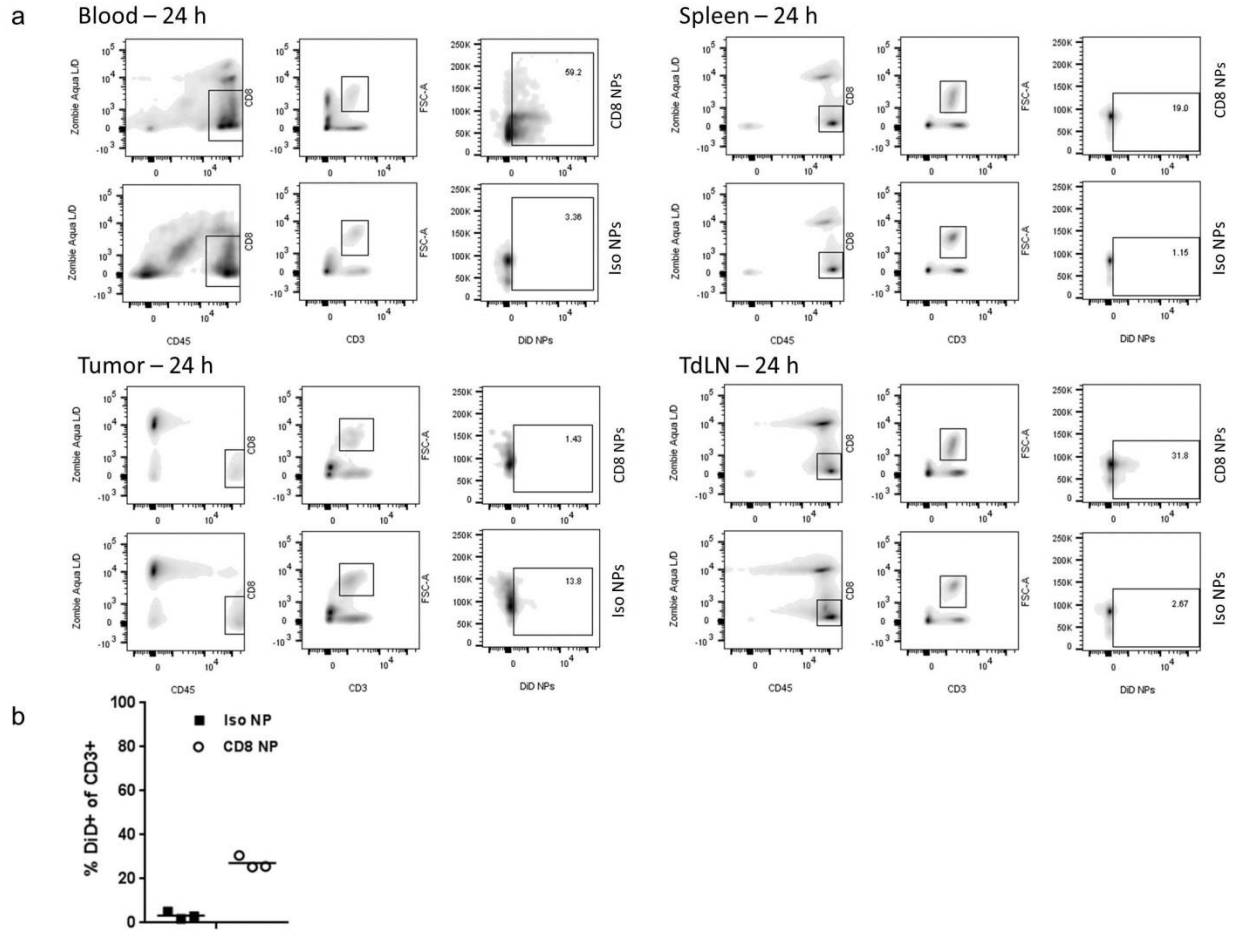
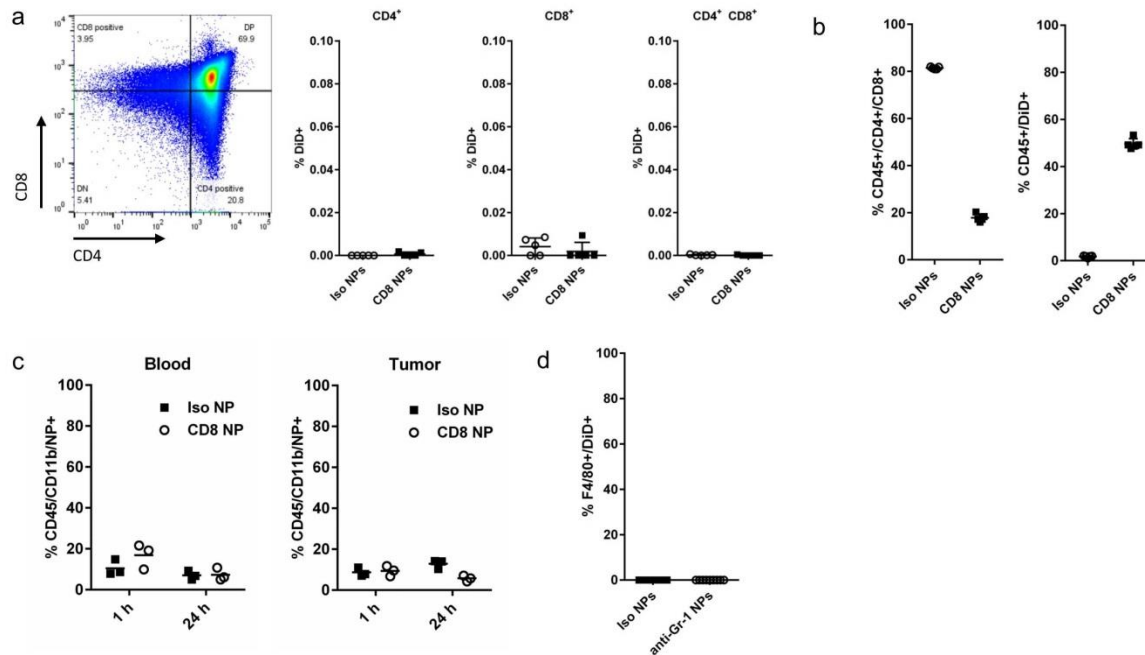


