

Rhizobial peptidase HrrP cleaves host-encoded signaling peptides and mediates symbiotic compatibility

Paul A. Price^a, Houston R. Tanner^a, Brett A. Dillon^a, Mohammed Shabab^b, Graham C. Walker^b, and Joel S. Griffitts^{a,1}

^aDepartment of Microbiology and Molecular Biology, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602; and ^bDepartment of Biology, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139

Edited by Eva Kondorosi, Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Biological Research Centre, Szeged, Hungary, and approved May 27, 2015 (received for review September 15, 2014)

Legume-rhizobium pairs are often observed that produce symbiotic root nodules but fail to fix nitrogen. Using the Sinorhizobium meliloti and Medicago truncatula symbiotic system, we previously described several naturally occurring accessory plasmids capable of disrupting the late stages of nodule development while enhancing bacterial proliferation within the nodule. We report here that host range restriction peptidase (hrrP), a gene found on one of these plasmids, is capable of conferring both these properties. hrrP encodes an M16A family metallopeptidase whose catalytic activity is required for these symbiotic effects. The ability of hrrP to suppress nitrogen fixation is conditioned upon the genotypes of both the host plant and the hrrPexpressing rhizobial strain, suggesting its involvement in symbiotic communication. Purified HrrP protein is capable of degrading a range of nodule-specific cysteine-rich (NCR) peptides encoded by M. truncatula. NCR peptides are crucial signals used by M. truncatula for inducing and maintaining rhizobial differentiation within nodules, as demonstrated in the accompanying article [Horváth B, et al. (2015) Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 10.1073/pnas.1500777112]. The expression pattern of hrrP and its effects on rhizobial morphology are consistent with the NCR peptide cleavage model. This work points to a symbiotic dialogue involving a complex ensemble of host-derived signaling peptides and bacterial modifier enzymes capable of adjusting signal strength, sometimes with exploitative outcomes.

symbiosis | nitrogen fixation | metallopeptidase | NCR peptides

Plants have a fundamental dependence on nitrogen as a macronutrient, but the vast supply of diatomic nitrogen in the atmosphere is not directly available to plants. Various species of nitrogenfixing bacteria (collectively known as "rhizobia") form symbiotic associations with grain and forage legumes to produce biologically available nitrogen. Free-living rhizobia recognize potential legume nodulation partners through a highly specific chemical dialogue involving the secretion and perception of the small-molecule signaling compound known as "nodulation (Nod) factor." Recognition of Nod factor by the plant host initiates nodule development, starting with the proliferation of root cortical cells to produce nodule tissue and the formation of microscopic tubules (infection threads) through which trapped rhizobia grow into the expanding nodule tissue. A large fraction of the nodule cells becomes competent to take up the incoming bacteria via endocytosis. Internalized rhizobia (termed "bacteroids") occupy host cells at high density while remaining encased in host-derived symbiosome membranes. Nascent symbiosomes with enclosed bacteroids then undergo a precisely controlled developmental program, becoming large organelle-like structures that are capable of nitrogen fixation (1).

In a subset of legumes, bacteroid development involves an arrest in cell division, genomic endoreduplication, and a 5- to10-fold increase in bacteroid size, resulting in swelled bacteroids that fix copious amounts of nitrogen and are terminally differentiated (2). This is the case for the well-characterized symbiosis between *Sinorhizobium meliloti* and its legume host *Medicago truncatula*. Legumes that induce bacteroid swelling and terminal differentiation also encode complex assortments of nodule-specific cysteinerich (NCR) peptides that are specifically expressed in nodules and are delivered to the bacteroid-containing symbiosomes, suggesting

a peptide-based mechanism for bacteroid development that is under strict host control (3–5). M. truncatula encodes ~600 distinct NCR peptides that are expressed in at least two waves during nodule development (6-8). These peptides are generally 30-60 amino acids in length and share little sequence similarity with one another, except for the presence of four to six cysteine residues that are thought to form intramolecular disulfide bridges (9). When applied to free-living rhizobia in vitro, certain synthetic NCR peptides are sufficient to cause many of the metabolic and morphological changes observed for bacteroids in planta (5, 10). As the accompanying article (11) details the first strong genetic evidence, to our knowledge, a specific NCR peptide (NCR169) plays a decisive role in bacteroid development in M. truncatula nodules. It currently is supposed that the in vivo deployment of NCR peptides to bacteroid-containing symbiosomes is optimized to bring about cell division arrest, genomic endoreduplication, cell enlargement, and gentle membrane permeabilization while maintaining the robust metabolic activity required for nitrogen fixation and nutrient exchange with the host.

