A comprehensive pharmacological survey across heterogeneous patient-derived GBM stem cell
models.

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Abstract

Despite substantial drug discovery investments, the lack of any significant therapeutic advancement
in the treatment of glioblastoma (GBM) over the past two decades calls for more innovation in the
identification of effective treatments. The inter- and intra-patient heterogeneity of GBM presents
significant obstacles to effective clinical progression of novel treatments by contributing to tumour
plasticity and rapid drug resistance that confounds contemporary target directed drug discovery
strategies. Phenotypic drug screening is ideally suited to heterogeneous diseases, where targeting
specific oncogenic drivers have been broadly ineffective. Our hypothesis is that a modern phenotypic
led approach using disease relevant patient derived GBM stem cell systems will be the most
productive approach to identifying new therapeutic targets, drug classes and future drug
combinations that target the heterogeneity of GBM. In this study we incorporate a panel of patient
derived GBM stem cell lines into an automated and unbiased 'Cell Painting' assay to quantify multiple
GBM stem cell phenotypes. By screening several compound libraries at multiple concentrations across
a panel of patient-derived GBM stem cells we provide the first comprehensive survey of distinct
pharmacological classes and known druggable targets, including all clinically approved drug classes
and oncology drug candidates upon multiple GBM stem cell phenotypes linked to cell proliferation,
survival and differentiation. Our data set representing, 3866 compounds, 2.2million images and 64000
datapoints is the largest phenotypic screen carried out to date on a panel of patient-derived GBM
stem cell models that we are aware off. We seek to identify agents and targets classes which engender
potent activity across heterogenous GBM genotypes and phenotypes, in this study we further
characterize two validated target classes, histone deacetylase inhibitors and cyclin dependent kinases
that exert broad and potent effects on the phenotypic and transcriptomic profiles of GBM stem cells.
Here we present all validated hit compounds and their target assignments for the GBM community to
explore.

Introduction

Glioblastoma (GBM), a Grade IV astrocytoma, is a highly complex disease that remains difficult to treat. Mortality rates in the UK have increased over the last 30 years, especially in the over 60 age group, as incidence rates outpace survival improvements [1] . GBM is therefore the most common and aggressive primary malignant tumour of the brain and represents an urgent area of unmet medical need. Since the introduction of post-surgical, concomitant radiotherapy and adjuvant temozolomide in 2005 (the 'Stupp protocol'), which increased median overall survival by ~3 months[2], a lack of effective, novel treatments for GBM have been introduced into broad clinical use and 5 year survival rates from time of diagnosis remain at less than 5%[3]. Clinical and scientific research over the last 20 years has revealed a complex landscape of remarkable intra- and inter-tumoral heterogeneity associated with the highly dynamic nature of GBM molecular biology [4, 5{Verhaak, 2010 #312{Brennan, 2013 #313]. The complex biology driving the disease is further exacerbated by the addition of GBM stem cells (GSC), driving self-renewal and resistance mechanisms[6-11]. The self-renewing capacity of GSCs is an inherent feature of GBM to which the tumour microenvironment, or the GBM stem cell niche, contributes by supporting adaptive signal rewiring, heterogeneous tumour evolution and therapeutic resistance[12, 13]. Phospho-proteomic studies performed on patient derived GBM model systems demonstrates rapid rewiring of pathway signalling at the post-translational pathway level following effective inhibition of some of the most compelling drug targets such as the mTOR pathway, that is hyperactivated in approximately 90% of GBM[14]. GBM plasticity and heterogeneity thus confound modern target-based drug discovery strategies contributing to drug resistance and relapse, hence the targeting of clear oncogenic drivers of GBM, such as EGFR amplification/mutation or RAS, PI3K signalling, has not translated into significant efficacy in GBM clinical management. Emerging single-cell transcriptomic[15], proteomic[16] and image-based phenotypic screening[17] technologies combined with improved patient-derived GSC models[18] provide new opportunities to understand and overcome disease heterogeneity. New hope for the development of novel therapeutic classes and drug combinations that may overcome some if this heterogeneity and support new personalized treatments strategies for GBM is provided from the recent phase 2 ROAR basket clinical trial study evaluating a combination a the BRAF targeting agent (dabrafenib) and the MEK inhibitor (trametinib) which includes a cohort of 45 high grade glioma (HGG, including GBM) patients with BRAFV600E mutation. The primary endpoint of, investigator-assessed overall response rate was 33% in the HGG cohort. Secondary endpoints of median duration of response (DoR), progression-free survival (PFS) and median overall survival (OS) in the HGG cohort was; 31.2, 5.5 and 17.6 months respectively[19]. Emerging case reports from both adult and pediatric patients also point to the benefit of treating BRAF mutation-positive glioblastoma and gliomas with the dabrafenib and trametinib combination[20-23]. However, BRAF V600E mutation can be found in approximately only 3% of GBM patients therefore, while such personalized treatments offer hope, the challenge is addressing the majority of patients which do not fall into molecular subtypes defined by a well-established druggable target or pathway or are refractory to such personalized treatments.

The drug development of imidazotetrazines, such as temozolomide, extended from chemocentric and phenotypic-led collaborative research exploring the *in vitro* and *in vivo* anti-cancer properties of small molecules, dacarbazine and mitozolomide (azolastone)[24] emphasizing the value of incorporating complex tumour biology into early stage drug design and selection. Phenotypic drug discovery (PDD), defined as the identification of hit or lead compounds prior to target identification[25], has historically contributed more than target based drug discovery (TDD), in terms of first-in-class drugs approved by the FDA since 1999[26, 27], yet TDD has dominated drug discovery approaches in oncology over the same period of time[28]. While TDD and PDD are complimentary drug discovery strategies, PDD can offer some advantages over target based methods, as it allows discovery of potential therapeutics using complex, biological models from heterogeneous, poorly understood disease states[29, 30] and can reveal novel unprecedented therapeutic classes such as the first HDAC inhibitor (vorinostat),

