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 enhanced 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. Formation of Cu(I)-dependent PLS-
cuproprotein interactions 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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Significance statement: 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. The *polaris* (*pls*) mutant of *Arabidopsis* has been shown to exhibit
defective ethylene responses. Here we show that the *POLARIS* gene product, a 36 amino acids

peptide, binds copper and interacts with the ethylene hormone receptor to regulate its activity in
a tissue-specific manner.
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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), which is a mitogen-activated
protein kinase kinase kinase (MAPKKK), so preventing ethylene responses (*12, 13*).
Mechanisms by which receptor activity is regulated are not fully understood. We describe here a
molecular function for the PLS peptide, previously implicated in ethylene signalling (*14*), and a
proposed model for its role in ethylene receptor function and 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 (*15*).
Strong loss-of-function mutants of *RAN1* in *Arabidopsis* (e.g. *ran1-3*, *ran1-4*) exhibit an
enhanced ethylene signalling response (*16*), consistent with a loss of receptor function, and
similar to higher order loss-of-function receptor mutants, which also show an ethylene
hypersignalling phenotype (*17*). Mechanisms of copper homeostasis at ETR1 are unknown, and
indeed this is true for other compartmentalized cuproteins supplied with copper, for example
via Ccc2p, Menkes or Wilson ATPases. RAN1 in Arabidopsis has been found to localize to
endomembrane systems, including *trans*-Golgi and ER compartments, and is necessary for both
the biogenesis of ethylene receptors and copper homeostasis during plant development (*16*).
There is also evidence that RAN1 interacts directly with ETR1 and the copper chaperones
ANTIOXIDANT1 (ATX1) and COPPER TRANSPORT PROTEIN (CCH), suggestive of a
transfer of copper between proteins to deliver it to the ethylene receptor as part of the receptor
biogenesis pathway at the ER (*18*).
Our understanding of the molecular mechanism of copper delivery to the receptor is still
incomplete, however. For example, is metalation of the receptor regulated in a tissue-specific
way or in response to the hormonal environment in a tissue? Is this process part of the crosstalk
mechanism with other hormone signaling pathways? It is well established that ethylene signaling
interacts with and is impacted by other hormonal pathways, but does this influence receptor
metalation and does this have developmental consequences? In this paper we propose a model in
which a new component of the metalation pathway is identified, which provides cell type
specificity and a crosstalk regulatory mechanism for ethylene responses, through copper delivery
control to the ethylene receptor.
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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)
translated from a low-abundance transcript that, in light-grown seedlings, is most abundant in the

