

McMaster University © Copyright by Sommer Chou

i

McMaster University DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (2025) Hamilton, Ontario (Biochemistry and Biomedical Sciences

TITLE: Developing a screen to identify microbial natural products with potential anthelmintic activity using Caenorhabditis elegans

AUTHOR: Sommer Chou, B.Sc. (McMaster University)

SUPERVISORS: Dr. Gerard D. Wright, Dr. Lesley T. MacNeil

NUMBER OF PAGES: xiv, 112

LAY ABSTRACT

Helminths are parasitic worms that can cause debilitating diseases in approximately one quarter of the world's population. These infections result in long-term health defects if left untreated but there are currently very few anthelmintic medicines. As such, there is a need to focus research efforts towards the discovery of new treatments. Currently, many medicines that exist in our healthcare system today were derived from natural sources, and we can continue to search here for chemicals that are effective against helminth infections. In this work, we use *Caenorhabditis* elegans, a non-parasitic nematode, to help identify natural products from bacteria and fungi that can kill, paralyze, or affect the development of worms. We developed and optimized a method to assess a collection of natural product extracts for activity against *C. elegans*. This work could uncover new anthelmintic compounds that can be used to treat parasitic worm infections and improve global human health.

ABSTRACT

Parasitic worm infections affect over a quarter of the human population, reducing quality of life and impacting global health. Helminth infections in farm animals are also highly prevalent and threaten the quality and quantity of agricultural resources. Despite the severity and frequency of helminthiases, few treatment options are available and rising levels of resistance to existing anthelmintics necessitates a more active drug discovery strategy. In the past, natural products have proven to be a rich source of clinically relevant therapeutics. There is currently no gold-standard protocol for anthelmintic compound screening, and efforts to look for anthelmintic chemicals from natural sources is also limited. To fill this gap, we developed a screening platform that uses Caenorhabditis elegans as a nematode model and optimized the assay conditions for natural product extract screening. Using outputs of motility and image analyses, we are able to identify extracts from environmental microbes that impact worm development. Further characterization confirmed the presence of nematocidal compounds tunicamycin and actinomycin D. We also identified and isolated xanthocillin as an inhibitor of worm growth. This has not been previously reported to have activity against nematodes but preliminary work presented here suggests that it works through heme sequestration. In the field, there has also been some interest in the nematode cuticle as a potential drug target. To assist in discovery efforts here, we also developed a protocol using a

nanoluciferase-based reporter worm strain that responds to cuticle damage. The work presented here contributes to more focused anthelmintic drug discovery efforts. It provides valuable tools and insights that can be leveraged to assist in identifying compounds for the potential treatment of parasitic worm infections.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

People often say that completing a PhD is no easy feat. That it's a marathon, not a sprint. Well, I have asthma, and just like I would not be able to finish a run without my inhaler, I also would not have been able to get this far without my support system. For the people who picked me up, helped me breathe easier on this journey, and have pushed me towards the finish line, this is for you.

I owe everything to my supervisors: Dr. Gerry Wright and Dr. Lesley MacNeil. The last few years have been tough for me, but you both made me believe that I was tougher. Your support extended beyond troubleshooting and experimental design, and I am indebted to you for being the gravitational constant that held everything together. You gave me safe spaces – in the labs, in your offices, and in my project – to escape to when I needed it the most. I wouldn't be here without you.

Gerry, thank you for taking a chance on me all those years ago while I was still in undergrad. I knew I liked science, but I didn't really know why, and you helped me understand. Your passion for learning made mine make sense. You taught me how to think critically, ask meaningful questions, and turn setbacks into paths forward. You have always gone above and beyond for your students, and I have never been able to eloquently articulate just how much that meant to me as one of those students, but I hope you know that I will be forever grateful. Thank you for teaching me not only about science, but also leadership. I've been asked multiple times who I admire most as a leader, and my answer is always you. You lead by example – with integrity, passion, empathy, reliability, and patience. If I could ever someday be even just half of the leader you are, I would call that a huge success.

Lesley, thank you for welcoming me into your lab with open arms when Gerry walked me and a project idea over to your office all those years ago. Thank you for your unwavering support and teaching me everything I now know about worms. I can always count on seeing you in the lab at 8 PM on a weekend and it made my commute to campus less dreadful knowing that I would have someone to immediately share my results with. Thank you for teaching me how to use all the microscopes and for sharing pictures of your dogs when you know I needed the pickme-up. I think I might hate the word "utilize" as much as you do now and I made sure it doesn't come up a single time in this thesis. I am so thankful to you for your dedication, enthusiasm, empathy, and resilience.

Thank you to my committee members, Dr. Fred Capretta and Dr. Dawn Bowdish for your consistent support throughout my project. I am so appreciative of the time you spent generating discussions and brainstorming with me during my committee

meetings. The diverse expertise you contributed reminded me of how powerful interdisciplinary knowledge can be, and you were the role models I needed to show me how to be a well-rounded scientist.

To the McMaster Varsity Badminton Team, thanks for being a place for me to put my competitive spirit. For the past 10 years, I have had the privilege of representing this school as a Marauder, and I am grateful to the athletic department and the athletes for trusting me to coach the team for the last four years. To all of the athletes on the team, past and present, thanks for being great friends and teammates. And Jacky, the longest standing assistant coach, thank you for all of your help running practices, organizing the team, and being someone we could always count on.

I would also like to express my sincere thanks to my peers at the Halton Distress Centre. Thank you for taking me on as a volunteer 8 years ago and giving me so many opportunities to grow as a mentor and a trainer for the organization. Dara, you're an inspiration. Your vision and strength are what makes DCH what it is, and I deeply admire your commitment and determination. To Rose, Rachel, Prabhleen, Mike M., Mike T., Feeroza, Sarah, Rylie, Dan, Nicole, and Brenda, thanks for the pub nights, the chats, the trainings, and the friendship. An extra shout out to Mike and Mike, for being my trainers all those years ago and never complaining about repeatedly going out to buy more snacks after I kept eating them all. All of you, and the rest of the volunteers and callers, played a significant role in shaping who I am today, whether you realize it or not.

To my family, thanks for giving me my sense of humour. I also have to thank my dogs, Tycho and Teddy, for keeping me active and getting me out regularly for fresh air. Their enthusiasm for walks, food, and naps always reminded me to slow down and practice self-care, and their listening skills are unrivaled. There's also nothing that puts a smile on my face faster than watching 200 pounds of dog sprint across a field.

Finally, to all of my friends, old and new, who were with me on this journey, thank you from the bottom of my heart. Haley, you were my very first lab mentor. You taught me everything from working in a lab to writing abstracts and to you I owe my lab dexterity and microbiology foundation. Kim, you were the first MacNeil Lab member to welcome me. Thank you for helping me navigate the world of worms and for remaining a great friend to this day. Our never-ending text thread about everything but also nothing in particular has been a constant source of amusement. To the rest of the lab members in both the Wright and MacNeil Labs that I've had the pleasure of working with over the years, thank you for the support and friendship. To my friends from badminton, Caitlin, Erica, Chloe, and Airi, thank you for the

encouragement, both on and off the court. Rabia and Monica, thank you for running this marathon with me. It's been awesome growing alongside you. Victoria, our late nights working on group assignments in undergrad turned into early mornings in the lab and there is no one else I would have wanted by my side for every academic milestone. To Anita, you've accomplished everything you set out to do and I've had the best time watching it happen. Thank you for being there for me as a labmate, friend, and roommate. You are going to be an incredible physician. As I reflect on all that I'm grateful for, I'm reminded of a phrase that has quietly guided me: *Non desistas*, *non exieris*.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LAY ABSTRACT	
ABSTRACT	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	
TABLE OF CONTENTS	
LIST OF FIGURES	
LIST OF TABLES AND PROTOCOLS	
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS	
DECLARATION OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	XIV
CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION	1
CLINICAL NEED FOR NOVEL ANTHELMINTIC COMPOUNDS	1
HELMINTHIASES AND AGRICULTURE	
CURRENT TREATMENT OPTIONS	6
EXISTING ANTHELMINTIC COMPOUNDS	7
Macrocyclic Lactones	7
Benzimidazoles	
Imidazothiazoles	
NATURAL PRODUCTS AS A SOURCE OF NEW ANTHELMINTIC AGENTS	15
USING C. ELEGANS FOR COMPOUND SCREENING	16
CENTRAL HYPOTHESIS AND SUMMARY OF STUDY AIMS	18
References	20
CHAPTER TWO – DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF MOT	
ABSTRACT	
INTRODUCTION	
METHODS	
C. elegans maintenance	
Synchronizing C. elegans Population	
Natural product extract library	
Motility assay set-up	
Phenotypic analysis methods	
Nanoluciferase assay set-up	
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	
SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL	53

REFERENCES	59
CHAPTER THREE – A SCREENING METHOD FOR THE DISCOVERY OF N. PRODUCTS WITH ANTHELMINTIC ACTIVITY USING <i>CAENORHABDITIS</i> AS A NEMATODE MODEL	ELEGANS
ABSTRACT	63
INTRODUCTION	
MATERIALS AND METHODS	66
C. elegans Maintenance and Strain Information	66
Motility Assay	66
Assessing impact of extracts on C. elegans	68
Natural product purification	68
Endoplasmic Reticulum Stress assay	69
Embryonic lethality assay	69
RESULTS	70
DISCUSSION	79
SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL	83
REFERENCES	94
CHAPTER 4 – CONCLUSIONS	98
SUMMARY OF WORK	98
OVERALL SIGNIFICANCE	100
LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS	103
CONCLUDING REMARK	105
References	108

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION	
FIGURE 1: THE CORE 16-MEMBERED MACROCYCLIC LACTONE STRUCTURE AND THE RESPECTIVE	Ξ
STRUCTURES FOR EACH OF THE EIGHT AVERMECTINS ISOLATED FROM S. AVERMITILIS	8
FIGURE 2: EXAMPLES OF BENZIMIDAZOLE ANTHELMINTICS	11
FIGURE 3: CHEMICAL STRUCTURE OF TETRAMISOLE, THE FIRST IMIDAZOTHIAZOLE ANTHELMINTIC	c. 14
CHAPTER TWO – DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF MOTILITY, IMAGE, AND	
LUMINESCENCE-BASED SCREENING METHODS	
FIGURE 1: OUTLINE OF THE ARRANGEMENT OF EXTRACTS IN THE PRE-FRACTIONATED LIBRARY TE IN THIS ASSAY	
Figure 2: Motility and luminescence assay set up.	43
Figure 3: Representative well images of a negative control (A), positive control or	HIT
(B), AND INTERMEDIATE PHENOTYPE (C)	45
Figure 4: Nanoluciferase assay optimization and test results	51
Supplementary Figure 1: Motility data of microbial natural product extracts scree Against C. elegans.	
CHAPTER THREE – A SCREENING METHOD FOR THE DISCOVERY OF NATURAL PRODUCTS WITH ANTHELMINTIC ACTIVITY USING CAENORHABDITIS ELEGANS	AS A
NEMATODE MODEL	
FIGURE 1: ASSAY DETAILS AND REPRESENTATIVE SUMMARY OF RESULTS	72
FIGURE 2: VALIDATION OF TUNICAMYCIN AS THE ACTIVE COMPOUND IN WAC1490	75
FIGURE 3: VALIDATION OF ACTINOMYCIN D AS THE ACTIVE COMPOUND IN WAC466	77
FIGURE 4: XANTHOCILLIN IDENTIFIED FROM WAC10994 IS ACTIVE AGAINST C. ELEGANS	79
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 1: 1H-1H COSY (CORRELATION SPECTROSCOPY) NMR SPECTRUM C)F
XANTHOCILLIN	83
Supplementary Figure 2: DEPTQ (distortionless enhancement by polarization trans	SFER
INCLUDING THE DETECTION OF QUATERNARY NUCLEI) NMR SPECTRUM OF XANTHOCILLIN.	83
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 3: 1H NMR SPECTRUM OF XANTHOCILLIN	84
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 4: HMBC (HETERONUCLEAR MULTIPLE BOND CORRELATION) NMR	
SPECTRUM OF XANTHOCILLIN	0.4
	84
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 5: HSQC (HETERONUCLEAR SINGLE QUANTUM COHERENCE) NMR	84

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 6: REPRESENTATIVE IMAGES OF C. ELEGANS TREATED WITH A) XANTHOCILLIN X, B) DMSO, C) XANTHOCILLIN X + HEMIN, AND D) XANTHOCILLIN X + PPIX.
LIST OF TABLES AND PROTOCOLS CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION TABLE 1: A COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF DISABILITY-ADJUSTED LIFE YEARS (DALY), YEARS LIVED WITH A DISABILITY (YLD), AND YEARS OF LIFE LOST FROM EARLY MORTALITY (YLL) OF MALARIA AND THE PARASITIC WORM INFECTIONS INVESTIGATED IN THE 2021 GLOBAL BURDEN OF DISEASE STUDY
CHAPTER TWO – DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF MOTILITY, IMAGE, AND LUMINESCENCE-BASED SCREENING METHODS TABLE 1: RECIPES FOR M9 BUFFER AND S-BASAL
CHAPTER THREE – A SCREENING METHOD FOR THE DISCOVERY OF NATURAL PRODUCTS WITH ANTHELMINTIC ACTIVITY USING CAENORHABDITIS ELEGANS AS A NEMATODE MODEL SUPPLEMENTARY PROTOCOL 1: FUNGAL GROWTH OPTIMIZATION
SUPPLEMENTARY PROTOCOL 2: BIOASSAY-GUIDED PURIFICATION OF XANTHOCILLIN FROM WAC10994

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

Abbreviation Definition

BGC Biosynthetic gene cluster

BZ Benzimidazole

CDC Centers for Disease Control

and Prevention

CMCB Centre for Microbial

Chemical Biology

DALY Disability-adjusted life

years

DMSO Dimethyl sulfoxide

ER Endoplasmic reticulum

GBD Global burden of disease

GluCl Glutamate-gated chloride

MDA Mass drug administration

nAChRs Nicotinic acetylcholine

receptors

NGM Nematode growth medium

NTD Neglected tropical disease

PFL Prefractionated library

PPIX Protoporphyrin IX

SNP Single nucleotide

polymorphism

STH Soil transmitted helminth

WAC Wright Actinomycete

Collection

WHO World Health Organization

YLD Years lived with a disability

YLL Years of life lost from early

mortality

DECLARATION OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

I have performed all the research in this body of work except for where indicated in each chapter's title page.

CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION

Clinical need for novel anthelmintic compounds

Neglected tropical diseases (NTDs) are life-threatening infections that most commonly affect inhabitants of lower-income countries (Ca et al., 2024; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2024). The geographic bias of these communicable diseases results from a shortage of medical resources and inadequate sanitation protocols in poorer regions (Houweling et al., 2016). Some of the most prevalent NTDs are caused by parasitic worms (helminths), with over 1.5 billion individuals affected worldwide (World Health Organization [WHO], 2023). Specifically, soil-transmitted helminth (STH) infections are one of the most common parasitic infections, surpassing malaria by over one billion cases (WHO, 2023a, 2024b). Despite the high prevalence, the global burden of helminthiases is often overlooked due to more progressive efforts targeted towards the main diseases affecting low-income countries. Referred to as the "big three", tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS, and malaria have been the primary focus of global research efforts due to their high mortality rates (Feasey et al., 2010; Nakatani, 2016). International funding organizations prioritize research that advances the treatment and prevention of these three diseases and preferentially provide tremendous financial support. For example, the Global Fund, a non-profit organization, has disbursed over \$65 billion USD for the big three diseases since 2002 (The Global Fund, 2024). In 2022 alone, \$604 million USD went towards malaria research (WHO, 2024a). In comparison,

schistosomiasis, an intravascular infection caused by trematode worms, received only \$39 million USD in 2022 despite being the second most devastating parasitic infection behind malaria (CDC, 2024a; GBD 2021 Diseases and Injuries Collaborators, 2024; WHO, 2023b, 2024a). In addition to the high prevalence rates and lack of research, the actual severity of helminthiases is consistently underestimated in global health metrics, contributing to their overall neglect.

The difficulties of quantifying disease burden stem from variations in morbidity and mortality rates, as well as the severity and overall impact on human health. In the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) study conducted in 2021, researchers used disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) as a method of comparing the global burden for over 300 diseases (GBD 2021 Diseases and Injuries Collaborators, 2024). The DALY value is comprised of both the number of years lived with a disability (YLD) and the years of life lost from early mortality (YLL) (GBD 2021 Diseases and Injuries Collaborators, 2024). This metric provides an estimate of the total number of healthy years forfeited due to infection, enabling a more direct comparison of medical conditions and their impacts on health. For parasitic worm infections, the global burden is approximately 8 million DALYs, compared to malaria's 55 million (Table 1). Although there is a striking difference in DALYs between helminthiases and malaria, it should be noted that not all parasitic worm infections were investigated in the study, and the most significant contributor to DALYs for helminth infections is YLD or morbidity. YLD is calculated by multiplying the time spent living with a condition by a

severity or disability weight, which ranges between perfect health (0) to death (1) (GBD 2021 Diseases and Injuries Collaborators, 2024; Grosse et al., 2009). This means that YLD values are heavily dependent on the perceived severity of health conditions, for which there is high variation (Charalampous et al., 2022). For helminthiases, individuals are often left with long-term cognitive and physical impairments due to the chronic nature of the infections. From YLD calculations, a chronic but less disabling condition could be comparable to an acute and shortterm illness (Charles H. King, 2015; Hotez et al., 2008a). However, this analysis fails to account for the overall decline in quality of life as a result of physical and social limitations caused by chronic conditions (Grosse et al., 2009). YLD also does not account for comorbidities or treatment access, both of which are significant challenges associated with helminthiases. As such, helminth-related disability is likely underestimated. The limited recognition for helminthiases exacerbates the financial and health burden imposed by these illnesses and necessitates a more aggressive treatment approach.

Table 1: A comparison of the number of disability-adjusted life years (DALY), years lived with a disability (YLD), and years of life lost from early mortality (YLL) of malaria and the parasitic worm infections investigated in the 2021 Global Burden of Disease study (GBD 2021 Diseases and Injuries Collaborators, 2024).

Cause	DALY estimate	YLD estimate	YLL estimate
Malaria	55,174,060.7	2,364,839.0	52,809,221.7
Helminths			
Schistosomiasis	1,746,333.3	1,245,872.0	500,461.3
Cysticercosis	1,235,939.0	1,154,653.6	81,285.4
Cystic echinococcosis	105,071.6	45,549.6	59,521.9
Lymphatic filariasis	1,314,563.4	1,314,563.4	N/A
Onchocerciasis	1,262,988.1	1,262,988.1	N/A
Intestinal nematode infections	1,381,641.0	1,097,345.8	284,295.2
Food-borne trematodiases	998,028.5	998,028.5	N/A
Guinea worm disease	0.9	0.9	N/A
Total Helminths	8,044,565.7	7,119,001.9	925,563.8

As with other drugs, decreased treatment efficacy due to resistance is also a concern with anthelmintic compounds. Several studies have already long ago demonstrated an increased tolerance or resistance to medications commonly used to eliminate parasitic worm infections (De Clercq et al., 1997; Ismail et al., 1996; Reynoldson et al., 1997). Resistance in this field can be dangerous, considering the already limited collection of pharmaceutical remedies. Inadequate drug efficacy implicates a rise in the severity and prevalence of human helminth infections, which will ultimately result in a greater disease burden. Therefore, there is an urgent clinical need for novel anthelmintic compounds, and drug discovery efforts should be prioritized.

Helminthiases and agriculture

Parasitic worms commonly infect ruminants such as cattle and sheep, and are among the leading factors that limit production in the agricultural industry (Charlier et al., 2016; Epe & Kaminsky, 2013; Shalaby, 2013; Strydom et al., 2023). Helminthic diseases in livestock often result in reduced weight gain and decreased milk production, ultimately disturbing resource quantity and quality and impeding economic growth (Charlier et al., 2014, 2016; Shalaby, 2013). The pervasiveness of helminth infections provided support for the prophylactic use of anthelmintic compounds to maintain animal health; however, consistent and continued treatment facilitates the development of drug resistance. For many years, the conventional practice was to treat healthy animals once every few months but this quickly led to the rise of resistant worms (Kaplan, 2013). Currently, the control of helminth infections is severely hindered by the high frequency of anthelmintic resistance and a lack of novel therapeutics, which costs some of the major cattle producers billions of dollars each year (Strydom et al., 2023).

Crop damage due to parasitic nematodes is another concern in the agricultural industry. In the 1990s, plant helminths caused an annual reduction of primary fibre and food crops by about 12%, corresponding to a yearly loss of nearly 80 billion USD at the time (Barker et al., 1994; Taylor et al., 2013). However, this value was likely underestimated, as plant damage responses are difficult to assign

to a specific pathogen unless the causative agent can be isolated (Barker et al., 1994).

Previously, pest management in plants involved soil fumigation using methyl bromide, which has a broad spectrum of activity against fungi, insects, and nematodes (F. N. Martin, 2003; Zasada et al., 2010). However, due to the role of methyl bromide in ozone depletion, its use as a pesticide has dramatically decreased, resulting in an increased reliance on the same arsenal of commercially available anthelmintic compounds to which resistance has already developed (F. N. Martin, 2003; Taylor et al., 2013; Zasada et al., 2010).

Current treatment options

Treatment limitations remain a major barrier to the eradication of parasitic worms in plants and animals, including humans. There is likely to be a very low financial return associated with the development of anthelmintic drugs, which decreases the amount of available funding and effort generally required for the drug discovery process (Cheuka et al., 2016; Hotez et al., 2008b; Pedrique et al., 2013). As such, the past four decades have not been particularly fruitful in the realm of discovering new anthelmintic drug classes, thereby increasing reliance on currently available treatments (Kaminsky et al., 2008; Kaplan, 2013). Many existing research routes also prioritize repurposing existing therapeutics, rather than discovery, which is not conducive to novel chemicals reaching the market (Cheuka et al., 2016; Panic

et al., 2014; Weeks et al., 2018). Currently, there are three main classes of anthelmintic agents approved for use in humans: macrocyclic lactones, benzimidazoles, and imidazothiazoles (Kaminsky et al., 2008).

