

## **Itaconate: an antimicrobial metabolite of macrophages**

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## **Abstract**

Itaconate is a conjugated 1,4-dicarboxylate produced by macrophages. This small molecule has recently received increasing attention due to its role in modulating the immune response of macrophages upon exposure to pathogens. Itaconate has also been proposed to play an antimicrobial function; however, this has not been explored as intensively. Consistent with the latter, itaconate is known to show antibacterial activity *in vitro* and was reported to inhibit isocitrate lyase, an enzyme required for survival of bacterial pathogens in mammalian systems. Recent studies have revealed bacterial growth inhibition under biologically relevant conditions. In addition, an antimicrobial role for itaconate is substantiated by the high concentration of itaconate found in bacteria-containing vacuoles, and by the production of itaconate-degrading enzymes in pathogens such as *Salmonella enterica* ser. Typhimurium, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Yersinia pestis*. This review describes the current state of literature in understanding the role of itaconate as an antimicrobial agent in host-pathogen interactions.

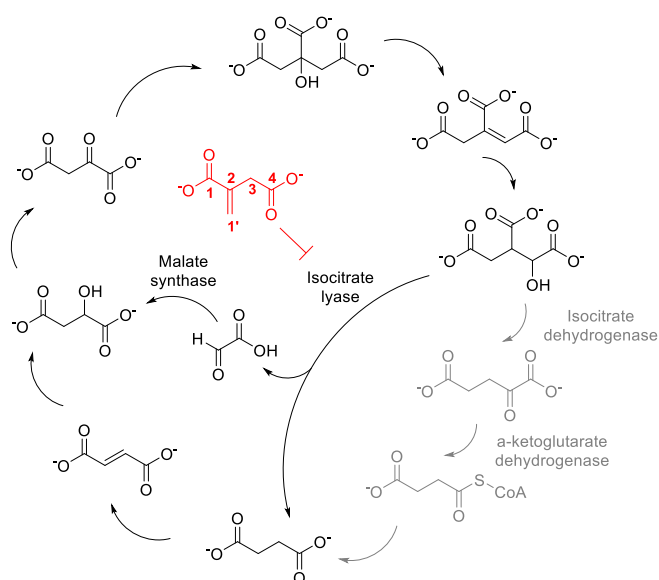
**Keywords:** antimicrobial; antimicrobial resistance; isocitrate lyase; itaconic acid; glyoxylate cycle; macrophages.

## Introduction

Itaconate (or methylenesuccinate, Figure 1, in red) was first isolated from fungi like *Aspergillus* sp.<sup>1-2</sup> Since its first isolation from natural sources, this conjugate dicarboxylate has been of great interest. Early work investigating its toxicity in mammals already suggested a link between itaconate and the citric acid cycle.<sup>3-4</sup> For several decades, however, itaconate was of interest mostly as a building block in the synthesis of renewable polymers with applications ranging from superabsorbent microspheres<sup>5</sup> to trace metal detection,<sup>6</sup> and pH-sensitive drug delivery.<sup>7</sup> This led to the exploration, the bioengineering, and even the discovery of different itaconate-producing organisms such as other *Aspergillus* species, *Ustilago* species, and *Escherichia coli*, thereby improving its economic viability as a polymer starting material.<sup>2, 8-9</sup> The recent discovery that macrophages also produce itaconate has reinvigorated and broadened interest for this molecule.<sup>10-11</sup> Rapidly, this small metabolite was found to play a critical role in immunomodulation and in the innate immune response to infection.<sup>12</sup> This review focuses on the current state of literature with respect to the antimicrobial activity of itaconate.

## Isocitrate lyase inhibition

Itaconate is a known inhibitor of isocitrate lyase (Icl), a critical enzyme in the glyoxylate cycle.<sup>13-14</sup> This pathway comprises part of the citric acid cycle but diverts isocitrate from isocitrate dehydrogenase (Figure 1). The glyoxylate cycle serves to conserve carbon atoms by avoiding two decarboxylation events (catalyzed by isocitrate dehydrogenase and  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase) and therefore preserving all carbon atoms of isocitrate (Figure 1). This pathway allows for adaptability of bacteria to numerous types of environments, such as that found within macrophages. Indeed, an intact glyoxylate cycle is often required for bacterial survival and pathogenesis.<sup>15-20</sup> As expected, different organisms have different mechanisms for regulating the glyoxylate cycle, as reviewed by Dolan and Welch.<sup>21</sup> Since the glyoxylate cycle is conditionally essential, it has been the target of numerous antibacterial development efforts.<sup>22-45</sup>



