The Bacterial Quorum-Sensing Signal 2-Aminoacetophenone Rewires Immune Cell Bioenergetics through the PGC-1α/ERRα Axis to Mediate Tolerance to Infection

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data; W.M.O and A.A.T., provided resources, and F.K. and L.G.R. wrote the paper.

Competing Interest Statement:

L.G.R. has a financial interest in Spero Therapeutics, a company developing therapies to treat

bacterial infections. L.G.R.'s financial interests are reviewed and managed by Massachusetts

General Hospital and Partners Health Care in accordance with their conflict-of-interest policies.

No funding was received from Spero Therapeutics, and it had no role in study design, data

collection, analysis, interpretation, or the decision to submit the work for publication. The

remaining authors declare no competing interests.

Classification:

Biological, health, and Medical Sciences/Microbiology

Keywords: Pseudomonas aeruginosa, quorum sensing, infection, macrophages, bacterial

persistence, 2-aminoacetophenone (2-AA), MvfR, PqsR, immunometabolism, host

tolerization, histone deacetylation, epigenetic reprogramming, metabolic reprogramming,

oxidative phosphorylation, pyruvate, mitochondrial pyruvate carrier (MPC1), peroxisome

proliferator-activated receptor gamma co-activator 1-alpha (PGC-1α), estrogen-related

receptor (ERRα), acetyl-CoA, ATP, bioenergetics.

Abstract

How bacterial pathogens exploit host metabolism to promote immune tolerance and persist in infected hosts remains elusive. To achieve this, we show that *Pseudomonas aeruginosa (PA),* a recalcitrant pathogen, utilizes the quorum sensing (QS) signal 2-aminoacetophenone (2-AA). Here, we unveil how 2-AA-driven immune tolerization causes distinct metabolic perturbations in macrophages' mitochondrial respiration and bioenergetics. We present evidence indicating that these effects stem from a decrease in pyruvate transport into mitochondria. This reduction is attributed to decreased expression of the mitochondrial pyruvate carrier (MPC1), which is mediated by diminished expression and nuclear presence of its transcriptional regulator, estrogen-related nuclear receptor alpha (ERRα). Consequently, ERRα exhibits weakened binding to the MPC1 promoter. This outcome arises from the impaired interaction between ERRα and the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1-alpha (PGC-1α). Ultimately, this cascade results in diminished pyruvate influx into mitochondria and consequently reduced ATP production in tolerized macrophages. Exogenously added ATP in infected macrophages restores the transcript levels of *MPC1* and *ERR-α and* enhances cytokine production and intracellular bacterial clearance. Consistent with the *in vitro* findings, murine infection studies corroborate the 2-AA-mediated long-lasting decrease in ATP and acetyl-CoA and its association with *PA* persistence, further supporting this QS signaling molecule as the culprit of the host bioenergetic alterations and *PA* persistence. These findings unveil 2-AA as a modulator of cellular immunometabolism and reveal an unprecedent mechanism of host tolerance to infection involving the PGC-1α/ERRα axis in its influence on MPC1/OXPHOS-dependent energy production and *PA* clearance. These paradigmatic findings paving the way for developing treatments to bolster resilience to pathogen-induced damage. Given that QS is a common characteristic of prokaryotes, it is likely that 2-AA-like molecules with similar functions may be present in other pathogens.

Introduction

Host tolerance is a fundamental mechanism of innate immunity. Studies have shown that innate immune cells following infection or exposure to microbial products may enter a state of immune tolerance characterized by reduced responsiveness towards microbial re-exposure a few hours later [1-3]. Epigenetic and signaling-based mechanisms have been proposed to be involved in host immune tolerance [1-3]. In recent years, several reports have highlighted the complex interplay between metabolic reprogramming and immunity [4, 5]. It was suggested that specific metabolic programs are activated in monocytes and macrophages upon exposure to infection and microbial products [6, 7]. However, in host tolerance, the molecular mechanisms underlying immunometabolic reprogramming mediated by bacterial pathogens remain poorly understood.

Metabolic pathways are essential for generating energy for various cellular functions, including those performed by immune cells [8, 9]. Macrophages use metabolic pathways to generate energy and metabolites to adapt to changing environments and stimuli, thereby enabling them to cope with the needs of a fluctuating immune response [7, 10]. Thus, properly functioning metabolic pathways are vital for immune cells to counteract pathogens. For instance, the crucial energy-carrying molecule adenosine triphosphate (ATP) is required to phagocytose pathogen-derived molecules efficiently.

Pseudomonas aeruginosa (PA), a recalcitrant ESKAPE (*Enterococcus faecium, Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Acinetobacter baumannii, PA,* and *Enterobacter sp.*) pathogen that causes acute and persistent infections, secretes virulence-associated low molecular weight signaling molecules, several of which are regulated by quorum sensing (QS) [11-14] and able to modulate host immune responses [15-18]. QS is a cell density-dependent signaling system bacteria use to synchronize their activities [11-14]. MvfR (a.k.a. PqsR), a critical QS transcription factor of *PA,* regulates the synthesis of many small molecules, including signaling molecules such as 2-aminoacetophenone (2-AA) [11, 19-21]. *In vivo* studies have demonstrated that 2-AA enables *PA* to persist in infected murine

tissues by promoting innate immune tolerance through histone deacetylase 1 (HDAC1)-

mediated epigenetic reprogramming [17, 18]. 2-AA tolerization reprograms the host

inflammatory signaling cascade by maintaining chromatin in a "silent" state through increased

HDAC1 expression and activity and decreased histone acetyltransferase (HAT) activity [18].

These changes also impact the protein-protein interaction between HAT and cyclic AMP

response element-binding protein/HDAC1 and p50/p65 nuclear factor (NF)-κB subunits [18,

22]. The 2-AA-mediated tolerization permits *PA* to persist in infected tissues [17, 18]

underscoring the difference from lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-mediated tolerization, which

instead leads to bacterial clearance and involves different HDACs [23].

Mitochondria, the "powerhouse" of the cells, are crucial for the regulation,

differentiation, and survival of macrophages and other immune cells [8]. Our group's previous

in vivo and *in vitro* studies indicated that 2-AA affects metabolic functions in skeletal muscle,

which contains a high concentration of mitochondria [24-26]. Injection of 2-AA in murine

skeletal muscle dampens the expression of genes associated with OXPHOS and the master

regulator of mitochondrial biogenesis peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ coactivator-

1 beta (PGC-1β) [24]. Another *PA* QS molecule, 3-oxo-C12-HSL, attenuates the expression of

PGC-1α [27]. PGC-1α and PGC-1β belong to the PPARγ family of inducible transcriptional

coactivators and are known regulators of mitochondrial metabolism [28]. The coactivator PGC-

1 proteins are involved in various cellular energy metabolic processes [29, 30], including but

not limited to mitochondrial metabolism [31]. Recent studies have also emphasized the role of

estrogen-related nuclear receptor α (ERRα) in coordinating metabolic capacity with energy

demand in health and disease [32]. PGC-1α activates ERRα transcriptional activity through

protein-protein interaction, which enhances the expression of ERRα [33, 34] and other

mitochondrial genes involved in lipid metabolism and OXPHOS [35]. PGC-1α/ERRα axis has

been extensively studied in cancer and established as a central regulatory node of energy

metabolism that induces the global expression of genes involved in mitochondrial biogenesis

and functions [36-38]. ERRα has been shown to occupy the promoter regions of many genes

participating in the TCA cycle and OXPHOS [39, 40], including the mitochondrial pyruvate

carrier (MPC1). In human renal carcinoma cells, PGC-1α/ERRα interaction results in efficient

activation of MPC1 expression and transport of pyruvate into mitochondrion for efficient

OXPHOS and energy production [41].