Existing anthelmintic compounds

Macrocyclic Lactones

Background

The avermectins, the first of the macrocyclic lactone class, were isolated as a fermentation product from the *Streptomyces avermitilis* bacteria in the 1970s (Burg et al., 1979; Miller et al., 1979; Õmura, 2008). The crude natural product extract was found to contain four homologous pairs, totaling eight avermectins (Pitterna et al., 2009). Each pair has both a major and minor component, represented as "a" and "b", respectively (Pitterna et al., 2009). The structures of each of the eight natural products are shown in Figure 1. Avermectin B1, also known as abamectin, is a mixture of avermectin B1a and B1b and is the major fermentation product from the bacteria (Dybas, 1989; Lasota & Dybas, 1990; Pitterna et al., 2009).

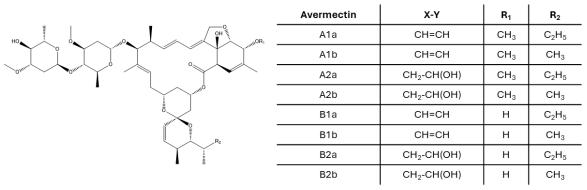


Figure 1: The core 16-membered macrocyclic lactone structure and the respective structures for each of the eight avermectins isolated from S. avermitilis (Pitterna et al., 2009; Zhuo et al., 2014).

This was a remarkable discovery by the Merck Institute after a successful collaboration with the Kitasato Institute in Japan, where scientists were working towards the discovery of novel microbial fermentation products (Campbell, 2012). Isolates from actinomycetes bacteria that lacked antibacterial properties were sent to Merck for their anthelmintic screening program, which ultimately led to the discovery of the first avermectin (Campbell, 2012).

Activity and mode of action

Avermectins have been widely used in agriculture for crop protection and treatment of helminth infections in cattle due to their extreme potency against a wide range of nematodes (Benz & Cox, 1989; Dybas, 1989; Egerton et al., 1979; Lasota & Dybas, 1990; Williams et al., 1992). In both human and veterinary medicine, avermectins are relied on for the elimination of parasitic worms (Laing et al., 2017). Since their discovery, a variety of marketable derivatives have been created, with the most successful being ivermectin (Campbell et al., 1984; Õmura,

2008). Ivermectin is a semi-synthetic derivative of avermectin B1 with a higher therapeutic index and increased antiparasitic potency (Õmura, 2008). It was originally thought that avermectin activity was restricted to helminths, arachnids, and insects, and that bacteria, fungi, and protozoa were unaffected (Õmura, 2008; Zhuo et al., 2014). However, some studies have demonstrated the antimycobacterial properties of different avermectins (Lim et al., 2013; Zhuo et al., 2014). Specifically, Lim et al. (2012) showed ivermectin activity against four *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* strains, but inhibitory effects of the drug against Gram-negative or Gram-positive bacterial species remained negligible (Lim et al., 2013).

The anthelmintic activity of avermectins is attributed to their ability to bind to glutamate-gated chloride (GluCl) channels. These ion channels are found only in invertebrates and regulate muscle contractions involved in feeding and movement (Õmura, 2008; Wolstenholme, 2012). Normally, the binding of glutamate produces a rapid channel-opening effect for quick contractile movements (Wolstenholme & Rogers, 2006). Treatment with a macrocyclic lactone compound results in noncompetitive binding of the drug to a glutamate-gated ion channel. This interaction maintains the channels in an open configuration, causing a slow flux of chloride ions, thereby preventing further signaling, which induces paralysis (Õmura, 2008; Wolstenholme & Rogers, 2006).

Resistance to macrocyclic lactones like ivermectin has been widely reported in ruminant helminths; however, the exact mechanism or mutant gene has not yet been described in these animals (R. J. Martin et al., 2021). Some studies suggest that an increased frequency of the mutant GluCl channel alleles contribute to resistance (Fissiha & Kinde, 2021; Jayawardene et al., 2021; R. J. Martin et al., 2021). Another study reported that the overexpression of a P-glycoprotein membrane transporter in resistant worms may contribute to ivermectin resistance through drug efflux (Xu et al., 1998). Although exact mechanistic data are lacking in helminths, studies conducted with *Caenorhabditis elegans*, a non-parasitic nematode model, show that mutations in three GluCl channel genes can confer high levels of resistance to ivermectin (Dent et al., 2000). This report validates the target mutation theory, although it is possible that multiple resistance mechanisms contribute to resistance.

Benzimidazoles

Background

The second main class of anthelmintic agents is the benzimidazoles (BZs). In 1961, thiabendazole (Figure 2a) was the first of the BZ class to be used as an anthelmintic (Brown et al., 1961). It was discovered by a Merck research team led by Dr. William Campbell and served as an effective deworming agent and treatment for trichinosis (Brown et al., 1961; Merck & Co., Inc., n.d.). Prior to this discovery,

scientists were interested in the purine-like construction of the BZ core and apparent antimicrobial activity (Woolley, 1944). Since then, there has been widespread interest in medicinal uses of BZ analogs including its potential applications as an antioxidant, anticancer agent, antiviral, and anthelmintic (Banerjee et al., 2023) Currently, albendazole and mebendazole (Figure 2b-c) are more commonly used for the treatment of parasitic infections in humans (Chai et al., 2021).

Figure 2: Examples of benzimidazole anthelmintics. A) thiabendazole B) albendazole and C) mebendazole.

Activity and mode of action

Benzimidazoles are popular broad-spectrum anthelmintic compounds with very low host toxicity (Lacey, 1990; McKellar & Scott, 1990). They are the primary treatment for human soil-transmitted helminth (STH) infections and remain heavily relied upon in cases where ivermectin is not effective (Vercruysse et al., 2011). Although first introduced to treat helminth infections, the benzimidazoles are also effective antifungal agents (Allen & Gottlieb, 1970).

The biological target of benzimidazole drugs is microtubules, which play essential roles in the structure, movement, and division of eukaryotic cells (Abongwa et al., 2017; McKellar & Scott, 1990; Nogales, 2000). Microtubules are dynamic cytoskeletal polymers composed of alpha and beta-tubulin subunits (Lacey, 1990). The binding of benzimidazoles to microtubules inhibits proper cell function, especially cell division, and prevents helminth development (McKellar & Scott, 1990; Nogales, 2000). Although microtubules are present in mammalian cells, benzimidazoles have a higher specificity for helminth beta-tubulin and tend to accumulate more readily in worms (Lacey, 1990). This disparity stems from pharmacokinetic variations of the drug in the two organisms rather than a higher affinity for helminth beta-tubulin (Lacey, 1990).

Resistance to benzimidazoles can arise from a single amino acid substitution at residues 167, 198, or 200 in the beta-tubulin gene (Fissiha & Kinde, 2021; Martínez-Valladares et al., 2020; Samson-Himmelstjerna et al., 2007). This observation is consistent with studies conducted in *C. elegans* where mutated beta-tubulin variants result in benzimidazole resistance (Driscoll et al., 1989). Since resistance can easily emerge from a single point mutation, it poses a significant challenge to effective long-term control of infection.

Imidazothiazoles

Background

The imidazothiazoles are less commonly used than the macrocyclic lactones or benzimidazoles (R. J. Martin & Robertson, 2007). Imidazothiazoles were discovered in the 1960s through testing of chemical compounds in helminth-infected chickens and sheep (Raeymaekers et al., 1966; Thienpont et al., 1966). Researchers identified a compound, thiazothienol, that was active as an anthelmintic in chickens and sheep, but not in rats or mice (Raeymaekers et al., 1966; Thienpont et al., 1966). This finding led to a study of the metabolic products excreted by these animals to determine if perhaps thiazothienol was converted to an anthelmintically active metabolite in sheep and chickens, but not murines (Raeymaekers et al., 1966). The group eventually found thiazothielite, a compound excreted by chickens treated with thiazothienol, that was active against worms in all animals they treated, including mice and rats. Chemical modification of thiazothielite to improve its efficacy led to the eventual discovery of an even more potent substance, which was later developed into tetramisole (Figure 3), the first anthelmintic of the imidazothiazole class (Campbell, 2005; Raeymaekers et al., 1966).

$$\langle \rangle$$

Figure 3: Chemical structure of tetramisole, the first imidazothiazole anthelmintic.

Activity and mode of action

The most frequently employed compound in this class is levamisole, an isomer of tetramisole, which is a broad-spectrum nematicide primarily used in the treatment of intestinal helminths (Wolstenholme et al., 2004). Levamisole's immunomodulatory properties also allowed for its application as an anti-cancer drug; however, detrimental immune effects have limited its use to veterinary settings (Artwohl et al., 2000; Clarke et al., 1997).

Similar to the macrocyclic lactone anthelmintics, imidazothiazoles act by paralyzing worms, thereby facilitating removal by the host immune system (Abongwa et al., 2017). However, rather than interacting with glutamate-gated chloride channels, these cholinergic compounds are agonists for nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs) (Selzer, 2009). Binding of an imidazothiazole to an nAChR results in activation of the excitatory receptors and causes a spastic paralysis state (Holden-Dye & Walker, 2005).

Levamisole resistance is facilitated through mutations in nAChRs, where shortened forms of the target receptor are linked to decreased drug sensitivity (Boulin et al., 2011; Fissiha & Kinde, 2021; Sarai et al., 2015). Similarly, in *C. elegans*, nAChR mutants confer resistance to levamisole (Culetto et al., 2004; J. T. Fleming et al., 1997)

Natural products as a source of new anthelmintic agents

Natural products have already proven to be rich sources of various pharmaceutical compounds such as anti-cancer drugs, antibiotics, and antibiotic adjuvants (Clark, 1996; Dias et al., 2012; A. Fleming, 1929; King et al., 2014).

Penicillin was an antibiotic discovery that revolutionized the field of medicine and has been a popular example of the success of natural sources since it was isolated from a fungus (A. Fleming, 1929). Then, as resistance to antibiotics emerged as a major clinical concern, natural products again proved to be important sources of compounds that enhance activity in resistant organisms. For example, aspergillomarasmine A, an antibiotic adjuvant, was derived from a natural source (King et al., 2014; Melander & Melander, 2017).

In the field of anthelmintics, the threat of resistance is no less prominent, as helminths are rapidly desensitized to all currently available treatments, especially in agricultural settings (Prichard, 1994; Shalaby, 2013). To combat this problem, more efforts should be targeted towards anthelmintic drug discovery. Specifically, the

bioactive potential of natural products could be further exploited. While mining natural products for anthelmintic activity has been a more prominent research avenue in recent years, there is a heavy bias towards plant natural products (Fahs et al., 2025; Garcia-Bustos et al., 2019; Jayawardene et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2020). Microorganisms, such as bacteria and fungi, also have a long history of producing clinically relevant chemicals (Patridge et al., 2016), and this area should be explored for nematicides. The avermectins offer a prime example of the anthelmintic potential of microbial natural products, underscoring the importance of investing greater efforts into this avenue of discovery.

Using C. elegans for compound screening

A major hurdle associated with anthelmintic discovery is the absence of a widely established screening protocol. While there are several published assays exist for determining anthelmintic activity, these assays vary significantly in the type of phenotypic readout. Some potential outputs include motility, egg laying/hatching, and larval development (Herath et al., 2022; Moy et al., 2009; Zamanian & Chan, 2021). There is also no gold standard for primary screening approaches, and studies will vary from *in vivo* animal-based testing to *in vitro* phenotypic methods (Herath et al., 2022; Jayawardene et al., 2021). To remedy this gap, there needs to be an agreement on a screening protocol tha strikes a balance between costeffectiveness and therapeutic relevance.

Parasitic worms often have very complex life cycles, which can complicate the process of testing potential anthelmintic therapeutics for drug discovery. It is therefore more feasible to conduct compound screens with an established model organism such as the nematode *C. elegans* (Bürglin et al., 1998; Burns et al., 2015a). *C. elegans* are free-living, non-parasitic nematodes, but can serve as a model system in which to detect nematocidal compounds (Burns et al., 2015a). Additionally, their small size, short generation times, and large brood sizes are favourable for high-throughput screening (Burns et al., 2006; O'Reilly et al., 2014). These attributes help reduce experimental costs and reagents, thereby increasing the feasibility and scalability of compound screening.

Despite lacking mechanisms required for parasitism, *C. elegans* shares many structural similarities to parasitic nematodes and belongs to the same phylogenetic clade as several highly prevalent helminths (Coghlan et al., 2019). The majority of anthelmintic compounds are also active against *C. elegans* and these nematodes have already proven to be useful in elucidating the mode of action of currently employed anthelmintics (Burns et al., 2015b; Holden-Dye & Walker, 2018; Kaminsky et al., 2008). Therefore, *C. elegans* is a valuable surrogate for screening and mechanistic studies and should be more widely integrated into early-stage anthelmintic discovery pipelines.

Central hypothesis and summary of study aims

To positively contribute to helminth control, a standardized screening protocol for nematocidal compounds is necessary; preferably, one that can be scaled and optimized for natural product screening. With microbial natural product extracts, it can be challenging to obtain a large supply due to the labour-intensive processes of microoganism cultivation and isolation. The main goal of this project was to establish a liquid-based screening method that minimizes the amount of test material required, thereby accommodating the limited quantities of starting material. We also designed our assay to maximize the information obtainable from the screen, thereby better assessing the different toxic effects against worms. Given the historical success of finding bioactive microbial secondary metabolites and the abundance of these compounds, this work may lead to the discovery of novel therapeutic molecules.

Summary of study

 Developed a liquid-based assay using C. elegans to screen a natural product extract library for potentially nematocidal compounds. Assay data analysis options were compared based on ease of use and the robustness of the information provided (Chapter 2). 2. Followed up with hits from the assay and identified known anthelmintic compounds and a bioactive compound without previously reported activity against worms (Chapter 3).

References

- Abongwa, M., Martin, R. J., & Robertson, A. P. (2017). A brief review on the mode of action of antinematodal drugs. *Acta Veterinaria*, 67(2), 137–152. https://doi.org/10.1515/acve-2017-0013
- Allen, P. M., & Gottlieb, D. (1970). Mechanism of Action of the Fungicide Thiabendazole, 2-(4'-Thiazolyl) Benzimidazole. *APPL. MICROBIOL.*, 8.
- Artwohl, M., Hölzenbein, T., Wagner, L., Freudenthaler, A., Waldhäusl, W., & Baumgartner-Parzer, S. M. (2000). Levamisole induced apoptosis in cultured vascular endothelial cells. *British Journal of Pharmacology*, *131*(8), 1577–1583. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.bjp.0703660
- Banerjee, S., Mukherjee, S., Nath, P., Mukherjee, A., Mukherjee, S., Ashok Kumar, S. K., De, S., & Banerjee, S. (2023). A critical review of benzimidazole: Sky-high objectives towards the lead molecule to predict the future in medicinal chemistry. *Results in Chemistry*, 6, 101013. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rechem.2023.101013
- Barker, K. R., Hussey, R. S., Krusberg, L. R., Bird, G. W., Dunn, R. A., Ferris, H., Ferris, V. R., Freckman, D. W., Gabriel, C. J., Grewal, P. S., MacGuidwin, A. E., Riddle, D. L., Roberts, P. A., & Schmitt, D. P. (1994). Plant and Soil Nematodes:

 Societal Impact and Focus for the Future. *Journal of Nematology*, 26(2), 127–137
- Benz, G. W., & Cox, J. L. (1989). Use of Abamectin in Cattle. In W. C. Campbell (Ed.), Ivermectin and Abamectin (pp. 230–233). Springer New York. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4612-3626-9_16
- Boulin, T., Fauvin, A., Charvet, C., Cortet, J., Cabaret, J., Bessereau, J.-L., & Neveu, C. (2011). Functional reconstitution of Haemonchus contortus acetylcholine receptors in Xenopus oocytes provides mechanistic insights into levamisole resistance. *British Journal of Pharmacology*, *164*(5), 1421–1432. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1476-5381.2011.01420.x
- Brown, H. D., Matzuk, A. R., Ilves, I. R., Peterson, L. H., Harris, S. A., Sarett, L. H., Egerton, J. R., Yakstis, J. J., Campbell, W. C., & Cuckler, A. C. (1961). Antiparasitic Drugs. IV. 2-(4'-Thiazolyl)-Benzimidazole, A New Anthelmintic. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 83(7), 1764–1765. https://doi.org/10.1021/ja01468a052
- Burg, R. W., Miller, B. M., Baker, E. E., Birnbaum, J., Currie, S. A., Hartman, R., Kong, Y.-L., Monaghan, R. L., Olson, G., Putter, I., Tunac, J. B., Wallick, H., Stapley, E. O., Oiwa, R., & Ōmura, S. (1979). Avermectins, New Family of Potent Anthelmintic Agents: Producing Organism and Fermentation. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 15(3), 361–367. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.15.3.361

- Bürglin, T. R., Lobos, E., & Blaxter, M. L. (1998). Caenorhabditis elegans as a model for parasitic nematodes. *International Journal for Parasitology*, 28(3), 395–411. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7519(97)00208-7
- Burns, A. R., Kwok, T. C. Y., Howard, A., Houston, E., Johanson, K., Chan, A., Cutler, S. R., McCourt, P., & Roy, P. J. (2006). High-throughput screening of small molecules for bioactivity and target identification in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Nature Protocols*, *1*(4), 1906–1914. https://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2006.283
- Burns, A. R., Luciani, G. M., Musso, G., Bagg, R., Yeo, M., Zhang, Y., Rajendran, L., Glavin, J., Hunter, R., Redman, E., Stasiuk, S., Schertzberg, M., Angus McQuibban, G., Caffrey, C. R., Cutler, S. R., Tyers, M., Giaever, G., Nislow, C., Fraser, A. G., ... Roy, P. J. (2015a). Caenorhabditis elegans is a useful model for anthelmintic discovery. *Nature Communications*, 6, 7485. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms8485
- Burns, A. R., Luciani, G. M., Musso, G., Bagg, R., Yeo, M., Zhang, Y., Rajendran, L., Glavin, J., Hunter, R., Redman, E., Stasiuk, S., Schertzberg, M., Angus McQuibban, G., Caffrey, C. R., Cutler, S. R., Tyers, M., Giaever, G., Nislow, C., Fraser, A. G., ... Roy, P. J. (2015b). Caenorhabditis elegans is a useful model for anthelmintic discovery. *Nature Communications*, 6(1), 7485. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms8485
- Ca, J., Kumar P, V. B., Kandi, V., N, G., K, S., Dharshini, D., Batchu, S. V. C., & Bhanu, P. (2024). Neglected Tropical Diseases: A Comprehensive Review. *Cureus*, 16(2), e53933. https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.53933
- Campbell, W. C. (2005). Serendipity and New Drugs for Infectious Disease. *ILAR Journal*, 46(4), 352–356. https://doi.org/10.1093/ilar.46.4.352
- Campbell, W. C. (2012). History of Avermectin and Ivermectin, with Notes on the History of Other Macrocyclic Lactone Antiparasitic Agents. *Current Pharmaceutical Biotechnology*, *13*(6), 853–865. https://doi.org/10.2174/138920112800399095
- Campbell, W. C., Burg, R. W., Fisher, M. H., & Dybas, R. A. (1984). The Discovery of Ivermectin and Other Avermectins. In P. S. Magee, G. K. Kohn, & J. J. Menn (Eds.), *Pesticide Synthesis Through Rational Approaches* (Vol. 255, pp. 5–20). American Chemical Society. https://doi.org/10.1021/bk-1984-0255.ch001
- CDC. (2024a, June 17). *About Schistosomiasis*. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. https://www.cdc.gov/schistosomiasis/about/index.html
- CDC. (2024b, September 6). About Neglected Tropical Diseases. Neglected Tropical Diseases. https://www.cdc.gov/neglected-tropical-diseases/about/index.html
- Chai, J.-Y., Jung, B.-K., & Hong, S.-J. (2021). Albendazole and Mebendazole as Anti-Parasitic and Anti-Cancer Agents: An Update. *The Korean Journal of Parasitology*, 59(3), 189–225. https://doi.org/10.3347/kjp.2021.59.3.189

- Charalampous, P., Polinder, S., Wothge, J., von der Lippe, E., & Haagsma, J. A. (2022). A systematic literature review of disability weights measurement studies: Evolution of methodological choices. *Archives of Public Health*, 80(1), 91. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13690-022-00860-z
- Charles H. King. (2015). Health metrics for helminth infections. *Acta Tropica*, *141*, 150–160. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actatropica.2013.12.001
- Charlier, J., De Waele, V., Ducheyne, E., van der Voort, M., Vande Velde, F., & Claerebout, E. (2016). Decision making on helminths in cattle: Diagnostics, economics and human behaviour. *Irish Veterinary Journal*, 69. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13620-016-0073-6
- Charlier, J., van der Voort, M., Kenyon, F., Skuce, P., & Vercruysse, J. (2014). Chasing helminths and their economic impact on farmed ruminants. *Trends in Parasitology*, 30(7), 361–367. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2014.04.009
- Cheuka, P., Mayoka, G., Mutai, P., & Chibale, K. (2016). The Role of Natural Products in Drug Discovery and Development against Neglected Tropical Diseases. *Molecules*, 22(1), 58. https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules22010058
- Clark, A. M. (1996). Natural products as a resource for new drugs. *Pharmaceutical Research*, 13(8), 1133–1144.
- Clarke, G. R., Burton, R. C., & Smart, Y. C. (1997). The antitumor effects of levamisole in mice are mediated by NC-1.1+ cells. *Cancer Immunology, Immunotherapy*, 45(2), 115–118. https://doi.org/10.1007/s002620050410
- Coghlan, A., Tyagi, R., Cotton, J. A., Holroyd, N., Rosa, B. A., Tsai, I. J., Laetsch, D. R., Beech, R. N., Day, T. A., Hallsworth-Pepin, K., Ke, H.-M., Kuo, T.-H., Lee, T. J., Martin, J., Maizels, R. M., Mutowo, P., Ozersky, P., Parkinson, J., Reid, A. J., ... International Helminth Genomes Consortium. (2019). Comparative genomics of the major parasitic worms. *Nature Genetics*, *51*(1), 163–174. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588-018-0262-1
- Culetto, E., Baylis, H. A., Richmond, J. E., Jones, A. K., Fleming, J. T., Squire, M. D., Lewis, J. A., & Sattelle, D. B. (2004). The Caenorhabditis elegans unc-63 Gene Encodes a Levamisole-sensitive Nicotinic Acetylcholine Receptor α Subunit. Journal of Biological Chemistry, 279(41), 42476–42483. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M404370200
- De Clercq, D., Sacko, M., Behnke, J., Gilbert, F., Dorny, P., & Vercruysse, J. (1997). Failure of mebendazole in treatment of human hookworm infections in the southern region of Mali. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 57(1), 25–30.
- Dent, J. A., Smith, M. M., Vassilatis, D. K., & Avery, L. (2000). The genetics of ivermectin resistance in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 97(6), 2674–2679. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.97.6.2674

- Dias, D. A., Urban, S., & Roessner, U. (2012). A Historical Overview of Natural Products in Drug Discovery. *Metabolites*, *2*(2), 303–336. https://doi.org/10.3390/metabo2020303
- Driscoll, M., Dean, E., Reilly, E., Bergholz, E., & Chalfie, M. (1989). Genetic and Molecular Analysis of a Caenorhabditis elegans / -Tubulin That Conveys Benzimidazole Sensitivity.
- Dybas, R. A. (1989). Abamectin Use in Crop Protection. In W. C. Campbell (Ed.), Ivermectin and Abamectin (pp. 287–310). Springer New York. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4612-3626-9_20
- Egerton, J. R., Ostlind, D. A., Blair, L. S., Eary, C. H., Suhayda, D., Cifelli, S., Riek, R. F., & Campbell, W. C. (1979). Avermectins, New Family of Potent Anthelmintic Agents: Efficacy of the B1a Component. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 15(3), 372–378. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC352668/
- Epe, C., & Kaminsky, R. (2013). New advancement in anthelmintic drugs in veterinary medicine. *Trends in Parasitology*, 29(3), 129–134. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2013.01.001
- Fahs, H. Z., Refai, F. S., Gopinadhan, S., Moussa, Y., Gan, H. H., Hunashal, Y., Battaglia, G., Cipriani, P. G., Ciancia, C., Rahiman, N., Kremb, S., Xie, X., Pearson, Y. E., Butterfoss, G. L., Maizels, R. M., Esposito, G., Page, A. P., Gunsalus, K. C., & Piano, F. (2025). A new class of natural anthelmintics targeting lipid metabolism. *Nature Communications*, *16*, 305. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-024-54965-w
- Feasey, N., Wansbrough-Jones, M., Mabey, D. C. W., & Solomon, A. W. (2010). Neglected tropical diseases. *British Medical Bulletin*, 93(1), 179–200. https://doi.org/10.1093/bmb/ldp046
- Fissiha, W., & Kinde, M. Z. (2021). Anthelmintic Resistance and Its Mechanism: A Review. *Infection and Drug Resistance*, *14*, 5403–5410. https://doi.org/10.2147/IDR.S332378
- Fleming, A. (1929). On the Antibacterial Action of Cultures of a Penicillium, with Special Reference to their Use in the Isolation of B. influenzæ. *British Journal of Experimental Pathology*, 10(3), 226–236.
- Fleming, J. T., Squire, M. D., Barnes, T. M., Tornoe, C., Matsuda, K., Ahnn, J., Fire, A., Sulston, J. E., Barnard, E. A., Sattelle, D. B., & Lewis, J. A. (1997).

