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<b>Authors(s)</b>	Gouzy, Alexandre, Nigou, Jérôme, Gilleron, Martine, Gordon, Stephen V., et al.
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1 **Tuberculosis 2012: Biology, Pathogenesis and Intervention Strategies; an**  
2 **update from the City of Light**

3

4 Alexandre Gouzy<sup>1,2</sup>, Jérôme Nigou<sup>1,2</sup>, Martine Gilleron<sup>1,2</sup>, Olivier Neyrolles<sup>1,2</sup>,  
5 Ludovic Tailleux<sup>3</sup>, Stephen V. Gordon<sup>4</sup>

6

7 <sup>1</sup>Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, Institut de Pharmacologie et de  
8 Biologie Structurale, Toulouse, France

9 <sup>2</sup>Université de Toulouse, Université Paul Sabatier, Institut de Pharmacologie et  
10 de Biologie Structurale, Toulouse, France

11 <sup>3</sup>Unit of Mycobacterial Genetics, Institut Pasteur, 75015 Paris, France

12 <sup>4</sup>UCD Schools of Veterinary Medicine, Medicine and Medical Science, and  
13 Biomolecular and Biomedical Science, University College Dublin, Ireland.

14 **Abstract**

15 Tuberculosis (TB) remains one of the world's most deadly infectious  
16 diseases, with approximately 1.5 million deaths and 9 million new cases of TB in  
17 2010. There is an urgent global need to develop new control tools, with advances  
18 necessary in our basic understanding of the pathogen, *Mycobacterium*  
19 *tuberculosis*, and translation of these findings to public health. It was in this  
20 context that the "Tuberculosis 2012: Biology, Pathogenesis, Intervention  
21 Strategies" meeting was held in the Institut Pasteur, Paris, France from 11-15<sup>th</sup>  
22 Sept 2012. The meeting brought together over 600 delegates from across the  
23 globe to hear updates on the latest research findings and how they are  
24 underpinning the development of novel vaccines, diagnostics, and drugs.

25

26 **Introduction**

27 Paris has a long and distinguished history of international conferences  
28 dealing with tuberculosis (TB), dating back to 1867 and the first international  
29 conference of Internal Medicine when Jean-Antoine Villemin proposed that TB  
30 was a contagious disease (Enarson, 2004). The “Tuberculosis 2012: Biology,  
31 Pathogenesis, Intervention Strategies” meeting held at the Institut Pasteur, Paris,  
32 from 11-15<sup>th</sup> Sept 2012 certainly lived up to this proud tradition, with an  
33 outstanding array of speakers, over 300 poster presentations, and over 600  
34 delegates. It would be impossible in this short report to cover the breadth of  
35 science presented at the meeting in the detail it deserves, but we have tried  
36 herein to summarise some of the salient advances. We have structured our  
37 review along the same lines as the conference oral sessions, and would like to  
38 thank all our colleagues for their permission to present their unpublished work  
39 in this format.

40

41

42 **Opening session**

43 The opening session set the tone for the following days, mixing basic  
44 research with current progress in halting the TB epidemic. Hannu Laang (EC,  
45 Brussels) provided insight into the European TB funding landscape, while  
46 Christian Lienhardt (WHO, Switzerland) gave an overview of progress in  
47 achieving the TB reduction targets set out by the Millennium Development Goals  
48 and the STOP TB Partnership. There are clearly some ‘good news’ stories, with  
49 the success of DOTs and the declining global TB incidence rates. However, there  
50 are still many problems facing us, including that one third of TB cases are not  
51 diagnosed or treated; the emergence of XDR and MDR TB; and the continuing  
52 synergy between HIV and TB in Africa. Clearly we are still some distance from a  
53 world without tuberculosis.

54

55 The role of basic science in providing new approaches to TB control was  
56 highlighted by two keynote lectures. Patrick Brennan (Colorado State University,  
57 Fort Collins, USA) brought us on a wonderful journey through his 50 years of  
58 research on TB and leprosy, highlighting how the work of his group and others

59 has revealed the complexity and biosynthesis of the mycobacterial cell wall.  
60 Stewart Cole (EPFL, Lausanne, Switzerland) then presented a journey through  
61 TB time and space, weaving together the global dissemination of *M. tuberculosis*  
62 with its dissemination through the host, the latter process being controlled in  
63 part by the EspR nucleoid associated protein (NAP) (Blasco et al., 2012). The role  
64 of EspR in controlling expression of a number of virulence factors reveals the  
65 potential of such NAPs as novel drug targets.

66

67

### 68 **Mycobacterial Evolution, Genetic Diversity and Conservation**

69 The application of genome sequencing to *M. tuberculosis* has led to  
70 enormous advances in our understanding of the evolution and global  
71 dissemination of *M. tuberculosis*. This theme was continued at the meeting, with  
72 new data presented by Roland Brosch (Institut Pasteur, Paris, France) on the  
73 genome sequences of smooth strains of *Mycobacterium canettii* (Brisse et al.,  
74 2006, van Soolingen et al., 1997, Gutierrez et al., 2005). Their analyses  
75 demonstrate that, in contrast to comparisons between other *M. tuberculosis*  
76 complex members, the smooth strains are genetically more diverse, with high  
77 numbers of SNPs and evidence for recombination. The geographical isolation of  
78 the smooth TB strains to East Africa may indicate that they are less adept at  
79 maintenance in human populations, suggesting that comparative analyses  
80 between smooth strains and other *M. tuberculosis* lineages may uncover key  
81 traits that led to the latter's global success.

82

83 While the relatively low genetic diversity of *M. tuberculosis* isolates is well  
84 described, this does not translate into phenotypic homogeneity, a fact  
85 emphasised by Stefan Niemann (Borstel Research Centre, Germany). Drawing on  
86 an international collection of *M. tuberculosis* lineages, they have shown that there  
87 are distinct differences in these strains transcriptomes and interaction with  
88 macrophages (Homolka et al., 2010). These lineage specific traits may reflect the  
89 evolution of *M. tuberculosis* with its human host, a theme developed by Iñaki  
90 Comas (Centre for Public Health Research, Valencia, Spain) who proposed a  
91 model for co-evolution between *M. tuberculosis* and humans. He put forward the

92 intriguing suggestion that the emergence of ‘modern’, highly virulent *M.*  
93 *tuberculosis* is a consequence of increases in human population density over the  
94 last 70,000 years, with low virulence *M. tuberculosis* having predominated until  
95 the last 10,000 years.

