Host-Specific Fluorescence Dynamics in Legume-Rhizobia Symbiosis During Nodulation

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15   Running Head: Fluorescent reporters for rhizobium-legume symbiosis

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Abstract:

The legume-rhizobia symbiosis is a cornerstone of sustainable agriculture due to its ability to facilitate biological nitrogen fixation. Still, real-time visualization and quantification of this interaction remain technically challenging, especially across different host backgrounds. In this study, we systematically evaluate the efficacy of the nitrogenase system *nifH* promoter (P*nifH*) in driving expression of distinct fluorescent reporters; superfolder yellow fluorescent protein (sfYFP), superfolder cyan fluorescent protein (sfCFP), and various red fluorescent proteins (RFPs) within root nodules of determinate (*Lotus japonicus-Mesorhizobium japonicum*) and indeterminate (*Pisum sativum-Rhizobium leguminosarum*) systems. We show that P*nifH*-driven sfYFP and sfCFP yield strong, uniform, and reproducible fluorescence in nodules of both systems, facilitating reliable quantification of nodulation traits and strain occupancy. In contrast, RFPs including monomeric (mScarlet-I, mRFP1, mARs1) and multimeric (Azami Red1.0) variants exhibited weak or inconsistent signals in pea. Notably, fluorescent labeling did not impair rhizobial competitiveness for root nodule occupancy, and P*nifH*-driven sfYFP and sfCFP reporters enabled robust multiplexed imaging in single-root and split-root assays. In the lotus, mScarlet-I worked robustly and facilitated a tripartite strain labeling system. Complementing our molecular toolkit, we established a deep learning-based analytical pipeline for high-throughput, automated quantification of nodulation traits, validated against standard ImageJ analysis. Altogether, our results identify P*nifH*-driven sfYFP and sfCFP as robust, broadly applicable reporters for legume-rhizobia symbiosis studies, while highlighting the need for optimized red fluorophores in some contexts. The integration of validated promoter-reporter constructs with state-of-the-art computational approaches provides a scalable framework for dissecting the spatial and competitive dynamics of plant-microbe mutualisms.

IMPORTANCE The legume-rhizobia symbiosis is central to sustainable agriculture through its

capacity for biological nitrogen fixation, yet tools for real-time, quantitative visualization of this

interaction remain limited. Here, we demonstrate that the *nifH* promoter (P*nifH*) effectively

drives expression of superfolder yellow (sfYFP) and cyan (sfCFP) fluorescent proteins in both

determinate (*Lotus japonicus-Mesorhizobium japonicum*) and indeterminate (*Pisum sativum-*

Rhizobium leguminosarum) nodules. These reporters enable robust, reproducible fluorescence

without impairing rhizobial competitiveness, supporting multiplexed imaging and quantitative

nodulation analyses. By contrast, red fluorescent proteins exhibited host-dependent variability,

underscoring the need for improved red fluorophores. Integration of validated promoter-reporter

constructs with a deep learning-based image analysis pipeline establishes a scalable framework

for high-throughput assessment of nodule occupancy and symbiotic dynamics. This work

provides a practical molecular and computational toolkit for dissecting plant-microbe mutualisms

across diverse host systems.

64   **Keywords:** rhizobia, legume, fluorescence bioreporters, nodulation, deep learning

Introduction:

The symbiotic interaction between legumes and rhizobia is governed by complex genetic and molecular mechanisms (1). Advances in molecular biology and genomics have significantly deepened our understanding of these symbiotic events. A pivotal breakthrough was the identification of three main groups of rhizobial genes (*nod, nif,* and *fix*), which revolutionized research on nodulation from the bacterial perspective (2–6). Further, with the advent of transcriptomics in nodulating legumes, researchers have been able to achieve an even broader view of the molecular events taking place during legume-rhizobia symbiosis (7, 8). Legumes produce root exudates which include flavonoids and iso-flavonoids (9–11). These compounds trigger the biosynthesis of rhizobial Nod factors (lipo-chitooligosaccharide) (12). These products of the *nod* genes trigger initial plant responses such as root hair curling and cortical cell division upon the contact with the rhizobia, thus initiating infection and nodule formation (7, 13). After successful infection, *nif* genes encode the nitrogenase enzyme complex, primarily dinitrogenase reductase, which is essential for converting atmospheric nitrogen (N_2) to ammonia (NH_4^+) (14). The *fix* genes code for metabolic proteins required for nitrogenase function, which are regulated under the low-oxygen (microaerobic) conditions present within the nodule (15, 16).

Early studies faced significant gaps in knowledge regarding the spatial distribution and real-time monitoring of rhizobia within the legume host. This was primarily due to limitations in technology; traditional approaches, such as staining and light microscopy, could only provide static snapshots (17, 18). While the advent of gene-specific PCR fingerprinting, strain-specific nucleotide barcodes employing next-generation sequencing and metagenomic techniques

improved resolution and enabled investigation of the effectiveness and competitiveness of multi-

strain competition, their use remains constrained by complexity and cost (17, 19–23).

A breakthrough in studying real-time plant invasion dynamics by rhizobia was achieved with the

development of green fluorescent protein (GFP) based reporters in *Sinorhizobium meliloti*,

driven by the constitutive tryptophan promoter, *trp* (P*trp*) from *Salmonella typhimurium*, and the

successful visualization of this reporter in the host *Medicago sativa* (alfalfa) (24). In parallel,

utilizing the *nifH* nitrogenase promoter to drive the expression of the chromogenic beta-

glucuronidase marker gene *gusA* within transposons introduced to *Rhizobium tropici* CIAT899,

demonstrated a reliable reporter of nitrogen fixation in *Phaseolus vulgaris L. cv. Riz 30* (common

bean) (25). This system was useful for comparing the competitiveness of labeled strains to

unlabeled isogenic parents. The system was later improved to allow concurrent labeling of two

different strains by the inclusion of an alternate thermostable beta-galactosidase-encoding gene,

celB, and implemented in the *R. leguminosarum-Pisum sativum* system (26). Although these

studies utilized the *nifH* promoter system (specific to nitrogen fixation), the staining procedure

for chromogenic markers terminated cellular activity, preventing live imaging. In later studies, *S.*

typhimurium P*trp*-driven DsRed and GFP were introduced into different strains of *S. meliloti* to

study competitiveness (17, 27). However, a limitation with this reporter system was its non-

specificity in reporting nodulation events. Nevertheless, this research laid the foundation for

further improvement of reporter systems, which can be used explicitly to study rhizobial

dynamics during nodulation within the host. Currently, *nifH* promoter (P*nifH*)-driven fluorescent

reporters are the gold standard for monitoring effective nodulation and nitrogen fixation in

legume-rhizobia studies (22, 25, 28, 29). The *nifH* gene encodes a key nitrogenase component

and is specifically activated under the microaerobic conditions inside nodules where nitrogenase

functions, making it a precise marker of active nitrogen-fixing symbiosis (25, 30, 31). Its

expression is regulated by the FixJ/FixL system via FixK and NifA intermediates which are

functional under microaerobic conditions, reflecting both nitrogen fixation gene activation and

the low-oxygen nodule environment (3, 31–33). This specificity enables the accurate

quantification of functional nodules that contribute to plant nitrogen nutrition. In contrast, *nod*

gene promoters (*e.g.*, *nodABC*) are activated early in the legume-rhizobia interaction, leading to

Nod factor synthesis, which triggers nodule initiation (3, 30, 34). Their activity typically

decreases sharply after infection thread formation and the onset of nodule organogenesis (34).

Thus, the activity of nod promoters does not reliably reflect the presence of mature, functioning

nodules, and their use would result in false positives unrelated to effective nitrogen fixation. The

fix gene promoters exhibit strong regulation by oxygen levels and can be expressed even in free-

living rhizobia when exposed to low-oxygen conditions outside the plant (32, 33). Therefore,

expression from these promoters is not strictly limited to symbiotic conditions, resulting in

reduced specificity if used as a marker for nodulation events.

In this study, we systematically evaluated the efficacy of a P*nifH*-driven fluorescent reporter

system within legume–rhizobia symbiosis by employing three spectrally distinct fluorescent

proteins-superfolder yellow fluorescent protein (sfYFP), superfolder cyan fluorescent protein

(sfCFP), and red fluorescent proteins (RFPs: mScarlet-I, Azami Red 1.0, mRFP1and mARs1) -

each expressed under the control of the P*nifH* promoter (35–39). These constructs were tested in

two model legume-rhizobia associations: *Pisum sativum* (pea)-*Rhizobium* (indeterminate

nodules) and *Lotus japonicus* (lotus)-*Mesorhizobium* (determinate nodules). Our analyses

revealed that sfCFP and sfYFP consistently produced robust and uniform fluorescence signals in

nodules of both pea and lotus. To further benchmark reporter performance, we compared these

results to those obtained using a constitutive σ-70 consensus promoter, thereby assessing the

impact of promoter choice on fluorescence intensity and spatial distribution. To complement

these molecular tools with scalable phenotyping, we built a deep learning (DL) workflow that

converts fluorescence micrographs into quantitative readouts of symbiotic performance. By

integrating spectral discrimination with high-throughput, quantitative phenotyping, our approach

not only advances the toolkit for studying legume–rhizobia interactions but also opens new

avenues for dissecting the spatial and competitive dynamics of symbiotic partnerships. This

scalable framework has the potential to transform how we interrogate plant–microbe mutualisms,

enabling deeper, system-level insights into the factors that govern symbiotic efficiency and

resilience.

