

1 **Expanding the search for small-molecule antibacterials by multidimensional**
2 **profiling**

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8 **Abstract**

9 New techniques for systematic profiling of small molecule effects can enhance traditional growth
10 inhibition screens for antibiotic discovery and change how we search for new antibacterial agents.
11 Computational models that integrate physicochemical compound properties with their phenotypic
12 and molecular downstream effects can not only predict efficacy of molecules yet to be tested, but also
13 reveal unprecedented insights on compound Modes of Action (MoAs). The unbiased characterization
14 of compounds that themselves are not growth inhibitory but exhibit diverse MoAs, can expand
15 antibacterial strategies beyond direct inhibition of core essential functions. Early and systematic
16 functional annotation of compound libraries thus paves the way to new paradigms in the selection of
17 lead antimicrobial compounds. In this Review, we discuss how multidimensional small molecule
18 profiling and the ever-increasing computing power are accelerating the discovery of unconventional
19 antibacterials capable of bypassing resistance and exploiting synergies with established antibacterial
20 treatments and with protective host mechanisms.

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22

23 Introduction

24 Empirical susceptibility screening, wherein new antimicrobial compounds are chosen for their ability
25 to inhibit bacterial growth, catalyzed the initial formidable success in antibiotic discovery. However,
26 screening of soil microorganisms for antibiotic production quickly yielded the rediscovery of the same
27 common antibiotics, and the output of novel antibiotic classes rapidly decreased¹. The danger raised
28 by the evolution of antimicrobial resistance urges the development of novel paradigms in the search
29 for small-molecule antibacterials with new mechanisms of action (**Box 1**) that do not cross-resist with
30 existing classes of antibiotics². While new genetic and genomic approaches have enabled the genome-
31 wide discovery of essential genes and revealed a plethora of new and unexploited antibacterial
32 targets^{3,4}, target-based drug discovery has struggled to deliver new classes of antibacterials. Molecules
33 identified to bind and interfere with promising targets often fail to fulfill subsequent key
34 requirements, such as permeability, toxicity or pharmacokinetics. Hence, the field of antimicrobial
35 discovery is still largely dominated by *in vitro* susceptibility screening assays (Figure 1A) allowing to
36 directly single out compounds that produce the desired growth inhibitory activity. This has restricted
37 the search for antibacterials to compounds inhibiting core growth-related processes, mainly
38 identifying inhibitors of macromolecule biosynthesis, like cell wall-, protein- and DNA/RNA synthesis,
39 eventually leading to the rediscovery of the same antibiotics over and over again¹. Furthermore, the
40 use of *in vitro* conditions that largely differ from *in vivo* conditions⁵, and biases in physicochemical
41 properties of synthetic chemical compound libraries⁶ (e.g. optimized for permeability in eukaryotic
42 cells) contributed to the lack of success in recent antibiotic discovery campaigns. As if it wasn't enough,
43 the almost inevitable evolution of resistance poses additional concerns to evaluate the effectiveness
44 of newly discovered antibacterial molecules. Hence, there is an urgent need for alternative and
45 efficient strategies for the experimental identification of starting points to produce the next
46 generation of antibacterials.

47 In the traditional susceptibility-based approach, only compounds exhibiting measurable growth
48 inhibitory activity, typically with a Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) below 10 μ M, are
49 selected. Moreover, lead compounds are chosen without knowledge of their targets or Modes of
50 Action (MoAs) (**Box 1**). These are major bottlenecks hindering the identification of promising
51 antibacterial molecules that have poor bioactivity or penetration^{7,8}, properties which could
52 subsequently be rationally improved. Similarly, classical susceptibility screens overlook compounds
53 that target processes not essential *in vitro* but that could be attractive strategies for *in vivo* treatment
54 and may associate with a lower selective pressure for resistance^{9,10}. Meanwhile, new computational
55 and experimental approaches have emerged to not only predict compound growth inhibitory activity,
56 but also characterize the broader functional impact of small molecules on *in vivo* pathogen

57 physiology^{11 12 13}. Multidimensional and high-throughput technologies, like molecular profiling^{14 15 16}
58 or high-content imaging^{17 18 19}, in combination with novel genetic tools like gene editing (e.g. CRISPR)
59 ²⁰, enable the prediction of drug targets, MoAs, secondary effects, tolerance mechanisms and *in vivo*
60 efficacy at large scale and already at early stages of drug discovery^{14 21 22}. Such a multiparametric
61 characterization can guide the selection of the most promising bioactive compounds, mitigate the
62 problem of rediscovering compounds with the same MoAs (i.e. dereplication problem) and empower
63 computational approaches like Artificial Intelligence (AI)^{22 23} that can learn new and fundamental
64 principles in target-based design, chemical optimization and rational combination therapies.

65 In this review, we focus on experimental technologies (Figure 1B-F) that, with the aid of mathematical
66 modeling, can augment classical phenotypic screens and provide a more comprehensive
67 characterization of the consequences of drug treatment (Figure 1G), beyond growth inhibition. First,
68 we review recent technological advances that allow multidimensional characterization of drug effects
69 and thereby of drug action. Next, we examine computational strategies to perform *in silico*
70 antibacterial screening and extract functional information from multidimensional profiling of small-
71 molecule effects. Finally, we discuss how the systematic characterization of virtually any type of
72 bioactive molecule can expand the search of antimicrobials to molecules that don't directly inhibit
73 bacterial growth but exploit synergies with the host or with conventional antibiotics.

74

75 **Beyond growth inhibition**

76 **Early identification of antimicrobial targets**

77 Because essentiality is condition-dependent^{5 24}, the translational relevance of *in vitro* susceptibility
78 screens (Figure 1A and 2A) hinges on the availability of experimental models that can mimic *in vivo*
79 environments and interactions with the host. Environmental conditions can be so important that
80 clinically relevant antibiotics, while potent antibacterials *in vivo*, exhibit poor activity in standard
81 laboratory conditions. An emblematic example is daptomycin, for which the use of synthetic media
82 with physiological concentrations of calcium is sufficient to reduce its Minimal Inhibitory
83 Concentration (MIC) almost by 100 fold with respect to standard Mueller Hinton broth (MHB)²⁵.
84 Conversely, compounds with promising *in vitro* activity, such as pyrimidine-imidazole derivatives, can
85 target processes that become dispensable *in vivo*⁵. Thus, standard *in vitro* growth assays don't
86 adequately evaluate the *in vivo* antimicrobial potential of bioactive small molecules, and screening for
87 growth inhibitory compounds in rich laboratory conditions that fail to reproduce host environments
88 can miss attractive antibiotic candidates or potential strategies to potentiate the effect of classical

89 antibiotics^{5 26}. Nevertheless, mimicking the complexity of *in vivo* conditions and host-pathogen
90 interactions with scalable *in vitro* systems remains challenging²⁷.

91 Shifting the focus from merely characterizing growth inhibitory activity to identifying drug binding
92 partners can reveal properties of small molecules that are largely condition-independent and hence
93 provide an orthogonal starting point from which to assess their potential as antibacterials. Classical
94 biochemical approaches to directly probe drug-target binding and mechanisms of action (Box 1), such
95 as affinity purification, chromatography or *in vitro* enzyme assays, are not only low-throughput, but
96 typically focus on a small number of protein targets at a time, making these techniques inadequate to
97 systematically identify new drug targets. Conversely, new mass spectrometry approaches for the
98 profiling of protein conformational changes (i.e. chemical proteomics, Figure 1B) such as thermal
99 proteome profiling (TPP)²⁸ and limited proteolysis (LiP-MS)²⁹, while still limited in throughput, can
100 probe drug-target interactions proteome-wide (Figure 2B). Both technologies detect the stabilization
101 of protein structures as the drug binds its target, leading to higher thermal stability (e.g. melting
102 temperature), measured by TPP, or protection from proteolytic cleavage, measured by LiP-MS,
103 allowing the *de novo* identification of direct drug-protein binding events and indirect effects on the
104 interaction of drug targets with other proteins. TPP can be performed in intact cells, allowing
105 confirmation of drug penetration and of whether the interaction occurs within the cell, while LiP-MS
106 is able to report on binding sites, potentially facilitating chemical optimization. Hence, these two
107 technologies are complementary to each other and can become key to train new *in silico* structural
108 models^{30 31} to predict ligand-target binding at an unprecedented scale.