We previously described several naturally occurring *Sino-hizobium* accessory plasmids (pHRs) capable of restricting nodule development and nitrogen fixation (12). This effect is host dependent, with pHR plasmids causing dramatic symbiotic defects on certain *Medicago* host species but having no effect on others. We report here that a pHR-encoded metallopeptidase modulates symbiotic outcomes at a late developmental stage by triggering the premature degeneration of differentiated bacteroids, concomitant with nodule senescence in some cases. This enzyme is capable of NCR peptide cleavage in vitro, and its expression

Significance

The agriculturally important symbiosis between nitrogen-fixing bacteria (rhizobia) and their legume hosts occurs within root nodules. This partnership requires a molecular dialogue that ensures specificity and directs the codevelopment of the two organisms during nodule formation. This paper characterizes a protein, host range restriction peptidase (HrrP), which plays a role in this dialogue. Rhizobial strains that express HrrP tend to exhibit more parasitic properties, such as failing to provide fixed nitrogen for their hosts and proliferating more abundantly within nodule tissue. HrrP likely exhibits these properties by actively degrading plant-derived chemical signals that normally stimulate symbiotic cooperation.

Author contributions: P.A.P., G.C.W., and J.S.G. designed research; P.A.P., H.R.T., and B.A.D. performed research; M.S. directed experiments; G.C.W. and J.S.G. supervised the research; M.S. contributed new reagents/analytic tools; P.A.P. analyzed data; and P.A.P. and J.S.G. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

Data deposition: The sequence reported in this paper has been deposited in the GenBank database (accession no. CP011000).

¹To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: joelg@byu.edu.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1417797112/-/DCSupplemental.

pattern is consistent with a role in modifying NCR peptide pools in nodule tissue.

Results

Identification of Host Range Restriction Peptidase as a Nitrogen-Fixation **Blocking Factor.** We have previously shown that *S. meliloti* strain B800 (a streptomycin-resistant derivative of USDA1963) is able to fix nitrogen (Fix+) on M. truncatula accession A17 but not on accession A20 (Fix⁻) and that nitrogen fixation is restored upon spontaneous curing of its accessory plasmid, pHRB800 (12). This large (199-kb) plasmid contains ~290 protein-coding genes and is able to confer a Fix phenotype when present in multiple S. meliloti strain backgrounds. To determine which part of this plasmid is responsible for the Fix phenotype, a saturating plasmid-specific transposon mutagenesis screen was carried out on pHRB800, and this mutant library was screened for the inability to induce a Fix phenotype on A20 plants (outlined in Fig. S1). Five pHRB800 transposon insertions that prevented the fixationblocking phenotype all mapped to a single gene encoding an M16A family zinc-metallopeptidase, hereafter designated "host range restriction peptidase" (hrrP).

As expected, targeted disruptions of hrrP also yield a Fix+ phenotype on accession A20 (Fig. S2). When the hrrP gene is placed on a small plasmid vector and moved into a pHR-cured (pHR⁻) version of strain B800, the Fix⁻ phenotype is restored as though pHRB800 were present. Placement of hrrP onto the chromosome (hrrP chr) of B800 pHR⁻ using a mini-Tn5 transposon vector also restores the fixation-blocking phenotype on A20, mimicking the behavior of pHRB800 (Fig. 1A). Indeed, chromosomal hrrP has a more complete fixation-blocking effect, presumably because the chromosome, unlike a plasmid, cannot be cured during symbiotic invasion of the nodule. Notably, hrrP does not appear to affect nitrogen fixation on accession A17 (Fig. 1B). Acetylene reduction assays, which directly measure nitrogenase activity, reveal that hrrP inhibits activity on M. truncatula A20 almost completely but has no effect on A17 (Fig. 1C and Figs. S2C and S3). The lack of nitrogen fixation is also evident in the reduced shoot dry weight and yellowing chlorotic leaves of plants grown under nitrogen-limiting conditions (Fig. 1 A and D). Together these results show that hrrP is necessary and sufficient for host-specific inhibition of nitrogen fixation.

The M16A metallopeptidase family is characterized by a highly conserved HxxEH structural motif that coordinates the active-site Zn²⁺ ion. To determine whether the proteolytic function of HrrP is necessary for is its fixation-blocking phenotype, we introduced an E62A (HxxEH→HxxAH) alteration that is predicted to disable the peptidase catalytic motif. This variant no longer blocks

nitrogen fixation (Fig. 1 A, C, and D), indicating that the peptidase activity of HrrP is responsible for the fixation-blocking phenotype.

The Symbiotic Effects of hrrP Are Conditioned by both Host and Strain Genetic Background. It is clear that hrrP distinguishes M. truncatula accessions A20 and A17 when in the S. meliloti B800 strain background (Fig. 1). Fig. 24 shows that on a larger panel of M. truncatula accessions hrrP exhibits a broad spectrum of symbiotic effects (Fig. S4). These effects range from unimpeded nitrogenase activity (A17, L000163, L000174, and L000542) to nearly complete elimination of nitrogen fixation (A20 and L000239). Therefore, different closely related legume hosts, all of which form infected nodules, exhibit differing responses to rhizobially expressed hrrP.

