

1 **Single-domain antibodies targeting antithrombin reduce bleeding in hemophilic mice**
2 **with or without inhibitors**

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30 **Running title:** Anti-antithrombin nanobodies restore hemostasis in hemophilia mice

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1 **Abstract**

2 Novel therapies for hemophilia, including non-factor replacement and in vivo gene therapy
3 are showing promising results in the clinic, including for those patients having a history of
4 inhibitor development. Here, we propose a novel therapeutic approach for hemophilia based
5 on llama-derived single domain antibody fragments (sdAbs) able to restore hemostasis by
6 inhibiting the antithrombin (AT) anticoagulant pathway. We demonstrated that sdAbs
7 engineered in multivalent conformations were able to block efficiently AT activity in vitro,
8 restoring the thrombin generation potential in FVIII deficient plasma. When delivered as a
9 protein to hemophilia A mice, a selected bi-paratopic sdAb significantly reduced the blood
10 loss in a model of acute bleeding injury. We then packaged this sdAb in a hepatotropic AAV8
11 vector and tested its safety and efficacy profile in hemophilia mouse models. We show that
12 the long-term expression of the bi-paratopic sdAb in the liver is safe and poorly
13 immunogenic, and results in sustained correction of the bleeding phenotype in hemophilia A
14 and B mice, even in the presence inhibitory antibodies to the therapeutic clotting factor.

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1 **Introduction**

2 Hemostasis is a complex process dedicated to limit blood loss upon vascular injury. In this
3 process, it is the task of the coagulation cascade to generate a fibrin network that is required
4 to stabilize the platelet plug (Versteeg *et al*, 2013). The coagulation pathway comprises a
5 series of sequential steps in which pro-enzymes are converted into active serine proteases
6 (Davie *et al*, 1991). Ultimately, this cascade leads to the formation of thrombin, the enzyme
7 that is responsible to convert fibrinogen into fibrin. Complementary to the proteolytic steps
8 that activate the coagulation enzymes, there is also the need to have feedback regulatory
9 loops that dampen coagulation (Versteeg *et al*, 2013). Accordingly, several anti-coagulant
10 proteins exist that are capable of blocking the function of coagulation enzymes or their
11 cofactors. The fine balance between pro- and anti-coagulant factors is in fact needed to
12 prevent hypo- or hyper- coagulative states that, in some conditions, can be pathologic.
13 Hemophilia is a well-known example of inherited alteration of the hemostatic balance due to
14 a coagulation factor deficiency, which results in a bleeding diathesis. The lack of the
15 procoagulant protein factor VIII (FVIII) for hemophilia A or the serine protease-precursor
16 factor IX (FIX) for hemophilia B affects 1-2 *per* 10,000 and 1 *per* 25,000 males at birth,
17 respectively (Bolton-Maggs & Pasi, 2003). Hemophilia A and B are clinically
18 indistinguishable, and their treatment is dictated by the clinical severity. Bleedings are usually
19 efficiently prevented or resolved via replacement therapy using plasma-derived or
20 recombinant factor concentrates (Manco-Johnson *et al*, 2017). Nevertheless, protein
21 replacement therapy has a number of limitations, including the necessity for relatively
22 frequent intravenous access and the development of neutralizing inhibitors in up to 30% of
23 patients in hemophilia A and about 3% in hemophilia B patients (Gouw *et al*, 2013; Calvez *et*
24 *al*, 2014; Peyvandi *et al*, 2016; Eckhardt *et al*, 2013). As an alternative to protein infusion,
25 gene-based strategies to address the clotting factor deficiency in hemophilia are being
26 explored. Among these, liver gene transfer with adeno-associated virus (AAV) vectors is now
27 in early and late stage clinical development (Nathwani *et al*, 2014; George *et al*, 2017;
28 Nathwani *et al*, 2017; Miesbach *et al*, 2018).

1 Despite the advances in the treatment of hemophilia, patients with inhibitors had only limited
2 therapeutic options until recently. However, novel treatment strategies not relying on factor
3 replacement are now resulting in important clinical advances (Muczynski *et al*, 2017). Among
4 these, one potentially promising approach is to restore the hemostatic balance by
5 neutralizing components of the anti-coagulant pathway, such as tissue factor pathway
6 inhibitors, activated protein C or antithrombin (Chowdary, 2018; Polderdijk *et al*, 2017;
7 Sehgal *et al*, 2015). Indeed, current late stage trials are evaluating the possibility to use
8 siRNA-mediated silencing of antithrombin expression (which results in reduced levels of
9 circulating antithrombin) as a mean to correct the bleeding diathesis in hemophilia patients
10 (Sehgal *et al*, 2015; Pasi *et al*, 2017). In an alternative strategy aimed at targeting the
11 antithrombin pathway and restore hemostasis in hemophilia, here we describe the
12 development of recombinant single domain antibodies (sdAbs, also known as heavy chain-
13 only antibodies or nanobodies) binding antithrombin. We show that by combining sdAbs
14 monomers selected for binding antithrombin, it is possible to achieve profound inhibition of
15 antithrombin activity. Accordingly, sdAbs against antithrombin were able to restore thrombin
16 generation *in vitro*. Delivery of bi-paratopic sdAbs, both as recombinant protein or engineered
17 to be expressed from the hepatocytes via AAV vector-mediated gene transfer, significantly
18 reduced blood loss in hemophilic mice, even in the presence of inhibitory antibodies against
19 the clotting factor.

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1 **Results**

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3 **Library generation and selection of antithrombin-specific monovalent sdAbs**

4 To generate a sdAb library, a llama was immunized via subcutaneous injection of 0.4 mg of
5 human antithrombin, once weekly during 4 weeks (Fig.1A). Blood was then collected to
6 isolate total mRNA from B lymphocytes, which was used to generate a library of heavy chain-
7 only encoding cDNA. This library consisted of 1.1×10^8 independent clones. The quality of the
8 library was assessed by analyzing the sequence of 200 randomly picked clones, revealing
9 that each clone contained a unique sequence. Protein expression analysis of these clones
10 demonstrated that 182 (92.5%) of this subset of clones expressed sdAb proteins with the
11 expected size of 13-15 kDa. The full library was then used to select antithrombin-specific
12 sdAb via phage-display screening using beads coated with purified plasma-derived human
13 antithrombin (0.2 mg/200 μ l beads). After two rounds of panning, 7 unique clones were
14 selected for further analysis (Fig.1A).

15

16 **Monovalent sdAbs inhibit antithrombin activity in the absence of heparin**

17 Seven sdAbs targeting antithrombin were expressed as histidine (HIS)-tagged monovalent
18 proteins in *E.coli*-SHuffle cells and purified to homogeneity via Co^{2+} -affinity and gel filtration
19 chromatography. Purified sdAbs were tested for cross-reactivity with antithrombin from
20 different species present in 4-fold diluted plasma. All seven sdAbs (designated KB-AT-01 to -
21 07) did recognize antithrombin from multiple species, including human and murine
22 antithrombin, to a variable degree (Table 1). A dose-response for the binding of purified
23 human and murine antithrombin to immobilized sdAbs is presented in Expanded View Figure
24 EV1. We then evaluated the neutralizing potential of monovalent sdAbs towards antithrombin
25 in the absence and presence of heparin, which enhances the inhibitory potential of
26 antithrombin towards thrombin. In the absence of heparin, all monovalent sdAbs partially
27 neutralized antithrombin-mediated inhibition of thrombin (range: 55-67%; Fig. 1B). In
28 contrast, when heparin was added to the reaction mixture, the sdAbs lost their capacity to

1 neutralize antithrombin (Fig. 1C). A similar lack of neutralizing activity of the sdAbs was
2 observed for the inhibition of factor Xa (FXa) in the presence of low molecular weight heparin
3 (Fig.1D). These results suggest that, in their monovalent conformation, sdAbs lack enough
4 potency to block the activity of heparin-bound antithrombin.

5 6 **The bi-paratopic sdAb KB-AT-23 is a potent inhibitor of antithrombin activity even in** 7 **the presence of heparin**

8 To overcome the limited ability of monovalent sdAbs to neutralize antithrombin in the
9 presence of heparin, several bi- and multi-paratopic variants were designed using
10 combinations of different monovalent sdAbs. After a preliminary selection based on
11 neutralizing capacity of the multivalent sdAbs in the presence of heparin, an in-depth
12 analysis was performed with the candidate KB-AT-23 (consisting of sdAbs KB-AT-02 and -
13 03, separated by a triple Gly₃Ser-linker, Fig. 2A). KB-AT-2 and -3 can bind simultaneously to
14 antithrombin, indicating that they recognize separate regions within the antithrombin
15 molecule. The combination of these sdAbs was chosen since the monovalent variants
16 showed the highest residual neutralizing potential in the presence of heparin (Fig.1C and D).
17 KB-AT-23 dose-dependently interfered with antithrombin-activity, as illustrated by the
18 recovery of thrombin- and FXa-mediated substrate conversion in the presence of
19 antithrombin and heparin (Fig. 2B and C). The IC₅₀ for thrombin neutralizing inhibition by
20 antithrombin was achieved at a molar sdAb/antithrombin ratio of 5.5±0.9 (Fig. 2B). For FXa,
21 the IC₅₀ was obtained at a molar ratio of 2.8±0.5 (Fig. 2C), indicating that KB-AT-23 is more
22 efficient in neutralizing antithrombin activity towards FXa compared to thrombin. In a next
23 series of experiments, the ability of KB-AT-23 to restore thrombin generation in FVIII-
24 deficient plasma was evaluated. For comparison, a thrombin generation profile of FVIII-
25 deficient plasma spiked with recombinant FVIII to a concentration of 2.5% (0.025 U/ml;
26 representing moderate hemophilia A), 10% (0.1 U/ml; representing mild hemophilia A) or
27 100% (1 U/ml; representing normal plasma) was generated (Fig. 2D). As expected, the
28 addition of FVIII to FVIII-deficient plasma resulted in a dose-dependent increase in thrombin

1 generation (Fig. 2D). All parameters like endogenous thrombin potential (ETP), lag-time and
2 thrombin peak increased in a FVIII-dependent fashion (Table 2). The addition of 0.1 mg/ml
3 (3.3 μ M) or 0.2 mg/ml (6.6 μ M) of KB-AT-23 also enhanced thrombin generation in a dose-
4 dependent manner (Fig. 2E). Although time to peak was longer upon the addition of KB-AT-
5 23, the amount of thrombin generated was markedly increased when compared to normal
6 plasma or to FVIII-deficient plasma supplemented with FVIII to 1 U/ml (Table 2). We further
7 analyzed the effect of KB-AT-23 in plasma from FVIII-deficient mice. Thrombin generation in
8 murine FVIII-deficient plasma was $0.3\pm 0.1 \mu\text{M}\cdot\text{min}$ compared to $1.1\pm 0.1 \mu\text{M}\cdot\text{min}$ for wild-type
9 plasma (Table 3). The presence of KB-AT-23 (2 μ M) increased the endogenous thrombin
10 potential (ETP) in murine FVIII-deficient plasma to $0.9\pm 0.1 \mu\text{M}\cdot\text{min}$ ($p=0.158$ compared to
11 wild-type plasma; $p<0.0001$ compared to FVIII-deficient plasma). Interestingly, the effect of
12 KB-AT-23 was unaffected when anti-FVIII antibodies (titer 8 BU/ml) were present
13 (ETP= $0.9\pm 0.1 \mu\text{M}\cdot\text{min}$; $p=0.998$ versus KB-AT-23 alone). In contrast, the KB-AT-23-induced
14 increased thrombin generation could be annulated by the addition of antithrombin
15 concentrate (2 μ M; ETP= $0.2\pm 0.1 \mu\text{M}\cdot\text{min}$; $p=0.260$ compared to FVIII-deficient plasma).
16 Together, these results suggest that combining two distinct sdAbs, each having limited
17 neutralizing potential, into a single molecule increases its neutralizing capacity, allowing the
18 restoration of thrombin generation in FVIII-deficient plasma. In addition, its effect is
19 unaffected by anti-FVIII inhibitory antibodies and can be reversed by the addition of
20 antithrombin concentrate.

21

22 **KB-AT-23 administration restores hemostatic balance in hemophilia A mice**

23 We next explored the *in vivo* characteristics of KB-AT-23. To determine its *in vivo* circulatory
24 survival (Fig. 3A), we generated two distinct sdAb-fusion proteins. One consisting of KB-AT-
25 23 fused to von Willebrand factor (VWF) residues 1261-1478 (designated KB-AT-23-fus),
26 and a second consisting of the bivalent control sdAb KB-hFX-11, also fused to the same
27 VWF polypeptide (KB-hFX-11-fus). KB-hFX-11 does not bind to murine proteins, while VWF

1 polypeptide is used for detection of both sdAbs. Following intravenous tail-vein infusion (10
2 mg/kg) in wild-type C57BL/6 mice, recovery at 5 min was $93\pm 18\%$ for KB-AT-23-fus, and
3 $47\pm 7\%$ for KB-hFX-11-fus ($p=0.012$). Both proteins were eliminated in a bi-exponential
4 manner (Fig. 3B). The half-lives of the initial portions (alpha-phase) of the decay curve were
5 0.3h (95%-CI 0.2-0.6h) and 0.03 h (95%-CI 0.02-0.05h) for KB-AT-23-fus and KB-hFX-11-fus,
6 respectively. The half-lives of the terminal portions (beta-phase) were 38 h (95%-CI 21-178h)
7 and 0.7 h (95%-CI 0.5-1.0h) for KB-AT-23-fus and KB-hFX-11-fus, respectively. The notion
8 that KB-AT-23-fus has a substantial longer half-life compared to the similar-sized control
9 protein strongly suggests that KB-AT-23 associates to endogenous antithrombin of the
10 mouse.