96

97

## 98 **Mycobacterial biology and physiology**

99         The mycobacterial cell wall has long been known to have an array of  
100 complex lipids, but defining their exact roles has remained elusive. Christophe  
101 Guilhot (IPBS, Toulouse, France) gave an overview of the roles of polyketide-  
102 derived lipids in TB biology. He showed evidence for synergistic interactions  
103 between lipids such as acyltrehaloses and sulfolipids in virulence, which may  
104 explain previous work showing that individual gene knock-outs in the respective  
105 biosynthetic pathways did not produce clear attenuation phenotypes in mouse  
106 models. The role of polyketide-derived lipids was also addressed by Rajesh  
107 Gokahle (CSIR-IGIB, Dehli, India), who is exploring the role of such lipids in  
108 mycobacterial biofilm formation and reported that *M. smegmatis pks* mutants  
109 make defective biofilms; whether the same holds true for *M. tuberculosis pks*  
110 remains to be determined. Regulation of FasI and FasII systems was discussed by  
111 Gabriela Gago (IBR, Roasario, Argentina), who described the FasR and MabR  
112 regulators of the FasI and FasII systems, respectively (Salzman et al., 2010,  
113 Arabolaza et al., 2010)

114

115         The application of systems biology approaches to *M. tuberculosis*, with  
116 precise, quantifiable data on the abundance of transcripts, proteins, and  
117 metabolites, is set to provide an exquisite level of detail on the inner workings of  
118 *M. tuberculosis*. Olga Schubert (ETH, Zurich, Switzerland), elegantly  
119 demonstrated the power of such systems approaches in her presentation of the  
120 ‘*M. tuberculosis* Proteome Atlas’. The proteome analysis was based on the  
121 identification of unique, ‘proteotypic’ peptides for every *M. tuberculosis* protein  
122 that were then used to develop selective reaction monitoring (SRM) assays  
123 (Picotti and Aebersold, 2012). This SRM approach opens the way for the precise  
124 quantification of *M. tuberculosis* proteins in a complex mixture, such as *M.*

125 *tuberculosis* grown in a macrophage, and will provide us with valuable  
126 information on the relationship between transcript and protein abundance,  
127 protein turnover, etc.

128

129 In a meeting that was kicked-off by Patrick Brennan, it was apt that the  
130 name of Joseph Bigger cropped up during the meeting, Bigger having been the  
131 Professor of Bacteriology and Preventive Medicine in Patrick's alma mater,  
132 Trinity College Dublin, Ireland. Bigger's seminal work on bacterial persisters  
133 (Bigger, 1944) was placed in a modern context by John McKinney (EPFL,  
134 Lausanne, Switzerland) who presented his use of microfluidics and time-lapse  
135 microscopy to monitor single bacterial cells and their response to antibiotic  
136 treatment. Using this system they have uncovered a host of novel findings,  
137 including how pulsatile expression of *katG* activates isoniazid and hence killing  
138 of *M. smegmatis*, showing how stochastic gene expression across a population is  
139 one mechanism that generates variation in bacterial drug susceptibility.

140

141

#### 142 **Novel transport systems in Mycobacteria**

143 The disclosure of an outer membrane, the mycomembrane, in the  
144 mycobacterial cell envelope revealed another layer of complexity to the  
145 transport of products into, and out of, the cell (Hoffmann et al., 2008). The novel  
146 Type VII secretion system provides some answers as to how *M. tuberculosis*  
147 secretes proteins across this hydrophobic barrier, with *M. tuberculosis*  
148 possessing 5 such systems named ESX1-5 (Bitter et al., 2009). However, much  
149 work remains to be done to elucidate the exact workings of the ESX mechanism.  
150 Daria Bottai (University of Pisa, Italy) has focussed on the ESX-5 system and its  
151 roles in secretion of effector proteins from *M. tuberculosis*. Strikingly, the ESX-5  
152 system was shown to be responsible for secretion of a large number of PE and  
153 PPE proteins, with loss of the ESX-5 channel protein, EccD5, blocking secretion  
154 (Bottai et al., 2012). The ESX-5 secreted PE/PPE proteins were shown to be  
155 important immunogens underlining the key role of the ESX-5 system in the host's  
156 immune response to *M. tuberculosis* (Sayes et al., 2012). The ESX-5 secretion  
157 system was further dissected by Edith Houben (VU Medical Centre, Amsterdam,

158 The Netherlands), who showed that the ESX-5 membrane channel is a  
159 multiprotein complex made up of EccBCDE (Houben et al., 2012). The exact  
160 configuration of these components is still unclear, but EccE may form the outer  
161 pore and hence enable the EccBCDE complex to generate an integrated pore  
162 across both the inner membrane and mycomembrane.

163

164 The problem of getting nutrients into *M. tuberculosis* was addressed by  
165 Alexandre Gouzy (IPBS Toulouse, France) who dealt with nitrogen acquisition.  
166 Focussing on the AnsP1 and AnsP2 transporters, which were both originally  
167 annotated as putative asparagine transporters, he used a combination of  
168 mutagenesis and biochemical characterisation to reveal them to in fact be  
169 aspartate (AnsP1) and asparagine (AnsP2) transporters. He then explored the  
170 roles of these transporters *in vivo*, and presented compelling evidence that  
171 AnsP1 is required during the early stages of infection in mice.

172

173 Michael Niederweis (University of Alabama, Birmingham, USA) concluded  
174 this session by discussing the search for porins in *M. tuberculosis* (Niederweis et  
175 al., 2010). He presented an intriguing story on the identification of a novel outer  
176 membrane channel, MptA, in *M. bovis* BCG and *M. tuberculosis*. As well as its role  
177 in solute transport, the results suggested this protein may also function as a  
178 secreted toxin, calling to mind secreted autotransporter toxins in  
179 *Enterobacteriaceae* (Guyer et al., 2000).

180

181

## 182 **Adaptation to changing environment**

183 A large part of the success of *M. tuberculosis* as a major pathogen relies on  
184 its ability to adapt to a variety of environments, to switch its metabolic needs  
185 from one source to another, and to resist a number of toxic conditions  
186 encountered during infection. A whole session of the meeting was dedicated to  
187 mycobacterial adaptation to changing environments, taking examples from  
188 processes involved in gene regulation, nutrient assimilation and resistance to  
189 host immunity and antibiotic treatment.

