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**Dynamic regulation of intracellular labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle in microalgae
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii: Disrupting the balance by Cu stress**

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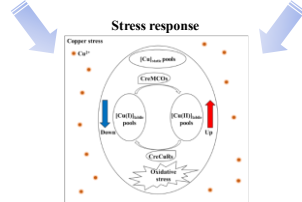
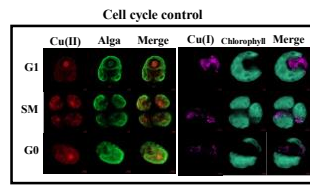
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TOC (prepared by the authors)



25

26

27 **Abstract**

28 The labile metal pool involved in intracellular trafficking and homeostasis is the portion
29 susceptible to environmental stress. Herein, we visualized the different intracellular
30 distributions of labile Cu(I) and Cu(II) pools in the alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. We first
31 demonstrated that labile Cu(I) predominantly accumulated in the granules within the
32 cytoplasmic matrix, whereas labile Cu(II) pool primarily localized in the pyrenoid and
33 chloroplast. The cell cycle played an integral role in balancing the labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools.
34 Specifically, the labile Cu(II) pool primarily accumulated during the SM phase following cell
35 division, while the labile Cu(I) pool dynamically changed during the G phase as cell size
36 increased. Notably, the labile Cu(II) pool in algae at the SM stage exhibited heightened
37 sensitivity to environmental Cu stress. Exogenous Cu stress disrupted the intracellular labile
38 Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle and balance, causing a shift towards the labile Cu(II) pool. Our proteomic
39 analysis further identified a putative cupric reductase, potentially capable of reducing Cu(II)
40 to Cu(I), and four putative multicopper oxidases, potentially capable of oxidizing Cu(I) to
41 Cu(II), which may be involved in the conversion between labile Cu(I) pool and labile Cu(II)
42 pool. Our study elucidated a dynamic cycle of the intracellular labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools,
43 which were accessible and responsive to environmental changes.

44

45 **Keywords:** labile Cu pool, cell cycle, phytoplankton, cupric bioimaging, proteome

46

47 *One sentence synopsis: Cu stress on microalgae disrupted the dynamic cycle of Cu(I) and*
48 *Cu(II) with participation of Cu reductases and multicopper oxidases.*

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Transition metals such as Cu, Zn and Fe accumulate in the cells owing to their
51 exceptional properties in both architecture and catalysis ¹. These metals orchestrate the
52 processing of biomacromolecules such as DNA, RNA and proteins. They are also integral to
53 some substrate activation through electron transfer, often following energy metabolism
54 involving ATP or NADPH. However, an imbalance in intracellular transition metal quota
55 would cause oxidative damage, rendering their redox activity a double-edged sword ². Within
56 cells, transition metal sinks are partitioned into two principal pools, including a static pool
57 that is firmly embedded within the active sites of metalloproteins, and a dynamic labile pool
58 weakly coupled with low-molecular-mass (LMM) components ³. The labile metal pool is
59 responsible for metal ion trafficking from the plasma membrane to their clients, while its
60 destination is considered part of the static pool ⁴. As such, the labile metal pool works in
61 metal ion homeostasis and functions in removing free metal and preventing cytotoxic effect,
62 which makes the labile pool susceptible to environmental stress ^{5,6}.

63 Copper (Cu) serves as a typical transition metal, but also poses a threat to aquatic
64 ecosystems due to the excessive anthropogenic release of Cu ions ⁷. Phytoplankton is
65 sensitive to Cu, and many studies investigated the toxicological effects of Cu stress on algae,
66 but most of these studies primarily focused on the total Cu bioaccumulation ⁸⁻¹⁰.
67 Physiologically, intracellular Cu can exist in two oxidation states, Cu(I) and Cu(II), and it
68 displays its redox properties by undergoing reversible transitions between these two states ¹¹.
69 Like other transition metals, Cu cannot be synthesized by cells. Consequently, labile Cu(I)
70 and Cu(II) pools exist to support the cellular influx, efflux and homeostasis ¹².

71 *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, a unicellular phytoplankton prevalent in various aquatic
72 ecosystems, exhibits sensitive responses to conditions of both metal deficiency and
73 sufficiency, as well as demonstrating a high efficiency for the removal of metal pollutants ¹³⁻
74 ¹⁵. *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* predominantly exists as a haploid cell and is equipped with
75 high-quality genome annotations as well as expansive datasets, establishing it as a model
76 organism for environmental toxicological studies ¹⁶. There is increasing interest in the
77 regulation of Cu homeostasis in *Chlamydomonas*. This alga has developed strategies to
78 mitigate Cu deficiency; for example, *Chlamydomonas* preferred replacing Cu-containing
79 plastocyanin with heme-containing cytochrome *c*₆ to conserve Cu and ensure sufficient
80 availability of Cu for cytochrome oxidase in respiration, suggesting Cu economy under
81 copper deficiency ¹⁴. Wang and Wang recently shed light on the process of intracellular
82 biotransformation of Cu(I)/Cu(II) and its role in cellular toxicity of Cu under Fe deficiency ¹⁷.

83 Moreover, it was suggested that Cu bioaccumulation was simply regulated by the cell cycle
84 ¹⁸. Nevertheless, the mechanisms governing the regulation of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools in
85 *Chlamydomonas*, the fraction of intracellular Cu that is sensitive to external conditions, along
86 with their adaptive responses to environmental stress, remain largely unexplored.

87 Several methodologies have been developed for the detection of intracellular labile metal
88 pool. For example, a modified liquid chromatography-inductively coupled plasma mass
89 spectrometry (LC-ICP-MS) approach was utilized to study the labile metal pool in
90 *Escherichia coli* ¹⁹. Molecular imaging probes represent an additional innovative strategy,
91 offering high sensitivity and specificity for the visualization of the labile metal pool ²⁰. In the
92 current study, we firstly visualized the distinct distributions of the labile Cu(I) pool and labile
93 Cu(II) pool in the green algae *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* with the aid of specific fluorescent
94 probes, and also investigated their rearrangement procedure following cell cycle. Next, we
95 hypothesized the existence of a sophisticatedly regulated labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle within
96 algal cells, and further explored the responses of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle to environmental
97 stress to test our hypothesis. Subsequently, we conducted a proteomic analysis to elucidate
98 the potential regulatory mechanisms associated with the equilibrium of the labile Cu(I)/Cu(II)
99 cycle. Our study emphasized the significance of the labile Cu pool, rather than merely
100 focusing on robust Cu bioaccumulation, and its modulatory effects on environmental stress.
101 These aspects warrant urgent consideration in future study on environmental toxicity.

