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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 ability for epigenetic regulation, suggesting histones may have an additional, unknown function. 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 mitochondrial respiration or Sod1 function 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 histones form a structure similar to the eukaryotic H3-H4 tetramer that wraps ~60 bp of DNA[1], with conserved geometry and protein-DNA interactions[2]. Unlike eukaryotic histones, archaeal histones lack extended N-terminal tails, are typically devoid of post-translational modifications and occur in organisms with small genomes, no nucleus and thus no apparent capability for epigenetic regulation or need for genome compaction. These considerations raise the possibility that histones, specifically the H3-H4 tetramer, may have an additional, older function in archaea, and therefore in eukaryotes that emerged from them.

An overlooked feature of the nucleosome as well as the geochemical events surrounding eukaryogenesis hinted as to what such a function might be. Amino acid residues in the C-terminal regions of the two apposing histone H3 proteins, including cysteine 110 (H3C110) and histidine 113 (H3H113), form a pocket with the ability to coordinate a metal ion *in vitro* but with no known functional significance[3-5]. The evolutionary conservation of amino acids in this region, some of which facilitate the assembly of the H3-H4 tetramer[6], is greater than expected by their contributions to the thermodynamic stability of the nucleosome[7]. These observations suggest that "a novel function" provided by the H3-H3' interface is driving the unexpected conservation[7]. Whether the metal-binding property of the nucleosome is biologically relevant in eukaryotes is not known, but a clue comes from the geochemical history of Earth. The emergence of eukaryotes coincided with accumulation of molecular oxygen[8], which caused significant alterations in the abundance and oxidation states of transition metals such as iron and copper, substantially reducing their bioavailability. These bioessential metals were also becoming more toxic in the presence of

oxygen[9], presenting a formidable challenge for their usage. 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 co-factor for numerous critical

enzymes such as cytochrome *c* oxidase of complex IV in the mitochondrial electron transport chain

(ETC), and Cu, Zn-superoxide dismutase 1 (Sod1)[10], as well as a signaling element to regulate

specific biochemical pathways[11]. Copper is utilized in its cupric (Cu^{2+}) or cuprous (Cu^{1+}) form as

a co-factor. However, it is the cuprous form that is trafficked intracellularly, indicating a need to

maintain cellular copper in its reduced form for proper cellular distribution[12]. How cells maintain

a pool of cuprous ions is not fully understood. Here, we provide biochemical, molecular and

genetic data that the yeast and human H3-H4 tetramers catalyze reduction of cupric to cuprous

ions with the catalytic site likely forming at the H3-H3' interface. Our data reveal that eukaryotic

DNA wraps around an enzyme that generates cuprous ions for utilization by various cellular and

mitochondrial proteins. This function of chromatin may have contributed to the emergence of

eukaryotes, making the presence of histones in the ancestral archaeon not incidental[13], but rather

essential for eukaryogenesis.

Results

Mutation of histone H3 histidine 113 to asparagine (H3H113N) has little effect on global

chromatin accessibility or gene expression.

We first investigated the significance of a pair of histidine residues (H3H113), one from

each apposing H3 protein thought to participate in metal coordination at the H3-H3' interface (Fig.

1a)[3,4]. Since the residues at the H3 dimerization region also contribute to the stability of the

nucleosome, we determined the impact of mutating H3H113 (Fig. 1b) on chromatin accessibility

and gene expression. We mutated this residue to asparagine (*H113N*), a mutation found in certain

cancers[14], since mutating to an alanine is lethal in yeast[15]. We generated a *S. cerevisiae* strain,

H3^H113N^, with *H113N* mutation in both histone H3 genes (*HHT1* and *HHT2*) in their chromosomal

loci. The *H3H113N* mutation is hypomorphic (Extended Data Fig. 1b), and when present in both

histone H3 copies resulted in a two-fold increase in growth doubling time compared to wildtype

(WT) in rich medium (Fig. 1c, d). Deletion of Asf1, a histone chaperone for nucleosome

assembly[16,17], also increased doubling time but less so than the *H3H113N* mutation (Fig. 1c, d).

Analysis of global chromatin structure by Micrococcal nuclease (MNase) revealed similar

digestion patterns for WT, *H3^H113N^,* and *asf1Δ* strains, with the latter two being slightly less

accessible at lower MNase concentrations (Fig. 1e). Global gene expression patterns were also

similar between WT and *H3^H113N^* grown in rich medium (Fig. 1f). Thus, the *H3H113N* mutation

has minimal effects on chromatin accessibility and steady state genome-wide gene expression.

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

We next examined the effect of *H3^H113N^* on copper-dependent mitochondrial respiration for

growth on non-fermentable carbon sources. In presence of abundant copper, *H3^H113N^* did not

display a defect under respiratory conditions where non-fermentable ethanol and glycerol were

substituted for dextrose (YPEG) (Fig. 2a). We therefore deleted *CTR1*, the main copper importer

in yeast, to decrease copper availability. Deletion of *CTR1* abolished respiratory growth in the

context of WT and *H3H113N* histones (Fig. 2a). Addition of 20 µM copper, however, rescued the

ctr1Δ respiratory growth defect, but four times more exogenous copper was required to rescue

ctr1Δ with the *H3H113N* mutant histones (Fig. 2a). Replacing the same histidine 113 with tyrosine

(*H3^H113Y^*) in *ctr1Δ* similarly increased the copper requirement for growth on YPEG (Extended Data

Fig. 2a). In contrast, deletion of *ASF1* in combination with *ctr1Δ* did not phenocopy the *H3H113*

mutants (Fig. 2a). Combination of *H3H113N* mutation with deletion of *MAC1*, a transcription

factor required for expression of *CTR1*[18], also increased the amount of exogenous copper required

for growth on YPEG compared to *mac1Δ* alone (Fig. 2b). The *H3^{H113N}ctr1Δ* strain also lagged

behind *ctr1Δ* in oxygen (O$_2$) consumption and growth at several copper concentrations (Fig. 2c).

