1 **Title: A peptide that regulates metalation and function of the *Arabidopsis***
2 **ethylene receptor**
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Abstract:
Ethylene signalling represents one of the classic hormonal pathways in plants, with diverse roles
in development and stress responses. The dimeric ethylene receptor localizes to the endoplasmic
reticulum (ER) and contains Cu(I) ions essential for ethylene binding and signalling. As for other
vesicular cupro-proteins, the final step of Cu(I) maturation at the ER is undefined. We previously
discovered that mutants in the *Arabidopsis* gene *POLARIS* (*PLS*), encoding a 36 amino acid
peptide, exhibit constitutive ethylene signalling responses. Here we report a 1:2 thiol-dependent
Cu(I):PLS$_2$ complex, with an affinity of 3.79 ($\pm$1.5) x10^{19} M^{-2}. We demonstrate PLS interactions
with the transmembrane domain of receptor protein ETR1, the Cu(I) chaperones ATX1 and CCH,
and Cu(I)-transporting P$_{1B}$-type ATPase RAN1 at the ER. Formation of Cu(I)-dependent PLS-
cuproprotein adducts at the ER provides a mechanism to modulate the metalation of ETR1,
thereby regulating its activity and representing a novel mechanism for plant hormone receptor
regulation.

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37 **One Sentence Summary:** The POLARIS peptide of *Arabidopsis* regulates activity of the
38 ethylene hormone receptor by controlling Cu(I) availability.
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Main text
Ethylene is used by plants as a gaseous hormone to regulate many aspects of development and
responses to biotic and abiotic stresses (*1*). It is perceived by a family of receptors that, in
Arabidopsis, comprises 5 members, ETR1 (ETHYLENE RESPONSE 1), ERS1 (ETHYLENE
RESPONSE SENSOR 1), ERS2, ETR2, and EIN4 (ETHYLENE-INSENSITIVE 4) (*2-5*) located
on the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (*6, 7*). The receptors are related to bacterial two-component
systems (*2*), form dimers through disulphide bonding at the N-terminal hydrophobic domains (*8,*
9) and contain Cu(I) ions bound to residues Cys65 and His69, essential for ethylene binding and

signal transduction (*10, 11*). In the absence of ethylene these receptors activate a negative
regulator CTR1 (CONSTITUTIVE TRIPLE RESPONSE 1), a mitogen-activated protein kinase
kinase kinase (MAPKKK), so preventing ethylene responses (*12, 13*). Mechanisms by which
receptor activity is regulated are not well understood. We describe here a molecular mechanism
of the PLS peptide, and a proposed model for its role in plant development.
Introduction of copper to the ER and ethylene receptor requires the RAN1 (RESPONSIVE TO
ANTAGONIST1) protein. This is a predicted copper-transporting P-type ATPase homologous
to the yeast Ccc2p and to human Menkes and Wilson disease proteins (*14*). Strong loss-of-
function mutants of *RAN1* in *Arabidopsis* (e.g. *ran1-3*, *ran1-4*) exhibit a constitutive ethylene
signalling response (*15*), consistent with a loss of receptor function, and similar to higher order
loss-of-function receptor mutants, which also show an ethylene hypersignalling phenotype (*16*).
Mechanisms of copper homeostasis, post-RAN1 but pre-ETR1, are unknown, and indeed this is
true for other compartmentalized cuproproteins supplied with copper, for example via Ccc2p,
Menkes or Wilson ATPases.
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Results
The POLARIS peptide is a negative regulator of ethylene responses

The *POLARIS* gene of *Arabidopsis* (AT4G39403) encodes a 36 amino acids peptide (Fig. 1a)
that, in light-grown seedlings, is most strongly expressed in the root tip and vascular tissues (*17*).
We have previously shown that the loss-of-function *pls* mutant is phenotypically similar to *ran1*
loss-of-function alleles and *ctr1*, exhibiting a triple response phenotype (short hypocotyl and root,
exaggerated apical hook, radial expansion) in the dark in the absence of ethylene (*18*), and a short
root in light-grown seedlings (Fig. 1b). Transgenic complementation of the mutant and
overexpression of the *PLS* gene suppresses the mutant phenotype, but fails to suppress the *ctr1*
mutant phenotype, indicating that the PLS peptide acts upstream of CTR1 (*18*). The *pls* mutant
phenotype is rescued by the gain-of-function ethylene resistant mutation *etr1-1* and
pharmacological inhibition of ethylene signalling by silver ions (*18*). Ethylene gas production in
the *pls* mutant is at wildtype levels, indicating the peptide plays a role in ethylene signalling
rather than biosynthesis (*18*). RNA-seq on loss-of-function *pls* mutant and gain-of-function *PLS*
transgenic overexpressor (PLSOx) seedlings shows that the *pls* mutant expresses no full length
PLS coding sequence, while the PLSOx seedlings express ca. 18-fold higher levels of *PLS*
transcript compared to wild-type (Fig. S1; Table S1). Gene Ontology (GO) analysis following
RNA-seq transcriptomics of *pls* mutant seedlings shows the up-regulation of genes associated
with responses to hormone signalling, biotic and abiotic defence responses, and cell death (Table
S1; Fig. S2a). Eighty-four of 353 known ethylene-related genes are significantly up-regulated in
the *pls* mutant compared to wildtype, and genes down-regulated in *pls* include categories
associated with root morphogenesis, root epidermal cell differentiation, hormone biosynthetic
processes, response to nutrients and metal ion transport (Fig. S2; *19*). In PLSOx overexpressors,
up-regulated genes include those associated with hormone responses, biotic and abiotic stress
responses and cell death; while 169 of 1615 genes associated with response to hormone stimulus
are down-regulated compared to wildtype (Fig. S2c, d; *19*). Genes associated with metal ion
transport are also down-regulated in PLSOx seedlings (Fig. S2d; *19*). Twenty-four ethylene-
related genes are both up-regulated in the *pls* mutant and down-regulated in the PLS-
overexpressor, compared with wild-type (Fig. 1c; *19*). This is consistent with a role for PLS in
ethylene responses and other, potentially related, signalling, stress and developmental processes.
To further understand the relationship between PLS peptide structure and function, and to
investigate conservation of PLS function between species, we carried out synthetic peptide

feeding experiments using hydroponically grown seedlings. The *Arabidopsis* relative *Camelina*
sativa contains a gene with partial sequence identity to the *Arabidopsis PLS* gene, encoding a
predicted peptide sequence that is 22 amino acids long and identical to the N-terminal 22 amino
acids of the *Arabidopsis* PLS except for a phenylalanine to serine substitution at position nine
(Fig. 1a). We synthesized full-length PLS peptide, PLS(FL) and truncated versions from both
Arabidopsis and *C. sativa* (Fig. 1a), and supplied the peptides to *Arabidopsis pls* mutant seedlings
hydroponically. The full-length peptides from both *Arabidopsis* and *C. sativa* were each able to
rescue the short primary root length of the *Arabidopsis pls* mutant (Fig. 1D), similar to transgenic
overexpression and genetic complementation (*17, 18*). PLS(FL) peptide effects on root growth
appear to be dose-dependent, as indicated both by genetic studies (*17*) and peptide feeding (Fig.
S3a). However, neither a 9 amino acids sequence (N2, Fig. 1e) from the N-terminus, nor C-
terminal sequences of 14 (C1) or 24 (C2) amino acids from *Arabidopsis* PLS were able to rescue
the mutant (Fig. 1e). Imaging showed that a fluorescent tagged (5-carboxyfluorescein, 5-FAM)
version of the *Arabidopsis* N-terminal 22 amino acids sequence of the peptide (N1) is taken up
by the roots, and also rescues the mutant root phenotype (Fig. S3b, c).
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PLS localizes to the endoplasmic reticulum

