

1 Biological Switches: past and future milestones of transcription factor-based 2 biosensors

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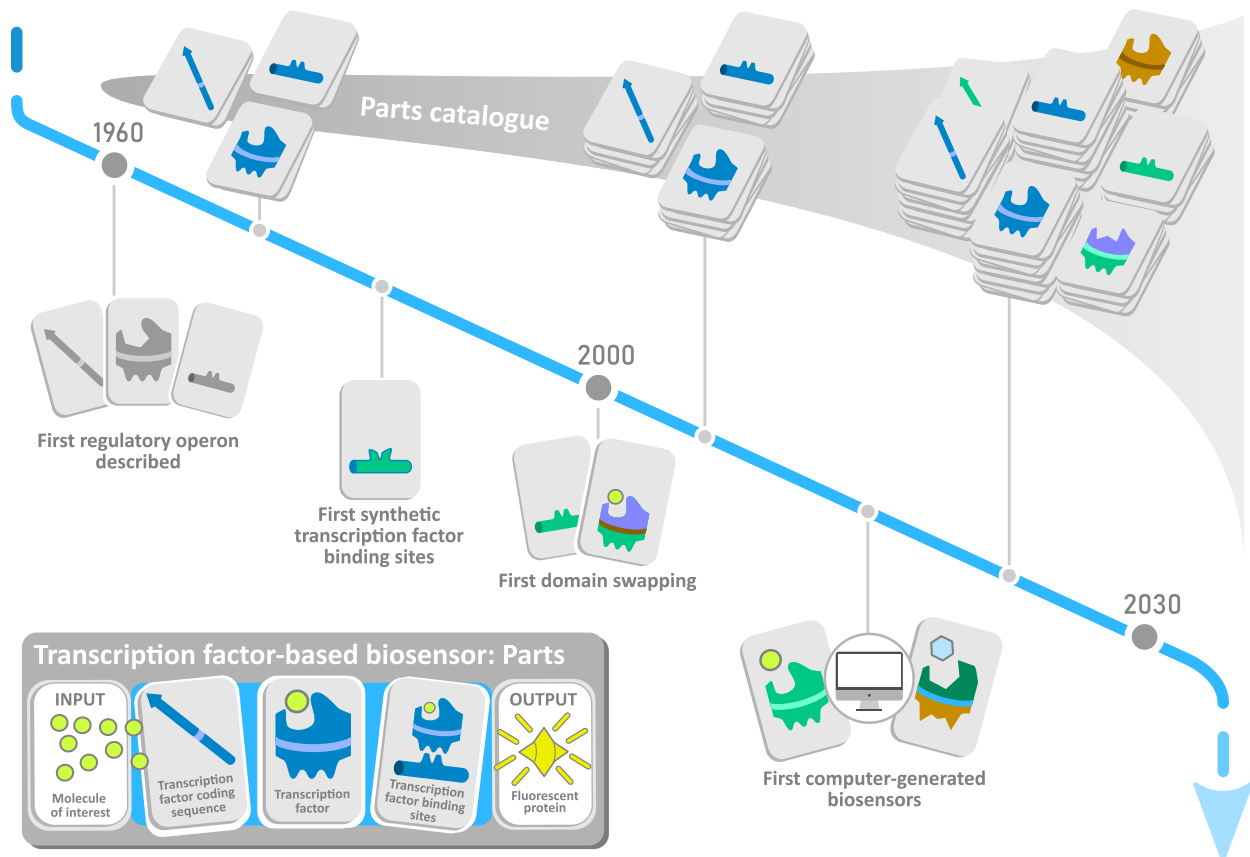
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10 Abstract

11 Since the description of the *lac* operon in 1961 by Jacob and Monod, transcriptional regulation in
12 prokaryotes has been studied extensively and has led to the development of transcription factor-based
13 biosensors. Due to the broad variety of detectable small molecules and their various applications across
14 biotechnology, biosensor research and development increased exponentially over the past decades.
15 Throughout this period, key milestones in fundamental knowledge, synthetic biology, analytical tools, and
16 computational learning have led to an immense expansion of the biosensor repertoire and its application
17 portfolio. Over the years, biosensor engineering became a more multi-disciplinary discipline, combining
18 high-throughput analytical tools, DNA randomization strategies, forward engineering and advanced
19 protein engineering workflows. Despite these advances, many obstacles remain to fully unlock the
20 potential of biosensor technology. This review analyzes the timeline of key milestones on fundamental
21 research (1960s to 2000s) and engineering strategies (2000s onward), on both the DNA and protein level
22 of biosensors. Moreover, insights into the future perspectives, remaining hurdles and unexplored
23 opportunities of this promising field are discussed.



Keywords: Biosensors, transcription factor, historical overview, inducible systems, prokaryotes, engineering strategies, computational techniques

Introduction

Extending from the earliest civilizations to the 21st century, any progress in scientific exploration, research, and engineering has been rooted in the principle of scientific observation. In other words, a clear and intricate link is present between the advancement of engineering disciplines and the progress in the field of measurement devices – or sensors -, enabling the imperative steps in the design-build-test-learn cycle. On the one hand, the development of increasingly precise and accurate sensors opens the door to a more detailed, profound understanding of nature which in turn facilitates higher control over various engineering parameters. On the other hand, envisioning new science and engineering objectives

necessitates the development of new sensors, tailored to specific performance criteria to make the desired innovation feasible. This tandem continuously boosts progress in all fields of research and development. This principle holds true in the field of bio-engineering and synthetic biology at least as strongly as it does in other engineering disciplines ¹.

Classic analytic techniques such as (detector-coupled) chromatography, mass spectrometry, X-ray crystallography, capillary electrophoresis, nucleic acid sequencing, and immunological techniques have greatly expanded our understanding of biological systems. Besides boosting fundamental knowledge and biotechnological applications, this increasingly in-depth understanding also paved the way for the development of biological sensors, *i.e.*, using biological components such as metabolites, DNA sequences, proteins, and microbial cells to build sensor devices instead of pure physical and/or chemical components. Biological components bring specific advantages to the sensor-building table as they inherently function on the same scale, sense more direct, allow for less or no destructive analytical workflows and enhance portability and miniaturization ²⁻⁷.