11 We next investigated the use of KB-AT-23 to reduce bleeding in a mouse model of severe
12 hemophilia A (Bi *et al*, 1995). To do so, we used a recently developed tail vein transection
13 bleeding model (TVT) (Johansen *et al*, 2016), which involves the standardized transection of
14 the lateral tail vein at a depth of 0.5 mm (Fig. 3C). FVIII-deficient mice were given a single
15 dose KB-AT-23 (10 mg/kg), recombinant FVIIa (1 mg/kg) or control vehicle and 10 min after
16 injection bleeding was assessed. Blood was collected over a period of 30 minutes, and blood
17 loss was quantified as described (Muczynski *et al*, 2018). On average, blood loss was $755 \pm$
18 $239 \mu\text{l}$ ($n=7$) in vehicle-treated FVIII-deficient mice and $95\pm 69 \mu\text{l}$ ($n=9$) in FVIIa-treated mice
19 (Fig. 3D). In contrast, mice receiving 10 mg/kg of KB-AT-23 showed reduced blood loss (272
20 $\pm 170 \mu\text{l}$; $n=4$; $p=0.0006$ versus vehicle-treated mice and $p=0.210$ versus FVIIa-treated mice;
21 Fig. 3D). These results indicate that KB-AT-23, administered as recombinant protein,
22 efficiently reduces blood loss in vivo in the absence of FVIII.

23

24 **KB-AT-23 can be efficiently produced and secreted in vitro in hepatocyte cell lines**

25 Based on the promising results obtained in vivo with KB-AT-23 administered as a
26 recombinant protein, we next explored the possibility of constitutively expressing the protein
27 in liver using an AAV vector mediated gene transfer. In order to develop hepatotropic AAV
28 vectors expressing secretable nanobodies, we first cloned the KB-AT-23 coding sequence

1 carrying a N-terminal His-tag and a C-terminal human influenza hemagglutinin (HA) tag in a
2 hepatocyte-specific expression cassette (Fig. 4A). We then generated 5 variants with
3 different N-terminal signal peptides, either derived from heavy chain of human
4 immunoglobulins (Haryadi *et al*, 2015) or from a protein expressed from the liver and already
5 described to efficiently drive secretion of recombinant proteins into the bloodstream (Puzzo
6 *et al*, 2017)(Fig. 4A and Table 4). Human hepatoma HuH7 cells were transfected and protein
7 expression and secretion in conditioned media was assessed in samples collected 72 hours
8 later. Western blot analysis revealed a 30-kDa band corresponding to the secreted KB-AT-23
9 in all samples (Fig. 4B), while in cell lysate the protein was undetectable (Fig. 4C). The
10 highest amount of secreted KB-AT-23 was obtained with the SSP1 construct, as confirmed
11 by the western blot quantification (Fig. 4B). Based on these results, we identified an
12 expression cassette optimally suited for liver expression of KB-AT-23.

13

14 **Long-term expression of KB-AT-23 in liver of HA mice is safe and effective in reducing** 15 **bleeding**

16 We then assessed the safety and efficacy profile of KB-AT-23 stably secreted in liver from an
17 AAV8 vector carrying the selected SSP1-KB-AT-23 expression cassette (AAV8-hAAT-KB-
18 AT-23). Hemophilia A male and female animals received two doses of AAV8-hAAT-KB-AT-
19 23 or PBS control intravenously (1×10^{10} , and 1×10^{12} vg/mouse, n=6-9 per group) (Fig. 5A)
20 and were followed for 7 months. First, we assessed the circulating sdAb levels in plasma
21 collected at different time points (Fig.5A). Western blot analyses revealed good correlation
22 between the vector dose and the plasma levels of KB-AT-23 (Fig.5B, lower panel). Since
23 sdAbs exploit their inhibitory activity by binding antithrombin, we wanted to assess if the
24 circulating levels of KB-AT-23 had an impact on antithrombin levels. Western blot analysis of
25 plasma antithrombin showed no significant differences between treated animals and PBS
26 controls (Fig. 5B, upper panel), indicating that the sdAb expression did not impact circulating
27 antithrombin levels.

1 In order to evaluate potential adverse effects related to the sdAb expression, we measured
2 the levels of D-dimers, a pro-thrombotic marker (Adam *et al*, 2009), in plasma samples
3 collected at the end of the study, 7 months post vector administration, and from normal wild-
4 type mice as control. Following one-way Anova analysis with Tukey's multiple comparison
5 test, no significant differences in D-dimer levels were observed between the groups (Fig.
6 5C). Evaluation of anti-sdAb immune responses did not show development of IgG against
7 the KB-AT-23 transgene (Fig. 5D). At the end of the study (Fig. 5A), a subset of animals from
8 each treatment group (n=4) were challenged in a TVT assay and blood loss was measured
9 over 30 minutes. In both males and females, we observed a significant amelioration of the
10 bleeding phenotype at both vector doses tested, (Fig. 5E), suggesting that the 1×10^{10} vg/kg
11 was already above the therapeutic threshold for correction of blood loss following TVT. After
12 the sacrifice, vector genome copy number was measured in livers, showing a good
13 correlation between the vector dose and the degree of liver transduction (Fig. 5F). As
14 previously reported (Davidoff *et al*, 2003), male animals displayed higher liver transduction
15 levels than female animals (Fig. 5F). These results demonstrate that long-term liver
16 expression of KB-AT-23 via AAV gene transfer is safe and results in an amelioration of the
17 bleeding diathesis in hemophilia A mice.

18

19 **Single domain antibodies expressed via AAV vectors showed hemostatic activity in** 20 **hemophilia B mice with or without antibodies directed against FIX**

21 Based on the results obtained in hemophilia mice, we identified an intermediate vector dose
22 of 2×10^{11} vg/mouse to be tested in hemophilia B mice (Lin *et al*, 1997). We investigated the
23 efficacy of correction of bleeding of KB-AT-23 in the presence or absence of antibodies
24 directed against FIX. To do so, we pre-immunized mice (n=5 per group) with human FIX
25 protein (40 μ g/mouse) formulated in complete Freund's adjuvant, or PBS control, injected
26 subcutaneously (Fig. 6A and B). Immunized animals developed an anti-FIX immune
27 response within 5 weeks following the FIX protein administration (Fig. 6C). 6 weeks post
28 immunization, mice were intravenously infused with the AAV8-hAAT-KB-AT-23 vector (Fig.

1 6A). A group of animals was injected with PBS as control (n=5) (Fig. 6B). Western blot
2 analysis of plasma samples at 8 weeks post-AAV injection showed that the KB-AT-23
3 transgene was correctly secreted in the bloodstream in the treated groups (Fig. 6D).
4 Consistently, we observed a significant reduction in AT-activity following AAV vector
5 administration in treated mice (~45% at 8 weeks post injection, p=0.0001, 2-way ANOVA)
6 (Fig. 6E). This resulted in a significant amelioration of the bleeding phenotype in both groups
7 as assessed via a tail clip assay performed 9 weeks post AAV vector administration (Fig.
8 6F). Blood loss was reduced from 823±287 µl (PBS injected animals) to 328±153 µl (mice
9 injected with FIX+AAV) and 307±103 µL (mice injected with PBS+AAV) (Fig. 6F). Noticeably,
10 KB-AT-23-treated mice displayed a blood loss comparable to that of the wild type mice,
11 which was 299±73 uL and an AAV-FIX treated group (184±92 µL) added as experimental
12 controls (Fig. 6F). No anti-sdAb antibody responses were detected in AAV vector-treated
13 mice (Fig. 6G). Together, these findings demonstrated that liver expression of KB-AT-23 can
14 correct bleeding in hemophilia B mice regardless of the presence of anti-FIX antibodies.

15

16 **The bi-paratopic KB-AT-23 does not elicit anti-sdAb immune response in wild-type** 17 **mice**

18 In order to assess the potential immunogenicity of KB-AT-23 expressed *in vivo*, we produced
19 AAV8 vectors expressing the bi-valent KB-AT-23 or a tri-valent KB-AT-113 nanobody under
20 the control of the strong constitutive CMV early enhancer/chicken beta-actin promoter (CAG)
21 promoter (AAV8-CAG-KB-AT-23 and AAV8-CAG-KB-AT-113) (Fig. 7A). Wild-type mice
22 received either an intravenous infusion of AAV8-hAAT-KB-AT-23 (1×10^{10} vg/mouse, n=8) or
23 an intramuscular injection of the immunogenic vectors AAV8-CAG-KB-AT-23 or AAV8-CAG-
24 KB-AT-113 (1×10^{10} vg/mouse, n=8 per group) (Fig. 7A and B). Protein expression analyses
25 conducted a month post-AAV injection revealed the presence of circulating KB-AT-23 and
26 KB-AT-113 sdAbs in the treated groups (Fig. 7C). We then evaluated the immune response
27 against the circulating sdAbs by performing an ELISA assay in which we used the
28 monovalent KB-AT-01, -02 or -03 sdAb as capture antibodies (Fig. 7D-F). These were the

1 same sdAbs combined for the generation of the multivalent KB-AT-23 and KB-AT-113.
2 Interestingly, we detected a consistent level of mouse IgG cross-reacting with the
3 monovalent KB-AT-01 and -02 in mice expressing the trivalent KB-AT-113 (Fig. 7D-E).
4 Conversely, we detected no or very low cross-reactivity against KB-AT-01 and -02 in animals
5 that received AAV vectors expressing KB-AT-23 under the control of the hAAT or CAG
6 promoters (Fig. 7D-E). None of the injected animals showed a significant humoral response
7 directed against KB-AT-03 (Fig. 7F). When we checked for the cross-reactivity of the mouse
8 antibodies against the bi-valent KB-AT-23 (Fig. 7G) and the trivalent KB-AT-113 (Fig. 7H) we
9 observed an immune-response only in mice treated with the AAV8-CAG-KB-AT-113 (Fig.
10 7G-H). On the other hand, mice expressing the bivalent KB-AT-23 either from the hAAT or
11 the CAG promoter did not show any immune-response (Fig. 7G-H). Together, these results
12 suggest that KB-AT-23 expressed via AAV gene transfer is poorly immunogenic.

13

14 **Discussion**

15 In recent years, the landscape of treatments for hemophilia has changed dramatically. Long-
16 acting clotting factors and non-factor replacement therapies have improved the management
17 of bleeds and reduced the burden of treatment. Among the novel therapies for hemophilia,
18 gene therapy trials for both hemophilia A and B have also yielded impressive results, with
19 some AAV vector-based gene therapies now in clinical trials (Nathwani *et al*, 2014; George
20 *et al*, 2017; Rangarajan *et al*, 2017). Additional drug candidates to treat hemophilia are also
21 in development, highlighting the need to address all complexities of the disease (Pelland-
22 Marcotte & Carcao, 2019; Nogami & Shima, 2019). The ability of compensating the bleeding
23 diathesis of hemophilia by acting on the feedback loop of the clotting cascade has been
24 previously explored, for example by crossing hemophilia mice with mice carrying the
25 prothrombotic gene variant factor V Leiden (Schlachterman *et al*, 2005). Similarly, Shetty and
26 coworkers reported the case of two individuals with markedly mild bleeding phenotype
27 resulting from the combination of homozygous mutations associated with severe hemophilia
28 and heterozygous for mutations resulting in antithrombin deficiency (Shetty *et al*, 2007).

1 Here, we developed a novel potential therapeutic approach for both hemophilia A and B
2 based on the inhibition of antithrombin, which can restore clotting even in the presence of
3 antibodies directed against a coagulation factor. Our strategy is based on single domain
4 antibodies binding to antithrombin that were derived from a library of llama single-domain
5 antibodies. The combination of two sdAbs from the library, produced as a recombinant
6 protein, was used to restore clotting both in vitro and in vivo. Single-domain antibodies, or
7 nanobodies, have emerged in recent years as a novel class of biologics, owing to several
8 attractive features (Aymé *et al*, 2017; Li *et al*, 2018), including ease of engineering to
9 generate multiple binding domains and the potential for lower costs of manufacturing
10 compared to monoclonal antibodies (Steeland *et al*, 2016; Hassanzadeh-Ghassabeh *et al*,
11 2013). Potential limitations include the variable half-life of the sdAbs, which are generally
12 eliminated very rapidly from the blood due to their small size, particularly when not bound to
13 a circulating protein (Fig. 3B). To address this limitation, various protein engineering
14 strategies are commonly used to extend the half-life of the sdAbs (Hoefman *et al*, 2015).
15 Furthermore, while derived from llama and therefore of non-human origin, immunogenicity of
16 sdAbs is relatively weak because of the high degree of identity with the human type 3 VH
17 domain (VH₃) (Vu *et al*, 1997). Here, we showed how simple protein engineering can be
18 applied to single domain antibodies, by combining monomers targeting different domains of
19 an enzyme to achieve enhanced reduction of its activity. A similar strategy to the one
20 presented here, based on the use of fitusiran, an siRNA targeting the antithrombin mRNA, is
21 currently in late stage clinical development. Clinical data indicate that a reduction of
22 antithrombin levels by 70-90% can be achieved depending on the dose of siRNA
23 administered (Pasi *et al*, 2017). Accordingly, an increase in thrombin generation was
24 observed when tested in global thrombin generation assays, resulting in a significant
25 reduction in the annualized bleeding rate in hemophilia patients (Pasi *et al*, 2017). While
26 promising, the use of fitusiran has several potential drawbacks associated with the long delay
27 (2-4 weeks) needed to achieve the desired reduction in antithrombin levels (Pasi *et al*, 2017),
28 which makes the approach unsuitable to address acute bleeds. Additionally, because of the

1 relatively low turn-over of the siRNA delivered, the rate of recovery in antithrombin levels
2 after discontinuation of the therapy is slow, reaching 10-15% per month (Pasi *et al*, 2017;
3 Machin & Ragni, 2018), which may pose concerns over the ability to acutely discontinue the
4 treatment, if needed. The use of sdAbs directed against antithrombin could potentially
5 addresses these concerns. Indeed, while fitusiran prevents antithrombin synthesis by
6 targeting and degrading antithrombin mRNA in the liver (Sehgal *et al*, 2015), sdAbs act as
7 neutralizing agents for antithrombin, thus explaining the fast restoration of thrombin
8 generation in vitro shown here. Based on kinetic progress curves in which KB-AT-23
9 neutralizes antithrombin-mediated inhibition of thrombin and FXa, it appears that KB-AT-23
10 behaves as a tight binding, competitive inhibitor. This suggests that KB-AT-23 interferes with
11 complex formation between antithrombin and the enzymes. Future work will be aimed at
12 elucidating the mechanism of action and the specific epitopes in more detail. It is worth
13 noting that the duration of gene silencing by fitusiran is strongly dependent on the siRNA
14 intracellular turnover (Bartlett & Davis, 2006), while KB-AT-23 activity depends entirely on its
15 binding to circulating antithrombin. Free KB-AT-23 is rapidly eliminated, while antithrombin-
16 bound KB-AT-23 is removed from the circulation in an antithrombin-dependent manner. This
17 allows for a rapid reversal of the treatment if needed, for instance in the event of thrombosis
18 (Dargaud *et al*, 2004). In other emergency situations, the infusion of antithrombin
19 concentrates could be used to directly neutralize the action of KB-AT-23, and normalize
20 levels of antithrombin. Indeed, the addition of antithrombin concentrate to sdAb-containing
21 plasma reversed thrombin generation in these samples (Table 3).

