



# Chemical biology approaches targeting the actin cytoskeleton through phenotypic screening

Nicole S Bryce, Edna C Hardeman, Peter W Gunning and John G Lock

The actin cytoskeleton is dysregulated in cancer, yet this critical cellular machinery has not translated as a druggable clinical target due to cardio-toxic side-effects. Many actin regulators are also considered undruggable, being structural proteins lacking clear functional sites suitable for targeted drug design. In this review, we discuss opportunities and challenges associated with drugging the actin cytoskeleton through its structural regulators, taking tropomyosins as a target example. In particular, we highlight emerging data acquisition and analysis trends driving phenotypic, imaging-based compound screening. Finally, we consider how the confluence of these trends is now bringing functionally integral machineries such as the actin cytoskeleton, and associated structural regulatory proteins, into an expanded repertoire of druggable targets with previously unexploited clinical potential.

## Address

School of Medical Sciences, UNSW Sydney, NSW 2052, Australia

Corresponding author: Gunning, Peter W ([p.gunning@unsw.edu.au](mailto:p.gunning@unsw.edu.au))

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## Introduction

Cytoskeletal deregulation is central to the progression of cancer, with altered behaviors well established in both microtubule and actin systems. Microtubule targeting drugs, such as vincristine and paclitaxel, have long been central to the clinical standard-of-care [1]. In striking contrast, despite its similarly pivotal role, no actin-targeting compounds are currently used in clinical settings. Several well-known compounds directly targeting actin have long been in research use, including phalloidin (1938) [2], cytochalasin D (1969) [3] and latrunculin A (1983) [4]. Failure of clinical translation reflects the fact that these compounds are highly toxic as they do not distinguish between different actin isoforms and,

therefore, impact both the heart and diaphragm [5]. Screening of compounds derived from marine organisms, fungi and myxobacteria have identified new compounds that also directly target actin [6–9], yet these too cause cardio-toxicity such that they are incompatible with clinical applications. For these reasons, the therapeutic potential of drug-based actin cytoskeleton-targeting remains untapped.

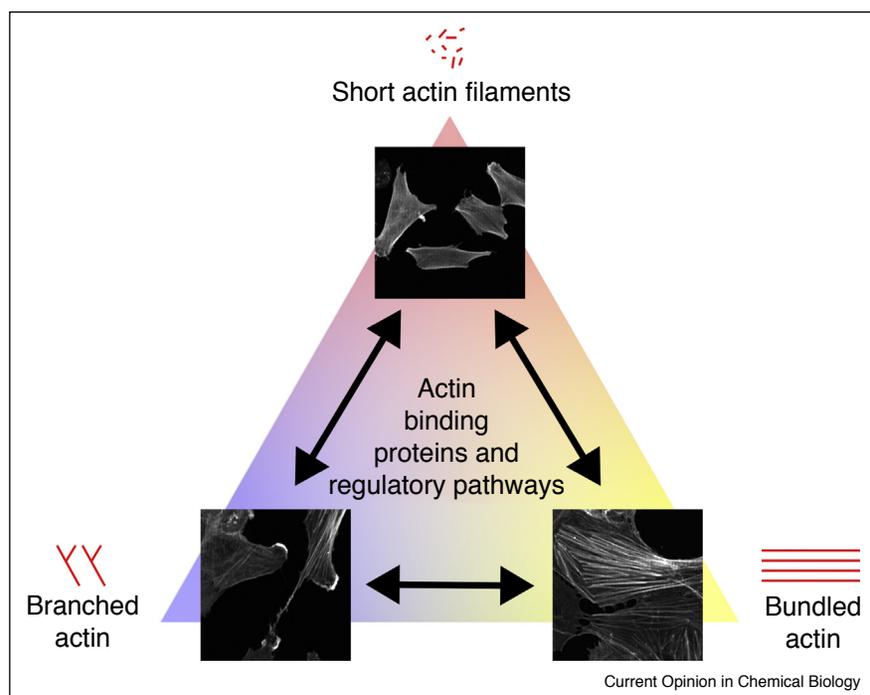
## Modulating the actin cytoskeleton through targeting of actin-regulatory networks

Actin-binding and regulatory protein networks provide many opportunities to modulate the actin cytoskeleton, whilst also offering the potential to bypass lethal cardiac toxicity [10]. This is because the tissue-specific, temporal, disease-induced and intracellularly distinct localizations of such regulatory mechanisms may allow for more selective targeting of actin-specific cellular processes (Figure 1). Indeed, the molecular diversity of actin-regulation suggests the existence of numerous ‘control points’ through which this system may be subtly modulated [11,12]. Only a few are as yet targeted by known compounds.

