on the type of target antigens, expressed on the surface of the cells in hematologic malignancies and solid tumors. Commonly targeted tumor-associated antigens, located on the cancer cell surface, are: specific antigens on B cells - CD20, CD22 (CD – cluster of differentiation); prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA), mucin 1 (MUC1), carcinoembryonic antigen

(CEA), pancarcinoma antigen (TAG-72), human epidermal growth factor receptor (NER2/neu receptor), epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL), epithelial cell adhesion molecule (Ep-CAM), Roundabout homolog 1 (ROBO1). Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), unlike other receptors, is located on the surface of vascular endothelial cells and is responsible for the development of new blood vessels that feed the new cancer tissue (Boswell *et al*, 2007).

Radioimmunotherapy (RIT) has proven like effectiveness in hematologic malignancies. On the other side, solid tumors besides their restricted response, are attractive targets for RIT. The most of preclinical research has been focused on improving the clinical response and pharmacokinetics of radioimmunoconjugates in solid tumors at the same levels as hematologic malignancies. The uptake of mAb in solid tumors is obstructed by poor vascularization, poor lymphatic drainage, and from high interstitial pressure which is achieved in this type of tumor. The future goals in the field of radiopharmacy have been focused on developing radioimmunopharmaceuticals with improved therapeutic response, high localization in the target tissue, and decreased binding with normal tissue (Boswell *et al*, 2007, Jain *et al*, 2013, Palanca-Wessel *et al*, 2014).

In addition, are reviewed the FDA approved and commonly investigated RIT for diagnosis and treatment of different types of cancers.

3.1 Lymphoma

RIT is most developed in lymphomas, compared to other cancers. Radiolabeled tumor specific antibodies have shown efficacy in Non-Hodkin's lymphoma (NHL), especially against CD20 antigen. Two anti-CD20 radiolabeled IgG antibodies are FDA (Food and Drug Administration) approved for treatment of NHL, Zevalin® kit was approved in 2002 and contain an antibody (ibrutinomab tiuksetin) and two isotopes ¹¹¹In (for imaging) and ⁹⁰Y (for therapy). One year later (2003), FDA had approved another good tolerated radiolabeled anti-CD20 antibody Bexxar® (¹³¹I-tositumomab) when is used as a first-line therapy (Mehren *et al*, 2003, Sharkey *et al*, 2006). Several radioimmunoconjugates of first approved anti-CD20 antibody, rituximab, were tested in the last two decades. The investigations of ¹³¹I-rituximab were advanced through phase I/II trials and have shown achievement of cumulative whole-body doses without significant hematologic toxicity (Illidge *et al*, 2009). In vitro studies have demonstrated successful formulation of stable kits with high stability and immunoreactivity (rituximab-DOTA and 1B4M-DTPA-rituximab) and satisfactory labeling with Lu-177 (Forrer *et al*, 2009, Gjorgieva-Ackova *et al*, 2014).

Many other antigens, located on B-lymphocyte, have been investigated as targets for therapy of NHL (CD21, CD22, CD52, CD30, CD37, CD80). In addition to anti-CD20, anti-CD22 antibodies are usually examined in the field of radiopharmacy. Radiolabeled anti-CD22 IgG antibody epratuzumab-DOTA with ¹³¹I and ⁹⁰Y has shown significant success in the treatment of aggressive forms of NHL in patients who have failed chemotherapy (Bodet-Milin *et al*, 2013, Sharkey *et al*, 2003).

3.2 Colorectal and pancreatic cancer

In the last decades, significant achievements were made in the field of imaging and radiotherapy of colorectal (CRC) and prostate cancer (PC). CEA, as a specific and most studied solid tumor antigen, is highly expressed in epithelial cells in two already mentioned tumors. ¹³¹I and ⁹⁰Y labeled labetuzumab (anti-CEA IgG) in an early I/II phase clinical trials for patients with CRC and PC have shown increased survival of treated patients versus control group (Boswell, 2007, Song *et al*, 2011, Goldenberg, 2007).

Different type of epithelial cancer cells, included CRC, are associated with EGFR overexpression. Cetuximab is already FDA approved anti-EGFR IgG1 monoclonal antibody for CRC and is used in a

various clinical and preclinical trials for development of radiopharmaceuticals for imaging and radiotherapy. Conjugated cetuximab with p-SCN-Bn-DTPA and labeled with Indium-111 was a subject of preclinical examinations as a potential agent for diagnosis and imaging of colorectal carcinoma (Benedetto et al, 2017). The same antibody, labeled with α or β - isotopes (^{90}Y , ^{131}I , ^{177}Lu , ^{213}Bi), is attractive for many clinical investigations and formulation of potent RIT agents (Sihver et al, 2014).

