4 **The Histone H3-H4 Tetramer is a Copper Reductase Enzyme**

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Abstract

Ancestral histones were present in organisms with small genomes, no nucleus, and little evidence for epigenetic regulation, suggesting histones may have additional older functions. We report that the histone H3-H4 tetramer is an enzyme that catalyzes the reduction of Cu^{2+} to Cu^{1+} when assembled *in vitro* from recombinant histones. Mutations of residues in the putative active site at the interface of the apposing H3 proteins alter the enzymatic activity and cellular processes such as Sod1 function or mitochondrial respiration that depend on availability of reduced copper. These effects are not due to altered gene expression or copper abundance but are consistent with decreased levels of cuprous ions. We propose that the H3-H4 tetramer is an oxidoreductase that provides biousable copper for cellular and mitochondrial chemistry. As the emergence of eukaryotes coincided with the Great Oxidation Event and decreased biousability of metals, the histone enzymatic function may have facilitated eukaryogenesis.

Introduction

Eukaryotes owe their nucleosomal chromatin structure to an ancestral histone-containing archaeon that merged with the protomitochondria, forming the first eukaryotic common ancestor. Archaeal histone tetramers wrap ~60 bp of DNA (Pereira et al., 1997), and have similar geometry and protein-DNA interactions (Mattiroli et al., 2017) as the eukaryotic H3-H4 tetramer. Unlike eukaryotic histones, archaeal histones typically lack extended N-terminal tails, are devoid of post-translational modifications, and occur in organisms with no known protein machinery for epigenetic regulation. Archaea also have significantly smaller genomes than eukaryotes, and do not contain nuclei. With no apparent capability for epigenetic regulation or little need for genome compaction in a confined nuclear space, the possibility arises that the conserved histone H3-H4 tetramer complex may have an additional older function in archaea, and therefore in the eukaryotes that emerged from them.

An overlooked feature of the nucleosome and the geochemical events surrounding eukaryogenesis hinted at what such a function might be. The region of the nucleosome where the two histone H3 proteins form a dimerization interface contains amino acid residues, including cysteine 110 (H3C110) and histidine 113 (H3H113), that are common in transition metal binding sites, particularly those that coordinate copper ions (Katz et al., 2003). These residues display some ability to coordinate transition metal ions *in vitro*, but it is unclear whether such interactions are functionally significant (Adamczyk et al., 2007; Bal et al., 1995; Saavedra, 1986). The evolutionary conservation of residues in this region is greater than expected given their contributions to the thermodynamic stability of the nucleosome (Ramachandran et al., 2011), leading to the suggestion that "a novel function" provided by the H3-H3' interface is driving the unexpected conservation (Ramachandran et al., 2011). Whether the putative metal-binding

capability of histone H3 is biologically relevant in eukaryotes is not known, but a clue comes from the geochemical history of Earth. The emergence of eukaryotes approximately coincided with the initial accumulation of molecular oxygen (Anbar, 2008). Its increasing abundance substantially altered the biousability of transition metals such as iron and copper in the oceans. These essential metals were also becoming more toxic in the presence of oxygen (Saito et al., 2003), presenting a formidable challenge for their usage. The hypothesis that early eukaryotes may have relied partly on histones for proper metal homeostasis has not been considered.

Copper is an essential element in eukaryotes that serves as a redox co-factor for numerous critical enzymes such as cytochrome c oxidase in the mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC), and Cu, Zn-superoxide dismutases (e.g., Sod1) (Nevitt et al., 2012). Copper also functions as a signaling element to regulate specific biochemical pathways (Krishnamoorthy et al., 2016). In the active sites of redox enzymes, copper cycles between the cupric (Cu^{2+}) and cuprous (Cu^{1+}) forms, including partial oxidation states in between. However, it is the fully reduced cuprous form that is trafficked intracellularly, suggesting a need to maintain cellular cuprous ion pools for proper distribution and utilization of copper (Pufahl et al., 1997). How cells maintain a pool of cuprous ions is not fully understood. Here, we present biochemical, molecular, and genetic data that eukaryotic histone H3-H4 tetramers catalyze reduction of cupric to cuprous ions with the catalytic site likely forming at the H3-H3' interface. Our data indicate that histones provide cuprous ions for utilization by various cellular and mitochondrial proteins. This function may have contributed to the emergence of eukaryotes, making the presence of histones in the ancestral archaeon not incidental (Sandman and Reeve, 1998), but rather essential for eukaryogenesis.

Results

Recombinant histone H3-H4 tetramer interacts with cupric ions

We first sought to determine whether copper ions interact with the residues at the putative metal-binding site of the H3-H3' interface (Saavedra, 1986) (Figure 1A). We assembled and purified *Xenopus laevis* recombinant histone H3-H4 tetramers (Dyer et al., 2004), which are identical to human H3.2 and H4 histone proteins, respectively (Figure 1 – figure supplement 1A-C). We performed tetramer assembly and subsequent assays in solutions and glassware thoroughly depleted of contaminating metal ions, a critical precaution for *in vitro* studies (see Methods).

We focused first on the role of the pair of cysteine residues at position 110 (H3C110), one from each apposing H3 protein (Adamczyk et al., 2007; Saavedra, 1986), in copper ion binding. H3C110 is present in the canonical histone H3 of 146 out of 166 eukaryotes that span the major kingdoms (Macadangdang et al., 2014), including *X. laevis*, and *H. sapiens*. It is the sole cysteine residue present in most H3s or in H4 and is absent only in a few fungi of the genus Saccharomyces, including *S. cerevisiae* H3 (Figure 1B). Cysteine-copper ion interactions generally result in characteristic absorption spectra in the UV-visible range that are dependent on the coordination environment (Solomon et al., 1993). Incubation of the *X. laevis* wildtype (Xl WT) tetramer with increasing molar equivalents of Cu^{2+} resulted in an increasing UV absorbance band with a peak at 245 nm that plateaued at a tetramer to cupric ion ratio of 1 (Figure 1C, left panel). Critically, mutation of C110 to alanine (*H3C110A*), which did not affect tetramer assembly (Figure 1 – figure supplement 1B and C), abolished this copper-dependent absorbance change (Figure 1C, right panel), consistent with a direct interaction between C110 and a copper ion. Furthermore, when assayed by Immobilized Metal Affinity Chromatography (IMAC) using a Cu^{2+}-loaded resin, the

109   Xl WT tetramer exhibited substantially more retention than the H3^{C110A} tetramer, corroborating the

110   role of H3C110 in tetramer-copper ion interaction (Figure 1D).

The histone H3-H4 tetramer is a cupric ion reductase

We next hypothesized that the H3-H4 tetramer may not only bind copper but function as

an oxidoreductase, catalyzing the reduction of Cu^{2+} to Cu^{1+} in the presence of a source of electrons.

We developed a colorimetric assay to measure the production of Cu^{1+} by utilizing copper chelators

neocuproine (NC) or bicinchoninic acid (BCA) to detect Cu^{1+} quantitatively (Figure 2A, Figure 2

– figure supplement 1, and Figure 2 – figure supplement 2A and B). Formation of the NC_2-Cu^{1+}

or the BCA_2-Cu^{1+} complex result in a change in absorbance at 448 nm or 562 nm, respectively.

The assay also contained reduced forms of tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP), nicotinamide

adenine dinucleotide (NADH), or its phosphate form (NADPH) as electron donors. Reactions were

initiated by addition of Cu^{2+} substrate in the form of a $CuCl_2$-Tricine, $CuCl_2$-N-(2-

Acetamido)iminodiacetic acid (ADA), or $CuCl_2$-Nitrilotriacetic acid (NTA) solution, upon which

spontaneous Cu^{1+} production occurred at a slow rate in control buffers (Figure 2B). In contrast,

the rate of Cu^{1+} production was substantially increased when reactions were performed in the

presence of the Xl WT tetramer (Figure 2B). Production of Cu^{1+} plateaued at later time points due

to near full consumption of the electron donor with ~75% of total Cu^{1+} produced in the first 30

seconds (Figure 2B). Importantly, the rate of Cu^{1+} production was decreased to near-background

levels upon heat-inactivation of the Xl WT tetramer (Figure 2B). The unassembled *X. laevis*

histone H3 on its own or another histone, the yeast H2A, did not enhance cupric ion reduction

(Figure 2 – figure supplement 2C). Digestion of the H3-H4 tetramer with Proteinase K prior to the

assay abolished cupric reductase activity (Figure 2C), confirming the importance of the structural

conformation of the tetramer for copper reduction. No significant production of Cu^{1+} occurred in

the absence of TCEP and increasing rates of production occurred with increasing amounts of either

TCEP (Figure 2D) or Cu^{2+} (Figure 2E), eventually approaching a maximum rate of reduction

which is consistent with protein-based catalysis (Figure 2 – figure supplement 2D and E). The

tetramer also enhanced the rate of cupric ion reduction with NADPH, albeit in a different reaction

condition that was necessary to decrease un-catalyzed copper reduction by NADPH (Figure 2F).

The *C110A* mutation in Xl H3 substantially reduced the rate of cupric ion reduction (Figure

2G). Treatment of the Xl WT tetramer with *N*-ethylmaleimide (NEM) to irreversibly inhibit

H3C110 reactivity abolished Cu^{1+} production (Figure 2H), corroborating the importance of

H3C110 in cupric ion reduction. Given the general ability of thiols to reduce cupric ions *in vitro*

(Pecci et al., 1997), we considered whether any set of protein or small molecule thiol groups may

enhance the rate of cupric ion reduction by TCEP, as opposed to merely donating electrons directly

to Cu^{2+}. Reactions carried out in the presence of RNase A, which contains eight redox reactive

cysteines capable of forming four disulfide bonds (Klink et al., 2000), at the same concentration

as the tetramer did not enhance the rate of copper reduction (Figure 2 – figure supplement 2F).

Similarly, 1 µM of DTT directly reduced an equimolar 2 µM of Cu^{2+} but did not substantially

enhance the rate of cupric ion reduction by TCEP (Figure 2 – figure supplement 2F), emphasizing

the unique role of H3C110 in the structural context of the H3-H4 tetramer for enzymatic activity.

The pair of histidine residues at position 113 (H3H113) at the H3-H3' interface have also

been proposed to participate in metal coordination (Adamczyk et al., 2007; Saavedra, 1986). This

highly conserved residue is present in the canonical histone H3 of all 166 eukaryotes that span the

major kingdoms (Macadangdang et al., 2014), as well as in the structurally-equivalent position of

most (29 out of 33) archaeal histones spanning the major phyla (Henneman et al., 2018) (Figure

1A and B). Thus, we asked whether the H3H113 residue also enables the H3-H4 tetramer to enhance the rate of cupric ion reduction. Mutation of H3H113 to alanine (*H3H113A*) or to asparagine or tyrosine (*H3H113N* or *H3H113Y*), which have been found in certain cancers (Forbes et al., 2015), had little effect on the rate of reduction with Cu^{2+}-Tricine as the substrate (data not shown) but diminished cupric ion reduction in reactions with Cu^{2+}-ADA (Figure 2I and Figure 2 – figure supplement 2G) or Cu^{2+}-NTA as Cu^{2+} substrates (Figure 2 – figure supplement 2H and I). The differing effects of ADA, NTA, and Tricine on copper reduction rates are likely due in part to their differing Cu^{2+} coordination ability and/or geometry. Altogether, our data reveal that the H3-H4 tetramer uses electron donors as cofactors to catalyze Cu^{2+} reduction and is thus an oxidoreductase enzyme.

