## ANNALS OF BOTANY

### An invasive Mimosa in India does not adopt the symbionts of its native relatives

#### Hukam Singh Gehlot<sup>1</sup>, Nisha Tak<sup>1</sup>, Muskan Kaushik<sup>1</sup>, Shubhajit Mitra<sup>2</sup>, Wen-Ming Chen<sup>3</sup>, Nicole Poweleit<sup>2</sup>, Dheeren Panwar<sup>1</sup>, Neetu Poonar<sup>1</sup>, Rashmita Parihar<sup>1</sup>, Alkesh Tak<sup>1</sup>, Indu Singh Sankhla<sup>1</sup>, Archana Ojha<sup>4</sup>, Satyawada Rama Rao<sup>4</sup>, Marcelo F. Simon<sup>5</sup>, Fabio Bueno dos Reis Junior<sup>6</sup>, Natalia Perigolo<sup>7</sup>, Anil K. Tripathi<sup>8</sup>, Janet I. Sprent<sup>9</sup>, J. Peter W. Young<sup>10</sup>, Euan K. James<sup>11,\*</sup> and Prasad Gyaneshwar<sup>2,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>BNF and Stress Biology Lab., Department of Botany, J.N. Vyas University, Jodhpur-342001, India, <sup>2</sup>Biological Sciences, University of Wisconsin Milwaukee, 3209 N Maryland Ave, Milwaukee, WI 53211, USA, <sup>3</sup>Laboratory of Microbiology, Dept. of Seafood Science, National Kaohsiung Marine University, Kaohsiung City 811, Taiwan, <sup>4</sup>Department of Biotechnology and Bioinformatics, North Eastern Hill University, Shillong, Meghalaya, India, <sup>5</sup>Embrapa Recursos Genéticos e Biotecnologia, Brasília, 70770-901, DF, Brazil, <sup>6</sup>Embrapa Cerrados, Planaltina, 73301-970, DF, Brazil, <sup>7</sup>Departamento de Botânica, Universidade de Brasília, Brasília, 70910-900, DF, Brazil, <sup>8</sup>School of Biotechnology, Faculty of Science, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi-221005, India, <sup>9</sup>Division of Plant Sciences, University of Dundee at JHI, Dundee DD2 5DA, UK, <sup>10</sup>Department of Biology 3, University of York, PO Box 373, York YO10 5YW, UK and <sup>11</sup>The James Hutton Institute, Invergowrie, Dundee DD2 5DA, UK

\* For correspondence. E-mail euan.james@hutton.ac.uk or prasadg@uwm.edu

Received: 6 February 2013 Revision requested: 27 February 2013 Accepted: 5 April 2013 Published electronically: 26 May 2013

• *Background and Aims* The large monophyletic genus *Mimosa* comprises approx. 500 species, most of which are native to the New World, with Central Brazil being the main centre of radiation. All Brazilian *Mimosa* spp. so far examined are nodulated by rhizobia in the betaproteobacterial genus *Burkholderia*. Approximately 10 Mya, transoceanic dispersal resulted in the Indian subcontinent hosting up to six endemic *Mimosa* spp. The nodulation ability and rhizobial symbionts of two of these, *M. hamata* and *M. himalayana*, both from north-west India, are here examined, and compared with those of *M. pudica*, an invasive species.

Methods Nodules were collected from several locations, and examined by light and electron microscopy. Rhizobia isolated from them were characterized in terms of their abilities to nodulate the three Mimosa hosts. The molecular phylogenetic relationships of the rhizobia were determined by analysis of 16S rRNA, nifH and nodA gene sequences.
Key Results Both native Indian Mimosa spp. nodulated effectively in their respective rhizosphere soils. Based on 16S rRNA, nifH and nodA sequences, their symbionts were identified as belonging to the alphaproteobacterial genus Ensifer, and were closest to the 'Old World' Ensifer saheli, E. kostiensis and E. arboris. In contrast, the invasive M. pudica was predominantly nodulated by Betaproteobacteria in the genera Cupriavidus and Burkholderia. All rhizobial strains tested effectively nodulated their original hosts, but the symbionts of the native species could not nodulate M. pudica.

• *Conclusions* The native *Mimosa* spp. in India are not nodulated by the *Burkholderia* symbionts of their South American relatives, but by a unique group of alpha-rhizobial microsymbionts that are closely related to the 'local' Old World *Ensifer* symbionts of other mimosoid legumes in north-west India. They appear not to share symbionts with the invasive *M. pudica*, symbionts of which are mostly beta-rhizobial.

Key words: Mimosa hamata, Mimosa himalayana, Mimosa pudica, Thar Desert, nodulation, Cupriavidus, Burkholderia, Ensifer, bacterial symbionts, rhizobia, Betaproteobacteria, nitrogen fixation, arid regions.

#### INTRODUCTION

The large monophyletic genus *Mimosa* (Mimosoideae; Fabaceae) consists of >500 species, mainly native to the New World (Barneby, 1991; Simon *et al.*, 2011). Species vary in habit from tall trees and shrubs to vines and herbs and they are found in a wide variety of habitats from wet to dry, growing on many different soils, including those that are low in nutrients and organic matter, low in pH and iron rich. *Mimosa* was considered by Barneby (1991) to have 'differentiated profusely in tropical and warm temperate savanna habitats', and it is particularly abundant and diverse in the cerrado and caatinga biomes of Brazil, where there are many endemics (Barneby, 1991; Simon and Proença, 2000; Simon *et al.*, 2011). Despite this high endemism, a few species have become pan-tropical invasive weeds, the

most notorious of these being *M. diplotricha* (synonym *M. invisa*), *M. pigra* and *M. pudica* (Barneby, 1991; Chen *et al.*, 2005*a*; Parker *et al.*, 2007; Simon *et al.*, 2011). Nodulation by N<sub>2</sub>-fixing bacteria (rhizobia) has been observed in almost all of approx. 100 *Mimosa* spp. that have been examined (dos Reis Junior *et al.*, 2010). Indeed, it is likely that their ability to nodulate profusely in alien environments has greatly assisted the spread of the invasive *Mimosa* spp. outside their predominantly native Americas (Chen *et al.*, 2005*a*; Parker *et al.*, 2007; Andrus *et al.*, 2012).

It is partly because of the seriousness of invasive *Mimosa* spp. as aggressive weeds that their bacterial symbionts have attracted a lot of interest in recent years, particularly as initial studies of invasive *M. diplotricha*, *M. pudica* and *M. pigra* in Taiwan showed that they were almost exclusively nodulated by strains of

© The Author 2013. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Annals of Botany Company. All rights reserved. For Permissions, please email: journals.permissions@oup.com Betaproteobacteria (Chen et al., 2001, 2003a, b, 2005a). Legume nodulation by Betaproteobacteria ('beta-rhizobia') is a relatively recently described phenomenon; 'rhizobia' were formerly considered to consist exclusively of a limited number of genera in the order Rhizobiales in the Alphaproteobacteria (Graham, 2008; Sprent, 2009). Since their initial discovery, a considerable body of evidence has accumulated to show that legumes, particularly Mimosa spp. (Chen et al., 2001, 2003a, b, 2005a, b, 2006; Barrett and Parker, 2005, 2006; Elliott et al., 2007a; Andam et al., 2007: Bontemps et al., 2010: Mishra et al., 2012), but also other mimosoids and some papilionoids, such as Cyclopia (Elliott et al., 2007b), Rhynchosia (Garau et al., 2009), common bean (Phaseolus vulgaris) (Talbi et al., 2010) and Lebeckia spp. (Howieson et al., 2013), may form effective nodules with bacteria in the genera Burkholderia and Cupriavidus (Ralstonia) (see review by Gyaneshwar et al., 2011).