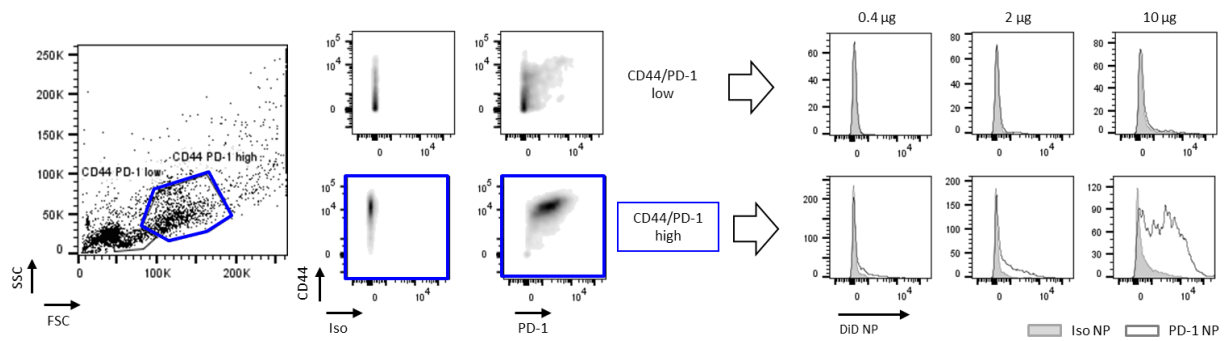
Supplementary Figure 1. T cells retain their ability to proliferate in co-culture with ovalbumin-expressing B16 melanoma cells and internalize CD8a-targeting nanoparticles. (a) OT-I CD8⁺ T cells were incubated with anti-CD8a nanoparticles (or relevant negative controls) for 30 min, washed to remove unbound nanoparticles, and co-cultured with ovalbumin-expressing B16 tumor cells for 72 h. Proliferation was assessed by CFSE dilution, and nanoparticle binding was assessed by fluorescence of DiD, which had been entrapped in the nanoparticle core. (b) Percentage of F(ab')₂-negative cells in the DiD-positive population to assess internalization of anti-CD8a nanoparticles, n=3 for 72 h, n=4 for 0-48 h, mean ± s.e.m.



