Nodule-specific Cu⁺-chaperone NCC1 is required for symbiotic nitrogen fixation in

***Medicago truncatula* root nodules**

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ABSTRACT

Cu$^+$-chaperones are a diverse group of proteins that allocate Cu$^+$ to specific copper-proteins, creating different copper pools targeted to specific physiological processes. Symbiotic nitrogen fixation carried out in legume root nodules requires relatively large amounts of copper, for which targeted copper deliver systems would be required. MtNCC1 is a nodule-specific Cu$^+$-chaperone encoded in the *Medicago truncatula* genome, with a N-terminus Atx1-like domain that can bind Cu$^+$ with picomolar affinities. This gene is expressed primarily from the late infection zone to the early fixation zone, and is located in the cytosol, associated to plasma and symbiosome membranes, and within nuclei. Consistent with its key role in nitrogen fixation, *ncc1* mutants have a severe reduction of nitrogenase activity, and a 50% reduction in copper-dependent cytochrome *c* oxidase activity. A subset of the copper-proteome is also affected in the mutant nodules. Many of these proteins can be pulled-down when using a Cu$^+$-loaded N-terminal MtNCC1 moiety as a bait, indicating a role in nodule copper homeostasis and in copper-dependent physiological processes. Overall, these data suggest a pleiotropic role of MtNCC1 in copper delivery for symbiotic nitrogen fixation.

Keywords: copper, nitrogen fixation, metallochaperone, nodulation

INTRODUCTION

Copper is an essential nutrient for plants (Marschner and Marschner, 2011). It is involved in key physiological processes such as photosynthesis, respiration, ethylene signalling, or free radical control, among many others (Andresen et al, 2018). This versatile use of copper is largely based on its ability to transition between two redox states (Cu^+ and Cu^{2+}) in physiological conditions (Burkhead et al., 2009). However, that same property makes copper a toxic reagent at slightly higher concentration, as it can non-enzymatically catalyse Fenton-style reactions producing damaging free radicals (Goldstein et al., 1993). Furthermore, excess copper can displace other essential transition metals from the active site of metalloproteins (Küpper et al., 1996; Küpper et al., 2002; Macomber and Imlay, 2009). As a result, and to prevent copper damage to the cell structures, the "free", hydrated, concentrations of copper in the cytosol are maintained at extremely low levels, less than one ion per cell (Changella, 2003). This is achieved by the coordinated action of small, copper-binding molecules, as well as proteins known as Cu^+-chaperones (Robinson and Winge, 2010; Flis et al., 2016).

The role of Cu^+-chaperones is to deliver copper to different copper-proteins, protecting the cell from copper toxicity (Lin et al., 1997; Wong et al., 2000). Cu^+-chaperones bind Cu^+ with picomolar (pM)- femtomolar (fM) affinity (Rae et al., 1999; Palumaa et al., 2004), which prevents unspecific copper release prior to docking with a compatible protein. This means that metalation is not simply the result of relative copper-binding affinities, but also of the specific protein-protein interaction between donor and acceptor proteins. Consequently, different copper pools are created based on the ability of each protein to interact and exchange copper with one or another Cu^+-chaperone. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* has at least three of these pools: the secretory pathway, that receives copper from Atx1 (Lin et al., 1997); the mitochondrial copper, that obtains it from COX17 (Palumaa et al., 2004); and the Cu, Zn superoxide dismutase that gets it from CCS (Rae et al., 1999). Multicellular organisms are expected to have a larger number of such proteins. Plants have at least a CCS orthologue (Chu et al., 2005), two Cu^+-chaperones driving copper to mitochondria (Attallah et al., 2011), another in the stroma (Blaby-Haas et al., 2014), and three ATX1 orthologues with the characteristic Cu^+-binding CXXC motive: ATX1 (Shin et al., 2012), CCP (Chai et al., 2020) and CCH (Mira et al., 2001), the later with a C-terminal domain of unknown function. This multiplicity of Cu^+-chaperones hints not only at the existence of different copper pools, but also at their specialized roles in plant physiology. For instance, ATX1 seems to be

involved in buffering through copper deficiency or excess (Shin et al., 2012), CCH has
been proposed to be involved in recovering copper during leave senescence (Mira et al.,
2001), and CCP plays a role in plant immunity (Chai et al., 2020). Therefore, it should be
expected that other, new Cu^+-chaperones are associated with other copper-dependent
processes.

While leaves are the main copper sink in most plants during vegetative growth,
legumes have a second, major copper sink in their root nodules (Johnston et al., 2001;
Senovilla et al., 2018). After the exchange of specific signals between legumes and a
group of bacteria known as rhizobia, cells in the root cortex, pericycle and endodermis
proliferate to produce nodules (Downie, 2014; Xiao et al., 2014). Concomitant to nodule
development, rhizobia penetrate and colonize nodule cells. Surrounded by the plant-
derived symbiosome membrane, rhizobia differentiate into bacteroids that synthesize
nitrogenase to fix nitrogen. This developmental process can be easily followed in
indeterminate type nodules, such as those in pea or in *Medicago truncatula*. Indeterminate
nodules maintain their apical meristem over time, leading to a spatial-temporal gradient.
As a result, four developmental zones can be observed in these nodules: the apical
meristem (zone I), the infection-differentiation zone (zone II), an interzone where oxygen
levels drop to prevent nitrogenase inhibition, so that nitrogen fixation can occur in the
fixation zone of the nodule (zone III), and a senescent zone (zone IV) in older nodules
(Vasse et al., 1990). In exchange for this fixed nitrogen, the host plant provides
photosynthates and mineral nutrients, including copper (Udvardi and Poole, 2013;
Senovilla et al., 2018).

