Gallium(III) complexes of NOTA-bis (phosphonate) conjugates as PET radiotracers for bone imaging

Jan Holub\textsuperscript{a}, Marian Meckel\textsuperscript{b}, Vojtěch Kubiček\textsuperscript{a}, Frank Rösch\textsuperscript{b} and Petr Hermann\textsuperscript{a*}

Ligands with geminal bis(phosphonic acid) appended to 1,4,7-triazacyclonone-1,4-diacetic acid fragment through acetamide (NOTAM\textsuperscript{68}) or methyleneephosphinate (NO2AP\textsuperscript{68}) spacers designed for 68Ga were prepared. Ga\textsuperscript{III} complexation is much faster for ligand with methyleneephosphinate spacer than that with acetamide one, in both chemical (high reagent concentrations) and radiolabeling studies with no-carrier-added 68Ga. For both ligands, formation of Ga\textsuperscript{III} complex was slower than that with NOTA owing to the strong out-of-cage binding of bis(phosphonate) group. Radiolabeling was efficient and fast only above 60 °C and in a narrow acidity region (pH ~3). At higher temperature, hydrolysis of amide bond of the carboxamide-bis(phosphonate) conjugate was observed during complexation reaction leading to Ga–NOTA complex. In vitro sorption studies confirmed effective binding of the 68Ga complexes to hydroxyapatite being comparable with that found for common bis(phosphonate) drugs such as pamidronate. Selective bone uptake was confirmed in healthy rats by biodistribution studies ex vivo and by positron emission tomography imaging in vivo. Bone uptake was very high, with SUV (standardized uptake value) of 6.19 ± 1.27 for [68Ga]NO2AP\textsuperscript{68} at 60 min p.i., which is superior to uptake of 68Ga–DOTA-based bis(phosphonates) and [18F]NaF reported earlier (SUV of 4.63 ± 0.38 and SUV of 4.87 ± 0.32 for [68Ga]DO3AP\textsuperscript{68} and [18F]NaF, respectively, at 60 min p.i.). Coincidently, accumulation in soft tissue is generally low (e.g. for kidneys SUV of 0.26 ± 0.09 for [68Ga]NO2AP\textsuperscript{68} at 60 min p.i.), revealing the new 68Ga complexes as ideal tracers for noninvasive, fast and quantitative imaging of calcified tissue and for metastatic lesions using PET or PET/CT. Copyright © 2014 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

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Keywords: bis(phosphonate); NOTA derivatives; bone targeting; 68Ga radiopharmaceuticals; phosphinate complexes; macrocyclic complexes; PET imaging; radiotracer biodistribution; in vivo imaging; nuclear medicine

1. INTRODUCTION

Positron emission tomography (PET) is a powerful method for imaging various tissue or physiological states. The choice of the proper PET radionuclide is given by various criteria such as half-life, energy of the emitted positron, production pathway, radiopharmaceuticals preparation and/or means of application. Compared with the most commonly used radioisotopes (11\textsuperscript{C} and 18\textsuperscript{F}) needing on-site production on a cyclotron, various metal radionuclides can conveniently be prepared utilizing a generator – a device containing a parent nuclide that decays with a long half-life to a daughter positron-emitting radionuclide which is periodically eluted off, purified and used. These radionuclide generators are relatively cheap, permanently accessible and easy to handle. One of the most promising generator-produced radionuclides is 68Ga (t\textsubscript{1/2} = 67.7 min, 89% positron emission, mean \(\beta^+\) energy 0.83 MeV) available from commercial 68Ge/68Ga generators (1–7).

However, with only very limited exceptions, most of metal radioisotopes cannot be applied in a ‘free’ form. The metal radioisotope must be bound in a stable complex to avoid nonspecific deposition of the radioisotope in tissues. Ligands used for complexation of metal ions must ensure very fast and efficient complexation even in highly diluted solutions, sufficient kinetic inertness and thermodynamic stability of the complexes as well as specific accumulation of the formed species in tissue of interest. The last requirement is commonly fulfilled either by creating a metal–ligand system showing specific interaction with target organs or by adding a biologically relevant targeting vector to the metal-ligand system, thereby turning ‘normal’ ligand into a ‘bifunctional’ one. Bifunctionality defines utilization of one of functional groups of the ligand to covalent attachment of the ligand to targeting vector while preserving complexing potency of the remaining structure.

Bone tissue is a prominent target of radionuclide diagnostics and therapeutics as bone metastases represent a very common complication of various types of cancer. Generally, bone targeting is mostly realized via attachment of a geminal bis(phosphonate) moiety to a molecule to be delivered to bone (8–11). Bis(phosphonates)
show a high affinity to hydroxyapatite (HAP). Thus, compounds containing a bis(phosphonate) moiety are efficiently adsorbed on surface of bones. Consequently, such conjugates have been used to deliver radioisotopes to calcified tissues (10). Recently, we and others have developed bis(phosphonate)-bearing ligands based on a DOTA-like macrocyclic core (DOTA = 1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7,10-tetraacetic acid, Fig. 1) as carriers for metal ions to be delivered to calcified tissue (12–17). The applications include imaging techniques ($^{111}$In and $^{68}$Ga for Single-Photon Emission Computed Tomography (SPECT) and Positron Emission Tomography (PET) imaging, respectively) (13,15,17–19) as well as therapy ($^{177}$Lu, $^{90}$Y) (13,16) or bone metastases pain palliation in human patients (20). The conjugates exhibited a very high affinity to HAP as bis(phosphonate) moiety is not coordinated to central metal ion and, thus, remains active for bone targeting (21,22). However, DOTA-like macrocycles are not the best ligands for Ga$^{3+}$ as incorporation of the ion inside macrocyclic cavity leads to severe distortion of coordination octahedron around the Ga$^{3+}$ ion (23–26).

Despite high thermodynamic stability and kinetic inertness of the Ga$^{3+}$ complexes with DOTA-like ligands (27), complexation of no-carrier-added (n.c.a.) $^{68}$Ga with these ligands is less efficient and more sensitive to experimental conditions than that of NOTA analogs (NOTA = 1,4,7-triazacyclononane-1,4,7-triacetic acid, Fig. 1) (1). Triaza- instead of tetraazamacrocycles have been proved to be more suitable for Ga$^{3+}$ ion. They form complexes exhibiting much higher thermodynamic stability as well as kinetic inertness (28,29). The size of coordination cavity imposed by the nine-member macrocyclic ring corresponds very well to trivalent gallium (log $K_{\text{Ga-DOTA}} = 26.1$, log $K_{\text{Ga-NOTA}} = 29.6$) (27,28).

Thus, a number of NOTA-like ligands have been investigated as promising chelators for $^{68}$Ga (1,10). Among them (by analogy with the most commonly used ligands in DOTA-like family, the DOTA-monoamides), NOTA-monoamides appear as an emerging class of ligands owing to their easy synthesis and potential easiness of introduction of bifunctionality through amide formation (30–33).