Materials and Methods:

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

Plasmid constructs carrying promoter-driven fluorescent protein-encoding genes were assembled

in *Escherichia coli*. Cultures of *E. coli* were maintained at 37 □°C in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium

(40) supplemented with appropriate antibiotics (Table □1). Construct assembly was carried out

using a BsaI-based Golden Gate cloning strategy, incorporating either the P*nifH* promoter or

synthetic universal promoters (P*uni*). The P*uni* included the *E. coli* constitutive σ-70 consensus

J23106 (promoter) and B0032m (ribosome binding site) from the CIDAR toolkit (41), which was

originally derived from the Anderson promoter library. Plasmid components, including the

fluorescent protein sequences, were obtained from Addgene (https://www.addgene.org/) or

synthesized by commercial providers and subsequently assembled in-house. All constructs were

sequence-verified in *E. coli* before mobilization into rhizobial recipient strains via conjugation.

The rhizobial strains used in this study are *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* 3841(42) (reclassified as

R. johnstonii,(43)) and *M. japonicum* strain R7A (formerly known as *M. loti*). Additionally, two

novel *Rhizobium* strains, G22 and G11, isolated from North Dakota (USA), were also used in

this study. The fluorescent proteins used to label rhizobia are: sfYFP, sfCFP, mScarlet-I, mARs1,

Azami Red 1.0 (Azami Red) and mRFP1 (35–39). The details of the plasmids and the sequence

of fluorescent proteins are presented in Table 1 and S1, as well as in the accompanying

Microbiology Resource Announcements (MRA) publications: Senanayake et al. (2025) and

Pease et al. (2025). Both rhizobia strains were cultivated at 30°C in tryptone-yeast (TY) medium,

a complex, non-selective growth medium suitable for a broad range of bacteria (44),

supplemented with 2.5 mM $CaCl_2$ and appropriate antibiotics (Senanayake et al., 2025; Pease et

al., 2025; and Table□1). The resulting fluorescently labeled rhizobia were used for all plant

inoculation experiments.

Design of custom synthetic Mesorhizobium nifH promoter

For *Rhizobium*, the synthetic consensus promoter Rlv P*nifH* described by Mendoza-Suárez et al.,

2020 (22) was used to drive different fluorophores (Table S1).

For *M. japonicum,* a custom synthetic *Mesorhizobium nifH* promoter was designed and

implemented based on multiple sequence alignment of *nifH* upstream regions from reference

strains of several symbiotic *Mesorhizobium* species. These included *M. amorpha*

CCNWGS0123, *M. ciceri* bv. *biserrulae* WSM1284 and WSM1271, *M. jarvisii* ATCC33669, *M.*

ciceri CC1192A, *M. muleiense* AHPC30, *M. loti* TONO, and *M. loti* MAFF303099. Consensus

sequences from a region of high homology that spanned 295 bp upstream of the *nifH* coding

sequence were used for the design of the synthetic sequence (Fig. S1, Table S1).

Seed sterilization and germination

P. sativum CDC Striker (45) field peas and *L. japonicus cv.* Gifu seeds were used in this study.

Pea seeds were surface sterilized in 50 mL Falcon tubes using sequential treatments: 95%

ethanol (30s) followed by 2% sodium hypochlorite (5min), with ten sterile ddH□O rinses.

Sterilized seeds were germinated on 0.7% (w/v) agar plates in darkness for 48h. Lotus seeds

were scarified with concentrated sulfuric acid (15 mL, 10–12 min), rinsed 10 times with sterile

ddH□O, then sterilized in 2.5% sodium hypochlorite (2 min) followed by ten washes with sterile

ddH□O. After soaking in ddH□O for 4h, seeds were germinated on 0.8% (w/v) water agar plates

wrapped in foil and incubated in darkness at room temperature for 48h.

Plant growth and inoculation

The germinated seedlings of pea and lotus were cultivated in Leonard jars filled with a 1:1 (w/w)

mixture of quartz sand and vermiculite. Each jar was supplemented with 250□mL of sterile

nitrogen-free rooting solution (Table S2) for pea or with Jensen's medium supplemented with

0.5□mM KNO□ for lotus (Table□S3). Plants were maintained in a controlled growth chamber

under long-day conditions. For pea, conditions consisted of an 18-hour light/6-hour dark

photoperiod with day/night temperatures of 21°C/17 °C. Lotus was grown under a 16□h

light/8□h dark cycle at a constant temperature of 20□°C.

Three days after sowing, seedlings were inoculated with 10□mL of the respective rhizobial

suspension expressing fluorescent proteins under either the P*nifH* or P*uni* promoter. Pea

seedlings were inoculated with *Rhizobium* (OD$_{600}$=0.06), while lotus seedlings received

M. japonicum (OD$_{600}$=0.08) inoculum.

The co-inoculation experiments were performed independently for *Rhizobium,* and *M. japonicum*

on their respective hosts, pea and lotus. Equal volumes of the respective rhizobial cultures (with

similar OD$_{600}$ values) with unique fluorescent labels were mixed to yield a total volume of 10

mL, which was then applied to the seedlings in a Leonard jar. The final OD of the inoculum was

same as above, *Rhizobium* (OD$_{600}$=0.06), and *M. japonicum* (OD$_{600}$=0.08).

Split-root system preparation

For split-root experiments, pea seeds were surface-sterilized and germinated on sterile 0.7% agar

plates, as described above. The germinated seedlings were excised at the junction of the

hypocotyl and radicle using a sharp sterile blade, inside a laminar hood. The seedlings were then

carefully transferred into the holes of a 1 mL pipette tip box filled with sterile nitrogen-free ½-

strength Hoagland nutrient solution (46) (Table S4), ensuring that the cut region remained in

contact with the nutrient solution to prevent dehydration (Fig. S2). The lid of the tip box was

loosely placed on top, and the setup was maintained in a growth chamber under a photoperiod of

18h light at 21°C and 6h dark at 17°C for 4-5 days to allow the formation of adventitious roots.

After this period, all but two morphologically similar lateral roots were carefully removed using

precision scissors inside the laminar hood. The remaining two roots were positioned such that

each extended into a separate hole of the same tip box, allowing for individual development. The

lid was kept loosely closed to avoid shoot constriction and minimize damage from condensed

water. After another 12-14 days of growth, plants with clearly separated elongated-root systems

were removed, and the split-roots were transplanted into separate Leonard jars (placed side by

side, as shown in Fig. S2) containing a 1:1 (w/w) mixture of quartz sand and vermiculite, along

with 250 mL of sterilized nitrogen-free rooting solution (Table S2, Fig. S2) (47). The plants were

kept in a growth chamber for hardening for 2 days before being subjected to various treatments.

The complete workflow is illustrated in Fig. S2.

Sample harvesting and imaging

Pea roots (and split-roots) were harvested three weeks post-inoculation (*wpi*), while lotus roots

were collected five *wpi*. After carefully washing the samples in water, whole plants were stored

at 4°C with roots wrapped in damp paper towels until imaging. Prior to imaging, roots were

trimmed to remove non-nodulated regions and arranged on a single-well cell culture plate (pea)

or a microscope slide (lotus).

For pea, fluorescence microscopy was conducted using a *Biotek Cytation™ 5* (version 3.10)

equipped with a 1.25X PL APO objective, while for lotus 4X PL APO was used. Image

acquisition settings for Bright Field (BF) and fluorescence channels, with excitation/emission

wavelengths optimized for YFP (500, 542 nm), RFP (530, 593 nm), and CFP (445, 510 nm),

were tailored for each bioreporter. For P*nifH*::fluorescent protein imaging, LED intensities were

set to BF 3, YFP 10, RFP 10, and CFP 10, with integration times of BF 100 ms, YFP 5 ms, RFPs

ranging from 24 to 157 ms depending on the protein (mRFP1: 116 ms, Azami Red1.0: 157 ms,

mARS1: 24 ms, mScarlet-I: 24 ms), and CFP at 5 ms. Gain settings were BF 0.8, YFP 19.5,

RFPs 24 (mRFP1: 24, Azami Red1.0: 24, mARS1: 24, mScarlet-I: 24), and CFP 24.

For P*uni*::fluorescent protein imaging, LED intensities were identical (BF 3, YFP 10, RFP 10,

CFP 10), while integration times were BF 100 ms, YFP 40 ms, RFPs ranging from 24 to 157 ms

(mRFP1: 72 ms, Azami Red1.0: 157 ms, mARS1: 30 ms, mScarlet-I: 24 ms), and CFP 12 ms.

Gain settings were set to BF 0, YFP 20, RFPs ranging between 24 and 30 (mRFP1: 27, Azami

Red1.0: 24, mARS1: 30, mScarlet-I: 24), and CFP 20. Focus was set either using autofocus or

fixed at a height of 1000 μm with a bottom elevation of 0.2 μm. Since P*uni*-driven fluorophores

don't require a nodule-like environment to be functional, we used these settings to visualize them

on a TY agar plate (Fig. S3A, B).

For lotus, image capture settings were: i) P*nifH*::fluorescent protein- (LED: BF 9, YFP 10, RFP

2, and CFP 3; integration time: BF 5, YFP 5, RFP 5, CFP 5; gain: BF 0.8, YFP 3.17, RFP 1, CFP

1); ii) P*uni*::fluorescent protein- (LED: BF 9, YFP 10, RFP 10, and CFP 10; integration time: BF

5, YFP 30, RFP 45, CFP 17; gain: BF 0.8, YFP 20, RFP 24, CFP 24).

Nodule counting and quantification of nodulation parameters

The images obtained from the *Cytation*^{TM} *5* were subjected to visual quantification of fluorescent

and non-fluorescent nodules, as well as ImageJ-based quantification.

Fluorescent nodule number and intensity quantification using ImageJ:

• Auto-nodule detection and counting:

File > Open > Load Pic (you can drag to the ImageJ floating bar)

Image > Adjust > Color balance > Blue/Yellow (do it one by one for each color) > (set

minimum, maximum, brightness levels based on the image needs)

262   ➢ Click 'apply'

263   i. Image > Adjust > Color threshold > Blue/Yellow > (set Hue, Saturation,

264   and Brightness levels based on the image)

Analyze > Analyze particles > Click > Size (pixel, to define size range) > Click OK to

run the analysis

Note: Some of the clumped nodules may be missed or counted as a single unit. Therefore,

perform manual counting by following the instructions below.

