Monoclonal antibodies counteract opioid-induced behavioral and toxic effects in mice and rats.

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Abbreviations: mAb, monoclonal antibody; OUD, opioid use disorder; BSA, bovine serum albumin; OVA, ovalbumin; PE, phycoerythrin; sKLH, subunit keyhole limpet hemocyanin; 6-AM, 6-monoacetyl

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ABSTRACT

Monoclonal antibodies (mAb) and vaccines have been proposed as medical countermeasures to treat opioid use disorder (OUD) and prevent opioid overdose. In contrast to current pharmacotherapies (e.g., methadone, buprenorphine, naltrexone, and naloxone) for OUD and overdose, which target brain opioid receptors, mAb and vaccine-generated polyclonal antibodies sequester the target opioid in the serum and reduce drug distribution to the brain. Further, mAb offer several potential clinical benefits over approved medications, such as longer serum half-life, high selectivity, reduced side effects, and low abuse liability. Using magnetic enrichment to isolate opioid-specific B cell lymphocytes prior to fusion with myeloma partners, this study identified a series of murine hybridoma cell lines expressing mAb with high affinity for opioids of clinical interest, including oxycodone, heroin and its active metabolites, and fentanyl. In mice, passive immunization with lead mAb against oxycodone, heroin, and fentanyl reduced druginduced antinociception and the distribution of the target opioid to the brain. In mice and rats, mAb pretreatment reduced fentanyl-induced respiratory depression and bradycardia, two risk factors for opioid-related overdose fatality. Overall, these results support use of mAb to counteract toxic effects of opioids and other chemical threats.

Significance Statement.

The incidence of fatal overdoses due to the widespread access to heroin, prescription opioids, and fentanyl suggests that current FDA-approved countermeasures are not sufficient to mitigate the opioid epidemic. Monoclonal antibodies (mAb) may provide acute protection from overdose by binding to circulating opioids in serum. Use of mAb prophylactically, or post-exposure in combination with naloxone, may reduce hospitalization and increase survival.

INTRODUCTION

An estimated 2.5 million people in the United States are living with an opioid use disorder (OUD), and 67,000 fatal drug overdoses occurred in the US in 2018, of which 70% involved opioids (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2020). Current interventions for OUD consist of pharmacological agonists (methadone), partial agonists (buprenorphine), and antagonists (naloxone and naltrexone) targeting the opioid receptors in the brain to exert therapeutic effects. Although opioid pharmacotherapy has substantial clinical utility in medication-assisted treatment for OUD, and naloxone is a critical emergency medication for reversing opioid overdose, these medications have been insufficient to curb the prevalence of OUD and incidence of overdose (Sharma *et al.*, 2017; Han *et al.*, 2019). Limitations of current medications include undesirable side effects, abuse liability or diversion of agonists, the need for detoxification prior to initiation of antagonist treatment to avoid symptoms of precipitated withdrawal, and the requirement for frequent dosing, which presents a high burden of compliance. Consequently, complementary or alternative therapies are needed to supplement current medications.

Immunotherapeutics, consisting of monoclonal antibodies (mAb) and vaccines, offer a promising strategy to treat OUD and reduce the incidence of overdose (reviewed in (Bremer and Janda, 2017; Pravetoni and Comer, 2019)). Monoclonal antibodies and vaccine-induced polyclonal antibodies selectively alter the pharmacokinetics of the target drug through binding and sequestration of drug molecules in serum, preventing distribution to the brain without directly affecting receptor signaling. Both mAb and vaccines may offer several advantages over opioid antagonists, including fewer side effects; additionally, pharmacotherapy may require controlled detoxification in order to prevent precipitated withdrawal (Jarvis *et al.*, 2018; Rzasa Lynn and Galinkin, 2018), whereas mAb and vaccines are not expected to alter endogenous opioid signaling, nor require detoxification (Raleigh *et al.*, 2020). Additionally, antibodies typically exhibit high specificity for their target with little cross-reactivity for structurally distinct opioids or opioid antagonists (Raleigh *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, mAb and vaccines can be considered both as an alternative and as a supplement to existing small molecule therapies for OUD.

