Nodule branching, size, and symbiosis outcomes are shaped by natural genetic variation in
rhizobial bacteria and alfalfa hosts.

Elizabeth L. Paillan[1,2], Alejandra Gil-Polo[1], Sohini Guha[1], Andy Swartley[1], and Liana T.
Burghardt[1]

[1] The Pennsylvania State University, Department of Plant Science, University Park,
Pennsylvania
[2] North Carolina State University, Department of Plant and Microbial Biology,
Raleigh, North Carolina
9
10 *Corresponding Author:* Liana T. Burghardt, Department of Plant Science, 109 Tyson
11 Building, University Park, PA 16802, liana.burghardt@psu.edu, 1-(814)-863-6168

13 *Keywords: Medicago sativa, Sinorhizobium meliloti, nodule lobes, nodule morphology,*
14 *nodule branching, rhizobial population size, nitrogen-fixation, bacterial fitness, partner*
15 *quality, mutualism*

16
17
ABSTRACT

In symbiosis between hosts and microbes, hosts often create organs that house microbial
symbionts. These organs are called nodules in the nitrogen-fixing symbiosis between
legume plants and rhizobial bacteria. While many studies have focused on host traits, such
as plant growth, nodule count, and their structural changes, these morphological changes
could also be associated with rhizobial benefits (e.g., bacterial population size). Here, we
investigated how the different morphologies of alfalfa root nodules influence the fitness
benefits rhizobia and hosts receive from the symbiosis. We measured how host and strain
genetic variation influenced 1) nodule branch number, area, and rhizobial fitness at the
individual nodule level and 2) the proportion of branched nodules, nodule number, and
plant benefits at the whole plant level. From the rhizobial perspective, we found that host
genetics influenced rhizobial fitness more than rhizobial genetics, and that more branched
and bigger nodules tend to release more rhizobia. From the host plant perspective, we
found that the proportion of branched nodules was strongly negatively correlated with the
total nodule number and positively correlated with host benefit across all three alfalfa
genotypes. However, the height of the relationship differed by host genotype. Together,
these results provide insight into the host and rhizobial genetic contributions to nodule
morphology and symbiotic outcomes, suggesting a novel direction for further research in
legume-rhizobium mutualism.

INTRODUCTION

In host-microbe symbiosis, microbes often live in host tissues within chimeric organs (Moran, 2007; Oldroyd et al., 2011; Visick et al., 2021). These organs, thus, create the environment that shapes microbial fitness outcomes. For example, in the rhizobia-legume symbiosis, these chimeric organs are known as nodules, which form on the roots of legumes (Oldroyd, 2013). Nodules can exhibit diverse shapes; yet we know little about the factors contributing to the various morphologies or the consequences these morphologies have on the benefits that hosts and microbes receive during symbiosis(Dupont et al., 2012; Sachs et al., 2018). More specifically, at present, little is known about how nodule branching influences rhizobial fitness and host fitness, and whether nodule branching is driven by host or rhizobial identity (Lindström and Mousavi, 2019). Here, we address these questions by examining multiple hosts and rhizobial genotypes to disentangle their contributions to nodule branching and how it affects rhizobial and host fitness.

Legume root nodules follow two developmental patterns broadly categorized as determinate or indeterminate based on the meristematic behavior of the host plant. Determinate nodules, found in soybean (Glycine max) species and common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris),* lack a persistent meristem taking on a spherical shape. In contrast, indeterminate nodules, the focus of this investigation, found in species such as barrel clover (*Medicago truncatula)*, its close relative alfalfa *(Medicago sativa),* and pea (*Pisum sativum*), can take a more elongated shape due to having a persistent nodule meristem (Sprent et al., 2017). This persistent meristem sustains prolonged nodule growth, generating an elongated shape, and if the meristem splits, it can branch to form nodules with multiple branches, each with its own meristem (Hirsch, 1992; Łotocka et al., 2012; Gola, 2014). To our knowledge, the effect of host nodule branching on the fitness of rhizobia and the benefits provided to hosts within indeterminate nodules has never been investigated.

