Article Type: Research article

Title: Engineered probiotics that sequester arsenite in a mouse gastrointestinal system

Authors and Affiliations:

Nhu Nguyen [1,‡], Miaomiao Wang [1,‡], Sithembiso S. Msibi [2], Vincenzo Kennedy [1], Fateme

Esmailie [1], L. Joseph Su [2], Lin Li [1], Clement T. Y. Chan [1,3,*]

[1] Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of North Texas, Denton, TX, USA

[2] Peter O'Donnell Jr. School of Public Health, UT Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX,

USA

[3] BioDiscovery Institute, University of North Texas, Denton, TX, USA

[‡] These authors are considered to have equal contributions to this study

* Corresponding author

Supplementary Materials:

One supplementary file is included in this submission:

Supplementary Materials—Containing **Supplementary Figures S1 to S7**

Abstract:

Chronic exposure to inorganic arsenic remains a major global health concern, as arsenite is

frequently present in contaminated food and drinking water and readily absorbed through the

gastrointestinal (GI) tract. Once internalized, arsenite accumulates in tissues and contributes to

long-term health effects, including cancer, organ dysfunction, and neurological disorders.

Despite extensive efforts to reduce environmental contamination, there are currently no practical

strategies to prevent dietary arsenite from entering the human body during digestion. Here, we

report a synthetic biology–based approach that uses engineered probiotics to detect and

sequester arsenite directly within the GI tract before systemic absorption occurs. We engineered

Escherichia coli Nissle 1917 (*EcN*), a probiotic strain, to function as a living arsenite-interception

system. Central to this design is an arsenite-responsive genetic toggle switch that activates

chelator expression upon exposure and sustains production under biostatic conditions, while

automatically shutting off during active cell division to limit metabolic burden and enhance

biosafety. In parallel, we engineered an arsenite-binding protein derived from the transcriptional

regulator ArsR to eliminate DNA-binding activity while retaining high-affinity metal binding,

yielding a non-toxic chelator suitable for intracellular sequestration. The resulting engineered

strain efficiently removed arsenite from its surrounding environment in vitro while maintaining

robust cell viability and growth. To translate these findings to an in vivo context, we developed a

mass-transfer model describing arsenite distribution among the stomach lumen, engineered

bacteria, and epithelial cells. This model guided the selection of a bacterial dose predicted to

substantially deplete lumenal arsenite prior to epithelial uptake. Using this strategy, we

demonstrated in a mouse GI model that oral administration of engineered *EcN* markedly

reduced arsenite entry into the bloodstream compared with wild-type EcN or no-bacteria

controls. Together, these results establish a programmable probiotic platform for intercepting

dietary arsenite and highlight a potential strategy for preventing absorption of environmental

toxicants using living microbial therapeutics.

Introduction:

Heavy metal contamination represents a critical global health challenge. Inorganic arsenic,

such as arsenite, is one of the most prevalent toxic metal species, with chronic exposure linked

to cancers, organ failure, neurodegeneration, and other severe diseases (*1, 2*). As arsenite is

hard to be eliminated once absorbed into human tissues, their effects are cumulative and long-

lasting, and no safe threshold of exposure exists. Nonetheless, heavy metals remain abundant

in human diets worldwide; more than 140 million people are estimated to consume arsenite-

contaminated drinking water (*3*), millions in the United States are at risk from unsafe arsenite

concentrations (*4*), and staple crops such as rice and wheat frequently contain high levels of

arsenite (*5-7*). Despite the magnitude of this problem, there remains limited strategies to protect

individuals from dietary exposures to this heavy metal species effectively. Thus, new

approaches are urgently needed to mitigate this increasing health burden.

Current strategies to limit exposure focus on environmental management and monitoring.

Approaches such as phytoremediation of contaminated soils (*8*) , improved irrigation and waste

practices (*9, 10*), and inspection programs supported by analytical techniques like mass

spectrometry (*11, 12*) and atomic absorption spectroscopy (*13-15*) have value but are costly,

infrastructure-dependent, and insufficient in regions with widespread contamination. Water

purification systems can reduce exposure but remain inaccessible for many populations, and

importantly, no practical technologies exist to prevent heavy metal uptake from food. Chelation

therapy, while effective in acute poisoning, cannot be used preventively because of many

adverse side effects caused by chelating agents (*16*). These limitations highlight an urgent need

for affordable and scalable solutions to block dietary heavy metal absorption.

Microbial systems offer a promising foundation to tackle this health problem. Engineered

bacteria expressing protein-based chelators such as metallothioneins (*17-19*), phytochelatins

(*20*), and ArsR (*21*) can sequester toxic metals, and peptides with high binding affinity have

been designed for similar purposes (*22-24*). In parallel, transcriptional regulators that sense

specific metals have been harnessed for biosensing applications (*25-28*); recent innovations in

directed evolution (*29, 30*) and genetic circuit amplification (*31*) have shown promising paths to

expand sensitivity. However, most efforts have centered on detection rather than incorporating

genetic sensing with biological chelators to promote heavy metal removal.

Emerging synthetic biology approaches have been explored to engineer gut microbes as

versatile living therapeutics. Probiotic strains have been developed to metabolize harmful

molecules, suppress pathogens, and secrete bioactive molecules to improve host physiology

(*32-37*). These advances demonstrate that gut microbes can be designed to sense

environmental or host-derived signals and deliver therapeutic responses in situ.

Here, we have explored the concept of microbial sense-and-response for an environmental

toxicology application by engineering gut bacteria to detect and sequester arsenite in the

gastrointestinal tract before absorption occurs. A key advantage of engineered bacteria is their

ability to couple sensing and intervention in real time. Unlike conventional chelator therapies,

which bind both toxic and essential metals, engineered microbes can be designed to activate

metal-binding only when a target contaminant is present, thereby reducing off-target effects and

minimizing disruption of essential metal homeostasis. This dynamic, conditional response also

allows bacteria to conserve resources for their cell fitness in the drastically changing

gastrointestinal environment yet rapidly increase sequestration capacity during exposure

events. Together, these features provide a unique platform for selective, preventative

detoxification that is not achievable with existing chemical or physical methods.

Specifically, we have developed an *Escherichia coli Nissle 1917* (*EcN*) strain equipped with

an arsenite-responsive genetic circuit to control an output module to express a protein-based

arsenite chelator. We demonstrated that this engineered bacterial strain performed in a mouse

gastrointestinal system to reduce the rise in blood arsenite levels after an oral administration of

arsenite solution. This work establishes a new preventative strategy against dietary metal

exposure and broadens potential applications of engineered microbes to include protection from

environmental toxicants.

Results:

Design of genetic circuit for sensing and responding to arsenite

For protection against dietary arsenite, we designed an engineered strain of *EcN* that can

pass through the digestive tract, capture the toxic metal, and be excreted while retaining the

bound arsenite. The strain was designed to express a protein-based arsenite chelator, enabling

bioaccumulation of arsenite-protein complexes within bacterial cells. A key feature of our design

is that the bacteria will produce a basal level of chelator even in the absence of heavy metals,

ensuring they are primed to capture toxicants as soon as exposure occurs. This basal level is

intentionally kept low to minimize non-specific binding of essential metal ions and to preserve

cellular fitness. Upon encountering arsenite, the genetic circuit triggers a robust induction of

chelator expression, dynamically reallocating cellular resources to maximize sequestration at

the point of highest toxicant burden. Notably, the circuit is further designed to sustain elevated

chelator expression in arsenite-exposed cells even after arsenite levels decline, ensuring

effective clearance of residual toxicants and extending the protective effect during digestion.

The engineered *EcN* cells are intended for repeated oral administration and most cells will

be eliminated from the gastrointestinal tract after passage; however, a small fraction may persist

and colonize the gut for extended periods (*38*). To prevent these proliferating cells from

uncontrollably producing the chelator in the absence of arsenite, we incorporated a growth-

dependent control feature. When arsenite

concentrations fall below the detection threshold,

chelator synthesis continues only in non-dividing

cells; active cell division over several cycles

leads to the cessation of chelator expression.

This event-triggered, sustained response is

enabled by a genetic toggle switch architecture

(**Figure 1**). Although the ArsR transcriptional

regulator functions as an arsenite sensor (*39*),

directly coupling output expression to ArsR

activity restricts both sensitivity and the duration

of response. To overcome these limitations, we

implemented reciprocal repression between ArsR

and a counter-regulator, CelR—a transcriptional

repressor that controls gene expression from an

engineered promoter (*40*). In the absence of

arsenite, ArsR dominates the regulatory circuit

and represses both the chelator and CelR. Upon

Figure 1. Circuit design for sensing and responding to arsenite. The circuit consists of two regulatory proteins, ArsR and CelR, that form a toggle switch. Under normal growth conditions without arsenite, ArsR is highly expressed and dominant, maintaining the circuit in the chelator-OFF state. Upon arsenite exposure, CelR and chelator expressions are induced, which represses *arsR* transcription. Once triggered, chelator expression continues even after arsenite is removed, until active cell division reduces CelR levels and restores ArsR expression, returning the circuit to the OFF state.

arsenite exposure, ArsR repression is relieved, allowing expression of both genes; newly

synthesized CelR then suppresses ArsR, reinforcing the ON state. This architecture confers two

key advantages. First, it enables a prolonged response: because CelR continues to inhibit ArsR

after arsenite levels fall, chelator expression persists, supporting clearance of residual toxicants.

Second, it enhances sensitivity: by lowering ArsR abundance through CelR-mediated

repression, the circuit reduces the arsenite threshold required to fully switch into the ON state.