Since genetic studies suggest that PLS acts close to the ethylene receptor (*18*), we hypothesized
that it should localize to the same subcellular compartment. The ethylene receptor in *Arabidopsis*
is localized to the ER (*12*), and ER localization of a proPLS::PLS:GFP fusion protein was
confirmed by co-localization with the ER marker dye ER-Tracker™ (Fig. 2a-c) and with an ER-
targeted red fluorescent protein RFP-HDEL (*20*) in transgenic plants (Fig. 2g-i).
proPLS::PLS:GFP also appears to localize to the nucleus (Fig. 2). As controls, free GFP protein
expressed under the control of the PLS promoter is not co-localized to the ER (Fig. 2d-f) and, as
expected, the Golgi marker SH:GFP does not co-localize with ER Tracker (Fig. 2m-o). *Trans-*
Golgi-localized SULFOTRANSFERASE1 (ST1) mCherry (*21*) show proPLS::PLS:GFP does
not localize to the Golgi (Fig. 2j-l). To further clarify the side of the ER membrane on which PLS
localizes, transient expression of redox-sensitive GFP (roGFP2) fusions of PLS were carried out.
The different excitation properties of roGFP2 in an oxidizing (ER lumen) or reducing
environment (cytosol) allows discrimination of the precise location of PLS. Ratiometric analysis
and comparison with proteins of known localization revealed that PLS resides at the cytosolic
side of the ER and is not localized in the ER lumen (Fig. 2p).
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PLS interacts with the ethylene receptor protein ETR1

We hypothesized that PLS plays a role in receptor function and investigated whether this
involved direct interaction with the receptor complex. Preliminary experiments using yeast 2-
hybrid analysis suggested that PLS interacts with ETR1 (Fig. S4). Confirmation of the physical
interaction between PLS and ETR1 in plants came from co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) analysis.
Agrobacterium containing a plasmid encoding PLS linked to a C-terminal GFP and ETR1 with
a C-terminal HA tag was infiltrated into *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves for transient expression.
After 3 d, interaction was confirmed by western blotting after Co-IP with either anti-GFP beads
(showing PLS pulls down ETR1) or anti-HA beads (showing ETR1 pulls down PLS) (Fig. 3a).
GFP-only controls did not show binding with ETR1, demonstrating the interaction is dependent
on the presence of the PLS peptide.
The addition of 0.5 µM copper sulphate to the protein extract used for Co-IP experiments
stabilized the PLS-ETR1 interaction. The presence of copper ions resulted in almost 3-fold more
PLS:GFP detected upon pulldowns with ETR1-HA, or conversely of ETR1-HA pulled down
with PLS-GFP, compared to the same assay in the presence of the metal chelator 2 mM EDTA

(Fig. 3a, b).
To investigate the specificity of PLS binding, synthetic full length PLS peptide PLS(FL) was
introduced into the infiltrated *N. benthamiana* leaves 30 min before the tissue was harvested. The
addition of 25 nM synthetic PLS caused a ca. 80% reduction in PLS-GFP binding to ETR1-HA
(Fig. 3c, d), suggesting that the synthetic PLS peptide competes for ETR1 binding, and showing
the specificity of PLS for ETR1. Interestingly, the anti-GFP beads bound two sizes of PLS-GFP
protein (Fig. 3e), both of which were larger than a GFP-only control, suggesting that the PLS
peptide undergoes cleavage, a change in conformation, post-translational modification or
incomplete reduction of Cys residues on some PLS. When using ETR1-HA to pull down PLS-
GFP, only the larger peptide was present (Fig. 3e, f), suggesting that ETR1 binds the full length
PLS peptide, but that PLS may be modified after ETR1 binding.
To pinpoint the interaction site at the receptor in more detail, binding studies were performed
with purified receptor variants and PLS by microscale thermophoresis (MST; Fig. 3g). Binding
of PLS was observed only with receptor variants containing the N-terminal transmembrane
domain (TMD). In contrast, no binding was detected with ETR1 lacking this domain (ETR1^{306-}
^{738}). The TMD harbors the ethylene and copper binding region (*22*).
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PLS binds Cu(I) and forms protein adducts with copper chaperones ATX and CCH and
with RAN1
Cysteine residues are common metal-ligand binding residues in low molecular weight copper-
handling peptides, and predictions of PLS structure suggests a single α-helix plus unstructured
region with two cysteines (CX$_{10}$C arrangement where X is any amino acid), with some analogy
to copper-metallochaperones such as Cox17 or other CX$_9$C twin proteins (*23*). In view of both
structural considerations and the copper-dependency of ETR1 we determined whether the two
cysteine residues (C6 and C17) in PLS play a functional role, such as in copper binding. A
mutated *Arabidopsis* full-length peptide in which both cysteines were replaced with serine,
PLS(FL C6S, C17S), was non-functional in root feeding assays (Fig. 4a), indicating the
importance of the cysteine residues for biological activity. To determine a possible role for PLS
in binding Cu(I), we first grew *pls* mutants and wildtype seedlings in the presence of the copper
chelator bathocuproine disulphonic acid (BCS), which is often used to deplete copper but notably
solubilises and stabilises Cu(I). Treatment of *pls* and wildtype seedlings with 10 μM and 50 μM
BCS led to an increased primary root length of both genotypes, while 100 μM BCS led to
significantly enhanced root growth in the *pls* mutant compared with wildtype (Fig. 4b); and
rescue of the overexpression of ethylene-responsive genes (Fig. S5; *19*). This suggests that the
availability of Cu(I) is growth-limiting in the *pls* mutant through abnormal ethylene perception.
Bicinchoninic acid (BCA) is a chromophore that binds Cu(I) (*24*) (Fig. 4c and S6). Titration
experiments show that synthetic PLS(FL) withholds Cu(I) from BCA (Fig. S7), but the mutant
PLS (FL C6S, C17S) does not (Fig. S8). Attempts to determine the stoichiometry and affinity
for Cu(I) were confounded by precipitation of the synthetic peptide, whereas PLS fusion to
maltose binding protein (MBP-PLS) retained solubility when titrated with Cu(I) ions under
strictly anaerobic conditions. MBP-PLS (14 μM) withholds ca. 7 μM Cu(I) from BCA, indicative
of a 2:1 PLS:Cu(I) stoichiometry, and tight binding is cysteine-dependent (Fig. 4d). A *β$_2$* affinity
of 3.79 (±1.5) x10^{19} M^{-2} was determined by competition against an excess of BCA, and the fit
significantly departs from simulations 10x tighter or weaker (Fig. 4e, Fig. S9).
Metal binding in biology is challenging to predict because the formation of metal-protein
complexes is a combined function of metal affinity for a given protein and metal availability,
which would need to be known for Cu(I) in the *Arabidopsis* cytosol in the case of PLS (Fig. 2p).
Cu(I) occupancy of the cytosolic copper chaperone ANTIOXIDANT PROTEIN 1 (ATX1) tracks