 Caenorhabditis elegans Levamisole Resistance Geneslev-1, unc-29, and unc-38 Encode Functional Nicotinic Acetylcholine Receptor Subunits. *Journal of Neuroscience*, 17(15), 5843–5857.

 https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.17-15-05843.1997
- Garcia-Bustos, J. F., Sleebs, B. E., & Gasser, R. B. (2019). An appraisal of natural products active against parasitic nematodes of animals. *Parasites & Vectors*, 12(1), 306. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-019-3537-1

- GBD 2021 Diseases and Injuries Collaborators. (2024). Global incidence, prevalence, years lived with disability (YLDs), disability-adjusted life-years (DALYs), and healthy life expectancy (HALE) for 371 diseases and injuries in 204 countries and territories and 811 subnational locations, 1990-2021: A systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2021. *Lancet (London, England)*, 403(10440), 2133–2161. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(24)00757-8
- Grosse, S. D., Lollar, D. J., Campbell, V. A., & Chamie, M. (2009). Disability and Disability-Adjusted Life Years: Not the Same. *Public Health Reports*, *124*(2), 197–202. https://doi.org/10.1177/003335490912400206
- Herath, H. M. P. D., Taki, A. C., Rostami, A., Jabbar, A., Keiser, J., Geary, T. G., & Gasser, R. B. (2022). Whole-organism phenotypic screening methods used in early-phase anthelmintic drug discovery. *Biotechnology Advances*, *57*, 107937. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2022.107937
- Holden-Dye, L., & Walker, R. J. (2005). *Anthelmintic drugs and nematicides: Studies in Caenorhabditis elegans*. WormBook. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK116072/
- Holden-Dye, L., & Walker, R. J. (2018). *Anthelmintic drugs and nematicides: Studies in Caenorhabditis elegans*. WormBook. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK116072/
- Hotez, P. J., Brindley, P. J., Bethony, J. M., King, C. H., Pearce, E. J., & Jacobson, J. (2008a). Helminth infections: The great neglected tropical diseases. *The Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 118(4), 1311–1321. https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI34261
- Hotez, P. J., Brindley, P. J., Bethony, J. M., King, C. H., Pearce, E. J., & Jacobson, J. (2008b). Helminth infections: The great neglected tropical diseases. *The Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 118(4), 1311–1321. https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI34261
- Houweling, T. A. J., Karim-Kos, H. E., Kulik, M. C., Stolk, W. A., Haagsma, J. A., Lenk, E. J., Richardus, J. H., & de Vlas, S. J. (2016). Socioeconomic Inequalities in Neglected Tropical Diseases: A Systematic Review. *PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases*, *10*(5), e0004546. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0004546
- Ismail, M., Metwally, A., Farghaly, A., Bruce, J., Tao, L. F., & Bennett, J. L. (1996). Characterization of isolates of Schistosoma mansoni from Egyptian villagers that tolerate high doses of praziquantel. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 55(2), 214–218.
- Jayawardene, K. L. T. D., Palombo, E. A., & Boag, P. R. (2021). Natural Products Are a Promising Source for Anthelmintic Drug Discovery. *Biomolecules*, *11*(10), 1457. https://doi.org/10.3390/biom11101457
- Kaminsky, R., Ducray, P., Jung, M., Clover, R., Rufener, L., Bouvier, J., Weber, S. S., Wenger, A., Wieland-Berghausen, S., Goebel, T., Gauvry, N., Pautrat, F.,

- Skripsky, T., Froelich, O., Komoin-Oka, C., Westlund, B., Sluder, A., & Mäser, P. (2008). A new class of anthelmintics effective against drug-resistant nematodes. *Nature*, *452*(7184), 176–180. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature06722
- Kaplan, R. M. (2013). Prescription-Only Anthelmintic Drugs: The Time Is Now. *BioScience*, 63(11), 852–853. https://doi.org/10.1525/bio.2013.63.11.3
- King, A. M., Reid-Yu, S. A., Wang, W., King, D. T., De Pascale, G., Strynadka, N. C., Walsh, T. R., Coombes, B. K., & Wright, G. D. (2014). AMA overcomes antibiotic resistance by NDM and VIM metallo-β-lactamases. *Nature*, 510(7506), 503–506. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature13445
- Lacey, E. (1990). Mode of action of benzimidazoles. *Parasitology Today*, 6(4), 112–115. https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-4758(90)90227-U
- Laing, R., Gillan, V., & Devaney, E. (2017). Ivermectin Old Drug, New Tricks? *Trends in Parasitology*, 33(6), 463–472. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2017.02.004
- Lasota, J. A., & Dybas, R. A. (1990). Abamectin as a pesticide for agricultural use. *Acta Leidensia*, 59(1–2), 217–225.
- Lim, L. E., Vilchèze, C., Ng, C., Jacobs, W. R., Ramón-García, S., & Thompson, C. J. (2013). Anthelmintic Avermectins Kill Mycobacterium tuberculosis, Including Multidrug-Resistant Clinical Strains. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 57(2), 1040–1046. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01696-12
- Liu, M., Panda, S. K., & Luyten, W. (2020). Plant-Based Natural Products for the Discovery and Development of Novel Anthelmintics against Nematodes. *Biomolecules*, *10*(3), 426. https://doi.org/10.3390/biom10030426
- Martin, F. N. (2003). Development of Alternative Strategies for Management of Soilborne Pathogens Currently Controlled with Methyl Bromide. *Annual Review of Phytopathology*, *41*(1), 325–350. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.phyto.41.052002.095514
- Martin, R. J., & Robertson, A. P. (2007). Mode of action of levamisole and pyrantel, anthelmintic resistance, E153 and Q57. *Parasitology*, *134*(08), 1093. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0031182007000029
- Martin, R. J., Robertson, A. P., & Choudhary, S. (2021). Ivermectin: An Anthelmintic, an Insecticide, and Much More. *Trends in Parasitology*, *37*(1), 48–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2020.10.005
- Martínez-Valladares, M., Valderas-García, E., Gandasegui, J., Skuce, P., Morrison, A., Castilla Gómez de Agüero, V., Cambra-Pellejà, M., Balaña-Fouce, R., & Rojo-Vázquez, F. A. (2020). Teladorsagia circumcincta beta tubulin: The presence of the E198L polymorphism on its own is associated with benzimidazole resistance. *Parasites & Vectors*, *13*(1), 453. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-020-04320-x

- McKellar, Q. A., & Scott, E. W. (1990). The benzimidazole anthelmintic agents-a review. *Journal of Veterinary Pharmacology and Therapeutics*, *13*(3), 223–247. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2885.1990.tb00773.x
- Melander, R. J., & Melander, C. (2017). The Challenge of Overcoming Antibiotic Resistance: An Adjuvant Approach? *ACS Infectious Diseases*, *3*(8), 559–563. https://doi.org/10.1021/acsinfecdis.7b00071
- Merck & Co., Inc. (n.d.). *History—Merck.com*. Merck.Com. Retrieved June 26, 2025, from https://www.merck.com/company-overview/history/
- Miller, T. W., Chaiet, L., Cole, D. J., Cole, L. J., Flor, J. E., Goegelman, R. T., Gullo, V. P., Joshua, H., Kempf, A. J., Krellwitz, W. R., Monaghan, R. L., Ormond, R. E., Wilson, K. E., Albers-Schönberg, G., & Putter, I. (1979). Avermectins, New Family of Potent Anthelmintic Agents: Isolation and Chromatographic Properties. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 15(3), 368–371. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.15.3.368
- Moy, T. I., Conery, A. L., Larkins-Ford, J., Wu, G., Mazitschek, R., Casadei, G., Lewis, K., Carpenter, A. E., & Ausubel, F. M. (2009). High-Throughput Screen for Novel Antimicrobials using a Whole Animal Infection Model. *ACS Chemical Biology*, 4(7), 527–533. https://doi.org/10.1021/cb900084v
- Nakatani, H. (2016). Global Strategies for the Prevention and Control of Infectious Diseases and Non-Communicable Diseases. *Journal of Epidemiology*, 26(4), 171–178. https://doi.org/10.2188/jea.JE20160010
- Nogales, E. (2000). Structural Insights into Microtubule Function. *Annual Review of Biochemistry*, 69(1), 277–302. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.biochem.69.1.277
- Õmura, S. (2008). Ivermectin: 25 years and still going strong. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, 31(2), 91–98. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2007.08.023
- O'Reilly, L. P., Luke, C. J., Perlmutter, D. H., Silverman, G. A., & Pak, S. C. (2014). C. elegans in high-throughput drug discovery. *Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews*, 0, 247–253. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addr.2013.12.001
- Panic, G., Duthaler, U., Speich, B., & Keiser, J. (2014). Repurposing drugs for the treatment and control of helminth infections. *International Journal for Parasitology: Drugs and Drug Resistance*, *4*(3), 185–200. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2014.07.002
- Patridge, E., Gareiss, P., Kinch, M. S., & Hoyer, D. (2016). An analysis of FDA-approved drugs: Natural products and their derivatives. *Drug Discovery Today*, 21(2), 204–207. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drudis.2015.01.009
- Pedrique, B., Strub-Wourgaft, N., Some, C., Olliaro, P., Trouiller, P., Ford, N., Pécoul, B., & Bradol, J.-H. (2013). The drug and vaccine landscape for neglected diseases (2000-11): A systematic assessment. *The Lancet. Global Health*, 1(6), e371-379. https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(13)70078-0

- Pitterna, T., Cassayre, J., Hüter, O. F., Jung, P. M. J., Maienfisch, P., Kessabi, F. M., Quaranta, L., & Tobler, H. (2009). New ventures in the chemistry of avermectins. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry*, *17*(12), 4085–4095. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bmc.2008.12.069
- Prichard, R. (1994). Anthelmintic resistance. *Veterinary Parasitology*, *54*(1–3), 259–268.
- Raeymaekers, A. H. M., Allewijn, F. T. N., Vandenberk, J., Demoen, P. J. A., Van Offenwert, T. T. T., & Janssen, P. A. J. (1966). Novel Broad-Spectrum Anthelmintics. Tetramisole and Related Derivatives of 6-Arylimidazo[2,1-b]thiazole. *Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, 9(4), 545–551. https://doi.org/10.1021/jm00322a023
- Reynoldson, J. A., Behnke, J. M., Pallant, L. J., Macnish, M. G., Gilbert, F., Giles, S., Spargo, R. J., & Thompson, R. C. (1997). Failure of pyrantel in treatment of human hookworm infections (Ancylostoma duodenale) in the Kimberley region of north west Australia. *Acta Tropica*, 68(3), 301–312.
- Samson-Himmelstjerna, G. V., Blackhall, W. J., McCARTHY, J. S., & Skuce, P. J. (2007). Single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) markers for benzimidazole resistance in veterinary nematodes. *Parasitology*, *134*(8), 1077–1086. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0031182007000054
- Sarai, R. S., Kopp, S. R., Knox, M. R., Coleman, G. T., & Kotze, A. C. (2015). In vitro levamisole selection pressure on larval stages of Haemonchus contortus over nine generations gives rise to drug resistance and target site gene expression changes specific to the early larval stages only. *Veterinary Parasitology*, 211(1–2), 45–53. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetpar.2015.05.002
- Selzer, P. M. (2009). Antiparasitic and Antibacterial Drug Discovery: From Molecular Targets to Drug Candidates. John Wiley & Sons.
- Shalaby, H. A. (2013). Anthelmintics Resistance; How to Overcome it? *Iranian Journal of Parasitology*, 8(1), 18–32.
- Strydom, T., Lavan, R. P., Torres, S., & Heaney, K. (2023). The Economic Impact of Parasitism from Nematodes, Trematodes and Ticks on Beef Cattle Production. *Animals: An Open Access Journal from MDPI*, 13(10), 1599. https://doi.org/10.3390/ani13101599
- Taylor, C. M., Wang, Q., Rosa, B. A., Huang, S. C.-C., Powell, K., Schedl, T., Pearce, E. J., Abubucker, S., & Mitreva, M. (2013). Discovery of Anthelmintic Drug Targets and Drugs Using Chokepoints in Nematode Metabolic Pathways. *PLOS Pathogens*, 9(8), e1003505. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1003505
- The Global Fund. (2024, September 19). *Home—The Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria*. https://www.theglobalfund.org/en/
- Thienpont, D., Vanparijs, O. F. J., Raeymaekers, A. H. M., Vandenberk, J., Demoen, P. J. A., Allewijn, F. T. N., Marsboom, R. P. H., Niemegeers, C. J. E., Schellekens, K. H. L., & Janssen, P. a. J. (1966). Tetramisole (R 8299), A New, Potent Broad

- Spectrum Anthelmintic. *Nature*, *209*(5028), 1084–1086. https://doi.org/10.1038/2091084a0
- Vercruysse, J., Albonico, M., Behnke, J. M., Kotze, A. C., Prichard, R. K., McCarthy, J. S., Montresor, A., & Levecke, B. (2011). Is anthelmintic resistance a concern for the control of human soil-transmitted helminths? *International Journal for Parasitology: Drugs and Drug Resistance*, 1(1), 14–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2011.09.002
- Weeks, J. C., Roberts, W. M., Leasure, C., Suzuki, B. M., Robinson, K. J., Currey, H., Wangchuk, P., Eichenberger, R. M., Saxton, A. D., Bird, T. D., Kraemer, B. C., Loukas, A., Hawdon, J. M., Caffrey, C. R., & Liachko, N. F. (2018). Sertraline, Paroxetine, and Chlorpromazine Are Rapidly Acting Anthelmintic Drugs Capable of Clinical Repurposing. *Scientific Reports*, 8(1), 975. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-18457-w
- WHO. (2023a, January 18). Soil-transmitted helminth infections. https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/soil-transmitted-helminth-infections
- WHO. (2023b, February 1). *Schistosomiasis*. World Health Organization. http://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/schistosomiasis
- WHO. (2024a, October). *R&D funding for neglected diseases by disease*. https://www.who.int/observatories/global-observatory-on-health-research-and-development/monitoring/r-d-funding-flows-for-neglected-diseases-by-disease-year-and-funding-category
- WHO. (2024b, December 11). *Malaria*. https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/malaria
- Williams, J. C., Loyacano, A. F., Nault, C., Ramsey, R. T., & Plue, R. E. (1992). Efficacy of abamectin against natural infections of gastrointestinal nematodes and lungworm of cattle with special emphasis on inhibited, early fourth stage larvae of Ostertagia ostertagi. *Veterinary Parasitology*, *41*(1–2), 77–84.
- Wolstenholme, A. J. (2012). Glutamate-gated Chloride Channels. *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 287(48), 40232–40238. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.R112.406280
- Wolstenholme, A. J., Fairweather, I., Prichard, R., von Samson-Himmelstjerna, G., & Sangster, N. C. (2004). Drug resistance in veterinary helminths. *Trends in Parasitology*, *20*(10), 469–476. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2004.07.010
- Wolstenholme, A. J., & Rogers, A. T. (2006). Glutamate-gated chloride channels and the mode of action of the avermectin/milbemycin anthelmintics.

 Parasitology, 131(S1), S85. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0031182005008218
- Woolley, D. W. (1944). Some biological effects produced by benzimidazole and their reversal by purines. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *152*(2), 225–232. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0021-9258(18)72045-0

- Xu, M., Molento, M., Blackhall, W., Ribeiro, P., Beech, R., & Prichard, R. (1998). Ivermectin resistance in nematodes may be caused by alteration of P-glycoprotein homolog. *Molecular and Biochemical Parasitology*, 91(2), 327–335. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0166-6851(97)00215-6
- Zamanian, M., & Chan, J. D. (2021). High-content approaches to anthelmintic drug screening. *Trends in Parasitology*, *37*(9), 780. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2021.05.004
- Zasada, I. A., Halbrendt, J. M., Kokalis-Burelle, N., LaMondia, J., McKenry, M. V., & Noling, J. W. (2010). Managing Nematodes Without Methyl Bromide. *Annual Review of Phytopathology*, 48(1), 311–328. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-phyto-073009-114425
- Zhuo, Y., Zhang, T., Wang, Q., Cruz-Morales, P., Zhang, B., Liu, M., Barona-Gómez, F., & Zhang, L. (2014). Synthetic biology of avermectin for production improvement and structure diversification. *Biotechnology Journal*, 9(3), 316–325. https://doi.org/10.1002/biot.201200383

CHAPTER TWO – Development and evaluation of motility, image, and luminescence-based screening methods

Sommer Chou¹, Lesley T. MacNeil^{1, 2, 3}, Gerard D. Wright^{1, 3}

¹Department of Biochemistry and Biomedical Sciences, Faculty of Health Sciences, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON

²Farncombe Family Digestive Health Research Institute, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON

³Institute for Infectious Disease Research, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON

Declaration: This chapter contains work that has not been previously published, submitted, or presented

Contributions: SC performed experiments, wrote the manuscript, and made the figures.

ABSTRACT

The high global burden of helminth infections necessitates the development of effective anthelmintic drugs. High-throughput screening methods often play a pivotal role in identifying novel compounds; however, there is no gold-standard protocol for the discovery of anthelmintic compounds through screening. Here, we describe two liquid-based assays that use Caenorhabditis elegans to identify compounds that affect nematode viability. The first is a phenotypic-based screen that has been optimized for screening natural product extracts to address an untapped niche in the research field. We evaluated three different output methods — motility and both automated and manual image-based scoring — for their sensitivity, efficacy, and reproducibility. Of the three methods, we concluded that manual image scoring was the most sensitive but also the most labour-intensive. We also found that motility readouts are most useful for the rapid identification of extremely toxic compounds that result in lethality or paralysis. Lastly, automated image analysis using computer vision is the quickest method for flagging general abnormalities; however, our current technology may be lacking in sensitivity. Nevertheless, there is a high ceiling for technique development here that could be further exploited. The second screen we describe is a target-based nanoluciferasedependent reporter assay for cuticle damage. Due to high variability, this was determined to be better suited as a secondary assay or for protocols where test compounds are not limited. Our overall findings suggest that while no single data

acquisition method is universally superior, each offers distinct advantages that can be strategically employed depending on the specific goals of the study.

INTRODUCTION

Helminth infections, caused by parasitic worms, remain a major public health concern, particularly in disadvantaged areas with limited resources (WHO, 2023). Although there are global programs to assist in the eradication of helminthiases, soil-transmitted infections remain a significant concern for approximately a quarter of the world's population (WHO, 2023). The total number of worm infections worldwide is likely much higher, due to limited surveillance and reporting for non-soil-transmitted helminth infections. There is also a high potential for reinfection and sustained infections, which cause long-term cognitive and health defects (Jamison et al., 2006). Despite the severity and prevalence of these diseases, research in the field of novel drug discovery and improving access to existing drugs is lacking, likely because financial return on these investments is expected to be low (Nixon et al., 2020).

Apart from their use in human health, anthelmintics are also widely used in veterinary medicine. Livestock and companion animals depend on the prophylactic administration of anthelmintic compounds, but there is a continued threat that rising levels of resistance will render the already limited arsenal of drugs completely obsolete (Nixon et al., 2020). Another bottleneck is that there is currently no gold-standard approach to screening for nematocidal compounds. For antimicrobial compound screening, organizations have recommended standard laboratory protocols for susceptibility testing (CLSI, 2024; EUCAST, n.d.). This is not the same

case for testing in nematodes. Traditionally, discoveries were made through *in vivo* screening of small animal infection models, which presented several challenges (Nixon et al., 2020; Zamanian & Chan, 2021). Most notably, these assays were very low-throughput and labour-intensive, and parasitic worms can be difficult to work with due to the need for a host. More recent work in the field has involved the use of nematode models, such as *Caenorhabditis elegans*, to improve screening throughput (Holden-Dye & Walker, 2018; Partridge et al., 2020).

