Supporting Information

Development of PET Tracers for Noninvasive Imaging of the Reactive Oxygen Species, Superoxide, *in Vivo*

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Table S1. Reagent Concentrations

Compounds: 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14 ¹H, ¹³C NMR spectra.

Figure. S1



Experimental

Preparation of stock solutions

Reagent sources and final well concentrations are summarized in Table S1. Phosphate buffer saline

(PBS, pH 7.4) was prepared using Milli-Q plus system (Millicore Corp.). The following stock solutions were prepared in PBS: 0.1 mM. All solutions were prepared monthly and stored at 4 °C except for xanthine oxidase, which was diluted from commercial stock just prior to use. Hypoxanthine was prepared fresh on the day of experiment using slightly alkaline PBS to dissolve the powder. The cold (non-radiolabeled) compounds were synthesized and stored under anaerobic conditions in the dark until they were ready for use. All reagents were warmed to room temperature just prior to use. Two reaction solutions were prepared prior to each experiment, using the above stock solutions. The solutions were made to match the final well concentration summarized in Table S1. Both solutions contained PBS buffer and salmon sperm DNA (fluorescence enhancer, 250 µg/ml final concentration): solution A consisted of hypoxanthine and xanthine oxidase, solution B was made up of SIN-1 chloride and CPTIO.

Reagent	Plate reader assay concentration ^a		Source
-	μΜ	U/ml	
horseradish peroxidase (HRP)		0.2	Sigma-Aldrich
hypoxanthine (HX)	1×10^{3}		Sigma-Aldrich
xanthine oxidase (XO)		0.05	Sigma-Aldrich
		2	
hydrogen peroxide	1×10^{3}		Fisher-Scientific
12	158		
dihydroethidium (DHE)	158		Invitrogen
Linsidomine (SIN-1 chloride)	15.8		Invitrogen
superoxide dismutase (SOD)		575	Calbiochem
catalase		60	Calbiochem
2-4-carboxyphenyl-4,4,5,5- tetramethy-limidazoline-1-	262		Calbiochem
oxyi-3-oxide (CPTIO)			

 Table S1. Reagent Concentrations

^a These amounts reflect the final concentration inside each well after 12 or DHE compound was added.

In Vitro Fluorescence of 12

Preliminary evaluation of the **12** was performed by fluorescence plate reader assay to compare specificity and kinetics of **12** and DHE oxidation by superoxide. The assay is performed in duplicates, using a Corning 96-well (12 columns \times 8 rows) plate with a final reaction volume of 275 µl per well. All wells except for blank contained PBS-DNA buffer as described above. The final concentrations of all reagents are listed in Table S1. Well 2 contained only hypoxanthine and buffer, and served as the marker for autofluorescence. Wells 3-5 contained solution A, by itself (3), with addition of catalase (4), and with SOD (5). Hydrogen peroxide was added to wells 5 and 6, with and without horseradish peroxidase respectively. The last 2 wells in the row contained solution B only, (8) and with SOD (9). After adding the reagents, the **12** was added using a multichannel pipette.

The plate was inserted into the plate reader (Biotek Instruments Inc. FL400 Fluorescence Plate reader, supported by Biotek-KC4 Kineticalc Software). The automix function was activated for 2 seconds prior to each 30 second reading, and the plate was read at 590 nm and excited at 485 nm. The temperature was held constant at 37 °C for the entire 60 min assay. Data points were collected then analyzed in Matlab software. Each plate was dedicated to one fluorescent compound to avoid accidental mixing. Dihydroethidium and compound **12** were read in duplicates. Sampling of kinetic points from 5-14 min was used to compare reactivity of compound **12** with the oxidative radical and contrast it with the kinetics of DHE.