Given that our previous studies pointed to the 2-AA effect on mitochondrial functions

[24-26] and that mitochondria are crucial for the regulation, differentiation, and survival of

macrophages and other immune cells [8] we investigated how 2-AA may mediate cellular

metabolic reprogramming in tolerized immune cells by examining the link between the PGC-

1α/ERRα axis and 2-AA-mediated immune tolerance. Our findings uncovered the crucial action

of 2-AA on energy homeostasis and metabolism in tolerized immune cells through

perturbances of the ERRα/PGC-1α interaction, MPC1-mediated pyruvate transport and the

production of the key energy metabolism molecules, ATP and acetyl-CoA and their association

with the persistence of *PA* in mammalian tissues.

Results

Tolerization by 2-AA impacts the generation of crucial energy metabolites in

macrophages

Following infection or exposure to microbial products, innate immune cells may enter

a state of tolerance several hours later, as depicted by their diminished responsiveness or

unresponsiveness to microbial re-exposure [1-3, 42]. Given that 2-AA tolerized cells are non-

responsive to 2-AA re-exposure, we investigated the impact of 2-AA on energy homeostasis

and metabolism in non-tolerized and tolerized BMDM cells (Fig. 1). We quantified the levels of

ATP and acetyl-CoA, which is a fuel for ATP production, in a series of *in vitro* experiments in

which murine BMDM cells were exposed to 2-AA (1st 2-AA exposure) or re-exposed (2nd 2-AA

exposure) to respectively determine their activation, and tolerance as well as memory to this

QS molecule (Fig. 1A). Initially, following the 1st 2-AA exposure (black bars), a significant

increase in the concentrations of intracellular ATP (Fig. 1B) and acetyl-CoA (Fig. 1C) was

observed in BMDM cells exposed to 2-AA for 1 and 6 h compared to their corresponding naïve

control cells (grey bars). However, cells exposed to 2-AA for 48 h (black bar) appeared to have

entered a state of tolerance as ATP and acetyl-CoA levels were decreased compared to 2-AA

exposures for a shorter time (Figs. 1B and 1C). The tolerance of these cells as well as their

memory to 2-AA was determined by their responsiveness to a 2nd 2-AA exposure (Fig. 1A). To

achieve this, these cells were washed to remove 2-AA and allowed to rest for 24 or 106 h in

the absence of 2-AA before receiving the 2nd 2-AA exposure for 1 or 6 h (Fig. 1A). Figures 1B

and 1C (red bars) show the unresponsiveness of BMDM cells to 2-AA re-exposure as

evidenced by the similar levels of ATP and acetyl-CoA compared to cells exposed to 2-AA for

48 h (1st exposure black bars). The sustained unresponsiveness of the cells to re-exposure

indicates that the cells exhibited innate immunological memory, which could not be reverted

by 2-AA re-exposure. Similar responsiveness patterns of ATP and acetyl-CoA as with BMDM

cells were observed in murine macrophage RAW 264.7 cells (Figs. S1A and S1B) or human

monocyte THP-1 cells (Figs. S1C and S1D) following exposure or re-exposure to 2-AA. These

findings further support our observations with BMDM cells and confirm that either cell type can

be used to study responses to 2-AA. These results reinforce the notion that 2-AA impacts

crucial energy metabolites in macrophages.

Moreover, we sought to determine whether 2-AA-tolerized BMDM cells would respond

to heterologous stimulus. To test this, we re-exposed the cells to lipopolysaccharide (LPS), an

outer membrane bacterial component that strongly induces macrophages. LPS re-exposure of

the 2-AA tolerized BMDM cells did not significantly ($p = 0.9$) increase ATP levels (Fig. S2),

indicating that 2-AA cross-tolerized the cells to this heterologous bacterial immunostimulant.

On the other hand, as expected, we observed increased ATP levels following LPS stimulation

of the non-tolerized BMDM cells (Fig. S2). The broad spectrum of 2-AA cross-tolerization

strongly suggests an interplay of epigenetic mechanism rather than ligand-receptor mediated

signaling-based mechanism in bringing out the observed 2-AA-mediated tolerance.

Tolerization by 2-AA leads to a quiescent state by reducing cell bioenergetics and

compromising OXPHOS.

To further investigate the 2-AA's impact on the bioenergetics of macrophages, we

assessed by Seahorse assay the oxygen consumption rate (OCR) as an index of OXPHOS

in 2-AA exposed (for 1 and 24 h) and re-exposed (2nd exposure for 1 h) BMDM cells (Fig. 1D).

Values of basal (Fig. 1E) and maximal (Fig. 1F) mitochondrial respiration and spare

respiratory capacity (Fig. S3) interpreted from these measurements revealed that 1 h 2-AA

exposure of naïve cells significantly increased OCR compared to naïve control cells. At 24 h

post-2-AA exposure, cells had a significantly reduced basal OCR level than the control BMDM

cells, indicating decreased OXPHOS and an overall quiescent phenotype of tolerized

macrophages. Re-exposure of tolerized macrophages with 2-AA also did not augment

maximal and basal OCR (Figs. 1D-1F), indicating the unresponsiveness of tolerized BMDM

cells.

These OCR data are consistent with previous direct measurements of ATP (Fig. 1B)

and acetyl-CoA (Fig. 1C) and support the notion that 2-AA tolerization induces a quiescent

phenotype in these cells characterized by defective OXPHOS. These findings confirm that 2-

AA mediates energy homeostatic and metabolic alterations in the immune cells and that 2-AA

tolerization arrests these cells in a sustained 2-AA-unresponsive state.

The pyruvate transport into mitochondria is decreased in tolerized macrophages.

Since acetyl-CoA and ATP levels were reduced due to 2-AA tolerization, we

investigated whether the mitochondrial dysfunction observed is related to pyruvate

metabolism. Pyruvate links glycolysis with mitochondrial production of acetyl-CoA and ATP *via*

the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle and OXPHOS [7]. RAW 264.7 cells initially exposed to 2-AA

for 1 or 3 h (black bars) exhibited significantly higher concentrations of cytosolic and mitochondrial pyruvate compared to the corresponding naïve control cells (Fig. 2A). Pyruvate significantly decreased over time in cytosolic and mitochondrial fractions as cells were entering into the tolerized state (Fig. 2A). Tolerized cells remain unresponsive to 2-AA re-exposure (red bars), exhibiting no significant change in the concentration of pyruvate in the cytosolic or mitochondrial fraction (Fig. 2A). A similar result was observed in THP-1 cells (Figs. S1E and S1F).