22 In our in vitro thrombin generation experiments, using a molar excess of sdAb over
23 antithrombin, we noticed that the ETP was increased 1.5 to 2-fold (Table 2), potentially
24 raising questions on whether this approach would pose an increased risk of thrombosis.
25 However, it should be pointed out, that in the plasma-based *in vitro* thrombin generation
26 assay, the anticoagulant pathways are under-represented: Only 10% of the tissue factor
27 pathway inhibitor molecules is present, while cellular thrombomodulin (needed to activate the
28 activated Protein C pathway) and protease nexin-1 (a strong inhibitor of thrombin released

1 from platelets) are both absent in these assays. It stands to reason therefore to assume that
2 the *in vitro* thrombin generation assay in FIX- or FVIII-deficient plasma in the presence of an
3 antithrombin-inhibitor can result in artificially exaggerated thrombin generation. Indeed, the
4 presence of KB-AT-23 results in near-normalization of the bleeding tendency, while D-dimer
5 levels (a marker for thrombosis) were not increased even after prolonged exposure to KB-
6 AT-23. Based on these considerations, sdAbs could become a useful tool to improve the
7 prophylactic treatment of hemophilia.

8 With an eye on the rapidly evolving landscape of gene therapy for hemophilia, which includes
9 both gene replacement approaches (Nathwani *et al*, 2011, 2014; George *et al*, 2017;
10 Rangarajan *et al*, 2017; Miesbach *et al*, 2018) and preclinical approaches based on
11 alternative pathways (Quade-Lyssy *et al*, 2014; Schuettrumpf *et al*, 2005), here we also
12 exploited AAV vector mediated gene transfer as a modality to express our anti-antithrombin
13 sdAb *in vivo* in hemophilia mice. To this aim, we engineered an AAV vector to drive liver
14 secretion of the sdAb into the bloodstream. Potential advantages of this approach over the
15 conventional protein-based therapy are the possibility of achieving a long-term steady state
16 levels of expression, which would avoid peak and trough associated with protein-based
17 therapy thus resulting in improved efficacy. From a preclinical evaluation point of view, AAV
18 mediated gene transfer allowed us to evaluate both the short- and long- term safety and
19 efficacy profile of our investigational therapy. Results shown here demonstrate that liver
20 expression of our anti-antithrombin sdAb KB-AT-23 can control bleeding in both hemophilia A
21 and B mice, in a model of a major vascular injury. As expected, bleeding was also controlled
22 in hemophilia B mice that were previously immunized against FIX, suggesting that control of
23 bleeding can be obtained also in the presence of inhibitors. Thus, these combined results
24 provide proof-of-concept of the feasibility of this investigational therapeutic strategy for both
25 hemophilia A and B. Translating these findings to humans, particularly as a gene therapy, will
26 required further safety and efficacy studies in small and large animal models of hemophilia
27 (Sabatino *et al*, 2012), particularly aimed at defining the minimal effective vector dose that
28 would result in correction of bleeding time. Additionally, the use of inducible promoters

1 (Chaveroux *et al*, 2016) may be necessary to regulating the sdAb expression over time.
2 Nevertheless, although preliminary, data in hemophilia A mice suggest that long-term (7
3 month) inhibition of antithrombin activity (~45%) via liver expression of a bivalent sdAb is
4 safe, as it did not increase significantly levels of D-dimers nor induce an immune-response in
5 the treated animals. Future preclinical studies with single domain antibodies, along with data
6 emerging from ongoing late stage trials (ClinicalTrials.gov ID: # NCT03754790,
7 #NCT03417102, #NCT03417245), will help further assessing the thrombogenic risk
8 associated with the long-term inhibition of antithrombin. Taking advantage of the AAV vector
9 system, we also carefully explored the immunogenicity profile of our therapeutic candidate
10 KB-AT-23 in vivo. As it is well established that the liver expression of a protein is associated
11 with induction of immune tolerance (Mingozzi *et al*, 2003; Puzzo *et al*, 2017), we expressed
12 our sdAb under the control of a strong constitutive promoter known to drive immunogenicity
13 (Colella *et al*, 2019) and expressed it via an AAV vector. Even under these highly
14 immunogenic conditions, we were not able to detect a significant response against KB-AT-
15 23. In contrast, a trivalent sdAb used in parallel elicited strong anti-sdAb antibody formation.
16 The fact that no immune response was detected against the bivalent KB-AT-23 under
17 tolerogenic (liver-restricted expression) or immunogenic (constitutive expression) condition is
18 a clear indication that the immunogenicity profile of this investigational therapeutic candidate
19 is low. One possible explanation of these results is that a small-size protein (33 kDa for KB-
20 AT-23) that is secreted (Puzzo *et al*, 2017; Perrin *et al*, 2016) has a low immunogenicity
21 profile, while a larger trivalent sdAb would carry a higher risk of triggering humoral
22 responses, particularly in the setting of delivery as recombinant protein. In summary, here we
23 show for the first time that it is possible to restore clotting in mouse models of hemophilia A
24 and B using engineered single domain antibodies directed against antithrombin, delivered as
25 recombinant protein or as gene therapy. Liver expression of a bivalent sdAb restored clotting
26 in hemophilia A mice and in hemophilia B mice, even in the presence of anti-FIX antibodies.
27 These results provide proof-of-concept supporting the feasibility of the approach and
28 warranting future efforts to translate these results to humans.

1

2 **Materials and Methods**

3

4 **Immunization protocol**

5 Immunization of a single llama (*L. glama*) was outsourced to the Centre de Recherche en
6 Cancérologie (Université Aix-Marseille, Marseille, France). The animal was given 0.4 mg of
7 human antithrombin with Freund's incomplete adjuvant at weekly intervals. Blood was
8 collected at 4 weeks after the first injection for the isolation of peripheral blood lymphocytes.

9

10 **Construction of the sdAb-library from lymphocytes**

11 Total mRNA from B-lymphocytes was used for the construction of an sdAb-library as
12 described (Behar *et al*, 2008; Aymé *et al*, 2017). Briefly, total mRNA was used for the
13 synthesis of cDNA *via* reverse transcriptase (Roche, Meylan, France) using the CH2' primer
14 (5'-GGTACGTGCTGTTGAACTGTTCC-3') as described previously (Arbabi Ghahroudi *et al*,
15 1997). sdAb-coding DNA fragments were obtained from the cDNA by a nested-PCR reaction,
16 and fragments were subsequently cloned into the pHEN6 phagemid vector (Hoogenboom *et*
17 *al*, 1991). The ligated material was used to transform electrocompetent *E. coli* TG1 cells
18 (ThermoFischer Scientific, Villebon-sur-Yvette, France), allowing the creation of a library
19 containing 1.1×10^8 clones.

20

21 **Enrichment of phages that express antithrombin-specific sdAb**

22 To capture phages expressing antithrombin-specific sdAb, phage particles (500 μ l) were
23 incubated with Dynabeads M-450 epoxy beads (200 μ l; ThermoFischer Scientific) coated
24 with purified human antithrombin (1 mg/ml beads) for 1 hour at room temperature in PBS/3%
25 BSA. As a control, phage particles were incubated with BSA-coated beads. Beads were
26 washed nine times using PBS/0.1% Tween-20 (PBS/T) and twice with PBS. Captured
27 phages were eluted via incubation with 0.5 mg/ml trypsin (1 ml volume). Eluted phages (10

1 μ l) were serially diluted to infect *E. coli* TG1 cells, and plated to evaluate the antigen-specific
2 enrichment.

4 **Selection of antithrombin-specific sdAb**

5 To isolate true antithrombin-specific sdAb, 282 TG1-clones infected with phages eluted from
6 antithrombin-coated beads were grown overnight in 0.5 ml TB-medium and sdAb expression
7 was induced via IPTG (1 mM). Periplasmic extracts were prepared as described (Habib *et al*,
8 2013) and tested for binding to antithrombin using antithrombin- and BSA-coated microtiter
9 wells. Bound sdAb were probed using peroxidase-coupled polyclonal anti-HIS antibodies
10 (Dilution 1/2000; Abcam, Paris France) and detected via hydrolysis of 3,3',5,5'
11 tetramethylbenzidine (TMB).

13 **sdAb subcloning, expression and purification**

14 Selected sdAb cDNA sequences were cloned into the pET28-plasmid allowing
15 intracytoplasmic bacterial expression. Plasmids encode sdAb with an N-terminal His-tag and
16 a C-terminal haemagglutinin (HA)-tag to facilitate purification and detection, and were used
17 for expression of sdAbs in *E. coli* Shuffle-C3029H cells (New England Biolabs; Evry, France).
18 Bacteria were grown in 330 ml of LB-medium at 30°C until the culture had reached an optical
19 density between 0.4 and 0.6. Protein expression was then induced at 20°C *via* the addition of
20 isopropyl-thiogalactoside (0.1 mM final concentration). Twenty-four hours after induction of
21 protein expression, cells were collected, and soluble proteins were released from the cells
22 *via* sonication. HIS-tagged sdAbs were purified *via* Co²⁺-affinity chromatography using
23 PBS/0.3 M NaCl/0.5 M imidazole as elution-reagent. Minor contaminants were removed from
24 the preparations *via* size-exclusion chromatography using 20 mM Hepes (pH7.4)/0.1 M NaCl
25 as equilibrium-buffer. Purified sdAbs displayed >95% homogeneity as assessed *via* SDS-
26 Page and Coomassie-staining.

28 **Immunosorbent assays**

1 Binding of antithrombin to immobilized purified monovalent sdAbs or derivatives thereof were
2 performed as follows. sdAbs were immobilized (5 μ g/ml) in a volume of 50 μ l in half-well
3 microtiter plates for 16 hours at 4°C. After washing, wells were incubated with purified human
4 or murine antithrombin (0-5 μ M) or with plasma (diluted 4-fold) of different species in Tris-
5 buffered saline (pH 7.6) supplemented with 5% skimmed milk for 2 hours at 37°C. Bound
6 antithrombin was probed using peroxidase-labeled polyclonal rabbit anti-antithrombin
7 antibodies (Dilution 1/100; Stago BNL, Leiden, The Netherlands) and detected by measuring
8 peroxidase-mediated hydrolysis of 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine (TMB).

9

10 **Antithrombin activity assay**

11 Purified antithrombin (2 nM) was incubated in the absence or presence of sdAbs (100 nM)
12 for 15 minutes in TBSC-buffer (Tris-buffered saline (pH 7.4), supplemented with 50 mM
13 CaCl₂, 0.1% protease-free BSA, 0.1% PEG8000) at 37°C. This mixture was subsequently
14 added to thrombin (0.5 nM) or FXa (0.5 nM) in the absence or presence of heparin. Residual
15 activity of thrombin or FXa was measured using substrates S-2238 and S-2765, respectively.