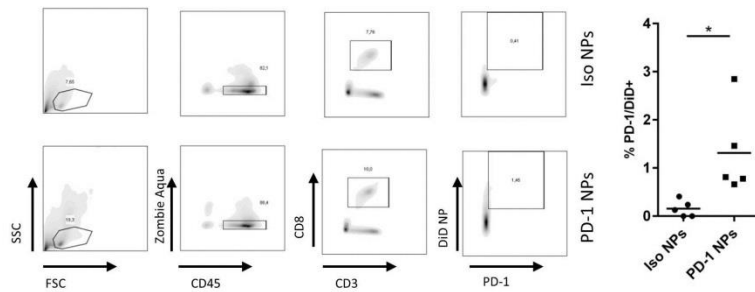
Supplementary Figure 2. *In vivo* assessment of anti-CD8a nanoparticles among T cells.
(a) Gating strategy of *in vivo* binding experiment for blood, spleen, tumor, and TdLN. **(b)** Percentage of nanoparticle-bound CD3⁺ T cells in the blood after nanoparticles were in the circulation for 1 h, as described in Figure 2d.



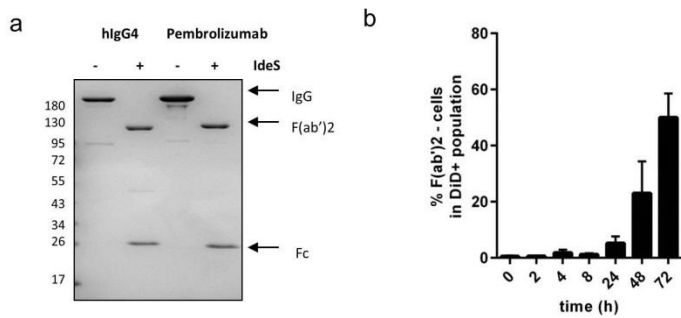
Supplementary Figure 3. *In vivo* distribution of anti-CD8a nanoparticles to thymus and myeloid cells. (a) Anti-CD8a nanoparticles were injected intravenously, and cells from the thymus were analyzed for DiD fluorescence after 1 h (n=5, mean \pm s.d.). (b) Mouse thymocytes were isolated and incubated *ex vivo* with DiD-loaded anti-CD8a or isotype control nanoparticles. Double-positive T cells could only be stained for CD8 in the absence of anti-CD8a nanoparticles due to steric hindrance, as observed in Figure 2d (left panel). Gated on CD45⁺ cells, there is significant higher number of DiD⁺ cells for anti-CD8 nanoparticles (right panel). (c) Anti-CD8a and isotype nanoparticles were injected intravenously, and CD11b⁺ cells were analyzed for DiD fluorescence 1 h and 24 h after injection. (d) CD11b⁺ myeloid cells gated on F4/80⁺ and DiD⁺ are shown. In the absence of Fc (IgG constant region), the anti-GITR F(ab')₂ nanoparticles are not recognized by Fc receptors expressed on macrophages, as neither phagocytosis nor non-specific binding is observed.



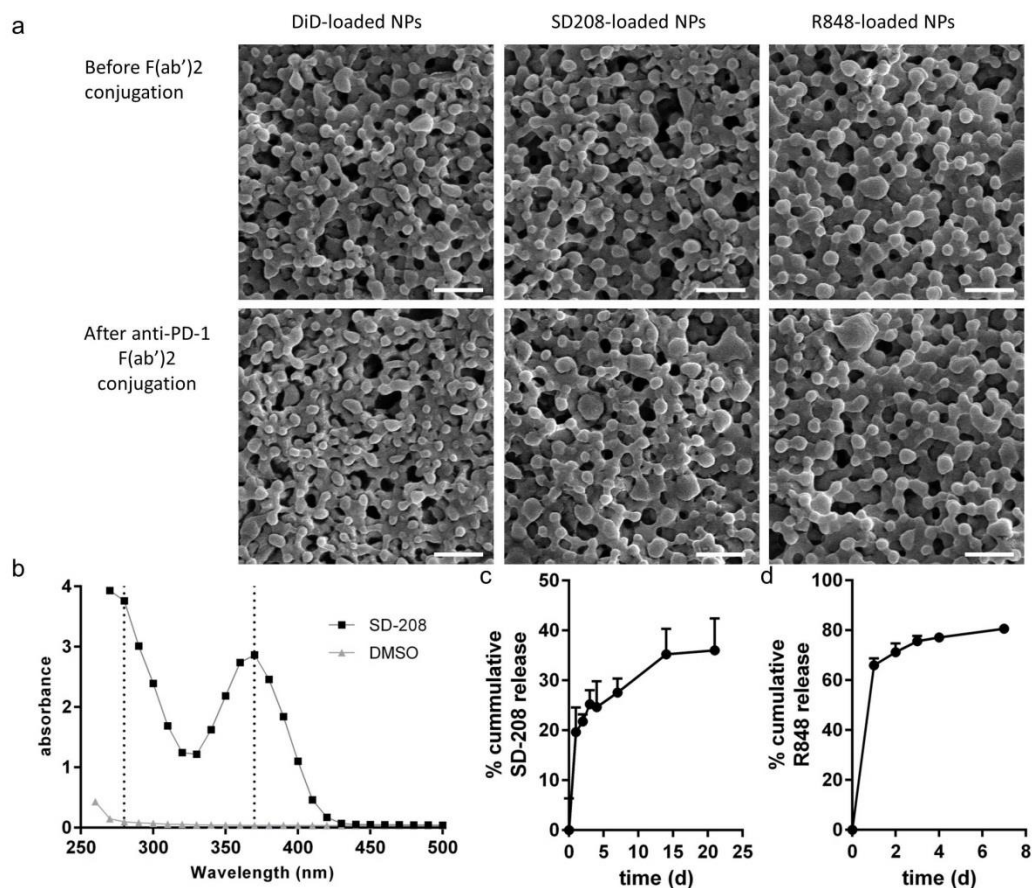
Supplementary Figure 5. Binding of PD-1-targeting nanoparticles to T cells activated by anti-CD3/CD28 beads. CD8⁺ OT-I T cells were activated with CD3/CD28 beads (ratio 1:2 beads to T cell) for 48 h and incubated with DiD-loaded, PD-1-targeting nanoparticles for 30 min before detection of DiD by flow cytometry. Mass of polymer indicated is per 250,000 T cells.