PSMA is commonly overexpressed and highly studied antigen in prostate cancer. Anti-PSMA monoclonal antibody 5A10 conjugated with DOTA and labeled with ^{111}In was used for examination of antibody biodistribution and development of advanced imaging agents to detect prostate cancer cells (Vilhelmsson-Timmermand et al, 2015).

3.3 Breast and ovarian cancer

For the past few years, were made a series of clinical and preclinical trials of radioimmunoconjugates for the treatment and imaging of HER2-positive breast cancer. The mostly investigated monoclonal antibody is FDA approved (for breast cancer) anti-HER2 trastuzumab. ^{111}In labeling of anti-HER2 monoclonal antibody trastuzumab was done via two different chelators DTPA and DOTA. Both agents have proven to be valuable in PET/CT imaging (Hooge *et al*, 2004, Chan *et al*, 2011). $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ labeled trastuzumab via HYNIC is effective for the identification of HER2-positive lesions using gamma imaging (Chen *et al*, 2008). Two isotopes of gallium (^{67}Ga and ^{64}Ga) were used for the production of stable radioimmunoconjugates of DOTA-trastuzumab, as a potent drug for PET/SPECT molecular imaging and diagnosis of breast cancer (Alirezapour *et al*, 2013, Tamura *et al*, 2010). The obtained stable conjugate of trastuzumab labeled with β --emitter ^{177}Lu via DOTA was subject to preclinical and clinical investigations in mice with breast tumors. The examinations have shown that ^{177}Lu -DOTA-trastuzumab can be a new promising drug in the treatment of human HER2-positive breast cancer (Rasaneh *et al*, 2012, Ray *et al*, 2012). Potent alpha emitters ^{227}Th and ^{225}Ac were used for trastuzumab labeling. These studies suggest that both radioimmunoconjugates may be potent therapeutic agents against metastatic breast cancer with high HER2 expression (Heyerdahl *et al*, 2012, Ballangrud et al, 2004).

HER2 overexpression has been reported in ovarian cancer too. This is the reason why many radioimmunoconjugates with anti-HER2 monoclonal antibody trastuzumab were included in ovarian cancer examinations.

Already mentioned radioimmunoconjugate, ^{227}Th -DOTA-*p*-benzyl-trastuzumab, has shown sufficient accumulation of radiation in tumor tissue with acceptable toxicity in ovarian cancer xenografts in mice (Heyerdahl *et al*, 2012). β^+ emitter ^{86}Y (^{86}Y -DTPA-trastuzumab) was used for preclinical biodistribution and pharmacokinetics in mice with HER2-positive ovarian cancer. It was shown a selective uptake of the conjugate by the tumor cells and minimal localization in healthy organs (Palm *et al*, 2003). A nude mouse model with HER2-positive ovarian cancer was developed to investigate the immunoreactivity, internalization, and cytotoxicity of the conjugate ^{225}Ac -trastuzumab. Studies have shown rapid internalization and cytotoxicity in cancer cells which leads to extending survival and low toxicity (Borchardt *et al*, 2003).

3.4 Lung, brain, and renal cancer

ROBO1 is a membrane protein overexpressed in small cell lung cancer (SCLC) and contributes to process of tumor metastasis and angiogenesis. ^{90}Y labeled anti-ROBO1 IgG monoclonal antibodies have shown significant antitumor effect and have reduced tumor volume in SCLC mice xenografts (Fujiwara et al, 2015). It was found that some types of lung cancer and glioblastomas (brain cancer) have EGFR gene amplification and overexpression. Radiolabeled anti-EGFR monoclonal antibody cetuximab with diagnostic tracers proved to be a good candidate for PET imaging of EGFR positive lung cancer, while therapeutic

radionuclide-labeled cetuximab have showed a reduction in tumor size during the examinations (Sihver et al, 2014).

Anti-EGFR monoclonal antibody labeled with ^{123}I have been using for brain glioblastomas scanning in a last three decades. Labeling the same monoclonal antibody with β - emitter ^{131}I have shown good localization and improvement in neurologic parameters in relapsed patients with brain glioma (Kalofonos et al, 1989).