Addition of iron, zinc, or manganese did not rescue the growth defects of strains with *ctr1Δ*,

confirming the specific copper deficiency (Extended Data Fig. 2b). The copper-mediated rescue

of growth in these mutants was dependent on mitochondrial respiration. Deletion of *COX17*, which

delivers copper to cytochrome *c* oxidase[19], prevented rescue even if >100-fold more exogenous

copper was provided (Extended Data Fig. 2c). Furthermore, antimycin A, a complex III inhibitor,

inhibited the copper-mediated rescue of O$_2$ consumption (Extended Data Fig. 2d). Together, these

results indicate that the H3H113 residue is required for mitochondrial copper utilization for

respiratory growth when copper is limiting.

The inability of *H3^{H113N}ctr1Δ* to efficiently utilize copper for mitochondrial respiration was

not due to increased capacity for sequestering copper by the metallothionein Cup1, since loss of

Cup1 (*cup1^{F8stop}*) did not decrease the requirement for copper in the *H3^{H113N}ctr1Δ* strain (Extended

Data Fig. 2e). Furthermore, global gene expression analysis by mRNA-seq revealed similar

profiles in WT and *H3^{H113N}* strains in YPEG (Extended Data Fig. 2f) including comparable

upregulation of genes involved in the ETC, the TCA cycle, and copper or iron regulation (Fig. 2d

and Extended Data Fig. 2g). There were also no differences in intracellular levels of copper or iron

between WT and *H3^{H113N}* strains at the same stage of growth in YPD or YPEG, or in the context

of *ctr1Δ,* as measured by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) (Fig. 2e and

Extended Data Fig. 2h). Addition of excess copper to YPEG increased intracellular levels of copper

similarly in both *ctr1Δ* and *H3^H113N^ctr1Δ* strains (Fig. 2e), suggesting that the respiratory growth

defect of *H3^H113N^ctr1Δ* is not due to an inability to uptake copper through alternative routes[20].

The increased copper requirement of *H3^H113N^ctr1Δ* for growth on YPEG despite having

normal levels of intracellular copper raised the possibility that the levels of cuprous ions might be

lower in *H3^H113N^ctr1Δ* compared to *ctr1Δ*. To test this hypothesis, we reasoned that decreasing the

reducing power of the cell would disrupt the cellular cuprous ion pool. We therefore decreased

glutathione (GSH) synthesis by repressing the gamma glutamylcysteine synthetase gene (*GSH1*),

which catalyzes the first step in GSH biosynthesis. In combination with *ctr1Δ* (*ctr1Δp^(GAL1)^-

GSH1*), the loss of GSH also increased the copper requirement for growth on YPEG, recapitulating

the *H3H113N* phenotype (Fig. 2f). These data are consistent with decreased availability of cuprous

ions as an explanation for the respiratory deficiency of the *H3^H113N^ctr1Δ* or *ctr1Δp^(GAL1)^-GSH1*

strains compared to *ctr1Δ* alone.

Consistent with the hypomorphic H113N mutation, decreasing histone dosage should

impair copper utilization for respiratory growth. Deletion of one of the two copies of the histone

H3 and H4 genes (*hht1-hhf1Δ*) decreased cellular H3 and H4 content, increased chromatin

accessibility by MNase (Extended Data Fig. 3a, b), and importantly, increased the requirement of

copper in *ctr1Δ* for growth on YPEG, without affecting growth in YPD (Extended Data Fig. 3c,

d).

The H3H113 residue is required for copper-dependent rescue of Sod1 activity and *ccs1Δ*

lysine auxotrophy.

We next investigated whether the H3H113 residue is required for copper utilization by

Sod1. An in-gel assay[21] showed that *H3^H113N^* has ~14% less Sod1 activity compared to WT

(Extended Data Fig. 4a). However, in absence of *CCS1* (Copper Chaperone for SOD1), *H3H113N*

substantially decreased the efficiency of copper utilization for Sod1 function. While addition of

excess exogenous copper increasingly restored Sod1 activity in a *ccs1Δ* strain, *H3H113N* increased

the requirement for copper to bypass the need for *CCS1* (Fig. 3a). This phenotype was not due to

differences in the internal Sod1 disulfide bond required for its enzyme activity[22] (Extended Data

Fig. 4b).

Loss of function of *SOD1* or *CCS1* results in lysine auxotrophy in yeast when grown in the

presence of oxygen[23]. We found that while the lysine auxotrophy of *ccs1Δ* was rescued by addition

of excess exogenous copper, the auxotrophy of *H3^{H113N}ccs1Δ* was not fully restored even in

presence of 500 μM copper (Fig. 3b). Deletion of *ASF1* had no effect on copper-dependent rescue

of *ccs1Δ* (Fig. 3b). Unlike *H3^{H113N}*, decreasing intracellular levels of copper by deletion of *CTR1*

did not increase the requirement of *ccs1Δ* for exogenous copper (Fig. 3c). Addition of manganese,

zinc or iron did not rescue *ccs1Δ* growth, confirming the specific disruption of copper utilization

by the *H3H113N* mutation (Extended Data Fig. 4c). The rescue of *ccs1Δ* strain by exogenous

copper is likely through recovering Sod1 function since excess copper did not rescue the lysine

auxotrophy of *sod1Δ* with or without the *H3H113N* mutation (Extended data Fig. 4d). Hypoxic

conditions rescued the lysine auxotrophy of *ccs1Δ* and *sod1Δ* to the same extent in WT and *H3^{H113N}*

(Extended Data Fig. 4e) indicating that the *H3H113N* defect in lysine synthesis only manifests

when Sod1 function is required.