There are two main approaches to screening, both of which could be leveraged for anthelmintic discovery: target-based and phenotypic/empirical screening. Target-based assays require an informed selection of a specific biological target or process for which the goal is to identify a particular inhibitor or activator. Phenotypic screens focus more on an overall desirable response to compounds, and a specific target and mechanism are elucidated later. Both methods can be beneficial; however, there is currently a lack of a universally accepted screening process for anthelmintic discovery that must be addressed. This is proving to be a challenge as research groups will spend more time on assay development and optimization rather than screening for bioactive compounds.

Since parasitic worms often have complex life cycles that can complicate assay development, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, a well-characterized and non-pathogenic nematode, can be used as a model to facilitate drug discovery (Burns et

al., 2015). Despite lacking mechanisms required for parasitism, *C. elegans* shares many structural similarities to parasitic nematodes and belongs to the same phylogenetic clade as several highly prevalent helminths (Coghlan et al., 2019). In addition, *C. elegans* have relatively short generation times and large brood sizes, making them ideal for high-throughput screening purposes.

C. elegans shares main features of the nematode body plan, such as the cuticle, with parasitic relatives (Hahnel et al., 2020). The cuticle is an essential component that serves as a physical barrier to the outside environment and directly affects locomotion (Johnstone, 1994). In nematodes, this structure is also shed and replaced between larval stages through a process called moulting (Lažetić & Fay, 2017). The enzymes responsible for the degradation and resynthesis of the cuticle during this process could serve as potentially viable drug targets. Previous work has demonstrated that disruptions to the cuticle structure or the enzymes responsible for its assembly often result in severe morphological defects or lethality (Barbazuk et al., 1994; Page et al., 2014; Peters et al., 1991). Given its crucial role in structural integrity and viability, the cuticle is a compelling target for anthelmintic compounds. This exoskeletal structure is also lacking in mammals such as humans, suggesting that off-target effects would be minimized. Taken together, this reinforces the potential for target-based discovery efforts specific to the nematode cuticle.

In this chapter, we present two complementary assays that can facilitate the discovery of anthelmintic drugs. One is a phenotypic screen that can be used to assess overall worm motility and viability in response to different compounds, either by quantifying movement or acquiring microscopic images of worms. After evaluating this assay and the various readouts for throughput, ease of automation, feasibility, and the number of hits generated from screening, we believe that an image-based phenotypic assay should be the standard for identifying general inhibitors of worm development. Our second cuticle damage reporter assay, which relies on luminescence, requires more starting material and should be reserved for use when test compounds are readily available or as a secondary screen to assist with mechanistic determination.

METHODS

C. elegans maintenance

The *C. elegans* strain used in the motility assay is the wild-type Bristol (N2) strain, obtained from the *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center (CGC). For the luminescence-based assay, we used the PHX5152 (sybls5152[nlp-29p::NLuc]; unc-119(ed3)) strain, constructed by SunyBiotech. General maintenance protocols were followed as previously described (Stiernagle, 2006). Briefly, worms are maintained under monoxenic conditions on plates of solid nematode growth media (NGM)

seeded with *Escherichia coli* OP50 as a food source, as described by Sydney

Brenner (Brenner, 1974). Populations are propagated at 20 °C by transferring worms

onto new, seeded plates when *E. coli* OP50 is depleted.

Synchronizing C. elegans Population

C. elegans were grown on NGM until adulthood, and a standard bleaching procedure was used to collect C. elegans eggs (Stiernagle, 2006). To synchronize the population, eggs were resuspended in 7 mL of M9 buffer (Table 1) and incubated overnight at 20 °C on a rocker to allow the eggs to hatch and synchronize the population to the first larval stage (L1).

Natural product extract library

For our screen, we used an in-house natural product extract library called the pre-fractionated library (PFL). This is composed of crude and semi-pure (fractionated) DMSO extracts from microbes isolated from various soil samples (Cook et al., 2023). Extracts were pre-aliquoted into 96-well plates for high-throughput screening. Each plate contains extracts from 8 strains arranged in separate rows. Solid and liquid-media extracts are in columns 2 and 3, respectively, and semi-pure extracts are arranged in rows 4-11 in order of increasing hydrophobicity from left to right (Figure 1). Columns 1 and 12 were left empty for controls.

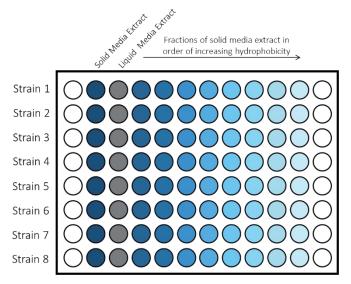


Figure 1: Outline of the arrangement of extracts in the pre-fractionated library tested in this assay.

Motility assay set-up

The screening conditions and set-up for this study have been carefully optimized for screening natural product extracts. The step-by-step protocol is detailed below, beginning with *C. elegans* population synchronization. Prior to this stage, worms were developed on NGM agar seeded with *E. coli* OP50, as outlined above, until they were gravid adults, which takes approximately three days from eggs at 20 °C. The protocol uses automation and machine liquid-handlers in the Centre for Microbial Chemical Biology (CMCB) at McMaster University. However, note that manual pipetting is also possible, although this approach will be more time-consuming and introduce additional variability.

Day 1

- Bleach gravid N2 adult worms and resuspend eggs in M9 to hatch overnight on a rocker.
- 2. Prepare an *E. coli* OP50 culture by inoculating LB with a single colony. Grow overnight at 37 °C, 250 rpm.

Day 2

1. Calculate the number of hatched worms in the sample using the equation below. First, pipette 5 μ L of the sample onto an agar plate and count the number of worms.

total # of worms = # of worms in 5
$$\mu$$
L × $\frac{\text{total sample volume in } \mu L}{5}$

- 2. Centrifuge hatched L1 worms at 1200 rpm for 2 minutes. Remove M9 buffer and resuspend worms in S-basal (Table 1) to a concentration of 1 worm/μL, as this is the sample concentration that provides optimal Worm Sorter performance.
- 3. Centrifuge the *E. coli* OP50 culture at 3900 rpm for 20 minutes. Remove the supernatant and concentrate in S-basal to an OD_{600} of 5.
- 4. Into each well of a 96-well clear flat-bottom plate, dispense 60 worms (\sim 60 μ L) using the COPAS worm sorter. Note that natural product extracts were tested in duplicate so two plates were needed for each PFL plate tested.

- 5. Add 89 μ L of the concentrated *E. coli* OP50 solution with the Tempest automated liquid handler (Formulatrix).
- 6. Using a Mosquito low volume liquid handler (SPT Labtech), add 1 μ L of PFL extract (0.6% v/v) to the designated wells, and add 1 μ L of DMSO to columns 1 and 12 as a solvent control.
- 7. Cover the plates with a gas-permeable seal to prevent evaporation and contamination between wells. Incubate the plates at 20 °C and 150 rpm for six days.

Day 8

- Read each plate for 30 minutes using the Wmicrotracker motility tracker (described below).
- 2. Image every well using an automated Nikon AZ1000M microscope (described below).

Table 1: Recipes for M9 buffer and S-basal.

Media	Ingredient	Amount
M9 buffer	Potassium phosphate monobasic (KH ₂ PO ₄)	3 g
	Sodium phosphate dibasic (Na ₂ HPO ₄)	6 g
	Sodium Chloride (NaCl)	5 g
	ddH ₂ O	to 1 L
	After autoclaving: Magnesium sulphate	1 mL
	(MgSO ₄), 1 M	
S-basal	Sodium Chloride (NaCl)	5.85 g
	Potassium phosphate dibasic (K ₂ HPO ₄)	1 g
	Potassium phosphate monobasic (KH ₂ PO ₄)	6 g
	ddH ₂ O	to 1 L
	After autoclaving: cholesterol, 5 mg/mL in	1 mL
	ethanol	

Phenotypic analysis methods

Dead and paralyzed *C. elegans* have very similar phenotypes. Both result in worm rigidification and, ultimately, a lack of movement. The WMicrotracker One (NemaMetrix), which was developed to measure thrashing activity of *C. elegans* in liquid media, was used in this screen as a method of identifying wells within a 96-well plate with no *C. elegans* movement. This device works by measuring light scattering when an object passes through one of two infrared microbeams that span each well of a 96-well plate (Golombek & Simonetta, 2010). The tracker monitored movement within wells for 30 minutes, and hits were confirmed by eye to eliminate false positives.

A Nikon AZ100M microscope was used to take images of all screening plates. Using the microscope's NIS-Elements program, the microscope was programmed to capture a single brightfield image for each well of a 96-well plate using the AZ Plan Fluor 2X objective lens. Software parameters were set so the microscope would autofocus on the center of each well and take pictures of wells in a serpentine manner. With these settings, each plate took approximately 20-25 minutes to image. This image dataset was used to develop and train a computer vision model for image classification. This was done in collaboration with the Moradi Lab at McMaster University (Wang et al., 2025).

Nanoluciferase assay set-up

PHX5152 worms were used for this assay as they contain the nanoluciferase gene responsible for luminescence. The assay set-up is the same as the motility assay except for the incubation period (3 days instead of 6). The steps for Days 1 and 2 from above can be followed exactly, and the protocol for the nanoluciferase assay continues below:

<u>Day 5</u>

- Add 5 silicon carbide beads (1 mm diameter) into each well using a bead loader (Biospec Products).
- 2. Firmly seal plates with tape and vortex for 5 minutes to lyse worms.
- 3. Centrifuge each plate at 3900 rpm for 2 minutes to pellet lysate.
- 4. Transfer 25 μL of supernatant from each well into a new white clear-bottom 96-well plate. Add 25 μL of NanoGlo reagent (Promega N1110) in the same new plate and combine well by pipetting, taking care to avoid introducing bubbles.
- **5.** Measure luminescence using a Biotek Synergy Neo plate reader.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We developed two different approaches to facilitate the discovery of nematocidal compounds (Figure 2). The first is an image/motility-based assay designed to acquire information about overall worm viability. Image analysis can be conducted either manually or with a computer vision program that was developed. The second is a target-specific, luminescence-based assay that uses a nanoluciferase reporter to identify cuticle damage in worms. These can be used in tandem to provide a more comprehensive evaluation of compound activity or independently to address specific research questions.

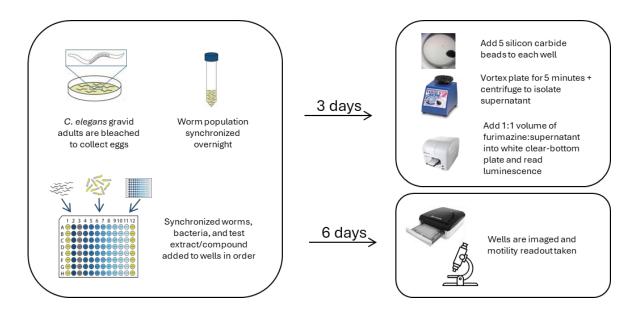


Figure 2: *Motility and luminescence assay set up.* The worm population is first synchronized, and wells in assay plates consist of worms, *E. coli* OP50, and test extract or DMSO control. For the motility assay, plates are incubated for six days and then scored for viability using a motility tracker. Wells are also imaged to facilitate phenotypic assessments. For the luminescence assay, plates are incubated for

three days, and worms are lysed by vortexing with silicon carbide beads. The substrate for nanoluciferase, furimazine, was added in a 1:1 ratio with the worm lysate supernatant, and luminescence was measured in a luminometer.

An analysis of the value of motility data versus image analyses for a phenotypic screen

For the phenotype-based assay, we first used motility as an indicator of worm viability and initially tested 384 crude and 3,072 semi-pure extracts (Supplementary Figure 1). Motility scores ranged from 0 to > 200 and represented the number of times an infrared beam passing through the well was interrupted. For extracts that caused worm death or paralysis, we were expecting to see a motility score of zero or close to zero. We set an arbitrary maximum threshold of 10, which resulted in 13 hits that reproducibly limited worm movement across screening duplicates (Table 2).

All wells of the screening plates were also imaged to manually identify any growth defects. Compounds with anthelmintic activity are known to impair worm development at sublethal concentrations (Jensen et al., 2007; Shaver et al., 2023). As such, wells with few to no offspring, unhatched eggs, asynchronous worm development, and rigidified worms were noted as containing potentially toxic compounds (Figure 3). Based on the way the PFL was assembled, there is a higher likelihood that extracts on the same plate are duplicates or more similar to one another. This is because microbial strains isolated from the same soil sample were assigned adjacent labels, resulting in their extracts being physically arrayed together

in the PFL. Therefore, for screening plates with more than five hits, we chose to exclude all of them to eliminate any potential for duplication. Once these were filtered out, we were left with a list of 12 hits, 9 of which were already identified from the motility results (Table 2). The high level of overlap is consistent with expectations as low motility values are reflective of little to no movement in wells, which would mean worms are likely dead or paralysed, and this would be easily confirmed upon visual inspection.

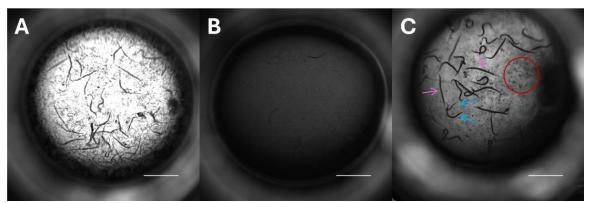


Figure 3: Representative well images of a negative control (A), positive control or hit (B), and intermediate phenotype (C). Annotations in C highlight relevant phenotypes that could indicate the presence of a sublethal concentration of nematocidal compounds. Unhatched eggs are featured in the red circle, pink arrows are pointing to worms that have rigidified, and blue arrows are pointing to asynchronously developing worms.

While the hits identified between motility scoring and manual image analysis are not identical, each method can provide insight into toxicity levels within wells.

Low motility scores enable the immediate identification of highly toxic substances within the well, which is useful for prioritizing extracts or compounds with extremely

potent nematocidal activity. However, phenotypes that reflect mild toxicity to worms cannot be easily identified from motility scores alone. This is where manual inspection of images can be beneficial. Targeting wells where worm development appears to be impacted can reveal chemicals that affect growth or reproduction without causing immediate lethality or paralysis, and these may still hold therapeutic potential. Additionally, another factor to consider is that we are screening an extract library, and moderate effects on the worms may indicate that toxic compounds are present in sublethal concentrations. This is a significant advantage of manually scoring images, as it enables higher sensitivity and a broader range of detection for potentially toxic compounds. However, a major disadvantage of manually evaluating worms is that it can be extremely time consuming, especially when trying to score several phenotypes.

Due to the labour-intensiveness of manually scoring worms, we contacted the Moradi Lab at McMaster University to assist with generating an automated binary scoring system to quickly identify wells that were abnormal versus normal (Wang et al., 2025). Upon identifying wells that were scored as abnormal with 90% confidence and then eliminating all wells from plates with more than five hits, we identified an additional 22 hits, most of which did not correspond to positive hits from the other two scoring methods (Table 2). Despite this, manual inspection of the images flagged by the computer vision software confirms that wells contain abnormal worm phenotypes, indicating high accuracy. Lowering the confidence

threshold would result in a greater number of hits; however, it can sometimes be difficult to manually distinguish between an abnormal well with a confidence score of 90% and one with a score of 75%. Therefore, a higher score may not directly correlate with poorer worm conditions. Since the model is currently only trained to provide a binary scoring system, the discrepancy and lack of overlap in hits compared to other scoring methods may be a result of the program flagging visually distinct but less biologically significant changes. For example, some wells may have a greater number of curved or coiled worms due to their positioning at the time of imaging. The algorithm may classify these wells as "abnormal" based on the shape deviation from worms in control wells; however, these deviations would be considered insignificant in a manual inspection, as live worms are naturally curved. Regardless, this method can still be effective as a first pass to sift through large quantities of images. This automated image analysis pipeline is relatively new, and further work can be done to train the algorithm to enhance its precision and expand its capabilities.

Table 2: *Hits obtained from motility and image-based readouts.* **Cells** highlighted in green represent the extracts that were classified as hits from the different readouts. Strain # corresponds to a strain in our in-house soil microbe collection. Motility score was cut off at 10 to select for extracts that caused worm death or paralysis. For manual and automated image scoring, screening plates with >5 hits were completely excluded from the dataset.

Strain#	Motility < 10	Hit from manual scoring	Hit from computer vision
1325			
1490			
8452			
8518			
8103			
8117			
8348			
8360			
8472			
8478			
10980			
10981			
10988			
10991			
10992			
10993			
10994			
10995			
11018			
11019			
11020			
11021			
11026			
11153			
11171			
11192			
11193			
11194			
11195			
11203			
11216			
11217			
11221			
11258			
11230			

Overall, each method of data acquisition and analysis has its own advantages and disadvantages, summarized in Table 3. Depending on the study goals, one method may be preferred over another, or a combination of methods could be used. For example, if looking for inhibitors of reproduction, an image-based analysis method may be preferred. Automated scoring can help refine a large dataset, and manual inspection can help identify which wells to prioritize for further investigation. For our follow-up work, since the automated scoring method was still under development, we prioritized motility and manual scoring results.

Table 3: A summary of the data acquisition and analysis methods, their pros and cons, and recommended applications.

Data acquired	Motility	Images – manual scoring	Images – computer vision (automated scoring
Pros	 Quick identification of dead/paralysed worms Not labour-intensive; easy set-up 	- Allows for the identification of compounds that affect development and reproduction, or sublethal concentrations of toxic compounds	- Generates results rapidly from a large dataset - Not labour-intensive
Cons	- Time consuming (30 minute read time) - Not sensitive enough to identify intermediate phenotypes	- Time consuming - Labour-intensive	- Binary scoring system; unable to identify intermediate phenotypes and confidence score doesn't correlate with severity of phenotypes
Recommended applications	Best for identifying very toxic compounds/extracts that induce death or paralysis	Best for identifying intermediate phenotypes and validating computer vision results	Best when working with large image datasets

Target-based luminescence assay

We also developed a luminescence-based assay that uses a transcriptional reporter worm strain to detect cuticle damage. The antimicrobial peptide, NLP-29, is produced by *C. elegans* in response to tissue damage, moulting defects, and developmental defects (Dodd et al., 2018; Pujol et al., 2008). We cloned the nanoluciferase gene downstream of the *nlp-29* promoter to generate a transgenic worm strain (PHX5152) that expresses nanoluciferase in response to cuticle damage. One disadvantage of this screening method is that worms must be lysed to release the nanoluciferase enzyme, as its substrate, furimazine, cannot penetrate worm tissues (Sfarcic et al., 2019). Lysis can be accomplished by vortexing the worms with silicon carbide beads; however, this introduces an additional challenge as luminescence intensity can be dependent on vortex time, and there are high levels of variability in lysis completion (Figure 4A). An explanation for this variability is that increased vortex times generate excess heat, which cannot be withstood by the nanoluciferase enzyme.

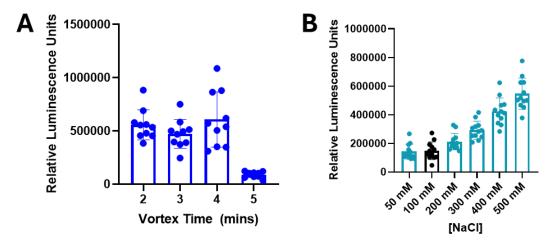


Figure 4: Nanoluciferase assay optimization and test results. **A)** Optimal vortex time for lysing worms in 96-well plates. B) Induction of nanoluciferase production by the *nlp-29* promoter as represented by relative luminescence units in response to varying salt concentrations. 100 mM of salt is the concentration in standard S-basal media. Each dot represents one well containing approximately 60 worms.

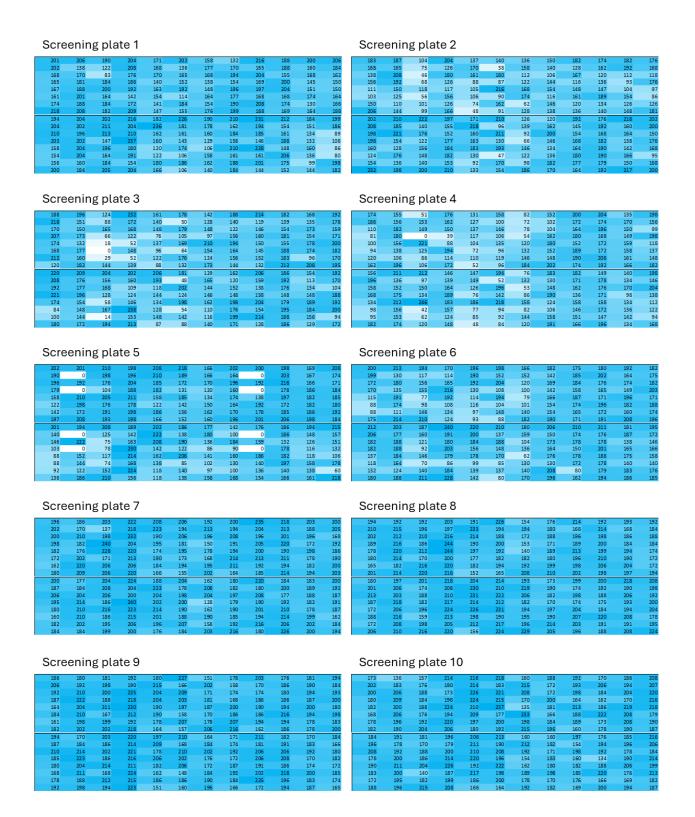
To assess the sensitivity of our nanoluciferase system, we tested a compound known to induce *nlp-29* expression via osmotic stress: sodium chloride. We can observe differences in high versus low luminescence levels; however, with higher induction levels, there is also an increase in variability (Figure 4B). The challenges and inconsistencies associated with worm lysis and the increased variability from promoter induction led us to conclude that this assay would not be suitable for preliminary high-throughput anthelmintic screening, especially for natural product screening when test extracts are scarce. However, since extra replicates allow for clearer distinctions between positive and negative results, we believe this can be a valuable secondary screen that may help with elucidating

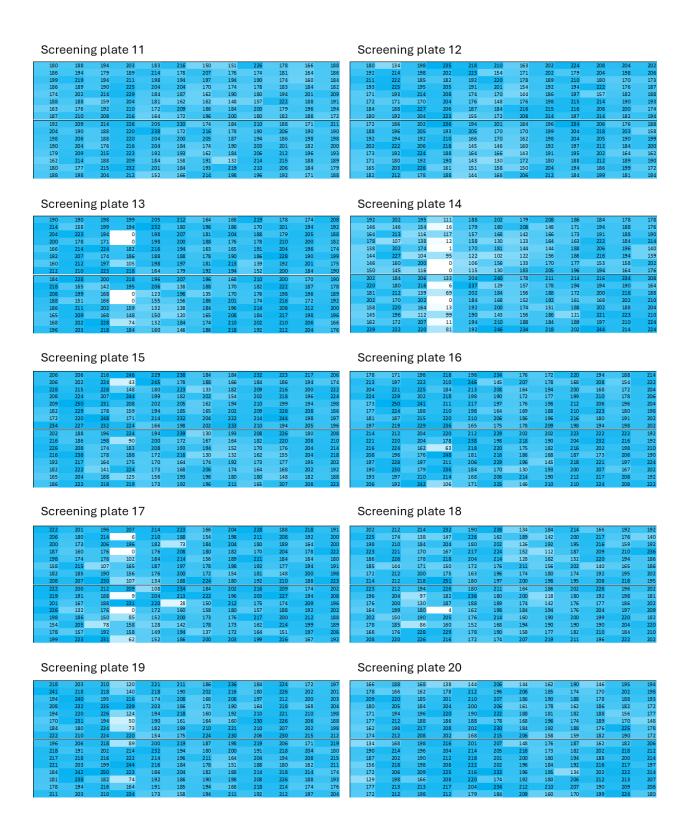
mechanisms of action for identified compounds. It may also prove useful in cases where test material is in high abundance.

