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 This is a pre print version of the following article:

 Original Citation:

 Availability:

 This version is available http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1633388

 since 2017-05-12T17:54:54Z

 Published version:

 DOI:10.1111/nph.14350

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This is the author's final version of the contribution published as:

Barker, David G; Chabaud, Mireille; Russo, Giulia; Genre, Andrea. Nuclear Ca2+ signalling in arbuscular mycorrhizal and actinorhizal endosymbioses: on the trail of novel underground signals. NEW PHYTOLOGIST. 214 (2) pp: 533-538. DOI: 10.1111/nph.14350

The publisher's version is available at: http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/wol1/doi/10.1111/nph.14350/fullpdf

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Journal:	New Phytologist
Manuscript ID	NPH-TI-2016-22341
Manuscript Type:	TI – Commissioned material – Tansley insight
Date Submitted by the Author:	30-Jun-2016
Complete List of Authors:	Barker, David; UMR CNRS-INRA 2594/441, Laboratory of Plant-Microbe Interactions Chabaud, Mireille; UMR CNRS-INRA 2594/441, Laboratory of Plant-Microbe Interactions Russo, Giulia; Università di Torino, Dipartimento di Scienze della Vita e Biologia dei Sistemi Genre, Andrea; Università di Torino, Dipartimento di Scienze della Vita e Biologia dei Sistemi
Key Words:	Cameleon calcium reporters, Chitin oligomers, Common symbiotic signaling pathway, LysM receptor-like kinases, Nuclear calcium spiking, Plant- microbe interactions, Root endosymbioses
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Nuclear Ca²⁺ signaling in arbuscular mycorrhizal and actinorhizal endosymbioses: on the trail of novel underground signals

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Word counts:

- Summary: 123 words
- Main Text: 2,495 words
- No. Figures: 2 (Fig. 1 in colour)

No. Tables: 0

Contents list:

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Acknowledgements

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1 Summary

Root endosymbioses are beneficial associations formed between terrestrial plants and either 2 bacterial or fungal microorganisms. A common feature of these intracellular symbioses is the 3 4 requirement for mutual recognition between the two partners prior to host-regulated microbial entry. Specific microbial factors activate a highly conserved plant signal transduction 5 pathway, of which a central component is the triggering of sustained Ca^{2+} oscillations in the 6 host epidermis. This then leads to the specialized cellular reprogramming required for the 7 construction of the transcellular apoplastic microbial entry compartments. Here we focus on 8 recent findings concerning this crucial Ca2+-dependent signaling step for endosymbiotic 9 associations involving either arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi or nitrogen-fixing Frankia 10 actinomycetes, as well as how this knowledge is contributing to the identification of the 11 respective microbial factors. 12

13 Key Words:

Cameleon calcium reporters; Chitin oligomers; Common symbiotic signaling pathway; LysM
 receptor-like kinases; Nuclear calcium spiking; Plant-microbe interactions; Root
 endosymbioses

17 I. Introduction

18 Throughout the evolution of land plants, mutualistic fungal and bacterial associations have 19 provided key metabolites (phosphorus, nitrogen, microelements etc.) to their respective hosts, 20 and thereby played a major role in plant colonization of terrestrial ecosystems. In return, the 21 microbial partners benefited from both a source of photosynthates as well as privileged 22 ecological niches. Striking examples of such beneficial associations are the so-called root 23 endosymbioses, where the microsymbionts are housed within specialized host cell 24 compartments, whether in the inner root cortex for the ancient and widespread arbuscular 25 mycorrhizal (AM) symbiosis, or within *de novo* constructed root organs (nodules) in the case 26 of the more recently evolved rhizobial/legume and Frankia/actinorhizal plant nitrogen-fixing 27 symbioses.