109 While chemical proteomics methods are attractive technologies to characterize putative targets of
110 candidate antibacterials, physical interactions don't directly report on the functional consequences of
111 drug treatment. Hence, binding assays are typically performed together with functional (i.e.
112 phenotypic) assays that inform on cellular processes affected by the drug treatment. An emblematic
113 example is the characterization of the mechanisms of action underlying the bactericidal activity of a
114 novel antibiotic SCH-79797³². Only by combining TPP with phenotype-based assays were the authors
115 able to reveal that SCH-79797 not only binds and inhibits dihydrofolate reductase, but simultaneously
116 disrupts membrane potential, similar to nisin or polymyxin B³².

117 **Complementing phenotypic with molecular descriptors**

118 An effective approach for the systematic and mechanistic characterization of large compound libraries
119 and to accelerate the discovery of antimicrobials with potentially new MoAs is to combine genome
120 editing technologies with scalable *in vitro* phenotypic assays. Versatile genetic tools like RNAi,
121 antisense RNA-, haploinsufficiency or CRISPR-Cas9 technology allow systematically generating

122 genome-wide mutant-, knockout-, knockdown- or overexpression libraries, in virtually any organism.
123 In arrayed or pooled formats, these collections are invaluable resources enabling high-throughput
124 growth profiling of genetically modified bacteria against compound libraries (i.e. chemogenetic
125 screens) to query for genes that enhance or suppress antimicrobial activity^{3 4 20 33}. Genes associated
126 with drug action can encode direct or proximal drug targets, such as downstream enzymes in the same
127 pathway of the drug target, or cellular functions crucial to endure drug treatment (Figure 1C). When
128 interpreting chemogenetic screening data, it is important to consider that changing gene expression,
129 such as with RNAi or CRISPR-based modulators, is not always sufficient to reveal functional
130 dependencies between gene function and the drug MoA. For instance, proteins might be in excess,
131 such that overexpression or mild down-regulation might not be sufficient to induce measurable
132 changes in drug susceptibility. Similarly, if a drug target is regulated mainly at the post-translational
133 level, protein activity can be largely invariant to protein abundance. Moreover, an increased
134 expression of a drug target does not always lead to an inversely proportional change in susceptibility
135 to an antimicrobial. For example, antibiotics like ciprofloxacin that don't directly act on the catalytic
136 activity of the targeted protein but rather modify its function, can exhibit a counterintuitively higher
137 toxicity when the target (e.g. gyrase complex) is overexpressed³⁴.

138 Testing changes in susceptibility for all gene-drug combinations remains laborious, and classical
139 chemogenetic screening is limited to compounds directly or indirectly affecting growth-related
140 processes (Figure 2C). Advances in imaging technologies have bypassed this limitation and made it
141 possible to monitor several cytological features in a single-pass screen (Figure 1D). Such features are
142 largely orthogonal to growth inhibition, like cell/colony morphology (e.g. shape, area, length, width)
143^{18 19 35} or fluorescent labels reporting on transcriptional activity or metabolic states^{17 36} (Figure 2D and
144 Table 1). A key advantage of imaging-based approaches is that parameters can be measured at the
145 single-cell level, offering unique insights into the heterogeneity of bacterial responses and drug
146 efficacy, potentially unraveling key factors contributing to tolerance and evolution of resistance³⁷.

147 While imaging-based profiling augments conventional phenotypic screening from one (e.g. growth) to
148 dozens of features (e.g. morphological parameters), predicting and characterizing new drug MoAs
149 based on low-dimensional descriptors remains challenging. Molecular profiling technologies, by
150 generating multiparametric signatures encoding drug-induced changes in the abundance of thousands
151 of individual proteins¹⁵, transcripts¹⁶ or metabolites³⁸ (Figure 1E and Table 1), can fill this gap and
152 enable unbiased and *de novo* characterization of compounds with potentially unconventional MoAs³⁹.
153 Thanks to advances in recent years, technologies like metabolomics, proteomics and transcriptomics
154^{16 15 38 40} now achieve the necessary throughput and scalability to rapidly generate large compendia of
155 high-dimensional molecular profiles (Figure 2E), increasingly also at the single-cell level⁴¹ (Figure 1F).

156 Remarkably, molecular profiling methods are often able to detect subtle adaptive changes even in the
157 absence of measurable phenotypic effects³⁸. Such high sensitivity enables deriving functional insights
158 also for molecules or drug concentrations that exhibit poor penetration or result in low activity,
159 respectively, maximizing the information collected from single-pass screening (Figure 1G).

160 Several characteristics define the potential and limitations of technologies used for the
161 characterization of small molecule effects. There are inevitable tradeoffs between throughput,
162 number of measured parameters, level of resolution – i.e. from phenotypic to molecular descriptors
163 or from averaged population measurements to single cells –, and the possibility to make comparative
164 or *de novo* predictions of compound MoAs. Currently, no single technology outperforms the others in
165 all aspects (Figure 2). Therefore, the characterization of *in vitro* small molecule effects by both
166 phenotypic and molecular profiling is crucial for mechanistic and predictive modeling of antimicrobial
167 efficacy in more complex environments, and for identifying possible synergies with the host immune
168 response or with classical antimicrobial treatments.

169 **From *in silico* activity to functional annotation**

170 Identifying bioactivity and MoAs early in the discovery pipeline aids the selection of the most
171 promising next-generation antibacterials, e.g. excluding compounds with conventional MoAs and
172 widespread (cross-)resistance, while prioritizing compounds exhibiting novel and promising MoAs.
173 Computational frameworks able to integrate heterogenous small molecule-associated profiles are key
174 to maximize the utility of multidimensional data^{42 38 43 22}, providing experimentally testable
175 hypotheses on drug efficacy, MoA and molecular targets (Figure 1G).

176 ***In silico* prediction of inhibitory activity and effects**

177 The size and complexity of drug profiling data has fostered the adoption of automated analysis
178 strategies able to extract non-obvious patterns and to learn new fundamental rules (Figure 3A).
179 Machine- and deep learning algorithms^{22 23} are particularly efficient approaches to mine high-
180 dimensional and heterogeneous chemoinformatics-, phenotypic- and molecular drug profiling data
181 and to address problems like activity prediction^{44 22 12}. For example, machine learning algorithms
182 enabled the prediction of mouse treatment outcomes based on growth inhibitory activities of drug
183 combinations measured in multiple *in vitro* models of *M. tuberculosis* infection¹¹. Similarly, when
184 trained on *in vitro* growth inhibitory activity of 2335 molecules, a deep learning approach allowed *in*
185 *silico* prediction of the inhibitory activities of more than 100 million molecules in only few days¹². This
186 approach identified molecules that, while structurally dissimilar from already known antibiotics,
187 exhibit growth inhibitory activity *in vivo* against a broad bacterial spectrum – a remarkable result
188 considering that deep neural networks typically require more data for training compared to classical

189 machine learning algorithms. Strikingly, the authors found a human kinase inhibitor, renamed Halicin,
190 to be a potent antibacterial¹², emphasizing the importance of considering compound diversity⁴⁵ in
191 screening for new antibacterial compounds.