16 **Thrombin generation assay**

17 Thrombin generation in platelet-poor plasma was measured in a microtiter-plate fluorometer
18 (Fluoroskan Ascent, ThermoLabssystems, Helsinki, Finland) according to the method
19 described by Hemker *et al.*, with phospholipid and tissue factor concentrations being 4 μ M
20 and 1 pM, respectively (Hemker *et al*, 2002). Endogenous thrombin potential (ETP), *i.e.* area
21 under the curve, thrombin peak, and lag time for thrombin detection were determined using
22 dedicated software (Thrombinoscope BV, Maastricht, The Netherlands). Immuno-depleted
23 FVIII-plasma (Diagnostica Stago, Asnières, France) was supplemented with recombinant
24 purified FVIII (rFVIII, 0-100% U/ml Kogenate FS, Bayer HealthCare, Puteaux, France) or
25 purified KB-AT-23. For experiments using murine FVIII-deficient plasma, 0.75 pM tissue
26 factor was used instead of 1 pM. Polyclonal sheep-anti-FVIII antibodies (titer 2500 BU/ml)
27 were used as inhibitory antibodies, and were applied at a final titer of 8 BU/ml. Aclotine (LFB

1 Biomedicaments, Les Ulis, France) was used as antithrombin concentrate at a final
2 concentration of 2 μ M.

3

4 **Generation of sdAb expression cassettes and AAV vectors**

5 The sdAb transgene expression cassettes used in this study contained a bivalent sdAb
6 named KB-AT-23 composed of two monovalent antibodies (KB-AT-02 and -03) and a
7 trivalent sdAb named KB-AT-113 composed of 2 monovalents KB-AT-01 and KB-AT-03. The
8 monovalent sdAbs were linked together via a triple Gly₃Ser-linker. They were fused together
9 with an N-terminal poly-histidine tag (His-tag) and a C-terminal human hemagglutinin tag (HA
10 tag). The sdAbs transgenes were cloned in *cis*-plasmids for AAV vector production under the
11 transcriptional control of the hepatocyte-specific hAAT promoter composed by the
12 Apolipoprotein E enhancer (ApoE) and the human alpha-1 anti-trypsin promoter (abbreviated
13 as hAAT)(Ronzitti *et al*, 2016; Miao *et al*, 2003) or the ubiquitous or the CMV
14 enhancer/chicken beta-actin promoter (CAG) promoter. All DNA sequences used in the study
15 were synthesized either by GeneCust or Thermo Fisher Scientific. The expression cassettes
16 contained an intron between the promoter and the transgene start codon, a BGH polyA
17 signal after the transgene stop codon and were flanked by the ITRs of AAV2. AAV vectors
18 were prepared as previously described (Ayuso *et al*, 2010). Briefly, genome-containing
19 vectors were produced in roller bottles following a triple transfection protocol with cesium
20 chloride gradient purification. Titers of AAV vector stocks were determined using real-time
21 qPCR performed in ABI PRISM 7900 HT Sequence Detector using Absolute ROX mix
22 (Taqman, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) and SDS-PAGE, followed by SYPRO
23 Ruby protein gel stain and band densitometry. The AAV serotype used in the *in vivo*
24 experiments was AAV8.

25

26 **In vitro studies**

27 HuH7 cells were maintained under 37°C, 5% CO₂ condition in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's
28 Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% FBS, 2mM GlutaMAX (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

1 Waltham, MA). Cells were seeded in 12-well plates (2×10^5 cells/well) and transfected with
2 plasmids encoding for KB-AT-23 (1 μg /well) using Lipofectamine 2000 (Thermo Fisher
3 Scientific) accordingly to manufacturer's instructions. A plasmid encoding for EGFP under
4 the control of the phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK) promoter (2 μg /well) was transfected as
5 control. 72 hours after transfection, cells and conditioned media were harvested and
6 analyzed for KB-AT-23 expression *via* western blot analyses.

7

8 **In vivo studies**

9 All animal experiments were performed in strict accordance with good animal practices
10 following French and European legislation on animal care and experimentation
11 (2010/63/EU).

12 Immunization of a single llama (L. Glama) was performed by an outside contractor (Centre
13 de Recherche en Cancérologie, Marseille, France) as a fee-for-service. Llama management,
14 inoculation and sample collection were conducted by trained personnel under the supervision
15 of a veterinarian, in accordance with protocols approved by the local ethical committee of
16 animal welfare of the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique. Mouse experiments at
17 Inserm U1176 were approved by the local ethical committee CEEA26 (protocol
18 APAFIS#4400-2016021716431023v5), and experiments at Genethon were approved by the
19 local ethical committee CERFE-Genopole (protocol n.C 91-228-107). Wild type C57BL/6
20 mice were purchased at Charles River. F9 knock-out mice (F9^{-/-}) were purchased from The
21 Jackson Laboratory (B6;129P2-F9tm1Dws/J, Stock No 004303)(Lin *et al*, 1997). F8-deficient
22 mice (F8^{-/-} mice) have been backcrossed (>10 times) on a C57Bl/6 background (Bi *et al*,
23 1995). In the experiments with F8^{-/-} mice, male/females mice aged 6-8 weeks were used. In
24 the experiments with F9^{-/-} mice, male mice aged 6-8 weeks were used. Mice received AAV8
25 vectors (100uL) via a retro-orbital injection. In the study with anti hFIX antibodies, mice
26 received 100uL of FIX in complete Freund's adjuvant via subcutaneous injection. Blood
27 samples were collected from the retro-orbital plexus in 3.8% citrate coated capillary tubes

1 (Hirschmann Laborgeräte, Germany). At euthanasia, tissues were collected and snap-frozen
2 for additional studies.

3

4 **Western blot analyses**

5 HuH7 cell lysates were prepared using 10mM PBS (pH7.4) containing 1% of Triton-X100 and
6 protease inhibitors (Roche Diagnosis). Western blot on mouse plasma was performed on
7 samples diluted 1:4 in distilled water. Protein concentration was determined using the BCA
8 Protein Assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific). SDS-page electrophoresis was performed in a 4-
9 15% gradient polyacrylamide gel. After transfer the membrane was blocked with Odyssey
10 buffer (Li-Cor Biosciences) and incubated with an anti-HA tag antibody (Dilution 1/1000;
11 rabbit polyclonal PRB-101C, BioLegend) or anti-SERPINC1 (Dilution 1/1000; rat monoclonal
12 MAB1287, R&D System). The membrane was washed and incubated with the appropriate
13 secondary antibody (Li-Cor Biosciences), and visualized by Odyssey Imaging System (Li-Cor
14 Biosciences). For western blot quantification, we used the Image Studio Lite Ver 4.0
15 software. The KB-AT-23 protein bands were normalized using an aspecific band detected by
16 the anti-HA tag antibody in mouse plasma and used as loading control.

17

18 **Measurement of anti-sdAbs mouse antibodies**

19 Maxisorp 96 wells plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific) were coated with 2.5 µg/ml of purified
20 KB-AT-01, -02, -03, -23 or -113 proteins. IgG standard curves were made by serial 1/2
21 dilutions of commercial mouse recombinant IgG (Sigma Aldrich) which were coated directly
22 onto the wells in duplicate. Plasma samples appropriately diluted in PBS-0.1%-BSA, Tween
23 0.05% were analyzed in duplicate. An HRP-conjugated anti-mouse IgG antibody, Fc specific
24 (Dilution 1/40000; SIGMA, Ref. A9309) was used as secondary antibody.

25

26 **Clearance experiments in C57BL/6 wild-type mice**

27 Proteins were generated in which human von Willebrand factor (VWF) residues 1261-1478
28 (with residue K1332 mutated to A) were fused to the C-terminal part of KB-AT-23. The

1 K1332A mutation was included to ensure that the VWF polypeptide would not interact murine
2 platelets. The resulting protein was designated as KB-AT-23-fus. As a control protein we
3 used KB-hFX-11-fus, in which the same VWF polypeptide was fused to the C-terminal end of
4 a control nanobody (KB-hFX-11), that does not recognize murine proteins. Purified KB-AT-
5 23-fus and KB-hFX-11-fus were given intravenously (10 mg/kg) to wild-type C57Bl/6 mice. At
6 different time-points after injection (5 minutes, 15 minutes, 30 minutes, 1 hour, 3 hours, 6
7 hours and 24 hours) blood samples were obtained via retro-orbital puncture from isoflurane-
8 anesthetized mice and plasma was prepared by centrifugation (1500g for 20 min at 22°C).
9 Residual plasma concentrations were measured using an in-house ELISA that specifically
10 measures the human VWF polypeptide, employing murine monoclonal antibody mAb712 (10
11 µg/ml) as capturing antibody and peroxidase-labeled murine monoclonal antibody mAb724
12 (Dilution 1/1000; as probing antibody).

13

14 **Functional assessments in hemophilic mice**

15 For the TVT/tail clip procedures, mice were anesthetized with a mixture of ketamine and
16 xylazine (100 and 16 mg/kg, respectively) injected intraperitoneally and a precise cut of the
17 tip of the tail was performed as described (Johansen *et al*, 2016; Liu, 2012). At the end of the
18 assay (30 minutes observation time) animals were sacrificed by cervical dislocation. Mean
19 values of the blood loss volume (µL) were reported.

20

21 **Vector genome copy number**

22 DNA from tissues was extracted after whole-organ homogenization using the QIAgen Blood
23 Core Kit B precipitation method. Vector genome copy number was determined using a qPCR
24 assay using 100 ng of DNA. The hAAT promoter-specific primers and the probe (forward
25 primer 5'-GGCGGGCGACTCAGATC-3', reverse primer 5'-GGGAGGCTGCTGGTGAA
26 TATT-3', probe (FAM) 5'-AGCCCCTGTTTGCTCCTCCGATAACTG-3'(TAMRA)) were
27 synthesized by Thermo Scientific (Waltham, MA, USA). Mouse Titin was used as a
28 normalizing gene (forward primer 5'-AAAACGAGCAGTGACGTGAGC-3', reverse primer 5'-

1 TTCAGTCATGCTGCTAGCGC-3', probe (VIC) 5'-TGCACGGAAGCGTCTCGTCT CAGTC-3'
2 (TAMRA) synthesized by Thermo Scientific (Waltham, MA, USA)). Each sample was tested
3 in triplicate.

4

5 **Statistical analysis**

6 All the data showed in the present manuscript are reported as mean \pm standard deviation
7 (SD). The number of sampled units, n, upon which we reported statistic, is the single mouse
8 for the in vivo experiments (one mouse is n=1). Statistical analyses were conducted with
9 GraphPad Prism 7 software (GraphPad Software). For all the data sets, data were analysed
10 by Student's t-test for two-group comparisons or parametric tests (one- and two-way ANOVA
11 with Tukey's or Dunnett's post hoc correction for comparisons with more than two groups). p
12 values < 0.05 were considered significant. The statistical analysis performed for each data set
13 is indicated in figure legends. For all figures *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001.

14

15

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17

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26

27 **Author contributions:**

28 EB and GA performed most of the experimental activities and data analyses. AM, JFO, CK,
29 CC, SV contributed to mouse studies set-up and biochemical analyses. SM and LvW

1 performed animal procedures and the harvesting of mouse samples. SC and FC produced
2 the AAV vectors used in the studies. CVD, ODC contributed to the interpretation of results
3 and provided critical insights into the significance of the work. EB, FM, PJL directed the work
4 and wrote the manuscript.

5 6 **Conflict of interest:**

7 FM is employee and holds equity of Spark Therapeutics. GA, CVD, ODC & PJL are inventors
8 on a patent application on sdAbs against antithrombin. CVD, ODC & PJL are founders and
9 owners of Laelaps Therapeutics.

10 11 **The paper explained**

12 **Problem** Novel therapies for hemophilia, including non-factor replacement and in vivo gene
13 therapy, are showing promising results in the clinic. However, challenges remain, including
14 addressing patients with a history of factor VIII (FVIII) or IX (FIX) inhibitor development.

15 **Results** We have developed a novel therapeutic approach for haemophilia, based on llama-
16 derived single domain antibody fragments (sdAbs). We engineered a bi-paratopic sdAb able
17 to efficiently neutralize the anticoagulant activity of antithrombin in vitro, resulting in
18 restoration of the thrombin generation potential in FVIII deficient plasma, and correction of
19 bleeding in a mouse model of acute bleeding injury. We showed that the long-term AAV
20 vector mediated expression of the bi-paratopic sdAb in hemophilia A and B mice was safe
21 and poorly immunogenic. Importantly, it also resulted in sustained correction of the bleeding
22 phenotype, even in the presence inhibitory antibodies to the therapeutic clotting factor.

23 **Impact** We demonstrated that engineered single domain antibodies directed against
24 antithrombin have the potential of re-balancing hemostasis in a FVIII/FIX-independent
25 manner, both when delivered as a protein or via liver-directed gene therapy.

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27 **Figure Legends**

28

29 **Fig.1 Selection of anti-antithrombin single domain antibodies and test of their**
30 **inhibitory activity in vitro**

31 (A) Schematic representation of the sdAB library selection and identification of monovalent
32 KB-AT-01 to -07 antibodies.

1 (B) Bar graph representing residual thrombin activity (Δ OD/min) in presence of the sdAbs
2 without heparin.

3 (C) Bar graph representing residual thrombin activity (Δ OD/min) in presence of the sdAbs
4 and heparin.

5 (D) Bar graph representing residual activated factor X (FXa) activity (Δ OD/min) in presence
6 of the sdAbs and heparin.

7 Data information: Data represent the mean \pm SD of three experiments.

8

9 **Fig.2 Engineering of a bivalent KB-AT-23 sdAb and test of its antithrombin inhibitory**
10 **activity in vitro**

11 (A) Schematic representation of the bivalent KB-AT-23 sdAb.

12 (B-C) Graphs reporting the recovery of thrombin- and FXa-mediated substrate conversion in
13 the presence of increasing doses of KB-AT-23, in presence of antithrombin and heparin.

14 Data represent mean \pm SD of three experiments.

15 (D-E) Thrombin generation profiles of FVIII-deficient plasma spiked with different
16 concentrations of recombinant FVIII or 2 doses of KB-AT-23. Data are representative
17 thrombograms. Detailed information on thrombin generation parameters are provided in
18 Table 2. Antithrombin activity was inhibited by 81.1 \pm 6.1% and 54.1 \pm 8.4% for the 0.2 mg/ml
19 and 0.1 mg/ml concentration, respectively.