A common assumption in legume-rhizobium literature is that rhizobial population size increases as nodule size increases. This assumption is likely to hold in determinant nodules, where most rhizobia that fix nitrogen retain the ability to grow and divide, and the meristem only exists temporarily (Denison, 2000). However, many hosts that form indeterminate nodules house two spatially separated rhizobial populations and could be differentially impacted by nodule morphological variation (Thies et al., 1991; Sachs et al., 2018). Terminally differentiated bacteria live inside plant cells within bacteroids and are massively endoreduplicated. This is where nitrogen fixation occurs, a process that requires

an oxygen-limited environment. Bacteroids are concentrated in the nitrogen fixation zone

closer to the root (Batut and Boistard, 1994). In contrast, undifferentiated bacteria live in

infection threads close to the nodule meristem and serve as the source that differentiates

into bacteroids as the nodules continue to elongate and grow (Sprent et al., 2017). These

undifferentiated cells retain the ability to live in the soil and are released back into the soil

when nodules senesce; thus, the size of the undifferentiated rhizobia population in

nodules is of particular interest when considering rhizobial benefits from symbiosis

(Denison and Kiers, 2004). Nodule branching could have a substantial effect on the size of

this undifferentiated population because each branching event increases the meristematic

area of the nodule that can be filled with infection threads and these undifferentiated

rhizobia (de Carvalho-Niebel et al., 2024). Here, we test the hypothesis that nodule

branching increases rhizobial population sizes, beyond what is expected due to increasing

nodule size alone (Fig. 1). If branching of indeterminate nodules amplifies rhizobia

population sizes, this could suggest new mechanisms by which rhizobia and hosts could

alter each other's fitness (Porter et al., 2024).

Very little is known about how host or rhizobial genetics contribute to nodule branching

and size. However, we do know that nodule branching and size are likely to be influenced by

the genes of both host and rhizobial partner (Lindström and Mousavi, 2019). Complex host

genetic pathways regulate nodule development through conserved transcription factors

(Roy et al., 2020). Specifically, in *M. truncatula,* the nodule factor hydrolase, MtNFH1,

promotes root hair infection and alters the form of mature nodules. The loss of MtNFH1

function results in nodules that are frequently and increasingly branched, rather than the

typical elongated nodule (Tian et al., 2013; Cai et al., 2018). When there is an

overexpression of MtNFH1, highly branched nodules are still produced. However, when

MtNFH1 is underexpressed, fewer branched nodules are formed, indicating that either too

little or too much expression disrupts normal patterning. MtFNH1 accumulates in the

infection zone, where it likely establishes and maintains a nod-factor gradient

concentration from the infection zone to the meristem, providing more context into the

host's possible role in balancing nodule branching (Cai et. al., 2018). Confirming with this

result, inoculation with nod-factor overproducing strains (1021[pEK327]) lead to the

increase in the number of pink, active nodules while shifting to an elongated or branched

morphology; supporting the 'goldilocks' view in which the host nod-factor hydrolase

activity and the rhizobial nod factor supply are involved in steering nodule multi-

meristematic development (Cai et al., 2018). Rhizobia are also speculated to affect nodule

morphology through phytohormones. For instance, *Rhizobium* can produce gibberellin (GA)

through the *cyp* operon, specifically the GA3 oxidase enzyme that catalyzes GA2 into being

bioactive, which has been identified as a nodule size regulator (Nett et al., 2022). Other

host and rhizobial genes may well influence nodule branching, but unfortunately, it is not a
commonly reported phenotype. Clearly, there is much more left to uncover about how the
complex crosstalk between the host and rhizobia can affect nodule morphology.

Here, we explore the effects of host and strain identity on nodule branching and
rhizobial populations. We used a collection of 117 *Sinorhizobium* strains recently isolated
from an alfalfa variety trial to perform a single-isolate inoculation experiment on three
alfalfa varieties in a controlled greenhouse to ask questions from both rhizobia and host
perspectives. To ask questions about the effect of branching on rhizobial fitness, we
examined individual nodules from three host varieties inoculated with a subset of 8 strains.
We pursued the following questions: a) Is nodule size and the number of rhizobia released
from nodules correlated with nodule branching, and b) do these traits depend on the host
variety or the rhizobium isolate identity? To ask questions about the effect of nodule
branching on plant benefits, we measured per-plant traits for all three varieties inoculated
with each of the 117 strains. We pursued the following questions: a) Does the host variety
or rhizobial isolate influence nodule branching propensity, and b) Is the tendency for
Sinorhizobium isolates to cause branching linked to a benefit for the host plant?

MATERIALS & METHODS

Source of *Sinorhizobium meliloti* isolates

We developed a collection of 117 *Sinorhizobium meliloti* strains from Alfalfa (*Medicago*
sativa, varieties: Oneida, Vernal, and SW402) planted in 2016 at Penn-State's Russell E
Larson Agricultural Station in Rocksprings, PA (40.7215,-77.9275). Full details of this
collection will be published separately, along with genome sequencing information (Guha
et al. in prep). Briefly, in the fall of 2020, we sampled four-year-old alfalfa plants in 0.914 by
6.019-meter strips using a randomized block design. We dug up 80 nodules from each of
the three varieties growing within 5 meters of each other. After surface-sterilizing the
nodules and homogenizing them in a 0.85% NaCl solution, the Isolation Bio Prospector
system was used to culture individual rhizobial cells. To further purify the isolates, we
streaked individual cultures from each well on a Yeast Mannitol Agar (10g Mannitol, 0.5g
K_2HPO_4, 0.2g $MgSO_4.7H_2O$, 0.1g NaCl, 0.5g yeast extract in 1L of deionized water adjusted
to a pH 6.8) plate, picked a single colony, re-streaked it, and incubated the plates at 28 °C
(Vincent, 1970).