One of the most interesting and diverse biological parts in nature's repertoire is the prokaryotic transcription factor (TF) from the widespread one-component transcriptional regulatory systems ^{8,9}. These proteins contain two domains: (i) a ligand-binding domain (LBD) which binds a specific small ligand molecule of interest and (ii) a DNA-binding domain which binds to a specific DNA sequence (*i.e.*, TF binding sites, TFBS) to exert control over transcription of a specific output gene of choice in a concentration-dependent manner (see Figure 1) ^{3-5,10-12}. Therefore, to build a TF-based biological sensor, generally a (genome-) or plasmid-based genetic circuit is constructed (or altered) comprising two operons: (i) a detector module expresses the TF which detects the ligand of interest and (ii) an effector module holds the TFBS and control elements to regulate the transcription of the output gene of choice (see Figure 1) ^{3-5,10-12}. This output gene can code for a fluorescent protein to allow for easy detection and quantification of the sensor output, an antibiotic resistance gene to allow for live-dead screening, an enzyme to allow

for metabolic influences or many other options⁶. As these transcription factors are able to sense all types of triggers such as sugars, amino acids, metal ions, antibiotics, fatty acids, specialized plant metabolites, and even pH, temperature, oxygen, osmotic pressure, and light, it is evident that bolstering these parts to build biological sensors opens up a world of possibilities in biotechnology, environmental monitoring, medical diagnostics and beyond^{3–6,10–12}.

These transcription regulatory systems are so-called one-component systems, *i.e.*, a single transcription factor detects the ligand molecule and transduces the resulting signal. In two-component systems, an additional protein transduces the signal through phosphorylation^{13,14}. Many of these systems are involved in sensing and transducing extracellular signals, having the intrinsic advantage of circumventing any transport requirements of specific molecules of interest. Moreover, many global regulators, *e.g.* involved in stress response, are two-component systems, creating additional biosensor opportunities. Although two-components systems have been exploited for these biosensor opportunities, one-component systems demonstrate a higher abundance with a much broader diversity in sequences, TF structures, and ligands to be sensed^{15–19}. This vast richness of TFs is the perfect foundation for biosensor development with many successful applications and corresponding engineering strategies throughout history, and therefore the focus of this review article^{15,20–23}.

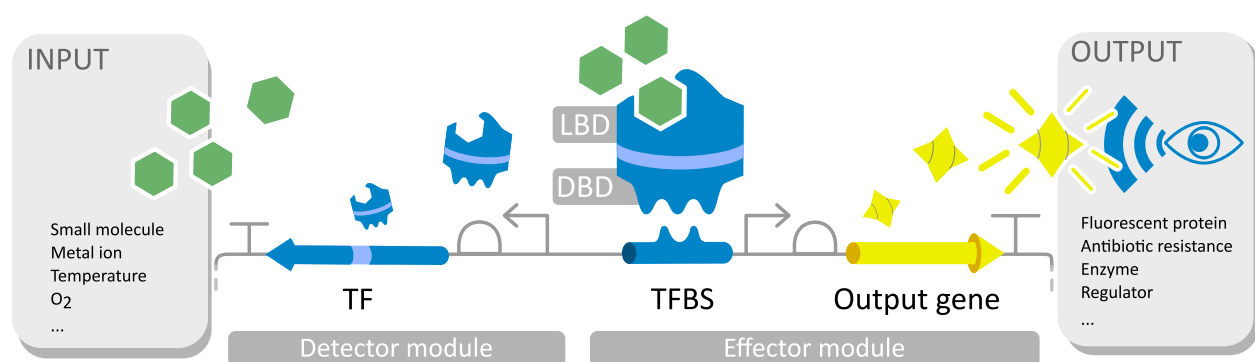


Figure 1: Schematic representation of a transcription factor-based biological sensor. Inputs of such biosensors can range from small molecules over metal ions to physical conditions such as temperature. In general, a biosensor circuit consists of a detector

module and effector module. Through genetic control from a promoter and ribosome binding site (RBS) sequence (see SBOL symbols), the detector module expresses the transcription factor gene (TF). The TF detects the input of interest with its ligand-binding domain (LBD) which causes a conformational change. This change alters the interaction of its DNA-binding domain with the transcription factor binding sites (TFBS) in the effector module and, therefore, regulates transcription of the output gene. This module also holds the necessary promoter and RBS sequences to control the expression of the output gene of choice such as a fluorescent protein, antibiotic resistance gene, enzyme of interest or another regulatory element. Adapted with permission from Demeester *et al.* ¹².

The biosensor repertoire, corresponding development strategies and resulting applications have come a long way since the first description of an inducible promoter by Jacob and Monod in 1961 ^{24,25}. Over the past 60 years, many diverse and transformative milestones, in- and outside the field of biology, have contributed to boosting the promising field of biosensor technology. This review will provide an overview of key milestones, future opportunities, and remaining obstacles to illustrate the impact of biosensor technology. For a comprehensive overview of the various successful applications of biosensors, please see the recent reviews of Moraskie *et al.* and Chaisupa and Wright ^{6,266}.

1960s to 2000s- Expansion of fundamental knowledge

Following the discovery of the DNA double helix structure in 1953 ²⁶ and, in the subsequent years, the unraveling of the link between genes and protein synthesis, the introduction of the operon concept in 1961 by Jacob and Monod truly marked the start of focused research on inducible systems ^{24,25,27}. This work on the lactose-inducible *lac* operon in *Escherichia coli* paved the way for understanding transcriptional regulatory systems and added the extra layer of gene regulation to the central dogma of molecular biology. They described the response curve, or input/output relationship, and ligand specificity of this inducible system, the two fundamental characteristics of a biosensor. Together with the description of the triptych: (i) transcription factor (TF), (ii) transcription factor binding sites (TFBSs) and (iii) ligand molecule, they established the framework wherein biosensors and their parts will be studied, developed

and characterized in the decades after. For a historical overview of the milestones that were foundational for biosensor research (1950s - 2000s), please see Figure 2.