20

21 **Fig.3 Assessment of KB-AT-23 efficacy in haemophilia A mice delivered with the**
22 **purified sdAb**

23 (A) Schematic representation of the clearance experiment.

24 (B) Purified KB-AT-23-fus and KB-hFX-11-fus were given intravenously to wild-type C57B6
25 mice (10 mg/kg). At indicated time-points, blood was collected and residual protein was
26 measured. Plotted is residual protein versus time after injection. Green circles: KB-AT-23-fus;
27 Red circles: KB-hFX-11-fus. Data represent mean \pm SD, with n=3 for each data point.

1 (C) Schematic representation of the tail vein transection (TVT) assay performed in F8-/
2 mice. Ø 2.3mm: size of the diameter of the tail at the location of the TVT; 0.5mm: depth of
3 the cut performed on the mouse tail.

4 (D) Graph reporting the volume of blood loss (μL) in treated mice (n=4-9 per group) observed
5 during 30 minutes post TVT. Dosing was 10 mg/kg for KB-AT-23 and 1 mg/kg for FVIIa. The
6 grey area represents the range of blood loss in FVIII-treated mice (33-245 μL), which is
7 similar to that of wild-type C57BL/6 mice (49-308 μL ; Johansen *et al.* 2016). Boxes represent
8 25%-75% quartiles, with the line indicating median. Whiskers span min to max. Data were
9 analysed via 1-way ANOVA with Tukey's correction for multiple comparisons.

10

11 **Fig.4 Optimization of a liver specific vector expressing a secretable KB-AT-23 sdAb**
12 **variant**

13 (A) Schematic representation of the KB-AT-23 expression cassettes used to test the
14 secretion signal peptides SSP1, SSP2, SSP3, SSP4 and SSP5. hAAT: human alpha-1
15 antitrypsin promoter; His: N-terminal 6X-Histidine tag; HA: C-terminal tag derived from the
16 human influenza hemagglutinin; BGHpA: bovine growth hormone polyadenylation signal.

17 (B) Western blot analysis of KB-AT-23 protein secretion in conditioned media 72 hours post-
18 transfection of HuH7 cells. In the lower panel the western blot quantification via densitometry
19 analysis is depicted. Data are presented as mean \pm SD, and were analysed via 1-way ANOVA
20 with Dunnett's correction for multiple comparisons. ****p<0.001.

21 (C) HuH7-celles were collected 72 hours post-transfection. Presented is the Western blot
22 analysis of lysed cells cells for the presence of KB-AT-23. Cntr- refers to non-transfected
23 cells, while Cntr+ refers to purified recombinant KB-AT-23.

24

25 **Fig.5 Long term safety and efficacy of KB-AT-23 delivered via AAV vectors in**
26 **haemophilia A mice**

1 (A) Scheme representing the study design. FVIII deficient mice (FVIII $-/-$, n=6-9/group) were
2 administered with 2 doses (1×10^{10} or 1×10^{12} vg/mouse) of AAV vector. Control mice were
3 injected with PBS. Red symbols represent timing of blood collection.

4 (B) Representative western blot analyses of KB-AT-23 and antithrombin expression on
5 plasma samples (n=4) collected from animals 27 weeks post-AAV injection. kDa, molecular
6 weight marker.

7 (C) Measurement of D-dimers (D2D) plasma concentration 27 weeks post vector
8 administration. Data are presented as mean \pm SD (n=6-9/group).

9 (D) Measurement of anti-KB-AT-23 mouse IgG in plasma samples collected from mice (n=6-
10 9/group) 8 weeks post-AAV administration. Data represent mean \pm SD.

11 (E) TVT test on males and females (n=4-5 per group) performed 29 weeks post vector
12 administration. The volume of blood loss (μ L) during 30 minutes observation time is reported.
13 The grey area represents the range of blood loss in FVIII-treated mice (33-245 μ L), which is
14 similar to that of wild-type C57BL/6 mice (49-308 μ L; Johansen *et al.* 2016). Boxes represent
15 25-75% quartiles, with the line indicating the median. Whickers span min to max. Data were
16 analysed via 1-way ANOVA with Dunnett's correction for multiple comparisons.

17 (F) Vector genome copy number (VGCN) per cell in liver samples collected at sacrifice
18 (n=8/group). Data represent mean \pm SD.

19

20 **Fig.6 Assessment of KB-AT-23 efficacy in haemophilia B mice with or without**
21 **inhibitors**

22 (A) Scheme representing the study design. FIX deficient mice (FIX $-/-$, n=5/group) were
23 administered with factor IX (FIX, 40 μ g/mouse) in the pre-immunization phase and with AAV
24 vectors (2×10^{11} vg/mouse) in the treatment phase. Control mice were injected with PBS. Red
25 symbols represent timing of blood collection.

26 (B) Table reporting the different mice groups of the study.

27 (C) Measurement of anti-hFIX mouse IgG in plasma samples collected from mice injected
28 with FIX or PBS (n=5/group) at different time points. Data represent mean \pm SEM.

1 (D) Representative western blot analyses on plasma samples (n=4) collected from animals 8
2 weeks post-AAV injection.

3 (E) Antithrombin activity in plasma samples collected from mice at different time points. Data
4 are presented as mean±SD (n=3-4 per datapoint). Data were analyzed in a 2-way ANOVA
5 with Tukey's correction for multiple comparisons. ***p<0.01 ****p<0.001 (

6 (F) Graph reporting the volume of blood loss (µL) over 30 minutes following the tail clip. WT:
7 wild-type littermates of F9-/- mice. The grey area represents the range of blood loss of F9-/-
8 mice that received AAV-vectors expressing human FIX. Data are presented as mean±SD
9 (n=3-4/group), and were analyzed in a 1-way ANOVA with Tukey's correction for multiple
10 comparisons. **p<0.01 Boxes represent 25%-75% quartiles, with the line indicating the
11 median. Whiskers span min to max.

12 G Measurement of anti-KB-AT-23 mouse IgG in plasma samples collected from mice
13 (n=5/group) 8 weeks post-AAV administration. Data represent mean±SD.

14

15 **Fig.7 Assessment of sdAbs potential immunogenicity in wt mice**

16 (A) Schematic representation of the AAV8 vectors used to express KB-AT-23 and KB-AT-
17 113 variants. ITR: inverted terminal repeats for AAV packaging.

18 (B) Scheme representing the study design. Vectors were injected in C57Bl/6 mice (n=8) at a
19 dose of 1E+10 vg/mouse. Red symbols represent timing of blood collection.

20 (C) Representative western blot analyses on plasma samples (n=4) collected from animals 4
21 weeks post-AAV injection. Cntrl +: positive controls represented by the loading of the purified
22 KB-AT-23 or KB-AT-113 proteins.

23 (D-H) Measurement of anti-sdAbs mouse IgG in plasma samples collected at days 28 and 57
24 post-AAV injection. The ELISA plate was coated with the purified KB-AT-01 (D), -02 (E), -03
25 (F), -23 (G) or -113 (H) sdAbs. Data are reported as mean±SD (n=8/group)> Data were
26 analyzed in a 2-way ANOVA with Dunnett's correction of multiple comparisons. *p<0.05,
27 ***p<0.01 ****p<0.001

28

1 **Expanded View Fig. EV1 Binding of human and murine antithrombin to immobilized**
2 **monovalent sdAbs**

3 Human and murine antithrombin (0-5 μ M) were added to wells coated with monovalent
4 sdAbs (5 μ g/ml). Bound antithrombin was probed using polyclonal anti-antithrombin
5 antibodies and detected via hydrolysis of 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine. Plotted is the
6 observed OD at 450 nm versus the antithrombin concentration.

7

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1 **Table 1: Recognition of antithrombin in plasma by sdAbs**

2

	Human	Simian	Mouse	Rat	Rabbit	Canine	Bovine	Porcine
KB-AT-01	++	++	++	+	+	-	-	-
KB-AT-02	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++
KB-AT-03	++	++	++	+	-	+	-	-
KB-AT-04	+	+	++	+	-	+	-	+
KB-AT-05	+	+	++	-	-	-	-	-
KB-AT-06	++	++	+	+	++	+	-	+
KB-AT-07	++	++	+	-	-	-	-	-
Positive cntl	++	++	++	++	+	++	+	++
Negative cntl	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

3
 4 Antibodies immobilized at 10 µg/ml, and plasmas diluted 4-fold; Positive cntl: positive control,
 5 polyclonal anti-antithrombin antibodies (Affinity Biologicals). Negative cntl: no antibody
 6 immobilized. Symbols represent the following: Negative binding defined as OD being ≤0.1; +:
 7 Moderate positive binding defined as OD being >0.1 - <0.5; ++: Strongly positive binding
 8 defined as OD being ≥0.5

9
 10

1 **Table 2: Thrombin generation test in human FVIII-deficient plasma.**

2

Added component in FVIII-deficient plasma	N	ETP ($\mu\text{M}\cdot\text{min}$)	Thrombin Peak (nM)	Lag time (min)	Time to Peak (min)
FVIII (1 U/ml)	4	1.7 \pm 0.1	262 \pm 23	2.8 \pm 0.3	4 \pm 1
FVIII (0.1 U/ml)	3	1.3 \pm 0.1	163 \pm 14	3.3 \pm 1.2	7 \pm 2
FVIII (0.025 U/ml)	3	1.0 \pm 0.1	106 \pm 11	3.4 \pm 1.4	11 \pm 3
None	5	0.3 \pm 0.1	30 \pm 3	5.8 \pm 1.9	15 \pm 5
KB-AT-0203 (3.3 μM)	3	2.7 \pm 0.5	185 \pm 11	3.3 \pm 0.6	9 \pm 3
KB-AT-0203 (6.6 μM)	3	3.6 \pm 0.7	225 \pm 23	3.8 \pm 0.7	8 \pm 2
Normal plasma	6	1.5 \pm 0.1	310 \pm 5	3.0 \pm 0.3	5 \pm 1

3

4 Parameters for measuring thrombin generation (ETP, thrombin peak, lag time and time to
 5 peak) were measured in immune-depleted FVIII-deficient human plasma in the presence of
 6 tissue factor (1 pM) and phospholipids (4 μM) with or without FVIII, or with KB-AT-23. Data
 7 are presented as mean \pm SD.

8

9

1 **Table 3: Thrombin generation test in murine FVIII-deficient plasma.**

2

Added component in FVIII-deficient plasma	N	ETP ($\mu\text{M}\cdot\text{min}$)	Thrombin Peak (nM)	Lag time (min)	Time to Peak (min)
None	4	0.3 ± 0.1	35 ± 11	0.8 ± 0.3	3.3 ± 0.3
KB-AT-23 (2 μM)	4	0.9 ± 0.1	121 ± 7	0.8 ± 0.2	2.6 ± 0.2
KB-AT-23 (2 μM) + Anti-FVIII (8 BU/ml)	4	0.9 ± 0.1	111 ± 6	0.5 ± 0.2	2.0 ± 0.1
KB-AT-23 (2 μM) + Antithrombin (2 μM)	4	0.2 ± 0.1	31 ± 3	0.6 ± 0.2	2.7 ± 0.3
Wild-type plasma	3	1.1 ± 0.1	147 ± 9	0.9 ± 0.2	2.6 ± 0.2

3
4 Parameters for measuring thrombin generation (ETP, thrombin peak, lag time and time to
5 peak) were measured in murine FVIII-deficient human plasma in the presence of tissue
6 factor (0.75 μM) and phospholipids (4 μM). Data are presented as mean \pm SD.

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1 **Table 4- List of secretion signal peptides screened for the KB-AT-23 expression**
 2 **cassette optimization**

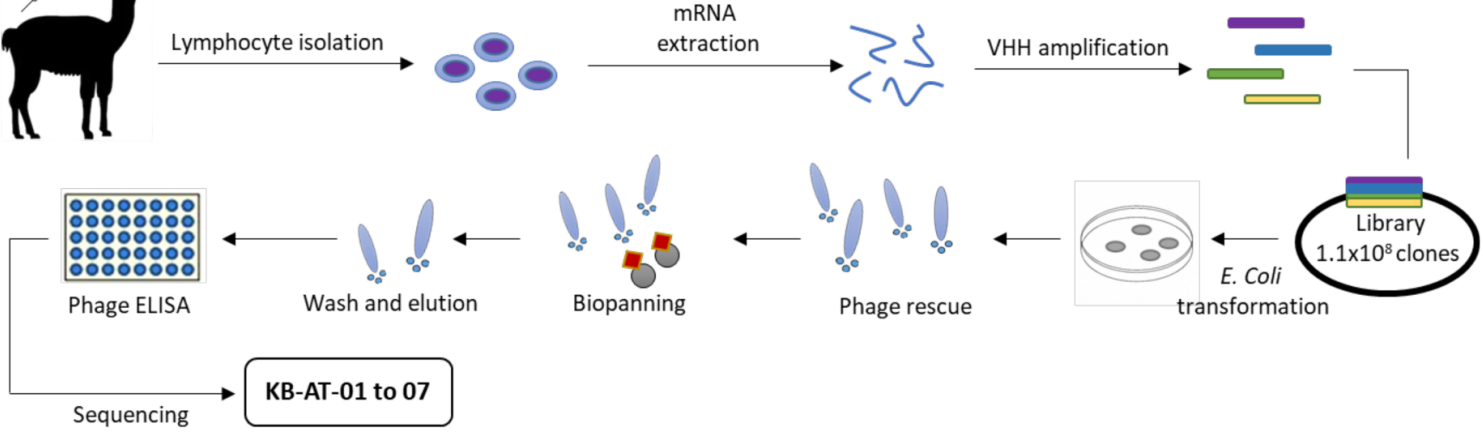
3

Expression cassette	Short name	Signal Peptide Origin	Aminoacidic sequence
hAAT-SSP1-KB-AT-23	SSP1	Chymotrypsinogen B2	MAFLWLLSCWALLGTTFG
hAAT-SSP2-KB-AT-23	SSP2	Human IgA1, IgG1, IgD heavy chain	MELGLSWIFLLAILKGVQC
hAAT-SSP3-KB-AT-23	SSP3	Human IgM, IgG2 heavy chain	MELGLRWVFLVAILEGVQC
hAAT-SSP4-KB-AT-23	SSP4	Human IgA1, IgE, IgG heavy chain	MDWTWRILFLVAAATGAHS
hAAT-SSP5-KB-AT-23	SSP5	Human IgG4 heavy chain	MEFGLSWVFLVALFRGVQC