The consistent isolation of beta-rhizobia from Mimosa nodules worldwide suggested a special relationship between them and this legume genus, and this was investigated by a large study of symbionts of *Mimosa* spp. native to the cerrado and caating biomes of Central Brazil. These biomes are home to >250 Mimosa spp., most of them endemics to either the biomes as a whole or to specific (mainly highland) regions within them (Simon and Proença, 2000; Simon et al., 2011). The surveys by Bontemps et al. (2010) and dos Reis Junior et al. (2010) showed that >95 % of the nodules from approx. 70 Mimosa spp. from the cerrado/caatinga contained Burkholderia spp. as their symbionts. These studies thus demonstrated that Burkholderia spp. are the predominant symbionts of Mimosa in its largest centre of radiation, i.e. Brazil. In addition, Bontemps et al. (2010) showed that there was high congruence between the core 'housekeeping' (16S rRNA, recA) and symbiosis-related (*nifH*, *nodC*) genes in the microsymbionts, and suggested that the symbiosis between Mimosa and Burkholderia spp. was 'ancient' (approx. 50 Myr old) and, therefore, unlikely to have been the result of recent transfer(s) of symbiosis-related genes from alpha-rhizobia.

In contrast to Brazil, in the second major centre of Mimosa radiation in the central highlands of Mexico, which has approx. 100 species (Barneby, 1991), it would appear that most of the endemic Mimosa spp. are nodulated not by Betaproteobacteria but by Rhizobium or Ensifer (synonym Sinorhizobium). This was first suggested by a study on just a single native Mexican species, M. affinis (Wang et al., 1999), and then confirmed by a wider study on approx. 30 central Mexican species by C. Bontemps, Université de Lorraine, France and M. A. Rogel, Centro de Ciencias Genómicas, Mexico (unpubl. res.). This difference between Brazil and Mexico suggests that geographical separation/location (and possibly soil type) and host phylogenetic relationships (Simon et al., 2011) have played a part in determining symbiont selection by Mimosa in the New World. In addition to the two major centres of Mimosa radiation in Brazil and Mexico there are two smaller ones in the Old World: Madagascar, with approx. 30 endemic species, and the Indian subcontinent with six (M. angustisiliqua, M. barberi, M. hamata, M. himalayana, M. prainiana and M. rubicaulis) (Gamble, 1920; Barneby, 1991; Simon et al., 2011). These Old World species are phylogenetically nested in South American Mimosa, and it has been hypothesized that they arrived in Asia

approx. 6 – 10 Mya via trans-Atlantic dispersal (Simon *et al.*, 2011).

Little is known about the symbionts of the Old World Mimosa spp., but given that they are closely related to South American species it might be expected that they would have retained their ability to nodulate with similar bacterial symbionts, i.e. with Burkholderia strains (Bontemps et al., 2010). This appears to be the case with at least one species, *M. himalayana*, as it could nodulate effectively with the promiscuous Mimosa symbiont *B. phymatum* STM815<sup>T</sup>, and ineffectively with C. taiwanensis LMG 19424<sup>T</sup> (Elliott et al., 2007a). The same symbiotic phenotype was evidenced by several South American species tested with these strains (Elliott et al., 2007a; dos Reis Junior et al., 2010). However, a recent study of legumes native to the Thar Desert in Rajasthan in western India showed that the symbionts of M. hamata, a species closely related to *M. himalavana*, include strains of *Ensifer* that are related to E. saheli (Gehlot et al., 2012). The only other published study on Mimosa symbionts from India is that of Verma et al. (2004), who described two strains of C. taiwanensis, BHU1 and MS1, isolated from nodules on the non-native species, *M. pudica*, collected in the north (Uttar Pradesh) and south (Tamil Nadu) of India, respectively.

India thus represents a unique situation regarding *Mimosa* symbionts as, unlike other parts of sub-tropical and tropical Asia and Australasia, such as southern China (Liu *et al.*, 2011, 2012), Taiwan (Chen *et al.*, 2001, 2003*b*, 2005*a*), Australia (Parker *et al.*, 2007), New Guinea (Elliott *et al.*, 2009), the Philippines (Andrus *et al.*, 2012) and New Caledonia (Klonowska *et al.*, 2012) that harbour only invasive species (particularly *M. pudica*, which is common to them all), India also has native *Mimosa* spp. This raises the possibility of interaction(s) between the symbionts of the native/invasive species and their respective hosts. The present study, therefore, was aimed at: (1) examining in more detail the symbionts of native and invasive *Mimosa* spp. to determine their diversity and potential origins; and (2) determining if the native species share their environments and/or rhizobial symbionts with the invasive *M. pudica*.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Collection of plant materials and soils for rhizobial 'trap' experiments and isolation of nodule symbionts

The sites in Rajasthan (RJ) from which the native Indian *Mimosa* species were sampled are characterized as semi-arid, whereas all the *M. pudica* sites are characterized as humid sub-tropical, with the exception of Bangalore (KA) which has a tropical wet/dry climate. Details are given in Table 1, where abbreviations for the locations can also be found in the footnote.

Nodules were collected from some *M. hamata* plants growing naturally, e.g. near Jodhpur, Rajasthan (Gehlot *et al.*, 2012), but most *M. hamata* nodules were sampled from the roots of plants grown in pots using soil taken from the rhizosphere of *M. hamata* growing in its native range in various locations in the Thar Desert of Rajasthan (Table 1, Supplementary Data Fig. S1). Soil for 'trapping' *M. himalayana* rhizobia was sampled from the rhizosphere of this species growing in its native range in eastern Rajasthan (Bijoliya), which is characterized by a higher altitude and precipitation than that in the native