To gain a better understanding of the 2-AA-mediated reductions in mitochondrial pyruvate, ATP production, and acetyl-CoA levels, we sought to determine the involvement of the MPC1 [43] that is crucial in transporting pyruvate from the cytosol into the mitochondria [44]. Western blot studies of whole cell lysates of RAW 246.7 cells exposed to 2-AA showed a significant decrease over time in the abundance of MPC1 protein, and tolerized cells remain unresponsive to 2-AA re-exposure (Fig. 2B). Together these findings suggest that 2-AA tolerization dysregulates MPC1-mediated transport of the pyruvate into mitochondria.

2-AA tolerization suppresses ERRα binding to the *MPC1* promoter and the interaction between PGC-1α and ERRα

Given that the PGC-1α/ERRα axis is the transcriptional regulatory node that activates the expression of MPC1 [33] we determined the protein levels of ERRα. Western blot studies of whole cell lysates showed a significant decrease over time in the abundance of ERRα protein following 1st exposure of RAW 246.7 cells to 2-AA, while tolerized cells remain unresponsive to 2-AA re-exposure (Fig. 3A). By assessing the cytosolic and nuclear abundance of ERRα in tolerized cells we found that both fractions had lower levels of ERRα protein than their corresponding control cells (Fig. 3B).

Furthermore, because an ERRα binding putative DNA motif (TNAAGGTCA) has been identified upstream of the *MPC1* promoter in humans [43], and we found the same motif to be

present 1.5 kB upstream of the transcription start site of mouse *MPC1* promoter, we analyzed

if tolerization led to reduced ERRα binding to the *MPC1* promoter motif TNAAGGTCA.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay followed by qPCR analysis revealed that in

tolerized cells, ERRα binds approximately 4-fold less efficiently to the putative binding site on

the *MPC1* than in corresponding control cells (Fig. 3C).

Since the transcriptional activity of ERRα is regulated through a protein-protein

interaction with the transcriptional coactivator PGC-1α [33] we assessed whether the formation

of the PGC-1α/ERRα complex is affected in 2-AA tolerized cells. Using paraformaldehyde fixed

nuclear lysates of RAW 264.7 tolerized and naïve cells, we performed a co-

immunoprecipitation (co-IP) of PGC-1α and reverse co-IP with ERRα followed by

immunoblotting (Fig. 3D). As shown in Figure 3D less ERRα was detected when PGC-1α was

pulled down in presence of 2-AA than in naïve control cells. Moreover, reverse co-IP with ERRα

protein showed lower levels of PGC-1α in the presence of 2-AA than in naïve control cells (Fig.

3D). Control IgG showed no detectable levels of ERRα following nuclear fraction pull down.

These results indicate that in the tolerized macrophages, PGC-1α/ERRα interaction is impaired

(Fig. 3D).

Moreover, since PGC-1α enhances the transcriptional activity of ERRα through their

interaction, and ERRα transcription is regulated *via* an autoregulatory loop [34], we examined

the effect of tolerization on the transcription of *ERRα* and its target gene *MPC1*. Using RAW

264.7 cells infected with the wild type *PA* strain PA14 or isogenic Δ*mvfR* mutant, which does

not produce 2-AA [21] we observed lower RNA transcript levels of *MPC1* (Fig. 4A) and *ERRα*

(Fig. 4B) in PA14 compared to Δ*mvfR*. The addition of 2-AA to Δ*mvfR* decreased the levels of

both gene transcripts to t levels similar to the PA14 infection condition, supporting the role of

2-AA in effect. To test if the observed effects are due to MPC1-dependent reduction of

mitochondrial ATP generation, we supplemented the macrophages with ATP. The findings

indicate that the addition of ATP in PA14 infected cells elevated the transcript levels of both

ERRα and *MPC1*, but not in the Δ*mvfR* infected macrophages (Fig. 4A and 4B). These results

indicate that reduced MPC1 function is due to 2-AA tolerization on the transcriptional activation

of *MPC1* through the PGC-1α/ERRα axis.

2-AA tolerization impairs macrophage-mediated intracellular bacterial clearance

through decrease in MPC1-mediated pyruvate import, ATP, and TNF-α levels.

2-AA-mediates persistence of *PA in vivo,* dampens proinflammatory responses and

increases the intracellular burden of this pathogen in macrophages *via* epigenetic

modifications [17, 18, 26]. Here we used RAW 264.7 cells that were infected with the PA14 or

the 2-AA deficient Δ*mvfR* mutant to assess the clearance of *PA* by macrophages.

Macrophages infected with PA14 showed increased bacterial burden than the cells infected

with Δ*mvfR,* and 2-AA addition to Δ*mvfR* led to increased bacterial burden (Fig. 4C).

Furthermore, we used UK5099 and ATP to interrogate whether MPC1 mediated mitochondrial

pyruvate import and bioenergetics are linked to the clearance of *PA* intracellular burden. The

addition of the UK5099 inhibitor strongly enhanced the bacterial intracellular burden in Δ*mvfR*

infected macrophages compared to the non-inhibited cells (Fig. 4C). UK5099 had no effect on

the PA14 burden in macrophages. Conversely, exogenously added ATP to macrophages

infected with PA14 strongly reduced the *PA* intracellular burden (Fig. 4C).

Given that 2-AA tolerization decreases the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokine

TNF-α by hypo-acetylating the core histone 3 lysine 18 acetylation (H3K18ac) mark at TNF-α

promoter [18], we investigated the link between bioenergetics and TNF-α expression in

infected macrophages. UK5099, or ATP was added exogenously to infected macrophages with

PA14 or Δ*mvfR* (Fig. 4D). As shown in Figure 4D, PA14 infected cells showed lower TNF-α

transcript levels compared to the Δ*mvfR* infected cells. Supplementation of 2-AA to Δ*mvfR*

infected cells led to a decrease in the TNF-α transcript levels. Moreover, the addition of the

MPC1 inhibitor, UK5099 in Δ*mvfR* infected counteracted the increase in TNF-α transcript

levels, while had no effect in PA14 infected macrophages (Fig. 4D). Conversely, exogeneous

addition of ATP to PA14 infected cells enhanced the transcription of TNF-α compared to the

untreated PA14 infected cells, while no changes in TNF-α expression levels were observed in

Δ*mvfR* infected macrophages in presence of absence of ATP (Fig. 4D).These findings strongly

suggest that 2-AA tolerization severely alters macrophages' ability to facilitate the clearance of

PA intracellular burden, *via* the reduction in MPC1-mediated pyruvate import into mitochondria,

ATP levels and TNF-α transcription.

***In vivo* studies corroborate the 2-AA-mediated decrease *in vitro* of the central metabolic**

fuel acetyl-CoA and the energy-carrying molecule ATP and their association with *PA*

persistence.

