A pathogenic role for histone H3 copper reductase activity in a yeast model of Friedreich’s ataxia

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INTRODUCTION
The ancient and ubiquitous iron-sulfur (Fe-S) clusters (1) function as prosthetic groups in many enzymes in diverse metabolic and informational processes (2). The importance of Fe-S clusters to life is evidenced by the pathological consequences associated with their loss of function. For example, Friedreich’s ataxia (FRDA) is a progressive, neurodegenerative disease in humans caused by mutations in the FXN gene encoding frataxin (3), a mitochondrial protein important for the assembly of Fe-S clusters (4).

The proteins involved in the cellular assembly of Fe-S clusters, which begins in mitochondria, are evolutionarily conserved across eukaryotes (2, 5–7). In the budding yeast, Saccharomyces cerevisiae, the homolog of frataxin, Yfh1, also plays an important role in Fe-S cluster assembly in mitochondria (8, 9). Loss of Yfh1 results in diminished Fe-S cluster abundance, impairing activities of Fe-S cluster–dependent proteins and pathways. These include aconitase activity (10, 11) and syntheses of certain amino acids such as lysine and glutamate (12, 13).

The net supply of Fe-S clusters depends on the balance between production in the mitochondria and degradation at various downstream stages and locations. The need to maintain this supply is compounded by the vulnerability of Fe-S clusters to damage, including by oxidative stress (14–16) and reduced copper (Cu(I)) ions (17). In addition to potentially causing oxidative stress (18, 19), the propensity of Cu(I) ions to interact with cysteine sulfhydryl groups with high affinity (20) allows Cu(I) to directly compete with Fe-S clusters for protein binding sites (21). Thus, Cu(I) ions can impair Fe-S cluster assembly, delivery, or stability in various enzymes (21, 22) even under anaerobic conditions (17). This notion is bolstered by the finding that overexpression of Yah1 in yeast, a protein critical for the assembly of the Fe-S clusters in the mitochondria, resulted in resistance to highly elevated copper abundance (23).

These considerations suggested that production of Fe-S clusters might be counterbalanced by Cu(I)–induced damage, placing the homeostasis of Fe-S clusters under the influence of Cu(I) ions. We reasoned that when Fe-S cluster assembly is impaired, such as in FRDA in humans or following the loss of Yfh1 in yeast, even physiologic levels of Cu(I) could become toxic as cells cannot maintain sufficient Fe-S cluster production to counteract Cu(I)–induced damage. In turn, depletion of Cu(I) might mitigate the cellular dysfunction resulting from the loss of Fe-S cluster assembly by decreasing the degradation of Fe-S clusters, effectively increasing the availability of functional Fe-S clusters albeit at a lower level than normal conditions (fig. S1).

We recently discovered that the eukaryotic histone H3 is a cupric reductase (24), catalyzing electron transfer and reduction of cupric ions (Cu(II)) to Cu(I). In yeast, mutation of the histidine-113 residue of histone H3 to asparagine (H3H113N), a key Cu(II)–binding residue, resulted in diminished Cu(I) abundance and impaired function of copper-dependent processes, such as mitochondrial respiration and superoxide dismutase function. Considering the potential toxicity of Cu(I), however, our findings raised the possibility that histone H3–mediated Cu(I) production could result in detrimental effects to the pool of Fe-S clusters, especially when Fe-S cluster supply is inadequate. In this study, we found that the various cellular defects resulting from Yfh1 depletion are rescued by diminishing histone cupric reductase activity. Fe-S cluster–dependent function is also recovered by total cellular copper depletion, supporting the conclusion that Cu(I) production by histone H3 impairs Fe-S cluster function. Our findings suggest that when Fe-S cluster production is compromised, the threshold for copper toxicity decreases, making the physiologic levels of Cu(I) a liability. Decrease of Cu(I) levels, including inhibition of the histone H3 copper reductase activity, might therefore represent a previously unrecognized therapeutic strategy for diseases caused by the dysfunction of Fe-S clusters, such as FRDA.
RESULTS
Histone H3H113N mutations prevent the growth defects caused by disruption of Fe-S cluster biogenesis or distribution

The H3H113N mutation in yeast decreases the Cu$^{1+}$ pool and diminishes copper utilization for copper-dependent processes without affecting the total intracellular levels of copper (24). We reasoned that this same mutation might provide resistance against Cu$^{1+}$ toxicity. To test this, we introduced the H113N mutation in the two chromosomal copies of the histone H3 gene to generate the yeast strain H3H113N. Despite its somewhat slower growth, this strain grew better than wild type (WT) in fermentative media containing toxic levels of copper (Fig. 1A). We considered whether resistance to elevated copper depended on the metallothionein, Cup1, which limits toxicity by sequestering excess intracellular Cu$^{1+}$ (25, 26). However, H3H113N still displayed substantial resistance to copper toxicity relative to WT when Cup1 was inactivated (F8stop) (fig. S2). These results are consistent with decreased intracellular Cu$^{1+}$ abundance in H3H113N resulting in less damage by copper.