molecular glues (lenalidomide), spicing modulators (risdiplam)[26, 31] and novel conformation-
selective binding modes-of-action for existing targets (NXP900/eCF506)[32]. This 'target-agnostic'
approach has been greatly assisted by hardware advances in high content microscopy, the
development of advanced image analysis software tools and improved phenotypic profiling
techniques, such as Cell Painting and Artificial Intelligence/Machine Learning (AI/ML) methods that
help classify cell phenotypes and elucidate drug mechanism-of-action[33-36]. Recent advances in
multiparametric high-content imaging enables the generation of a phenotypic fingerprint for every
chemical (or genetic) perturbation to support the new discipline of 'phenotypic (or morphometric)
profiling' that quantifies functional similarities and dissimilarities between drug mechanism-of-action
(MOA) within intact cell-based assay systems[33, 37-39]. The Cell Painting assay multiplexes six
fluorescent dyes, imaged in five spectral channels to reveal eight broadly relevant cellular components
or organelles and can be combined with the development of bespoke automated image analysis
pipelines to segment individual cells and calculate thousands of morphological feature-based
measurements per cell (e.g. various measures of size, shape, texture, intensity and many others) to
produce a data-rich profile that is suitable for the detection of subtle cellular phenotypes which can
be linked to biological outcomes[40]. We describe the adaptation and optimization of Cell Painting for
profiling compound MOA and target-class across a panel of 6 genetically distinct GSC lines obtained
from the Glioma Cellular Genetics Resource (https://github.com/GCGR). Using this approach we
provide a comprehensive pharmacological audit of how specific target, pharmacological and chemical
classes influence patient-derived GBM cellular phenotypes. We present a large-scale application of
this technique using chemically diverse libraries containing FDA approved drugs, or Phase I passed
clinical candidates and selective chemical probe compounds against known oncology targets. We
identify multiple diverse pharmacological and target classes effective across our genetically distinct
panel of patient derived GSCs and present all validated screening hits and their target assignments to
the GBM research community. These results support our hypothesis that an unbiased phenotypic led
approach, using disease relevant patient derived GSC models and exploitation of deep phenotyping
and drug mechanism-of-action profiling technologies is a productive approach to identifying new
targets, drug classes and future drug combinations that address the heterogeneity of GBM.

Results

Glioblastoma Stem Cell Models

Patient derived GSCs were obtained from the Glioma Cellular Genetics Resource, and 6 GSC lines were
initially selected to cover common transcriptomic subtypes based on their RNA-Seq subtype
classification (classical (CLA), mesenchymal (MES), proneural (PRO)). GSC's were cultured on laminin-
1 coated substrates, under defined media conditions that have previously been demonstrated to
maintain their stem cell like properties[41]. Initial studies demonstrate compatibility with high content
imaging (i.e., flat and adherent morphology) and cell number was optimised for 384-well microtiter
plate formats to enable high throughput drug screening (Supplementary Figure 1A-C). Given the
generally slow growth rates of the GSCs relative to standard cancer cell line cultures, compound
exposure over 72 hrs during screening was selected to ensure at least one population doubling in all
lines. Short-tandem repeat (STR) profiling was carried out on each GSC line to create reference
sequences and all cell lines were expanded and cell stocks banked in liquid nitrogen, to facilitate
screening with consistent low passage numbers ensuring minimal biological drift across primary
screening and secondary hit validation assays. In order to begin characterising these cell lines, prior to
phenotypic screening we examined basal protein expression and post-translational pathway
activation status by Reverse Phase Protein Array (RPPA) and cytokine array in 2-dimensional (2D) and
3-dimensional (3D) cell culture conditions. Basal levels of protein and phospho-epitope abundance (in
2D and 3D culture) show functional enrichment of signalling pathways in MAPK, ErbB, VEGF, PI3K-AKT,
focal adhesion, EGFR inhibitor resistance and PD-1 checkpoint in cancer (Supplementary Figure 2). The

cytokine array profiling further demonstrates enrichment in the secretion of GBM associated
chemokine proteins involved in tumour progression, invasion, angiogenesis (IL-6, MMP-7, TIMP1,
VEGF), and tumour associated neutrophils (TANs; CCL2, IL-8/CXCL8)[42] including factors previously
shown to contribute to GSC subtype trans-differentiation (PRO to MES transition)[43]. (Supplementary
Figure 2A-D). Notably the six GSC lines representing three pairs of the common GBM transcriptomic
sub-types (CLA, MES and PRO) selected for our study do not cluster into any specific subgroups based
on basal protein expression or pathway activation status. Interestingly, high levels of the pro-
inflammatory cytokine, interleukin-8 (CXCL8, Supplementary Figure 2C, D) has recently been reported
as a druggable target in GBM (*via* humanised anti-IL8 antibody) with an anti-PD-1 combinational
blockade[44]. Overall, this pre-screening profiling indicates our proposed GSC drug screening models
are representative of typical GBM signalling networks observed in patient samples, express known
druggable pathways while capturing the expected broad heterogeneity of GBM tumours at the
molecular, protein and morphological levels in both 2D adherent and 3D cell culture.

GSC Cell Painting Assay Development

Previously, we have successfully adapted the Cell Painting protocol[33, 45] to explore drug MOA
across cancer cell line panels from diverse lineages including, breast and oesophageal
adenocarcinoma[17, 46, 47]. In the current study, we adapt the protocol to our panel of patient-
derived GSCs and incorporate live mitochondrial staining prior to fixation and staining with the
remaining Cell Painting reagents (Figure 1A, B). It is our understanding that this study describes the
first application of phenotypic profiling using the Cell Painting assay to a panel of patient-derived GSC
models. Images from each cell line were then used to build a customized CellProfiler image analysis
pipeline and confirm appropriate image segmentation and performance of high content analysis. Cell
Profiler analysis quantified up to 1006 cellular features from each GSC and principal component
analysis was carried out on median aggregated well level data using the StratoMineR HCA platform.
Nuclei Count features were also extracted to assess reproducibility of cell seeding in 384-well format
and calculate the percentage cell surviving fraction following each compound treatment including
signal-to-noise assessment between negative (0.1% (v/v) DMSO) and cytotoxic positive control
compounds (paclitaxel, staurosporine). These assay validation studies confirm assay reproducibility
and signal-to-noise in 384-well plate formats is suitable for high throughput screening based on
industry-standard recommendations[48] (Supplementary Figures 1C & Supplementary Figure 3).

Our phenotypic screening campaign performed across the panel of six GSC lines incorporated multiple
small molecule compound libraries screened against varied concentrations (ranging from 3-
10,000nM) (see methods for specific concentrations for each library & Supplementary Figure 4).
Compound libraries included the LOPAC (1280 compounds, Sigma Aldrich), Prestwick FDA (1280
compounds), TargetMol L2110 (330 compounds), Structural Genomics Consortium Kinase
Chemogenomic set (KCGS – 295 compounds) [49]) and a custom chemogenomic library set (789
compounds, 'Comprehensive anti-Cancer small Compound Library, or C^{3}L[50]) (Table 1). The C^{3}L
library was created with a focus on chemical and known oncology target diversity to functionally
evaluate known oncology targets across phenotypic screening assays. The majority of these
commercially available compounds (across all library sets) have been through phase I clinical trials. It
is our view that this approach presents the potential for discovering novel drug repurposing and drug
combination opportunities in addition to identifying new therapeutic targets not previously explored
in GBM.

Figure 1. High content phenotypic assay screening workflow on GSC panel. A. Representative image of individual Cell Painting stains (E34 cells) scale bar 20um. B. Representative images of Cell Painting across GSC panel (Hoechst (blue), Phalloidin/WGA (green), Endoplasmic reticulum (red). Scale bar 50um. C. Established high content screening, image and analysis workflow followed by subsequent hit validation and exploration.

