

Re-engineering of CUP1 promoter and Cup2/Ace1 transactivator to convert Saccharomyces cerevisiae into a whole-cell eukaryotic biosensor capable of detecting 10 nM of bioavailable copper

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1	Re-engineering of CUP1 promoter and Cup2/Ace1 transactivator to convert Saccharomyces
2	cerevisiae into a whole-cell eukaryotic biosensor capable of detecting 10 nM of bioavailable
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5	Bojan Žunar ^{a,b} , Christine Mosrin ^a , Héléne Bénédetti ^a , Béatrice Vallée ^a *
6 7	^a Centre de Biophysique Moléculaire, CNRS, UPR 4301, University of Orléans and INSERM, 45071 Orléans Cedex 2, France
8 9	^b Laboratory for Biochemistry, Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Faculty of Food Technology and Biotechnology, University of Zagreb, Pierottijeva 6, 10000 Zagreb, Croatia
10	*corresponding author
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	Address correspondence to:
18	Béatrice Vallée, PhD
19	Centre de Biophysique Moléculaire, CNRS, UPR 4301
20	45071 Orléans Cedex 2, France
21	Tel: +33 2.38.25.76.11
22	E-mail: beatrice.vallee@cnrs-orleans.fr

23 1. Abstract

24 While copper is an essential micronutrient and a technologically indispensable heavy metal, it is toxic at high 25 concentrations, harming the environment and human health. Currently, copper is monitored with costly and low-26 throughput analytical techniques that do not evaluate bioavailability, a crucial parameter which can be measured only 27 with living cells. We overcame these limitations by building upon yeast S. cerevisiae's native copper response and 28 constructed a promising next-generation eukaryotic whole-cell copper biosensor. We combined a dual-reporter 29 fluorescent system with an engineered CUP1 promoter and overexpressed Cup2 transactivator, constructing through four iterations a total of 16 variants of the biosensor, with the best one exhibiting a linear range of 10^{-8} to 10^{-3} M of 30 31 bioavailable copper. The engineered variant distinguishes itself through superior specificity, detection limit, and 32 linear range, compared to other currently reported eukaryotic and prokaryotic whole-cell copper biosensors. Moreover, the variant serves as a dual-sensing reporter for Cu^{2+} detection and cell viability, is relatively independent 33 34 of the cell's physiological status, disregards non-bioavailable copper and other heavy metals, and was validated on 35 real-world samples (contaminated with)/ containing interfering substances. Finally, by re-engineering the 36 transactivator, we altered the system's sensitivity and growth rate while assessing the performance of Cup2 with 37 heterologous activation domains. Thus, in addition to presenting the next-generation whole-cell copper biosensor, 38 this work urges for an iterative design of eukaryotic biosensors and paves the way toward higher sensitivity through 39 transactivator engineering.

40 Keywords: whole-cell biosensor, copper biosensor, bioavailability, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, transactivator
41 engineering

42 Graphical abstract



10 nM bioavailable copper

1,000,000 nM bioavailable copper

44 **2. Introduction**

45 Copper is the 25th most abundant element in Earth's crust (Emsley, 2001) and one of the three most important 46 metals in modern society (Sverdrup et al., 2014). It continues to rise in popularity, with each electric car containing 47 over 90 kg of copper, and power plants based on renewable sources needing 4-12-fold more copper than those based 48 on fossil fuels. In 2016, 20.2 million tonnes of copper were produced, with a projected annual increase of 6% 49 (Pietrzyk and Tora, 2018). However, copper mining is resource-intensive and polluting, with 70.4 tonnes of water 50 needed to mine one tonne of copper (Northey et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2007).

51 Copper is also an essential micronutrient that is toxic in high concentrations (Valko et al., 2005; Valko et al., 2006). 52 While the lack of copper induces neurological and blood disorders (Madsen and Gitlin, 2007), long-term exposure to 53 high copper concentrations is hepatotoxic (Briffa et al., 2020). On the other hand, copper serves as a fungicide, 54 algaecide, insecticide, and wood preservative (World Health Organization, 2004). Thus, while widely used, copper is 55 closely monitored in drinking water, where it must not rise above 2.0 mg/l (31.5 μ M), as water with more than 2.5 56 mg/l of copper tastes bitter and with more than 4.0 mg/l induces nausea and vomiting (World Health Organization, 57 2011). Analytical laboratories currently monitor copper using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-58 MS), optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES), and flame atomic absorption (FAA), thus detecting 0.02 µg/l (0.3 59 nM) of copper (World Health Organization, 2011). However, these methods are time-consuming, low-throughput, 60 require highly trained staff, and cannot distinguish between total and bioavailable copper.

When assessing pollution, the priority is to quantify bioavailable copper, i.e., copper interacting with living systems (Magrisso et al., 2008), as its amount can differ drastically from that of total copper (Aruoja et al., 2009; Maderova et al., 2011). However, bioavailable copper can be measured only through living organisms, which motivated the development of whole-cell copper biosensors (Bhalla et al., 2016).

Most of the current whole-cell copper biosensors were constructed in prokaryotic organisms (Bereza-Malcolm et al., 2015), e.g., *Escherichia coli* (Martinez et al., 2019; Pang et al., 2020), *Pseudomonas* sp. (Li et al., 2014; Maderova et al., 2011), and *Cupriavidus metallidurans* (Chen et al., 2017; Leth et al., 2002). However, eukaryotic systems, such as those employing model yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, might be more relevant to estimate the impact on human health (Walmsley and Keenan, 2000).