We next hypothesized that when Fe-S cluster assembly is compromised, diminishing histone cupric reductase activity, which decreases Cu$^{1+}$ abundance (24), should mitigate the ensuing cellular defects, enabling cells to cope with decreased Fe-S cluster production (fig. S1). Deletion of most members of the mitochondrial Fe-S cluster assembly complex is lethal in yeast, except for YFH1. Deletion of YFH1 (yfh1Δ) results in severe growth defects in rich fermentative synthetic complete (SC) medium due to various underlying deficiencies (Fig. 1B) (8, 27). The H3H113N mutation substantially rescued the severe growth defect of yfh1Δ (Fig. 1B).

Although yfh1Δ suffered severe growth defects, individual clones of this strain displayed a relatively high probability of spontaneous recovery of their growth defects over the course of a few days following YFH1 deletion. This suggests a high likelihood of clones acquiring secondary mutations or other adaptations to cope with the disruption of Fe-S cluster homeostasis. Loss of Yfh1 can result in nuclear genome instability (27). To avoid this complication, we instead turned to a conditional transcriptional shutoff approach to deplete cells of Yfh1. We replaced the endogenous promoter of YFH1 with the GAL1 promoter, which is active in galactose-containing media but enables robust suppression of gene expression when cells are grown in the presence of glucose. This approach also allows examination of the time-dependent deterioration of function when Yfh1 is depleted.

Deletion of YFH1 (yfh1Δ) in fermentative media or minimal medium, consistent with diminished toxicity of Cu$^{1+}$ to Fe-S clusters (Fig. 1C and fig. S3B). Similarly, introduction of the H113Y mutation in H3H113N resulted in essentially complete depletion of Yfh1 protein after 1 day (fig. S3A) and a corresponding minor growth defect in SC (Fig. 1C). However, prolonged growth in the absence of YFH1 expression revealed a gradually worsening defect in SC in two different yeast strains (Fig. 1C, fig. S3B, and table S1). The growth defect of YFH1-off cells was exacerbated in media with substantially less amino acids (i.e., minimal medium) likely due to increased demand for Fe-S clusters for amino acid biosynthesis (fig. S3B and see below). H3H113N substantially prevented this gradual growth deterioration in fermentative SC or minimal medium, consistent with diminished toxicity of Cu$^{1+}$ to Fe-S clusters (Fig. 1C and fig. S3B). Similarly, introduction of the H113Y or H113N mutation (24) in only one copy of the histone H3 gene (i.e., HHT2) was sufficient to prevent the growth defect of YFH1-off in SC medium (fig. S3C). Reverting the HHT2-H113N mutation to the WT sequence (i.e., N113H) suppressed the rescue, corroborating that the histone H3 mutation accounts for the protective effect (fig. S3D).

To determine whether H3H113N could prevent the deterioration resulting from disruptions to Fe-S clusters more generally, we similarly repressed the expression of either GRX5 or ATM1 with the GAL1 promoter (GRX5-off and ATM1-off, respectively). Grx5 and Atm1 function downstream of Yfh1 in the transfer of Fe-S clusters to target proteins in the mitochondria and in the cytoplasm, respectively (28–30). Similar to the effect of Yfh1 depletion, GRX5-off and ATM1-off gradually deteriorated over time, but H3H113N substantially prevented this growth defect (Fig. 1, D and E). These results suggest that H3H113N did not merely compensate for the specific loss of Yfh1, but instead, it more generally prevented the dysfunction when Fe-S cluster homeostasis was disrupted.

H3H113N prevents loss of multiple Fe-S cluster–dependent processes

Depletion of Yfh1 may affect most, if not all, Fe-S cluster–dependent processes in the cell. These processes include the synthesis of certain amino acids that depend on enzymes containing Fe-S clusters (12, 30–33). All 20 amino acids are highly abundant in SC, which obviates the need for amino acid synthesis. We therefore gradually decreased the abundance of amino acids in SC and observed a corresponding gradual exacerbation of growth defects in the YFH1-off strain, even after a single day of Yfh1 shutoff (Fig. 2A and fig. S3B). This is consistent with an increased demand for Fe-S clusters for amino acid synthesis, thereby accentuating the deficiencies of YFH1-off. As in rich medium, the H3H113N mutation rescued the deterioration...
of growth in YFH1-off caused by amino acid limitation (Fig. 2A). With complete depletion of all amino acids, and thus when demand for Fe-S clusters would be highest, even H3H113N could not prevent the severe growth defect (Fig. 2A). This is likely because, even with decreased Cu$^{1+}$-induced damage in H3$^{H113N}$, the total Fe-S supply remains below the threshold required to sustain sufficient amino acid synthesis.

Fe-S cluster–containing enzymes participate in the syntheses of eight amino acids: methionine, cysteine, leucine, isoleucine, valine, lysine, glutamate, and glutamine. Syntheses of the others are not directly dependent on Fe-S clusters. Consistent with this, supplementation with eight amino acids, the syntheses of which are not dependent on Fe-S clusters, did not alleviate the growth defects of YFH1-off. In contrast, supplementation of amino acid–depleted media with only the eight Fe-S cluster–dependent amino acids restored growth of YFH1-off to the level displayed in complete medium (Fig. 2B). Together, these findings indicate that the growth defect of YFH1-off when amino acids were depleted was due to the diminished function of the Fe-S cluster–containing enzymes for synthesis of specific amino acids and that diminishing copper reductase activity of histone H3 restores the function of these enzymes.