To determine whether the decrease in the key metabolites mediated by 2-AA is also

observed *in vivo* during infection, we quantified the levels of ATP and acetyl-CoA in murine

spleen tissues at 1, 5, and 10 days (Fig. 5). This organ was selected for our immunometabolic

studies due to its role in regulating not only local but also systemic (whole-body) immune

responses, facilitated by various immune cells including macrophages [45]. Mice were infected

with *PA* strain PA14, or isogenic mutant Δ*mvfR,* which does not produce 2-AA [21]. It is

important to note that it is not possible to generate or utilize a bacterial mutant that is defective

in 2-AA only because 2-AA is formed by spontaneous decarboxylation rather than by an

enzyme-catalyzed reaction [46-48]. Therefore, animals that were either infected with Δ*mvfR*

and received 2-AA (Δ*mvfR*+2-AA) at the time of infection or uninfected mice injected with a

single dose of 2-AA served as direct controls (Fig. 5). Naïve and sham mice groups served as

additional basal controls (Fig. 5).

Infection with PA14 or uninfected mice injected with 2-AA led to a significant decrease

in both ATP (Fig. 5A) and acetyl-CoA (Fig. 5B) concentrations in spleen tissues compared to

Δ*mvfR* infected mice that sustained higher ATP and acetyl-CoA levels similar to naïve and

sham control groups across the time points tested. However, in mice infected with Δ*mvfR* and

2-AA injected *(ΔmvfR+2-AA)* at the time of infection, ATP and acetyl-CoA concentrations in the

spleen decreased to levels comparable to those of PA14-infected animals, strongly indicating

the biological function of 2-AA in decreasing these key metabolites. These *in vivo* findings

further support the adverse action of 2-AA on host energy homeostasis and metabolism

observed *in vitro* studies.

The metabolic alterations observed are associated with the host tolerance to *PA*

persistence (Fig. 5C). Using *Pseudomonas* isolation agar plates, we evaluated the bacterial

load at the infection site over the course of 10 days, obtaining samples at 1, 5, and 10 days.

At one day post-infection, mice infected with PA14, *ΔmvfR,* or *ΔmvfR+2-AA* exhibited no

difference in bacterial burden (Fig. 5C), verifying the ability of all strains to establish infection.

At 5- and 10-days post-infection, mice infected with PA14 or *ΔmvfR+2-AA* sustained the

bacterial burden at a significantly higher bacterial burden over time compared to those infected

with *ΔmvfR* (Fig. 5C). These results are consistent with our previous findings [17, 18] and

provide compelling evidence that the metabolic alterations identified may favor *PA* persistence

in infected tissues.

Discussion

The *PA* signaling molecule 2-AA that is abundantly produced and secreted in human tissues

[21, 22] is the first QS molecule that epigenetically reprograms immune functions, promotes

immune tolerance, and sustains *PA's* presence in host tissues [17, 18, 22, 26]. The present

study provides insights into the mechanistic actions of 2-AA on cellular metabolism that

contribute to host immune tolerance to *PA* persistence. We uncover that this signaling

molecule causes distinct metabolic alterations in macrophages' mitochondrial respiration and

energy production promoted via the PGC-1α/ERRα axis and MPC1-dependent OXPHOS that

links the TCA cycle to the production of ATP and energy homeostasis (Fig. 6). Our results show

that 2-AA tolerization decreases ATP the crucial energy metabolite and the histone acetylation

metabolite acetyl-CoA and *in vivo*, implicating the importance of the key energy-producing

mitochondrial process in immune tolerance. Although macrophages respond to the first

exposure to 2-AA by enhancing ATP and acetyl-CoA production, long-term exposure to 2-AA

leads to a tolerized state characterized by sustained reduced ATP and acetyl-CoA

concentrations, a quiescent bioenergetic state with reduced mitochondrial pyruvate uptake and

unresponsiveness to a 2nd exposure.

Our results reveal that the decrease of ATP and acetyl-CoA in tolerized macrophages

results from the 2-AA-mediated perturbation of the physical interaction between ERRα and

PGC-1α. The PGC-1α/ERRα axis has not previously been implicated in tolerization but has

been extensively studied in cancer, underscoring the novelty of our findings. Studies in cancer

cells have shown that the physical interaction of human ERRα with PGC-1α strongly enhances

the binding of ERRα to DNA to induce the activation of the targeted genes [33] including *MPC1,*

responsible for the import of cytosolic pyruvate into mitochondria and PDH, that catalyzes the

conversion of pyruvate to acetyl-CoA in mitochondria. Inhibition of ERRα has been shown in

cancer cell metabolism studies to interfere with pyruvate entry in mitochondria by inhibiting the

expression of MPC1 [49]. Indeed, we find that the transcription of *ERRα* and *MPC1* genes

and pyruvate uptake into mitochondria is reduced in tolerized macrophages. Given that

pyruvate is a primary carbon source in the TCA cycle that fuels OXPHOS and the production

of ATP into mitochondria, it explains the reduced ATP and acetyl-CoA levels observed in

tolerized macrophages. Future studies will focus on unveiling the pathways by which

macrophages respond to the bioenergetic changes identified and decipher their effect on the

pyruvate cycle in host tolerance to infection [50-52].

We show that the unprecedented action of a QS bacterial small signaling molecule on

the interaction between ERRα and PGC-1α in the nucleus is hampered. Although it remains to

be elucidated whether 2-AA interferes directly or indirectly with the PGC-1α/ERRα axis, our

data bring up the possibility that the reduced production of acetyl-CoA may be responsible,

since cholesterol is a known coactivator/ligand of ERRα [53], is generated from acetyl-CoA [53]. This possibility may also explain the reduced expression of *ERRα* and its lower abundance since cholesterol is also required for its activation and autoregulation. However, it is also possible that 2-AA may antagonize the interaction between ERRα and PGC-1α by binding to ERRα. Small molecules as antagonist of ERRα have been reported previously [54]. The weaker binding of ERRα to the *MPC1* promoter site, and consequently reduced MPC1 expression explains the reduced pyruvate presence in mitochondria and that of ATP and mitochondrial quiescence.

The observed cellular metabolic perturbances also align with our previous studies in skeletal muscle, which pointed to mitochondrial dysfunction triggered by 2-AA [24, 25]. Interestingly, the *PA* QS LasR-regulated homoserine lactone molecule, 3-oxo-C12-HSL, was reported to attenuate the expression of PGC-1α and decrease the mitochondrial respiratory capacity in lung epithelial cells [27]. Moreover, another *PA* QS molecule PQS also regulated by LasR was recently shown to induce organelle stress, including mitochondria, by disrupting the mitochondrial membrane potential in human macrophages [55]. As opposed to 2-AA, which dampens the pro-inflammatory response, PQS increases proinflammatory cytokines [55], consistent with the fact that PQS is an acute infection type molecule unrelated to chronic/persistent infections.