28 Studies initially focused on the rhizobial/legume symbiosis using model legumes such as Medicago truncatula and Lotus japonicus revealed that the successful establishment of this 29 association requires host recognition of specific rhizobial lipo-chitooligosaccharide (LCO) 30 signals known as Nod factors (NFs; Dénarié & Cullimore, 1993). These NF LCOs are 31 perceived via legume receptor-like kinases (RLK) belonging to the chitin-binding LysM-RLK 32 33 family. This then activates a specific host signal transduction pathway in target root hairs, a central feature of which is the triggering of sustained nuclear-associated Ca²⁺ oscillations 34 (known as spiking) which are decoded by a dedicated calcium and calmodulin kinase 35 (CCaMK) (Oldrovd & Downie, 2006). Major cellular reprogramming in the host cells is thus 36 37 initiated, resulting in the progressive construction of the transcellular compartment (infection 38 thread) within root hairs, through which the rhizobia are conveyed across the root outer 39 tissues (e.g. Fournier et al., 2008). This sophisticated mode of apoplastic root penetration is thought to allow selectivity and regulation of microbial access to inner root tissues. 40

Legume-based research was also instrumental in revealing striking similarities between the 41 42 molecular and cellular mechanisms of both rhizobial and AM fungal root colonization, including the mode of fungal root entry via apoplastic intracellular compartments (Genre et 43 al., 2005) as well as the activation of the Ca^{2+} spiking/CCaMK core signaling module (Kosuta 44 et al., 2008; Chabaud et al., 2011) which lies at the heart of the so-called common symbiosis 45 signaling pathway (CSSP; see Fig.1). More recently, a key role for Ca^{2+} signaling has also 46 been demonstrated for the nitrogen-fixing endosymbioses formed between filamentous 47 Frankia and their actinorhizal hosts (Chabaud et al., 2015; Granqvist et al., 2015). In this 48

49 review we will focus on the latest discoveries which throw light on Ca^{2+} signaling during the 50 establishment of both the AM and *Frankia*/actinorhizal root symbioses as well as the resulting 51 approaches which are now being employed to identify the corresponding microbial factors 52 which activate the Ca^{2+} -dependent CSSP.

53

П.

Nuclear calcium signaling and the AM symbiosis belonging to Glomeromycotina

AM fungi, collectively known as Glomeromycota, are widespread obligate biotrophs which 54 are able to colonize roots of the majority (approx. 80%) of plant species, forming elaborate 55 56 ramified symbiotic structures known as arbuscules within inner cortical cells. Fossil evidence 57 has revealed that analogous structures were present in the tissues of early land plants (over 58 400 million years ago), suggesting that the AM symbiosis played a central role in facilitating 59 plant access to nutrients in a harsh terrestrial environment (Bonfante & Genre, 2008). 60 Furthermore, recent phylogenomic studies have shown that the complete CSSP module is present throughout extant plant clades, thus emphasizing the importance of microbe-host 61 Ca²⁺-dependent signaling even during these earliest mutualistic associations (Delaux et al., 62 2015). 63

An important advance in the study of oscillatory nuclear Ca^{2+} signaling during the initial 64 stages of endosymbiotic associations was the development of in vivo cameleon-based calcium 65 reporters coupled with confocal microscopy imaging (Miwa et al., 2006). In particular, the 66 development of nuclear-localized cameleons such as Nup-YC2.1 (Sieberer et al., 2009) 67 greatly facilitated the detection of Ca^{2+} spiking in atrichoblasts, the non root hair epidermal 68 cells which are the primary targets of AM colonization. Experiments using both legume (M. 69 truncatula) and non-legume (Daucus carota) root organ cultures (ROCs) expressing Nup-70 YC2.1 were instrumental in first demonstrating nuclear Ca^{2+} spiking in atrichoblasts 71 associated with AM fungal contact and hyphopodium formation (Chabaud et al., 2011; Fig. 72 2a). Significantly, spiking frequency was highest in those cells where the nucleus had 73 migrated to the site of fungal attachment, a key event which precedes the construction of 74 75 transcellular apoplastic compartment (Genre et al., 2005).