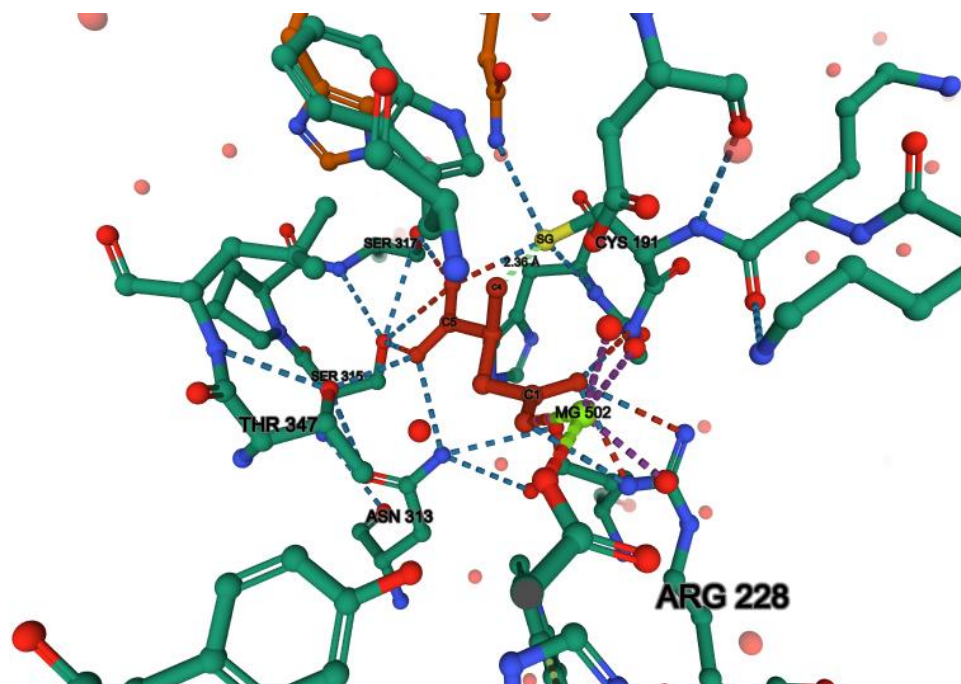
**Figure 1: Intersection between the glyoxylate and the citric acid cycles.** The glyoxylate cycle (in black) circumvents the use of isocitrate dehydrogenase and  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase (in grey) of the citric acid cycle (full circle). In red, itaconate inhibits isocitrate lyase.

Itaconate has been shown to inhibit various Icl isoforms (Table 1). In particular, bacterial Icl enzymes shown to be inhibited by itaconate include the *Pseudomonas indigofera* isoform with a  $K_i$  of 0.9  $\mu\text{M}$ ,<sup>14</sup> the two *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* isoforms (Icl1 and Icl2, the latter of which is also known as AceA) with  $K_i$  values of 120  $\mu\text{M}$  and 220  $\mu\text{M}$  respectively,<sup>46</sup> and the *Corynebacterium glutamicum* isoform with a  $K_i$  of 5.05  $\mu\text{M}$ .

**Table 1: Inhibition constants of itaconate towards various Icl isoforms.**

| <b>Isoform</b>                                   | <b><math>K_i</math> (<math>\mu</math>M)</b> | <b>Ref</b>    |
|--------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|---------------|
| Bacteria                                         |                                             |               |
| <i>Pseudomonas indigofera</i>                    | 0.9                                         | <sup>14</sup> |
| <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>                | Icl1: 120<br>AceA/Icl2: 220                 | <sup>46</sup> |
| <i>Corynebacterium glutamicum</i>                | 5.05                                        | <sup>47</sup> |
| Eukaryota                                        |                                             |               |
| <i>Leishmania amazonensis</i>                    | 4500                                        | <sup>48</sup> |
| <i>Ashbya gossypii</i>                           | 170                                         | <sup>49</sup> |
| <i>Fomitopsis palustris</i>                      | 68                                          | <sup>50</sup> |
| <i>Ricinus communis</i> L. cv.<br>Zanzibariensis | 11.9                                        | <sup>51</sup> |
| <i>Tetrahymena pyriformis</i>                    | 3.5                                         | <sup>52</sup> |
| <i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L.                    | 17                                          | <sup>53</sup> |
| <i>Pinus densiflora</i> Sieb et Zucc             | 2.8                                         | <sup>54</sup> |
| <i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i>                    | 19                                          | <sup>55</sup> |
| <i>Ascaris suum</i>                              | 7.3                                         | <sup>55</sup> |
| <i>Aspergillus nidulans</i>                      | 40                                          | <sup>56</sup> |

Although there are numerous crystal structures reported for Icl in complex with inhibitors such as 3-nitropropionate (PDB: 6C4C,<sup>57</sup> 6C4A,<sup>57</sup> and 1F8I<sup>58</sup>) and bromopyruvate (PDB: 1F8M),<sup>58</sup> there is only one structure of an itaconate-bound Icl (PDB: 6XPP).<sup>59</sup> This complex of *M. tuberculosis* Icl1 reveals the formation of a covalent adduct between the enzyme and the inhibitor, as a result of a Michael-addition between a conserved Cys191 and itaconate (Figure 2).<sup>59</sup>