with fluctuations in available cytosolic Cu(I) such that its affinity approximates to the mid-point
of the range of Cu(I) availabilities within this eukaryotic compartment (*25, 26*). *Arabidopsis*
ATX1 was therefore expressed and purified to determine a 1:1 ATX1:Cu(I) stoichiometry and
affinity $K_{D\ Cu(I)}$ of 5.47 (±0.6) x10^{-18} M (Fig. 4f inset, Fig. S10). Figure 4f (main panel) reveals
that the cytosolic concentration of PLS would need to exceed (improbable) millimolar
concentrations for Cu(I)-dependent homodimers to form at this cytosolic Cu(I) availability
(mathematical models and equations shown in Supplementary text). It is thus unlikely that the
Cu(I):PLS$_2$ complex alone delivers Cu(I) to interacting cuproprotein ETR1. Cu(I)-dependent
PLS heterodimeric adducts are the more likely functional species.
Together these results suggest a model in which PLS is involved in the RAN1-dependent
maturation of Cu(I)ETR1 at the ER. To investigate possible interaction between PLS and RAN1,
PLS was titrated to fluorescently labelled RAN1 and RAN1 truncation mutants. RAN1,
NterRAN1 and CterRAN1 were purified and labelled as described (*27*). NterRAN1 is a
truncation containing only the two N-terminal metal-binding-domains, whereas CterRAN1 is a
construct lacking this region. Using Microscale Thermophoresis, direct interaction was observed
between PLS and RAN1. Dissociation constants indicate that PLS interacts predominantly with
the N-terminal metal-binding-domains, but only weakly with the C-terminal region (Fig. 4g).
Moreover, the soluble copper chaperones ATX1 and CCH also interact with PLS. Titration
experiments were carried out with fluorescently labelled copper chaperones ATX1, CCH and
CCHΔ, a mutant lacking the plant specific C-terminal extension. PLS interacts with these soluble
copper chaperones at similar affinity as obtained for RAN1 (Fig. 4h). Of relevance here is the
observation that ATX1 interacts directly with RAN1 to deliver copper at the ER (*28*). Cu(I)-
dependent PLS heterodimeric adducts may therefore modulate multiple cuproproteins in the
Cu(I)ETR1 maturation pathway.
The formation of PLS adducts with otherwise unsaturated copper coordination spheres, can
inhibit the formation of aberrant copper-bridged complexes during metalation or during re-
organisation of copper sites. This can, in turn, influence the rate of holo-ETR1 maturation, plus
potentially the rates of ETR1 deactivation and reactivation. In this model, a down-regulation of
PLS or loss-of-function mutation of the *PLS* gene leads to a depletion of correctly coordinated
Cu(I) at the receptor through reduced intermediate PLS heterodimer adduct formation, in turn
leading to a non-functional receptor that cannot activate CTR1, with a consequent activation of
ethylene signaling, similar to *ran1* or *etr1* loss-of-function mutants, and/or through the effect of
ethylene on reducing *PLS* expression (Figs. S11, S12). Overexpression of PLS phenocopies the
ethylene-insensitive *etr1-1* gain-of-function mutant (*18*), presumably by a conformational
change in the receptor on binding, to promote a functional interaction with CTR1 and suppressing
ethylene responses. The PLS complex may be removed from ETR1 by dissociation of a PLS-
ETR1-RAN1-chaperone complex following ligand-exchange, and/or modulated by PLS
modification or cleavage. It is speculated that similar PLS-dependent events may also be required
to re-set the receptor, perhaps following changes in the copper coordination sphere coincident
with gain or loss of cation-π bonds between copper and ethylene. Hormonal regulation of *PLS*
expression forms a signaling network to regulate ethylene responses and root growth with other
hormones, such as by its activation to suppress growth-inhibitory ethylene responses in the high
auxin environment of the root tip (*29*) (Fig. S12). Future structural studies should reveal more
about the PLS-adduct-receptor interaction and role of copper ions in ethylene signal transduction,
which represents a new paradigm for the regulation of signaling protein function by metals.
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Methods

Plant Material

Seedlings of *Arabidopsis thaliana* ecotype either C24 or Col-0, or *pls* mutants or transgenic *PLS* overexpressers, all from lab stocks, were grown on solid sterile half-strength MS10 medium on 2.5% Phytagel (Sigma-Aldrich) in 90 mm Petri dishes (Sarstedt, Leicester, UK) at 21°C, under a 16 hour photoperiod as described (*17, 18*). *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants (lab stocks) were grown in a controlled environment (21°C, 16 h photoperiod) for transient expression studies in leaf tissue. For hydroponic feeding studies, *Arabidopsis* seedlings were cultured in liquid medium (1 ml/well) in sterile 24-well plates (Sarstedt), essentially as described (*30*). For hormone and peptide assays, one seedling was grown in each well, at 21°C, under a 16 h photoperiod. For peptide feeding experiments, purified freeze-dried peptide was dissolved in DMSO to create a 500 μM stock solution. Peptide stock solution was added to liquid ½ MS10 plant media containing 0.1% DMSO to make a final peptide concentration of 50 or 100 nM (or 10, 25, 50 and 100 nM for dose-dependent assays). For copper treatments, 1 mM $CuSO_4$ solution was filter-sterilized and added to autoclaved liquid ½ MS10 plant media to create final $CuSO_4$ concentrations of 0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45 and 50 μM. The copper chelator bathocuproine disulphonic acid (BCS) was added to liquid medium to produce final concentrations of 0, 10, 50, 100, 250 and 500 μM. Seedlings were scanned to create a digital image and root lengths of seedlings were measured using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was performed using the Real Statistics Resource Pack software (Release 3.8, www.real-statistics.com) in Excel (Microsoft).