192 AI models trained on *in vitro* growth inhibitory activities can overlook molecules with promising
193 antibacterial targets, but poor bacterial penetration. To overcome this problem, measuring the
194 accumulation of 180 diverse compounds in the Gram negative bacterium *Escherichia coli* uncovered
195 new practical rules on how to optimize the physicochemical properties of small molecules to increase
196 their accumulation inside bacteria⁸. Thus, high-throughput assays that inform on drug
197 accumulation/penetration⁴⁶ could provide invaluable information in the training and application of
198 machine- and deep learning algorithms for the simultaneous discovery and optimization of new
199 antibacterial molecules. Unfortunately, AI approaches are generally “black-box” systems, and
200 rationalizing the AI decision-making process to derive causal and mechanistic biological insights from
201 complex drug profiling data is a daunting task. Combining multiscale modeling such as genome-scale
202 metabolic networks with drug profiling data can render AI approaches more transparent and
203 interpretable⁴⁷. In a recent approach, instead of directly training a machine-learning model on growth
204 inhibitory data, a genome-scale model of *Escherichia coli* metabolism and constraint-based modeling
205 was used to map measured screening data into network representations of changes in metabolic
206 fluxes⁴⁷. This network model-driven machine-learning approach revealed a previously unappreciated
207 causal role of purine biosynthesis in mediating the bactericidal activity of diverse antibiotics. Hence,
208 machine- and deep learning frameworks, by incorporating additional molecular characteristics (e.g.
209 metabolic changes) in the analysis of growth inhibitory activities, could expand the scope of virtual
210 screening to a broader characterization of the functional impact of small molecules.

211 **Comparative annotation of small molecules MoAs**

212 Despite recent advances, *in silico* antibiotic discovery still suffers from the lack of mechanistic insights
213 on the MoAs of newly identified compounds. To enable rapid and systematic MoA predictions,
214 molecular profiles of small molecules can be directly compared to those of compounds with known
215 MoAs, following the “guilt-by-association” principle^{14 15 48} – i.e. drugs that exhibit similar profiles can
216 have similar MoA and/or efficacy (comparative prediction, Figure 3B). One key aspect in such a
217 comparative analysis is the metric used to assess distance or similarity between compound profiles.
218 The choice depends on the specifics of the problem and the nature of the data. Correlation metrics
219 like Pearson correlation, estimated on the full set of measured features, favor global relationships of
220 a specific form (e.g. linear), and could be better suited to find drugs with almost identical properties.
221 Other metrics testing entropy-based similarity (e.g. mutual information) or conditional
222 independence (e.g. graphical Gaussian models), or techniques to decompose a signature into

223 individual components that are maximally independent from each other, like principal- or
224 independent component analyses, are able to better exploit the complexity of high-dimensional data
225 and can capture local similarities, revealing more subtle commonalities between compounds MoAs³⁸
226 ^{14 49}. A key premise of comparative approaches is that different classes of antibiotics exhibit distinct
227 physicochemical properties or induce characteristic changes in cell morphology, transcriptome,
228 proteome or metabolome profiles ^{14 15 20}. Using drug profiling signatures at multiple scales and in
229 combination is likely to maximize the predictive power of comparative analysis in chemically and
230 functionally diverse compound libraries and to reveal crucial differences between compounds with
231 similar MoAs ^{50 51 32 52}. While the primary scope of comparative approaches is limited to the search
232 against antimicrobials with already known MoAs, finding unique signatures that differ from those of
233 conventional antimicrobials can lead to molecules with new MoAs, thereby alleviating the problem of
234 rediscovering compounds with the same MoAs ^{14 19}. Moreover, maximizing diversity in
235 multidimensional drug profiling signatures can represent an attractive alternative to maximizing
236 chemical diversity ^{45 38}, which alone is not sufficient to yield compound sets with diverse biological
237 actions ¹⁹.

238 As an alternative to the comparison between drug profiles, profiling of large-scale libraries of
239 genetically modified bacteria^{3 20 33} has opened the door to systematically search for genetic
240 perturbations that can mimic the effect of small-molecule perturbations^{38 53 54}. Differently from
241 chemogenetic screens in which each mutant is tested against all compounds, comparisons of
242 molecular profiles in response to genetic vs chemical perturbations requires each perturbation to be
243 tested only once. Hence, multidimensional profiling of genetic perturbations can generate a set of
244 reference profiles to speed up the search for inhibitors of specific gene functions, and simultaneously
245 accelerate the functional annotation of large compound libraries⁵⁵. By using this principle and
246 comparing metabolic changes induced by knocking down essential genes in *E. coli* with drug-induced
247 metabolic changes, we discovered that tegaserod, a drug commonly used to treat irritable bowel
248 syndrome, interferes with the essential structural anchoring between peptidoglycan and lipoproteins
249 ⁵⁵. It is worth noting that modulating the expression of one individual gene is often not sufficient to
250 completely mimic drug effects, because drugs can engage multiple targets without necessarily
251 inhibiting their catalytic functions, and the response to drug treatment can be radically different from
252 compensation for gene downregulation. In spite of these limitations, this approach has been used
253 successfully in a number of diverse drug discovery applications, from antibiotics¹⁴ to anticancer
254 agents^{40 55}, offering new opportunities to combine target- and phenotype-based drug discovery and
255 ultimately expanding the chemical space of small molecules for emerging therapeutic targets.

256 **Network modeling enables *de novo* predictions of MoAs**

257 Molecular profiling of small molecule effects offers a sensitive and high-dimensional readout, able to
258 detect effects of treatment also for molecules that fail to inhibit bacterial growth³⁸. Exposure to
259 antibacterials that have poor penetration, bioactivity²², or interfere with non-essential functions, can
260 trigger adaptive molecular changes, such as target overexpression, without inducing macroscopic
261 phenotypes (e.g. growth inhibition, morphological changes). If detected, such adaptive changes can
262 still reveal key aspects of drug action. However, formulating experimentally testable hypotheses of
263 drug targets, MoAs and response mechanisms is less straight-forward than with phenotypic assays.
264 Differently from chemogenetic screening or mutational profiling of antibiotic-resistant strains, which
265 directly point to genes interfering with the compound's ability to inhibit growth, interpreting drug
266 molecular profiles requires integration with prior knowledge and mathematical models, like gene
267 regulatory-, signaling- or metabolic networks. In return, model-based analysis of molecular profiles
268 allows differentiating drug targets from downstream effects and key processes mediating the
269 response to drug treatment ^{43 51 56 57 58} (Figure 3C), also in the absence of measurable phenotypic
270 changes ⁵². For instance, combining dynamic metabolic profiles with kinetic modeling unraveled how
271 *E. coli* can robustly cope with fluctuations in the expression of essential genes, such as carbamoyl
272 phosphate synthetase (CarAB) ⁵⁶. The authors showed that the allosteric activation of CarAB by
273 ornithine allows maintaining constant fluxes in arginine and pyrimidine nucleotide biosynthesis even
274 when CarAB is knocked down. Network analysis of genetic perturbations can offer invaluable insights
275 on the potential efficacy of drug targeting essential gene products, and which innate or potentially
276 evolvable compensatory mechanisms can bypass and neutralize drug effects.

277 Often, the large number of unknown parameters and variables limits the scope of these models to
278 small-scale systems ^{51 56 57}. A powerful approach is the linear approximation of dynamic systems
279 operating at near-steady state, which enables formulating tractable models of complex non-linear
280 regulatory and biochemical networks at genome-scale ^{58 43 59}. For example, gene regulatory networks
281 can be parametrized using large compendia of steady-state transcriptional profiles across largely
282 diverse conditions⁵⁹. These relatively simple models are able to identify genes encoding drug targets
283 by estimating a set of additional external inputs that simulate drug-target interactions, and thereby
284 improve fitting of drug-induced transcriptional changes ⁴³ (Figure 3C). The potential of this approach
285 applied to drug-induced gene expression changes was shown by inferring that 1-phenyl-1H-tetrazol-
286 5-ylsulfonyl-butanenitrile (PTSB), a potent antifungal and anticancer drug, interferes with redox
287 balance and specifically inhibits the thioredoxin/thioredoxin reductase system⁴³. Additionally,
288 integrating the dynamics of the drug-induced changes, while adding an additional level of complexity
289 in the analysis, can provide crucial information to resolve direct (typically early-onset) from indirect
290 drug effects^{51 57 56}.