•   Assisted-nodule number and fluorescent intensity counting:

File > Open > Load Pic (you can drag to the ImageJ floating bar)

Plugin > Analyze > Cell Counter

Right-click on the section of nodules where fluorescence is maximum.

Use Ctrl + mouse cursor to zoom in and out.

alt + mouse right click= select for deletion

alt + M= result outcomes

Data visualization and statistical analyses

All statistical analyses of nodule count data were performed using the built-in analysis tools of

GraphPad Prism (version 10.5.0). Depending on the experimental design, either one-way or two-

way ANOVA was applied. Post-hoc comparisons were carried out using Tukey's Honestly

Significant Difference (TukeyHSD) test, and results were summarized using a compact letter

display to represent all pairwise comparisons. Data visualization, including all plots and graphs,

was also generated using GraphPad Prism (version 10.5.0).

Deep learning-based quantification of nodulation traits

To enable automated, high-throughput detection and spatial quantification of nodulation events,

we developed a deep learning (DL) pipeline utilizing instance segmentation and post-inference

morphometric analysis (48). This pipeline was designed to detect fluorescent nodules, classify

them by reporter color, quantify their area and brightness, and evaluate their spatial relationship

to the main root.

Initial training images were manually annotated using Roboflow to label fluorescent nodules

according to fluorophore class: *Cyan* (sfCFP), *Yellow* (sfYFP), and *Red* (mScarlet-I and

variants). A total of 16 representative images were collected, 8 of which were manually

segmented and augmented to generate a 15-image training set. The remaining images were split

into 4 for validation and 4 for testing to assess model performance. The YOLOv8s-seg model

was then fine-tuned using these annotations (49). The model was trained for 100 epochs with the

AdamW optimizer with a learning rate of 0.001429 and momentum of 0.9 to optimize detection

accuracy across both model systems.

Remote inference and postprocessing

For image analysis, we employed the Roboflow Inference SDK, querying the trained model

remotely using the InferenceHTTPClient. Images were first converted to high-quality JPEGs to

ensure compatibility and minimize artifacts. The inference returned class labels, bounding boxes,

and confidence scores for each predicted nodule. Predictions were filtered using a confidence

threshold of 0.3 to exclude spurious detections. The API endpoint used was detect.roboflow. For

each detected nodule, we quantified both its projected area and its mean fluorescence brightness.

Brightness and area calculation

To assess fluorescence intensity, we cropped each region of interest in the original RGB image according to those bounding-box coordinates. Then we computed the per-channel mean pixel values using the Python Imaging Library (PIL). Because each reporter has a distinct emission profile, we tailored our brightness calculation accordingly: nodules expressing sfCFP (the "Blue/ Cyan" class) were characterized using only the blue-channel mean, while those expressing sfYFP or mScarlet-I (the "Yellow" and "Red" classes) were quantified by averaging their red and yellow channel means to capture their mixed-spectrum signal. By combining these morphometric and photometric measurements, we derived robust metrics of nodule size and relative reporter expression intensity, enabling direct comparisons of promoter activity and colonization efficiency across treatments. The projected area, derived directly from the model's segmentation output, was then converted to square millimeters (mm²).

Batch analysis and aggregation

The analysis pipeline was designed to batch-process all .png images located within the working directory, allowing for efficient evaluation of large datasets. For each image, the model predictions were parsed to compute key statistics for each nodule class, including the total number of nodules, the average and total projected area (in pixels squared), and the average and total brightness, normalized on a 0–100 scale. These metrics were then aggregated into a structured summary table using the pandas library, facilitating downstream statistical analysis and visualization. The resulting DataFrame formed the basis for the violin plots and bar charts

presented in Fig. 4B, which illustrate trends in nodule size distributions, relative class

frequencies, and variation in fluorescence intensity across experimental conditions.

Root detection and distance measurement

Although the segmentation model reliably identified nodules within each image, extracting the

primary root structure required classical image processing techniques. To achieve this, the

images were first thresholded and subjected to morphological filtering to produce a clean binary

mask of the root. The distance between each detected nodule and the primary root was then

calculated using a path-based approach. This method involved three key steps: first, nodules

were computationally excluded from the binary mask to isolate the root network; second, a

spatial filtering step retained only those pixels located within a defined proximity to the root

structure, effectively removing noise and unrelated features; and third, the shortest navigable

path between each nodule and the root was computed based on the retained pixel network. This

approach enabled accurate modeling of spatial relationships within the root system while

avoiding the limitations of Euclidean (straight-line) distance measurements. The resulting spatial

data revealed biologically meaningful patterns, including a tendency for sfCFP-tagged strains to

colonize away from the main root, especially in co-inoculation experiments.

This DL-enabled workflow was essential for analyzing complex datasets, particularly in split-

root co-inoculation experiments. By leveraging distinct fluorescent tags and automated

classification, we quantified nodule distribution and reporter activity with high spatial and

spectral resolution. The ability to batch-process images and extract both biological and signal-

level metrics significantly reduced manual effort and inter-observer variability.

RESULTS:

PnifH effectively drives reliable expression of three unique fluorophores in lotus nodules but only two in pea

To develop a multiple-output reporter system that specifically marks nodule formation, accurately reflects nitrogen fixation activity, and remains unperturbed by the imposed fitness costs prior to host infection, we assembled a suite of fluorescent reporters driven by the P*nifH* promoter. This design, similar to previously described systems (22), enables reporter activity to correlate with both bacteroid abundance and the resulting nodule size. For *Rhizobium,* a synthetic consensus *Rhizobium* P*nifH* promoter was adopted from Mendoza-Suárez et al. 2020. For *M. japonicum* we designed a custom synthetic consensus *Mesorhizobium nifH* promoter based on multiple sequence alignment of *nifH* upstream regions from reference strains from several symbiotic *Mesorhizobium* species (Fig. S1 Table S1). The promoters and fluorescent modules were combined in a medium-copy-number pBBR1 backbone that included the *par* locus, enabling stable environmental gene expression (50). These bioreporters expressed sfYFP, sfCFP, and mScarlet-I under the control of the P*nifH* promoter and were introduced to wild type *R. johnsonii* Rlv3841 and *M. japonicum* R7A strains through conjugation. These engineered strains were used to inoculate pea and lotus seedlings. The roots of the nodulated plants were removed from pots and imaged for fluorescence (Fig. 1).

Fluorescence imaging revealed strong reporter expression in most nodules in both pea and lotus, confirming successful reporter system functionality (Fig. 1A, B). In pea, however, the proportion of fluorescent nodules was lower across all three reporter variants (sfYFP, sfCFP, and mScarlet-I) compared to lotus (Fig. 1C, D). This reduction was most pronounced for the mScarlet-I reporter, where approximately 20% of nodules in pea exhibited weak or no detectable

signal (Fig. 1A, C). Adjusting imaging parameters, including increasing gain, enhanced the

fluorescent signal intensity but also resulted in elevated background noise and the appearance of

pseudo-signals from root tissues. Interestingly, in lotus inoculated with mScarlet-I labeled

rhizobia, nearly all nodules exhibited fluorescence. Intensity and abundance of the red

fluorescence were comparable to those observed with sfCFP- or sfYFP (Fig. 1B, D).

Quantification of fluorescent nodules indicated a nearly consistent pattern of P*nifH*-driven

expression of sfYFP and sfCFP across biological replicates in both the plant systems (Fig. 1C,

D).

Evaluation of inconsistent red fluorescent protein expression in pea nodules

In fluorescence labeling within living systems, monomeric fluorescent proteins are generally

preferred due to their stability and consistent subcellular localization (39). In lotus, the

monomeric RFP mScarlet-I (35), driven by synthetic P*nifH* sequences (Fig. S1B; Table S1),

performed effectively (Fig. 1B, D). However, the same fluorophore showed poor performance in

pea (Fig. 1A, C). We investigated whether other monomeric RFPs could enhance performance in

pea. We tested monomeric RFPs such as mRFP1 and mARs1, along with a multimeric RFP,

Azami Red 1.0, driven by P*nifH* (36–39). Concurrently, to evaluate if the unreliable expression

of RFPs was promoter-dependent, we compared the fluorescence of these RFPs driven by a

constitutive promoter (P*uni*) (41). We used a constitutive promoter to address the possibility that

nodulation or bacteroid-specific physiological constraints, such as microaerobic conditions,

might limit reporter performance under the P*nifH*.

Across both the P*nifH* and P*uni* promoters, all RFP variants exhibited inconsistent and generally

weak fluorescence (Fig. 2A, B; S4; S5A, B). Quantification of fluorescent nodules indicated that

the use of P*uni* did not change the proportion of fluorescent nodules for mARs1 and mScarlet-I

but increased significantly for Azami Red and mRFP1, compared to their respective P*nifH*-

driven fluorophores (Fig. 2B); nevertheless, the overall signal intensity remained low (Fig. 2A).

We also evaluated the P*uni*-based fluorescence in lotus; however, in this system, it resulted in

extremely low signal intensities, requiring high-gain imaging, which in turn elevated background

autofluorescence in the roots (Fig. S5C).

Altogether, these data indicate that in our system, P*nifH*-driven red (mScarlet-I), cyan (sfCFP),

and yellow fluorophores (sfYFP) function effectively as nodule bioreporters in the lotus-

Mesorhizobium system, while sfYFP and sfCFP proved more reliable than mScarlet-I in the pea-

Rhizobium system.