102

103 **Materials and Methods**

104 *Experimental materials and algal culture*

105 The green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* was synchronized using a modified tris-
106 acetate-phosphate (TAP) medium (detailed composition provided in Table S1) at 25 °C under
107 diurnal cycle conditions, consisting of 12 h light and 12 h darkness with a light intensity of
108 130 $\mu\text{mol photons/m}^2/\text{s}$, in accordance with the method of earlier study ¹⁸. The Cu exposure
109 experiments in this study employed three types of media, designated as Control (Ctr), Low
110 Cu and High Cu, each containing varying concentrations of free Cu ions, with the
111 components listed in Table S1. To prevent contamination, all reusable vessels were soaked in
112 3% HNO₃ overnight and thoroughly rinsed with ultrapure water to use. A Cu(I) specific
113 fluorescent probe named Cu fluor-4 (CF4), capable of coupling with the intracellular labile
114 Cu(I) pool, and a control probe Cu fluor-4 sulfur 2 (Ctr-CF4-S2), were prepared based on
115 Xiao et al. ²¹. The control probe is comparable in size, shape, hydrophobicity, and *in vivo*
116 distribution to the parent Cu(I) probe CF4, but is unresponsive to Cu due to its modified

117 isosteric receptor. For the detection of intracellular labile Cu(II) pool, we employed a Cu(II)-
118 responsive, activity-based sensing fluorescent probe CD649.2 based on Pezacki et al.¹².
119 H2DCFDA (2', 7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate) (Invitrogen) from Thermo Fisher
120 Scientific was utilized for the detection of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in living algal cells.

121

122 *Subcellular imaging of algal labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pool in different cell cycle stages*

123 To investigate the influence of the cell cycle on the regulation of the labile intracellular
124 Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle, synchronized *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* cells were collected at various
125 Zeitgeber times (ZT5, ZT14, ZT23 corresponding to G1, SM and G0 phase, respectively) to
126 visualize the subcellular distribution of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) at different cell cycle stages, as
127 described in our previous work¹⁸. For Cu(I) staining, algal samples were washed thrice with
128 a rinse medium containing 1 mM Na₂EDTA (detailed composition provided in Table S1) to
129 remove the surface-bound Cu, followed by staining with a 5 μM CF4 probe for 30 min in a
130 PBS solution. Subsequently, the probe was removed, and confocal images were acquired
131 using a Zeiss LSM 900 microscope equipped with Airyscan in channel mode. The excitation
132 wavelength was set at 488 nm, and emissions in the ranges of 530-600 nm and 600-700 nm
133 were recorded to capture Cu(I)-specific and chlorophyll fluorescence-specific emissions,
134 respectively. For Cu(II) staining, the collected algal cells were first rinsed thrice with rinse
135 medium. Since the emission spectrum of the CD649.2 probe (650-700 nm) overlapped with
136 that of chloroplast autofluorescence, the algal pellet was treated with 75% ethanol for 3 min,
137 repeated three times to extract chlorophyll, hence quenching the chloroplast autofluorescence
138 (Figure S1)^{22, 23}. The cells were then washed thoroughly with PBS three times to remove the
139 residual ethanol. Afterwards, the algae were incubated with a 5 μM CD649.2 probe and a 5
140 μM Ctr-CF4-S2 probe together for 1 h. The CD649.2 probe was utilized for staining the
141 intracellular labile Cu(II) pool, while the Ctr-CF4-S2 served to delineate the algal profile.
142 Fluorescence imaging was performed using the Zeiss LSM 900 microscope with Airyscan in
143 channel mode as well. The CD649.2 probe was excited at 633 nm, and emissions between
144 650-700 nm were collected as Cu(II)-specific signals. For the Ctr-CF4-S2 probe track,
145 excitation was set at 488 nm, with emission collection in the range of 530-600 nm.

146

147 *Imaging of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools in different cell cycle stages during short-term Cu stress*

148 We gathered alga cells of different cell cycle stages (i.e. G1, SM and G0 phase)
149 separately to conduct three independent exposure experiments. Algae in the G1 phase were
150 subjected to exposure under light conditions, whereas cells in the SM and G0 phase were

151 exposed under dark conditions. For each exposure experiment, the algal pellets were
152 resuspended in Ctr medium, Low Cu medium or High Cu medium, respectively, to establish
153 different Cu exposure concentrations. The calculated free Cu ion concentrations in Ctr
154 medium, Low Cu medium and High Cu medium were 0, 7.04 and 94.59 nM, respectively
155 (Table S1). The cell density was adjusted to 2×10^6 cells/mL. Following a 2-h exposure
156 period, the cells were harvested and washed three times with rinse medium. Confocal images
157 of labile intracellular Cu(I)/Cu(II) pool were collected following the aforementioned
158 procedure.

159

160 *Exploring the effects of exogenous Cu stress on labile Cu(I)/(II) cycle.*

161 An additional exposure assay was conducted to investigate the dynamics of the
162 intracellular labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle during exposure, with subsequent relatively quantitative
163 analysis of average unicellular labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) contents using flow cytometry (BD FACS
164 Aria III, Biosciences, USA). In brief, algae in the exponential growth phase were harvested
165 and subsequently exposed to different media (Ctr, Low Cu or High Cu) for 4 h. The cell
166 density was adjusted to 2×10^6 cells / mL. After Cu exposure, the algae were collected and
167 washed three times with rinse medium. A portion of the harvested algae was then prepared for
168 incubation with Cu(I)-specific or Cu(II)-specific probes following the above procedure. For
169 Cu(I) analysis, the Cu(I) signal and chlorophyll fluorescence were detected using the FITC
170 and APC channels, respectively. For Cu(II) analysis, the Cu(II) signal was recorded using the
171 APC channel. Concurrently, a separate aliquot of algae was incubated with the CM-
172 H2DCFDA (10 μ M, Invitrogen) fluorescent probe for 30 min to assess ROS level in each
173 group. The fluorescence signal was collected using the FITC channel on the flow cytometry.
174 10,000 events were analyzed in each flow cytometry assay. The remaining harvested algal
175 samples was used to measure total unicellular Cu bioaccumulation. The cell count of these
176 samples was determined by flow cytometer, after which the algae were digested using 0.5 mL
177 HNO₃ at 80 °C for 12 h. The Cu bioaccumulation was ultimately quantified using ICP-MS.

178

179 *Quantitative proteome analysis*

180 Algal cells in the exponential growth phase were harvested and treated with Ctr or High
181 Cu medium. The cell density was adjusted to 2×10^6 cells / mL. After a 4 h treatment, cells
182 were gathered and washed three times with PBS. Subsequently, the cell pellets were snap-
183 frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C for further sequencing analysis. Total proteins
184 were extracted from the frozen samples using a modified Borax/PVPP/Phenol (BPP) method.

185 The primary pellets were lysed by the addition of an appropriate volume of protein lysis
186 buffer containing 8 mol / L urea and 1 % sodium dodecyl sulfate, supplemented with a
187 protease inhibitor. The extracted proteins were quantified using the Pierce BCA Protein Assay
188 Kits (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Samples with a total protein content exceeding 100 µg were
189 selected for subsequent analyses. The integrity of the extracted proteins was confirmed by
190 sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE). An aliquot of 100
191 µg of high-quality protein samples was dissolved in 100 mM triethylammonium bicarbonate
192 (TEAB) buffer and then digested with trypsin at a 1:50 trypsin-to-protein ratio at 37 °C. The
193 resulting peptides were labeled with Tandem Mass Tags (TMT, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and
194 subsequently fractionated using high-pH reversed-phase liquid chromatography. The
195 fractionated peptides were ionized and identified via tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS).

196

197 *Data analysis*

198 The concentration of free Cu ions in the medium was calculated using Visual MINTEQ
199 3.1. Confocal images were processed utilizing ZEISS ZEN software version 3.7. Texture
200 analysis of Cu(I)/Cu(II) confocal images was performed using the gray-level co-occurrence
201 matrix (GLCM) method with ImageJ and its plugin Texture Analyzer. Five parameters of
202 texture were calculated: angular second moment (measuring uniformity or homogeneity),
203 GLCM contrast (measuring local variation or local heterogeneity), GLCM correlation
204 (measuring linear dependency), inverse difference moment (measuring local homogeneity)
205 and entropy (measuring randomness or heterogeneity)²⁴. Statistical significance was assessed
206 through one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Fisher's Least Significant
207 Difference (LSD) test, performed using IBM SPSS Statistics version 25, with a significance
208 threshold set at $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$. Proteomic data were analyzed using the online platform
209 provided by Majorbio Cloud Platform (www.majorbio.com).