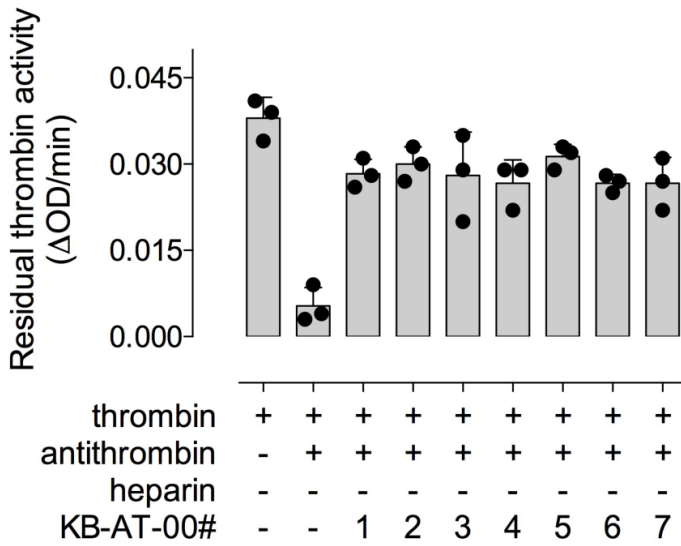
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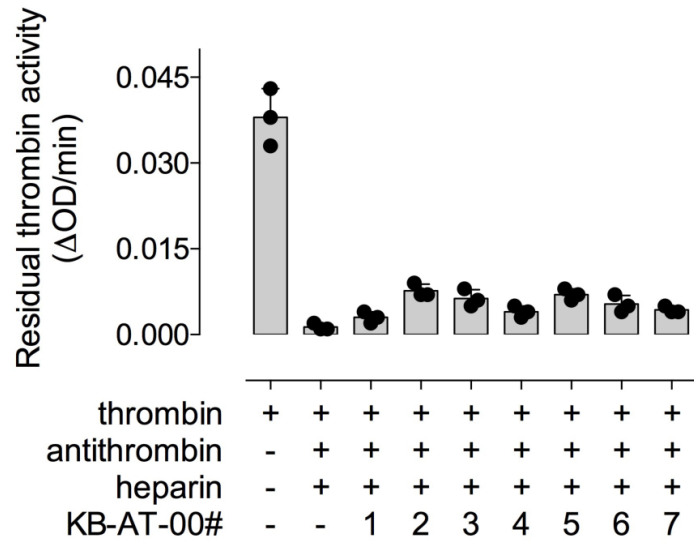
Antithrombin, 0.4 mg/week



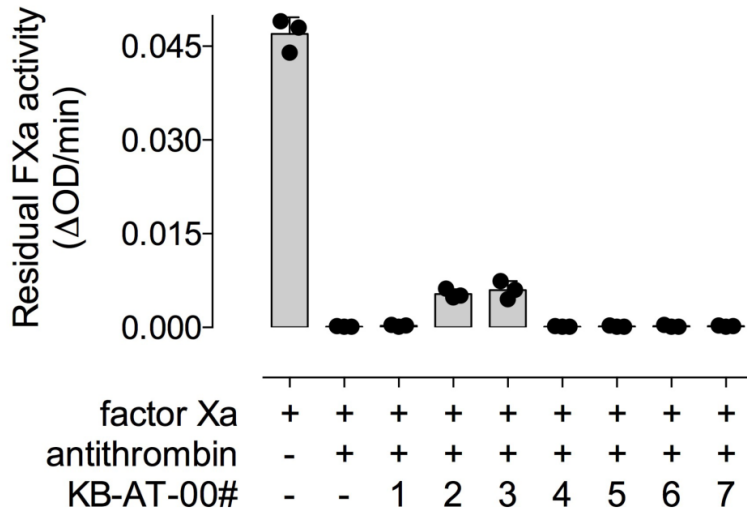
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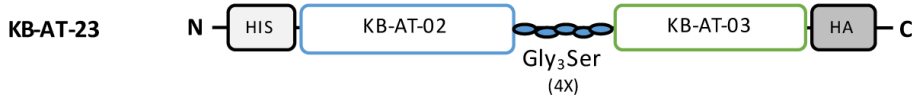
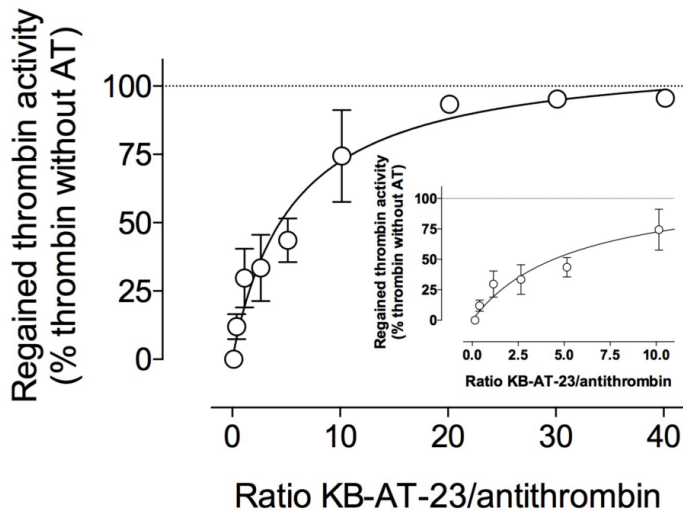
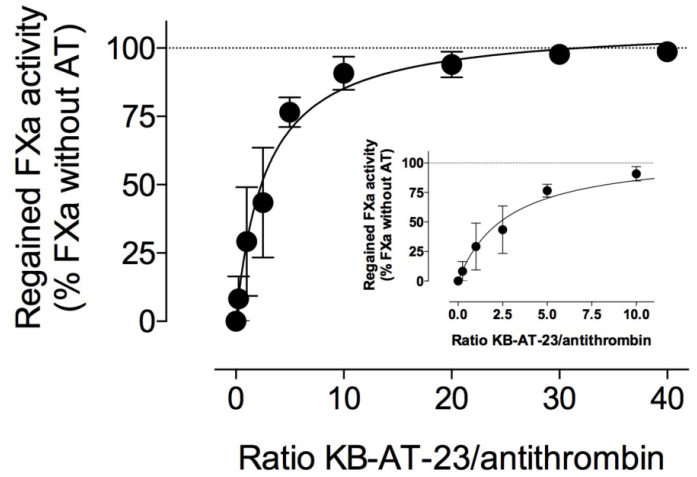
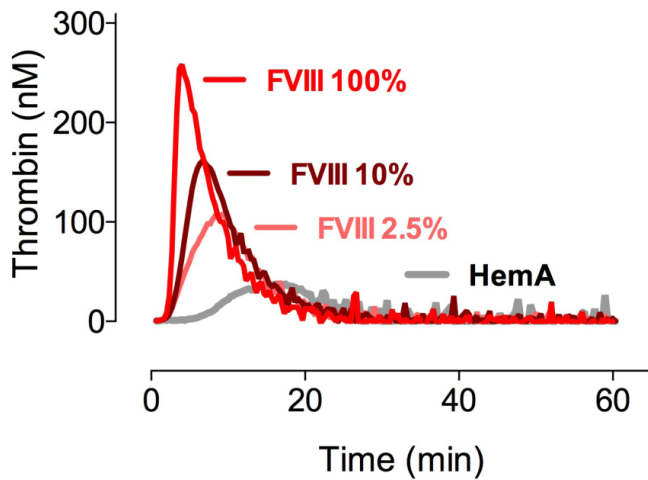
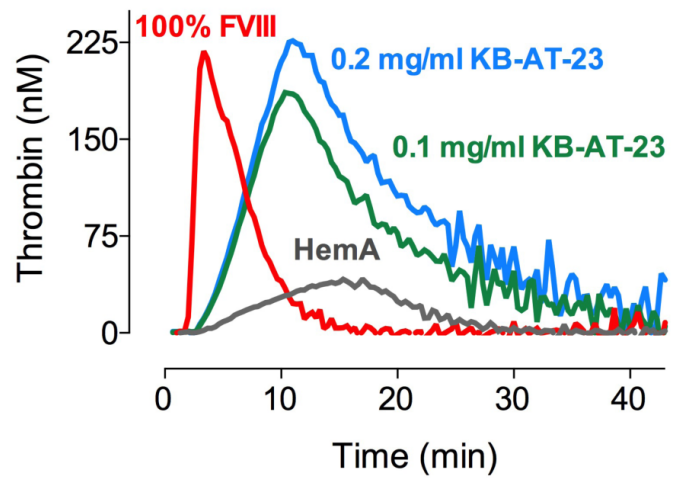


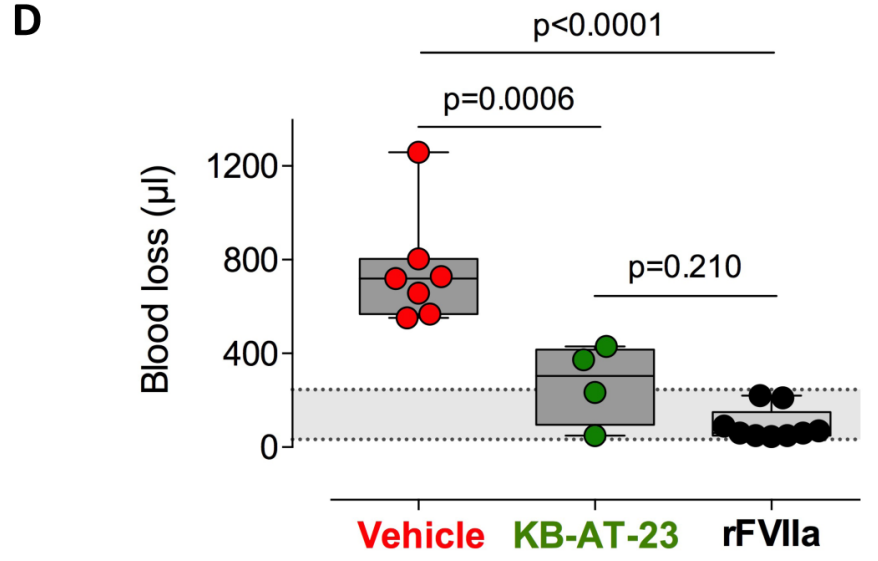
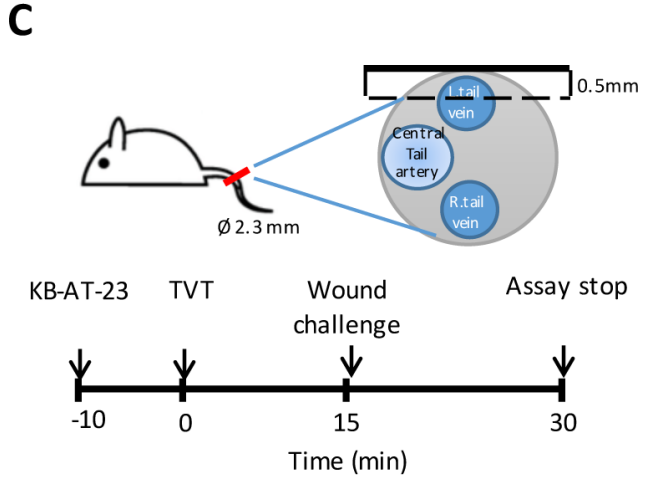
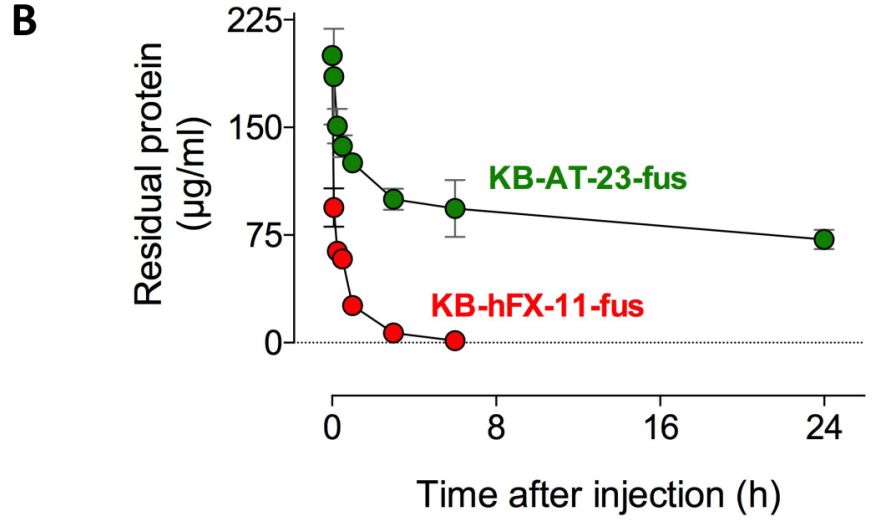
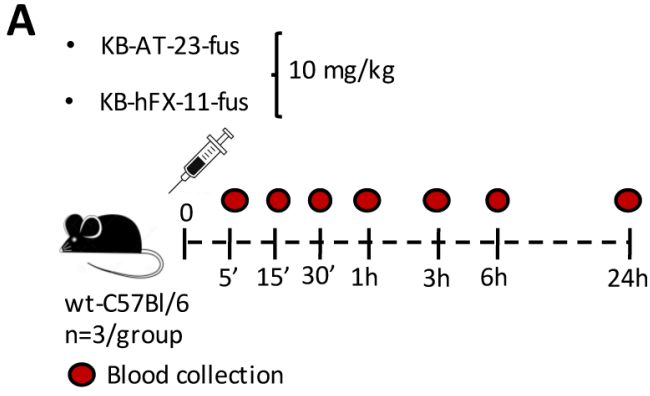
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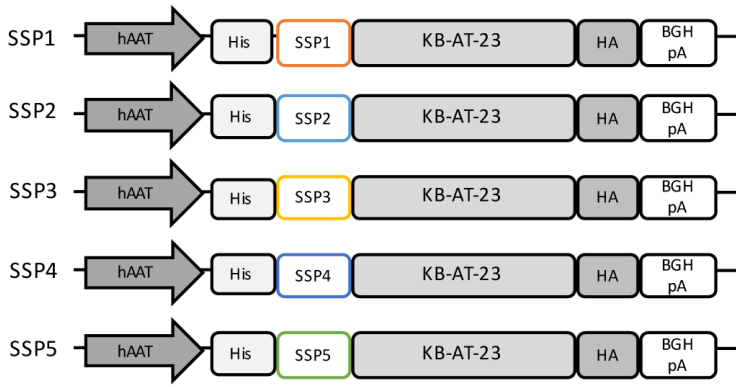