Site (State)*	Coordinates	Altitude (m)	Site from which nodules and/or soil was sampled. Climate.	Soil pH	Soil %N	<i>Mimosa</i> spp. native to the soil	<i>Mimosa</i> spp. used to trap rhizobia <sup>†</sup>
Jodhpur (RJ)	26°14′49·85″N/73°1′18·65″E	230.61	Field near Bhagat ki Kothi (New Campus, JNVU) in the native range of <i>M. hamata</i> . Semi-arid (rainfall <300 mm p.a.).	8.2	0.0091	M. hamata <sup>‡</sup>	M. hamata (E), M. himalayana (E), M. pudica (E)
Deh (Nagaur) RJ)	27°18′30·40″N/73°54′53·51″E	303.38	Soil from rhizosphere of <i>M. hamata</i> in the Thar Desert. Semi-arid.	8.3	0.0102	M. hamata	M. hamata (E), M. himalayana (E)
atehpur (Sikar) RJ)	27°58′0·43″N/74°58′21·02″E	328.61	Soil from rhizosphere of <i>M. hamata</i> bordering the Thar Desert. Semi-arid.	8.5	0.0085	M. hamata	M. hamata (E)
Chhapar Churu) (RJ)	27°45′43·57″N/74°27′12·25″E	329.8	Soil from rhizosphere of <i>M. hamata</i> bordering the Thar Desert. Semi-arid.	8.7	0.0097	M. hamata	M. hamata (E), M. himalayana (E
ikaner (RJ)	28°1′49·04″N/73°15′30·63″E	238.3	Soil from rhizosphere of <i>M. hamata</i> in the Thar Desert. Semi-arid.	8.4	0.0078	M. hamata	M. hamata (E)
armer (RJ)	25°39′54·66″N/72°0′54·03″E	227.1	Soil from rhizosphere of <i>M. hamata</i> bordering the Thar Desert. Semi-arid.	8.6	0.0071	M. hamata	M. hamata (E), M. himalayana (E
Bijoliya Bhilwara) (RJ)	25°7′25·78″N/75°16′24·28″E	508.79	Soil from rhizosphere of <i>M. himalayana</i> collected from field within its native range. Semi-arid with higher rainfall than the Thar Desert (rainfall = $600 \text{ mm p.a.}$ )	7.8	0.0216	M. himalayana	M. hamata (-), M. himalayana (E), M. pudica (-)
Agra (UP)	27°16′60·00″N/77°58′0·00″E	324.85	Nursery seedlings collected from the field. Humid sub-tropical.	7.2	0.0352	M. pudica <sup>‡</sup>	ND
okaro (JH)	23°45′27·10″N/85°53′36·52″E	232.42	Konar, riverside near BTPS, Kothara. Humid sub-tropical.	6.9	0.0432	M. pudica <sup>‡</sup>	M. hamata (I), M. himalayana (E), M. pudica (E)
Bangalore (KA)	13°0′39·54″N/77°34′13·70″E	895.79	Nursery seedlings in the campus of Indian Wood Science Technology (IWST). Wet and dry tropical.	6.8	0.0352	M. pudica <sup>‡</sup>	ND
Iaridwar (UT)	30°5′14.65″N/78°15′55.47″E	327.45	Plants on roadside near Rishikesh. Humid sub-tropical.	7.5	0.0322	M. pudica <sup>‡</sup>	ND
orhat (AS)	26°46′57·25″N/94°17′35·92″E	91	Field-grown plant in the grounds of the Rain Forest Research Institute (RFRI). Humid sub-tropical.	5.2	0.065	M. pudica <sup>‡</sup>	M. hamata (–), M. himalayana (–), M. pudica (E)
Shillong (ME)	25°39′18·83″N/91°53′52·85″E	3216	Plants on roadside in Barapani area near Shillong. Humid sub-tropical.	4.9	0.280	M. pudica <sup>‡</sup>	M. hamata (–), M. himalayana (–), M. pudica (E)

#### TABLE 1. Sites from which Mimosa seeds and nodules were collected, their climatic types, soil characteristics (pH, %N) and nodulation of Mimosa spp. in rhizosphere soil used for 'trapping' of rhizobia

Gehlot et al.

range of *M. hamata* (Table 1). The *M. pudica* nodules/rhizospheric soils were sampled from plants growing in several parts of India, encompassing sites in the north-west (Haridwar, UT), centre (Agra, UP), west (Jodhpur, RJ), south (Bangalore, KA), east (Bokaro, JH) and north-east (Jorhat, AS; Shillong, ME) of the country (Table 1, Supplementary Data Fig. S1).

To trap symbionts of *M. hamata*, *M. himalayana* and *M. pudica* growing in the various rhizosphere soils, seeds of each species were germinated as previously described (Elliott *et al.*, 2007*a*), and the seedlings were then sown into soil in pots (8 kg soil per pot) and grown in a greenhouse for up to 12 weeks, at which time the plants were harvested and nodules were sampled from the roots. Bacteria were axenically isolated from single nodules, purified from single colonies and cultivated on yeast-mannitol (YM) medium (Vincent, 1970) essentially as described by Bontemps *et al.* (2010). Some of the nodules were also cut in half to determine if they were potentially effective, as judged by the appearance of a pink colouration due to the presence of leghaemoglobin (Lb). Pink nodules were then placed in vials containing 2.5 % glutaraldehyde in 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.5) for microscopical analysis.

In addition to rhizobial trapping experiments in Indian soils, *M. hamata* and *M. himalayana* were also sown in soil taken from the rhizosphere of Brazilian *Mimosa* spp. at Embrapa-CENARGEN, Brasília, Brazil.

#### Microscopy and immunolabelling of Mimosa nodules

Nodules were embedded in resin and sectioned for light and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) coupled with *in situ* immunogold labelling with antibodies raised against *Burkholderia phymatum* STM815<sup>T</sup> and *Cupriavidus taiwanensis* LMG 19424<sup>T</sup> according to Elliott *et al.* (2007*a*). These antibodies have been shown previously to be specific, respectively, to the genus *Burkholderia* and to the species *C. taiwanensis* (Elliott *et al.*, 2007*a*; dos Reis Junior *et al.*, 2010). To confirm their symbiotic effectiveness, the nodule sections were also labelled with an antibody that was raised against the NifH protein of the nitrogenase enzyme (dos Reis Junior *et al.*, 2010). Non-immune serum was used as a negative control in all immunogold assays.

#### Genetic characterization of Mimosa-nodulating rhizobia

Potential rhizobial symbionts were isolated from nodules collected from the sites and/or trap plants described above (Table 1, Supplementary Data Fig. S1). Three nodules were sampled from each plant; in general, one symbiotic isolate per nodule was then obtained. All bacteria were grown in YM broth or on YM agar plates. The isolates were grouped based on their place of origin, and then further selected based upon their colony morphology on YM plates compared with known rhizobial type strains, and finally on their ability to nodulate their host species of Mimosa. Confirmed nodulating strains from each group from each location were then further characterized by PCR amplification and sequencing of their 16S rRNA genes, and representative strains from each 16S rRNA cluster were selected for sequencing of their nifH and nodA genes (Table 2). PCR amplifications were performed with genomic DNA that was extracted as described in Moulin et al. (2004). For all strains, the nearly full-length 16S

rRNA gene was amplified and sequenced with primers AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG and AAGGAGGTGATCCA GCC (Weisburg et al., 1991). Partial nifH fragments from the isolates were amplified with primers CGTTTTACGGCAAGG GCGGTATCGGCA and TCCTCCAGCTCCTCCATGGTGA TCGG (Perret and Broughton, 1998) for Alphaproteobacteria or with primers CGCIWTYTACGGIAARGGIGG and GGIKC RTAYTSGATIACIGTCAT for Betaproteobacteria (Chen et al., 2003b). Partial nodA fragments were amplified with primers TGCRGTGGAARNTRNNCTGGGAAA and GGNC CGTCRTCRAAWGTCARGTA (Haukka et al., 1998) for Alphaproteobacteria, with primers NodAF, AGTTGGGCCGG MGCNAGGCCTGA, and NodAR1, CAACGAACTGTTAA TTGGCA, for Burkholderia strains, and with primers nodA F, 5'TGCRGTGGARDCTRYGCTGGGAAA 3', and nodA R, 5' TCACARCTCKGGCCCGTTCCG-3', for Cupriavidus strains (Mishra et al., 2012). The PCR conditions for amplification were essentially as described earlier (Bontemps et al., 2010; Gehlot et al., 2012). The amplified gene products were purified using the QIAquick<sup>TM</sup> PCR purification kit. Sequencing was performed at Xcelris Genomics, Ahmedabad, India, using a ABI SOLiD V4.0 System, at the University of Wisconsin Madison DNA Sequencing Facility, and at the National Kaohsiung Marine University using an Applied Biosystems ABI Prism 3730 sequencer.