Imaging of bone lesions is important for the location, staging and treatment of several diseases, mainly breast and prostate cancers metastases. Bone scans have been dominated by SPECT imaging with $^{99m}$Tc-bis(phosphonate) tracers. However, SPECT resolution and sensitivity is inferior compared with PET, so PET tracers should be more convenient. $^{18}$F-NaF tracer was introduced for bone imaging some time ago. However, $^{18}$F is expensive, and its production requires cyclotron and skilled staff. Therefore, cheaper alternative isotopes requiring only relatively simple workup, such as $^{68}$Ga produced in a long-lived generator, are desired. We have introduced (12–14) bis(phosphonate)-containing macroyclic ligands, DOTA-monoamide DOTAMBP and DOTA monophosphinate analog D03APBP (Fig. 1), which were success- fully labeled with $^{68}$Ga and used as PET tracers (18–20,34). However, labeling DOTAMBP and D03APBP with $^{68}$Ga is not optimal (19,34). Thus, in order to improve the properties of the bone-targeted complexes, such as ease of labeling and improved bone/soft tissue ratio, as well as to get a direct comparison with our previous data on $^{68}$Ga-DOTAMBP and $^{68}$Ga-D03APBP, we decided to study analogous ligands derived from NOTA.

Thus, this paper describes the synthesis of NOTA-like ligands with a bis(phosphonate)-containing side arm (as the bone-targeting group) connected to a metal-binding cage through acetamide or methylphosphinate pendant arms, NOTAMBP and NO2APBP (Fig. 1). The ligand physicochemical characterization, labeling with $^{68}$Ga, in vitro binding to HAP, ex-vivo biodistribution of the $^{68}$Ga-labeled compounds and small animal in vivo PET imaging were evaluated. In order to simplify the text, abbreviations such as NOTA, Ga–NOTAMBP and Ga–NO2APBP are used for the ligands/complexes regardless of the in charge/protonation state, except when the distinction is necessary for comprehension.

## 2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 2.1. Synthesis

The ligands were synthesized according to Fig. 2. A previously described procedure (35) for benzyl monoprotected macrocycle 2 was modified to a one-pot synthesis and its overall yield was improved. Further reaction with t-butyl bromoacetate followed by catalytic hydrogenation resulted in doubly substituted macrocycle 4. Preparations of compound 4, commonly used for synthesis of 1,4,7-triazacyclononane-1,4-diacetic acid (NO2A) derivatives, have been known for a long time (36–39); however, synthesis here was slightly modified, run on a much higher scale and resulted in overall yield comparable with the previous ones. Secondary amine of NO2A diester 4 was used for attachment of geminal bis(phosphonate) moiety via acetamide or methylphosphinate linkers. The reactions were carried out with fully esterified reagents owing to their better solubility in organic solvents and more efficient chromatographic purification of intermediates. Acetamide derivative 6 was prepared by alkylation of 4 with the appropriate chloroacetamide 5. Phosphinate derivative 8 was prepared by Mannich-type reaction using paraformaldehyde and per(ethyl) bis(phosphono)-phosphate 7. Cleavage of ester

![Figure 1](https://example.com/image1.png)

**Figure 1.** Ligands discussed in this paper.
protecting groups was performed in two steps. First, t-butyl groups were cleaved by action of trifluoroacetic acid and, then, ethyl groups were removed by transesterification with trimethylbromosilane followed by silyl group removal with methanol. The final purification on cation exchange resin yielded NOTAMBP and NO2APBP in zwitterionic form.

2.2. Ga$^{3+}$ Complexation

Coordination ability of the title ligands toward trivalent gallium was studied owing to their intended applications for $^{68}$Ga PET imaging. In addition, Fe$^2+$ complexes were prepared as this ion shows similar properties (the same charge and similar ionic radius) as the Ga$^{3+}$ ion and thus can be considered as a surrogate differing just in spectral and magnetic properties.

Dissolving the ligands in a solution containing equimolar amount of the metal ions leads to significant decrease in pH (pH drops to 1.4–2.0). Addition of strong hydroxide and increase of pH (>2) leads to immediate formation of precipitates. The precipitates are dissolved upon further increase in pH (>4). Most likely, such behavior could be ascribed to a mechanism of complex formation involving several intermediates, as has been suggested for similar macrocyclic ligands (14,28,29). The initial mixing of reagents leads to immediate coordination of the metal ion to bis(phosphonate) oxygen atoms and release of protons. It is known that bis(phosphonate) group is able to interact with trivalent metal ions even at very low pH (40,41) and, at pH < 2, the ligands bind the metal ion in a protonated form (with protons bound on macrocyclic amines as well as on phosphonate groups) forming out-of-cage complexes. Such species have overall positive charge and are soluble in water. Increase of pH causes further deprotonation of bis(phosphonate) group and formation of charge-neutral complexes with low solubility in water. Such solid out-of-cage intermediates are expected to be 3D coordination polymers having metal ions bridged by phosphonate group(s), typical for phosphate and bis(phosphonate) complexes (40,41). Further pH increase results in dissolution of the precipitates and is associated with ring amine deprotonation and formation of final in-cage macrocyclic complexes where the metal ion is coordinated with three ring nitrogen atoms and three oxygen atoms of carboxylate or acetamide/phosphinate pendants (29,42,43). A similar mechanism involving a phosphonate-coordinated out-of-cage intermediate has been previously postulated for complexation of lanthanide(III) ions with analogous DOTA-like bis(phosphonate)-bearing ligands such as DO3APBP (12,14). Formation of the in-cage complexes was directly confirmed by $^{71}$Ga nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) measurements. The Ga–NO2APBP complex shows a rather broad signal at 158 ppm ($\nu_{\text{zz}}$, $\sim$1300 Hz, Fig. S1 in the Supporting Information). Quadrupole moment of the $^{71}$Ga nucleus leads to a signal broadening if Ga$^{3+}$ ion is placed in a nonsymmetrical coordination environment. Nonsymmetrical charge distribution leads to an extremely broad signal of Ga–NOTAMBP complex centered at $\sim$170 ppm ($\nu_{\text{zz}}$, $\sim$9700 Hz, Fig. S1); a $^{71}$Ga NMR chemical shift of 166 ppm has been observed for other NOTA–monoamide gallium(III) complexes (31).

The time course of gallium(III) complexation with NO2APBP was studied in details by $^{71}$Ga and $^{31}$P($^1$H) NMR. Coordination spheres of the out-of-cage intermediates are completely nonsymmetrical and, thus, are ‘invisible’ in $^{71}$Ga NMR spectra. Thus, formation of the in-cage complex was quantified using an external capillary standard. These experiments were performed with GaL 1:1 molar ratio, at pH 2 and 3 (1 M sodium chloroacetate buffer), pH 4 and 5 (1 M sodium acetate buffer). In the presence of weakly coordinating buffers, the above-mentioned precipitation of intermediates was not observed. The results are summarized in Table 1 and Figs. 3 and S2 (in the Supporting Information). Complexation rates follow the order pH 2 $<$ pH 3 $>$ pH 5 $<$ pH 4. As stated above, the complexation can be described as a two-step process. The intermediate out-of-cage complex is formed instantly and metal ion is coordinated only through oxygen atoms of bis(phosphonate) group and pendant arms (carboxylate and phosphinate), whereas macrocyclic amines are protonated. In the rate-determining step, ring nitrogen atoms lose proton(s) and the metal ion simultaneously moves into the macrocycle cavity; it is generally a base-catalyzed process. The mechanism explains the increase in complexation rate between pH 2 and 3.
Complexation at pH 5 might be partially decelerated by the presence of acetate anions from the buffer; however, at the millimolar concentrations used in these experiments, partially protonated bis(phosphonate) anion (41) is a much better ligand than acetate and it is known that phosphonate coordination ability is considerably increased with consecutive deprotonation of the group. Thus, slower complexation at pH 5 is probably caused by more extensive deprotonation of bis(phosphonate) moiety at higher pH leading to its stronger interaction with Ga³⁺ ion and stabilization of the out-of-cage complex, or by formation of Ga³⁺ hydroxido complexes.