## Beyond enzymes; opportunities and challenges in targeting structural proteins

Potentially druggable actin-regulating proteins can be divided into two broad classes for which drug development strategies differ significantly (Table 1). Enzymatic proteins such as kinases have well-defined substrates and catalytic domains that guide schemas for the design of compound libraries enriched in anti-kinase activity (reviewed in Refs. [13,14]). Compound efficacy is then readily assessed by narrowly focused measurement of kinase activity, often in high-throughput formats [15]. In contrast to enzymatic targets, structural proteins and complexes such as tropomyosins and Arp2/3 constitute a largely unexploited cohort of potential drug targets, in part because they present additional challenges for drug-discovery. Firstly, they lack unified active sites to be targeted, meaning that new protein structures are often required to enable functional domain mapping and binding pocket identification as precursors to rational drug-design. In the absence of such structural insights, an alternative to targeted drug-design lies in the use of large and diverse compound libraries for unbiased drug-discovery. Here, a second challenge emerges, since readouts of compound activity require assays attuned to functional

Figure 1



The organizational states of actin filaments are regulated via the complex interactions of actin binding proteins and regulatory pathways. Examples of the types of actin filaments that can be generated within a cell are shown in the phalloidin stained images of SK-N-SH neuroblastoma cells that have been treated with compounds that induce each of the 3 different types of actin filaments (branched, short and bundled). Multiple actin filament organizational states can be present within the one cell and this is dependent on the subcellular concentration gradients of individual actin binding proteins and regulatory pathways within the cell (represented by the color gradient). The diversity of actin filament organization seen within cells requires a multi-parametrical approach to image analysis for the quantification of filamentous actin structures.

effects, which in the case of structural proteins may be diverse as well as variable in magnitude [16]. A broad array of measurements is, therefore, beneficial in order to effectively assess and compare compound activity toward structural protein targets. These challenges are here

illustrated in the context of drug development targeting tropomyosins, which, as structural proteins regulating F-actin, exemplify the ‘expansion of the druggable’ to both the actin-cytoskeleton as a biological system, and structural proteins as an incipient class of protein target.

Table 1

#### Inhibitors of selected enzymes and structural proteins that have an impact on cytoskeletal organization

|            |  |   |
|------------|--|---|
| Enzyme     | Rho Kinase (ROCK)<br>LIM Kinase (LIMK)<br>PI3 Kinase (PI3K)<br>Myosin Light Chain Kinase (MLCK)<br>Myosin Light Chain Phosphatase (MLCP) | Multiple inhibitors (>170) reviewed in Ref. [49]<br>Multiple inhibitors (>11 classes) reviewed in Ref. [50]<br>Multiple inhibitors in clinical use, reviewed in Ref. [51]<br>ML-7, ML9 [52]<br>5-Dimethylamino-naphthalene-1-sulfonic acid 4-(2-guanidino-thiazol-4-yl)-phenyl ester [53]<br>Multiple inhibitors, reviewed in Ref. [54] |
|            | Focal adhesion kinase (FAK)<br>Abl kinase (and BcrAbl fusion protein)  | Multiple inhibitors in clinical use, reviewed in Ref. [55]  |
| Structural | Arp2/3<br>Tropomyosin 3.1<br>Talin<br>Cofilin<br>Formins<br>Paxillin<br>Fascin<br>N-Wasp   | CK-666, CK-636, CK-548 [16]<br>TR100, ATM1001, ATM3507 [20,21,22]<br>Indothiazinone [56]<br>Cucurbitacin E [57]<br>SMIFH2 [58]<br>6-B345TTQ [59]<br>Migrastatin [60]<br>Wiskostatin [61]  |