210

211 **Results and Discussion**

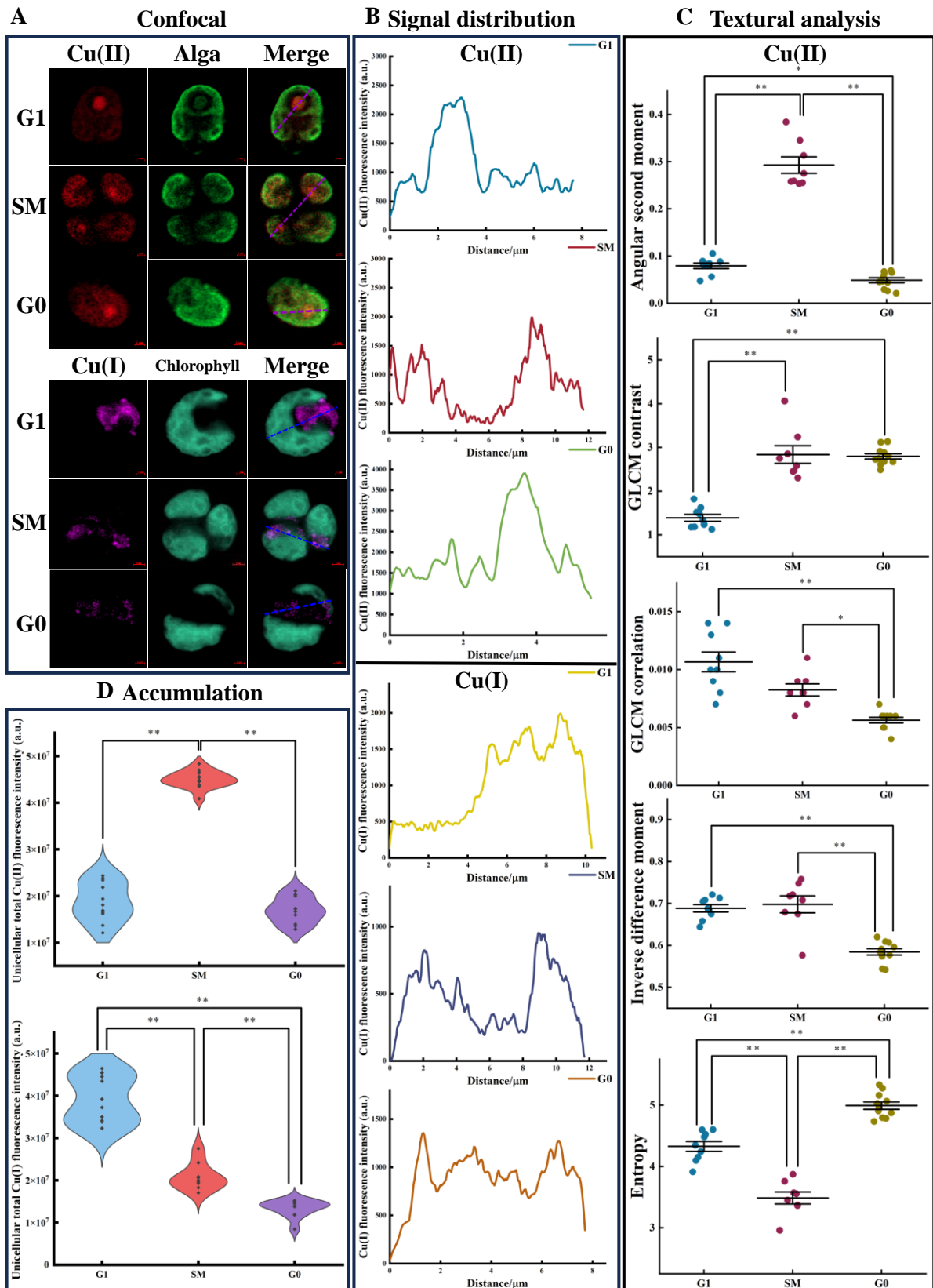
212 *Intracellular distribution of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools in green algae.*

213 The intracellular labile Cu(II) pool was firstly imaged in the unicellular green alga
214 *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* using the Cu(II)-specific probes CD649.2 in our study. Algae
215 cultured in modified TAP medium were gathered during their exponential growth period and
216 subjected to cellular staining. Confocal images revealed that the main fluorescence signals
217 were localized to an alga-specific organelle known as the pyrenoid, with additional signals
218 detected in the extensive, cup-shaped chloroplast region (Figure 1A and B, Figure S2). The

219 pyrenoid is a non-membrane-bound organelle within the chloroplast that forms through the
220 liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS) of Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase
221 (Rubisco), as illustrated in Figure S2. Rubisco plays a crucial role in the initial step of CO₂
222 fixation, and hence pyrenoid contributes to CO₂ concentrating mechanisms (CCMs) that
223 enhance photosynthesis and carbon fixation in green algae ²⁵. Penen et al. observed an
224 accumulation of Cu signals around pyrenoid region using NanoSIMS in *C. reinhardtii* ²⁶.
225 Moreover, the green algae *Oocystis nephrocystioides* demonstrated high levels of Cu
226 accumulation around the thylakoids and within the pyrenoid based on Electron Spectroscopic
227 Imaging (ESI) observations ²⁷. However, these earlier studies did not ascertain the specific
228 form of Cu ions present in the pyrenoid. Herein, for the first time, we document the
229 accumulation of the labile Cu(II) pool within the pyrenoid of *C. reinhardtii*. However, the
230 precise molecular biological role of labile Cu(II) pool within the pyrenoid requires further
231 elucidation.

232 Subsequently, we investigated the intracellular distribution of the labile Cu(I) pool using
233 the Cu(I)-specific fluorescent probe CF4. In contrast to the labile Cu(II) pool, the labile Cu(I)
234 pool was found to be enriched within several granules around the periphery of the cell or
235 within the cytoplasmic matrix (Figure 1A and B). These areas exhibited a relatively high
236 degree of overlap with the distribution of mitochondria, suggesting a spatial association
237 (Figure S3). Indeed, numerous studies have established a critical link between copper and
238 normal mitochondrial function, particularly with regard to redox regulation and respiration ²⁸.
239 Castruita et al. found that the mitochondrial cytochrome *c* oxidase COX2A/B was one of the
240 most abundant cuproprotein in transcriptome level in *C. reinhardtii*, which were integral to
241 electron transport ²⁹. In our prior study, we also confirmed that mitochondria served as the
242 ultimate subcellular repository for hyperaccumulated Cu during the SM phase ^{18,30}. In this
243 study, our fluorescence imaging further implied that the labile Cu(I) pool and Cu(II) pools
244 exhibited distinctly different enrichment patterns within green algae. Specifically, the labile
245 Cu(I) pool accumulated within cytoplasmic granules, whereas the labile Cu(II) pool was
246 concentrated within the pyrenoid and chloroplast.