The increased copper requirement of *H3^{H113N}ccs1Δ* was not due to differences in the Cup1

buffering capacity (Extended Data Fig. 4f) or intracellular copper and iron levels (Fig. 3e and

Extended Data Fig. 3g). There were also no significant differences in global gene expression

profiles of *ccs1Δ* versus *H3^{H113N}ccs1Δ* (Extended Data Fig. 4h) including genes involved in lysine

biosynthesis, copper homeostasis, and antioxidant defense (Fig. 3f and Extended Data Fig. 4i).

Altogether, these results indicate that the *H3H113N* mutation decreases copper utilization for

lysine biosynthesis.

Consistent with these results, limiting copper abundance through deletion of *CTR1*

combined with addition of the copper chelator bathocuproinedisulfonic acid (BCS) rendered cells

auxotrophic for lysine in the context of *H3H113N* despite the presence of wildtype *CCS1* and

SOD1 genes (Fig. 3g and Extended Data Fig. 4j). Our findings altogether suggest H3H113 is

required for efficient copper utilization for Sod1 function.

Recombinant histone H3-H4 tetramer is a copper reductase.

Since the phenotypes of the H3H113 mutants were consistent with loss of cuprous ions, we

hypothesized that histone H3 may directly affect the oxidation state of copper by catalyzing the

reduction of Cu^{2+} to Cu^{1+}. We assembled and purified a histone H3-H4 tetramer from recombinant

Xenopus laevis histones H3 and H4 (see Methods for important notes on tetramer assembly), which

are identical to the human H3.2 and H4 histone proteins, respectively, and hence referred to as

human H3-H4 tetramer (Extended Data Fig. 5a). We developed a colorimetric assay to measure

the production of Cu^{1+} by the H3-H4 tetramer based on the ability of the copper chelator

neocuproine (NC) to chelate Cu^{1+} quantitatively (Extended Data Fig. 5b). We incubated the H3-

H4 tetramer or its control buffer with an electron donor in the presence of NC and started the

reaction by addition of $CuCl_2$. Upon addition of copper, we observed a time-dependent increase in

Cu^{1+} production as indicated by increasing yellow coloration (i.e. NC•Cu^{1+} complex absorbing at

448 nm) in the reaction containing the H3-H4 tetramer but not the control buffer (Fig. 4a). The

molarity of the product, Cu^{1+}, was determined using standard curves generated with known

amounts of fully reduced copper ions (Extended Data Fig. 5c, d). Tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine

(TCEP) was used as the electron donor of choice due to its low rate of spontaneous copper

reduction. The earliest measurement was at 2.2 seconds after addition of copper by which time a

significant fraction of copper was already reduced (Fig. 4b). The reaction plateaued at later time

points likely due to near full consumption of the electron donor with ~75% of total Cu^{1+} produced

in the first 30 seconds (Fig. 4b). Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide Phosphate (NADPH) can

also serve as an electron donor for the H3-H4 tetramer, albeit in a different reaction condition to

prevent spontaneous copper reduction by NADPH (Extended Data Fig. 5e, f). The enzyme activity

was heat labile as boiling the H3-H4 tetramer prior to the assay abolished copper reduction (Fig.

4b). We detected no significant activity in the absence of TCEP and increasing activity with

increasing amounts of it (Fig. 4c). The enzymatic activity was specific to the tetramer since

unassembled histone H3 or the yeast H2A did not show activity (Fig. 4d).

Recombinant *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4 tetramer also exhibited heat-labile copper reductase

activity in a similar assay system (Fig. 4e). Importantly, the yeast recombinant histone H3

harboring H113N or H113Y mutation had no effect on H3-H4 tetramer assembly but exhibited

lower copper reduction capability (Fig. 4f-i). This was predominantly due to a lower maximal

initial velocity, V_{max}, rather than affinity for the substrate, as expressed by the Michaelis constant,

K_m (Extended Data Fig. 6a-h). Together, our data reveal the H3-H4 tetramer as a copper reducing

oxidoreductase with H3H113 as an important residue for the enzyme activity, strongly

corroborating our *in vivo* results.

Cysteine 110 in the H3-H3' interface participates in enzyme activity.

The putative metal-binding site at the H3-H3' interface in most species, including *H.*

sapiens but not *S. cerevisiae* (Fig. 1b), contains two cysteine residues (C110), one from each

histone H3 protein, capable of forming a disulfide bond[3,24]. We suspected a critical role for H3C110

since many oxidoreductases rely on one or more pairs of redox active cysteine residues for electron

transfer[25]. Consistently, the WT human tetramer exhibited a higher maximal velocity in our *in vitro*

assay compared to the WT *S. cerevisiae* tetramer lacking H3C110 (Extended Data Fig. 6i).

Mutating H3C110 to alanine (*H3C110A*) had little effect on tetramer assembly (Fig. 5a) but

substantially reduced the enzyme activity of the human tetramer (Fig. 5b), to levels similar to that

of the yeast H3-H4 tetramer when compared in the same reaction buffer (Extended Data Fig. 6i).

Treatment of the human H3-H4 tetramer with N-ethylmaleimide (NEM) also significantly

diminished enzyme activity, strongly suggesting H3C110 is important for copper reduction (Fig.

5c). Furthermore, redox reactive thiols in the form of DTT or the cysteines in RNase A[26], in

equimolar to or greater than that of the tetramer, respectively, showed no significant copper

reductase activity (Fig. 5d), emphasizing the unique role of H3C110 in the context of the H3-H4

tetramer for robust *in vitro* copper reduction. Finally, introducing cysteine residues at the same

position in the yeast H3 (yH3A110C) substantially augmented copper reductase activity of the

yeast H3-H4 tetramer without affecting tetramer assembly (Fig. 5 e, f). These results indicate that

H3C110 substantially increases the enzyme activity of H3-H4 tetramers that contain it.