### Tropomyosins; structural protein targets for selective modulation of the actin cytoskeleton

The majority of actin filaments are not naked, but are in fact coated with tropomyosins (Tpm) which play decisive roles in the elaboration of virtually all actin filament structures [17]. Forming a family of >40 isoforms from 4 genes, these structural proteins are highly regulated during development, displaying distinct spatial and temporal distributions within tissues [18]. Notably, the tropomyosin isoform Tpm3.1 is highly and specifically upregulated in all cancer cell lines tested to-date, thereby constituting a potentially selective target for actin-oriented cancer therapy [17,19,20]. Indeed, Tpm3.1-targeting has the potential to circumvent problems of cardiac (and other muscle) toxicity that have previously precluded actin cytoskeleton-directed therapies from progressing to the clinic.

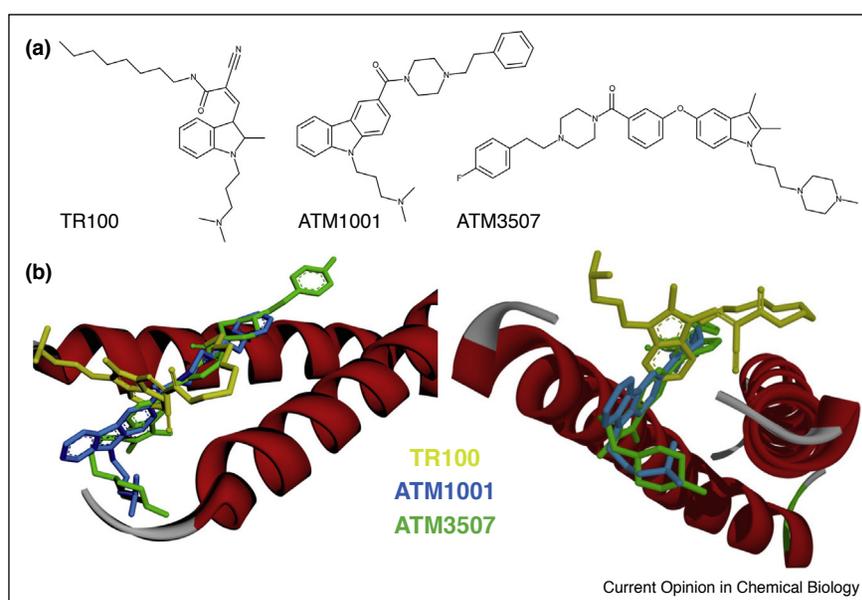
Tropomyosins are coiled-coiled proteins that dimerize during actin binding. Accordingly, efforts toward targeted drug-design have focused on regions of overlap at N-terminal and C-terminal, where substantial inter-isoform diversity permits selective targeting strategies. To date, three compounds have been identified with selective anti-Tpm3.1 activity: TR100 [20]; ATM1001 [21], and; ATM3507 [22\*] (Figure 2a). Significantly, these compounds are structurally distinct and have different amino acid interactions within the binding pocket, highlighting how – particularly in the context of targeting structural proteins – diverse molecular scaffolds can produce similar biological outcomes (Figure 2b).

Notably, these three compounds were discovered via molecular modelling of the C-terminal protein structure only, coupled with similarly localized binding pocket analysis. As a consequence, the druggable potential of the remaining ~90% of the tropomyosin structure remains unexplored.

### Targeting isoforms using drug design

Many of the proteins which collaborate with actin to generate functional diversity are members of multi-gene/multi-isoform families and disease specific isoforms have been identified [10]. The ability to target the cancer-associated tropomyosin Tpm3.1 but avoid the muscle tropomyosins highlights the opportunity to target specific protein isoforms [20,21,22\*]. A considerable research effort has been directed at targeting the actin isoforms found in cancer cells but the absence of isoform-specific binding pockets and the conservative nature of amino acid substitutions between isoforms have likely contributed to the failure to produce actin isoform-specific drugs [10,23]. In contrast, the Arp2/3 complex appears ideally suited to this approach where substantial variation exists in the ARPC isoforms [24–27]. Furthermore, the existence of a crystal structure of the inhibitor CK666 bound to the Arp2/3 complex is a potential starting point for designing isoform-specific drugs [16]. However, reliance on drug design results in a focus on the more obvious binding pockets and ignores the remainder of the molecule. In order to more fully exploit the extensive structural and chemical space that is beyond the scope of molecular modelling, drug-discovery across the whole