The histone H3 of *S. cerevisiae* naturally lacks the C110 residue found in most other eukaryotic H3s, and instead contains an alanine at this position (Figure 1B). It does, however, contain the H3H113 residue at the H3-H3' interface. As expected, recombinant yeast H3-H4 tetramer did not absorb UV energy in the 245 nm range when incubated with Cu^{2+} (see below), as this was associated with the H3C110-copper ion interaction (Figure 1C). However, a broad peak centered at 680 nm was observed with increasing molar equivalents of Cu^{2+}, which required high concentrations of yeast tetramer, consistent with weakly-absorbing d-d transitions that are typical of coordinated Cu^{2+} ions (Mesu et al., 2006) (Figure 3A, left panel). Notably, this absorbance band only occurred when the yeast tetramer was assembled and incubated with Cu^{2+} ions in the presence of 2 M NaCl, but not at lower ionic strengths (data not shown), which may interfere with the structural conformation of the yeast tetramer (Lee et al., 1982). The *H113A* mutation in the yeast H3, which did not affect tetramer assembly (Figure 3 – figure supplement 1A and B), strongly reduced copper-dependent absorbance change at 680 nm (Figure 3A, right panel), consistent with

178   the role of the histidine in copper ion interaction independently of the H3C110 residue. The yeast

179   H3-H4 tetramer also exhibited substantial retention on the Cu^{2+} IMAC column, which was reduced

180   in tetramers harboring the *H3H113A, N,* or *Y* mutations (Figure 3B and Figure 3 – figure

181   supplement 1A-D).

182   Mutation of yeast H3A110 to cysteine (yH3^{A110C} tetramer) (Figure 3 – figure supplement

1E and F) elicited a copper-dependent absorbance band centered at 245 nm, nearly identical to that

observed with the *X. laevis* tetramer (Figure 3C), corroborating the ability of the yeast tetramer to

interact with copper ions at the H3-H3' interface. Furthermore, the *H3H113A* mutation in the

context of the yeast H3^{A110C} tetramer (yH3^{A110CH113A} tetramer) (Figure 3 – figure supplement 1E

and G) resulted in diminished copper-dependent absorbance at 245 nm (Figure 3C), indicating that

H3H113 affects the nature of the cysteine-copper ion interaction. Like the *X. laevis* tetramer, the

yeast H3^{A110C}-H4 tetramer displayed cupric reductase activity, which was diminished by the

H3H113A mutation (Figure 3D). In the absence of the H3C110 residue, the yeast tetramer did not

display robust cupric reductase activity in standard salinity (~100-150 mM NaCl) likely due to

deficient Cu^{2+} binding, unsatisfactory yeast tetramer conformation and/or inadequate

reconstitution of the cellular environment in our assay conditions. We also could not perform

copper reduction assays in high (2 M) NaCl concentrations, at which the yeast tetramer interacts

with Cu^{2+} (Figure 3A), due to salt interference with other assay components. Nonetheless, our

findings suggest that the yeast H3-H4 tetramer can display cupric reductase activity, and that the

H3H113 residue participates in this function.

198   *(Note to reviewers: We have attempted to perform the curpric reductase assay with*

nucleosomes. However, the combination of Cu^{2+}, the copper chelator, and DNA form an insoluble

complex, precluding us from performing enzyme assays. We are working on this problem but may

or may not make a breakthrough in a reasonable timeframe.)

Mutation of histone H3 histidine 113 results in loss of function in yeast

We next investigated whether mutation of the H3H113 residue *in vivo* would produce

cellular effects consistent with the ability of histone H3 to produce Cu^{1+} ions. Mutation of H3H113

to alanine was lethal in *S. cerevisiae* (Huang et al., 2009) (Figure 4A). However, introduction of

either *H3H113N* or *H3H113Y* mutations in the two chromosomal copies of the histone H3 gene

generated viable yeast strains *H3^{H113N}* and *H3^{H113Y}*, albeit with slower growth rates compared to

WT (Figure 4B). Although replacement of H3H113 with any of three residues resulted in loss of

copper binding by the H3-H4 tetramers *in vitro*, we sought to rule out the possibility that the slow

growth phenotypes were due to gain of a toxic function *in vivo*. Yeast strains in which the

H3H113N and *H3H113Y* mutant histones were expressed from only one locus, with the other locus

deleted, were severely sick compared to strains expressing both histone copies (Figure 4C),

confirming that substitution of H3H113 with specific amino acids generates loss-of-function

alleles.

H3H113 mutations lead to de-repression of Mac1 target genes

We next examined whether the *H3H113N* or *H3H113Y* mutations result in decreased

cuprous ion availability. We first investigated the activity of the transcription factor Mac1 because

it is directly inhibited by cuprous ions in the nucleus (Graden and Winge, 1997). Global gene

expression analysis by mRNA-seq revealed largely similar profiles in WT and *H3^{H113N}* strains in

rich fermentative medium (YPD and SC) (Figure 5 – figure supplement 1). However, Mac1 target

genes displayed increased expression in *H3^H113N* compared to WT (Figure 5A), which was

corroborated in the *H3^H113Y* strain via gene-specific RT-qPCR analysis (Figure 5B). Deletion of

CTR1, the main copper importer in yeast (Dancis et al., 1994), expectedly resulted in upregulation

of Mac1 target genes (Figure 5A). However, Mac1 target genes showed greater upregulation as

well as incomplete repression in response to exogenous copper in *H3^H113N ctr1Δ* compared to *ctr1Δ*

(Figure 5C). Importantly, although *ctr1Δ* substantially reduced total intracellular levels of copper,

they were unchanged in strains with the *H3H113N* mutation compared to strains with WT H3

(Figure 5D). This finding suggests that the effect of H3H113 mutations on Mac1 activity is not

due to altering copper abundance but is consistent with decreased availability of cuprous ions in

the nucleus.

The H3H113 residue is required for efficient use of copper for mitochondrial respiration

We next tested whether mutation of H3H113 impacts mitochondrial respiration, which

depends on copper ions for cytochrome *c* oxidase function. Although *H3^H113N* did not display a

defect in mitochondrial respiration, the more defective *H3^H113Y* strain displayed a significant loss

of cellular O_2 consumption in respiratory media where glucose was replaced with the non-

fermentable ethanol and glycerol (YPEG) (Figure 6A), consistent with its greater defect in Mac1

repression (Figure 5B). This defect was exacerbated in copper depleted medium, which was

achieved by addition of the copper chelator bathocuproinedisulfonic acid (BCS), and was

recovered by excess exogenous copper (Figure 6B), suggesting that copper utilization is perturbed

when H3H113 is mutated.

To relate defects in mitochondrial respiration to disruption of copper utilization, we

assessed the ability of cells to increase respiratory function as they were shifted from a copper

depleted state to a copper replete state. As expected, copper depletion via *CTR1* deletion resulted

in a low rate of O_2 consumption which was gradually increased by addition of copper exogenously

(Figure 6C). However, substantially more exogenous copper was required to rescue *ctr1Δ* in the

context of the *H3H113N* mutant histone (Figure 6C). The O_2 consumption measured in our assays

was almost entirely abolished by treatment with antimycin A (Figure 6 – figure supplement 1A),

an inhibitor of cytochrome *c* reductase, reaffirming the specific impact of the *H3H113N* mutation

on mitochondrial respiration. *H3^{H113N}ctr1Δ* also displayed reduced recovery of copper-dependent

cytochrome *c* oxidase activity compared to *ctr1Δ* (Figure 6D). The deficiencies in the context of

H3H113N were apparent at early times after inoculation in liquid medium before any measurable

growth had occurred, suggesting that they were not merely consequences of diminished growth

rate. *CTR1* deletion abolished respiratory growth on YPEG, which was partially rescued by

exogenous copper. Substantially more exogenous copper was required to rescue growth of *ctr1Δ*

in the context of the *H3H113N* or *H3H113Y* mutant histones (Figure 6E and Figure 6 – figure

supplement 1B). Combination of *H3H113N* with deletion of *MAC1*, which is required for *CTR1*

expression (Graden and Winge, 1997), also increased the amount of exogenous copper required

for growth on YPEG compared to *mac1Δ* alone (Figure 6 – figure supplement 1C). Addition of

iron, zinc, or manganese did not rescue the growth defects of *ctr1Δ* strains, confirming that the

respiratory deficiencies were specifically due to insufficient copper utilization (Figure 6 – figure

supplement 1D).

Consistent with the hypomorphic nature of the *H3H113N* mutation, a strain with one WT

histone H3 and one containing the *H113N* mutation revealed a partial loss of function in copper

utilization that was intermediate to that of strains containing two *H3H113N* or two WT H3 genes

(Figure 6F). Furthermore, we tested whether a lower dosage of nucleosomes would also disrupt

copper utilization by deleting one of the two copies of the histone H3 and H4 genes (*hht1-hhf1Δ*)

in an otherwise WT cell. Accordingly, *hht1-hhf1Δ* displayed decreased cellular H3 and H4 protein

content and increased chromatin accessibility by Micrococcal nuclease (MNase) (Figure 6 – figure

supplement 2) but did not affect growth in YPD (Figure 6G). Importantly, *hht1-hhf1Δ* increased

the requirement of copper in *ctr1Δ* for growth in YPEG medium (Figure 6H).

Disruptions in copper utilization by H3H113 mutations are not accounted for by changes in

chromatin function, cellular copper levels, extracellular metal reduction, or glutathione

levels

Our findings are consistent with H3H113 mutants impacting cuprous ion availability, but

we considered whether potential disruptions in chromatin structure or gene regulation account for

the copper utilization defects as opposed to direct interactions of the histones with copper ions.

Deletion of Asf1, a histone chaperone that facilitates nucleosome assembly in part through

interaction with H3H113 (Adkins et al., 2004; Agez et al., 2007), or the *H3H113N* mutation

resulted in minimal disruption of chromatin accessbility compared to WT as assessed by MNase

digestion (Figure 6 – figure supplement 3A). Importantly, any potential disruption of chromatin

structure did not account for the increased requirement for copper, as *asf1Δ* did not phenocopy the

H3H113 mutants in respiratory media (Figure 6 – figure supplement 3B). Global gene expression

patterns were similar between WT and *H3^{H113N}* strains in respiratory media (Figure 6 – figure

supplement 3C), with comparable upregulation of genes involved in the electron transport chain,

tricarboxylic acid cycle, and copper and iron regulation (Figure 6 – figure supplement 3D and E).

We also considered whether changes in the total availability of copper ions could account

for the defect in *H3H113N* as opposed to impacts on just the cuprous species. As was the case in

fermentative YPD medium (Figure 5C), total intracellular levels of copper were not lower in

$H3^{H113N}$ compared to WT in respiratory YPEG medium, although a slight decrease in iron in YPEG

was observed (Figure 6 – figure supplement 4A). Addition of excess copper in YPEG, which

rescued mitochondrial respiration in $ctr1\Delta$ but not in $H3^{H113N}ctr1\Delta$ (Figure 6 – figure supplement

1B), increased intracellular levels of copper similarly in both strains (Figure 6 – figure supplement

4A). These findings indicate that the defect in copper utilization in $H3^{H113N}ctr1\Delta$ was not due to

deficient copper uptake through the remaining minor copper importers, such as Fet4 (Hassett et

al., 2000). Lastly, inefficient recovery of $ctr1\Delta$ in the context of $H3H113N$ was not due to increased

sequestration of copper ions by the metallothionein Cup1 ($cup1^{F8stop}$) had no

effect on the requirement for copper in $H3^{H113N}ctr1\Delta$ (Figure 6 – figure supplement 4B).

We next asked whether the known extracellular metalloreductases *FRE1* and *FRE2*

(Hassett and Kosman, 1995) might increase the copper requirement similar to the H3H113

mutations. Deletion of both FRE genes did not phenocopy the H3H113 mutations, however,

(Figure 6 – figure supplement 5A), indicating that an inability to maintain intracellular rather than

extracellular cuprous ions results in copper-dependent respiratory deficiency. Furthermore, we

examined how the H3H113 mutations would compare to the effect of decreasing cellular levels of

glutathione (GSH), which participates in cellular copper metabolism (Freedman et al., 1989).