The H3A110C mutation enhances copper utilization for respiratory growth.

We next examined whether the *H3A110C* mutation enhances copper utilization in yeast.

We generated the yeast *H3^A110C* strain, with *H3A110C* mutations in chromosomal copies of *HHT1*

and *HHT2* genes. This strain grew similarly to WT cells in rich respiratory conditions (Fig. 6a)

with comparable O_2 consumption rate (Fig. 6b). We reasoned that increased copper reduction due

to the *H3A110C* mutation may mitigate the depletion of cellular glutathione which could limit the

cellular pool of cuprous ions (Fig. 2f). We therefore deleted *GSH1* in the context of WT and *A110C*

histone H3. The *H3^{A110C}gsh1Δ* grew significantly better in YPEG than *gsh1Δ* with a greater O_2

consumption rate (Fig. 6b). Interestingly, BCS-mediated copper depletion decreased O_2

consumption rate in WT and *gsh1Δ* but less so when cells harbored the *H3A110C* mutation (Fig.

6b). Strikingly, the *H3A110C* mutation rescued the growth defect of *gsh1Δ* in copper-depleted

respiratory conditions (Fig. 6c). These data indicate that the *H3A110C* mutation enhances copper

utilization for respiratory growth when cuprous ions are limiting.

Discussion

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

regulatory proteins for the eukaryotic genome. We now reveal eukaryotic chromatin as a major

nucleocytoplasmic oxidoreductase enzyme 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. The H3-H3' interface assembles *in*

vivo only when histones are incorporated into a nucleosome. 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 which need not be at the active site.

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 but open questions.

Since cellular copper ions are mostly bound by proteins[27] 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 also unclear[28,29]. Interestingly,

when cellular copper efflux is compromised such as in Wilson disease, copper disproportionately

accumulates in the nucleus, reaching millimolar concentrations[30,31]. Considering the importance

of copper to processes as diverse as tissue integrity, methylation cycle, iron homeostasis and

melanin and neurotransmitter syntheses in mammals[10,32,33], 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.

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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.

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Addressed to S.K.K.

Figure 1

Figure 1. Mutation of histone H3 histidine 113 to asparagine has little effect on global chromatin accessibility or gene expression in *S. cerevisiae*. a, Left: *X. laevis* nucleosome core particle structure (PDB:1KX5)[34] 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,** Spot test growth assay, and average doubling times **(d)** from steady-state growth in liquid Synthetic Complete (SC) medium. Bar graphs show mean ±standard deviation (SD) from 3-6 replicate cultures. **e,** Quantitative representation of the signal intensity profiles (right) from chromatin digested with the indicated amounts of MNase (left). A.U.: arbitrary units. **f,** Scatterplots of average global gene expression values from exponentially growing cells in SC (n=2) and YPD (n=3), with Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (r_s) as indicated. *P<0.05, **P≤0.01, ***P≤0.001.

Figure 2

Figure 2. *H3^{H113N}* diminishes copper utilization for respiratory growth. 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. **c,** Growth and oxygen consumption assays

in liquid YPEG with increasing amounts of CuSO$_4$. Bar and line graphs show mean population

doublings ±SD and oxygen consumption rates ±SD after 24 hrs, respectively, from three

independent experiments. P value indications are shown in black and red for growth and oxygen

consumption measurements, respectively. **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,** Intracellular copper and

iron content of cells grown in the indicated media for 3-4 doublings for WT and *H3^{H113N}* and 12

hrs for *ctr1Δ* strains. Bar graphs represent mean ±SD from 3-6 replicate cultures. [#]The *ctr1Δ*

strains, which do not grow in non-fermentable media, were incubated in YPEG and assessed for

metal content for reference. **f,** Same as (a). *P<0.05, **P≤0.01, ***P≤0.001.

Figure 3

Figure 3. *H3^{H113N}* is deficient in utilizing copper to rescue *ccs1Δ* lysine auxotrophy. a, Sod1 in-gel activity assay (top) and corresponding Sod1p western blot (bottom) for cells grown in minimal medium with the indicated amounts of additional copper. Baseline copper concentration in minimal medium is ~0.25 µM. Numbers are relative signal intensities for each pair of bands. Gel and blot shown are representative of three independent experiments. **b, c,** Spot test assays in the indicated media. Baseline copper concentration in SC medium is ~0.16 µM. **d,** Growth assay in the indicated liquid media shown as average population doublings ±SD after 24 hrs from three independent experiments. **e,** 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. **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). **g,** Spot test assays on SC or SC-lys plates containing 1 mM and 10 µM copper chelator BCS, respectively. *P<0.05, **P≤0.01, ***P≤0.001.

Figure 4

Figure 4. The H3-H4 tetramer is a copper reductase. **a,** Photographic representation of *in vitro*

copper reductase assay at indicated times. Control buffer or human H3.2-H4 tetramer were reacted

with 100 μM TCEP and 1 mM CuCl$_2$. **b,** Progress curves of copper reduction by human H3.2-H4

tetramer, heat-inactivated tetramer or buffer. Lines and shading represent the mean ±SD of 3-5

assays. **c,** Progress curves for human H3.2-H4 tetramer or buffer with indicated TCEP

concentrations. **d,** Same as (b) for human H3.2-H4 tetramer, equimolar monomeric histone H3.2,

corresponding buffers and *S. cerevisiae* histone H2A. **e,** Same as in (b) except using *S. cerevisiae*

H3-H4 tetramer. **f,** FPLC elution profiles of *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4 and H3^{H113N}-H4 tetramers. **g,**

Same as (b) for *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4 and H3^{H113N}-H4 tetramers. **h,** FPLC elution profiles of *S.*

cerevisiae H3-H4 and H3^{H113Y}-H4 tetramers. **i,** Same as in (b) for *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4 and H3^{H113Y}-

H4 tetramers.