We further examined whether removal of Fe-S cluster–dependent amino acids individually from otherwise replete medium would be sufficient to worsen the growth defect of YFH1-off. Removal of lysine, glutamate, or leucine resulted in diminished growth of YFH1-off (Fig. 2C and fig. S4A). This confirms that the synthesis of even a single amino acid can alone place increased demands for Fe-S clusters and exacerbate the growth defect of the YFH1-off strain. We focused on lysine and glutamate as test cases for Fe-S cluster–dependent function. The removal of lysine and glutamate (SC-lys-glu)
substantially diminished growth of the YFH1-off strain almost as much as 100-fold depletion of all 20 amino acids (Fig. 2C). Similar to other conditions, decreased Cu^{1+} production in H3H113N, as well as the HHT2^{H113N}, substantially prevented severe growth defects due to reduced lysine and glutamate syntheses resulting from diminishing (Fig. 2C and fig. 5A) or complete loss of Yfh1 (fig. 5C).

The ancient and conserved mitochondrial aconitase catalyzes the isomerization of citrate to isocitrate in the tricarboxylic acid cycle, which, in turn, contributes to glutamate synthesis (13). Aconitase uses an Fe-S cluster cofactor for its catalytic function (34–36). Deficiencies in aconitase activity have been identified in heart biopsies of patients with FRDA, and similar deficiencies were identified in yeast strains lacking YFH1 (10). We therefore assessed the incorporation of radioactive ^{55}Fe into aconitase in vivo, which has been used as an estimate of the presence of the Fe-S cluster in the enzyme (30). We generated strains in which Aco1 was tagged at the C terminus with Myc (Aco1-Myc) and depleted Yfh1 as before, followed by a 4-hour pulse with ^{55}Fe. Consistent with the growth defect of YFH1-off in SC-lys-glu, ^{55}Fe content was substantially decreased in immunoprecipitated Aco1-Myc in YFH1-off compared to WT (Fig. 2D). We also assessed aconitase activity in whole-cell extracts. Consistent with diminished Fe content in aconitase, enzymatic activity of aconitase was also markedly diminished following Yfh1 depletion (Fig. 2E). However, H3H113N significantly restored ^{55}Fe content in Aco1-Myc (Fig. 2D) and aconitase activity to ~60% of normal levels (Fig. 2E), thereby corroborating the rescue of growth, amino acid synthesis defects, and functional Fe-S cluster abundance.

We sought to determine whether the protective effect of the H3H113N mutation was restricted to amino acid synthesis or whether it generally protected Fe-S cluster–dependent function. We tested two disparate cellular processes: respiratory growth, which depends on numerous Fe-S clusters in the tricarboxylic acid cycle and in the electron transport chain (37), and sensitivity to the DNA-damaging agent methyl methanesulfonate (MMS), which challenges the Fe-S cluster–dependent enzymes in the nucleus (38). As expected, depletion of Yfh1 resulted in defective growth in medium containing nonfermentable carbon sources ethanol and glycerol (Fig. 2F) and sensitivity to MMS (Fig. 2G). H3H113N rescued YFH1-off in both contexts, consistent with a broad restoration of Fe-S cluster–dependent functions for various cellular processes (Fig. 2, F and G).

H3H113N prevents global transcriptional rewiring in response to defects in Fe-S cluster production

Yfh1 depletion leads to widespread rewiring of gene expression, including induction of an iron deficiency response (39, 40). We assessed gene expression profiles by mRNA sequencing and found substantial and reproducible alterations in YFH1-off in rich fermentable medium (Fig. 3A). Approximately half of the yeast genome (2867 genes) was significantly differentially expressed in YFH1-off compared to WT (Fig. 3B). However, H3H113N largely prevented
most gene expression changes, consistent with the ability to rescue various defects resulting from Yfh1 and Fe-S cluster depletion (Fig. 3B). For example, genes that were at least twofold significantly up-regulated \((n = 280)\) (Fig. 3C) or down-regulated \((n = 214)\) (Fig. 3D) in the \(YFH1^{-}\)-off strain were largely restored to their normal expression levels in \(H3H13N\) \(YFH1\)-off.

As expected, there was significant enrichment for genes involved in iron homeostasis, uptake, and transport among the significantly up-regulated genes in \(YFH1\)-off compared to WT (fig. S5A) \((39)\). This is consistent with the function of the transcription factor Aft1, which activates many genes in response to the loss of Fe-S clusters \((41, 42)\). Correspondingly, among the significantly down-regulated genes in \(YFH1\)-off compared to WT, cellular processes that use Fe-S clusters as cofactors including the mitochondrial respiratory chain, tricarboxylic acid cycle, and amino acid synthesis were significantly enriched (fig. S5A). This finding is also consistent with previous investigations demonstrating that mRNA abundances of Fe-S cluster genes are generally diminished in concurrence with decreases in cellular iron abundance \((43, 44)\). Among the genes that were rescued by the \(H3H13N\) mutation, there was significant enrichment for genes involved in very similar functions, including iron homeostasis and amino acid synthesis (Fig. 3E). Together, the fact that \(H3H13N\) prevented most of the transcriptional changes in \(YFH1\)-off, as opposed to specific subsets of genes, such as the lysine and glutamate synthesis genes, is consistent with \(H3H13N\) broadly preventing disruptions to Fe-S clusters instead of rescuing specific downstream processes.