190

191           The adaptation process in *M. tuberculosis* requires fast and subtly  
192 controlled mechanisms to regulate gene expression. Kristine Arnvig (NIMR,  
193 London, UK) described the contribution of non-coding RNAs to shaping the *M.*  
194 *tuberculosis* transcriptional landscape (Arnvig and Young, 2012, Arnvig et al.,  
195 2011, Arnvig and Young, 2009). Using RNA sequencing, she showed that small  
196 non-coding RNAs are differentially expressed by *M. tuberculosis* in various  
197 environments, such as in *in vitro* culture, macrophages or mice. Nearly a fifth of  
198 the RNA sequencing reads map to intergenic regions in *M. tuberculosis*, a fraction  
199 that reaches over 50% in stationary phase conditions as a result of the  
200 accumulation of a highly abundant non-coding RNA, MTS2823. A potential role  
201 for these regulatory elements in *M. tuberculosis* adaptation to stress and  
202 virulence was suggested, as has been reported in many bacterial pathogens  
203 (Toledo-Arana et al., 2007); however, the exact targets and signals involved in  
204 non-coding RNA-mediated gene regulation in *M. tuberculosis* still remain to be  
205 understood. In addition to genetically encoded modulation of gene expression,  
206 Babak Javid (Tsinghua University, Beijing, China) proposed that random  
207 mistranslation might also be involved in *M. tuberculosis* physiology and  
208 resistance to antibiotics. In particular the involvement of this ‘error generating  
209 process’ in phenotypic resistance to rifampicin was reported.

210

211           Nutritional aspects in *M. tuberculosis* infection were explored from the  
212 viewpoint of vitamin capture and utilization. Digby Warner (University of Cape  
213 Town, South Africa) studied the role of the co-factor vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in the  
214 physiopathology of *M. tuberculosis*. Screening of a whole-genome insertional  
215 mutant library allowed the identification of an ABC-type transport protein that is  
216 essential for vitamin B<sub>12</sub> import *in vitro*. Interestingly, while *M. tuberculosis* is  
217 predicted to encode a complete pathway for *de novo* vitamin B<sub>12</sub> biosynthesis, a  
218 previous study had shown that a mutant in the B<sub>12</sub> transporter was attenuated in  
219 mice during the chronic phase of infection. Further research is required in order  
220 to establish a causal link between the observed phenotype and a defect in  
221 vitamin B<sub>12</sub> uptake, however these results suggest the potential importance of  
222 specific nutrient acquisition systems in *M. tuberculosis* virulence.

223

224 In addition to nutrient scavenging, *M. tuberculosis* has to resist hostile  
225 environments generated by the host immune system. At the same time, the  
226 immune system must balance the need for bacterial control with avoidance of  
227 inflammatory-induced immunopathology. Illustrating this point, Christopher  
228 Sasseti (Univ. Massachusetts, Worcester, USA) elaborated on the role of nitric  
229 oxide (NO) production by macrophages during the course of *M. tuberculosis*  
230 infection. While the production of NO upon cell activation by IFN- $\gamma$  is required to  
231 kill intracellular bacteria, he disclosed that NO plays also a critical role in  
232 controlling inflammation, and in particular in inhibiting both activation and IL1 $\beta$   
233 maturation, and early neutrophil recruitment to the site of infection (Mishra et  
234 al., 2012). This suggests that, unexpectedly, IFN- $\gamma$  may have a role in the control  
235 of inflammation through NO production, in addition to its well-known function in  
236 activating the immune system.

237

238

### 239 **The search for novel antigens and correlates of protection**

240 The development of knowledge-based and adapted intervention  
241 strategies, including prognostic tools, new drugs and more effective vaccines, to  
242 combat TB would benefit considerably from improvements in our understanding  
243 of latent infection. To begin the session, Camille Locht (INSERM, Institut Pasteur  
244 de Lille, France) summarized his work on the heparin-binding haemagglutinin  
245 (HBHA). Disruption of the *M. tuberculosis hbha* gene significantly affects  
246 mycobacterial interaction with epithelial cells and impairs extrapulmonary  
247 dissemination of *M. tuberculosis* in the mouse (Pethe et al., 2001). HBHA is also a  
248 powerful latency antigen, and induces high levels of IFN- $\gamma$  secretion by the  
249 peripheral blood lymphocytes of latently infected subjects (Hougardy et al.,  
250 2007). In TB patients, HBHA-specific IFN- $\gamma$  responses are very low, probably due  
251 to the induction of HBHA-specific regulatory T cells during active TB;  
252 nevertheless, the response increases after chemotherapy. IFN- $\gamma$  responses to  
253 HBHA may thus contribute to protection against the disease. An approach using a  
254 combination of BCG and HBHA as a booster for teenagers and adults or as a post-  
255 exposure vaccine was then discussed (Corbiere et al., 2012).

256

257 Cecilia Lindestam Arlehamn (La Jolla Institute for Allergy and  
258 Immunology, USA) presented results of a genome-wide screen for HLA class II  
259 epitopes from *M. tuberculosis*, where 74% of the identified antigens had not been  
260 previously described as sources of CD4 T cell epitopes. The antigens identified  
261 were derived from almost every protein category, but with an  
262 overrepresentation of PE/PPE and Esx proteins. Using PBMC from human  
263 donors latently infected with *M. tuberculosis*, she went on to show that the  
264 response to *M. tuberculosis* is highly heterogeneous and confined to the  
265 CXCR3+CCR6+ memory Th1 cell subset.

266

267 Latently infected individuals constitute a hidden disease reservoir, and an  
268 improved knowledge of key host and pathogen factors controlling TB latency  
269 would greatly benefit TB control efforts. Gilla Kaplan (University of New Jersey,  
270 Newark, USA) emphasised the utility of the rabbit as a model of TB latency, using  
271 two *M. tuberculosis* strains to illustrate the host-pathogen dynamic. Rabbits  
272 infected with the *M. tuberculosis* CDC1551 strain show limited pathology,  
273 temporal decreases in TNF production, and control but not eradication of the  
274 pathogen. The bacilli can be reactivated following immune suppression,  
275 underlining the generation of a state of latency. On the contrary, rabbits infected  
276 with the *M. tuberculosis* HN878 strain develop an abundant fibrosis with  
277 extensive tissue damage driven by sustained TNF production. This model  
278 therefore offers a route to defining key determinants of protective immunity and  
279 latency (Subbian et al., 2012).

280

281 Biomarkers could facilitate rapid diagnosis and treatment of TB patients  
282 and allow preventive measures for latently infected individuals. Stefan  
283 Kaufmann (MPIIB, Berlin, Germany) reported on whole-blood gene expression  
284 profiling of pulmonary TB against other chronic inflammatory diseases such as  
285 sarcoidosis (Maertzdorf et al., 2012). This elegantly displayed the power of such  
286 global profiling approaches to define novel diagnostic biosignatures of TB  
287 infection. He then went on to discuss the miRNA components of the transcript  
288 signature that distinguishes TB from latent infection. In particular, miRNA-223 (a  
289 negative modulator of neutrophils) was differentially expressed during active

290 TB, with miRNA-223 knockout mice highly susceptible to *M. tuberculosis*  
291 infection (A. Dorhoi et al., submitted).