Figure 5

Figure 5. H3C110 is important for efficient catalytic activity. a, FPLC elution profiles of human

H3.2-H4 and H3.2^{C110A}-H4 tetramers. **b,** Progress curve of copper reduction by human H3.2-H4

tetramer, H3.2^{C110A}-H4 tetramers or buffer. Lines and shading represent the mean ±SD of 3-5

assays. **c,** Same as (b) for human H3.2-H4 and NEM-treated tetramer and buffer. **d,** Same as (b)

for human H3.2-H4 tetramer, buffer, equimolar RNase A and DTT. **e,** FPLC elution profiles of *S.*

cerevisiae WT and H3^{A110C}-H4 tetramers. **f,** Same as (b) for *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4 tetramer, H3^{A110C}-

H4 tetramer (at 1/25th the concentration of WT tetramer), and respective buffers.

a

WT   *gsh1Δ*

H3^{A110C}   *H3^{A110C} gsh1Δ*

b

WT   *gsh1Δ*

H3^{A110C}   *H3^{A110C} gsh1Δ*

c

	YPD	YPEG	YPEG + 10 μM BCS	YPEG + 20 μM BCS
WT				
H3^{A110C}				
gsh1Δ				
H3^{A110C} gsh1Δ				

Figure 6

Figure 6. The H3A110C mutation enhances copper utilization for respiratory growth in *S. cerevisiae*. a, Growth curves of the indicated strains in respiratory media (YPEG). Line graphs show means at each time point ±SD from three independent experiments. **b,** Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) measurements of cells grown in the indicated media for 12 hrs. Bar graphs show mean OCR ±SD of three independent experiments done concurrently with the same batch of media, and adjusted to mitochondrial DNA content (which were not significantly different; data not shown). **c,** Spot test assays in fermentative (YPD) or respiratory media (YPEG) with the indicated amounts of BCS. *P<0.05, **P≤0.01, ***P≤0.001.

a

b

Extended data Figure 1

Extended Data Figure 1. The H3H113N mutation causes sensitivity to histone dosage. a,

Graphical representation of copper homeostasis in *S. cerevisiae*. For simplicity, only processes

relevant to this manuscript are shown. **b,** Spot test assay of the indicated strains in fermentative

medium (YPD). Note that the *HHT1* gene in the bottom two strains was placed under the control

of the *GAL1* promoter, which is repressed in YPD. Since one copy of H113N (bottom row) causes

a more severe phenotype than two copies (*H3^{H113N}* strain, third row), this suggests that H113N is

likely a loss of function mutation.

Extended data Figure 2

Extended Data Figure 2. The H3H113N mutation does not affect CUP1 buffering capacity, cellular metal content, or gene expression in fermentative or non-fermentative media. **a-c,** Spot test assays of the indicated strains in media as specified. Note that the *ctr1Δ* strain is respiratory deficient and cannot be rescued by exogenous manganese, zinc or iron. **d,** 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. Note that cells were pre-loaded with copper prior to growth in YPEG. **e,** Same as (a-c). **f,** Intracellular copper and iron content measured by ICP-MS for exponentially growing strains in YPD. Data are presented as mean ±SD from 3-6 replicate cultures. **g,** Scatterplot of average global gene expression values from exponentially growing cells in YPEG from two independent experiments, with Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (r_s) as indicated. **h,** Heat map of average mRNA expression levels for copper homeostasis genes (data summarized in Fig. 2d) 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≤0.001.

Extended data Figure 3

Extended data Figure 3. Deletion of one copy of histone H3 and H4 genes renders cells defective in utilizing copper for respiratory growth. a, Western blots of histone H3 and H4 and coomassie-stained 15% SDS-PAGE (showing gel segment for 25-75 kDa) including the relative signal intensity for the indicated strains. **b,** Signal intensity profiles from chromatin digested with 0.1 units of MNase. A.U.: arbitrary units. **c,** Average doubling times ±SD from steady-state growth in liquid YPD from three replicate cultures. **d,** Average population doublings ±SD for growth in liquid YPEG with increasing amounts of $CuSO_4$ after 36 hrs from three replicate cultures. ***$P \leq 0.001$.

Extended data Figure 4

Extended data Figure 4. The H3H113N mutation reduces Sod1 activity but does not affect Sod1 disulfide bond formation, CUP1 buffering capacity, cellular metal content, gene expression or oxygen sensitivity in lysine deficient media. a, Sod1 in-gel activity assay (top) and corresponding Sod1p western blot (bottom) for cells grown in Synthetic Complete (SC) medium. Numbers are relative signal intensities compared to WT. Gel and blot shown are representative of three independent experiments. **b,** Sod1 disulfide bond assay for cells grown for 2 hrs in minimal media with the indicated amount of $CuSO_4$. The reduced Sod1 runs at a different molecular weight because of covalent bonding between iodoacetamide and sulfhydryl group of reduced cysteine residues. Numbers are relative amount of oxidized Sod1 compared to the total Sod1 protein. Blot shown is representative of three independent experiments. **c-e,** Spot test assays of the indicated strains in media as specified. Note that *ccs1Δ* or *sod1Δ* renders cells auxotrophic for lysine and cannot be rescued by exogenous manganese, zinc or iron. **f,** Intracellular copper and iron content measured by ICP-MS for exponentially growing strains in YPD. Data are presented as mean ±SD from 3-6 replicate cultures. **g,** Scatterplot of average global gene expression values from exponentially growing cells in SC or lysine deficient (SC-lys) media from two independent experiments, with Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (r_s) as indicated. **h,** Heat map of average mRNA expression levels for copper homeostasis genes (data summarized in Fig 3f) 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 *ccs1Δ* strain in SC-lys medium (5th column). **i,** Spot test assays of the indicated strains in SC or SC-lys grown in normoxic or hypoxic conditions. Hypoxia was generated with an air-tight chamber and an anaerobic gas producing satchet. **j,** Average population doublings ±SD for growth in the indicated media after 36 hrs from three independent experiments. ***P≤0.001.