S. cerevisiae is a non-pathogenic, well-studied, and easy-to-genetically-modify single-cell eukaryote. It is highly
resistant to copper (Marsit and Dequin, 2015; Steenwyk and Rokas, 2017), whose high concentrations it survives by
inducing several genes, including *CUP1* (Shi et al., 2021), which encodes Cu-metallothionein, a well-studied 61amino-acid protein that binds a surplus of toxic copper and cadmium ions (Ecker et al., 1986).

74 As it is activated by only a few transcription factors, the promoter of the CUP1 gene is considered a model promoter 75 (Ball et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2001). Moreover, it is bound by only two transactivators, Cup2 and Hsf1, thus 76 responding only to toxic copper concentrations, heat shock, and oxidative stress (Liu and Thiele, 1996; Tamai et al., 77 1994). In an environment with too much copper, activation of the CUP1 gene is mediated by Cup2/Ace1 78 transactivator. This 225-amino-acid protein detects toxic copper (Singh et al., 2021), activating the transcription of 79 the CUP1 gene through the C-terminal activation domain after binding copper ions in its N-terminal DNA-binding 80 domain (Li and Fay, 2019; Turner et al., 1998). As such, this transactivator could be employed in biosensor 81 construction.

In this work, we developed a next-generation eukaryotic whole-cell copper biosensor based on fluorescence monitoring. For this purpose, we designed 16 *S. cerevisiae* plasmids encoding combinations of (i) a dual-reporter fluorescent system, carrying one copper-inducible reporter and another standardising, constitutively-expressed reporter, (ii) four different copper-inducible promoters, and (iii) nine rationally engineered variants of Cup2 transactivator. By this approach, we obtained a strain that detected copper with a linear range from 10⁻⁸ to 10⁻³ M. By comparing strain performances, we also show that straightforward engineering of transactivators allows construction of highly sensitive eukaryotic whole-cell biosensors.

89

90 **3.** Materials and Methods

91 **3.1.** Media and growth conditions

E. coli was grown overnight at 37°C at either 200 rpm in liquid 2xYT media (16.0 g/l tryptone, 10.0 g/l yeast extract,
5.0 g/l NaCl) or on LB plates (10.0 g/l tryptone, 5.0 g/l yeast extract, 5.0 g/l NaCl, 15.0 g/l agar), supplemented with
100 µg/ml of ampicillin. *S. cerevisiae* was grown at 30°C/180 rpm in chemically defined media without uracil (6.70
g/l Difco Yeast nitrogen base without amino acids, 20.0 g/l glucose, 0.77 g/l MP Bio complete supplement mixture

96 without uracil, and 20.0 g/l agar for solid media). When measuring copper response, Difco's YNB was exchanged 97 with Formedium's YNB without amino acids and copper (-ura-Cu medium), to which copper was added in the required concentration as CuSO₄ (Merck, Germany). Biosensor specificity was tested with CoSO₄, NiCl₂·6H₂O, 98 99 ZnCl₂, PdCl₂(NCCH₃)₂, Cd(ClO₄), AgNO₃, and AuCl (Merck, Germany). Biosensor robustness was tested with commercially available pharmacological Cu^{2+} supplements Oligosol Manganese Copper (72.6 µg Cu^{2+} and 72.8 µg 100 Mn²⁺ per 2 ml) and Oligosol Copper Gold Silver (3150 µg Cu²⁺, 70 µg colloidal Au, 1068 µg Ag⁺ per 100 ml) 101 102 (Labcatal, Mougins, France), as well as with concentrated plant fertilizer (0,002 % Cu²⁺, Florendi Jardin SAS, 103 France, Engrais NPK 6.6.6).

104 **3.2.** Plasmid construction

Plasmids were constructed in NEB Stable *E. coli* using Q5 polymerase, PCR Cloning Kit, Q5 Mutagenesis Kit, and HiFi Assembly (New England Biolabs, Evry, France), with the details of the constructions given in Supplementary material 1. Plasmid DNA was isolated with NucleoSpin Plasmid Mini Kit and extracted from an agarose gel with NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up Kit (Macherey-Nagel, Duren, Germany). All constructs were verified by restriction digest and Sanger sequencing, the results of which agreed with computed restriction maps. Primer synthesis and Sanger sequencing were outsourced to Eurofins Genomics (Konstanz, Germany).

111 3.3. Yeast strain construction

112 In this work, all yeast strains were constructed by transforming BY 4742 (Baker Brachmann et al., 1998) as in Gietz 113 and Schiestl (2007). For the flow cytometry analysis, we used strains with overexpression cassette integrated into the 114 chromosome XI at EasyClone locus XI-1 (Jessop-Fabre et al., 2016), at which the neighbouring regions do not 115 interfere with gene expression. This chromosomal insertion ensured that each cell carried only one copy of the 116 expression cassette, thus producing a uniform cell population that could not be obtained with 2µ plasmid due to its 117 varying copy number. Strains with chromosomal insertions were constructed by amplifying overexpression cassettes 118 from previously constructed plasmids with Phusion polymerase (New England Biolabs, Evry, France) and 119 oligonucleotides eo-chrXI-f and eo-chrXI-r (Supplementary material 1). BY 4742 was transformed with PCR 120 products and the correct integrations of the transforming DNA fragments, as well as the lack of 2µ plasmids, were 121 confirmed via colony PCR with OneTaq polymerase (New England Biolabs, Evry, France).