Monoclonal antibody G250 targets antigen G250 which is overexpressed in renal cell carcinoma (RCC). This antibody was used in various studies labeled with three isotopes (^{111}In , ^{131}I and ^{177}Lu). Excellent images were obtained, with easy identification of positive lesions and metastasis of G250 positive RCC. The therapeutic properties of labeled G250 antibodies were examined in nude mice with human RCC xenografts. The in vivo studies have shown improved survival and reduced tumor growth after the administration of radiolabeled monoclonal antibody (Stillebroer et al, 2007).

4. Conclusion

The concept of personalized medicine has been growing over the past decades. Monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) undoubtedly play an important role in the transition from conventional medical practice to a more adaptive approach, to deliver the best therapy with the highest safety margin to a particular patient. The use of radiopharmaceuticals based on monoclonal antibodies is on the rise at various stages of preclinical and clinical trials. This includes a new approach to the use of radioimmunoconjugates of various monoclonal antibodies and radioactive isotopes with more appropriate characteristics. They represent a step forward in the development of the diagnosis and treatment of various cancers and other disorders through continuous innovation in molecular engineering, accumulated extensive knowledge of target biology, understanding of the mechanism of therapeutic mAbs, and greater appreciation of tumor immunosuppressive pathways.

Based on the promising results, therapy with radioactive conjugates can be developed in combination with other drugs and in repeated courses of treatment, just as chemotherapy is used. A combination of all possible new developments, including combining all possible new developments, including new antibody specificities, pre-targeted methods, fractional injections and the use of alpha emitters to improve RIT efficacy in solid radio-resistant tumors. Immuno-PET could help select patients for RIT, optimize injection activity, and monitor the effectiveness of non-invasive therapy.

References

- [1]. Alirezapour B., Jalilian A.R., Bolourinovin F. and Moradkhani S. 2013. Production and quality control of ^{67}Ga -DOTA-trastuzumab for radioimmunoscintigraphy. *Iranian Journal of Pharmaceutical Research*, Vol. 12, No. 2, pp. 355-366.
- [2]. Ballangrud A.M., Yang W.H., Palm S., Enmon R., Borchardt P.E., Pellegrini V.A., McDevitt M.R., Scheinberg D.A. and Sgouros G. 2004. Alpha-particle emitting atomic generator (actinium-225)-labeled trastuzumab (Herceptin) targeting of breast cancer spheroids: efficacy versus HER2/neu expression. *Clinical Cancer Research*, Vol. 10, No. 13, pp. 4489-4497.
- [3]. Barbet J., Bardies M., Bourgeois M., Chatal J.F., Cherel M., Davodeau F., Faivre-Chauvet A., Gestin J.F. and Kraeber-Bodere F. 2012. Radiolabeled antibodies for cancer imaging and therapy. *Methods in molecular Biology*, Vol. 907, No. 1, pp. 681-697.
- [4]. Benedetto R., Massicano A.V.F., Silv J.J., Boas C.A.W.V., Mengatti J. and Araujo E.B. 2017. Development of radioimmunoconjugate for diagnosis and management of head-and-neck subclinical cancer and colorectal carcinoma. *Brazilian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, Vol. 53, No. 4, pp. 1-10.
- [5]. Bodet-Milin C., Ferrer L., Pallardy A., Eugene T., Rauscher A., Faivre-Chauvet A., Barbet J. and Kraeber-Bodere F. 2013. Radioimmunotherapy of B-cell non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *Radiation Oncology*, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 1-13.
- [6]. Borchardt P.E., Yuan R.R., Miederer M., McDevitt M.R. and Scheinberg A. 2003. Targeted actinium-225 in vivo generators for therapy of ovarian cancer. *Cancer Research*, Vol. 63, No. 16, pp. 5084-5090.