247



248

249

250

251

Figure 1. Subcellular distribution of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools. (A) Confocal images show the labile Cu(II) pools and labile Cu(I) pools in different cell cycle stage. (B) Fluorescence signal distribution of labile Cu(II) and Cu(I) along the dashed line in merge channel (A). (C) GLCM

252 parameters indicate the textural properties of the labile Cu(II) signals during cell cycle. (D)
253 Violin plots describe the unicellular total Cu(II) or Cu(I) fluorescence intensity calculated
254 from confocal images of algal cells in different cell cycle stage (Representatives in A). Dots
255 represent algal cells. ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$.

256

257 *Cell cycle controlled the balance of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools in C. reinhardtii.*

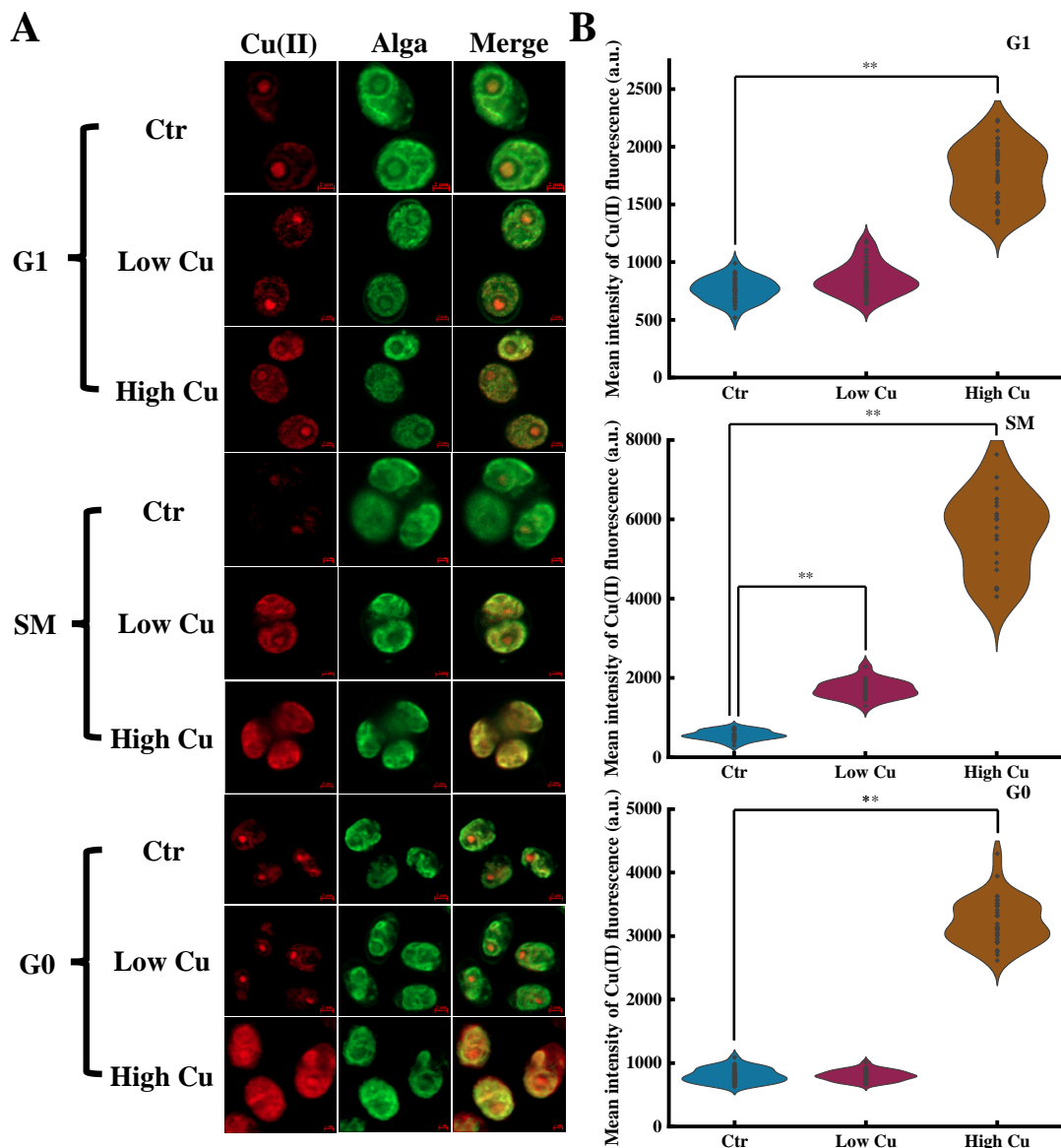
258 Earlier, we showed that cell cycle controlled the uptake and bioaccumulation of Cu in *C.*
259 *reinhartii*¹⁸. Building on this, the present study investigated the dynamic fluctuations of the
260 labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools across different cell cycle stages when no Cu stress occurred. Algae
261 were synchronized following our previous study, and algae at different cell cycle stages were
262 collected and stained¹⁸. The *Chlamydomonas* cell cycle is composed of a prolonged growth
263 phase (G phase), which allows for cell enlargement, and a succession of rapid S phases and
264 mitoses (SM phase), which facilitate the production of daughter cells, therefore we could
265 achieve a high degree of culture synchrony through the modification of light duration and
266 culture medium in a controlled laboratory setting³¹⁻³³. For the labile Cu(II) pool, fluorescence
267 signals were observed to redistribute and evenly partition across daughter cells during the SM
268 phase (Figure 1A and B). The textural analysis revealed an increase in angular second
269 moment and a decrease in entropy during the SM phase, indicative of a more uniform and
270 homogeneous distribution (Figure 1C). These and other textural parameter trends underscore
271 the intricate arrangement of labile Cu(II) throughout the cell cycle. This phenomenon was
272 potentially associated with the concurrent division of chloroplasts and equitable distribution
273 of the pyrenoid during cellular division³⁴. After cell division, the small daughter cells
274 exhibited a relatively higher intracellular Cu(II) fluorescence intensity. Intriguingly, it
275 appeared that the labile Cu(II) pool predominantly formed and accumulated during the SM
276 phase, as evidenced by the constancy of total unicellular Cu(II) fluorescence intensity during
277 the G phase and its significant elevation during the SM phase (Figure 1D). Conversely, the
278 labile Cu(I) pool demonstrated relative variability during the G phase in *C. reinhardtii*, with
279 larger cells consistently presenting elevated labile Cu(I) content (Figure 1D)³⁰. Additionally,
280 we observed rearrangement and relocation of Cu(I) fluorescence signals during the SM
281 phase, which may be correlated with mitochondrial division (Figure 1A and B)^{30,35}. Subtle
282 alterations in the textural properties of the labile Cu(I) signals during cell cycle were also
283 detected through changes in the GLCM contrast and inverse difference moment, although not
284 in angular second moment and entropy (Figure S4). Therefore, we proposed that the cell
285 cycle governed the equilibrium of the labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools. The labile Cu(II) pool
286 remained relatively stable throughout the prolonged G phase and predominantly escalated

287 during the SM phase in conjunction with cell division, while labile Cu(I) pool dynamically
288 changed during G phase as cell size increase¹⁸.