122 3.4. Fluorescence microscopy

123 Cells were grown overnight in a -ura medium without or with $100 \ \mu M \ CuSO_4$ until they reached a cell density of 10^7 124 cells/ml. Next, cells were centrifuged and imaged on a ZEISS LSM 980 confocal microscope with Airyscan 2 (Carl 125 Zeiss, Germany) under a 40x oil objective, using laser wavelengths of 488 and 561 nm. Images were processed using 126 Zeiss Zen Blue software.

127 **3.5.** Flow cytometry

128 Cells were grown overnight in -ura-Cu medium until the cultures reached $5 \cdot 10^6$ cells/ml and were then supplemented 129 with 100 μ M CuSO₄. Every 30 min, 100 μ l of the culture was mixed with 200 μ l PBS buffer (pH 7.4), and 25,000 130 events were recorded on BD LSRFortessa X-20, using 488 nm laser, 530/30 nm emission filter, and 505 nm long-131 pass dichroic mirror. Each experiment was performed in triplicate. Data were analysed in the R computing 132 environment (R Core Team, 2021) using openCyto (Finak et al., 2014) and ggcyto packages (Van et al., 2018). The 133 gate was computed automatically to enclose 95% of the total events on the logicle-transformed forward and side 134 scatter areas. The ymNeongreen was assessed on the flowJo biexponential scale.

135 **3.6.** Spectrophotometry

136 Cells were grown in standard -ura medium to stationary phase, incubated at 4°C for 24 h, washed in sterile deionised 137 H_2O , diluted tenfold in -ura-Cu medium supplemented with CuSO₄, and transferred into black sterile Greiner 96-well 138 microplates with a flat bottom. Every well contained 110 µl of the mixture and was prepared in triplicate. 139 Microplates were parafilmed to prevent evaporation and shaken at 30°C/180 rpm/16 h after which the parafilm and 140 microplate lid were removed, and the microplate was incubated for 20 min at room temperature.

Next, the microplate was imaged in Clariostar Plus (BMG Labtech, Ortenberg, Germany) preheated to 30°C. The plate was first shaken at 700 rpm/6 min and then imaged for eight cycles with five flashes per well and cycle, with shaking at 700 rpm/30 s between two cycles, after which the average fluorescence value was calculated for each well. The ymNeongreen was excited at 470/15 nm and measured at 517/20 nm, using a 492.2 nm dichroic filter. The ymScarletI was excited at 548/15 nm and measured at 591/20 nm, using a 568.2 nm dichroic filter. Data were exported to .xlsx format and processed in the R programming environment.

147

148 **3.7.** Growth curves

Cells were grown in standard -ura medium to stationary phase, incubated at 4°C for 24 h, washed in sterile deionised H₂O, diluted tenfold in standard -ura medium and transferred into black sterile Greiner 96-well microplates with a flat transparent bottom so that every well contained 200 μ l of the mixture. The microplate, covered with a lid, was put into Clariostar Plus preheated at 30°C and OD₆₀₀ was measured in each well every 5 min, for 16 h. Before each measurement cycle, the microplate was shaken at 600 rpm/30 s. Every condition was prepared and measured in triplicate. Data were exported to .xlsx format and processed in the R programming environment. The obtained results were consistent with the rate of colony growth on solid plates.

156 **3.8.** Statistical analysis

157 Statistical analysis was performed in the R programming environment (Supplementary material 3). The coefficient of 158 determination (r^2) was calculated by fitting a linear model to points within the linear range of the biosensor. The 159 detection limit (LOD) was defined as the minimal Cu²⁺ concentration at which the ymNeongreen/ymScarletI ratio 160 was higher than that of cells grown in -ura-Cu medium + its 3 standard deviations.

161

162 **4. Results**

We developed a copper biosensor that leverages the native ability of yeast *S. cerevisiae* to detect and detoxify copper ions. The engineered biosensor combines (i) a dual-reporter fluorescence-based system, with one reporter being copper-inducible and another being constitutively expressed to accurately normalise the signal, (ii) modified *CUP1* promoter and (iii) overexpressed Cup2 transactivator. The constructed biosensor is highly sensitive, detecting as little as 10⁻⁸ M of bioavailable copper. While constructing it, we also re-engineered Cup2, truncating it and exchanging its native activation domain with heterologous ones, thus highlighting the importance of balanced gene activation.