Extended Data Figure 5

Extended Data Figure 5. Experimental outline of H3.2-H4 tetramer formation and *in vitro* copper reductase assay. a, The procedure for preparation of histones and assembly of the human and yeast H3-H4 tetramer is outlined. **b,** Graphical representation of the copper reductase assay. **c,** Standard curve for Cu^{1+} detection for copper reductase assay conditions used with human H3.2 tetramers (see Methods). Error bars indicate mean ±SD of three replicate measurements. **d,** Same as (c) for assay conditions used with *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4 tetramers (see Methods). **e,** Progress curve of copper reduction by human H3.2-H4 tetramer using NADPH as reducing agent. Lines and shading represent the mean ±SD of 3-5 assays. **f,** Same as (c) for assay conditions used for NADPH (see Methods).

a yWT — CuCl₂ (mM): 1, 0.5, 0.3, 0.1, 0.075, 0.05, 0.04

b yH113N — CuCl₂ (mM): 1, 0.5, 0.3, 0.1, 0.04

c yH113Y — CuCl₂ (mM): 1, 0.5, 0.3, 0.1, 0.075, 0.05, 0.04

d Reaction rate (μM/min) vs CuCl₂ (mM) — yWT, yH113N, yH113Y

e

Enzyme Parameters	yWT ± SD	yH3^{H113N} ± SD	yH3^{H113Y} ± SD
K_m (μM)	19.5 ± 4	25.2 ± 9	13.5 ± 4
V_{max} (μM/min)	482 ± 15	402.2 ± 18	385 ± 14
k_{cat} (sec^{-1})	8.05 ± 0.25	6.7 ± 0.3	6.42 ± 0.2
k_{cat}/K_m (M^{-1} sec^{-1})	4.1×10^5	2.7×10^5	4.7×10^5

f hWT — CuCl₂ (mM): 0.5, 0.3, 0.075, 0.05, 0.025, 0.012

g Reaction rate (μM/min) vs CuCl₂ (mM) — hWT

h

Enzyme Parameters	Value ± SD
K_m (μM)	29.02 ± 6
V_{max} (μM/min)	8685 ± 350
k_{cat} (sec^{-1})	144.75 ± 6
k_{cat}/K_m (M^{-1} sec^{-1})	4.99×10^6

i

yWT Buffer, hWT Buffer, hC110A Buffer, yWT Tetramer 5uM, hWT Tetramer 1uM, hC110A Tetramer 5uM

Extended Data Figure 6

Extended Data Figure 6. Enzymatic parameters of H3-H4 tetramers. **a,** Progress curves of copper reduction by *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4 tetramer for indicated substrate concentrations ($CuCl_2$). Lines and shading represent the mean ±SD of 3-5 assays. **b,** Same as (a) for *S. cerevisiae* H3^{H113N}-H4 tetramer. **c,** Same as (a) for *S. cerevisiae* H3^{H113Y}-H4 tetramer. **d,** Henri-Michaelis-Menten curves of initial velocities of reactions shown in (a-c). **e,** Calculated enzymatic parameters of the tetramer from the curves in (d). Note that these data are based on our assay condition and with the form of copper in our assay as the substrate (see Methods). Considering the apparent absence of free copper *in vivo*, however, we expect chaperones to deliver and retrieve copper to and from the H3-H4 tetramer. Therefore, the *in vivo* Km value would be that between the tetramer and the chaperone that brings copper to it. This is of course not possible to determine at this time since the identity of the chaperone is unknown. **f,** Same as (a) for human H3.2-H4 tetramer. **g,** Henri-Michaelis-Menten curves of initial velocities for reactions shown in (f). **h,** Calculated enzymatic parameters of the human tetramer from the curve in (g). Similar considerations as in (e) regarding the relevant *in vivo* Km values also apply here. **i,** Progress curves of copper reduction for human H3.2-H4, H3.2^{C110A}-H4 and *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4 tetramers and buffers performed in yeast assay conditions (see Methods). Lines and shading represent the mean ±SD of 3-5 assays.

Extended Data 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[35]
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
NAY609	H3[H113Y]	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ:: ura3)Δ::HHT2-H113Y HHT1-H113Y*	This study
NAY616	H3[A110C]	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ:: ura3)Δ::HHT2-A110C HHT1-A110C*	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-H113Y HHT1-H113Y, ctr1Δ*	This study
OCY2381	p[(GAL1)]-GSH1	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ:: ura3)Δ::HHT2, kanMX6-PGAL1-GSH1*	This study
OCY2391	ctr1Δ p[(GAL1)]-GSH1	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ:: ura3)Δ::HHT2, ctr1Δ:: hphMX4, kanMX6-PGAL1-GSH1*	This study
OCY2131	cox17Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ:: ura3)Δ::HHT2, cox17Δ:: kanMX6*	This study
OCY2132	H3[H113N]cox17Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ:: ura3)Δ::HHT2-H113N HHT1-H113N, cox17Δ:: kanMX6*	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
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
OCY2371	gsh1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ:: ura3)Δ::HHT2, gsh1Δ::KanMX6*	This study
OCY2373	H3[A110C] gsh1Δ	*MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0, (hht2Δ:: ura3)Δ::HHT2-A110C HHT1-A110C, gsh1Δ::KanMX6*	This study