**Figure 2: Binding of itaconate (red) to *Mt*Icl1 (cpk colors, PDB 6XPP).** Cys191 of the enzyme is covalently linked to C4 of itaconate (in red, 2.36 Å) to form an adduct between the enzyme and the inhibitor. C1 of itaconate (one of the carboxylates) forms hydrogen-bonds with Arg228 and the backbone amide of Cys191, and also interacts with a  $Mg^{2+}$  ion. C5 of itaconate (the other carboxylate) interacts with Asn313, Ser 315, Ser317, and Thr347 via hydrogen bonds.

Despite being a stronger Michael acceptor, the dimethyl ester of itaconate shows 22 – 25-fold weaker inhibition for *M. tuberculosis* Icl1 ( $IC_{50} = 420 \pm 20 \mu M$  for itaconate,  $>10,000 \mu M$  for dimethyl itaconate).<sup>59</sup> This suggests that the interactions of the carboxylate groups with the active site of Icl (Figure 2, involving Arg 228, Asn313, Ser 315, Ser 317, and Thr347) are central to itaconate binding. Furthermore, adding substituents at C-1' (see numbering in Figure 1) of itaconate greatly reduces the inhibitory effect,<sup>59</sup> likely as a result of steric hindrance. The authors reported that  $Mg^{2+}$  was necessary for formation of the Icl1-itaconate adduct, and that complete covalent bond formation required approximately 5 hours.<sup>59</sup> It is perhaps unsurprising that the adduct is slow to form since  $\alpha,\beta$ -unsaturated carboxylates are very weak Michael acceptors. Furthermore, itaconate was reported to have similar affinity for the Cys191Ser mutant of Icl1 ( $K_D = 112 \pm 11 \mu M$  for wild type versus  $155 \pm 29 \mu M$  for mutant)<sup>59</sup> which does not undergo adduct formation, suggesting that the covalent bond is not a major contributor to inhibition. This contrasts with 3-nitropropionate and bromopyruvate, which both depend upon Cys191 for significant

inhibition to be observed.<sup>57-58</sup> In summary, given that 1) cysteine is a conserved residue in Icl, that 2) recent findings by Kwai *et al.* suggest a covalent adduct formation between Icl and itaconate, and that 3) the binding affinity of itaconate for the Cys191Ser mutant of Icl is similar to that of the wild type enzyme, itaconate may initially behave as a competitive inhibitor, before acting as an affinity label (potentially also reversible but at a slower rate). The time-dependence of these interactions may explain the large variations observed in measured  $K_i$  values.

### **Antimicrobial activity of itaconate**

The minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of itaconate has been measured in numerous bacterial species, but with widely varying results (Table 2). Notably, many of these MICs were measured without controlling the pH, which very likely biases the results.<sup>60</sup> Indeed, the lack of consideration toward the change in pH of these experiments conflates the effects of itaconate and pH, and limits the usability of these data. A detailed description of the relationship between pH and itaconate is described below.

The bacterial target of itaconate remains to be confirmed. Itaconate has been found to inhibit bacterial enzymes other than Icl,<sup>13-14, 46</sup> including propionyl-coenzyme A decarboxylase (*Rhodospirillum rubrum*),<sup>61</sup> and methylmalonyl-coenzyme A mutase (*Mycobacterium tuberculosis*).<sup>62</sup> This (mostly *in vitro*) information is insufficient to settle on a mechanism of antibacterial activity for itaconate.