Decreasing GSH abundance, by deleting the gamma glutamylcysteine synthetase gene (*GSH1*),

increased the amount of copper required to rescue $ctr1\Delta$ in the context of $gsh1\Delta$ but to a lesser

extent than the *H3H113N* mutation (Figure 6 – figure supplement 5B). Combining *H3H113N* with

$gsh1\Delta$ caused an even greater defect in copper utilization (Figure 6 – figure supplement 5B),

suggesting that the histones impact cuprous ion utilization in a different manner than GSH.

Histone H3 is required for efficient utilization of copper for Sod1 function.

We next considered whether the impact of histone H3 on cuprous ion availability and copper-dependent function extends to the yeast Sod1. An in-gel superoxide dismutase assay (Leitch et al., 2009) demonstrated that total Sod1 activity was ~40% less in $H3^{H113Y}$ compared to WT when grown in rich medium, which was recovered by addition of 50 µM copper (Figure 7A and Figure 7 – figure supplement 1A). *H3H113N* also decreased Sod1 activity by ~20% compared to WT (Figure 7B). Deletion of *CTR1* reduced Sod1 activity and formation of its internal disulfide bond, which are both dependent on the presence of cuprous ions and on the copper chaperone for Sod1, Ccs1 (Furukawa et al., 2004). Combining *ctr1Δ* with *H3H113N* further decreased the internal disulfide bond and substantially lowered Sod1 activity to ~10% of WT. Both Sod1 activity and its disulfide bond were restored to wildtype levels by addition of excess exogenous copper (Figure 7B).

Loss of function of *SOD1* or *CCS1* causes lysine auxotrophy in yeast when grown in the presence of oxygen (Lin and Culotta, 1996). Consistent with this, $H3^{H113N}ctr1Δ$ exhibited a growth defect in lysine deficient conditions (Figure 7C). Further limiting copper abundance by addition of the copper chelator BCS rendered $H3^{H113N}ctr1Δ$, but not *ctr1Δ*, auxotrophic for lysine even in the presence of wildtype *CCS1* and *SOD1* genes (Figure 7C). Together, these data are consistent with a deficiency in copper utilization for Sod1 function when H3H113 is mutated.

We also assessed the ability of cells to restore copper-dependent Sod1 function starting from a state of low activity due to low delivery of copper ions. Copper delivery to Sod1 was first diminished by deleting *CCS1*, which significantly decreased Sod1 activity (Figure 7D). Sod1 activity in the absence of Ccs1 was increasingly restored by addition of excess copper in rich medium (Figure 7D). Importantly, the *H3H113N* mutation increased the amount of copper required

to restore Sod1 activity in *ccs1Δ* (Figure 7D). Correspondingly, the lysine auxotrophy of *ccs1Δ*

was rescued by addition of excess exogenous copper (Figure 7E). However, substantially more

copper was required to rescue *ccs1Δ* in the context of the *H3H113N* mutation (Figure 7E).

Interestingly, unlike the effect of *H3H113N*, deletion of *CTR1* did not further increase the

requirement of *ccs1Δ* for exogenous copper (Figure 7 – figure supplement 1B), suggesting that

histone H3 contributes to copper utilization in a qualitatively different manner than Ctr1. Excess

copper did not rescue the lysine auxotrophy of *sod1Δ* strains, confirming that Sod1 is required for

copper-dependent lysine prototrophy (Figure 7 – figure supplement 1C). Hypoxia rescued the

lysine auxotrophy of *ccs1Δ* and *sod1Δ* in both WT and *H3^{H113N}* (Figure 7 – figure supplement 1D),

indicating that the copper utilization defect for lysine prototrophy in *H3H113N* strains only

manifests when Sod1 function is required.

The *H3H113N* mutation specifically disrupts copper utilization as addition of manganese,

zinc, or iron did not rescue *ccs1Δ* lysine auxotrophy (Figure 7 – supplement 1E). The increased

copper requirement of *H3^{H113N}ccs1Δ* was not due to differences in Cup1-dependent copper

sequestration (Figure 7 – figure supplement 2A) or intracellular copper and iron levels (Figure 7 –

figure supplement 2B and C). As with respiratory growth, deletion of *ASF1* had no effect on the

copper-dependent rescue of *ccs1Δ* (Figure 7F). Global gene expression also did not account for

the defective copper utilization as *ccs1Δ* and *H3^{H113N}ccs1Δ* displayed similar patterns (Figure 7 –

figure supplement 2D), including genes involved in lysine biosynthesis, copper homeostasis, and

antioxidant defense (Figure 7 – figure supplement 2E and F). Altogether, our findings reveal that

the H3H113 residue is also important for copper utilization by Sod1. The significant impacts of

H3H113 mutations in at least two separate copper-dependent processes support the model that the

interaction of copper ions and the putative cupric reductase function of the yeast histone H3 impact

cuprous ion availability in the cell.

The *H3A110C* mutation enhances copper utilization for respiratory growth.

The ability of H3C110 to enhance copper reductase activity of the yeast tetramer *in vitro*

suggested that the *H3A110C* mutation should enhance cuprous ion availability and copper

utilization *in vivo*. We generated the yeast *H3^{A110C}* strain, with the *H3A110C* mutation in both

HHT1 and *HHT2* genes in their chromosomal loci. This strain grew similarly to WT cells in rich

respiratory medium (Figure 8A). However, in contrast to the effects of the H3H113 mutations, the

H3A110C mutation enhanced the ability of exogenous copper to restore the growth of *ctr1Δ* in

YPEG, consistent with more efficient copper utilization for mitochondrial respiration (Figure 8B).

We reasoned that increased provision of cuprous ions, due to the enhanced cupric ion reduction

caused by the *H3A110C* mutation, may mitigate the depletion of cellular GSH. Indeed,

H3^{A110C}gsh1Δ grew better than *gsh1Δ* in copper-depleted respiratory conditions (Figure 8C) with

a greater O_2 consumption rate (Figure 8D). Furthermore, *H3^{A110C}* exhibited a growth advantage

upon addition of a toxic but sub-lethal amount of potassium cyanide (KCN), a potent inhibitor of

the copper-dependent cytochrome *c* oxidase independently of GSH levels, especially upon

addition of exogenous copper (Figure 8E and F). These results highlight the advantage in copper

utilization conferred by the *H3A110C* mutation. Moreover, the presence of the *H3A110C* mutation

significantly rescued the copper utilization defect of the *H3^{H113N}ctr1Δ* strain (Figure 8G). Lastly,

the presence of the *H3A110C* mutation rescued the lethality of the *H3H113A* mutation (Figure 8H),

corroborating the opposing effects of the H3A110 and H3H113 mutations both *in vivo* and *in vitro*.

These findings further support that histone H3 contributes to cellular copper utilization, likely

through the maintenance of the cuprous ion pool via catalytic conversion of cupric to cuprous

species.

Discussion

Since their identification, histones have been considered to serve as packaging and

regulatory proteins for the eukaryotic genome. We now reveal the eukaryotic histone H3-H4

tetramer as a cupric reductase that provides cuprous ions for cellular and mitochondrial biology.

The enzymatic activity of the H3-H4 tetramer suggests the protein complex has novel features,

including a catalytic site, that were previously unsuspected. The structural features, unusual

evolutionary conservation, and our biochemical data suggest that a likely site for the catalytic

pocket is at the interface of the two H3 proteins. Subsequent studies should determine the

mechanisms by which the residues in this region, including H113 and C110, contribute to direct

cupric ion binding, increasing its reduction potential, and promoting electron transfer (Liu et al.,

2014). The H3-H3' interface forms *in vivo* only during nucleosome assembly on DNA and can

remain accessible by molecules in the surrounding environment (Feinstein and Moudrianakis,

1986). Therefore, the commencement of enzymatic activity would be inextricably coupled to the

protection of DNA as it wraps on the outer surface of the nucleosome away from the putative

binding site. Such a coupling may be a beneficial adaptation in species that require provision of

reduced copper, as it would also decrease the potentially coinciding damage due to copper.

How the tetramer extracts electrons from a reducing co-factor(s) is unclear, as is the

location at which this occurs. Electrons could transfer directly to the tetramer-bound copper from

co-factors or through the protein in a mechanism involving a chain of residues in transient redox

states (Lucas et al., 2011; Williams et al., 1997). In this regard, whether the sequence differences

between the histone H3 variants or post-translational modifications of the histones influence the kinetic properties or co-factor requirements of the H3-H4 tetramer enzyme activity remain interesting and open questions.

Since cellular copper ions are mostly bound by proteins (Rae et al., 1999), copper is likely delivered to and taken away from histones through as-yet-to-be-identified chaperones. Copper is present in the nucleus but the dynamics of its entry and exit or its function(s) are unclear (McRae et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2005). Interestingly, when cellular copper efflux is compromised such as in Wilson disease, copper disproportionately accumulates in the nucleus, reaching millimolar concentrations (Burkhead et al., 2011; Huster et al., 2006), albeit likely bound to chaperones. Considering the importance of copper to processes as diverse as tissue integrity, methylation cycle, iron homeostasis, and melanin and neurotransmitter syntheses in mammals (Finney et al., 2014; Nevitt et al., 2012; Winston and Jaiser, 2008), the enzymatic activity of histones could have wide-ranging effects at molecular, cellular, and tissue levels with consequences for organismal physiology and disease.

The oxidoreductase function of the H3-H4 tetramer, the ancient structural form of histones, could provide a reasonable explanation for why the archaeal ancestor of the eukaryotes possessed histone tetramers. This enzymatic activity, together with an associated intracellular Cu^{1+} transit system, could have facilitated the provision of cuprous ions to the nascent mitochondria to maintain a functioning ETC thereby intimately linking histones to the successful emergence of our common eukaryotic ancestor.

Materials and Methods

Statistical methods were not used to determine sample size. The investigators were not blinded to the identity of strains and samples in experiments and analysis.

Strains and general growth conditions. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strains used in this study are based on the BY4741 (S288C background, MATa) (Brachmann et al., 1998) and RMY102 (MATα) (Mann and Grunstein, 1992) strains and are listed in Table 1. Strains based on BY4741 were maintained on YPD (1% Yeast extract, 2% Peptone, 2% Glucose) plates, and which were supplemented with 20 µM CuSO₄ for strains lacking *CTR1*. Furthermore, strains lacking *CTR1* were used for experiments within three passages to avoid emergence of potential mutants with enhanced ability for acquisition of copper through alternative routes. Strains based on RMY102 were maintained on SG-trp-ura (Synthetic complete medium, lacking tryptophan and uracil, and with 2% Galactose) plates. All strains were grown at 30°C in all experiments as described below. Bacteria for histone expression were BL21(DE3)pLysS and BL21(DE3) cells (Agilent). Transformed bacteria were grown on 2xTY media (1.6% Bacto Tryptone, 1% Yeast Extract, 0.5% NaCl) supplemented with 100 μg/mL ampicillin.

Strain generation for yeast experiments. *BY4741 background:* The histone H3 *H113N* mutation was generated in both chromosomal loci (*HHT1* and *HHT2*) in a stepwise and marker-less manner. First, using the *delitto perfetto* approach (Storici and Resnick, 2006), the *H113N* mutation was introduced into the *HHT2* locus. Second, the *H113N* mutation was introduced in *HHT1* using the CRISPR-Cas9 system optimized for *S. cerevisiae* (Ryan et al., 2014). The pCAS plasmid, containing both the Cas9 gene from *Streptococcus pyogenes* and a single guide RNA, was a gift

from Jamie Cate (Ryan et al., 2014). The histone H3 *H113Y* and *A110C* mutations were introduced

in a similar manner as described but CRISPR-Cas9 was used for both HHT1 and HHT2.