292

293

#### 294 **Novel vaccine strategies**

295 BCG confers variable protection against pulmonary TB in adults,  
296 demanding that new vaccines with better protection are developed. Carlos  
297 Martin (University of Zaragoza, Spain) gave an update on the development of a  
298 live attenuated vaccine based on the inactivation of two *M. tuberculosis* genes:  
299 *phoP*, a transcriptional regulator of key virulence factors in *M. tuberculosis*, and  
300 *fadD26* involved in fatty acid metabolism (Nambiar et al., 2012). This vaccine  
301 called MTBVAC, has been demonstrated to be safe and protective in animal  
302 models and is now progressing to Phase I clinical studies. Leander Grode  
303 (Vakzine Projekt Management, Hannover, Germany) reported the results from  
304 the Phase I clinical trials of VPM1002, a urease-deficient recombinant BCG  
305 secreting listeriolysin (Grode et al., 2005). No serious adverse reactions have  
306 been observed, and characterisation of the immune response showed induction  
307 of greater polyfunctional T-cells and IFN- $\gamma$  production in those vaccinated with  
308 VPM1002 compared to those receiving BCG. While the latter approach used BCG  
309 expressing listeriolysin, Yuelan Yin (Yangzhou University, Yangzhou, China) took  
310 the converse approach with *Listeria monocytogenes* expressing an Ag85B-ESAT-6  
311 fusion protein. Subcutaneous, intraperitoneal and intravenous vaccination  
312 routes with this recombinant *Listeria* were shown to generate specific Th1-type  
313 cellular immunity.

314

315 Peter Andersen (Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen, Denmark) explored  
316 a different strategy to enhance BCG efficacy. The H56 subunit vaccine is  
317 composed of early, constitutive and late MTB antigens, namely Ag85b, ESAT-6  
318 and Rv2660c (Aagaard et al., 2011). Boosting BCG with H56 resulted in efficient  
319 containment of *M. tuberculosis* infection in macaques and prevented reactivation  
320 of latent infection (Lin et al., 2012). Helen McShane (University of Oxford, UK)  
321 finished this session with another strategy to boost BCG. She reported on the  
322 Phase I/IIa studies with the candidate TB vaccine Modified Vaccinia virus Ankara

323 expressing Antigen 85A (MVA85A) from *M. tuberculosis* in healthy volunteers  
324 previously vaccinated with BCG (Scriba et al., 2012, Pathan et al., 2012). Two  
325 phase IIb trials in BCG-vaccinated infants and in HIV+ adults are currently on-  
326 going.

327

328

## 329 **Biochemistry and chemical biology I and II**

330         Adaptation of *M. tuberculosis* to its environment, and most particularly to  
331 the phagosomal compartment of the macrophage, is an essential component of  
332 its pathogenesis, transmission, and maintenance in the host (Schnappinger et al.,  
333 2003). Post-translational modifications, such as reversible acetylation or  
334 phosphorylation, are emerging as an important mechanism used by  
335 mycobacteria to adjust to environmental changes. John Blanchard (Albert  
336 Einstein College of Medicine, New-York, USA) reported that reversible  
337 acetylation by a cAMP-dependant protein lysine acetyltransferase reduces the  
338 activity of enzymes such as the central metabolic enzyme acetyl-CoA synthase  
339 (Xu et al., 2011); MbtA, an adenylating enzyme that catalyses the first step in the  
340 biosynthesis of the mycobactins; or FadD26 involved in phthiocerol  
341 dimycocerosate synthesis. Marco Bellinzoni (Institut Pasteur, Paris, France)  
342 detailed how the PknG substrate GarA, an FHA-domain protein, acts as a switch  
343 in central metabolism. Using combined structural and biochemical assays, it was  
344 shown how unphosphorylated/phosphorylated GarA controls the activity of a  
345 pivotal set of core enzyme,  $\alpha$  ketoglutarate dehydrogenase, glutamate  
346 dehydrogenase and glutamate synthase, to direct metabolic flux towards the  
347 accumulation of glutamate (Wagner et al., 2011, O'Hare et al., 2008).

348

349         Laurent Kremer (CNRS, Université de Montpellier, France) highlighted the  
350 role of Ser/Thr phosphorylation in the regulation of cell envelope biosynthesis  
351 by modulating the activity of enzymes involved in mycolic acid, peptidoglycan or  
352 glucan synthesis; of the MmpL7 phthiocerol dimycocerosate transporter; and of  
353 the transcriptional repressor EmbR that regulates the expression of  
354 arabinosyltransferases involved in arabinogalactan and lipoarabinomannan  
355 synthesis (Molle and Kremer, 2010). However, a number of questions still

356 remain, such as the precise environmental signals that are sensed by  
357 acetylation/deacetylation and phosphorylation/dephosphorylation systems, if  
358 these systems are coordinated, and what physiological advantages are gained by  
359 these post-translational modifications.

360

361         Functional assignment of all enzymes encoded by the genome of *M.*  
362 *tuberculosis*, and thus an understanding of its complete metabolic capacity, is far  
363 from complete. However Luiz Pedro de Carvalho (NIMR, London, UK) is  
364 endeavouring to fill this gap in our knowledge by using activity-based  
365 metabolomic profiling to permit unbiased discovery of enzymatic activities  
366 encoded by genes of unknown function. This approach applies liquid-  
367 chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS) to analyse the impact of a  
368 recombinant enzyme using a cellular extract as a physiological library of  
369 potential substrates and products (de Carvalho et al., 2010). In this way, the  
370 orphan enzyme encoded Rv1692 was assigned as a D-glycerol 3-phosphate  
371 phosphatase. Emilie Layre (Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, USA) used a  
372 recently developed lipidomic methodology consisting of LC-MS analysis and  
373 bioinformatic tools for the broad and unbiased comparative analysis of *M.*  
374 *tuberculosis* total lipid extracts (Layre et al., 2011) to gain insight into the  
375 function of the type-III polyketide synthase Pks10. When comparing wild-type,  
376 deleted or over-expressing *M. tuberculosis* strains, she identified a new family of  
377 branched chain lipids produced by the *pks10* over-expressing strain only, the  
378 precise structure of which is currently under investigation.