Previously, we reported that 2-AA tolerization induces HDAC1 expression and activity, reducing H3K18ac at the TNF-α promoter [18]. The findings with TNF-α transcription using UK5099 and ATP in 2-AA treated macrophages are in support of the bioenergetics disturbances observed in macrophages and their link to epigenetic modifications we have shown to be promoted by 2-AA [18]. Macrophages exposed to 2-AA in the presence of exogenous ATP showed improved intracellular bacterial clearance and enhanced TNF-α levels, supporting the epigenetic interconnection of macrophages and cellular ATP responsiveness levels against infection. The exogenous addition of UK5099 that reverted the

efficiency of the *mvfR* infected macrophages to clear the *PA* intracellular burden and the

counteraction to the 2-AA effect by ATP addition that increases the clearance of *PA* intracellular

burden support the importance of this energy-carrying molecule in *PA* persistence.

The results with the MPC1 inhibitor, UK5099, suggest that the availability of pyruvate

could underlie the mechanism of 2-AA-regulated HDAC/HAT-dependent control of transcription

of pro-inflammatory mediators and bacterial clearance [56]. These results align with our

previous findings, showing that establishing bacterial intracellular burden in macrophages is

HDAC1 dependent [56]. It remains to be elucidated if HDAC/HAT-mediated histone

modification directly regulates expression of OXPHOS genes in 2-AA tolerized macrophages

as it was shown that histone deacetylation downregulates OXPHOS in persistent *M.*

tuberculosis infection [57, 58]. Given the complexity of 2-AA-mediated long-term effects, future

omics studies combined with immune profiling may aid in deciphering the possible network of

co-factors across different subpopulations of immune cells and the immunometabolic

reprogramming related to 2-AA.

We have shown that although 2-AA tolerization leads to a remarkable increase in the

survival rate of infected mice, it permits an HDAC1-dependent sustained presence of *PA* in

mice tissues and intracellularly in macrophages [17, 18, 22, 26]. Here, we use 2-AA-producing

and isogenic non-producing *PA* strains to confirm the 2-AA-mediated decrease in the central

metabolite acetyl-CoA and the energy-carrying molecule ATP during infection. These murine

infection studies provide strong evidence of the 2-AA biological relevance in reducing these

metabolites *in vivo*. Taking together our previous and current *in vivo* findings provide

compelling evidence that the metabolic alterations identified favor *PA* persistence in infected

tissues.

That 2-AA permits *PA* to persist in infected tissues despite rescuing the survival of

infected mice underscores its difference from that of LPS tolerization, which results in bacterial

clearance [23] *via* the mechanism that relies on a set of different HDAC enzymes. LPS

tolerization predominantly involves changes in H3K27 acetylation [59], while 2-AA tolerization

involves H3K18 modifications [22]. The 2-AA-mediated effects reported here are also distinct

from the epigenetic-metabolic reprogramming mediated by LPS [60], which promotes

endotoxin tolerance in immune cells by upregulating glycolysis and suppressing OXPHOS [61].

Although 2-AA and LPS implicate different components and lead to different outcomes both

involve epigenetic mechanisms and immune memory.

Metabolic reprogramming upon infection may be pathogen-specific, with each

pathogen impacting specific metabolic pathways that better fit its respective metabolic needs

[7]. This was shown for infections of various tissues with *Chlamydia pneumonia*, *Legionella*

pneumophila, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, and *Salmonella* [62-65] and, by our group, for *PA*

infections [17, 18, 24]. It would be interesting, however, to test whether 2-AA affects the killing

efficacy of macrophages against other pathogens, as emerging evidence shows that

synergistic or antagonistic interactions between clinically relevant microorganisms and host

have important implications for polymicrobial infectious diseases [66].

While in this study, we focused on the role of ERRα mainly in pyruvate metabolism,

future studies are needed to reveal other ERRα/PGC-1α axis-dependent metabolic and

immune pathways are modulated by 2-AA. In this view, the cholesterol synthesis pathway that

relies on acetyl-CoA precursor, as cholesterol is a known coactivator/ligand of ERRα [53] and

fatty acid catabolism, generating acetyl-CoA, and PGC-1α regulates fatty acid oxidation [67].

This study unveils the unprecedented actions of a QS bacterial molecule in

orchestrating cellular metabolic reprogramming in addition to the epigenetic reprogramming

reported previously also shown to promote a long-lasting presence of *PA* in the host [17, 18,

26]. That 2-AA cross-tolerized macrophages to LPS corroborates our previous findings on the

implication of epigenetic mechanism [18] rather than ligand-receptor mediated signaling-based

mechanism, and raises the possibility that this QS molecule may confer non-specific cross

protection. An aspect we plan to investigate in the future. The reported immunometabolic

reprogramming contributes to a better understanding of the molecular and cellular

mechanisms, biomarkers, and functional significance that may be involved in immune

tolerance to persistent infection, providing for designing and developing innovative

therapeutics and interventions. These approaches can focus on promoting host resilience

against bacterial burden and safeguarding patients from recalcitrant persistent infections.

Materials & Methods

Ethics statement

The animal protocol was approved by the Institutional Animal-Care and Use Committee

(IACUC) of Massachusetts General Hospital (protocol no. 2006N000093). No randomization

or exclusion of data points was applied.

Conditions used for the exposures of the cells to 2-AA

Mouse BMDM cells were isolated from femur of CD1 6 weeks old male and female mice and

used to estimate the levels of various metabolites (Fig. 2A) following exposure and re-exposure

to 2-AA (Fig. 1A). The 1st exposure of naïve BMDMs (10^6/mL in 6-well plates) was achieved

with 400 µM 2-AA for 1, 6, or 48 h. Cells exposed for 48 h were used for the 2nd 2-AA exposure.

These cells were washed to remove residual 2-AA, left in the medium in the absence of 2-AA

for either 24 or 106 h, and re-exposed to 2-AA (200 µM) for 1 or 6 h, respectively. For RAW

264.7 (10^6/mL in 6-well plates) and THP-1 cells (10^6/mL in 6-well plates) the 2-AA concentration

and conditions used were as with BMDM cells. The hours of the 1st round and 2nd round of

exposure to 2-AA are indicated in Figure S1.

For the LPS stimulation studies, cells were stimulated with 400 µM 2-AA or 100 ng/mL LPS for

6 h, and 800 µM of 2-AA for 48 h. Cells receiving 1st exposure for 48 h were washed and re-

exposed to 400 µM of 2-AA or 100 ng/mL LPS for 6 h.

ATP and acetyl-CoA quantifications

The levels of ATP, acetyl-CoA, and were assessed in BMDM and RAW264.7 macrophage cells following exposure to 2-AA at the times indicated and by utilizing the ATP Assay kit (cholorimetric/fluorometric) (#ab83355, Abcam) and the PicoProbe AcCoA assay kit (ab87546, Abcam), respectively, according to the manufacturer's instruction. Quantifications of ATP and acetyl-CoA were performed in triplicates.