embryo and silique, seedling root tip and leaf vascular tissues, also reflected in promoter-reporter
expression patterns (Fig. S1; *19*). We have previously shown that the loss-of-function *pls* mutant
has some phenotypic similarities to *ran1* loss-of-function alleles and to *ctr1*, exhibiting a triple
response phenotype (short hypocotyl and root, exaggerated apical hook, radial expansion) in the
dark in the absence of ethylene (*14*), and a short root in light-grown seedlings, consistent with its
expression in the root meristem in light-grown seedlings (Fig. 1b). Transgenic complementation
of the mutant by the *PLS* gene suppresses the mutant phenotype (*19*). 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 (*14*). Ethylene gas production in the *pls* mutant is
at wildtype levels, indicating the peptide may play a role in ethylene signalling rather than
biosynthesis (*14*). *PLS* transgenic overexpressers (PLSOx seedlings) in contrast exhibit a
suppression of the triple response phenotype when grown in the presence of the ethylene
precursor ACC, similar to the gain of function *etr1-1* mutant, but this suppression is incomplete
(PLSOx seedlings show some response to ACC; *14, 19*); and they suppress the *ctr1* mutant
phenotype, indicating that the PLS peptide acts upstream of CTR1 (*14*). However, this repression
of the PLSOx phenotype by *ctr1* also is incomplete, with some elongation of the hypocotyl and
root in the PLSOx/*ctr1* cross compared to the *ctr1* mutant in the light, and a slightly longer root
for the PLSOx/*ctr1* cross grown in air in the dark (*14*). These observations are indicative of some
complexity in the relationship between CTR1 and PLS.
To further investigate the *pls* molecular phenotype, we carried out an RNA-seq analysis
on loss-of-function *pls* mutant and PLSOx transgenic overexpressor seedlings to identify
differentially regulated genes, with mutant and overexpressor each compared with wildtype
seedlings of the same ecotype as controls. The *pls* mutant expresses no full length PLS coding
sequence due to a T-DNA insertion in the coding region of *PLS* and disrupting function (*19*),
while the PLSOx seedlings express significantly higher levels of *PLS* transcript compared to
wild-type (log$_2$ fold 10.8, *padj* value = 2.02 x 10^{-33}; Tables S1, S2). 836 genes were significantly
up-regulated and 292 down-regulated in the *pls* mutant compared to wildtype control seedlings
(padj value < 0.05) (Table S1). 1487 genes were significantly up-regulated and 1281 down-
regulated in PLSOx seedlings compared to wildtype (padj value < 0.05; Table S2). Gene
Ontology (GO) analysis of genes upregulated in *pls* mutant seedlings compared to wildtype
showed significant enrichment of genes associated with responses to hormone signalling, biotic
and abiotic defence responses, and cell death (Table S3; Fig. S2a). Out of 307 GO:0009723
(response to ethylene) genes, 25 were significantly up-regulated and 7 down-regulated in the *pls*
mutant compared with the wildtype, with 40 up-regulated and 18 down-regulated in the PLSOx
seedlings (Fig. 1c; Table S3, S4, S5 and S6, *20*), indicating a requirement for control over *PLS*
expression levels for correct ethylene responses. While GO:0009723 (response to ethylene) is
significantly enriched in genes up-regulated in the *pls* mutant compared to wildtype (*FDR =*
0.00062; Table S3), a large number of up-regulated genes in *pls* are significantly associated with
immunity, response to pathogens and hypersensitive response (Table S3 and Fig. S2a). Down-
regulated genes in *pls* were significantly enriched in GO categories of hormone biosynthetic
processes (GO:0042446, *FDR = 0.038*), hormone metabolic process (GO:0042445, *FDR =*
0.0096) and regulation of hormone levels (GO:0010817, *FDR = 0.0013*) (Table S4, Fig. S2b;
20), consistent with our previous studies that described PLS-dependent crosstalk between
ethylene, auxin and cytokinin signalling (*21, 22, 23*). In PLSOx overexpressors, both up- and
down-regulated genes similarly included those associated with GO terms hormone response,
stress response and immune response, and genes associated with photosynthesis are
downregulated in PLSOx seedlings, consistent with repressed photosynthetic activity in root tips

(Table S5 and S6, Fig. S2c, d; *19*). These data are consistent with a role for PLS in a number of
ethylene responses and other related signalling, stress and developmental processes.
To understand better 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* and the N-terminal
22 amino acids sequence of the *Arabidopsis* peptide (N1) were each able to rescue the short
primary root length of the *Arabidopsis pls* mutant (Figs. 1d), similar to transgenic overexpression
and genetic complementation using the wild type PLS coding sequence (*14, 19*). The mean
primary root length of wild type (C24) seedlings did not change across all peptide treatments,
while supply of *pls* seedlings with 50 nM PLS(FL) and N1 peptides showed a rescue of root
growth (Fig. 1e), and *t*-tests showed there was no significant difference between the rescue effects
of PLS(FL) and PLS(N1); $P > 0.1$, n = 25). 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); each of these shorter peptides lacks
one of the two Cys residues found in the functional longer length peptides PLS(FL) and PLS(N1).
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. S3a,b).
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PLS localizes to the cytosolic side of 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 a *proPLS::PLS:GFP*-generated fusion protein (PLS:GFP) was
found to co-localize with both the ER marker dye ER-Tracker™ (Fig. 2a-c) and with an ER-
targeted red fluorescent protein RFP-HDEL (*24*) in transgenic plants (Fig. 2g-i). PLS:GFP also
appears to localize to the nucleus and cytoplasm (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 (*25*) visualization shows 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 fused to RoGFP2.
Ratiometric analysis and comparison with proteins of known localization (i.e. cytosolic RoGFP2,
ER luminal RoGFP2, cytosolic v-SNARE SEC22-GFP, ER luminal RoGFP2-SEC22; *26*)
revealed that PLS as either an N- or C-terminal roGFP2 fusion 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, *in vitro* 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 (*27*).
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217 PLS binds Cu(I) and forms protein-protein interactions with copper chaperones ATX and
218 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 (*28*). 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, namely in *pls* mutant
complementation and 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 hydroponic
root feeding assays (Fig. 4a). Furthermore, as indicated above, the 9 amino acids sequence N2
and C-terminal sequences C1 and C2 from *Arabidopsis* PLS, which each contain only one
cysteine residue, were unable to rescue the mutant (Fig. 1e). These results indicate the
requirement of the two cysteine residues for biological activity. Interestingly, RNA-seq data
showed that nineteen out of 287 genes associated with response to metal ion (GO:0010038) were
also down-regulated in the *pls* mutant (Table S4, Fig. S2b, enrichment *FDR = 0.000057*; *20*).
To determine a possible role for PLS and the cysteine residues in binding Cu(I),
synthesised PLS peptide (44.8 µM) was titrated with Cu(I) ions under strictly anaerobic conditions
and monitored for copper-dependent spectral features. Both UV-vis (putative metal-to-ligand
charge-transfer) and fluorescence (putative tyrosine solvent access) spectra of PLS changed as a
function of Cu(I) ion concentration, consistent with complex-formation (Fig. 4b,c). The inflection