Figure 2



Anti-tropomyosin 3.1 inhibitors. (a) The chemical structures of TR100, ATM1001, and ATM3507. (b) An overlay of the predicted interaction of the 3 anti-Tpm3.1 compounds with the C-terminus (9d exon) of Tpm3.1.

structure demands the application of alternative strategies.

### Drug-discovery targeting structural proteins through phenotypic screening

Targeting of structural proteins requires exploration of a large and diverse chemical space in order to identify compounds with optimal therapeutic properties, including specificity, potency, bio-availability, and kinetics. In many cases, where a lack of structural data precludes rational drug-design, drug-discovery based on screening of large compound libraries provides a credible alternative strategy. In particular, ‘phenotypic’ screening based on imaging (as opposed to alternative methods of rich cellular data acquisition) [28] enables the measurement of a diversity of effects on subcellular systems and overall cell morphology. Such phenotypic measurements are achieved through computational image analysis enabling extraction of multivariate feature sets quantitatively characterizing classical morphometric features of object (i.e. cell and/or intracellular structure) number, size, shape, intensity, and texture [29], or more abstract features selected through the application of machine-learning approaches (JC Caicedo *et al.*, bioRxiv doi:<https://doi.org/10.1101/335216>). This facilitates large-scale measurement and comparison of compound effects on complex cellular architectures. For example, in the context of actin-targeting drug-discovery, we have established an imaging-based actin phenotyping workflow that integrates a customized filament detection algorithm with numerous measures of cell and nuclear morphology [30]. This generates multivariate datasets with the capacity to detect and distinguish various subtle effects on actin organization resulting from tens of thousands of chemical perturbations (Figure 3). By quantitatively parsing diverse drug effects, such phenotypic screening allows the identification of compounds impacting particular biological processes [31]. Moreover, compounds with known mechanism-of-action (MOA) can be leveraged, much like landmarks, to predict unknown compound MOA based on similarities in compound-induced phenotypes [32–34]. Objective detection of such similarities is typically automated via quantitative co-clustering and/or statistical distance metric analysis [35,36].

### Extension and enhancement of phenotypic screens

Phenotypic screening can produce a wealth of information, yet each screen constitutes a major investment in time and resources [37]. As such, methods to maximize and even extend the utility of screening data are highly desirable. For instance, no matter their scale, a given drug-discovery screen can contain only a limited number of positive controls, that is, compounds with known MOA. With such positive controls enabling accelerated MOA prediction toward unknown compounds (by virtue of phenotypic similarity), the number of positive controls

in a screen is roughly proportional to its overall capacity for both mechanism prediction and lead-compound discovery. One exciting method to overcome this limitation has been demonstrated by showing that phenotypic clustering of known and unknown compounds in a ‘generic’ imaging-based assay can provide significant predictive capacity – mediated by machine-learning – toward the MOA of the unknown compounds when assessed in a range of separate mechanistic assays [38].

Another strategy by which to extend and accelerate understanding of unknown compound MOA is to combine chemical screening with analyses of genetic variation, thereby highlighting specific molecular components associated with chemically induced phenotypes. Analogous to chemical genetic studies of growth responses in bacteria and yeast strains with known genetic mutational backgrounds [39,40], this approach has recently been applied through comparison of phenotypic responses in various cell lines with distinct genetic backgrounds [41,42]. A more direct route to this end is also emerging, whereby chemically and genetically (RNAi/CRISPR) induced phenotypes are either compared between datasets [43] or directly parallelized within a single phenotypic screen [32].