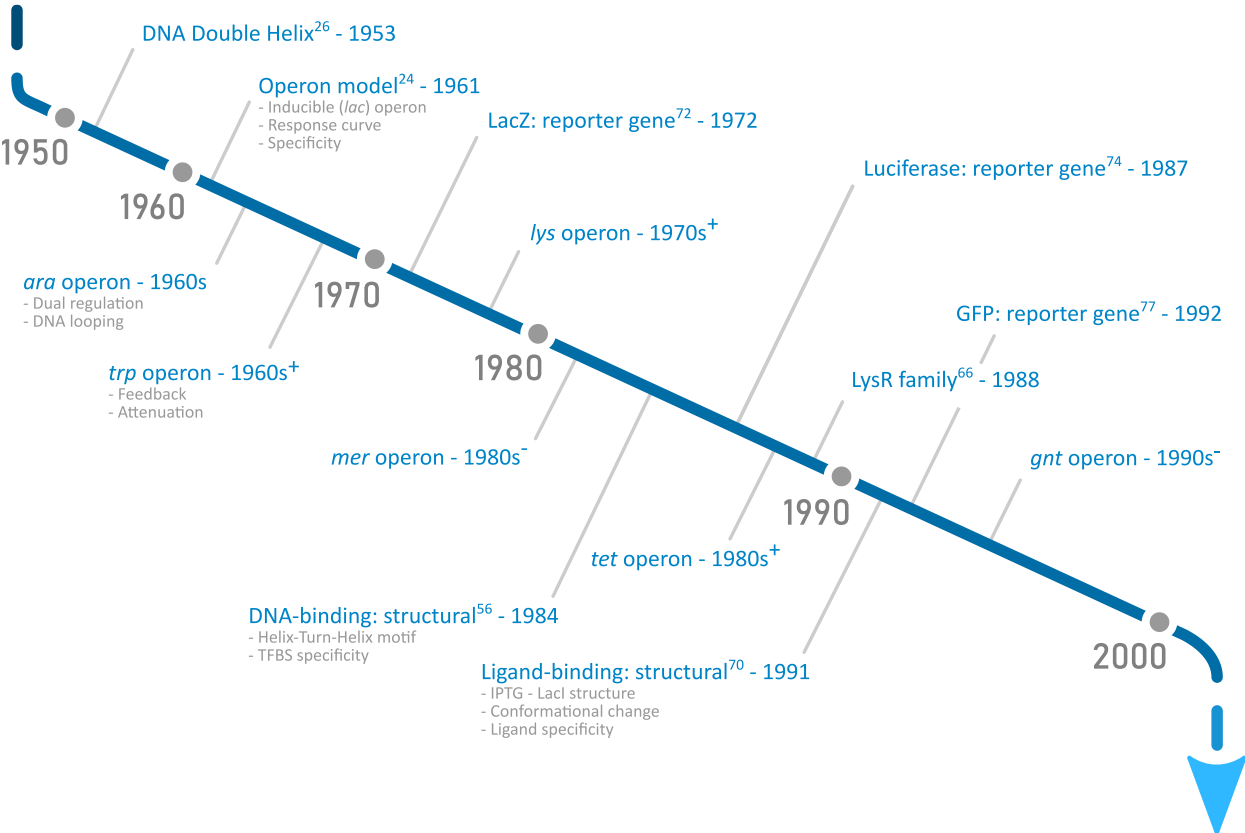


Figure 2: Schematic timeline from the 1950s to the 2000s, highlighting key milestones on the expansion of fundamental knowledge on inducible circuits, foundational to biosensor technology. Specific milestones include keywords representing significant advancements or concepts introduced. DNA = deoxyribonucleic acid, TFBS = transcription factor binding site, IPTG = isopropyl, GFP = Green Fluorescent Protein, 19XXs⁻ = early 19XXs, 19XXs⁺ = late 19XXs.

Genetic architecture (DNA level) Shortly after the work of Jacob and Monod on the *lac* operon, the repertoire of, and knowledge on, inducible circuits already started to expand through the studies on the arabinose-inducible *araBAD* operon^{28–32} and the tryptophan-inducible *trp* operon^{33–40}, from the 1960s onward. Until the study of the *araBAD* operon, negative regulation (repression/de-repression) was the dominant model, as exemplified by the *lac* operon and the Lambda phage repressor³². However, it was discovered that the *araBAD* operon is regulated in a positive, even dual regulatory manner^{32,41,42}. More

specifically, the AraC TF functionally represses transcription in the absence of arabinose and functionally activates transcription in the presence of arabinose. This regulation occurs through a DNA looping mechanism, which was unraveled later in 1984 through TFBS deletions and *in vitro* TF-DNA binding experiments^{32,43}. With accumulating studies, this DNA looping and dual regulation appeared to be widespread throughout nature^{44,45}. The tryptophan-regulated *trp* operon also played a pivotal role in biosensor development, serving as the first example of both the concept of feedback inhibition and that of transcriptional attenuation^{34–36}. By studying these two concepts in the 1970s and 1980s, Yanofsky and his team shed more light on the complexity of transcriptional regulatory networks as well as the intricate interplay of DNA and RNA, respectively^{34–37,39,40}. During the same period, molecular biology tools such as plasmids and restriction enzymes⁴⁶, and Sanger sequencing in 1977⁴⁷ boosted biological research even further. In a second wave of operon studies, the *lys* operon in the late 1970s^{48,49}, the *mer* operon in the early 1980s^{50–52}, the *tet* operon in the late 1980s⁵³, and the *gnt* operon in the early 1990s^{54,55} were studied extensively. This research deepened our understanding of the broad repertoire of transcriptional regulatory mechanisms, the diversity of triggers, ranging from environmental signals to central metabolites and the mechanisms of antimicrobial and metal resistance.

Transcription factor structure (protein level) For all these inducible operons, the control elements, TFBS sequences, and corresponding TF amino acid sequences were systematically annotated. It was only in the period between 1980 and 1983 that the first three-dimensional structures of site-specific DNA-binding proteins were published, namely for the three prokaryotic TFs, Cro and cI Lambda phage repressor proteins and the CAP protein of *E. coli*^{56–62}. In 1984, based on the combined information of these available TFBSs and 3D TF structures, Pabo and Sauer proposed the helix-turn-helix (HTH) motif as the key structure responsible for DNA-binding in these proteins⁵⁶. Subsequent sequence and secondary structure analysis of regulators throughout nature revealed that this HTH motif is common in all domains of life and is the

most prevalent DNA-binding motif in prokaryotes, especially in transcription factors^{63,64}. This structural data aided immensely in the following studies for DNA-binding specificity and regulatory mechanisms.