Legume nodules accumulate high levels of copper (around 50 μg/g) (Senovilla et
al., 2018), evidencing an important role for this nutrient in nodule development and/or
symbiotic nitrogen fixation. Further evidence for this is provided by the existence of a
nodule-specific copper uptake transporter, MtCOPT1, that is required for optimal
nitrogen fixation and cytochrome oxidase activity of bacteroids (Senovilla et al., 2018).
Therefore, it should be expected that specific mechanisms are in place to ensure copper
allocation to enzymes involved in symbiotic nitrogen fixation in legume nodules, and that
this is achieved via dedicated Cu^+-chaperones. This manuscript provides data supporting
this hypothesis, as it reports that *Medtr3g067750* is a nodule-specific Cu^+-chaperone
(NCC) that is essential for symbiotic nitrogen fixation.

RESULTS

MtNCC1 is a Cu$^+$-chaperone

To identify candidate Cu$^+$-chaperones in *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *M. truncatula*,

we collected those sequences annotated as such, as well as those annotated as metal-

binding domain proteins or HIPP, removing those that did not contain a CXXC Cu$^+$-

binding motive. Over 30 different candidates were identified in the genomes of these two

plant species (Fig. S1). Within *M. truncatula*, there was a nodule-specific candidate,

Medtr3g067750 (NCC1, for Nodule-specific Cu$^+$-Chaperone1), as indicated by the

available transcriptomic databases (Fig. S2). This expression pattern was validated by

qRT-PCR analyses (Fig. 1A). Protein modelling showed the existence of two different

protein domains: a N-terminal Atx1-like domain comprised by the first 78 amino acids

(MtNCC1$_{1-78}$) that included the CXXC motif, and a C-terminal, intrinsically disordered

region, with an E-rich motif (Fig. 1B).

Yeast complementation assays of the yeast *atx1* mutant were used to determine

whether the candidate protein above could function as a Cu$^+$-chaperone. This strain

cannot grow in non-fermentative carbon sources. However, *atx1* showed wild-type

growth when expressing *MtNCC1* or *MtNCC1$_{1-78}$* (Fig. 1C). To further determine whether

MtNCC1 could work as a Cu$^+$-chaperone, Strep-tagged MtNCC1$_{1-78}$ was purified from

Escherichia coli (Fig. S3) and used to determine Cu$^+$-binding stoichiometry and affinity.

As expected from an Atx1-like chaperone, MtNCC1$_{1-78}$ bound one Cu$^+$ per molecule with

an affinity constant of 2.45 pM^{-1} (Fig. 1D). Similar stoichiometry was observed after

incubating MtNCC1$_{1-78}$ with a 10-fold molar excess of Cu$^+$ and removing the unbound

metal (Fig. S4).

MtNCC1 is located in the cytosol and nucleus of nodule cells

To determine whether MtNCC1 was produced in the nodule, promoter-GUS

fusions were transformed in *M. truncatula* plants. As shown in Fig 2A, *MtNCC1* was

highly expressed in the infection-differentiation zone (ZII), interzone (IZ) and early

fixation zone (ZIII) of the nodules, although lower expression levels could be found in

older fixation zone areas. This expression pattern is consistent with the transcriptomic

data obtained from laser-captured microdissected cells in the Symbimics database (Fig.

2B). Moreover, immunolocalization of hemagglutinin epitope (HA)-tagged MtNCC1

showed a similar distribution (Fig 2C). Higher magnification images of nodule cells

showed MtNCC1-HA in the cytoplasm and in the nuclei in infected and uninfected cells

(Fig. 2D). This distribution pattern was not observed in un-transformed plants (Fig. S5).

Additionally, MtNCC1$_{1-78}$-HA had the same distribution pattern (Fig. S6). Electron-
microscopy images using a gold-conjugated antibody revealed that MtNCC1-HA was
found in the cytosol, as well as associated to the plasma and symbiosome membranes
(Fig. 2E).

MtNCC1 is required symbiotic nitrogen fixation

To determine the physiological role of MtNCC1, an insertional *ncc1* mutant was
obtained from a *M. truncatula Tnt1* mutant collection. This line had an insertion in
position +1044 that led to loss of *MtNCC1* expression (Fig. 3A). As expected, the mutant
line did not present any apparent phenotype under non-symbiotic conditions (Fig S7), but
showed a significantly reduced growth and biomass production in symbiosis (Fig. 3B,C).
No significant changes in nodule development were observed compared to wild-type
plants (Fig. S8). The nitrogenase activity in *ncc1* plants was severely reduced (Fig. 3D).
Analyses of *MtNCC1* wild-type *ncc1* segregants suggested that no additional *Tnt1*
insertions elsewhere in the genome could explain these phenotypical effects (Fig. S9).
Furthermore, growth and nitrogenase activity were restored by introducing a wild-type
copy of *MtNCC1* into the mutant line (Fig 3B-D). Finally, cytochrome oxidase activity
was significantly reduced in bacteroids, but to a much lower extent than the nitrogenase
activity (Fig. 3E).