Supplementary Figure 6. Binding of PD-1-targeting nanoparticles to T cells in the circulation of B16 tumor-bearing mice. C57BL/6 mice were inoculated with ovalbumin-expressing B16 melanoma cells. Once tumors reached $\sim 400 \text{ mm}^3$ in volume, DiD-loaded, PD-1-targeting nanoparticles were injected intravenously. One hour later, blood was recovered. Flow cytometry was performed (gating shown at left), and the percentage of T cells that were positive for both PD-1 expression and nanoparticle binding was quantified (right panel) (* $p < 0.05$, Two-tailed student's t-test).

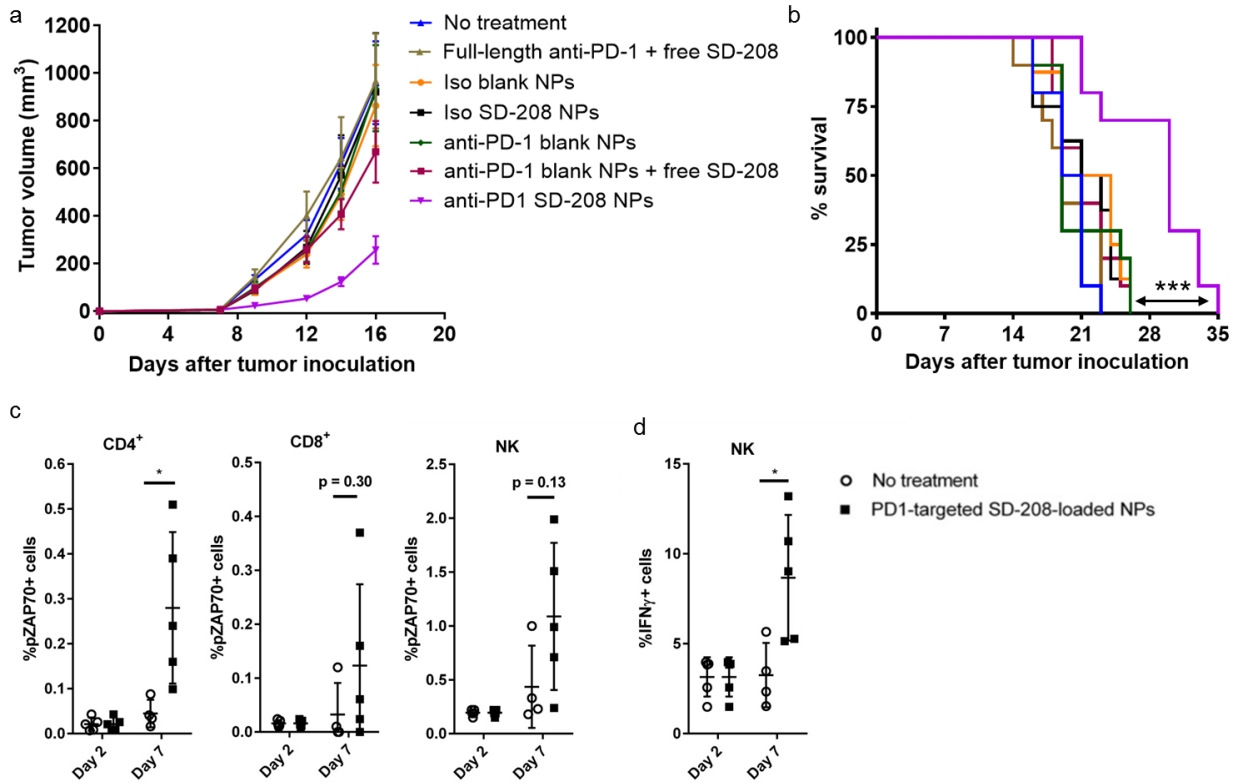


Supplementary Figure 7. Generation and characterization of anti-human PD-1 nanoparticles. (a) A non-reducing SDS-PAGE gel stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue following enzymatic cleavage of pembrolizumab and human IgG4 antibodies using IdeS. (b) Percentage of F(ab')₂-negative cells in the DiD-positive population to assess internalization of PD-1-targeting nanoparticles, n=2 for 72 h, n=3 for 48 h and n=4 for 0-24 h, mean ± s.e.m.

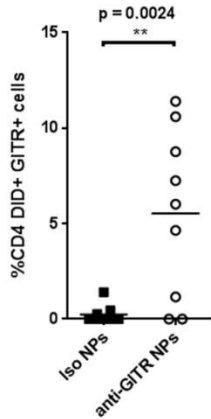


Supplementary Figure 8. Analysis of small molecule-encapsulating nanoparticles.

(a) Scanning electron microscopy images of nanoparticle formulations loaded with DiD, SD-208, or R848 before and after F(ab')₂ conjugation; scale bar = 500 nm. (b) Absorbance scan of SD-208 for the determination of drug encapsulation. (c) Release profile of SD-208-loaded nanoparticles in 10% FBS in PBS, confirming the particles' ability to sustain release of the entrapped payload, n=3, mean ± s.d. (d) Release profile of R848-loaded nanoparticles in 10% FBS in PBS, n=3, mean ± s.d.