Importantly, the circuit also incorporates a mechanism that ties output decay to active cell

division. We intentionally limited the maximal intracellular CelR level so that rapid growth dilutes

CelR faster than it can repress ArsR, allowing ArsR to regain dominance and gradually return

the circuit to the OFF state. Together, these design features transform a transient environmental

cue into a durable yet self-limiting detoxification program, establishing a programmable strategy

for microbial heavy-metal sequestration in vivo.

Arsenite-responsive toggle switch circuit

To establish the design in **Figure 1** for desired arsenite sensing and response behaviors, we

first constructed the Control circuit shown in **Figure 2A** to characterize the transcriptional

regulator ArsR as an arsenite-responsive genetic sensor; the circuit was built in a plasmid that

can be hosted by *EcN*. The *arsR* gene was placed under the control of the promoter P_{LcelO} (*40*);

transcriptional activity of this promoter is repressed by the regulator CelR. In the absence of

CelR, ArsR was therefore constitutively expressed in this circuit. ArsR specifically binds to the

arsO operator (*39*); we incorporated this operator downstream of the P_L promoter (*41*) to

generate P_{LarsO} (**Supplementary Figure S1**). Binding of ArsR to this operator represses

transcription from the engineered promoter. We next characterized the signal-response behavior

of the *arsR*/P_{LarsO} system using mCherry as a fluorescent reporter. *EcN* cells harboring this

circuit were exposed to a range of sodium arsenite concentrations (0 to 5 µM) overnight, and

mCherry fluorescence was quantified by flow cytometry (**Figure 2B**). In unexposed cells,

mCherry fluorescence averaged 975 ± 41 a.u. (mean ± S.D.), whereas exposure to 5 µM

arsenite increased fluorescence to 12,237 ± 1,511 a.u., confirming that the system is responsive

to arsenite.

Next, we constructed the toggle switch by incorporating the *celR* regulator gene into the

plasmid, placing it under the control of the P_{LarsO} promoter so that ArsR and CelR mutually

repressed each other's expression (Toggle Switch circuit; **Figure 2A**). Our goal was to develop

a sense-and-response system in which exposure to arsenite triggers expression of the output

gene, and once activated, the output remains expressed even after arsenite is removed, until

cells resume active division during
growth. Similar growth-dependent
toggle switch behavior has been
developed previously (*42*).
To achieve this functionality in
our arsenite-sensing circuit, we fine-
tuned CelR expression by
modulating its ribosome binding site
(RBS) strength across a range of
predicted translation efficiencies
(*43*). Each circuit variant was
evaluated to identify the version that
produced the desired response
dynamics (**Supplementary Figure
S1**). For initial screening, cultures
were grown overnight in the
presence of 0 or 5 µM sodium
arsenite to allow full induction of
output expression. We sought a
circuit variant that exhibited low
mCherry expression in the absence
of arsenite and strong mCherry
induction upon arsenite exposure,
consistent with the expected toggle
switch behavior. To identify circuit
variants capable of sustaining
output expression under biostatic
conditions after arsenite removal,
cells from 5 µM arsenite-exposed
cultures were collected and
resuspended in an equal volume of

Figure 2. Characterization of the arsenite-responsive toggle switch circuit. (**A**) The circuit design of the Control and Toggle Switch circuits are shown. (**B**) Sensitivity of these two circuits were assessed by measuring cellular response to a 24-hour exposure to 0 to 5 µM arsenite. The equation of illustrated dose-response curves is presented in the Methods section. (**C**) To evaluate the rate of output production, cellular levels of mCherry were measured in 0 to 4 hours of exposing to 5 µM of arsenite. (**D**) Specificity of signal detection was assessed by exposing cells containing the toggle switch circuit to various conditions with different chemical species and measuring changes in cellular mCherry levels. (**E**) Stability of output production was characterized; arsenite-induced cells were transferred to a biostatic condition without arsenite for 72 hours with measurement of cellular mCherry levels every 24 hours. (**F**) To enhance output production levels, the characterized Toggle Switch circuit was used to control the expression of T7 RNA polymerase for driving mCherry production as the output. *EcN* with this circuit was incubated with 0 and 5 µM of sodium arsenite overnight before characterizing cellular mCherry levels. Each data point represents mean ± S.D. of three biological replicates.

fresh culture medium lacking arsenite, thereby maintaining cell density and ensuring a
stationary-phase state. These cultures were then incubated under standard growth conditions
for 24 hours before mCherry fluorescence was measured.

The mCherry expression levels varied across cells harboring different circuit variants

(**Supplementary Figure S1**). When the RBS driving *celR* was too strong (e.g., RBS 1),

mCherry fluorescence was high under both 0 and 5 µM arsenite conditions, indicating that

excessive CelR expression suppressed *arsR* transcription regardless of arsenite presence.

Among the variants exhibiting differential responses between 0 and 5 µM arsenite (RBS 2 to

13), most failed to maintain mCherry expression after arsenite removal for 24 hours. In the

Control circuit lacking *celR*, mCherry fluorescence decreased from 14,600 ± 367 to 8,297 ± 105

a.u. after this biostatic incubation; several toggle switch variants displayed similar behavior,

suggesting that these circuits produced insufficient CelR levels to repress ArsR even after

arsenite induction. In contrast, the circuit containing RBS 10 maintained high mCherry

fluorescence under biostatic conditions following arsenite removal. This variant satisfied our

design criteria and was therefore selected for subsequent characterization.

Characterization of circuit response

We compared the arsenite sensitivity of this selected toggle switch circuit with that of the

control circuit (**Figure 2B**). Cultures harboring either construct were exposed overnight to a

range of sodium arsenite concentrations, and cellular mCherry fluorescence was quantified. The

resulting data were fitted to dose-response curves, revealing that the toggle switch enhanced

sensitivity to arsenite relative to the control. Specifically, cells carrying the toggle switch reached

half-maximal mCherry levels (EC_{50}) at 1.02 µM arsenite, whereas those with the control circuit

required 1.97 µM. Furthermore, the Hill slope of the toggle switch response (2.71) was steeper

than that of the control circuit (2.09), indicating a more pronounced, cooperative increase in

output expression with rising arsenite concentrations. This behavior is consistent with the

expected mechanism in which arsenite-induced CelR expression suppresses ArsR, thereby

amplifying mCherry expression.

Additionally, we monitored how quickly the circuits responded to arsenite exposure (**Figure

2C**). Both engineered strains were treated with 5 µM sodium arsenite at the mid-log phase, and

their mCherry fluorescence was measured over time. A clear increase in fluorescence was

detected within the first hour in both cases, indicating that the regulator ArsR rapidly sensed and

responded to arsenite. After the initial response, mCherry levels in both strains continued to rise

gradually.

We next evaluated the specificity of the toggle switch for arsenite detection (**Figure 2D**). In

the gastrointestinal environment, the engineered bacteria are likely to encounter a wide variety

of ionic species; therefore, it is essential that the circuit responds selectively to arsenite to avoid

unnecessary chelator production, which could waste cellular resources and lead to off-target

metal sequestration. Engineered *EcN* carrying the toggle switch was exposed to different

chemicals containing various cations and anions. Among all tested conditions, cells exposed to

50 µM sodium arsenite exhibited a marked increase in mCherry fluorescence (approximately

15-fold), whereas cells treated with other ions showed changes of less than 2-fold. These

results demonstrate that the toggle switch responds specifically to arsenite and is largely

insensitive to other physiologically relevant ions.

Furthermore, we examined the stability of output expression after arsenite removal in the

engineered *EcN* culture (**Figure 2E**). To prevent uncontrolled chelator production during active

growth, our design aimed for a circuit that sustains output expression only under biostatic

conditions and halts production when cells resume division. To maintain arsenite-induced cells

in a non-growing state, saturated cultures were collected daily and resuspended in an equal

volume of fresh medium, replenishing nutrients for cell viability without dilution. This approach

preserved high cell density and maintained cells in a biostatic phase. Under these conditions,

cells carrying the Control circuit exhibited a sharp decline in mCherry fluorescence after arsenite

removal, whereas those harboring the Toggle Switch maintained elevated fluorescence for at

least three days. This sustained expression is consistent with CelR-mediated maintenance of

the ON state, indicating that the toggle switch confers a form of molecular memory that prolongs

output production in the absence of continued arsenite exposure.

In contrast, resumption of cell growth triggered the toggle switch to revert to the OFF state

(**Supplementary Figure S2**). To examine the effect of cell division on circuit stability, we diluted

the cultures 2-, 3-, or 6-fold after each medium exchange, thereby modulating the number of

division cycles required for the cultures to reach saturation. In toggle switch cultures subjected

to 2-fold daily dilution, mCherry fluorescence decreased only about 2-fold after three days,

indicating that output production persisted but at a reduced rate. However, higher daily dilution

ratios (3- and 6-fold) led to a more pronounced decline in mCherry levels, consistent with active

cell division resetting the circuit to the OFF state. This behavior highlights a key safety feature of

the design—ensuring that proliferating cells in the host do not continuously produce excessive

levels of the chelator.