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)[35] strain and are listed in Extended Data Table 1. All strains were maintained on YPD (1% Yeast extract, 2% Peptone, 2% Glucose) plates and were grown at 30°C for varying amounts of time in all experiments as described below. Bacteria for histone expression were BL21(DE3)pLysS cells and BL21(DE3) (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. The histone H3 His113Asn (H3H113N) mutation was generated in both chromosomal loci (*HHT1* and *HHT2*) in a stepwise and marker-less manner. First, using the *delitto perfetto* approach[36], 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*[37]. The pCAS plasmid, containing both the Cas9 gene from *Streptococcus pyogenes* and a single guide RNA, was a gift from Jamie Cate[37]. To target Cas9 to the *HHT1* region containing H113, the 20 bp targeting sequence at the 5' end of the sgRNA was changed via PCR. The H113N mutation (340-CAC-342 becomes 340-AAT-342) was then introduced in yeast by co-transformation with the *HHT1-H113*-targeting pCAS plasmid, and a 100-nt double stranded homology-directed repair template containing the mutation, which was generated by primer extension. Successful mutagenesis at both *HHT1* and *HHT2* was confirmed by sequencing of the entire gene coding locus. 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 genetic deletions and promoter insertions were generated by standard yeast gene

replacement and targeted insertion methodology using selectable marker integration[38,39].

Additionally, *CTR1* was deleted in the strains shown in Extended Data Fig. 2a using CRISPR-Cas9

targeting system using a homology-directed repair template that skipped the entire gene.

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. Introduction of the stop codon was

performed using the CRISPR-Cas9 system as described above for generating histone mutants, and

correct mutagenesis was confirmed by sequencing.

Plasmids for histone expression. Plasmids for expression of *Xenopus laevis* histones are from[40].

The histone H3 plasmid from this reference contains an H3-G102A mutation, which was corrected

to the WT G102 by site directed mutagenesis (QuikChange, Agilent) resulting in plasmid pH3.2.

C110 of histone H3.2 was mutated to alanine to produce pH3.2-C110A. H3H113 was mutated to

asparagine or tyrosine resulting in pH3.2-H113N and pH3.2-H113Y. pBL105 and pBL108 for

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

Southwestern Medical Center. H3 A110 was mutated to cysteine to produce pYH3-A110C. H3

H113 was mutated to asparagine or tyrosine producing pYH3-H113N and pYH3-H113Y.

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

for at least 12 hours to remove trace metal contamination, followed in some cases by 1 hour of

10% nitric acid. 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 let cool slowly

at 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.

Liquid culture growth curves. Population doubling times were calculated from cells growing

exponentially in YPD or SC media. Total population doublings and fold population growth were

calculated by measuring cell densities in indicated media after up to 48 hours of incubation.

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

cells were spotted on agar plates containing media and additives as indicated in the figures. 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 rapidly (i.e. within 30 minutes) generate an anaerobic environment

achieving atmospheric oxygen of <1%. Following growth in liquid media as described above, cells

were 5-fold serially diluted and 5 µL of cells were spotted on agar plates. Media for normoxic and

hypoxic conditions was supplemented with 20 µg/ml ergosterol and 0.5% Tween-80 to support

growth in low-oxygen conditions. The plates were then placed in the sealed hypoxic jar for 7 days

at 30°C before capturing images. Images shown are representative examples of at least two

replicates performed on different days with the same clones.

Micrococcal nuclease (MNase) digestion. MNase digestion was performed similarly to methods described previously[41]. Cells were grown in SC medium at 30°C for ~2 doublings, at which point formaldehyde was added to a final concentration of 2%. Cells were fixed for 30 min at 30°C followed by glycine addition to quench formaldehyde reactivity. A volume corresponding to 2×10^9 cells was transferred to new tubes and resuspended in Zymolyase buffer (1 M Sorbitol, 50 mM Tris pH 7.5) on ice. β-mercaptoethanol was added to a concentration of 10 mM. 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 distributed to 4 tubes containing varying amounts of MNase. Samples were incubated at 37°C for 20 min, at which point MNase was inactivated by the addition of 5X stop solution (5% SDS, 50 mM EDTA). Proteins were then digested by addition of 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, and eluted in Qiagen buffer EB.

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. Using TapeStation Analysis software (Agilent), gel images were exported, without contrast adjustment, and saved in TIFF format. Pixel intensities along a line perpendicular to DNA bands and through the center of each lane were then quantified

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 $OD_{600} = 0.2\text{-}0.4$ and grown at 30°C for ~3

doublings in SC or YPD, or for 18 and 24 hrs in YPEG and SC-lys, respectively. Three replicate

cultures were prepared for each sample. Cells ($4\text{-}12 \times 10^8$) were collected by centrifugation, and

washed twice in 1 mM EDTA to remove cell surface-associated metals. This was followed by one

wash in Nanopure Diamond filtered water to remove residual EDTA. Cell pellets were then 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. Acid-washed materials were rinsed thoroughly with Nanopure water before use.

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

Nanopure 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 for Cu and Fe and well above the lower limits of detection, which were determined from

multiple blank samples. ICP MassHunter software was used for ICP-MS data analysis.

RNA extraction. Cells growing exponentially in SC or YPD, or grown for 24 hrs in SC-lys, were

collected by centrifugation and frozen at -20°C until further processing. RNA was extracted using

previously published methods[42] with some modifications. Frozen cell pellets were resuspended in

AE buffer (50 mM Na acetate pH 5.2, 10 mM EDTA, 1% SDS), and RNA was extracted by

addition of 5:1 phenol:chloroform pH 4.5 (ThermoFisher) and incubation at 65°C for 4 min.

Samples were then rapidly frozen in dry ice-ethanol, and centrifuged to separate the aqueous and

phenol phases. Nucleic acids were then re-extracted by phenol-chloroform and ethanol-

precipitated. RNA extracted for subsequent RNA-seq analysis are from two replicates of cells

grown on different days with different media batches. The exceptions are cells grown in SC which

are from three replicates, and cells grown in SC-lys + 75 µM $CuSO_4$ which is from one experiment.

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

Illumina HiSeq sequencing, contaminating DNA was digested, and RNA quality was assessed.