289

290 *Labile Cu(II) pool of algae in SM stage showed more sensitive to Cu stress*

291 Many studies posited the cell cycle as a pivotal factor contributing to the phenotypic
292 heterogeneity of cell populations under environmental stressors, including Cu stress. For
293 instance, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* synchronized at distinct cell cycle stages exhibited
294 heterogeneous resistance to Cu stress³⁶. Further, sustained exposure to Cu resulted in cell
295 cycle arrest during the SM phase, underscoring the impact of cell cycle variations^{37,38}.
296 Despite these observations, the mechanisms underlying these effects remain elusive,
297 particularly given the coexistence of both labile Cu(I) and Cu(II) within the cells¹². To
298 elucidate this, we collected synchronized *C. reinhardtii* at specific cell cycle stages (G0, SM
299 and G1), and exposed them to different Cu concentrations for two hours. After that,
300 fluorescence pictures of labile Cu(I) and Cu(II) pools were gathered for further analysis. It
301 could be shown that the content of labile Cu(II) pool significantly increased across all cell
302 cycle stages under high Cu stress (Figure 2). However, when the Cu concentration was lower
303 in the medium, only cells in the SM phase exhibited an increase in labile Cu(II) content,
304 indicating heightened sensitivity of the labile Cu(II) pool to environmental Cu stress during
305 SM phase. In contrast, the labile Cu(I) pool displayed a markedly different response pattern.
306 The labile Cu(I) content in cells at each cell cycle stage did not exhibit a uniform increasing
307 trend under heightened Cu stress, suggesting functional difference between those two forms
308 (Figure S5). A recent study also found differential cellular toxicity of labile Cu(I) and Cu(II)
309 using Cu-based nanoparticles, suggesting that labile Cu(II) may influence the cell cycle
310 regulation³⁹. Thus, we proposed that the heterogeneous resistance of algae at different cell
311 cycle stages to Cu stress stemmed from their disparate sensitivities to the labile Cu(II) pool.



312

313 Figure 2. (A) Labile Cu(II) images of algae in different cell cycle stage exposed to different
 314 Cu stress. (B) Violin plots describe algal mean intensity of Cu(II) fluorescence collected in
 315 images. At least 10 photos were calculated in each group. Dots represent algal cells. ** $p <$
 316 0.01 .

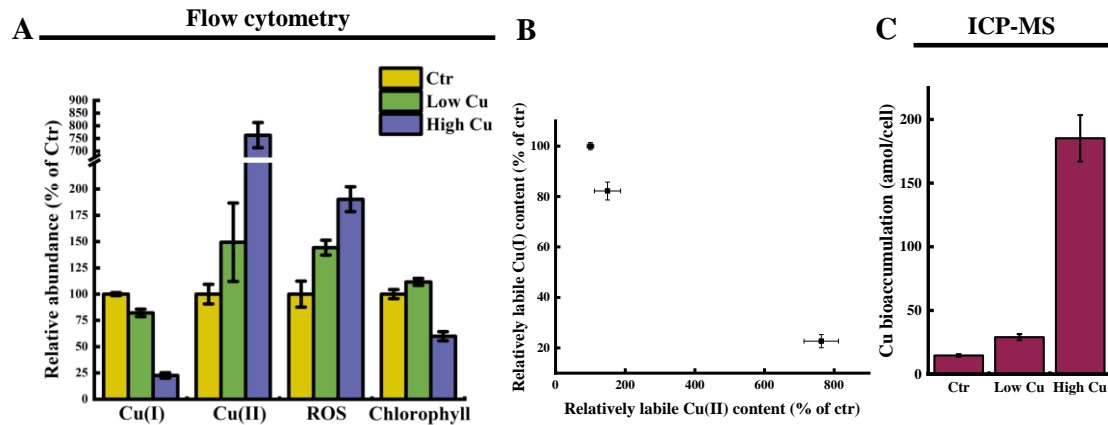
317

318 *Cu stress disrupted intracellular labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle*

319 Our results showed that labile Cu(I) and Cu(II) pools responded differently to Cu stress,
 320 as determined using imaging techniques. Given that labile Cu(I) and Cu(II) interconverted
 321 within the intracellular Cu(I)/Cu(II) redox cycle, we hypothesized that a cycle existed to
 322 maintain the balance of labile Cu(I) and Cu(II) pools, and further explored the influence of
 323 environmental Cu stress on this intracellular labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle^{12, 17}. Alga cells in the
 324 exponential growth period were collected and exposed to different Cu concentrations for 4 h.
 325 Flow cytometry was used for the relative quantification of intracellular labile Cu(I)/Cu(II)

326 contents, while ICP-MS was adopted for the absolute quantification of total Cu
327 bioaccumulation. Eukaryotic cells typically assimilated Cu(I) primarily through the high-
328 affinity Cu permease known as copper transporter 1 (CTR1, also denoted as SLC31A1).
329 Moreover, studies found that the Cu(I) uptake pathway via CTR1 was modulated in response
330 to Cu bioavailability, potentially safeguarding cells against excessive assimilation of Cu(I)
331 through the rapid internalization of CTR1 under environmental Cu stress^{18, 40-42}. In contrast,
332 the uptake pathway for Cu(II) was less well-defined. However, some studies proposed
333 divalent metal transporter 1 (DMT1, also known as Nramp2, DCT1 and SLC11A2), a H⁺ /
334 divalent metal symporter, as a Cu(II) importer^{12, 43-45}.

335 In our study, exposure to elevated environmental Cu stress precipitated a substantial
336 increase in the intracellular labile Cu(II) content, exhibiting an approximately 8-fold
337 increment compared to the ctr group; this was paralleled by a rise in unicellular Cu
338 bioaccumulation, escalating from 14 amol/cell to 185 amol/cell (Figure 2 and 3). The parallel
339 trends between labile Cu(II) pools and Cu bioaccumulation underscore the critical role that
340 labile Cu(II) pools play in the assimilation of Cu by algae. Interestingly, our prior research
341 identified a surge in Cu bioaccumulation during the SM phase of algal cell cycle, which
342 correlated with the increment in labile Cu(II) content during the SM phase in the present
343 study (Figure 1D)¹⁸. However, concomitant with the augmentation of the labile Cu(II) pool
344 was a diminution of the labile Cu(I) pool, likely attributable to an aberrant enhancement of
345 the intracellular oxidative milieu. This was further evidenced by a roughly two-fold increase
346 in ROS content within the high Cu group relative to the ctr group, which corroborated the
347 escalated intracellular oxidative stress. Our data showed that the labile Cu(I) pool decreased
348 by 80% in the high Cu stress group compared with the ctr group. Normally, the intracellular
349 labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle was equilibrated by chelators such as glutathione (GSH), the
350 metallothioneins (MTs) system, and ascorbate, which collectively fostered a conducive redox
351 environment through Fenton-like reactions⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸. Given that Cu(I) exhibited a pro-oxidant
352 property by supporting one-electron redox transitions, potentially engendering harmful
353 radical species, Cu(II) was considered the less toxic form of Cu⁴⁹. Consequently, in response
354 to environmental Cu stress, cells appeared to modulate the labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle in favor
355 of the labile Cu(II) pool as a detoxification measure. Our study strongly suggested that
356 exogenous Cu stress would break the intracellular labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle, leading to an
357 anomalous surge in labile Cu(II) content and a corresponding reduction in labile Cu(I) levels.



358

359 Figure 3. (A) Diverse fluorescent parameters measured via flow cytometry. Fluorescence
 360 intensity is normalized by dividing the average fluorescence intensity in ctr group. (B) Scatter
 361 diagram illustrates the relationship between labile Cu(I) pool and labile Cu(II) pool. (C)
 362 Unicellular total Cu bioaccumulation determined by ICP-MS. Algal cell number in samples
 363 are calculated using flow cytometry.