379

380         The rise in antibiotic-resistant *M. tuberculosis* emphasizes the need for  
381 new anti-TB agents with novel mechanisms of action. The meeting was very  
382 exciting in this aspect with an impressive amount of new anti-TB compounds and  
383 targets identified. It is worth noting that most of these *in vitro* or *in vivo* active  
384 compounds were obtained by screening chemical libraries on whole *M.*  
385 *tuberculosis* cells, in either replicating or non-replicating stages or inside  
386 phagocytes. As a perfect example of the strategies used, Carl Nathan (Weill  
387 Cornell Medical College, New York, USA) gave an overview of the first results  
388 obtained in a systematic whole-cell screen for compounds that kill non-

389 replicating *M. tuberculosis*, replicating *M. tuberculosis*, or both (Gold et al., 2012).  
390 Over 2.5 million compounds provided by academic and industrial partners are  
391 due to be tested through funding from the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation TB  
392 Drug Accelerator programme. Confirmed results from 113,000 compounds  
393 revealed that 0.5% of the compounds tested killed replicating *M. tuberculosis*  
394 selectively, 0.1% killed non-replicating *M. tuberculosis* selectively, and 0.03%  
395 killed both. Among compounds that showed bactericidal activity against *M.*  
396 *tuberculosis*, no activity against other bacteria and fungi, and limited toxicity to  
397 human hepatoma cells, were certain synthetic analogs of phytopyrano-coumarins  
398 (calanolides) synthesized by P. Zheng and G. Liu of Tsinghua University. These  
399 latter compounds were found to be equipotent against replicating and non-  
400 replicating bacilli, had a bactericidal mode of action, and killed bacilli residing in  
401 human macrophages. Their target awaits identification.

402

403

404

#### 405 **Mycobacterial resistance and the need for new drug targets- Search for** 406 **novel drug candidates to cure TB**

407 Erik Böttger (University of Zurich, Switzerland) opened this session with  
408 a discussion of drug resistance in *M. tuberculosis*, from the viewpoints of clinical  
409 implications and fitness costs. The significant heterogeneity of *M. tuberculosis*  
410 drug resistance was one of the key messages of this presentation, i.e. low,  
411 medium and high level antibiotic resistance. The case was made for quantitative  
412 measures of drug resistance to complement the standard critical concentration  
413 methods that are currently used to define resistance (Bottger, 2011). Indeed, the  
414 mechanism of drug resistance for TB drugs remain to be clarified, and it is  
415 surprising to think that the precise mechanism of action of pyrazinamide (PZA),  
416 introduced 60 years ago and one of the cornerstones of modern TB drug therapy,  
417 remains to be defined. Ying Zhang (Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, USA &  
418 Fudan University, Shanghai, China) reported the recent identification of RpsA as  
419 a novel target for PZA. RpsA acts in concert with tmRNA in trans-translation, a  
420 mechanism for releasing partially synthesized proteins from stalled ribosomes, a

421 process of central importance to bacterial persisters; pyrazinoic acid binds to  
422 RpfA, blocking its ability to function in trans-translation (Shi et al., 2011).

423

424 Priscille Brodin (INSERM, Institut Pasteur de Lille, France) highlighted the  
425 potency of high-content cell-based screening and unbiased large scale  
426 phenotypic assays for the identification of novel host and mycobacterial genes  
427 involved in *M. tuberculosis* intracellular colonization (Figure 1), as well as  
428 chemicals able to prevent bacterial intracellular growth (Christophe et al., 2010).  
429 During one of these screens in infected macrophages, ImidazoPyridine Amides  
430 (IPAs) were identified as potent drugs active against *M. tuberculosis*. As shown by  
431 Ulf Nehrbass (Institut Pasteur Korea, Seongnam, Republic of Korea), optimized  
432 IPAs inhibit the growth of MDR and XDR clinical isolates in the low nanomolar  
433 range. IPA Q203, despite being static *in vitro*, is cidal in the mouse model of *M.*  
434 *tuberculosis* infection, where it accumulates in the lung tissues and inhibits  
435 granuloma formation.

436

437 The pathway leading to the biosynthesis of mycolic acids is for the most  
438 part unique to mycobacteria and the utility of this as a drug target is clearly  
439 demonstrated by the therapeutic efficacy of several key anti-TB agents, such as  
440 isoniazid and ethionamide, as well as various other compounds, including  
441 thiolactomycin, isoxyl and thiacetazone. The primary mode of action of the latter  
442 two compounds was unknown, but Mary Jackson (Colorado State University, Fort  
443 Collins, USA) described the discovery of a common mechanism of action, i.e.  
444 inhibition of the dehydratase step of the Fatty Acid Synthase type II (FAS-II)  
445 elongation cycle, catalysed by the (3R)-hydroxyacyl-ACP dehydratases encoded  
446 by *hadABC* (Grzegorzewicz et al., 2012). Moreover, she reported the  
447 identification, thanks to a whole-cell *M. tuberculosis* screens, of an adamantyl  
448 urea compound that shows potent bactericidal activity *in vitro* and that had a  
449 unique mode of action, namely the abolition of the MmpL3 translocation of  
450 mycolic acids from the cytoplasm, where they are synthesized, to the periplasmic  
451 side of the plasma membrane (Grzegorzewicz et al., 2012). Three additional  
452 independent studies have recently validated MmpL3 as a new and promising

453 target, reporting compounds that target MmpL3 and inhibit *M. tuberculosis*  
454 growth (Tahlan et al., 2012, Stanley et al., 2012, La Rosa et al., 2012).

455

456 Benzothiazinones are highly active compounds that were previously  
457 shown to target the enzyme decaprenylphosphoryl- $\beta$ -D-ribose 2'-epimerase and  
458 kill *M. tuberculosis* by blocking the synthesis of the arabinan domain of  
459 arabinogalactan and lipoarabinomannan (Makarov et al., 2009). Based on the  
460 study of the metabolism, pharmacokinetics and mechanisms of resistance to two  
461 advanced compounds, Vadim Makarov (Bakh Institute of Biochemistry, Moscow,  
462 Russia) reported the design and synthesis by classical approaches of medicinal  
463 chemistry of a second generation of benzothiazinone derivatives with improved  
464 activity and bioavailability in mice.