The presence of symbiotic fungal signals in germinating spore exudates of several AM species was also examined using Ca^{2+} spiking responses as a bio-assay in both *Medicago* and carrot ROCs expressing Nup-YC2.1. These studies led to the identification of short-chain chitin oligomers (chitotetraose and chitopentaose) as candidate AM signals (Genre *et al.*, 2013). Not only can these so-called Myc-COs activate the host CSSP at low concentrations

 (10^{-8} M) but their levels are greatly enhanced in the spore exudates if the synthetic 81 82 strigolactone GR24 is present during spore germination. Since plant strigolactones stimulate AM hyphal development prior to initial root contact, these findings provide evidence for 83 84 reciprocal molecular signaling between host and fungal symbiont during the pre-infection stage. Finally, the nuclear Ca^{2+} spiking elicited in *M. truncatula* atrichoblasts by AM fungal 85 contact, fungal exudates or short-chain Myc-COs (Fig. 2a-c) is generally less regular in both 86 87 periodicity and spike profile compared to NF-activated spiking in root hairs (Russo et al., 2013; Fig. 2d). The reason for this difference in spiking signature is currently unclear, and 88 contrasts with the similar Ca^{2+} spiking profiles associated with both rhizobial and AM 89 infection of cortical cells (Sieberer et al., 2012). 90

91 In parallel to these studies, the use of NF bioassays (root hair deformation and early nodulin 92 gene expression) had revealed other potential AM fungal signals in the form of either 93 sulphated or non-sulphated LCOs, present in both AM spore and colonized root exudates (Maillet et al., 2011). These Myc-LCOs structurally resemble rhizobial LCOs and elicit 94 similar Ca^{2+} spiking responses to NFs in root hairs of *M. truncatula* seedlings (Sun *et al.*, 95 2015). Whilst M. truncatula mutants defective in the LysM receptor-like kinase NFP (Nod 96 97 Factor Perception) fail to nodulate and are totally unresponsive to NFs (Ben Amor et al., 2003), these same mutants exhibit normal AM colonization. Nevertheless, Ca^{2+} spiking is 98 99 blocked in *nfp* mutants in response to exogenous Myc-LCOs (Sun et al., 2015). Furthermore, 100 transcriptomic approaches have shown that root gene expression in young seedlings in 101 response to Myc-LCOs is also essentially dependent on NFP (Czaja et al., 2012; Hohnjec et 102 al., 2015). These similarities between the perception and biological activities of NF and Myc-LCOs make it difficult to evaluate the extent to which both sulphated and non-sulphated Myc-103 LCO root responses may result from inappropriate activation of the NF-signalling pathway in 104 105 legumes.

In contrast to Myc-LCOs, the Ca^{2+} spiking activity elicited by Myc-COs is unaffected in an 106 nfp mutant background (Genre et al., 2013). In addition to the use of whole plants, M. 107 truncatula ROCs were also used in these studies since ROCs are readily colonized by AM 108 109 fungi, but cannot be nodulated and are unresponsive to either rhizobia or NFs. When applied 110 to ROCs Myc-COs are significantly more active in triggering spiking compared to Myc-LCOs (Genre et al., 2013). Together, these results suggest differences in the symbiotic roles played 111 112 by AM fungal COs and LCOs, and indeed it has been demonstrated that whereas both NFand Myc-LCOs can stimulate lateral root development (Maillet et al., 2011), this is not the 113

case for chitotetraose (Olah *et al.*, 2005). Further detailed discussions of these and related
findings can be found in the recent reviews of Bucher *et al.*, (2014); Nadal & Paszkowski

116 (2013) and Schmitz & Harrison (2014).

Unfortunately, the absence of AM fungal genetic approaches makes it difficult to ascribe 117 unequivocal signaling roles for either Myc-COs or LCOs. In addition, nod gene orthologs 118 119 were unfortunately not identified in the recently sequenced genome of the AM fungus 120 Rhizophagus irregularis (Tisserant et al., 2013). On the other hand, recent studies on nonlegume AM hosts are now throwing fresh light on early AM fungal signal perception and in 121 particular the role of certain LysM-RLK receptors. Two research teams have independently 122 shown that CERK1, the rice receptor kinase associated with chitin-triggered immunity is also 123 124 required for establishing the AM symbiosis. Both knock-out mutant and RNAi experiments 125 have demonstrated that OsCERK1 is essential for initial AM fungal infection in rice, with a 126 block at the level of epidermal entry (Miyata et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015). In contrast, 127 inactivation of OsCEBiP, the second LysM RLK required for perceiving long chain chitin 128 elicitors and activating host immunity, does not result in a defect in AM colonization (Miyata 129 et al., 2014). Interestingly, the closest legume homologs to rice CERK1 are M. truncatula 130 LYK3 and Lotus japonicus NFR1, both of which are implicated in rhizobial LCO perception. 131 Recent experiments performed using limiting AM inoculation conditions for the two legume hosts have revealed reduced colonization levels for both Mtlyk3 and Linfr1 mutants (Zhang et 132 al., 2015), thus raising the question of the potential role of these CERK1 orthologs in AM 133 134 fungal perception in legumes.