#### Phylogenetic and taxonomic analysis

For molecular phylogenetic analyses, sequences of type strains and/or NCBI reference (NR) sequences were downloaded from NCBI. The GenBank accession numbers are listed in parentheses for the 16S rRNA, nifH and nodA genes used in this analysis. All the sequences were aligned using CLUSTAL W (Thompson et al., 1997) and the alignment was exported to molecular evolutionary genetics analysis (MEGA) format in MEGA5 software (Tamura et al., 2011). The evolutionary history was inferred using the neighbour-joining method (Saitou and Nei, 1987). Evolutionary distances were computed using the Kimura two-parameter method in units of the number of base substitutions per site (Kimura, 1980). To obtain confidence values, the original data set was resampled 1000 times using the bootstrap analysis method (Felsenstein, 1985). The MEGA5 software (Tamura et al., 2011) was used for construction of phylogenetic trees, inferring distances and percentage similarity.

#### Nodulation tests with wild-type and GUS-marked strains

Representative strains from all three species were tested for nodulation of their original hosts (*M. hamata, M. himalayana, M. pudica*), and some strains were also selected for crossinoculation tests on the same three hosts and on *M. affinis*, a Mexican species that is known to prefer to nodulate with alpha-rhizobia (Wang *et al.*, 1999; Elliott *et al.*, 2009). More detailed nodulation tests combined with microscopy were performed with selected strains that were marked with a pCAM121 transposon containing constitutively expressed glucuronidase (GUS) (Wilson *et al.*, 1995). Briefly, *Escherichia coli* strain  $\beta$ 2155 (Dehio and Meyer, 1997), which requires diaminopimelic acid, was transformed with the plasmid, pCAM121,

Strain no.	Plant host (no. of isolates obtained)	Geographical origin (State)	16S rRNA GenBank accession no.	Closest 16S rRNA BLASTN match (% similarity)	nifH GenBank accession no.	nodA GenBank accession no.	Mha	Mhi	Мр
MH1b	M. hamata (2)	Nagaur (Rajasthan)	GQ355314	<i>E. saheli</i> LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JQ951757	JQ951758	Е	ND	
MH3	M. hamata (2)	Sikar (Rajasthan)	GQ355315	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JQ951759	JQ951760	Е	_	_
MH3a*	M. hamata	Sikar (Rajasthan)	JN867012	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	-	JQ951761	Е	_	_
MH8*	M. hamata (7)	Jodhpur (Rajasthan)	JN867013	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	KC478282	JQ951762	Е	_	_
ИН9	M. hamata	Jodhpur (Rajasthan)	GQ355316	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)		JQ951763	Е	ND	_
1H32	M. hamata (5)	Chhapar (Rajasthan)	JX843749	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JX843757	JX843746	Е	ND	_
4H37	M. hamata (3)	Bikaner (Rajasthan)	JX843750	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JX843758	JX843747	Е	Е	_
1H40	M. hamata (3)	Barmer (Rajasthan)	JX843751	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JX843759	JX843748	Е	Е	_
1HM1	M. himalayana (7)	Bijoliya (Rajasthan)	JQ951764	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JX843760	JX843744	_	Е	_
1HM2	M. himalayana	Bijoliya (Rajasthan)	JQ951766	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)			_	Е	_
4HM3	M. himalayana	Bijoliya (Rajasthan)	JQ951768	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)			_	Е	_
1HM4	M. himalayana	Bijoliya (Rajasthan)	JQ951770	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)			_	Е	_
4HM12	M. himalayana	Bijoliya (Rajasthan)	JQ951772	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JQ951773	JQ951774	_	Е	_
1HM22	M. himalayana (4)	Jodhpur (Rajasthan)	JQ951776	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JX112774	JQ951777	_	Е	_
1HM24	M. himalayana (3)	Nagaur (Rajasthan)	JX843752	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JX843761	JX112778	_	Е	_
1HM32	M. himalayana (3)	Chhapar (Rajasthan)	JO951778	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JX112775	JO951779	_	Е	_
1HM40	M. himalayana (3)	Barmer (Rajasthan)	JX843753	E. saheli LMG 7837 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JX843762	JX843745	_	Е	_
1P3	M. pudica (2)	Bangalore (Karnataka)	JQ951791	C. oxalaticus DSM $1105^{T}$ (97 %)	JX843754	JQ951780	Ι	Ι	Е
1P6	M. pudica (2)	Haridwar (Uttarakhand)	GQ355321	C. taiwanensis LMG 19424 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JX843755	JX843742	ND	ND	Е
4P7	M. pudica (4)	Jodhpur (Rajasthan)	GO355322	C. taiwanensis LMG 19424 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JO951781	JO951782	ND	ND	Е
1P10	M. pudica (3)	Agra (Uttar Pradesh)	GQ355325	<i>R. vallis</i> CCBAU 65647 <sup>T</sup> (100 %)	JQ951784	JQ951783	Ι	ND	Е
4P15	M. pudica (3)	Agra (Uttar Pradesh)	GQ355324	C. taiwanensis LMG 19424 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JX843756	JX843743	_	_	Е
4P20	M. pudica (5)	Bokaro (Jharkhand)	GQ355318	<i>B. phymatum</i> STM815 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JQ951785	JO951786	Ι	Е	Е
IPB1	M. pudica (10)	Barapani (Meghalaya)	KC287136	B. mimosarum PAS44 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	KC440177	KC478283	ND	ND	Е
1PB6	M. pudica	Barapani (Meghalaya)	KC287137	B. mimosarum PAS44 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	KC440178		ND	ND	Е
1PB8	M. pudica	Barapani (Meghalaya)	KC287138	B. mimosarum PAS44 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	KC440179	KC478284	ND	ND	Ē
APB11	M. pudica	Barapani (Meghalaya)	KC287139	B. mimosarum PAS44 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	KC440180		ND	ND	Ē
1PJ1	M. pudica (4)	Jorhat (Assam)	JQ951792	<i>B. phymatum</i> STM815 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JQ951788	JX843740	ND	ND	Ē
1PJ4	M. pudica (4)	Jorhat (Assam)	JO951793	B. mimosarum PAS44 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)	JQ951789	JX843739	ND	ND	Ē
1PJ11	M. pudica (4)	Jorhat (Assam)	JQ951794	C. taiwanensis LMG 19424 <sup>T</sup> (98 %)	JQ951790	JX843741	ND	ND	Ē
TM815 <sup>T</sup>	M. pudica <sup>†</sup>	French Guiana	NR_027555	<i>B. phymatum</i> STM815 <sup>T</sup> (100 %)	AJ505319	AJ505318	I	$E^{\dagger}$	$E^{\dagger}$
MG19424 <sup>T</sup>	M. pudica	Taiwan	NR_028800	<i>C. taiwanensis</i> LMG 19424 <sup>T</sup> (100 %)	NC 010529	AJ505311	Ī	Ī <sup>†</sup>	$\tilde{E}^{\dagger}$
lim-1	M. affinis	Mexico	DQ648573	<i>R. etli</i> by. <i>mimosae</i> Mim-1 (100 %)			_	Ē	I‡
IHM (B) 2 I	M. himalayana (7)	Brazil	KC791149	<i>E. mexicanum</i> ITTG-R7 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)			ND	ND	NE
/HM (B) 5	M. himalayana	Brazil	KC791150	E. mexicanum ITTG-R7 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)			ND	ND	ND
/HM (B) 8	M. himalayana	Brazil	KC791151	<i>E. mexicanum</i> ITTG-R7 <sup>T</sup> (99 %)			ND	ND	ND