Because these DNA-binding domains are conserved, their sequence similarities form the basis of TF family designation, with the first characterized member giving its name to the family⁹. The LysR, MerR, TetR, GntR, AraC/GalR, LacI, LuxR, and many other families were defined in the late 1980s and 1990s, with their numbers expanding rapidly in the decades thereafter^{15,65–69}. Established in 1988 as one of the first TF families, the LysR family is now the largest with over 852,000 predicted structures, demonstrating a vast diversity of ligand molecules to be sensed¹⁵. LysR family members can even account for up to 20% of all regulators in a bacterial genome^{15,66}. Categorizing transcription factors into families enhances our understanding of their evolutionary relationships, aids in predicting their functions, and strengthens design strategies for biosensors. Genomic studies on TFs revealed that prokaryotes have the most divergent and numerous transcriptional regulatory systems in nature, especially for small molecule-binding TFs, emphasizing their importance for expanding the biosensor repertoire^{8,9}.

The next advancement in the field of TF structural research was the first crystal structure of a TF-ligand complex, namely that of the LacI repressor in complex with its inducer, isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG), elucidated in 1991⁷⁰. Besides confirming the presence of the HTH motif in LacI, this study revealed the conformational changes that occur when tetrameric LacI binds IPTG and how this process regulates transcriptional activation⁷⁰. Structural knowledge on ligand-binding domains, and more specifically ligand-binding pockets, of TFs is invaluable for rational protein engineering strategy to alter or enhance the molecular specificity of TFs, and therefore biosensors^{3,71}.

Reporter genes Development of sensitive, fast, cheap, non-invasive and easy-to-measure reporter genes is critical for biosensor development, and biological research in general. Before the discovery and omnipresent use of fluorescent proteins, other various systems were developed and used to study

transcriptional regulation. Besides the gained knowledge on the architecture and mechanism of action, the initial studies on the *lac operon* also introduced the *lacZ* gene, expressing the β -galactosidase enzyme²⁴. In 1972, Miller published the first use of this enzyme as a measurable readout for gene expression which quickly became, and still is, a widely used reporter gene in all biological disciplines⁷². More specifically, this colorimetric assay allows for the quantification of gene expression with *O*-nitrophenyl- β -D-galactoside (ONPG) as substrate to be converted into a yellow color⁷². In 1979, Casadaban and Cohen used the *lacZ* gene for the first time as a reporter for gene expression and hinted at its use for functional and mutational studies of transcription⁷³.

A decade later, a new important player in the field of reporter genes was introduced in 1987 with the discovery and use of luciferase genes from the firefly *Photinus pyralis* which generates light after conversion of a specific substrate, *e.g.*, luciferin⁷⁴. This reporter gene allows for higher sensitivity and real-time monitoring of gene expression⁷⁴. Although other reporters like chloramphenicol acyltransferase from 1982⁷⁵ and alkaline phosphatase from 1985⁷⁶ have their value, a true reporter revolution was ushered in 1992 by the work of Chalfie and coworkers⁷⁷. In their Nobel prize-winning research, the green fluorescent protein (GFP) from *Aequorea Victoria* was used in *E. coli* and *Caenorhabditis elegans* as a fully self-sufficient genetic reporter⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹. GFP was rapidly adopted throughout all biological research disciplines for precisely studying gene expression dynamics and patterns, protein localization, and molecular interactions through protein fusions, and much more, in live cells^{77,79}. Within only a few years, researchers such as Tsien and coworkers created mutated versions of GFP with different fluorescence spectra, efficiencies, and stabilities⁷⁹. This led to the development of an ever-expanding family of fluorescent proteins (FPs) with diverse characteristics, facilitating applications such as experimental setups with multiple readouts⁸⁰⁻⁸². In 1996, GFP was used for the first time as genetic output of an inducible system⁸³. More specifically, the IPTG-inducible *lac* system was used to screen for GFP reporter mutants demonstrating optimized fluorescence using fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS)⁸³. A year later, the same set-up was used for

high-throughput selection of transcriptionally active promoter regions induced by specific macrophage triggers, demonstrating its use for mining biosensor parts⁸⁴. Since its invention in 1976 and subsequent optimization in the decades after⁸⁵, FACS has proven to be a highly valuable tool in biosensor-based strategies, for both developing biosensors and applying them in high-throughput screening set-ups^{4,5,86}.

2000s onward- Engineering biosensor circuits for custom characteristics

Based on all this foundational work, researchers started to explore and build new, synthetic inducible circuits, unlocking the potential of biosensor technology. With the development of the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) in 1983, the rise of automated sequencing, improved computational tools in the mid-1990s, and the continuous increase in throughput in biological research in general, the expansion of our catalog of biological parts and our understanding of them surged from the 2000s onward^{27,87,88}. For a historical overview of the milestones that advanced biosensor engineering from the 1990s onward, please see Figure 3.

As stated earlier, a biosensor consists of multiple parts, both on the DNA level and the protein level, *i.e.*, promoters, ribosome binding sites (RBSs), transcription factor binding sites (TFBSs) as well as the transcription factors (TFs) and their domains^{2,3}. Since the discovery and study of the *lac* operon, researchers have been altering these parts, primarily to gain fundamental insights of the underlying biological mechanisms^{24,89}. Since the 1990s, these biosensor parts were being modified to modulate the two key biosensor characteristics, *i.e.*, response curve and ligand specificity, in a variety of ways to meet the researcher's needs^{3-5,11,90}.