High Content Cell Painting Screen, Analysis & Validation

Our optimised GSC high content phenotypic screening and analysis workflow is outlined (Figure 1C) and described in detail in the materials and methods section. Briefly, cell lines were seeded (500-1500

cells per well) onto laminin pre-coated 384-well plates, followed by compound addition at 24hrs using
automated liquid handling platforms. DMSO (0.1% (v/v)) was used as a negative (compound vehicle)
control (48 wells per plate minimum) with staurosporine (1uM) typically used as an assay landmark
control for cell death. After 72 hrs compound exposure, cells were subjected to live cell labelling of
mitochondria with MitoTracker, followed by fixation, permeabilization, and additional staining with
the remaining Cell Painting dyes (see Materials and Methods). Images for phenotypic analysis were
acquired using an ImageXpress Confocal high-content microscope with six fields of view (20×
objective) over five channels, collecting 11,520 images per 384 well plate. Each compound library was
screened separately across all six GCGR cells lines. In total 3,866 compounds were screened (varied
doses), ~2.2 million images collected (21 Tb) representing a dataset of >62,000 datapoints. Image
analysis was carried out *via* a custom Cell Profiler pipeline and secondary multiparametric data
analysis was performed using StratoMineR^{TM} (Core Life Analytics) [51] and TIBCO Spotfire® software
(Revvity) see methods. Principal components (PC) 1 and 2 were plotted for LOPAC, Prestwick and C^{3}L
libraries (Figure 2, panels A, C, E) to visualize distribution of active compounds from DMSO controls in
phenotypic space. A phenotypic distance metric between each compound and DMSO control was
determined using StratoMineR to calculate a normalised Euclidean distance value and then Z score
('Phenotypic Distance Z Score') to rank phenotypic activity of each compound. This phenotypic
distance value which identifies compounds having both cytotoxic and non-cytotoxic properties (e.g.
morphological changes) was plotted against cell survival (Z-score value of % surviving cells based on
nuclei count) to visualise compound effects on both cell morphology and survival (Figure 2, panels B,
D, F). Initial hit compound identification was based on two phenotypic criteria, a cell survival threshold
(Nuclei Count Z score <-1.95) and phenotypic distance threshold (Z score >1.95) capturing changes in
cell number and/or morphology following compound treatment in two or more GSC lines. Hit
compounds were triaged by removal of excessive examples of overtly cytotoxic agents (including
common anti-cancer agents which have historically been investigated across pan-cancer indications
including GBM) such as microtubule disruptors, topoisomerase poisons and proteasome inhibitors and
selected hits were taken forward for further investigation.

Final quality control checks (compound specific and direct image assessment) were carried out and
211 compounds (8.3% hit rate) with phenotypic activity were repurchased from different suppliers
from that of the original screening libraries, for validation by dose response testing. Fresh compound
stocks, were prepared in 384-well format in a seven-point semi-log dose response (3-3000nM, 40
compounds per plate). The validation protocol mirrored the primary screening assay and compound
activity (up to 3000nM) upon the primary percentage surviving fraction endpoint was confirmed
(validation rate 66%).

Figure 2. Representative data of high content analysis across 6 GSC lines and three compound libraries. A. Principal
component analysis plots (PC1 & PC2) from LOPAC library (strong phenotypes; arbitrary threshold in red), DMSO
controls (black) and weaker phenotypes/inactive compounds (yellow), data points sized by compound concentration.
B. Cell survival vs phenotypic distance (Z-scores) plots from LOPAC library screen. Significant phenotypic distance (Z
score >1.95) and cell death (Z score <-1.95) vs significant cell death (blue, Z score <-1.95) and significant phenotype
only (purple, Z score >1.95). Data points sized by -LOG10[p-value]. Corresponding plots are shown in C and D for
Prestwick FDA and E and F for the C3L libraries with matching legend.

Figure 3. Hit validation from primary screening. A. Representative heatmap of normalised Area Under the Curve (nAUC) data from dose response data (normalised nuclei counts) across 6 GSC lines and a normal neuronal stem cell control line (FT3469). Potency (low AUC) is indicated in red (relative scale by row) B. Consolidated, top ranked compounds of interest (in addition to initial validation set) with target annotation, effective dose range and selectivity is indicated. C. STRING-Cytoscape network & enrichment analysis of validated hits, by annotated target(s) search. Go Terms and Log[FDR] from enrichment analysis.

In this study, validated compound data lists were generated, including independent phenotypic
distance and cell survival assay endpoint lists (Supplementary Table 1 & 2). We have validated our hit
compounds primarily via cell survival endpoint (nuclei counts, normalised to DMSO). 159 compounds
have been validated in dose response studies (Supplementary Table 1) including 140 compounds
originally identified among the 211 hits in the primary screen (66% validation rate) and 19 alternative
compounds selected against target classes represented in the hit list. We converted dose response
data to Normalised Area Under the Curve (nAUC, scaled between 0-1 with 100% death = 0) for
validation ranking (nAUC <0.85 in any line) across the six GSC lines and a normal neuronal stem cell
control line (FT3469) to indicate the potential of achieving a therapeutic window (Figure 3A). A
consolidated list of validated hit compounds prioritized for further investigation with targets of
interest for GBM is listed in Figure 3B. Network analysis of our filtered list, by annotated target(s),
demonstrates broad coverage of key target linked pathways, including PI3K-AKT, MAPK, EGFR and
adhesion signalling, as well as regulation of cell metabolism, apoptosis and cell cycle/mitosis (Figure
3C and Supplementary Figure 5).

Initial analysis of the 159 validated compound set (Supplementary table 1) indicates distinct *in vitro*
sensitivity of GSCs to topoisomerase poisons, anti-metabolites, proteasome and HDAC inhibitors, as
well as particular sensitivity to microtubule targeting agents (taxanes, etc). A prioritized short list (<50
compounds) was generated to explore more novel molecular targeted therapies which displayed
activity upon GBM and selectivity across a heterogenous GSC panel. Targeted agents of interest
involve those targeting cell adhesion (FAK, SRC, YES, FYN), transcription and translation (JAK2/STAT3,
CDK9, HDAC, BRD), MAPK pathway/crosstalk (MEK1,2, PAK4,6), DNA damage/repair (PARP, TOPO),
mitosis (AURK, KSP), metabolism (FASN, NAMPT) and protein folding/homeostasis (HSP90, HSF, VCP).
There is clear chemical and target diversity within this validated hit list, beyond the expected highly
potent cytotoxins, which provides a preliminary shortlist for rational drug-target selection and future
systematic drug combination strategies. Any such approach would ideally be compatible with current
therapy of post-surgical DNA damaging treatments.