hrrP also can have differing effects on host responses, depending on which rhizobial strain is expressing it. For example, hrrP expressed in S. meliloti strain B800 blocks nitrogen fixation on M. truncatula A20 but not on A17, whereas hrrP expressed in S. meliloti strain B464 blocks nitrogen fixation on both A20 and A17. Such variation in strain range can be observed for diverse Sinorhizobium isolates (Fig. 2B, Fig. S5, and Table S1). The strain-range effect demonstrates the existence of rhizobial genes that act as modifiers of the hrrP-induced fixation-blocking phenotype. In an attempt to identify the gene(s) that modulate strain range, we performed saturating transposon mutagenesis on B800 pHR⁻ hrrP_chr, followed by a screen for Fix⁺ nodules on A20 (i.e., suppressors of the Fix⁻ phenotype). This screen yielded eight Fix+ nodules; however, each of these strains had independent transposon insertions in hrrP itself. Our inability to uncover an hrrP-modifying function in this simple manner suggests that the unknown function either is essential for nitrogen fixation or is distributed over multiple overlapping functions.

hrrP Transcription Is Nodule Specific and Not Host Conditioned. To evaluate hrrP gene expression in the nodule, transcriptional fusions to β-glucuronidase (GUS) were constructed in a manner that would not disrupt normal hrrP function. Similar fusions also were made to the nifHDK nitrogenase promoter (normally upregulated in the nodule) and the *flaB* flagellin promoter [normally down-regulated in the nodule (13)]. All reporter strains carried pHRB800, and nodules were stained at 10 d postinoculation (dpi) to capture events before major morphological differences between Fix and Fix nodules are evident. We observed strong hrrP-GUS staining in nodules in both A17 and A20 host plants (Fig. 3 A and B). The hrrP-GUS expression pattern overlaps with that of nifH-GUS, with staining evident throughout the zones of the nodule that ordinarily are occupied by developing and mature bacteroids. Remarkably, hrrP transcription in the nodule does not appear to interfere with nif gene expression, even in A20 where hrrP

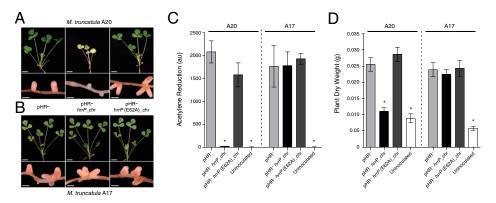
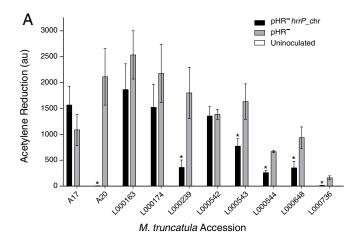


Fig. 1. hrrP is necessary and sufficient to inhibit nitrogen fixation on M. truncatula accession A20 but not A17. (A and B) Images of shoots and nodules at 28 dpi of M. truncatula A20 (A) and A17 (B) induced with strains B800 pHR⁻ (plasmid-cured derivative of B800; C307), B800 pHR⁻ with a chromosomal copy of hrrP (PP317), or B800 pHR⁻ with a chromosomal copy of hrrP(E62A) (PP316). (C and D) Acetylene reduction data at 21 dpi (n = 4) (C) and plant shoot dry weight data at 28 dpi (n = 5) (D) for M. truncatula A20 and A17 plants inoculated with these same Sinorhizobium strains. (Scale bars: shoots, 1 cm; nodules, 0.1 cm.) Error bars indicate SEM. *P < 0.0001 for Student's t test vs. strain B800 pHR⁻.



R						
٥		M.t. A17		M.t. A20		
	Strain	WT	hrrP _chr	WT	<i>hrrP</i> _chr	
	B641	Fix ⁺	Fix ⁺	Fix ⁺	Fix ⁺	
	B644	Fix ⁺	Fix ⁺	Fix ⁺	Fix ⁺	
	C285	Fix ⁺	Fix ⁺	Fix ⁺	Fix -	
	B800 pHR	Fix +	Fix +	Fix +	Fix -	
	B464	Fix ⁺	Fix -	Fix ⁺	Fix -	
	B475	Fix ⁺	Fix -	Fix ⁺	Fix -	

Fig. 2. The symbiotic effects of hrrP are conditioned by both host and strain genetic backgrounds. (A) Acetylene reduction data (n = 3) for a panel of wild M. truncatula accessions inoculated with B800 pHR- (C307), B800 pHR- with a chromosomal copy of hrrP (PP317), or dH_2O (uninoculated). Error bars indicate SEM. *P < 0.05. (B) Phenotypic outcomes [Fix+ (pink shading) and Fix- (white shading)] for M. truncatula A17 and A20 inoculated with Sinorhizobium strains B641, B644, C285, B800 pHR- (C307), B464, and B475 with and without a chromosomal hrrP transgene (n = 8).

evokes a Fix phenotype. Because nif gene expression requires a microaerophilic environment, this observation implies that the early stages of nodule development required to create such an environment are not perturbed by hrrP function. In free-living cells, hrrP-GUS expression is nearly undetectable compared with expression from the *flaB* promoter or the commonly used *trp* promoter from Salmonella, which is constitutive in S. meliloti (Fig. 3C).