MtNCC1 **mutation affects a subset of the copper-proteome**

Consistent with the role of MtNCC1 in copper metabolism, increasing copper
concentrations by 10-fold in the nutrient solution was sufficient to restore wild-type
growth and nitrogenase activity in *ncc1* plants (Fig. 4). However, overall copper content
in the analysed plant organs (roots, shoots, and nodules) was not significantly altered in
ncc1 plants (Fig 5A). Iron levels were not affected either (Fig. 5B). Importantly,
metalloproteomic analyses on nodule soluble protein extracts from wild-type and *ncc1*
nodules showed reduced copper content in a subset of the proteome (Fig. 6A). The largest
differences were found at around 110 kDa and 60 kDa. As this was a separation only by
SEC, the copper proteins only represent a small proportion of the total proteins eluting
during the times when a maximal difference between the wild-type and *ncc1* samples was
observed. This becomes clear when looking at the profiles of other metals at the same
time and comparing the UV/VIS spectra with the metal chromatograms (regions of
interest in Figures 6B, 6C, complete time range in Figure S10).

Therefore, although copper-binding proteins were affected, the total number of proteins

contained in two fractions (chosen in the MW ranges of max. differences in copper,

Fig 6A) in wild type and *ncc1* nodules remained largely the same (Tables S1 and S2);

only 70 out of 1529 proteins in fraction 1 and 12 out of 1900 proteins in fraction 2 missing

in *ncc1* compared to wild type. None of the ten most abundant of these differentially

expressed proteins have a known role in copper-homeostasis (Table 1). Looking at the

entire HPLC-ICPsfMS chromatograms in more detail (Fig S10) reveals additional

changes in the metalloproteome that would result from the cross-talk between copper

homeostasis and that of other elements. Analysing these changes would be a topic for

another study.

To further try to identify proteins that would accept Cu^+ by interacting with

MtNCC1, Cu^+-loaded $MtNCC1_{1-78}$ ($MtNCC1_{1-78} \cdot Cu^+$) was used as a bait for pull-down

assays. To ensure that the identified proteins were those that specifically interacted with

$MtNCC1_{1-78} \cdot Cu^+$ and not with the resin, control pull-down assays in which no bait was

bound to the resin were done in parallel. The proteins specifically retained by $MtNCC1_{1-}$

$_{78} \cdot Cu^+$ are indicated in Table S3. Approximately, one third of these proteins were also

present in the selected fractions from the metalloproteomic analyses (Table S4), and

mostly they are putatively involved in D-gluconate catabolism, S-adenosylmethione

(SAM) cycle, endoplasmatic reticulum unfolded protein response, and protein import into

the nucleus. To further confirm some of these interactions, Bi-molecular Fluorescence

Complementation (BiFC) studies were carried out in agroinfiltrated tobacco leaves

expressing $MtNCC1_{1-78}$ together with selected candidates identified in the pull-down

experiments. As shown in Fig. 7, $MtNCC1_{1-78}$ interacted with thioredoxin-dependent

peroxiredoxin (*Medtr7g105830)*, SAM synthase (*Medtr2g046710),* putative universal

stress protein (*Medtr1g088640)*, and pathogenesis-related protein (*Medtr2g076010)*. No

signal was observed when $MtNCC1_{1-78}$ was expressed in leaves infiltrated with the empty

vectors (Fig. S11).

DISCUSSION

Symbiotic nitrogen fixation in legume root nodules is a process that requires of a

large transfer of transition elements from the host plant to the root nodules (O'Hara, 2001;

González-Guerrero et al., 2016). In recent years, many of the transporters mediating this

transfer have been identified (Tejada-Jiménez et al., 2015; Abreu et al., 2017; Tejada-

Jiménez et al., 2017; Senovilla et al., 2018; Castro-Rodríguez et al., 2020; Escudero et

al., 2020), as well as metal-chelating molecules that maintain metal solubility in saps and

apoplast (Kryvoruchko et al., 2018; Escudero et al., 2020b). In the case of copper, there

is a high degree of specificity in nodules. Host plants, such as *M. truncatula*, express a

nodule-specific Cu^+-uptake transporter, MtCOPT1, to ensure copper uptake by infected

cells (Senovilla et al., 2018). Bacteroids also synthesize nodule-specific copper

transporters, such as FixI, a P_{1B}-ATPase responsible for providing copper for a nodule-

specific high-affinity cytochrome oxidase (Kahn et al., 1989; Preisig et al., 1996).

However, an additional level of control based on Cu^+-chaperones must exist so that

copper is specifically delivered from very few copper transporters to multiple different

copper-enzymes. We have identified MtNCC1 as a representative of this layer of control.

The relationship of MtCOPT1 and MtNCC1 roles in nodule copper homeostasis is

suggested by the presence of both proteins in the same nodule zones (mainly from late

infection to early fixation zones). This hints at a functional pairing between the two

proteins, *i.e.* the transporter transfers copper to the chaperone. Moreover, MtNCC1 is not

the only copper deliver system to bacteroids. As for *copt1-1*, copper fortification of the

nutrient solution is sufficient to restore wild-type growth and nitrogenase activity,

suggesting that MtNCC1 is only necessary below a certain copper concentration threshold

and that other lower-affinity system(s) can functionally complement MtNCC1.