Secondary Assays/Sub-validation of target classes: Targeting Transcriptional Regulation

As it is beyond the scope of this article to follow up all of these hits in secondary assays, we have
published our full list of validated hit compounds for the GBM research community to explore and
perform follow up investigation across similar and alternative GBM models. Within the scope of the
current study, we have partially characterised two validated target classes (HDAC and cyclin
dependent kinase inhibitors) which demonstrated highly potent (low nM) activity upon GSC survival
Supplementary Table 1 and Figure 3).

Targeting transcriptional regulation via HDAC inhibitors, we further explored a focussed library of 54
structurally distinct HDAC inhibitors by dose-response, as our pilot screening data demonstrated the
significant potency of this class of compounds across our GSC panel (e.g., romidepsin, panobinostat)
(Figure 4). Commercially available HDAC inhibitors were purchased and 384-well dose response plates
were prepared and screened against the same six GSC line panel used for primary screening.
Compounds were ranked by potency using the cell survival endpoint (normalised nuclei counts)
(Figure 4A). Unsurprisingly, the most potent compounds were pan-HDAC or HDAC1/2 inhibitors,
although the top ranked compound (with IC50 values below 50nM across all cell lines) was the dual
HDAC/PI3K inhibitor, fimepinostat (CUDC-907). This particular compound is currently undergoing
phase II clinical trials in paediatric brain tumours (NCT03893487). Fimepinostat, romidepsin and
panobinostat were further validated by performing dose-response and cell cycle analysis (Figure 4B,
C, D), which demonstrated G0/G1 accumulation effects on E13 cells over 72 hrs and G2/M arrest in
other lines at low nanomolar concentrations (>20nM) (Supplementary Figure 6A, B). Potent induction
of apoptosis in GSC lines following treatment with fimepinostat, romidepsin and panobinostat was
also confirmed using a kinetic intracellular caspase activity assay (see Figure 6).

Figure 4. HDAC inhibitor library screening. A. Representative heatmap of IC50 values of HDAC inhibitors on GSC lines. The most potent compounds indicated in red (from 10nM to 2 μM). B Dose response of fimepinostat (CUDC-907)), romidepsin & panobinostat. C. Cell cycle analysis of fimepinostat (CUDC-907)), romidepsin & panobinostat by dose

response on E13 cells, from DNA content analysis of Hoechst-stained nuclei. See Supplementary Fig 5 for other cell
line cell cycle data. D. IC_{50} values of fimepinostat (CUDC-907)), romidepsin & panobinostat (nanomolar).

Romidepsin (4nM), fimepinostat/CUDC-907 (30nM) and panobinostat (200-500nM), induced mostly
insignificant/weak G0/G1 accumulation (up to 300nM, Figure 4C & Supplementary Figure 6) and this
is in contrast to a gradual but continuous apoptotic signal, starting from >24 hrs (Figure 4E). Phase
contrast images show proliferation was not significantly inhibited until ~40 hrs post treatment
(compare % confluence of DMSO (black line), Figure 5E) and this appeared independent of
proliferation rates (E57 cells doubling time is ~24hrs vs E13 ~60 hrs) but concurrent with inducing
apoptosis (compare curve trajectories at 40 hrs, Figure 6A, C vs Figure 6B, D).

Cyclin dependent kinase inhibitors have been extensively investigated for their anti-cancer activity[52,
53] and several CDK inhibitors feature in our validated hit list, including approved CDK4/6 inhibitors
abemaciclib and palbociclib. In particular, the CDK9/5/1/2 inhibitor, dinaciclib, as well as the selective
CDK9 inhibitor, NVP-2[54], which both show outstanding potency across multiple GSC lines (~20nM
IC_{50} across the six GCS lines) (Figure 5A). In addition, a more potent, second generation CDK9 inhibitor,
AZD4573, was included in this validation stage and also demonstrated low nM (7-27nM) activity across
the 6 GSC lines (Figure 5A).

Dinaciclib is a multi-CDK inhibitor which has gained clinical interest in that it targets both cell cycle
progression (*via* CDK1/2) and transcription (*via* CDK9), with this 'dual targeting' mode shown to be
effective when combined with cisplatin [55, 56]. Validation of dinaciclib, NVP-2 and AZD4573 across
our GSC panel indicates broadly cytotoxic profiles (Figure 5A), however, cell cycle analysis of GSC lines
treated with a dinaciclib dose response (Figure 5B & Supplementary Figure 6) indicates induction of
apoptosis can occur prior to any significant dose dependent cell cycle arrest (see Figure 6E, G) at doses
<40nM. This suggests transcriptional dysregulation *via* CDK9 inhibition is having a significant effect
upon cell survival, independent of any CDK1/2 inhibition. Overall, AZD4573 has improved potency
compared to dinaciclib & NVP-2 (Figure 5A [IC_{50} values] & 5C, compare observable 12nM effects vs
DMSO). The effect of selective CDK9 targeting was further examined for time dependent apoptotic
induction, proliferation and transcriptomic differential expression (Figures 5 & 6).

Induction of apoptosis by CDK9 inhibitors was also monitored *via* kinetic intracellular caspase activity
assay of E13 and E57 cells (classical & mesenchymal GSC subtypes). CDK9 inhibitors (20nM) induce a
gradually increasing apoptotic signal from ~24hrs after treatment, which starts to accelerate from ~48-
72 hrs (Figure 6E, G) while proliferation appears completely halted from Day 0 (Figure 5E), without
significant cell cycle effects at this 20nM concentration (Figure 5B & Supplementary Figure 6A, B).

Figure 5. Targeting CDK9 in GBM. A. Dose response validation and IC50 values of Dinaciclib, NVP-2 and AZD4573 shows
broad cytotoxic effects across most cell lines. B Cell cycle analysis of E13 cells by dose response shows no significance
(two-way ANOVA). See Supplementary Figure 6 for remaining cell cycle effects on other cell lines. Cell cycle analysis
from DNA content (Hoechst nuclear stain). D. Representative images of Dinaciclib, AZD4573 and NVP-2 at 12nM vs
DMSO on E57 and E13 cells. Scale Bar 100um.

Figure 6. Live cell imaging: Apoptosis & proliferation (confluence) vs time (hrs). E13 (classical) & E57 (mesenchymal)
cells were used to characterise the effect of HDAC (romidepsin, panobinostat and fimepinostat) and CDK inhibitors
(Dinaciclib, AZD4573, NVP-2) using Nucview-488 Caspase 3/7 detection reagent alongside continuous live cell
monitoring using a multi-channel objective.