In addition to studies on the monocot rice, two additional examples of defective AM 135 136 phenotypes result from the silencing of LysM-RLKs in non-legume dicots. Firstly, Op den 137 Camp et al. (2011) were able to show defects in arbuscule formation in roots of Parasponia andersonii following RNAi knockdown of the *PaNFP* gene, although it is not clear whether 138 139 the initial entry of the AM fungus into the epidermal/cortical tissue is affected. More recently, Buendia et al. (2015) have demonstrated by a virus-induced gene silencing approach that 140 141 knockdown of the SlLYK10 gene, the tomato orthologue of MtNFP and PaNFP, leads to a block in AM root entry. In conclusion, these important findings in non-legume AM hosts at 142 143 last provide convincing evidence that fungal symbiotic signals are indeed chitin-based, but at 144 the same time underline the difficulty of deducing the function and precise ligand structure of 145 LysM-RLK receptors based on their phylogenetic proximity.

The fact that non-legume AM hosts such as rice, tomato and carrot do not form additional N-146 147 fixing endosymbiotic associations also means that, as for legume ROCs, there should be no interference between AM fungal and rhizobial signaling when studying the activation of the 148 CSSP and associated Ca^{2+} spiking. By introducing a nuclear-localized cameleon into rice, Sun 149 et al. (2015) have discovered that Myc-COs (but not Myc-LCOs) are able to elicit Ca^{2+} 150 spiking in rice atrichoblasts, and furthermore at similar concentrations (10^{-8} M) to those used 151 previously for Medicago or carrot. Whether the rice oscerk1 mutant is defective for Myc-CO 152 perception remains to be determined. 153

154 III. Pre-infection signaling during *Frankia*/actinorhizal plant nodulation

Gram-positive Frankia are filamentous actinomycetes which are able to establish 155 156 endosymbiotic N-fixing associations with a diverse group of angiosperms (8 plant families 157 and 25 genera) belonging to the Rosid I clade (Santi et al., 2013). These actinorhizal hosts are 158 essentially woody shrubs and trees growing in varied habitats and are natural pioneer species 159 due to their capacity for forming mutually beneficial associations with both Frankia and mycorrhizal fungi. Despite major differences between legume and actinorhizal nodule 160 161 ontogeny and structure, the mechanism of *Frankia* root hair infection is nevertheless highly 162 reminiscent of rhizobial/legume infection. For example, in both Casuarina and Alnus species, 163 Frankia enter the host root via infection thread structures formed within root hairs (Wall, 2000). Furthermore, homologs of many components of the CSSP signaling module are 164 present in both actinorhizal hosts (Hocher *et al.*, 2011), and the essential roles of at least two 165 of these (SYMRK and CCaMK) in Frankia nodulation has now been clearly demonstrated for 166 *Casuarina glauca* using RNAi approaches (Gherbi *et al.*, 2008; Svistoonoff *et al.*, 2013). On 167 the other hand, little is currently known about the *Frankia* signals that activate this conserved 168 169 endosymbiotic pathway. Indeed, the absence of the suite of canonical *nod* genes required for NF-like LCO biosynthesis in the sequenced genomes of Frankia strains which nodulate 170 Casuarina and Alnus (Normand et al., 2007), as well as the failure of Frankia DNA to 171 172 complement rhizobial nod gene mutants argues that Frankia/host recognition involves 173 different types of molecular signals (Cérémonie et al., 1998).