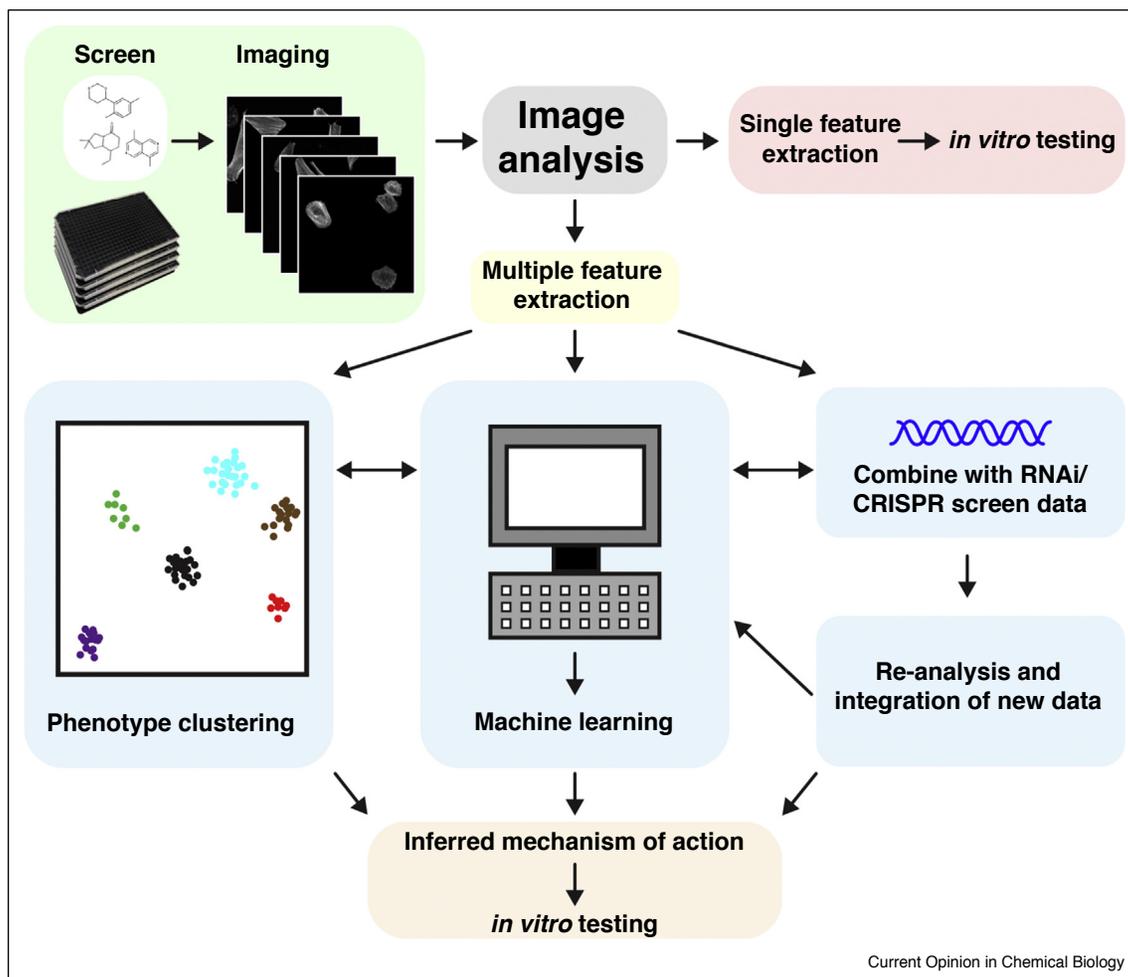
To maximize screen sensitivity and capacity to discern complex phenotypes, increasing the number of molecular or cell-state markers accessed during imaging is hugely valuable, since this is the basis for all phenotypic insights and mechanistic inference. Increasing the marker numbers has been achieved through optical multiplexing (of up to six markers) [44], and also by synthetic multiplexing strategies linking data containing recurrent ‘core’ markers – used to define phenotypic states – with additional markers that extend the scope of biological insights [45].

Collectively, these approaches, along with efforts to share [46], annotate [47] and uniformly describe [48] phenotypic screening data, have great potential to amplify the value of such data through its integration and re-use in both drug-discovery and fundamental biological research.