in the UV-vis data at ca. 20 μM and the absence of further quenching in the fluorescence data
above ca. 22 μM suggest that PLS binds Cu(I) ions in a 2:1 stoichiometry (Figs. 4b). We further
titrated PLS peptide against bicinchoninic acid (BCA), which is a chromophore that binds Cu(I)
(*29*) (Fig. 4c). The rationale was to determine whether PLS could compete Cu(I) from BCA,
indicative of binding by PLS. PLS peptide was titrated with Cu(I) in the presence of 87 μM BCA.
In the presence of the PLS peptide (44.8 μM), the concentration of Cu(I) required to saturate BCA
increased by ca. 20 μM, and the initial gradient is shallower than in the control (Figs. 4c,d, S5).
Thus PLS withholds Cu(I) from BCA, implying an affinity for Cu(I) (K_{Cu} PLS) within an order of
magnitude of K_{Cu} of BCA, and these data also provide further support for a 2:1 stoichiometry of
binding. Titration experiments also show that synthetic PLS(FL) withholds Cu(I) from BCA (Fig.
S6), but the mutant PLS (FL C6S, C17S) does not (Fig. S7), confirming a role for those cysteine
residues in Cu(I) binding. As an additional and complementary strategy, to eliminate potential
solubility problems of PLS in determining accurately the stoichiometry and affinity for Cu(I)
(these studies require complete solubility for precise affinity quantification), we also tested a PLS
fusion to maltose binding protein (MBP-PLS) which was found to retain solubility when titrated
with Cu(I) ions under strictly anaerobic conditions. MBP-PLS (14 μM) was found to withhold ca.
7 μM Cu(I) from BCA, indicative of a 2:1 PLS:Cu(I) stoichiometry, and tight binding is cysteine-
dependent (Fig. 4e). 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.
4f, Fig. S8).

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 (*30, 31*).
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. 4g inset, Fig. S9). Figure 4f
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 complexes are the more likely functional species.

To investigate possible interaction between PLS and RAN1, PLS was titrated against
fluorescently labelled RAN1 and RAN1 truncation mutants for comparison. RAN1, NterRAN1
and CterRAN1 (DeltaRAN1 in Fig. 4h) were purified and labelled as described (*17*). NterRAN1
is a truncation containing only the two N-terminal metal-binding-domains, whereas CterRAN1
is a construct lacking this region. Using MST, 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. 4h). 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; though the C-terminus on its own (DeltaN) is not
soluble and can thus not be checked for interaction with PLS. PLS interacts with these soluble
copper chaperones at similar affinity as obtained for RAN1 (Fig. 4i). Of relevance here is the
observation that ATX1 interacts directly with RAN1 to deliver copper at the ER (*32*). Cu(I)-
dependent PLS heterodimeric complexes may therefore modulate multiple cuproproteins in the
Cu(I)ETR1 maturation pathway.

Discussion

We present evidence of a role for the PLS peptide as a regulator of ethylene receptor function. Peptides can act as ligands for receptor kinases to regulate signalling pathways, such as in plant immunity (*33*), development (*34*) or in response to abiotic stresses (*35*). We propose that the PLS peptide regulates the ethylene receptor by a different mechanism, i.e. not as a ligand (which for ETR1 is the hormone ethylene) but as part of the metalation mechanism for Cu(I) delivery to the receptor, a process essential for ethylene binding (*10*). Given that PLS is expressed in specific cell types (*19*) it seems likely that PLS adds a level of regulation of receptor function in specific tissues, and most obviously in the root tip. While PLS:GFP localizes to several subcellular compartments including cytoplasm and nucleus, some localizes to the ER where the ethylene receptor is found (Fig. 2). Furthermore we demonstrate that PLS can interact directly with the receptor protein ETR1 (and specifically with the N-terminal copper-binding domains of ETR1), with the Cu-transporting P-type ATPase RAN1, and with two Cu chaperones, ATX1 and CCH. ATX1 and CCH have also previously been shown to bind RAN1 (*32*).