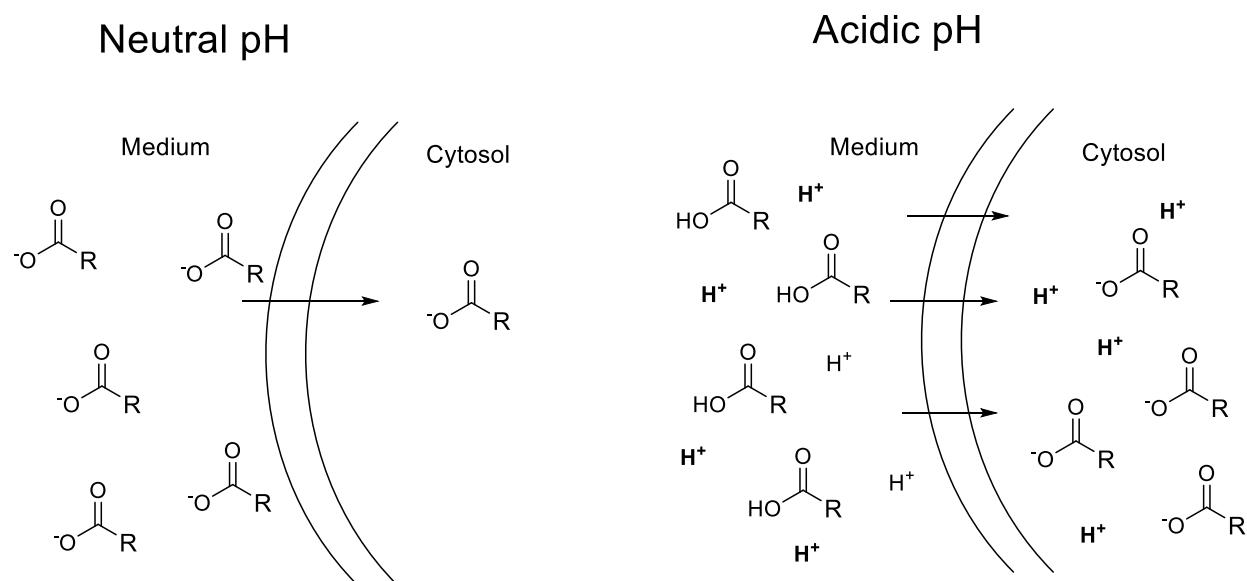
If the antimicrobial activity of itaconate proceeds via Icl inhibition, growth media containing only carbon sources metabolised via the glyoxylate cycle are needed to reveal the full activity. The growth media used to determine reported MIC values vary between reports. Further complicating MIC determination is the high acidity of itaconate, which may considerably affect the pH of the medium.

**Table 2: MIC values of itaconic acid (or sodium itaconate) in various bacterial species**

| Species                                     | Experimental Condition                                                                                     | MIC      | Ref    |
|---------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|--------|
| <i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i>              | Itaconic acid resuspended in PBS for killing assays after growth in AYE broth                              | 10 mM    | 63     |
|                                             | Itaconic acid in M9A                                                                                       | 10 mM    | 60     |
|                                             | Sodium itaconate (pH 7.2) in M9A                                                                           | >40 mM   | 60     |
| <i>Enterobacter faecium</i>                 | Itaconic acid in M9A                                                                                       | 10 mM    | 60     |
|                                             | Sodium itaconate (pH 7.2) in M9A                                                                           | >40 mM   | 60     |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i>                     | Itaconic acid in M9A                                                                                       | 1 mM     | 64     |
|                                             | Itaconic acid in M9A                                                                                       | 5 mM     | 60     |
|                                             | Sodium itaconate (pH 6.4) in M9A                                                                           | 0.37 mM  | 60     |
|                                             | Sodium itaconate (pH 7.2) in M9                                                                            | 80 mM    | 60     |
|                                             | Itaconate (salt and pH unspecified)                                                                        | 10 mM    | 65     |
| <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>                | Itaconic acid MIC                                                                                          | 10 mM    | 60     |
|                                             | Sodium itaconate (pH 7.2) in M9                                                                            | >40 mM   | 60     |
| <i>Legionella pneumoniae</i>                | Itaconic acid resuspended in PBS for killing assays after growth in AYE broth                              | 10 mM    | 63     |
| <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>           | Itaconic acid in M9A with Tyloxapol detergent                                                              | 1 mM     | 60     |
|                                             | Sodium itaconate (pH 7.2) in M9A with Tyloxapol detergent used                                             | 4 mM     | 60     |
|                                             | Itaconic acid MIC in acetate supplemented 7H9                                                              | 25–50 mM | 66     |
| <i>Pseudomonas spp.</i>                     | <i>Pseudomonas</i> MA, itaconate (salt and pH unspecified)                                                 | 10 mM    | 65     |
|                                             | <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> TAU5, itaconate (salt and pH unspecified)                                    | 10 mM    | 67     |
|                                             | Itaconic acid in M9A                                                                                       | 20 mM    | 60     |
|                                             | Sodium itaconate (pH 7.2) in M9A                                                                           | >40 mM   | 60     |
|                                             | <i>Pseudomonas indigofera</i> M1, sodium itaconate (pH 7.0) with ethanol or sodium butyrate carbon sources | 20 mM    | 14     |
| <i>Salmonella enterica</i> spp. Typhimurium | Itaconic acid in acetate-containing media                                                                  | 10 mM    | 66     |
|                                             | Itaconic acid in M9A                                                                                       | 20 mM    | 60, 64 |
|                                             | Sodium itaconate (pH 6.0) in M9A                                                                           | 3.7 mM   | 60     |
|                                             | Sodium itaconate (pH 7.2) in M9A                                                                           | 400 mM   | 60     |
| <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> (MRSA)         | Itaconic acid resuspended in PBS for killing assays after growth in AYE broth                              | 10 mM    | 63     |
| <i>Yersinia pestis</i>                      | Sodium itaconate (pH 7.0)                                                                                  | 75 mM    | 68     |