465

466 Although phenotypic-based approaches provided the most spectacular  
467 results, three speakers demonstrated promising target-based strategies to  
468 identify new anti-TB drugs. Helena Boshoff (NIH, Bethesda, USA) targeted the  
469 non-redundant fumarase enzyme acting in the reverse branch of the TCA cycle as  
470 they recently found that fermentation might play an important role in the  
471 maintenance of *M. tuberculosis* under the low oxygen tensions encountered in  
472 granulomas (Watanabe et al., 2011). *In silico* screening provided sulphonamides  
473 as lead compounds, inhibiting the recombinant enzyme and showing activity  
474 against anaerobic bacilli, that although moderate, validates the approach.  
475 Michael Zimmermann (ETH, Zurich, Switzerland) demonstrated that  
476 fermentative activity seems to be a common mycobacterial feature under  
477 anaerobia, but that the usage of metabolic pathways differs significantly between  
478 fast- and slow-growing mycobacteria.

479

480 Owing to the challenge in identifying and validating new targets, David  
481 Sherman (Seattle Biomedical Research Institute, USA) reconsidered  
482 targets/pathways validated in other organisms but under-exploited in TB  
483 chemotherapy, and gave the example of the folate pathway (Kumar et al., 2012).  
484 He described several compounds that inhibit *M. tuberculosis* dihydrofolate  
485 reductase and that synergize to kill the bacilli by depleting them of methionine

486 derivatives. As an alternative approach to the use of antibiotics, Lydia Taberero  
487 (University of Manchester, UK) proposed targeting a virulence factor from *M.*  
488 *tuberculosis*, MptpB, that is a secreted phosphatase critical in pathogenesis and  
489 survival of the bacilli in infected macrophages and animal models (Beresford et  
490 al., 2009). The use of a combination of structure-based and computational  
491 fragment screening permitted a new family of inhibitors to be designed with  
492 remarkable selectivity over human phosphatases and that impair bacillary  
493 growth inside macrophages.

494

495

### 496 **Host-pathogen interactions I**

497 As stated previously, one of the main virulence features of *M. tuberculosis*  
498 is its capacity to manipulate phagosomal maturation and inhibit the biogenesis of  
499 bactericidal phago-lysosomes. While *M. tuberculosis* was thought to exclusively  
500 reside within phagosomes inside host-cells, the team of Peter Peters (Netherland  
501 Cancer Institute, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) has demonstrated, using electron  
502 microscopy, that *M. tuberculosis* and, more generally pathogenic mycobacteria,  
503 can be visualized as free bacilli inside the host cell's cytosol (van der Wel et al.,  
504 2007). Translocation from the phagosome to the cytosol of the host cell was  
505 shown to be dependent on the ESX-1 type VII secretion system, as its  
506 introduction to the attenuated vaccine strain *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG, that  
507 naturally lacks ESX-1, is needed to trigger translocation. Among ESX-1 secreted  
508 proteins, the 6 kDa Early Secreted Antigenic Target (ESAT-6) seems to play a  
509 main role in this process, as a mutation in the C-terminus of this protein impairs  
510 translocation (Houben et al., 2012). The overall molecular organization of the  
511 ESX-1 system in *in vitro* cultivated *M. tuberculosis* was determined by immuno-  
512 precipitation techniques followed by 3-D modelling of the ESX-1 proteins EspB  
513 and EccA. In this context, Roxane Simeone (Institut Pasteur, Paris, France)  
514 presented recently published data where, using single-cell FRET imaging and  
515 automated fluorescence microscopy, mycobacterial translocation was quantified  
516 and the role of ESX-1 secretion system confirmed (Simeone et al., 2012).

517

518 David Russell (Cornell University, Ithaca, USA) reported complementary  
519 approaches to probe the micro-environment in which mycobacteria reside  
520 during infection, and to exploit this information in order to identify new  
521 antituberculous drugs. Using recombinant *M. tuberculosis* strains, in which GFP is  
522 expressed under the control of selected promoters responding to well defined  
523 stimuli, such as the *aprABC* promoter (Abramovitch et al., 2011), direct temporal  
524 and spatial observation of *M. tuberculosis* acidic resistance or cholesterol  
525 utilization was possible in mouse tissues. A beautiful example of such probing of  
526 the host-pathogen interplay was provided using *M. tuberculosis* strains where  
527 GFP was expressed under the control of the hypoxia- and NO-induced *hspX*  
528 promoter. Strikingly, fluorescence of the strain was greatly decreased in KO mice  
529 impaired in NO production. Using a high-throughput technology based on  
530 automated confocal microscopy, a library of chemical compounds was screened  
531 in order to identify compounds able to selectively kill bacteria inside  
532 macrophages. This method led to the identification of a hundred of promising  
533 hits, some of which were exclusively active against intracellular *M. tuberculosis*.

534

535 As a complement to the search for new drugs, Anna Coussens (NIMR,  
536 London, UK and University of Cape Town, South Africa) presented a fascinating  
537 study where molecules were searched for that could potentiate the well-  
538 established protective effect of Vitamin D3 against TB. Sodium 4-phenylbutyrate  
539 (PBA) was shown to synergise with Vitamin D3 and kill intracellular *M.*  
540 *tuberculosis* through increasing the expression of antimicrobial peptides  
541 cathelicidin and lactoferrin. Moreover, PBA was found to significantly restrict *M.*  
542 *tuberculosis* growth in axenic conditions, thereby exhibiting a double level of  
543 antibacterial activity. A combination of vitamin D and PBA was proposed as an  
544 adjunct to current treatment as means of shortening antituberculosis therapy  
545 (Coussens et al., 2012).

546

## 547 **Host-pathogen interactions II**

548 Host-pathogen interaction is a finely balanced equilibrium between host  
549 defence mechanisms and bacterial survival strategies. Olivier Neyrolles (IPBS,  
550 Toulouse, France) illustrated the role of zinc intoxication in macrophages on the

551 outcome of *M. tuberculosis* infection. Following *M. tuberculosis* phagocytosis, an  
552 intracellular pool of free zinc was shown to localise to the *M. tuberculosis*  
553 phagosome inside primary human macrophages. As high concentrations of zinc  
554 are toxic to *M. tuberculosis*, the identification of a bacterial detoxification system  
555 was sought. The P-ATPase CtpC was proposed to contribute to zinc detoxification  
556 through zinc efflux, as a mutant in the *ctpC* gene was more sensitive to zinc *in*  
557 *vitro*, and was impaired in multiplication inside macrophages. Zinc accumulation  
558 in vacuoles is not restricted to *M. tuberculosis* as it is also observed in *E. coli* and  
559 latex bead phagolysosomes. Together with similar mechanisms described for  
560 copper (Ward et al., 2010, Wolschendorf et al., 2011, Festa et al., 2011) this work  
561 reveals a new and unsuspected role for transition metals in innate defence  
562 against microbes (Botella et al., 2011) (Figure 2).