291 **Exploiting unconventional antimicrobial targets**

292 The difficulties in finding antibiotics with new MoAs might also be a consequence of a limited number
293 of druggable proteins being essential in nutrient-rich laboratory conditions. The number of essential
294 genes can vary between 300 to 600, depending on genome size and bacterial species⁶⁰. Of these, only
295 less than 10% (i.e. 30-60) is predicted to be druggable⁶¹, raising the question whether, with 50 non-
296 redundant antibiotic targets⁶¹, we have already discovered most MoAs that act by targeting core
297 essential bacterial proteins. Expanding the systematic characterization of the chemical space also to
298 molecules with no *in vitro* antimicrobial activity can facilitate the discovery of compounds targeting
299 cellular processes fundamental for *in vivo* survival and colonization (Figure 4A), epistatically
300 interacting targets (Figure 4B) or mechanisms to survive antimicrobial treatment (Figure 4C). In this
301 section, we will focus on how multidimensional profiling and computational tools could facilitate and
302 enable the systematic exploration of unconventional antibacterial strategies.

303 **Systematically interfering with regulators of virulence.**

304 Anti-virulence therapies such as interfering with pathogen quorum sensing systems, *in vivo*
305 adaptation, biofilm formation or bacterial toxins^{62 63}, are promising unconventional antibacterial
306 strategies that, without killing or inhibiting bacterial growth, can fight and curb the emergence and
307 spread of resistant pathogens. Transcriptome and proteome analyses of bacterial physiology at the
308 infection site can reveal regulatory strategies of pathogens during colonization and infection and
309 thereby, expose a plethora of new potential targets for antivirulence agents^{82 64 65}. For example, dosR-
310 mediated transcriptional regulation (DosRST) is essential in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb) to
311 adopt a dormant state and survive in granuloma⁹. By screening a large library of small molecules on
312 a DosRST-dependent fluorescent Mtb reporter strain, new inhibitors of DosRST signaling have been
313 discovered. Among them artemisinin, which was shown to induce transcriptional profiles largely
314 similar to those of a *dosR* deletion mutant strain³⁶. Because modulating key transcriptional regulators
315 of virulence, like *dosR* in Mtb or *toxT* in *Vibrio cholerae*, induces unique transcriptional signatures⁶⁶
316⁶⁷, transcriptome profiling of small molecule effects could be a valid alternative to monitoring
317 individual gene reporters^{36 10} and speed up the search for compounds that selectively interfere with
318 or revert the downstream effects of virulence factors. While monitoring individual gene reporters
319 would require the genetic insertion of a new construct and to re-screen the compound library for each
320 gene target of interest, reference databases of genome-wide transcriptome profiles of chemical and
321 genetic perturbations together with similarity-based analysis could allow searching for molecules able
322 to interfere with virtually any regulator. This strategy has been used to find selective inhibitors of
323 human kinases⁴⁰, or to identify compounds potentially interfering with important *E. coli* regulators
324 for *in vivo* cellular adaptation, such as *rpoS* and *fur*³⁸.

325 **Targeting host-pathogen interactions**

326 Profiling of pathogen-induced gene expression changes in the host revealed that host-derived
327 metabolites can play a key role in dictating the intracellular lifestyle of pathogens and in establishing
328 host-pathogen interactions essential for virulence and survival^{68 69}. Mounting evidence suggests that
329 the host can unintentionally promote virulence and pathogen survival⁶⁸, but also employ strategies
330 that limit the access of bacteria to key nutrients like amino acids or cofactors^{70 69}. Pathogens in such
331 hostile environments will likely exhibit vulnerabilities that cannot be discovered in standard
332 phenotypic *in vitro* assays. Using human serum to mimic physiological conditions such as wound
333 exudate or human blood revealed key differences in gene expression regulation of the *arn* operon,
334 mediating arabinosaminylation of lipopolysaccharides in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*²⁶. The authors
335 found that downregulation of the *arn* operon is not only likely responsible for the increase in the
336 susceptibility to azithromycin in host-like media with respect to standard MHB, but also for
337 augmenting the synergy between azithromycin and synthetic host-defense peptides.

338 Metabolic profiling of supernatants and analysis of uptake/secretion rates of nutrients and by-
339 products⁷¹ can be used to constrain genome-scale models of metabolism and predict attractive and
340 selective targets essential *in vivo*^{72 73 74} (Figure 4A). For example, a genome-scale metabolic model of
341 *E. coli* was able to identify conditionally essential enzymes in the human blood, macrophage and
342 urinary tract, predictions which could subsequently be validated¹³. Overall, molecular profiling
343 techniques able to measure the composition of complex nutritional environments or monitor *in vivo*
344 pathogen physiology⁷⁵ can aid the characterization^{68 76} and *in vitro* reconstitution of conditions in
345 infected tissues^{77 78} and enables directly searching for molecules that can target mechanisms to
346 circumvent host-induced nutrient limitation, to scavenge essential nutrients^{70 79 80}, or further
347 potentiate the host immune response⁸¹.

348 **Leveraging epistatic interactions between small molecules**

349 Large-scale di- and trigenetic screens have unraveled a large space of gene pairs or triples that, if
350 simultaneously inhibited, could provide an alternative solution to the search for antibacterial
351 monotherapies. Instead of single drugs targeting essential proteins, small molecules could be co-
352 administered to target synthetic lethal proteins (Figure 4B), or potentiate the action of classical
353 antibiotics (Figure 4C)^{82 83}. Exploiting combinations of two or more compounds could dramatically
354 expand the range of targets and molecules that could be selected from large-scale screening⁸⁴.
355 However, due to the explosion in the combinatorial complexity, the discovery of combination
356 therapies remains a major challenge. To bypass testing all possible combinations of small molecules,
357 multidimensional profiling of the effects of individual molecules has opened new opportunities in the

358 data-driven prediction of effective drug combinations^{85 38 86}. For instance, chemogenetic profiles were
359 shown to be a powerful training data source for a machine learning algorithm able to predict epistatic
360 interactions between antibiotics⁸⁵. Combining metabolomic- or transcriptomic profiling of small-
361 molecule effects with chemical-genetic interaction data not only enables to predict pairs of
362 epistatically interacting compounds, but also reveals mechanistic insights underlying drug-drug
363 interactions^{38 87}. Hence, combining classical phenotypic with multidimensional profiling of chemically
364 diverse compound libraries can rationalize and expedite the search for unconventional combination
365 therapies.