The connection between the reduction of nitrogenase activity and mutation of

MtNCC1 is not direct. Nitrogenase does not use copper as a cofactor, nor is copper known

to be directly needed for its synthesis (Burén et al., 2020). In previous studies (Senovilla

et al., 2018), reduction of nitrogenase activity could be explained as the consequence of

the reduction of cytochrome oxidase activity that would limit the energy available to

bacteroids. However, the partial reduction in cytochrome oxidase activity cannot explain

the drastic loss of nitrogenase activity in *ncc1*. The explanation cannot be altered nodule

morphology either (wild-type and *ncc1* nodules do not seem different), nor can it be a

collateral effect on iron metabolism in the nodule. The reason must instead lie in the

subset of proteins that interact with MtNCC1. Many of them, when forming complexes

with $MtNCC1_{1-78}$ can be detected in the nuclei. Some of them could be involved in

epigenetic regulation (SAM synthases) (Liu et al., 2020), in the response to plant-microbe

interactions (pathogenesis-related proteins) (Kaur et al., 2017), or in the coordination

between host and bacteroid (Nodule-specific Cysteine-rich peptides, NCRs) (Maróti et

al., 2015), but their specific roles in symbiotic nitrogen fixation still remain to be

determined. Our metalloproteomic and pull-down assays have unveiled a number of new

putative copper-proteins that have to be further validated biochemically and in the context

of symbiotic nitrogen fixation. Other candidate copper-proteins might emerge from

studying the interaction with the C-terminal domain of MtNCC1. However, all our efforts

in that direction were fruitless because of our failure to recover either full MtNCC1 or C-

domain MtNCC1 from the inclusion bodies that formed when they were expressed in *E.*

coli.

Interestingly, MtNCC1 is not only located in the cytosol or in the proximity of the

membranes, it can also be detected in nuclei, as was the case of CCP in Arabidopsis (Chai

et al., 2020). However, no nuclear localization signal could be found in the MtNCC1

sequence. Alternatively, the observed nuclear localization could be the result from

interaction with other proteins. BiFC studies indicate that this is the case, as only some of

the interactions tested led to $MtNCC_{1-78}$ detection in nuclei. The migration of MtNCC1

from cytosol to nucleus will be likely facilitated by importins (Merkle, 2011), some of

which have been detected in the pull-down assays. The physiological relevance of this

localization is not evident. Theoretically, copper could be delivered to any proteins in the

cytosol and then the newly-metallated proteins could migrate to the nucleus. It could be

argued that copper transfer to nucleus could be conditional to specific environmental cues,

or that some sort of ternary complex in the nucleus would be needed. These possibilities

will have to be specifically tested in the future. However, one role that nuclear MtNCC1

does not seem to play is to deliver Cu^+ to a putative copper-sensor. The existence of a

nodule-specific copper sensor can be inferred from the previous work on MtCOPT1. Lack

of copper uptake by nitrogen-fixing cells did not result in nodules containing less copper,

but the opposite (Senovilla et al., 2018). This was interpreted as a copper-deficiency

signal being sent from nodule cells, that led to more copper being delivered. However,

since MtCOPT1 was not present, this copper did not reach the cell cytosol and

accumulated in the apoplast. This phenotype, however, was not observed in *ncc1* mutants,

in which no significant change in copper content was observed.

In summary, in this work we have shown the existence of a nodule-specific Cu^+-

chaperone that is required for nitrogen fixation. We have identified changes in the nodule

copper-proteome as a result of losing MtNCC1 activity, as well a new putative copper-

proteins that might play a role in symbiotic nitrogen fixation. Future work will be directed

to determining the physiological role of these proteins and to verifying that they can

accept copper from MtNCC1.

METHODS

Biological materials and growth conditions

Medicago truncatula Gaertn R108 seeds were scarified in pure H_2SO_4 for 7.5 min.

Then, they were washed with cold water and sterilized with 50% bleach for 1.5 min and

imbibed in sterile water in darkness overnight. On the following day, seeds were placed

on water-agar plates for 48 h at 4°C, and then allowed to germinate at 22°C for 24 h.

Seedlings were planted in sterile perlite pots and inoculated with *Sinorhizobium meliloti*

2011 or *S. meliloti* 2011 transformed with pHC60 (Cheng and Walker, 1998), as

indicated. Plants were grown in a greenhouse in 16 h light/8 h dark and 22°C and watered

with Jenner's solution or water every 2 d, alternatively (Brito et al., 1994). Nodules were

collected at 28 days-post-inoculation (dpi). Non-inoculated plants were cultivated in

similar conditions, but they were watered every 2 weeks with Jenner's solution

supplemented with 2 mM NH_4NO_3. For hairy-root transformations, *M. truncatula*

seedlings were infected with *Agrobacterium rhizogenes* ARqua1 carrying the appropriate

binary vector as described (Boisson-Dernier et al., 2001). In agroinfiltration experiments,

Nicotiana benthamiana (tobacco) leaves were infected with the plasmid constructs in *A.*

tumefaciens GV3101 (Deblaere et al., 1985). Tobacco plants were grown under the same

conditions as *M. truncatula*.

For yeast complementation assays, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain Δ*atx1* and its

parental strain BY4741 (MATa *his3Δ 1 leu2Δ 0 met15Δ 0 ura3Δ 0*) were purchased from

the Yeast Knockout Collection (GE Dharmacon). Yeasts were grown in yeast peptone

dextrose (YPD) or in synthetic dextrose (SD) media supplemented with 2% glucose

(Sherman et al., 1983). Phenotypic characterization was performed in yeast peptone

ethanol glycerol (YPEG) medium (Li & Kaplan, 2001).

For protein purification, *Escherichia coli* BL21 (DE3) pLysS (Wood, 1966) (*E.*

coli str. B F–*ompT gal dcm lon hsdSB ($r_{B-}m_{B-}$)* λ(DE3 [*lacI lacUV5-T7p07 ind1 sam7*

nin5]) [*malB$^+$*]$_{K-12}$ (λ^S) pLysS [T7p20 ori$_{p15A}$](Cm^R) was used to produce the required

amount of protein.