Anti-opioid vaccines have demonstrated pre-clinical efficacy and selectivity in reducing opioid brain distribution, opioid-induced respiratory depression and antinociception, intravenous self-administration, and lethality in rodent and non-human primate models (Pravetoni *et al.*, 2013; Bremer *et al.*, 2017; Raleigh *et al.*, 2017; Nguyen *et al.*, 2018; Sulima *et al.*, 2018; Tenney *et al.*, 2019). However, efficacy of anti-drug vaccines is dependent on generation of high concentrations of polyclonal antibodies, which may require multiple immunizations over weeks or months. Further, active immunization may only achieve sufficient antibody concentrations in a subset of individuals (Cornuz *et al.*, 2008; Martell *et al.*, 2009; Kosten *et al.*, 2014). In contrast, direct administration of high-affinity drug-specific mAb would provide almost immediate protection against the target drug, and allow for greater control over serum antibody concentration. Drug-targeting mAb have demonstrated pre-clinical efficacy against cocaine, methamphetamines, nicotine, and opioids (Fox *et al.*, 1996; Keyler *et al.*, 2005; Kashanian *et al.*, 2015; Pravetoni, 2016; Kvello *et al.*, 2019; Marckel *et al.*, 2019; Smith *et al.*, 2019). Additionally, favorable safety and pharmacokinetic profiles for a chimeric mAb against methamphetamine support the clinical translation of mAb for OUD (Stevens *et al.*, 2014).

Decades after its invention, hybridoma technology remains an effective method for generation of novel mAb. However, fusion of Ab-expressing cells with myeloma fusion partner cells is a stochastic event, and isolation of desired clones stably expressing mAb against the antigen of interest often requires screening of hundreds of clones. To streamline the generation of hybridomas, it has been reported that antigen-based magnetic enrichment can be used to pre-select target-specific B cells prior to hybridoma fusion (Spanier *et al.*, 2016). Magnetic enrichment or "baiting" is frequently employed to increase a desired cell population for flow cytometry analysis (Boonyaratanakornkit and Taylor, 2019), and single-cell sorting has been utilized for isolation antigen-specific cells for development of recombinant mAb against a variety of targets and in multiple species (Smith *et al.*, 2009; Ho *et al.*, 2016; Starkie *et al.*, 2016; Lei *et al.*, 2019). Using an antigen-based enrichment platform previously validated for flow cytometry analysis of opioid-specific B cell populations (Taylor *et al.*, 2014; Laudenbach *et al.*, 2015), hybridomas were isolated from mice vaccinated against three commonly misused opioids: oxycodone,

heroin, and fentanyl. The mAb isolated using this method demonstrated binding to their target drug *in vitro*, as well as *in vivo* efficacy in reducing opioid distribution and behavioral effects when administered in rodent models, supporting further pre-clinical development of opioid-targeting mAb as a therapy to treat OUD and prevent overdose.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals. All procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees of the University of Minnesota and Hennepin Healthcare Research Institute, and conducted in accordance with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (8th Edition, National Academies Press). Male and female Balb/c mice (Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, ME) were 7 weeks on arrival, and male Sprague Dawley rats (Envigo, Indianapolis, IN) were 8-10 weeks on arrival. All animals were housed under standard conditions with a 12/12 hour light/dark cycle and given food and water *ad libitum*.

Haptens and conjugates. The oxycodone (OXY), morphine (M), and fentanyl (F) haptens containing a tetraglycine [(Gly)₄] linker were synthesized as previously described (Pravetoni *et al.*, 2012; Raleigh *et al.*, 2013, 2019), and then conjugated via carbodiimide chemistry (Baruffaldi *et al.*, 2018) to subunit keyhole limpet hemocyanin (sKLH) carrier protein for immunogens, phycoerythrin (PE) for magnetic enrichment, and either ovalbumin (OVA) or bovine serum albumin (BSA) for screening assays. An additional fentanyl-based hapten (Li *et al.*, 2017) containing a biotin moiety was used for antibody characterization by biolayer interferometry (BLI, Suppl. Fig 6).