HrrP Cleaves NCR Peptides in Vitro. The observations described above are consistent with the HrrP peptidase acting on hostencoded NCR peptides in the nodule to modulate symbiotic development. Fig. 4A depicts a structural model for the HrrP enzyme based on crystallographically determined M16A metallopeptidase family members. The predicted clamshell structure of HrrP is reminiscent of previously solved enzymes, which are known to select peptide substrates based on their ability to be accommodated in the interior of the proteolytic chamber formed by the two roughly symmetrical domains. Substrate size and charge, rather than sequence, seems to be a key determinant of proteolytic specificity within this family (14). The peptide size range accommodated by M16A enzymes (30–70 residues) is remarkably similar to the range of sizes predicted for mature NCR peptides (30-60 residues), leading us to believe that HrrP may act on a large subset of NCR peptides despite their extensive sequence diversity.

To test the NCR peptide cleavage model directly, HrrP and the catalytically inactivated variant HrrP(E62A) were purified to homogeneity, and these preparations were used to treat various purified NCR peptides. Evaluating degradation by gel electrophoresis (Fig. 4B) allows the direct observation of NCR079 degradation over a 90-min period in the presence of HrrP that is not observed in the presence of HrrP(E62A). The more limited degradation of NCR129 by HrrP over the same time period suggests some level of NCR peptide substrate selectivity. Time-course analysis of NCR079 degradation by HPLC shows the formation of discrete product peaks during the course of the reaction. Two minor peaks, eluting around 11.5 min and 12.1 min, accumulate during intermediate time points and then diminish in the final time point, suggesting that substrate peptides may be degraded in multiple steps (Fig. 4C). HrrP activity on 10 NCR peptides is quantified in Table 1. Degradation is detected for all NCR peptides tested, but activity varies by up to 15-fold. HrrP is modestly active in vitro against NCR169, a peptide reported in the accompanying article (11) as being required for bacteroid development.

hrrP Increases Sinorhizobium Fitness Within Nodules. Previous work with pHR plasmids indicated that they can increase bacterial proliferation inside the nodule (12). To test whether hrrP can confer this effect and to evaluate whether this property also might be host conditioned, cfus were quantified from individual 28-d-old, surface-sterilized nodules. For A20, hrrP+ (Fix-) nodules yielded 5.5-fold more cfus than hrrP⁻ (Fix⁺) nodules (Fig. 5A). This finding is striking, considering the small size of the nonfixing hrrP⁺ nodules compared with the well-developed hrrP nodules (Fig. 1A). Given that the *hrrP*⁺ strain induces 5–10 times more nodules on A20 than the hrrP strain, the effective gain in bacterial proliferation by the hrrP⁺ strain on a per-plant basis is ~30-fold. Remarkably, hrrP confers a similar fitness benefit in association with accession A17 (a 4.5-fold increase in cfus per nodule), a host background in which hrrP does not interfere with nitrogen fixation (Fig. 5A).

We tested the idea that the hyperproliferation of $hrrP^{+}$ strains in nodules may correspond to the induction of nodule senescence because a senescing nodule may support enhanced saprophytic growth of undifferentiated bacteria. Two expression markers associated with nodule senescence in M. truncatula have been

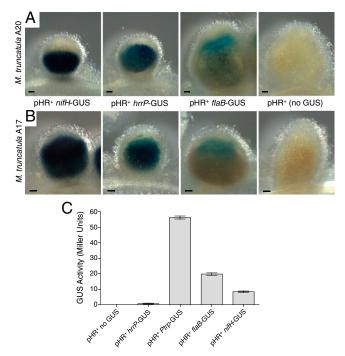


Fig. 3. GUS promoter fusion studies showing nodule-specific expression of hrrP. (A and B) Representative micrographs of 10-d-old M. truncatula accession A20 (A) and A17 (B) nodules stained with X-GLUC to reveal the location and relative expression of the GUS reporter fusions integrated downstream of the nifHDK, hrrP, and flaB promoters (strains PP404, PP389, and PP397, respectively). All samples were stained under identical conditions. Wild-type B800 (no GUS) was used as a negative control for GUS straining in planta. (C) GUS expression levels in free-living cells grown to midlog phase. The constitutive Salmonella-derived trp promoter was included as a positive control (PP471). (Scale bars: 100 μm.) Error bars indicate SEM.