Quantitative real-time RT-PCR

RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis were carried out as previously described

(Tejada-Jiménez et al., 2015). Gene expression was studied by quantitative real-time RT-

PCR (9700, Applied Biosystems) with primers indicated in Table S5 and normalized to

the *M. truncatula Ubiquitin carboxy-terminal hydrolase* gene (*Medtr4g077320*). Real-

time cycler conditions have been previously described (González-Guerrero et al., 2010).

Determinations were performed with RNA extracted from three independent biological

samples, with the threshold cycle determined in triplicate. The relative levels of

transcription were determined with the $2^{-\Delta Ct}$ method.

Yeast complementation assays

MtNCC1 and *MtNCC1_{1-78}* cDNAs were cloned into the yeast expression vector

pDR196, between PstI and XhoI restriction sites, by homologous recombination in yeast

(primers indicated in Table S5). For yeast transformation, a lithium acetate-based method

was used as described (Schiestl and Gietz, 1989). Transformants were selected in SD

medium by uracil autotrophy. Phenotypic analysis of yeast transformants were done on

YPEG plates (Li & Kaplan, 2001).

Protein Expression and Purification.

MtNCC1_{1-78} was obtained by PCR using *MtNCC1* cDNA as the template (primers

indicated in Table S5). The resulting cDNA was cloned between *NdeI* and *BamHI*

restriction sites in a modified version of pET16b (courtesy of Dr. Luis Rubio). This

plasmid adds two N-terminal streptavidin (N-Twin-Strep (N-TS)) tag sequences. Protein

expression was induced for 3 h at 37°C by the addition of 1mM IPTG to *E. coli* BL21

cells (Wood, 1966). Cells expressing soluble MtNCC1_{1-78} were disrupted in 100 mM Tris

(pH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl (buffer W) using a French press. Homogenates were centrifuged

at 54,000 g for 1 h. The protein was purified with a Strep-Tactin XT 4Flow high-capacity

column (IBA lifesciences) and stored in 10% glycerol in buffer W at -80°C. Protein

quantification was performed in accordance with Bradford assay (Bradford, 1976).

Cu^+-binding affinity.

MtNCC1_{1-78}·Cu^+ K_a value was obtained by using a competition assay with BCA

followed by colorimetric determination of the $BCA_2 \cdot Cu^+$ complex at 360 nm. MtNCC1_{1-78}·Cu^+ K_a was determined by titrating with Cu^+ in a solution of 20 μM BCA, 100 μM

MtNCC1_{1-78} in 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 200 mM NaCl, and 200 μM ascorbate (buffer

H). The $BCA_2 \cdot Cu^+$ molar extinction coefficient, $\varepsilon_{360} = 20,600$ cm^{-1} M^{-1}, was determined

by titrating μM Cu^+ with 0–10 μM BCA in buffer H. Free metal concentrations were

calculated from $K_{BCA} = [BCA_2 \cdot Cu^+]/[BCA_{free}]^2[Cu^+_{free}]$, where K_{BCA} is the association

constant for $BCA_2 \cdot Cu^+$ ($4.60 \times 10^{14}\, M^{-2}$) (Yatsunyk and Rosenzweig, 2007; González-

Guerrero and Argüello, 2008). The $MtNCC_{1-78} \cdot Cu^+$ K_a value was calculated by using ν

$= [Cu^+_{free}]^n K_a / (1 + K_a [Cu^+_{free}]^n)$, where ν is the molar ratio of metal bound to protein and

n is the number of metal-binding sites. Reported errors for Ka and n are asymptotic

standard errors provided by the fitting software (Origin; OriginLab).

GUS staining

MtNCC1 promoter (*MtNCC1p*; 2 kb upstream of the *MtNCC1* start codon) was

amplified using the primers indicated in Table S5, then cloned into pDONR207

(Invitrogen) and transferred to pGWB3 vector containing the *GUS* gene (Nakagawa et

al., 2007), using Gateway Cloning technology (Invitrogen). *M. truncatula* hairy-roots

transformation was carried out as described above. Transformed seedlings were planted

in sterile perlite pots and inoculated with *S. meliloti* 2011. GUS activity was measured in

nodules of 28 dpi plants as described (Vernoud et al., 2007).

Immunolocalization

A DNA fragment containing the full-length *MtNCC1* genomic region and the

MtNCC1p was cloned into the pGWB13 (Nakagawa et al., 2007)by Gateway technology

(Invitrogen). This vector fuses three HA epitopes in the C-terminus of the protein. *M.*

truncatula hairy-root transformation was carried out as described above (Boisson-Dernier

et al., 2001). Transformed seedlings were planted in sterile perlite pots and inoculated

with *S. meliloti* 2011 integrating the pHC60 vector that constitutively expresses GFP. 28

dpi nodules were collected and fixed in 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde, 2.5% (w/v) sucrose

in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at 4°C overnight. Next day, nodules were washed in

PBS, and 100-µm sections were generated with a Vibratome 1000 plus (Vibratome).

Then, sections were dehydrated using methanol series (30%, 50%, 70% and 100% [v/v]

in PBS) for 5 min and then rehydrated. Cell walls were permeabilized with 4% (w/v)

cellulase in PBS for 1 h at room temperature and treated with 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20 in

PBS for 15 min. Sections were blocked with 5% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA) in

PBS and incubated then with an anti-HA mouse monoclonal antibody (Sigma) for 2 h at

room temperature. After washing the primary antibody, sections were incubated with an

Alexa594-conjugated anti-mouse rabbit monoclonal antibody (Sigma) for 1 h at room

temperature. After removing the unbound secondary antibody, DAPI (40,6-diamidino-2-

phenylindole) was used to stain the DNA. Images were acquired with a confocal laser-scanning microscope (Leica SP8) using excitation lights at 488 nm for GFP and at 561 nm for Alexa 594.