Active immunization and hybridoma fusion. Male Balb/c mice (n=4 per group) were immunized on days 0 and 28 (vaccine formulations detailed in Suppl. Table 1), and pooled lymph nodes and spleens were collected 4 days after the second immunization. The antigen-based magnetic enrichment procedure to isolate opioid-specific B cells was performed as described in (Robinson *et al.*, 2019). Briefly, tissues were processed to a single-cell suspension, and cells were pelleted at 1600 rpm for 5 min. Pellets were resuspended in DMEM, the opioid-based hapten conjugated to PE was added to a final concentration of 6.7 nM, and the mixture was incubated 25 min at room temperature. Cells were washed with 10 mL DMEM, and pellet was resuspended in 125 μL DMEM with 25 μL anti-PE microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA). Cells and beads were incubated for 15 min at room temperature, and antigen-specific cells collected using magnetic separator columns (Miltenyi). Columns were washed with DMEM and antigen-specific cells were eluted with 5 mL ClonaCell-HY Medium A (StemCell Technologies, Cambridge,

MA). The enriched antigen-specific cells were counted, washed with serum-free media, and fused with Sp2/0Ag14 (ATCC® CRL1581TM, American Type Culture Collection, Manassas, VA) mouse myeloma cells at a 1:5 ratio using the ClonaCell-HY Hybridoma kit (StemCell) according to manufacturer's recommended protocol. Fused hybridoma cells were grown with HAT selection for 10-14 days at 37°C and 5% CO₂, and visible colonies were transferred to 96-well plates containing 100 μL culture medium per well and incubated for 2-4 days prior to screening.

Hybridoma screening. To screen for antigen-positive colonies by ELISA, 96-well plates were coated with 5 ng/well OXY-OVA, M-BSA or F-BSA, blocked with 1% gelatin, and incubated with 50 μL conditioned medium diluted 1:1 with PBS-T for 2 hours. Plates were washed and incubated with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated goat anti-mouse secondary antibody (Jackson) overnight, and HRP activity was measured using SigmaFast OPD substrate (Millipore Sigma) with absorbance read at 492 nm on Tecan Infinite M1000 microplate reader (Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland).

Determination of relative antibody affinity. For competitive ELISA, 96-well plates were coated with 5 ng/well cognate antigen overnight and blocked with 1% gelatin. Plates were incubated with purified antibody, 0.04-0.06 μg/mL, for 2 hours in the presence of free opioid as competitor in a range of concentrations (1 mM - 1 pM). Plates were washed and incubated overnight with HRP-conjugated goat anti-mouse secondary antibody, and HRP activity was measured using SigmaFast OPD substrate. BLI was performed using ForteBio BLItz system (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA) with streptavidin biosensors. Biosensors were loaded with 2 μM fentanyl-biotin (see Supplemental Material for synthesis) for 60 sec, binding was measured with 100 nM mAb for 2 min, and dissociation was measured in PBS for 2 min.

Antibody scale up and purification. Hybridomas were adapted to DMEM (Corning Inc, Corning, NY) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, hypoxanthine/thymidine (Sigma), and 2-mercaptoethanol and inoculated into Integra Celline 1000 bioreactors (Wheaton, Millville, NJ). Supernatant containing secreted mAb was purified by affinity chromatography with recombinant Protein A Sepharose (GE Healthcare,

Chicago, IL). Antibody was sterilized by 0.2 µm filtration, aliquoted in preservative-free PBS, pH 7.2, and stored at 4°C. Purified mAb was analyzed by SDS-PAGE and dynamic light scattering (see Supplemental Material for additional methods).