Platereader Kinetics Assay Results

After testing various concentrations of reagents, we found those listed in Table S1 showed

consistent linear kinetics within the 5-15 minute range. One method of testing specificity of **12** towards ROS is using fluorescence kinetic plate reader assays. Using fluorescence as an indicator of the oxidation of **12**, we contrasted the kinetics of oxidation using various biological oxidative species including superoxide, hydrogen peroxide, peroxynitrite and hydroxyl radical. Typical kinetic assay results are shown in Figure S2, which contrast the kinetics DHE and **12**.



Figure S2. Kinetic plot of DHE oxidation (left) and 12 oxidation (right). Superoxide sources include catalysis of hypoxanthine by xanthine oxidase (HX/OX) and decomposition of SIN-1 chloride.

Superoxide was generated via catalysis of hypoxanthine by bovine-derived xanthine oxidase (HX/OX), which produces superoxide as well as hydrogen peroxide. The reagent concentrations were chosen for the reaction to shift to one-electron transfers, favoring O_2^- production. We also added catalase (CAT) to remove any hydrogen peroxide that might be generated, converting it to water and oxygen. However when hydrogen peroxide was added by itself, it acted like a mild reducing agent towards the compound **12** as well as DHE (data not shown). Superoxide dismutase (SOD) capture of superoxide was found to be an effective negative control; in its presence, autofluorescence kinetics was observed (data not shown). We implemented a secondary superoxide source that made use of the spontaneous decomposition of SIN-1 chloride in aqueous solutions to

produce superoxide and nitric oxide, which together form peroxynitrite. Under these conditions, no fluorescence was observed (data not shown), but with addition of 2-4-carboxyphenyl-4,4,5,5-tetramethy-limidazoline-1-oxyl-3-oxide (CPTIO), an effective NO scavenger, superoxide radical remained in solution and was able oxidize its substrate. Hydroxyl radical, which is often closely linked to superoxide generating systems, was generated using hydrogen peroxide and horseradish peroxidase, but it did not appear to any effects on the redox of **12** or DHE.

Microscopic fluorescence imaging of ROS.

EMT6 mouse breast cancer cells were grown in DMEM containing 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 μ g/ml streptomycin. The cell lines were maintained at 37 °C in a humidified 5% CO₂/ 95% air atmosphere. Aliquots of ~2,000 EMT6 cells were plated in chamber slides and cultured for 48 h; 400 nM doxorubicin was then added for the treatment group; after 1 h incubation, cells were replenished with fresh cell culture medium containing 2 μ M DHE or **12** for another period of incubation of 30 min. The cell culture medium was then removed and the chamber slides were coverslipped and imaged with a Nikon E600 upright fluorescence microscope.

EMT-6 Cell uptake assays.

EMT-6 murine breast cancer cells were used as a model system to determine the uptake and retention of [¹⁸F]**12** and [¹⁸F]**14** by fluorescence microscopy. The EMT6 parental cell line used for experiments in Figure 3 was specifically selected because it has minimal expression of the p-glycoprotein transporter, and has been used as a "low MDR" control by many groups (1-3). Although DOX may induce MDR under some experimental conditions, the original paper by Twentyman et al. (4), describes escalating exposure to DOX over several weeks, and selection of

MDR clones, to produce the EMT6/AR1 drug-resistant cell line. That subline was not used in the current experiments. The 5 hour exposure to DOX used for **Figure 3** has not been shown to induce MDR. In **Figure 4**, DOX was not present and thus the issue of DOX-mediated inhibition of the MDR is not relevant. Our results showing increased uptake of the DHE analogue [¹⁸F]**12** in response to DOX-induced ROS both in cell culture (EMT-6 cells) and in vivo (DOX-induced cardiotoxicity) is in agreement with previously published reports using the parent compound, DHE. (5, 6)