Subsequent gene deletions and promoter insertions were generated by standard yeast gene

replacement and targeted insertion methodology using selectable marker integration (Goldstein

and McCusker, 1999; Longtine et al., 1998). Additionally, *CTR1* was deleted in several strains

using the CRISPR-Cas9 targeting system. Successful integrations and deletions were confirmed

by PCR. The CUP1 gene was disrupted by introduction of a stop codon at Phe8 at all CUP1 copies

using the CRISPR-Cas9 system as described above for generating histone mutants.

RMY102 background: The histone H3 *H113N, H113A*, and *A110C* mutations were introduced into

the *HHT2* gene of the pRM200 plasmid (CEN4/ARS1/TRP1/HHT2-HHF2) (Mann and Grunstein,

1992) by site directed mutagenesis (QuikChange, Agilent). The WT or mutagenized pRM200

plasmids were then introduced into the RMY102 strain by standard yeast transformation

procedures, and cells were maintained on media lacking both tryptophan and uracil to ensure the

presence of both pRM102 (CEN4/ARS1/URA3/p^{GAL1}-HHT2-p^{GAL10}-HHF2) and pRM200

plasmids.

Plasmids for histone expression. Plasmids for expression of *Xenopus laevis* histones are from

(Luger et al., 1997). All sequence changes to the plasmid were accomplished by site directed

mutagenesis (QuikChange, Agilent). The histone H3 plasmid from this reference contains an H3-

G102A mutation, which was corrected to the WT G102. H3C110 was mutated to alanine and

H3H113 was mutated to alanine, asparagine or tyrosine. pBL105 and pBL108 plasmids for

Saccaromyces cerevisiae H3 and H4, respectively, were kindly provided by Bing Li, PhD, UT

Southwestern Medical Center. H3A110 was mutated to cysteine and H3H113 was mutated to

alanine, asparagine or tyrosine.

Preparation of solutions and glassware. All glassware was treated with 3.7% hydrochloric acid

for 12 hours followed in some cases by 12 hours of 10% nitric acid to remove trace metal

contamination. All solutions, buffers, and washes were prepared using Nanopure Diamond

(Thermo Fisher) ultra-pure water. Solutions were prepared using Bioultra grade reagents and

remaining trace metals removed with Chelex 100 (Sigma). Standard RC dialysis tubing for dialysis

(Spectrumlabs.com) was washed twice in 10 mM EDTA (99.99% trace metal basis – Sigma) at

80°C and cooled to room temperature for 16 hours. For yeast media, addition of all components

was done without the use of metal spatulas. Media was filtered through 0.2 μm membranes.

Fermentative media was either YPD (1% Yeast Extract, 2% Peptone, 2% glucose), SC (synthetic

complete medium with 2% glucose, all amino acids, and uracil and adenine), SC lacking lysine,

or minimal medium (with 2% glucose and only the auxotrophic metabolites His, Leu, Met, and

uracil). Non-fermentative media was YPEG (1% Yeast Extract, 2% Peptone, 3% ethanol, 3%

glycerol). Agar media was prepared similarly using acid-washed glassware. Agar media for

hypoxic growth were supplemented with 20 μg/ml ergosterol, 0.5% Tween-80 and 0.5% ethanol.

Histone purification. Histone purification was performed as previously described (Luger et al.,

1999), except that purification by size exclusion was omitted and the solubilized inclusion bodies

were pre-cleaned by passage over a Hi-Trap Q-Sepharose column (GE healthcare) before loading

onto a Hi-Trap SP-Sepharose column (GE healthcare). Histones were eluted by a salt gradient from

200 mM to 600 mM NaCl, as described previously (Luger et al., 1999), and fractions containing

pure histones were pooled, dialyzed three times against 4 L of 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol (Sigma)

in water, flash frozen and lyophilized.

Tetramer assembly. H3-H4 tetramer assembly was performed as previously described (Luger et

al., 1999) with some adjustments. Briefly, equimolar amounts of H3 and H4 were dissolved in 7

M Guanidinium HCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5 and 10 mM DTT at a concentration of 1-2 mg/mL

total protein. Refolding was achieved by 1-2 hr dialysis at 4°C against 1 L of 2 M NaCl, 10 mM

Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol (T.E.B.), then 1-2 hr against 1 L of 1 M

NaCl, T.E.B., followed by 16 hrs against 0.5 M NaCl, T.E.B., except for *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4

tetramers used for Figure 3A, for which all dialysis steps were performed in 2 M NaCl T.E.B.. The

refolded tetramer was centrifuged for 5 min at 13000 rcf at 4°C to eliminate any insoluble particles

and purified by size exclusion chromatography on a HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 200 column (GE

healthcare) at 1 mL/min in 500mM NaCl, 1 mM Tris-HCl pH7.5. Fractions containing the tetramer

were concentrated using Amicon Ultra–15/Ultracel-10K centrifugal filters (Millipore). The flow-

through buffer was used as negative control ("buffer") in the copper reductase assay.

***In vitro* copper reductase assay.** H3-H4 tetramer, or the same volume of control buffer, was

resuspended to a final concentration of 1 μM in 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM Neocuproine (Sigma) and

30 μM BioUltra TCEP (Sigma) pH 7.5. The reaction was started by adding a mix of $CuCl_2$ and

Tricine-HCl, pH 7.5, at final concentrations of 0.0125-0.5 mM and 0.125-5 mM, respectively.

Special care was taken to keep the ratio of $CuCl_2$: Neocuproine at 1:2 for all reactions. $CuCl_2$

reduction using NADPH (Sigma, Roche) as the electron donor was performed using a final

concentration of H3-H4 tetramer of 5.8 μM in 150 mM NaOAc pH 7.5, 33 mM NaCl, 1 mM

Neocuproine, 10 µM NADPH and started by the addition of 0.5 mM CuCl$_2$ / 7.5 mM Tricine-HCl,

pH 7.5. To reduce a solution of 0.5 mM Cu^{2+}-N-(2-Acetamido)iminodiacetic acid (ADA) (Sigma),

5 uM of H3-H4 tetramer were resuspended in 100 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM bicinchoninic acid (BCA)

(Sigma) and 100 µM TCEP. The reaction was started by addition of the substrate. Reduction of 0.5

mM Cu^{2+}-Nitrilotriacetic acid (NTA) (Sigma) was performed similarly, except for the addition of

200 µM NADH (Roche) as electron donor instead of TCEP. Absorbance at 448 nm (Neocuproine)

or 562 nm (BCA) was measured every 0.5 seconds using a Hewlett-Packard HP8453 diode-array

UV/Visible spectrophotometer. Standard curves for each condition were produced using 2 mM β-

Mercaptoethanol to ensure complete reduction of Cu^{2+}. Linearity of detection was verified and the

resulting parameters used to convert the absorbance units into Cu^{1+} molarity.

Proteinase K treatment of tetramer. Proteinase K (Sigma Aldrich) was dissolved in water at

20mg/mL and buffer exchanged into water using Zeba Spin desalting columns (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) to clean the enzyme from impurities. 200 µL of 1 µM tetramer or histone H3 reaction

mix was incubated with 100 ng of clean Proteinase K for 15 minutes at room temperature before

starting the *in vitro* copper reductase assay described above.

N-Ethylmaleimide (NEM) treatment of tetramer. 10 µM *Xenopus laevis* tetramer was incubated

with 1 mM NEM in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl for 30 min at room temperature.

NEM-treated and untreated tetramers were buffer exchanged into 1 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 500 mM

NaCl using Zeba Spin desalting columns, concentrated in Amicon Ultra Centrifugal Filters

(Millipore) and reacted in the *in vitro* copper reductase assay described above.

UV/visible Spectrophotometry. Control buffer of each tetramer was used to zero background absorption. The UV/visible spectra of 50 μM *X. laevis* H3-H4 tetramer in 500 mM NaCl and 5 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5 was acquired first without addition of Cu^{2+}. This was followed by addition of 0.25 or 0.5 molar equivalents of $CuSO_4$-Tricine pH 7.5 at a ratio of 1:10. The UV/visible spectra of 500 μM *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4 tetramer in 2 M NaCl and 5 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5 were analyzed in the same manner. The same analysis was performed with the control buffer in the absence of the tetramer and used as "buffer control". The Hewlett-Packard HP8453 diode-array UV/Visible spectrophotometer was used for all measurements.

Immobilized Metal Affinity Chromatography (IMAC). IMAC HiTrap HP (GE Healthcare) columns were washed with 10 column volumes (CV) of water before loading with 5 CV of 5 mM $CuCl_2$. Unbound $CuCl_2$ was washed off with 10 CV water and the column was equilibrated with 10 CV of Binding Buffer (20 mM Imidazole, 1 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl). 325-360 μg of Tetramer in 1 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl were loaded twice and washed with 10 CV Binding Buffer followed by 10 CV Binding Buffer containing 100 mM imidazole. Elution was performed using a 100-300 mM imidazole gradient for *S. cerevisiae* tetramers and a 20-1000 mM imidazole gradient for *X. laevis* tetramers over 10 CV. Tetramer background binding to the unloaded IMAC HiTrap HP was competed off with Binding Buffer containing 100 mM imidazole.

Liquid culture growth curves. Population doubling times were calculated from cells growing exponentially in YPD or SC media. Total population doublings were calculated by measuring cell densities (OD_{600}) in indicated media after up to 48 hours of incubation. For experiments involving

potassium cyanide treatment, cells from dense starter cultures were washed twice with 5 mM

EDTA pH 8 and once with water just before growth.

Spot tests. Cells from exponentially-growing cultures were 10-fold serially diluted and 5 µL of

cells were spotted on media plates as indicated in the figures. For experiments with the *H113N*

mutation in a single copy of the histone H3 gene, cells were washed twice with 5 mM EDTA pH

8 prior to spotting. Cells were incubated at 30°C for up to 7 days and imaged daily. Because of

differing growth rates in the various media conditions, images shown in the figures were captured

when sufficient growth had occurred and growth differences could be assessed, and this ranged

between 2-7 days. Experiments in hypoxic conditions were done using a 2.5 L sealable jar and

anaerobic gas generating sachets (AnaeroGen) designed to generate a hypoxic environment

(oxygen of <1%). 5-fold serially diluted cells were spotted on agar plates. Media for normoxic and

hypoxic conditions was supplemented with ergosterol and Tween-80 to support growth in low-

oxygen condition and sealed in the hypoxic jar for 7 days at 30°C before capturing images. For

plasmid shuffle spot tests, cells growing in SG medium lacking only tryptophan were 5-fold

serially diluted, and spotted on media containing 1 mg/mL 5-Fluoroorotic acid. Cells that survive

have lost pRM102, but maintain pRM200.

Micrococcal nuclease (MNase) digestion. MNase digestion was performed similarly to methods

described previously (Rando, 2010). Cells were grown in SC medium at 30°C for ~2 doublings,

fixed with 2% formaldehyde for 30 min at 30°C followed by glycine addition to quench

formaldehyde reactivity. 2×10^9 cells were transferred to new tubes and resuspended in Zymolyase

buffer (1 M Sorbitol, 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 10 mM β-mercaptoethanol) on ice. To initiate cell wall

digestion, 2 mg of Zymolyase 100-T was added and cells were incubated at 30°C for 35 min.

Spheroplasts were resuspended in MNase digestion buffer (1 M sorbitol, 50 mM NaCl, 10 mM

Tris pH 7.5, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 500 µM spermidine, 0.075% Igepal CA-630, 10 mM

BME) and varying amounts of MNase (Sigma) were added. Samples were incubated at 37°C for

20 min before inactivation of MNase by 5X stop solution (5% SDS, 50 mM EDTA). Proteins were

then digested by proteinase K (Sigma), and formaldehyde crosslinks reversed, by incubation at

65°C for ~12 hrs. DNA was purified by standard phenol-chloroform extraction methods and

isopropanol precipitation. MNase-digested DNA samples were treated with RNase A (Roche) for

1 hr at 37°C. DNA samples were then purified using the Wizard SV PCR purification kit (Promega)

according to the manufacturer's protocol.