From these studies it is clear that targeting HDAC and CDK9, and hence transcriptional regulation, is
having a cytotoxic benefit against GSCs beyond the usual mechanisms of cell cycle arrest (with the
exception of the highly potent molecule, Romidepsin). To further explore the MOA of the CDK
inhibitors on GSC lines, we performed NanoString® transcriptomic analysis on sensitive E13 cells that
were exposed to 20nM of Dinaciclib, AZD4573 and NVP-2, alongside DMSO controls, for 24 hrs
following compound addition. The extracted mRNA was quantified *via* the nCounter™ system (Human
Cancer Pathways, 784 genes including controls) and a differential analysis performed (Figure 7). After
quality control filtration and removal of housekeeping/control gene sets (post normalisation), 467
genes were available for differential expression & pathway analysis, between untreated and treated
cells. Comparison of volcano plots between compounds (Figure 7A) shows suppression of gene
expression is prevalent across all three compounds, with dinaciclib and AZD4573 showing similarly
stronger effects, relative to NVP-2. The results were further filtered by corrected p-value (Benjamini-
Yekutieli FDR). Not surprisingly, a large number of genes (229) were significantly dysregulated across
all three compounds (Supplementary Figure 7), with STRING Network analysis (high confidence filter)
showing enrichment of KEGG pathways in PI3K-AKT, MAPK and Focal Adhesion Signalling (Supp Figure
5B), among others. Some selective correlation was observed between compound pairs such as
AZD4573 & NVP-2 (Figure 7B, C), AZD4573 and Dinaciclib (Figure 7D, E), with further downregulation
of gene targets in DNA damage repair, WNT & PI3K signalling. Preliminary combination studies with
dinaciclib were performed, combining other top ranked hits romidepsin (pan-HDAC), idarubicin
(TOPOII) and ixazomib (proteasome). Combination studies of dinaciclib with romidepsin, idarubicin &
ixazomib indicate highly potent additive effects upon GSC survival but not strong synergistic activity
(Supplementary Figure 8).

DISCUSSION

The clinical treatment of GBM has not significantly improved median patient survival in more than 20
years, with advances in the genomic characterisation of the disease only highlighting the complexity
of the clinical challenge. To address this challenge a number of phenotypic screens of drug libraries
and drug combinations performed in complex *ex vivo* or *in vitro* GBM models have recently been
reported. However, screens reported to date have been limited in terms of the number of compounds,
phenotypic endpoints and the use of use of culture conditions which preserve GBM stem cell
characteristics. In this study, our aim was to attempt to address the unmet clinical need in GBM by
applying a comprehensive target agnostic, high content phenotypic screen, of thousands of
compounds across a well characterized panel of patient-derived GBM stem cell models. The drug
libraries were selected to support repurposing of existing oncology drug discovery programs and
included Phase I passed or FDA/EMA approved small molecules and drugs with high target selectivity
across known oncology targets. We have chosen to not exclusively utilise blood-brain-barrier
(BBB)/CNS penetrant drug libraries in order to provide a comprehensive and unbiased evaluation of
distinct drug and target classes upon GSC phenotypes. It is our hope that this will be informative
towards future medicinal chemistry efforts in generating CNS penetrating small molecules against
such targets, or possible incorporation of validated hit compounds into emerging blood-brain-barrier
penetrating nanoparticles, designed to effectively deliver drugs and drug combinations administered
systemically, directly towards selective tissue and tumour sites including GBM [51-53]. In total 3,866
compounds were screened over multiple concentrations (3– 3000nM), in order to capture the most
potent dose-dependent cellular phenotypes beyond simple viability measurements. Our GBM models
comprised six heterogeneous, patient-derived GSC lines, representing three of the major
transcriptomic subtypes (CLA, MES, PRO). We applied the multiparametric high content 'Cell Painting'
assay to screen five drug libraries across the six GSC lines, acquiring over two million images. Image
processing and analysis, using software tools such as CellProfiler (cellprofiler.org) and StratoMineR
(stratominer.com), identified 211 hit compounds which were re-purchased and validated (66%

validation rate). We provide an updated list of 159 biologically active compounds on human GSC survival and morphology (phenotypic activity) (Figure 3 & Supplementary Table 1 & 2).

Figure 7. Differential gene expression (DE) analysis of CDK9 inhibitors on E13 cells. A. Volcano plots of DE comparing E13 cells treated with dinaciclib, AZD4573 & NVP-2 versus DMSO. Highly significant/Log2-Fold change highlighted in

Common cytotoxic agents, such as microtubule targeting agents, topoisomerase poisons, proteasome
and HDAC inhibitors, are prevalent in our hit list and many have previously been investigated in GBM
(and other cancers). However, many of these agents have a narrow therapeutic window and
significant systemic toxicities limiting their effectiveness. Nevertheless, novel drug delivery
technology, such as antibody-cytotoxin conjugates, brain-tumour specific nanoparticles and intra-
cranial drug delivery implants, could still utilise such potent molecules clinically in the future. Other
molecular targeted compounds identified from our screen, include those targeting cellular adhesion,
transcription, DNA damage/repair, cell cycle/mitosis, proliferation, metabolism, and protein
folding/homeostasis. The screening deck included a recent, custom made chemogenomic annotated
library (Comprehensive Anti-Cancer Compound Library, 'C^{3}L'[50]), which was designed to incorporate
chemical diversity, potency and selectivity on a broad range of oncology targets and thus
complements the other "off-the-shelf" commercially available libraries contributing to a
comprehensive, relevant and updated pharmacological response profile of patient derived GSCs that
we present in this article.

We provide all 159 validated hit compounds demonstrating activity upon GSC survival and
morphological endpoints (Supplementary Table 1 & 2) for the GBM research community to explore in
further detail. In this article we followed up two drug target classes, HDAC and CDK inhibitors which
displayed exquisite low nM activity upon inhibiting cell survival across the heterogeneous panel of
GSCs. However, further analysis of the morphological hits (Supplementary Table 2) is likely to also
identify compounds that impact upon other GSC phenotypes such as cell cycle, senescence,
differentiation and invasion etc.

To further explore the HDAC inhibitor class we screened a library of 54 HDAC inhibitors. Fimepinostat
(CUDC-907) was outstandingly the most potent molecule, with <20nM IC_{50} values across the panel.
Fimepinostat, a dual PI3K/HDAC inhibitor, is currently undergoing clinical trials for paediatric/young
adult brain cancers/solid tumours (NCT03893487), and is a candidate for targeted drug delivery and
drug combination strategies. We compared fimepinostat with structurally distinct HDAC inhibitors,
romidepsin and panobinostat, by cell cycle and apoptosis assays (Figures 4, 6 & Supplementary Figure
6). While there was a varied response between cell lines (usually more G2/M arrest vs weak G0/G1),
there was a common intra-cell line response (and morphology, by live imaging observation) between
molecules, suggesting phenotypic activity is most likely mediated through the anti-HDAC activity of
fimepinostat rather than its anti-PI3K activity. Indeed, comparison between fimepinostat and potent,
selective PI3K inhibitors (all tested at 30nM) demonstrate substantially weaker activity of PI3K
inhibition upon GSC proliferation with only the dual PI3K/mTOR inhibitor, gedatolisib, showing any
significant effect but still substantially weaker than fimepinostat (Supplementary Figure 9).