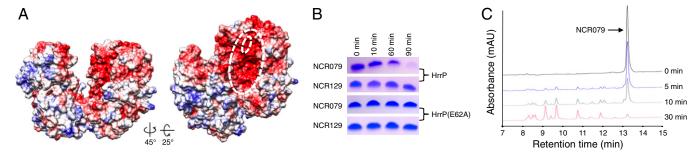


Fig. 4. Purified HrrP cleaves synthetic NCR peptides. (A) Electrostatic map of the structural model of HrrP derived using I-TASSER online (closest threading model was PDB ID code 1bccA). The outer white dotted line indicates the catalytic chamber, and the inner white dotted line indicates the Zn²⁺ coordinating residues. (B) Tris-Tricine SDS/PAGE gels showing the time course of NCR079 and NCR129 peptide cleavage by purified HrrP or HrrP (E62A). (C) HPLC analysis of NCR079 cleavage over time (0, 5, 10, and 30 min) by HrrP.

evaluated recently: MtCP6, which encodes a papain-like proteolytic enzyme, and MtVPE, which encodes a caspase-like enzyme (15). At 21 dpi, we find that these markers are induced in A20 plants inoculated with $hrrP^+$ rhizobia but not A17 plants inoculated with the same strain (Fig. 5B). Because both plant genotypes permit the hrrP-dependent hyperproliferation phenotype, but only A20 exhibits hrrP-dependent senescence, we conclude that senescence may not completely explain the proliferation phenomenon. As expected, A20 and A17 nodules exhibit senescence marker induction when nodulated with nitrogenase-null ($\Delta nifH$) rhizobia.

Because the HrrP enzyme cleaves the very peptides that are known to drive bacteroid development, it is tempting to speculate that the enhanced bacterial viability observed in hrrP+ nodules is caused by a subset of bacteroids either failing to terminally differentiate or experiencing some sort of dedifferentiation. To begin to explore this hypothesis, we imaged hrrP⁺ bacteroids from A20 nodules by transmission electron microscopy. In M. truncatula, the temporal pattern of bacteroid development can be followed indirectly by moving spatially down a single nodule from its meristematic apex to the older, root-proximal zone. For the experiment shown in Fig. 5 C-F, an A20 nodule infected with B800 hrrP+ bacteria was allowed to develop for 28 d before sample preparation. In the middle region of the nodule (Fig. 5C) bacteroids are swollen and elongated, as is typical; in sections taken from the same nodule but closer to the root, bacteroids that normally would maintain their swollen, elongated structure appear to pinch and fragment, resulting in large spaces separating the symbiosome membrane from the bacteroid (Fig. 5 *D-F*). In the most root-proximal region of the nodule bacteroids are small and round (Fig. 5F). These degenerative events are not observed in nodules from A17 plants or in newer nodules from A20 plants. The cellular processes that account for this phenomenon are currently under investigation.

Table 1. Specific activity of HrrP against various synthetic NCR peptides

Peptide	Length, aa	pl	HrrP-specific activity, nmol peptide-mg HrrP ⁻¹ -min ⁻¹
NCR035	37	9.44	57.13 ± 4.59
NCR041	31	9.44	52.69 ± 1.27
NCR079	33	6.77	70.16 ± 6.36
NCR094	39	6.21	4.99 ± 1.16
NCR124	30	6.92	14.81 ± 3.38
NCR129	30	4.68	17.15 ± 0.62
NCR142	29	4.01	4.61 ± 3.28
NCR169	38	8.45	10.23 ± 0.67
NCR211	34	5.38	15.17 ± 0.17
NCR247	24	10.15	32.92 ± 0.58

The Frequency and Sequence Diversity of hrrP Genes in Nature. The marked increase in overall bacterial fitness of hrrP-containing strains and the plasmid-encoded nature of hrrP would suggest that hrrP-harboring strains may be somewhat abundant in the environment. A PCR-based screen of 150 Sinorhizobium isolates from our collection indicates that ~20% of natural isolates harbor hrrP homologs, all of which appear to be encoded on large accessory plasmids. Analysis of a subset of these hrrP homologs reveals that they share over 96% identity at the DNA sequence level. Evaluation of an hrrP gene tree indicates that hrrP phylogeny is discordant with the chromosomal phylogeny of the Sinorhizobium strains that harbor them (Fig. 6 and Fig. S6). For example, in several cases, distinct Sinorhizobium species harbor nearly identical hrrP sequences, but very closely related Sinorhizobium strains often harbor relatively divergent hrrP alleles.

hrrP may have been introduced into Sinorhizobium accessory plasmids relatively recently. The genetic landscape adjacent to hrrP has been determined for only two plasmids: the pHR from strain B800 and an accessory plasmid (pSINME01) from S. meliloti strain AK83, which is noted for its ineffective nitrogen fixation (16). Despite 97.4% nucleotide sequence identity between these hrrP homologs, there is no synteny surrounding the hrrP coding region; even the promoter regions are highly divergent (Fig. S7 A and B). Moreover, both homologs are surrounded by multiple transposable elements that most closely resemble sequences found in the genus Rhizobium. Indeed, hrrP homologs also are found in various *Rhizobium* species, but in this genus *hrrP* is chromosomally encoded and maintains synteny across different species and strains (Fig. S7C). We therefore speculate that Sinorhizobium likely acquired hrrP from Rhizobium via horizontal gene transfer and that hrrP has spread among different Sinorhizobium genotypes via conjugative- and transposon-mediated processes.