563

564 Dictyostelium is a practical model to study host-pathogen interactions, as  
565 this unicellular organism is easily tractable at the genetic level. Taking  
566 *Mycobacterium marinum* as a model pathogen, Monica Hagedorn (Bernhard  
567 Nocht Institute, Hamburg, Germany) could show the existence of a mechanism  
568 for nonlytic ejection of cytosolic mycobacteria that was responsible for cell-to-  
569 cell bacterial transmission. This mechanism is mediated by the formation of a  
570 specific and short-lived actin structure called an 'ejectosome' at the plasma  
571 membrane of infected cells. In a *Dictyostelium* strain lacking RacH, a small  
572 GTPase involved in actin cytoskeleton regulation, no ejectosomes were detected  
573 and mycobacterial cell-to-cell spread was drastically reduced. Ejectosome  
574 formation appears to be dependent on the expression of the ESX-1 secretion  
575 system as no ejectosomes were observed in an *M. marinum* mutant lacking ESX-1  
576 (Hagedorn et al., 2009).

577

578 While the major role of type II interferon (IFN- $\gamma$ ) in immune control of *M.*  
579 *tuberculosis* is well established, the role of type I IFN remained incompletely  
580 understood until recently. To address this, Ludovic Desvignes (NYU School of  
581 Medicine, New York, USA) explored the specific role of type I IFN in the outcome  
582 of *M. tuberculosis* infection *in vivo*. Using mice carrying null mutations in the type  
583 I IFNR, the type II IFNR, or both, the authors could demonstrate that in a type II

584 IFNR-null background, the absence of type I IFN increases lung inflammation and  
585 causes earlier death of the animals following *M. tuberculosis* infection. While both  
586 IFNs are required for optimal recruitment of NK and myeloid cells to the site of  
587 infection, the lack of type I IFN specifically increases the number of infected  
588 macrophages in the lungs. This study confirmed the major role of type II IFN in  
589 restricting mycobacterial growth and revealed a significant function for type I  
590 IFN in limiting infectious site expansion (Desvignes et al., 2012).

591

592         Using the zebra fish and *M. marinum* as a host-pathogen model system,  
593 Lalita Ramakrishnan (University of Washington, Seattle, USA) presented data  
594 showing the positive role of the granuloma in mycobacterial colonisation of the  
595 host. Through secretion of ESAT-6, *M. marinum* can induce the expression of  
596 matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9) by epithelial cells, which in turn enhances  
597 macrophage recruitment (Volkman et al., 2010). The recently reported role of  
598 the *lta4h* locus, coding for a leukotriene hydrolase, in balancing host defence vs.  
599 inflammation-mediated tissue injury was discussed, with genetic-associated  
600 treatment of TB patients proposed (Tobin et al., 2010).

601

## 602 **Animal models and beyond**

603         There is an obvious need for appropriate and robust animals models in  
604 which to investigate the fundamental interactions between *M. tuberculosis* and  
605 its host, as well as providing the means for testing the efficacy of new drugs and  
606 vaccines. Jacques Grosset (John Hopkins University, USA & KwaZulu-Natal  
607 Research Institute, ZA) explored this theme by investigating the mode of action  
608 of pyrazinamide, a key sterilizing drug in the treatment of TB, and its proposed  
609 immune-modulatory mechanism of action (Mendez et al., 2009). Experiments  
610 were conducted in immune-competent BALB/c and in athymic nude mice using  
611 both *M. tuberculosis* and *M. bovis* (the latter strain being naturally resistant to  
612 pyrazinamide). In these models the results were not conclusively able to rule in  
613 or rule out an immune-modulatory activity for pyrazinamide, suggesting that  
614 further work is needed to clarify this question.

615

616 *M. tuberculosis* infection results in a spectrum of granuloma types, but the  
617 mechanisms underlying granuloma formation and maintenance are unclear.  
618 Joanne Flynn (University of Pittsburgh, USA) took advantage of PET/CT imaging  
619 to study granuloma dynamics in macaques infected with *M. tuberculosis*. In  
620 particular, she showed that each granuloma starts with a single bacterium and  
621 has a unique trajectory in terms of size and inflammatory changes over time.  
622 Interestingly, the percentage of T cells within the granuloma that produce  
623 cytokines in response to mycobacterial antigen is very low, with only  
624 alternatively activated macrophages found throughout the granuloma, whereas  
625 classically activated macrophages are found only around the caesum.

626

627 Ludovic Tailleux (Institut Pasteur, Paris, France) has been deciphering  
628 how *M. tuberculosis* colonizes extrapulmonary sites. He found that upon *M.*  
629 *tuberculosis* infection, human macrophages express numerous factors including  
630 VEGF that controls the formation of new blood vessels. Inhibiting angiogenesis  
631 strongly decreases the spread of bacteria in murine models of the disease. This  
632 unexpected role of macrophages in the dissemination of the bacillus may explain  
633 many extrapulmonary forms of TB.

634

635 Stéphanie Boisson-Dupuis (The Rockefeller University, New York, USA)  
636 defined how genetic predisposition could explain the inter-individual variability  
637 to TB susceptibility. As an example, using a candidate gene approach in a cohort  
638 of paediatric patients with acute, disseminated TB, she found that 2 patients out  
639 of 50 had autosomal recessive complete IL-12RB1 deficiency (Boisson-Dupuis et  
640 al., 2011). This finding, and others, goes to show that the outcome of TB infection  
641 is a complex interaction that depends both of the genotype of the host as well as  
642 that of the infecting *M. tuberculosis* strains.

643

644

#### 645 **Concluding Remarks**

646 The need for a deeper understanding of the immune response to infection  
647 is essential if we are to understand latent and active disease, and to provide  
648 markers for improved diagnosis, treatment monitoring, etc. Towards this goal,

649 Anne O'Garra (NIMR, Mill Hill, London) has used whole blood transcriptomics to  
650 identify a transcript signature that differentiates active TB from both latent TB  
651 and other chronic inflammatory conditions. The transcript profile was  
652 dominated by neutrophil-driven IFN- $\gamma$  and type I IFN- $\alpha\beta$  signalling, revealing a  
653 key role for type I IFN signalling in TB pathogenesis (Berry et al., 2010).