Targeting transcriptional regulation has previously been shown to be effective against cancer stem
cells (including brain cancers)[57-59], hence we also characterised potent CDK9 inhibitors dinaciclib,
NVP-2 (both screening hits) and a more recent selective CDK9 inhibitor, AZD4573. CDK9 is an atypical
CDK in that it is a key regulator of RNA Polymerase II (Pol II) transcription initiation, elongation, and
termination playing a critical role in transcriptional regulation[60]. Dinaciclib has near equal potency
against CDK1/2 (& 5), whereas NVP-2 and AZD4573 are classed as CDK9 selective. AZD4573 has
progressed to clinical trials (NCT04630756) and is well tolerated, although CNS penetrance and solid
tumour efficacy remains to be determined. Radio-sensitisation of cancer cells with CDK9 inhibitors
and drug combinations with DNA damaging agents have previously been reported[61-63], including
opportunities in GBM[64]. In our *in vitro* assays, dinaciclib, NVP-2 and AZD4573 are highly potent (7-
50nM IC_{50}'s, Figure 5) across GSC lines, immediately antiproliferative with induced cell cycle effects
(mostly G2/M arrest at doses >40nM, except for E13 cells, Figure 5, Supplementary Figure 6) and
apoptosis taking effect >36 hrs after compound exposure (independent of varied proliferation rates).

Differential gene expression analysis (NanoString®) of E13 cells, exposed to CDK9 inhibitors for 24 hrs,
reveals highly significant decreases in the expression of genes regulating the cell cycle, DNA damage
and repair, anti-apoptosis, PI3K and MAPK signalling across all three compounds (Supplementary
Figure 7). MCL-1, an anti-apoptotic BCL2 family member, is a known CDK9 transcriptional and protein
target[65]. This probe is not present in the NanoString panel, however, *BCL2* and *BCL2L1* mRNA were
downregulated >10 fold, by all three compounds. Genes significantly and selectively decreased by
AZD4573 and NVP-2 alone also included Frizzled receptors (*FZD7, FZD8*) and further DNA repair genes
in *BRCA2* & *PCNA* (Figure 7B, C). Dinaciclib and AZD4573 also demonstrate a correlative decrease in
the same genes (vs NVP-2, Figure 8D, E), particularly *MSH6*, *KRAS, CDC25A* and *ARID1A*. These results
indicate that the CDK inhibitors are reprogramming the GSCs into a more vulnerable state, leading to
inhibition of cell survival that may be further exploited by combination therapy. Therefore, these
results together with previous publications implicating CDK9 as a therapeutic target in GBM suggest
targeting CDK9 is worth further exploration in other GBM models and with other drug combinations.

Overall, our preliminary screening results presented here serve as a foundation for a systematic
approach to the identification, validation and prioritisation of novel therapeutic strategies in GBM
including future drug combinations, that could be used concurrently or following standard treatment
protocols for GBM. Importantly, we have used patient-derived GSC models, grown under stem-like
conditions on a laminin rich ECM scaffold to prioritize follow up investigations of highly potent small
molecule active across a genetically distinct and heterogeneous GSC panel. The objective of our
phenotypic screening assay was to identify, drug targets and mechanisms-of-action which target
heterogeneous GSC phenotypes and thus complements the existing focus on known oncogenic drivers
that represent established drug target classes. We anticipate that this approach will identify new
therapeutic targets and drug combination hypothesis that target GSC phenotypes rather than
individual pathways and thus may be more resilient across heterogeneous patient populations and
adaptive drug resistance mechanisms.

In conclusions, our high content screening followed by multi-cell line validation across primary and
secondary phenotypic assays provides the largest unbiased survey of small molecule therapeutic
classes and oncology targets upon GBM stem cell phenotypes that we are aware of. We provide our
full lists of validated hits active upon GBM stem cell morphology and cell survival for the research
community to explore further. Future studies include expanded screening across larger libraries of
compounds to identify novel chemical starting points and novel targets for new GBM drug discovery
programs. In addition, further profiling of phenotypic screening hits across a larger number of GBM
stem cells lines and integration of phenotypic with molecular data, in order to identify synthetic
lethality relationships and or predictive biomarkers of response, will support additional personalized
medicine strategies for new drug target classes of GBM. Importantly this unbiased approach can
identify new therapeutic opportunities for the majority of GBM patients which do not fall into well-
defined subtypes characterized by well-known druggable driver genes thus expanding the scope and
inclusion criteria of personalized medicine strategies in GBM.

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CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

S.P. is a co-founder, shareholder and Chief Scientific Officer of Trogenix Ltd.

N.O.C. is a co-founder, shareholder and management consultant for PhenoTherapeutics Ltd. and

N.O.C and M.C.F have held advisory positions and are shareholders in Amplia Therapeutics Ltd.

N.O.C. had patents pertaining to discovery of the SRC/YES1 inhibitor, eCF506/NXP900 (EP3298015B1,
JP6684831B2, US10294227B2, CN107849050B, and CA3021550A1) licensed to Nuvectis Pharma.

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[Materials and Methods]

Cell culture

Cell lines were obtained from the Glioma Cellular Genetics Resource, Edinburgh and cultured
according to optimised conditions for glioma stem cell growth (gcgr.org.uk). Briefly, cells were
cultured in DMEM/HAMS-F12 media (Sigma D8437) with B27, N2 supplements (GIBCO 17504-044,
17502-048), EGF/FGF (10ng/mL, Peprotech 315-09, 100-18b)) and laminin (4-10ug/mL, Cultrex 3446-
005-01). Doubling times are approximately 60 hrs (except E57 cells, db ~24 hrs) with generally low
passage ratios to maintain no less than 30% confluence during cell expansion. Cell lines were
submitted for STR profiling (ECACC, case number 21579, using a Promega Powerplex 16 HS kit) and
were routinely monitored for mycoplasma infection (MycoAlert®, Lonza). All cell lines were expanded
and banked in liquid nitrogen (~24 vials each) for continuous turnover of low passage lines during
screening. Accutase?

Compound screening

384 well plates (Greiner Bio-One, uClear, 781091) were precoated in growth media containing
10ug/mL laminin (20uL/well) and incubated for 2 hrs at 37 $^{\circ}$C, 5% CO_2 (minimum). Single cell
suspensions in growth media were prepared (final seeding densities indicated in Supp Figure 1B, no
laminin.) and added to the pre-coated plates (30ul/well, final laminin 4ug/mL). The plates were then
incubated for ~20hrs and inspected briefly, prior to compound addition using a Biomek automated
liquid handler. Compound library plates (as assay ready daughter plates in 100% DMSO, 10mM-1mM
stocks, prepared *via* BioAscent compound management (bioascent.com)) were diluted with media to
intermediate plates (1:50, 2% DMSO (v/v)) prior to addition to cells (1:20, final 0.1% DMSO (v/v)).
Where required, the intermediate drug plates were further diluted to create reduced dose
intermediate plates (with 2% DMSO (v/v)) prior to addition to cells (1:20, final 0.1% DMSO (v/v)).
Negative controls (DMSO, 0.1% (v/v), n= 32-48 per plate) and positive controls (staurosporine, 1uM
final conc., n= 16) for cell death were added to the intermediate compound plates (up to 320
compounds per plate). After the addition of compounds, the plates were then incubated at 37 $^{\circ}$C, 5%
CO_2 for 72 hrs.