Drug challenges and pharmacokinetics. Mice were passively immunized with control antibody (Ab, Gammagard, Baxalta Inc) or anti-opioid mAb in sterile PBS, 40-80 mg/kg as indicated in figure legends. To determine bioavailability and serum stability of mAb, approximately 50 µL of blood was collected by facial vein sampling at least 1 hour prior to drug challenge. Mice were injected s.c. with 5.0 mg/kg oxycodone, 1.0 mg/kg heroin, or 0.1 or 0.5 mg/kg fentanyl, and antinociception was evaluated by latency to respond on a hot plate set to 54°C (Columbus Instruments, Columbus, OH) at 30 min post-injection. Antinociception was reported as percent maximum possible effect (%MPE), and was calculated as (latency post injection – baseline latency)/(60 – baseline latency) x 100. At 31 min post-injection, mice were euthanized by CO₂ inhalation and decapitated, and brain and blood were collected for drug concentration analysis. Oxycodone concentration was measured by GC-MS as described (Pravetoni et al., 2013), fentanyl concentration was measured by LC-MS, and concentration of heroin, 6-acetyl morphine (6-AM), and morphine were analyzed by LC-MS (Raleigh et al., 2013). For fentanyl, mice were evaluated for heart rate and breath rate using a MouseOx Plus pulse oximeter (Starr Life Sciences, Oakmont, PA). Rats were passively immunized with 60 mg/kg α-fentanyl mAb i.p. and 24 hours later challenged with 0.1 mg/kg fentanyl s.c. Antinociception, heart rate, and respiratory behavior were measured every 15 min post-injection.

Data analysis. Statistical analysis was performed using Prism (GraphPad, La Jolla, CA). Mean %MPE, drug concentrations, oxygen saturation (%SaO₂), heart rate (beats per minute, bpm) and breath rate (breaths per minute, brpm) were analyzed by ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc analysis by Tukey's multiple comparisons test, or by two-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test when appropriate for measurements over time.

RESULTS

Antigen-based magnetic enrichment provides a high-throughput platform for generation of hybridomas expressing anti-opioid mAb. Murine hybridomas expressing anti-opioid (α-opioid) antibodies were generated after active immunization with lead α-opioid conjugate vaccines (see Supp. Table S1). To isolate α-oxycodone mAb, a vaccine consisting of an oxycodone-based hapten (OXY, Fig 1B) conjugated to the sKLH carrier protein (OXY-sKLH) was chosen for immunization. The OXY-sKLH vaccine has previously been shown to elicit protective titers in rats (Raleigh *et al.*, 2018), and OXY-specific B cells in mice (Laudenbach *et al.*, 2015). A magnetic enrichment strategy was used to isolate opioid-specific B cells prior to hybridoma fusion (see scheme, Fig 1A). To minimize co-isolation of carrier-specific splenocytes, OXY was conjugated to PE and used with anti-PE magnetic microbeads for enrichment of OXY-specific cells. Enrichment reduced the number of cells to be fused from approximately 3x10^A8 total splenocytes to 3.8x10^A7 enriched cells, and fusion of the OXY-specific enriched cell pool with Sp2/0 cells resulted in isolation of approximately 30 OXY-positive clones from a screening of 294 colonies (>10%).

Because previous research indicates that depletion of interleukin-4 (IL-4) with neutralizing antibodies enhances vaccine efficacy (Laudenbach *et al.*, 2018), a second cohort of mice was immunized with OXY-sKLH in conjunction with a neutralizing murine α -IL-4 mAb (clone 11B11). An additional 12 hybridomas expressing α -oxycodone mAb were isolated from this fusion, and were evaluated by ELISA to determine the IgG subclasses of expressed mAb (Supp. Fig. S1). Whereas all clones isolated from immunization with aluminum adjuvant alone expressed IgG₁ α -oxycodone mAb, immunization with aluminum in combination with α -IL-4 allowed isolation of several clones expressing IgG_{2a} α -oxycodone mAb, suggesting that choice of adjuvant impacts the profile of mAb generated from hybridomas. In addition, these data further support use of molecular adjuvants or immunomodulators such as the α -IL-4 mAb to improve the quality of the polyclonal antibody responses and the likelihood of isolating mAb of a desired IgG subclass.