654

655 Clif Barry (NIH, Bethesda, USA) then posed the question of how well 'lab-  
656 based' predictions of *M. tuberculosis* and its interaction with the host actually  
657 translate into what is seen in the clinic. One such prediction was based on the  
658 premise that since *M. tuberculosis* persists *in vivo* in a hypoxic environment,  
659 drugs acting under such conditions, such as metronizidaole, would prove  
660 effective in treating latent TB, and this held true in animal models (Lin et al.,  
661 2012). However, clinical trials showed that metronizidole had limited efficacy for  
662 preventing reactivation TB. The converse was illustrated by linezolid, an  
663 oxazolidinone, which had poor efficacy in mouse models of TB. However, when  
664 given to a cohort of XDR-TB patients in addition to their standard drug regimen,  
665 linezolid treatment converted a significant portion of the patients to culture  
666 negativity, albeit with side effects linked to drug toxicity (Lee et al., 2012). This  
667 presentation, entitled 'an inconvenient truth from the clinic' begged the question:  
668 just how good are our current models of TB? Perhaps the answer to this question  
669 will be found at the next TB meeting in Paris; we look forward to it.

670

671

672

673

#### 674 **Acknowledgements**

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986 **Figure Legends**

987

988 **Figure 1. A general approach for the discovery of novel anti-TB drugs based**  
989 **on High Throughput/Content Screening on *M. tuberculosis*-infected**  
990 **macrophages.**

991 High throughput screening of chemicals that interfere with the replication of *M.*  
992 *tuberculosis* within macrophages is performed thanks to a phenotypic cell-based  
993 assay that uses automated confocal fluorescence microscopy. RAW macrophage  
994 cells are infected with *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv expressing GFP (pictures are shown  
995 at day 5 after infection). Chemical compounds are first screened at a single  
996 concentration; isoniazid (INH) is used as a control. A customized image analysis  
997 automatically quantifies several parameters such as the number of host  
998 macrophages, the percentage of infected cells, or the average surface area of  
999 bacterial aggregates that are then processed in a Primary Component Analysis  
1000 (PCA). Hits are confirmed by means of serial dilutions, and MICs are determined.  
1001 Leads are optimized in terms of efficacy, eADME and *in vivo* PK and the target is  
1002 looked for before efficacy in mouse model of infection is being assessed by CFU  
1003 reduction in lungs. The example of an IPA derivative developed by Institut  
1004 Pasteur Korea and INSERM is given, covered by patents No et al. 18/03/2011,  
1005 WO2011/113606 A1, PCT/EP2011/001345.

1006 Figure courtesy of Priscille Brodin (INSERM, Institut Pasteur de Lille, France).

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1008

1009 **Figure 2. Metallobiology of the mycobacterial phagosome.**

1010 Within macrophages, *M. tuberculosis* is present in the phagosome, which is  
1011 depleted of iron and possibly manganese by NRAMP1 and accumulates copper  
1012 and zinc through the action of the copper transporter ATP7A and other as yet  
1013 unidentified transporters that may belong to the ZnT/SLC30A family of zinc  
1014 transporters. In response to iron limitation, *M. tuberculosis* produces iron uptake  
1015 molecules, such as mycobactins (mbt) and IrtAB. In response to poisoning with  
1016 copper and zinc, *M. tuberculosis* produces the copper efflux molecules CtpV and  
1017 MctB, and the putative zinc efflux pump CtpC. Due to a likely high level of  
1018 redundancy among the mycobacterial Ctp transporters, it is possible that other

1019 members of this family of P-ATPases are involved in copper and zinc efflux. See  
1020 (Botella et al., 2012) for a review.  
1021 (Figure courtesy of Olivier Neyrolles, IPBS, Toulouse, France)

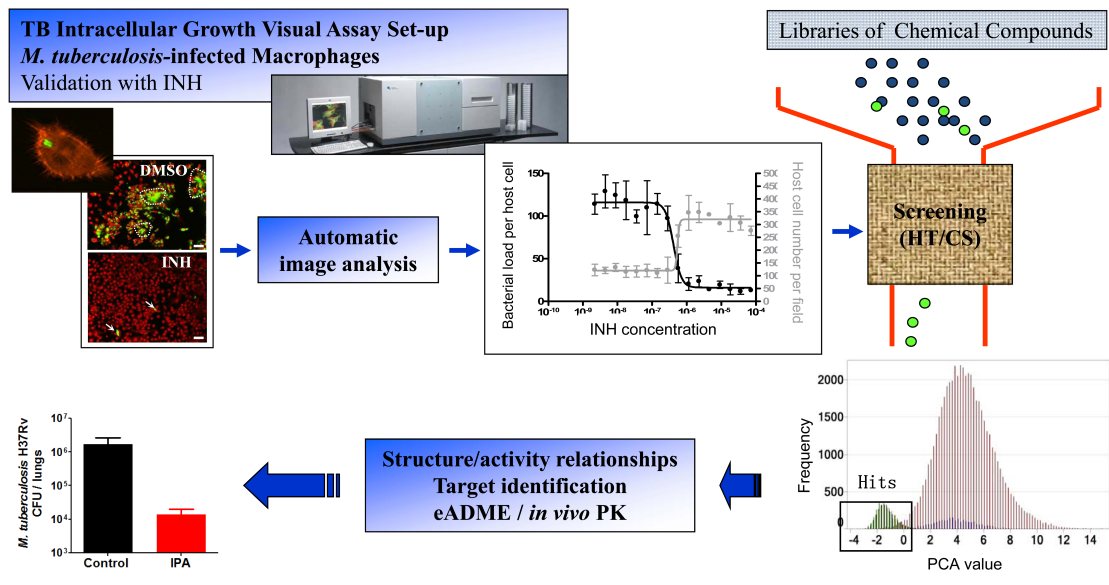


Figure 1

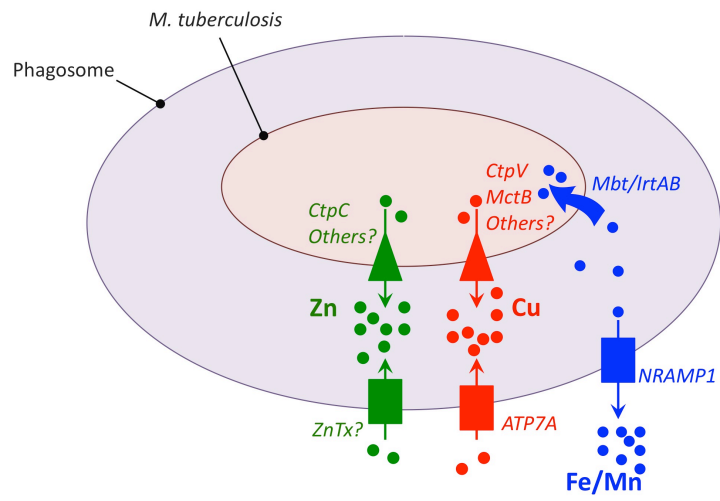


Figure 2