It is well established that small organic acids are capable of inhibiting bacterial growth at low pH values, potentially via a “proton shuttle” effect.<sup>69–71</sup> With addition of an organic acid to growth medium, the pH decreases, favoring the protonated (uncharged) form of the acid, which

may cross bacterial membranes more easily (Figure 3). Once inside the (less acidic) bacterial cytosol, the organic acid releases a proton, thereby reducing the cytosolic pH and causing toxicity. However, organic acids have different toxicities that do not always correlate well with their respective pKa values,<sup>72-75</sup> implying that the exact molecular structure of the organic acid may lead to specific toxicity effects. Itaconate is known to have more potent antimicrobial activity at lower pH values,<sup>60, 71, 76</sup> and this has recently been investigated in more detail.<sup>60</sup> By comparing the MIC of itaconic acid with that of its sodium salt, Duncan *et al.* demonstrated that the decrease in pH caused by itaconic acid addition to the growth medium increases the antimicrobial activity of itaconate against numerous bacterial species.<sup>60</sup> The authors also evaluated the MIC of itaconate in *E. coli* and *S. Typhimurium* (itaconate-sensitive and itaconate-resistance bacterial strains, respectively) at controlled pH values, which allowed them to rule out a proton-shuttle mechanism, and establish that itaconate and acidity show synergistic antibacterial activity.<sup>60</sup> It is not clear what the mechanism for this phenomenon is. The authors observed that *S. Typhimurium* displayed a rapidly increasing sensitivity to itaconate as the pH was lowered, with MIC values ranging from >200 mM at pH 6.3, to 11 mM at pH 6.2, and 3.7 mM at pH 6.0. Similarly, in *E. coli* the MIC of itaconate was found to be 80 mM at pH 7.2 and 0.37 mM at pH 6.4.<sup>60</sup> Considering that the concentration of itaconate in *Salmonella*-containing vesicles (pH ~5.0)<sup>77</sup> is about 5 – 6 mM,<sup>78</sup> these observations suggest that the concentration of itaconate encountered by bacteria in macrophages is likely sufficient to inhibit their growth. Therefore, despite the relatively high MIC values reported (Table 2), the synergistic behaviour of pH on itaconate activity coupled with the acidic environments encountered by bacteria within macrophages suggests that itaconate may indeed behave as an antibacterial compound *in vivo*.



**Figure 3: The proton shuttle mechanism.** Under neutral conditions, small organic acids are ionized and may not transverse the membrane effectively. Under acidic conditions, however, most of them are protonated, and therefore neutral, thereby more likely to traverse the membrane. Once in the cytosol (mostly neutral), the organic acids are expected to ionize, liberating protons and decreasing the pH, thus effectively “shuttling” protons from the acidic medium into the cell.

### Macrophages and the production of itaconate

Although it has been known since 1939 that fungi generate itaconate,<sup>1</sup> the production of itaconate by macrophages was only reported in 2011.<sup>10-11</sup> Soon after this discovery, the gene responsible for itaconate production was identified as the immunoresponsive gene 1 (*irg1*),<sup>66</sup> which is highly upregulated upon infection.<sup>79-84</sup> This gene encodes a *cis*-aconitate decarboxylase (known as IRG1, CAD, or ACOD1).<sup>66</sup> Human IRG1 was found to have high sequence identity to the corresponding isoform in *Aspergillus terreus* (a fungus used for the industrial production of itaconate).<sup>2, 85</sup> Next, a connection was rapidly made between the macrophage response to LPS and this small metabolite, which led to many studies on the immunomodulatory role of itaconate, as reviewed elsewhere.<sup>12, 86-99</sup>

Itaconate production from the citric acid cycle intermediate *cis*-aconitate is catalysed by IRG1, which is associated with the mitochondria,<sup>82</sup> from which the small molecule is transported to extra- and intracellular locations. Transport into bacteria-containing vesicles, such as *Salmonella*-containing vacuoles, is believed to occur through a Rab32-BLOC3-mediated

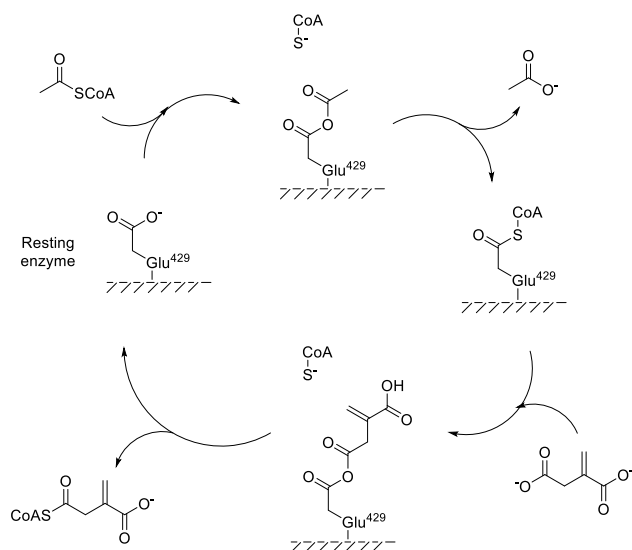
mechanism, potentially involving IRG1.<sup>78</sup> The concentration of itaconate in macrophages varies from 3-8 mM in mice to 60  $\mu$ M in humans,<sup>11, 66</sup> although these numbers must be used with caution because they may vary largely with the location, the cell type and the activation level. Furthermore, besides *Salmonella*-containing vesicles (known to contain 5 – 6 mM itaconate),<sup>78</sup> the local concentration of itaconate in various organelles of mammalian cells is unknown.