For gold-immunolocalization, 28 dpi nodules were collected and fixed in 1% formaldehyde and 0.5% glutaraldehyde in 50 mM potassium phosphate (pH 7.4) for 2 h. The fixation solution was renewed and incubated for an additional 1.5 h. Samples were washed in 50 mM potassium phosphate (pH 7.4) 3 times during 30 min and 3 times for 10 min. Nodules were dehydrated by incubating with ethanol dilution series of 30%, 50%, 70%, and 90% during 10 min, 96% for 30 min, and 100% for 1 h. Samples were incubated with a series of ethanol and LR-white resin (London Resin Company Ltd, UK) dilutions: 1:3 for 3 h, 1:1 overnight, and 3:1 for 3 h, and left in LR-white resin for 48 h. All incubations were done at 4°C. Nodules were placed in gelatine capsules previously filled with LR-white resin and polymerized at 60 °C for 24 h. Ultra-thin sections were cut at Centro Nacional de Microscopia Electrónica (Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Spain) with Reichert Ultracut S-ultramicrotome fitted with a diamond knife. Sections were blocked in 2% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS for 30 min. An anti-HA rabbit monoclonal antibody (Sigma) was used (dilution 1:20 in PBS) as primary antibody. Samples were washed 10 times in PBS for 2 min. As a secondary antibody, 1:150 dilution in PBS of antirabbit goat antibody conjugated to a 15 nm gold particle (BBI solutions) was used. Incubation was performed for 1 h. Sections were washed 10 times with PBS for 2 min and 15 times with water for 2 min. Sections were stained with 2% uranyl acetate and visualized in a JEM 1400 electron microscope at 80 kV.

Acetylene reduction assay

Nitrogenase activity was determined by the acetylene reduction assay (Hardy et al., 1968). Nitrogen fixation was analyzed in mutant and control plants at 28 dpi in 30-ml vials fitted with rubber stoppers. Each tube contained one independently transformed plant. Three ml of air inside the vial was replaced by 3 ml of acetylene and then they were incubated at room temperature for 30 min. Gas samples (0.5 ml) were analyzed in a Shimadzu GC-8A gas chromatograph fitted with a Porapak N column. The amount of ethylene produced was determined by measuring the height of the ethylene peak relative to background. After measurements, nodules were collected from roots for weight measurements.

Cytochrome oxidase activity

Nodules from 28 dpi plants were collected and used for bacteroid isolation, as described by (Brito et al., 1994) with modifications. Nodules from 50 plants (0.1-0.3 g nodules) were pooled together and crashed with 33% (w/w) of polyvinylpyrrolidone and 1 ml of extraction buffer (38 mM K_2HPO_4, 24 mM KH_2PO_4, 2.4 mM $MgCl_2$). Three consecutive centrifugations were performed with the supernatant of the previous one, two at 1000 g (1 and 5 min) and a final one at 5000 g for 10 min. The final pellet was resuspended in 500 μL of resuspension buffer (50 mM HEPES, 200 mM NaCl pH 7). Cytochrome oxidase activity was determined by N,N,N',N'-tetramethyl-p-phenylenediamine (TMPD) oxidation assay. The reaction was started by adding TMPD to the bacteroid sample at a final concentration of 2.7 mM. To obtain the reaction kinetics, each sample was measured at OD_{520} each 10 s for 3 min. To measure protein content to calculate specific activity, the bacteroid suspension was lysed in 10% SDS at 90°C for 5 min. The amount of protein was determined with the Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

Metal content determination

To determine metal content, Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) was performed for three independent sets of 28 dpi roots, shoots and nodules pooled from ten plants. ICP-MS was carried out at the Unit of Metal Analysis from the Scientific and Technology Centre, Universidad de Barcelona (Spain). These samples were treated with HNO_3, H_2O_2 and HF in a Teflon reactor at 90°C. The resulting homogenates were diluted with deionized water. Final volumes were calculated by weight and weight: volume ratios. In parallel, samples were digested with three blanks. Metal determination was carried out in an Agilent 7500cw instrument with standard conditions. Calibration was carried out with five solutions prepared from certified NIST standards.

Metalloproteomics

Metalloproteomic analyses were performed on 150 28 dpi nodules from wild type or *nccl* plants. Soluble and membrane proteins were extracted from the nodules as described by Andresen et al. (2016). Afterwards, proteins were separated by size exclusion chromatography coupled to ICP-MS as described (Küpper et al., 2019). Briefly, two Superdex Increase 200 10 x 300 mm and one Superdex Increase 75 10 x 300 mm size exclusion columns were used to separate the nodule protein extracts in 150 mM

ammonium bicarbonate buffer with 0.2 mM DDM. Detection was achieved with a

customized sector field ICP-MS (Element 2 XR with jet interface and desolvating

injection, Thermo Scientific, Bremen Germany) and a diode array detector coupled to a

metal-free HPLC system (Azury system. Knauer, Germny). Metal-EDTA complexes in

same buffer as the protein extracts were used to calibrate concentration determination. A

gel filtration calibration standard (Bio-rad with added PABA) was used to determine size

and molecular weight, calibration of metal concentrations in the ICP-MS chromatograms

was performed as described in Küpper et al. (2019). Proteins were identified in the

Proteomic Unit of Universidad Complutense de Madrid (Spain).