364

365 *Cu stress caused functional disorders in mitochondria and chloroplast*

366 Proteomic background of algae in Cu stress were analyzed to explore the possible
 367 regulation pathway involving in labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle. Functional annotation of the raw
 368 data was based on the reference proteome library of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*
 369 (UP000006906) found in the UniProt database. Overall, a total of 1387 differentially
 370 expressed proteins (DEPs), comprising 827 up-regulated proteins (URPs) and 560 down-
 371 regulated proteins (DRPs), which emerged as significantly enriched in our dataset (Figure
 372 S7). Subcellular localization predictions for DEPs indicated a predominance in mitochondria
 373 and chloroplasts, which respectively contained 18.84 % and 18.10 % of the DEPs when
 374 compared with other organelles (Figure 4A). Meanwhile, Gene Ontology (GO) terms
 375 “mitochondrial protein – containing complex” and KEGG pathway “photosynthesis” were
 376 also found to be significantly enriched, highlighting a strong correlation to the functional
 377 activities of mitochondria and chloroplasts (Figure 4B and C). Additionally, mitochondria and
 378 chlorophyll content were also influenced by Cu stress (Figure 3A)³⁰. Thus, our study
 379 indicated that Cu stress caused functional disorders in both mitochondria and chloroplast.

380 Next, we screened for candidates of putative metallothioneins within the protein
 381 annotation library and the set of DEPs using the keyword “metal ion binding”. In total, 843
 382 proteins were identified as putative metallothionein candidates, with 212 exhibiting
 383 differential expression. Notably, these differentially expressed putative metallothioneins
 384 displayed distinct expression pattern: subcluster 1, comprising 99 proteins, was down-
 385 regulated, whereas subcluster 2, consisting of 113 proteins, was up-regulated in the Cu group

386 (Figure 4D and E). Subsequently, we conducted a gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) on
387 the putative metallothionein protein set, using the protein annotation library from this study
388 as a priori defined protein set S⁵⁰. The GSEA revealed that the GO term “GO:0051536 iron-
389 sulfur cluster binding” —which pertains to the binding of iron-sulfur clusters, an amalgam of
390 iron and sulfur atoms—was significantly down-regulated in the Cu group (p-value = 0.021,
391 normalized enrichment score (NES) = -1.141). Correspondingly, the GO term “GO:0005507
392 Cu ion binding” was significantly up-regulated in the Cu group (p-value = 0.034, NES =
393 1.544), suggesting diverse responses of metal species binding proteins to the imbalance of the
394 labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle (Figure 5A and B). Intriguingly, a Venn diagram comparison of the
395 differentially expressed putative metallothionein subclusters and the core enrichment protein
396 set (also referred to as the leading-edge subset) from the GSEA of GO:0005507 revealed that
397 more than half of the core enrichment proteins associated with copper ion binding were not
398 differentially expressed in the Cu group. However, the GSEA indicated that these proteins
399 played a significant role in the up-regulation of the GO term “GO:0005507” (Figure 5C).
400 Previous study also confirmed the abnormal regulation of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle under Fe
401 deficiency and Zn deficiency, thus we inferred that the regulation of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pool
402 was tightly correlated to the labile pool of other transient metal ions, such as iron¹⁷.

403

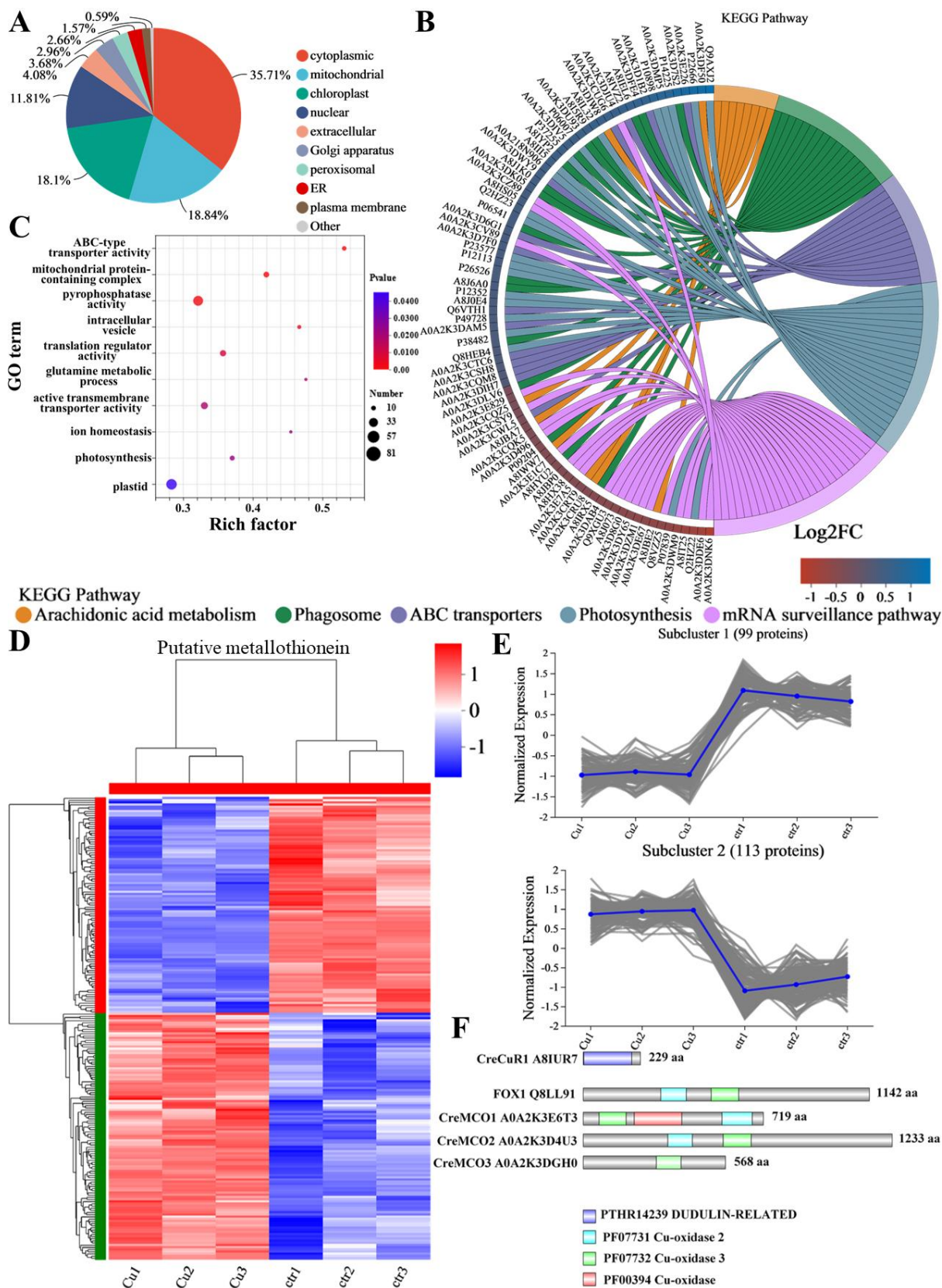
404 *A novel cytoplasmic cupric reductase and multicopper oxidases annotated involved in*
405 *regulation of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle*