For generation of α -morphine and α -fentanyl mAb, mice were immunized with conjugate vaccines containing either a morphine-based hapten (M, Fig 1C) or a fentanyl-based hapten (F, Fig 1D) conjugated to sKLH. Active immunization with M-sKLH has been previously show to generate polyclonal antibody response targeting heroin and its active metabolites 6-AM and morphine in mice and rats (Raleigh *et al.*, 2013). Active immunization with F-sKLH has been shown to protect against fentanyl-induced respiratory depression and bradycardia in rats (Raleigh *et al.*, 2019). A similar magnetic enrichment strategy as that for α -oxycodone mAb was used to isolate hybridomas expressing α -morphine and α -fentanyl mAb, resulting in a reduction in splenocytes available for fusion to approximately 2x10^7 and 2.5x10^7 enriched cells respectively, and yielding approximately 5% of hybridoma clones producing mAb specific for the immunizing antigen.

Initial biophysical characterization and scalability. Hybridomas expressing α -opioid mAb were initially cultured in 10 cm dishes using ClonaCell-HY medium, and mAb purified from supernatant at a 10 mg scale for initial *in vitro* characterization. Selected hybridoma clones were then transferred across laboratory sites and adapted to growth in Integra CL 1000 bioreactors, which yielded up to 250 mg. Lead mAb were purified and characterized by dynamic light scattering and SDS-PAGE to evaluate aggregation state and molecular weight (Supp. Fig S2). These data support scalability of the lead mAb generated in this study, and preliminary feasibility of technology transfer to a contract research organization with the goal of scaling up the mAb production to support late-stage characterization and *in vivo* studies in large animal models.

In vivo efficacy of α -oxycodone mAb. Selected α -oxycodone mAb were purified from hybridoma supernatant, and relative affinity was determined by competitive ELISA (Fig 2A). Anti-oxycodone mAb exhibited IC₅₀ within the 10 nM - 1 μ M range. Several clones were selected for further scale up and characterization; while clone HY1-3E3 exhibited the highest *in vitro* affinity, the isolated mAb exhibited

poor *in vivo* efficacy in initial tests (Supp. Fig. S3). Therefore, two clones with robust mAb expression were selected as leads, including one IgG_1 clone (HY1-3G8), and one IgG_{2a} clone (HY2-A12).

To evaluate whether α -oxycodone mAb is able to reduce the effects of oxycodone *in vivo*, mice were passively immunized with purified mAb 24 hours before a 5.0 mg/kg oxycodone challenge. Doses of either 40 or 80 mg/kg HY1-3G8 significantly reduced antinociception in mice compared to a control Ab (Fig 2B), and 40 mg/kg HY2-A12 reduced antinociception (p=0.065). Thirty minutes after administration of drug, mice were euthanized and the concentration of oxycodone in the brain and serum were measured by GC-MS. Passive immunization with 40 mg/kg of either IgG₁ or IgG_{2a} α -oxycodone mAb reduced brain distribution of drug by approximately 49% (Fig 2D), whereas 80 mg/kg of IgG₁ α -oxycodone mAb reduced brain distribution by 65%. These data suggest that IgG subclass may be not be a major contributor to antibody efficacy *in vivo*, and that mAb efficacy is dose-dependent.