Fluorescent labels do not affect rhizobia effectiveness or competitiveness when co-inoculated

A key functionality of symbiosis bioreporters is to facilitate strain identification and visualization

of competitiveness for nodule formation during multi-strain co-inoculation. To determine

whether P*nifH*-driven fluorescent reporters influence nodule occupancy of uniquely labeled

rhizobia, we compared nodule formation by the *M. japonicum* wild type strain R7A labeled with

unique fluorescent proteins, sfCFP, sfYFP, or mScarlet-I inoculated in equal ratios. When pairs

of differently labeled strains were introduced together (sfCFP/sfYFP, sfCFP/mScarlet-I, or

sfYFP/mScarlet-I), the percentage of nodule occupancy remained similar between the

fluorescent labels (Fig. 3A, B). Even in triple inoculations with all three distinct fluorescent tags

(sfCFP + sfYFP + mScarlet-I), no single reporter-containing wild-type out-competed the others,

and quantification of fluorescent signal confirmed balanced representation (Fig. 3E, F). Nodules

with mixed infections were readily observed at ~10% in all combinations (Fig. S6A), in line with

previous estimates (51, 52). Altogether, these findings suggest that reporter identity does not

influence competitiveness in this system and that up to three distinct fluorescently labeled strains

can be used simultaneously to assess nodule occupancy by *Mesorhizobia* in lotus.

We did similar experiments with pea-*R. leguminosarum* using the wild-type strain Rlv3841

bearing bioreporters. Because P*nifH*::mScarlet-I yielded weaker, inconsistent signals in pea, we

restricted analysis in this system to sfCFP and sfYFP. Similar to independent inoculations (Fig.

1A, C), there was not a significant difference in nodule occupancy between the two fluorescent

labels (Fig. 3C, D). However, mixed-infection nodules were not observed (Fig. S6B) as readily

as in *L. japonicus*.

Applications of PnifH driven fluorescent reporters in pea-rhizobium symbiosis

A key utility of strain-specific bioreporters is to serve as neutral markers suitable for comparative

and ecological studies (Wendlandt et al., 2025; Westhoek et al., 2017; Montoya et al., 2023).

Therefore, we wished to evaluate the efficacy of the reporters described herein in these contexts.

To do so, we extended this approach to assess competitiveness among naturally occurring

Rhizobium by differentially labeling two North Dakota (USA) isolates: G22 with P*nifH*::sfCFP

and G11 with P*nifH*::sfYFP. When co-inoculated onto pea roots in single-root set-up in equal

proportions, the two strains were readily distinguished based on their fluorescence (Fig. 4A).

Consistently, strain G22 displayed a strong competitive advantage, occupying the majority of

nodules (Fig. 4A).

To examine strain behavior in the absence of direct competition on the same root system, a

split-root assay (Fig. S3, 4B) was performed. Each half root was inoculated separately with

either the sfCFP- or sfYFP-labeled strain. Both reporters were easily visualized, and no

cross-colonization between root halves was detected (Fig. 4B). Notably, in the split-root setup,

the nodule occupancy of G22 exhibited a significant reduction, whereas that of G11 showed a

significant increase relative to their respective values observed in the single-root setup (Fig. 4C).

Together, these experiments demonstrate that P*nifH*::fluorescent reporters provide a robust tool

to monitor strain competitiveness, nodule occupancy, and spatial distribution in both single-root

and split-root experimental systems.

Deep learning-based quantification of strain effectiveness and competitiveness in split-root

assays

A central aspect of characterizing legume-rhizobium interactions is the quantification of

nodulation traits, including nodule number, size, area, and spatial distribution of nitrogen-fixing

nodules. To further benchmark its competitive performance, we compared strain G22, labeled

with P*nifH*::sfYFP, against *R. johnsonii* bv. *viciae* 3841, labeled with P*nifH*::sfCFP.

Co-inoculation in a pea split-root setup (Fig. S3) enabled clear visualization of both fluorescent

markers with no evidence of cross-contamination (Fig. 5A). This system thus provided a reliable

platform for controlled comparisons of strain competitiveness. Across these assays, G22 again

demonstrated a clear competitive advantage, occupying a majority of nodules over Rlv3841 (Fig.

5A). To quantitatively assess competitiveness and nodule parameters, we employed a DL-based

image analysis pipeline to extract nodulation parameters, including nodule number, fluorescence

intensity, and average size. The outputs of the deep learning tool revealed consistent trends, as

summarized in Fig. 5B, demonstrating a vastly superior nodule formation ability of G22 relative

to the reference wild-type strain Rlv3841, with a higher average nodule size. Meanwhile, the

average fluorescence levels of nodules were similar between those formed by the two strains.

To validate these automated results, we performed parallel quantification using conventional

ImageJ-based analysis. The two approaches yielded highly concordant results, underscoring the

robustness and accuracy of the DL method for nodulation trait analysis (Fig. S7). Together, these

findings establish DL-driven quantification as a reliable and scalable approach for monitoring

nodulation outcomes in split-root experiments, while also highlighting the power

of P*nifH*::fluorescent reporters for tracing strain performance in pea-*Rhizobium* symbioses.

Discussion:

This study established newly optimized bioreporter systems for investigating legume-

rhizobium symbiosis by integrating promoter-driven fluorescent reporters with automated

quantification of nodulation traits. Our systematic evaluation of various P*nifH*- and P*uni*-

controlled expression of fluorescent proteins across two phylogenetically distinct symbioses

provided significant insights into the utility of these reporter systems for studying symbiotic

nitrogen fixation. The utilization of the *nifH* promoter to control reporter expression ensures

effects of free-living reporter expression do not convolute measurements of competition for

nodule occupancy. Moreover, it also allows the fluorescent protein signal to act as a bioreporter

of nitrogenase activity (Mendoza-Suarez et al. 2020), the utility of which is enhanced by the

concurrent measurement of bioreporter activity in multiple strains on the same root.

Additionally, the introduction of a high-throughput segmentation pipeline enables robust,

quantitative, and non-destructive visualization of nodulation parameters, opening new

possibilities for efficient and comprehensive analysis.

The P*nifH* promoter-based reporter system has become a standard tool in the study of

legume-rhizobium symbiosis, reliably serving as a proxy for nitrogenase activity and as an

indicator of rhizobial nodule colonization and formation of functional bacteroids (Mendoza-

Suárez et al. 2020; Cebolla et al. 1994; Peralta et al. 2004). Our results indicate that P*nifH*-driven

expression of sfYFP and sfCFP yields robust and reproducible fluorescence in both determinate

(lotus) and indeterminate (pea) nodules, facilitating precise visualization of strain distribution,

nodule occupancy, and regions of active nitrogenase activity (Fig. 1A-D; Fig. 3A-F; Fig. 4A, B).

Since the P*nifH*s used in this study are derived from consensus sequences from a set of rhizobial

strains, these promoter-reporters can be used in a wide range of *Mesorhizobium* and *Rhizobium*

strains. Our finding reinforces the utility of P*nifH*-based fluorescent bioreporters as valuable

tools for evaluating the effectiveness and competitiveness of rhizobial symbionts within diverse

legume hosts.

However, not all fluorophores performed equally well. mScarlet-I exhibited robust

performance in lotus (Fig. 1B, D). mScarlet-I showed inconsistent expression in pea nodules,

with approximately 20% of nodules lacking an easily detectable signal (Fig. 1A, C). This was

despite mScarlet-I being a monomeric protein (Shaner et al., 2004; Heppert et al., 2016), which

is known to be highly stable in other biological systems. Efforts to improve mScarlet-I

readability in pea nodules by adjusting imaging conditions often increased background

autofluorescence, further limiting the interpretability of the results. Similar inconsistencies were

observed with other RFPs, both monomeric (mRFP1, mARs1) and multimeric (Azami Red),

none of which provided reliable detection in pea (Fig. 2A). These findings highlight a critical

limitation in using RFPs, indicating that host-specific factors, such as the intracellular

environment and nodule physiology, significantly influence reporter performance and stability.

Although monomeric fluorescent proteins are generally preferred for their reliable in vivo

expression in biological systems (Shaner et al. 2004; Heppert et al. 2016), the present results

demonstrate that their effectiveness can be species-dependent, particularly for RFPs in pea.

To further examine reporter versatility, we tested the P*uni* promoter-based reporter

system in both the legume systems, a constitutive σ-70 consensus promoter element designed for

broad expression regardless of nodulation status (50, 53, 54). While P*uni*-driven fluorophores

enabled analysis independent of microenvironmental cues specific to nodules, they brought

limited benefits. In pea, P*uni* drove sfYFP, sfCFP, and mScarlet-I at levels similar to P*nifH*, but

did not improve the reliability of RFP detection, as signals were weak and inconsistent (Fig. 2A,

B; Fig. S4). Although more nodules were detected with Azami Red and monomeric mRFP1,

their fluorescence was still low and variable (Fig. 2A, B). Expression from the P*uni* promoter

was very weak for all fluorophores in lotus, pointing towards a host-dependent variability in

expression of constitutive promoters (Fig. S5C). In indeterminant nodules of pea, where the P*uni*

promoter was functional, a gradual transition between the expression of the housekeeping σ-70

rpoD and the σ factor associated with expressing nitrogen-fixation genes, σ-54 *rpoN,* can be

observed between zones of the nodule (Roux et al. 2014). The weak expression from the P*uni* σ-

70 promoter in lotus nodules may reflect a more uniform downregulation of σ-70-based gene

expression within inhabitants of determinant nodules. This may have implications for promoter

design for use within rhizobium bacteroids. However, it is also essential to consider that the

strength of the Anderson library-derived constitutive P*uni* promoter can be further enhanced

through selection of stronger variants, which may impact the efficacy of labeling in lotus nodules

(Iverson et al. 2016; Bhat et al. 2024; Liow et al. 2019). Overall, these patterns underscore that

the biochemical properties of both the chosen fluorescent protein and the host cellular milieu are

as critical as the promoter in achieving reliable and interpretable reporter output.

Despite forming functional nodules, host-specific factors such as oxygen availability,

protein folding, and chromophore maturation variables may affect fluorescent protein readouts.