MNase accessibility analysis. MNase-digested DNA samples were normalized by concentration,

and visualized using the DNA ScreenTape assay on the TapeStation 2200 instrument (Agilent),

according to the manufacturer's protocol. Gel images exported with TapeStation Analysis software

(Agilent) were analyized using FIJI (ImageJ 1.48k). ScreenTape images shown and quantified are

representative examples of three replicate MNase digestions from separately grown cultures of the

same cell clones.

Sample preparation for inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). Cells from

overnight cultures in SC or YPD media were diluted to $OD_{600} = 0.2$-0.4 and grown at 30°C for ~3

doublings, or for 18 and 24 hrs in YPEG and SC-lys, respectively. Cells (4-12 x 10^8) were

collected, and washed twice in 1 mM EDTA to remove cell surface-associated metals and once in

water. Cell pellets were stored at -20°C for 1-3 weeks prior to preparation for ICP-MS. Plastic

bottles and cylinders used for preparation of solutions for sample digestion were treated with 7-

10% ACS grade nitric acid for 5 days at 50°C and rinsed thoroughly with water. Previously-stored

cell pellets were overlaid slowly with 70% Optima Grade nitric acid and digested at 65°C for 12-

16 hrs. Prior to mass spectrometry, the digested samples were diluted with water to a final

concentration of 2% nitric acid and a final volume of 3-5 mL.

Inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry. Total Fe and Cu content was measured by

inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry on the Agilent 8800 ICP-QQQ in MS/MS mode.

The most abundant isotopes of iron and copper (i.e. Fe^{56} and Cu^{63}) were used to determine the total

cellular iron and copper levels. The metal content was determined using an environmental

calibration standard (Agilent 5183-4688), which contains 100x higher concentration of Fe

compared to Cu, which more accurately reflects biological samples. Every run was calibrated

individually, and ^{45}Sc or ^{89}Y were used as internal standards to compare the calibration with the

analyzed samples. All Cu and Fe measurements in our study were within the calibrated linear

ranges and above the lower limits of detection, as determined from multiple blank samples. ICP

MassHunter software was used for ICP-MS data analysis.

RNA extraction. For poly-A RNA sequencing analyses, cells were growing exponentially in SC

or YPD, or grown for 24 hrs in SC-lys at the time of harvesting. For RT-qPCR analyses, cells were

growing exponentially in YPD or were exposed to $CuSO_4$ for one hour in YPD at the time of

harvesting. In both cases, cells were collected by centrifugation and frozen at -20°C until further

processing. RNA was extracted using previously published methods (Schmitt et al., 1990). RNA

extracted for subsequent RNA-seq analysis are from two replicate experiments. The exceptions

are cells grown in SC which are from three replicates, and cells grown in SC-lys + 75 µM CuSO₄

which is from one experiment. RNA extracted for subsequent RT-PCR analysis are from four

replicate experiments.

Sample preparation for poly-A RNA sequencing. Prior to preparing RNA-seq libraries for

Illumina HiSeq sequencing, contaminating DNA was digested using Turbo DNase (Thermo

Fisher). RNA quality was then assessed using the RNA ScreenTape assay on the TapeStation 2200

instrument (Agilent), according to the manufacturer's protocol. Using TapeStation Analysis

software (Agilent), RNA Integrity Number equivalent (RINe) scores were calculated. Only

samples with RINe scores greater than 9 (out of 10) were used for sequencing library preparation.

RNA-sequencing libraries were then prepared either manually with the KAPA Stranded mRNA-

seq library prep kit (KAPA Biosystems), or with automation, using the Illumina TruSeq Stranded

mRNA Library Kit for NeoPrep (Illumina). For both approaches, libraries were prepared according

to the manufacturer's protocols. RNA-seq libraries were assessed for correct fragment size and the

presence of adapter dimers, using the DNA ScreenTape assay on the TapeStation 2200 instrument

(Agilent). Average library sizes of ~270 bp were observed and deemed correct. Libraries were

pooled for multiplexed sequencing and further purified using Agencourt RNAClean XP beads.

Total DNA concentration was adjusted to 10 nM for Illumina sequencing.

mRNA-sequencing and data processing. High throughput sequencing was performed on

Illumina's HiSeq 4000 system, with single-end 50 bp insert reads, and dedicated index reads. Total

read count per library ranged from ~1.5-9 million. De-multiplexed reads, in FASTQ file format,

were aligned to the R64-1-1 S288C reference genome assembly (sacCer3), which was downloaded

from the UCSC database, using Tophat 2.0.9 (Kim et al., 2013). The "-g 1" parameter was used to

limit the number of alignments for each read to one, the top-scoring alignment.

Gene expression analysis. Gene expression values, in reads per kilobase per million mapped reads

(RPKMs), for 6692 annotated open reading frames were calculated using SAMMate 2.7.4 (Xu et

al., 2011). Many of the 6692 annotated ORFs are labeled as "dubious" or "putative" in the

Saccharomyces Genome Database (SGD). They break down as follows: Dubious open reading

frame unlikely to encode a functional protein – 717; Putative protein of unknown function – 316;

Retrotransposon TYA Gag and TYB Pol genes – 90; Protein of unknown function – 141;

Pseudogenic fragment – 4; Other - 20. These 1288 annotated ORFs typically have low expression

values and were filtered out of the final analyses. The remaining 5404 ORFs were used for

comparisons between groups.

RNA-sequencing gene sets. Gene sets (e.g. Figure 6 – figure supplement 3D) were constructed

by downloading and merging gene ontology term gene lists from AmiGO 2 in March 2017. The

"copper homeostasis" and "iron homeostasis" gene sets were further modified by adding or

removing genes based on literature review.

RT-qPCR. Extracted nucleic acids were treated with Turbo DNase (Thermo Fisher) and further

purified with TRIzol (Thermo Fisher). Poly-A RNA was isolated using Dynabead oligo dT$_{25}$

magnetic beads (Thermo Fisher) and quantified using the Qubit RNA HS assay kit (Thermo

Fisher). Equal amounts of mRNA from the different samples were then used to synthesize cDNA,

with random hexamers as primers, using the SuperScript IV first-strand synthesis system (Thermo

Fisher). Five percent of each cDNA reaction was used in qPCR reactions prepared with the

PowerUP SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher) and run on a Stratagene Mx3000P qPCR

instrument (Agilent). Primer pairs were designed to amplify regions of the Mac1 targets FRE7,

CTR1, IRC7, FRE1, and REE1 (Gross et al., 2000), and the loading control ACT1. Fold changes

were based on C_t values, normalized to ACT1, and calculated relative to the mean of WT in YPD.

Oxygen consumption assay. Oxygen consumption rates were measured in whole cells using the

Fiber Optic Oxygen Monitor, Model 110 (Instech laboratories Inc., Plymouth Meeting, PA). For

experiments in Figure 6A and B, cells growing exponentially in YPD or SC were diluted in either

YPEG or SCEG + 60 µM BCS, respectively, with or without additional $CuSO_4$, and incubated for

18-24 hrs. Cells were diluted sufficiently in YPEG such that final cell density in respiratory media

was less than $OD_{600} = 3$. For experiments in Figure 6C, cells were diluted to $OD_{600} = 1$ in YPEG

with or without additional $CuSO_4$ and incubated for 4 hrs. Note that no growth had occurred in

that time period due to the respiratory deficiency of *ctr1Δ* strains. For experiments in Figure 8,

cells were diluted in YPEG with or without BCS and grown at 30°C for 12 hrs. For experiments

involving Antimycin A treatment in YPEG, cells were incubated for 6 hrs in the presence of

antimycin. Cells were collected by centrifugation and pellets concentrated in fresh media for the

oxygen consumption measurements. Consumption was recorded for 5 minutes and the rate was

determined for a one-minute linear consumption period.

Mitochondrial DNA quantification. Cells grown as described above for oxygen consumption

experiments were collected by centrifugation and lysed by bead beating in Lysis buffer 1 (100 mM

NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM Tris pH 8). Lysates were then treated with RNase A (Sigma) at 37°C

1 hr in Lysis buffer 2 (Lysis buffer 1 with 0.5% Triton X-100) and subsequently with proteinase K

(Sigma) at 56°C for 2 hrs in Lysis buffer 3 (Lysis buffer 1 with 2% Triton X-100 and 1% SDS).

DNA was purified by standard phenol-chloroform extraction methods and ethanol precipitation.

0.1 ng of total DNA was used in qPCR reactions prepared with the PowerUP SYBR Green Master

Mix (Thermo Fisher) and run on a Stratagene Mx3000P qPCR instrument (Agilent). Primer pairs

were designed to amplify regions of the COX3 gene on the mitochondrial genome, and ACT1 on

the nuclear genome. Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) copy numbers were estimated based on C_t

values compared to ACT1. Oxygen consumption rates were scaled by the relative difference in

mtDNA content.

Cytochrome *c* Oxidase assay. Cells growing exponentially in YPD were diluted to $OD_{600} = 1$ in

YPEG with or without additional $CuSO_4$ and incubated for 4 hrs. Note that no growth had occurred

in that time period due to the respiratory deficiency of *ctr1Δ* strains. A mitochondria-enriched

subcellular fraction was then prepared from $\sim 2 \times 10^9$ cells using methods described previously

(Gregg et al., 2009), with some modifications. Prior to spheroplasting, cells were washed once

with 1 mM EDTA, once with water. Cell wall digestion was accomplished using Zymolyase 100-

T (Nacalai Tesque) for 35 min at 30°C. The crude mitochondrial fraction was resuspended in 60

µL of Enzyme buffer (10 mM Tris/HCl pH 7, 250 mM sucrose, 0.5% Tween 20). Cytochrome c

oxidase activity was assessed similarly to a method described previously (Spinazzi et al., 2012). 1

mM Cytochrome *c* (from equine heart, Sigma) was reduced by addition of 1 mM sodium

hydrosulfite. Full reduction was confirmed by the ratio of absorbance at 550 nm to 565 nm being

greater than 10. Reactions were carried out in 100 µL volumes at 30°C with 85 µL of Assay buffer

(10 mM Tris/HCl ph 7, 120 mM KCl), 5 µL of reduced cytochrome c (50 µM) and 10 µL of

mitochondria-enriched samples at a final concentration of 20 – 50 µg/mL. Cytochrome c oxidation

was assessed by measuring absorbance at 550 nm over the course of 5 min using a Hewlett-Packard

HP8453 diode-array UV/Visible spectrophotometer, and the rate was determined for a one-minute

linear oxidation period.

Sample preparation for Sod1 assays. Sod1p superoxide dismutase activity was assayed by

native-PAGE and in-gel staining with nitrotetrazolium blue (NBT), and the Sod1p disulfide bond

was assayed by IAA labeling of thiols and gel mobility shift, based on previously-reported

methodology (Leitch et al., 2009). For WT and *ctr1Δ* strains (Figure 7A and B), ~4x10^8

exponentially growing cells in SC with or without supplemental CuSO$_4$ were collected and

resuspended in Lysis Buffer (600 mM sorbitol, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 5 mM EDTA and protease

inhibitors) containing 1 mM iodoacetamide (IAA) (Figure 7B only). The lysate was split in two

for Sod1 activity assays and assessment of the Sod1 disulfide bond. For *ccs1Δ* strains (Figure 7D),

following an overnight growth in SC, cells were diluted to OD$_{600}$ = 1 in minimal media with the

indicated amounts of CuSO$_4$. Cells were incubated at 30°C for 2 hrs, at which point ~2x10^9 cells

were collected and resuspended in Lysis Buffer. Cells were lysed with glass beads. Lysates were

prepared for both native-PAGE and SDS-PAGE with either native sample buffer (12.5% glycerol,

31.25 mM Tris pH 6.8, 0.005% bromophenol blue, 5 mM EDTA final concentrations) or SDS

sample buffer (5% glycerol, 40 mM Tris pH 6.8, 1% SDS, 0.005% bromophenol blue) with (Sod1p

content) or without (disulfide bond) 50 mM DTT, respectively.