406 Notably, a putative cupric reductase (UniProt accession number: *A8IUR7*, named
407 CreCuR1 in this study) was identified as it was categorized under the GO term “GO:
408 0008823 cupric reductase activity”, and subcellular localization prediction analysis revealed
409 that it was a cytoplasmic protein. Further sequence domain analysis conducted on the Pfam
410 platform showed that CreCuR1 aligned with the DUDULIN-RELATED (PTHR14239)
411 family in the PANTHER knowledgebase (Figure 4F and S9). Orthologs of this family in
412 mammals, such as Steap2-4, and the analogous yeast FRE proteins, have functional roles as
413 cupric reductases⁵¹⁻⁵³. Typically, cupric reductases are localized to the plasma membrane
414 where they facilitate the reduction of Cu(II) to Cu(I), subsequently delivering Cu(I) to the
415 copper transporter CTR in conjunction with the dehydrogenation of NAD(P)H. However,
416 recent studies also provided evidence for the existence of cytoplasmic cupric reductases and
417 their role in maintaining the intracellular labile Cu(I) pool^{54,55}. Although CreCuR1 did not
418 exhibit a significant fold change (FC = 0.883) to be classified as a DEP, protein-protein
419 interaction network analysis (PPI-Net) revealed direct interactions with COX2A/B (*Q9AYR9*

420 and *Q9AU05*) and FOX1 (*Q8LL91*), and indirect interactions with other core copper-binding
421 proteins, including the Cu(I) importers CTR1/2 (Figure 5D). COX2 is an integral membrane
422 subunit of cytochrome *c* oxidase that plays a role in respiration within the inner mitochondrial
423 membrane, where labile Cu(I) signals accumulate. FOX1 was known as a multicopper
424 ferroxidase necessary for iron assimilation and was one of the most transcriptionally
425 abundant cuproproteins in *Chlamydomonas*⁵⁶. Thus, our results suggested that this novel
426 cytoplasmic cupric reductase, CreCuR1, may be involved in sustaining the intracellular labile
427 Cu(I) pool.

428 FOX1 is a multicopper oxidase (MCO) that has been extensively studied in
429 *Chlamydomonas* and is associated with the Cu chaperone ATX1 and a Cu(I)-transporting P-
430 type ATPase (*A0A2K3CU24*, referred to as CTP1 in this study) through the secretory pathway
431 for Cu handling⁵⁷. MCOs are a diverse group of enzymes that typically incorporate four Cu
432 atoms—one type I Cu, one type II Cu, and a pair of type III Cu centers—and utilize Cu ions
433 as cofactors to catalyze the oxidation of substrates such as phenols, bilirubin, and ascorbate
434⁵⁸. Furthermore, the Cu efflux oxidase (CueO) subcluster of the MCO family was believed to
435 confer Cu tolerance in bacteria by oxidizing the more toxic Cu(I) to the less reactive Cu(II),
436 thereby protecting periplasmic proteins⁵⁹. Yeast multicopper ferroxidase Fet3 and human
437 ceruloplasmin, also members of the MCO family, were confirmed to possess robust catalysts
438 of the oxidation of Cu(I) to Cu(II), and involved in maintaining the steady-state level of Cu(I)
439 content^{60,61}. In our study, PPI-Net analysis revealed that FOX1 directly interacted with CTP2
440 and CTP4 (*A0A2K3D9E7* and *A0A2K3D994*, respectively), which were involved in
441 delivering Cu to plastocyanin for photosynthesis in the thylakoid lumen. It also interacted
442 with the mitochondrial Cu-binding metallochaperone SCO1 and COX2A/B, which were
443 implicated in respiration and the electron transport chain in the mitochondrial inner
444 membrane, as well as with the Cu(I) importer CTR1, suggesting a role for FOX1 in the labile
445 Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle (Figure 5D)⁶². Beyond FOX1, three additional proteins were annotated as
446 putative MCOs in our study, identified by their structural Cu oxidase domains present in the
447 Pfam platform—CreMCO1 (*A0A2K3E6T3*), CreMCO2 (*A0A2K3D4U3*), and CreMCO3
448 (*A0A2K3DGH0*; Figure 4F). CreMCO1 and CreMCO2 were notably up-regulated in the Cu-
449 treated group. The PPI-Net analysis indicated that both CreMCO1 and CreMCO2 directly
450 interacted with CTP1/2/4 and SCO1. However, CreMCO3 did not show significant
451 enrichment, suggesting functional divergence among the MCOs (Figure 5D). Significantly,
452 CreMCO2 was also found to directly interact with CTR2, another membrane-localized Cu(I)
453 importer in *Chlamydomonas*⁴¹, highlighting a potentially intricate network of Cu trafficking

454 and labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle mediated by these MCOs.



455

456 Figure 4. (A) Pie chart describes the subcellular localization annotation of DEPs. (B) Chord
 457 diagram visualizes the top 5 KEGG pathways enriched in KEGG enrichment analysis. DEPs
 458 in those KEGG pathways are listed in the left sorting by log₂FC value. (C) Bubble diagram

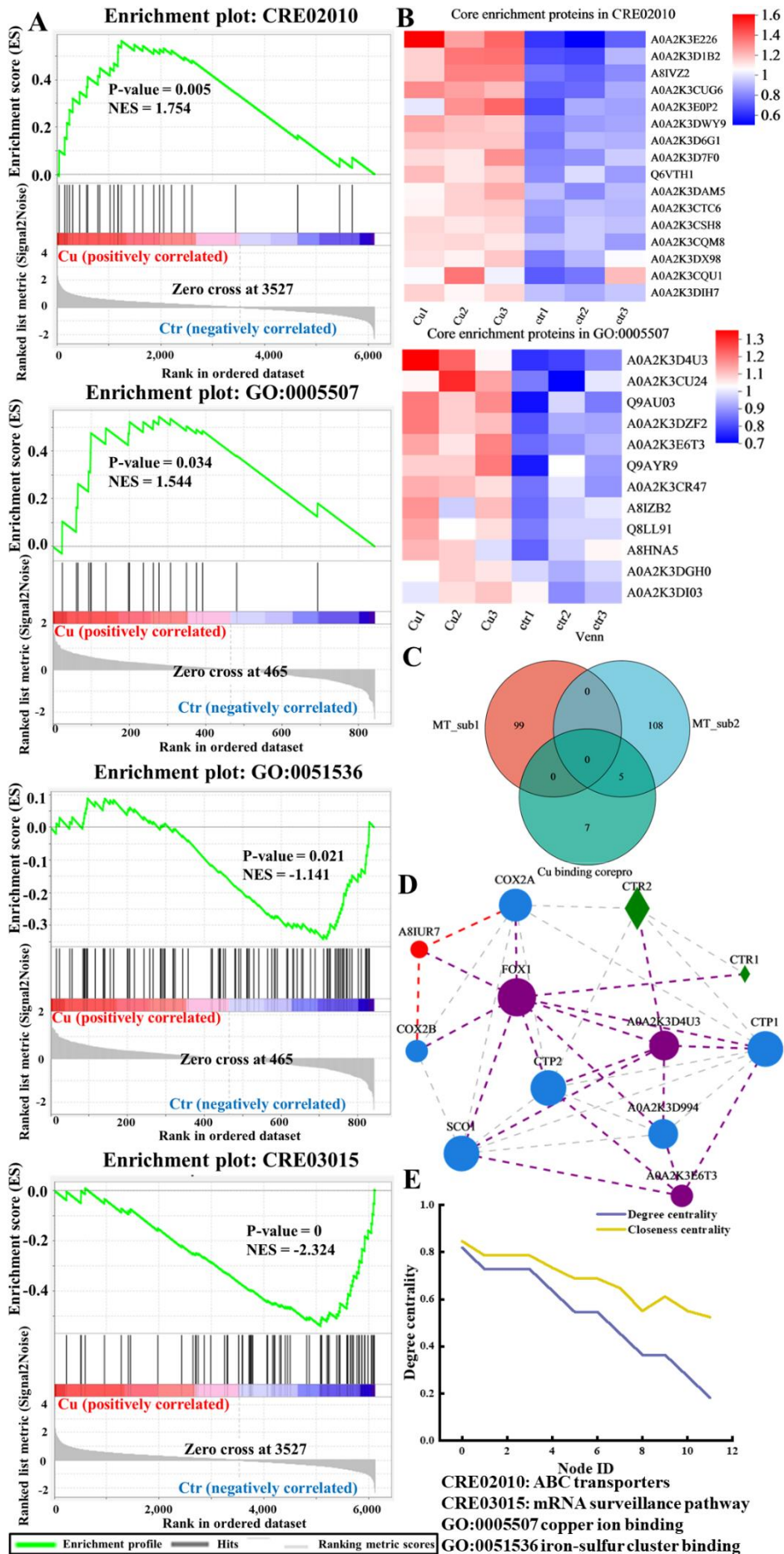
459 exhibits part of GO terms significantly enriched in Gene Ontology Enrichment analysis.
460 Clustering heatmap (D) shows the expression pattern of 212 deduced metallothionein, and
461 line charts (E) show the expression tendency of putative metallothionein in two subclusters.
462 Each gray line represents one member protein, and the blue line indicates the average
463 expression level of proteins in the subcluster. (F) Diagram demonstrates the protein domain
464 of CreCuR1, FOX1, CreMCO1/2/3.
465

