**Characterization of Genes Involved in the Autoregulation of Nodulation in Chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.)**

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**Abstract**

Establishment of an excess number of nodules markedly affects plant growth and development due to overconsumption of photosynthates for nitrogen fixation. Hence, the total root nodule number must be tightly controlled via a negative feedback mechanism (AON) to maintain an optimal nitrogen and carbon balance in chickpea plants. Chickpea genes which play important regulatory roles in root nodulation in chickpea (Cicer arietinum) were identified by aligning these genes with known genes of legumes available at phytozome through BLAST search. Chickpea nodulation genes identified and characterized in this study include CaNFR1/5, CaENOD40, CaNARK, CaRIC1, CaRIC2, CaNIC1, CaRDN1, CaRDN2, CaRDN3, CamiRNA172 and CaNNC1. These genes were orthologous to Medicago truncatula nodulation genes and were significantly expressed by inoculating chickpea plants with Mesorhizobium ciceri analysed by qRT-PCR using RNA isolated from the root and leaf tissues of inoculated chickpea plants at 0, 2 and 6 days after inoculation. Non-inoculated plants served as control. CaNARK genes were expressed in roots and leaves while the rest of the nodulation genes were expressed only in the roots. The nodulation ability of chickpea may be controlled by an internal AON mechanism which involves several genes that are orthologues with other legumes.

**Keywords:** chickpea, nodulation genes, Autoregulation of Nodulation (AON), gene expression

Chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.) (2n=2x=16) is an annual legume of the family Fabaceae, subfamily Faboideae. It is a member of the Papilionoid subfamily of legumes, a clade that contains essentially all of the important legume crops. Within this subfamily, chickpea is most closely related to crops such as Medicago sativa, Trifolium spp., Pisum sativum, Lens culinaris, Lotus japonicus, and Medicago truncatula, which has a very similar genome with chickpea [1]. Chickpea grows up to 20–50 cm high and has small, feathery leaves on either side of the stem. It is a type of pulse that bears feathery pinnately compound leaves. The small white or reddish flowers often have distinctive veins in blue, purple or pink and are usually self-pollinated. The yellow-brown or dark green beans are borne one or two to a pod. There are large and small-seeded varieties and are generally grown on residual soil moisture in the arid and semiarid regions of the world [2]. The cultivated chickpea, was one of the first grain legumes to be domesticated in the world and is the world's second most widely grown legume after soybean, accounting for a substantial proportion of human dietary nitrogen intake and playing a crucial role in food security in developing
countries [3]. Despite its potential for high production, the yield of chickpea can be low due to biotic (pest and pathogen infection) and abiotic stresses (drought, high and low temperature).

Chickpea, as a legume, can produce nodules on their roots which are the sites of symbiotic nitrogen fixation by rhizobia [4]. Atmospheric nitrogen gas is plentiful but is unavailable to most organisms. However, chickpea can overcome this limitation through symbiotic nitrogen fixation where atmospheric nitrogen (N2) is fixed by the nitrogenase enzyme complex of the endocytotic bacteria when they reside inside the nodules. The process of forming nodules containing symbiotic rhizobacteria is called nodulation. Through nodulation and the subsequent nitrogen fixation process, chickpea can fix its own nitrogen (140 kg N per hectare) from the atmosphere, which meets 80% of its nitrogen (N) requirement and partially benefit the following crops of the system by enriching soil through its substantial amount of residual N in the leaves and by adding plenty of organic matter [5, 6]. Nitrogen is an important nutrient requirement of plants which is utilized by plants for the synthesis of organic macromolecules and amino acids to form different proteins making its availability critical to sustained plant growth and reproduction [7].

Nodulation in legumes such as chickpea is initiated when (Nodulation) Nod factor (NF) signals secreted by the rhizobia are perceived by root hairs, which initiate curling of root hair followed by initiation of cell division and nodule primordium formation which finally develops into nodules [8].

Autoregulation of Nodulation (AON) starts with the production of a root-derived signal [9]. This is expressed in response to a transcription factor, which was reported to be involved in cortical cell division during early nodulation process. These kinds of signals were named CLAVATA/Embryo or CLE [10]. Meanwhile, GmRIC1 and GmRIC2 in soybeans are reported as root-derived signal peptides via the xylem to the shoot, where specialized LRR receptor kinase recognized them for proper functioning [11-15]. In soybean, these LRR receptor kinases are called GmNARK (Nodulation Autoregulation Receptor Kinase) gene [13]. Ferguson et al. revealed that Phaseolus vulgaris CLE peptides-PvRIC1, PvRIC2 and PvNIC1 were recognized by PvNARK which are similar to soybean CLE peptides-GmRIC1, GmRIC2 and GmNIC1 [16]. Soybean CLE peptides which were recognized by GmNARK were expressed in the roots. Unlike GmRIC1 and GmRIC2, GmNIC1 is not induced by rhizobia NIC gene but is specifically induced by available nitrate compounds. Its expression is not systemic and is only expressed in roots [17]. Over-expression of GmNIC1 causes a significant reduction in nodulation [18].