In vivo efficacy of α-heroin mAb. For α-heroin mAb, relative affinity of purified mAb was evaluated by competitive ELISA using plates coated with M-BSA and free morphine as competitor. Three clones exhibited IC₅₀ < 2 nM (Fig 3A), and HY4-1F9 was chosen for scale up and *in vivo* characterization. Mice were passively immunized with purified α-heroin mAb, and given a 1 mg/kg heroin challenge 24 hours after passive immunization. Treatment with mAb reduced heroin-induced antinociception (Fig 3B), but the effect was not statistically significant (p=0.086 for 40 mg/kg; p=0.127 for 80 mg/kg). Because heroin is rapidly metabolized *in vivo* to active metabolites morphine and 6-AM, the concentrations of these metabolites in the brain and serum 30 minutes post-challenge were measured by LC-MS as a correlate of drug distribution. Measured levels of heroin were near or below the lower limit of quantitation, and excluded from analysis. At a dose of 1 mg/kg heroin, pre-treatment with 40 mg/kg of α-heroin mAb reduced brain distribution of heroin metabolites by 35%, and 80 mg/kg mAb reduced distribution by 57% of control.

To investigate the distribution of α-opioid mAb after passive immunization, 40 mg/kg of the lead α-heroin mAb HY4-1F9 was administered to mice either s.c. or i.p., and blood was sampled at intervals

following administration to determine concentration of HY4-1F9 in serum (Supp. Fig S4B). Importantly, the resulting serum mAb concentrations were equivalent between these routes, suggesting that both s.c. and i.p. are viable for delivery of mAb and supporting use of the more convenient s.c. delivery for α -opioid prophylaxis in potential clinical applications.

In vivo efficacy of α -fentanyl mAb. Relative affinities of α -fentanyl mAb were measured by BLI, with the highest affinity mAb HY6-F9 exhibiting a dissociation constant of \sim 0.5 nM. The two lead mAb selected for scale up included HY6-B5 and HY6-F9, which were IgG₁ and IgG_{2a} subtypes respectively (Supp. Fig. S1). To evaluate the efficacy of these mAb, male and female mice were passively immunized with 40 mg/kg of either HY6-B5 or HY6-F9. Because fentanyl-induced respiratory depression is a major contributor to overdose fatalities (Fox *et al.*, 2018), the effects of fentanyl on respiratory behavior were measured 30 minutes after administration of 0.1 mg/kg fentanyl. Passive immunization with either HY6-B5 or HY6-F9 reduced fentanyl antinociception (Fig 4B), and HY6-F9 prevented fentanyl-induced suppression of respiration and heart rate (Fig 4C-D) compared to pre-drug baseline values. Female mice treated with control Ab showed slightly greater fentanyl-induced antinociception than male mice treated with control Ab, but no other statistically significant differences between male and female mice in the same treatment group were observed, and HY6-F9 significantly reduced fentanyl-induced antinociception and bradycardia in both male and female mice (Suppl. Fig 5).

To evaluate the effect of passive immunization at higher doses of fentanyl, separate cohorts of male and female mice were passively immunized with 40 mg/kg HY6-F9, and challenged with 0.5 mg/kg fentanyl. At this dose of fentanyl, passive immunization with HY6-F9 increased oxygen saturation and reduced brain concentration of fentanyl 85% as compared to control Ab (Fig 4E-F), but did not reduce the effect of fentanyl on antinociception or bradycardia (*data not shown*).

Because HY6-F9 was effective in reducing the effects of fentanyl in mice, *in vivo* efficacy of this mAb was also evaluated in rats. Rats were passively immunized with 60 mg/kg mAb and challenged with 0.1 mg/kg fentanyl, and antinociception and respiratory behavior were measured every 15 minutes for one

hour. Anti-fentanyl mAb was effective at reducing antinociception (Fig 5A) and preventing loss of oxygen saturation and heart rate (Fig 5B-C) after administration fentanyl.