In the case of NOTAMBP, broadening of the ⁷¹Ga NMR signal and overlapping of the ³¹P[¹H] NMR signals of the product and reaction intermediates disabled precise quantification under the same conditions as those used for NO2APBP complexation. However, even after heating at 40 °C for several hours, broad ³¹P[¹H] NMR signals were observed, showing that only an out-of-cage complex was formed which was stable under these conditions. If the solution was heated at 95 °C (Figs. 4 and S3 in the Supporting Information), several signals could be distinguished after several minutes and the spectra indicate that the in-cage complex is fully formed after ~30 min under these conditions. Further heating led only to a decrease of Ga³⁺–NOTAMBP complex signal and increase of that of aminomethylene-bis(phosphonate), indicating that Ga³⁺–NOTAMBP complex is unstable under these conditions and decomposes to Ga³⁺–NOTA complex (see also below). Some decomposition (i.e. formation of [Ga(NOTA)]) was observed in ⁷¹Ga NMR spectrum even after 10 min of the reaction (Fig. S3).

The results point to an important role of spacer connecting bis(phosphonate) group and macrocycle. Under all conditions tested, NO2APBP showed significantly faster gallium(III) complexation than NOTAMBP. Albeit phosphinates are known to be better complexation groups than carboxamides, the pronounced difference in reaction rate is surprising; a hard and charged phosphate group as a good coordinating group for Ga(III) ion is probably able to assist ion transfer from the out-of-cage species into the in-cage complex much better. In addition, the basicity of amine group in N—CH₂—P(R)O₂H moiety is significantly lowered (28,44) and, so, deprotonation of the amine group adjacent to the phosphate is facilitated.

For both ligands, complexation rates are significantly lower than those reported for NOTA or its phosphinic acid analogs (28,29,45–47). Therefore, the presence of a too strongly complexing hard group such as bis(phosphonate) in proximity to the amide bond catalyzes its hydrolysis (48). Consequently, a number of bis(phosphonate) groups should be balanced to have good bone targeting and, at the same time, efficient in-cage complexation.

### 2.3. Hydrolysis of the Amide Bond in the Ga³⁺–NOTAMBP Complex

Single crystals were formed in the time course of gallium(III) complexation with NOTAMBP. According to the X-ray diffraction, these were not crystals of Ga³⁺–NOTAMBP but those of a known Ga³⁺–NOTA complex (41). This is result of the amide bond hydrolysis in the Ga³⁺–NOTAMBP complex (see also Fig. 5). Upon complexation, the Ga³⁺ ion is coordinated only by phosphonate groups in an out-of-cage fashion (48). Consequently, a number of bis(phosphonate) groups should be balanced to have good bone targeting and, at the same time, efficient in-cage complexation.

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![Figure 4. ³¹P[¹H] NMR spectrum of reaction mixture after 30 min of reaction of Ga³⁺ ion with NOTAMBP at pH 3 and 90 °C [Ga³⁺ = 0.13 M, slight molar excess of ligand; dead time (t₀) ~5 min].](image)

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![Figure 3. Time course of complexation of Ga³⁺ ion with NO2APBP at different pH (40 °C, molar ratio L:Ga = 1:1; [Ga³⁺] = 0.13 M); dead time for t₀ = 5 min.](image)

### Table 1. Half-time (t₁/₂) of Ga³⁺–NO2APBP complex formation (40 °C, molar ratio L:Ga = 1:1, [Ga³⁺] = 0.13 M)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ligand</th>
<th>pH</th>
<th>t₁/₂ (min)</th>
<th>95% Complexation (min)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO2APBP</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>&lt;5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOTA</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>&lt;2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>270</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

²⁵ °C, Šímeček et al. (28).
The results show that the hydrolysis is faster with increasing pH (Fig. 5). This indicates a hydroxide-mediated reaction and could be explained as nucleophilic attack of hydroxide anion on the amide carbon atom of highly polarized carbonyl moiety owing to coordination to a small trivalent metal ion; thus, the reaction can proceed even in slightly acidic solutions. However, the hydrolysis proceeds at a slower rate than formation of the in-cage complex as only some decomposition was observed during 10 min at 90 °C (Fig. S3, see also above) under these ‘chemical’ conditions (in this context, ‘chemical’ conditions means millimolar or higher concentrations of reactants, unlike ‘radiochemical’ conditions where concentrations are many orders of magnitude lower). Thus, the hydrolysis was also checked during labeling of NOTAMBP with 68Ga and 68Ga–NOTA complex was also identified via radio-high-performance liquid chromatography (radio-HPLC; see below).

It should be noted that analogous hydrolysis might have been present during studies of GaIII complexes with simple NOTA-monoamides where a very broad 71Ga NMR signal of the complexes with a small sharp singlet at 170 ppm (probably attributable to Ga–NOTA complex) was observed (31).

### 2.4. Adsorption of Iron(III) Complexes on Hydroxyapatite

To estimate bone targeting efficiency, the most commonly used method is to determine binding ability of the molecules on the HAP surface. For bis(phosphonate)-containing DOTA derivatives, a long-lived 160Tb metal isotope has been used as a surrogate for lanthanide(III) ions (21). As 68Ga is a short-lived radioisotope, another method was sought. Trivalent iron has properties (charge, size, hardness, etc.) similar to those of trivalent gallium and both ions form analogous complexes; thus, FeIII ion was chosen as a surrogate. UV–vis spectroscopy was used to quantify the sorption ability as FeIII complexes exhibit an intensive ligand-to-metal

![Figure 5](image-url). Hydrolysis of amide bond in Ga–NOTAMBP complex expressed as increasing abundance of Ga–NOTA complex in 71Ga NMR (A) and decreasing abundance of Ga–NOTAMBP complex in 31P{1H} NMR (B) (90 °C, cGaL = 0.13 M). Figures do not have the same y-axis absolute scale: precipitation of the Ga–NOTA complex, confirmed by X-ray diffraction, caused decline of 71Ga NMR signal intensity by the end of the reaction and maximum in 31P{1H} NMR data refers to a time when the first integration was possible, that is, after 0.5–2.5 h depending on pH.

![Figure 6](image-url). Time course of incorporation of no-carrier-added 68Ga by NOTA and DOTA (A, pH 4.0) and the title ligands (B, pH 4.2) at various temperatures. Results for NOTAMBP can be influenced by amide bond hydrolysis (for details, see text).

### Table 2. Adsorption parameters of FeIII complexes on hydroxyapatite surface (pH 7.5, 25 °C, equilibration time 3 days)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complex</th>
<th>Fe-NOTAMBP</th>
<th>Fe-NO2APBP</th>
<th>Fe-DOTAMBP</th>
<th>Fe-DO3APBP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant K/10^3 (dm^3 mol^-1)</td>
<td>31.3 ± 6.1</td>
<td>20.0 ± 3.2</td>
<td>43.7 ± 12.2</td>
<td>207.6 ± 45.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xm/10^-6 (mol m^-2)</td>
<td>1.007 ± 0.035</td>
<td>1.271 ± 0.052</td>
<td>0.768 ± 0.019</td>
<td>1.015 ± 0.017</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
charge transfer band in UV region (Fig. S4 in the Supporting Information). Iron(III) complexes of DOTAMBP and DO3APBP were also prepared and studied for comparison with analogous complexes of DOTA-like ligands already used as ⁶⁸Ga radiopharmaceuticals (19,20).