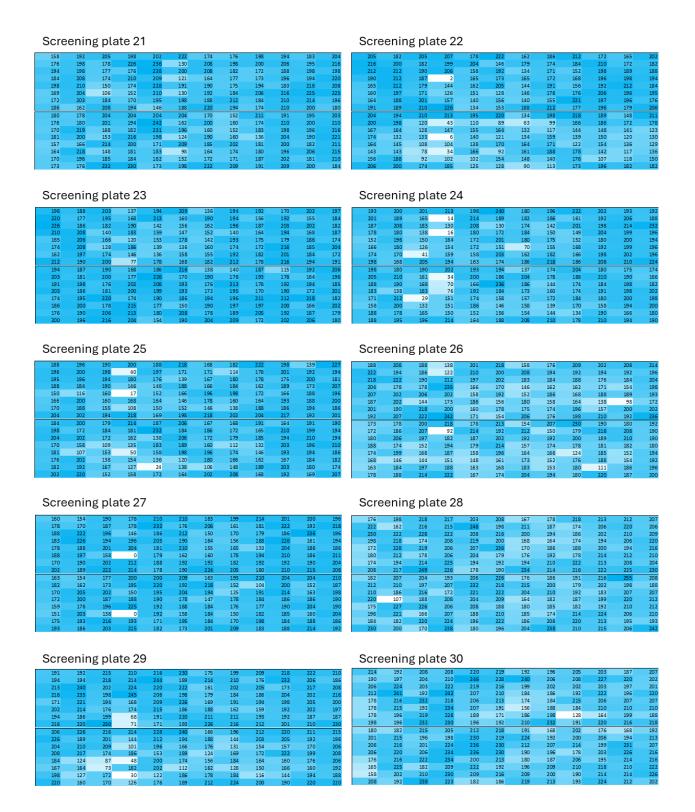
To summarize, we developed two distinct screening methods. While the intention was to use both methods to screen the PFL, we found that the variability associated with the nanoluciferase assay was not ideal for screening natural product extracts. Nevertheless, we have already troubleshooted and optimized the lysis method to the best of our abilities, and the assay can still be used in mechanistic studies upon identification of a hit compound. For the phenotypic assay, we suggest that image-based analysis methods can generate the greatest number of potential hits for follow-up.

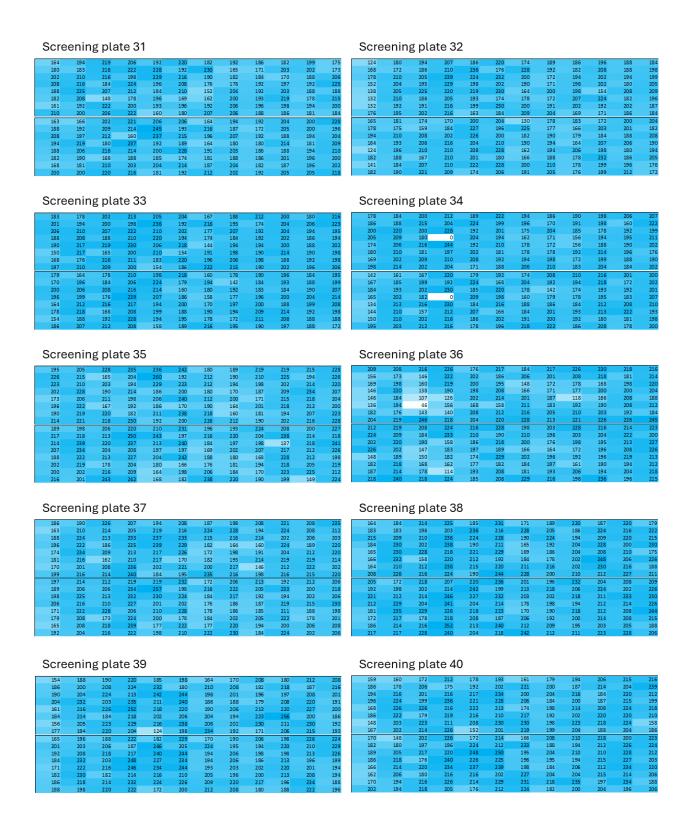
SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

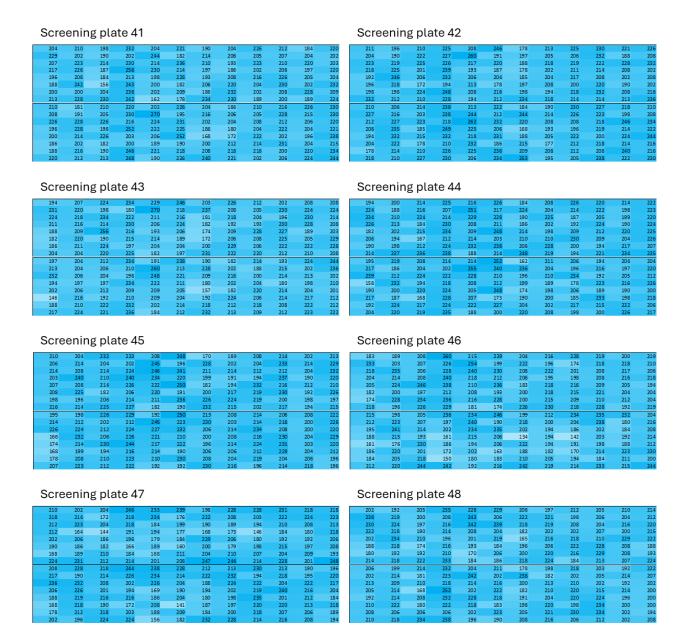
Supplementary Figure 1: Motility data of microbial natural product extracts screened against C. elegans. Crude and semi-pure extracts were arranged in 96-well plates, and each plate was screened in duplicate. Motility output was measured using the WMicrotracker from Phylum Tech with a read time of 30 minutes. Cells are shaded in blue with darker shades indicating higher numbers.











REFERENCES

- Barbazuk, W. B., Johnsen, R. C., & Baillie, D. L. (1994). The generation and genetic analysis of suppressors of lethal mutations in the Caenorhabditis elegans rol-3(V) gene. *Genetics*, *136*(1), 129–143. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/136.1.129
- Brenner, S. (1974). The Genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genetics*, 77(1), 71–94.
- Burns, A. R., Luciani, G. M., Musso, G., Bagg, R., Yeo, M., Zhang, Y., Rajendran, L., Glavin, J., Hunter, R., Redman, E., Stasiuk, S., Schertzberg, M., Angus McQuibban, G., Caffrey, C. R., Cutler, S. R., Tyers, M., Giaever, G., Nislow, C., Fraser, A. G., ... Roy, P. J. (2015). Caenorhabditis elegans is a useful model for anthelmintic discovery. *Nature Communications*, 6(1), 7485. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms8485
- CLSI. (2024, March 19). Methods for Dilution Antimicrobial Susceptibility Tests for Bacteria That Grow Aerobically. https://clsi.org/shop/standards/m07/
- Coghlan, A., Tyagi, R., Cotton, J. A., Holroyd, N., Rosa, B. A., Tsai, I. J., Laetsch, D. R., Beech, R. N., Day, T. A., Hallsworth-Pepin, K., Ke, H.-M., Kuo, T.-H., Lee, T. J., Martin, J., Maizels, R. M., Mutowo, P., Ozersky, P., Parkinson, J., Reid, A. J., ... International Helminth Genomes Consortium. (2019). Comparative genomics of the major parasitic worms. *Nature Genetics*, *51*(1), Article 1. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588-018-0262-1
- Cook, M. A., Pallant, D., Ejim, L., Sutherland, A. D., Wang, X., Johnson, J. W., McCusker, S., Chen, X., George, M., Chou, S., Koteva, K., Wang, W., Hobson, C., Hackenberger, D., Waglechner, N., Ejim, O., Campbell, T., Medina, R., MacNeil, L. T., & Wright, G. D. (2023). Lessons from assembling a microbial natural product and pre-fractionated extract library in an academic laboratory. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 50(1), kuad042. https://doi.org/10.1093/jimb/kuad042
- Dodd, W., Tang, L., Lone, J.-C., Wimberly, K., Wu, C.-W., Consalvo, C., Wright, J. E., Pujol, N., & Choe, K. P. (2018). A Damage Sensor Associated with the Cuticle Coordinates Three Core Environmental Stress Responses in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genetics*, 208(4), 1467–1482. https://doi.org/10.1534/genetics.118.300827
- EUCAST. (n.d.). AST of bacteria. Retrieved June 28, 2025, from https://www.eucast.org/ast of bacteria
- Golombek, D. A., & Simonetta, S. H. (2010). Small organism locomotor recording procedure and device, behavioral record obtained and use of same (United States Patent No. US20100063744A1). https://patents.google.com/patent/US20100063744A1/en
- Hahnel, S. R., Dilks, C. M., Heisler, I., Andersen, E. C., & Kulke, D. (2020). Caenorhabditis elegans in anthelmintic research – Old model, new

- perspectives. *International Journal for Parasitology: Drugs and Drug Resistance*, 14, 237–248. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2020.09.005
- Holden-Dye, L., & Walker, R. J. (2018). Anthelmintic drugs and nematicides: Studies in Caenorhabditis elegans. WormBook.
 - https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK116072/
- Jamison, D. T., Breman, J. G., Measham, A. R., Alleyne, G., Claeson, M., Evans, D. B., Jha, P., Mills, A., & Musgrove, P. (2006). Disease Control Priorities in Developing Countries. World Bank Publications.
- Jensen, J., Diao, X., & Scott-fordsmand, J. J. (2007). Sub-lethal toxicity of the antiparasitic abamectin on earthworms and the application of neutral red retention time as a biomarker. *Chemosphere*, 68(4), 744–750. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2006.12.094
- Johnstone, I. L. (1994). The cuticle of the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans: A complex collagen structure. *BioEssays*, *16*(3), 171–178. https://doi.org/10.1002/bies.950160307
- Lažetić, V., & Fay, D. S. (2017). Molting in C. elegans. *Worm*, 6(1), e1330246. https://doi.org/10.1080/21624054.2017.1330246
- Nixon, S. A., Welz, C., Woods, D. J., Costa-Junior, L., Zamanian, M., & Martin, R. J. (2020). Where are all the anthelmintics? Challenges and opportunities on the path to new anthelmintics. *International Journal for Parasitology: Drugs and Drug Resistance*, 14, 8–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2020.07.001
- Page, A. P., Stepek, G., Winter, A. D., & Pertab, D. (2014). Enzymology of the nematode cuticle: A potential drug target? *International Journal for Parasitology: Drugs and Drug Resistance*, *4*(2), 133–141. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2014.05.003
- Partridge, F. A., Forman, R., Bataille, C. J. R., Wynne, G. M., Nick, M., Russell, A. J., Else, K. J., & Sattelle, D. B. (2020). Anthelmintic drug discovery: Target identification, screening methods and the role of open science. *Beilstein Journal of Organic Chemistry*, 16, 1203–1224. https://doi.org/10.3762/bjoc.16.105
- Peters, K., McDowall, J., & Rose, A. M. (1991). Mutations in the bli-4 (I) locus of Caenorhabditis elegans disrupt both adult cuticle and early larval development. *Genetics*, 129(1), 95–102. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/129.1.95
- Pujol, N., Cypowyj, S., Ziegler, K., Millet, A., Astrain, A., Goncharov, A., Jin, Y., Chisholm, A. D., & Ewbank, J. J. (2008). Distinct innate immune responses to infection and wounding in the C. elegans epidermis. *Current Biology: CB*, 18(7), 481–489. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2008.02.079
- Sfarcic, I., Bui, T., Daniels, E. C., & Troemel, E. R. (2019). Nanoluciferase-Based Method for Detecting Gene Expression in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Genetics*, 213(4), 1197–1207. https://doi.org/10.1534/genetics.119.302655

- Shaver, A. O., Wit, J., Dilks, C. M., Crombie, T. A., Li, H., Aroian, R. V., & Andersen, E. C. (2023). Variation in anthelmintic responses are driven by genetic differences among diverse C. elegans wild strains. *PLOS Pathogens*, 19(4), e1011285. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1011285
- Stiernagle, T. (2006). *Maintenance of C. elegans*. WormBook. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK19649/
- Wang, L., Chou, S., Dehaghani, M. E., Wright, G., MacNeil, L., & Moradi, M. (2025). Self-supervised Learning for Drug Discovery Using Nematode Images:

 Method and Dataset. *IEEE Journal of Biomedical and Health Informatics*, 1–10. IEEE Journal of Biomedical and Health Informatics. https://doi.org/10.1109/JBHI.2025.3546603
- WHO. (2023, January 18). Soil-transmitted helminth infections. https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/soil-transmitted-helminth-infections
- Zamanian, M., & Chan, J. D. (2021). High-content approaches to anthelmintic drug screening. *Trends in Parasitology*, *37*(9), 780. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2021.05.004

CHAPTER THREE – A screening method for the discovery of natural products with anthelmintic activity using *Caenorhabditis elegans* as a nematode model

Sommer Chou¹, Wenliang Wang^{1,3}, Lesley T. MacNeil^{1,2,3}, Gerard D. Wright^{1,3}

¹Department of Biochemistry and Biomedical Sciences, Faculty of Health Sciences, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON

²Farncombe Family Digestive Health Research Institute, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON

³Institute for Infectious Disease Research, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON

Declaration: Research presented as part of this chapter will be prepared for publication.

Contributions: SC performed experiments, wrote the manuscript, and made the figures. WW developed the natural product purification protocol and conducted NMR analyses.

ABSTRACT

Parasitic worm infections affect over a quarter of the human population, reducing quality of life and impacting overall global health. Helminth infections in farm animals are also prevalent and threaten the quality and quantity of agricultural resources. Despite the severity and frequency of helminthiases, few treatment options are available and research efforts targeted towards novel drug discovery are limited. However, the rising levels of resistance to existing anthelmintics necessitates a more active drug discovery strategy. In the past, natural products have proven to be a rich source of clinically relevant therapeutics but research in the field is bottlenecked by the labour-intensive process of working with natural sources. As such, we have developed and optimized a liquid-based assay using Caenorhabditis elegans specifically to uncover natural compounds with anthelmintic activity. As proof of concept, we screened a unique natural product extract library composed of both crude and semi-pure extracts and identified two well-known bioactive compounds: tunicamycin and actinomycin D. We also found xanthocillin Y1 and xanthocillin X, compounds with strong nematocidal activity with a previously unidentified mechanism and propose that it acts through rapid heme depletion in C. elegans. Our findings highlight the utility of mining natural sources for compounds with potential anthelmintic activity.

INTRODUCTION

Helminths are parasitic worms capable of infecting a variety of organisms including humans, plants, and animals. Approximately a quarter of the world's population suffers from at least one helminthiasis, which often results in long-term cognitive and physical impairments (Hotez et al., 2008; Pullan et al., 2014). Parasitic worms are also extremely detrimental to plants and livestock animals, posing a significant threat to the economic success of the agricultural industry. The low financial return associated with anthelmintic drug development may also be a deterrent to supporting research in the field, limiting the financial and human resources generally required for the drug discovery process. Moreover, many existing research efforts have abandoned discovery campaigns altogether in favour of repurposing existing therapeutics, but this approach does not support the discovery of novel chemicals that could possess more favourable anthelmintic activity (Cheuka et al., 2016; Panic et al., 2014; Weeks et al., 2018). As such, the past three decades have not been particularly fruitful in the realm of novel anthelmintic drug class discovery, with no new approved drugs for the treatment of human helminth infections (Nixon et al., 2020).

As with other drugs for the treatment of infections, decreased treatment efficacy due to resistance from overuse is a concern with anthelmintic compounds.

There are several comprehensive reviews and meta-analyses that document the rising levels of resistance to medications commonly used to eliminate parasitic

worm infections (Ae, 2018; Baiak et al., 2019; Papadopoulos et al., 2012; Rose Vineer et al., 2020). This rise of resistance is concerning, considering the already limited arsenal of pharmaceutical remedies. Therefore, there is an urgent clinical need for novel anthelmintic compounds and drug discovery efforts should be prioritized.

Natural products have yielded a diverse array of clinically-significant pharmaceutical compounds such as anti-cancer drugs, antibiotics, and antibiotic adjuvants (Clark, 1996; Dias et al., 2012; Fleming, 1929; King et al., 2014). The bioactive potential of natural products could be further exploited in the search for novel anthelmintic compounds. Bacteria and fungi are well-known producers of secondary metabolites and are known to produce molecules with anthelmintic activity (Genilloud, 2017; McKellar & Scott, 1990; Miller et al., 1979; Schueffler & Anke, 2014). To address this gap in the field, we developed an assay that better accommodates natural product extract screening. We screened over 300 crude and 3,000 semi-pure bacterial and fungal extracts from the Wright Lab's pre-fractionated library (PFL) (Cook et al., 2023) and identified thirteen hits thus far. Preliminary work on hit follow-up revealed two compounds known to be potent inhibitors of worm development, tunicamycin and actinomycin D, and one compound without previously reported nematocidal activity: xanthocillin. Here, we highlight the success of our assay in identifying nematocidal compounds from natural sources.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

C. elegans Maintenance and Strain Information

C. elegans Bristol (N2) was used as wild-type strain in the screen is the Bristol (N2) strain. SJ4005 (zcls4[hsp-4::GFP; lin-15(n765)]) was used as a reporter for endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress. Both strains were obtained from the Caenorhabditis Genetics Center (CGC). C. elegans general maintenance protocols were followed as previously described (Stiernagle, 2006). Briefly, worms are maintained on plates of solid nematode growth media (NGM) seeded with Escherichia coli OP50 as a food source (Brenner, 1974). Populations are propagated at 20 °C by transferring worms onto new, seeded plates when E. coli OP50 is depleted.

Motility Assay

The Wright Lab houses a collection of over 11,000 bacterial and fungal strains isolated from environmental samples, called the Wright Actinomycete Collection (WAC). The PFL consists of both crude and semi-pure extracts made from these WAC strains. Details of library preparation and composition have been published (Cook et al., 2023). This is the extract library used for our screen. The screening conditions and set-up for this study have been optimized for screening natural products, and the protocol is detailed below, beginning with *C. elegans* population synchronization. Prior to this stage, worms developed on NGM agar seeded with *E*.

coli OP50, as outlined above, until they were gravid adults, which takes approximately three days from eggs. Each well contained a total volume of 150 μL: 60 L1 *C. elegans* (60 μL), 89 μL of concentrated *E. coli* OP50, and 1 μL (0.6% v/v) of either an extract or the negative control, dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). To ensure an accurate and consistent worm count in each well of a 96-well plate, Union Biometrica's COPAS Flow Pilot worm sorter was used.

C. elegans were grown on NGM seeded with E. coli OP50 until adulthood, and a standard bleaching procedure was used to collect C. elegans eggs (Stiernagle, 2006). To synchronize the population, eggs were resuspended in 7 mL of M9 buffer (3 g KH₂PO₄, 6 g Na₂HPO₄, 5 g NaCl, 1 mL 1 M MgSO₄, 1 L H₂O) and left on a rocker overnight at 20°C to allow eggs to hatch and the population to be synchronized to the first larval stage (L1). L1 worms were resuspended in S-Basal (5.85 g NaCl, 1 g K_2HPO_4 , 6 g KH_2PO_4 , 1 mL cholesterol (5 mg/mL in ethanol), 1 L H_2O) to reach a concentration of 1 worm/µL. 60 L1 worms were sorted into each well of a 96-well clear flat-bottom plate using the COPAS Flow Pilot worm sorter. E. coli OP50 was resuspended in S-basal to an OD600 of 5, and 89 µL was added to each well with the Tempest automated liquid handler (Formulatrix), followed by the addition of 1 µL of PFL extract (0.6% v/v) using a Mosquito low-volume liquid handler (SPT Labtech). DMSO was added to columns 1 and 12 as a negative control. A gas-permeable seal was manually placed to prevent evaporation and contamination between wells, and the plates were incubated at 20°C and 150 rpm for six days. After the incubation

period, each plate was analysed for 30 minutes on the motility tracker and imaged, as described below.

Assessing impact of extracts on C. elegans

The WMicrotracker One (NemaMetrix), which was developed to measure thrashing activity of *C. elegans* in liquid media, was used in this screen as a method of identifying wells within a 96-well plate with no *C. elegans* movement. Low activity scores (less than 10) were indicative of dead or paralyzed worms.