Proteomics

Proteomic analyses were performed in the Proteomics Unit of Complutense

University of Madrid, a member of Proteored. Samples were liophylized and resuspended

in 100 μl of 25 mM ammonium bicarbonate buffer and quantified. Proteins were reduced

in 10 mM DTT at 56ºC for 60 min, and subsequently alkylated in 25 mM iodocetamide

for 60 min in darkness at room temperature. Samples were digested with Trypsine/LysC

protease mix (Pierce, ThermoFisher) at a 1:30 (w/w) ration overnight at 37ºC. Desalted

and concentrated peptides were liophylized and reconstituted in 15 μl 2% acetonitrile,

0.1% formic acid. One μg of peptides from each sample were analysed by liquid nano-

chromatography (Vanquish Neo, Thermo Scientific) coupled to a high-resolution mass

spectrometer (Q-Exactive HF (Thermo Scientific). The acquired MS/MS spectra were

analysed using Proteome Discoverer 3 (Thermo Scientific) using Mascot 2.8 search

engine and the databases SwissProt, *M. truncatula*, *S. meliloti* downloaded from Uniprot.

"Correctly" identified proteins are those that have a False Discovery Rate (FDR) below

1 % and at least on single peptide identified with high confidence (above 99 %).

Pull-down assay

28 grams of fresh *M. truncatula* R108 nodules (from approximately 2.500 plants)

were homogenized manually with a mortar and pestle. The homogenate was centrifuged

at 20,000 g 4°C for 30 min. To separate soluble from membrane proteins, the supernatant

("cell free" extract) was centrifuged at 100,000 g 4°C for 1 h. The resulting supernatant

containing soluble proteins was loaded in Strep-Tactin XT 4Flow High-Capacity column

(IBA lifesciences) previously saturated with N-TS-MtNCC$_{1-78}$·Cu$^+$. Co-eluting proteins

were identified by liquid chromatography Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) at the
Proteomic Unit of the Universidad Complutense de Madrid (Spain).
510
Bimolecular fluorescence complementation
MtNCC1$_{1-78}$ CDS was fused at N-terminus to the N-fragment of YFP (Yellow
Fluorescence Protein) in the Gateway vector pNXGW (Kim et al., 2009). The CDS of
MtNCC1candidate interactors were fused to the C-fragment of CFP (Cyan Fluorescence
Protein) at both N and C-terminus in the Gateway vectors pCXGW and pXCGW (Kim et
al., 2009), respectively. Primers for cloning are indicated in Table S5. These constructs
were introduced into *A. tumefaciens* GV3101 (Deblaere et al., 1985).
N. benthamiana leaves were infiltrated as previously described (Senovilla et al., 2018).
Leaves were examined after 3 d by confocal laser-scanning microscopy (Zeiss LSM 880)
with excitation light of 488 nm for GFP.
521
522 **Statistical tests**
523   Data were analyzed using Student's unpaired t test to calculate statistical
524 significance of observed differences. Test results with P-values lower than 0.05 were
525 considered as statistically significant.
526
527 **Data availability**
528   All the data included in this manuscript is available to interested researchers upon
529 request. Proteomics raw data have been deposited in Proteomics Identification Database
530 (PRIDE).
531

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

CN-G performed most of the experimental work in this manuscript. JL-M
contributed to the phenotype and confocal immunolocalization work and carried out the
GUS, sequence comparison of *A. thaliana* and *M. truncatula* candidate Cu^+-chaperones,
and the yeast complementation studies. KH and SNHB performed and analysed the
metalloproteomic studies. MR-S contributed to plasmid generation and plant
management. AP-L collaborated in the BiFC studies. JW and KSM produced and
characterized the *M. truncatula Tnt1* collection. SB optimized $MtNCC1_{1-78}$ purification.
JI, VE, and MG-G analysed data. VE and MG-G were responsible for overall research
supervision and prepared the manuscript with input from all other authors.

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. MtNCC1 is a nodule-specific Cu$^+$-chaperone. A, *MtNCC1* expression in *S.*

meliloti-inoculated (roots, shoots, and nodules) and non-inoculated (roots and shoots)

plants relative to standard gene *Ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase*. Data are the mean

± SE of three independent experiments with five pooled plants. B, Predicted structure of

MtNCC1. The classical Atx1-like domain is indicated in pink, with the two conserved

Cu$^+$-binding cysteines (C22 and 25). The glutamate-rich region in the C-terminal domain

is indicated with wireframes. C, Parental strain BY4741 was transformed with empty

pDR196 vector, while the Δatx1 mutant NCC1 was transformed with empty pDR196 or

containing MtNCC1 or MtNCC1$_{1-78}$. D, Cu$^+$ binding to MtNCC1$_{1-78}$ determined in

competition assays with BCA. The data were fit using n = 1.03 ± 0.04 Cu$^+$ per protein

and K$_a$ = 2,45·10^{-12} ± 3.44·10^{-13} M^{-1}. Data are the mean ± SE (n = 3).

Figure 2. Localization of MtNCC1 in *M. truncatula* nodules. A, GUS staining of 28

dpi nodules expressing the *gus* gene under the control of the *MtNCC1* promoter region.

Left panel shows the whole nodule and right panel shows a longitudinal section with the

different developmental zones indicated. Bars = 400 μm. B, *MtNCC1* expression in the

different nodule zones as indicated in the Symbimics database

(http://ia.nt.toulouse.inra.fr/symbimics/). ZI: zone I; ZIIp: zone II proximal; ZIId: zone

II distal; IZ: interzone; ZII: zone III. C, Longitudinal section of 28 dpi *M. truncula*

nodules expressing *MtNCC1* fused to three HA domains driven by its own promoter. HA-

tagged proteins were detected with using an Alexa594 conjugated antibody (red, left

panel). Nodules were colonized by a GFP-expressing *S. meliloti* (green, central panel).