To further enhance output production, we coupled the Toggle Switch circuit to a T7 RNA

polymerase-driven expression module, enabling transcriptional amplification of the output gene

(**Figure 2F**). The translation efficiency of T7 RNA polymerase was optimized by tuning its RBS

strength (**Supplementary Figure S3**), with sequences designed using the computational RBS

calculator (*43*). Each circuit variant was induced with arsenite for 1 hour, and cellular mCherry

fluorescence was quantified. Among the tested variants, the construct containing RBS C

exhibited the greatest dynamic range, with mCherry fluorescence increasing from 54,481 ±

1,409 a.u. (uninduced) to 235,523 ± 7,685 a.u. (induced). When cultures of this variant were

incubated overnight to assess maximal output, fluorescence reached 143,220 ± 1,489 a.u. and

664,975 ± 18,216 a.u. in uninduced and induced cells, respectively. These results demonstrate

that coupling the Toggle Switch to a T7-based transcriptional amplifier markedly boosts output

expression. The strong, orthogonal activity of T7 RNA polymerase likely insulates the output

expression from host transcriptional system, thereby expanding its dynamic range and

enhancing signal fidelity.

Development of an arsenite chelator

ArsR is a transcriptional regulator that responds to arsenite as an inducer and belongs to the

ArsR/SmtB family (**Figure 3A**). An ArsR homolog binds arsenite with a dissociation constant of

approximately 10^{-15} M, indicating exceptionally tight binding (*44*). Based on this property, we

selected ArsR as the chelator for our engineered bacteria. However, high-level expression of

ArsR proved toxic to *E. coli* as we demonstrated that overexpression of this gene for three hours

under an inducible promoter caused roughly a 2-log reduction in colony-forming units (CFU;

Figure 3B). Consistent with this observation, previous studies have also reported growth

inhibition upon ArsR expression (*45*). We hypothesize that this cytotoxicity arises from non-

specific binding of ArsR to genomic DNA; at high intracellular concentrations, ArsR may repress

essential genes, thereby compromising cell viability.

To test this hypothesis and to develop an arsenite chelator with reduced cytotoxicity, we

sought to engineer an ArsR mutant that retains arsenite-binding ability but loses DNA-binding

capacity. Members of the ArsR/SmtB family contain a winged helix-turn-helix DNA-binding motif,

with helices α3 and α4 directly contacting the major groove of DNA (*46, 47*). The N-terminal

region of α3 is also involved in metal chelation (*48, 49*). Our strategy was to disrupt DNA binding

while minimizing perturbation of the metal-binding site. To this end, we introduced single amino

acid substitutions within residues 42 to 49 of helix α4 of ArsR, a region predicted to mediate

DNA interaction but not metal binding based on the protein-DNA complex structure of a family

member, NolR (**Figure 3A**), and sequence alignment among ArsR/SmtB family regulators

(**Supplementary Figure S4**).

Among the ArsR mutants generated, individual amino acid residues were substituted with

alanine. Each *arsR* mutant gene was expressed under the control of a T7 promoter in an *E. coli*

strain harboring an arabinose-inducible T7 RNA polymerase gene in its genome. To evaluate

cytotoxicity, we compared the colony-forming units (CFUs) of cultures with and without induction

of *arsR* expression by 0.2% arabinose. Notably, most substitutions alleviated cytotoxicity, except

 for S47A (**Figure 3B**). Three mutants, including L46A, H48A, and H49A, restored cell growth to

Figure 3. Development of the arsenite chelator. (**A**) Structure of NolR, a ArsR/SmtB family regulator, in complex to a DNA oligonucleotide (PDB:4OMY). The homologous region in α4 (residues 42 to 49) for mutation is colored purple, which situated in the DNA major groove. (**B**) Assessment of cytotoxicity of ArsR mutant expression to *E. coli*. Colony-forming units in each culture was measured before induction (0 hours) and three hours after induction (3 hours). (**C**) Efficiency of arsenite sequestration. Cultures with and without induction for the expression of an *arsR* mutant were incubated with 20 µM sodium arsenite for 3 hours before collection of supernatants for arsenite quantification. (**D**) Characterization of ArsR derivatives in controlling gene expression. ArsR and ArsR H48A were used to control mCherry expression in *E. coli*. After overnight induction with 5 µM arsenite, cells were collected to measure mCherry levels with flow cytometry (left panel). Representative raw data were presented on the right. Each data point represents mean ± S.D. of three biological replicates.

levels comparable to the control strain lacking ArsR expression, as determined by CFU

measurements.

In parallel, we assessed the arsenite sequestration capacity of these strains. Induced and

uninduced cultures with each mutant were incubated with 20 µM of sodium arsenite, after which

supernatants were collected to quantify residual arsenite levels (**Figure 3C**). Among the three

mutants with the lowest toxicity, L46A and H49A mutants exhibited reduced arsenite removal

efficiency, whereas the H48A mutant maintained strong arsenite-binding capacity, achieving

arsenite reduction comparable to that of native ArsR. Therefore, H48A was selected as the

optimized arsenite chelator for subsequent studies.

To confirm the loss of DNA-binding function in the H48A mutant, we evaluated its ability to

regulate an ArsR-responsive promoter controlling mCherry expression in *E. coli* (**Figure 3D**).

The genetic design, shown as the Control circuit in **Figure 2A**, includes a constitutively

expressed *arsR* gene that represses mCherry expression as a reporter. In cells expressing

native ArsR, mCherry fluorescence increased approximately 10-fold upon arsenite exposure. In

contrast, when the native *arsR* gene was replaced by the *arsR H48A* mutant, cells expressing

the ArsR H48A mutant exhibited high mCherry expression even in the absence of arsenite, and

fluorescence levels remained unchanged after induction. These results indicate that ArsR H48A

has lost its DNA-binding capability, consistent with its reduced cytotoxicity.

Engineered *EcN* for arsenite sequestration

After establishing the genetic sense-and-response circuit (**Figure 2**) and the arsenite

chelator module (**Figure 3**), we combined these components to construct the final engineered

E. coli Nissle 1917 (*EcN*) strain capable of detecting and sequestering arsenite. In this design

(**Figure 1**), the optimized toggle switch controls the expression of the *arsR H48A* chelator gene,

enabling the bacteria to activate arsenite capture in response to an arsenite exposure.

Before assessing sequestration performance, we examined how this circuit affected cell

physiology and growth. Using optical density measurements at 600 nm, we tracked the growth

of engineered and wild-type *EcN* strains under both arsenite-free and arsenite-exposed

conditions (**Figure 4A**). In the absence of arsenite, cells harboring the toggle switch circuit grew

slightly slower than wild-type cells, suggesting that even the basal activity of the circuit imposed

a small metabolic cost, which can be due to low-level chelator expression drawing on cellular

resources. When exposed to arsenite, the growth rate of toggle switch-containing cells declined

further, whereas control cells showed no significant change. This difference indicates that the

reduced growth rate was not a direct toxic effect of arsenite, but rather a result of the circuit

becoming activated and diverting energy toward chelator production.

To further evaluate the physiological impact of circuit activation, we performed colony-

forming unit (CFU) analyses (**Supplementary Figure S5**). After 3.5 hours of arsenite exposure,

CFU counts of induced toggle switch cultures were roughly 10-fold lower than those of

unexposed controls, consistent with a slowdown in cell growth. However, by 5.5 hours, CFU

values reached above 10^9 cells/mL, which is comparable to the other test conditions,

Figure 4. Characterization of engineered EcN for arsenite sequestration. (**A**) Growth of engineered *EcN* harboring the arsenite sense-and-response circuit (ENG) and wild-type *EcN* (WT) was measured by culture absorbance. Calculated growth rates for each strain in the presence of 0 or 5 µM sodium arsenite are shown above the corresponding plots. (**B**) In vitro arsenite sequestration by engineered *EcN* was quantified using ICP-MS. Data points represent the concentration of arsenite remaining in the culture supernatant after arsenite addition at time 0 h. An asterisk (*) indicates that arsenite levels were below the limit of detection at that timepoint. (**C**) Maximum sequestration capacity was assessed by exposing engineered and wild-type *EcN* cultures to 20 µM arsenite and analyzing supernatants after 3 h. For panels A to C, each data point represents the mean ± S.D. of three biological replicates; error bars are omitted when smaller than the marker. (**D**) A mathematical model was constructed to simulate arsenite mass transfer in the stomach lumen. Rate constants for arsenite uptake by engineered bacteria (k_b) and epithelial cells (k_e) were derived from experimental data and literature values. These constants are involved in defining the temporal contributions of bacterial uptake, $C_b(t)$, and epithelial uptake, $C_e(t)$, to changes in luminal arsenite concentration, $C_g(t)$. Vn_b denotes the total number of bacterial cells, and AN_e denotes the total number of epithelial cells. The model, detailed in the Methods, was used to simulate arsenite transfer during the first 2 h following oral gavage of engineered *EcN* and arsenite. (**E**) Blood arsenite levels in mice following bacterial treatment. The timeline (top) indicates the schedule of bacterial administration, arsenite exposure, and blood sampling. In the plot (bottom), each marker represents a data point from an individual mouse; bars denote mean values for four biological replicates. Markers within the gray shaded region indicate samples with undetectable arsenite. Two-way ANOVA revealed significant effects of engineered *EcN* treatment (F = 22; $p < 0.001$) and time (F = 56; $p < 0.001$). Significant pairwise differences identified by Tukey's HSD are indicated in blue.

demonstrating that the engineered *EcN* cells remained viable and capable of sustaining growth
even after circuit activation, a critical property for its potential function within the gastrointestinal
tract.