- [7]. Boswell C.A. and Brechbiel MW. 2007. Development of radioimmunotherapeutic and diagnostic antibodies: an inside-out view. *Nuclear Medicine and Biology*, Vol. 24, No. 7, pp. 757-778.
- [8]. Brekke O.H. and Sandlie I. 2003. Therapeutic antibodies for human disease at the dawn of the twenty-first century. *Nature*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 52-62.
- [9]. Chan C., Scollard D.A., McLarty K., Smith S. and Reilly R.M. 2011. A comparison of ¹¹¹In- or ⁶⁴Cu-DOTA-trastuzumab Fab fragments for imaging subcutaneous HER2-positive tumor xenografts in athymic mice using microSPECT/CT or microPET/CT. *European Journal of Nuclear Medicine and Molecular Imaging*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 1-15.
- [10]. Chen W.J., Yen C.L., Lo S.T., Chen K.T. and Lo J.M. 2008. Direct ^{99m}Tc labeling of Herceptin (trastuzumab) by ^{99m}Tc(I) tricarbonyl ion. *Applied Radiation and Isotopes*, Vol. 66, No. 3, pp. 340-345.
- [11]. Forrer F., Chen J., Fani M., Powell P., Lohri A., Muller-Brand J., Moldenhauer G. and Maecke H.R. 2009. In vitro characterization of ¹⁷⁷Lu radiolabeled chimeric anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody and a preliminary dosimetry study. *European Journal of Nuclear Medicine and Molecular Imaging*, Vol. 36, No. 9, pp. 1443-1452.
- [12]. Francoise K.B., Caroline R., Caroline B.M., Cedric M., Francois G., Eric F., Thomas C., Nicolas C., Ferid H., Jean-François C., Alain F.C., Michel C. and Jacques B. 2015. Tumor immunotargeting using innovative radionuclides. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, Vol. 16, No. 2, pp. 3932-3954.
- [13]. Fujiwara K., Koyama K., Suga K., Ikemura M., Saito Y., Hino A., Iwanari H., Kusano-Arai O., Mitsui K., Kasahara H., Fukayama M., Kodama T., Hamakubo T. and Momose T. 2015. ⁹⁰Y-labeled anti-ROBO1 monoclonal antibody against small cell lung cancer xenografts. *PLOS ONE*, Vol. 10, No. 5, pp. 1-13.
- [14]. Gabriel M., Decristoforo C., Kendler D., Dobrozemsky G., Heut D., Uprimny C., Kovacs P., Guggenberg E.V., Bale R. and Virgolini J.I. 2007. ⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-Tyr³-octreotide PET in neuroendocrine tumors: comparison with somatostatin receptor scintigraphy and CT. *Journal of Nuclear Medicine*, Vol. 48, No. 4, pp. 508-518.
- [15]. Gerber D.E. 2008. Targeted Therapies: a new generation of cancer treatments. *American Family Physician*, Vol. 77, No. 3, pp. 311-319.
- [16]. Gjorgieva-Ackova D., Smilkov K. and Janevik-Ivanovska E. 2014. Formulation and characterization of “ready to use” ¹⁷⁷Lu-DTPA-rituximab for Lu-177 labeling. *World Journal of Medical Sciences*, Vol. 11, No. 4, pp. 535-540.
- [17]. Goldenberg D.M. 2007. Radiolabelled monoclonal antibodies in the treatment of metastatic cancer. *Current Oncology*, Vol. 14, No. 1, pp. 39-42.
- [18]. Heyerdahl H., Abbas N., Brevik E.M., Mollatt C. and Dahle J. 2012. Fractionated therapy of HER2-expressing breast and ovarian cancer xenografts in mice with targeted alpha emitting ²²⁷Th-DOTA-p-benzyl-trastuzumab. *PLOS ONE*, Vol. 7, No. 8, pp. 1-14.
- [19]. Holland J.P., Williamson M.J. and Lewis J.S. 2010. Unconventional nuclides for radiopharmaceuticals. *Molecular Imaging*, Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 1-20.
- [20]. Hooge M.N.L., Kosterink J.G.W., Perik P.J., Nijhuis H., Tran L., Bart J., Suurmeijer A.J.H., Jong S., Jager P.L. and Vries E.G.E. 2004. Preclinical characterization of ¹¹¹In-DTPA-trastuzumab. *British Journal of Pharmacology*, Vol. 143, No. 1, pp. 99-106.
- [21]. Hosono M., Endo K., Sakahara H., Watanabe Y., Saga T., Nakail T., Kawai C., Matsumori A., Yamada T., Watanabe T. and Konishil J. 1992. Human/mouse chimeric antibodies show low reactivity with human anti-murine antibodies (HAMA). *British Journal of Cancer*, Vol. 65, No. 2, pp. 197-200.
- [22]. Illidge T.M., Bayne M., Brown N.S., Chilton S., Cragg M.S., Glennie M.J., Du Y., Lewington V., Smart J., Thom J., Zivanovic M. and Johnson P.W.M. 2009. Phase ½ study of fractionated ¹³¹I-rituximab in low-grade B-cell lymphoma: the effect of prior rituximab dosing and tumor burden on subsequent radioimmunotherapy. *Blood*, Vol. 113, No. 7, pp. 1412-1421.
- [23]. Imam S.K. Advancements in cancer therapy with alpha-emitters: a review. 2001. *International Journal of Radiation Oncology, Biology, Physics*, Vol. 51, No. 1, pp. 271-278.
- [24]. Jain M., Gupta S., Kaur S., Ponnusamy M.P. and Batra S.K. 2013. Emerging trends for radioimmunotherapy in solid tumors. *Cancer Biotherapy and Radiopharmaceuticals*, Vol. 28, No. 9, pp. 639-650.
- [25]. Kalofonos H.P., Pawlikowska T.R., Hemingway A., Courtenay-Luck N., Dhokoa B., Snook D., Sivolapenko G.B., Hooker G.R., McKenzie C.G., Lavender P.J., Thomas D.G.T. and Epenetos A.A. 1989. Antibody guided diagnosis and therapy of brain gliomas using radiolabeled monoclonal antibodies against epidermal growth factor receptor and placental alkaline phosphatase. *Journal of Nuclear Medicine*, Vol. 30, No. 10, pp. 1636-1645.
- [26]. Kricka L.J. 1999. Human anti-animal antibody interferences in immunological assays. *Clinical Chemistry*, Vol. 45, No. 7, pp. 942-956.
- [27]. Larson S.M., Carrasquillo J.A., Cheung N.K.V. and Press O. 2015. Radioimmunotherapy of human tumours.