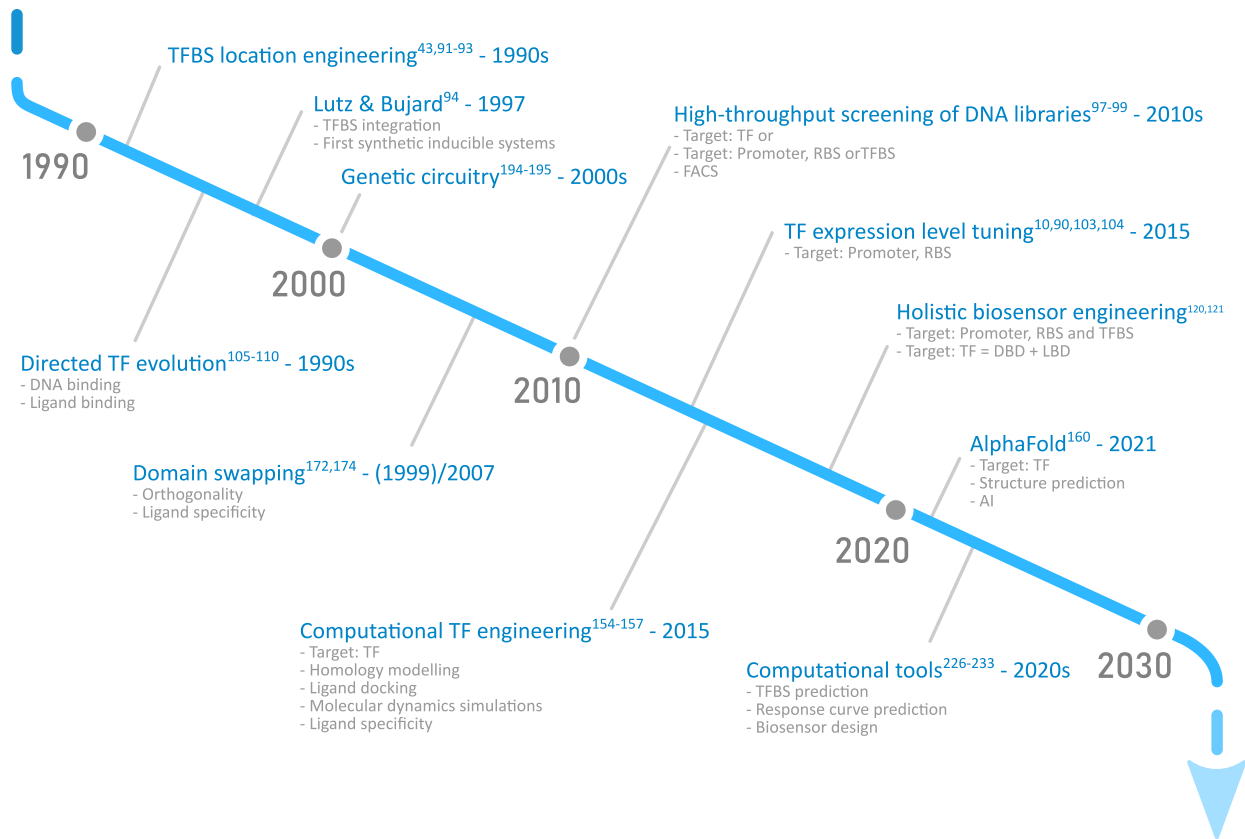


Figure 3: Schematic timeline from the 1990s onward, highlighting key milestones on the engineering of biosensors for custom characteristics such as response curve and ligand specificity. Specific milestones include keywords representing significant advancements or concepts introduced. TF = transcription factor, TFBS = transcription factor binding site, LBD = Ligand-binding domain, DBD = DNA-binding domain, RBS = ribosome binding site, AI = artificial intelligence, FACS = fluorescence-activated cell sorting.

TFBS-TF interaction at the DNA level Through the work of Dunn *et al.* in 1984⁴³, Lanzer *et al.* in 1988⁹¹ and Lee *et al.* in 1989⁹², and Muller *et al.* in 1996⁹³, the TFBS position relative to the other control elements emerged as an engineering target for inducible systems. Extrapolating from this concept, Lutz and Bujard published a landmark research paper in 1997 that significantly advanced the development of inducible systems with stronger expression, tighter control, and a broader dynamic range⁹⁴. To this end, they created three hybrid inducible systems in *E. coli* by integrating specific operator sequences from the *tet*, *ara*, and *lac* system into the well-established pL promoter from Lambda bacteriophage⁹⁴. More

specifically, they developed new TetR/anhydrotetracycline (aTc)-, LacI/IPTG-, and even a cascaded LacI/IPTG+AraC/arabinose-inducible systems with unprecedented dynamic ranges, up to 5000-fold with tight control. In addition, Lutz and Bujard hint at plasmid copy number, in direct correlation with TFBS copy number, as yet another additional biosensor engineering target^{94–96}.

Around the 2010s, DNA randomization strategies to create promoter, RBS, and TFBS libraries became more established concurrently with high-throughput screening methods to select the desired phenotype^{97,98}. In 2012, Garcia and coworkers performed an in-depth analysis of the effect of operator sequence and location and hypothesized that even the underlying regulatory mechanism can change with altering operator location⁹⁹. Altering the operator sequence in concert with key promoter sequences in a high-throughput combinatorial screening strategy, enabled Jha and coworkers in 2014 to optimize a biosensor's response and make it more compatible with the transcription machinery of the non-native host¹⁰⁰. In a more extensive study that year, Stanton and coworkers genomically mined TFBS sequences for TetR family TFs and designed synthetic ones based on that information²². Next, these synthetic TFBS-TF pairs were screened for minimal cross-interference when co-expressed which enabled the creation of a collection of orthogonal biosensors to build a variety of genetic circuits from²². In 2015, Liu *et al.* tuned the response curve of a FapR-based biosensor by introducing random mutations in the core promoter and TFBS controlling the output gene¹⁰¹. Further developments in computational learning are a great addition to the available high-throughput engineering strategies and allowed for the development of predictive models through machine learning in the late 2010s. In 2019, Liu and coworkers developed a complete workflow to generate new TFBS sequences, characterize their functionality in the context of different biosensors within the TetR family and, finally, apply machine learning to build a predictive model coupling sequence determinants with biosensor induction¹⁰². Interestingly, the generated insights suggests that the TFBS sequences also have an influence on ligand sensitivity and cooperativity, properties generally attributed to solely the TF¹⁰².

Biosensor characteristics can not only be altered by directly changing the TF-TFBS interaction. Modulating the expression levels of the TF or the output gene also have a direct influence on the biosensor response curve. This was demonstrated clearly through the work of Wang *et al.* in 2015 in which a diverse set of response curves was achieved for both the TetR-based and LuxR-based biosensor, solely by modulating the expression levels of the TFs ¹⁰³. In 2018, the same principle was demonstrated by creating a collection of response curves for a flavonoid-responsive LysR-type biosensor by altering the ribosome binding sites of either the TF or the output gene, independently from any other control element or TFBS ¹⁰. Varying the expression levels of the TF or output gene has now become an established, sometimes only small part of many biosensor engineering strategies ^{3,104}. With the advent of deep learning tools, Ding *et al.* in 2020 focused on varying the RBS sequences, controlling the TF and output gene, to alter the dynamic range of a glucarate-responsive biosensor ⁹⁰. After screening, sorting and sequencing thousands of RBSs, a convolutional neural network was trained and allowed to predict dynamic range of other biosensor based on the RBS sequences, to a certain extent ⁹⁰.