D

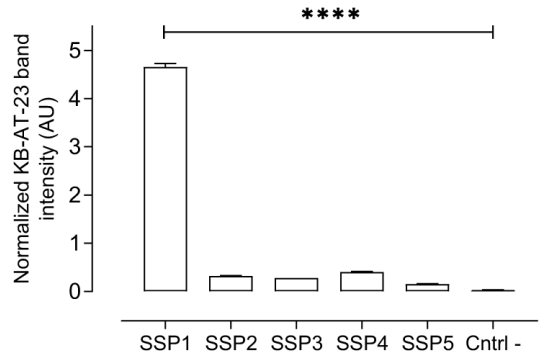
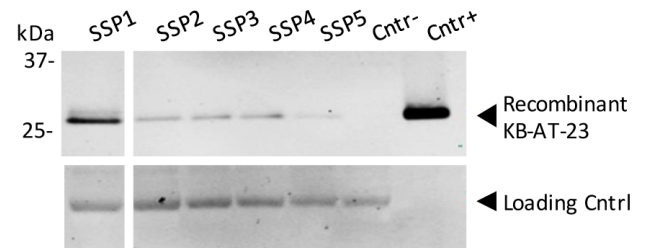


A**B****C****D****E**

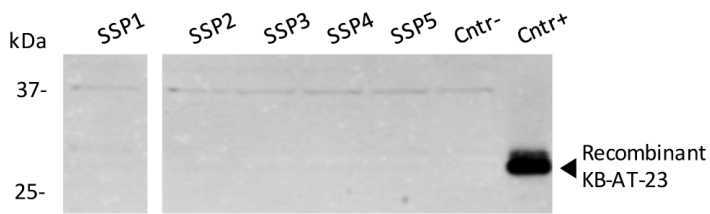


A**B**

Media

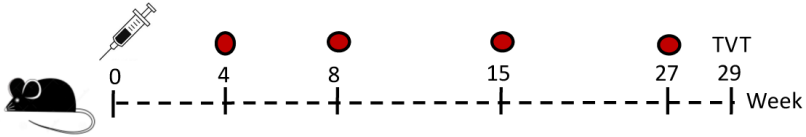
**C**

Cell lysates



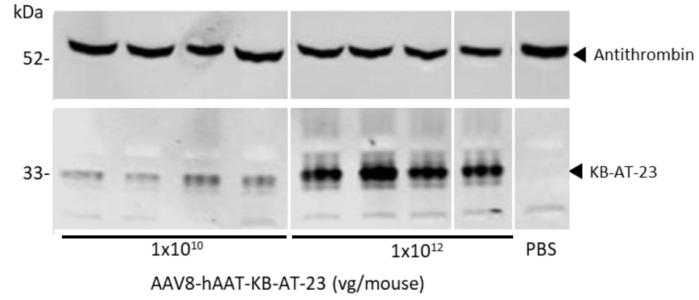
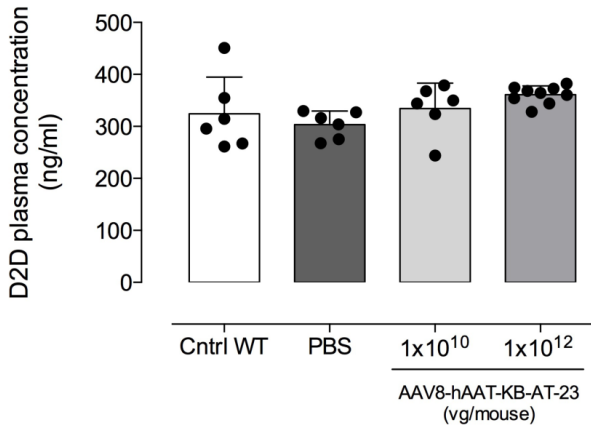
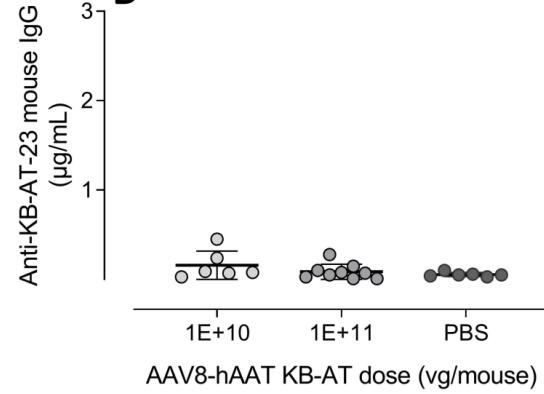
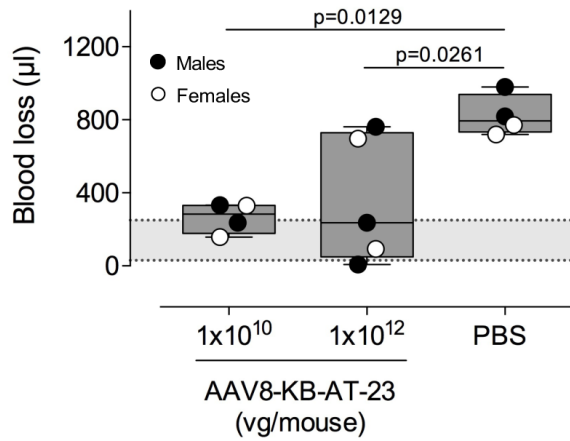
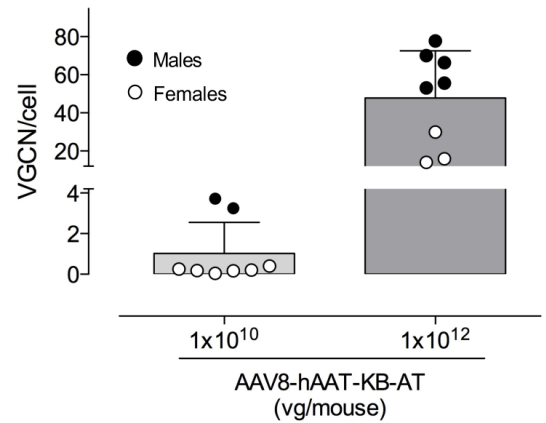
A

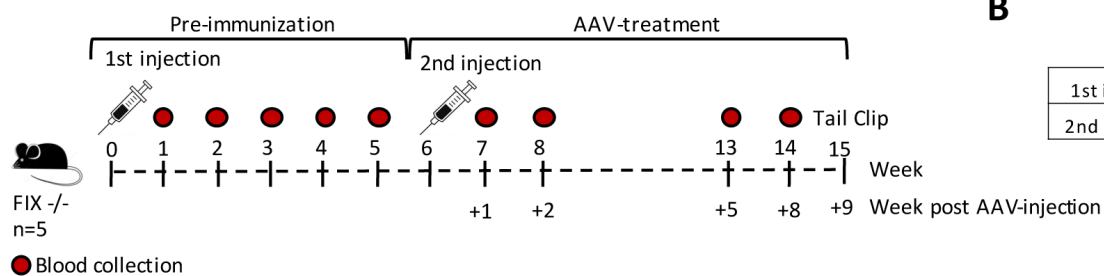
- AAV8-hAAT-KB-AT-23 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1E+10 \text{ vg/mouse} \\ 1E+12 \text{ vg/mouse} \end{array} \right.$
- PBS



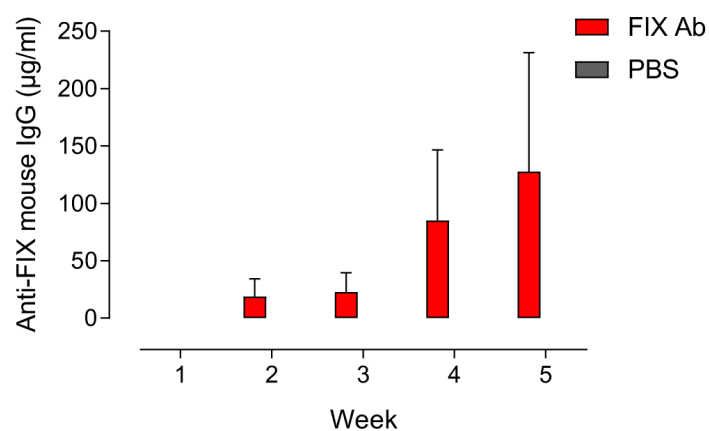
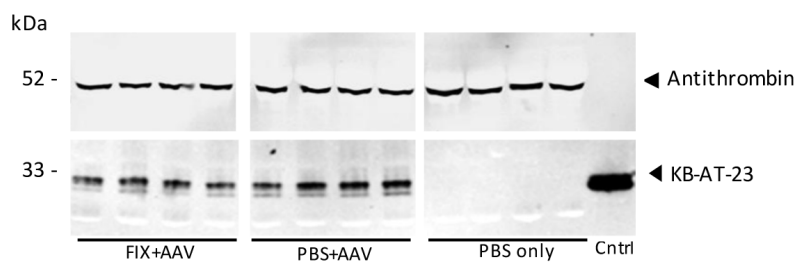
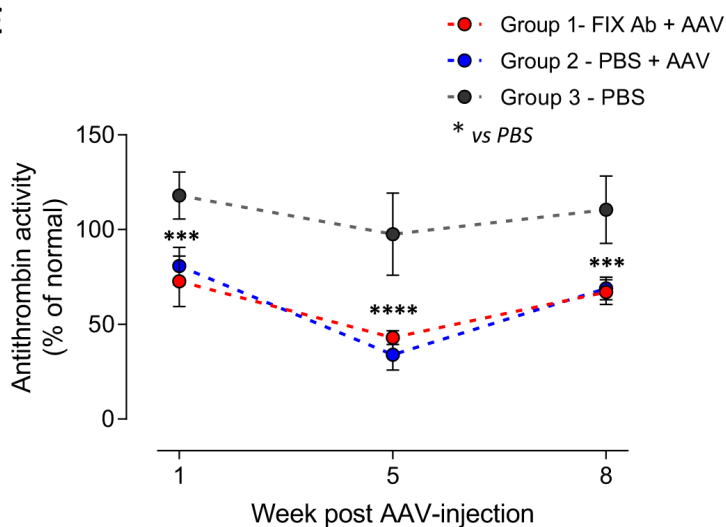
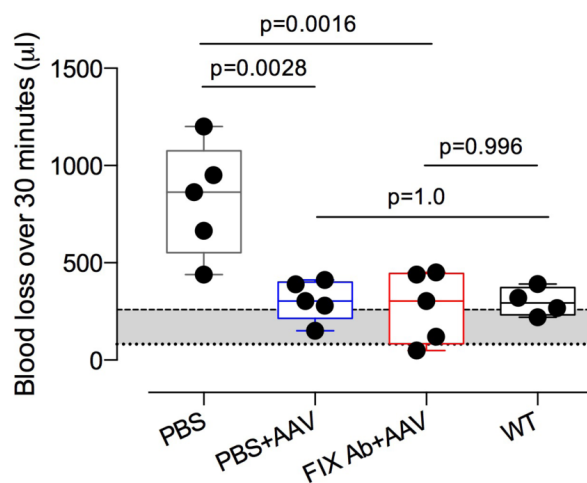
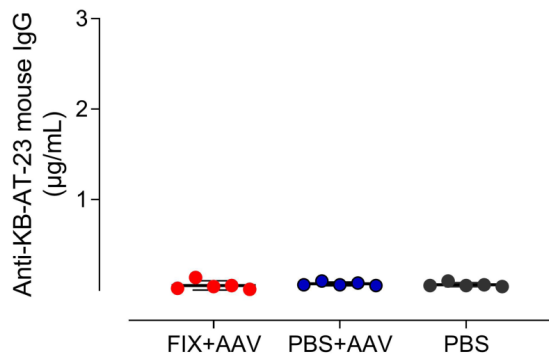
FVIII^{-/-}
n=8/group