TABLE 2. Rhizobial strains isolated from native and invasive Mimosa spp. in India and Brazil and their putative identification via matching of their 16S rRNA	gene
sequences with those in the databases; data are also shown for nodulation tests of selected strains with M. hamata (Mha), M. himalayana (Mhi) and M. pudica (Mp,	)

\* Previously reported by Gehlot *et al.* (2012).
<sup>†</sup> See Elliott *et al.* (2007*a*) for details.
<sup>‡</sup> See Elliott *et al.* (2009) for details.

and the transposon was then mobilized into the M. pudica isolates Cupriavidus sp. MP3 and B. phymatum MP20 by conjugation. The transconjugants were selected on YM agar containing 100  $\mu$ g ml<sup>-1</sup> spectinomycin and screened for GUS activity on YM agar containing 20  $\mu$ g ml<sup>-1</sup> X-gluc. One colony showing GUS activity and no apparent growth defect was selected for nodulation studies. Seeds of *M. hamata*, *M. himalayana*, M. pudica and M. affinis were scarified with concentrated sulphuric acid for 5 min, washed with sterile distilled water five times and germinated on water agar (1%) plates. Seven-day-old seedlings were transferred to 150-mL glass tubes containing sterile vermiculite and inoculated with  $10^9$ -10<sup>10</sup> cells of various bacterial strains grown on YM medium. The inoculated seedlings were then incubated in a growth chamber at 25 °C either under a 16/8-h light/dark cycle or under a natural day/night cycle. Un-inoculated seedlings served as controls. The number of nodules, their appearance (e.g. if they were expressing Lb) and the health of the host plants was determined at 30 d after inoculation (dai) for M. pudica and M. affinis and at 40 dai for M. hamata and M. himalayana. Representative nodules from all species/strain combinations were also prepared for light microscopy and TEM as described above.

#### RESULTS

#### Nodulation of native and invasive Mimosa spp. in India

Mimosa hamata (Fig. 1A, B) is native to the Thar Desert and to surrounding semi-arid regions of Rajasthan and north-west India (Gehlot et al., 2012). The other native Indian species in this study, M. himalayana (Fig. 1C, D), is much more widespread (Ali, 1973; Shetty and Singh, 1987; Bora and Kumar, 2003), and generally prefers higher altitude (non-desert) regions in Rajasthan and in other parts of northern India that have significantly higher rainfall than the Thar Desert. In this study, the two native species were not found to inhabit the same environments. Nodulation of M. hamata growing near Jodhpur has previously been reported by Gehlot et al. (2012), and the ability of this species to nodulate in this semi-arid environment was confirmed in the present study via trap experiments using soil from several other locations in the Thar Desert (Table 1, Fig. 1E, Supplementary Data Fig. S1). In the case of *M. himalayana*, soil was obtained from the rhizosphere of natural stands of plants growing near Bijoliya in the east of Rajasthan (Fig. S1). This soil, which was more fertile than the M. hamata rhizospheric soils from the Thar Desert (Table 1), was used to trap rhizobia with *M. himalayana* seedlings that had been sown into it. Mature nodules had formed on M. himalayana by 2 months after seeds had been sown into the soil, similar to the time taken for *M. hamata* nodules to form when grown in pots of soil under the conditions used in the present study. Nodules on both species were branched and appeared to be indeterminate (Fig. 1E, F). This was confirmed by light microscopy of longitudinal sections, which demonstrated that M. hamata nodules were similar to those on other Mimosa spp. from semi-arid environments (dos Reis Junior et al., 2010), i.e. indeterminate with a pronounced meristem and invasion zone, and with an outer cortex with a 'corky' hypodermis layer (Fig. 2A, C), with cells containing phenolic compounds and/or tannins. The structure of nodules

on *M. himalayana* was similar to that of *M. hamata* nodules, and has been described previously by Elliott *et al.* (2007*a*). TEM coupled with immunogold labelling with an antibody against the NifH protein of nitrogenase confirmed that bacteroids in field-grown or trap soil-grown nodules expressed this enzyme (Fig. 2B, D), strongly suggesting that both species form symbiotic  $N_2$ -fixing nodules in the field and/or in their native soils.

Nodules from the invasive M. pudica that were sampled from several parts of India were also examined by microscopy, and the structure of these was as reported previously (Chen *et al.*, 2003*a*). Sections of nodules of all three species were also probed with antibodies specific to the common beta-rhizobial Mimosa symbionts, B. phymatum and C. taiwanensis (Elliott et al., 2007a; dos Reis Junior et al., 2010). None of the nodules examined from either of the native species was recognized by these antibodies (a section of an *M. hamata* nodule that was probed with the C. taiwanensis antibody is shown in Supplementary Data Fig. S2A), but nodules of *M. himalayana* that had been nodulated by *B. phymatum* STM815<sup>T</sup> from the study of Elliott *et al.* (2007*a*) reacted strongly with the *B. phymatum* antibody (Fig. S2B). Mimosa pudica nodules obtained from trap plants grown in soil from the rhizosphere of *M. hamata* near Jodhpur (RJ) (Table 1) were strongly labelled with the C. taiwanensis antibody (Fig. S2C), but not the *B. phymatum* antibody (Fig. S2D), and this was also the case with *M. pudica* nodules sampled directly from plants at three other locations at Agra (UP) (Fig. S2E), Bangalore (KA) and Haridwar (UT) (data not shown). On the other hand, nodule samples from another location, Bokaro (JH), in eastern India, were strongly labelled with the *B. phymatum* antibody (Fig. S2F).

The native and invasive *Mimosa* spp. were also tested for nodulation in some of the rhizospheric soils (Table 1). *Mimosa himalayana* nodulated in several of the *M. hamata* rhizospheric soils from the Thar Desert (Table 2), but *M. hamata* failed to nodulate in the more fertile *M. himalayana* rhizosphere soil from Bijoliya (RJ). Neither of the native species was able to nodulate in any of the *M. pudica* rhizospheric soils, with the exception of the Bokaro (JH) soil, in which *M. himalayana* (but not *M. hamata*) nodulated. *Mimosa pudica* was able to nodulate readily in the *M. hamata* rhizospheric soil from Jodhpur (Table 2), but not in the *M. himalayana* rhizosphere soil from Bijoliya (data not shown).

*Mimosa hamata* grew poorly and only formed the occasional ineffective nodule in Brazilian cerrado soil (Fig. 3A, B), whereas *M. himalayana* grew well and nodulated profusely and effectively (Fig. 3C, D). Sections of the nodules from neither species reacted with the *B. phymatum* and *C. taiwanensis* antibodies (data not shown), which strongly suggests that neither of these beta-rhizobial types is present in the nodules (dos Reis Junior *et al.*, 2010).