Plant preparation for the single-strain inoculation experiment

To examine the host-rhizobial interactions, we grew each of the 117 strains with four
replicates of the three alfalfa varieties from the field (Oneida, Vernal, and SW0402) in
nitrogen-limited conditions. We sterilized 1,200 *M. sativa* seeds of each variety in 10%
commercial bleach for 90 seconds, rinsed them with de-ionized (DI) water, and transferred
them onto filter paper in glass Petri dishes. We wrapped the petri dishes in aluminum foil
and placed them at 4 °C for three days to stratify. In the greenhouse, we washed and
bleached Heavyweight Deepot™ Cells (D40H – 2.5" diameter, 10" depth; item number:
D40H), (N=1440; 4 replicates x 3 alfalfa varieties x 120 isolates & controls), filled them with
50:50 sand calcined clay. The pots were held in Deepot™ Support Tray (D20T for 2.5" & 2.7";
item number: D20T), arranged to have an empty cell between each pot, and kept in four
blocks. We planted two seeds in each pot, covered them with ½ to ¼ inch of sterile
vermiculite, kept pots moist with twice daily misting, and maintained humidity during
germination by covering them with a clear plastic tarp. After one week, pots were moved to
their randomized locations, and the plastic tarp was removed.

Plant inoculation and care

S. meliloti isolates were streaked onto Yeast Mannitol agar plates from glycerol stocks
stored at –80 °C, placed in an incubator, and grown for four days at 28 °C. Then, the
bacteria were transferred to Tryptone Mannitol (TY) liquid media and grown overnight in a
shaking incubator at 150 RPM, 28 °C. We measured and adjusted each culture's optical
density (OD600) to reach 0.1, then diluted it to 50ml with DI water. Later, we inoculated
each pot eight days post-sowing with ~ 10^6 CFU. We based the OD600-to-colony-forming
unit correlations on correlations made with eight strains from our collection. Greenhouse
conditions were maintained at 18 °C to 23 °C during the daytime and a minimum
temperature of 12°C throughout the experiment. Three weeks post-inoculation, we began
fertilizing alfalfa weekly with 10 mL of 2x Fahräeus medium from the *Medicago truncatula*
handbook Appendix 2 (Barker et al., 2006). We doubled the fertilizer concentration every
two weeks to track plant growth. We thinned to one plant per pot four weeks after sowing
using sterile scissors and tweezers. Each pot was watered individually as needed to
prevent cross-contamination of inoculated isolates.

Measurement of plant-level benefit traits

Eight weeks post-inoculation, we harvested plants and assessed above- and below-ground
plant traits. First, we collected the aboveground biomass and dried it at 75°C for at least 72
hours. Second, we gently removed the roots from the growing media and briefly suspended
them in water to remove any sand and calcined clay. We wrapped cleaned roots in a wet
paper towel and stored them in a Ziplock bag at 4 °C for up to five days to allow us to
manually count the number of branched and unbranched nodules using a clicker. After

recording the nodule information, we dried the roots, just as we did the shoots. We

assessed biomass on a VWR® P2 balance (VWR-203P2/C).

Measurement of rhizobial fitness in individual nodules on a subset of host x strain combinations

184
185

During the above harvest, we collected six nodules from seven rhizobial isolates by three

host variety combinations. The nodules were chosen, not randomly, but to span the nodule

size variation on each plant. We photographed nodules on a green background to enable

nodule area measurement and branch counting using the ImageJ "analyze particle tool"

(Schneider et al., 2012). We then sterilized individual nodules with 20% commercial bleach

and 5µl Polysorbate 20 for two to four minutes inside 1.7 mL Eppendorf tubes, lightly

tapping the tube to ensure contact with all the nodule surface area. Each nodule was

rinsed thrice with sterile water and stored in 100µL of 0.85% NaCl at 4 °C overnight. Using a

sterile pestle, we crushed the nodules, added 900 µL 0.85% NaCl to reach 1mL, and

performed a dilution series to determine the number of undifferentiated bacteria in each

nodule. For smaller nodules, we plated and counted five 20 µL spots for both the 10^3 and

10^4 dilutions, while for larger nodules, we spot-plated the 10^5 and 10^6 dilutions. Spots were

counted ~48 hours after treatment and then double-checked at 72 hours. We determined

the dilution level at which the number of colonies mostly ranged between 10 and 100 and

calculated the average number of colonies across all five spots. We multiplied the average

by the dilution factor and divided by the volume plated to estimate the population size of

rhizobia released from each nodule.