Supplementary Figure 9. Targeted delivery of a TGFβR1 inhibitor (SD-208) to PD-1-expressing cells delays tumor growth and extends survival even with decreased dosing frequency. C57BL/6 mice were inoculated subcutaneously with 200,000 MC38 cells. Five days later, nanoparticles or free drugs were administered intravenously twice weekly up to a total of 7 injections. The dose was 20 μg of anti-PD-1 and 40 μg of SD-208. **(a)** Tumor volume and **(b)** animal survival were monitored to assess efficacy (n=8-10, mean ± s.e.m.; *** p < 0.001, Mantel Cox test). **(c, d)** On day 2 (before treatment) and on day 7 (two days after the first treatment), blood was collected. CD4⁺ T cells, CD8⁺ T cells, and NK cells were analyzed for pharmacodynamic markers of PD-1 blockade (n=5, mean ± s.e.m.; * p < 0.05, Two-tailed student's t-test).



Supplementary Figure 10. Nanoparticles can be targeted to GITR⁺ CD4⁺ T cells. C57BL/6 mice were inoculated subcutaneously with B16 melanoma cells. Once tumors reached ~400mm³ in volume, DiD-loaded, GITR-targeting nanoparticles were injected intravenously. Two hours later, tumors were recovered. Flow cytometry was performed, and the percentage of CD4⁺ T cells that were positive for both target (GITR) expression and nanoparticle binding (DiD) was quantified (n = 9; ** p < 0.01, Two-tailed student's t-test).

Supplementary Table 1. Zeta potential of nanoparticle formulations before and after F(ab')₂ conjugation, measured in H₂O.

	Before conjugation		After conjugation	
	average (mV)	s.d. (mV)	average (mV)	s.d. (mV)
Blank NP	-1.910	0.259	-4.725	0.406
DiD	-7.013	0.457	-7.692	0.371
SD208	-2.037	0.403	-3.725	0.274
R848	-10.303	0.306	-12.450	0.310
DiR	-7.755	0.260	-5.495	0.439