Individual wells in screening plates were also imaged using a Nikon AZ100M microscope equipped with the AZ Fluor 2X objective lens. Image acquisition was automated and programmed to autofocus on the center of each well and capture pictures in a serpentine manner across the plate. Worms in images were scored for death/paralysis, delayed development, asynchronous development, and sterility.

Natural product purification

Extract preparation and purification for the strains in the PFL has been previously described and hit validation efforts that required more bacterial extract followed these protocols (Cook et al., 2023). An in-depth protocol for fungal strain culture, extract preparation, and purification is described in the Supplementary information for WAC10994 in this chapter.

Endoplasmic Reticulum Stress assay

Chemically-induced ER stress was evaluated using the stress-responsive reporter *hsp-4p::GFP* (SJ4005 strain) (CGC, n.d.). Worms were age-synchronized to the L1 stage and incubated in S-basal in a 96-well plate with *E. coli* OP50 and 0.6% v/v of either DMSO, 1 mg/mL tunicamycin, or WAC1490 at 20°C, 150 rpm until they reached the fourth developmental stage (L4). These L4 worms were paralyzed using levamisole, mounted onto 2% agarose pads on microscope slides, and DIC and GFP images were taken (Nikon Ni-U microscope equipped with a Nikon DS-Qi2 camera). Corrected total worm fluorescence for each image was calculated by outlining each group of worms and subtracting the background fluorescence reading from the total integrated density of the selected region.

Embryonic lethality assay

An embryonic lethality assay was conducted as previously described, serving as an indirect measure of DNA damage (Kim & Colaiácovo, 2015a). Briefly, N2 worms were age-synchronized and grown until L4 on solid NGM. They were then transferred to 96-well plates in S-basal with *E. coli* OP50 and either 0.6% of either DMSO, 1.5 mg/mL actinomycin D, or WAC466. Plates were incubated at 20 °C and 150 rpm for 24 hours until worms reached early adulthood. Worms were then transferred onto individual unseeded 35 mm NGM plates and the adult worms were picked off using a platinum wire after 24 hours. All eggs on the plate were counted

and recorded as the total number of offspring. Plates were then left to incubate at 20 °C for another 24 hours and the number of L1 worms was counted. Embryonic lethality was calculated as the number of unhatched eggs divided by the total number of offspring.

RESULTS

To identify natural compounds capable of killing or paralyzing *C. elegans*, we developed a high-throughput, liquid-based assay that accommodates the limited availability of natural product extracts (Figure 1A). We first used an activity-level readout to assess worm motility, allowing us to quickly identify extracts from the PFL that could cause death or paralysis. Movement was measured using the WMicrotracker. Plates were screened in duplicate, and motility values across screening plates could reach upwards of 200; however, there was considerable output value variability between two replicates (Figure 1B). This was expected due to the many factors that can give rise to behavioural variability (Flavell et al., 2025). For our work, only wells with activity readouts of < 10 were classified as hits and marked for further follow-up (Figure 1C). In total, we tested extracts from 384 WAC strains and identified hits from 13 strains which were selected for additional analysis. Since a brightfield image of each well was also captured, motility results could be verified

through image analysis and wells with low activity scores had an obvious lack of viable worms (Figure 1D).

While comparing images to motility scores, we noticed that inconsistent motility scores were sometimes reflective of impaired worm development. As such, to increase the sensitivity of this assay, we began manually scoring images to identify extracts that caused developmental defects in the worms. For example, asynchronous development could signify the presence of a toxic compound that is not uniformly affecting the worms. Aside from asynchronous development, delayed development, and reproductive impairments could also be indicative of exposure to a toxin (Lagido et al., 2009; Lewis et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2020). Delayed development or embryonic lethality are also important effects to consider when looking for potential nematocidal compounds. Taken together, these phenotypes could reveal compounds with unique modes of action or the presence of a lethal compound that is not present in a high enough abundance to cause death or paralysis of all exposed worms. These phenotypes were still of interest to us and guided our hit follow-up strategy. Consequently, we engaged with the Moradi Lab to develop a system to automate the image scoring (Wang et al., 2025).

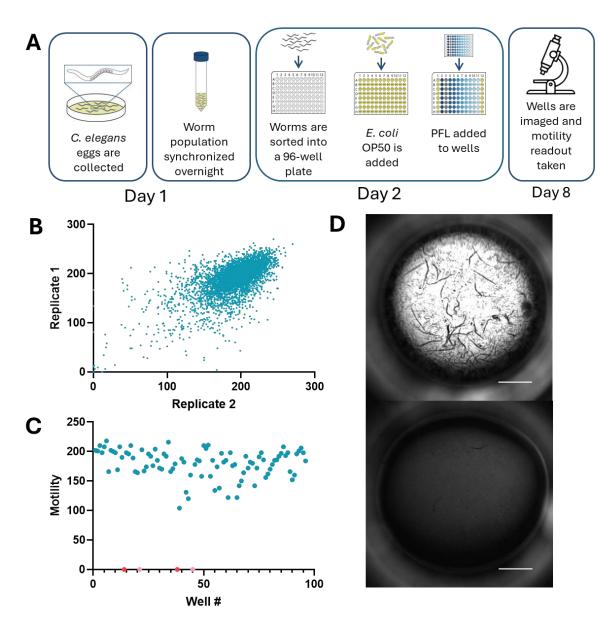


Figure 1: Assay details and representative summary of results. A) Workflow of the liquid assay screen set-up. Worms are age-synchronized and incubated with their food source, *E. coli* OP50, and test extract for 6 days prior to imaging and motility assessments. B) Replicate plot of PFL extracts screened. X and Y axis values indicate the activity-level readout generated by the Wmicrotracker. C) Representative motility plot for a screening plate with hit extracts. Blue dots indicate wells where activity levels were greater than 10 (no effect on worms), and red and pink dots highlight where activity levels were below 10 (hit). Red dots indicate wells treated with a crude extract, and pink dots are well treated with fractionated

extracts. D) Representative images comparing a DMSO negative control (top) versus a "hit" (bottom) well. Scale bar = 1 mm

From our combined motility and image scoring tool, we identified extracts from *Streptomyces* strains WAC1490 and WAC466, as being potent inhibitors of worm development. Previous work in the Wright Lab found that tunicamycin and actinomycin were present in WAC1490 and WAC466, respectively (Cook et al., 2023). Both of these compounds impact *C. elegans* development (Ghenea et al., 2022; Koirala et al., 2023, p. 12; Travers et al., 2000). The identification of these known nematocidal compounds demonstrate the ability of our screen to identify potent natural compounds.

To validate that these compounds are responsible for the activity in our assay, we verified their presence in the extract and compared the extracts to pure compounds to confirm that similar activities could be observed. For WAC1490, we identified three homologs of tunicamycin: tunicamycin B1 (IV), B, and D (Figure 2A). This strain was sequenced and the tunicamycin biosynthetic gene cluster (BGC) was identified through antiSMASH with 85% sequence similarity (Figure 2B). To further confirm, we analysed fractionated extract using high-resolution mass spectrometry and identified masses corresponding to ions consistent with the three homologs (Figure 2C). Tunicamycin is an inhibitor of N-linked glycosylation, which ultimately triggers an ER stress response. To determine whether the fractionated extracts

induced ER stress in the worm, we used the *hsp-4p::GFP* reporter strain, SJ4005.

Increased ER stress is indicated through greater levels of GFP fluorescence, which can be observed as a result of exposure to the WAC1490 extract (Figure 2D-E).

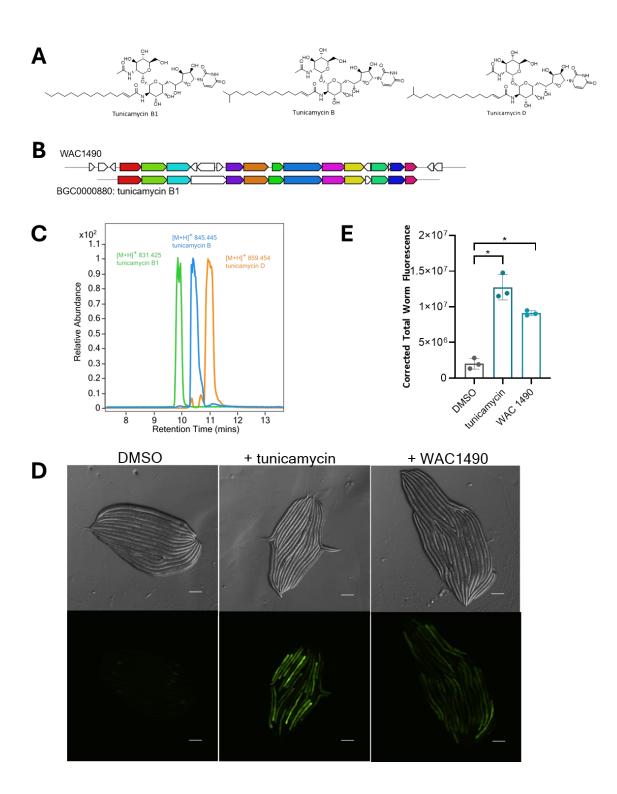


Figure 2: Validation of tunicamycin as the active compound in WAC1490. A) Structure of tunicamycin B1 (tunicamycin IV), tunicamycin B, and tunicamycin D. B)

WAC1490 contains the tunicamycin gene cluster as seen by sequence similarity of the WAC1490 BGC and the tunicamycin B1 cluster (MIBiG BGC0000880). C) Overlayed extracted ion chromatograms from HR ESI-QTOF-MS of a WAC1490 extract showing ions consistent with tunicamycin homologs. D) Representative DIC (top panels) and GFP (bottom panels) images of hsp-4p::GFP worms treated with DMSO (negative control), tunicamycin (positive control), and WAC1490. Scale bar = 100 µm. E) Fluorescence quantification for worms treated with DMSO, tunicamycin, and WAC1490. Each dot represents a group of worms. * p < 0.05.

Similarly, we confirmed that WAC466 extracts contained actinomycins D and V (Figure 3A). AntiSMASH analysis of the WAC466 genome identified the biosynthetic gene cluster for actinomycin D with 89% sequence similarity. HRMS revealed masses corresponding to actinomycins D and V (Figure 3B-C). For further validation in *C. elegans*, we conducted an embryonic lethality assay. This is a common test to assess for DNA damage in worms, as genotoxic stress often results in embryonic lethality, and actinomycin is a DNA intercalator (Kim & Colaiácovo, 2015b; Stergiou & Hengartner, 2004). Our results confirm that exposure to our semi-pure WAC466 extract increased embryonic lethality in worms (Figure 3D).

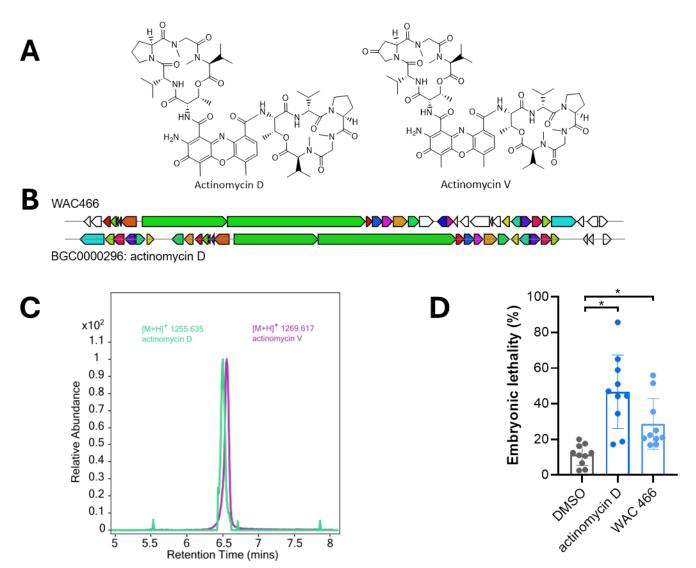


Figure 3: Validation of actinomycin D as the active compound in WAC466. A) Structure of actinomycin D and actinomycin V. B) WAC466 contains the actinomycin D gene cluster as seen by sequence similarity of the WAC466 BGC and actinomycin D cluster (MIBiG BGC0000296). C) Overlayed extracted ion chromatograms from HR ESI-QTOF-MS of WAC1490 extract showing ions consistent with actinomycin homologs. D) Embryonic lethality assay results. Each dot represents the hatched offspring from ~ 20 worms. P < 0.05

We were also able to identify an extract from WAC strain 10994 that caused asynchronous development in *C. elegans*. WAC10994 is a fungal strain from our

collection that had not been thoroughly investigated, so we sought to characterize the active component(s) from this strain that was impeding regular worm growth. After purification, we determined the bioactive components to be xanthocillin X and xanthocillin Y1 using mass spectrometry and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR; Figure 4A-B, Supplementary Figures 1-5). These compounds exhibit both antibacterial and anti-cancer activity in vitro (Hübner et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2012). The antibiotic activity of xanthocillin is said to be related to heme sequestration through direct binding of the compound to heme iron (Hübner et al., 2021). This is a likely mechanism in worms as well, since C. elegans is a heme auxotroph and relies on its environment as a source of this essential cofactor (Chen et al., 2012). To test the heme sequestration hypothesis in worms, we supplemented our media with hemin and found that this rescues C. elegans. This suggests that xanthocillin is working through heme depletion, as the addition of excess hemin mitigates the negative growth impacts on worms. Furthermore, supplementation with an iron-free form of hemin, protoporphyrin IX (PPIX), was unable to rescue worms treated with xanthocillin (Supplementary Figure 6). This result supports the existing literature that direct iron binding is required for xanthocillin activity (Hübner et al., 2021).

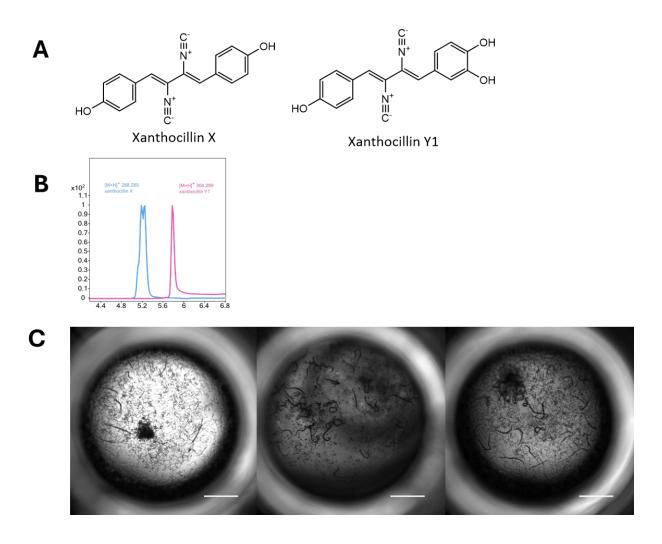


Figure 4: *Xanthocillin identified from WAC10994 is active against C. elegans.* A) Structure of xanthocillin X and Y. B) Overlayed extracted ion chromatograms from HR ESI-QTOF-MS of WAC1490 extract showing ions consistent with xanthocillin homologs. C) Representative images of worms treated with DMSO (negative control) (left), xanthocillin X (middle), and xanthocillin X + hemin (right).

DISCUSSION

Here, we describe the utility of a whole-organism high-throughput assay optimized for the discovery of natural product anthelmintics. From an experimental

set-up perspective, there are several key advantages to this screen. The first is that our assay allows for natural product extract screening by minimizing the amount of test material required per well since it is a liquid-based assay. This method allows for testing libraries that may have been previously infeasible due to the amount of reagent required for solid agar-based assays. We also use L1 worms which are more sensitive to xenobiotic exposure (Hartman et al., 2021; Vairoletti et al., 2021). This approach enables us to detect compounds with lower toxicity levels that might otherwise go undetected. Additionally, since worms in our assay are allowed to develop over a full generation, we can detect molecules that cause sterility that would not be identified in screens with shorter incubation times. Finally, there are three levels of automation to increase throughput and efficiency: sorting worms into individual wells instead of manually pipetting, using liquid handlers to add bacteria and compounds, and assessing viability using a motility tracker or an image scoring program.

Our unique in-house natural product extract library has not previously been evaluated for nematocidal compounds, and there is still much to explore in this area. One advantage of screening natural product extracts is that each sample may contain multiple potentially useful molecules, and further purification could uncover compounds whose activities were previously masked by other molecules. Therefore, screening prefractionated libraries, such as the one we have, provides the potential for uncovering greater chemical diversity (Wagenaar, 2008). The

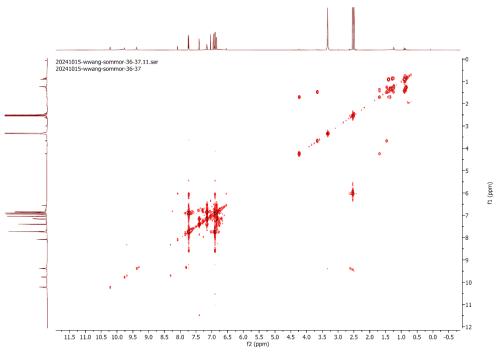
anthelmintic potential for our library is especially high, as these extracts were derived from fungal and bacterial strains isolated from soil samples. Given the shared environment of soil microbes and nematodes, it is reasonable to predict that there would be inter-species competition involving the production of toxic chemicals will occur, leaving much to be explored.

We have demonstrated the utility of our assay through the identification of known molecules, tunicamycin and actinomycin D, and a third compound (xanthocillin) that has not yet been reported to have anthelmintic activity. The high toxicity levels of tunicamycin and actinomycin in mammalian cells make them unsuitable for further development as anthelmintic in their current forms, but further investigation into the utility of xanthocillin as an anthelmintic can be explored. Our work here supports previous evidence that xanthocillin may owe its activity to heme sequestration, which can be promising as heme-targeting drugs are already common in other fields. For example, artemisinins bind to heme in the malaria parasite, and some research has suggested that these drugs could be repurposed for the treatment of helminth infections (Lam et al., 2018; Meshnick, 2002). This example suggests that compounds with similar modes of action, such as xanthocillin, may prove clinically relevant in the future.

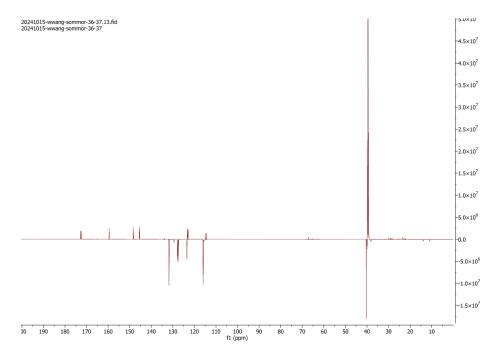
In addition to what was described here, we still have additional hits queued for follow-up from our initial screen. Most of these actives were derived from fungal

extracts due to the composition of the earlier PFL screening plates; however, the PFL has also been expanded to include extracts from additional bacterial strains, providing further diversity for screening and hit elucidation.

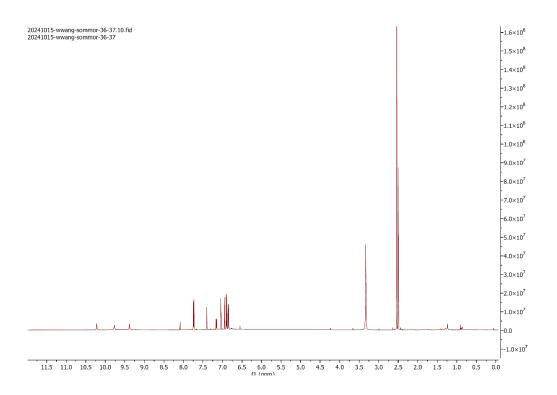
SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL



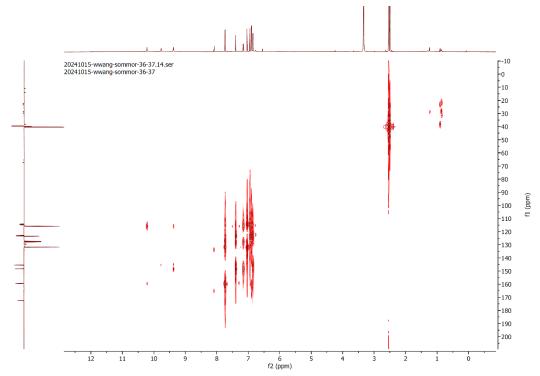
Supplementary Figure 1: ¹H-¹H COSY (Correlation Spectroscopy) NMR spectrum of xanthocillin.



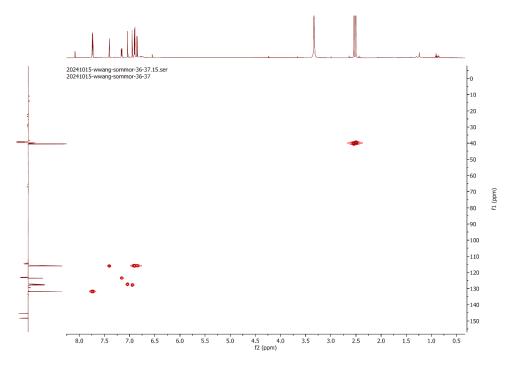
Supplementary Figure 2: DEPTQ (distortionless enhancement by polarization transfer including the detection of quaternary nuclei) NMR spectrum of xanthocillin.



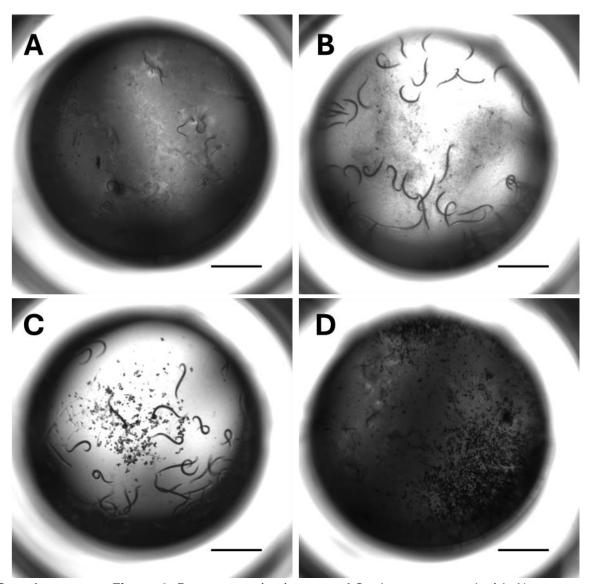
Supplementary Figure 3: 1H NMR spectrum of xanthocillin



Supplementary Figure 4: HMBC (heteronuclear multiple bond correlation) NMR spectrum of xanthocillin.