Many plant peptides involved in signalling are processed from longer pre-proteins (*36*). In contrast, PLS is translated from an open reading frame to produce a functional 36 amino acids peptide; the full-length peptide appears to be cleaved or otherwise modified on binding to ETR1 (Fig. 3e). It is possible that the three arginines (amino acids 10-12) may represent a cleavage site (*37, 38*) which would produce the observed shorter GFP fusion protein detected in co-IP experiments (Fig. 3e). The size of the PLS-GFP cleavage product (ca. 30 kD) suggests that this peptide fragment represents GFP (ca. 27 kDa) plus a 3 kDa fragment of the C-terminal region of PLS. Such cleavage would likely inactivate PLS function as we demonstrate that shorter N- and C-terminal fragments (each with only one cysteine residue) are not biologically active (Fig. 1e). Such cleavage might represent a mechanism by which PLS releases Cu(I) to the receptor or to other interacting Cu(I)-transporting proteins RAN1, ATX1 and/or CCH.

Previously there has been proposed a model for copper delivery into the cell via the plasma membrane-located HMA5 transporter to RAN1 via ATX1 and/or CCH (*18, 32*). Arabidopsis has three known copper chaperones, ATX1, CCH and a Cu chaperone for superoxide dismutase CCS (*39, 40, 41*). These are required for copper homeostasis, and both ATX1 and CCH have been shown to interact with RAN1, providing a link with ethylene signalling (*41, 42*). Chaperones are required for the transport of reactive copper to the correct compartment via these chaperones, avoiding cytotoxicity, following import into the cell via copper transporters such as COPT1 and HMA5; the latter being structurally similar to RAN1 (*43, 44*). Loss of function mutants *cch* and *atx1* have no abnormal phenotype when grown under standard conditions, but the *atx1* and the *atx1 cch* double mutant, though not the *cch* single mutant, are hypersensitive to exogenous Cu (*45*). ATX1 and CCH functions have likely diverged, a view supported by their differential transcriptional regulation by copper and different cell type specificities (*45*). The *ran1* mutant is however not copper-hypersensitive, while *hma5* is; and the *pls* mutant is, like *ran1*, not copper hypersensitive (Fig. S10), indicative of a role that is distinct from that of ATX1 or CCH. The ATX1 interaction with RAN1 is indicative of its role in copper transport from the cell surface to internal targets, including RAN1 and potentially to PLS.

We propose that PLS represents a new component of this pathway, providing some tissue-specificity to the Cu(I) delivery process. Given the low probability that PLS would act as a copper chaperone directly due to its predicted low concentration in the cell (Figs. 4f, S8), it more likely partners with an existing chaperone such as ATX1 or CCH close to the ER, which would provide a concentrating effect, facilitating Cu(I) delivery to RAN1 and ETR1. In this

scenario, a down-regulation of *PLS* expression or loss-of-function mutation of the *PLS* gene would lead to a depletion of correctly coordinated Cu(I) at the receptor through reduced intermediate PLS heterodimer formation with ATX1 and/or CCH and ultimately RAN1, in turn leading to a non-functional receptor that cannot activate CTR1. This would be expected to promote ethylene signaling, consistent with the observed effect of ACC treatment on reducing *PLS* expression and enhancing ethylene responses (Fig. S11). A functional PLS complex may be removed from ETR1 by the observed cleavage or modification of PLS. Future structural studies should reveal more about the PLS-ETR1-RAN1-chaperone interaction and role of copper ions in ethylene signal transduction, which represents a new paradigm for the regulation of signaling protein function by metals.