Mechanism of nodulation suppression through CLE peptide signal exported from the root and transported via the xylem was previously unknown until Nontachaiyapoom et al. revealed that these signals move from root to leaf via phloem parenchyma cells where these are perceived by a leucine-rich repeat (LRR) serine-threonine receptor kinase [19]. All CLE peptides have resemblance with peptides CLV3 and ESR: small amino acid based proteins (less than 15 kD) with highly conserved C terminal CLE domain (12–14) amino acids and supposed secretion signal at N terminus [20]. The most studied model to understand the interaction between CLE peptides and LRR-RLK is CLAVATA functioning in shoot apical meristem (SAM), which involves CLE peptide of CLV3 and its receptors: functionally active LRR-RLK CLV1 (CLAVATA1) and kinase receptor CLV2 (CLAVATA2) with mechanized complex with receptor kinase CRN (CORYNE) for CLV3 binding [21].

In soybean, miR172c regulates nodule formation by repressing target gene, that is Nodule Number Control 1 (NNC1), which encodes for a specific protein that directly targets and triggers the promoter of the early nodulating gene (ENOD40). This stimulates the transcriptional levels of miR172c which were regulated by both NFR1/5 mediated activation and by autoregulation of nodulation-mediated inhibition [22]. Bensmihen et al. studied the interaction between membrane-bound NFR1 and NFR5 detected as bimolecular fluorescence complementation which was observed only when a kinaseinactive NFR1 was expressed together with NFR5 [23].

This study aimed to identify and characterize the different genes that control the nodulation of chickpea using comparative genomic approach and analyzed the expression of these genes by inoculating chickpea plants with Mesorhizobium ciceri using qRT-PCR. Establishing the presence and expression of these nodulation genes will help us understand the mechanism of AON in chickpea which led us to propose a possible mechanism of AON specifically for chickpea which has never been done before.
Materials and Methods

Identification and Molecular Characterization of Nodulation Genes

Nodulation genes were identified and named as “Ca+insert gene name” where Ca stands for the scientific name of chickpea, Cicer arietinum while the name of genes was based from the known names of other legumes. Several nodulation genes of chickpea (CaNFR1, CaNFR5, CaENOD40, CaNARK, CaRIC1, CaRIC2 and CaNIC1), (CaRDN1, CaRDN2, CaRDN3, Ca-miRNA172 and CaNNC1) were identified by aligning the chickpea gene sequences with the known sequences of other legumes: Glycine max, Phaseolus vulgaris, Arabidopsis thaliana and Medicago truncatula available at phytozome (https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov/pz/portal.html). The known sequences of similar genes of other legumes were compared with chickpea genes through BLAST search (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast) by Varshney et al. (2013). Initially, the sequences of Phvul.005G096900 (PvRIC1), Phvul.011G135900 (PvNIC1) and Phvul.011G042000 (PvNARK) were compared with chickpea genes to identify CaNARK genes (CaRIC1, CaRIC2, CaNIC1) and were further aligned with CLE peptides of Glycine max, Medicago truncatula, and Arabidopsis thaliana using MEGA 6 software. The same program was used for making the dendrogram (Construct/Test-Neighbor, Joining-Tree). The Medtr5g089520 (MtRDN1), Medtr8g039290 (MtRDN2), and Medtr1g012920.1 (MtRDN3) were used to identify CaRDN1, CaRDN2 and CaRDN3. The glyma12g07800, glyma02g43860, glyma11g06740, glyma01g03470 and MI0010727 were used to find the sequences of CaNNC1, CaNFR1, CaNFR5, CaENOD40 and Ca-miRNA172, respectively. For the alignment of genes, PsNOD3 was used. Amino acid sequences for all genes were read by SMART sequence analysis program (http://smart.embl-heidelberg.de/).

For the phylogenetic analysis of the nodulation genes, the genes were aligned with nodulation genes of Glycine max, Medicago truncatula, and Arabidopsis thaliana using MEGA 6 software. The dendrograms were constructed using the Construct/Test-Neighbor, Joining-Tree.