Peptide Synthesis

Peptides were either obtained from Cambridge Research Biochemicals (Billingham, UK) or synthesized in the laboratory by Fmoc solid phase peptide synthesis (SPPS) on a CEM Liberty1 single-channel peptide synthesiser equipped with a Discover microwave unit. Reactions were performed in a 30 ml PTFE reaction vessel with microwave heating and agitation by bubbling nitrogen. Peptide synthesis was carried out using 2-chlorotrityl chloride resin (0.122 mmol g^{-1}, Novabiochem) using Fmoc-protected amino acids. The first amino acid residue at the C-terminus (histidine) was coupled manually by mixing 76 mg (1 eq.) Fmoc-His(Trt)-OH, 0.09 ml (4 eq.) *N,N*-diisopropylethylamine (DIPEA), 1 ml dichloromethane (DCM) and 1 ml dimethylformamide (DMF) until the amino acid powder had dissolved. The mixture was added to 0.1 mmol resin and stirred gently for 120 minutes at room temperature. Resin was washed with 3x DCM/MeOH/DIPEA (17:2:1), 3x DCM, 2x DMF and 2x DCM. Amino acid coupling reactions were performed using Fmoc-protected amino acids present in a 5-fold excess (2 M concentration), HOBt (0.5 M HOBt in DMF, used at the activator position) and DIC (0.8 M in DMSO, used at the activator base position). For double and triple couplings the reaction vessel was drained after each coupling cycle and fresh reagents were added. Before each coupling, a room temperature preactivation period of 1 to 2 hours was used. Microwave-assisted couplings were performed for 10 minutes at 75°C at 25W power. Cys and His residues were coupled at low temperature (10 minutes at room temperature followed by 10 minutes at 50°C, 25W). Arg residues were double coupled, firstly by 45 minutes at room temperature plus 5 minutes at 75°C (25W), and second by the standard microwave conditions above. Fmoc group removal was carried out by two piperidine solution treatments (20% piperidine in DMF) in succession: 5 minutes then 10 minutes. Peptide cleavage from resin was carried out in 3 ml 95% TFA in dH_2O/TIPS (2.85 ml TFA, 0.15 ml dH_2O, 0.15 ml triisopropylsilane). Peptide was dissolved in water

284 with a small volume of MeCN and lyophilized to produce a powder using a Christ ALPHA 1-2
285 LD$_{plus}$ freeze dryer.
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Preparative High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC)
Peptide products were analysed and purified by HPLC at 280 nm. 25-50 mg of freeze-dried
peptide sample was dissolved in 1 ml 1:1 H$_2$O:MeCN and injected onto a Speck and Burke
Analytical C18 Column (5.0 μm, 10.0 x 250 mm) attached to a PerkinElmer (Massachusetts,
USA) Series 200 LC Pump and 785A UV/Vis Detector. Separation was achieved by gradient
elution of 10-80% solvent B (solvent A = 0.08% TFA in water; solvent B = 0.08% TFA in ACN)
over 60 minutes, followed by 80-100% B over 10 minutes, with a flow rate of 2 ml/min. Selected
peptide fractions were lyophilized and a mass assigned using MALDI-TOF MS. Peptide
sequences were identified using MALDI-TOF MS, using an Autoflex II ToF/ToF mass
spectrometer (Bruker Daltonik GmBH, Germany) equipped with a 337 nm nitrogen laser. MS
data was processed using FlexAnalysis 2.0 (Bruker Daltonik GmBH).
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Imaging
CSLM images were obtained by a Leica SP5 TCS confocal microscope using 40X and 63X oil
immersion lenses. For propidium iodide staining, whole *Arabidopsis* seedlings were incubated
in 10 mg/l propidium iodide solution for 90 s. *pPLS::PLS:GFP, pPLS::GFP* and *p35S::GFP*
seedlings were grown for 7 d on Phytagel ½ MS10 medium before ca. 25 mm of the root tip was
removed and mounted in dH$_2$O on a microscope slide, and a 1.5 mm cover slip was placed on
top prior to imaging. The ER marker p35S::RFP:HDEL (*20*) (kindly provided by Dr. Pengwei
Wang, Durham University), and the trans-Golgi apparatus marker *pFGC-ST:mCherry* (obtained
from Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre, www.arabidopsis.info) were introduced into
pPLS::PLS:GFP plants by the floral dip method of transformation (*31*) using *A. tumefaciens*
GV3 101. ER was also localized using ER Tracker™ Red (Life Technologies). Seven day-old
seedlings were stained for 30 min in the dark in liquid ½ MS10 media containing 1 μM ER
Tracker™ Red.
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RNA Isolation, RNA Sequencing, RT-qPCR
RNA was extracted from 7 day-old seedlings grown on half strength MS10 medium using the
Sigma-Aldrich Plant Total RNA Kit (STRN50) and the On-Column DNase I Digestion Set
(DNASE10-1SET), essentially as described (*32*). Tissue was ground in liquid nitrogen before
incubation in lysis solution containing 2-mercaptoethanol at 65°C for 3 min. Debris was removed
by centrifugation and column filtration and RNA was captured onto a binding column using the
supplied binding solution. DNA was removed by wash solutions and DNase treatment on the
column. Purified RNA was eluted using RNAase free water.
The Illumina HiSeq 2500 System was used for RNA sequencing of three biological replicate
samples, with libraries prepared using the Illumina TruSeq Stranded Total RNA with Ribo-Zero
Plant Sample Preparation kit (RS-122-2401), essentially as described (*32*). Ribosomal RNA
(rRNA) was removed and purified RNA was quality checked using a TapeStation 2200 (Agilent
Technology) with High Sensitivity RNA ScreenTape (5067-5579). mRNA was fragmented into
120-200 bp sequences with a median size of 150 bp, and used as template to synthesize first
strand cDNA using reverse transcriptase and random primers, followed by second strand cDNA
synthesis with DNA Polymerase I and RNase H. Newly synthesized cDNA had a single adenine
base added with ligation of adaptors, before being purified and amplified by PCR to make the
final library. Library quality control was carried out again using a TapeStation with D1000
ScreenTape (catalog number 5067-5582). RNA-seq data were processed and aligned against the