For instance, it is known that the maturation of GFP and RFP derivatives is oxygen-dependent

(Bindels et al., 2016; Pavlou et al., 2022; Tsien, 1998). Consequently, the variability of oxygen

within determinate and indeterminate nodule types may contribute to weak or inconsistent

fluorescence. Determinate nodules, like those in lotus, possess an oxygen diffusion barrier at the

apex, which maintains uniformly low oxygen levels throughout the nodule (Venado et al. 2022).

By contrast, indeterminate nodules lack this apical barrier, resulting in a longitudinal gradient of

oxygen concentration (Denison and Okano, 2003; Dixon and Kahn, 2004). We speculate that the

host-specific challenges we observed with RFPs may result from differences in the oxygen levels

in the pea and lotus nodules we tested in this study.

We observed other host-specific differences, including a rarer occurrence of mixed

nodules in pea relative to lotus, as well as a greater proportion of "dark" nodules (Supplemental

Figure S6A, B). We expected to observe a rare but significant population of mixed nodules in

both systems, based on previous studies in pea (Mendoza-Suárez et al. 2020; Wendlandt et al.

2025), and lotus (Zgadzaj et al. 2015). It is possible that the P*nifH* fluorescence signal is

ineffective at quantifying mixed populations in indeterminant nodules due to a biased expression

in the nitrogen-fixing zone of the nodule, with the mixed strains variably occupying distinct

nodule zones (Wendlandt et al. 2025). In pea, approximately 25% of nodules also did not display

any fluorescent signals despite successful nodulation (Fig. S6B). The underlying cause of this

observation remains unclear, but it may be associated with rhizobia exhibiting weak nitrogenase

activity, potentially influenced by the anatomical and developmental characteristics of

indeterminate nodules (Kereszt et al. 2011). In these nodules, the nitrogen-fixing zone is located

at a distance from the meristem, resulting in a delay in the maturation of newly formed cells and

a lag before rhizobia can initiate nitrogen fixation (Chaulagain and Frugoli 2021; Ferguson et al.

2010). In contrast, smaller determinate nodules develop more synchronously, leading to a more

uniform and consistent rate of nitrogen fixation (Chaulagain and Frugoli 2021; Ferguson et al.

2010). This difference in developmental progression also results in uniform senescence of

determinate nodules, whereas indeterminate nodules exhibit gradual senescence (Berrabah et al.

2024). Overall, these host-dependent effects reinforce the need to empirically validate

fluorescent systems in each legume species, rather than assuming cross-compatibility.

Overall, our data indicates that P*nifH*-driven fluorescent proteins offer significant

opportunity for studying rhizobium-legume symbiosis, with particularly promising performance

within lotus nodules formed by *Mesorhizobium*. Despite the host-specific challenges we discuss

above within the pea-*Rhizobium* system, we still demonstrated substantial utility of P*nifH*-sfYFP

and P*nifH*:sfCFP reporters. We exemplified this utility by monitoring the fluorescence of

nodules and nodulation characteristics of two natural Rhizobium strains in both single-

inoculation (Fig. 4A) and split-root configurations in pea (Fig. 4B, 5), where we observed

different patterns of competitive interaction (Fig. 4C). The quantification of these differences

with the same set of rhizobia facilitate investigations that separate local microbe-microbe

competitive interactions from plant partner choice influence on rhizobial competitiveness (55). In

single-root inoculation experiments, strain G22 was highly competitive, occupying the majority

of nodules (Fig. 4A, C). In contrast, under split-root conditions, where G22 and G11 were not in

direct contact but exposed to shared systemic signals, nodule occupancy for G11 was

significantly higher compared to its single-root inoculation condition (Fig. 4B, C). These

findings underscore the significance of experimental context in assessing competitiveness and

suggest that split-root assays should be incorporated as a complementary approach for a robust

evaluation of rhizobial competition under diverse conditions.

Recently, the adoption of machine learning and deep learning approaches in plant biology

research has accelerated markedly, particularly for quantitative trait analysis and automated

phenotyping. Nonetheless, reports focusing specifically on the quantification of nodulation traits

in legumes using these computational tools remain scarce. The majority of research in this

domain focuses on high-throughput phenotyping platforms that characterize nodulation using

image-based methods, typically applied to nodules naturally infected by rhizobia, and does not

employ fluorescent bioreporters or tagged strains (56–60). To the best of current knowledge, this

study represents the first report on the application of DL for analyzing fluorescent imaging data

directly linked to the nitrogen fixation status of legume nodules in real time. Automated, DL-

based quantification of nodule traits was integrated into split-root competition assays, enabling

high-throughput and reproducible analysis that closely paralleled conventional ImageJ-based

measurements, thereby validating the utility of these automated pipelines for phenotyping

nodulation and symbiotic performance (Fig. 5A, B; S7).

604   Although P*nifH*-driven sfYFP and sfCFP are validated as robust tools for real-time

symbiosis monitoring and for studying the effectiveness and competitiveness of rhizobia strains

within the host, several caveats remain. Reporter performance is sensitive to physiological

parameters such as oxygen, pH, and protein folding environment, with these constraints most

notably affecting RFP performance in pea. Rare co-infection events indicate potential complexity

in interpreting nodule occupancy, particularly in assays involving multiple strains. While

automated imaging significantly improves throughput and reproducibility, ongoing

benchmarking against standard approaches is necessary to ensure data robustness and accuracy.

This effort is further constrained by the limited reference literature on the use of deep learning

for quantifying nodulation traits.

614   While the systems reporter here shows clear efficacy for investigating rhizobium-legume

symbiosis with fluorescent bioreporters, future optimization of fluorescent proteins, especially

for red and far-red channels, will be essential to fully realize the potential of multiplexed

visualization in diverse legumes. Integrating these improved reporters with conventional

assessments and next-generation sequencing may provide a deeper understanding of plant-

microbe interactions and symbiotic regulation. The combination of reliable promoter-reporter

systems with scalable, automated quantification establishes a strong foundation for high-

resolution, mechanistic studies of symbiotic nitrogen fixation and host-microbe ecology.

Competing interests:

Barney Geddes A. is a co-founder of Lilac Agriculture Inc. Other authors declare there are no

competing interests.

Author contributions:

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Table 1: Details of the plasmid components and constructs used in this paper. Further details can

be found in the Microbiology Resource Announcement (MRA) manuscripts by Senanayake et al.,

2025, and Pease et al., 2025.

Plasmid components/ constructs	Description	Source	AddGene Plasmid #
C3m	superfolder green fluorescent protein (sfGFP), Golden Gate component; Ampicillin resistant plasmid; AddGene CIDAR MoClo Vol.1 Extension (kit #1000000161)	Richard Murray Lab: CIDAR MoClo Extension Unpublished	120956
C5m	mRFP1, Golden Gate component; Ampicillin resistant plasmid; AddGene CIDAR MoClo Vol.1 Extension (kit #1000000161)	Richard Murray Lab: CIDAR MoClo Extension Unpublished	120957
C51m	superfolder yellow fluorescent protein (sfYFP), Golden Gate component; Ampicillin resistant plasmid; AddGene CIDAR MoClo Vol.1 Extension (kit #1000000161)	Richard Murray Lab: CIDAR MoClo Extension Unpublished	120975
C91m	superfolder cyan fluorescent protein (sfCFP), Golden Gate component;	Richard Murray Lab: CIDAR	120999

	Ampicillin resistant plasmid; AddGene CIDAR MoClo Vol.1 Extension (kit #1000000161)	MoClo Extension Unpublished	
C99m	m-Scarlet-I, Golden Gate component; Ampicillin resistant plasmid; AddGene CIDAR MoClo Vol.1 Extension (kit #1000000161)	Richard Murray Lab: CIDAR MoClo Extension Unpublished	121003
4RBS_mRFP1	*E. coli*, Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG004 + J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS-mRFP1-T2m; Tetracycline resistance,	This Work	
4RBS-mARs1	*E. coli*, Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG004 as backbone with parts: J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS-mARs1-T2m; Tetracycline resistance,	This Work	
4RBS-Azami Red1.0	*E. coli*, Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG004 as backbone with parts: J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS-Azami Red 1.0-T2m; Tetracycline resistance,	This Work	
pOGG043	P*nifH* Golden Gate component (pLOM-PU-P*nifH*); Spectinomycin resistance	(22)	133123
pNDGG003	BEVA 2.0 level 1 Golden Gate cloning	(50)	231316

	vector with Bsa1 exchangeable lacZ, Tetracycline resistance, RK2origin of replication, and par stability		
pNDGG004	BEVA 2.0 level 1 Golden Gate cloning vector with Bsa1 exchangeable lacZ, Tetracycline resistance, pBBR1origin of replication, and par stability	(50)	231317
pNDGG037	BEVA 2.0 T2m terminator with DF extension CIDAR MoClo GG, Spectinomycin resistance	(50)	231337
pNDMS054	Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG003 as backbone with parts: J23106-BCD12-sfGFP-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	(50)	
pNDMS055	Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG003 as backbone with parts: J23106-BCD12-sfCFP-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	(50)	
pNDMS056	Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG003 as backbone with parts: J23106-BCD12-sfYFP-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	(50)	
pNDMS057	Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with	(50)	

	pNDGG003 as backbone with parts: J23106-BCD12-mScarlet-I -T2m, Tetracycline resistance		
pNDMS156	Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning. Ligate of pNDGG003 (RK2 vector), Synthetic Mesorhizobium (SynMeso) _P*nifH*, pOGG037 (sfGFP), Barcode (209). Tetracycline resistance	This work	
pNDMS157	Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning_Ligate of pNDGG004 (pBBR1 vector), SynMeso _P*nifH*, pOGG037 (sfGFP), Barcode (209). Tetracycline resistance	This work	
pNDMS237	Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning_Ligate of pNDGG004 (pBBR1 vector), SynMes*o* _P*nifH*, pNDMS056 (sfYFP), pNDGG037, Barcode (209). Tetracycline resistance	This work	