Accession Numbers

In this study, chickpea nodulation gene sequences were obtained from Chickpea Genomic Web Resource (http://www.nipgr.res.in/CGWR/home.php). The gene sequences of other legumes (Glycine max, Phaseolus vulgaris Arabidopsis thaliana and Medicago truncatula) were obtained from Phytotome (https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov/pz/portal.html) (see Supplementary Table 1).

Growth of Chickpea Plants and Culture Conditions of M. ciceri

In all experiments conducted, wild type chickpea (C. arietinum L.) was used. Seeds provided by the Department of Primary Industries, New South Wales, Australia were surface-sterilized using 70% (v/v) ethanol for 10 seconds followed by rinsing five times with sterile water, then were sown in sterile vermiculite in 5.3 L pots. Plants were grown in controlled glasshouse conditions (28 °C and 24°C, day and night, respectively, with a 16-h day length). They were watered daily and supplemented with a B & D nutrient solution (Broughton and Dilworth, 1971) twice per week [24]. The B & D nutrient solution was composed of the following elements: Ca (in the form of 1000 μM of CaCl2·2H2O), P (500 μM of KH2PO4), Fe (10 μM of Fe-Citrate), Mg (250 μM of MgSO4·7H2O), K (1500 μM of K2SO4), S (500 μM), Mn (1 μM of MnSO4·H2O), B (2 μM of H3BO4), Zn (0.5 μM of ZnSO4·7H2O), Cu (0.2 μM of CuSO4·5H2O), Co (0.1 μM of CoSO4·7H2O) and Mo (0.1 μM of Na2MoO4·2H2O). The volume of B&D nutrient solution per pot was 150 ml. Pots were filled with 4L of vermiculite. The weight of dry vermiculite was 0.075 kg per liter. The vermiculite was placed in autoclavable plastic bags and autoclaved at 121°C for 20 minutes under 15 psi of pressure. The vermiculite was purchased from a garden shop in Pakistan.

M. ciceri (isolated from the chickpea experimental area at the Department of Primary Industries, New South Wales, Australia) was grown for 48 h at 28 °C in Yeast Mannitol Broth (YMB) [25]. The isolated strain was confirmed by 16s rDNA sequence. Cultures were diluted with water to a final concentration of OD600 = 0.01 prior to inoculating plants. Approximately 150 mL of this final concentration was applied per pot.

Gene Expression of Nodulation Genes

To determine the gene expression, chickpea seeds were surface-sterilized and soaked overnight in sterilized water and sown after 24 hours in sterile vermiculite medium placed in
sterile pots and grown under a temperature-controlled glasshouse at The University of Queensland (Australia). The plants were watered on a daily basis with sterile distilled water. The plants were treated with 150 ml of M. ciceri suspension (final concentration OD600=0.01) while the control plants were not treated with the rhizobium. Kant et al mentioned that chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.), forms symbiosis with M. ciceri forming nodules which leads to its capability to convert atmospheric nitrogen (N2) into ammonia (NH3) through this symbiotic association [8]. An average of 98 nodules per plant (p<0.05) was produced by inoculated chickpea plants which are comparable to other nodulation studies [26, 27]. Artificial seed inoculation of chickpea with M. ciceri in soils lacking native effective rhizobia is a very useful practice for improving root nodulation and yield of chickpea [28, 29]. The plants were harvested at 0, 2 and 6 days of inoculation and the roots and shoots of harvested chickpea plants were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for RNA extraction. RNA extraction from root and shoot samples was done by grinding the samples into powder using liquid nitrogen by pestle and mortar. The homogenous powder were transferred into small tubes and stored at -80°C. Samples were later centrifuged. The 20 μL of each sample was transferred into another tube and mixed with the master mix following the protocol of Maxwell® 16 LEV simplyRNA Cells Kit and Maxwell® 16 LEV simplyRNA Tissue Kit from Promega.

The RNA concentration was determined by nanodrop and the RNA tubes were stored at -80°C. A 1 μg of RNA was used to synthesized the cDNA after 24 hours. The sample concentration was adjusted using the Rnase-free water based from the nanodrop results. A 1 μL of oligo T and 10 mM dNTPs were mixed and heated at 65°C for 5 minutes. Tubes were placed for 3 minutes in ice. The first standard buffer (4 μL 5x) was added with 1 μL 0.1M DTT Rnase and 1 μL Superscript III. The cDNA was used. A 1uL of undiluted cDNA was added to the mixture of 2 uL dNTP, 2 uL 10x buffer with MgcL2, 1 uL forward primer of CAEF1 and 1 uL reverse primer of CaEF1 (see Table 2). The stock concentrations of the PCR reagents were Primers - 5 uM, dNTP - 100 uM, Primers: 0.2 - 1.0 uM, Dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO) - 10% (v/v), and Taq polymerase - 1.0 Unit/50ul. A 0.25 uL of Taq polymerase and 12.72 uL of MQ H2O were added. Samples were centrifuged followed by PCR using the PCR profile: initial step at 95°C for 5 minutes, denaturation at 94°C for 30 seconds, annealing at 56°C for 30 seconds, extension at 72°C for 30 seconds and final step at 72°C for 5 minutes for 35 cycles). PCR products were subjected to gel electrophoresis using a 2.5% gel and was run for 30 minutes at 150 volts. A 50 bp molecular ladder was added and the positioning of molecular bands further confirmed the successful synthesis of cDNA.

Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) was performed according to Hayashi et al (2012) to evaluate the gene expressions [30]. PCR was carried out using SYBR® Green PCR Master Mix Applied Biosystems), and the 384-well plates for qRT-PCR analysis were set up using an Eppendorf® epMotionTM 5075 Robotics System. The reactions were run on an ABI Prism® 7900 Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystems). Each plate contained no template (water) controls. Genomic DNA contamination of the cDNA samples was verified by including the reverse transcription negative (RT−) controls in the qRT-PCR. All qRT-PCR were carried out in duplicate (technical replicates) and run for 40 cycles using an annealing temperature of 60°C. The qRT-PCR was run using the following cycle conditions: 95°C for 10 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 seconds and 60°C for 1 minute. A dissociation stage of 95°C for 2 minutes was added at the end of the cycle in order to assess the specificity of the PCR. PCR efficiency for each sample was calculated using LinRegPCR 7.5 software, and the relative expression for gene of interest was measured relative to CaEF1 gene.

Primers Used in the Study

Table 1 shows the list of all the primers used in the study.

Results and Discussion

Identification and Molecular Characterization of Nodulation Genes

The identity and molecular characteristics of the nodulation genes of chickpea were established.

(1) CaNFR1 and CaNFR5. This study identified NFR1 and NFR5 in chickpea which resemble genes from other legumes. Nod Factor helps in the symbiosis with rhizobacteria to
trigger nodulation using Lys motifs that act as receptor kinase, which induce nodulation. Glyma.02G270800 (GmNFR1), Medtr5g086090.1 (MnNFR1) were compared with chickpea genome to identify CaNFR1 (Ca_19889.1) while Glyma11g06740 and Medtr5g019040.1 were used to identify the presence of CaNFR5 (Ca_13116.1). CaNFR1 was located in chromosome 2 and was orthologous to MtNRF1 which was located in chromosome 5. Meanwhile, CaNFR5 was located in chromosome 8 which was orthologous to MtNFR5 and also located in chromosome 5. In CaNFR1 sequence, two Lys motifs were found: one at 51-98 bp and the other at 113-160 bp. However, in CaNFR5, only one motif was found which was at 98-149 bp. Lys motif and STKcy domain were also analyzed in CaNFR1 and CaNFR5 which were found to have the same domain and motifs reported in other legumes as shown in Figure 1.

(2) CaENOD40. GmENOD40 was compared with chickpea genes to identify CaENOD40 which was further confirmed by gene expression. CaENOD40 lacks a long reading frame (ORF) and its activity was known to be RNA mediated. The transcripts share 2 regions of high sequence similarity where short ORFS reside. These two conserved boxes are present in all ENOD40 genes of legumes. A 10-13 amino acid oligopeptide encoded by CaENOD40 is conserved among plant species.

(3) CaNARK, CaRIC1, CaRIC2 and CaNIC1. Peptide sequences of CaNARK showed several motifs and domain similar to those in Medicago truncatula, Pisum sativum and other legumes (Figure 2A). CaNARK was present in chickpea and located in chromosome 6 with a size of 3.726 kb. It has introns of 602 bp (Figure 2B). As shown in Figure 2C, CaNARK showed close resemblance with M. truncatula, P. sativum, and L.
CaRIC1 and CaRIC2 which consist of 12 amino acid CLE peptides were responsible for the symbiosis of chickpea with *M. ciceri*. These genes were similar in function with *PvRIC1* and *PvRIC2* CLE peptides responsible for the symbiosis of *Rhizobium phaseoli* with *Phaseolus vulgaris* [16] and *LjCLE-RS1* and *LjCLE-RS2* genes which were responsible for *Mesorhizobium loti* mAFF303099 and *L. japonicus* symbiosis [31]. *GmRIC1*, *GmRIC2* and *GmNIC1* were compared with *CaRIC1*, *CaRIC2* and *CaNIC1* [17]. These chickpea CLE peptides were also aligned with CLE of *Phaseolus vulgaris*, *Lotus japonicus* and *Medicago truncatula*. *CaRIC1* and *CaRIC2* were found to be orthologous to *RIC* genes in *M. truncatula* (*MtCLE12*, *MtCLE13*). The 12 amino acid CLE peptides at N terminal showed highly

Figure 1. Schematic diagram of *CaNFR1* gene showing the two Lys motifs and *CaNFR5*, with only one Lys motif, and the STKyc domain.