While the *pls* mutant shows evidence for a role of PLS in ethylene signalling, the relationship is not simple. For example, the *PLS* overexpresser is not completely insensitive to the ethylene precursor 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate (ACC) and does not completely suppress the *ctr1* mutation (*14*), suggesting some distinct function compared with other regulatory components. The *pls* mutant shares (statistically significant) overlap in DEGs with the *ctr1* mutant, whereby 11.9% of the *ctr1* DEGs are shared with *pls* (each compared to the respective wild types; Fig. S12). We have also shown in other previous work that there is crosstalk between PLS, ethylene and other signalling pathways, notably auxin, cytokinin and ABA (e.g. *21, 22, 23*), and observed 'leakiness' of the *PLS* overexpression ethylene phenotype, and distinctiveness of *pls* compared to other ethylene signaling mutants, may be linked to its restricted expression pattern. The root tip, where *PLS* is most strongly expressed, is a site of high auxin, whereby an auxin concentration maximum is formed around the stem cell niche to regulate both stem cell identity and function (*46*). Auxin can induce ethylene biosynthesis by upregulation of the ethylene biosynthetic enzyme ACC synthase (*47*), and high ethylene concentrations can lead to both reduced meristem function and aberrant division of the quiescent centre and cells within the stem cell niche and columella (*48*). Therefore ethylene biosynthesis and signalling in the root tip must be tightly regulated to allow growth control. *PLS* expression is transcriptionally activated by auxin and suppressed by ethylene, together forming a signaling network with cytokinin, also produced in the root tip, to regulate ethylene responses and root growth. This network provides a mechanism to suppress growth-inhibitory ethylene responses in the high auxin environment of the root tip, which is dependent on the tissue-specific expression of *PLS* (*21*) (Fig. S11) and is mediated through ethylene receptor metalation.

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 (*14, 19*). *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 (*49*). 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).
388
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
with a small volume of MeCN and lyophilized to produce a powder using a Christ ALPHA 1-2
LD_{plus} freeze dryer.
415
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_2O: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* (*24*) (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 (*50*) 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.

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 (*51*). 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 (*51*). 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 aligned to the TAIR10 (EnsemblePlants, release 58) genome sequence with corresponding gtf file using STAR (v 2.7.11a; *52*) to obtain read count per gene. Read count per gene was analysed using DESeq2 v 1.40.2 (*53*) to get p values, adjusted p values, and log2 fold changes. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified with the criteria of adjusted p value < 0.05. Gene ontology analysis was performed using AgriGO (*54*) singular enrichment analysis. Gene expression heatmaps were generated from log2 normalized counts using pheatmap (v1.0.12, https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/pheatmap/index.html) with row scaling. RNA-seq data were deposited in GEO (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) with accession number GSE256166 (*20*).

For RT-qPCR, RNA was extracted from 7 day-old seedlings (3 biological replicates, 20 mg of tissue) as described (*51*). 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 S7.

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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 (*55*). 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 TGT 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.

Bimolecular fluorescence complementation analysis (BiFC)
BiFC was carried out essentially as described previously (*56*). 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 (*57*). 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.
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Co-immunoprecipitation
531
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.
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Infiltration into *Nicotiana benthamiana*
539
The transient expression of constructs in *Nicotiana benthamiana* (tobacco) leaves was based on
a previously published method (*57*). 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 (*57*).
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 $MgCl_2.6H_2O$, 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.
557

Protein extraction and PLS/ETR1 co-immunoprecipitation
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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.

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.

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; Rubisco large subunit (Agrisera), rabbit, 1:10000). 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.

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.

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 ºC 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.

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 ºC 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

668 quartz cuvettes (Helma), and after addition of probe to the concentration specified, titrated with
669 CuSO$_4$. After each addition, solutions were thoroughly mixed and absorbance spectra recorded
670 using a Lambda 35 UV/Vis spectrophotometer (Perkin Elmer). Titration isotherm data was fitted
671 using simulated affinity curves using DynaFit (*58*).
672
673 **Interaction studies of PLS with copper transporter ETR1 by Microscale Thermophoresis**
674 Fluorescently labelled ETR1 truncation mutants were added to a dilution series of PLS in 50 mM
675 HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, 0.015 % (wv) FosCholine 16 (pH 7.6) or 50 mM Tris, 300 mM NaCl,
676 0.015 % (w/v) FosCholine 16 (pH 7.6). Dissociation constants were calculated using GraphPad
677 Prism 5.
678
Determination of dissociation constants for the PLS-ETR1 interaction
Full-length ETR1 and truncation mutants were purified and labelled as described in (*59*). 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.
685
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 (*18*). 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
(*18*).
698
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 (*26*). Image acquisition and data analysis were carried out as described in (*18*). A
minimum of 10 leaf optical sections were imaged and used for ratiometric analysis of the redox
sensitive excitation properties of roGFP2.
705
Statistical methods
For gene expression analysis and growth assays, a minimum of three biological replicates was
used - see Supplementary Materials, Figure legends, Supplementary Tables (*20*). 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.
715

Data Availability.