The adsorption process is usually described by the Langmuir adsorption isotherm:

$$\frac{X}{X_m} = \frac{K \times c}{1 + (K \times c)}$$

where $K$ is the analyte (complex) affinity constant for the surface (in $\text{dm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$), $X_m$ is the maximum sorption capacity of the complex (in mol m$^{-2}$), $c$ is the complex concentration (in mol dm$^{-3}$) in solution and $X$ is the specific adsorbed amount of the complex (in mol m$^{-2}$). Aqueous suspension of HAP was used as a model of bone tissue. The results are shown in Fig. S5 in the Supporting Information and the absorption parameters are summarized in Table 2.

All complexes studied show efficient binding on HAP surface. Maximum sorption capacities are in a range that corresponds to formation of monomolecular layer (12). For complexes of NOTA analogs, maximum sorption capacities are higher than those for DOTA complexes. This could be explained by compact shape of Fe$^{III}$ complexes with NOTA derivatives, where all pendant arms are coordinated (49,50). The larger size of the cyclen ring and the presence of two uncoordinated pendant arms in complexes with DOTA-like ligands (51) result in a larger surface area occupied by one molecule of DOTA complexes. Higher affinity constants found for complexes with DOTA derivatives indicate that uncoordinated pendant arms might be involved in interaction with HAP surface; the higher affinity constant for Fe$^{III}$-DO3APBP complex can be probably explained by the highest overall charge among the complexes. Generally, both affinity constants as well as sorption capacities are comparable to those previously reported for lanthanide(III) complexes with the same DOTA analogs, where all pendant arms are bound to central metal ion (e.g. $K=250 \times 10^{-3} \text{dm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $X_m=0.65 \times 10^6 \text{mol m}^{-2}$ for $^{160}$Tb-DO3APBP complex) (21) as well as to those for simple bis(phosphonates), for example, for pamidronate ($K=44 \times 10^{-3} \text{dm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $X_m=1.82 \times 10^6 \text{mol m}^{-2}$) (21). This indirectly confirms similar accessibility of distant bis(phosphonate) moiety for bone targeting in all complexes.

### 2.5. Radiolabeling With No-carrier-added ⁶⁸Ga

If ligands are considered as potential radiopharmaceuticals, the efficiency of metal radionuclide incorporation is one of their most important properties and, thus, the title ligands were...
tested by labeling with n.c.a $^{68}$Ga. The ligand-to-$^{68}$Ga molar ratio was approximated in the order of 10$^4$ in all experiments (1 MBq $^{68}$Ga corresponds to ~0.01 pmol of Ga$^{III}$). Complexation was followed [see an example of thin-layer chromatography (TLC) plate in electrospray ionization (ESI), Fig. S6 in the Supporting Information] at various temperatures and solution acidities, and the results are summarized in Figs. 6 and 7.

The data show similar trends to those obtained in NMR experiments (above). For both ligands, fast complexation requires weakly acidic conditions, that is, pH $3 - 4$. No complexation was observed at pH 1.3 and 6.9 at any temperature. The experiments also confirmed strong dependence of complexation rate on temperature. At pH 4.2 and at room temperature, no complexation was observed with both ligands. In the case of NO2APBP, heating to 60 °C is required to reach full complexation in 10 min; at 95 °C, $^{68}$Ga$^{III}$ was quantitatively bound in only 5 min. Temperatures of <60 °C were insufficient for radiolabeling with NOTAMBP and reasonable complexation efficiency was reached only at a temperature of 95 °C. However, radio-TLC cannot be used for evaluation of hydrolysis of amide bond in $^{68}$Ga–NOTAMBP system (as observed in NMR experiments, above) as all complexes have the same mobility. To check the decomposition, labeling of NOTAMBP was carried out under conditions used in sample preparation for in-vivo experiments (pH 4.5, 95 °C, 15 min) and the reaction mixture was evaluated by HPLC on amine-containing sorbent (Fig. S7 in the Supporting Information). Partial decomposition (~20%) was observed while $^{68}$Ga–NOTAMBP complex was fully formed during the time; therefore, amide bond hydrolysis is slower than $^{68}$Ga$^{III}$ complexation under these conditions. The partial hydrolysis probably influenced sorption and in-vivo data (see below). NO2APBP showed much faster complexation of n.c.a. $^{68}$Ga$^{III}$ than NOTAMBP under all tested conditions (Figs. 6 and 7). This efficient complexation is more pronounced if compared with $^{68}$Ga$^{III}$ labeling of DO3APBP where radiochemical yield under more forced conditions was, at the best, ~60% (34). It has also been shown (under the same conditions) that the presence of one or two methylphosphonate arms in NOTA analogs (NO2AP and NO1A2P; for formulae, see Fig. 1) accelerates the labeling reaction in comparison with labeling with NOTA (53). Thus, the presence of methylene phosphonic/inic acid pendant arms seems to increase the complexation rate. Radiolabeling of the title ligands with n.c.a. $^{68}$Ga is less efficient than that of NOTA; however, 

### Table 3. Ex vivo biodistribution of $[^{68}$Ga]NOTAMBP$^{BP}$ and $[^{68}$Ga]NO2APBP$^{BP}$ complexes in healthy male Wistar rats (60 min p.i.). Data are presented as an average from five animals±SD; uptake as percentage injected dose per gram of tissue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complex</th>
<th>Lung</th>
<th>Liver</th>
<th>Spleen</th>
<th>Kidney</th>
<th>Muscle</th>
<th>Blood</th>
<th>Intestine</th>
<th>Testes</th>
<th>Femur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$[^{68}$Ga]NOTAMBP$^{BP}$</td>
<td>0.12±0.03</td>
<td>0.05±0.01</td>
<td>0.04±0.01</td>
<td>0.45±0.04</td>
<td>0.03±0.01</td>
<td>0.09±0.04</td>
<td>0.07±0.03</td>
<td>0.07±0.03</td>
<td>0.03±0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$[^{68}$Ga]NO2APBP$^{BP}$</td>
<td>0.04±0.03</td>
<td>0.02±0.01</td>
<td>0.02±0.01</td>
<td>0.18±0.07</td>
<td>0.01±0.00</td>
<td>0.04±0.01</td>
<td>0.07±0.03</td>
<td>0.01±0.00</td>
<td>0.01±0.00</td>
</tr>
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Figure 10. Radioactivity accumulation on femur for $[^{68}$Ga]NOTAMBP$^{BP}$, $[^{68}$Ga]DOTAMBP$^{BP}$, $[^{68}$Ga]NO2APBP$^{BP}$ and $[^{68}$Ga]DO3APBP$^{BP}$ (60 min p.i.). *Data for $[^{68}$Ga]DOTAMBP$^{BP}$ and $[^{68}$Ga]DO3APBP$^{BP}$ were taken from the literature (19,34). Results for NOTAMBP$^{BP}$ can be influenced by amide bond hydrolysis (for details, see text).
NO2AP\textsuperscript{BP} incorporates \(^{68}\text{Ga}\)\textsuperscript{+} similarly to unsubstituted DOTA (Figs. 6 and 7). Both title ligands are more efficient chelators than DOTAM\textsuperscript{BP} (it needs 20–25 min at 95 °C for 95% labeling and the best pH is ~5; the other labeling conditions are the same as for the title ligands) (19). \(^{68}\text{Ga}\)-DOTAM\textsuperscript{BP} complex has been already applied \textit{in vivo} (19,20) and, compared with it, \(^{68}\text{Ga}\)-complexes of the title ligands appear better suited for straightforward labeling adequate for utilization \textit{in vivo} (see below).