Figure 2. Nodulation Autoregulation Receptor Kinase of chickpea. (A) *CaNARK* is comprised of four domains: N-terminal signal peptide (pink), Leucine-rich repeat N-terminal domain (gray), Leucine-rich repeats domain (blue, LRR motif marked as yellow background with red letters), transmembrane region (green) and serine/threonine kinase (red). (B) The diagram of *CaNARK* domain structure showing the Leucine-rich repeats (LRR), single-pass transmembrane region (TM), Juxtamembrane region (JM), Kinase domain (KD), Kinase domain activation loop (AL) and C-terminal (CT) region. (C) Phylogenetic tree of *CaNARK* and its orthologs in soybean (*GmNARK*), *Lotus japonicus* (*LjHAR1*), *Medicago truncatula* (*MtSUNN*) and pea (*PsSYM29*), while *Arabidopsis thaliana* (*AtCLV1*) was the outgroup. Also included are the truncated copies of *MtSUNN* in *Medicago truncatula* (*MtRLP1*) and the homologous copy of *GmNARK* (formerly *GmCLV1B*) in soybean (*GmCLV1A*). Bootstrap confidence values were expressed as a percentage from 1000 bootstrap replications.
conserved region and enclosed in a red box as shown in Figure 3.

*CaRIC1* which consists of 80 amino acids was found in chromosome 6 while its ortholog *MtCLE12* (Medtr4g079630) has 81 amino acids and found in chromosome 4. *CaRIC2* has 86 amino acids and found in chromosome 4 while its ortholog *MtCLE13* (Medtr4g079610) has 84 amino acids and was also found in chromosome 4. *CaNIC1* which has 82 amino acids showed close resemblance with *GmNIC1* (Glyma.12G208900) and with *PvNIC1* gene, which was located in chromosome 12 (Supplementray Figure 1, showing the position of *CaRIC1*, *CaRIC2*, and *CaNIC1*, and their orthologs in other legumes.

**4) CaRDN1, CaRDN2 and CaRDN3.**

*CaRDN1*, *CaRDN2* and *CaRDN3* are present in chickpea which are commonly expressed in the roots. These genes were initially identified by genomic BLAST technique, using the gene sequences of Medtr5g089520 (*MtRDN1*), Medtr8g039290 (*MtRDN2*) and Medtr1g0129201 (*MtRDN3*) as reported by Kassaw (2012). The BLAST search and further alignment of predicted *CaRDN1* (Ca_16652.1), *CaRDN2* (Ca_08825.2), *CaRDN3* (Ca_03948.1) revealed that these genes were orthologous to *GmRDN* and *LjRDN* genes, which showed highly conserved domain. *CaRDN1*, which encodes 358 amino acids was located in chromosome 2 with multiple introns and was an ortholog of *MtRDN1* which also has the same number of amino acids (358) located in chromosome five (5). *LjRDN1*, *GmRDN1A* and *GmRDN1B* have 361, 358 and 364 amino acids, respectively (Supplementary Figure 2, dendogram for *CaRDN1*, *CaRDN2*, and *CaRDN3*, and their orthologs in other legumes.

*CaRDN2* was comprised of 361 amino acids, and was found in chromosome 7, while its ortholog *MtRDN2* (Medtr8g039290; with 360 amino acids) was found in chromosome 8 in *M. truncatula*. *RDN2* of other legumes which were aligned with *CaRDN2* were *LjRDN2*, *GmRDN2A* and *GmRDN2B*, have 360, 359 and 363 amino acids, respectively. *CaRDN3* which consists of 363 amino acids was located in chromosome 4 while its ortholog was located in chromosome 1.

**5) CamiRNA172.** Medtr2g093060.1 (*Mt_miRNA172*) sequence which was located in chromosome 2 was used to identify *Ca_miRNA172* in chickpea genome. The gene sequences were also compared with Glyma.12G073300 (*Glycine max*) and Phvul.005G138300 (*Phaseolus vulgaris*). The amino acid alignment of chickpea miRNA, located in chromosome 1, showed highly conserved region with miRNA amino acids of *Medicago* and other legumes. *Ca_miRNA172* was found to have ethylene response AP2 factor which is essential for nodulation. The region of AP2 is shown in Supplementary Figure 3.