4.1. The construction strategy

To design an inducible reporter cassette, we first looked at the *CUP1* promoter, which is well-characterised and induced above 10 μ M Cu²⁺ (Ecker et al., 1986). Previous studies examined both the original *CUP1* promoter and a hybrid *CUP1-CYC1* promoter (Thiele and Hamer, 1986), mainly focusing on the 150 bp regulatory region upstream of the minimal *CUP1* promoter (Huibregtse et al., 1989) and disregarding an additional 170 bp of regulatory sequence extending to the neighbouring ORF (Figure 1A). While the intensely studied region of 150 bp contains all 175 five Cup2 recognition elements, grouped into distal and proximal upstream activating sequences (UASd and UASp, 176 respectively), the overlooked region also holds putative recognition elements for transcription factors Yox1, Rap1, 177 Eds1, Rlm1, and Sum1 (Castro-Mondragon et al., 2022), which might affect induction. Moreover, the UASd also 178 encodes a heat shock element (HSE) responsive to heat and oxidative stress (Silar et al., 1991), thus promoting non-179 copper mediated induction. We proceeded by inactivating the unwanted HSE as described previously (Tamai et al., 180 1994) and combined both CUP1 and CYC1 minimal promoters (minCUP1 and minCYC1, respectively) with CUP1 181 regulatory regions spanning either 150 bp or 320 bp, thus obtaining four versions of an inducible promoter (Cu1 to 182 Cu4).

183 After constructing inducible promoters, we placed them onto a 2μ plasmid, where they drove the expression of 184 ymNeongreen (Figure 1B). The four constructed plasmids also encoded cassette for constitutive expression of 185 ymScarletI, driven by the TEF2 promoter. Sequences of constructed plasmids were confirmed by restriction digest and Sanger sequencing. Thus, while vmNeongreen measured Cu²⁺ concentration, vmScarletI reported on cell 186 density, with their ratio indicating Cu^{2+} concentration corrected by the number of cells. Both fluorescent proteins 187 188 were codon-usage optimised for yeast, displaying high in vivo brightness and photostability (Botman et al., 2019) 189 and fast maturation time (Bindels et al., 2017; Shaner et al., 2013). Finally, to ensure a robust signal even from non-190 induced promoters, we selected URA3 as a genetic marker, thus maintaining plasmid at over 20 copies per haploid 191 cell (Karim et al., 2013). Compared to cells not encoding any fluorescent proteins, strains encoding both 192 vmNeongreen and vmScarletI exhibited higher green and red fluorescence, even in the absence of copper. Moreover, 193 fluorescence micrographs showed that ymScarletI was indeed expressed in all conditions, whereas ymNeongreen was significantly expressed only in the presence of Cu^{2+} (Figure 1C). High-contrast micrographs showed that every 194 195 cell expressing ymNeongreen also expressed ymScarletI. Conversely, in the presence of copper, each cell expressing 196 ymScarletI also expressed ymNeongreen. Thus, the system was fully functional.



197

198 Figure 1: Design of the four copper-inducible promoters. A) Structures of CYC1 and CUP1 promoters and four 199 copper-inducible promoters constructed in this work. The CYC1 promoter has three TATA-boxes within the 200 sequence known as minimal CYC1 promoter (minCYC1) and two upstream activating sequences (UAS1 and UAS2) 201 outside it (Song et al., 2016). The CUP1 promoter has two TATA-boxes and two upstream activating sequences 202 (UASd and UASp) that encode four Cup2 recognition elements (CuRE) and one heat shock element (HSE) (Thiele 203 and Hamer, 1986). Constructed plasmids carry minimal CYC1 promoter (pminCYC1), truncated and full CUP1 204 promoter (pCu1 and pCu2, respectively) and two hybrid CUP1-CYC1 promoters (pCu3 and pCu4). B) Plasmids 205 carrying copper biosensors encode β -lactamase (*bla*), pUC19 replication origin (*ori*), constitutive *TEF2* promoter and 206 ADH1 terminator driving expression of yeast-optimised red fluorescent protein ymScarletI, copper-inducible 207 promoter and CYC1 terminator driving the expression of yeast-optimised green fluorescent protein ymNeongreen, 208 yeast genetic marker (URA3), and replication origin of yeast plasmid 2μ (2 μ). C) Fluorescence micrographs of cells 209 carrying pCu2 plasmid, grown in medium without copper (- Cu^{2+}) or supplemented with 100 μ M copper (+ Cu^{2+}), 210 expressing ymScarletI and ymNeongreen. Scale bar denotes 10.0 μ m.

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4.2. Modifications of the *CUP1* promoter

213 We then compared our four constructs carrying inducible promoters (pCu plasmids) with the construct carrying only 214 minCYC1 promoter (pminCYC1). Cells carrying only pminCYC1 exhibited no change in their ymNeongreen/ymScarletI ratio, whatever the Cu²⁺ concentration (Figure 2A). In contrast, cells carrying pCu 215 plasmids increased their fluorescence ratio as Cu²⁺ concentration rose, with their sensitivity and dynamic ratio 216 217 chiefly determined by their minimal promoter. The fluorescence ratio remained unchanged regardless of whether the 218 original inoculum was freshly grown or incubated for 14 days at 4°C, and regardless of whether cells were grown in 219 the copper-supplemented medium for 16 h or 24 h prior to measurement. However, after 24 h cells entered the 220 stationary phase, during which they started degrading fluorescent proteins. Thus, this biosensor requires a total 221 detection time of 16 h, as after sample preparation the cells need to exit the lag phase and complete three generations. 222 The constructs built upon minCUP1 promoter (pCu1 and pCu2) outperformed those built upon minCYC1 promoter (pCu3 and pCu4), having a higher dynamic range and a detection limit reaching 10^{-7} M Cu²⁺. 223

A detailed study of the ymNeongreen and ymScarletI signals (Figures 2B and 2C) offered additional insights. The changes in measured ratios originated only from ymNeongreen, except at the Cu^{2+} concentrations higher than 10^{-4} M, at which ymNeongreen plateaued and ymScarletI decreased. Thus, measuring ymNeongreen and ymScarletI ratio at high Cu^{2+} concentrations extended the biosensor's linear response to 10^{-3} M Cu^{2+} . Interestingly, the declining ymScarletI signal suggested a downregulation of the plasmid copy number, probably because the cells needed to curb expression from the strongly induced promoter.