366 **Hampering resistance and tolerance**

367 The rapid emergence of antimicrobial resistance represents a major challenge to the discovery and
368 development of new antibacterial treatments. A growing body of genome-wide association studies
369 has unraveled global molecular signatures, like gene expression or proteome changes, that associate,
370 explain and could be predictive of resistance^{28 88 89 90}. A particularly comprehensive study
371 demonstrated that proteome composition analysis of more than 300.000 clinical isolates enables
372 machine learning to predict antimicrobial resistance across clinically relevant pathogens⁹⁰. Even if the
373 most obvious approach would be to directly target the element responsible for increased resistance
374 (e.g. inhibiting β -lactamases, efflux pumps), the comprehensive characterization of the indirect effects
375 of resistance elements uncovered additional ways to hamper and select against evolution of
376 resistance, or predict collateral susceptibility^{28 91 92}, i.e. increased susceptibility to antibiotics different
377 from the one selecting for resistance. The fact that different resistance mechanisms associate with
378 specific molecular signatures^{93 94} offers the opportunity to search against reference databases, and
379 reevaluate the profiles of small molecules with no or little antibiotic activity. Inhibiting non-essential
380 cellular processes that are nonetheless key to evade antibiotic killing actions, such as those mediating
381 metabolic homeostasis⁸⁸ or compensating for the cost of resistance mutations⁹¹ can not only
382 potentiate the efficacy of classical antibiotics, but also hamper evolution of resistance^{91 92}. A high-
383 throughput competitive assay identified two compounds, both with metal-chelating properties, that
384 invert the selective advantage of an increased expression of tetracycline-resistance efflux pump
385 (TetA) in *E. coli*⁹². Remarkably, the authors found that both compounds are able to select for null
386 insertions or deletions of the *tetA* gene suggesting for the possibility that compounds that select
387 against resistance genes can be used in a two-phase treatment regimen. The first phase can revert
388 resistant pathogens back to sensitive thereby improving the efficacy of a second-phase treatment with
389 a conventional antibiotic.

390 Major obstacles in implementing such strategies in a clinical setting are the possible emergence of
391 mutations conferring cross-resistance and the ability to evolve strategies to survive the exposure to

392 lethal antibiotic concentrations longer (i.e. tolerance)^{95 96} (Figure 4C). The possibility to broadly profile
393 the consequences of drug treatment has revealed indirect but nevertheless critical effects of classical
394 antimicrobial treatments, as well as unexpected pathways allowing bacteria to tolerate treatment for
395 longer periods, thus facilitating evolution of resistance^{96 97 98 99}. Single point mutations in central
396 metabolic genes, such as proton-pumping NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase (Nuo complex)⁹⁶, were
397 shown to be sufficient to achieve high levels of multidrug tolerance in *E. coli*. Consistent with these
398 findings, it has been suggested that secondary effects altering the homeostasis of potentially toxic
399 metabolites act as key mediators of antibacterial activity of antibiotics with largely different MoAs⁹⁷
400^{98 55}. For example, Korormicin is a small molecule that selectively kills gram-negative bacteria
401 expressing the Na⁺-pumping NADH:quinone oxidoreductase. Interestingly, it was shown that the
402 antibiotic's action is not directly caused by inhibiting enzyme activity, but rather results from indirect
403 promotion of the production of reactive oxygen species⁹⁸. Hence, targeting cellular processes that
404 catalyze or mitigate indirect toxicity of antibiotics, such as homeostatic regulation of metals, cofactors,
405 purine biosynthetic intermediates or reactive oxygen species, represents an attractive strategy to
406 potentiate conventional antibiotics (Figure 4C)^{98 47 55}. Altogether, multidimensional profiling of small-
407 molecule effects opens new opportunities in the rational design of combination therapies that can
408 preserve the efficacy of conventional antibiotics and expands the scope of lead selection to small
409 molecules with no growth inhibitory activity.

410 **Conclusions/Perspective**

411 Discovering new antibacterial strategies is a daunting and urgent challenge. Over the past decade,
412 antibiotic discovery has been transformed from screening for growth inhibitory activity to the
413 characterization of several alternative phenotypes and molecular characteristics of small-molecule
414 effects. Moving the characterization of lead compounds MoAs up in the drug discovery pipeline has
415 fostered an iterative learning process to expand the functional diversity of compound libraries and the
416 spectrum of molecules with potential as antimicrobials (Figure 5). A new promising strategy in the
417 selection of unconventional antibacterial molecules is to search for molecules that induce similar or
418 synergistic signatures to downstream toxic antibiotic effects or that are able to interfere with key
419 adaptive mechanisms to establish *in vivo* infection, without the requirement for growth inhibitory
420 activity *in vitro*. Moreover, the unbiased characterization of small-molecule effects will enable
421 assembly of compound libraries modulating diverse bacterial functions, providing an entirely new
422 chemical probe toolbox to gain insights in fundamental aspects of microbiology.

423 While new computational tools like AI algorithms are able to deal with levels of complexity that other
424 methods cannot handle, they not only necessitate large amounts of data for training. Carefully
425 designed experiments generating high-quality data that avoid potential biases, like enrichment for

426 specific physicochemical compound properties, or confounding elements such as batch effects, are of
427 utmost importance. This raises the demand for generating data repositories and standards in data
428 acquisition that can adequately support the development of computational approaches able to tackle
429 long-standing challenges in antibacterial discovery and development. This is an already ongoing effort
430 in other research fields, like anticancer research, where large multiscale data resources are being
431 assembled and shared (e.g. <https://depmap.org/broad-sanger/>). Consortia involving academia and
432 pharma companies engage the scientific community to develop and test new *in silico* approaches, such
433 as new strategies to predict drug efficacy or combinations from gene expression profiling (e.g. DREAM
434 Challenges), with the prospect of more rapidly advancing our understanding of how to extract
435 biological insights from multidimensional data^{40 100}. However, while in the cancer field there is a strong
436 support from the private sector, this is lagging behind in antibacterial discovery, where most efforts
437 are supported by government programs. The more mature experience in anticancer research could
438 serve as a blueprint for establishing similar consortia to accelerate translational research in
439 antibacterial discovery.

440 With ever-increasing throughput and financial incentives to expedite antibacterial research, ultimately
441 the bottleneck will move from data acquisition to data analysis. Combining artificial intelligence with
442 mechanistic models of genetic and biochemical networks will not only increase the success rate and
443 thereby reduce the cost of antibacterial discovery. We will also learn fundamental lessons in basic and
444 pathogenic microbiology, opening new opportunities beyond antibacterial/drug discovery and
445 potentially fostering new directions in synthetic biology, sustainability and biomedical applications.

446

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454 **Competing interests**

455 The authors declare no competing interests.

456

457 **Boxes**

458 **Box 1:**

459 **Mode of action:** reports on the functional consequences of drug treatment and how the drug achieves
460 its intended therapeutic effects. For example, most current antimicrobials can be grouped into 4
461 classes with distinct modes of action: interference with the cell wall (e.g. penicillins), inhibition of
462 nucleic acid metabolism and repair (e.g. fluoroquinolones), inhibition of protein synthesis (e.g.
463 macrolides) and interference with folate metabolism (e.g. sulfonamides).

464 **Mechanism of action:** the mechanism of action of a drug is more specific than its mode of action. It
465 defines the targets and specific biochemical interaction (e.g. competitive vs non-competitive, agonist
466 vs antagonist) through which a drug produces its pharmacological effect. For example, the mechanism
467 of action of penicillins is the irreversible binding of the β -lactam ring to the active sites of penicillin-
468 binding proteins (i.e. transpeptidase and acylates), ultimately preventing the formation of cross-links
469 between peptidoglycans.