**6) CaNNC1.** For the identification of *CaNNC1*, Glyma12g07800 (*GmNNC1*), Medtr4g061200.2 (*MtNNC1*), Phvul.011G071100.1 (*PvNNC1*) and At4g36920.1 (*AtmiRNA172*) were compared with chickpea genes. *CaNNC1* was an ortholog of *Medicago* NNC1 (see Supplementary Figure 4). *CaNNC1* was located in chromosome 6 and its ortholog in *Medicago* was found in

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**Figure 3.** Multiple sequence alignment of inoculation-(RIC1 and 2) and nitrate-(NIC1) responsive CLE peptide-encoding genes of chickpea, soybean, bean, lotus and medicago. Predicted amino acid sequences showed a highly conserved signal peptide domains (enclosed in a green box) and the 12 amino acid CLE domains (enclosed in the red box).
Expression of Nodulation Genes in Chickpea

Gene expression of chickpea nodulated genes were determined by analyzing their transcript abundance from root tissues using qRT-PCR at 0, 2, and 6 days after inoculation. As shown in Figure 4, CaNARK, CaRIC1, CaRIC2, CaNIC1, CaRDN1, CaRDN3, CaENOD40, CaNNC1, CaRDN2, CaRDN3, CaENOD40, CaNNC1, CaNFR1, CaNFR5 and CamiRNA172 were expressed after 2 days of rhizobium inoculation. On the other hand, CaRDN2 was expressed from the second day up to sixth day after inoculation while CamiRNA172 was expressed after 6 days of inoculation. There were no gene expression observed in the non-nodulated chickpea plants.

Gene expression of chickpea nodulated genes were also determined by analyzing their transcript abundance from leaf tissues using qRT-PCR at 0, 2, and 6 days after inoculation. Only CaNARK gene was expressed in the leaves while CaRIC1, CaRIC2, CaNIC1, CaRDN1, CaRDN2, CaRDN3, CaENOD40, CaNNC1, CaNFR1, CaNFR5 and CamiRNA172 were not expressed in the leaves. The expression level of CaNARK in the leaves of inoculated chickpea was compared with non-inoculated chickpea (Figure 5). Statistical analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the expression levels of nodulated (M = 1.05 x 10^{-3}) versus non-nodulated chickpea plants (1.47 x 10^{-3}) with a p-value of < .00001.

The mechanism of nodule formation in legumes, including C. arietinum, is controlled by a long distance complex signaling system in which several genes are involved in the whole pathway. Root nodules are formed simultaneously with onset of root hair infection in a process that requires the perception of specialized lipochito-oligosaccharide signals Nod Factors (NF) by plant root cells [32]. NFs are recognized by LysM-type receptor kinases (NF receptors) CaNFR1/5. In this study, CaNFR1 and CaNFR5 in chickpea resembled genes from other legumes [22, 33, 34]. Lys motif and STKuc domain which were present in CaNFR1 and CaNFR5 have the same domain and motifs

Figure 4. Transcript abundance of chickpea nodulation genes analyzed by qRT-PCR using RNA isolated from the root tissues of Mesorhizobium ciceri-inoculated chickpea at 0, 2 and 6 days after inoculation. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean resulting from three independent experiments.
Nodulation Genes in Chickpea

Figure 5. The expression of CaNARK gene in the leaves of chickpea. CaNARK expression level was analysed by qRT-PCR using RNA isolated from leaf tissues of *Mesorhizobium ciceri*-inoculated chickpea after 6 days of inoculation. Non-inoculated plants served as control. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean. The t-value is 51.43929. The p-value is < .00001.

reported in other legumes. Upon recognition of NFs by *NFR1* and *NFR2*, legumes initiate a series of biochemical cascades, such as regular calcium oscillations in and around the nuclei of root epidermal cells to trigger the activation of downstream signaling components, such as calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinases and multiple transcription factors, which activate nodulation-related genes, *ENOD40*. Activation of *ENOD40* results in the initiation of root hair deformation, infection thread formation, cortical/pericycle cell division, and nodule primordia formation, which collectively result in nodule formation and symbiotic nitrogen fixation [32]. CaENOD40 was identified and characterized by this study which was similar with other legumes.