We also looked at the kinetics of the promoter induction, which also illuminated nuances of the *CUP1* regulation. Flow cytometry showed symmetrical unimodal distribution for all four inducible promoters, with their median fluorescence increasing over time (Figure 2D). Thus, for each strain, all cells within the population became induced. The rate of promoter induction (Figure 2E) was similar among strains, except for pCu2, which carried the entire *CUP1* intergenic region and had lower basal activity but reached pCu1 within 30 min. This observation suggests that without Cu^{2+} , the region proximal to *YHR054C* downregulates *CUP1*. Moreover, the *minCUP1* promoter was

- required for this regulation, as the effect was absent in *minCYC1*-bearing pCu3 and pCu4. Thus, all four inducible
- 237 promoters were activated in the entire cell population within 30 minutes after adding Cu^{2+} , with the combination of
- the *YHR054C*-adjacent region and *minCUP1* promoter fostering faster induction and higher dynamic range.





240 Figure 2: Copper biosensors with different promoters. A) The ymNeongreen/ymScarletI ratio of control construct (pminCYC1) and engineered copper biosensors pCu1-pCu4. LOD = limit of detection, r^2 = coefficient of 241 242 determination. Black horizontal lines indicate a linear range. Error bars denote standard deviations (SD). B) 243 vmNeongreen signal. Error bars denote SD, while each point shows one measured sample. C) vmScarletI signal. D) The distribution of ymNeongreen signal in cells induced with 100 μ M Cu²⁺, measured by flow cytometry. The 244 ymNeongreen cassette is integrated into the chromosome. Vertical lines within distributions denote median 245 246 fluorescence. E) Kinetics of promoter induction with 100 µM Cu²⁺ in cells with ymNeongreen cassette integrated 247 into the chromosome, measured by flow cytometry.

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249 4.3. Overexpression of Cup2 transactivator

250 To increase the system's sensitivity, we added to pCu plasmids a strong constitutive CUP2 expression cassette 251 driven by the TDH3 promoter, thus obtaining the pCu-CUP2 plasmid series (Figure 3A). Compared to the pCu 252 series, all new constructs had a higher basal ymNeongreen/ymScarletI ratio, and several had better detection limits 253 and linear range (Figure 3B). While the detection limit of pCu1-CUP2 decreased, the detection limit of pCu2-CUP2 254 remained unchanged, although its linear range increased. The detection limit of pCu3-CUP2 and pCu4-CUP2 rose a hundred-fold, as did their linear range, allowing them to detect as little as 10⁻⁸ M Cu²⁺. Moreover, *minCYC1*-based 255 pCu3-CUP2 and pCu4-CUP2 outperformed *minCUP1*-based constructs in dynamic range and reproducibility. Thus, 256 257 plasmids pCu3-CUP2 and pCu4-CUP2 allowed for highly sensitive and reproducible detection of copper, ranging from 10^{-8} to 10^{-3} M Cu²⁺. 258

Interestingly, the higher baseline of pCu-CUP2 plasmids did not derive from ymNeongreen, whose expression rose only two- to four-fold (Figure 3C). Instead, the effect was mainly due to a ten-fold drop in ymScarletI (Figure 3D), which was also seen in fluorescence micrographs (Figure 3E). The rise of ymNeongreen and the drop of ymScarletI were the strongest in the *minCUP1*-based pCu1-CUP2 and pCu2-CUP2, suggesting synergy between *minCUP1* promoter and Cup2 binding sites.

The increased detection limit and linear range of pCu3-CUP2 and pCu4-CUP2 stemmed from the sensitivity and accuracy of the ratiometric measurement as in these systems the rising Cu^{2+} concentration barely increased the ymNeongreen signal, while the already faint ymScarletI signal decreased. Thus, although pCu3-CUP2 and pCu4CUP2 performed outstandingly, they never obtained the fluorescent intensity of pCu3 and pCu4. Finally, all pCu-CUP2 plasmids slowed cell growth (Figure 3F), with cells retaining normal morphology (Figure 3E) but reaching lower OD_{600} values in the stationary phase (data not shown). Thus, pCu3-CUP2 and pCu4-CUP2 can detect copper concentrations as low as 10^{-8} M but interfere with yeast growth, and so pCu1 and pCu2 might be more convenient when such sensitivity is not required.



Figure 3: Copper biosensors overexpressing Cup2. A) Plasmids of the pCu-CUP2 series. The labels correspond tothose in Figure 1B. B) Comparison of the ymNeongreen/ymScarletI ratio of copper biosensors with Cup2

275 overexpression (lighter colours) and without it (darker colours). C) ymNeongreen signal. D) ymScarletI signal. Other 276 labels are as in Figure 2. E) Fluorescence micrographs of cells carrying pCu2 and pCu2-CUP2 plasmids, grown in 277 medium without copper (-Cu²⁺) or supplemented with 100 μ M copper (+Cu²⁺), expressing ymScarletI and 278 ymNeongreen. Scale bar denotes 10.0 μ m. F) Growth curves of copper biosensors.