#### Molecular characterization of symbionts of native and invasive Mimosa spp. in India

Rhizobia were isolated from nodules of native and invasive *Mimosa* spp. under axenic conditions and their phylogenetic relationships were determined by analysis of 16S rRNA gene sequences (Figs 4 and 5). In addition to strains MH3a and MH8 that were directly isolated, respectively, from *M. hamata* nodules sampled near Sikar and Jodhpur (RJ) by Gehlot *et al.* 



FIG. 1. Native Indian *Mimosa* spp. in the wild. (A) *Mimosa hamata* is a shrub that grows in the Thar Desert of Rajasthan. It grows to approx. 3 m maximum height, and the plant in this photograph is approx. 2 m. (B) Detail of the foliage and flowers of *M. hamata*; the spiny stems and the spherical pink inflorescences are very typical of the genus *Mimosa*. (C) *Mimosa himalayana* has a similar growth habit to *M. hamata* and it grows to a similar size, but it prefers wetter environments, in which it grows among other lush vegetation. (D) Detail of the foliage and flowers of *M. hamata*; note that the stems, foliage and flowers are very similar to the closely related *M. hamata*. (E) Large branched nodules (arrow) on an *M. hamata* plant grown in soil taken from the rhizosphere of a plant growing in the Thar Desert of Rajasthan. (F) Nodules (\*) on an *M. himalayana* plant grown in soil taken from the rhizosphere of a plant growing in the Bijoliya region of Rajasthan. Scale bars:  $(E) = 1 \text{ cm}; (F) = 500 \text{ \mum}.$ 

(2012), six further defined strains were isolated from *M. hamata* nodules obtained from soil trapping experiments using soil from four more sites in the Thar Desert of Rajasthan (Tables 1 and 2). Five defined rhizobial strains were isolated from *M. himalayana* 

nodules obtained from trapping experiments using soil from the rhizosphere of *M. himalayana* sampled from Bijoliya in eastern Rajasthan, and four additional strains were isolated from *M. himalayana* nodules on seedlings grown in *M. hamata* 

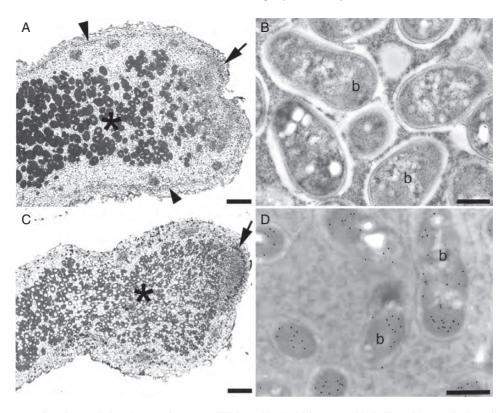
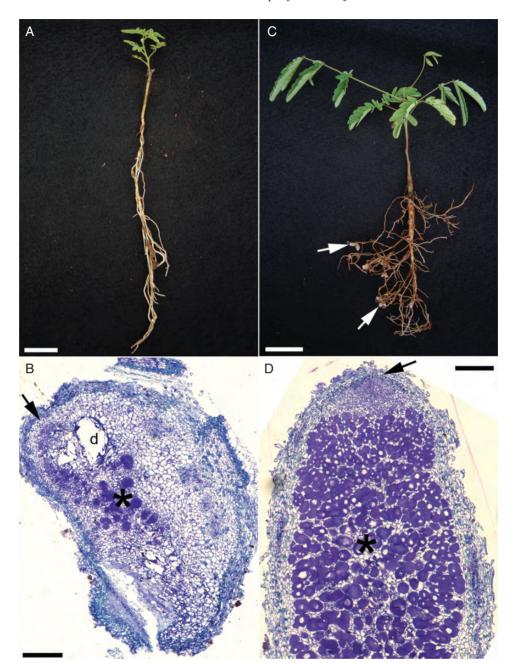


FIG. 2. Light microscopy (A, C) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) combined with immunogold labelling with an antibody against the NifH (Fe-)protein of nitrogenase (B, D) of *M. hamata* (A, B) and *M. himalayana* (C, D) nodules. Longitudinal sections of the nodules (A, C) show them to be broadly similar to those on other *Mimosa* spp., i.e. typically indeterminate with a persistent meristem (arrows) and an infected zone of N<sub>2</sub>-fixing cells (\*), but in the case of *M. hamata* they also have a pronounced hypodermis (arrowheads in A). The bacteroids (b) in nodules from both species strongly express the NifH protein (B, D). Scale bars: (A, C) = 200  $\mu$ m; (B, D) = 500 nm.

rhizospheric soil from four sites in the Thar Desert (Table 1). As shown in Fig. 4, all the strains from *M. hamata* and *M. himalayana* grouped together and showed highest 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity to sequences from *Ensifer* saheli in the Alphaproteobacteria. The 16S rRNA sequences of the rhizobia isolated from *M. himalayana* plants grown and nodulated in Brazilian cerrado soil also placed these in *Ensifer*, but in this case they were more closely related to *E. mexicanum* (Fig. 4). The identities of the strains nodulating the native species contrast with those isolated from the invasive species *M. pudica* as, with the exception of MP10 from Agra (UP) which was related to *Rhizobium vallis* (Table 2, Fig. 4), all of the symbiotically effective *M. pudica* isolates belonged to genera/species in the Betaproteobacteria (Fig. 5).

All the betaproteobacterial isolates from *M. pudica* nodules sampled in Bangalore (KA), Agra (UP) and Haridwar (UT) and one isolate from Jorhat (AS) were related to *C. taiwanensis*, as were the isolates 'trapped' by *M. pudica* seedlings that were grown in *M. hamata* rhizosphere soil from Jodhpur (Fig. 5). These strains all clustered with the *C. taiwanensis* type strain, LMG 19424<sup>T</sup>, but strain MP3 from Bangalore (KA) was closer to the South Indian *Cupriavidus* sp. strain from Tamil Nadu (MS1) than to the north Indian one from Uttar Pradesh (BHU1), both of which had been isolated from *M. pudica* nodules by Verma *et al.* (2004). In contrast to *C. taiwanensis* being the apparently predominant symbiont of *M. pudica* in north-western, central and southern India, mostly bacteria showing maximum 16S rRNA sequence similarity to the common *M. pudica*-nodulating *Burkholderia* spp., *B. mimosarum* and *B. phymatum*, were isolated from *M. pudica* growing in eastern (Bokaro, JH) and north-eastern (Jorhat, AS; Shillong, ME) parts of India (Fig. 5).

To determine the relatedness of the rhizobia of the invasive and native *Mimosa* spp. further, the DNA sequences of genes that are essential for  $N_2$  fixation (*nifH*) and symbiosis (*nodA*) were analysed (Figs 6 and 7). The nifH gene encodes the iron (Fe-) protein component of the nitrogenase enzyme complex and is essential for mutualistic N<sub>2</sub>-fixing symbioses, although it is not specific to rhizobia and is present in all free-living diazotrophs (Young, 2005). A phylogenetic analysis of the nifH sequences of the strains that nodulated the native Indian M. hamata and M. himalavana showed them to be clustered together and that they were closest to the *E. kostiensis* type strain HAMBI 1489<sup>T</sup>, which was isolated from Acacia senegal in Sudan (Nick et al., 1999), with the next closest sequence being that of the E. saheli type strain, ORS609<sup>T</sup>, from Sesbania cannabina (de Lajudie et al., 1994). In the case of the M. pudica isolates, the *nifH* sequence from *Rhizobium* sp. MP10 clustered with that of R. etli bv. mimosae Mim7-4, a symbiont of M. affinis from Mexico (Wang et al., 1999) and with R. etli TJ173 from M. pudica nodules in Taiwan (Elliott et al., 2009),