Statistical Analyses

All statistical analyses were performed using the R statistical environment (version 4.4.3; R

Core Team, 2016). To test the relationships between single nodule area, rhizobial

population size, and the number of branches, we fit linear models and tested for significant

terms using an analysis of variance (ANOVA). We used the following models: To test if

nodule branching increased nodule surface area across host variety *(log$_{10}$ Nodule Surface*

area ~ number of nodule branches * Alfalfa host variety * rhizobial isolate + replicate); To

assess if the nodule surface area and number of nodule branches influenced the

undifferentiated *Sinorhizobial* population *(log$_{10}$ Viable rhizobia released~ nodule surface*

area * number of nodule branches + Alfalfa host variety + rhizobial isolate + replicate).

To assess the relationship between our measured predictors of plant benefit, we

used the proportion of branched nodules (number of branched nodules / (number of

unbranched nodules + number of branched nodules)) and host biomass (aboveground +

belowground biomass). We fit linear models and tested for significance using an analysis of

variance (ANOVA). We used the following models: To assess if plants with a higher

proportion of branched nodules tended to form more nodules while accounting for
rhizobial strain variation *(Mean nodule count ~ mean proportion of branched nodules +*
rhizobial isolate); To assess if strains that produce a higher proportion of branched nodules
also support more host growth and if the effect depend on host variety we ran the following
model mean (*host biomass~ mean proportion of branched nodules * Alfalfa host variety +*
rhizobial isolate).

RESULTS

Bigger and more branched nodules have larger populations of reproductively viable
rhizobia.

First, we tested if nodule branching and size covary and determined if the relationship is
influenced by host and strain genetics (Table S1 for full model details, $R^2=0.667$). We found,
perhaps unsurprisingly, that nodules with more branches tended to have a larger surface
area ($p=4.14E^{-48}$). While host genotype did not significantly alter the relationship between
these traits ($p=0.607$), *Sinorhizobium* isolate identity did ($p=0.001$, Fig. 2a). This implies that
some strains tend to create smaller or larger nodules independent of nodule branching. In
summary, nodule branching strongly correlates with nodule surface area, and this
relationship is predominantly influenced by the isolate's identity, rather than the host.

Next, we examined the relationship between rhizobial population size (inferred by
the number of culturable *Sinorhizobium* in each nodule) and the number of nodule
branches (Figure 2b, Table S2, full model $R^2=0.2116$). We found that the population of
Sinorhizobium increases as more branches are present ($p=4.651E^{-11}$), and that this
relationship is somewhat dependent on host variety ($p=0.002$) but not strain identity
($p=0.409$). While some unbranched nodules also house large culturable rhizobial
populations, more branched nodules consistently contain large populations of
undifferentiated *Sinorhizobium*. This suggests that forming branched nodules potentially
increases the nodule region that undifferentiated rhizobia could inhabit (Fig. 2b).

Unsurprisingly, given that branch number and nodule area are correlated, we
observed that rhizobial population sizes increased with nodule size (Fig. 2c). However,
unlike nodule branch number, there is an apparent plateau, such that increasing nodule
surface area does not lead to more culturable *Sinorhizobium* from nodules. We
hypothesized that the decoupling of nodule surface area and population size of culturable
rhizobia could be due to the spatial restriction of infection threads near the meristematic
region on the nodule branches. To explore this hypothesis, we ran a third model to test
whether an increase in nodule branches increases the amount of undifferentiated

Sinorhizobium released beyond what is expected based on nodule surface area alone

(Table S1 for full model details, $R^2=0.453$). We found that the relationship between nodule

surface area and rhizobia released significantly interacted with the number of branches a

nodule had ($p=1.50E^{-21}$). Nodule area and rhizobia released are tightly coupled when

nodules have only one or two branches (steep slope). Still, the relationship erodes, and

rhizobia populations plateau when nodules are highly branched. Moreover, host varieties

differed from each other ($p=0.001$). Overall, we find that nodules that have fewer than two

branches and were relatively large released a similar amount of rhizobia as nodules with

three or more branches (Fig. 2C). Taken together, this suggests that size isn't the sole driver

of the amount of viable *Sinorhizobium* inhabiting a nodule, the architecture, branching, and

host genetics play a role in applying a physical constraint to this relationship.

Rhizobial isolates that produce fewer, more branched nodules with a host tend to
provide more benefits.