TAIR10 (EnsemblePlants) genome using TopHat and indexed with Samtools. DeSeq determined
differential expression. A padj-value of ≤ 0.05 and a $\log_2$fold change ($\log_2$FC) of ≥ 0.5 were
selected to identify differentially expressed genes (DEGs). RNA-seq data are deposited in the
Dryad Digital Repository (*19*).
For RT-qPCR, RNA was extracted from 7 day-old seedlings (3 biological replicates, 20 mg of
tissue) as described (*32*). Total mRNA was extracted using Dynabeads®mRNA DIRECT™kit
with Oligo(dT)$_{25}$ labelled magnetic beads. cDNA was prepared using a SuperScript®IV First-
Strand synthesis system. Samples were checked for the presence of genomic DNA by PCR with
ACTIN2 primers ACT2 forward and reverse. Primer sequences were determined using Primer-
BLAST (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/). Primers are listed in Table S2.
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Protein-protein interaction studies
Yeast 2-hybrid
The GAL4 two-hybrid phagemid vector system was used to detect protein-protein interactions
in vivo in yeast, using the reporter genes β-galactosidase *(lacZ)* and histidine (*HIS3*) in the YRG-
2 yeast strain, essentially as described (*34*). DNA that encodes the target (ETR1) and bait (PLS)
was inserted into the pAD-GAL4-2.1 A and pBD-GAL4 Cam phagemid vectors respectively and
expressed as hybrid protein. The hybrid proteins were then assayed for protein-protein
interaction.
DNA encoding the target and bait proteins were prepared by PCR amplification using primer
designed the specifically for the DNA encoding the target (ETR1) and bait (PLS). Each set of
primer contained specific endonucleases on the ends of primer corresponding to the
endonucleases in the MCS of pAD-GAL4-2.1 A and pBD-GAL4 Cam phagemid vectors. The
DNA construct of the target (ETR1) and bait (PLS) with specific restriction sites on the ends was
then transformed into the TOPO 2.1 vector to check the sequence of the amplified DNA by
sequencing with M13 forward (CTG GCC GTC GTT TTA C) and M13 reverse (CAG GAA
ACA GCT ATG AC). The two vectors, pAD-GAL4-2.1 and pBD-GAL4 Cam were digested
using specific restriction endonucleases and dephosphorylated prior to ligating the insert DNA.
The DNA encoding the target (ETR1) and bait (PLS) was then ligated into the same reading
frame as the GAL4 AD of the pAD-GAL4-2.1 phagemid vector and the GAL4 BD of the pBD-
GAL4 Cam phagemid vector.
The following primers were used for PCR amplification:
ETR1:
Forward primer GAA TCC ATG GAA GTC TGC AAT GGT A (Eco RI on 5' end)
Reverse primer GTC GAC TTA CAT GCC CTC GTA CA (Sal I on 5'end)
PLS:
Forward primer CTG GAG ATG AAA CCC AGA CTT TGT (Xho I on 5' end)
Reverse primer GTC GAC ATG GAT TTT AAA AAG TTT (Sal I on 5' end)
The pGAL4 control plasmid was used alone to verify that induction of the *lacZ* and *HIS3* genes
has occurred and that the gene products are detectable in the assay used. The pLamin C control
plasmid was used in pairwise combination with the pAD-WT control plasmid or with the pAD-
MUT control plasmid to verify that the *lacZ* and *HIS3* genes are not induced as the protein
expressed by each of these pairs do not interact *in vivo*.
The control plasmids were transformed into the YRG-2 strain prior to the initial transformation
of the bait and the target plasmids. The control plasmids were used separately or in pairwise
combination in the transformation of the YRG-2 yeast strain. The yeast competent cells were
cotransformed with the bait and target plasmids by sequential transformation. First, yeast were

transformed with the bait plasmid and assayed for expression of reporter genes. Second, yeast
competent cells containing the bait were prepared and transformed with the target plasmid.
381

Bimolecular fluorescence complementation analysis (BiFC)
BiFC was carried out essentially as described previously (*35*). Full-length *Arabidopsis* ETR1 and
PLS cDNA sequences were cloned respectively into the vectors pDH51-GWYFPn (AM779183,
to form ETR1-YFPn) and pDH51-GW-YFPc (AM779184, to form PLS-YFPc), and the CTR1
cDNA was cloned into pDH51-GW-YFPc (CTR1c), as a control for ETR1 interactions. Intact
YFP plasmid was also used as a positive control and YFPc alone was used as a negative control
as described previously (*34*). Plasmids were kindly provided by Prof. Don Grierson, University
of Nottingham. Transient expression studies following microprojectile bombardment on onion
cells. Plasmids were adhered to gold particles to make gold-coated cartridges. 5-10 of these
cartridges were used for bombarding onion peel cells. Agar plates containing bombarded onion
peels were incubated for 8 hours in dark and then a 1 cm section of the peel was stained with
propidium iodide (10 mg/ml) for 1 min and viewed under confocal microscope. Experiments
were repeated at least three times.
395

Co-immunoprecipitation
To investigate the interaction between the PLS peptide and the ethylene receptor ETR1, two
DNA constructs were created by Gateway cloning. The 105-nucleotide *PLS* gene (without the
stop codon) was inserted into the pEarlyGate103 (pEG103) destination vector, containing the
p35S promoter and a C-terminal GFP tag, producing a vector containing the *p35S::PLS:GFP*
DNA. The ETR1 cDNA was inserted into the pEarlyGate301 (pEG301) vector to create a
p35S::ETR1:HA construct, producing an ETR1 protein with a C-terminal HA tag.
403

Infiltration into *Nicotiana benthamiana*
The transient expression of constructs in *Nicotiana benthamiana* (tobacco) leaves was based on
a previously published method (*36*). Experiments were replicated up to 5 times. Competent
Agrobacterium tumefaciens GV3101 cells were transformed with the desired plasmid containing
the gene of interest. Individual colonies were used to inoculate liquid LB cultures containing 25
µg/ml gentamicin, 50 µg/ml rifampicin and the specific antibiotic required to select for the
desired plasmid. The liquid cultures were grown at 28°C for 14-16 h with shaking at 220 rpm.
Additionally, liquid cultures of GV3101 containing the p19 protein that is encoded by the tomato
bushy plant virus were also prepared in order to suppress post-transcriptional gene silencing (*36*).
The overnight cultures were grown until an OD_{600} of approximately 0.6 was reached, and then
centrifuged at 3000 x *g* for 5 min. These cells were then twice washed with 10 ml of an infiltration
buffer containing 10 mM $MgCl_2.6H_20$, resuspended in 1 ml of the same solution and
subsequently incubated at room temperature for 3-5 h. Prior to infiltration, each construct was
mixed with p19 and infiltration buffer in a 1:1.2:1.8 ratio.
Several small cuts were made with a scalpel on the abaxial surface of the *N. benthamiana*
leaves, and were subsequently injected with each of the constructs using a syringe. The plants
were approximately 7 to 10 weeks old; the chosen leaves were healthy and of length 3-6 cm, and
3 to 4 leaves were infiltrated with each construct.
422

Protein extraction and PLS/ETR1 co-immunoprecipitation
Total protein was extracted from the infiltrated leaves of *N. benthamiana* plants 3 d after
infiltration for co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP/pull-down) experiments to investigate the
interaction between PLS and ETR1 proteins.