TFBS-TF interaction at the protein level Going into the protein level of biosensor engineering, the TF-TFBS interaction can also be altered through changing the amino acid sequence of the TF, *e.g.*, at the DBD. Some of the earliest examples of biosensor engineering can be attributed to Sartorius, Lehming, and coworkers in 1987, 1989 and 1990 ^{105–107}, to Bass and coworkers in 1988 ¹⁰⁸, and to Helbl and coworkers in 1998 ^{109,110} for their work on creating mutant LacI, Trp, and TetR regulators, respectively, with affinities for new TFBS sequences ^{105–110}. In 2003, Swint-Kruse *et al.* created several LacI mutants with enhanced inducer response and, moreover, observed the importance of long-range effects of LBD mutations on DNA-binding affinity ¹¹¹. Scholz and coworkers (2004) performed DNA shuffling across the full TetR protein sequence to successfully generate TetR variants that even have a reversed regulatory mechanism ¹¹². The discovered mutations for activity reversal are clustered around the linker region between DBD and LBD, emphasizing the importance of this region as well ¹¹². Toward a similar goal, LacI variants with reversed functionality

265 were created between 2011 and 2019 through mutational strategies, together with the generation of new,
266 alternate TFBSs ^{113–116}. To customize the biosensor response curve itself, Lakshmi and Rao (2008) evolved
267 LacI into a variant that reaches ten times higher output expression levels than wild-type LacI for the same
268 IPTG concentration ¹¹⁷. In a different study in 2016, mutagenesis across the full DmpR TF sequence was
269 successfully performed, purely to reduce the detection limit of the biosensor response ¹¹⁸. A similar
270 mutational strategy was performed in 2020, to boost the operational range of a XylR-based biosensor ¹¹⁹.

271 Combining all of the available high-throughput engineering and screening techniques, researchers started
272 tackle biosensor development on a larger, holistic scale. In 2018, Meyer and coworkers developed a
273 directed evolution strategy to create a set of 12 high-performance, orthogonal biosensors that can be used
274 simultaneously in a single *E. coli* cell ¹²⁰. This strategy targeted the promoter and RBS sequences of both
275 the effector and detector module, the TFBS sequence, and even coding sequence part of the DBD of the
276 respective TF ¹²⁰. In the same year, a similar holistic strategy was applied to evolve 14 Trp-based biosensors
277 by evolving ligand specificity, DNA specificity and TFBS sequences ¹²¹.

278 **Ligand specificity engineering** With more tools and structural knowledge available on ligand-binding
279 domains, researchers started generating mutant TFs with altered ligand specificity ¹²². Since the mid-
280 1990s, the repertoire of mutant TFs has steadily expanded, with research mainly focusing on a small set
281 of well-characterized TFs. Throughout this whole period, the applied engineering strategy for altering
282 ligand specificity was predominantly one of only a few variations on combining directed evolution and
283 iterative FACS with dual selection ^{122–124}. Various TF variants from different TF families were created,
284 namely for DmpR ^{125–127}, AlkS ¹²⁸, XylR ^{126,129,130}, XylS ¹³¹, AraC ^{132–137}, TetR ^{138–140}, NahR ^{141–143}, DntR ¹⁴⁴, LuxR
285 ^{145–147}, PcaV ¹⁴⁸, PbrR ¹⁴⁹, PobR ¹⁵⁰, CadR ¹⁵¹, and TraR ¹⁵², among many others, highlighting the effectiveness
286 of protein engineering strategies for biosensor customization. Moreover, these experiments demonstrate
287 the potential held within a single TF to form the starting point of new, altered TFs and even the potential
288 to transfer specificities within the same TF family ^{3,153}. This expansion of mutant TFs directly correlates

with the expansion of the catalog of ligand molecules that can be detected and quantified by biosensors, *i.e.*, metal ions, aromatic acids, antibiotics, phenols, alkanes, lactones, aromatic aldehydes, mevalonate, and many more.

Protein engineering has always evolved in tandem with computational techniques. Due to the development of protein modelling techniques, ligand docking simulations, and molecular dynamics simulations, rational design of ligand-binding pockets became easier. Especially from the 2010s, the impact of computational tools on protein engineering for biosensor development became unmistakable. In 2015, Taylor *et al.*, de los Santos *et al.*, and Jha *et al.* computationally designed new LacI, QacR, and PobR variants, respectively, to bind non-native ligands, namely fucose, lactitol, and sucralose (LacI), vanillin (QacR) and 3,4-dihydroxybenzoate (PobR)^{154–157}. They applied the Rosetta model^{158,159} for structure prediction through homology modelling, ligand docking simulations, and subsequent prediction of key amino acid residues interacting with the ligand of interest for targeted mutagenesis^{154–157}. These computational tools rapidly evolved further, became more easily accessible and were augmented with artificial intelligence tools, such as AlphaFold from 2021 onward^{160,161}. In the past 5 years, they became a key element in most TF engineering strategies, which is demonstrated by the work of Della Corte *et al.* in 2020¹⁶², Flachbart *et al.* in 2021¹⁶³, d'Oelsnitz *et al.*^{104,164}, and Cole *et al.* in 2022¹⁶⁵, either to identify amino acid targets or as post-analysis after random mutagenesis for fundamental knowledge. With the goal of expanding the biosensor repertoire further, these studies successfully engineered new ligand specificities for the LysG TF toward histidine¹⁶², the HcaR TF toward various aromatic acids¹⁶³, the CamR TF toward bicyclic monoterpenes¹⁰⁴, the RamR TF toward therapeutic alkaloids¹⁶⁴, and the RoIR TF toward phloroglucinol and other aromatics¹⁶⁵. Recently in 2024, a full computational workflow was applied for the development of adipic acid-responsive biosensor by modelling, ligand docking, molecular dynamics simulations and rational engineering of the BenM TF¹⁶⁶.

Domain swapping Instead of mutating the LBD for custom ligand specificity or the DBD for altered TFBS specificity, swapping domains of homo- or even heterologous TFs has also proven to be a valuable strategy to create biosensors with new or altered characteristics ^{3,154}. More specifically, domain swapping allows for pairing up the ligand specificity of one TF with the DNA specificity of another. This strategy also enables the creation of orthogonal biosensors, *i.e.*, independent functionality from the host regulatory network and/or from any other biosensors in the same cell, enabling complex genetic circuitry ¹⁶⁷. Furthermore, novel insights are garnered on interdomain contacts, multimerization, and conformational changes ^{3,168–171}.