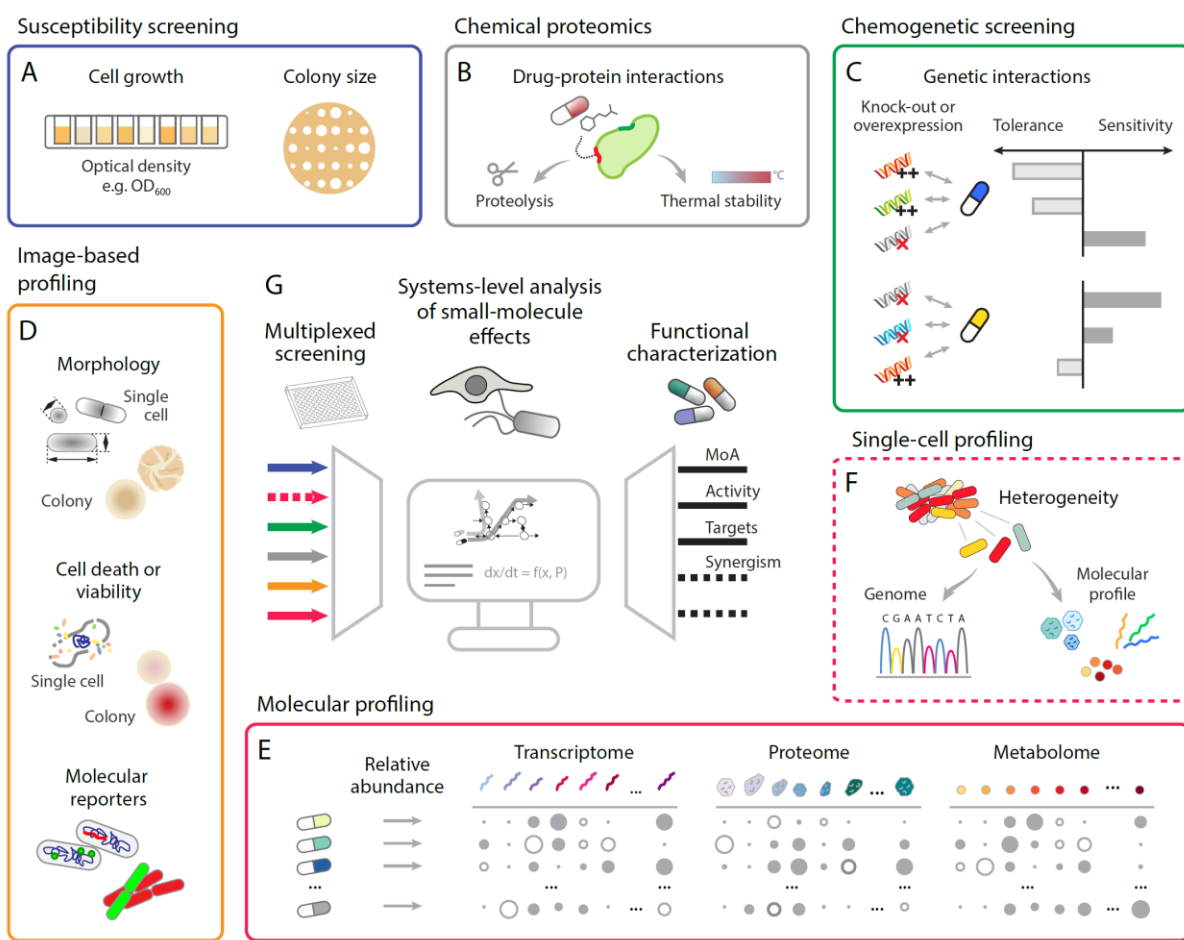
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471 **Tables**

472 **Table 1.** Platforms and readouts for the screening and multidimensional characterization of small
473 molecule effects. Different screening platforms (Figure 1) make use of different measurements and
474 techniques to characterize drug effects on target organisms. As methods differ in the respective
475 readouts they generate, functional and/or molecular effects of small molecules on target organisms
476 can be profiled along multiple dimensions.

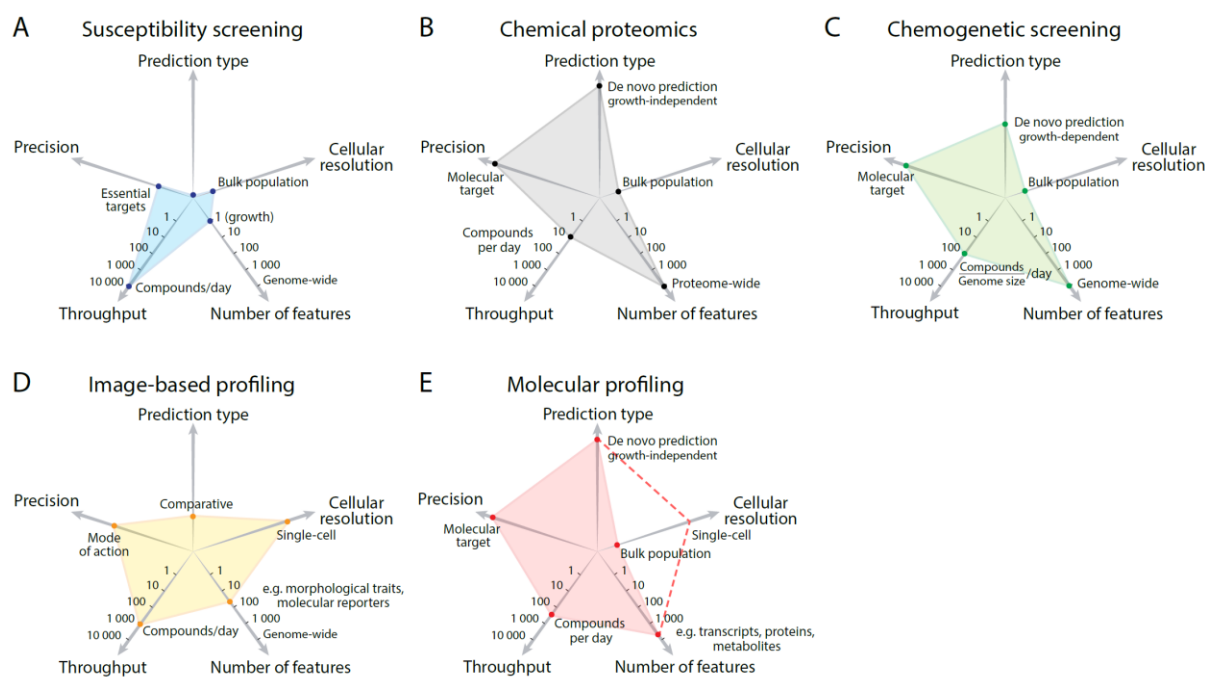
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478 **Figures**