The requirement for a functional CSSP (and in particular CCaMK) in order to initiate *Frankia* infection in actinorhizal hosts also implies that the activation of Ca^{2+} spiking is part of preinfection *Frankia*-host signaling. This important question has been addressed in two recent publications. Using sonicated extracts from the *Frankia alni* strain ACN14a, Granqvist *et al.*

(2015) were able to show that Ca^{2+} oscillations could be elicited in the root hair cytoplasm of 178 Alnus glutinosa after microinjection with calcium dyes. In contrast, Ca^{2+} spiking was not 179 observed in response to NFs of the broad host-range Rhizobium NGR234. In a second 180 181 publication, the expression of the nuclear fluorescent probe (Nup-YC2.1) in transgenic roots of C. glauca confirmed that sustained nuclear Ca^{2+} spiking can be triggered following the 182 addition of diluted cell-free Frankia supernatants (Chabaud et al., 2015; Fig. 2e). These same 183 184 supernatants can also activate transcription of the infection-related CgNIN gene in Casuarina root hairs (Clavijo et al., 2015) and furthermore there is a good correlation between nuclear 185 Ca^{2+} spiking and *promoterCgNIN-GFP* expression as a function of the species-specific 186 Frankia strains tested (Chabaud et al., 2015). 187

188 Finally, these two pre-infection responses were used as bio-asssays for the preliminary 189 characterization of signaling molecules present in the *Frankia* culture supernatants. These 190 experiments revealed that the Frankia factors, in contrast to NF LCOs, partition to the aqueous phase after butanol extraction (Chabaud et al., 2015). Furthermore, since chitinase 191 treatment of the Frankia supernatant does not abolish either Ca²⁺ spiking or ProCgNIN 192 activity, the *Frankia* symbiotic signals are presumably distinct from those of both rhizobia 193 194 and AM fungi. If so, this also implies that the host receptors which recognize these signals are 195 unlikely to belong to the chitin-binding LysM-RLK family. Thus, a major priority for future 196 research will be to isolate and chemically identify these novel endosymbiotic signaling factors 197 and their corresponding actinorhizal host receptors.

198 IV. Conclusions & future outlook

199 Until now, difficulties in manipulating both the actinorhizal woody host plants and the Nfixing actinomycete Frankia have retarded research on early pre-infection signaling. 200 However, the development of genetic transformation systems and extensive databases for the 201 C. glauca model have at last made it possible to study host responses to secreted Frankia 202 factors at the cellular level. Recent results reviewed here now provide final confirmation that 203 nuclear-associated Ca²⁺ oscillatory signaling is indeed a universal hallmark for the activation 204 205 of the highly conserved CSSP module in endosymbiotic host plants in response to the perception of the appropriate microbial signals. The stage is now set for the purification and 206 207 chemical characterization of the novel Frankia signaling molecules.

208 Concerning the AM symbiosis, recent successes in identifying infection-defective 209 mycorrhizal phenotypes for certain LysM-RLK mutant or knock-down lines for both rice and tomato provide a powerful argument in favor of the use of such non-legume AM host species

- 211 for future studies of both the symbiotic fungal signals and the mechanisms of their perception.
- In the case of rice, mutants such as *oscerk1*, in combination with cameleon-based bioassays
- for Ca^{2+} signaling/CSSP activation, now offer the means to examine to what extent Myc-CO
- 214 perception correlates with the AM-defective phenotype, and thus whether short-chain COs
- 215 may be considered as *bona fide* fungal symbiotic signals.

216 Acknowledgements

- 217 We are grateful to Luisa Lanfranco for critical reading of the manuscript. Financial support
- was provided to AG by UNITO grant Ricerca Locale 2015 and to MC, DGB by the French
- 219 National Research Agency grant ANR-12-BSV7-0007-02 and the 'TULIP' Laboratory of
- 220 Excellence grant ANR-10-LABX-41.