All study data are included in the article and/or Supplementary Information. RNA-seq and root assay data are available at GEO accession GSE256166: https://eur01.safelinks.protection.outlook.com/?url=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.ncb i.nlm.nih.gov%2Fgeo%2Fquery%2Facc.cgi%3Facc%3DGSE256166&data=05%7C02%7Ckeit h.lindsey%40durham.ac.uk%7C9637f7022a2240cfb10608dc324244cd%7C7250d88b4b684529 be44d59a2d8a6f94%7C0%7C0%7C638440507397042151%7CUnknown%7CTWFpbGZsb3d 8eyJWIjoiMC4wLjAwMDAiLCJQIjoiV2luMzIiLCJBTiI6Ik1haWwiLCJXVCI6Mn0%3D%7 C0%7C%7C%7C&sdata=U4JHCoviYbdEbF76Tws8Ridq7W%2B5Hq2qBVN%2BFjIysgw%3 D&reserved=0

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KL and NJR initiated the project. KL, JFT, NJR, AS and GG designed and supervised aspects of the project. AJM, SM, WM, BO-P, WS, WW, CT, DR, FMH, CH and BU carried out the experimental work and prepared the Figures. KL, NJR and GG drafted the early version of the manuscript, and all authors reviewed and edited the manuscript.

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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*), 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 (PLSox) seedlings, compared to wildtype levels. Data are expressed as $\log_2$-fold changes in *pls* mutant and PLSox seedlings compared wildtype with respective significance levels (*P-adj* value) provided in Table S1. A $P < 0.05$ and $\log_2$-fold of change of $\pm$ 0.5 was chosen to identify differentially expressed genes. (**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; blue bars) and *pls* mutant seedlings (red bars) were grown hydroponically in the presence (100 nM) or absence of peptide for 10 d. (**e**) Effect of PLS full length and truncated peptides on wild type (blue bars) and *pls* mutant (red bars) *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. Error bars show $\pm$ 1 standard error, n = 25.

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**). Root epidermal cells in the transition zone were imaged. (**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.

Figure 3. PLS interacts with the ethylene receptor ETR1.
(**a**) Co-immunoprecipitation of PLS:GFP by ETR1:HA (upper panel) in leaves of *Nicotiana benthamiana*, in the presence and absence of 0.5 μM $CuSO_4$ and EDTA (to remove Cu). Lower panels show presence of ETR1:HA in extracts using anti-HA antibody, and protein input blots using anti-GFP and anti-Rubisco. (**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 extracts using anti-HA antibody. (**d**) Densitometric scan of immunoblot. (**e**) Co-immunopreciptation of ETR1:HA (upper panel) in leaves of *N. benthamiana*, showing the effect of EDTA (to remove Cu) on interaction between ERT1:HA and PLS:GFP. Lower panels shows presence of ETR1:HA in extracts using anti-HA antibody, and protein input blots using anti-ETR1-HA and anti-Rubisco. (**f**) Densitometric scan of immunoblot. α-GFP, anti-GFP antibody; α-HA, anti-HA antibody. (**g**) Microscale thermophoresis binding curves of different ETR1 truncations with PLS. Binding of PLS was observed with full-length ETR1 and all C-terminal truncations but not with ETR1[306-738] lacking the N-terminal transmembrane part of the receptor.