279

280 4.4. Partial deletions of Cup2 transactivator

281 We wondered if we could fine-tune the system further, boosting the growth and fluorescent signal of pCu4-CUP2 cells while retaining their extreme Cu²⁺ sensitivity. As overexpressed transactivators can slow growth through overly 282 283 strong activation domains (Gill and Ptashne, 1988; Meyer et al., 1989), we tried to pinpoint the Cup2 activation 284 domain. Alphafold's prediction of Cup2 structure (Figure 4A, Uniprot Accession P15315) showed that the 285 transactivator's DNA-binding and regulatory regions, residing in the N-terminal half of the protein, were well-286 structured. On the other hand, the C-terminal half of the protein appeared intrinsically disordered (Ruff and Pappu, 287 2021), which is characteristic of activation domains (Ravarani et al., 2018). Moreover, a localised search for 288 activating sequences identified a 75% match to the 9aaTAD pattern (Piskacek et al., 2016) in the Cup2 211-219 289 residues that fold into solitary alpha-helix at protein's C-terminus.

290 Based on structural information, we tried to dampen the activity of plasmid-based Cup2. Thus, we constructed two 291 truncated Cup2 variants, lacking 15 or 103 C-terminal amino acid residues (Cup2 Δ 1 and Cup2 Δ 2, respectively; 292 Figure 4A). The constructs' properties differed markedly. Compared to pCu4-CUP2, plasmid pCu4-CUP2 293 imparted poorer detection limit and linear range but increased dynamic range (Figure 4B) and strengthened 294 ymNeongreen and ymScarletI signals (Figures 4C and 4D). On the other hand, plasmid pCu4-CUP2 Δ 2 effectively 295 repressed the promoter, lowering its detection limit and ymNeongreen signal below those of pCu4 (Figures 4B and 296 4C), thus suggesting that $Cup2\Delta 2$ competitively inhibits DNA binding of the endogenous, chromosomally encoded 297 Cup2. Such inhibition also interfered with regular copper-detoxifying Cup1 response, thus undermining growth at 298 higher copper concentrations (Figure 4D). Interestingly, although pCu4-CUP2, pCu4-CUP2 Δ 1, and pCu4-CUP2 Δ 2 299 carried the same promoters, they differed in ymScarletI signals, suggesting that plasmid copy number also depended 300 on the protein that plasmid expressed. Finally, compared to pCu4-CUP2, plasmid pCu4-CUP2∆1 had no impact on 301 the rate of growth (Figure 4E) and promoter induction (Figures 4F and 4G), while pCu4-CUP2 $\Delta 2$ grew faster than pCu4-CUP2 but slower than pCu4 (Figure 4E). As such, growth curves also imply that cells grew slowly due to
 overly strong activation domains. Overall, truncated Cup2 variants performed worse than full-length Cup2,
 suggesting that potent activation domains slow growth and weaken the fluorescent signal but significantly increase
 detection limit and linear range.



307 Figure 4: Copper biosensors overexpressing truncated Cup2. A) Alphafold-predicted structure of Cup2 and its 308 trimmed variants. Cup2∆1 contains both light-green and dark-green regions of Cup2, but not the orange region, 309 while $Cup2\Delta 2$ contains only the light-green region. Numbers in parentheses denote amino acid residues contained 310 within each variant. B) The ymNeongreen/ymScarletI ratio for control construct, pCu4 biosensor without and with 311 Cup2 overexpression, as well as biosensors overexpressing trimmed Cup2 variants. C) ymNeongreen signal. D) 312 ymScarletI signal. Other labels are as in Figure 2. E) Growth curves. F) The distribution of ymNeongreen signal in 313 cells induced with 100 µM Cu²⁺, measured by flow cytometry. The ymNeongreen cassette is integrated into the 314 chromosome. Vertical lines within distributions denote median fluorescence. G) Kinetics of promoter induction with 100 µM Cu²⁺ in cells with ymNeongreen cassette integrated into the chromosome, as measured by flow cytometry. 315

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317 4.5. Cup2 variants with heterologous activation domains

As previous results suggested that a more potent activation domain benefits the biosensor, we fused truncated Cup2 variants with strong heterologous activation domains. Thus, to both Cup2 Δ 1 and Cup2 Δ 2, we appended activation domains VP64 from herpes simplex virus (Beerli et al., 1998), EDLL2 from *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Naseri et al., 2017), or their combination.

322 Hybrid Cup2 transactivators underlined the importance of balanced activation. Fusing Cup2 $\Delta 1$ with either VP64 or 323 EDLL2 lowered the systems' detection limit ten-fold, and linking both domains to it lowered it even more (Figure 324 5A). On the contrary, a fusion of Cup $2\Delta 2$ with either domain was beneficial, with the construct carrying both 325 activation domains together rivalling the non-truncated Cup2. The ymNeongreen and ymScarletI also reflected 326 variation in construct performance (Figures 5B, 5C, and 5D, 5E, respectively), with the expression of ymScarletI 327 closely matching the growth rates (Figures 5F and 5G). Thus, adding domains to mostly intact Cup2 creates an 328 overpowering transactivator, harming the system. In contrast, adding the same domains to the solitary DNA-binding 329 domain of Cup2 is beneficial.