The first TF domain swapping for altering specificity can be attributed to the work of Brockelhurst *et al.* in 1999, in which zinc-responsiveness was transferred from one MerR family member to another, non-zinc responsive one ¹⁷². Albeit not domain swapping in the strict sense, Garmendia *et al.* in 2001 (and subsequently in 2006) shuffled LBD parts between XylR homologues to transfer specificities ^{171,173}. In 2007, Tungtur *et al.* successfully combined the LBD of the PurR with the DBD (and linker) of LacI, both members of the LacI family ¹⁷⁴. Expanding on this research in the following decade, multiple chimeric TFs within the LacI family were created and characterized through domain swapping ^{168–170}. From this chimeric collection, boasting more than 40 chimeric TFs, various multi-input, single-output systems were built by co-expressing TFs that share an identical DBD sequence (binding on the same TFBS) but have unique LBD sequences (detecting different ligands of interest) ^{167,170,175}. Based on the available sequence data on LacI homologues (>70,000 sequences in 2019), Dimas and coworkers even developed a computational model for computing compatibility between any DBD and LBD and predicting resulting repressor efficiency ¹⁶⁷. Around 2020, chimeric transcription factors were developed for additional TF families, namely for the LysR ⁷¹ and TetR family ¹⁷⁶ in 2019, the LuxR family in 2020 ¹⁷⁷, and the MerR family in 2023 ¹⁷⁸. In addition, domain swapping can also be used to enhance other biosensor engineering strategies. In 2020, Snoek and coworkers combined domain swapping with directed evolution of the LBD to create a library of BenM

variants with shifted ligand specificities but that still retained their original DNA-binding affinity, functionality, and even portability¹⁷⁹.

Tools and concepts in support of biosensor technology

Besides different engineering strategies to tune biosensor characteristics, many auxiliary tools were developed that supported biosensor technology directly or indirectly, such as databases, experimental and computational tools, and standardization efforts. In the realm of analytical tools, some experimental methods were transformative for biosensor technology, mainly for analyzing protein-DNA interactions. Since its first description in 1988¹⁸⁰, chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) has evolved immensely and has been coupled with next-generation sequencing workflows in 2007 to create ChIP-Seq^{181,182}, which allows for genome-wide scanning of transcription factor-bound DNA sequences. Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA), established in 1981, are used to confirm DNA-binding of a purified TF on putative TFBS sequences^{183,184}. This tool and variants hereof to boost experimental throughput are still integrated in fundamental research studies today^{185,186}. In 2010, a high-throughput systematic evolution of ligands by exponential enrichment (HT-SELEX) assay was developed to map the DNA-binding specificities of TFs^{187,188}. This method was successfully applied to map the TFBS sequence specificities of 182 putative TFs in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*¹⁸⁹. For an overview on DNA-binding motif detection methods, please see the review article of Inukai and coworkers¹⁹⁰.

Genetic circuitry When expanding the focus of engineering biosensors, synthetic biologists quickly started combining these inducible circuits into more complex genetic circuitry, mimicking the natural complexity of regulation¹⁹¹. Since its conceptualization in 1995¹⁹¹, genetic circuitry has been developed for a wide array of goals such as enabling biological computation, metabolic engineering for optimizing microbial cell factories, and many more^{192,193}. The first examples of true genetic circuitry were developed in 2000, *i.e.*, a genetic toggle switch¹⁹⁴ and an oscillator circuit¹⁹⁵. Since then, this field has evolved immensely

throughout the past three decades with the review article of Gao *et al.* (2023) giving a comprehensive overview of the state-of-the-art¹⁹². In biosensor technology specifically, genetic circuitry can be used as a way to customize the response curve. This is exemplified by the enhancement of sensor stability through autoregulation in 2000¹⁹⁶, the boost in sensitivity and temporal delay through cascading in 2005¹⁹⁷ and signal amplification through positive feedback in 2010 and 2014^{198,199}, among others¹⁹². In addition, genetic circuitry can enhance specific biosensor screening strategies, which was exemplified by d'Oelsnitz in 2022¹⁶⁴. Their SELIS (seamless enrichment of ligand-inducible sensors) method augments the efficiency of FACS-coupled directed evolution of TFs by implementing an additional inverter circuit that ensures the repressive power of any mutant TF throughout the library screen¹⁶⁴.

In silico databases With the rise of computational power, *in silico* databases were being created to compile the ever-increasing amount of data collected and to aid subsequent research. Following Margaret Dayhoff's pioneering work on developing the first-ever protein sequence database in 1965²⁰⁰, the RCSB Protein Data Bank (PDB) published in 1971 marked a significant advancement, and it continues to be one of the foremost repositories for protein structure information^{201,202}. The GenBank database, currently containing over 250 million genetic sequences in general, became publicly available in 1982 with just over 600 DNA sequences at that time^{203–205}. Throughout the past decades, also more specialized databases were built, containing manually curated data, computationally predicted data or a combination of both on topics like transcriptional regulation, binding motifs and protein structures. Some of them halted support after a certain time, such as PRODORIC²⁰⁶ and RegTransBase²⁰⁷. Noteworthy databases regarding prokaryotic transcriptional regulation are EcoCyc (est. 1996)^{208,209}, RegulonDB (est. 1997)²¹⁰, DBTBS (est. 1999)²¹¹, CoryneRegNet (est. 2006)^{212,213}, RegPrecise (est. 2009)^{214,215}, P2TF (est. 2012)²¹⁶, CollecTF (est. 2014)^{217,218} and more recently iModulonDB (est. 2021)²¹⁹ and GroovDB (est. 2022)²²⁰.

Computational tools Besides databases, different types of computational tools emerged and evolved for either analytical or predictive purposes. As a key computational tool, the first sequence alignment method

published by Needleman and Wunsch in 1970 had a great impact on DNA and protein research and is widely used to this day ²²¹. Decades apart, sequencing algorithms evolved further, with the Smith-Waterman method in 1981 ²²² and the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) in 1990, the most-cited *in silico* tool ^{223,224}. From the 2000s on, the diversity and number of computational tools increased exponentially ²²⁴. In 2023, Cai and coworkers created SynBioTools, a comprehensive repository of computational tools, databases and experimental methods in synthetic biology, currently holding more than a thousand tools ²²⁴. For a brief history of bioinformatics, please see the work of Gauthier and coworkers ²²⁵.