Extracted nucleic acids were treated with Turbo DNase (Thermo Fisher) according to the

manufacturer's "Routine DNase treatment" procedures. RNA quality was then assessed using the

RNA ScreenTape assay on the TapeStation 2200 instrument (Agilent), according to the

manufacturer's protocol with undiluted RNA samples. Using TapeStation Analysis software

(Agilent), RNA Integrity Number equivalent (RINe) scores, which reflects the ratio of abundances

of 28S, 18S, and sub-18S RNAs, 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). Both library preparation procedures first isolate polyA$^+$ mRNAs using oligo-

dT beads. Isolated polyA$^+$ RNAs are then chemically fragmented, and random primers are used in

the first cDNA reverse transcription step. 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), according to the manufacturer's protocol. Average library sizes of ~270 bp were

observed and deemed correct. Using TapeStation Analysis software (Agilent), library DNA

concentrations were estimated. Libraries were then 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), downloaded from the

UCSC database, using Tophat 2.0.9[43]. 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[44]. Many

of the 6692 annotated ORFs are often labeled as "dubious" or "putative" in the Saccharomyces

Genome Database (SGD) and typically have low expression values. We removed 1648 such ORFs

from further analysis, and used the remaining 5044 ORFs for comparisons between groups.

RNA-sequencing gene sets. Gene sets (e.g. Fig. 2d) were constructed by downloading and

merging gene ontology term gene lists from AmiGO 2 in March 2017. For the "copper

homeostasis" and "iron homeostasis" gene sets, we further modified the lists by adding or

removing genes based on literature review.

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). Cells

from overnight cultures in YPD were diluted in YPEG with or without additional $CuSO_4$ or BCS

and grown at 30°C for 12-24 hrs. For experiments involving Antimycin A treatment in YPEG, cells

were instead grown for 6 hrs in the presence of antimycin. Cells were then 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.

Sod1 activity assay and disulfide bond measurement. Sod1p superoxide dismutase activity was

assayed by native-PAGE and in-gel staining with nitrotetrazolium blue (NBT), based on

previously-reported methodology[45]. Following an overnight growth in SC media, 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 by centrifugation and resuspended in

lysis buffer (600 mM sorbitol, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 5 mM EDTA, and protease inhibitors).

Approximately $3x10^8$ cells were also collected from the same cultures for assessment of the Sod1

disulfide bond (see below). Cells for the Sod1 activity assay were then 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, 50 mM DTT final concentrations), respectively. For Sod1p western blots, 10

µg of total protein content was run on 10% SDS acrylamide gels. Western blots were performed

using a primary antibody against Sod1p, which was a gift from Valeria Culotta (JH764). 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.

Sod1p western blot signal intensities from an initial run were then used to normalize loading for

subsequent native-PAGE and the final SDS-PAGE and western blot (shown in the figures). For

native-PAGE, ~10 μg (WT and $H3^{H113N}$) or ~100 μg ($ccs1\Delta$ and $H3^{H113N}ccs1\Delta$) of total protein was

run on 10% acrylamide gels 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, and saved

in TIFF format. Signal intensities of the major SOD1 band were then quantified using FIJI (ImageJ

1.48k). The Sod1p disulfide bond was assayed by iodoacetamide (IAA) labeling of thiols and gel

mobility shift based on previously-reported methodology[45]. Cells were resuspended in lysis buffer

containing IAA (600 mM sorbitol, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 5 mM EDTA, 100 mM IAA (Sigma-

Aldrich), and protease inhibitors). Cells were lysed with glass beads and lysates prepared with

non-reducing SDS sample buffer (5% glycerol, 40 mM Tris pH 6.8, 1% SDS, 0.005%

bromophenol blue final concentrations). For Sod1p western blots, 10 μg (WT and $H3^{H113N}$) or 20

μg ($ccs1\Delta$ and $H3^{H113N}ccs1\Delta$) of total protein content was run on 18% SDS acrylamide gels.

Following 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 and H4 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.

Histone purification. Histone purification was performed as previously described[46], 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[46], 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[46] 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. 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.** Human 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 tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP, Sigma). The reaction was started by

adding a mix of $CuCl_2$ and Tricine-HCl, pH 7.5, at final concentrations of 0.5 mM and 2.5 mM,

respectively. 5 μM *S. cerevisiae* H3-H4 tetramers were resuspended in 33mM NaCl, 15 mM Urea,

1 mM Neocuproine, 30 μM TCEP and the reaction was started with a mix of 0.5 mM $CuCl_2$, 0.5

mM Tricine-HCl, pH 7.5 and 1.33 mM NaOAc, pH 7.5. Special care was taken to keep the ratio

of $CuCl_2$: Neocuproine at 1:2 for all reactions. $CuCl_2$ reduction using NADPH as the electron

donor was performed using a final concentration of H3-H4 tetramer of 5.8 μM in 150 mM NaOAc,

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. Absorbance at 448 nm was measured every 0.5 seconds using a

Hewlett-Packard HP8453 diode-array UV/Visible spectrophotometer. Standard curves for each

condition were produced to verify linearity of detection and convert absorbance units into Cu^{1+}

molarity.

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

number of population doublings and oxygen consumption rates in Fig. 2c and Extended Data Fig.

2d were calculated using the Holm-Sidak method for multiple t-tests, with alpha = 0.05. Significance values for pair-wise comparisons of oxygen consumption rates in Fig. 6b were calculated using Welch's t-test, with alpha = 0.05. Significance values for comparisons of the number of population doublings in Fig. 3d and Extended Data Fig. 4j, and culture densities in Fig. 6a 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. Fig. 1f) and for analyzing gene sets (e.g. Fig. 2d). 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. Fig. 2d) 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), taking zero as starting value. Predicted values for 0.3 seconds were within 20% of the maximum values detected and used to calculate the initial velocities. These initial velocities 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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