In vitro characterization of arsenite sequestration

To reach our goal of using this engineered *EcN* to prevent arsenite absorption in a
gastrointestinal tract, we first characterized its arsenite sequestration function in vitro, such that
we can use these results to simulate the amount of bacterial cells required in the animal
experiments for efficient sequestration. To determine the kinetics of arsenite sequestration in
cultures (**Figure 4B**), we exposed cultures at the log phase (OD600 was 0.6 to 0.7) to 5 µM of
sodium arsenite and collected samples to measure arsenite concentration in supernatant at
different time points. After 0.5 hour of incubation, arsenite levels were reduced to 1.83 ± 0.17
µM; based on CFU analysis at the 0- and 1-hour time point, we estimated that there were about
4.6×10^9 cells/mL in the culture for arsenite sequestration (**Supplementary Figure S6**). The
initial sequestration rate was calculated as $(1.22 ± 0.13) \times 10^{-18}$ mol/cell/hour. The levels of
arsenite decreased to below 0.1 µM after 1 hour and it was under our detection limit at the 3-
hour time point.

Beyond sequestration kinetics, we also assessed the arsenite-binding capacity of the
engineered *EcN* strain by challenging it with a higher arsenite concentration that exceeded its
sequestration potential. Log-phase cultures were exposed to 20 µM sodium arsenite, and
residual arsenite levels in the supernatant were measured at 0 and 3 hours. After 3 hours,
arsenite concentrations decreased to 12.8 ± 1.0 µM (**Figure 4C**), corresponding to substantial
uptake by the bacterial population. At this timepoint, cell density was estimated at (1.05 ± 0.41)
$\times 10^{10}$ CFU/mL (**Supplementary Figure S6**), yielding an average arsenite sequestration
capacity of $(6.02 ± 0.97) \times 10^{-19}$ mol/cell. These results quantify the per-cell arsenite retention
ability of the engineered *EcN*, providing a useful benchmark for predicting the total detoxification
potential achievable in vivo.

Determination of the arsenite dose for mouse studies

After characterizing arsenite sequestration by the engineered bacteria in vitro, we next
evaluated their ability to reduce arsenite absorption in a mouse gastrointestinal model. As a first
step, we sought to identify an arsenite dose that would generate a detectable but unsaturated
increase in blood arsenite levels. An ideal dose should be high enough to produce a measurable
rise in blood concentration, yet low enough that a reduction in arsenite availability within the gut
(such as through bacterial sequestration) would cause a proportional and significant decrease in

blood arsenite levels. In contrast, at saturating doses, arsenite absorption becomes rate-limited,

and changes in gut arsenite content would no longer be reflected in the bloodstream.

To determine such a dose, mice were orally gavaged with either 1 nmoles or 4 nmoles of

sodium arsenite (**Supplementary Figure S7**). At the higher dose (4 nmoles), blood arsenite

levels rose rapidly to 181 ± 66 ppb after 1 hour and continued increasing to 306 ± 25 ppb at 8

hours, remaining elevated (198 ± 44 ppb) even after 24 hours, indicating systemic saturation

and incomplete clearance. In contrast, mice receiving 1 nmole of arsenite exhibited a more

dynamic and responsive profile: blood arsenite reached 15 ± 11 ppb at 1 hour, peaked at 34 ±

12 ppb by 4 hours (remaining 31 ± 4 ppb at 8 hours), and returned near baseline (4.6 ± 1.2 ppb)

at 24 hours.

Together, these results indicate that 1 nmol of arsenite provides an optimal dose for

evaluating in vivo sequestration, as fluctuations in gut arsenite availability are expected to

sensitively mirrored by changes in blood arsenite concentration.

Computational simulations of arsenite transfer in the gastrointestinal model

Based on the in vitro sequestration parameters and the arsenite dose established for mouse

studies, we developed a mathematical model to simulate arsenite mass transfer in the

gastrointestinal tract. Our goal was to estimate the number of engineered *EcN* cells required to

effectively prevent arsenite absorption (**Figure 4D**). The model tracks the time-dependent

concentrations of arsenite in the stomach lumen, $C_g(t)$; and the contributions of the loss of

arsenite in the stomach lumen by engineered bacterial cells, $C_b(t)$ and the epithelial cells lining

the stomach, $C_e(t)$. The system is represented as a short, closed-segment interval with no

external inflow or outflow and assumes no efflux, redistribution, or metabolism of arsenite by

either bacterial or epithelial cells during the analysis window.

A mass balance is applied to the lumen and coupled to first-order uptake terms describing

sequestration by bacteria (a volumetric uptake sink) and uptake by epithelial cells (a wall-

associated sink). This formulation captures lumenal depletion of arsenite alongside its

corresponding accumulation in the two biological sinks. The resulting system of equations,

described in the Methods section, provides explicit solutions for arsenite concentrations in each

compartment as functions of bacterial load and time. The bacterial uptake rate constant was

derived from our experimental measurements (**Figure 4B**), while parameters describing the

epithelial compartment, including stomach volume, surface area, and epithelial cell number,

were obtained from the literature (*50-53*).

Using these inputs, the model simulated how arsenite distributes between epithelial and

bacterial cells following oral gavage of 1 nmol arsenite in the presence of varying bacterial loads

(1, 5, or 10 ×10^9 cells). The simulations predicted that 1 ×10^9 cells would sequester only ~36%

of arsenite within 2 hours, whereas 5 × 10^9 cells would capture ~82% (**Figure 4D**). Increasing

the bacterial dose further to 1 ×10^{10} cells produced only modest additional benefit (~91%).

Based on these simulations, we selected 5 ×10^9 engineered cells as the dose for subsequent

mouse experiments, balancing sequestration efficiency with the need to avoid unnecessary

physiological stress from excessive bacterial loads.

Effect of engineered *EcN* on blood arsenite levels

Building on these findings, we next evaluated whether the engineered *EcN* could protect the

host from dietary arsenite exposure in vivo (**Figure 4E**). Mice were orally gavaged with a dose

of engineered *EcN*; as controls, two additional groups received either wild-type *EcN* or no

bacteria. One hour later, all mice were gavaged with 1 nmol of sodium arsenite, and blood

samples were collected at 1, 4, 8, and 24 hours. At every time point, blood arsenite levels in the

wild-type *EcN* and no-bacteria groups were comparable, indicating that unmodified *EcN* lacks

endogenous pathways capable of reducing arsenite absorption through the gastrointestinal

tract.

In contrast, mice treated with engineered *EcN* showed a pronounced reduction in arsenite

uptake. Four hours after arsenite exposure, blood arsenite levels in the engineered *EcN* group

were 4.5 ± 1.6 ppb, significantly lower than those in mice given wild-type *EcN* (37.4 ± 9.1 ppb)

or no bacteria (34.5 ± 10.7 ppb). This protective effect persisted at the 8-hour time point, with

engineered *EcN*-treated mice maintaining low arsenite levels (4.3 ± 1.0 ppb) compared to wild-

type *EcN* (33.5 ± 4.0 ppb) and no-bacteria controls (33.1 ± 3.1 ppb). By 24 hours, arsenite was

undetectable in the blood of mice treated with engineered *EcN*, whereas low but measurable

levels remained in the wild-type *EcN* (4.2 ± 1.0 ppb) and no-bacteria (4.7 ± 1.0 ppb) groups.

Together, these results demonstrate that the engineered *EcN* substantially reduces arsenite

absorption from the gastrointestinal tract, supporting the conclusion that sequestration occurred

in situ and effectively prevented arsenite from entering the bloodstream.

Discussion:

Important features in our strategy

In this study, we present a microbial sense-and-response strategy that enables selective

sequestration of arsenite in the gastrointestinal tract before systemic absorption occurs. By

engineering a gut bacterial strain with a synthetic toggle switch controlling expression of a

protein-based arsenite chelator, we demonstrate an approach that is both preventative and

targeted for managing dietary arsenic exposure. Our results in a mouse model show that a

single dose of engineered bacteria before an arsenite exposure can markedly reduce entry of
this heavy metal species into the bloodstream, establishing a functional proof of concept for
probiotic-based detoxification.

A key innovation of our design is the integration of arsenite sensing with dynamically
regulated chelator expression. Unlike conventional chelator therapies, which may remove both
toxic and essential metal ions, our engineered bacteria activate chelator production only upon
detection of arsenite. This conditional expression has several advantages. First, it minimizes off-
target depletion of essential micronutrients, a major limitation of prophylactic chelation therapy
(*54*). Second, it reduces the baseline metabolic burden on the bacteria, improving their fitness
and persistence in the gastrointestinal tract. Third, the use of a toggle switch transforms a
transient environmental signal into a sustained protective response, allowing cells to continue
detoxifying even after arsenite levels decline—effectively extending the intervention window
during the digestive process.

The H48A mutant of ArsR, developed here as a DNA-binding-deficient yet high-affinity
arsenite chelator, further contributes to the efficiency and safety of this engineered activity. This
design prevents unintended transcriptional repression of endogenous genes of the bacteria
while retaining strong metal-binding capability. The resulting genetic modularity highlights a
broader principle: protein-based chelation can be rationally tuned for performance, opening the
door to engineering microbial systems that target other toxic metals or environmental
contaminants.

Another unique feature of the system is its built-in growth-dependent shutoff mechanism. As
the ON-state maintenance depends on cellular CelR levels that are diluted during active cell
division, the circuit automatically resets under growth conditions. This behavior prevents long-
term, unchecked chelator production in bacteria that may transiently colonize the gut—an
important biosafety advantage for living therapeutics intended for repeated administration.

Finally, our combined experimental and mathematical modeling framework allowed us to
determine bacterial dosing parameters needed for effective in vivo function. This quantitative
approach provides a foundation for rational design of microbial detoxifiers and may be
applicable to other xenobiotic sequestration problems.