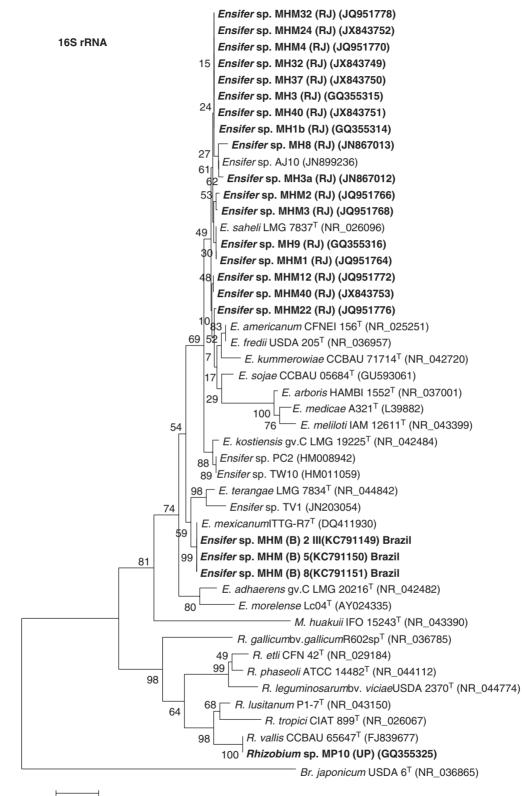


Downloaded from https://academic.oup.com/aob/article/112/1/179/172857 by guest on 24 April 2024

FIG. 3. *Mimosa hamata* (A, B) and *M. himalayana* (C, D) grown in Brazilian cerrado soil for 3 months. Note that there are no (or few) nodules on *M. hamata* (A) and that the plant is small and unhealthy. This is reflected in the structure of the single nodule taken from an *M. hamata* plant (B); it is clearly ineffective and contains areas of degraded tissue (d). In contrast, *M. himalayana* is green and healthy and well nodulated (arrows in C), and the nodules are effective in appearance (D). An arrow indicates the nodule meristem in (B) and (D), and the infected, N<sub>2</sub>-fixing zone is indicated by an asterisk (\*) in each case. Scale bars: (A) = 1 cm; (B) = 2 cm; (C, D) =  $200 \mu m$ .

whereas the *M. pudica*-nodulating *C. taiwanensis* and *B. phymatum* strains showed maximum similarity to the *nifH* sequences of their respective type strains, *C. taiwanensis* LMG  $19424^{T}$  and *B. phymatum* STM815<sup>T</sup>, but the *Cupriavidus nifH* sequences were different from those of the previously isolated Indian *Cupriavidus* strains BHU1 and MS1 (Verma *et al.*, 2004). Finally, the *nifH* sequences of *B. mimosarum* MPJ4 and MPB1, MPB6, MPB8 and MPB11 showed highest similarity to that of the *B. mimosarum* type strain, PAS44<sup>T</sup> (Fig. 6).

In contrast to *nifH* genes, the *nod* genes are present only in legume-nodulating rhizobia, in which they are involved in the synthesis of Nod factors. In most legume-rhizobial symbioses studied to date, these are essential components of the signal exchange between the soil-dwelling rhizobia and the roots of their potential legume host, an exchange which will ultimately lead to the formation of functional N<sub>2</sub>-fixing nodules (Sprent, 2009). Slight alterations ('decorations') on the chemical structure of the lipo-chito-oligosaccharide backbone of the Nod



0.01

F1G. 4. Neighbour-joining phylogenetic tree for 16S rRNA gene sequences of *Ensifer* and *Rhizobium* strains isolated from native Indian *Mimosa* species with type/ reference strains and close relatives. Bootstrap values calculated for 1000 replications are indicated at the internodes. The scale bar indicates 1 % substitutions per site. GenBank accession numbers are given in parentheses. Abbreviations: *Br., Bradyrhizobium; E., Ensifer; M., Mesorhizobium; R., Rhizobium;*<sup>T</sup>, type strain; (NR), NCBI reference sequence. Strains with the prefixes MH and MHM were isolated from *M. hamata* and *M. himalayana*, respectively. Strains isolated in the present study are marked in bold.

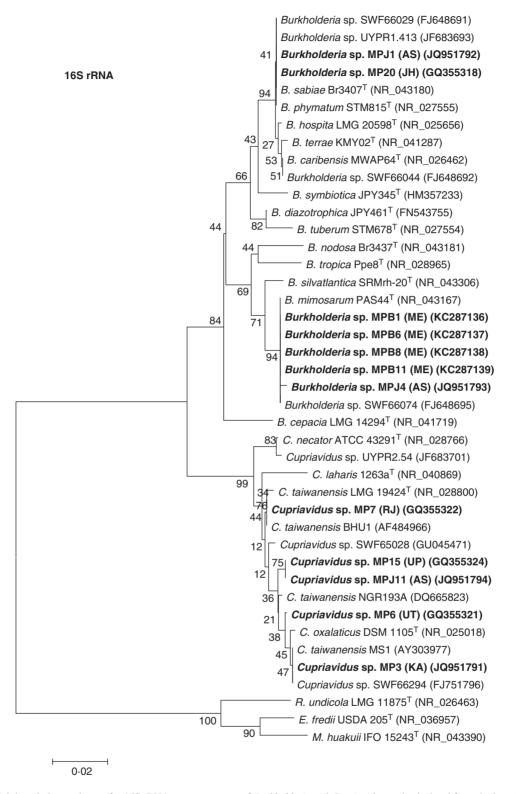


FIG. 5. Neighbour-joining phylogenetic tree for 16S rRNA gene sequences of *Burkholderia* and *Cupriavidus* strains isolated from the invasive species *Mimosa pudica* with type/reference strains and close relatives. Bootstrap values calculated for 1000 replications are indicated at the internodes. The scale bar indicates 2 % substitutions per site. GenBank accession numbers are given in parentheses. Abbreviations: *B., Burkholderia; C., Cupriavidus; E., Ensifer; M., Mesorhizobium; R., Rhizobium;*, <sup>T</sup>, type strain; (NR), NCBI reference sequence. Strains isolated in the present study are marked in bold.

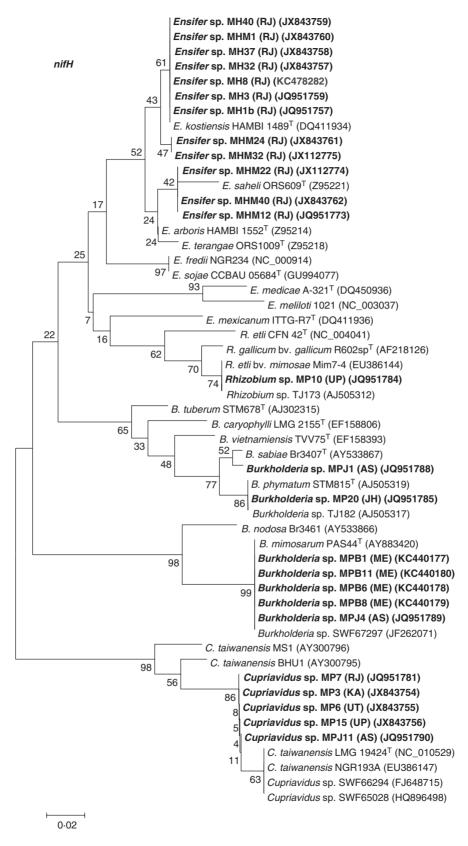


FIG. 6. Neighbour-joining tree of *nifH* gene sequences showing the phylogenetic relationships of the root nodule bacteria isolated from *Mimosa* spp. Bootstrap values calculated for 1000 replications are indicated at the internodes. GenBank accession numbers are given in parentheses. The scale bar represents 2 % nucleotide substitutions per site. Abbreviations: *B., Burkholderia; C., Cupriavidus; E., Ensifer; R., Rhizobium;*<sup>T</sup>, type strain. Strains with the prefixes MH, MHM and MP were isolated from *M. hamata, M. himalayana* and *M. pudica*, respectively. Strains isolated in the present study are marked in bold.