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). Blue bars are C24, red bars are *pls*. Asterisk: ANOVA, $F_{2, 51}$ = 9.48, p = 3.15E-4, Tukey's HSD. Error bars show ± 1 standard error, n = 14-22. (**b**) BCA absorbance in the presence of synthetic PLS (19.8 µM, filled symbols) or an equivalent volume (to PLS) of DMSO (open symbols). Experiments with PLS used 88.3 µM (circles), 84 µM (triangles) and 88.4 µM (squares) BCA. The control experiment with DMSO used 85.3 µM BCA. (**c**) UV-vis apo subtracted difference spectra of synthetic PLS (19.8 µM) upon titration with CuCl (top left); binding isotherm of the feature at 242 nm (top right). Fluorescence spectra of PLS (19.8 µM) upon titration with CuCl (bottom left); binding isotherm of the feature at 306 nm (bottom right). (**d**) Absorption of BCA (17.3 µM) titrated with Cu(I) (representative spectrum, n = 2, full data in Fig. S6). (**e**) 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, ± SD). (**f**) 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 (± 1.5) $\times 10^{19}$ M^{-2}. Dotted lines simulate 10x weaker or tighter affinity (n = 3, ± SD). (**g**) Simulated Cu(I) occupancy (Supplementary Text) as a function of [PLS] using β_2 Cu(I) affinity of 3.79 $\times 10^{19}$ 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 $\times 10^{-18}$ M (Fig. S3). (**h**) Microscale thermophoresis binding curves of copper transporter RAN1 with PLS. (**i**) Microscale thermophoresis binding curves of soluble copper chaperones ATX1 and CCH with PLS (n = 3, ± SD).

a

MKPRL**C**FN**S**RRRSISP**C**YISIS *C.s*

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

N2   N1   C1
              C2

b

WT   *pls*

c

d

e

Fig. 1

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

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Fig. 2

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a

Mean Primary Root Length /mm

- C24 (blue)
- pls (orange)

No PLS   PLS (FL) C6S, C17S   PLS (FL)

b

ΔA562 nm vs [Cu⁺] (µM)   ~20 µM

c

Δε (x10³ M⁻¹ cm⁻¹) vs Wavelength (nm)   ↑[Cu⁺]

Δε₂₄₂ nm (x10³ M⁻¹ cm⁻¹) vs [Cu⁺] (µM)

Fluorescence intensity vs Wavelength (nm)   ↑[Cu⁺]

F306 nm vs [Cu⁺] (µM)

d

Absorbance vs Wavelength (nm)   358 nm [Cu]

e

A₃₅₈ nm vs [Cu(I)] (µM)

f

A₃₅₈ nm vs [Cu(I)] (µM)

g

PLS Cu(I) occupancy (%) vs [PLS] (M)

$K_{D\ Cu(I)}$ Atx1
5.47 (±0.6) x10⁻¹⁸ M

[BCA₂Cu(I)] (µM) vs [Cu(I)] (µM)

h

PLS + RAN1

Fraction bound vs PLS [nM]

- RAN1 378 ± 115 nM
- NterRAN1 352 ± 113 nM
- DeltaRAN1 2445 ± 374 nM

i

PLS + Chaperones

Fraction bound vs PLS [nM]

- ATX1 401 ± 95 nM
- CCH 256 ± 82 nM
- CCHΔ 307 ± 35 nM

△ DeltaRAN1
2445 ± 374 nM

△ CCHΔ

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). Blue bars are C24, red bars are *pls*. Asterisk: ANOVA, $F_{2, 51} = 9.48$, $p = 3.15E\text{-}4$, Tukey's HSD. Error bars show $\pm$ 1 standard error, n = 14-22. (**b**) BCA absorbance in the presence of synthetic PLS (19.8 μM, filled symbols) or an equivalent volume (to PLS) of DMSO (open symbols). Experiments with PLS used 88.3 μM (circles), 84 μM (triangles) and 88.4 μM (squares) BCA. The control experiment with DMSO used 85.3 μM BCA. (**c**) UV-vis apo subtracted difference spectra of synthetic PLS (19.8 μM) upon titration with CuCl (top left); binding isotherm of the feature at 242 nm (top right). Fluorescence spectra of PLS (19.8 μM) upon titration with CuCl (bottom left); binding isotherm of the feature at 306 nm (bottom right). (**d**) Absorption of BCA (17.3 μM) titrated with Cu(I) (representative spectrum, n = 2, full data in Fig S6). (**e**) 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). (**f**) 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, $\pm$SD). (**g**) Simulated Cu(I) occupancy (Supplementary Text) as a function of [PLS] using β_2 Cu(I) affinity of 3.79 $\times 10^{19}$ M^{-2}. Inset, *Arabidopsis* ATX1 (20 μM, filled circles) withholds one Cu(I) equivalent from 20 μM BCA (open circles, BCA-alone) (n = 3, $\pm$SD), with K_D Cu(I) 5.47 $\times 10^{-18}$ M (Fig. S3). (**h**) Microscale thermophoresis binding curves of copper transporter RAN1 with PLS. (**i**) Microscale thermophoresis binding curves of soluble copper chaperones ATX1 and CCH with PLS (n = 3, $\pm$SD).