466 *ABC transporters worked in the balance of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle*

467 Our study found significant enrichment of ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters
468 among DEPs, as indicated by GO terms and KEGG pathway enrichment analyses
469 (GO:0140359 “ABC-type transporter activity” and cre02010 “ABC transporters”,
470 respectively; Figure 4B and C). This suggested a role for ABC transporters in the balance of
471 the labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle. ABC transporters constitute a broad family of proteins that
472 facilitate the transport of a variety of substrates, powered by ATP hydrolysis. Many studies
473 emphasized the relationship between ABC transporters and Cu stress across different species
474 ⁶³⁻⁶⁵. Thus, we conducted a GSEA specifically on the KEGG pathway item cre02010 “ABC
475 transporters”. This pathway was found to be significantly activated in the Cu-exposed group
476 (p-value = 0.005, NES = 1.754), with sixteen putative ABC transporters identified as leading-
477 edge proteins, underscoring their potential importance (Figures 5A and B). One of these,
478 CDS1 (*Q6VTH1*), was identified as a mitochondrial ABC transporter known to be involved in
479 cadmium tolerance ⁶⁶. Although the functional annotation of the remaining fifteen putative
480 ABC transporters is not well understood, our subcellular localization analysis predicted their
481 distribution across various organelles—including mitochondria, chloroplasts, the Golgi
482 apparatus, and the endoplasmic reticulum (Table S4). This suggested a potential role for these
483 transporters in trafficking the intracellular labile Cu pools.

484 Oxidative stress often triggers cellular functional disorders at various levels. The
485 imbalance of intracellular labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) cycle was also followed by oxidative stress
486 described above (Figure 3A). Besides, KEGG pathway item mRNA surveillance pathway
487 (CRE03015) was also significantly enriched in our study (Figure 4B). This pathway
488 represents a quality control mechanism that detects and degrades aberrant mRNAs, thereby
489 preventing the translation of potentially harmful proteins. Previous research showed that
490 disruption of the mRNA surveillance pathway could lead to increased protein aggregation in
491 yeast ⁶⁷. In our study, GSEA revealed that the mRNA surveillance pathway was also
492 suppressed in the Cu-exposed group (p-value = 0, NES = -2.324; Figure 5A). This
493 suppression could potentially result in increased abnormal protein formation and protein
494 aggregation. Furthermore, KEGG pathway (like cre00590 arachidonic acid metabolism) and

495 GO term (like GO:0006541 glutamine metabolic process) involved in the immune system
496 function, were also significantly enriched, supporting the occurrence of immune response
497 under Cu stress (Figure 4B and C).



499 Figure 5. (A) GSEA results of GO terms and KEGG pathways. (B) Heatmaps show the
500 expression pattern of leading-edge subsets enriched in GSEA. (C) Venn diagram compares
501 the putative metallothionein subclusters and leading-edge subset enriched in the GSEA of
502 GO:0005507. (D) Protein interaction network diagram shows the interaction between cupric
503 reductase, multiCu oxidases and other core proteins in Cu influx and efflux system. (E)
504 Distribution map of nodes centrality in PPI-Net (D). Node represents protein. Degree
505 centrality describes the number of edges incident upon a node. Closeness centrality describes
506 the average path length of one node to other nodes in PPI-Net.
507

508 Our study demonstrated for the first time that labile Cu(I) and Cu(II) pools exhibited
509 different intracellular distributions in algal cells, and that the cell cycle regulated the
510 rearrangement of labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools throughout growth and proliferation. We observed
511 that the labile Cu(II) pool in the SM stage was more sensitive to environmental Cu stress.
512 Furthermore, exposure to Cu stress disrupted the balance of the intracellular Cu(I)/Cu(II)
513 cycle, shifting the dynamics towards an increased labile Cu(II) pool alongside a concomitant
514 decrease in the labile Cu(I) pool. Mechanistically, our proteomic analysis suggested that a
515 novel cytoplasmic cupric reductase and multicopper oxidases may contribute to the
516 intracellular transformation between labile Cu(I) and Cu(II). Cu as a representative transition
517 metal orchestrates the normal cellular function, but becomes toxic if overloaded. Previous
518 studies primarily focused on determining the intracellular Cu quota as a measure of
519 bioaccumulation to assess toxicity, often overlooking the heterogeneous response of different
520 Cu species. Our study concentrated on the labile Cu(I)/Cu(II) pools—those fractions of the
521 Cu quota that are accessible to the external environment—and confirmed their traceable
522 response to Cu stress. Our results provided a novel perspective for future studies in
523 environmental toxicology, emphasizing the importance of considering labile metal pools in
524 the assessment of metal toxicity.

525

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530

531 **Supporting information**

532 Enlarged optical micrograph and diagram illustrates the subcellular structure of green algae
533 *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. Subcellular distribution of mitochondria in algal cells. Textural
534 analysis of the labile Cu(I) signals during cell cycle. Labile Cu(I) images of algae in different
535 cell cycle stage collected under Cu stress. Identification and analysis of the raw data of
536 proteome. PCA analysis representing the variation of translational background in samples.

537 Volcano map showing the DEPs identified in proteome data. Upset diagram showing the
538 functional annotation of identified proteins to different databases. Heatmap illustrating the
539 expression pattern of all DEPs identified in this study. Functionally conserved domains and
540 motifs of CreCUR1 and HsaSteap2-4. Table lists the composition of different medium. Tables
541 about the node information and nodes centrality in protein-protein interaction network.
542 Subcellular localization analysis of 16 core candidates of ABC transporter enriched in GSEA.
543

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