pNDMS238	Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning_Ligate of pNDGG004 (pBBR1 vector), SynMeso _P*nifH*, pNDMS055 (sfCFP), pNDGG037, Barcode (209), Tetracycline resistance	This work	
pNDMS239	Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning_Ligate of pNDGG004 (pBBR1 vector), SynMeso _P*nifH*, pNDMS057 (mScarlet-I), pNDGG037, Barcode (209), Tetracycline resistance	This work	
pNDMS290	ST18 E. coli: Level 1 Golden Gate cloning pNDGG004-P*nifH*-sfYFP-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
pNDMS291	ST18 E. coli: Level 1 Golden Gate cloning pNDGG004-P*nifH*-sfCFP-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
pNDMS292	ST18 E. coli: Level 1 Golden Gate cloning pNDGG004-P*nifH*-mScarlet-I-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
pNDMS377	*E. coli*, Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG004 + J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS-sfYFP-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	

pNDMS378	*E. coli*, Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG004 + J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS-sfCFP-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
pNDMS379	*E. coli*, Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG004 + J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS-mScarlet-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
pNDMS344	*E. coli*, Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG004 as backbone with parts: pOGG043-c5m (mRFP1)-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
4Rlv_nifH-mARs1	*E. coli*, Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG004 as backbone with parts: pOGG043-mARs1-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
4Rlv_nifH-Azami Red1.0	*E. coli*, Level 1 Golden Gate Cloning with pNDGG004 as backbone with parts: pOGG043-Azami Red1.0-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND298	pNDMS156 conjugated into *M. japonicum* strain R7A, Tetracycline resistance	This work	

RmND299	pNDMS157 conjugated into *M. japonicum* strain R7A, Tetracycline resistance	This work	
RmND533	pNDMS237 conjugated into *M. japonicum* strain R7A, Tetracycline resistance	This work	
RmND534	pNDMS238 conjugated into *M. japonicum* strain R7A, Tetracycline resistance	This work	
RmND535	pNDMS239 conjugated into *M. japonicum* strain R7A, Tetracycline resistance	This work	
RmND696	Rlv3841 conjugated with Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004- J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS _mARs1-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This work	
RmND697	Rlv3841 conjugated with Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004- J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS _Azami Red1.0-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This work	
RmND698	Rlv3841 conjugated with Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004- J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS _mRFP1-T2m,	This work	

	Tetracycline resistance		
RmND700	Rlv3841 conjugated with Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-P*nifH*(pOGGO43) mARs1-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND701	Rlv3841 conjugated with pNDMS344 (Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-P*nifH*(pOGGO43) mRFP1-T2m), Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND702	Rlv3841 conjugated with Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-P*nifH*(pOGGO43) Azami Red1.0-T2m, Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND718	Rlv3841 conjugated with pNDMS379 (Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS - mScarlet-I-T2), Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND719	Rlv3841 conjugated pNDMS377 (Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS - sfYFP-T2m), Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND720	Rlv3841 conjugated with pNDMS378 (Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-J23106AB(B1)-BCD12BC(D8)/RBS -	This Work	

	sfCFP-T2m), Tetracycline resistance		
RmND623	Rlv3841 with integrated pNDMS290 (Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-P*nifH*-sfYFP-T2m), Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND624	Rlv3841 with integrated pNDMS291 (Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-P*nifH*-sfCFP-T2m), Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND625	Rlv3841 with integrated pNDMS292 (Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-P*nifH*-mScarlet-I-T2m), Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND635	RlvG22 with integrated pNDMS290 (Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-P*nifH*-sfYFP-T2m), Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND636	RlvG22 with integrated pNDMS291 (Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-P*nifH*-sfCFP-T2m), Tetracycline resistance	This Work	
RmND629	RlvG11 with integrated pNDMS290 (Golden Gate plasmid pNDGG004-P*nifH*-sfYFP-T2m), Tetracycline resistance	This Work	

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829 **Figures:**

Fig. 1. P*nifH*-driven expression of fluorescent proteins in *P. sativum* and *L. japonicus* nodules.

(A) *Cytation™ 5* imaging of root nodules from *P. sativum* inoculated with *R. leguminosarum* strains expressing sfYFP, sfCFP, or mScarlet-I under the control of the P*nifH* promoter. Representative images are shown from five independent plants.

(B) *Cytation™ 5* imaging of root nodules from *L. japonicus* inoculated with *M. japonicum* strains expressing sfYFP, sfCFP, or mScarlet-I under the control of the P*nifH* promoter. Representative images are shown from five independent plants.

(C) Percentage of fluorescently occupied nodules from *P. sativum* samples shown in Fig 1A. Data represent five independent biological replicates.

(D) Percentage of fluorescently occupied nodules from *L. japonicus* samples shown in Fig. 1B. Data represent six to nine independent biological replicates.

Distinct letters above bars indicate statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) as determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test.

Fig. 2. Expression of red fluorescent proteins (RFPs) in *P. sativum* nodules under P*nifH* and P*uni* promoters, and % nodule occupancy.

(A) *Cytation™ 5* imaging of nodules expressing Azami Red, mARs1, or mRFP1 driven by either the P*nifH* or P*uni* promoter. Representative images are shown from five independent plants.

(B) Percentage nodule occupancy of *R. leguminosarum* (with P*nifH* and P*uni* driven fluorescent labels) in *P. sativum*. Data represent five independent biological replicates.

Distinct letters above bars indicate statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) as determined by two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test.

Fig. 3. Fluorescent reporter expression in co-inoculation experiments.
(A) *Cytation™ 5* imaging of *L. japonicus* roots co-inoculated with equal proportions of two uniquely labeled *M. japonicum* strains (sfCFP + mScarlet-I, or sfYFP + sfCFP, or sfYFP + mScarlet-I), each expressing a PnifH-driven fluorescent protein.
(B) Percentage of fluorescently occupied nodules corresponding to the samples shown in Fig. 3A.
(C) *Cytation™ 5* imaging of *P. sativum* co-inoculated with *R. leguminosarum* strains carrying PnifH-driven sfCFP, and sfYFP in a 1:1 ratio.
(D) Percentage of fluorescently occupied nodules corresponding to the samples shown in Fig. 3C.
(E) *Cytation™ 5* imaging of *L. japonicus* roots co-inoculated with three *M. japonicum* strains (sfCFP + sfYFP + mScarlet-I) in equal proportions, each expressing a PnifH-driven fluorescent protein.
(F) Percentage of fluorescently occupied nodules corresponding to the samples shown in Fig. 3E.
 Data represent six to nine independent biological replicates for Fig. B, F, and five for Fig. D. Distinct letters above bars denote statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) based on one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test.

Fig. 4. Applications of P*nifH*::fluorescent reporters in *P. sativum–Rhizobium* symbiosis.
(A) *Cytation™ 5* imaging of pea roots co-inoculated with equal proportions of two *Rhizobium* strains:
G22 (P*nifH*::sfCFP) and G11 (P*nifH*::sfYFP), monitored within a single-root system.
(B) *Cytation™ 5* imaging of split-root plants inoculated separately with *Rhizobium* strain G22
(P*nifH*::sfCFP) on one root half and strain G11 (P*nifH*::sfYFP) on the other.
(C) % nodule occupancy across single-root (Fig. 4A) and split-root (Fig. 4B) systems.
 Data represent five independent biological replicates. Distinct letters above the plots indicate
statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) as determined by two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's
HSD test.

Fig. 5. Deep-learning based quantification of nodulation traits in *P. sativum-Rhizobium* symbiosis.
(A) *Cytation™ 5* imaging of split-root plants inoculated with *Rhizobium* strains G22 (P*nifH*::sfYFP) and
*Rlv*3841 (P*nifH*::sfCFP).
(B) Deep learning-based quantification of nodulation traits from split-root experiments shown in Fig.
5A. Data represent four independent biological replicates.
Distinct letters above bars indicate statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) based on two-way
ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test.

Supplementary Figures:

Supplementary Figure 1. Multiple sequence alignment of *nifH* upstream regions from reference strains from several symbiotic *Mesorhizobium* species. These included *M. amorpha* CCNWGS0123, *M. ciceri* bv. *biserrulae* WSM1284 and WSM1271, *M. jarvisii* ATCC33669, *M. ciceri* CC1192A, *M. muleiense* AHPC30, *M. loti* TONO, and *M. loti* MAFF303099.

Steps:

1. Dark germinated seedling
2. Cut the radical with sterile blade
3. Transfer to tip box containing N-free media
4. Trim-off extra roots but two symmetrical
5. Transfer back to the tip box for root hardening
6. Experiment
7. Harvested roots

Supplementary Figure 2. Split-root assay workflow.
Flow diagram illustrating the split-root assay workflow used to study plant-microbial interactions. Two uniquely fluorophore-labeled *Rhizobium* strains were inoculated separately into Leonard jars, each containing one-half of the split root system.

Supplementary Figure 3. P*uni*-driven fluorescent labeling of *R. leguminosarum* on TY agar plates.
(A) White-light image of *R. leguminosarum* strains labeled with different P*uni*-driven fluorophores, including unlabeled Rlv3841 as the negative control.
(B) *Cytation™ 5* imaging of *R. leguminosarum* strains (from Fig. Suppl. Fig. 1A) labeled with different P*uni*-driven fluorophores, including unlabeled Rlv3841 as the negative control.

P*nifH*::sfYFP P*nifH*::sfCFP P*nifH*::mScarlet P*uni*::sfYFP P*uni*::sfCFP P*uni*::mScarlet-I

Supplementary Figure 4. *Cytation™ 5* imaging of *P. sativum* nodules inoculated with *R. leguminosarum* strains expressing P*nifH*- and P*uni*-driven fluorescent proteins (sfYFP, sfCFP, and mScarlet-I).