DISCUSSION

Monoclonal antibodies and vaccines against drugs or other chemical threats offer a unique tool with potential applications for treatment of OUD, and prevention of overdose or toxicity. Here, we describe the development of mAb against three opioid targets (oxycodone, heroin, and fentanyl), and demonstrate their efficacy *in vivo*. The magnetic enrichment strategy used to develop the mAb generated in this study reduced the number of total hybridoma clones 10-fold, simplifying the screening process. Similar methods have been successfully applied to generation of hybridomas against protein and peptide targets, including MHC-peptide complexes (Spanier *et al.*, 2016). However, this is the first report to our knowledge to apply magnetic enrichment of splenocytes prior to hybridoma fusion to the generation of mAb against a chemical target.

Selected mAb isolated using this approach exhibited both in vitro binding capability to their target drug and in vivo efficacy in reducing behavioral and physiological effects of opioids. In comparison to active vaccination, which may require weeks to months with multiple boosts to mount a protective immune response, passive immunization with α-opioid mAb offers the benefit of greater control over the dose, affinity, and peak timing of protective Ab. However, because efficacy of mAb and vaccines against opioids depends on binding and sequestration of the drug of interest in serum, favorable stoichiometric ratios of Ab binding sites to drug in serum are required to achieve the reduction in brain distribution necessary to block physiological effects. Typically, doses of 30-120 mg/kg of an α-opioid mAb are required for passive immunization (Smith et al., 2019), and efficacy is dose-dependent with larger mAb doses offering greater protection against opioid intoxication (Kvello et al., 2016, 2019). The doses of 40-80 mg/kg shown here result in mAb serum concentrations comparable to levels of polyclonal Ab achieved with their corresponding vaccinating antigens OXY-sKLH and M-sKLH (Suppl. Fig S3), and similar in vivo efficacy (Raleigh et al., 2014, 2017). Though the relatively high manufacturing cost of mAb production can be a significant limitation to clinical translation of mAb-based therapies for OUD due to high dosing requirements, advances in manufacturing technologies for biologics (Buyel et al., 2017; Diamos et al., 2020) are expected to facilitate cost-effective mAb production in the future.

For both the α-oxycodone mAb (Fig 2D) and the α-heroin mAb (Fig 3D), a dose of 80 mg/kg produced a greater reduction in brain distribution in comparison to a lower dose of mAb, and a corresponding increase in the concentration of drug sequestered in the serum compartment (Fig 2C, 3C). Notably, α-heroin mAb appeared less effective than α-oxycodone mAb in terms of reducing brain concentration of drug, despite a 5-fold lower drug dose and a higher apparent affinity for the α-heroin mAb. The finding that Ab against oxycodone are more efficacious than those against morphine is consistent with trends observed following active immunization with OXY-sKLH and M-sKLH; and efficacy depends on the route of heroin or oxycodone administration (Raleigh et al., 2018). Because mAb can theoretically only interact with circulating drug in the serum compartment, whereas circulating unbound drug is subject to metabolism and tissue distribution effects, it can be difficult to predict mAb doses required for efficacy against various opioids. For example, a dose of 5 mg/kg oxycodone is in 30fold excess of available binding sites when considering the total dose ratio, whereas measured serum concentrations of oxycodone and mAb estimate that the amount of drug in the serum compartment is ~50-60% that of available binding sites. Regardless, 40 mg/kg mAb was sufficient to significantly impact physiological response to oxycodone (Fig 2B) and reduce brain concentration ~50%, whereas brain concentration of heroin after 1 mg/kg challenge (corresponding to a 5-fold heroin:mAb binding sites total dose ratio) was reduced ~35% (Fig 3D).

Monoclonal antibodies against fentanyl and fentanyl analogs are of particular interest to public health due to their high potency. Because fentanyl-induced respiratory depression and bradycardia are implicated in overdose fatalities, heart rate and respiration were used as primary measures of α -fentanyl mAb efficacy. Passive vaccination was effective at reducing toxic effects of fentanyl in both mice and rats (Fig 4-5), supporting the potential of mAb as a therapeutic to protect against fentanyl toxicity. However, at the higher fentanyl dose (0.5 mg/kg) in mice, mAb reduced respiratory depression compared to control Ab, but was less protective against fentanyl-induced antinociception and bradycardia despite an 85% reduction in brain distribution in mAb-treated mice. While further study with larger doses of α -fentanyl mAb will be required to establish whether mAb can protect or rescue from high concentrations fentanyl