We extended our analysis to include the effect that nodule branching has on host benefit

traits, such as nodule quantity and total host biomass. We found evidence that a tradeoff

exists between forming more nodules and producing a higher fraction of branched nodules

($p=7.89E^{-17}$), and that both host variety ($p=3.107E^{-11}$) and specific *Sinorhizobium* isolate

($p=2.275E^{-9}$) significantly altered this relationship (full model $R^2=0.458$). One possibility is

that branched nodules could be a resource management strategy for the host, where

increased investment in branching complexity reduces the total number of nodules

produced. This adds complexity to resource allocation, as a conflict arises between nodule

quantity and nodule development.

Building on the previous results, we wanted to know if the nodule branching

tendency of a *Sinorhizobium* isolate was associated with higher host benefits. We found

that rhizobial isolates that produced a greater proportion of branched nodules with a host

variety tended to be more beneficial ($p=1.13E^{-22}$)($R^2=0.530$). This relationship depends on

the host variety ($p=1.75E^{-20}$) and the *Sinorhizobium* isolate identity ($p=1.265E^{-9}$) separately

(Table S3 for full model details). This suggests that *Sinorhizobium* isolates that produced

more branched nodules tended to support larger host plants. Because the plants were

grown in a nitrogen-free environment, this increased growth can be attributed to increased

nitrogen fixation (Fig.3b).

DISCUSSION

In this investigation, we examined nodule branching from both the rhizobial bacteria and

plant host perspectives, focusing specifically on the effect of genetic variation in both the

rhizobia and alfalfa. We found that larger, branched nodules release more rhizobial

bacteria regardless of the host or isolate identity. From the plant host perspective, we
found that the proportion of branched nodules can be used as a low-cost and low-effort
proxy for the nitrogen-fixing benefits each strain provides to the host. More broadly, these
results suggest a positive correlation between rhizobial fitness benefits (rhizobia released)
and plant benefits (nitrogen fixed). From an ecological perspective, our results support the
hypothesis that host plant resource allocation (e.g., sanctioning or rewards) may
contribute to nodule branching. Below, we discuss the implications of these findings for 1)
understanding rhizobial populations, 2) use as a proxy of host benefit, and 3) maintaining
mutualisms.

Nodule branching alters the relationship between nodule size and rhizobial population
size.

While nodule development and rhizobial differentiation strategies have been well
described in uni-branched indeterminate nodules (Rodríguez-Haas et al., 2013; Pan and
Wang, 2017), the functionality of nodule branching in legume-rhizobia symbiosis remains
unresolved. Infection threads within nodules are concentrated nearer the growing tip of the
branches. This region is called the "infection zone" with undifferentiated rhizobia that keep
reproductive viability. Near the root end of the nodules, there is a senescence zone, where
older bacteroids are degraded. Transcriptomic and metabolomics studies clearly show
that the environment experienced by bacteria differs between infection threads and
bacteroids (Roux et al., 2014; Pereira et al., 2024). Our results suggest that when nodules
branch, the growing tip space increases and thus allows for increased space for the
infection threads that house undifferentiated bacteria.

The proportion of branched nodules can be used as a proxy for plant benefit.

The typical use of root nodule count as a metric of symbiotic effectiveness does not
account for the size of the nodules. We observed that rhizobia isolates altered plant-level
traits, such as nodule number and the proportion of branched nodules. In fact, these two
metrics are negatively correlated. Further, we found that nodule branching propensity was
strongly correlated with plant benefits, whereas nodule number was not. Thus, our results
suggest that the proportion of branched nodules could be used as a proxy for symbiotic
investment/benefit that does not require nodule drying, and allows sample processing for
measuring microbial communities via sequencing of whole genomes or amplicons (Oono
et al., 2011; Brockhurst and Koskella, 2013; Allito et al., 2021).

Nodule branching could play an adaptive role in mutualism evolution

Using single inoculation experiments, we found that both host and rhizobial genetic
variation contribute to nodule branching and that nodule branching is linked to both

rhizobial fitness and plant fitness. Despite our observations being limited to host
investment because we worked with single strains (Wendlandt et al., 2019), these results
suggest that nodule branching could influence mutualism evolution and stability through
the reward/sanction mechanism (Porter et al., 2024). For instance, nodules hosting more
beneficial rhizobia could be receiving more rewards from hosts and therefore may be more
likely to form branches to enable both additional area for nitrogen fixation in bacteroids and
an increase in rhizobial population size. This would align with previous studies that have
used other nodule traits such as nodule size or nodule fresh weight (Kiers et al., 2006;
Westhoek et al., 2021). Previous literature, however, has found that nodule branching might
not be relevant for sanctioning, as it does not positively correlate with plant benefit when
inoculating a mix of *S. meliloti* in *Medicago truncatula* (Heath and Tiffin, 2009), but this
could be due the little difference in nitrogen fixation of the strains they used (Oono et al.,
2011). Further experiments using multi-strain inoculations are needed to assess if the
number of branches is relevant for sanctioning. Overall, we suggest that nodule branching
provides an additional axis of trait variation in the legume-rhizobium symbiosis that could
alter the dynamics of legume rhizobia evolution (Sachs et al., 2018).