2.6. Adsorption of \(^{68}\text{Ga}\)-labeled Complexes to Hydroxapatite

Binding of complexes labeled with \(^{68}\text{Ga}\) to HAP surface was measured at room temperature (Fig. 8). \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NO2AP}^{\text{BP}}\) complex (93.8 ± 4.4%) is bound much better compared with \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NOTAM}^{\text{BP}}\) complex (38.1 ± 2.6%), while binding of \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NOTA}\) complex (1.5 ± 0.3%) is negligible under the same conditions. These results do not fully parallel those of iron(III) complexes obtained under ‘chemical’ equilibrium conditions where no significant differences were observed. \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NOTAM}^{\text{BP}}\) might be partially decomposed during complexation decreasing absorption on HAP. However, the difference is significant and another reason should be present. Because of the short half-life of \(^{68}\text{Ga}\), a short contact time of the complexes with HAP had to be used and full equilibrium could not be reached, unlike during measurements with Fe\textsuperscript{3+} complexes (above). Thus, difference between the experiments might be attributed to faster absorption kinetics of \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NO2AP}^{\text{BP}}\) complex if compared with \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NOTA}\) complex; it was observed that \([^{160}\text{Tb}]\text{DO3AP}^{\text{BP}}\) complex adsorbs on the HAP surface very quickly (22). These results are more relevant for \textit{in vivo} conditions. Compounds with slow adsorption kinetics are not suitable for future \textit{in vivo} studies. It is necessary to obtain high binding to targeted tissue for imaging agents in a short timescale; otherwise long measurement time and high activities are required to develop adequate PET images. However, this experiment showed (Fig. 1) no significant difference in HAP adsorption between \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NO2AP}^{\text{BP}},\) \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\) DO3AP\textsuperscript{BP} and \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\) EDTMP tracers [EDTMP = ethylenediamine-\(N,N,N',N''\)-tetrakis(methylene phosphonic acid), Fig. 1]. \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\) NO2AP\textsuperscript{BP} had a binding of 93.8 ± 4.4% on HAP after 10 min, which is one of the highest rates among \(^{68}\text{Ga}\)-labeled macrocyclic bis(phosphonates) (Fig. 9). Data in this experiment correlate well with those of bone accumulation \textit{in vivo} (in \textit{ex vivo} organ distribution, see below).

2.7. \textit{In Vivo} Biodistribution Studies

Uptake of the tracers in organism was followed by both microPET and organ dissection. The dissection data (Table 3) clearly shows high uptake of \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NO2AP}^{\text{BP}}\) in bone (femur 4.37%, 60 min p.i.) and very low uptake in nontarget organs like soft tissues. Similar results have been observed with \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{DOTA-based bis(phosphonates)}\) in published studies (19,34). Bone uptake of \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NO2AP}^{\text{BP}}\) [standardized uptake value (SUV) of 6.19 ± 1.27% injected dose per gram in femur] is clearly superior if compared with the established SPECT, \(^{99m}\text{Tc-MDP}\) (\(\text{MDP} = \text{methylenebis(phosphonic acid)}\), Fig. 1), or PET, \(^{18}\text{F}Na\text{F},\) bone tracers and also higher than that of DOTA-based tracer (Fig. 9). Lower uptake of \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NOTAM}^{\text{BP}}\) is in line with the \textit{in vitro} results and can be caused by partial decomposition during labeling (above). Bone uptake of \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NO2AP}^{\text{BP}}\) is significantly better (Fig. 10) than bone uptake of \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{DOTAM}^{\text{BP}},\) a tracer already successfully used in patients, as well as that of its equivalent DOTA-based tracer, \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{DO3AP}^{\text{BP}}\) (19,34). Differences between \textit{ex-vivo} biodistributions and microPET images (below) might be given by a different age of the animals (see Experimental).

To illustrate the usefulness of \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NO2AP}^{\text{BP}}\) as PET tracer, its biodistribution was followed by microPET with two animals. Uptake on bone was observed within a few minutes and labeled compounds were cleared out of the blood during 60–120 min via kidneys and bladder. MicroPET images (Fig. 11) show a rapid clearance of the compound from blood. After 5–10 min, only 10–15% of the injected radiotracer was found in bloodstream, while a very fast accumulation in skeleton was observed. Bone images of good quality can be developed at early time points. In Figs. 11 and S8 (in the Supporting Information), the skeleton is clearly highlighted after only 15 min p.i. In the second animal (Fig. 11), the kidneys show a high uptake as the main clearance organ of \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NO2AP}^{\text{BP}}\) as expressed by SUV values in Figs S9 and S10 in the Supporting Information. After a rapid initial accumulation (up to 50 min. p.i.), the labeled compound is predominantly cleared to bladder and washed out of the animal via urine. \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NO2AP}^{\text{BP}}\) showed a similar kinetics in both animals with only small differences that could be explained by variation in the animals’ weight and age. At 60 min p.i., the SUV in spine was 1.8 for animal no. 1 (536 g, 32 MBq) and 1.6 for animal no. 2 (346 g, 31 MBq). Uptake of \(^{68}\text{Ga}-\text{bis(phosphonate)}\) in bone joints was almost 50% higher (for animal no. 1, SUV in joint of scapula and humerus was 3.1).

3. CONCLUSIONS

New bis(phosphonate)-containing derivatives of NOTA were prepared by scaleable synthesis. They showed efficient complexation of trivalent gallium and phosphinate derivative was shown to bind metal ion better than acetamide derivative under any conditions used. Complexation rates of these new ligands were lower than those of NOTA or its phosphinic acid analogs owing to the presence of phosphonate groups forming a rather stable \textit{out-of-cage} complex which is able to compete with the formation of \textit{in-cage} complex. The amide group in the \textit{in-cage} complex is not fully hydrolytically stable owing to a strong polarizing effect of the small Ga\textsuperscript{3+} ion after its coordination; thus, \(^{68}\text{Ga}-\text{NOTAM}^{\text{BP}}\) cannot be used in practice. These results indicate that complexes of NOTA-amides can be hydrolytically

Figure 11. MicroPET image of the second healthy male Wistar rat at different times after injection of 31 MBq \([^{68}\text{Ga}]\text{NO2AP}^{\text{BP}}\).
unstable, unlike complexes of DOTA-amides where analogous hydrolysis has not been observed. The hydrolysis takes place only at high temperature but occurs also during labeling with n.c.a. $^{68}$Ga; however, hydrolysis is slower than complexation. This should be taken into account when designing new ligands for Ga$^+$ and other highly charged metal ions. Thus, if a NOTA-like skeleton with triacetate pendant arms is required, a ligand not modified on the coordinating acetate group(s) should be considered, for example, NOTAGA derivatives with a distant carboxylic acid group for the chelator conjugation could be a good solution, avoiding the hydrolysis problem.