DNA was stained with DAPI (blue) and overlaid with the previous two channels and the

transillumination signal (right panel). Bars = 100 μm. D, Closer view of rhizobia-infected

cell in zone II. Bars = 10 μm. E, Immunolocalization of MtNCC1-HA in 28 dpi nodules

using gold-conjugated antibodies and electron transmission microscopy. Gold particles

are indicated by arrows and asterisks represent bacteroids. PM indicates Plasma

membrane, and Mit refers to mitochondria. Bars = 1μm.

Figure 3. MtNCC1 is required for nitrogen fixation. A, Amplification of *MtNCC1*

transcript by RT-PCR in 28 dpi nodules of wild type and *ncc1* mutants. *MtUb1* (*Ubiquitin*

carboxyl-terminal hydrolase 1) was used as a constitutive gene. B, Growth of

representative plants of wild type (WT), *ncc1* mutant and *ncc1* mutants transformed with

MtNCC1 regulated by its own promoter. Bar = 1cm. C, Fresh weight of shoots and roots

of WT, *ncc1* and *ncc1* transformed with *MtNCC1* regulated by its own promoter. Data

are the mean ± SE (n = 15). D, Acetylene reduction assay in 28 dpi nodules from WT,

ncc1 mutants and *ncc1* transformed with *MtNCC1* regulated by its own promoter. Data

are the mean ± SE (n = 7-13). E, Cytochrome oxidase (COX) activity in bacteroids

isolated from 28 dpi nodules of WT and *ncc1* mutant plants. Data are the mean ± SE of

at least three sets of 35-40 pooled plants each. Student's *t*-test was used for statistical

analysis (* = P≤ 0.05).

Figure 4. Copper supplementation complements the *ncc1* phenotype. A, Growth of

representative plants of wild type (WT) and *ncc1* mutant watered with standard copper

concentrations (0.16 μM) and copper excess (1.6 μM). Bar = 1cm. B, Fresh weight of

shoots and roots of WT and *ncc1* mutant watered with standard copper concentrations

(0.16 μM) and copper excess (1.6 μM). Data are the mean ± SE (n = 16-23). C, Acetylene

reduction assay in 28 dpi nodules from WT and *ncc1* mutant watered with standard copper

concentrations (0.16 μM) and copper excess (1.6 μM). Data are the mean ± SE (n = 16-

23). All comparison were done to WT samples using Student's *t*-test (* = P≤ 0.05).

Figure 5. Mutation of *MtNCC1* does not alter the nodule metallome. A, Copper

content in 28 dpi shoots, roots and nodules of wild type (WT) and *ncc1* plants. Data are

the mean ± SE of three sets of ten pooled plants. B, Iron content in 28 dpi shoots, roots

and nodules of wild type (WT) and *ncc1* plants. Data are the mean ± SE of three sets of

ten pooled plants. C, Normalized HPLC-ICPsfMS determinations of copper content in

two independent biological replicates of 28 dpi WT and *ncc1* nodules. Fractions subjected

to proteomic analyses are boxed and indicated as F1 and F2.

Figure 6. Mutation of *MtNCC1* alters the nodule copper-proteome. A,

Metalloproteomics by HPLC-ICPsfMS. The normalized chromatograms show copper

content in two independent biological replicates of 28 dpi WT and *ncc1* nodules.

Fractions subjected to proteomic analyses are boxed and indicated as F1 and F2. B and

C, Comparison of the most important element chromatograms and UV/VIS absorption

DAD in the chromatogram region where the biggest differences between the mutant had

been seen in the copper chromatogram. B, replicate 1 of the WT, C, replicate 1 of the *ncc1* mutant.

Figure 7. Bimolecular Fluorescent Complementation assays of MtNCC1$_{1-78}$ interactions. Transient co-expression of MtNCC1$_{1-78}$ in pNXGW and candidate proteins thioredoxin-dependent peroxiredoxin (A) and SAM synthase (B) in pCXGW, putative universal stress protein (C) and pathogenesis-related protein (D) in pXCGW, in *N. benthamiana* leaf cells 3 days-post-agroinfiltration. Left panel corresponds to the fluorescent signal of MtNCC1$_{1-78}$ and corresponding interactor (green); central panel, transillumination; right panel, overlaid fluorescent image and transillumination images. Bars = 20 μm.

876 **TABLES**

877 **Table 1**. Top ten most abundant proteins detected in wild type replicates and not in *ncc1*
878 replicates in Fractions 1 or 2 of the metalloproteomic analyses of nodule soluble proteins.

Uniprot Accesion	Organism	Description	Fraction
Q4H1G3	*M. truncatula*	S-adenosylmethionine synthase	1
A0A072U7P3	*M. truncatula*	Heat shock cognate 70 kDa protein	1
P47923	*M. truncatula*	Nucleoside diphosphate kinase 2	1
Q1SL05	*M. truncatula*	Putative small GTPase superfamily, P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase	2
G7IEZ9	*M. truncatula*	Chalcone-flavonone isomerase family protein 2	1
Q92M81	*S. meliloti*	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	1
A0A072UDY2	*M. truncatula*	Presequence protease	1
Q92SW9	*S. meliloti*	Recombination protein Rec	2
Q92RK3	*S. meliloti*	4-phospho-D-erythronate dehydrogenase	1
Q92RH2	*S. meliloti*	3,4-dihydroxy-2-butanone 4-phosphate synthase	1

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A

B   **C**

Figure 7