With these features, our platform suggests a path toward practical, consumer-friendly
strategies for mitigating chronic dietary exposure to toxic metals. As *EcN* is already used as a
probiotic supplement in humans (*55*), an engineered version could, in principle, be formulated
similarly, as capsules or suspensions taken daily or immediately before meals. Each dose would
perform a single-pass detoxification by capturing heavy metals present in the ingested food and

directing them toward fecal elimination, thereby reducing the cumulative body burden over time.

This approach could be especially valuable in regions where groundwater and food sources are

chronically contaminated with arsenite, or in populations for whom dietary control is difficult to

maintain. Although translating such a product will require rigorous safety, stability, and regulatory

assessments, the combination of selective activation, finite persistence, and defined dosing

makes a daily-use formulation both conceptually feasible and potentially transformative as a

preventative tool for environmental health.

Limitations and challenges

While our results are encouraging, there are gaps and challenges that require to be

overcome for robust applications. In our in vivo experiments, arsenite was administered only

one hour after delivery of the engineered bacteria, when the bacterial concentration in the

stomach is expected to remain high and the genetic circuit fully active. Under these conditions,

we could robustly demonstrate proof-of-concept detoxification. However, further studies are

required to evaluate how rapidly the engineered strain is cleared from the stomach, how long

the cells remain in a physiologically active state, and how the protective effect decays over time.

Future studies will need to quantify the temporal window of efficacy by tracking bacterial

persistence, circuit activation dynamics, and sequestration capacity over extended periods

following administration. Such data will be essential for informing dosing strategies, predicting

real-world performance, and optimizing formulations aimed at routine or pre-meal use.

Additionally, regulatory concerns surrounding release, colonization, and clearance of

genetically modified organisms must be considered (*56*). Although our growth-dependent shutoff

offers an inherent safety mechanism, additional biocontainment systems or exclusively non-

colonizing strains may be required for clinical deployment (*57, 58*).

Materials and Methods:

Bacterial strains. For cloning and construction of genetic circuits, *E. coli XL1-Blue* was

used as the plasmid host and cultured in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium. Screening and

characterization of arsenite chelator genes were performed in *E. coli BL21-AI*, while

characterization of genetic circuits was conducted in *E. coli Nissle* 1917 grown in M9 medium,

which consisted of 1× M9 salts, 2 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$, 0.2% (w/v) glucose, and 0.2%

(w/v) casamino acids. Unless otherwise specified, all cultures were incubated at 37 °C with

shaking at 200 rpm in the presence of kanamycin (50 µg/mL). All chemicals and bacterial culture

reagents were purchased from VWR (Radnor, PA) and Thermo Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA).

Mouse model. All animal procedures were approved by the University of North Texas

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (Protocol #24007) and conducted in the Animal

Vivarium at the University of North Texas.

Experiments were carried out using male C57BL/6 mice aged 7–8 weeks (Charles River,

Wilmington, MA). Animals were housed in a specific pathogen–free barrier facility maintained at

30–70% humidity and 20–26°C, under a 12:12 h light–dark cycle. Mice were provided feed

(Purina Conventional Mouse Diet, JL Rat/Mouse 6F Auto, #5K67) and water ad libitum. Each

cage contained four mice, which served as four biological replicates for an experimental

condition.

Plasmid construction. Cloning was performed using standard molecular biology

techniques with reagents from New England Biolabs (Ipswich, MA), including Phusion™ High-

Fidelity DNA Polymerase, T4 DNA ligase, and the restriction enzymes listed below. The

sequence of plasmid selected in each step was deposited in GenBank database.

To construct the control circuit in which ArsR regulates mCherry expression (**Figure 2A**), we

used plasmid *pTR* from our previous study (*59*) as the backbone. This plasmid contains a

kanamycin resistance cassette and a *ColE1* origin of replication. A synthetic DNA fragment

containing the *arsR* and mCherry genes, along with their respective promoters and terminators,

was inserted into *pTR* via the *PstI* and *MluI* restriction sites using Golden Gate assembly with

the endonuclease BsaI-HFv2. These two restriction sites were eliminated at the ligation junction.

The sequence of the resulting plasmid has been deposited in GenBank.

The arsenite-responsive toggle switch (**Figure 2A** and **Supplementary Figure S1**) was

constructed from this control circuit by inserting a fragment containing the *celR* gene driven by

the P_{LarsO} promoter and its downstream promoter through the *SalI* and *AflII* sites. Expression of

CelR was subsequently optimized by varying its ribosome binding site (RBS) between the *NheI*

and *SacI* restriction sites. The optimized toggle-switch circuit sequence is available in GenBank.

To enhance output expression, we next incorporated T7 RNA polymerase into the toggle

switch (**Figure 2E** and **Supplementary Figure S2**). The T7 RNA polymerase gene fragment

replaced mCherry via the *AvrII* and *XhoI* restriction sites. A T7 promoter-mCherry-terminator

fragment was then introduced using Golden Gate assembly with endonuclease BsaI-HFv2 to

process the insert, which was ligated into the plasmid via *SalI* and *NcoI* (this *NcoI* site was not

present in the product upon ligation). This mCherry cassette served as the reporter to

characterize T7 polymerase activity. We further optimized T7 RNA polymerase expression by

swapping its RBS between the KasI and AvrII sites. The finalized plasmid sequence has been

deposited in GenBank.

This optimized circuit was subsequently used to drive chelator expression by replacing

mcherry with the *arsR H48A* gene fragment via *NcoI* and *HindIII*, yielding the final construct

shown in **Figure 1** (Accession Number PX644048).

To construct the arabinose-inducible system for expressing chelator derivatives (**Figures 3C**

and **1D**), the plasmid *pET28b(+)* (*60*) was modified to generate a new vector, designated

pETnoL. The original *pET28b(+)* plasmid contains a *T7* promoter with a *lac* operator for

transcriptional regulation by LacI. To eliminate LacI-mediated repression, the lac operator was

removed by replacing the promoter region between the *BglII* and *XbaI* restriction sites, resulting

in a *T7* promoter unresponsive to LacI. The *arsR* gene was subsequently cloned into *pETnoL*

via *NcoI* and *HindIII* restriction sites. The resulting plasmid, *pETnoL-arsR* served as the

template for generating ArsR variant constructs through site-directed mutagenesis using the

QuikChange™ method.

Screening of Toggle Switch circuit variants. To identify the toggle switch variant with the

desired response behavior (**Supplementary Figure S1**), each *EcN* strain harboring a circuit

variant was grown overnight in M9 medium and then diluted 100-fold into 3 mL of fresh medium

containing either 0 or 5 µM sodium arsenite. Cultures were incubated for 24 hours, after which

samples were collected for flow cytometry analysis to quantify cellular mCherry fluorescence.

Cultures exposed to 5 µM arsenite were then centrifuged to collect the cell pellet, washed once,

and resuspended in 3 mL of fresh medium without arsenite, followed by an additional 24-hour

incubation before a second mCherry measurement was performed.

Characterization of Toggle Switch. To assess circuit sensitivity to arsenite (**Figure 2B**),

overnight cultures of engineered *E. coli* were diluted 100-fold into 3 mL of fresh M9 medium

containing a range of sodium arsenite concentrations (0, 0.16, 0.31, 0.63, 1.25, 2.5, or 5 µM).

Cultures were incubated under standard growth conditions for 24 hours, after which cellular

mCherry fluorescence was quantified by flow cytometry. Data were analyzed using GraphPad

Prism v7.05 and fitted to a nonlinear regression dose-response curve described by the

equation:

$$S = S_0 + \frac{S_{max} - S_0}{1 + 10^{(logEC_{50}-x)H_s}}$$

where S_0 and S_{max} represent the basal and maximal mCherry fluorescence, respectively; S is

the observed fluorescence signal; x is the logarithm of arsenite concentration; and EC_{50} and H_s

(Hill slope) are constants derived from the fit.

To characterize the kinetics of output expression in response to arsenite (**Figure 2C**), mid-
log phase cultures ($OD_{600} \approx 0.6$) were exposed to 5 µM sodium arsenite. Samples were
collected at 0, 0.5, 1, 2, 3, and 4 hours post-induction, and cellular mCherry fluorescence was
quantified by flow cytometry.
The specificity of signal detection was assessed by diluting overnight cultures of *EcN*
harboring the toggle switch plasmid 100-fold into fresh M9 medium supplemented with one of 16
test chemicals, as shown in **Figure 2D**. Cultures were incubated under standard growth
conditions for 24 hours before flow cytometric analysis to determine cellular mCherry
fluorescence.
To evaluate the stability of output expression under biostatic conditions (**Figure 2E**),
overnight cultures of cells carrying the toggle switch circuit were first diluted 100-fold and then
induced with 5 µM sodium arsenite. After overnight incubation (3 mL cultures), cellular mCherry
levels were measured with flow cytometry; each culture was centrifuged to collect a cell pellet,
which was washed once, and resuspended in an equal volume of fresh M9 medium to continue
the incubation. This flow cytometric analysis and medium exchange were repeated every 24
hours for 3 days (72 hours total).
For experiments assessing the effect of cell growth on output expression
(**Supplementary Figure S2**), induced overnight cultures were also washed and resuspended in
fresh M9 medium as described above (**Figure 2E**); additionally, cultures were diluted 2-, 3-, or
6-fold after each resuspension by mixing 1.5, 1, or 0.5 mL of the culture, respectively, with fresh
medium to a final volume of 3 mL. Samples were collected before each medium exchange (0,
24, 48, and 72 hours after arsenite removal) for flow cytometric analysis.
To characterize toggle switch performance when coupled to the T7 expression system
(**Supplementary Figure S3** and **Figure 2F**), mid-log phase cultures were exposed to 0 or 5 µM
sodium arsenite, and cell samples were collected after 1 and 24 hours of induction for
fluorescence measurement by flow cytometry.
Cellular fluorescence measurement by flow cytometry. To prepare samples for flow
cytometry, 1 to 2 µL of cell culture was diluted in 150 µL of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS).
The samples were analyzed using an ACEA NovoCyte 3000VYB flow cytometer (ACEA
Biosciences, Inc.). For each experiment, at least 10,000 events were collected and gated based
on forward and side scatter to exclude cell debris and aggregates. The geometric mean of
fluorescence intensity for each sample was calculated using NovoExpress software (version
1.4.1; ACEA Biosciences, Inc.).