Besides all general computational tools related to protein modelling and protein-DNA interactions, biosensor-specific tools have emerged throughout recent years as well. For example, SensiPath (est. 2016) and DetSpace (est. 2024) allow to compute “sensing-enabling” metabolic pathways to convert a non-detectable ligand to a detectable one, based on known TFs ^{226–228}. In 2023, the TFBMiner ²²⁹ and Sensbio ²³⁰ tools were published and allow for the identification and design of biosensors for a ligand of choice. The year after, the Snowprint ²³¹ and Ligify ²³² tools were published by d’Oelsnitz and coworkers for predicting and designing TFBS-TF pairs and for automating biosensor design for a specific ligand input. Databases and especially predictive tools, such as DeepTFactor ²³³, greatly benefitted from the recent advances in artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning. For a comprehensive overview of the various ways AI is aiding the field of biosensor technology, please see the recent review by Ding *et al.* ¹⁶¹.

Standardization efforts The characterization of biological systems like a biosensor can be tackled in a variety of ways, for which something seemingly simple as a device setting or DNA part definition can influence the interpretation of the resulting data and limit cross-lab transferability ^{2,234,235}. As in any engineering discipline, standardization efforts are imperative for pushing synthetic biology into the next phase of maturity ^{2,234,235}. In 2003, the BioBrick standardized DNA assembly method was published with corresponding standardized part design ^{236,237}. The Standard European Vector Architecture (SEVA),

published in 2013, consists of a framework and database for standardizing plasmid design^{238–240}. Later in 2015, the Synthetic Biology Open Language (SBOL) was published to enable a universal standard to symbolize DNA parts based on functionality²⁴¹. To standardize fluorescence-based characterization experiments, De Wannemaeker *et al.* published an easy-to-use, standardized strategy in 2023²³⁴. That same year, Demeester, De Baets, and coworkers published the Modular Biological Sensor (MoBioS) platform to enable a standardized plasmid architecture and assembly to easily build, characterize and even fine-tune biosensors¹². In addition, for each of the eight biosensors development as proof-of-concept, “ID sheets” were created which hold all necessary biosensor information in a standardized way, ranging from experimental information, biosensor characterization data and DNA sequence information¹². These type of ID sheets, datasheets¹²⁰ or performance cards²⁴² are of great importance to standardize communication about inducible circuits and enhance their repeatability and transferability^{12,120,242}.

Future outlook and obstacles

Since the 1960s, research on inducible systems has expanded greatly, both toward in-depth fundamental knowledge on transcriptional regulation and toward engineering strategies to transform these natural systems into biosensors, customized for specific applications. A broad array of techniques and studies have contributed to biosensor development, characterization, optimization and repertoire expansion, ranging from directed evolution to predictive computation. Biosensors have clearly demonstrated their potential as quantification tools for a wide variety of molecules, as key controller circuits to optimize microbial cell factories and as high-throughput screening method in various bio-engineering strategies^{3,5,6,11,243,244}. The scope of this review article is on prokaryotic one-component transcription factors as these proteins hold a vast richness of structural diversity and potential repertoire of detectable molecules. Consequently, these natural regulatory systems dominate the field of transcription-based biosensor development.

429 Most biosensor development and application up till now has been limited to model organisms such as *E.*
430 *coli*. However, many opportunities are still to be explored in non-model organisms, *e.g.*, for optimizing
431 production of industrially relevant biomolecules^{245,246}. Moreover, the archaeal and eukaryotic domains of
432 life hold many promising opportunities as well, both as resources for (extremophilic) biosensor parts and
433 as hosts for potential biosensor applications^{179,247–249}. Instead of expanding biosensor research across life,
434 cell-free systems have also clearly proven their potential for biosensing in fundamental research, *in vitro*
435 applications, and even in biosensor development strategies^{155,245,250–260}.

436 With recent research on bioelectricity and bio-electrical sensors, bridging the gap between the digital and
437 biological world is becoming more realistic, with biosensors playing a key role²⁶¹. A biosensor-enabled cell
438 culture generating an electrical output instead of a fluorescent protein can be linked into other electronic
439 systems more directly with many advantages as a result and yet to be fully explored^{262–264}.

440 Despite great advances in biological knowledge, there are still many obstacles to overcome before the full
441 potential of biosensor technology can be unlocked. Knowledge on protein structure, especially
442 multimerization, remains a significant hurdle. Further, fundamental research cannot be overlooked in
443 order to clearly understand, model and tune all DNA-protein, protein-protein and ligand-protein
444 interactions within a biosensor system. On a larger scale, it is imperative to shed more light on the
445 differences of the single cell versus population reference frame regarding dynamics and biological
446 variability of inducible systems as well. Biological variability originates at different scales, including TF-TFBS
447 interactions, plasmid copy number fluctuations, per-cell differences in detectable inducer molecules, and
448 metabolic, kinetic, and regulatory disparities across individual cells within a population. Therefore,
449 interpreting biosensor output variability as a measure of general biological variability reflects the
450 cumulative impact of these fluctuations. Gaining deeper knowledge of variability at each scale and
451 integrating it into a holistic view of genetic circuits at the population level is a formidable challenge but is
452 essential to advance synthetic biology.

In general, as our fundamental knowledge deepens, so does our appreciation of the immense complexity and variability of biological systems. Despite numerous efforts to address it, this intrinsic complexity leads to low predictability²⁶⁵. With the continuous rise of computational power, the impact of machine learning, artificial intelligence and even quantum computing will certainly expand further to boost predictability. This runs synchronous with the increase in experimental automation which, together, brings us to the verge of a new expanse in the biosensor repertoire²⁵¹. To ensure this, a focus toward both fundamental research and real-life applications should remain. Besides the potential to have cheap, fast, on-line, portable, sustainable sensor technology, the power of biosensors lies even more in the wide diversity of ligand molecules they can specifically detect. Synthetic biologists collaborating with researchers in green chemistry could be of benefit as well to expand the biosensor repertoire further, with a focus on the ligand molecules. Exploration of strategies and applications of biosensors capable of truly detecting any molecule of interest must be the primary goal if we want to push biosensor technology into its next era.

Author contributions

B.D.P. and M.D.M. were involved in the conceptualization and design of the manuscript. B.D.P. drafted the manuscript, which was followed by critical revision by all authors.

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Notes

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