Table 1: Screening libraries and concentrations used

Library	# Compounds	Source	Concentrations Used (nM)	Controls (nM)
TargetMol-Anti-Cancer	330	TargetMol #L2110 (2018)	10000, 100, 10, 1nM	Paclitaxel (5nM), Staurosporine (100 nM)
Kinase Chemogenomic Set (KCGS)	187	Structural Genomics Consortium https://cancertools.org/the-kinase-chemogenomic-set-kcgs/	1000, 100 nM	Paclitaxel (5nM), Staurosporine (100 nM)
Prestwick FDA	1280	Prestwick Chemical (~2016) https://www.prestwickchemical.com/screening-libraries/prestwick-chemical-library/	10000, 1000 nM	Staurosporine (1000nM)
LOPAC (Library of Pharmacologically Active Compounds)	1280	Sigma Aldrich	3000, 500 nM	Staurosporine (1000nM)
Comprehensive Anti-Cancer Compound Set C3L	789	Custom (Athanasiadis et al, 2023 iScience **26** (7): 107209.	3000, 300, 30, 3 nM	Staurosporine (1000nM)

Cell painting

Live mitochondrial staining of cells was carried out by the addition of MitoTracker Deep-Red solution
(3uM, 10X conc. in media at 5uL/well) using the Integra Viafill automated dispenser. The plates were
then incubated for 30 minutes at 37 $^{\circ}$C, 5% CO_2 followed plate cooling and fixation by the addition of
16% formaldehyde in PBS (20uL/well – final 4% formaldehyde) using a multidrop combi reagent
dispenser. After incubation for 20 minutes, the plates were washed (BioTek plate washer) with PBS

and cell painting reagents prepared in 1% BSA/0.01%TX-100 in PBS (Hoechst 33342 5ug/mL, SYTO14
3uM, concanavalin A-488 33ug/mL, phalloidin-594 7U/mL or 1:1500, wheat germ agglutinin-594
3ug/mL; supplier information below). After washing, PBS was removed and cell painting solution was
added using a multidrop combi (20uL/well) followed by incubation at room temperature for 30
minutes. The staining solution was then removed and the plates washed with PBS (BioTek) and sealed
(Starseal foil seals). The plates were then imaged immediately.

Stain	Structure	Wavelength, ex/em (nm)	Channel	Final Concentration	Catalogue No., Supplier
Hoechst 33342	Nuclei	387/447	DAPI	5ug/mL	H1399, Molecular Probes
Concanavalin A Alexa Fluor 488	Endoplasmic reticulum	462/520	FITC	33ug/mL	C11252, Invitrogen
SYTO 14	Nucleoli	531/593	CY3	3 µM	S7576, Invitrogen
Phalloidin Alexa Fluor 594	F-actin	562/624	TxRED	7U/mL (1:1500)	ab176757, Abcam
Wheat germ agglutinin Alexa Fluor 594	Golgi and plasma membrane	562/624	TxRED	3ug/mL	W11262, Invitrogen
MitoTracker DeepRed	Mitochondria	628/692	CY5	300nM	M22426; Invitrogen

Image acquisition

Images were acquired using ImageXpress Confocal high content microscope (Molecular Devices) with
automated plate handling (GX series, Peak Analysis and Automation). Exposure settings for each
channel were optimised and set. Each well was imaged using a 20× objective and 6 fields of view (30
images per well, ~33% well coverage, typically 75-150 cells per image)

Image analysis

CellProfiler v3.1.5 image analysis software (cellprofiler.org) was used to create a custom analysis
pipeline across 5 channels capturing 1155 features per cell. Images were analysed *via* parallel
processing using a Unix/Linux high performance computing cluster (University of Edinburgh) and
concatenated outputs included median aggregated, well level data. Each completed dataset (library
across 6x GCGR lines) was then batch processed using StratoMineR high content analysis platform
(stratominer.com). Briefly, stepwise processing in StratoMineR included metadata integration,
removal of redundant features (correlation cut-off 0.99, typically 800-850 features remaining), QC and
control annotation/flags, normalisation (samples), transformation (Skewness significance 0.0001),
feature scaling (robust z score, by plate) and dimensionality reduction (principle component analysis
[generalised weighted least squares], Oblique rotation, Ten Berge factor scores method, auto
correlation cut-off with ≥20 factors chosen [model based on samples] to represent >60% of data
variance [Scree plots]).

Processed data was then exported and analysed further using TIBCO Spotfire analysis software
(spotfire.com). Hierarchical clustering of normalised datasets was carried out using Morpheus
(https://software.broadinstitute.org/morpheus) used in Figures 1,4,5 (complete linkage, Euclidean
distance). Network and enrichment analysis of top ~50 annotated compound targets was carried out
using STRING[66] & CytoScape (cytoscape.org)[67]

Live Cell Imaging/Apoptosis Assays

GCGR-E13 (1000 cells/well) and GCGR-E57 cells (500 cells/well) were seeded (45uL/well) onto 384w
plates (Greiner uClear 781910) pre-coated with 10ug/mL Laminin ECM. After overnight incubation, a
solution of NucView-488 reagent (10X conc., 50uM) was added using an Integra ViaFill Liquid dispenser
(5uL/well). The compounds were then immediately added using a D300e nanodispenser with back-
filling of DMSO to 0.1% (v/v) for all wells, triplicate wells per dose (3 concentrations per compound,
based on individual IC50 range). Staurosporine (300nM, 6 replicates per cell line) was used as a

positive control for apoptosis induction against DMSO controls (0.1%, 6 replicates per cell line). The
plate was then loaded into an IncuCyte S5 Live Cell imager with scans set at 3-hour intervals for 96 hrs
(phase and 'green' channels, 10× objective, 1 site). Image processing was carried using IncuCyte in-
built analysis modules, with phase area defined as % Confluence/image from the first scan (~t =
0+30mins). Apoptosis was quantified from images showing increasing Integrated Intensity from the
NucView-488 emission signal (GCU x um^2/Image).