Broader Implications for evaluating nodule shape metrics for managing beneficial
microbes

Overall, our results suggest that the proportion of branched nodules should be
included in future studies focusing on the influence of rhizobial and host genes on
symbiosis. For instance, measuring nodule traits in larger-scale experiments could reveal
allelic variation that explains observed phenotypes, or assessing how different host and
rhizobial benefit traits differ between leguminous species across various nodule
development strategies (Burghardt et al., 2025). Alongside other metrics, using the
proportion of branched nodules will add to our efforts to improve nitrogen fixation and thus
decrease our reliance on synthetic nitrogen fertilizers (Herridge et al., 2008;
Gopalakrishnan et al., 2015; Mendoza-Suárez et al., 2021). Similar investigations will be
required in other leguminous species to determine if the positive relationship between
nitrogen fixation efficiency and nodule branching is a general pattern or specific to
Medicago. More broadly, our results suggest that applying evolutionary ecology
perspectives to the development of symbiotic organs can provide novel insights and new
traits to study even in well-studied model systems like legumes and rhizobia.

361   executed the greenhouse experiment, analyzed the data, drafted and led the revision of the
362   manuscript. All authors edited, reviewed, and approved the manuscript.
363

Acknowledgments: We thank additional members of the Burghardt lab for assisting in this
experiment's setup, maintenance, and take-down. Huck Genomics Core Facility (RRID:
SCR_023645) for library prep and sequencing of rhizobial isolates. Russel E Larson
Agricultural Station for hosting the sourced field locations, Tyson building's greenhouse
manager Scott Diloreto for providing materials and guidance during this experiment, and
USDA NIFA supported this work via grant no. 147309 to LTB and National Science
Foundation grants IOS-1856744 and IOS-2243819. LTB's work is supported by the USDA
National Institute of Food and Agriculture and Hatch Appropriations under Project
#PEN04760 and Accession #1025611. This work reflects the conclusions and perspective
of the authors and not necessarily the funding agencies.

Generative Artificial Intelligence (AI) statement: No generative AI was used in the writing
and preparation of this article. All data analysis, writing, and interpretation were done by
the authors.

A) Areas of Reproductively Viable Rhizobia in Indeterminate nodules

OR

B) Experimental Overview

All Plants
117 Isolates & Controls
Measured:

Nodule #
Plant biomass
Proprtion of branched nodules

Main Experiment

3 Alfalfa Varieties **x** 117 *Sinorhizobium* Isolates

4 Replicates
Randomized block design
N- & N+ Controls

Subset from Main Experiment
7 Isolates Subset:

Varying Nodule Sizes

Measured:
Nodule Surface Area
# of Nodule branches
# of Undifferentiated
Sinorhizobium Released

C) Hypothesized Relationships

Host Benefit

Proportion of Branched Nodules

# of Undifferentiated *Sinorhizobium*

Nodule Surface Area

5+ Branches
3-4 Branches
2 Branches
1 Branch

Figure 1. A) Areas within indeterminate nodules, where reproductively viable bacteroids,
capable of being released back into the soil for reinfection, inhabit unbranched and
branched nodule structures. **B)** Overview of our main experiment with 117 *Sinorhizobium*
isolates inoculated in 3 genotypes of *Medicago sativa,* alfalfa, and an additional experiment
with a subset of 7 isolates. **C)** Our hypothesis of the tested relationships between the
presence of undifferentiated bacteria in nodules with more branches and possibly a higher
branch size, and the relationship between host benefit and a trait like the proportion of
branched nodules.

Figure 2. Examination of rhizobial benefit traits tested (number of released rhizobia and nodule surface area) compared across alfalfa host varieties *Oneida, SW402, and Vernal*. (A) Scatterplot of $\log^{10}$ of the nodule surface area across nodule branch number *(p= 4.14E-48, R^2=0.6678)*. **(B)** Scatter plot of $\log^{10}$ of the undifferentiated *Sinorhizobium* released from crushing nodules across nodules with 1-5 branches present *(p=4.65E-11, R^2= 0.2116)*. **(C)** Scatter plot of $\log^{10}$ of the undifferentiated *Sinorhizobium* about the nodule surface area based on the number of nodule branches *(p=1.50E-21, R^2=0.453)*. The more branches a nodule has, the higher the total nodule surface area, and the number of *Sinorhizobium released* when 412 crushed is increased. However,