that may be encountered in an overdose scenario, other studies have successfully demonstrated mAb-based protection from potentially lethal fentanyl doses (Smith *et al.*, 2019). In this context, mAb could act as either a standalone treatment or as a supplement to opioid antagonists (e.g. naloxone) for overdose treatment and prevention. Preclinical efficacy of these opioid-targeting biologics has been demonstrated in multiple models and with various dose ranges and routes of administration, supporting further clinical development of this therapeutic approach.

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Authorship Contributions.

Participated in research design: Baehr, Pravetoni and AuCoin.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. B cell-based platform for generating α -opioid hybridomas via magnetic enrichment. (A)

Workflow for hybridoma generation. Antigen-specific cells from immunized mice are selected by

magnetic enrichment for fusion with Sp2/0 myeloma cells; HAT-resistant colonies are transferred to

plates and screened for expression of anti-opioid antibodies by ELISA. Structures of haptens used for

immunization for (B) α -oxycodone, (C) α -morphine, and (D) α -fentanyl hybridomas.

Figure 2. Characterization and efficacy of α -oxycodone mAb. (A) Dissociation constants of α -

oxycodone mAb were determined by competitive ELISA. (B-D) Passive immunization with α-oxycodone

mAb reduces oxycodone distribution to the brain. Mice (n=5/group) were passively immunized with 40

mg/kg or 80 mg/kg α-oxycodone mAb i.p. and challenged with 5.0 mg/kg oxycodone s.c. (B)

Antinociception was evaluated by latency to respond on a hot plate; oxycodone levels in (C) serum and

(D) brain were determined by GC-MS. Mean \pm SD; *p<0.05; ****p<0.0001.

Figure 3. Characterization and efficacy of α -heroin mAb. (A) Relative affinities of α -heroin mAb

were determined by competitive ELISA. (B-D) Passive immunization with α-heroin mAb reduces heroin

distribution to the brain. Mice (n=6/group) were passively immunized with 40 mg/kg or 80 mg/kg α-

heroin mAb i.p. and challenged with 1.0 mg/kg heroin s.c. (B) Antinociception was evaluated by latency

to respond on a hot plate 30 min post-injection; heroin metabolites 6-AM and morphine in (C) serum, and

(D) brain were determined by LC-MS. Mean \pm SD; **p<0.01; ****p<0.0001.

Figure 4. Characterization and efficacy of α -fentanyl mAb. (A) Dissociation constants of α -fentanyl

mAb were determined by biolayer interferometry. (B-D) Passive immunization with α-fentanyl mAb

reduces fentanyl-induced antinociception, respiratory depression and bradycardia. Mice (n=3 male and 3

female per group) were passively immunized with 40 mg/kg anti-fentanyl mAb i.p. and challenged with

0.1 mg/kg fentanyl s.c. (B) Antinociception was evaluated by latency to respond on a hot plate; (C) breath

rate and (D) heart rate were measured by oximetry at 30 min post-injection. (E-F) In a separate

experiment, mice (n=4 male and 4 female per group) were passively immunized with 40 mg/kg α -fentanyl mAb and challenged with 0.5 mg/kg fentanyl. (E) oxygen saturation was measured by oximetry and (F) brain fentanyl concentration was measured by LC-MS at 30 min post-injection. Mean \pm SD; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; ***p<0.0001.

Figure 5. Efficacy of α-fentanyl mAb in rats. Rats (n=4/group) were passively immunized with 60 mg/kg α-fentanyl mAb i.p. and challenged with 0.1 mg/kg fentanyl s.c. (A) Antinociception by latency to respond on a hot plate, (B) oxygen saturation, and (C) heart rate were evaluated every 15 min up to 1 hour post-injection. Mean \pm SD; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.