We considered more closely the expression of genes involved in iron mobilization and utilization, as well as the various Fe-S cluster assembly and target proteins. A majority of the Aft1 target genes displayed significantly elevated expression when Yfh1 was deleted (Fig. 3B and fig. S5B), which is consistent with the enrichment of this set of genes among all up-regulated genes in \(YFH1\)-off compared to WT (Fig. 3E). The most highly induced Aft1 target genes were the cell wall mannoproteins \(FIT1\), \(FIT2\), and \(FIT3\), as well as \(ARN1\) and \(ARN2\), which together mediate the uptake of siderophore-iron chelates from the environment \((45, 46)\). \(H3H13N\) ameliorated almost all the changes resulting from Yfh1 depletion (Fig. 3B and fig. S5B). As Aft1 responds to the abundance of Fe-S clusters \((41)\), this finding further suggests that \(H3H13N\) prevented Fe-S cluster disruptions.

Many of the genes encoding for Fe-S cluster–binding proteins were also differentially expressed in response to Yfh1 depletion (Fig. 3B and fig. S5C). Several members of the mitochondrial Fe-S cluster assembly complex were up-regulated, including \(ISU1\), \(ISU2\), and \(NFS1\) (Fig. 3B and fig. S5C). Induction of these genes suggests a response by cells to compensate for diminished Fe-S cluster assembly in mitochondria. \(H3H13N\) almost entirely prevented the up-regulation of the Fe-S cluster assembly proteins in response to Yfh1 depletion (Fig. 3B and fig. S5C). In correspondence with decreased cellular Fe-S cluster abundance \((43)\), \(H3H13N\) mostly prevented the down-regulation of these genes (Fig. 3B and fig. S5C), further suggesting an ability to maintain functional Fe-S clusters despite a diminishment of Fe-S cluster assembly.

Iron abundance, superoxide dismutase, and glutathione do not account for the protective effect of \(H3H13N\) when Fe-S cluster assembly is disrupted

Previous studies have identified excessive iron accumulation as a major damaging component when frataxin/Yfh1 function is compromised \((47–49)\). Reduced abundance of cellular Fe-S clusters triggers the activation of Aft1, which, in turn, increases iron uptake from the environment. However, due to ineffective Fe-S cluster assembly in the absence of Yfh1, iron uptake does not effectively restore Fe-S cluster abundance. Instead, iron accumulates in the cell, including in mitochondria, which is proposed to become toxic \((42)\). In agreement with this, we observed that the growth defect of \(YFH1\)-off was rescued by the iron chelator bathophenanthrolinedisulfonate (fig. S6A). In addition, \(YFH1\)-off displayed sensitivity to highly elevated Fe concentrations in media, which the \(H3H13N\) mutation ameliorated (fig. S6B).

To determine whether \(H3H13N\) was restoring function in \(YFH1\)-off by preventing iron accumulation, we generated additional strains in which \(FET3\) was deleted (\(fet3\)). The Fet3 multicyclop oxidase is part of the high-affinity iron uptake complex and, as an Aft1 target gene, substantially contributes to iron uptake \((50–52)\). Consistent with this, \(fet3\) prevented the deterioration of growth of \(YFH1\)-off in both SC and SC-lys-glu media (Fig. 4A). However, in contrast to the effect of \(H3H13N\), \(fet3\) could not sustain the growth of \(YFH1\)-off after several days on solid agar media (Fig. 4A) and did not rescue \(YFH1\)-off in liquid culture (Fig. 4B). The \(H3H13N\) \(YFH1\)-off \(fet3\) mutant strain grew substantially more than \(YFH1\)-off \(fet3\) in SC-lys-glu (Fig. 4A), which suggests that \(H3H13N\) prevented the loss of function through a mechanism other than preventing iron uptake.

To corroborate this finding, we examined cellular iron content in \(YFH1\)-off strains using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). Yeast strains were grown in liquid media for the shortest amount of time required for Yfh1 depletion to result in a growth defect in SC-lys-glu medium (and to avoid excessive cell death in the \(YFH1\)-off strain). This occurred after 44 hours of \(YFH1\) shutoff (Fig. 4B). Despite the rescue of \(YFH1\)-off growth defect by \(H3H13N\), the cellular iron content in \(YFH1\)-off and \(H3H13N\) \(YFH1\)-off was not significantly different (Fig. 4C). Furthermore, deletion of \(FET3\) decreased cellular iron content similarly in both strains (Fig. 4C). These findings therefore indicate that \(H3H13N\) rescues \(YFH1\)-off independently of changes in total intracellular iron content.

Fe-S clusters are also highly susceptible to oxidative damage \((14, 16)\). The Cu-Zn superoxide dismutase, Sod1, is a major contributor to antioxidant defense and is likely to protect Fe-S clusters from damage in the presence of oxygen \((53)\). We previously found that \(H3H13N\) diminishes Sod1 activity \((24)\). Nonetheless, in the unique context of \(YFH1\)-off and the resulting decrease of Fe-S clusters, we considered whether the restoration of function by \(H3H13N\) depended on Sod1. We generated additional strains in which \(SOD1\) was deleted (\(sod1\)). Consistent with a protective function, \(sod1\) increased the deterioration of growth of \(YFH1\)-off in both SC and SC-lys-glu media (fig. S7A). Note that we did not use SC-lys-glu medium because sod1 is a lysine auxotroph \((54)\). Critically, \(H3H13N\) was still able to restore function in the \(YFH1\)-off \(sod1\) strain (fig. S7A), indicating that the \(H3H13N\) protective effects are independent of superoxide dismutase activity.