Supplementary Figure 5: HSQC (heteronuclear single quantum coherence) NMR spectrum of xanthocillin. Results compared to previously published xanthocillin NMR spectra for identification (张长生 et al., 2020).



Supplementary Figure 6: Representative images of C. elegans treated with A) xanthocillin X, B) DMSO, C) xanthocillin X + hemin, and D) xanthocillin X + PPIX. Hemin supplementation can rescue worm development in the presence of xanthocillin, but PPIX cannot. Scale bar = 1 mm.

SUPPLEMENTARY PROTOCOLS: Fungal growth optimization and purification of xanthocillin from WAC10994

Included here is a step-by-step protocol for the growth optimization and culture of WAC fungal strains. We also outline the purification steps taken for the isolation of xanthocillin. A fungi-specific protocol was not previously established and was developed during the project in collaboration with Dr. Wenliang Wang of the Wright Lab.

Supplementary Protocol 1: Fungal growth optimization

- Generate a fungal seed culture by inoculating 5 mL of seed medium (2 g glucose, 5 g malt extract, 2 g yeast extract, ddH₂O to 500 mL, pH 6.5) with a fungal strain and incubating at 30 °C, 170 rpm for 5 days.
- 2. In 250 mL flasks, prepare small-scale cultures of the same fungal strain in three different media types to determine optimal fungal growth conditions for bioactivity. Media components are included in the table below. Each recipe can be scaled up to down to accommodate the number of samples tested. Every 250 mL flask should have no more than 50 mL of media and all flasks with media should be sterilized prior to adding fungi.

Potato Dextrose Media		Fermentation Media		Rice	
12 g	Potato dextrose broth (Difco)	10 g	Mannitol	80 g	White rice
500 mL	ddH ₂ O	10 g	Maltose	45 mL	ddH₂O
		5 g	Glucose		
		5 g	Monosodium glutamate		
		0.25 g	Potassium phosphate monobasic		
		0.15 g	Magnesium sulphate heptahydrate		
		1.5 g	Yeast extract		
		0.5 g	Corn steep liquor		
		500 mL	ddH ₂ O		
			pH 6.5		

3. Inoculate each media type with the indicated amount of seed culture and incubate under the following conditions:

Media type	Inoculum volume	Incubation conditions		
Potato dextrose	1 mL	30°C, 200 RPM shaking, 7 days		
media				
Fermentation media	1 mL	30 °C, static (no shaking), 7 days		
Rice	2.5 mL	30 °C, static (no shaking),		
		minimum 7 days		

- 4. Make crude extracts from each of the media types:
 - a. Potato dextrose media and fermentation media
 - i. Transfer culture to a 50 mL falcon tube
 - ii. Centrifuge at 5000 rpm for 15 minutes (or longer) to collect fungal cell pellet

- iii. Separate the supernatant from the pellet and transfer 1 mL supernatant to a glass tube for evaporation (this will serve as the supernatant/cell-free extract)
- iv. To the cell pellet, add a 70:15:15 ratio of methanol:ethyl acetate:water and sonicate for 1 hour
- v. Centrifuge the solvated pellet to separate any large particles and transfer 1 mL to a glass tube for evaporation (this is the pellet extract)

b. Rice

- i. Add a solution of 70:15:15 methanol:ethyl acetate:water to the fungi grown on rice, enough to cover the rice
- ii. Cover flask with aluminum foil and incubate at 20 °C with shaking at 50 rpm overnight
- iii. Sonicate flasks for 10 minutes
- iv. Transfer extracts into 50 mL falcon tubes and centrifuge to pellet large particles
- v. Transfer 1 mL supernatant to a glass tube for evaporation

 NOTE: By now you should have 5 extract samples of 1 mL each: one

 supernatant and pellet extract from each of the potato dextrose media and fermentation media, and one pellet extract from the rice.
- 5. Evaporate solvent from all samples using a centrifugal solvent evaporator.

6. Dissolve extracts in 100 mL of DMSO and test against worms to confirm activity. Make note of which growth condition generated the extract with the greatest activity, as this will be the preferred media for a larger scale culture.

Supplementary Protocol 2: Bioassay-guided purification of Xanthocillin from WAC10994

Prior to a large scale growth, it was determined that growing WAC10994 in fermentation media resulted in extracts with the strongest activity against worms. The following purification protocol is based around the pellet extract but can be modified to accommodate other growth media.

- Prepare six flasks of seed culture with 20 mL per flask and incubate at 30 °C
 with shaking at 170 rpm for 5 days.
- 2. Autoclave 600 mL of fermentation media in six 3 L flasks.
- 3. Inoculate large flasks with 15 mL of seed culture each and incubate at 30 °C without agitation for approximately 6 weeks. There should be a thick mat of fungal growth at the surface of the media prior to extraction.
- 4. Centrifuge cultures to pellet fungal cells. If this step does not sufficiently separate cells from media, an additional vacuum filtration step can be included. Vacuum filter the culture through a stack of three milk filter discs.

Combine the cell material left on the filter with the rest of the cell pellet from centrifugation.

- 5. Add enough 80% methanol to cover the cell pellet and stir on a magnetic plate with a stir bar for 10 minutes, then sonicate pellet for 5 minutes.
- 6. Vacuum filter the extract through three new milk filter discs into a clean container.
- 7. Repeat steps 5 and 6 two more times and pool material together. This is the pellet extract.
- 8. Remove 1 mL of pellet extract and supernatant for the bioassay. This can be done by evaporating using a centrifugal solvent evaporator and dissolving the pelleted material in 100 μ L of DMSO. The supernatant extract testing step here is optional. If it is already known that there is no activity from the supernatant extract, this can be skipped to just focus on the pellet extract.
- After confirming activity, add 120 grams of HP20 resin (Diaion #13606) to the pellet extract and evaporate the solvent using a rotary evaporator.
- 10. When the sample is completely dry, pack the HP20 resin into a column and elute with 500 mL each of: 100% ddH₂O, 5% MeOH, 10% MeOH, 20% MeOH, 40% MeOH, 60% MeOH, 80% MeOH, and 100% MeOH, in that order. Collect each fraction separately.

- 11. Remove 500 μL of each fraction for testing by evaporating solvent and dissolving the remaining sediment in 100 μL DMSO. Conduct bioassay to determine active fractions.
- 12. Combine all active fractions and remove solvent using a rotary evaporator.

Note: as an additional test for pH stability, remove 500 μ L after combining samples and add 0.1% trifluoric acid. Remove solvent, dissolve in DMSO and test extract against worms.

- 13. Dissolve the remaining residue in 15 mL of 50% acetonitrile (in water) and aliquot into two 50 mL falcon tubes.
- 14. Pack each falcon tube with silica gel and mix well with extract.
- 15. Lyophilize falcon tubes until fully dry.
- 16. Pack a column with a 1:1 ratio of fresh silica gel:sample and elute with 500 mL each of the following solvent mixtures, collecting each as separate fractions:

Solvent	Hexanes	:	Ethyl acetate	:	Methanol
1	80		20		0
2	50		50		0
3	25		75		0
4	0		100		0
5	0		98		2
6	0		95		5
7	0		90		10
8	0		80		20
9	0		50		50
10	0		0		100

- 17. Take samples of each fraction and repeat bioassay (see step 11).
- 18. Repeat step 12 and resuspend sample in \sim 5 mL of DMSO.
- 19. For the final purification step, use medium pressure C18 reverse-phase chromatography (Teledyne NextGen CombiFlash) with the following parameters:
 - Separation column: 86 g C18 RediSep column (Teledyne)
 - o Solvent A: ddH₂O
 - o Solvent B: acetonitrile
 - o Collect fractions across a linear gradient of 5% to 95% of solvent B
 - o Flow rate: 20 mL/min
- 20. Evaporate solvent from all samples and dissolve in DMSO to bioassay.

 Note that there may be upwards of 70 fractions so it may be more efficient to first test every 4th fraction to identify the approximate range of the active compound.
- 21. Analyse active fractions using mass spectrometry and NMR to determine chemical structure.

REFERENCES

- Ae, M. (2018). Prevalence and Factors Associated with Anthelmintic Resistance in Gastrointestinal Nematodes of Cattle: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. 2(2).
- Baiak, B. H. B., Lehnen, C. R., & Rocha, R. A. da. (2019). Anthelmintic resistance of injectable macrocyclic lactones in cattle: A systematic review and metaanalysis. Revista Brasileira De Parasitologia Veterinaria = Brazilian Journal of Veterinary Parasitology: Orgao Oficial Do Colegio Brasileiro De Parasitologia Veterinaria, 28(1), 59–67. https://doi.org/10.1590/S1984-296120180093
- Brenner, S. (1974). The Genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics, 77(1), 71–94.
- CGC. (n.d.). Strain: SJ4005, Genotype: zcIs4 V. Caenorhabditis Genetics Center (CGC)—College of Biological Sciences. Retrieved July 2, 2025, from https://cgc.umn.edu/strain/SJ4005
- Chen, C., Samuel, T. K., Krause, M., Dailey, H. A., & Hamza, I. (2012). Heme Utilization in the Caenorhabditis elegans Hypodermal Cells Is Facilitated by Heme-responsive Gene-2. The Journal of Biological Chemistry, 287(12), 9601–9612. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M111.307694
- Cheuka, P., Mayoka, G., Mutai, P., & Chibale, K. (2016). The Role of Natural Products in Drug Discovery and Development against Neglected Tropical Diseases.

 Molecules, 22(1), 58. https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules22010058
- Clark, A. M. (1996). Natural products as a resource for new drugs. Pharmaceutical Research, 13(8), 1133–1144.
- Cook, M. A., Pallant, D., Ejim, L., Sutherland, A. D., Wang, X., Johnson, J. W., McCusker, S., Chen, X., George, M., Chou, S., Koteva, K., Wang, W., Hobson, C., Hackenberger, D., Waglechner, N., Ejim, O., Campbell, T., Medina, R., MacNeil, L. T., & Wright, G. D. (2023). Lessons from assembling a microbial natural product and pre-fractionated extract library in an academic laboratory. Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology, 50(1), kuad042. https://doi.org/10.1093/jimb/kuad042
- Dias, D. A., Urban, S., & Roessner, U. (2012). A Historical Overview of Natural Products in Drug Discovery. Metabolites, 2(2), 303–336. https://doi.org/10.3390/metabo2020303
- Flavell, S. W., Oren-Suissa, M., & Stern, S. (2025). Sources of behavioral variability in C. elegans: Sex differences, individuality, and internal states. Current Opinion in Neurobiology, 91, 102984. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conb.2025.102984
- Fleming, A. (1929). On the Antibacterial Action of Cultures of a Penicillium, with Special Reference to their Use in the Isolation of B. influenzæ. British Journal of Experimental Pathology, 10(3), 226–236.
- Genilloud, O. (2017). Actinomycetes: Still a source of novel antibiotics. Natural Product Reports, 34(10), 1203–1232. https://doi.org/10.1039/C7NP00026J

- Ghenea, S., Chiritoiu, M., Tacutu, R., Miranda-Vizuete, A., & Petrescu, S. M. (2022). Targeting EDEM protects against ER stress and improves development and survival in C. elegans. PLoS Genetics, 18(2), e1010069. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1010069
- Hartman, J. H., Widmayer, S. J., Bergemann, C. M., King, D. E., Morton, K. S., Romersi, R. F., Jameson, L. E., Leung, M. C. K., Andersen, E. C., Taubert, S., & Meyer, J. N. (2021). Xenobiotic metabolism and transport in Caenorhabditis elegans. Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health. Part B, Critical Reviews, 24(2), 51–94. https://doi.org/10.1080/10937404.2021.1884921
- Hotez, P. J., Brindley, P. J., Bethony, J. M., King, C. H., Pearce, E. J., & Jacobson, J. (2008). Helminth infections: The great neglected tropical diseases. The Journal of Clinical Investigation, 118(4), 1311–1321. https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI34261
- Hübner, I., Shapiro, J. A., Hoßmann, J., Drechsel, J., Hacker, S. M., Rather, P. N., Pieper, D. H., Wuest, W. M., & Sieber, S. A. (2021). Broad Spectrum Antibiotic Xanthocillin X Effectively Kills Acinetobacter baumannii via Dysregulation of Heme Biosynthesis. ACS Central Science, 7(3), 488–498. https://doi.org/10.1021/acscentsci.0c01621
- Kim, H.-M., & Colaiácovo, M. P. (2015a). DNA Damage Sensitivity Assays in Caenorhabditis elegans. Bio-Protocol, 5(11), e1487.
- Kim, H.-M., & Colaiácovo, M. P. (2015b). DNA Damage Sensitivity Assays in Caenorhabditis elegans. Bio-Protocol, 5(11), e1487.
- King, A. M., Reid-Yu, S. A., Wang, W., King, D. T., De Pascale, G., Strynadka, N. C., Walsh, T. R., Coombes, B. K., & Wright, G. D. (2014). AMA overcomes antibiotic resistance by NDM and VIM metallo-β-lactamases. Nature, 510(7506), 503–506. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature13445
- Koirala, N., Butnariu, M., Panthi, M., Gurung, R., Adhikari, S., Subba, R. K., Acharya, Z., & Popović-Djordjević, J. (2023). Chapter 12—Antibiotics in the management of tuberculosis and cancer. In A. K. Dhara, A. K. Nayak, & D. Chattopadhyay (Eds.), Antibiotics—Therapeutic Spectrum and Limitations (pp. 251–294). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-323-95388-7.00014-0
- Lagido, C., McLaggan, D., Flett, A., Pettitt, J., & Glover, L. A. (2009). Rapid Sublethal Toxicity Assessment Using Bioluminescent Caenorhabditis elegans, a Novel Whole-Animal Metabolic Biosensor. Toxicological Sciences, 109(1), 88–95. https://doi.org/10.1093/toxsci/kfp058
- Lam, N. S., Long, X., Su, X., & Lu, F. (2018). Artemisinin and its derivatives in treating helminthic infections beyond schistosomiasis. Pharmacological Research, 133, 77–100. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phrs.2018.04.025
- Lewis, J. A., Gehman, E. A., Baer, C. E., & Jackson, D. A. (2013). Alterations in gene expression in Caenorhabditis elegans associated with organophosphate

- pesticide intoxication and recovery. BMC Genomics, 14(1), 291. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2164-14-291
- Lu, Q., Bu, Y., Ma, L., & Liu, R. (2020). Transgenerational reproductive and developmental toxicity of tebuconazole in Caenorhabditis elegans. Journal of Applied Toxicology, 40(5), 578–591. https://doi.org/10.1002/jat.3927
- McKellar, Q. A., & Scott, E. W. (1990). The benzimidazole anthelmintic agents-a review. Journal of Veterinary Pharmacology and Therapeutics, 13(3), 223–247. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2885.1990.tb00773.x
- Meshnick, S. R. (2002). Artemisinin: Mechanisms of action, resistance and toxicity. International Journal for Parasitology, 32(13), 1655–1660. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7519(02)00194-7
- Miller, T. W., Chaiet, L., Cole, D. J., Cole, L. J., Flor, J. E., Goegelman, R. T., Gullo, V. P., Joshua, H., Kempf, A. J., Krellwitz, W. R., Monaghan, R. L., Ormond, R. E., Wilson, K. E., Albers-Schönberg, G., & Putter, I. (1979). Avermectins, New Family of Potent Anthelmintic Agents: Isolation and Chromatographic Properties. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy, 15(3), 368–371. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.15.3.368
- Nixon, S. A., Welz, C., Woods, D. J., Costa-Junior, L., Zamanian, M., & Martin, R. J. (2020). Where are all the anthelmintics? Challenges and opportunities on the path to new anthelmintics. International Journal for Parasitology: Drugs and Drug Resistance, 14, 8–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2020.07.001
- Panic, G., Duthaler, U., Speich, B., & Keiser, J. (2014). Repurposing drugs for the treatment and control of helminth infections. International Journal for Parasitology: Drugs and Drug Resistance, 4(3), 185–200. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2014.07.002
- Papadopoulos, E., Gallidis, E., & Ptochos, S. (2012). Anthelmintic resistance in sheep in Europe: A selected review. Veterinary Parasitology, 189(1), 85–88. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetpar.2012.03.036
- Pullan, R. L., Smith, J. L., Jasrasaria, R., & Brooker, S. J. (2014). Global numbers of infection and disease burden of soil transmitted helminth infections in 2010. Parasites & Vectors, 7, 37. https://doi.org/10.1186/1756-3305-7-37
- Rose Vineer, H., Morgan, E. R., Hertzberg, H., Bartley, D. J., Bosco, A., Charlier, J., Chartier, C., Claerebout, E., de Waal, T., Hendrickx, G., Hinney, B., Höglund, J., Ježek, J., Kašný, M., Keane, O. M., Martínez-Valladares, M., Mateus, T. L., McIntyre, J., Mickiewicz, M., ... Rinaldi, L. (2020). Increasing importance of anthelmintic resistance in European livestock: Creation and meta-analysis of an open database. Parasite, 27, 69. https://doi.org/10.1051/parasite/2020062
- Schueffler, A., & Anke, T. (2014). Fungal natural products in research and development. Natural Product Reports, 31(10), 1425–1448. https://doi.org/10.1039/C4NP00060A

- Stergiou, L., & Hengartner, M. O. (2004). Death and more: DNA damage response pathways in the nematode C. elegans. Cell Death & Differentiation, 11(1), 21–28. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.cdd.4401340
- Stiernagle, T. (2006). Maintenance of C. elegans. WormBook. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK19649/
- Travers, K. J., Patil, C. K., Wodicka, L., Lockhart, D. J., Weissman, J. S., & Walter, P. (2000). Functional and Genomic Analyses Reveal an Essential Coordination between the Unfolded Protein Response and ER-Associated Degradation. Cell, 101(3), 249–258. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(00)80835-1
- Vairoletti, F., Baron, A., Saiz, C., Mahler, G., & Salinas, G. (2021). Increased sensitivity of an infrared motility assay for nematicide discovery. microPublication Biology. https://doi.org/10.17912/micropub.biology.000500
- Wagenaar, M. (2008). Pre-fractionated Microbial Samples The Second Generation Natural Products Library at Wyeth. Molecules, 13(6), 1406–1426. https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules13061406
- Wang, L., Chou, S., Dehaghani, M. E., Wright, G., MacNeil, L., & Moradi, M. (2025). Self-supervised Learning for Drug Discovery Using Nematode Images:

 Method and Dataset. IEEE Journal of Biomedical and Health Informatics, 1–
 10. IEEE Journal of Biomedical and Health Informatics.

 https://doi.org/10.1109/JBHI.2025.3546603
- Weeks, J. C., Roberts, W. M., Leasure, C., Suzuki, B. M., Robinson, K. J., Currey, H., Wangchuk, P., Eichenberger, R. M., Saxton, A. D., Bird, T. D., Kraemer, B. C., Loukas, A., Hawdon, J. M., Caffrey, C. R., & Liachko, N. F. (2018). Sertraline, Paroxetine, and Chlorpromazine Are Rapidly Acting Anthelmintic Drugs Capable of Clinical Repurposing. Scientific Reports, 8(1), 975. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-18457-w
- Zhao, Y., Chen, H., Shang, Z., Jiao, B., Yuan, B., Sun, W., Wang, B., Miao, M., & Huang, C. (2012). SD118-Xanthocillin X (1), a Novel Marine Agent Extracted from Penicillium commune, Induces Autophagy through the Inhibition of the MEK/ERK Pathway. Marine Drugs, 10(6), Article 6. https://doi.org/10.3390/md10061345
- 张长生, 张海波, **伊穆然可汗**, **彭方**, 张丽萍, 张庆波, **刘威**, & 张光涛. (2020).

 Preparation method and application of Xanthocillin compound (China Patent No. CN111494355A). https://patents.google.com/patent/CN111494355A/en

CHAPTER 4 – CONCLUSIONS

Summary of Work

This project aimed to develop and validate a screening platform for identifying anthelmintic compounds from natural product sources. In the work presented, we established an assay that could detect toxins affecting worm growth. The set-up was optimized with several features in mind. First, we needed a simpler nematode model to avoid the complexities associated with host-reliant growth, hence the use of C. elegans in our assays. Next, we needed a liquid-based platform that could minimize the amount of test material required, to limit the quantity of natural product extracts needed, as these are labour-intensive and costly to make. Thirdly, we wanted to increase assay sensitivity, as active components in crude extracts can often be in low abundance and masked by other compounds. We accomplished this by using younger, first larval stage (L1) worms for screening. Lastly, to detect as many desirable phenotypes as possible, we set the screening length to accommodate two generations of worms. This incubation time allows us to determine if there are any alterations to overall growth, like asynchronous or delayed development, and reproductive capacity. It also ensures that any slower-acting compounds can be detected.

We screened an in-house natural product extract library against *C. elegans*, testing a total of over 300 crude and over 3,000 semi-pure extracts. We used both

motility and image analysis methods for characterizing resulting phenotypes, and this yielded a combined 34 hits. At the time of screening, most extracts in the library were derived from soil-isolated fungi. Therefore, 24 of these hits were traced back to extracts from fungal isolates while the remaining 10 were bacterial extracts. There have been ongoing efforts to expand this library, and it now includes more *Streptomyces* bacterial strains that should be tested against worms in future work.

From initial follow-up work, we were able to identify three compounds: tunicamycin, actinomycin D, and xanthocillin. The former two compounds are known to be toxic against various organisms including worms and bacteria, and have been identified in other screening efforts (Cook et al., 2023; Ghenea et al., 2022; Koirala et al., 2023, p. 12; Travers et al., 2000). Xanthocillin, however, does not have any previously reported nematocidal activity, but it is known to directly sequester heme in bacteria (Hübner et al., 2021). In our work, we show that it may have a similar effect in worms, as heme supplementation rescues worms from the toxic effects of xanthocillin.

To advance the field of anthelmintic drug discovery beyond traditional phenotypic screens, we also extended our work to develop a nanoluciferase-dependent target-based assay. We chose the nematode cuticle as a potential target, as its essentiality in worms expands its promise as an effective target, and the absence of a cuticle in mammals suggests that off-target effects would be limited.

There are already developments in this field showing that the nematode cuticle is of increasing interest as an anthelmintic target (Greiffer et al., 2022; Njom et al., 2021; Page et al., 2014).