413 there is a limit to this effect. *Additional details: Anova and model details are in*

414 *(Supplement Table 1)*

Figure 3. Relationship between nodule traits and plant benefits across alfalfa hosts.
(A) Scatterplot of the mean proportion of branched nodules and its correlation to the mean host biomass across host plant-Sinorhizobium isolate combination replicates *(p=1.13E⁻²², R²=0.458)*. **(B)** Mean proportion of branched nodules and its correlation to the mean nodule count across host plant-Sinorhizobium isolate combination replicates *(p=7.89E⁻¹⁷, R²=0.530)*. Increasing the number of branched nodules can increase the host plant's dried biomass while contributing to a lower total count of nodules overall. **(C)** Sinorhizobium isolate performance depends on the host and isolate genotype when forming branched nodules. *[Additional details: Host Alfalfa genotypes: Oneida, SW402, and Vernal. ANOVA and model details are in Supplement Table 2.]*

REFERENCES:

Allito BB, Ewusi-Mensah N, Logah V, Hunegnaw DK (2021) Legume-rhizobium specificity effect on nodulation, biomass production and partitioning of faba bean (Vicia faba L.). Sci Rep **11**: 3678

Barker DG, Pfaff T, Moreau D, Groves E, Ruffel S, Lepetit M, Whitehand S, Maillet F, Nair RM, Journet E-P (2006) Growing M. truncatula: choice of substrates and growth conditions.

Batut J, Boistard P (1994) Oxygen control in Rhizobium. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek **66**: 129–150

Brockhurst MA, Koskella B (2013) Experimental coevolution of species interactions. Trends in Ecology & Evolution **28**: 367–375

Burghardt L, Sydow P, Sutherland J, Epstein B, Tiffin P (2025) Genetic variation in host selectivity and adaptive strain enrichment within legume-rhizobia symbiosis: processes are host-dependent, far from perfect, and correlate with nodule morphology. 2025.06.16.659998

Cai J, Zhang L-Y, Liu W, Tian Y, Xiong J-S, Wang Y-H, Li R-J, Li H-M, Wen J, Mysore KS, et al (2018) Role of the Nod Factor Hydrolase MtNFH1 in Regulating Nod Factor Levels during Rhizobial Infection and in Mature Nodules of Medicago truncatula. The Plant Cell **30**: 397–414

de Carvalho-Niebel F, Fournier J, Becker A, Marín Arancibia M (2024) Cellular insights into legume root infection by rhizobia. Current Opinion in Plant Biology **81**: 102597

Denison RF (2000) Legume sanctions and the evolution of symbiotic cooperation by rhizobia. Am Nat **156**: 567–576

Denison RF, Kiers ET (2004) Lifestyle alternatives for rhizobia: mutualism, parasitism, and forgoing symbiosis. FEMS Microbiology Letters **237**: 187–193

Domonkos A, Horvath B, Marsh JF, Halasz G, Ayaydin F, Oldroyd GE, Kalo P (2013) The identification of novel loci required for appropriate nodule development in Medicago truncatula. BMC Plant Biology **13**: 157

Dupont L, Alloing G, Pierre O, El S, Hopkins J, Hrouart D, Frendo P (2012) The Legume Root Nodule: From Symbiotic Nitrogen Fixation to Senescence. Senescence. doi: 10.5772/34438

Gola EM (2014) Dichotomous branching: the plant form and integrity upon the apical meristem bifurcation. Frontiers in Plant Science 5:

Gopalakrishnan S, Sathya A, Vijayabharathi R, Varshney RK, Gowda CLL,
Krishnamurthy L (2015) Plant growth promoting rhizobia: challenges and
opportunities. 3 Biotech **5**: 355–377

Heath KD, Tiffin P (2009) Stabilizing mechanisms in a Legume-rhizobium mutualism.
Evolution **63**: 652–662

Herridge DF, Peoples MB, Boddey RM (2008) Global inputs of biological nitrogen fixation
in agricultural systems. Plant Soil **311**: 1–18

Hirsch AM (1992) Developmental biology of legume nodulation. New Phytologist **122**: 211–
237

Kiers ET, Rousseau RA, Denison RF (2006) Measured sanctions: Legume hosts detect
quantitative variation in rhizobium cooperation and punish accordingly. Evolutionary
Ecology Research **8**: 1077–1086

Lindström K, Mousavi SA (2019) Effectiveness of nitrogen fixation in rhizobia. Microb
Biotechnol **13**: 1314–1335

Łotocka B, Kopcińska J, Skalniak M (2012) Review article: The meristem in indeterminate
root nodules of Faboideae. Symbiosis **58**: 63–72