- Nature Reviews Cancer, Vol. 15, No. 6, pp. 347–360.
- [28]. Liu S. and Edwards D.S. 1999. ^{99m}Tc-labeled small peptides as diagnostic radiopharmaceuticals. *Chemical Reviews*, Vol. 99, No. 9, pp.2235-2268.
- [29]. Mehren M., Adams G.P. and Weiner L.M. 2003. Monoclonal antibody therapy for cancer. *Annual Review of Medicine*, Vol. 54, No. 1, pp. 343-369.
- [30]. Morrison S.L., Johnson M.J., Herzenberg L.A. and Oi V.T. 1984. Chimeric human antibody molecules: Mouse antigen-binding domains with human constant region domains. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, Vol. 81, No. 21, pp. 6851-6855.
- [31]. Palanca-Wessels M.C. and Press O.W. 2014. Advances in the treatment of hematologic malignancies using immunoconjugates. *Blood*, Vol. 132, No. 15, pp. 2293-2301.
- [32]. Palm S., Enmon R.M., Matei C., Kolbert K.S., Xu S., Zanzonico P.B., Finn R.L., Koutcher J.A., Larson S.M. and Sgouros G. 2003. Pharmacokinetics and biodistribution of ⁸⁶Y-trastuzumab for ⁹⁰Y dosimetry in an ovarian carcinoma model: correlative microPET and MRI. *Journal of Nuclear Medicine*, Vol. 44, No. 7, pp. 1148-1155.
- [33]. Poot A.J., Adamzek K.W.A., Windhorst A.D., Vosjan M.J.W.D., Kropf S., Wester H.J., van Dongen G.A.M.S. and Vugts D.J. 2019. Fully automated zirconium-89 labeling and purification of antibodies. *Journal of Nuclear Medicine*, Vol. 60, No. 5, pp. 691-695.
- [34]. Rasaneh S., Rajabi H., Akhlaghpour S. and Sheybani S. 2012. Radioimmunotherapy of mice bearing breast tumor with ¹⁷⁷Lu-labeled trastuzumab. *Turkish Journal of Medical Sciences*, Vol. 42, No. 1, pp.1292-1298.
- [35]. Ray G.L., Baidoo K.E., Keller L.M.M., Albert P.S., Brechbiel M.W. and Milenic DE. 2012. Pre-clinical assessment of ¹⁷⁷Lu-labeled trastuzumab targeting HER2 for treatment and management of cancer patients with disseminated intraperitoneal disease. *Pharmaceuticals*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 1-15.
- [36]. Reichert J.M. and Valge-Archer V.E. 2007. Development trends for monoclonal antibody cancer therapeutics. *Nature*, Vol. 6, No. 5, pp. 349-356.
- [37]. Riechmann L., Clark M., Waldmann H. and Winter G. 1988. Reshaping human antibodies for therapy. *Nature*, Vol. 332, No. 6162, pp. 323-327.
- [38]. Schroeder H.W. and Cavacini L. 2010. Structure and function of immunoglobulins. *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, Vol. 125, No. 202, pp. S41-S52.
- [39]. Schubiger P.A., Lehmann L. and Friebe M. 2006. In: Heilmann U editor. *PET chemistry the driving force in molecular imaging*. Berlin, p. 13-16.
- [40]. Sharkey R.M., Brenner A., Burton J., Hajjar G., Toder S.P., Alavi A., Matthies A., Tsai D.E., Schuster S.J., Stadtmauer E.A., Czuczman M.S., Lamonica D., Kraeber-Bodere F., Mahe B., Chatal J.F., Rogatko A., Mardirosian G. and Goldenberg D.M. 2003. Radioimmunotherapy of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma with ⁹⁰Y-DOTA humanized anti-CD22 IgG (⁹⁰Y-Epratuzumab): do tumor targeting and dosimetry predict therapeutic response? *Journal of Nuclear Medicine*, Vol. 44, No. 12, pp. 2000-2018.