1.5 g of leaf tissue was harvested from each *A. tumefaciens* construct infiltration event, frozen
with liquid nitrogen and ground gently using a mortar and pestle. For competition assays, 5 nM
or 25 nM full-length PLS peptide was also infiltrated in the presence of 50 µM MG-132 (a
proteasome inhibitor) 30 min prior to tissue freezing. The homogenate was transferred to a pre-
cooled microcentrifuge tube. 2 ml of extraction buffer was added (20 mM sodium phosphate pH
7.4, 100 mM NaCl, 80 mM KCl, 1% glycerol, 0.1 % Triton, 10 mM DTT, plus 1 mini protease
inhibitor cocktail tablet, Roche, Switzerland) per 20 ml of extraction buffer, and the extra
addition of either 2 mM EDTA or 0.5 µM $CuSO_4$ for binding studies), and the solution was
ground further and vortexed until the homogenate was smooth. The solution was centrifuged for
12 min at 14000 x *g*, 4°C.
ChromoTek (Planegg, Germany) anti-GFP beads were used to immunoprecipitate the PLS-GFP
protein, and Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, USA) anti-HA beads for the HA-tagged ETR1. 25 µl bead
slurry was resuspended in 500 µl ice-cold dilution buffer (20 mM sodium phosphate pH 7.4, 100
mM NaCl, 80 mM KCl, 1% glycerol, 0.1 % Triton, 10 mM DTT, plus 1 mini protease inhibitor
cocktail tablet) and centrifuged for 2 minutes at 2500 x *g* at 4°C. The supernatant was discarded
and the beads were washed twice more with 500 µl ice-cold dilution buffer.
The supernatant from the protein sample extraction from *N. benthamiana* plants was mixed
with 50 µl GFP beads or HA beads and incubated for 30 minutes at 4°C, mixing every 2 minutes.
The mixture was centrifuged at 2500 x *g* for 2 min at 4°C, washed twice with 500 µl ice-cold
dilution buffer, and the beads were transferred to a new microcentrifuge tube. The target protein
was eluted with the addition of 100 µl 2x SDS sample buffer (120 mM Tris pH 6.8, 50 mM 4%
(w/v) SDS, 20% (v/v) glycerol) and the sample was boiled for 10 minutes at 95°C to dissociate
immunocomplexes from the beads. The mixture was centrifuged for at 2500 x *g* for 2 minutes at
4°C to separate the beads, and the supernatant was transferred to a new microcentrifuge tube.
The supernatant was used in SDS-PAGE analysis.
452
Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE)
SDS-PAGE was used to separate protein fragments. The complexed proteins from the pull-down
assay were analysed on 10-12% acrylamide gels.
Firstly, the resolving gel was prepared by adding the chosen amount of acrylamide (ProtoGel,
30% (w/v) acrylamide, 0.8% (w/v) bisacrylamide solution, National Diagnostics) to the resolving
buffer (0.1% (w/v) SDS, 375 mM Tris, polymerized via the addition of 0.1% (v/v) ammonium
persulphate solution (APS) and finally set by the addition of 1.4 µl/ml TEMED (NNN'N'-
tetramethylethylenediamine). The stacking gel was then prepared again by adding the appropriate
amount of acrylamide to the stacking buffer (consisting of 0.1% w/v SDS, 125 mM Tris).
Polymerization was activated by adding 0.1% (v/v) APS and set using 4 µl/ml TEMED.
SDS-PAGE gels were run in a tank containing an electrode buffer (25 mM Tris, 0.1% (v/v)
glycerol, 190 mM glycine, diluted 1:10 with dH2O) at 90 V for approximately 90 min. 6 µl
PageRuler™ Plus Prestained Protein Ladder, 10 to 250 kDa (ThermoFisher Scientific) was
loaded as a protein size marker, displaying coloured bands at 10, 15, 25, 35, 55 70, 100, 130 and
250 kDa.
468
Western Blotting
Following electrophoresis, the SDS gels were first washed in 1x transfer buffer (0.04% (w/v)
SDS, 20% (v/v) methanol, 38 mM glycine, 48 mM Tris) for 5 minutes. The proteins were then
transferred overnight onto nitrocellulose membranes (Whatman, GE Healthcare Life Sciences,
Buckinghamshire, UK) in a 1 litre tank containing transfer buffer at 30 V.

The nitrocellulose membranes were incubated in milk buffer (5% (w/v) dried skimmed milk
powder (Tesco, Durham, UK), 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris, 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20, pH 7.4) for 20
min to block non-specific protein binding. Following this treatment, the membranes were
incubated with primary antibody for 2.5 h (GFP, Abcam, Cambridge, UK: rabbit, 1:10000; HA
[Roche], rat, 1:3000). Excess primary antibody was then removed by washing three times in 2x
TBST (150 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris, 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20, pH 7.4) for 2 m, 5 min and 10 min,
and subsequently incubated for 1 h with the ECL peroxidase-labelled anti-rabbit or anti-rat IgG
secondary antibody, diluted 1:20000 in TBST. Excess secondary antibody was removed again
by washing three times in 1x TBST, as with the primary antibody. In order to visualize the probed
blot, the membrane was incubated with ECL Western Blotting Detection Reagent immediately
prior to imaging. The horseradish peroxidase conjugated to the secondary antibody was detected
by using X-ray film, which was subsequently developed in a dark room.
486
Estimation of synthetic PLS concentration
Freeze-dried synthetic PLS peptide (Cambridge Research Biochemicals, Billingham) was
dissolved in DMSO. An aliquot was added to aqueous buffer (10 mM HEPES pH7, 20 mM NaCl,
80 mM KCl) and absorbance at 280 nm was recorded. Concentration was estimated from the
absorbance and the ProtParam estimated extinction coefficient of 2,980 M^{-1} cm^{-1}. Concurrent
with this a sample was submitted for quantitative amino acid analysis (Abingdon Health
Laboratory Services). From this analysis a conversion factor of 2.27 was generated, which was
applied to concentrations determined by A280 nm.
495
ATX1 purification
E. coli BL21(DE3) containing pETatx1 was used to overexpress the wildtype *ATX1* gene from
Arabidopsis thaliana (optimised for expression in *E. coli*, Novoprolabs). Harvested cells were
collected and frozen at -20 °C overnight then defrosted, resuspended in 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.0),
10 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM DTT. Cells were sonicated (Bandelin Sonoplus),
supernatant separated by size exclusion chromatography (GE Healthcare, HiLoad 26.600
Superdex 75 pg) metal-free buffer lacking EDTA. Fractions containing ATX1 were incubated
overnight and pooled before transfer into an anaerobic chamber (Belle Technology) via desalting
column where reductant was removed. ATX1 was quantified by combination of Bradford assay
and Ellman's reagent to ensure the fully reduced state of the protein. Samples were also analysed
for metal content by ICP-MS to ensure > 95% apo-ATX1.
507
MBP-PLS/mutant purification
A fusion of PLS to MBP was created using the NEBExpress MBP Fusion and Purification
System. Two complementary oligonucleotide primers encoding PLS (optimised for expression
in *E. coli*) were annealed and inserted into the pMal-c5x plasmid at XmnI and SalI insertion sites.
The three mutants MBP-PLS(C6S), MBP-PLS(C17S) and MBP-PLS(C6S/C17S) were created
by site-directed mutagenesis (QuikChange II, Agilent). *E. coli* NEB Express containing the pMal
plasmid with the correct MBP-PLS mutant was used to overexpress each protein. Harvested cells
were resuspended in 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA and frozen at -20
°C overnight. Cells were defrosted in cold H_2O, sonicated, purified by ammonium sulphate
precipitation (where MBP-PLS precipitates >60% saturation), separated on MBP-trap (GE
Healthcare) and eluted using buffer containing 10 mM maltose. MBP-PLS-containing fractions
were pooled and concentrated using centrifugal concentrator (Corning, Spin-X UF 30 KDa) and
buffer exchanged by desalting column into metal-free 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.0), 50 mM NaCl
buffer in an anaerobic chamber (Belle Technology). Mutants containing thiols were quantified

Ellman's assay and MBP-PLS(C6S/C17S), which lacks all thiols, was quantified by Bradford assay alone. Samples were also analysed for metal content by ICP-MS to ensure >95% apo-protein.