Method. Aliquots of 4,000 EMT6 cells suspended in culture medium were added to each well of Costar 24-well cell culture plates 48 h before the uptake assays to achieve log growth phase with approximately 70% confluence at the time of the uptake assay (approximately 15,000 cells per well). Cell culture medium was removed and freshly prepared cell culture medium containing ~5.6 $\times 10^{6}$ Bq/ml [¹⁸F]**12** or the oxidized compound [¹⁸F]**14** was added to each well; after 30 min incubation at 37°C, cells were rinsed twice with 1 ml ice cold 1 \times PBS and then the cells were detached and harvested using 500 µl 0.05% EDTA/trypsin (Invitrogen, Grand Island, NY) treatment for ~2 min; protein concentration of the cell suspension was used to determine with a DC protein assay (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). A Wizard 1480 gamma counter (Perkin Elmer, Boston, MA) was used to count the radioactivity in each sample; uptake was expressed as ID%/mg protein.

References for Doxorubicin in EMT6 cells:

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- 5. Yoshida M, Shiojima I, Ikeda H, Komuro I. Chronic doxorubicin cardiotoxicity is mediated by oxidative DNA damage-ATM-p53-apoptosis pathway and attenuated by pitavastatin through the inhibition of Rac1 activity. **J Mol Cell Cardiol**. *2009*;47(5):698-705.
- 6 Luanpitpong S, Chanvorachote P, Nimmannit U, Leonard SS, Stehlik C, Wang L, Rojanasakul Y. Mitochondrial superoxide mediates doxorubicin-induced keratinocyte apoptosis through oxidative modification of ERK and Bcl-2 ubiquitination. **Biochem Pharmacol.** 2012;83(12):1643-54; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3337700.

Image Analysis. Standardized uptake values (SUV) were determined in anterolateral region of the myocardium to assess [¹⁸F]**12** uptake. A student's t-test was used to assess differences in uptake between groups.

In vitro blood stability studies: An aliquot of [¹⁸F]12 in ethanol (20 μ L) was added to 1 mL of heparinized whole rat blood (Sprague-Dawley rat, mature) and incubated at room temperature. At 5 min and 60 min, an aliquot (400 μ L) was removed and ascorbic acid (1 mg in 50 μ L water) was added; and the red blood cells and plasma separated by centrifugation. The plasma was deproteinated with ACN (1 mL), and centrifuged to separate protein pellet and supernatant. The supernatant was diluted with 0.1% TFA in water (4 mL), and analyzed by reversed phase HPLC (Agilent SB-C18 250 × 9.4 mm 5 μ ; Gradient mobile phase A: 25% ACN/75% water/0.1% TFA, B: 30% ACN/70% water/0.1% TFA, from A to B over 15 min; 4 mL/min). The eluent was collected in 0.5 min/tube, and the fractions counted in a well counter. The counts were decay-corrected and plotted.

In vitro heart stability studies: The snap-frozen heart tissue was thawed in saline (1 mL) and homogenized; this homogenate was incubated with an aliquot of [¹⁸F]**12** in ethanol (20 μ L) at room temperature. At 5 min and 60 min, an aliquot (400 μ L) was mixed with ascorbic acid (2 mg in 100 μ L water) and was centrifuged to pellet the cell debris. The aqueous extract was deproteinated with ACN (1 mL), and centrifuged to separate protein pellet and supernatant. The supernatant was analyzed by reversed phase HPLC as described above.

The *in vivo* stability of [¹⁸F]12 was evaluated in DOX-treated mice. Mice were euthanized 60 min post-injection, and whole blood (200 μ l) and heart were collected and immediately snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen. Blood and tissue were later thawed in ACN (1 mL) with ascorbic acid (1 mg) and homogenized. Supernatant and pellet were separated by centrifugation and held on ice to prevent sample degradation. The supernatant was analyzed by reversed phase HPLC as described above.

Figure S3. Semi-preparative HPLC purification of [¹⁸F]12





Analytical HPLC of DHE analogue [¹⁸F]12

Flow rate: 1 mL/min.; UV: 254 nm

Figure S4. Analytical HPLC of DHE analogue 12



Figure S5. Biodistribution of [¹⁸F]**12** in DOX-treated and untreated mice.



















