Discussion

Symbiotic compatibility between rhizobia and legumes has been well characterized at the level of early, Nod factor-dependent stages of development (17). This signaling interaction has been appropriately referred to as a "molecular dialogue" (18), but there has been great difficulty in elucidating how that dialogue proceeds into later stages of the symbiosis that encompass the morphological and physiological differentiation of bacteroids. The data presented here are consistent with HrrP providing a means for rhizobia to modulate their own symbiotic developmental fate by directly altering host-derived NCR peptides. The number of NCR peptides thought to be expressed in M. truncatula nodules exceeds 590 (19), but the number that have major effects on symbiotic development may be somewhat smaller. The accompanying article (11) reporting the symbiotic essentiality of M. truncatula NCR peptide (NCR169) opens the possibility that a rather small ensemble of core NCR peptides may be necessary and sufficient for normal symbiotic development. Therefore a symbiotic modifier such as HrrP may not need to target very many peptides to have a major effect.

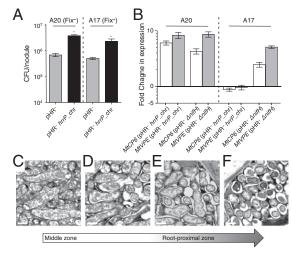


Fig. 5. The effects of hrrP on bacterial fitness, senescence, and bacteroid morphology in M. truncatula nodules. (A) Bacterial fitness for the strains B800 pHR⁻ (C307) and B800 pHR⁻ with a chromosomal copy of hrrP (PP317), as measured by cfus released from nodules 28 dpi for M. truncatula accessions A20 and A17 (n = 40 nodules per condition). *P < 0.05. (B) qRT-PCR analysis of the fold change in expression of the senescence markers MtCP6 and MtVPE for A20 and A17 nodules induced with B800 pHR- with a chromosomal copy of hrrP (PP317) or B800 pHR⁻ ∆nifH (PP411) compared with B800 pHR⁻ (C307). Error bars in A and B indicate SEM. (C-F) Spatial series of transmission electron microscopy images starting at the middle zone and ending at the root-proximal zone of a single M. truncatula A20 nodule induced with B800 pHR⁻ with a chromosomal copy of hrrP (PP317). The nodule was harvested at 28 dpi. (Scale bars: 1 μm.)

One of the more interesting properties of hrrP is the host and strain dependence of its phenotypic action. These observations imply that genes other than hrrP, in both microsymbiont and host, modulate symbiotic compatibility at late developmental stages. For example, hosts may vary in their deployment of NCR peptide arsenals, and rhizobial strains can have varying intrinsic sensitivities to NCR peptides. This idea is supported by the hypervariability of NCR gene sequences across M. truncatula accessions (7) and the clear demonstration that at least one Sinorhizobium gene, bacA, can modulate NCR peptide susceptibility (7, 10). Therefore, the ultimate symbiotic outcome for a given host-strain pair will depend on the interplay between NCR dosage and the bacterial response; hrrP may have the effect of shifting the outcome in favor of bacterial insensitivity to NCR peptides.

The symbiosis between rhizobia and legumes is traditionally thought of as a mutualism, but our characterization of HrrP shows that each partner is able to evolve traits that maximize its own benefit from the partnership. Recall that in the nodules of M. truncatula A17, hrrP does not inhibit nitrogen fixation significantly, but it still increases rhizobial fitness by 4.5-fold (Fig. 5A). In natural settings, hrrP probably provides an accessory function to Sinorhizobium strains that does not detract largely from the benefit they provide their hosts but that substantially increases the ability of bacterial cells to regain proliferative competency after symbiotic services have been rendered. In agricultural settings, however, the pairing of crop plants with genetically incongruous soil microbes may set the stage for synthetic symbiotic incompatibilities such as the one we have dissected here. Exploitative rhizobia in these settings tend to outcompete "superior" inoculant strains for nodule occupancy, as has been reported repeatedly (20, 21). Our data show how readily a single gene such as hrrP might contribute to the suppression of nitrogen fixation and how the movement of such a gene on a mobile plasmid could corrupt otherwise superior rhizobium inoculants.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial Strains, Plant Lines, and Culture Conditions. Specific strains and plant lines are listed in Tables S2 and S3, respectively. Escherichia coli, S. meliloti, and Agrobacterium tumefaciens cultures were grown at 37 °C, 30 °C, and 30 °C, respectively, in LB or on LB agar plates with the appropriate antibiotics. For details, see Supporting Information.

Plasmid and Strain Construction. Strains, plasmids, NCR peptides, and oligonucleotides are listed in Tables S2 and S4-S6, respectively. Plasmids were constructed using standard molecular techniques. For details, see Supporting Information. Plasmid mobilization between strains was mediated via triparental matings with the helper E. coli B001 (DH5α harboring pRK600) followed by selection with the appropriate antibiotics.

Construction and Screening of the Plasmid-Specific Transposon Mutant Library. The plasmid-specific transposon library was generated using a mating-out procedure as described in Fig. S1. Transposon insertion sites were mapped onto pHRB800 using arbitrary-PCR for mutant strains that yielded a Fix+ phenotype and maintained pHRB800. More specific details of the protocol

are included in Supporting Information.