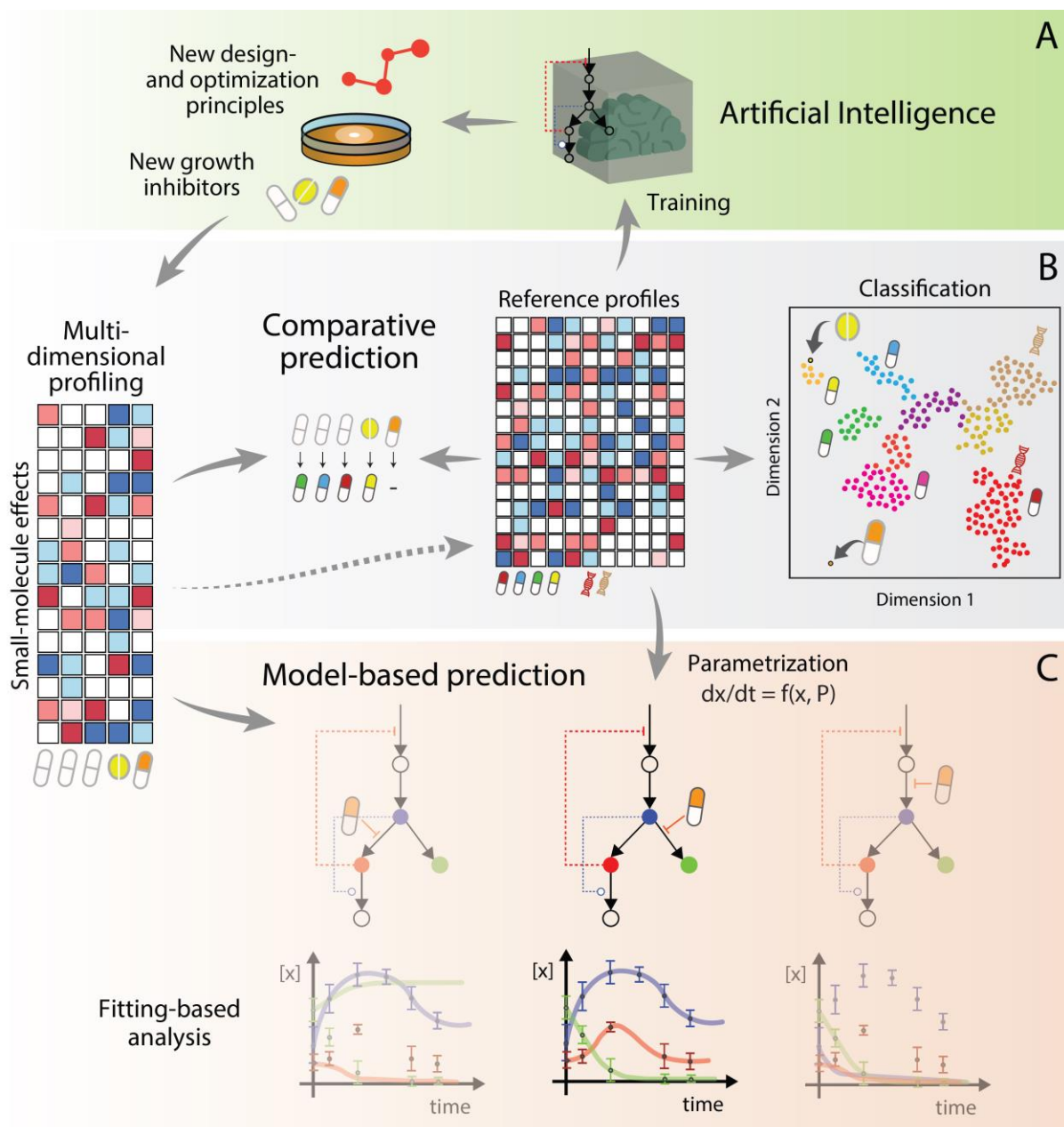


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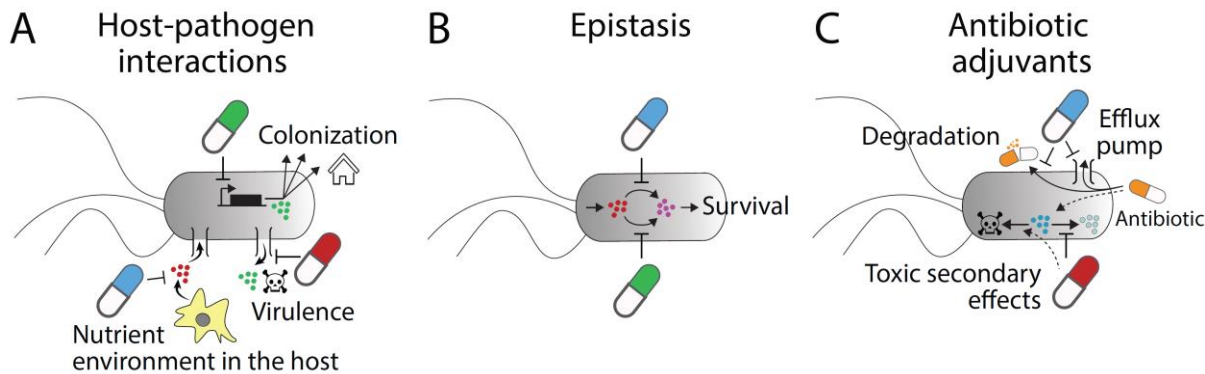
480 **Figure 1. Multidimensional and multiplexed characterization of small-molecule antimicrobials.** Techniques for
 481 the systematic characterization and multidimensional description of small molecule effects are grouped in five
 482 major approach types. **(A)** Susceptibility screening: measures the ability of antimicrobial candidates to inhibit
 483 bacterial growth, typically by measuring cell density in planktonic cultures or colony size on solid media. **(B)**
 484 Chemical proteomics: alternative to classical biochemical approaches, by measuring stabilization of protein
 485 structural features and protection from proteolytic cleavage and melting (i.e. thermal stability), advanced mass
 486 spectrometry-based proteomics methods allow detecting direct and proximal physical interactions of small
 487 molecules with proteins. **(C)** Chemogenetic screening: identifies genetic perturbations, like gene deletion (x) or
 488 overexpression (++), that enhance or reduce susceptibility (i.e. sensitivity or tolerance). **(D)** Imaging-based
 489 phenotypic profiling: automated imaging platforms enable large-scale monitoring of additional cellular
 490 characteristics, such as cell- or colony morphology, cell shape transitions (e.g. bulging, cell lysis), reporters of
 491 gene expression or metabolic activity. **(E)** Molecular profiling: measures drug-induced changes in the abundance
 492 of intracellular biomolecules, like transcripts, proteins and metabolites, yielding high-dimensional signatures of
 493 drug action independent of growth inhibitory activity. While gene expression is typically profiled using DNA
 494 microarrays or RNA sequencing, proteomics and metabolomics rely mostly on mass spectrometry-based
 495 approaches. **(F)** Adaptations for single-cell profiling are emerging, allowing single-cell measurements of bacterial
 496 responses to candidate antibacterials to characterize rare sub-populations (e.g. persisters) and heterogeneity in
 497 the treatment response. **(G)** The reviewed technologies for the profiling of small-molecules effects are
 498 complementary to each other and can be multiplexed in drug screening. With the aid of models to predict and
 499 investigate how chemical and genetic perturbations propagate through biochemical and genetic networks and
 500 thereby affect pathogen physiology and its interactions with the host, phenotypic and molecular profiling of
 501 small molecules effects can unravel unique mechanistic insights on their antibacterial activity, MoAs or potential
 502 synergism with other compounds.



503
 504 **Figure 2. Different scopes of small-molecule antibacterial profiling technologies.** (A-F) Approaches for the
 505 profiling of small molecule effects reported in Figure 1 are here described by five major characteristics.
 506 Throughput: How many compounds can be profiled per day - susceptibility screens (panel A) are scalable and
 507 offer the highest throughput, while chemogenetic screens (panel C) necessitate that the growth inhibitory
 508 activity of each compound is tested against multiple genetically modified strains, typically genome-wide mutant
 509 libraries, reducing the effective throughput. Number of features: dimensionality (number of measured
 510 parameters) of the small-molecule descriptors. Cellular resolution: from bulk measurements reporting the
 511 average behavior of bacterial populations to single-cell measurements in image-based profiling (panel D), and
 512 more recently molecular profiling technologies (panel E, dashed line). Prediction type: from the comparative
 513 analysis of uncharacterized compounds against a reference set of antimicrobials to *de novo* predictions of new
 514 antimicrobial MoAs even for compounds without growth inhibitory activity. Precision: the ability to discriminate
 515 direct targets and mechanisms of action from drug MoA and indirect/general effects of small molecules.