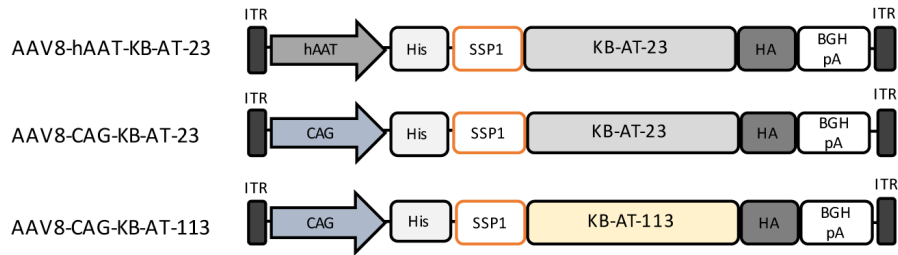
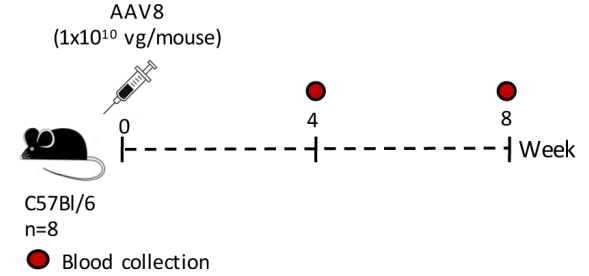
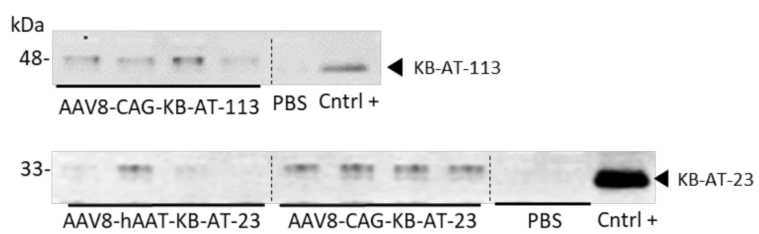
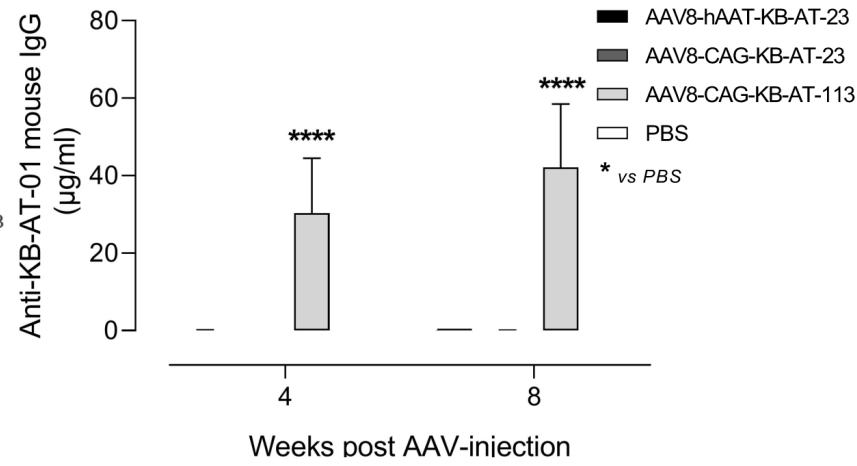
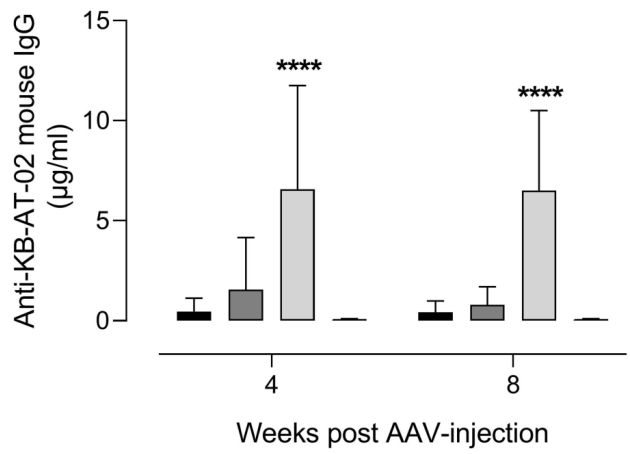
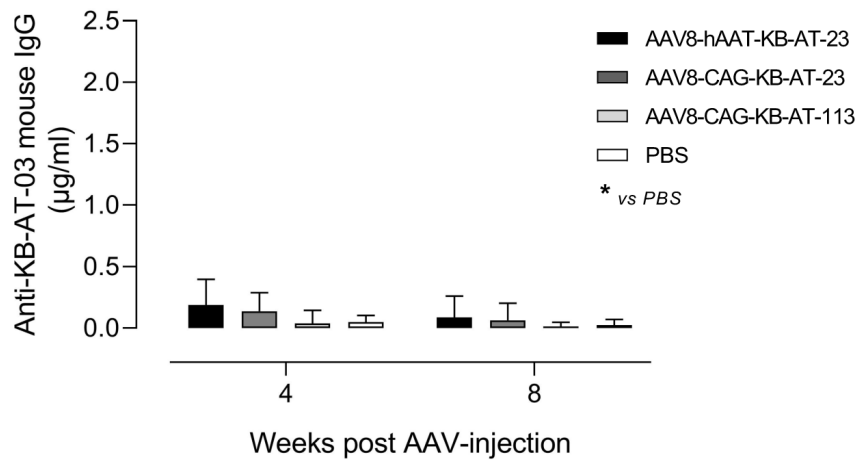
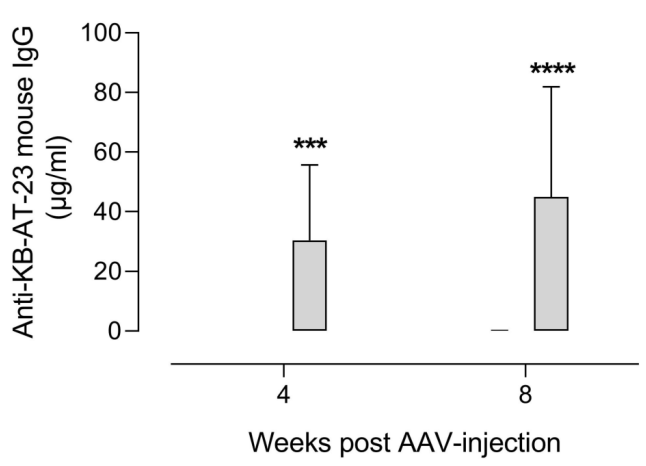
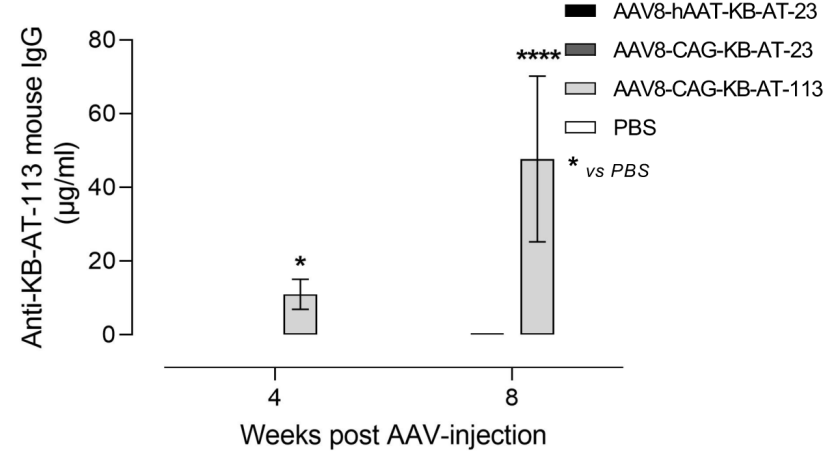
● Blood collection

B**C****D****E****F**

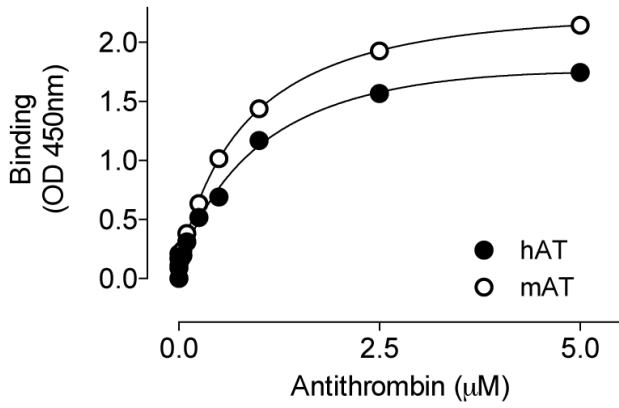
A**B**

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
1st injection	hFIX	PBS	PBS
2nd injection	AAV	AAV	PBS

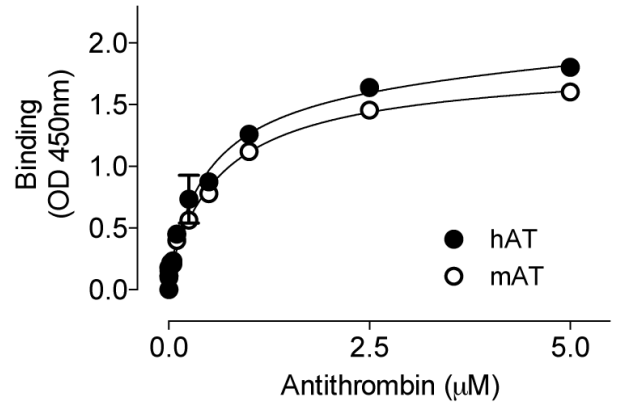
C**D****E****F****G**

A**B****C****D****E****F****G****H**

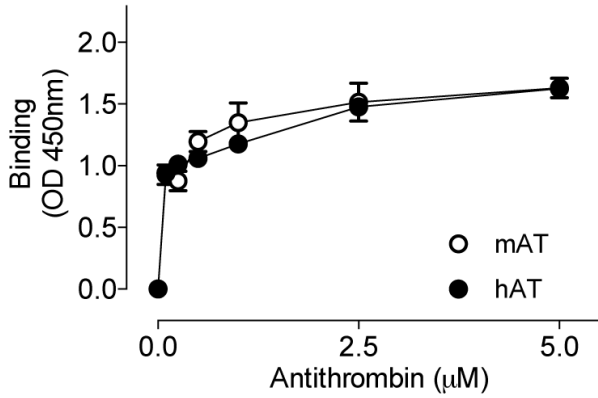
Binding of human and murine antithrombin to immobilized KB-AT-001



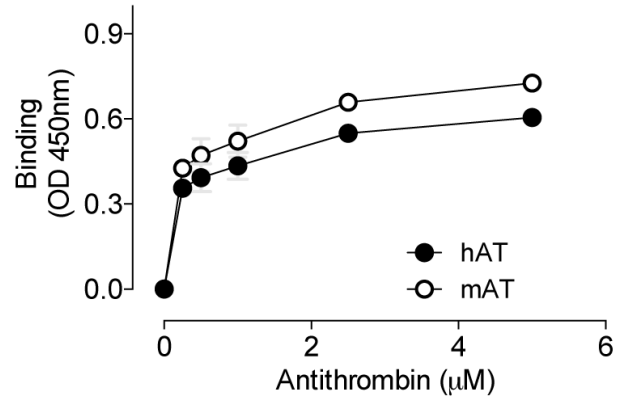
Binding of human and murine antithrombin to immobilized KB-AT-002



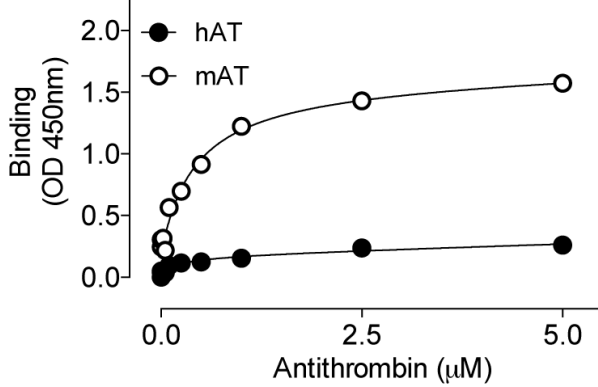
Binding of human and murine antithrombin to immobilized KB-AT-003



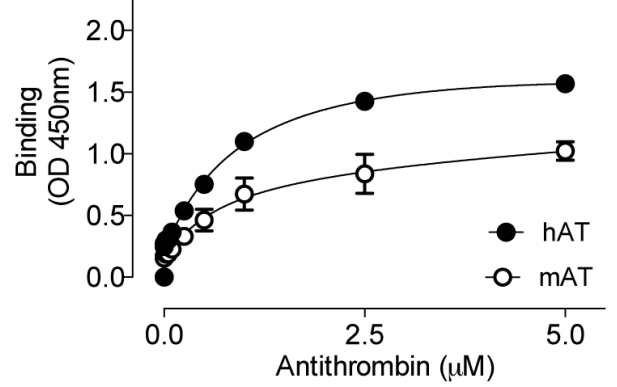
Binding of human and murine antithrombin to immobilized KB-AT-004



Binding of human and murine antithrombin to immobilized KB-AT-005



Binding of human and murine antithrombin to immobilized KB-AT-006



Binding of human and murine antithrombin to immobilized KB-AT-007