Whereas the link between LPS-stimulation and itaconate production is well established, the mechanism of action of itaconate with respect to the immune response is complex and remains incompletely understood. For example, the inhibition of succinate dehydrogenase is well-established,<sup>100</sup> but *irg1*<sup>-/-</sup> mice are susceptible to  $\Delta$ *icl1* *M. tuberculosis* infections, implying that itaconate is required beyond the inhibition of Icl in the invasive pathogen.<sup>101</sup> Similarly, although several lines of evidence suggest a harmful effect of itaconate on bacteria themselves, more studies are warranted to confirm the target(s).

### **Itaconate-resistant bacteria**

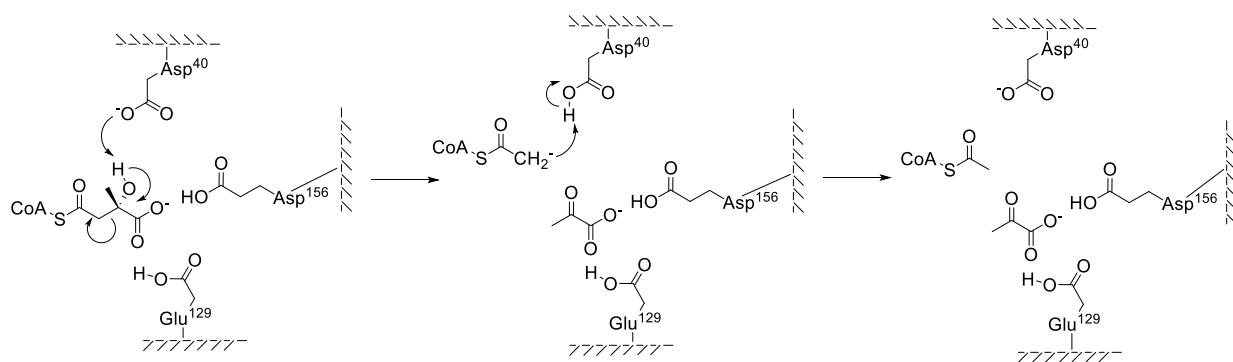
Further corroborating an antimicrobial role for itaconate is the presence of an itaconate degradation pathway in several pathogenic bacteria and fungi.<sup>102-108</sup> Itaconate-producing organisms, such as mammals and certain fungi,<sup>104, 107, 109-110</sup> are expected to metabolize itaconate, but this would not be expected for non-producers unless there is significant exposure. In mammals, the itaconate degradation pathway serves to regulate the immunological response associated with itaconate, whereas in pathogens, itaconate degradation may be necessary to survive and proliferate within the host. Considering that itaconate inhibits the enzyme Icl, which is essential for bacterial pathogenesis,<sup>15-20</sup> it is not surprising that bacteria such as *P. aeruginosa*, *S. enterica*, *Y. pestis*, *Burkholderia* species and *Mycobacterium* species,<sup>111, 112</sup> have developed resistance to itaconate. These bacteria can transform itaconate to pyruvate and acetyl coenzyme A (AcCoA) using enzymes encoded by the *rip* (required for intracellular proliferation) operon, comprising the *ripA*, *ripB*, and *ripC* coding genes.<sup>111</sup> The RipA protein (also known as itaconate CoA transferase or Ict) first produces itaconyl-CoA from itaconate. RipB (itaconyl-CoA hydratase or Ich) next isomerizes and hydrates the double bond of itaconyl-CoA to generate (S)-citramalyl-CoA. This product is finally cleaved by RipC (citramalyl-CoA lyase or Ccl) into AcCoA and pyruvate (Figure 4). Interestingly, Sasikaran *et al.*<sup>111</sup> have reported little homology between the itaconate-degradation enzymes of *Y. pestis* and those of *P. aeruginosa*, implying that the itaconate-degrading enzymes