Altogether, this work integrates both phenotypic and target-based approaches to improve the ease of early-stage compound discovery. We used a variety of output methods for hit identification, including motility and image scoring, with the intention of developing an assay with maximized automation and sensitivity.

Overall Significance

Helminth infections continue to pose a significant threat to human health. They primarily affect lower-income regions, where populations are already vulnerable due to limited resources. Current preventative measures include handwashing when touching food, wearing shoes, and avoiding water or soil that may have come into direct contact with human feces (Branda et al., 2025). However, these actions are difficult in areas where sanitation infrastructure is poorly developed and individuals often do not have the financial means to ensure personal health and safety. Fortunately, the World Health Organization recognizes the severity and impact of helminthiases and have implemented interventions to control and eradicate them, including mass drug administration (MDA) programs (WHO, 2025a). These involve the treatment of entire populations in endemic regions with existing anthelmintics. This has proven effective for many neglective tropical diseases,

including helminthiases (Engels and Zhou, 2020; Richards et al., 2020; Turner et al., 2021). However, its application is not without roadblocks or risks. Most notably, MDA programs can introduce selective pressure that promote anthelmintic resistance (Konopka et al., 2022). Preventative chemotherapy is at the forefront of MDA efforts; however, the implementation of widespread treatment without diagnoses of infection may further increase resistance (Tinkler, 2019; WHO, 2025b). It is also important to note that interventions such as MDA were recently deprioritized as global health resources and research efforts were re-allocated to support pandemic response for the global covid outbreak (Kabore et al., 2021; Turner et al., 2021). Although exact numbers are unknown, this likely resulted in an unintended increase in infection numbers, and delayed progress towards the control and elimination of these diseases. As efforts towards NTD control ramp up again, the concern shifts back towards rising resistance levels, and a limited treatment arsenal will produce further complications.

To combat treatment difficulties associated with increased resistance, new and effective drugs need to be identified. A bottleneck in the anthelmintic discovery process is that, currently, there is no gold-standard screening assay. There are a number of groups dedicated to similar drug discovery efforts; however, their assays often differ in various aspects of experimental design such as media type, incubation time and temperature, desired readout, and the type of chemical library tested (Boyd et al., 2010; Fahs et al., 2025; Katiki et al., 2011; Martel et al., 2020;

Partridge et al., 2017; Risi et al., 2019; Smout et al., 2010). This variation across studies can cause issues in verifying reproducibility and comparing results generated by different research groups, which supports the establishment of a universal screening protocol. There has also been consistent interest in mining natural sources for anthelmintic compounds, but these efforts are largely focused towards plant natural products (Jayawardene et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2020). At the moment, one of the most widely used anthelmintics is ivermectin (Crump and Ōmura, 2011; Martin et al., 2021). The 'wonder drug' and Nobel prize-winning compound is produced by the actinomycete Streptomyces avermitilis (Callaway and Cyranoski, 2015; Crump and Ōmura, 2011). Despite the historic success of soil microbes producing potent anthelmintics, there has been little effort to continue searching for microbial secondary metabolites with relevant activity. The preference for plant products is likely rooted in the historical and traditional uses of medicinal plants for treating different ailments, including those of helminthiases (Liu et al., 2020).

Since we have access to an in-house library of extracts generated from edaphic bacterial and fungal strains, we sought to fill this discovery gap by developing a robust assay that is optimized for these natural product extracts. This will hopefully influence the field to expand the screening repertoire beyond bioactive libraries, as this can encourage novel discoveries rather than focusing on drug repurposing efforts.

In tandem with generalized phenotypic assays, our work in developing the target-based nanoluciferase assay is also intended to promote more selective screening strategies. Although research into compounds that disrupt the nematode cuticle is limited, existing studies demonstrate its potential as a therapeutic target. The work here can serve as a tool to facilitate both the identification and validation of cuticle disrupting compounds.

Limitations and Future Directions

While the work completed in this thesis fills a gap in the current research field, there remain some experimental limitations that could be addressed. Although *C. elegans* has been accepted as a suitable nematode model due to its physiological similarity to pathogenic species and a similar treatment response to existing anthelmintics, it is not a parasitic worm (Burns et al., 2015; Coghlan et al., 2019; Hahnel et al., 2020; Suárez et al., 2022). As such, there are gene families that are absent in the *C. elegans* genome that may play pivotal roles in helminth pharmacokinetics. For example, genes involved in host survival and invasion, and immune system evasion are absent in *C. elegans* (Hahnel et al., 2020). For our work, this means that an additional validation step will need to be conducted for all hits, to verify activity in a parasitic nematode species. Other studies have used ruminant and murine helminths such as *Haemonchus contortus* and *Trichuris muris* for screening (Klementowicz et al., 2012; Schärer et al., 2023; Wimmersberger et al., 2013). Therefore, *ex vivo* and *in vivo* testing against this species would be an

appropriate next step. While actinomycin D and tunicamycin are unsuitable for continued testing due to their toxicity against mammalian cells, xanthocillin could be further evaluated against parasitic worms in a whole animal infection model.

In terms of assay optimization and design, we have prioritized data collection and interpretation. All steps of the process are automated, from liquid transfer to imaging, which reduces the risk of human error. The incorporation of endpoint image collection can also provide more mechanistic insight based on the phenotypes observed; however, whether manual scoring or computer-vision scoring should be used can be debated. Manual scoring is labour-intensive and time-consuming, but more phenotypes may be able to be identified. We have not yet tried to train an image analysis algorithm to identify specific phenotypes. Therefore, this technology is currently limited to binary scoring: normal versus abnormal. While this may be sufficient for preliminary results, the high hit rate could be a deterrent if screening a larger library of compounds/extracts.

With respect to immediate future directions, there are still over two dozen hits that could be further investigated for bioactivity. The remaining hits are extracts derived from soil bacterial and fungal species. The order in which to prioritize these will depend on overall objectives. Bacteria are typically easier to work with due to their shorter generation time and smaller genomes. However, fungal extracts are also important to consider as fungi have larger genomes, giving rise to greater

chemical diversity that could prove more desirable for the discovery of novel compounds. Bacteria, fungi, and soil-transmitted helminths all occupy similar environmental niches. This suggests the presence of interspecific competition through chemical production, but further work will need to be conducted to determine which microbes are more prolific producers of nematocidal compounds.

We also described a luminescence-based assay here that could serve as an indicator of cuticle damage. Due to the high output variability, we propose that this method would serve better as a secondary assay for mechanistic studies or should be reserved in cases where test compound is not limited. Previous efforts to reduce variability were unsuccessful due to the challenge of lysing worms without interfering with nanoluciferase integrity. However, if a protocol could be established that eliminated the need for worm lysis, either by improving furimazine penetration into *C. elegans* tissues or improving the lysis procedure, this assay would be more broadly applicable in primary screening efforts. Nevertheless, we have still generated a nanoluciferase-expressing worm strain that can provide valuable insights into a compound's target.

Concluding Remark

Drug discovery has consistently been an important research endeavour in human health and medicine. For NTDs, typical challenges associated with innovation in the field are amplified by lack of funding due to the limited economic

power of the affected population. This generates a positive feedback loop where limited financial return discourages discovery efforts, which leads to limited advancements and a worsening treatment landscape for the individuals that are already socioeconomically vulnerable. Although the translation of screening hits into compound leads for *in vivo* infection models is beyond the scope of this thesis, there is evidence to suggest that microbial natural products are a relevant source for anthelmintics.

Beyond therapeutic development, anthelmintic discovery can also contribute to our understanding of resistance mechanisms, parasite physiology, and host-parasite interactions. These can in turn support additional prevention initiatives such helminth vaccines, which have been difficult to develop due to the complex lifecycles of parasites (Maizels, 2021; Perera and Ndao, 2021; Zawawi and Else, 2020).

Looking forward, many fields will continue to be shaped through advancements in technology. Already we demonstrate here that automation through employing microfluidic devices and high-throughput imaging can reduce the labour associated with complex assay set-up. Artificial intelligence and machine learning are also emerging as crucial approaches in the drug discovery process to help accelerate progress and prioritize compounds (Catacutan et al., 2024; Dara et al., 2022; Vamathevan et al., 2019). As these tools become more accessible in

academic settings, the potential for rapid discovery and validation in resourcelimited academic settings skyrockets. This is promising for the field of anthelmintic drug discovery, as it creates opportunities for the development of new, effective, and accessible treatments that will ultimately improve global health outcomes.

References

- Boyd, W.A., McBride, S.J., Rice, J.R., Snyder, D.W., Freedman, J.H., 2010. A high-throughput method for assessing chemical toxicity using a caenorhabditis elegans reproduction assay. Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol. 245, 153–159. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.taap.2010.02.014
- Branda, F., Ali, A.Y., Ceccarelli, G., Albanese, M., Binetti, E., Giovanetti, M., Ciccozzi, M., Scarpa, F., 2025. Assessing the Burden of Neglected Tropical Diseases in Low-Income Communities: Challenges and Solutions. Viruses 17, 29. https://doi.org/10.3390/v17010029
- Burns, A.R., Luciani, G.M., Musso, G., Bagg, R., Yeo, M., Zhang, Y., Rajendran, L., Glavin, J., Hunter, R., Redman, E., Stasiuk, S., Schertzberg, M., Angus McQuibban, G., Caffrey, C.R., Cutler, S.R., Tyers, M., Giaever, G., Nislow, C., Fraser, A.G., MacRae, C.A., Gilleard, J., Roy, P.J., 2015. Caenorhabditis elegans is a useful model for anthelmintic discovery. Nat. Commun. 6, 7485. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms8485
- Callaway, E., Cyranoski, D., 2015. Anti-parasite drugs sweep Nobel prize in medicine 2015. Nature 526, 174–175. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature.2015.18507
- Catacutan, D.B., Alexander, J., Arnold, A., Stokes, J.M., 2024. Machine learning in preclinical drug discovery. Nat. Chem. Biol. 20, 960–973. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41589-024-01679-1
- Coghlan, A., Tyagi, R., Cotton, J.A., Holroyd, N., Rosa, B.A., Tsai, I.J., Laetsch, D.R., Beech, R.N., Day, T.A., Hallsworth-Pepin, K., Ke, H.-M., Kuo, T.-H., Lee, T.J., Martin, J., Maizels, R.M., Mutowo, P., Ozersky, P., Parkinson, J., Reid, A.J., Rawlings, N.D., Ribeiro, D.M., Swapna, L.S., Stanley, E., Taylor, D.W., Wheeler, N.J., Zamanian, M., Zhang, X., Allan, F., Allen, J.E., Asano, K., Babayan, S.A., Bah, G., Beasley, H., Bennett, H.M., Bisset, S.A., Castillo, E., Cook, J., Cooper, P.J., Cruz-Bustos, T., Cuéllar, C., Devaney, E., Doyle, S.R., Eberhard, M.L., Emery, A., Eom, K.S., Gilleard, J.S., Gordon, D., Harcus, Y., Harsha, B., Hawdon, J.M., Hill, D.E., Hodgkinson, J., Horák, P., Howe, K.L., Huckvale, T., Kalbe, M., Kaur, G., Kikuchi, T., Koutsovoulos, G., Kumar, S., Leach, A.R., Lomax, J., Makepeace, B., Matthews, J.B., Muro, A., O'Boyle, N.M., Olson, P.D., Osuna, A., Partono, F., Pfarr, K., Rinaldi, G., Foronda, P., Rollinson, D., Samblas, M.G., Sato, H., Schnyder, M., Scholz, T., Shafie, M., Tanya, V.N., Toledo, R., Tracey, A., Urban, J.F., Wang, L.-C., Zarlenga, D., Blaxter, M.L., Mitreva, M., Berriman, M., International Helminth Genomes Consortium, 2019. Comparative genomics of the major parasitic worms. Nat. Genet. 51, 163–174. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588-018-0262-1
- Cook, M.A., Pallant, D., Ejim, L., Sutherland, A.D., Wang, X., Johnson, J.W., McCusker, S., Chen, X., George, M., Chou, S., Koteva, K., Wang, W., Hobson, C., Hackenberger, D., Waglechner, N., Ejim, O., Campbell, T., Medina, R.,

- MacNeil, L.T., Wright, G.D., 2023. Lessons from assembling a microbial natural product and pre-fractionated extract library in an academic laboratory. J. Ind. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 50, kuad042. https://doi.org/10.1093/jimb/kuad042
- Crump, A., Ōmura, S., 2011. Ivermectin, 'Wonder drug' from Japan: the human use perspective. Proc. Jpn. Acad. Ser. B Phys. Biol. Sci. 87, 13–28. https://doi.org/10.2183/pjab.87.13
- Dara, S., Dhamercherla, S., Jadav, S.S., Babu, C.M., Ahsan, M.J., 2022. Machine Learning in Drug Discovery: A Review. Artif. Intell. Rev. 55, 1947–1999. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10462-021-10058-4
- Engels, D., Zhou, X.-N., 2020. Neglected tropical diseases: an effective global response to local poverty-related disease priorities. Infect. Dis. Poverty 09, 9–17. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40249-020-0630-9
- Fahs, H.Z., Refai, F.S., Gopinadhan, S., Moussa, Y., Gan, H.H., Hunashal, Y., Battaglia, G., Cipriani, P.G., Ciancia, C., Rahiman, N., Kremb, S., Xie, X., Pearson, Y.E., Butterfoss, G.L., Maizels, R.M., Esposito, G., Page, A.P., Gunsalus, K.C., Piano, F., 2025. A new class of natural anthelmintics targeting lipid metabolism. Nat. Commun. 16, 305. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-024-54965-w
- Ghenea, S., Chiritoiu, M., Tacutu, R., Miranda-Vizuete, A., Petrescu, S.M., 2022.

 Targeting EDEM protects against ER stress and improves development and survival in C. elegans. PLoS Genet. 18, e1010069.

 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1010069
- Greiffer, L., Liebau, E., Herrmann, F.C., Spiegler, V., 2022. Condensed tannins act as anthelmintics by increasing the rigidity of the nematode cuticle. Sci. Rep. 12, 18850. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-23566-2
- Hahnel, S.R., Dilks, C.M., Heisler, I., Andersen, E.C., Kulke, D., 2020. Caenorhabditis elegans in anthelmintic research Old model, new perspectives. Int. J. Parasitol. Drugs Drug Resist. 14, 237–248. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2020.09.005
- Hübner, I., Shapiro, J.A., Hoßmann, J., Drechsel, J., Hacker, S.M., Rather, P.N., Pieper, D.H., Wuest, W.M., Sieber, S.A., 2021. Broad Spectrum Antibiotic Xanthocillin X Effectively Kills Acinetobacter baumannii via Dysregulation of Heme Biosynthesis. ACS Cent. Sci. 7, 488–498. https://doi.org/10.1021/acscentsci.0c01621
- Jayawardene, K.L.T.D., Palombo, E.A., Boag, P.R., 2021. Natural Products Are a Promising Source for Anthelmintic Drug Discovery. Biomolecules 11, 1457. https://doi.org/10.3390/biom11101457
- Kabore, A., Palmer, S.L., Mensah, E., Ettiegne-Traore, V., Monteil, R., Sintondji, F.,
 Tine, J., Tesfaye, D., Ogoussan, K., Stukel, D., Fuller, B.B., Sanchez, K., Pou, B.,
 Dembele, B., Weaver, A., Reid, S., Milord, M.D., Kassankogno, Y., Seim, A.,

- Shott, J., 2021. Restarting Neglected Tropical Diseases Programs in West Africa during the COVID-19 Pandemic: Lessons Learned and Best Practices. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.21-0408
- Katiki, L.M., Ferreira, J.F.S., Zajac, A.M., Masler, C., Lindsay, D.S., Chagas, A.C.S., Amarante, A.F.T., 2011. Caenorhabditis elegans as a model to screen plant extracts and compounds as natural anthelmintics for veterinary use. Vet. Parasitol. 182, 264–268. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetpar.2011.05.020
- Klementowicz, J.E., Travis, M.A., Grencis, R.K., 2012. Trichuris muris: a model of gastrointestinal parasite infection. Semin. Immunopathol. 34, 815–828. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00281-012-0348-2
- Koirala, N., Butnariu, M., Panthi, M., Gurung, R., Adhikari, S., Subba, R.K., Acharya, Z., Popović-Djordjević, J., 2023. Chapter 12 Antibiotics in the management of tuberculosis and cancer, in: Dhara, A.K., Nayak, A.K., Chattopadhyay, D. (Eds.), Antibiotics Therapeutic Spectrum and Limitations, Developments in Microbiology. Academic Press, pp. 251–294. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-323-95388-7.00014-0
- Konopka, J.K., Chatterjee, P., LaMontagne, C., Brown, J., 2022. Environmental impacts of mass drug administration programs: exposures, risks, and mitigation of antimicrobial resistance. Infect. Dis. Poverty 11, 78. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40249-022-01000-z
- Liu, M., Panda, S.K., Luyten, W., 2020. Plant-Based Natural Products for the Discovery and Development of Novel Anthelmintics against Nematodes. Biomolecules 10, 426. https://doi.org/10.3390/biom10030426
- Maizels, R.M., 2021. Identifying novel candidates and configurations for human helminth vaccines. Expert Rev. Vaccines 20, 1389–1393. https://doi.org/10.1080/14760584.2021.1999810
- Martel, J., Wu, C.-Y., Peng, H.-H., Ko, Y.-F., Yang, H.-C., Young, J.D., Ojcius, D.M., 2020. Plant and fungal products that extend lifespan in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Microb. Cell 7, 255–269. https://doi.org/10.15698/mic2020.10.731
- Martin, R.J., Robertson, A.P., Choudhary, S., 2021. Ivermectin: An Anthelmintic, an Insecticide, and Much More. Trends Parasitol. 37, 48–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2020.10.005
- Njom, V.S., Winks, T., Diallo, O., Lowe, A., Behnke, J., Dickman, M.J., Duce, I., Johnstone, I., Buttle, D.J., 2021. The effects of plant cysteine proteinases on the nematode cuticle. Parasit. Vectors 14, 302. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-021-04800-8
- Page, A.P., Stepek, G., Winter, A.D., Pertab, D., 2014. Enzymology of the nematode cuticle: A potential drug target? Int. J. Parasitol. Drugs Drug Resist. 4, 133–141. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2014.05.003
- Partridge, F.A., Brown, A.E., Buckingham, S.D., Willis, N.J., Wynne, G.M., Forman, R., Else, K.J., Morrison, A.A., Matthews, J.B., Russell, A.J., Lomas, D.A., Sattelle,

- D.B., 2017. An automated high-throughput system for phenotypic screening of chemical libraries on C. elegans and parasitic nematodes. Int. J. Parasitol. Drugs Drug Resist. 8, 8–21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2017.11.004
- Perera, D.J., Ndao, M., 2021. Promising Technologies in the Field of Helminth Vaccines. Front. Immunol. 12, 711650. https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2021.711650
- Richards, F.O., Eigege, A., Umaru, J., Kahansim, B., Adelamo, S., Kadimbo, J., Danboyi, J., Mafuyai, H., Saka, Y., Noland, G.S., Anyaike, C., Igbe, M., Rakers, L., Griswold, E., Unnasch, T.R., Nwoke, B.E.B., Miri, E., 2020. The Interruption of Transmission of Human Onchocerciasis by an Annual Mass Drug Administration Program in Plateau and Nasarawa States, Nigeria. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 102, 582–592. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.19-0577
- Risi, G., Aguilera, E., Ladós, E., Suárez, G., Carrera, I., Álvarez, G., Salinas, G., 2019.
 Caenorhabditis elegans Infrared-Based Motility Assay Identified New Hits for Nematicide Drug Development. Vet. Sci. 6, 29.
 https://doi.org/10.3390/vetsci6010029
- Schärer, A., Biendl, S., Keiser, J., 2023. Trichuris muris egg-hatching assay for anthelminthic drug discovery and characterization. Int. J. Parasitol. Drugs Drug Resist. 23, 63–70. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpddr.2023.10.001
- Smout, M.J., Kotze, A.C., McCarthy, J.S., Loukas, A., 2010. A Novel High Throughput Assay for Anthelmintic Drug Screening and Resistance Diagnosis by Real-Time Monitoring of Parasite Motility. PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis. 4, e885. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0000885
- Suárez, G., Alcántara, I., Salinas, G., 2022. Caenorhabditis elegans as a valuable model for the study of anthelmintic pharmacodynamics and drug-drug interactions: The case of ivermectin and eprinomectin. Front. Pharmacol. 13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2022.984905
- Tinkler, S.H., 2019. Preventive chemotherapy and anthelmintic resistance of soil-transmitted helminths Can we learn nothing from veterinary medicine? One Health 9, 100106. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.onehlt.2019.100106
- Travers, K.J., Patil, C.K., Wodicka, L., Lockhart, D.J., Weissman, J.S., Walter, P., 2000. Functional and Genomic Analyses Reveal an Essential Coordination between the Unfolded Protein Response and ER-Associated Degradation. Cell 101, 249–258. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(00)80835-1
- Turner, H.C., Stolk, W.A., Solomon, A.W., King, J.D., Montresor, A., Molyneux, D.H., Toor, J., 2021. Are current preventive chemotherapy strategies for controlling and eliminating neglected tropical diseases cost-effective? BMJ Glob. Health 6. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-005456
- Vamathevan, J., Clark, D., Czodrowski, P., Dunham, I., Ferran, E., Lee, G., Li, B., Madabhushi, A., Shah, P., Spitzer, M., Zhao, S., 2019. Applications of machine

- learning in drug discovery and development. Nat. Rev. Drug Discov. 18, 463–477. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41573-019-0024-5
- WHO, 2025a. Control of Neglected Tropical Diseases [WWW Document]. URL https://www.who.int/teams/control-of-neglected-tropical-diseases/interventions (accessed 6.23.25).
- WHO, 2025b. Control of Neglected Tropical Diseases: Preventive chemotherapy [WWW Document]. URL https://www.who.int/teams/control-of-neglected-tropical-diseases/interventions/strategies/preventive-chemotherapy (accessed 6.23.25).
- Wimmersberger, D., Tritten, L., Keiser, J., 2013. Development of an in vitro drug sensitivity assay for Trichuris muris first-stage larvae. Parasit. Vectors 6, 42. https://doi.org/10.1186/1756-3305-6-42
- Zawawi, A., Else, K.J., 2020. Soil-Transmitted Helminth Vaccines: Are We Getting Closer? Front. Immunol. 11. https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2020.576748