Nodulation genes which play important regulatory roles in root nodulation in chickpea were identified. The different functions of these genes can be deduced from the functions of their orthologous genes in other legumes. CaNFR1 and CaNFR5 (*C. arietinum* Nod Factor Receptor) may be involved in the perception of NOD factor signals secreted by rhizobia through the root hair to initiate nodulation just like in *Medicago* [35]. CaENOD40 (*C. arietinum* Early Nodulation) may induce the division of root cortical cells, the nodule primordium and the pericycle of the root vascular bundle at early stages of nodule development just like in soybeans [36]. CaNARK (*C. arietinum* Nodule Autoregulation Receptor Kinase) which is a group of CLE (CLAVATA3/Embryo) peptides found in plants is reported to be involved with cell signaling that includes CaRIC1 (*C. arietinum* Rhizobia-Induced CLE) and CaRIC2. They are known to be involved in the AON signaling transduction that initiate expression solely in the roots with NOD factor-producing rhizobia and are considered as root-derived signals in AON pathway [37], and CaNIC1 (*C. arietinum* Nitrage-Induced CLE) that are reported to act locally in the roots to suppress nodulation by nitrate inhibition [38]. CaRND1, CaRDN2 and CaRDN3 (*C. arietinum* Root-Determined Nodulation) may serve as receptors for root-derived signals and trigger biosynthesis and release of shoot-derived inhibitor (SDI) just like in *Medicago* [39]. CamiRNA172 (*C. arietinum* microRNA), which is known to be regulated by CaNFR1 and CaNFR5, may activate CarIC1 and CarIC2 by removing the transcriptional repression of these genes by CaNNC1 leading to the activation of AON pathway [22]. CaNNC1 (*C. arietinum* Nodule Number Control 1) is reported to hamper the transcriptional activation of CarIC1 and CarIC2 and transcriptionally repress CamiRNA172 expression adding a negative feedback loop in CaNNC1 regulatory network [22].

These nodulation genes which are obviously involved in the mechanism of AON
pathway in chickpea were orthologous to *M. truncatula* nodulation genes. These genes were significantly expressed in the root or leaf tissues. *CaNARK, CaRIC1, CaRIC2, CaNIC1, CaRDN1, CaRDN3, CaENOD40, CaNNC1, CaNFR1* and *CaNFR5* were expressed in the roots after 2 days of rhizobial inoculation. On the other hand, *CaRDN2* was expressed in the roots from the second day up to sixth day after inoculation while *Camirna172* was expressed in the roots after 6 days of inoculation. *CaNARK* genes were expressed in roots and leaves while the rest of the nodulation genes were expressed only in the roots. This means that *CaNARK* may have functions in the shoot in the AON pathway to regulate nodulation in the root. It may act in the leaf vascular tissue to perceive root-derived peptides produced by *CaRIC1* and *CaRIC2* that originate during nodule primordium formation. This perception may result in the production of a shoot-derived inhibitor (SDI), which travels to the roots to inhibit further nodule development. Excitingly, recent evidence has revealed that cytokinins in the shoot may function as an SDI to systemically suppress nodulation in chickpea [40].

Establishment of an excess number of nodules (supernodulation) markedly affects plant growth and development due to overconsumption of photosynthates for nitrogen fixation [41]. Therefore, the total root nodule number is tightly controlled via a negative feedback mechanism (AON) to maintain an optimal nitrogen and carbon balance in the host [32]. AON mechanism in chickpea involves several genes that are orthologues with other legumes including *G. max, P. vulgaris,* and *M. truncatula*. It has been reported that AON is activated in root cortical cells during rhizobial infection and remains active during nodule primordium formation and nodule maturation. It starts with the production of root-derived RIC1 and RIC2 in following the first induced cortical cell divisions during rhizobial infection, nodule development, and the onset of nodule functionality. In this study, *CaRIC1* and *CaRIC2* were found to be orthologous with RIC genes in *M. truncatula* (*MtCLE12, MtCLE13*) and may have similar functions with *PvRIC1* and *PvRIC2* [16].

This study strongly suggests that AON in chickpea may be facilitated by a feedback loop involving root to shoot and shoot to root signaling. Short peptides are synthesised by *CaRIC1* and *CaRIC2* of the root and travel to the shoot where they interact with *CaNARK*. Homologous genes of *CaNARK* were previously reported in different legumes: *LjHAR1* [42], *PsSYM29* [11], *GmNARK* [13], *MtSUNN* [15] and *PvNARK* [16]. In this study, *CaNARK* showed close resemblance to *M. truncatula, P. sativum,* and *L. japonicus* [3]. *CaNARK* comprised of four domains: N-terminal signal peptide, Leucine-rich repeat N-terminal domain, leucine-rich repeats domain, LRR motif, transmembrane region and serine/threonine kinase. The structure of *CaNARK* domain consists of Leucine-rich repeats, single-pass transmembrane region, Juxtamembrane region, kinase domain, kinase domain activation loop and C-terminal region. *CaNARK* has orthologues in soybean, lotus, *Medicago* and pea. *CaNARK* has a central role in the AON of chickpea and mutations in these genes can result in hyper/supernodulation.