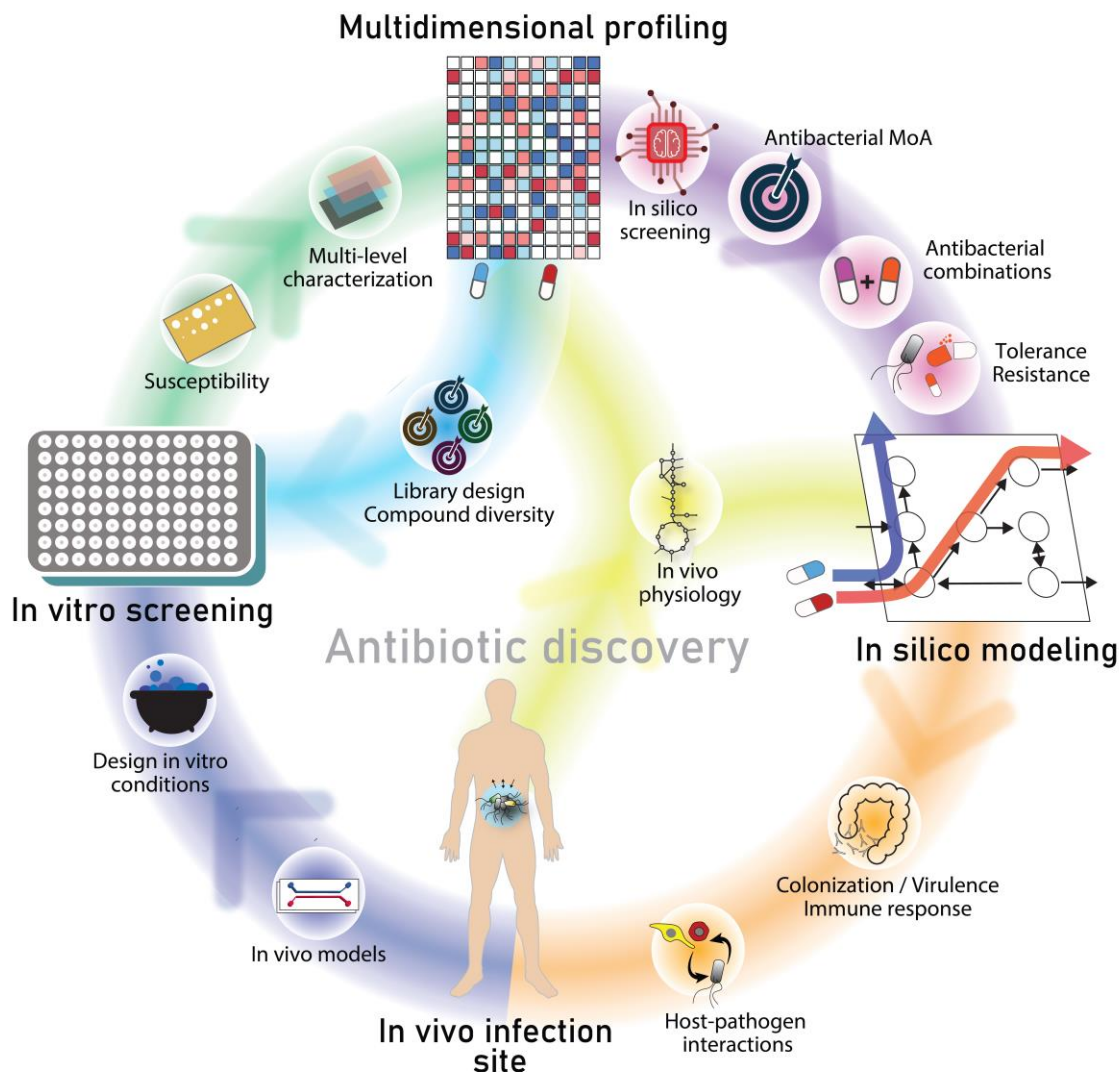


516
 517 **Figure 3: Computational extraction of functional insights from multidimensional profiles of small-molecule**
 518 **effects.** (A) AI algorithms for the *in silico* discovery of new and yet to be profiled antibacterials use
 519 multidimensional profiling data to train and improve interpretability, unraveling novel principles guiding
 520 compound optimization and development. (B) Profiles of uncharacterized molecules are compared to
 521 antibacterials with an already known MoA or with genetic perturbations, such as knockout or overexpression.
 522 Such comparative analysis enables the systematic functional annotation of compounds and their classification
 523 in already known classes of antimicrobials or as potential new and unconventional antibacterials. (C)
 524 Frameworks for the de novo prediction of MoAs integrate molecular profiles and a priori knowledge in
 525 mechanistic or probabilistic models of genetic and/or biochemical networks to simulate different possible
 526 scenarios, like the effects of inhibiting different drug targets. Model-based simulations are compared to
 527 experimental data to find the most plausible parameters and drug targets.



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Figure 4: Leveraging potential synergies within the host and bacteria. Molecules that per se have little or no growth inhibitory activity *in vitro* could still be effective antibacterials: **(A)** by interfering with virulence factors (red), bacterial adaptation to the host (green) or synergizing with the host immune response, like inducing nutrient restrictions (blue). **(B)** By targeting synthetic lethal proteins, i.e. targeting proteins that become essential only when their activity is simultaneously inhibited (green + blue). **(C)** By interfering with antibiotics (orange) resistance mechanisms (e.g. efflux pumps) (blue) or potentiating the side effects of antibiotics action, like the production or remediation of toxic intermediates (red).



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Figure 5: New iterative cycles in the discovery and validation of potential antibacterial compounds. Multidimensional characterization of large compound libraries, beyond susceptibility, inform on drug action

541 already in the first screening phases (green). Multidimensional characterization of small molecules effects can
542 be directly used to assemble libraries of diverse bioactive compounds (light blue). With the aid of computational
543 tools, like AI or genome-scale models of metabolism or transcriptional regulation, small molecules profiles can
544 provide systematic predictions of MoA, epistatic drug interactions, mechanisms of resistance/tolerance (purple).
545 Model-based analysis of small molecules profiles can also make predictions of drug efficacy, before experimental
546 *in vivo* testing. Moreover, model-based predictions can repurpose molecules that are not themselves growth
547 inhibitory, but can target processes fundamental for virulence, colonization or can interfere with host-pathogen
548 interactions, such as nutrients restrictions at the infection site (orange). In turn, the same technologies used to
549 profile drug effects could be used to gain quantitative insights on physiology of bacteria at the infection site,
550 providing additional information to refine model-based predictions (yellow) or foster the development of *in vitro*
551 systems that better mimic naturalistic *in vivo* conditions (purple).

552 **Highlighted references**

553 ³ Systematic titration of gene expression and analysis of fitness cost in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* reveals
554 genes vulnerability and quantify essentiality of bacterial functions.

555 ⁴ Elegant strategy to screen large chemical libraries against hypomorph pools of strains depleted of essential
556 bacterial targets. This strategy named PROSPECT increase the probability of hit compounds discovery and
557 provide mechanistic insights on compound functions.

558 ¹⁴ Combination of high-throughput metabolic profiling of chemical libraries and limited proteolysis reveal the
559 modes of action of new antituberculosis compounds.

560 ¹⁵ By combining SWATH technology with high-flow chromatography the authors developed an ultra-fast
561 proteomics approach reducing sample acquisition measurement to 60 seconds opening new opportunities in
562 drug mode-of-action screening.

563 ²² This study comprehensively demonstrates the power of combining multiparametric high content screening
564 and genomic approach, beyond classical susceptibility screening, to guide lead compound selection and their
565 functional annotation.

566 ³⁸ Comparing metabolic changes induced by genetic and chemical perturbations can be used to characterize
567 MoA of compounds that target non-essential processes and thereby enable searching for unconventional
568 antibacterial compounds.

569 ¹² The authors developed a deep learning model trained to predict antibiotics based on structure and in vitro
570 growth inhibitory activity. AI was able to predict a molecule that while structurally different from classical
571 antimicrobials exhibits broad-spectrum antibiotic activities in mice.

572 ⁸⁷ The authors used a machine learning approach to screen in silico more than 1 million potential drug
573 combinations using *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* transcriptomic profiles of individual drug effects revealing
574 mechanistic insights on the mechanisms of drug-drug interactions.

575 ⁵⁶Model-based regulatory analysis of metabolic adaptive changes upon gene knockdowns revealed regulatory
576 mechanisms that can buffer fluctuations in enzyme protein levels.

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