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Figure Legends

356 Figure 1

357 Schema illustrating the role of the Common Symbiosis Signaling Pathway (CSSP)

358 A number of plant genes and secondary messengers are required for the successful functioning of the conserved CSSP core module, first discovered in the model legume species 359 Lotus japonicus and Medicago truncatula, and now extended to plant hosts of all known root 360 endosymbiotic associations including the rhizobial/legume, AM and actinorhizal symbioses. 361 362 Although several important features of this signaling module still remain to be elucidated, we 363 present here a consensus linear representation of the best-studied pathway components which have been identified for both model legumes, organized around the activation of the nuclear-364 associated Ca^{2+} spiking response observed in cells of the root epidermis (root hairs or 365 atrichoblasts) prior to the initiation of apoplastic microbial infection (see text). In the case of 366 367 the rhizobial and AM symbioses the CSSP is activated following symbiotic signal perception by plasma membrane (PM) localized LysM-RLK receptors, most probably part of a larger 368 369 complex including the leucine-rich repeat receptor-like kinase known as LjSYMRK/MtDMI2 (Antolin-Llovera et al., 2014). SYMRK can also interact with 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-370 371 CoA reductase (HMGR), a key enzyme in the so-called mevalonate pathway, a source of potential secondary messengers including mevalonate itself (Venkateshwaran et al., 2015). 372 373 Following signal transduction from the PM to the nucleus, nuclear membrane cation channels known as LjCASTOR/LjPOLLUX/MtDMI1, likely in association with the recently 374 discovered cyclic nucleotide gated-calcium channel complex CNGC15 (Charpentier et al., 375 2016) are then required for rapid Ca^{2+} release and the initiation of nucleoplasmic Ca^{2+} 376 spiking. Efficient re-uptake of Ca^{2+} across the nuclear membrane between repeated spiking 377 378 requires a calcium ATPase pump which has been identified as MCA8 in M. truncatula (Capoen *et al.*, 2011). The subsequent decoding of the intranuclear Ca^{2+} oscillatory response 379 involves two key associated components (LjCCaMK/MtDMI3 and LjCYCLOPS/MtIPD3). 380 Binding of Ca^{2+} to the calcium and calmodulin-dependent kinase CCaMK (both directly and 381 indirectly via Ca^{2+} /calmodulin) leads to phosphorylation of the coiled-coil protein CYCLOPS 382 (Singh et al., 2014). Finally, the activation of a downstream signaling cascade via a repertoire 383 384 of GRAS/ERF transcription factors results in the synthesis of the suite of proteins required for 385 the transcriptional re-modeling of the epidermal cell in preparation for apoplastic infection. Note that only recent references have been included here, and that further details about the 386 CSSP and nuclear-associated Ca²⁺ spiking can be found in a number of comprehensive review 387

articles (e.g. Charpentier & Oldroyd, 2013; Gutjahr & Parniske, 2013; Oldroyd, 2013; Venkateshwaran *et al.*, 2013). Note also that in the case of the N-fixing actinorhizal association, the nature of both the *Frankia* signal (AF=Actinorhizal Factor) and the corresponding host receptor remain to be determined, and that direct evidence for an essential role in microbial/host signaling has only been demonstrated so far for *CgSYMRK* and *CgCCaMK* (see text).

Figure 2

395 Nuclear-associated Ca^{2+} spiking in response to bacterial and fungal symbiotic signals

(a-c). Nuclear Ca²⁺ responses to AM fungal symbiotic factors were recorded in epidermal 396 atrichoblasts using *Medicago truncatula* (Mt) root organ cultures (ROCs) expressing the Nup-397 398 YC2.1 cameleon (Chabaud et al., 2011; Genre et al., 2013). Representative spiking observed 399 over a 20 min period are shown for (a) cells in direct contact with a fungal hyphopodium 400 prior to infection, or following treatment with either (b) a germinated spore exudate (concentrated 10-fold) of Gigaspora rosea or (c) a 10^{-8} M solution of chitotetraose (CO4). 401 (d,e). The identical cameleon reporter was used to compare the nuclear Ca^{2+} spiking observed 402 in (d) *M. truncatula* root hairs (intact plant) treated with 10⁻⁹ M Sinorhizobium meliloti (Sm) 403 404 Nod factor with (e) Casuarina glauca (Cg) root hair spiking in response to a crude Frankia Cci3 supernatant (SN, diluted 100-fold) (Chabaud et al., 2015). Note that the spiking patterns 405 in response to AM fungal signaling in atrichoblasts are less regular in both frequency and 406 individual spike profile as compared to either *Rhizobium* or *Frankia*-elicited spiking in host 407 root hairs. 408



Figure 1



Figure 2