ATP: For ATP determination, macrophages were lysed and subsequently centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 10 min at 4 °C. The supernatants were transferred to a fresh Eppendorf tube. Standards and cell supernatants of 50 μL were added to a 96-well plate suitable for fluorescent analysis (black sides, clear bottom). A reaction mixture containing an ATP converter, probe, buffer, and developer mix was then added to all wells (50 μL) and incubated away from light at room temperature for 30 min. ATP quantification was conducted fluorometrically at 535/587 nm using a plate reader and the following settings: $\lambda ex = 535$ nm; $\lambda em = 587$ nm. Fluorescence was measured using a microplate reader (Tecan Group Ltd, Männedorf, Switzerland)

Acetyl-CoA: Acetyl-CoA content was assessed by first deproteinizing total cell fractions of macrophages using the perchloric acid and then centrifuging at 14,000 rpm for 10 min at 4 °C. 50 μL of cells' supernatant sample CoASH were quenched to correct the background generated by free CoASH. Following the homogenization procedure described above, the samples were diluted with the reaction mix, and fluorescence was quantified using a plate reader and the settings as above with ATP.

Seahorse Assays

Seahorse analysis was performed according to previously published protocols [68]. Briefly, freshly prepared BMDM cells were reseeded in complete RPMI-1640 cells using Seahorse plates (Agilent cat. no. 103729100) at a density of 5×10^4 cells per well. Cells were exposed to 400 μM 2-AA for 1 h or 24 hours (1st exposure). Cells receiving 1st exposure for 24 h were

washed and re-exposed to 200 µM of 2-AA for 1 h. Naïve cells were used as control. Prior to

initiating Seahorse measurements cells were washed and Seahorse XF DMEM supplemented

with 2 mM glutamine (Gibco cat. No. 25030-081) was added to each well. Cells were allowed

to stabilize in a 37°C incubator without CO_2 for 1 h. The Seahorse cartridge was hydrated and

calibrated as per the manufacturer's instructions. The Mitochondrial stress test kit (Agilent cat.

no. 10395-100) was used (oligomycin at 1 µM, FCCP (1.5 µM), rotenone (0.5 µM), and

antimycin A at (0.5 µM)) with slight modifications according to the published protocol [68] that

included injection of 25 mM glucose, and sodium pyruvate (1 µM). All samples N= 4 were run

in a Seahorse XFe96 Analyzer, and data were analyzed using Wave and plotted using

GraphPad Prism software.

Isolation of cytosolic and mitochondrial fraction and pyruvate quantification

Pyruvate is produced in the cytosol and is transported into the mitochondria. RAW 264.7 cells

were plated at 1×10^6 to incubate overnight at 37°C in a CO_2 incubator. Cells were exposed to

2-AA for 1, 3, 24 or 48 h or re-exposed for 1 h as described above. Mitochondria and cytosolic

fractions of each group were isolated utilizing the Mitochondria Isolation Kit for cultured cells

(#ab110170, Abcam) following the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, cells were collected with a

cell lifter and pelleted by centrifugation at 1,000 g, frozen, and then thawed to weaken the cell

membranes. The cells were resuspended in Reagent A and transferred into a pre-cooled

Dounce Homogenizer. The homogenates were centrifuged at 1,000 *g* for 10 min at 4°C and

saved as supernatant #1 for the cytosolic fractions. The pellet was resuspended in Reagent B,

followed by repeat rupturing and centrifugation. The pellet was collected and resuspended in

500 µL of Reagent C supplemented with Protease Inhibitor cocktails (P8340, Sigma Aldrich).

Following separation, a Bradford assay was conducted to determine the protein concentration

in each fraction. Pyruvate levels were determined in cellular fractions and mitochondrial

fractions by using the Pyruvate Assay Kit (#ab65342, Abcam) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. Briefly, after deproteinization using perchloric acid, the samples were neutralized

in ice-cold 2 M KOH. 10 µL samples were incubated with reaction mix and kept on the plate at RT for 30 min in the dark. The absorbance was measured in a microplate reader (Tecan Group Ltd, Männedorf, Switzerland) at 570 nm and results are shown from three independent experiments.

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The *PA* strain known as Rif[R] human clinical isolate UCBPP-PA14 (also known as PA14) was used [69]. The bacteria were grown at 37 °C in lysogeny broth (LB) under shaking and aeration or on LB agar plates containing appropriate antibiotics. PA14 and isogenic mutant Δ*mvfR* [19] cultures were grown in LB from a single colony to an optical density of 600 nm (OD_{600}) of 1.5, diluted 1:50,000,000 in fresh LB media, and grown overnight to an OD_{600} of 3.0.

Gentamicin protection assay

RAW264.7 macrophage cells were plated on 6 well cell culture-treated plates overnight in pyruvate free DMEM. After 3 h of incubation with 10 µM UK5099, 20 µM ATP or 400 µM 2-AA, cells were infected with PA14 and isogenic mutant Δ*mvfR* at 5 MOI for 30 min at 37 °C in 5% CO_2. Unbound bacteria were removed by washing once with cold DMEM medium. Afterwards, the cells were incubated with 100 µg/ml of gentamicin for 30 min to eliminate residual extracellular bacteria. The cells were washed with DMEM and transferred to free medium without gentamicin and kept for 3 h at 37°C in 5% CO_2. The infected cells were scraped after 3 h, centrifuged at 500 × g, and lysed in distilled water. The lysed cells were immediately diluted in PBS and plated on LB agar plates to assess bacterial presence. Bacterial colony-forming units (CFUs) were counted after incubating the plates overnight at 37°C.Untreated cells infected with PA14 were set as 100 % and the reduction of Bacterial load was expressed as %CFU.

Pharmacological inhibitors and ATP supplementations

For the OXPHOS inhibition assay, RAW264.7 macrophage cells were treated with UK5099 (10

µM, Sigma-Aldrich, dissolved in DMSO 3 h prior to 1st or 2nd rounds of 2-AA exposure.

RAW264.7 macrophages supplemented with ATP (20 µM, Sigma-Aldrich, dissolved in PBS)

received ATP at the time of 1st and 2nd 2-AA exposure.

Co-Immunoprecipitation assay

For all immunoprecipitation assays, protein A/G agarose Magnetic beads (Pierce) were used

after washing in 1X IP buffer. Nuclear lysates from RAW 264.7 tolerized cells exposed to 2-AA

for 24 h or non-exposed cells were diluted in 1X IP buffer and 500 µg of protein was taken for

each experiment. The lysates were precleared by using unbound 50 µl protein A/G magnetic

beads for 2 h at room temperature on a rotator. Precleared lysates were either incubated with

ERRα, PGC-1α or rabbit IgG antibody overnight at 4 °C. 100 µl protein A/G magnetic beads

were used to pull down the antibody-protein complex and washed twice with IP buffer to

remove unbound proteins. Magnetic beads were then eluted in 2X Laemmli SDS-PAGE

loading buffer. Immunoprecipitated ERRα and PGC-1α was detected by Western blot

analyses, using conformational specific Anti Rabbit antibody (TruBlot)**.**

Immunoblotting analysis

Cells were plated at 6×10^5 cells per well in six-well plates. Cells were washed with PBS and

subsequently lysed using RIPA lysis buffer containing 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride

(PMSF). 20µg of proteins were separated by electrophoresis on any KD (Kilo Dalton) (Bio-

Rad, Cat no. 4569033) SDS-polyacrylamide gel. Proteins were transferred to a 0.2 µm

polyvinylidene fluoride membrane (PVDF, Millipore, Billerica, USA) using a Bio-Rad semi-dry

instrument. After blocking with 5% BSA in TBS containing 0.1% Tween-20 for 1 h at room

temperature, the membranes were incubated with a primary antibody ERR-a (Abcam,

#ab76228), MPC1 (D2L91, Cell signaling), and anti-β-actin (cat no: sc-47778) (Santa Cruz

Biotechnology) overnight at 4°C. Following washing, the membranes were incubated with an

anti-rabbit secondary antibody, and the bands were detected by SuperSignal West Pico

Chemiluminescent Substrate (Thermo Scientific) reaction, according to the manufacturer's

instructions. The blots were visualized in the ChemiDOC Imaging system (Bio-Rad

Laboratories, Inc., Hercules, CA, USA). The bands were analyzed densitometrically using

QuantityOne software (Bio-Rad).

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) and ChIP-qPCR

For ChIP studies, RAW264.7 macrophage cells exposed to 2-AA for 24 h were cross-linked in

1% (v/v) methanol-free formaldehyde for 10 min and then placed in 0.125 M glycine for 5 min

at RT. Using the truChIP High Cell Chromatin Shearing kit (Covaris, United States), cells were

prepared for sonication according to the Covaris protocol. Approximately 1×10^7 cells were

plated in a 12 mm × 12 mm tube and subjected to shearing with the Covaris S220 sonicator for

8 min (140 peak power, 5 duty factor, 200 cycles/burst). The Magna ChIP A/G kit (Millipore,

United States) was used for the subsequent immunoprecipitations according to the

manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, chromatin from approximately 10^6 cells was incubated

overnight at 4°C with 2 µg of anti-ERRα or anti-PGC-1α (Abcam, USA) ChIP-grade antibody

and 20 µL of A/G magnetic beads. The beads were washed serially (5 min each) with low-salt

wash buffer, high-salt wash buffer, LiCl wash buffer, and TE buffer from the kit at 4°C.

Chromatin was eluted with elution buffer containing Proteinase K at 62°C for 4 h, then

incubated at 95°C for 10 min. DNA was isolated by column purification (QIAquick PCR

purification kit).

Real-time ChIP-qPCR was performed with the Brilliant II SYBR green super mix (Agilent, USA).

Forward (AGTGGTGACCTTGAACTTCCC) and reverse (CTGAAGACGACCTTCCCCTT)

primers were chosen to amplify a genomic locus of *MPC1* promoter which had a putative ERR

binding site (TNAAGGTCA) at 1582 bp upstream of the start site. Normalized values were

calculated by the percent-input method relative to the IgG. The assay was performed three

times.

RNA extraction and RT-qPCR

Total RNA from all the groups mentioned above was isolated from approximately 2×10^6 cells with the RNeasy minikit (Qiagen, USA), and cDNA was prepared with the iScript Reverse transcription kit (Bio-Rad, USA), as per the manufacturer's instruction. Real-time PCR was conducted using the PowerUP SYBR green Master mix (Applied Biosystem, USA) and primer sets for mouse ERR-α (forward: ACTACGGTGTGGCATCCTGTGA; reverse: GGTGATCTCACACTCATTGGAGG), MPC-1 (forward: CTCCAGAGATTATCAGTGGGCG; reverse: GAGCTACTTCGTTTGTTACATGGC), TNF-α (forward: GGTGCCTATGTCTCAGCCTCTT; reverse: GCCATAGAACTGATGAGAGGGAG) and mouse 18S rRNA (forward: GTTCCGACCATAAACGATGCC; reverse: TGGTGGTGCCCTTCCGTCAAT). The transcript levels of all the genes were normalized to 18S rRNA with the ΔΔCT method. The relative expression was calculated by normalizing transcript levels to those of PA14 Infected cells. The assay was conducted in triplicate; means and standard deviations were calculated for each group.

Animal infection and metabolites assessment experiments

The full-thickness thermal burn injury and infection (BI) model [17, 18, 70] was used to assess the effect of 2-AA on metabolic alterations in the spleens of six-week-old CD1 male mice and bacterial burden (Charles River Labs, USA). A full-thickness thermal burn injury involving 5-8% of the total body surface area was produced on the shaved mouse abdomen dermis, and an inoculum of ~1 × 10^4 PA14 and Δ*mvfR* [19] cells in 100 μL of $MgSO_4$ (10 mM) was injected intradermally into the burn eschar. For the groups that received 2-AA, mice were injected intraperitoneally (IP) with 100 μL of 2-AA (6.75 mg/kg). The entire procedure was done under the influence of anesthesia. One of the groups of mice infected with the PA14 isogenic mutant Δ*mvfR* [19] also received 100 μL of 2-AA in PBS (6.75 mg/kg) at the time of infection (Δ*mvfR* +2-AA) and served as an additional control. CFU counts from rectus abdominus muscle (underlying the burn-infected tissue) were assessed in groups of 4 mice each at 1, 5, and 10

d post-BI by plating diluted muscle homogenate on Pseudomonas isolation agar (Sigma-

Aldrich) plates containing rifampicin (50 mg/L). Spleen samples from mice were collected for

metabolite analyses from all mice groups at 1, 5, and 10 d post-BI to assess ATP (#ab83355

Abcam) and acetyl-CoA (#ab87546, Abcam) as described above. Tissues were homogenized,

and 100 mg of homogenate was centrifuged at 4°C for 15 min at 10,000 g, and supernatants

were collected. The supernatant was mixed with 400 μL of 1 M perchloric acid. The

deproteinized supernatant was neutralized by 3 M $KHCO_3$. The ATP and acetyl-CoA assays

were performed as described in the *in vitro* section.

Acknowledgments and Funding sources

We thank Dr. Vamsi Mootha and Sneha Rath for access and help with the Seahorse

instrument, respectively. This work was supported by the NIH award R01AI134857, The John

Lawrence Massachusetts General Hospital Research Scholar Award and Shriner's grant

83009 to L.G.R., and the Shriner's grant 85132 to A.A.T. The funders had no role in the study

design, data collection, analysis, decision to publish, or manuscript preparation.