Radiolabeling with $^{68}$Ga was rapid at temperatures above 60 °C for the phosphonate and at 90 °C for the acetamide ligand. Biodistribution and microPET studies in healthy male rats showed very quick uptake of $^{68}$Ga-labeled probes on bones and rapid elimination of non-targeted probes through kidneys. The pharmacokinetics of the new labeled macrocyclic ligands is similar to that of labeled DOTA-bis(phosphonate) conjugates as well as that of commonly used $^{99m}$Tc-bis(phosphonate) radiopharmaceuticals or $^{[18F]}$NaF, but results in a significantly higher accumulation of $^{[68Ga]}$NO2APBP on bone. $^{[68Ga]}$NO2APBP showed a superior adsorption kinetics compared with that of other $^{68}$Ga-labeled macrocyclic bis(phosphonates) and a similar affinity HAP to $^{[68Ga]}$EDTMP; however, $^{[68Ga]}$EDTMP was reported to be an inefficient radiotracer based on its low kinetic and thermodynamic in vivo stability (51). Additionally, the new ligands performed in an almost quantitative labeling (RCY more than 98%) within 10 to 15 min with NO2APBP being labeled more effectively, while DOTA-based bis(phosphonates) showed an RCY between 70 and 85% and purification steps are necessary before application. For routine synthesis in nuclear medicine practice, easy labeling processes and high RCY are essential. These properties and convenient availability of $^{68}$Ga from commercial generators render NO2APBP as one of the best leading compounds for the development of bone-targeted PET probes.

These new $^{68}$Ga-based radiotracers bring improvement of a current state-of-art for bone imaging owing to much better resolution and sensitivity of PET if compared with SPECT and a much lower price of generator-produced $^{68}$Ga radioisotope if compared with cyclotron-produced $^{18}$F. Despite no $^{68}$Ge/$^{68}$Ga generator having been approved, easy operation of these generators and its continuously decreasing prices make $^{68}$Ga-PET based bone scans possibly the most easily implemented PET modality in less developed countries without expensive cyclotrons and skilled staff. Experiments focused on better understanding of biological fate and, finally, directed to a human application of the new probe are under way.

4. EXPERIMENTAL

4.1. General Methods

Reagents 5 and 7, and ligands DOTAMBP and DO3APBP, were synthesized according to published procedures (12,14). 1,4,7-Triazacyclononane (tacn) as free base was purchased from CheMatech (France). The other reactants and solvents were commercially available analytical-grade chemicals. Acetonitrile was dried by distillation from P2O5. NMR spectra were recorded using Varian Unity Inova (400 MHz), Varian VNMR5 (300 MHz) or Bruker Avance (600 MHz) spectrometers. $^1$H and $^{13}$C (at 300 or 600 and 75 or 151 MHz, respectively) NMR shifts were referenced to internal tetramethylsilane or t-BuOH signal, the $^3$P (121 MHz) and $^{71}$Ga (129 MHz) NMR shifts were externally referenced relative to 85% aq. H$_3$PO$_4$ and 0.1 M aq. Ga(NO$_3$)$_2$, respectively. Homo- and heteronuclear 2D-NMR spectra were used for final characterization of the title ligands. Mass spectra were recorded on a Bruker Esquire 3000 spectrometer with ESI as ion source and ion trap as a detector in positive or negative modes. UV–vis spectra were recorded using Biochrom Lightwave 2 spectrometer. Elemental analyses were performed using an Heraeus Varian EL III system. TLC analyses of the ligand and intermediates during their synthesis were carried out with silica on aluminum foil (Merck). Radio-TLC development was developed with a Canberra Packard Instant Imager. Radioactivity of samples was measured with an Aktivimeter Isomed 2010, MED (Nuklear-Medizintechnik Dresden GmbH). For small animal PET studies, a Siemens microPET Focus 120 was used and data were reconstructed with the Pmod software (PMOD Technologies Ltd). Radioactivity in tissue samples was determined using a Wallac Wizard2 automatic gamma counter (Perkin Elmer, Germany).

4.2. Synthesis of 1-benzyl-1,4,7-triazacyclononane (2)

1,4,7-Triazacyclononane (5.0 g, 39.9 mmol) was dissolved in mixture of 1,4-dioxane (50 ml) and Me$_2$NCH(OMe)$_2$ (5.52 g, 47.9 mmol). The mixture was refluxed for 3 h, volatiles were evaporated and the residue was re-dissolved in tetrahydrofurane (THF) (40 ml). A solution of benzylbromide (8.6 g, 47.9 mmol) in THF (40 ml) was added slowly under vigorous stirring and a yellow precipitate was formed. Then more THF (30 ml) was added and the mixture was stirred overnight. The yellow powder was filtered off and dissolved in a mixture of water (25 ml), EtoH (50 ml) and KOH (12.5 g). The mixture was refluxed for 3 days. Volatiles were evaporated under reduced pressure, the residue was dissolved in water (20 ml) and the solution was extracted with chloroform (3 × 40 ml). The organic fractions containing the product were combined, dried with Na$_2$SO$_4$ and solvent was evaporated. The residue was dissolved in aq. HCl (6 M, 20 ml) and the solution was evaporated to dryness. The crude hydrochloride was dissolved in water (10 ml) and crystallized by addition of Et$_2$O (100 ml). The product was filtered off and dried under vacuum to yield white crystals of 2·2HCl·H$_2$O (8.5 g, 75%). NMR (D$_2$O): $^1$H $\delta$ = 3.07 (CH$_2$–N–Bn, 4H, t, $\Delta_{JHH}$ 6.0 Hz); 3.25 (CH$_2$–CH$_2$–N–Bn, 4H, t, $\Delta_{JHH}$ 6.0 Hz); 3.65 (NH–CH$_2$–CH$_2$–NH, 4H, s); 3.95 (N–CH$_2$–C$_6$H$_4$, 2H, s); 7.47 (aryl H, 5H, bm); $^{13}$C($^1$H) $\delta$ = 44.8 (CH$_2$–N–Bn), 46.1 (NH–CH$_2$–CH$_2$–NH, s); 50.2 (CH$_2$–Bn, s); 61.6 (N–CH$_2$–C$_6$H$_4$, 3s); 130.9, 131.4, 132.8, 137.8 (aryl C, 4×s). MS($^+$): 219.9 [M + H]$^+$, Elemental analysis: found (calcld for C$_{15}$H$_{22}$N$_2$·2HCl·H$_2$O) C 51.1 (50.3); H 8.4 (8.1); N 13.4 (13.5).

4.3. Synthesis of Bis(t-buty1)-7-benzyl-1,4,7-triazacyclononane-1,4-diacetate (3)

Protected macrole 2 (3.0 g, 9.7 mmol) was dissolved in mixture of dry acetonitrile (100 ml) and K$_2$CO$_3$ (5.17 g, 38.8 mmol). A solution of t-buty1 bromoacetate (3.96 g, 20.4 mmol) in dry acetonitrile (150 ml) was slowly added. The reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 3 days, then filtered and evaporated. The product was purified by column chromatography (silica gel, EtoH–25% aq. ammonia (20:1)). Fractions containing product were combined and evaporated to yield product 3 (4.2 g, 91%) in the form of yellowish viscous oil. NMR (CDCl$_3$): $^1$H $\delta$ = 1.40 [C(CH$_3$)$_3$, 18H, s]; 2.73, 3.10, 3.50, 3.70 (N–CH$_2$–CH$_2$–N, 6H + 2H + 2H + 2H; 4 × bm); 3.28 (N–CH$_2$–CO$_2$, 4H, s); 4.49...
(N–CH2–C(CH3)2, 2H, s); 7.34 + 7.66 (aryl H, 3H + 2H, 2 × m); 13C{1H} δ = 30.3 [C(CH3)2, 8]; 51.9 + 53.7 + 55.1 (ring C, 3 × s); 60.3 (N–CH2–CO2, s); 61.6 (N–CH2–C, s); 83.9 [C(CH3)2, s]; 131.3, 131.7, 133.0 (aryl C, 3 × s); 172.8 (CO2, 2C, s). MS(+) = 448.1 [M + H]+.