Glutathione is also a crucial component of cellular redox balance and antioxidant defense. Reduced glutathione (GSH) can also contribute to the maturation of Fe-S cluster proteins \((55)\). Thus, we examined whether \(H3H13N\) prevented the dysfunction of \(YFH1\)-off...
by increasing the abundance of GSH. First, we assessed the cellular content of reduced and oxidized glutathione (GSH and GSSG, respectively) in cells growing exponentially in SC medium using MS. The H3H113N strain did not display significant changes in abundance of GSH or GSSG (fig. S7B). Second, addition of as much as 1 mM exogenous GSH had no effect on the growth defect of YFH1-off or the rescue by H3H113N (fig. S7C). Together, these observations indicate that the rescue of YFH1-off by the H3H113N mutation is unlikely to be related to glutathione abundance.

**H3H113N diminishes Cu$$^{1+}$$ toxicity to rescue Yfh1 depletion**

Our finding that the H3H113N mutation results in resistance to copper toxicity (Fig. 1A) and that Cu$$^{1+}$$ ions are especially toxic to Fe-S clusters suggested that the broad rescue of YFH1-off by H3H113N was due to preventing copper toxicity. By the 44-hour time point, total cellular copper content had increased by ~35% in YFH1-off compared to WT (Fig. 5A). This modest accumulation coincided with increased expression of copper mobilization and uptake genes, such as the main copper importer, CTR1 (56), which supports iron homeostasis (56) and may be a direct target of Aft1 (fig. S8A) (57). Conversely, total copper abundance did not change in H3H113N YFH1-off compared to H3H113N (Fig. 5A). Addition of 10 μM copper in SC-lys-glu resulted in substantially increased total cellular copper content in YFH1-off and even more so in H3H113N YFH1-off (fig. S8B). Despite elevated copper accumulation, H3H113N still rescued the growth of YFH1-off in this media (fig. S8C). This indicates that the mechanism by which the H3H113N mutation restores Fe-S cluster homeostasis is not by diminishing total copper accumulation but rather by an impact on copper speciation, namely, a specific decrease in Cu$$^{1+}$$ abundance.

To support the notion that H3H113N prevented Cu$$^{1+}$$ toxicity when Yfh1 was diminished, we tested whether depletion of total cellular copper would perform similarly. The presence of the copper chelator bathocuproine disulfonate (BCS) rescued the growth of YFH1-off and yfh1Δ in SC-lys-glu medium, similar to but to a lesser extent than the effect of H3H113N (Fig. 5B and fig. S8D). Deletion of CTR1 also prevented the defect in YFH1-off albeit less robustly after several days of growth of YFH1-off cells (fig. S8E). The restoration of function by H3H113N was independent of CTR1, as the H3H113N YFH1-off ctr1Δ triple mutant grew better than YFH1-off ctr1Δ (Fig. 5C). These findings suggest that the decrease in Cu$$^{1+}$$ abundance specifically by H3H113N (24) is a distinct and more substantial protective effect for Fe-S clusters than merely diminishing total copper content. Last, H3H113N ameliorated the increased sensitivity of YFH1-off to excessive exogenous copper (Fig. 5D), consistent with decreased Cu$$^{1+}$$ abundance. Together, our findings demonstrate the robust ability of the H3H113N mutation to prevent the deterioration of cellular function when Fe-S cluster assembly is compromised.

**DISCUSSION**

Fe-S clusters are essential enzymatic or structural cofactors for proteins in many important cellular processes in eukaryotes. The assembly of Fe-S clusters is initiated in mitochondria followed by distribution throughout the mitochondria, cytoplasm, and nucleus. These cofactors, however, are highly vulnerable to damage by Cu$$^{1+}$$ ions through oxidative stress or direct displacement (14, 17, 22). Disruption of Fe-S cluster homeostasis has been implicated in the pathogenesis of several human diseases ranging from cancer to neurodegeneration (3, 58–60). Understanding the biological principles governing the production and decay of Fe-S clusters may therefore provide insights into human pathology and point to new therapeutic approaches.

In this study, we found that Cu$$^{1+}$$ ions generated by the histone H3 cupric reductase activity function as key attrition factors against Fe-S clusters. This attrition could become toxic and result in metabolic and growth defects when Fe-S cluster assembly or distribution is compromised. Diminishment of Cu$$^{1+}$$ by impairment of the cupric reductase capability of histone H3 (24) restored Fe-S cluster–dependent functions when Fe-S cluster synthesis was inadequate, either due to decreased assembly (Fig. 1, B and C) or defective transport (Fig. 1, D and E). Our findings thus reveal that Fe-S cluster deficiencies due to a variety of insults can be restored by diminishing histone-mediated Cu$$^{1+}$$ production. This presents Cu$$^{1+}$$ depletion, for example, through inhibition of histone enzyme activity, as a potential
therapeutic modality when Fe-S cluster homeostasis is disrupted. Together, our work reveals a previously unknown opposing relationship between histone H3 and mitochondria in maintaining appropriate levels of Fe-S clusters in the cell. Alterations of this balance may contribute to disease pathology but could potentially be restored at a lower but functioning level to mitigate disease phenotypes (fig. S1).