### Expanding the druggable; rethinking the proteins and systems amenable to clinical targeting

The emergence, efficacy, and increasing accessibility of phenotypic compound screening methods now enables a new generation of drug discovery efforts targeting structural proteins with selective effects beyond the reach of existing enzymatic targets. The large chemical compound space associated with structural proteins now becomes part of a greatly expanded druggable landscape, and this is true even where *a priori* protein-structure knowledge of potential targets remains lacking. Importantly, the diversity of effects resulting from structural protein modulation provides opportunities for subtle ‘tuning’ of cellular properties, as opposed to dramatic disruption of more

Figure 3



Alternate analysis pathways of multivariate data allow datasets to be interrogated in different ways to obtain maximal phenotypic data in comparison to the analysis of a single feature.

binary biological processes. This may enable combinatorial therapies with synergistic effects to be devised, maximizing clinical impact whilst minimizing side-effects. Given these exciting advances, practitioners of drug development may consider anew which cellular systems are in fact amenable to clinical intervention. Thus, phenotypic screening approaches are beginning to expand the druggable landscape to new classes of protein, and also to new biological target systems.

### Practicalities of phenotypic screening the actin cytoskeleton

The attraction of phenotypic screening of the actin cytoskeleton needs to be balanced by the practicalities which must be confronted in such an approach as follows:

1 Cells used for such a screen must have a highly conserved actin organization between individual cells. For

- example, the neuroblastoma SK-N-SH cells consistently display a well-organized cytoskeleton composed of actin filament bundles as shown in [Figure 1](#). Too much variation gives rise to a weak signal to noise signal when the cytoskeleton is impacted by drug exposure.
- 2 Staining and visualization of the actin cytoskeleton need to withstand robotic manipulation. Procedures need to be optimized for robotic liquid handling and not human manipulation that is much milder and less prone to mechanical disruption of the cells.
  - 3 To ensure that multiple different actin phenotypes are detected, the imaging approach to phenotype should include measurement of multiple parameters that include intensity and organization of filaments, cell size and shape and cytoplasmic clustering of actin into clusters. Examples of the variety of actin phenotypes that can occur are shown in [Figure 1](#). We have used both a program designed to measure specific features of actin organization [30] and Columbus software (Perkin

Elmer) which measures more general morphological properties of the cells.

- 4 Any cytoskeleton drug screen should avoid impacts on contractile cells such as cardiac and skeletal muscle cells. Unlike non-muscle cells, the cytoplasm of cardiac cells is filled with highly specialized actomyosin contractile units. A simple approach to identify compounds that have cardiac sensitivity is to test any 'hits' for impact on cultured cardiomyocytes [20]. In contrast, cancer cells show a range of architectural phenotypes ranging from well-organized bundles of filaments as seen with SK-N-SH neuroblastoma (Figure 1) to diffuse organization with little evidence of filament bundles [17].

### Chemical biology of the actin cytoskeleton

At the vanguard of these changes are drug development efforts focusing on the actin cytoskeleton as a target for cancer therapy. Importantly, these efforts now also feed back to support our understanding of the actin cytoskeleton as an integrated biological system. Historically, conventional molecular reductionist approaches relying on piecewise genetic manipulation of known actin filament regulators have served to establish relatively binary principles of actin filament biochemistry. Yet these isolated mechanisms have not combined to illuminate a coherent view of the actin system in its totality. Now, phenotypic screening of diverse chemical libraries allows for unbiased system-wide perturbations that reveal subtle, interdependent and non-linear regulatory relationships within networks of known and previously unknown regulatory actors. As a consequence, perceived edges of the actin regulatory system are blurring, and we begin to elicit more integrated models of actin system regulation and function as a whole. In future, such a chemical biology analyses of the actin cytoskeleton promise to take us beyond our fragmented view of isolated, binary mechanisms to a more comprehensive, coherent, and quantitative understanding of this fundamental cellular system.

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### Conflict of interest statement

PWG and ECH are Directors of TroBio Therapeutics, a company that is commercializing anti-tropomyosin drugs for the treatment of cancer and their labs receive funding from TroBio Therapeutics to evaluate anti-tropomyosin drug candidates.

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