Plant Growth and Nodulation, M. truncatula plants were grown in a 4:1 Turface: Vermiculite mixture (Turface Athletics; Thermo-O-Rock West Inc.). Seedlings were inoculated with Sinorhizobium 4 d after planting and then were grown under nitrogen-limiting conditions as indicated for individual experiments. For details, see Supporting Information. For plant dry weights. samples were placed in an oven at 60 °C for 48 h and then were weighed on an analytical balance. To determine cfus per nodule, nodules were surface sterilized, crushed, serially diluted, and plated on LB agar. The Student's ttest was used to compare differences between samples.

Acetylene Reduction Assays. Plants were harvested at 21 dpi. Three whole plants were placed in sealed test tubes containing a 10% total atmosphere of acetylene. Plants were incubated for ~12 h, and relative ethylene levels were measured using an Agilent 6890N gas chromatograph (Agilent Technologies, Inc.) For details, see Supporting Information.

GUS Staining. 5-Bromo-4-chloro-1*H*-indol-3-yl β-D-glucopyranosiduronic acid (X-GLUC) was used for in planta visualization of GUS expression in 10-d-old M. truncatula A20 and A17 nodules. p-Nitrophenyl-β-p-glucuronide (PNPG) was used to measure in vitro GUS expression in free-living cells. For details, see Supporting Information.

HrrP Modeling, Purification, and Proteolysis Assays. HrrP structural model predictions were generated using iTASSER online (22), and electrostatic modeling predictions were generated using University of California, San Francisco

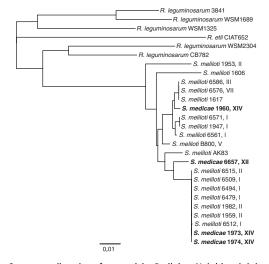


Fig. 6. Sequence diversity of natural hrrP alleles. Neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree constructed using DNA sequences for a subset of sequenced hrrP homologs identified in the USDA Sinorhizobium collection and Gen-Bank for the genera Rhizobium and Sinorhizobium. To help visualize the lack of concordance between the hrrP phylogeny and Sinorhizobium phylogeny, we assigned Sinorhizobium clades (I-XVI) based on the chromosomal phylogeny reported by Van Berkum et al. (24).

(UCSF) Chimera (23). Overexpressed His_{6x}-tagged HrrP was purified from NiCO21 (DE3) *E. coli* cells (New England Biolabs). NCR peptides were purchased from GenScript or were produced using solid-phase peptide synthesis. HrrP-specific activity was determined by the decrease in the amount of residual substrate compared with HrrP (E62A) matched controls as analyzed via HPLC. HrrP activity also was visualized on Tris-Tricine SDS/PAGE gels. For details, see *Supporting Information*.

RNA Extraction and Quantitative Real-Time PCR Analysis. Total RNA was extracted from *M. truncatula* A17 and A20 nodules, and cDNA pools were synthesized using standard techniques. Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) analyses for *MtCP6* and *MtVPE* were performed as described by Pierre et al. (15) using the constitutively expressed *MtC27* and *MtA39* genes as endogenous controls.

Transmission Electron Microscopy. At 28 dpi, whole nodules were excised, fixed, stained, and embedded in Spurr's resin. An ultramicrotome was used to generate the 80-nm sections that then were imaged using a Tecnai G2 T-12 transmission electron microscope. For details, see *Supporting Information*.

- Jones KM, Kobayashi H, Davies BW, Taga ME, Walker GC (2007) How rhizobial symbionts invade plants: The Sinorhizobium-Medicago model. Nat Rev Microbiol 5(8): 619-633.
- Mergaert P, et al. (2006) Eukaryotic control on bacterial cell cycle and differentiation in the Rhizobium-legume symbiosis. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 103(13):5230–5235.
- Mergaert P, et al. (2003) A novel family in Medicago truncatula consisting of more than 300 nodule-specific genes coding for small, secreted polypeptides with conserved cysteine motifs. Plant Physiol 132(1):161–173.
- Wang D, et al. (2010) A nodule-specific protein secretory pathway required for nitrogen-fixing symbiosis. Science 327(5969):1126–1129.
- Van de Velde W, et al. (2010) Plant peptides govern terminal differentiation of bacteria in symbiosis. Science 327(5969):1122–1126.
- Maunoury N, et al. (2010) Differentiation of symbiotic cells and endosymbionts in Medicago truncatula nodulation are coupled to two transcriptome-switches. PLoS ONE 5(3):e9519.
- Nallu S, Silverstein KAT, Zhou P, Young ND, VandenBosch KA (2014) Patterns of divergence of a large family of nodule cysteine-rich peptides in accessions of *Medicago* truncatula. Plant J 78(4):697–705.
- Penterman J, et al. (2014) Host plant peptides elicit a transcriptional response to control the Sinorhizobium meliloti cell cycle during symbiosis. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 111(9):3561–3566.
- Kondorosi E, Mergaert P, Kereszt A (2013) A paradigm for endosymbiotic life: Cell differentiation of *Rhizobium* bacteria provoked by host plant factors. *Annu Rev Mi*crobiol 67:611–628.
- Haag AF, et al. (2011) Protection of Sinorhizobium against host cysteine-rich antimicrobial peptides is critical for symbiosis. PLoS Biol 9(10):e1001169.
- Horváth B, et al. (2015) Loss of the nodule-specific cysteine rich peptide, NCR169 abolishes symbiotic nitrogen fixation in the Medicago truncatula dnf7 mutant. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 112:15232–15237.
- Crook MB, et al. (2012) Rhizobial plasmids that cause impaired symbiotic nitrogen fixation and enhanced host invasion. Mol Plant Microbe Interact 25(8):1026–1033.
- Capela D, Filipe C, Bobik C, Batut J, Bruand C (2006) Sinorhizobium meliloti differentiation during symbiosis with alfalfa: A transcriptomic dissection. Mol Plant Microbe Interact 19(4):363–372.