While copper ions support iron homeostasis in eukaryotes, such as through enzymes like Fet3 in yeast or ceruloplasmin in humans, Cu\(^{1+}\) damages Fe-S clusters through oxidative stress and/or displacement. The precise mechanism by which the histone-dependent Cu\(^{1+}\) production in the nucleus can become toxic to the cell, including mitochondria, remains unclear. One possibility is that nuclear Cu\(^{1+}\) produced by histones that is normally trafficked to the mitochondria, in the context of disrupted Fe-S cluster assembly, damages the remaining cofactors in the mitochondria, in turn, impairing downstream Fe-S–dependent processes including amino acid synthesis. Another possibility is that histone-produced Cu\(^{1+}\) causes damage locally to Fe-S cluster proteins in the nucleus, such as the DNA polymerases and Rad3 (61, 62). To compensate, Fe-S clusters assembled elsewhere are redirected to replenish the various nuclear proteins but at the cost of compromising other Fe-S–dependent processes. A third possibility is that Cu\(^{1+}\) toxicity is not limited to a subcellular location but occurs throughout the cell, with the loss of the most vulnerable Fe-S proteins manifesting as specific cellular phenotypes. Regardless of the mechanism of the damage, decreased histone H3 cupric reductase activity would diminish the production of Cu\(^{1+}\), decreasing the possibility of damage to Fe-S clusters locally in the nucleus or at distant sites in the cytoplasm or mitochondria. Future investigations that trace the pathways of copper flux, distribution, and homeostasis should help reveal the mechanisms underlying the dynamics of Cu\(^{1+}\)-induced damage to Fe-S clusters.

The fact that histones and the mitochondrial Fe-S cluster assembly complex are highly conserved across eukaryotes suggests that the histone H3–mediated Cu\(^{1+}\) production may also become toxic in human disease with Fe-S cluster dysfunction. This prediction is especially relevant in diseases like FRDA and subtypes of sideroblastic anemia (63, 64). FRDA is a neurodegenerative disease caused by triplet expansion mutations in the first intron of frataxin, the human homolog of Yfh1 (3). These genetic perturbations diminish frataxin expression, resulting in increased mitochondrial iron, decreased activity of Fe-S cluster enzymes, and greater oxidative stress (65). Treatment with hypoxia can correct the various cellular defects resulting from frataxin loss and has been suggested as a potential therapeutic modality for FRDA (66). Sideroblastic anemia with spinocerebellar ataxia (ASAT) is caused by mutations in ATP Binding Cassette Subfamily B Member 7 (ABCB7), a mitochondrial adenosine triphosphate–binding cassette transporter and the human homolog of yeast Atm1, which can export Fe-S cluster intermediates from mitochondria (67, 68). At the cellular level, ASAT is characterized by aberrant mitochondrial iron homeostasis (69). Our findings that H3H113N could protect against the dysfunction resulting from depletion of either Yfh1 or Atm1 implicate histone-dependent Cu\(^{1+}\) toxicity as a possible pathogenic factor in FRDA and ASAT and potentially other diseases based on disrupted iron homeostasis. Our findings in yeast, if confirmed in studies of mammalian systems, also suggest possible new therapeutic opportunities.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Strains and general growth conditions**

*S. cerevisiae* strains used in this study are based on the YLK1879 (S288C background, MATa) and BY4741 (S288C background, MATa) (70)
strains, the former of which was a gift from L. Kruglyak (71). Strains are listed in table S1. Strains were generally maintained on YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, and 2% d-glucose) plates. However, strains with the GALI promoter placed upstream of YFH1, GRX5, or ATM1 were maintained on YPG (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, and 2% galactose) plates. In addition, strains with CTR1 deleted were maintained on YPD/YPD plates supplemented with 20 μM CuSO₄ (normal concentration is ~1 μM Cu) before experiments. The additional copper was not present during experiments. Supplemental copper during routine streaking prevented the accumulation of defects in ctriΔ, thereby improving the reproducibility of experiments. All strains were grown at 30°C in all experiments.

Strain generation
The H3H113N mutation was generated in both chromosomal loci (HHT1 and HHT2) using the CRISPR-Cas9 system optimized for S. cerevisiae (72). For strains in fig. S3D, the H113N mutation was also reversed back to the WT sequence using CRISPR-Cas9. Subsequent gene deletions and promoter insertions were generated by standard yeast gene replacement and targeted insertion methodology using selectable marker integration (73). Successful integrations and deletions were confirmed by polymerase chain reaction. The CUP1 gene was disrupted by the introduction of a stop codon at Phe₈ at all CUP1 copies using the CRISPR-Cas9 system. Strains in which YFH1 was deleted were phenotypically unstable. Within a few days following the transformation to replace YFH1 with a selectable marker, clones would often spontaneously recover growth rates. Therefore, for the experiments shown in Fig. 1B and figs. S4B and S8D, yfh1Δ strains were used immediately following transformation and were not stored long-term. In all other cases, standard yeast culturing procedures were followed, and strains were continuously maintained on YPD or YPG plates, restreaking cells every 2 weeks for a maximum of four times.