In-gel Sod1 activity assay. For native-PAGE, ~10 µg (WT, *H3^{H113N}*, and *H3^{H113Y}*), ~20 µg (*ctr1Δ*

and *H3^{H113N}ctr1Δ*) or ~100 µg (*ccs1Δ* and *H3^{H113N}ccs1Δ*) of total protein was run on a 10%

acrylamide gel for 2.5 hrs with 1 mM EDTA in the running buffer. Gels were then sequentially

incubated in phosphate buffer (50 mM K_2HPO_4 pH 7.8, 1 mM EDTA), 0.48 mM NBT (Sigma) in

phosphate buffer, and 30 μM riboflavin (Sigma) and 0.02% Tetramethylethylenediamine

(TEMED; ThermoFisher) in phosphate buffer at room temperature. Finally, gels were exposed to

bright light and scanned using an Epson document scanner. Signal intensities of the major SOD1

band were then quantified using FIJI (ImageJ 1.48k). For the analysis in Figure 7 – figure

supplement 1A, signal intensities from four separate gels were normalized based on the average

signal intensity in each gel. Relative signal intensities, compared to the WT sample, were then

calculated based on the normalized intensities.

Sod1p Western Blotting and Sod1 internal disulfide bond measurement. For western blots to

determine Sod1p content, 10 μg of total protein content was run on 10% SDS acrylamide gels.

Western blots were performed using a primary antibody against Sod1p, a gift from Valeria Culotta

(JH764) (Leitch et al., 2009). The antibody was diluted 1:5000 in Odyssey blocking buffer (LI-

COR biotechnology) and blots were incubated at room temperature for 1.5 hrs. Signal

quantifications were obtained using the Odyssey infrared fluorescence imaging system (LI-COR

biotechnology) and Image Studio Lite software. For western blots to determine the amount of

disulfide bond, 10 μg (WT, $H3^{H113N}$, and $H3^{H113Y}$) or 15 μg ($ctr1\Delta$ and $H3^{H113N}ctr1\Delta$) of total

protein content was run on 18% SDS acrylamide gels. After electrophoresis, gels were incubated

for 45 min with SDS running buffer containing 5% β-mercaptoethanol at room temperature.

Western blotting for Sod1p, and signal quantification were performed as described above, except

the primary antibody was diluted 1:2500.

SDS-PAGE and Western Blotting for histone content. For assessment of histone protein content, whole cell protein extracts were prepared from 5×10^8 cells growing exponentially in YPD. Cell pellets were resuspended in 0.2 M NaOH and incubated at room temperature for 15 minutes. Cells were then pelleted and resuspended in SDS-PAGE loading buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 2% SDS, 10% glycerol, 1% β-mercaptoethanol) and boiled for 5 minutes. For western blots, 4 µg of total protein was run on 15% SDS acrylamide gels. Primary antibodies to histone H3 (Active Motif, 39163) and H4 (Abcam, 10158) were diluted in Odyssey blocking buffer (LI-COR biotechnology) at 1:5000 and 1:800, respectively, and blots were incubated in diluted antibody at 4°C overnight. Signal quantification was performed as described above.

Statistical analyses. The number of experimental replicates (n), and the observed significance levels are indicated in figure legends. All statistical analyses were performed using Graphpad Prism 5 or 7, unless otherwise stated. Significance values for pair-wise comparisons of doubling times were calculated using the Mann-Whitney test. Significance values for comparisons of the oxygen consumption rates in Figure 6 – figure supplement 1A were calculated using the Holm-Sidak method for multiple t-tests, with alpha = 0.05. Significance values for pair-wise comparisons of population doublings in Figure 6 – figure supplement 1B, oxygen consumption rates in Figures 6A-C and 8D, cytochrome *c* oxidase activity in Figure 6D, culture densities in Figures 6H, 7E, 8B, and 8C, relative Sod1 activity assay signal intensities in Figure 7 – figure supplement 1A, and gene expression fold changes in Figure 5C were calculated using unpaired Welch's t-test. Significance values for comparisons of culture densities in Figures 8E and F were calculated using a mixed model Two-Way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test for pair-wise comparisons. Statistical testing for iron and copper measurements was done using unpaired Student's t-tests. For gene

expression data, we averaged RPKM values from replicates and used mean values for calculation

of global gene expression correlations (e.g. Figure 5 – figure supplement 1) and for analyzing gene

sets (e.g. Figure 6 – figure supplement 3D). For global correlations, Spearman's rank correlation

coefficients were calculated. Significance values for pair-wise comparisons of gene expression

levels of gene sets (e.g. Figure 6 – figure supplement 3D) were calculated using the Mann-Whitney

test. We also assessed differential gene expression, using the SAMMate RPKM values, for each

gene and between WT and $H3^{H113N}$ strains grown in SC media. Student's t-test was used to

calculate p values with the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure to control the false discovery rate at

0.1. Curve fitting for enzymatic kinetic analysis was performed online using "mycurvefit" tool

(https://mycurvefit.com),. Predicted values for 0.03 or 0.05 seconds were within 20% of the

maximum values detected and used to calculate the initial velocities, which were then transferred

to Graphpad Prism version 5.01 and fitted with the Michaelis-Menten non-linear regression

function to determine enzymatic parameters.

Data availability

Gene expression datasets generated by mRNA-sequencing experiments have been deposited in the

NCBI GEO database under the primary accession number GSE100034.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization, N.A., O.A.C., M.V., Y.X., and S.K.K.; Methodology, N.A., O.A.C., M.V., Y.X., M.F.C., S.S.M., and S.K.K.; Investigation, N.A., O.A.C., M.V., Y.X., C.C., S.S., L.Y., N.M., S.Y., S.Z., J.D., and S.K.K.; Formal Analysis, N.A., O.A.C., and M.V.; Writing – Original Draft, N.A., O.A.C., M.V., and S.K.K.; Writing – Review & Editing, N.A., O.A.C., M.V., Y.X., L.Y., S.S., M.F.C., S.S.M. and S.K.K.; Resources, N.A., O.A.C., M.V., C.C., L.Y., M.F.C., S.S.M., and S.K.K.; Visualization, N.A., O.A.C., and M.V.; Supervision, S.K.K.; Project Administration, S.K.K.; Funding Acquisition, M.F.C., S.S.M., and S.K.K.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

    Figure Legends

    Figure 1. Recombinant histone H3-H4 tetramer interacts with cupric ions.

    (A) *Left*: *X. laevis* nucleosome core particle structure (PDB:1KX5) (Davey et al., 2002) viewed

    down the DNA superhelix axis. Histones H3, H4, H2A and H2B are shown in metallic orange,

    blue, green and red, respectively. The square box delineates the H3-H3' interface. *Right*: Interface

    residues H113 and C110, one from each of the histone H3 proteins, are highlighted. **(B)** Alignment

    of the C-terminal region of *S. cerevisiae* histone H3, human non-centromeric histone H3 variants,

    and M. *fervidus* HMf-1 and HMf-2. **(C)** *Left panel*: UV-vis absorbance spectrum of the *X. laevis*

    H3-H4 tetramer incubated with increasing molar equivalents of Cu^{2+}. Inset: Differential UV

    absorbance compared to the absorbance of the tetramer alone, and without subtraction of buffer

    absorbance. *Right panel*: Buffer-corrected differential UV absorbance at 245nm of the indicated

    X. laevis tetramers incubated with increasing molar equivalents of Cu^{2+}. **(D)** Elution of the

    indicated *X. laevis* tetramers from a Cu^{2+}-IMAC column. *Left panel*: Image of coomassie stained

    PAGE of input (25%), flow-through, and fractions eluted at indicated concentrations of imidazole.

    Right panel: corresponding FPLC elution profile over a gradient of increasing imidazole

    concentrations. Peaks of tetramers appear over background absorbance of increasing imidazole

    concentrations (i.e., lines trending up).

    Figure 2. The *Xenopus laevis* H3-H4 tetramer is a copper reductase.

    (A) Photographic representation of *in vitro* copper reductase assay at indicated times. Control

    buffer or *X. laevis* tetramer were reacted with 30 μM TCEP and 1 mM $CuCl_2$ in 10 mM Tricine

    pH 7.5 in presence of neocuproine (NC) Cu^{1+} chelator. The yellow color is due to NC_2-Cu^{1+}

    complex formation. **(B)** Progress curves of copper reduction by 1 μM of *X. laevis* H3-H4 tetramer,

heat-inactivated tetramer, or buffer in presence of 30 µM TCEP and 1 mM CuCl$_2$ in 10 mM Tricine.

Lines and shading represent the mean ± SD of 3-5 assays. **(C)** Same as (B) using 1 µM of *X. laevis*

tetramer and equimolar monomeric *X. laevis* H3 before and after digestion with Proteinase K (PK).

(D) Same as (B) with indicated TCEP concentrations. **(E)** Same as (B) with indicated CuCl$_2$

concentrations. **(F)** Progress curves of copper reduction by 1 µM of *X. laevis* tetramer using 20

µM NADPH as the electron donor with 0.5 mM CuCl$_2$ in 7.5 mM Tricine pH 7.5. Lines and

shading represent the mean ± SD of 3-5 assays. **(G)** Same as (B) with the indicated *X. laevis*

tetramers. **(H)** Same as (B) with and without NEM treatment of the tetramer. **(I)** Progress curves

of copper reduction by 5 µM of the indicated *X. laevis* tetramers in presence of 100 µM TCEP and

0.5 mM CuCl$_2$ in 0.5 mM ADA pH 8.

Figure 3. The *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* H3-H4 tetramer potentially is a copper reductase.

(A) *Left panel*: Differential absorbance of visible light between 500 and 900 nm compared to the

absorbance of the yeast tetramer alone, and without subtraction of buffer absorbance. *Right panel*:

Buffer-corrected differential red light absorbance at 680 nm of the indicated yeast tetramers

incubated with increasing molar equivalents of Cu^{2+}. **(B)** Elution of the indicated *S. cerevisiae*

tetramers from a Cu^{2+}-IMAC column. *Left panel*: Image of coomassie stained PAGE of input

(25%), flow-through, and fractions eluted at indicated concentrations of imidazole. *Right panel*:

corresponding FPLC elution profile over a gradient of increasing imidazole concentrations. Peaks

of tetramers appear over background absorbance of increasing imidazole concentrations (i.e., lines

trending up). **(C)** Buffer-corrected differential UV absorbance at 245 nm of the indicated *S.*

cerevisiae tetramers incubated with increasing molar equivalents of Cu^{2+}. **(D)** Progress curves of

copper reduction by 5 µM of the indicated *S. cerevisiae* tetramers in presence of 100 µM TCEP

and 0.5 mM CuCl$_2$ in 0.5 mM ADA pH 8.

Figure 4. Mutation of histone H3 histidine 113 in *S. cerevisiae* is a loss of function.

(A) Plasmid shuffle assay with strains harboring WT H3 on a URA3 plasmid and the indicated H3 gene on a TRP1 plasmid. 5-Fluoro-orotic acid (5-FOA) is lethal to cells bearing the URA3 plasmid, and therefore selects for cells that maintain only the indicated H3 plasmid. **(B)** Average doubling times from steady-state growth in liquid Synthetic Complete (SC) medium. Bar graphs show mean ± standard deviation (SD) from 3-9 replicate cultures. **(C)** Spot test assay in fermentative medium (YPD). Note that the *HHT1* gene in the bottom three strains was placed under the control of the *GAL1* promoter, which is repressed in YPD. Since one copy of *H3H113N* or *H3H113Y* (rows 7 and 8) causes a more severe phenotype than two copies ($H3^{H113N}$ and $H3^{H113Y}$, rows 4 and 5), this suggests that they are likely loss of function mutations.