Identification of hrrP-Harboring Strains and Phylogenic Tree Assembly. *hrrP* homologs were identified and sequenced from the US Department of Agriculture (USDA) *Sinorhizobium* strain collection or were retrieved from GenBank. For details, see *Supporting Information*. The *hrrP* ORF was used to generate a neighbor-joining phylogenic tree. Clades I–XVI were assigned based on the chromosomal phylogeny reported by Van Berkum et al. (24) at a linkage distance of 0.35.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank Michael Standing for technical assistance with the electron microscopy, P. Van Berkum [US Department of Agriculture (USDA) Agricultural Research Service] for providing many of the strains used in this study, and the Biological Resources Centre for *Medicago truncatula* for providing the *M. truncatula* accessions used in this study. Structural graphics and analyses were performed with the University of California, San Francisco (UCSF) Chimera package developed by the Resource for Biocomputing, Visualization, and Informatics at UCSF (supported by National Institute of General Medical Sciences Grant P41-GM103311). This work was funded by National Science Foundation Grant 10S-1054980 and USDA/National Institute of Food and Agriculture Grant 2015-67013-22915 (to J.S.G.). This work was supported in part by National Institutes of Health Grant GM31010 (to G.C.W.); G.C.W. is an American Cancer Society Professor. M.S. is supported by Human Frontier Science Program LT000852/2012.

- Shen Y, Joachimiak A, Rosner MR, Tang W-J (2006) Structures of human insulin-degrading enzyme reveal a new substrate recognition mechanism. Nature 443(7113):870–874.
- Pierre O, et al. (2014) Involvement of papain and legumain proteinase in the senescence process of Medicago truncatula nodules. New Phytol 202(3):849–863.
- Galardini M, et al. (2011) Exploring the symbiotic pangenome of the nitrogen-fixing bacterium Sinorhizobium meliloti. BMC Genomics 12:235–249.
- Long SR (1996) Rhizobium symbiosis: Nod factors in perspective. Plant Cell 8(10): 1885–1898.
- Denarie J, Debelle F, Truchet G, Prome J (1993) Rhizobium and legume nodulation: A
 molecular dialogue. New Horizons in Nitrogen Fixation, Current Plant Science and
 Biotechnology in Agriculture, eds Palacios R, Mora J, Newton WE (Springer, Dordrecht,
 The Netherlands), Vol 17, pp 19–30.
- Young ND, et al. (2011) The Medicago genome provides insight into the evolution of rhizobial symbioses. Nature 480(7378):520–524.
- Streeter J (1994) Failure of inoculant rhizobia to overcome the dominance of indigenous strains for nodule formation. Can J Microbiol 40(7):513–522.
- Vlassak K, Vanderleyden J, Graham P (1997) Factors influencing nodule occupancy by inoculant rhizobia. Crit Rev Plant Sci 16:163–229.
- Yang J, et al. (2015) The I-TASSER Suite: Protein structure and function prediction. Nat Methods 12(1):7–8.
- Pettersen EF, et al. (2004) UCSF Chimera—a visualization system for exploratory research and analysis. J Comput Chem 25(13):1605–1612.
- van Berkum P, Elia P, Eardly BD (2006) Multilocus sequence typing as an approach for population analysis of Medicago-nodulating rhizobia. J Bacteriol 188(15):5570–5577.
- Griffitts JS, Long SR (2008) A symbiotic mutant of Sinorhizobium meliloti reveals a novel genetic pathway involving succinoglycan biosynthetic functions. Mol Microbiol 67(6):1292–1306.
- Price PA, Jin J, Goldman WE (2012) Pulmonary infection by Yersinia pestis rapidly establishes a permissive environment for microbial proliferation. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 109(8):3083–3088.
- 27. Quandt J, Hynes MF (1993) Versatile suicide vectors which allow direct selection for gene replacement in gram-negative bacteria. *Gene* 127(1):15–21.
- Wells DH, Long SR (2002) The Sinorhizobium meliloti stringent response affects multiple aspects of symbiosis. Mol Microbiol 43(5):1115–1127.