Preparation of solutions, media, and glassware
Removal of contaminating metals from glassware and solutions is a critical precaution to ensure reproducibility of experiments. All glassware was treated with 3.7% hydrochloric acid for ≥12 hours, followed in some cases by ≥12 hours with 7% nitric acid to remove trace metal contamination. All solutions, buffers, and washes were prepared using Milli-Q (Millipore Sigma) ultrapure water. Solutions were prepared using BioUltra grade (Sigma-Aldrich) reagents, when available. For yeast media, addition of all components was done without the use of metal spatulas. Media were filtered through 0.2-μm membranes. Fermentative media were SC (SC medium with 2% glucose, all amino acids, and uracil and adenine), SC lacking lysine, or minimal medium (with 2% glucose and either no amino acids or only essential auxotrophic metabolites). Agar media were prepared using acid-washed glassware.

Spot tests
Cells from exponentially growing cultures were fourfold serially diluted and spotted on various media conditions as indicated in the figures. For experiments in which the GAL1 promoter was used to shut off expression for 1, 2, or 3 days, cells on YPG were inoculated into SC medium and grown for approximately 15 hours (day 1). For 2 and 3 days of shutoff, cultures were grown for an additional 48 hours in SC and diluted to optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) = 0.05 every 24 hours. Cells were allowed to grow for an additional 4 hours to enter exponential growth phase, at which point they were collected for spotting. Spotted plates were incubated at 30°C for up to 4 days and imaged daily. Images shown in the figures were captured when sufficient growth had occurred and growth differences could be assessed (2 to 4 days). For the experiment in Fig. 2A, plates with gradually decreasing amounts of SC amino acid powder (Sunrise Science Products) were prepared while keeping all other components the same [2% glucose, yeast nitrogen base (1.7 g/liter), and ammonium sulfate (5 g/liter)].

Growth of YFH1-off strains in liquid culture
For aconitase assay, ICP-MS, and RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) analyses, YFH1-off cells on YPG were inoculated into SC medium at OD₆₀₀ = 1 and grown for 36 hours in a 30°C shaker, diluting to OD₆₀₀ = 1 every 12 hours. After 36 hours, cells were diluted once more to OD₆₀₀ = 1 in either SC or SC-lys-glu and grown for a further 8 hours (44 hours in total) or for 5 hours in the experiment in fig. S8B. Cells were then processed for downstream assays.

Yeast spheroplasts for aconitase assay
Cell density of 44-hour liquid cultures (YFH1-off and H₃H₁₁₃N YFH1-off), or exponentially growing cells (WT and H₃H₁₁₃N), was determined, and equal amounts of cells from each culture were used for producing spheroplasts (2.5 × 10⁹ cells). Cells were washed once with 50 ml of water and once with 400 μl of dithiothreitol (DTT) buffer [100 mM tris-H₂SO₄ (pH 9.2) and 10 mM DTT]. The washed cells were resuspended in 400 μl of DTT buffer and incubated for 20 min at 30°C. Treated cells were then washed twice with 1.3 ml of Zymolyase buffer [20 mM tris-HCl (pH 7.5) and 1.2 M sorbitol], resuspended in 1.3 ml of Zymolyase buffer containing 200 μg of Zymolyase-100T (Nacalai Tesque), and incubated at 30°C for 35 min. Spheroplastization of at least 95% of cells was confirmed under the microscope by a 1:10 dilution into water. Spheroplasts were pelleted at 2000 g, and the supernatant was removed.

Aconitase assay
Cellular aconitase activity was assessed using the Aconitase Activity Assay Kit (Sigma-Aldrich, MAK051-1KT), and the manufacturer’s protocol was followed with minor adjustments. Spheroplasts were lysed in 200 μl of assay buffer, centrifuged at 13,000 g for 10 min at 4°C, and the supernatant (i.e., the lysate) was recovered. Protein concentration was determined using the BCA Protein Assay Kit (Pierce), and 900 μg of protein was diluted into a final volume of 100 μl in assay buffer containing 1× Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Pierce). Ten microliters of freshly prepared Activator Solution (following the manufacturer’s protocol) was added to the samples and incubated for 1 hour on ice. Fifty microliters of activated lysate was then mixed with 50 μl of reaction mix, which contains either enzyme and substrate or enzyme alone (for background correction). The reaction was incubated for 1 hour at 25°C, after which 10 μl of developer solution was added to each sample and incubated for another 10 min at 25°C. Absorbance at 450 nm was determined, background was subtracted, and the absorbance readings were converted to product concentration (millimolars of isocitrate) using a standard curve as described by the manufacturer.

Western blot
Standard Western blot methodology was used to detect protein content from whole-cell extracts, with the exception of Yfh1-myc. For Yfh1-myc, a crude mitochondrial extract was prepared as
Cells harboring a Myc-tagged Aco1 were grown in SC-galactose for contaminating DNA was digested using Turbo™ DNase (Thermo from four replicate experiments.

Methods.