Figures

Figure 1

630 **Figure 2**

634 **Figure 3**

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

647 **Figure S1**

650 **Figure S2**

Figure S3

Figure Legends

Figure 1. 2-AA tolerization decreases crucial metabolites of cellular energy and affects mitochondrial respiration in mouse BMDM. (A) Schematic representation showing experimental design: naïve cells were exposed to 2-AA for 1, 6, or 48 h (black). Cells exposed to 2-AA (400 µM) for 48 h were washed, rested for 24 or 106 h, and re-exposed (200 µM) for 1 or 6 h (red), respectively. The same color code: black: cells after 1st exposure; red: cells after 2nd exposure, was kept throughout the manuscript with corresponding controls in grey and pink, respectively. The levels of (B) ATP and (C) acetyl-CoA in BMDM cells after 1st and 2nd 2-AA exposure. (D) Real-time oxygen consumption rate (OCR) traces were recorded using a Seahorse XF analyzer and normalized to protein content. Cells were exposed to 2-AA for 1 or 24 h (black), washed and rested for 24 h and re-exposed for 1 h (red). Mitochondrial respiratory parameters, (E) basal respiration, and (F) maximal respiration. Data are presented as mean ± SD, n ≥ 4, *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, and ns indicates no significant difference. One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test was applied.

Figure 2. 2-AA perturbs the mitochondrial MPC1-mediated import and metabolism of pyruvate. (A) Cytosolic and mitochondrial pyruvate levels following 2-AA exposure (black) or re-exposure (red) and corresponding controls in grey and pink respectively, for indicated time points. (B) Representative Western blot and results of densitometric analysis of MPC1 protein levels following 2-AA exposure or re-exposure for indicated time points. β-actin was used as a control. Corresponding controls are shown in grey or pink, respectively. Mean ± SD is shown, $n = 3$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$, and ns indicates no significant difference. One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test was applied.

Figure 3: 2-AA-mediated macrophage tolerization deranges PGC-1α/ERRα-dependent metabolic programing. (A) Representative Western blot and results of densitometric analysis of ERRα protein levels following 2-AA exposure or re-exposure for indicated time points. β-

actin was used as a control. (B) Western blots and its corresponding densitometric analysis of

ERRα in cytoplasmic or nuclear lysates of tolerized macrophages exposed to 2-AA for 24 h or

not exposed to 2-AA. (C) ChIP-qPCR assay of ERRα binding at the MPC1 promoter in RAW

264.7 tolerized macrophages exposed to 2-AA (200 μM) for 24 h (black) compared to untreated

control macrophages (grey). IgG served as a negative control (D) Representative Western blot

of co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP) studies of ERRα and PGC-1α in nuclear extracts of 2-AA

tolerized (24 h) and control RAW 264.7 cells. Pull down with IgG served as a negative control.

2-AA tolerized macrophages are shown in black, and untreated control macrophages in grey.

Mean ± SD in shown, n ≥ 3, *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ****$p < 0.0001$, and ns indicates no significant

difference. One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test was applied.

Figure 4: Increased intracellular burden in macrophages is associated with decreased

expression of *MPC1, ERR-α,* and *TNF-α genes*. Real-time PCR analysis of *MPC1* (A) and

ERR-α (B) expression in RAW 246.7 macrophages infected with PA14 or *ΔmvfR* in the

presence or absence of exogenous addition of 2-AA or ATP for 6 h as indicated. Transcript

levels were normalized to 18srRNA. PA14 infected cells served as controls. (C) Intracellular

burden of PA14 or *ΔmvfR* of infected macrophages in the presence or absence of exogenous

addition of 2-AA, UK5099, or ATP. Untreated cells infected with PA14 were set as 100%. D)

Real-time PCR analysis of TNF-α expression in RAW 246.7 macrophages infected with PA14

or *ΔmvfR* in the presence or absence of exogenous addition of 2-AA, ATP, or UK5099.

Transcript levels were normalized to 18srRNA. PA14 infected cells served as controls. The

compound concentration used for UK5099 was 10 μM and ATP 20 μM. Mean ± SD is shown,

n = 3, * $p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$***, and ns indicates no significant

difference. One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test was applied.

Figure 5. 2-AA promotes a long-lasting decrease in ATP and acetyl-CoA levels and

bacterial persistence in *PA*-infected mice. (A) ATP and (B) acetyl-CoA concentrations in the

spleens of mice infected with *PA* wild type (PA14), the isogenic mutant Δ*mvfR*, Δ*mvfR* injected with 2-AA at the time of infection (Δ*mvfR* + 2-AA), or non-infected but injected with 2-AA (6.75 mg/kg). (C) Bacterial burden in muscles expressed as CFU count was analyzed using the Kruskal–Wallis non-parametric test with Dunn's post-test; ***$p < 0.001$, and ns indicates no significant difference. Control mice groups: naïve were not given 2-AA; mice receiving 2-AA were given a single intraperitoneal injection of 2-AA; sham represents a burn/PBS group since the burn and infection model was used. Results of three independent replicates with 4 mice per group for 1, 5, and 10 d are shown. Means ± SD are shown, *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, and ns indicate no significant difference. One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test was applied.

Figure 6: Proposed mechanism by which 2-AA impairs bioenergetics through the inhibition of MPC1-mediated pyruvate transport into mitochondria and its impact on the PGC-1α/ERRα axis. 2-AA tolerized macrophages exhibit diminished pyruvate levels in mitochondria due to the decreased expression of *MPC1*, a consequence of the 2-AA impact on the interaction of ERRα with the transcriptional coactivator PGC-1α for the effective transcription of ERRα, since ERRα controls its own transcription and that of MPC1. In the presence of 2-AA, the weakened interaction between ERRα and PGC-1α results in reduced expression of MPC1 and ERRα. The reduction in mitochondrial pyruvate levels leads to decreased acetyl-CoA and ATP levels, which modulate HDAC1- and HAT-catalyzed remodeling of H3K18 acetylation. The diminished levels of this epigenetic mark have previously been associated with an increased intracellular presence of bacteria in macrophages, as demonstrated by our group [18]. Pathways, proteins, and metabolites that are negatively affected are indicated in red, while positively affected are denoted in black. The figure was created using BioRender.com.

Figure S1. 2-AA tolerization decreases metabolites in murine RAW 264.7 (A-B) and human

THP-1 (C-D) cells. (A and C) ATP, (B and D) acetyl-CoA and (E) cytosolic and (F) mitochondrial

pyruvate levels were quantified in 2-AA (400 μM) exposed and re-exposed cells for the hours

indicated using the same condition as shown in Fig. 1A. Mean ± SD is shown (n = 3); *** $p <$

0.001, and ns indicates no significant difference. One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post

hoc test was applied. The same color code: black, cells after 1st exposure; red, cells after 2nd

exposure was kept as throughout the main manuscript with corresponding controls shown in

grey and pink, respectively.

Figure S2: ATP levels in murine BMDM (A) cells with and without 2-AA (400 μM) or LPS

stimulation (100 μg/mL). Each dot represents 1 experimental replicate of 4 independent

experiments (n = 4). Data are presented as mean ± SD, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, and ns

indicates no significant difference. One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test was

applied.

Figure S3: Effect of 2-AA on mitochondrial spare respiratory capacity in BMDM non-tolerized

(black) and tolerized (red) macrophages. Controls are shown in grey and pink, respectively.

Mitochondrial spare respiratory capacity data extrapolated from the OCR profiles shown in

Figure 1D. Unstimulated BMDM macrophages were used as a control (c). Means ± SDs are

shown, n = 6, * $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$, and ns indicates no significant difference. One-way

ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test was applied.

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