In the root, events associated with nodulation generate specific rhizobia-induced CLE peptides which in some cases appear to be arabinosylated via action of the enzyme produced by *RDN1* genes [43]. *CaRDN1* may encode a protein of unknown function that appears to be expressed at low levels in vasculature such as in the case of *M. truncatula* [44, 45]. Although *CaRDN1* is involved in the legume AON signaling pathway, it was reported to have high level of conservation of *RDN* family genes throughout the green plant lineage [46]. Transgenic *RDN1/NOD3* gene in *M. truncatula* and *P. sativum* produced mutant plants with higher number of nodules compared with the wild type variety [46]. *MtRDN1, MtRDN2* and *MtRDN3* were reported in *Medicago* by Kassaw et al. [47] and Kassaw and Frugoli [48]. *CaRDN1, CaRDN2* and *CaRDN3* are present in chickpea and are expressed in the roots.

Meanwhile in the leaves, activation of *CaNARK* leads to the suppression of a specific microRNA species, which is phloem-translocated to the root, causing a suppression of further nodulation induction. Chickpea genome has been found to have *Camirna172* with an ethylene response AP2 factor (Apetala 2, a member of a large family of transcription factors) which is helpful for nodulation. It is significantly expressed in the roots as a response to rhizobia application. *Camirna172c* may activate *CaRIC1* and *CaRIC2* by removing the transcriptional repression of these genes by *CaNNC1* that may directly trigger *CaENOD40* [30,49,50]. *CaNNC1* has a role in the direct activation of *CaENOD40*: it encodes a protein that directly targets the promoter of the early nodulin gene, *ENOD40* [22]. The stimulated transcriptional level of *Camirna172* is
regulated by CaNFR1 and CaNFR5. CamiR172c-NNC1 network may be a master switch that coordinately regulates and optimizes NF and AON signaling, supporting the balance between nodulation and AON in chickpea. CaNIC1 acts locally in the roots to suppress nodulation by nitrate inhibition [38]. CaNIC1 is likely a local inducer of NARK-dependent nodule regulation independent of the systemic AON mechanism [17]. The reduced nodule inhibition response of CaNIC1 may be due to this local role in nodule inhibition and a reflection of successful transformation events or to differences in the signal peptide or CLE domain that may reduce the effectiveness of processing or activity of CaNIC1 [17].

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small non-coding RNAs (22 nt in length) that regulate eukaryotic development by repressing the expression of target genes, particularly at the post-transcriptional level. It is known as a master regulator in the nodulation process of legumes. MicroRNA plays an important role in plant growth, differentiation, transduction and development [51-54]. It functions by targeting many types of transcription factors such as auxin response transcriptional factor family (ARF) [55-57], phosphorus starvation response transcription factors [58], and root apical meristem transcription factors [59]. Currently, a very limited number of miRNAs have been validated for their roles in the nodulation of legumes and none in chickpea. The reduction in activity and over-expression of CamiR172c gene may cause dramatic changes in nodulation of chickpea [60,61].

Based from our findings, a hypothesis on a possible mechanism of AON specifically for chickpea was formulated, as shown in Figure 6.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

Nodulation genes involved in the AON mechanism in chickpea were identified by aligning chickpea genes with known genes of legumes. Chickpea nodulation genes characterized in this
study include CaNFR1/5, CaNARK, CaRIC1, CaRIC2, CaNIC1, CaRDN1, CaRDN2, CaRDN3, CamiRNA172, CaNNC1 and CaENOD40. These genes were orthologous to M. truncatula nodulation genes. CaNARK is expressed in chickpea leaves and roots while the rest of the genes are only expressed in the roots. Chickpea nodulation is tightly controlled via a negative feedback mechanism (AON) to maintain an optimal nitrogen and carbon balance in chickpea plants.

AON mechanism in chickpea involves several genes. CaNFR1/5 regulates CamiRNA172 which activates CaRIC1 and CaRIC2 by CaNNC1. CaRIC1 and CaRIC2 are then perceived by CaRDN1/2/3 which triggers CaNARK to initiate Shoot Derived Inhibitors, presumably cytokinin. Cytokinin perceived by CK Receptor triggers CaNNC1. CaNNC1 transcriptionally represses CamiRNA172 and directly triggers CaENOD40. Meanwhile, CaRIC1 is activated by nitrate present in soil which suppresses the nodule formation by nitrate inhibition.

For future research, it is recommended that studies that will validate the role of these genes in AON be conducted.

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