Analysis of ArsR/SmtB family regulators. The NolR-DNA structure in **Figure 3A** was

studied with the software PyMol v2.5. Sequence alignment (**Supplementary Figure S4**) was

performed with an online tool, Clustal Omega (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/jdispatcher/msa/clustalo).

Engineering of arsenite chelator. To evaluate the cytotoxicity of ArsR derivatives (**Figure**

3B), each *pETnoL* plasmid harboring an *arsR* mutant gene was transformed into *E. coli BL21-*

AI, which carries an arabinose-inducible T7 RNA polymerase gene in its genome. Thus,

arabinose addition induces ArsR expression in these cells. Cells containing a *pETnoL* plasmid

without arsR gene were used as the control. Overnight cultures in LB medium were diluted

1:100 into 3 mL of fresh medium and grown to an OD_{600} of 0.5. A 10 µL aliquot from each culture

was collected for colony-forming unit (CFU) analysis prior to induction, after which arabinose

was added to a final concentration of 0.2% (w/v) to induce expression. Following 3 hours of

induction, another 10 µL sample was taken for CFU determination. For CFU analysis, each

sample was serially diluted 10-fold in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and 10 µL of each

dilution was spotted onto LB agar plates containing kanamycin. Plates were incubated at 37 °C

to allow colony formation.

To assess arsenite sequestration (**Figure 3C**), each strain was cultured in 5 mL of LB

medium until reaching an OD_{600} of 0.5. Each culture was then divided into two 2-mL aliquots;

one supplemented with 0.2% (w/v) arabinose (induced) and the other without arabinose

(uninduced). After 3 hours of incubation, cells were harvested by centrifugation, washed, and

resuspended in PBS containing 20 µM sodium arsenite. Following a 1-hour incubation,

supernatants were collected for arsenite quantification by atomic absorption spectroscopy

(AAS).

Arsenite quantification by atomic absorption spectroscopy. Arsenite concentrations

were quantified using a Thermo Fisher Scientific iCE™ 3500 Atomic Absorption Spectrometer

equipped with a GFS35Z graphite furnace/autosampler. Data acquisition, standard curve fitting,

and quantification analysis were performed using SOLAAR v3.0 software. Samples (**Figure 1D**)

were diluted 8-fold with fresh PBS, and 1 mL of the diluted sample was mixed with 10 µL of

TraceMetal™ grade nitric acid (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Cat. No. A509P500). For calibration,

two stock solutions (0 and 5 µM sodium arsenite) were prepared in 1:100 nitric acid/PBS (v/v)

and used by the instrument to generate standard concentrations of 0, 0.075, 0.15, 0.325, 0.625,

1.25, 2.5, and 5 µM arsenite; results from these standards were used to plot a quadratic

standard curve for determine arsenite concentrations in biological samples. During data

acquisition, the instrument automatically mixed 20 µL of each sample with 5 µL of the matrix

modifier Specpure™ nickel nitrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Cat. No. AA39043AE) and

processed them according to the graphite furnace parameters listed in **Table 1**. Absorbance

was measured for 3 seconds in the Atomization phase at 193.7 nm with a band-pass of 0.5 nm,

lamp current set to 90%, and Zeeman background correction applied.

Table 1. Graphite furnace parameters for arsenite quantification.					
Phase	Temperature (ºC)	Hold time (sec)	Ramp (ºC/sec)	Gas type	Gas flow (L/min)
Drying	100	30	10	Argon	0.2
Ashing	1300	20	150	Argon	0.2
Atomization	2600	3	Max. rate	N/A	Off
Tube clean	2700	3	Max. rate	Argon	0.2

Characterization of cell growth. To evaluate how the arsenite-sequestration circuit affects

cellular fitness, we compared the growth of engineered *EcN* containing the toggle switch-

arsenite chelator circuit to that of a wild-type *EcN* strain without the plasmid (**Figure 4A**); the

wild-type strain did not have the kanamycin-resistance marker and it was grown in M9 media

without the antibiotic. Overnight cultures were diluted 1:100 into 5 mL of fresh M9 medium and

allowed to grow for 1 hour under standard conditions. Sodium arsenite was then added to a final

concentration of either 0 or 5 µM, marking the 0-hour time point. At 0, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 2, 2.5, 3, 3.5,

4, 4.5, 5, and 5.5 hours post-addition, 200 µL of culture was transferred into a 96-well plate, and

absorbance at 600 nm was measured using a Synergy H1 microplate reader (Agilent

Technologies). Growth rates were calculated using the following equation:

662
$$Growth\ rate = \frac{\log(\text{OD600}_f) - \log(\text{OD600}_i)}{\text{Time}_f - \text{Time}_i}$$

where OD600_f and Time_f correspond to measurements at the 4-hour time point, and OD600_i and

Time_i correspond to the 0.5-hour time point. These time points were selected because the

cultures exhibited clear exponential growth during this interval. To assess viable cell density,

samples were also collected at 0.5, 3, and 5.5 hours for CFU analysis (**Supplementary Figure**

S5).

In vitro characterization of arsenite sequestration. To quantify the rate of arsenite

sequestration (**Figure 4B**), engineered *EcN* cultures were grown in 5 mL of M9 medium to an

OD600 of approximately 0.7. Sodium arsenite was then added to a final concentration of 5 µM.

At 0, 0.5, 1, 2, 3, and 4 hours post-addition, 300 µL of each culture was collected, centrifuged,

and the supernatant was analyzed by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS)

to determine arsenite concentrations. CFU measurements were performed at 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4

hours to estimate viable cell density (**Supplementary Figure S6**).

To determine the arsenite sequestration capacity (**Figure 4C**), cultures at OD600 ≈ 0.7 were

exposed to 20 µM sodium arsenite, and samples were collected at 0 and 3 hours for ICP-MS

analysis. CFU counts were obtained at both time points (**Supplementary Figure S6**).

Mass transfer simulations. We developed a mathematical model to simulate the transfer of

arsenite from the stomach lumen into engineered bacteria and gastrointestinal epithelial cells

(**Figure 4D**). To simplify the system, we assumed that: (i) neither arsenite nor bacterial cells exit

the stomach compartment; (ii) arsenite internalized by cells does not return to the lumen; and

(iii) the total amounts of arsenite, engineered bacteria, and epithelial cells remain constant over

time. Under these assumptions, we described the time-dependent distribution of arsenite across

the three compartments using the following equations:

Equation 1; change of arsenite concentration in the gut lumen:

687
$$\frac{dC_g(t)}{dt} = (- Vn_b \underbrace{k_b C_g(t)}_{\substack{Uptake\ by \\ Bacteria}} - AN_e \underbrace{k_e C_g(t)}_{\substack{Uptake\ by \\ epithelial\ cells}})$$

689 Equation 2; contribution of bacterial cells to the change of arsenite concentration in the gut lumen:

690
$$\frac{dC_b(t)}{dt} = Vn_b \underbrace{k_b C_g(t)}_{\substack{Uptake\ by \\ one\ bacteria}}$$

692 Equation 3, contribution of epithelial cells to the change of arsenite concentration in the gut lumen:

693
$$\frac{dC_e(t)}{dt} = AN_e \underbrace{k_e C_g(t)}_{\substack{Uptake\ by \\ one\ epithelial\ cell}}$$

Where $C_g(t)$ is the concentration of arsenite (µM) in the stomach lumen, and $C_b(t)$ and $C_e(t)$ are

the contributions of bacterial cells and epithelial cells, respectively, to the decrease in arsenite in

the stomach lumen; k_b and k_e are bacteria and epithelial cell uptake rate coefficient; V is

stomach volume, n_b is bacterial cell density; A is the gut interior wall area; and N_e is the number

of epithelial cells per unit area of gut wall.

By solving these equations, we derive explicit expressions (Equations 4 to 6) that predict the

temporal concentration of arsenite in lumen, bacteria, and epithelial cells as a function of

bacterial cell number.

Equation 4:

$$C_g(t) = C_0 e^{-(Vn_b k_b + AN_e k_e)t}$$

Equation 5:

$$C_b(t) = \frac{Vn_b k_b C_0}{Vn_b k_b + AN_e k_e}(1 - e^{-(Vn_b k_b + AN_e k_e)t})$$

Equation 6:

$$C_e(t) = \frac{AN_e k_e C_0}{Vn_b k_b + AN_e k_e}(1 - e^{-(Vn_b k_b + AN_e k_e)t})$$

In these equations, the bacterial cell density, n_b (cells mL^{-1}), and time, t (hour), are variables.