Figure 5. Mutation of H3H113 decreases the copper-dependent repression of Mac1 target genes.

(A) Heat map of average fold changes of Mac1 target gene (Gross et al., 2000) expression, relative to WT for each gene and normalized to ACT1 fold changes, based on mRNA-seq analyses from two independent experiments. Genes have been ordered vertically based on the fold increase in the $H3^{H113N}ctr1\Delta$ strain (4th column). Note that *CTR3* is a Mac1 target gene but is not expressed in this strain background due to a genetic disruption by a Ty2 transposon. **(B)** Same as (A) except showing fold changes in expression levels based on RT-qPCR analyses. The data are averages from four independent experiments in fermentative medium (YPD). Genes have been ordered vertically based on the fold increase in the $H3^{H113Y}$ strain. **(C)** Intracellular copper content measured by ICP-MS for exponentially growing strains in YPD. Data are presented as mean ± SD from 3-6 replicate cultures. **(D)** Fold changes in expression levels for two Mac1 target genes, normalized to ACT1,

based on RT-qPCR analyses. Mac1 activation was induced by deletion of *CTR1* and repressed by

1 hr treatment with CuSO$_4$ in YPD as indicated. Bars are the sample means and each dot is an

independent experiment (n = 4). *P≤0.05, **P≤0.01, ***P<0.001.

Figure 6. The H3H113 residue is required for efficient use of copper for mitochondrial

respiration.

(A) Oxygen consumption assays of cells incubated for 18 hrs in liquid YPEG. Baseline copper

concentration in YPEG is ~1 μM. Bars show means ± SD from three independent experiments

done concurrently with the same batch of media and scaled to relative mitochondrial DNA contents

(data not shown). **(B)** Same as (A) but with cells incubated in SCEG + 60 μM BCS. Baseline

copper concentration in SCEG is ~1 μM. **(C)** Oxygen consumption assays of cells incubated for 4

hrs in liquid YPEG with increasing amounts of CuSO$_4$. Bars show means in log$_2$ scale ± SD from

three independent experiments. **(D)** Cytochrome *c* oxidase assays of cells incubated for 4 hrs in

liquid YPEG with increasing amounts of CuSO$_4$. Bars show means in log$_2$ scale ± SD from three

independent experiments. N.D.: not detectable. **(E)** Spot test assays in fermentative (YPD) or

respiratory media (YPEG) with the indicated amounts of CuSO$_4$. **(F)** Same as (E). **(G)** Average

doubling times ± SD from steady-state growth in liquid YPD from three replicate cultures. **(H)**

Average OD$_{600}$ ± SD for growth in liquid YPEG with increasing amounts of CuSO$_4$ after 36 hrs

from three replicate cultures. *P≤0.05, **P≤0.01, ***P<0.001.

Figure 7. *H3^{H113N}* is deficient in utilizing copper for Sod1 activity and function.

(A) Sod1 in-gel activity assay (top) and corresponding Sod1p western blot (bottom) for cells grown

in SC medium with the indicated amounts of additional CuSO$_4$. Baseline copper concentration in

SC medium is ~0.16 μM. Numbers are relative signal intensities for each pair of bands. Gel and

blot shown are representative of four independent experiments. **(B)** Same as (A), except paired

with an Sod1 disulfide bond assay (bottom). Numbers below the blot are relative amount of

oxidized Sod1 compared to the total Sod1 protein. Bands shown are representative of three

independent experiments. **(C)** Spot test assays on SC or SC-lys plates containing 1 mM and 10

μM BCS, respectively. **(D)** Same as (A) except for cells grown in minimal medium. Baseline

copper concentration in minimal medium is ~0.25 μM. Gel and blot shown are representative of

three independent experiments. **(E)** Growth assay in the indicated liquid media shown as mean

OD_{600} ± SD after 24 hrs from three independent experiments. **(F)** Same as (C). **P≤0.01,

***P<0.001.

Figure 8. The *H3A110C* mutation enhances copper utilization for respiratory growth in *S.*

***cerevisiae*.**

(A) Spot test assays in fermentative (YPD) or respiratory media (YPEG). **(B)** Growth after 48 hrs

in liquid YPEG with increasing amounts of $CuSO_4$. Bars show mean OD_{600} ± SD from three

independent experiments done concurrently with the same batch of media. **(C)** Growth after 48 hrs

in liquid YPEG with increasing amounts of BCS. Bars show relative OD_{600} compared to the *gsh1Δ*

strain ± SD from three independent experiments. **(D)** Oxygen consumption assays of cells grown

in the indicated media for 12 hrs. Bar graphs show means ± SD of three independent experiments

done concurrently with the same batch of media and scaled to relative mitochondrial DNA contents

(data not shown). **(E)** Growth curves of the indicated strains in YPEG with potassium cyanide

(KCN) and increasing amounts of $CuSO_4$ in each panel, as indicated. Line graphs show means at

each time point ± SD from three independent experiments done concurrently with the same batch

of media. *** indicates significant (P≤0.001) difference at multiple time points. Note that minimal

growth occurred before 36 hrs. **(F)** Same as (E). **(G)** Spot test assays in YPD or YPEG with the

indicated amounts of $CuSO_4$. **(H)** Plasmid shuffle assay with strains harboring WT H3 on a URA3

plasmid and the indicated H3 gene on a TRP1 plasmid. 5-Fluoro-orotic acid (5-FOA) is lethal to

cells bearing the URA3 plasmid, and therefore selects for cells that maintain only the indicated H3

plasmid. *P<0.05, **P≤0.01, ***P≤0.001.

Figure 1 – figure supplement 1. *In vitro* H3-H4 tetramer formation.

(A) The procedure for preparation of histones and assembly of the *X. laevis* and yeast H3-H4

tetramer is outlined. **(B)** FPLC elution profiles of the indicated *X. laevis* tetramers. **(C)** Image of

coomassie-stained PAGE of the indicated purified *X. laevis* tetramers.

Figure 2 – figure supplement 1. Graphical representation of the copper reductase assay.

Figure 2 – figure supplement 2. *In vitro* copper reductase assay with the *Xenopus laevis* H3-

H4 tetramer.

(A) Standard curve for Cu^{1+} detection for copper reductase assay conditions used with *X. laevis*

tetramers with increasing amounts of $CuCl_2$-Tricine pH 7.5 at a ratio 1:10 in presence of 2 mM β-

Mercaptoethanol as reducing agent (see Methods). Error bars indicate mean ± SD of three replicate

measurements. **(B)** Same as (A) but for reactions with increasing amounts of $CuCl_2$-Tricine pH 7.5

at a ratio 1:15 (see Methods). **(C)** Progress curve of copper reduction using 30 μM TCEP as the

electron donor with 1 μM of *X. laevis* tetramer, equimolar monomeric *X. laevis* histone H3, and

equimolar monomeric *S. cerevisiae* histone H2A. **(D)** Henri-Michaelis-Menten curves of initial

velocities of reactions with the *X. laevis* tetramer. **(E)** Calculated enzymatic parameters of the

tetramer from the curve in (D). **(F)** Same as (C) but with *X. laevis* tetramer, or equimolar RNase A

or DTT. **(G)** Same as (A) but for reactions with increasing amounts of $CuCl_2$-ADA pH 8 at a ratio

1:1 (see Methods). **(H)** Same as (A) but for reactions with increasing amounts of $CuCl_2$-NTA pH

7.6 at a ratio 1:1 (see Methods). **(I)** Progress curves of copper reduction by 5 µM of the indicated

X. laevis tetramers in presence of 200 µM TCEP and 0.5 mM $CuCl_2$ in 0.5 mM NTA pH 7.6.

Figure 3 – figure supplement 1. Assembly of *S. cerevisiae* WT and mutant H3-H4 tetramers.

(A) Image of coomassie-stained PAGE of the indicated purified *S. cerevisiae* tetramers. **(B-D)**

FPLC elution profiles of the indicated *S. cerevisiae* tetramers. **(E)** Same as (A). **(F-G)** Same as

(B).

Figure 5—figure supplement 1. Mutation of H3H113 does not result in global gene expression

changes.

Scatterplots of average global gene expression values from exponentially growing cells in

fermentative media (SC, n=3 and YPD, n=2), with Spearman's rank correlation coefficients (r_s) as

indicated.

Figure 6—figure supplement 1. The *H3H113N* mutation diminishes copper utilization for

mitochondrial respiration.

(A) Bar graphs show mean oxygen consumption rates ± SD of the indicated strains from three

independent experiments after 6 hrs in liquid YPEG with indicated amount of $CuSO_4$ in presence

or absence of antimycin A, a mitochondrial complex III inhibitor. Note that cells were pre-loaded

with copper prior to growth in YPEG. **(B)** Growth during 48 hrs in liquid YPEG with increasing

amounts of $CuSO_4$. Bars show mean population doublings ± SD from three independent

experiments done concurrently with the same batch of media. **(C)** Spot test assays in fermentative

(YPD) or respiratory media (YPEG) with the indicated amounts of $CuSO_4$. Baseline copper

concentration in YP media is ~1 μM. **(D)** Same as (C) except with the indicated amounts of

$MnSO_4$, $ZnSO_4$, or $FeCl_3$. Note that the *ctr1Δ* strain is respiratory deficient and cannot be rescued

by exogenous manganese, zinc or iron. *P≤0.05, ***P≤0.001.

1003

1004   **Figure 6—figure supplement 2. Decrease of the dosage of WT histone H3 and H4 genes.**

1005   **(A)** Western blots of histone H3 and H4 and coomassie-stained 15% SDS-PAGE, including the

1006   relative signal intensity for the indicated strains. **(B)** Signal intensity profiles from chromatin

1007   digested with 0.1 units of MNase. A.U.: arbitrary units.

1008

Figure 6—figure supplement 3. The *H3H113N* mutation does not significantly affect

chromatin accessibility or gene expression in respiratory media.

(A) Quantitative representation of the signal intensity profiles (right) from chromatin digested with

the indicated amounts of MNase (left) from exponentially growing cells in SC. A.U.: arbitrary

units. **(B)** Spot test assays in fermentative (YPD) or respiratory media (YPEG) with the indicated

amounts of $CuSO_4$. Baseline copper concentration in YP media is ~1 μM. **(C)** Scatterplot of

average global gene expression values from exponentially growing cells in respiratory media

(YPEG, n=2), with Spearman's rank correlation coefficients (r_s) as indicated. **(D)** Average mRNA

expression levels for three gene sets comparing fermentative (YPD) and respiratory (YPEG)

growth conditions from two independent experiments. Each dot is the average RPKM values for

an individual gene within the sets and the central lines and whiskers represent the median and interquartile range. **(E)** Heat map of average mRNA expression levels for copper homeostasis genes (data summarized in panel D) from two independent experiments. Genes have been sub-grouped based on known functions of the gene products and ordered vertically within the groups based on the RPKM values of the WT strain in YPEG medium (3rd column). *P≤0.05, ***P≤0.001.

Figure 6—figure supplement 4. Disruptions in copper utilization are not accounted for by changes in copper content or sequestration by Cup1.

(A) Intracellular copper (left) and iron (right) content of cells grown in the indicated media for 3-4 doublings for WT and $H3^{H113N}$ and 12 hrs for $ctr1\Delta$ strains. Bar graphs represent mean ± SD from 3-6 replicate cultures. $^{#}$The $ctr1\Delta$ strains, which do not grow in non-fermentable media, were incubated in YPEG and assessed for metal content for reference. **(B)** Spot test assays in fermentative (YPD) or respiratory media (YPEG) with the indicated amounts of $CuSO_4$. Baseline copper concentration in YP media is ~1 μM. *P≤0.05.