Fluorescence images were captured using specific imaging parameters optimized for each fluorophore. Bright field (BF) and fluorescence settings were as follows:

I.   Excitation/emission wavelengths (nm): YFP (500/542), RFP (530/593), CFP (445/510)
II. Light-emitting diode (LED) intensity: BF 10, YFP 10, RFP 10, CFP 10
III. Integration time (ms): BF 7, YFP 5, RFP 5, CFP 5
IV. Gain settings: BF 0.8, YFP 19.5, RFP 1, CFP 24

A single set of parameters was maintained for each fluorescent protein across all samples.

Supplementary Figure 5. P*uni*-driven expression of fluorescent proteins in *P. sativum* and *L. japonicus*.

(A) *Cytation*™ 5 imaging of *P. sativum* root nodules inoculated with *R. leguminosarum* expressing P*uni*::mScarlet-I.

(B) Percentage of fluorescent nodules exhibiting mScarlet-I fluorescence driven by either P*nifH* or P*uni* promoters in *P. sativum*. Data represent five independent biological replicates.

(C) *Cytation*™ 5 imaging of *L. japonicus* root nodules inoculated with *M. japonicum* labeled with P*uni*-driven sfYFP, sfCFP, and mScarlet-I.

Distinct letters above bars indicate statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) as determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test.

Supplementary Figure 6. Percentages of root nodules containing mixed fluorescent labels in *P. sativum* and *L. japonicus* following co-inoculation with rhizobial strains expressing distinct fluorescent tags.

(A) Proportion of mixed nodules in *L. japonicus* roots co-inoculated with *M. japonicum* strains carrying equal ratios of the following:

i. P*nifH*::sfCFP and P*nifH*::mScarlet-I

ii. P*nifH*::sfCFP and P*nifH*::sfYFP

iii. P*nifH*::sfYFP and P*nifH*::mScarlet-I

iv. Three-strain mixture of P*nifH*::sfCFP, P*nifH*::sfYFP, and P*nifH*::mScarlet-I.

(B) Proportion of mixed and non-fluorescent nodules in *P. sativum* roots co-inoculated with *R. leguminosarum* strains expressing P*nifH*::sfCFP and P*nifH*::sfYFP at equal ratios.

Data represent six to nine independent biological replicates for Fig. S6A, and five for Fig. S6B. Mixed nodules were identified by the simultaneous presence of multiple distinct fluorescent signals.

Supplementary Figure 7. ImageJ-based quantification of nodulation traits from the split-root experiment shown in Fig. 5.
Data were analyzed from four independent biological replicates. Nodulation traits such as nodule number, size, and brightness were quantified using ImageJ's particle analysis tools. Data represent four independent biological replicates. Distinct letters above bars indicate statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) determined by two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test.

844 **Supplementary Tables:**

845 **Table S1:** Nucleotide sequence of promoters and fluorescent protein encoding genes.

Names	Sequences	References
P*nifH* (*SynMeso)* (*Mesorhizobium*)	GGAGCGCAGCCAAAAACCTGGTCTGACTTAGGACCAT CCGCTTGAGCTCGACTCTCGCTGGATGGCACCCGACG TTTTGTGTCGGCTTTGTCGGGTCCGCTACACAGGCTTT TATGGGCCCGATCACTTGTTTTGCCACAAGCTAACTAG CTGGAAAGTAATGAAAAAATTTCCTTTTGGTATCGGC CGGTCAAGTTGGCACGAGTCTTGAGATCCTTGGTGCG AGGCGGCAAGAGCTGCCCATCGGCATTTATGTCGCGG GCAGCCGCGATGATAAGAACAAGGAAGGAAAAACTA TAATG	This paper, Senanayake et al., 2025
P*nifH* (*Rhizobium*)	GGAGCTCGACACGACATTGTCGTCACCTTTGTCGGGTC CGCGACAAGCTTTTTGTTCCTCGATCCCGTATGTTTTC GCCTAAATATCTGAAACAGCAGCAAATTATTTTTCGTT AGCTCAATCGGCCCACTTGGCACGAGTCTTGAAATTT ATTGCGAGGCGGCGGAGCTGCCGGCCGCATCCGTGCG GCATAACCACGGTTGTGAACAAATGAAGGAAGGCCA AATG	(Mendoza-Suárez et al., 2020)
P*uni*	GGAGTTTACGGCTAGCTCAGTCCTAGGTATAGTGCTA GCTACTGGGCCCAAGTTCACTTAAAAAGGAGATCAAC	(Iverson et al., 2016;

	AATGAAAGCAATTTTCGTACTGAAACATCTTAATCAT GCTGCGGAGGGTTTCTAATG	Mendoza-Suárez et al., 2020)
sfGFP	AATGCGTAAAGGCGAAGAGCTGTTCACTGGTGTCGTC CCTATTCTGGTGGAACTGGATGGTGATGTCAACGGTC ATAAGTTTTCCGTGCGTGGCGAGGGTGAAGGTGACGC AACTAATGGTAAACTGACGCTGAAGTTCATCTGTACT ACTGGTAAACTGCCGGTACCTTGGCCGACTCTGGTAA CGACGCTGACTTATGGTGTTCAGTGCTTTGCTCGTTAT CCGGACCATATGAAGCAGCATGACTTCTTCAAGTCCG CCATGCCGGAAGGCTATGTGCAGGAACGCACGATTTC CTTTAAGGATGACGGCACGTACAAAACGCGTGCGGAA GTGAAATTTGAAGGCGATACCCTGGTAAACCGCATTG AGCTGAAAGGCATTGACTTTAAAGAAGATGGCAATAT CCTGGGCCATAAGCTGGAATACAATTTTAACAGCCAC AATGTTTACATCACCGCCGATAAACAAAAAAATGGCA TTAAAGCGAATTTTAAAATTCGCCACAACGTTGAGGA TGGCAGCGTGCAGCTGGCTGATCACTACCAGCAAAAC ACTCCAATCGGTGATGGTCCTGTTCTGCTGCCAGACAA TCACTATCTGAGCACGCAAAGCGTTCTGTCTAAAGAT CCGAACGAGAAACGCGATCATATGGTTCTGCTGGAGT TCGTAACCGCAGCGGGCATCACGCATGGTATGGATGA ACTGTACAAATGAGCTT	(Geddes et al.,2019) c3m, AddGene CIDAR MoClo Vol.1 Extension (kit #1000000161)

sfYFP	AATGCGTAAAGGCGAAGAGCTGTTCACTGGTGTCGTC CCTATTCTGGTGGAACTGGATGGTGATGTCAACGGTC ATAAGTTTTCCGTGCGTGGCGAGGGTGAAGGTGACGC AACTAATGGTAAACTGACGCTGAAGTTCATCTGTACT ACTGGTAAACTGCCGGTACCTTGGCCGACTCTGGTAA CGACGCTGACTTATGGTGTTCAGTGCTTTGCTCGTTAT CCGGACCATATGAAGCAGCATGACTTCTTCAAGTCCG CCATGCCGGAAGGCTATGTGCAGGAACGCACGATTTC CTTTAAGGATGACGGCACGTACAAAACGCGTGCGGAA GTGAAATTTGAAGGCGATACCCTGGTAAACCGCATTG AGCTGAAAGGCATTGACTTTAAAGAAGACGGCAATAT CCTGGGCCATAAGCTGGAATACAATTTTAACAGCCAC AATGTTTACATCACCGCCGATAAACAAAAAAATGGCA TTAAAGCGAATTTTAAAATTCGCCACAACGTGGAGGA TGGCAGCGTGCAGCTGGCTGATCACTACCAGCAAAAC ACTCCAATCGGTGATGGTCCTGTTCTGCTGCCAGACAA TCACTATCTGAGCTACCAAAGCGTTCTGTCTAAAGATC CGAACGAGAACGCGATCATATGGTTCTGCTGGAGTT CGTAACCGCAGCGGGCATCACGCATGGTATGGATGAA CTGTACAAATAATGAAGGT	(Pédelacq et al., 2006) c51m, AddGene CIDAR MoClo Vol.1 Extension (kit #1000000161)
sfCFP	AATGCGTAAAGGCGAAGAGCTGTTCACTGGTGTCGTC CCTATTCTGGTGGAACTGGATGGTGATGTCAACGGTC ATAAGTTTTCCGTGCGTGGCGAGGGTGAAGGTGACGC	(Pédelacq et al., 2006) c91m,

	AACTAATGGTAAACTGACGCTGAAGTTCATCTGTACT ACTGGTAAACTGCCGGTACCTTGGCCGACTCTGGTAA CGACGCTGACTTGGGGTGTTCAGTGCTTTGCTCGTTAT CCGGACCATATGAAGCAGCATGACTTCTTCAAGTCCG CCATGCCGGAAGGCTATGTGCAGGAACGCACGATTTC CTTTAAGGATGACGGCACGTACAAAACGCGTGCGGAA GTGAAATTTGAAGGCGATACCCTGGTAAACCGCATTG AGCTGAAAGGCATTGACTTTAAAGAAGACGGCAATAT CCTGGGCCATAAGCTGGAATACAATTACATCAGCGAC AATGTTTACATCACCGCCGATAAACAAAAAAATGGCA TTAAAGCGAATTTTAAAATTCGCCACAACGTGGAGGA TGGCAGCGTGCAGCTGGCTGATCACTACCAGCAAAAC ACTCCAATCGGTGATGGTCCTGTTCTGCTGCCAGACAA TCACTATCTGAGCACGCAAAGCGTTCTGTCTAAAGAT CCGAACGAGAAACGCGATCATATGGTTCTGCTGGAGT TCGTAACCGCAGCGGGCATCACGCATGGTATGGATGA ACTGTACAAATAAAGGT	AddGene CIDAR MoClo Vol.1 Extension (kit #1000000161)
mScarlet-I	AATGGTCAGTAAAGGCGAAGCAGTTATCAAAGAGTTC ATGCGCTTCAAAGTTCATATGGAAGGGTCGATGAACG GGCACGAATTTGAAATTGAAGGCGAAGGCGAAGGCC GCCCATATGAAGGGACCCAAACCGCAAAGCTTAAGGT TACTAAAGGCGGTCCATTACCCTTTTCGTGGGACATTT TAAGCCCACAGTTTATGTACGGGAGTCGCGCTTTCATC	(Bindels et al., 2016) c99m, AddGene CIDAR MoClo Vol.1