4.4. Bis(t-butyl) 1,4,7-triazacyclononane-1,4-diacetate (4)

Compound 3 (2.1 g, 4.7 mmol) was dissolved in dry ethanol (175 ml). Pd/C catalyst (400 mg) was added and the reaction mixture was stirred overnight at 50 °C under hydrogen atmosphere (pressure). Suspension was filtered and the filtrate evaporated to dryness. The crude product was purified by column chromatography (silica gel, EtOH–25% aq. ammonia 10:1 to elute impurities and 3:2 to elute product). The product-containing fractions were combined, evaporated and the residue was co-distilled three times with ethanol to remove traces of ammonia to yield colorless viscous oil that solidified after cooling to room temperature (1.41 g, 84%). NMR (CDCl3): 1H δ = 1.41 [C(CH3)2, 18H, s]; 2.81 (N(ac)–CH2–CH2–N(ac), 4H, s); 3.08 (N(ac)–CH2–CH2–NH, 4H, bm); 3.23 (N(ac)–CH2–CH2–NH, 4H, bm); 3.39 (N–CH2–CO2, 4H, s); 13C{1H} δ = 20.1 [C(CH3)2, 44]; 45.5 [N(ac)–CH2–CH2–NH, s]; 49.0 [N(ac)–CH2–CH2–NH, s]; 51.7 [N(ac)–CH2–CH2–N(ac), s]; 56.7 (N–CH2–CO2, s); 81.9 [C(CH3)2, s]; 170.7 (CO2, s). MS(+) = 3580 [M + H]+.

4.5. NOTAMβp in Ester Form (6)

Ester 4 (1.30 g, 3.6 mmol) was dissolved in dry acetonitrile (75 ml) and annealed K2CO3 (2.60 g). Then, a solution of chloroacetamide 5 (2.07 g, 5.4 mmol) in acetonitrile (75 ml) was added. The reaction mixture was stirred at 50 °C for 3 days. Solids were filtered off, filtrate was evaporated and the crude product was purified by column chromatography (silica gel, EtOH to elute impurities, EtOH–25% aq. NH3 50:1 to elute product). Pure product was obtained as yellowish viscous oil (2.40 g, 72%). NMR (CDCl3): 1H δ = 1.28 (P–OCH3, 12H, t, 3JHH 7.2 Hz); 1.39 [C(CH3)2, 18H, s]; 2.71 [N(ac)–CH2–CH2–N(ac), 4H, bm]; 2.84 [N(ac)–CH2–CH2–N(ac), 8H, s]; 2.93 (N2CHONH, 2H, s); 3.35 (N(CH3)2, 4H, s); 4.18 (P–OCH3, 12H, t, 3JHH 7.2 Hz); 3.56 (N–CH2–CO2, 4H, s); 4.18 (P–OCH3, 12H, t, 3JHH 7.2 Hz); 57.9 (N–CH2–CO2, s); 173.3 (C=O, s); 58.0, 59.2, 60.6 (N–CH2–C–N, ring C, 3 × s); 62.1 (N–CH2–CO2, s); 64.1 (N1CH3P, d, 3JPC 95.1 Hz); 67.0 (P–OCH3, 12H, s); 85.1 [C(CH3)2, s]; 174.9 (CO2, s); 31P{1H} δ = 22.7 (P–OCH3, 2P, d, 3JPP 20.8 Hz); 49.2 (P–OCH3, 1P, t, 3Jpp 20.8 Hz). MS(+) = 764.4 [M + H]+.

4.6. NOTAMβp

Ester 6 (2.1 g, 3.0 mmol) was dissolved in the mixture of CHCl3 (50 ml) and CF3CO2H (50 ml) and stirred in the dark at room temperature overnight. Volatiles were evaporated under vacuum and the residue was repeatedly dissolved in CH2Cl2 and evaporated. The resulting oil was dissolved in dry acetonitrile (100 ml) and BrSiMe3 (9.8 ml, 60.0 mmol) was added. The mixture was stirred in dark at room temperature overnight. Volatiles were evaporated and the residue was re-dissolved in acetonitrile and evaporated, and then dissolved in 50% aq. MeOH and evaporated. Crude product was purified using strong cation exchanger (Dowex 50, H+ form). Impurities were eluted with H2O, product with 10% aq. pyridine. Pyridine was then removed using strong anion exchanger (Dowex 1, OH− form). Impurities were eluted with H2O and EtOH 1:1 mixture, product with H2O and HCl mixture 1:1. The product-containing fractions were combined and evaporated. The resulting solid was dissolved in H2O (10 ml) and EtOH (100 ml) was added to induce crystallization. Crystallization was finished on standing in the refrigerator overnight. Product was filtered off and dried under vacuum to yield white powder (0.66 g, 41%). NMR (D2O, pD 2.9): 1H δ = 2.26 (P(CH2)2CHP, 2H, m); 2.46 (P(CH2)2CHP, 1H, m); 3.42 [N(ac)–CH2–CH2–N(ac), 4H, s]; 3.50 (N(ac)–CH2–CH2–N(ac), 4H, s); 3.56 [N(ac)–CH2–CH2–N(ac), 4H, s]; 3.79 (N=CH2, 2H, s); 3.88 (N=CH2–CO2, 4H, s); 13C{1H} δ = 28.2 (P(CH2)2CHP, d, 3JPC 93.5 Hz); 34.2 (P(CH2)2CHP, d, 3JPC 117.7 Hz); 50.6 [N(ac)–CH2–CH2–N(ac), s]; 51.7 [N(ac)–CH2–CH2–N(ac), s]; 52.5 [N(ac)–CH2–CH2–N(ac), s]; 56.7 (N=CH2, d, 3JPC 90.6 Hz); 58.0 (N–CH2–CO2, s); 173.3 (CO2, s); 31P{1H} δ = 18.9 (P(CH2)2CHP, 2P, d, 3Jpp 24.6 Hz); 33.1 (P(CH2)2CHP, 1P, t, 3Jpp 24.6 Hz). MS(−) = 509.8 [M − H]+. Elemental analysis: found (calc for C31H42N4P2O11 · 0.6 HCl) C 29.4 (29.3); H 5.4 (5.4); N 7.3 (7.9).
4.9. Stock Solutions of FeIII Complexes

Ligand (100 μmol) was dissolved in aq. FeCl3 solution (90 μmol, 0.9 ml of 0.1 M solution), pH was slowly adjusted to 7 with 0.5 M aq. NaOH (precipitates may appear in this stage) and the solution was stirred at 80 °C for 1 h. Finally, water was added to reach final volume of 10.0 ml.

4.10. Adsorption Experiments

Hydroxyapatite (50 mg; Fluka, catalog no. 55496, 63 m² g⁻¹) was suspended in 1 M Tris–HCl buffer (0.30 ml; pH 7.5). Then, stock solution of FeIII complex (10 mM, 0.06 to 0.60 ml) was added and the samples were diluted with water to obtain a final volume of 3.0 ml. The samples were stirred at 25 °C for 3 days. After filtration, concentration of the complex in the supernatant was quantified by UV–vis spectroscopy. Experimental data obtained at 250, 275 and 300 nm were treated by least-square fitting.