Figure 5: Copper biosensors overexpressing Cup2 with different activation domains. A) Comparison of the ymNeongreen/ymScarletI ratio for pCu4 biosensor overexpressing Cup2, its trimmed variants, and combination of trimmed variants with VP64 and EDLL2 activation domains. B) ymNeongreen signal of Cup2 Δ 1-based variants. C) ymNeongreen signal of Cup2 Δ 2-based variants. D) ymScarletI signal of Cup2 Δ 1-based variants. E) ymScarletI signal of Cup2 Δ 2-based variants. F) Growth curves of Cup2 Δ 1-based variants. G) Growth curves of Cup2 Δ 2-based variants.

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338 4.6. Biosensor specificity

As Cup2 binds Ag^+ *in vitro* (Buchman et al., 1989), we determined the specificity of our system by trying to detect related metals: Co²⁺, Ni²⁺, Zn²⁺, Pd²⁺, Cd²⁺, Ag⁺, or Au⁺ in concentrations up to 10⁻³ M (Supplementary material 2). Higher concentrations of cationic metals negatively affected yeast cells, decreasing their ymNeongreen/ymScarletI ratio in most conditions, but no significant response was observed for any of the related metals. Thus, our system is highly specific for Cu²⁺ ions.

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345 4.7. Biosensor robustness

346 To check for the robustness of the biosensors pCu2 and pCu4-CUP2, we measured bioavailable copper in first decimal dilutions of commercially available pharmacological Cu²⁺ supplements containing a mixture of copper and 347 manganese (Cu/Mn), or copper, silver, and gold (Cu/Ag/Au). Biosensor pCu2 detected 1.15 · 10⁻⁴ M Cu²⁺ in Cu/Mn 348 supplement (advertised value: 0.5.10⁻⁴ M) and 1.28.10⁻⁴ M Cu²⁺ in Cu/Ag/Au supplement (advertised value: 0.57.10⁻¹ 349 ⁴ M) (Figure 6), although its growth was inhibited in the presence of toxic Ag⁺ ions. The pCu2 also detected $2.12 \cdot 10^{-10}$ 350 ⁷ M Cu²⁺ in the third decimal dilution of a concentrate of a commercial plant fertilizer (advertised value: $3 \cdot 10^{-7}$ M). 351 Higher fertilizer concentrations did not produce a stronger signal, suggesting limited copper bioavailability. The 352 pCu4-CUP2 detected $4.64 \cdot 10^{-5}$ M Cu²⁺ in Cu/Mn supplement (advertised value: $5.70 \cdot 10^{-5}$ M), but it 353 354 produced/exhibited excessive variations when incubated with Cu/Ag/Au supplement or plant fertilizer, probably as 355 overexpressed CUP2 made the strain more susceptible to growth inhibitors. Thus, both pCu2 and pCu4-CUP2 356 detected bioavailable copper in commercially available samples, and pCu2 was more robust with relevant values.

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4.8. Comparison with other whole-cell copper biosensors

Finally, we compared pCu4-CUP2, our best performing biosensor, with twelve others reported in the literature (Figure 6B). This comparison showed that pCu4-CUP2 outperformed other eukaryotic whole-cell biosensors, having at least a hundred-fold wider linear range and at least a ten-fold better detection limit. While the state-of-the-art prokaryotic *E. coli*-based biosensors performed better than eukaryotic ones, only one had a detection limit comparable to pCu4-CUP2 and none had as wide linear range. Thus, the system developed in this work distinguishes itself by an outstanding combination of specificity, detection limit, and linear range.



Figure 6: Robustness of the developed biosensor and comparison to other published copper biosensors. A) Performance of the pCu2 biosensor in samples containing commercial Cu²⁺ supplements, with the grey line denoting biosensor calibration curve and the coloured labels showing biosensor response to each commercial sample. Values in the parentheses indicate Cu²⁺ concentration as advertised by the manufacturer. B) Comparison of the pCu4-CUP2 with other published copper biosensors. The horizontal line marks the linear range and the point next to it marks the detection limit, with colours denoting different species.

372 **5.** Discussion

In this work, we redesigned yeast *S. cerevisiae* into a whole-eukaryotic-cell dual-reporter biosensor able to detect 10⁻⁸ to 10⁻³ M of bioavailable copper. For this purpose, we constructed two native and two hybrid variants of the *CUP1* promoter and tested them in wild-type cells and in cells overexpressing Cup2 transactivator. While the native promoter variants performed better in wild-type cells, they were surpassed by hybrid promoter variants in cells overexpressing Cup2 transactivator. However, the abundance of Cup2 slowed down cell growth, prompting us to engineer its activation domain. While trimming this domain helped growth but worsened sensitivity, strengthening it worsened both metrics, suggesting further development should rely on subtler domain modifications.

Biosensors developed in this work can detect a concentration of bioavailable copper as low as 10 nM and have extremely wide linear ranges, from 0.01 μ M to 1000 μ M (5 log scale), thus ranking amongst the most sensitive whole-cell copper biosensors. Moreover, they measure only copper capable of entering the eukaryotic cell, disregarding non-bioavailable copper and other heavy metals, and were validated on real samples, containing interfering substances. Most other whole-cell biosensors are prokaryotic, which are less sensitive and have a narrower linear range. However, they still perform better than existing eukaryotic systems. Thus, the system described in this work distinguishes itself through high specificity, low detection limit, and wide linear range.