Figure 6—figure supplement 5. Disruption of cell surface metalloreductases or glutathione synthesis affect copper utilization differently than H3H113 mutations.

(A-B) Spot test assays in fermentative (YPD) or respiratory media (YPEG) with the indicated amounts of $CuSO_4$. Baseline copper concentration in YP media is ~1 μM.

Figure 7—figure supplement 1. The *H3H113N* mutation diminishes copper utilization for Sod1 activity.

(A) Normalized relative signal intensities of Sod1 in-gel activity assays for cells grown in SC medium with the indicated amounts of additional $CuSO_4$ (representative gel image in Figure 7A). Bars are the sample means and each dot is an independent experiment (n = 4). Baseline copper concentration in SC medium is ~0.16 μM. **(B-C)** Spot test assays of the indicated strains in fermentative (SC) media with or without lysine and with the indicated amounts of $CuSO_4$. **(D)** Same as (B). Hypoxia was generated with an air-tight chamber and an anaerobic gas producing sachet. **(E)** Same as (B) except with the indicated amounts of $MnSO_4$, $ZnSO_4$, or $FeCl_3$. Note that *ccs1Δ* or *sod1Δ* renders cells auxotrophic for lysine and cannot be rescued by exogenous manganese, zinc or iron. **P≤0.01.

Figure 7—figure supplement 2. Disruptions in copper dependent Sod1 function are not accounted for by changes in copper content, sequestration by Cup1, or gene expression.

(A) Spot test assays of the indicated strains in fermentative (SC) media with or without lysine and with the indicated amounts of $CuSO_4$. Baseline copper concentration in SC medium is ~0.16 μM. **(B)** Intracellular copper (left) and iron (right) content measured by ICP-MS for exponentially growing strains in SC. Data are presented as mean ± SD from 3-6 replicate cultures. **(C)** Intracellular copper and iron content of cells grown in the indicated media for 3-4 doublings for WT and *H3^{H113N}* and 24 hrs for *ccs1Δ* strains. Bar graphs represent mean ± SD from 3-6 replicate cultures. [#]The *ccs1Δ* strains, which grow minimally in SC-lys media, were assessed for metal content for reference. **(D)** Scatterplots of average global gene expression values from exponentially growing cells in SC or SC-lys media from two independent experiments, with Spearman's rank

correlation coefficient (r_s) as indicated. **(E)** Heat map of average mRNA expression levels for

copper homeostasis genes (data summarized in panel F) from two independent experiments. Genes

have been sub-grouped based on known functions of the gene products and ordered vertically

within the groups based on the RPKM values of the *ccs1*Δ strain in SC-lys medium (5th column).

(F) Average mRNA expression levels for three gene sets in cells growing exponentially in SC, SC-

lys, or SC-lys + 75 μM $CuSO_4$ media after 24 hrs from two independent experiments (except n=1

for SC-lys+Cu). *P<0.05.

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1226

A

Dyad

H113

C110

B

H3 (*S. cerevisiae*)	106	DTNLAAIHAKRVTIQKKDIKLARRLRGERS
H3.1 (*H. sapiens*)	106	DTNLCAIHAKRVTIMPKDIQLARRIRGERA
H3.2 (*H. sapiens*)	106	DTNLCAIHAKRVTIMPKDIQLARRIRGERA
H3.3 (*H. sapiens*)	106	DTNLCAIHAKRVTIMPKDIQLARRIRGERA
HMf-1 (*M. fervidus*)	42	EAVKLAKHAGRKTIKAEDIELARKMFK
HMf-2 (*M. fervidus*)	41	EAIKLARHAGRKTIKAEDIELAVRRFKK

C

Cu^{2+} equivalents
- 0
- 0.5
- 1
- 1.5
- 2
- 3

XI WT

XI H3^{C110A}

D

Imidazole (mM)

XI WT

XI H3^{C110A}

XI WT

XI H3^{C110A}

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 8

Figure 1 - figure supplement 1

Tetramer

TCEP^red (or NAD(P)H)

Neocuproine (NC) (or Bicinchoninic acid) (BCA)

NC•Cu^{1+} (or BCA•Cu^{1+})

TCEP^OX (or NAD(P)^+)

Cu^{2+}

Cu^{1+}

Figure 2 - figure supplement 1

Figure 2 - figure supplement 2

Figure 3 - figure supplement 1

Figure 5 - figure supplement 1

Figure 6 - figure supplement 1

Figure 6 - figure supplement 3

Figure 6 - figure supplement 5

Figure 7 - figure supplement 2

Table 1 | Yeast strains used in this study

Strain name	Mutant short name	Genotype	Reference
BY4741	parental	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0*	Brachmann et al., 1998
OCY1131	WT	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2*	This study
OCY1136	$H3^{H113N}$	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::hht2-H113N hht1-H113N*	This study
OCY1133	$p^{(GAL1)}$-HHT1	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, KanMX6-PGAL1-HHT1*	This study
OCY1134	$hht2^{H113N}p^{(GAL1)}$-HHT1	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::hht2-H113N, KanMX6-PGAL1-HHT1*	This study
NAY609	$H3^{H113Y}$	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, hht2-H113Y, hht1-H113Y*	This study
NAY616	$H3^{A110C}$	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, hht2-A110C, hht1-A110C*	This study
OCY2951	$hht2^{H113Y}p^{(GAL1)}$-HHT1	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, hht2-H113Y, KanMX6-PGAL1-HHT1*	This study
NAY536	asf1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2::ura3)::HHT2, asf1Δ::HphMX4*	This study
OCY1861	ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, ctr1Δ::HphMX4*	This study
OCY1862	$H3^{H113N}$ ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::hht2-H113N hht1-H113N, ctr1Δ::HphMX4*	This study
OCY2141	asf1Δ ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, asf1Δ::HphMX4, ctr1Δ::His3MX6*	This study
OCY2251	mac1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, mac1Δ::His3MX6*	This study
OCY2252	$H3^{H113N}$ mac1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::hht2-H113N hht1-H113N, mac1Δ::His3MX6*	This study
OCY2621	ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, ctr1Δ*	This study
OCY2622	$H3^{H113N}$ ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::hht2-H113N hht1-H113N, ctr1Δ*	This study
OCY2623	$H3^{H113Y}$ ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, hht2-H113Y, hht1-H113Y, ctr1Δ*	This study
OCY1981	$cup1^{F8stop}$	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, cup1-F8stop*	This study
OCY1983	$cup1^{F8stop}H3^{H113N}$	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, cup1-F8stop, hht1-H113N hht2-H113N*	This study
OCY2181	$cup1^{F8stop}$ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, cup1-F8stop, ctr1Δ::His3MX6*	This study
OCY2182	$cup1^{F8stop}H3^{H113N}$ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, cup1-F8stop, hht1-H113N hht2-H113N, ctr1Δ::His3MX6*	This study
OCY1132	$hht2^{H113N}$	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::hht2-H113N*	This study
OCY2628	$hht2^{H113N}$ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::hht2-H113N, ctr1Δ*	This study
NAY553	ccs1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2::ura3)::HHT2, ccs1Δ::KanMX6*	This study
NAY554	$H3^{H113N}$ ccs1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2::ura3)::hht2-H113N hht1-H113N, ccs1Δ::KanMX6*	This study
NAY597	asf1Δ ccs1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, asf1Δ::HphMX4, ccs1Δ::His3MX6*	This study
NAY551	sod1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2::ura3)::HHT2, sod1Δ::HphMX4*	This study
NAY552	$H3^{H113N}$ sod1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2::ura3)::hht2-H113N hht1-H113N, sod1Δ::HphMX4*	This study
OCY2211	$cup1^{F8stop}$ccs1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, cup1-F8stop, ccs1Δ::KanMX6*	This study
OCY2212	$cup1^{F8stop}H3^{H113N}$ccs1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, cup1-F8stop, hht1-H113N hht2-H113N, ccs1Δ::KanMX6*	This study
OCY1135	hht1-hhf1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, hht1-hhf1Δ::HphMX4*	This study
OCY2421	ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, ctr1Δ::His3MX6*	This study
NAY564	hht1-hhf1Δctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, hht1-hhf1Δ::HphMX4, ctr1Δ::His3MX6*	This study
OCY2781	fre1Δfre2Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0 (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, fre1Δ::KanMX6, fre2Δ::His3MX6*	This study
OCY2791	fre1Δfre2Δctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0 (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, fre1Δ::KanMX6, fre2Δ::His3MX6, ctr1Δ*	This study
OCY2371	gsh1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, gsh1Δ::KanMX6*	This study
OCY2372	$H3^{H113N}$gsh1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::hht2-H113N hht1-H113N, gsh1Δ::KanMX6*	This study
OCY2373	$H3^{A110C}$gsh1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::hht2-A110C hht1-A110C, gsh1Δ::KanMX6*	This study
OCY2626	$H3^{A110C}$ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, hht2-A110C, hht1-A110C, ctr1Δ*	This study
OCY2671	$H3^{A110CH113N}$	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0 (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, hht2-A110CH113N, hht1-A110CH113N*	This study
OCY2627	$H3^{A110CH113N}$ctr1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0 (hht2Δ::ura3)Δ::HHT2, hht2-A110CH113N, hht1-A110CH113N, ctr1Δ*	This study
RMY102	parental	*MATa ade2-101 his3-Δ200 lys2-801 trp1Δ901 ura3-52 (hht1-hhf1)Δ::LEU2 (hht2-hhf2)Δ::HIS3 pRM102[CEN4 ARS1 URA3 pGAL1-HHT2-pGAL10-HHF2]*	Mann & Grunstein, 1998
NAY702	WT	*MATa ade2-101 his3-Δ200 lys2-801 trp1Δ901 ura3-52 (hht1-hhf1)Δ::LEU2 (hht2-hhf2)Δ::HIS3 pRM102[CEN4 ARS1 URA3 pGAL1-HHT2-pGAL10-HHF2] pRM200[CEN4 ARS1 TRP1 HHT2 HHF2]*	This study
NAY700	H3-H113A	*MATa ade2-101 his3-Δ200 lys2-801 trp1Δ901 ura3-52 (hht1-hhf1)Δ::LEU2 (hht2-hhf2)Δ::HIS3 pRM102[CEN4 ARS1 URA3 pGAL1-HHT2-pGAL10-HHF2] pSZ008[CEN4 ARS1 TRP1 hht2-H113A HHF2]*	This study
NAY703	H3-H113N	*MATa ade2-101 his3-Δ200 lys2-801 trp1Δ901 ura3-52 (hht1-hhf1)Δ::LEU2 (hht2-hhf2)Δ::HIS3 pRM102[CEN4 ARS1 URA3 pGAL1-HHT2-pGAL10-HHF2] pYX55a[CEN4 ARS1 TRP1 hht2-H113N HHF2]*	This study

NAY701	*H3-A110C*	*MATa ade2-101 his3-Δ200 lys2-801 trp1Δ901 ura3-52 (hht1-hhf1)Δ::LEU2 (hht2-hhf2)Δ::HIS3 pRM102[CEN4 ARS1 URA3 pGAL1-HHT2-pGAL10-HHF2] pSZ011[CEN4 ARS1 TRP1 hht2-A110C HHF2]*	This study
NAY704	*H3-A110CH113A*	*MATa ade2-101 his3-Δ200 lys2-801 trp1Δ901 ura3-52 (hht1-hhf1)Δ::LEU2 (hht2-hhf2)Δ::HIS3 pRM102[CEN4 ARS1 URA3 pGAL1-HHT2-pGAL10-HHF2] pNA20a[CEN4 ARS1 TRP1 hht2-A110CH113A HHF2]*	This study