4.11. 31P{1H} And 71Ga NMR Complexation Studies

Solid NOTAMBP (25 mg, 51 μmol) was dissolved in 338 μl of 1 M aq. sodium chloroacetate buffer (experiments at pH 2 and pH 3) or 1 M aq. sodium acetate buffer (experiments at pH 4 and 5) and an equivalent amount of GaIII ion (62 μl of 0.812 M solution) was added. For NO2APBP, the amounts were 25 mg of the solid ligand, 343 μl of buffer and 57 μl of 0.812 M GaIII solutions. Samples were shaken and quickly transferred into a standard 5 mm NMR tube, and measured immediately (overall dead time was ~5 min) or left in an oil bath at the appropriate temperature for the given amount of time. Then, they were quickly cooled down to room temperature, the NMR spectrum was measured at 25 °C and heating was resumed again if necessary. Quantification was performed against 31P or 71Ga NMR standard in the insert tube. The times given in the text are those which the samples had spent at the given temperature.

4.12. Radiolabeling Studies

Gallium-68 (150–350 MBq) was obtained from a 68Ge/68Ga generator system (Eckert&Ziegler AG, Berlin). For in vivo experiments, 68Ga labeling was performed in aq. HEPES buffer solution (pH 4, 0.125 M, 400 μl) by adding 68Ga solution (400 μl) obtained by post-processing of the generator eluate via cation exchange method (52); the final pH of the solution was 3.75. Then, ligand (17 nmol, as stock solution with a concentration of 1 mg ml⁻¹) was added and the solution was shaken in a heating block for 10 min at 95 °C. After cooling, pH was adjusted to 7 by adding small amounts of 1 M aq. NaOH solution. Radiochemo yields of 68Ga-complexes of the title ligands were 95–99%. For labeling studies under various pH conditions, labeling was carried out in deionized water (pure for pH = 2) or by adding smaller amounts of buffer solution (i.e. decreasing buffer capacity of the final solution) to obtain the appropriate final pH. Radiocomplex yields were determined by silica TLC (Merck) using a solvent mixture consisting of 2 parts of A (conc. aq. HCl–acetone–water, 100 μl:1 ml:1 ml) and 1 part of B (pure acetylacetone). The activity was measured on a Canberra Packard Instant Imager. Free 68Ga migrates as an acetylacetone complex with solvent front. In-cage complexes stay on the baseline (68Ga-phosphonates: Rf = 0.0–0.1; 68Ga-acac: Rf = 0.8–0.9; for details, see Supporting Information).

Radiochemical yields were also determined by radio-HPLC (Merck-Hitachi-LaChrom, Gabi-Raytest) using a LiChrosphere C18 (HS-Chromatographie, Germany) column. The reaction solution (10 μl) was added to 50 μl of deferoxamine (DFO) solution (0.1 mg ml⁻¹) in 0.1 M NaAc buffer (pH 4.0). 68Ga-labeled bis(phosphonates) showed a weak retention, while 68Ga-DFO showed a retention time of 10 min (Figs S11–S13 in the Supporting Information). 68GaNOTA and 68GaDOTA complexes were synthesized using the method described above with 10 μg of each chelator. 68GaDO3APBP was labeled with 68Ga with a different method. DO3APBP was dissolved in deionized water with a concentration of 1 mg ml⁻¹. This solution (17 μl, that is, 17 μg DO3APBP) was added to a 0.25 M ammonium acetate buffer (500 μl, pH 5). Post-processed 68Ga solution (400 μl) was added and the mixture was shaken in a heating block for 20 min. Labeling at lower pHs was carried out by using less concentrated buffer solutions. Labeling at pH 1–2 was done using deionized water as the reaction solvent.

4.13. Evaluation of Hydrolysis During Radiolabeling

Radiolabeling was done as described above (95 °C, pH 4.5, 15 min) and the solution was analyzed by HPLC with Merck–Hitachi Lachrom equipment, Raytest Gabi radiodetector and Nucleosil 100-5 NH2 phase in a 125 × 4.6 mm column. Elution: 0–30 min, 100% 0.1 M aq. NaH2PO4 (pH 4.5); 31–60 min, 100% 0.1 M aq. Na-citrate (pH 4.5); and 60–65 min, 100% 0.1 M aq. NaH2PO4 (pH 4.5).


HAP (20 mg, Sigma-Aldrich, reagent grade powder) was incubated in isotonic saline (1 ml) for 24 h. The test was performed by addition of 50 μl of 68Ga-bis(phosphonates) solution (prepared as given above) to the HAP suspension. After vortexing for 10 s, the suspension was incubated for 10 min at room temperature. The samples were centrifuged and the supernatant was removed. The HAP fraction was washed with isotonic saline (0.5 ml), 68Ga radioactivity in the combined liquids and that of the HAP fraction were measured in a curiemeter (Aktivimeter Isomed 2010, MED Nuklear-Medizintechnik Dresden GmbH).

68Ga-complex binding to HAP was determined as percent of 68Ga absorbed to HAP (53).

4.15. Animals, Feeding, Husbandry, and Animal Preparation

Experiments were conducted according to institutional guidelines and German animal welfare regulations. The experimental procedure used conforms to European Convention for the Protection of Vertebrate Animals used for Experimental and other Scientific Purposes (ETS no. 123) and to the Deutsches Tierschutzgesetz. Male Wistar rats (Charles River Laboratories International Inc.) weighing 130 ± 15 g (mean ± SD, n = 10) for ex vivo organ distribution, 536 and 346 g for microPET-imaging (n = 2), were anesthetized with isoflurane. Animals were put in a supine position and placed under an infrared lamp to maintain body temperature.

4.16. Biodistribution Studies

Biodistribution studies were performed in male Wistar rats (120–140 g). Each study group contained five rats. The rats were injected intravenously, each with 68Ga-labeled compound in
saline (0.5 ml); for [68Ga]NO3APBP, 13.5 ± 5.8 MBq, body weight 142 ± 3 g; for [68Ga]NOTAMAP, 10.5 ± 1.9 MBq, body weight 128 ± 7 g. Animals were sacrificed at 60 min after injection. Organs and tissues of interest were excised rapidly and weighed, and radioactivity was determined using a Wallac WIZARD2 automatic gamma counter (Perkin Elmer, Germany). Activity of the tissue samples was decay- and background-corrected.

4.17. Small Animal MicroPET

In vivo small animal microPET imaging of male Wistar rats (350–540 g) was carried out under general anesthesia of the rats that was induced with inhalation of 10% and maintained with inhalation of 6.5% isoflurane in 30% oxygen/air. Rats were positioned supine in the scanner (Siemens microPET Focus 120). In the microPET experiments, [68Ga]NO2APBP (32 MBq for the first animal, 536 g and 31 MBq for the second animal, 346 g in isotonic saline, 0.5 ml) was administered intravenously using a needle catheter into the tail vein. No correction for partial volume effects was applied. Image volume data were converted to Siemens ECAT7 format for further processing. Image files were then processed using a Pmod software (PMod Technologies Ltd).

4.18. Statistical Analysis

All data were expressed as mean ± SD. Groups were compared using t-test. All statistical tests were two-tailed, with a p-value of <0.05 representing significance, except for comparison of [68Ga]NO2APBP and [68Ga]EDTMP in HAP-binding experiment, which showed a P-value of 0.052. No differences were observed for [68Ga]NO2APBP and [68Ga]DO3APBP in HAP-binding experiment (p>0.7); for the values, see the Supporting Information (Table S1).

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REFERENCES


Supporting information

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher’s web site.