**Figure 5: Proposed mechanism of *Y. pestis* Ict.<sup>113</sup>**

There are no crystal structures published for any Ich isoforms, whereas crystal structures have been reported for Ccl from different pathogenic species, including *Y. pestis* RipC (PDB 3QLL),<sup>114</sup> *Homo sapiens* CLYBL (PDB 5VXO, 5VXC, 5VXS),<sup>115</sup> and *M. tuberculosis* Rv4589c (annotated as CitE; PDB 6AQ4, 1U5H),<sup>108, 116</sup> as well as the non-pathogenic bacteria *Deinococcus radiodurans* (PDB: ISG1), *Burkholderia xenovorans* (PDB: 3R4I), and *Ralstonia eutropha* (3QQW).<sup>114</sup> These enzymes are structurally similar to each other, forming a homotrimer that adopts a  $\beta_8\alpha_8$ -TIM barrel fold.<sup>114-116</sup> The putative active site residues of the *Y. pestis* Ccl isoform include Glu39, Asp40, Arg71, Glu129, Asp156, and Pro192, which have significant overlap with the analogous enzyme *Haloferax volcanii* malate synthase H.<sup>114</sup> Based on the overlay presented by Torres *et al.*, we propose a mechanism in which Asp40 sits near where the hydroxyl group of (S)-citramalyl-CoA is expected to be and may facilitate its deprotonation, while Glu129 and Asp 156 may lie close to the carboxylate group, likely orienting the small molecule (Figure 6).<sup>114</sup> As the deprotonated alcohol forms a carbonyl, the C-C bond breaks, resulting in pyruvate and the AcCoA anion, which promptly picks up a proton. This mechanism is analogous to what has been proposed for another lyase.<sup>117</sup>



**Figure 6: Proposed mechanism of *Y. pestis* Ccl.**

In *S. Typhimurium*, itaconate binds to the regulator protein RipR, which then forms a complex with the promoter of the *rip* operon (also known as itaconate response operon or IRO in this species).<sup>71</sup> This induces transcription of *ict*, *ich*, and *ccl*. Induction of the *rip* operon appears to be dependent only upon itaconate (or structural analogues such as mesaconate, citramalate, and methylsuccinate, albeit at a much lower level of induction), whether the growth medium is glucose-deprived or rich (*e.g.* Lysogeny broth or glucose-containing minimal media).<sup>71</sup> It is not currently known if this regulatory mechanism of the itaconate degradation pathway is conserved across other itaconate-degrading organisms.

### The therapeutic potential of itaconate

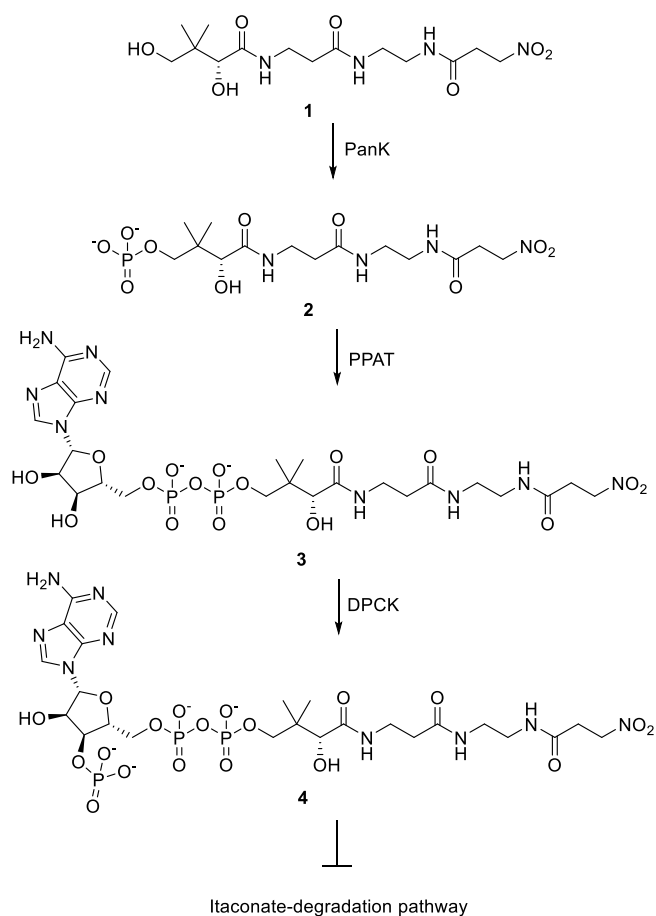
Given that itaconate is an antimicrobial produced by the immune system, there may be therapeutic value to altering the pathways in which it is involved. Little is known about the secretion and uptake mechanisms of itaconate in mammalian cells,<sup>96</sup> let alone its bioavailability and distribution. In bacteria, this small diacid may be transported into cells by dicarboxylate transporters. Considering that many enzymes are known that bind both succinate and itaconate such as isocitrate lyase,<sup>118</sup> succinate dehydrogenase,<sup>100</sup> and succinate-CoA ligase,<sup>119</sup> it is possible that the succinate transporter DcuB may be involved in the uptake of itaconate in *S. Typhimurium*,<sup>120</sup> while it has been determined that itaconate transport is not dependent on the succinate transporter DctA.<sup>71</sup>