Centrifugation and frozen at −20°C until processed for RNA extraction and RNA-seq. RNA was extracted using previously published methods (76). RNA extracted for subsequent RNA-seq analysis is from four replicate experiments.

Sample preparation for poly-A RNA-seq

Before preparing RNA-seq libraries for Illumina NovaSeq sequencing, contaminating DNA was digested using Turbo™ DNase (Thermo Fisher Scientific). RNA quality was then assessed on a 1% agarose gel to confirm minimal RNA degradation. RNA-seq libraries were then prepared with the KAPA mRNA Hyper Prep Kit (Kapa Biosystems) according to the manufacturer’s protocols. RNA-seq libraries were assessed for correct fragment size and the presence of adapter dimers by running on a 1% agarose gel. Average library sizes of ~270 base pairs were generated. Libraries were pooled for multiplexed sequencing and further purified using KAPA Pure beads. Total DNA concentration was adjusted to 10 nM for Illumina sequencing.

RNA-seq and differential gene expression analysis

High-throughput sequencing was performed on Illumina’s NovaSeq system. Total read count per library ranged from ~8 million to 14 million. Demultiplexed reads, in FASTQ file format, were processed to check for read and genome alignment quality and to convert reads to normalized gene counts (https://training.galaxypoint.org/training-material/topics/transcriptomics/tutorials/rna-seq-reads-to-counts/tutorial.html) (77). Processing steps included the assessment of raw read quality using FastQC and genome alignment in strand-specific manner to the R64-1-1 S288C reference genome assembly (sacCer3) using HISAT2 (78). Assigning and counting reads for 6692 annotated open reading frames were performed using featureCounts (79). Determination of adjusted P values for differential gene expression comparisons was done using DESeq2 (https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/vignettes/DESeq2/inst/doc/DESeq2.html) (80). Principal components analysis was performed using a built-in function as part of the DESeq2 package. Significantly differentially expressed genes (adjusted P < 0.05) identified by DESeq2 were assessed for Gene Ontology term enrichment using the Database for Annotation, Visualization, and Integrated Discovery (81, 82) with default parameters. Gene sets for gene expression visualization in heatmaps were constructed by downloading Gene Ontology term gene lists from AmiGO 2 in March 2017.

Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry

Cells (8 × 10⁹) from the 44- or 41-hour cultures (YFH1-off strains) or exponentially growing cells (WT and H₃H₁₁₃N) were collected and washed twice in 5 mM EDTA, to remove cell surface-associated metals, and once in Milli-Q water. Cell pellets were stored at −20°C until further processed for ICP-MS. Cell pellets were overlaid with 143 µl of 70% nitric acid (Fisher, Optima grade, A467-500, lot 1216040) and digested at room temperature for 24 hours, followed by incubation at 65°C for about 4 hours, and lastly being diluted to a final nitric acid concentration of 2% (v/v) with Milli-Q water. Iron and copper contents were determined by ICP–tandem MS (MS/MS) on an Agilent 8900 Triple Quadrupole ICP-MS/MS instrument, in comparison to an environmental calibration standard (Agilent, 5183-4688), using ⁶⁷Y as an internal standard (Inorganic Ventures, MSY-100PPM).

The levels of all analytes were determined in MS/MS mode, where ⁶⁷Cu was measured directly using He in the collision reaction cell, and ⁵⁶Fe was directly determined using H₂ as a cell gas. The average of three to five technical replicate measurements was used for each individual biological replicate. The average variation between technical replicate measurements was 1.4% for all analytes and never exceeded 5% for an individual sample. All Cu and Fe measurements were within the calibrated linear ranges and above the lower limits of detection, as determined from multiple blank samples. ICP MassHunter software was used for ICP-MS data analysis.

MS analysis of glutathione

Cells (6 × 10⁹) from exponentially growing cultures were collected by centrifugation. The cells were washed once in a 43% ice-cold methanol-water solution. To extract the metabolites, the washed cells were resuspended in 200 µl of ice-cold (stored at −80°C) 80% methanol containing 10 nM trifluoromethanesulfonate (TFMS). The resuspended cells were vortexed for 5 s, frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen for 5 min, and then allowed to thaw in an ice bath for 5 min. The cells were pelleted at 16,000g to collect the supernatant. The cell pellet was resuspended in another 100 µl of methanol-TFMS solution and pelleted to collect the supernatant. The combined supernatant was dried under vacuum, and the dried metabolites were stored at −80°C until MS analysis. Extracted dried metabolites were reconstituted in a 50% acetonitrile and 50% dH₂O solution and processed further for analysis by MS as previously described (83).

Statistical analyses

The number of experimental replicates (n) and the observed significance levels are indicated in the figure legends. All statistical analyses were performed using R version 4.0.0, including use of the DESeq2 package, as described above. For most pairwise comparisons, F tests were first performed to determine whether group variances were significantly different. When variances were not different, P values for group differences were determined with the two-sample unpaired t test. When variances were significantly different, P values were determined with the Welch two-sample t test. For pairwise comparisons of ≥2-fold up-regulated or down-regulated genes (Fig. 3, C and D), expression values (normalized read counts) were first averaged across the four biological replicates, transformed into log₁₀ scale, and P values were determined with the paired t test.
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