The values of all epithelial cells-related parameters were obtained from the literature: gut

surface area, A, is 1.4 ×10^6 mm² (*61*). Lumen volume, V, is 0.4 mL (*52*). Arsenite uptake rate

coefficient of epithelial cells is reported as 0.11 h^{-1} (*50*); in this study, it was normalized on a per-

cell, per-hour basis to yield k_e = 0.11 ×10^{-10} h^{-1} cell^{-1}. The epithelial cell density on the gut wall,

N_e, was estimated to be 1.9 ×10^4 cells mm^{-2} based on published data (*53*).

The arsenite uptake rate coefficient, k_b, was estimated from our experimental data in **Figure**

4B with the following equation:

$$k_b = -\frac{ln\frac{C(t_f)}{C(t_i)}}{t_f - t_i}$$

Where *C(t)* is the concentration of arsenite in the supernatant at time t. We used data from

timepoints 1-hour and 2-hour to calculate k_b, which resulted as 6.3 × 10^{-10} cell^{-1} h^{-1}.

These parameters were then used to compute values of $C_g(t)$, $C_b(t)$, and $C_e(t)$ by using

MATLAB R2023b. Results with bacterial cells number, Vn_b = 1, 5, and 10 ×10^9 cells were plotted

(**Figure 4D**).

Animal studies. All mice were quarantined in the animal facility for at least one week prior

to experimentation. To characterize dose-dependent arsenite absorption (**Supplementary**

Figure S7), each mouse received 100 µL of sodium arsenite solution (10 or 40 µM) by oral

gavage, corresponding to a total dose of 1 or 4 nmol of arsenite. Blood samples (100 µL) were

collected from the tail vein using a 25-gauge needle at 1, 4, 8, and 24 hours after gavage. To

prevent clotting, each sample was immediately mixed with 10 µL of 2% (w/v) EDTA. Samples

were then centrifuged to isolate plasma for ICP-MS analysis.

To assess the effect of engineered *EcN* on arsenite absorption (**Figure 4E**), *EcN* cultures

were grown in M9 medium to an OD600 of ~0.7, corresponding to an estimated density of ~5

$\times 10^9$ cells/mL. For each mouse, 1 mL of culture was centrifuged, and the resulting pellet was

resuspended in 100 µL of PBS for oral gavage. One hour later, mice received arsenite, and

blood collection proceeded, following the same protocol used in the dose-dependent absorption

study (**Supplementary Figure S7**).

Statistical analysis of animal studies was performed with the software, GraphPad Prism

v7.0.5. A two-way ANOVA was conducted with treatment and time as independent variables and

blood metal levels as the dependent variable, testing for the two main effects (treatment and

time) and their interactions to determine whether the temporal trajectory of blood metal levels

differed across groups. Significant effects were followed by post hoc pairwise comparisons with

correction for multiple testing (e.g., Tukey's HSD) to identify specific time points and treatment

groups that differ.

Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry. ICP-MS analysis was performed with

an Agilent LC-linked ICP-MS 7850 with dual autosamplers (Agilent Technologies). It was

operated under the following optimized conditions: radio frequency (RF) power of 1550 W,

plasma gas flow of 15 mL/min, auxiliary gas flow of 0.9 mL/min, and nebulizer gas flow rate of

1.08 L/min. These parameters ensured stable plasma conditions, efficient ionization of analytes,

and high analytical sensitivity. For sample preparation, 50 µL of each blood plasma sample was

mixed with 5 mL of a diluent containing 0.5% HNO_3 and 2% ethanol (v/v). The diluted mixture

was vortexed thoroughly to ensure complete homogenization and then analyzed on the same

day to minimize degradation. Matrix-matched calibration solutions were prepared from the multi-

element stock standard (Inorganic Ventures, Christiansburg, VA) in 0.5% HNO_3 and 2% ethanol

(v/v), using pooled blood plasma from exposed mice to account for matrix effects of blood

analysis with calibration levels set at 0.01, 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2.5, 5 and 15 µg/L. An internal standard

solution containing 1 µg/mL yttrium (Y), was continuously introduced into the system throughout

the analysis. The regression coefficient of the calibration curve above 0.995, was accepted for

quantification. The detection limit for arsenic was 0.018 µg/L (2.34×10^{-4} µM).

Graphical illustrations. We used two images from NIH BioArt Source to create figures,

including [NIAID Visual & Medical Arts. (10/7/2024). Bacillus Bacteria. NIAID NIH BIOART

Source. bioart.niaid.nih.gov/bioart/43]; and [NIAID Visual & Medical Arts. (10/7/2024). Basal Cell

Brush. NIAID NIH BIOART Source. bioart.niaid.nih.gov/bioart/45].

References

1.   Y. S. Hong, K. H. Song, J. Y. Chung, Health effects of chronic arsenic exposure. *J Prev*
Med Public Health **47**, 245-252 (2014).
2.   M. F. Naujokas *et al.*, The broad scope of health effects from chronic arsenic exposure:
update on a worldwide public health problem. *Environ Health Perspect* **121**, 295-302
(2013).
3.   UNICEF, Arsenic primer: guidance on the investigation & mitigation of arsenic
contamination. *New York*, (2018).
4.   J. D. Ayotte, L. Medalie, S. L. Qi, L. C. Backer, B. T. Nolan, Estimating the high-arsenic
domestic-well population in the conterminous United States. *Environmental science &*
technology **51**, 12443-12454 (2017).
5.   B. Arslan, M. B. A. Djamgoz, E. Akun, ARSENIC: A Review on Exposure Pathways,
Accumulation, Mobility and Transmission into the Human Food Chain. *Rev Environ*
Contam Toxicol **243**, 27-51 (2017).
6.   D. Wang *et al.*, Impact of climate change on arsenic concentrations in paddy rice and the
associated dietary health risks in Asia: an experimental and modelling study. *Lancet*
Planet Health **9**, e397-e409 (2025).
7.   F. I. Hassan, K. Niaz, F. Khan, F. Maqbool, M. Abdollahi, The relation between rice
consumption, arsenic contamination, and prevalence of diabetes in South Asia. *EXCLI J*
16, 1132-1143 (2017).
8.   T. Macek, M. Mackova, J. Kas, Exploitation of plants for the removal of organics in
environmental remediation. *Biotechnol Adv* **18**, 23-34 (2000).
9.   S. Pattnaik, M. V. Reddy, Assessment of municipal solid waste management in
Puducherry (Pondicherry), India. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling* **54**, 512-520
(2010).
10.   V. Misra, S. D. Pandey, Hazardous waste, impact on health and environment for
development of better waste management strategies in future in India. *Environ Int* **31**,
417-431 (2005).
11.   E. Erdemir *et al.*, Rapid, ultrasensitive, highly selective detection of toxic Hg(II) ions in
seabass, swordfish and water samples. *Food Chem* **371**, 131309 (2022).
12.   W. Guo, S. Hu, Y. Xiao, H. Zhang, X. Xie, Direct determination of trace cadmium in
environmental samples by dynamic reaction cell inductively coupled plasma mass
spectrometry. *Chemosphere* **81**, 1463-1468 (2010).
13.   D. N. Karaman, H. Serbest, Y. Kilinç, R. Demirel, S. Bakırdere, Trace cadmium
determination in lake water matrix by flame atomic absorption spectrometry after
manganese ferrite magnetic nanoparticles-based dispersive solid phase extraction.
CLEAN–Soil, Air, Water, 2200186 (2023).
14.   M. Soylak, M. Alasaad, Ö. Özalp, Fabrication and characterization of MgCo2O4 for solid
phase extraction of Pb (II) from environmental samples and its detection with high-
resolution continuum source flame atomic absorption spectrometry (HR-CS-FAAS).
Microchemical Journal **178**, 107329 (2022).