Anaerobic spectroscopic analysis of Cu(I) complexes
All Cu(I) titration experiments were carried out in an anaerobic chamber (Belle Technology) using metal-free CHELEX-treated, degassed buffers. For experiments titrating Cu(I), aqueous $CuSO_4$ stock was quantified in advance by ICP-MS and diluted to working concentrations. The reductant NH_2OH was included at final concentration of 1 mM to retain Cu(I) in its reduced state. Proteins were diluted in buffer to the final concentration specified in each titration in air-tight quartz cuvettes (Helma), and after addition of probe to the concentration specified, titrated with $CuSO_4$. After each addition, solutions were thoroughly mixed and absorbance spectra recorded using a Lambda 35 UV/Vis spectrophotometer (Perkin Elmer). Titration isotherm data was fitted using simulated affinity curves using Dynafit (*37*).

Interaction studies of PLS with copper transporter ETR1 by Microscale Thermophoresis
Fluorescently labelled ETR1 truncation mutants were added to a dilution series of PLS in 50 mM HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, 0.015 % (wv) FosCholine 16 (pH 7.6) or 50 mM Tris, 300 mM NaCl, 0.015 % (w/v) FosCholine 16 (pH 7.6). Dissociation constants were calculated using GraphPad Prism 5.

Determination of dissociation constants for the PLS-ETR1 interaction
Full-length ETR1 and truncation mutants were purified and labelled as described in (*38*). 94 µM PLS were diluted serially in 50 mM Tris and 300 mM NaCl (pH 7.6). Fluorescently labelled receptor was added at a final concentration of 50 nM. Thermophoretic behaviour was measured in premium capillaries at 50 % LED and 50 % MST power. In case of a binding event, data were fitted using GraphPad Prism 5.

Interaction studies of PLS with copper transporter RAN1 and copper chaperones by Microscale Thermophoresis
PLS was titrated to fluorescently labelled RAN1 and RAN1 truncation mutants. RAN1, NterRAN1 and CterRAN1 were purified and labelled as described in (*27*). NterRAN1 is a truncation containing only of two N-terminal metal-binding-domains, whereas CterRAN1 is a construct lacking this region. Direct interaction between PLS and RAN1 was observed using Microscale Thermophoresis. Dissociation constants indicate that PLS interacts predominantly with the N-terminal metal-binding-domains, but only weakly with the C-terminal region. Dissociation constants were determined using GraphPad Prism 5. Titration experiments were also carried out with fluorescently labelled copper chaperones ATX, CCH and CCHΔ, a mutant lacking the plant specific C-terminal extension. Proteins were purified and labelled as described (*27*).

Ratiometric analysis of roGFP2 fusion proteins
N- and C-terminal roGFP2 fusion proteins of PLS were generated by Gateway cloning. Infiltration and transient expression of roGFP2 fusions and control proteins were carried out as described in (*39*). Image acquisition and data analysis were carried out as described in (*27*). A minimum of 10 leaf optical sections were imaged and used for ratiometric analysis of the redox sensitive excitation properties of roGFP2.

Statistical methods

For gene expression analysis and growth assays, a minimum of three biological replicates was used - see Supplementary Materials, Figure legends, Supplementary Table S1, expression data on Dryad (*19*). For protein-protein interaction and protein localization studies, assays were carried out independently between 2 and 10 times (Figs. 2, 3 legends). At least three biological replicates were used for plant growth assays, RNA-seq and gene expression (RT-qPCR) experiments, metal binding assays (Fig. 4). Normalised values from at least three biological replicates were then used for one- or two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) where appropriate and indicated in relevant Figure legends. Error bars are defined in Figure legends, where relevant.

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731
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733 KL and NJR initiated the project. KL, JFT, NJR, AS and GG designed and supervised aspects of
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735 and prepared the Figures. KL, NJR and GG drafted the early version of the manuscript, and all
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737
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739
740
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745
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Figure Legends
Figure 1. The PLS peptide is required for ethylene control of seedling growth, is
structurally and functionally conserved, and complements the *Arabidopsis pls* mutant.
(**a**). Amino acid sequence of the PLS peptide from *Arabidopsis thaliana* with *Camelina sativa*
PLS sequence (*C.s* PLS), and synthetic truncations N1, N2, C1 and C2, indicated by horizontal
lines. Two cysteine residues are highlighted in bold. (**b**) Wildtype (left) and *pls* mutant (right);
bar = 5 mm. (**c**) Expression levels of 24 ethylene-responsive genes in *pls* and *PLS* overexpressing