Mendoza-Suárez M, Andersen SU, Poole PS, Sánchez-Cañizares C (2021) Competition,
nodule occupancy, and persistence of inoculant strains: key factors in the
Rhizobium-legume symbioses. Front Plant Sci **12**: 690567

Moran NA (2007) Symbiosis as an adaptive process and source of phenotypic complexity.
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences **104**: 8627–8633

Nett RS, Bender KS, Peters RJ (2022) Production of the plant hormone gibberellin by
rhizobia increases host legume nodule size. ISME J **16**: 1809–1817

Oldroyd GED (2013) Speak, friend, and enter: signalling systems that promote beneficial
symbiotic associations in plants. Nat Rev Microbiol **11**: 252–263

Oldroyd GED, Murray JD, Poole PS, Downie JA (2011) The Rules of Engagement in the
Legume-Rhizobial Symbiosis. Annu Rev Genet **45**: 119–144

Oono R, Anderson CG, Denison RF (2011) Failure to fix nitrogen by non-reproductive
symbiotic rhizobia triggers host sanctions that reduce fitness of their reproductive
clonemates. Proc Biol Sci **278**: 2698–2703

Pan H, Wang D (2017) Nodule cysteine-rich peptides maintain a working balance during
nitrogen-fixing symbiosis. Nature Plants. doi: 10.1038/nplants.2017.48

Pereira WJ, Boyd J, Conde D, Triozzi PM, Balmant KM, Dervinis C, Schmidt HW,
Boaventura-Novaes C, Chakraborty S, Knaack SA, et al (2024) The single-cell
transcriptome program of nodule development cellular lineages in Medicago
truncatula. Cell Reports **43**: 113747

Porter SS, Dupin SE, Denison RF, Kiers ET, Sachs JL (2024) Host-imposed control
mechanisms in legume–rhizobia symbiosis. Nat Microbiol **9**: 1929–1939

Rodríguez-Haas B, Finney L, Vogt S, González-Melendi P, Imperial J, González-Guerrero
M (2013) Iron distribution through the developmental stages of Medicago truncatula
nodules†. Metallomics **5**: 1247–1253

Roux B, Rodde N, Jardinaud M, Timmers T, Sauviac L, Cottret L, Carrère S, Sallet E,
Courcelle E, Moreau S, et al (2014) An integrated analysis of plant and bacterial
gene expression in symbiotic root nodules using laser-capture microdissection
coupled to RNA sequencing. The Plant Journal **77**: 817–837

Roy S, Liu W, Nandety RS, Crook A, Mysore KS, Pislariu CI, Frugoli J, Dickstein R,
Udvardi MK (2020) Celebrating 20 years of genetic discoveries in legume nodulation
and symbiotic nitrogen fixation. Plant Cell **32**: 15–41

Sachs JL, Quides KW, Wendlandt CE (2018) Legumes versus rhizobia: a model for ongoing
conflict in symbiosis. New Phytologist **219**: 1199–1206

Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW (2012) NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image
analysis. Nature Methods **9**: 671–5

Sprent JI, Ardley J, James EK (2017) Biogeography of nodulated legumes and their
nitrogen-fixing symbionts. New Phytologist **215**: 40–56

Thies JE, Singleton PW, Bohlool BB (1991) Influence of the Size of Indigenous Rhizobial
Populations on Establishment and Symbiotic Performance of Introduced Rhizobia
on Field-Grown Legumes. Appl Environ Microbiol **57**: 19–28

Tian Y, Liu W, Cai J, Zhang L-Y, Wong K-B, Feddermann N, Boller T, Xie Z-P, Staehelin C
(2013) The nodulation factor hydrolase of Medicago truncatula: characterization of
an enzyme specifically cleaving rhizobial nodulation signals. Plant Physiol **163**:
1179–1190

Vincent JM (1970) A manual for the practical study of root nodule bacteria / J.M. Vincent.
Blackwell Scientific

Visick KL, Stabb EV, Ruby EG (2021) A lasting symbiosis: how Vibrio fischeri finds a squid
partner and persists within its natural host. Nat Rev Microbiol **19**: 654–665

Wendlandt CE, Regus JU, Gano-Cohen KA, Hollowell AC, Quides KW, Lyu JY, Adinata
ES, Sachs JL (2019) Host investment into symbiosis varies among genotypes of the
legume Acmispon strigosus, but host sanctions are uniform. New Phytologist **221**:
446–458

Westhoek A, Clark LJ, Culbert M, Dalchau N, Griffiths M, Jorrin B, Karunakaran R,
Ledermann R, Tkacz A, Webb I, et al (2021) Conditional sanctioning in a legume–
Rhizobium mutualism. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences **118**:
e2025760118

534