15. A. Rihana-Abdallah, Z. Li, K. C. Lanigan, Using Cloud Point Extraction for
Preconcentration and Determination of Iron, Lead, and Cadmium in Drinking Water by
Flame Atomic Absorption Spectrometry. *Analytical Letters* **55**, 1296-1305 (2022).
16. C. Ornillo, N. Harbord, Fundaments of Toxicology-Approach to the Poisoned Patient.
Adv Chronic Kidney Dis **27**, 5-10 (2020).
17. S. Singh, A. Mulchandani, W. Chen, Highly selective and rapid arsenic removal by
metabolically engineered Escherichia coli cells expressing Fucus vesiculosus
metallothionein. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **74**, 2924-2927 (2008).
18. V. Jafarian, F. Ghaffari, A unique metallothionein-engineered in Escherichia coli for
biosorption of lead, zinc, and cadmium; absorption or adsorption? *Microbiology+* **86**, 73-
81 (2017).
19. S. Chen, D. B. Wilson, Genetic engineering of bacteria and their potential for Hg2+
bioremediation. *Biodegradation* **8**, 97-103 (1997).
20. W. Bae, R. K. Mehra, A. Mulchandani, W. Chen, Genetic engineering of Escherichia coli
for enhanced uptake and bioaccumulation of mercury. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **67**, 5335-
5338 (2001).
21. T. Yang, J. W. Liu, C. B. Gu, M. L. Chen, J. H. Wang, Expression of Arsenic Regulatory
Protein in Escherichia coli for Selective Accumulation of Methylated Arsenic Species.
Acs Appl Mater Inter **5**, 2767-2772 (2013).
22. K. T. Kitchin, K. Wallace, Arsenite binding to synthetic peptides based on the Zn finger
region and the estrogen binding region of the human estrogen receptor-alpha. *Toxicol*
Appl Pharmacol **206**, 66-72 (2005).
23. P. Kolkowska *et al.*, Specificity of the Zn(2+), Cd(2+) and Ni(2+) ion binding sites in the
loop domain of the HypA protein. *Dalton Trans* **44**, 9887-9900 (2015).
24. K. Krzywoszynska *et al.*, Polythiol binding to biologically relevant metal ions. *Dalton*
Trans **40**, 10434-10439 (2011).
25. K. De Mora *et al.*, A pH-based biosensor for detection of arsenic in drinking water.
Analytical and Bioanalytical chemistry **400**, 1031-1039 (2011).
26. J. Aleksic *et al.*, Development of a novel biosensor for the detection of arsenic in drinking
water. *IET Synthetic biology* **1**, 87-90 (2007).
27. H.-C. Tao, Z.-W. Peng, P.-S. Li, T.-A. Yu, J. Su, Optimizing cadmium and mercury
specificity of CadR-based E. coli biosensors by redesign of CadR. *Biotechnology letters*
35, 1253-1258 (2013).
28. R. Branco, A. Cristovao, P. V. Morais, Highly sensitive, highly specific whole-cell
bioreporters for the detection of chromate in environmental samples. *PLoS One* **8**,
e54005 (2013).
29. Y. Cai *et al.*, Evolved Biosensor with High Sensitivity and Specificity for Measuring
Cadmium in Actual Environmental Samples. *Environ Sci Technol* **56**, 10062-10071
(2022).
30. L. Li *et al.*, Evolved bacterial biosensor for arsenite detection in environmental water.
Environ Sci Technol **49**, 6149-6155 (2015).
31. X. Wan *et al.*, Cascaded amplifying circuits enable ultrasensitive cellular sensors for
toxic metals. *Nat Chem Biol* **15**, 540-548 (2019).
32. A. Cubillos-Ruiz *et al.*, Engineering living therapeutics with synthetic biology. *Nat Rev*
Drug Discov **20**, 941-960 (2021).
33. V. M. Isabella *et al.*, Development of a synthetic live bacterial therapeutic for the human
metabolic disease phenylketonuria. *Nat Biotechnol* **36**, 857-864 (2018).
34. P. Wei *et al.*, Oral Bifidobacterium longum expressing alpha-melanocyte-stimulating
hormone to fight experimental colitis. *Drug Deliv* **23**, 2058-2064 (2016).

856	35.	S. W. Yoon *et al.*, Lactobacillus casei secreting alpha-MSH induces the therapeutic effect on DSS-induced acute colitis in Balb/c Mice. *J Microbiol Biotechnol* **18**, 1975-1983 (2008).
859	36.	S. Liu, Y. Li, B. Deng, Z. Xu, Recombinant Lactococcus lactis expressing porcine insulin-like growth factor I ameliorates DSS-induced colitis in mice. *BMC Biotechnol* **16**, 25 (2016).
862	37.	S. Shigemori *et al.*, Oral delivery of Lactococcus lactis that secretes bioactive heme oxygenase-1 alleviates development of acute colitis in mice. *Microb Cell Fact* **14**, 189 (2015).
865	38.	J. N. V. Martinson, S. T. Walk, Escherichia coli Residency in the Gut of Healthy Human Adults. *EcoSal Plus* **9**, (2020).
867	39.	R. Rosenstein, A. Peschel, B. Wieland, F. Gotz, Expression and regulation of the antimonite, arsenite, and arsenate resistance operon of Staphylococcus xylosus plasmid pSX267. *J Bacteriol* **174**, 3676-3683 (1992).
870	40.	R. P. Dimas, X. L. Jiang, J. Alberto de la Paz, F. Morcos, C. T. Y. Chan, Engineering repressors with coevolutionary cues facilitates toggle switches with a master reset. *Nucleic Acids Res* **47**, 5449-5463 (2019).
873	41.	X. Cheng, T. A. Patterson, Construction and use of lambda PL promoter vectors for direct cloning and high level expression of PCR amplified DNA coding sequences. *Nucleic Acids Res* **20**, 4591-4598 (1992).
876	42.	L. K. Certain, J. C. Way, M. J. Pezone, J. J. Collins, Using Engineered Bacteria to Characterize Infection Dynamics and Antibiotic Effects In Vivo. *Cell Host Microbe* **22**, 263-268 e264 (2017).
879	43.	H. M. Salis, The ribosome binding site calculator. *Methods Enzymol* **498**, 19-42 (2011).
880	44.	S. Ramanathan, W. Shi, B. P. Rosen, S. Daunert, Sensing antimonite and arsenite at the subattomole level with genetically engineered bioluminescent bacteria. *Anal Chem* **69**, 3380-3384 (1997).
883	45.	J. Kostal, R. Yang, C. H. Wu, A. Mulchandani, W. Chen, Enhanced arsenic accumulation in engineered bacterial cells expressing ArsR. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **70**, 4582-4587 (2004).
886	46.	S. G. Lee, H. B. Krishnan, J. M. Jez, Structural basis for regulation of rhizobial nodulation and symbiosis gene expression by the regulatory protein NolR. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **111**, 6509-6514 (2014).
889	47.	C. Eicken *et al.*, A metal-ligand-mediated intersubunit allosteric switch in related SmtB/ArsR zinc sensor proteins. *Journal of molecular biology* **333**, 683-695 (2003).
891	48.	L. S. Busenlehner, T. C. Weng, J. E. Penner-Hahn, D. P. Giedroc, Elucidation of primary (alpha(3)N) and vestigial (alpha(5)) heavy metal-binding sites in Staphylococcus aureus pI258 CadC: evolutionary implications for metal ion selectivity of ArsR/SmtB metal sensor proteins. *Journal of molecular biology* **319**, 685-701 (2002).
895	49.	M. L. VanZile, X. Chen, D. P. Giedroc, Structural characterization of distinct alpha3N and alpha5 metal sites in the cyanobacterial zinc sensor SmtB. *Biochemistry* **41**, 9765-9775 (2002).
898	50.	S. D. Lawley *et al.*, Mathematical model insights into arsenic detoxification. *Theor Biol Med Model* **8**, 31 (2011).
900	51.	C. Casteleyn, A. Rekecki, A. Van der Aa, P. Simoens, W. Van den Broeck, Surface area assessment of the murine intestinal tract as a prerequisite for oral dose translation from mouse to man. *Lab Anim-Uk* **44**, 176-183 (2010).
903	52.	E. L. McConnell, A. W. Basit, S. Murdan, Measurements of rat and mouse gastrointestinal pH, fluid and lymphoid tissue, and implications for in-vivo experiments. *J Pharm Pharmacol* **60**, 63-70 (2008).

53. S. M. Karam, C. P. Leblond, Identifying and counting epithelial cell types in the "corpus"
of the mouse stomach. *Anat Rec* **232**, 231-246 (1992).
54. J. F. Finklea, Prophylactic Chelation Therapy for Lead-Exposure. *Jama-J Am Med Assoc*
235, 1553-1553 (1976).
55. Z. Zhao, S. Xu, W. Zhang, D. Wu, G. Yang, Probiotic Escherichia coli NISSLE 1917 for
inflammatory bowel disease applications. *Food Funct* **13**, 5914-5924 (2022).
56. J. W. Lee, C. T. Y. Chan, S. Slomovic, J. J. Collins, Next-generation biocontainment
systems for engineered organisms. *Nat Chem Biol* **14**, 530-537 (2018).
57. N. Nguyen, M. Wang, L. Li, C. T. Y. Chan, A genetic safeguard for eliminating target
genes in synthetic probiotics in a gut environment. *iScience* **28**, 113027 (2025).
58. A. G. Rottinghaus, A. Ferreiro, S. R. S. Fishbein, G. Dantas, T. S. Moon, Genetically
stable CRISPR-based kill switches for engineered microbes. *Nat Commun* **13**, 672
(2022).
59. X. L. Jiang, R. P. Dimas, C. T. Y. Chan, F. Morcos, Coevolutionary methods enable
robust design of modular repressors by reestablishing intra-protein interactions. *Nat*
Commun **12**, 5592 (2021).
60. F. W. Studier, B. A. Moffatt, Use of bacteriophage T7 RNA polymerase to direct selective
high-level expression of cloned genes. *Journal of molecular biology* **189**, 113-130
(1986).
61. C. Casteleyn, A. Rekecki, A. Van der Aa, P. Simoens, W. Van den Broeck, Surface area
assessment of the murine intestinal tract as a prerequisite for oral dose translation from
mouse to man. *Lab Anim* **44**, 176-183 (2010).

Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. Brianne Soulen and the UNT Advanced Environmental Research Institute for

guidance in performing atomic absorption spectroscopy analyses. We also acknowledge the

use of the online tool ChatGPT 5.1 for assistance with grammar and text refinement.

Funding:

NIH/NIGMS grant R35GM142421 (CTYC)

NIH/NIGMS grant R15GM135813 (CTYC)

NIH/NINDS grant R16NS131108 (LL)

Author contributions:

Conceptualization: CTYC

Methodology: NN, MW, SSM, VK, FE, LJS, LL, and CTYC

Investigation: NN, MW, SSM, VK, and FE

Visualization: FE and CTYC

Supervision: FE, LJS, LL, and CTYC

Writing—original draft: CTYC

Writing—review & editing:

Competing Interests:

N.N. and C.T.Y.C. are inventors on a U.S. provisional patent application under 35 USC 111(b) related to the technology described in this article. C.T.Y.C is a co-founder of ModularBio LLC. Other authors declare no competing interests.

Data and Materials Availability

All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in the paper and/or the Supplementary Materials. Sequences of plasmids developed in this study are deposited in GenBank database:

GenBank will release them to the public database until the accession numbers appear in print.