Nanostring sequencing/differential analysis

mRNA was extracted from E13 cells (~$3x10^6$ cells each condition) after 24 hrs treatment with AZD473,
Dinaciclib, NVP-2 (all 20nM) & DMSO (0.1% v/v) in triplicate 10cm dishes, using RNeasy Plus miniprep
extraction kit (Qiagen, #74134). Purified mRNA was quantified and diluted to 20ng/uL and submitted
for NanoString nCounter analysis against the Human Cancer Pathways Panel (NS_CancerPath_C2535).
Samples were hybridised and immediately processed using the nCounter Prep Station and Digital
Analyzer (High Sensitivity protocol). QC checks utilised GeNorm to determine most stable reference
genes and no QC Flags were raised overall. Differential analysis was carried out on normalised data
(normalised to ~20 housekeeping genes) using nSolver™ Analysis Software (version 4.0.70) following
standard analysis pipelines. Export data was replotted using TIBCO Spotfire software and also further
analysed by hierarchical clustering (https://software.broadinstitute.org/morpheus) and STRING
network analysis (string-db.org)[66].

Forward-phase protein array: basal cytokine analysis.

Conditioned medium was collected after 72 hours incubation. Microarrays were generated using an
in-house Aushon BioSystems 2470 array printing platform. The arrays were blocked for 1 hour with
SuperG Blocking Buffer (Grace Bio Labs) at room temperature. Conditioned media from glioma stem
cell samples were centrifuged at 1000× *g* for 5 minutes at 4 °C. Supernatants were collected and
added to microarrays followed by incubation for 12 hours at 4 °C. The arrays were washed three times
for 5 minutes in TBS-Tween (0.1% v/v) and blocked for 10 minutes with SuperG Blocking Buffer at
room temperature on an orbital shaker, then washed again washed three times for 5 minutes in TBS-
Tween (0.1% v/v). Detection antibody mixtures (1:500 antibody dilutions in 5% bovine serum
albumin/phosphate buffered saline tween-20 0.1% (BSA/PBST), 1% SuperG Blocking Buffer) were
made in microplates. Microarrays were clamped and 50 µL of each antibody was added to
corresponding microarray wells. Microarrays were incubated for 1 hour on a flat surface. Clamps were
removed and microarrays were washed three times for 5 minutes in TBS-Tween (0.1% v/v).
Microarrays were then blocked for 10min with SuperG Blocking Buffer at room temperature and again
washed three times for 5 minutes in PBST. Three millilitres (3 mL) of IRDye 800CW Streptavidin (LI-
COR Biosciences) was diluted 1:5000 in PBST supplemented with 5% BSA, 1% SuperG Blocking Buffer.
Microarrays were covered and incubated with IRDye on a rocker at room temperature for 45 minutes,
then washed for 5 minutes, three times in PBST followed by three 5-minute PBS washes and finally
washed with distilled water. Microarrays were dried then scanned on the InnoScan 710 high-
resolution microarray scanner (Innopsys Life Sciences). The data was normalised for protein
concentration and background fluorescence *via* Microsoft Excel templates.

Reverse-Phase Protein Array (RPPA): Basal analysis

GSC lines were cultured both as mono-layers on laminin-coated cell culture plates and as spheroid
cultures on poly-hema coated plates. Cells were set up as mono-layer and spheroid cultures in parallel
by seeding equivalent cell numbers from a parental flask with cells in log-phase growth. Cultures were
grown until the mono-layer cultures were approximately 70% confluent and then both adherent and
suspension cultures were harvested for lysis and preparation for RPPA. For Laminin coating plates
were incubated with Laminin at 10ug/ml for 1 hour and then washed with PBS prior to addition of cell
lines. Culture media did not contain Laminin and the same media was used for adherent and
suspension cultures. For Poly-hema coating plastic 2.4g of poly-hema was dissolved in 200ml of 95%
Ethanol and heated to dissolve. The solution was centrifuged at 2500RPM to remove undissolved
particles. 4ml was added per 10cm plate (ensuring the plate was completely coated). Plates were left
open in a TC hood to air-dry and were rinsed x3 with PBS prior to addition of cells.

Mono-layer cultures were washed twice with PBS after removal of media and snap frozen on dry-ice and stored at -80°C. Spheroid cultures were pelleted by centrifugation and washed twice with PBS and then snap frozen and stored until lysis. Cultures were lysed in RIPA buffer supplemented with PhosStop and Complete Mini inhibitor tablets. Lysates were needle syringed five times to ensure complete lysis of cells. Protein quantification was carried out using Coomassie-plus assay (ThermoFisher #23228) and protein concentration was adjusted by to 1 mg/ml. Samples were prepared for printing by addition of 4x Sample buffer and heat denaturation at 95°C for 5 minutes.

All samples were diluted to 0.75mg/ml (D1), 0.375mg/ml (D2), 0.1875mg/ml (D3) and 0.09375mg/ml (D4) using PBS containing 10% Glycerol. Array spotting was carried out with the Quanterix 2470 Arrayer platform using 185μM pins. Each sample was spotted at four dilutions (D1-D4) onto single pad ONCYTE® SuperNOVA nitrocellulose slides at a 500μM spot-to-spot distance. 168 signalling pathway markers (and appropriate controls) were profiled in a standard RPPA assay as described briefly below. After spotting, the slides were incubated with antigen retrieval solution (1x Reblot strong) for 10 mins before being placed in a microfluidic structure to individually address the arrays with primary or secondary antibody solutions. Following blocking buffer (Superblock T20) for 10 mins the detection of marker antibodies was performed in a two-step sequential assay (1) incubation of an array with primary analyte-specific antibody in blocking buffer for 60 mins at room temperature and (2) removal of excess antibody by washing arrays with PBS-T, followed by a further incubation with blocking buffer and PBS-T washes, and incubation secondary antibody (Dylight-800-labeled anti-species antibodies diluted 1:2500 in Superblock T20) for 30 mins. After further washing and slide drying, the arrays were imaged in the Innopsys Innoscan 710 scanner. Blank signals were determined by omitting the primary antibody from step 1 and instead incubating the array with Superblock T20 alone, followed by step 2. Sample loading on arrays (for normalisation) was determined by staining one slide with fast green protein dye and scanning at 800nm. Microarray images are analyzed using Mapix software (Innopsys). The feature (spot) diameter of the grid was set to 270μm. The average signal intensity is determined for each individual feature and the median background from the adjacent area is subtracted from each feature signal leading to a net signal per feature. Data analysis is performed in a standard way: Fluorescence intensity for each feature on the array is measured. A test is performed for linear fit through the 4 point dilution series for all samples on all arrays using a flag system where $R2 > 0.9$ (green flag) is deemed good, >0.8 (amber flag) is deemed acceptable and <0.8 (red flag) is poor and may be excluded from data analysis. The median values from the 4 point dilution series are calculated and used as a measure of fluorescence intensity. Data is quantified as RFI (relative fluorescence intensity) values relating to relative abundance of total and phosphorylated proteins across the sample set.

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