- [41]. Sharkey R.M. and Goldenberg D.M. 2006. Targeted therapy of cancer: new prospects for antibodies and immunoconjugates. *CA: Cancer Journal for Clinicians*, Vol. 56, No. 4, pp. 226-243.
- [42]. Sihver W., Pietzsch J., Krause M., Baumann M., Steinbach J. and Pietzsch H.J. 2014. Radiolabeled cetuximab conjugates for EGFR targeted cancer diagnostic and therapy. *Pharmaceuticals*, Vol. 7, No. 3 pp. 311-338.
- [43]. Song H. and Sgouros G. 2011. Radioimmunotherapy of solid tumors: searching for the right target. *Current Drug Delivery*, Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 26-44.
- [44]. Stern M. and Herrmann R. 2005. Overview of monoclonal antibodies in cancer therapy: present and promise. *Critical Reviews in Oncology/Hematology*, Vol. 54, No. 1, pp. 11-29.
- [45]. Stillebroer A.B., Oosterwijk E., Oyen W.J.G., Mulders F.A. and Boerman O.C. 2007. Radiolabeled antibodies in renal cell carcinoma. *Cancer Imaging*, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 179-188.
- [46]. Tagawa S.T., Milowsky M.I., Morris M., Vallabhajosula S., Christos P., Akhtar N.H., Osborne J., Goldsmith J.S., Larson S., Taskar N.P., Scher H.I., Bander N.H. and Nanus D.M. 2013. Phase II study of lutetium-177-labeled anti-prostate-specific membrane antigen monoclonal antibody J591 for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Clinical Cancer Research*, Vol. 19, No. 18, pp. 5182-5191.
- [47]. Tamura K., Kurihara H., Yonemori K., Tsuda H., Suzuki J., Kono Y., Honda N., Kodaira M., Yamamoto H., Yunokawa M., Shimizu C., Hasegawa K., Kanayama Y., Nozaki S., Kinoshita T., Wada Y., Tazawa S., Takahashi K., Watanabe Y. and Fujiwara Y. 2010. ⁶⁴Cu-DOTA-trastuzumab PET imaging in patients with HER2-positive breast cancer. *Journal of Nuclear Medicine*, Vol. 54, No. 11, pp. 1869-1875.
- [48]. Vilhelmsson-Timmermand O., Santos E., Thorek D.L.J., Evans-Axelsson S., Bjartell A., Lilja H., Larson S.M., Strand S.E., Tran T.A. and Ulmert D. 2015. Radiolabeled antibodies in prostate cancer: a case study showing the effect of host immunity on antibody bio-distribution. *Nuclear Medicine and Biology*, Vol. 42, No. 4, pp. 375-380.

- [49]. Vivier D., Sharma S.K. and Zeglis B.M. 2018. Understanding the in vivo fate of radioimmunoconjugates for PET and SPECT. *Journal of Labelled Compounds and Radiopharmaceuticals*, Vol. 61, No. 9, pp. 672–692.
- [50]. Volkert W.A., Goeckeler W.F., Ehrhardt G.J. and Ketring A.R. 1991. Therapeutic radionuclides: production and decay property considerations. *Journal of Nuclear Medicine*, Vol. 32, No. 1, pp. 174-185.
- [51]. Yeong C.H, Cheng M. and Kwan-Hoong N.G. 2014. Therapeutic radionuclides in nuclear medicine: current and future prospects. *Journal of Zhejiang University-Science B*, Vol. 15, No. 10, pp. 845-863.