seedlings, compared to wildtype levels. (**d**) Effect of *Arabidopsis* PLS full length peptide, *A.t.*
PLS(FL), and *Camelina* PLS peptide (*C.s.* PLS) on *Arabidopsis* primary root length. Wildtype
(C24) and *pls* mutant seedlings were grown hydroponically in the presence (100 nM) or absence
of peptide for 10 d. Asterisks: ANOVA, $F_{2,\,41} = 6.86$, $p = 0.003$; Tukey's HSD test. (**e**) Effect of
PLS full length and truncated peptides on *Arabidopsis* primary root length. Seedlings were grown
hydroponically in the presence of 50 nM peptide for 10 d. C1 = C-terminal 14 amino acids, C2
= C-terminal 24 amino acids, N1 = N-terminal 22 amino acids, N2 = N-terminal 9 amino acids,
full length PLS = 36 amino acids. Asterisks: ANOVA, $F_{5,112} = 6.13$, $p = 4.65E-5$). Error bars
show $\pm$ 1 standard error, n = 14-22.
765
Figure 2. PLS localizes to the endoplasmic reticulum.
(**a-o**) PLS::PLS:GFP fusion protein (**a, g, j**) colocalizes with endoplasmic reticulum markers ER
Tracker (**b, c, c inset**) and RFP:HDEL (**h, i, i inset**), but free GFP does not (**d-f**, **m-o**). PLS:GFP
staining is seen also in nuclei (**n**). PLS::PLS:GFP (**j**) does not co-localize with the *trans*-Golgi
markers ST-mCherry SH:GFP (**k, l**). Scale bars = 25 μm (**c, l**), 10 μm (**f, i, o**). (**p**) Ratiometric
analysis of roGFP2 fusion constructs transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana*. Comparison of
excitation ratios of PLS-roGFP2 and roGFP2-PLS with control constructs (free roGFP, SEC22
fusions) reveals that PLS localizes to the cytosolic side of the ER.
774
Figure 3. PLS interacts with the ethylene receptor ETR1.
(**a**) Co-immunoprecipitation of PLS:GFP by ETR1:HA (upper panel) in leaves of *Nicotiana*
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panel shows presence of ETR1:HA in extracts using anti-HA antibody. (**b**) Densitometric scan
of immunoblot. (**c**) Competition assay showing a reduced binding between PLS:GFP and
ETR1:HA in the presence of 0, 5 nM or 25 nM PLS peptide, in the presence of 0.5 μM CuSO$_4$
and 50 μM MG-132, a proteasome inhibitor (upper panel). Lower panel shows ETR1:HA in
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immunopreciptation of ETR1:HA (upper panel) in leaves of *N. benthamiana*, showing the effect
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790
Figure 4. PLS binds copper and interacts with RAN1 and copper chaperones.
(**a**) C6S and C17S in PLS are required for function. Seedlings were grown hydroponically for 10
d in the presence (100 nM) or absence of peptide (FL or C6S, C17S). Asterisk: ANOVA, $F_{2,\,51} =$
9.48, $p = 3.15E-4$, Tukey's HSD). Error bars show $\pm$ 1 standard error, n = 14-22. Blue bars are
C24, red bars are *pls*. (**b**) Effect of exogenous Cu(I) chelator BCS on primary root length of
Arabidopsis grown hydroponically for 10 d. Asterisks: Student's t test analysis, $p < 0.005$. Error
bars show $\pm$1 standard error. (**c**) Absorption of BCA (17.3 μM) titrated with Cu(I) (representative
spectrum, n = 2, full dataset Fig S1). (**d**) Binding isotherms ($A_{358\,nm}$) of BCA (10 μM) in the
presence/absence (filled/empty symbols, respectively) of 14 μM MBP-PLS (circles) or MBP-
PLS mutants (C6S, C17S and C6S/C17S: triangles, diamonds and squares respectively) titrated
with Cu(I) (n = 3, $\pm$SD). (**e**) Binding isotherms ($A_{358\,nm}$) of BCA (50 μM) in the presence/absence
of 10 μM MBP-PLS (filled/empty symbols, respectively) titrated with Cu(I). Model (solid line)
describes Cu(I)-binding as a 2:1 complex, with β_2 affinity of 3.79 ($\pm$1.5) $\times 10^{19}$ M^{-2}. Dotted lines

simulate 10x weaker or tighter affinity (n = 3, ±SD). (**f**) Simulated Cu(I) occupancy
(Supplementary Text) as a function of [PLS] using β_2 Cu(I) affinity of 3.79 x10^{19} M^{-2}. Inset,
Arabidopsis ATX1 (20 µM, filled circles) withholds one Cu(I) equivalent from 20 µM BCA
(open circles, BCA-alone) (n = 3, ±SD), with K_D Cu(I) 5.47 x10^{-18} M (Fig. S3). (**g**) Microscale
thermophoresis binding curves of copper transporter RAN1 with PLS. (**h**) Microscale
thermophoresis binding curves of soluble copper chaperones ATX1 and CCH with PLS (n = 3,
±SD).
811
812

Fig. 1

a

C.s PLS

MKPRL**C**FNFRRRSISP**C**YISISYLLVAKLFKLFKIH

N2

N1

C1

C2

b

WT   *pls*

c

Expression fold change (log2)

Genotype
pls
PLSox

ACS4 AT3G01310 AT3G15356 AT3G51450 AT4G00620 ATERF-4 ATERF-8 ATERF13 ATERF6 ATPP2-A5 AtHO1 BGLU42 CRF2 ERF106 ERF116 GAI HLS1 MTHFR1 PIN6 PORB PROPEP1 RBK1 TAR2 XLG3

d

No provide A. thaliana C. sativa PLS
PLS(FL)

e

Primary Root Length (mm)

No PLS   C1   C2   N1   N2   Full
                                    Length

45
40

Figure 1. The PLS peptide is required for ethylene control of seedling growth, is structurally and functionally conserved, and complements the *Arabidopsis pls* mutant.

(**a**). Amino acid sequence of the PLS peptide from *Arabidopsis thaliana* with *Camelina sativa* PLS sequence (*C.s* PLS), and synthetic truncations N1, N2, C1 and C2, indicated by horizontal lines. Two cysteine residues are highlighted in bold. (**b**) Wildtype (left) and *pls* mutant (right); bar = 5 mm. (**c**) Expression levels of 24 ethylene-responsive genes in *pls* and *PLS* overexpressing seedlings, compared to wildtype levels. (**d**) Effect of *Arabidopsis* PLS full length peptide, *A.t.* PLS(FL), and *Camelina* PLS peptide (*C.s.* PLS) on *Arabidopsis* primary root length. Wildtype (C24) and *pls* mutant seedlings were grown hydroponically in the presence (100 nM) or absence of peptide for 10 d. Asterisks: ANOVA, $F_{2, 41}$ = 6.86, p = 0.003; Tukey's HSD test. (**e**) Effect of PLS full length and truncated peptides on *Arabidopsis* primary root length. Seedlings were grown hydroponically in the presence of 50 nM peptide for 10 d. C1 = C-terminal 14 amino acids, C2 = C-terminal 24 amino acids, N1 = N-terminal 22 amino acids, N2 = N-terminal 9 amino acids, full length PLS = 36 amino acids. Asterisks: ANOVA, $F_{5,112}$ = 6.13, p = 4.65E-5). Error bars show $\pm$ 1 standard error, n = 14-22.

Fig. 2

Figure 2. PLS localizes to the endoplasmic reticulum.
(**a-o**) PLS::PLS:GFP fusion protein (**a, g, j**) colocalizes with endoplasmic reticulum markers ER Tracker (**b, c, c inset**) and RFP:HDEL (**h, i, i inset**), but free GFP does not (**d-f**, **m-o**). PLS:GFP staining is seen also in nuclei (n). PLS::PLS:GFP (**j**) does not co-localize with the *trans*-Golgi markers ST-mCherry SH:GFP (**k, l**). Scale bars = 25 μm (**c, l**), 10 μm (**f, i, o**). (**p**) Ratiometric analysis of roGFP2 fusion constructs transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana*. Comparison of excitation ratios of PLS-roGFP2 and roGFP2-PLS with control constructs (free roGFP, SEC22 fusions) reveals that PLS localizes to the cytosolic side of the ER.

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Fig. 4

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