	AAGCACCCTGCGGACATCCCAGATTACTACAAACAGT CTTTCCCCGAGGGGGTTCAAGTGGGAGCGCGTGATGAA CTTCGAGGATGGCGGAGCCGTGACGGTCACCCAAGAT ACCTCTTTGGAGGACGGTACGTTGATCTACAAAGTGA AATTGCGTGGCACGAATTTTCCACCTGATGGGCCTGTC ATGCAGAAAAAGACAATGGGATGGGAAGCTTCCACG GAGCGCCTTTACCCAGAGGACGGTGTTCTTAAAGGGG ATATCAAAATGGCGCTGCGTCTTAAAGATGGAGGCCG CTACCTGGCGGACTTCAAGACTACTTACAAGGCCAAA AAACCAGTGCAGATGCCGGGTGCGTACAATGTAGATC GTAAATTAGATATTACAAGTCACAATGAAGATTACAC GGTCGTAGAGCAGTATGAGCGCAGTGAGGGGCGTCAC TCTACGGGCGGTATGGACGAGTTATACAAGTAAAGGT	Extension (kit #1000000161)
Azami Red1.0	AATGGTTAGTGTTATTAAGGAAGAAATGAAGATAAAG TTGCGCATGGAAGGTACAGTCAATGGCCACAATTTTG TCATTGAGGGTGAGGGTAAAGGTAACCCGTACGAAGG GACGCAAACAATGGACCTTAAGGTGACGGAAGGTGG GCCTCTCCCTTTCGCTTACGACATACTGAGTCCGCAAT TCATGTATGGGTCCAAAGCCTTTATTAAGTATCCAGCA GACATCCCAGATTATTTCAAACAATCATTCCCAGAGG GGTTCCATTGGGAGCGAGTTATGACATACGAGGATGG CGGGGTCTGTACTGCCACACAAAACACTTCACTGCGT GGCGATTGCTTCTTCTATGATGTCCGTTTTGACGGAGT	(Imamura et al., 2023)

	GAATTTCCCGCCGAACGGCCCGGTGATGCAGAAGAAA ACTCTCGGTTGGGAGCCTAGTACTGAGAAGATGTACG TGCGTGACGGTGTGCTGAAGGGTGACGTAATTAAGGC ACTGCTGTTAGAGGGTGGCGGACACTACCGATGCGAC TTTAAAACTACCTACAAGGCTAAGAAAGACGTACGGT TACCAGGTTACCATTTCGTCGACCATCGCATAGAGAT ATTGAAGCACGATAAAGATTATAATAAGGTGAAGCAA TACGAGAACGCTGTGGCCCGTTATTCGATGCTCCCGA GCCAAGCGAAATAAAGGT	
mARs1	AATGGTGTCCGTTATTAAGGAAGAAATGAAGATAAGA CTCCGCATGGAAGGGACAGTAAATGGACACAACTTTG TGATCGAAGGCGAGGGGAAAGGGAATCCATACGAGG GTACACAAACGCTGGACTGCAAGGTAACGGAGGGAG GTCCGCTCCCGTTTGCTTACGACATCCTGTCTCCTCAA TTTATGTACGGTTCGAAACCGTTCATTAAATATCCGGC GGACATCCCAGATTATTTCAAACAATCATATCCAGAG GGCCAACACTGGGAGCGGGTCATGACTTACGAGGACG GCGGTGTCTGTACCGCCACCCAAAACTCTAGCCTGAG AGGAGATTGTTTCTTTTATGACGTGCGGTTCGACGGTA CGAATTTTCCACCAAACGGCCCGGTGATGCAGAAGAA AACGCTCGGGTGGGTGCCCTCGAGTGAGAAGATGTAC GTTCGAGATGGTGTGTTGAAAGGGGATGTATCGAAGG CACTGCTTCTCGAGGGCGGTGGCCACTACCGCTGTGA	(Imamura et al., 2023)

	CTTCAAGACGACGTACAAAGCTAAGAAGGACGTAAG ACTGCCAGGCGCTCACAAGGTAGATCACCGAATAGAG ATCCTGAAGCACGACAAGGATTACAATAACGTTAAGT TATACGAGATTGCAGTCGCCCGCTACAGTTAAAGGT	
mRFP1	AATGGCTTCCTCCGAAGATGTTATCAAAGAGTTCATG CGTTTCAAAGTTCGTATGGAAGGTTCCGTTAACGGTCA CGAGTTCGAAATCGAAGGTGAAGGTGAAGGTCGTCCG TACGAAGGTACCCAGACCGCTAAACTGAAAGTTACCA AAGGTGGTCCGCTGCCGTTCGCTTGGGACATCCTGTCC CCGCAGTTCCAGTACGGTTCCAAAGCTTACGTTAAAC ACCCGGCTGACATCCCGGACTACCTGAAACTGTCCTTC CCGGAAGGTTTCAAATGGGAACGTGTTATGAACTTCG AGGACGGTGGTGTTGTTACCGTTACCCAGGACTCCTCC CTGCAAGACGGTGAGTTCATCTACAAAGTTAAACTGC GTGGTACCAACTTCCCGTCCGACGGTCCGGTTATGCA GAAAAAAACCATGGGTTGGGAAGCTTCCACCGAACGT ATGTACCCGGAAGATGGTGCTCTGAAAGGTGAAATCA AAATGCGTCTGAAACTGAAAGACGGTGGTCACTACGA CGCTGAAGTTAAAACCACCTACATGGCTAAAAAACCG GTTCAGCTGCCGGGTGCTTACAAAACCGACATCAAAC TGGACATCACCTCCCACAACGAGGACTACACCATCGT TGAACAGTACGAACGTGCTGAAGGTCGTCACTCCACC	(Campbell et al., 2002) c5m, AddGene CIDAR MoClo Vol.1 Extension (kit #1000000161)

| | GGTGCTTAATGAAGGT | |

847 **Table S2**

848 The nitrogen-free rooting solution was prepared as previously described (47) with the following

849 composition:

Component	Concentration
$CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$	1 mM
KCl	100 µM
$MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$	800 µM
Fe-EDTA	10 µM
H_3BO_3	35 µM
$MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$	9 µM
$ZnCl_2$	0.8 µM
$Na_2MoO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$	0.5 µM
$CuSO_4 \cdot 5H_2O$	0.3 µM
KH_2PO_4	50 g/L
Na_2HPO_4	56.8 g/L

850 The pH of the solution was adjusted to 7.0 ± 0.2 using NaOH or HCl before use.

852 **Table S3**

853 The Jensen's media was prepared as previously described (61) with the following composition:

Jesnsen's Media + 0.5 mM nitrogen (10x for 1 L)	Weight
Calcium phosphate dibasic ($CaHPO_4$)	10 g
Potassium phosphate dibasic (K_2HPO_4)	2 g
Magnesium sulfate heptahydrate ($MgSO_4$: $7H_2O$)	2 g
Ferrous chloride anhydrous ($FeCl_2$)	1 g
Potassium Nitrate (KNO_3)	505 mg
1000x trace mineral solution	10 mL
Trace Mineral Solution (1000x per 1 L)	**Weight**
Biotin	0.4 g
$CuSO_4$	0.5
H_3BO_3	1 g
$MnCl_2$. $4H_2O$	0.5 g
Na_2EDTA	10 g
Na_2MoO_4	1 g

855 The pH of the solution was adjusted to 7.0 ± 0.2 using NaOH or HCl before use.

857 **Table S4**

858 Composition of ½ Hoagland's media, modified from Hoagland and Arnon 1950 (46):

859 **Stock I 400x, per liter: Nitrogen source**
$236.2g$ Ca $(NO_3)_2$ $4H_2O$ (calcium nitrate)

860 $101.11g$ KNO_3 (potassium nitrate)

861 **Stock II 1000x, per liter:**
$246.48g$ $MgSO_4$ $7H_2O$ (magnesium sulfate)

862 **Stock III 2000x, per liter: Iron source**
$36.7g$ NaFeEDTA (Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid iron (III) sodium salt)
Wrap the bottle in foil to keep out light.

Stock IV 5000x, per liter:
864 $13.6g$ KH_2PO_4 (potassium phosphate, monobasic)

Stock V 1000x, per liter: Micronutrients
865 $618.4mg$ H_3BO_3 (boric acid)
$48.4mg$ Na_2MoO_4 $2H_2O$ (sodium molybdate or molybdic acid)
866 $287.6mg$ $ZnSO_4$ $7H_2O$ (zinc sulfate)
$395.8mg$ $MnCl_2$ $4H_2O$ (manganese chloride)
867 $124.8mg$ $CuSO_4$ $5H_2O$ (cupric sulfate)
$47.6mg$ $CoCl_2$ $6H_2O$ (cobalt chloride)
868 $1.25ml$ 10M HCl or $1.033ml$ 12.1M HCl

Stock VI 1000x, per liter: Buffer
$97.5g$ MES or $106.6g$ MES monohydrate.

½ Hoagland media without nitrogen source, 10 liters working:
Nil   Stock I
10ml Stock II
5ml Stock III
2ml   Stock IV
10ml Stock V
10ml Stock VI

Adjust the volume to 10 liters and the pH to 6.1.