This work also relies on the design of a novel ratiometric, i.e., dual-reporter whole-cell biosensor, and is one of the only few such systems currently described (Mirasoli et al., 2002; Roda et al., 2011). The ymScarletI, as an internal reference system, monitored viability, allowing us to evade OD_{600} measurement, an unreliable score of cell density in polluted and toxic environments. Thus, the presented ratiometric system has clear advantages over single reporters, extending the biosensor's detection limit and linear range, and serving as a dual-sensing reporter for Cu²⁺ detection and cell viability.

We constructed and compared four versions of the *CUP1* promoter without heat shock element (HSE), thus making it more independent of the cell's physiological status. We showed that the *YHR054C*-adjacent sequence cooperates with the *minCUP1* promoter to affect induction kinetics and that the *minCUP1* promoter considerably affects the biosensor's detection limit and dynamic range, although it does not carry Cup2-binding sites. Interestingly, Badi and Barberis (2002) noticed that the region upstream of *CUP1* UAS restores impaired activation of *CUP1* transcription, even suggesting that the *YHR054C* sequence itself has a regulatory role. Moreover, overexpression of Cup2 benefited the *minCYC1*-based biosensors but not the *minCUP1*-based biosensors, suggesting an interaction between the Cup2binding region and *minCUP1* promoter, which is disrupted in the hybrid promoter but restored at higher Cup2 concentration. Thus, the *CUP1* promoter seems to have evolved as one compact, well-tuned transcription unit, with both Cup2-binding and non-binding segments working together to regulate transcription.

The Cup2 overexpression enhanced otherwise under-performing *minCYC1*-based constructs. This result highlighted difficulties in predicting construct performance and underlined the importance of testing many variants. However, overexpression of Cup2 lowered ymNeongreen and ymScarletI signals, with the overexpression system ultimately performing well because of the dual-reporter ratiometric approach.

The Cup2 overexpression also hampered growth, probably through squelching (Schmidt et al., 2016), i.e., cell-wide disturbance of transcription caused when overexpressed transactivator binds up too much Mediator, causing its cellwide shortage. In support of this hypothesis, Sanborn et al. (2021) recently demonstrated that the Cup2 activation domain directly binds Mediator. We restored growth by trimming the C-terminal half of Cup2 but thus created a transcriptional repressor that competes with chromosomally encoded Cup2 for binding sites, blocking copper response. These results suggest that similar overexpression of the DNA-binding domain alone could serve as a general strategy for damping unwanted transcriptional responses.

We further adjusted the biosensor by building upon or exchanging native Cup2 activation domain with foreign sequences, e.g., viral VP64 or plant EDLL2 domains. We noted that strong activation domains slowed growth, especially when present together, paralleling the observation that domains present *in tandem* bind Mediator stronger than expected due to the synergistic effect of their interaction sites (Sanborn et al., 2021). Curiously, this effect could be employed to limit the growth rate, and thus harnessed for biocontainment and biosafety (Wang and Zhang, 2019).

We constructed and compared a total of 16 copper biosensors, which is an unusual approach given that most publications characterise only one variant. However, such an approach allowed us to deduce some design guidelines and inspired further modifications. For example, while we focused on exchanging entire activation domains, an alternative approach would be to change single amino acids (Sanborn et al., 2021), to allow for more precise tuning of the signal. Moreover, the detection limit might be improved by deleting an array of *CUP1* genes, which downregulate their own expression (Wright et al., 1988) and are over-induced in strains overexpressing Cup2 (Huibregtse et al., 1989). Additional strategies could rely on modifying chromosomally encoded *CUP2* or introducing more Cup2
binding elements into the inducible promoter.

427

428 6. Conclusion

429 In this work, we leveraged the native copper response of yeast S. cerevisiae and redesigned it. We constructed the 430 next generation eukaryotic whole-cell copper biosensor exhibiting very high sensitivity, specificity, and wide linear range, allowing detection of bioavailable copper from 10⁻⁸ to 10⁻³ M. For this purpose, we combined an 431 432 unprecedented dual-reporter strategy with significant promoter and transactivator engineering. While the system 433 performs admirably, its signal is intended to be measured only after overnight incubation under standard growth 434 conditions, in the medium supplemented with the analyte. In our upcoming work, we plan to further fine-tune 435 fluorescent signal by introducing point mutations in activation domains and to construct an analogous ratiometric 436 system for the detection of antibiotics. As such, our approach points out a new paradigm for developing and 437 improving any eukaryotic whole-cell biosensor.

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443 8. Supplementary materials

Supplementary material 1: Details of the plasmid and strain construction. Supplementary material 2: Biosensor
response to copper-related cationic metals. Supplementary material 3: List of mean values and corresponding
standard deviations depicted in Figures 2-5.

447 9. Competing Interests

448 The authors declare no competing interests associated with the manuscript.

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453 Bojan Žunar: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Validation, Investigation, Formal analysis, Visualization,
454 Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing. Christine Mosrin: Resources, Writing - Review & Editing.
455 Héléne Bénédetti: Resources, Supervision, Writing - Review & Editing. Béatrice Vallée: Conceptualization,

456 Methodology, Resources, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

457 **12. Literature**

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