The inhibition of itaconate degradation has recently been explored.<sup>64</sup> This is an intriguing approach to treat bacterial infections since the lack of antimicrobial activity of the active agent would minimize resistance selection. Hammerer *et al.*<sup>64</sup> have synthesized a series of compounds

designed to inhibit the itaconate-degradation pathway in *S. Typhimurium*. The molecules are prodrugs, which once activated are structural analogues of itaconyl-CoA (the product of Ict and substrate of Ich). These pantothenamide derivatives (*e.g.* compound **1**) were designed to be selectively activated in bacteria by enzymes of the CoA-biosynthetic pathway (Figure 7), a prodrug activation strategy that has recently been reviewed by Duncan and Auclair.<sup>121</sup> Although deprived of antimicrobial activity, compound **1** reduced the MIC of itaconate in *S. Typhimurium* from 20 mM to approximately 1.1 mM,<sup>64</sup> *i.e.* below the concentration of itaconate found within the *Salmonella*-containing vacuoles of macrophages.<sup>78</sup> This compound has also shown effectiveness in clearing *S. Typhimurium* in macrophage cells.<sup>122</sup> Compound **1** cannot be used *in vivo*, however, because it is rapidly cleaved by serum proteins called pantetheinases. This vulnerability has long plagued the development of pantothenamides, but there has been recent progress in identifying pantothenamide analogues that are pantetheinase-resistant while retaining biological activity.<sup>123-</sup>

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This itaconate-resensitization approach is also promising to target *P. aeruginosa*. In the lungs, this bacterium metabolises succinate and itaconate, leading to an increased activity of the glyoxylate cycle and biofilm production.<sup>127</sup> Itaconate triggers a defence response associated with electrophilic stress,<sup>128-131</sup> and appears to suppress glucose consumption at the expense of itaconate.<sup>130</sup> This dependence on itaconate as a carbon source could be exploited to decrease virulence and proliferation, wherein the inhibition of itaconate-degradation would promote starvation of the pathogen, in addition to allowing itaconate to inhibit glycolysis and Icl.



**Figure 7: Bioactivation of compound 1.** This involves the microbial enzymes pantothenate kinase (PanK), phosphopantetheine adenylyltransferase (PPAT), and dephospho-CoA kinase (DPCK).

Interestingly, in *Burkholderia pseudomallei*, itaconate-degrading enzymes<sup>111</sup> might be involved in the persistence phenotype (*i.e.* where a population of bacteria is slow-growing or non-proliferating<sup>132</sup>). Upon infection with *B. pseudomallei*, a persister population arises in the host, but inhibition of Icl was reported to reactivate *B. pseudomallei*, which then proliferates rapidly and may kill the host if the Icl inhibitor is not combined with an antimicrobial.<sup>20</sup> This suggests the possibility of using itaconate-degradation inhibitors as antibiotic resensitizers against this bacterium. In support of this hypothesis, the combination of itaconate and ceftazidime was found to reduce the bacterial load of infected rats more effectively than ceftazidime alone or itaconate alone.<sup>20</sup> A similar result has been observed for the related *Burkholderia cepacia* complex; itaconate pre-treatment of the bacteria reduced the persister population, sensitizing them to tobramycin.<sup>133</sup>

## Unanswered questions

Itaconate is ubiquitous in nature, as revealed by its production in fungi,<sup>1</sup> mussels,<sup>134</sup> shrimp,<sup>135</sup> mammals,<sup>10-11</sup> and even some bacteria (*e.g. Bacillus subtilis*).<sup>136</sup> Nevertheless, its biological roles remain largely unknown. In addition to an immunomodulatory function of itaconate in mammals, several lines of evidence are supporting an antibacterial role in macrophages, including: 1) the known antibacterial activity of itaconate; 2) the reported itaconate inhibition of Icl, an enzyme essential for the survival of many pathogens in mammals; 3) the active transport of itaconate in *Salmonella*-containing vesicles; and 4) the expression of itaconate degradation enzymes in several pathogens. Questions remaining to be answered are however still numerous. Is itaconate resistance universal among intracellular pathogens? How diversified are itaconate resistance mechanisms? How does itaconate enter bacterial and mammalian cells? What is/are its bacterial target(s) *in vivo*? Does it form covalent adducts with them (as observed in mammalian cells)?<sup>137</sup> Answers to these questions will likely reveal several new drug targets, not only for antimicrobials but also for disorders of the immune system.<sup>115, 138-139</sup>

## Acknowledgements

Research in this area in the Auclair lab was supported by research grants from the Canadian Institute of Health Research (CIHR) and the Fonds de recherche du Quebec (FRQ).

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