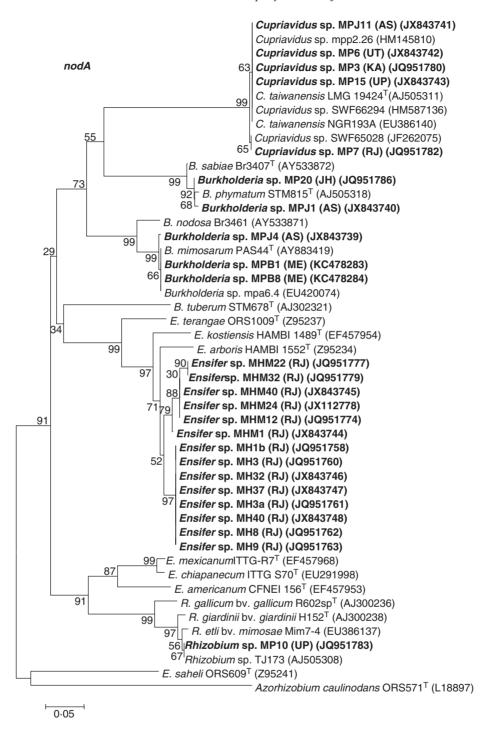


FIG. 7. Neighbour-joining phylogenetic tree for *nodA* gene sequences of nodulating strains isolated from *Mimosa* spp. with close relatives and type strains. Bootstrap values calculated for 1000 replications are indicated at the internodes. The scale bar indicates 5 % nucleotide substitutions per site. GenBank accession numbers are given in parentheses. Abbreviations: *B., Burkholderia; C., Cupriavidus; E., Ensifer; R., Rhizobium;*<sup>T</sup>, type strain. Strains with the prefixes MH, MHM and MP were isolated from *M. hamata, M. himalayana* and *M. pudica*, respectively. Strains isolated in the present study are marked in bold.

factors can greatly affect the host range of a particular rhizobial strain (Pueppke and Broughton, 1999; Kobayashi and Broughton, 2008). Analysis of the sequences of the *nodA* genes of the various native and invasive *Mimosa* isolates (Fig. 7) showed that the *Ensifer* strains from *M. hamata* and

*M. himalayana* clustered together, but they were not closely related to any type strains, with their sequences being closest to the African strains *E. arboris* HAMBI 1552<sup>T</sup> from *Prosopis chilensis*, *E. kostiensis* HAMBI 1489<sup>T</sup> from *Acacia senegal* and *E. terangae* ORS1009<sup>T</sup> from *A. laeta* (de Lajudie *et al.*, 1994;

Haukka *et al.*, 1998; Nick *et al.*, 1999). For the *M. pudica* rhizobial strain, as with its *nifH* sequence (Fig. 6), the *nodA* sequence from *Rhizobium* sp. MP10 showed highest similarity to those of the *Mimosa*-nodulating strains *R. etli* biovar *mimosae* Mim7-4 and *R. etli* TJ173 (Fig. 7). The *nodA* sequences of the *Cupriavidus* strains were all similar to the *C. taiwanensis* type strain, LMG 19424<sup>T</sup> from Taiwan, whereas those of the *Burkholderia* strains MP20 and MPJ1 were closest to *B. phymatum* STM815<sup>T</sup>, and those of *Burkholderia* strains MPJ4, MPB1 and MPB8 were closest to *B. mimosarum* PAS44<sup>T</sup> (Fig. 7).

#### Cross inoculation studies using wild-type and GUS-marked strains

All of the strains isolated from the Indian native and invasive Mimosa spp. featured in Figs 4-7 were tested positive for nodulation on their original hosts (Table 2). Some of these strains were also tested for nodulation of the other species in this study. None of the M. hamata and M. himalayana strains was capable of nodulating M. pudica (Table 2), but M. hamata strains, such as Ensifer sp. MH37 and MH40, could effectively nodulate both *M. hamata* and M. himalayana (Supplementary Data Fig. S3A, B), whereas the opposite was not true, i.e. no M. himalayana strains could nodulate M. hamata (Fig. S3A, Table 2). A Mexican Mimosa strain, R. etli bv. mimosae Mim-1, which was isolated from M. affinis by Wang et al. (1999) and which can effectively nodulate this species (Elliott et al., 2009), was also capable of nodulating M. himalavana (Fig. S3C) but not M. hamata (data not shown). Mimosa affinis could be nodulated by the M. hamata Ensifer sp. strains MH37 and MH40, but the nodules were small, white and ineffective (Fig. S3D). Mimosa affinis could not be nodulated by the M. himalayana Ensifer sp. strain MHM12 (data not shown).

It was previously shown that *M. himalayana* can be effectively nodulated by the M. pudica-nodulating strain B. phymatum STM815<sup>T</sup> and ineffectively nodulated by *C. taiwanensis* LMG  $19424^{T}$  (Elliott *et al.*, 2007*a*). This has been confirmed in the present study (data not shown), and we have also found that M. hamata is ineffectively nodulated by both these strains (Table 2). However, neither of these beta-rhizobial strains was isolated in India, and so Cupriavidus sp. strain MP3 (from Karnataka), B. phymatum strain MP20 (from Jharkhand) and Rhizobium sp. MP10, all of which were capable of nodulating M. pudica effectively (Table 2), were tested on M. hamata and M. himalayana. As with the type strain of C. taiwanensis, LMG 19424<sup>T</sup>, MP3 nodulated both the native species ineffectively, whereas MP20 followed the same pattern as the *B. phymatum* type strain, STM815<sup>T</sup>, and nodulated M. himalayana effectively but M. hamata ineffectively (Table 2). Rhizobium sp. MP10, like many Rhizobium strains isolated from Mimosa nodules (Barrett and Parker, 2006; Elliott et al., 2009; Mishra et al., 2012), is not completely effective on its original host, M. pudica, producing plants with prematurely senescing nodules and yellow-green leaves, and it was also ineffective at nodulating *M. hamata* (Table 2). Additional studies were performed using variants of strains MP3 and MP20 that were marked with a transposon-based constitutively expressed gusA gene (Wilson et al., 1995), and these confirmed the nodulation phenotypes of the wild-type strains (e.g. on *M. hamata*; Supplementary Data Fig. S3E, F).

#### DISCUSSION

The native Indian species *Mimosa hamata* and *M. himalayana* are nodulated by *Ensifer (Sinorhizobium)* spp.

Mimosa hamata, a species which is native to the Thar Desert of Rajasthan and to semi-arid parts of neighbouring Pakistan (Barneby, 1991; Kumar and Sane, 2003), was shown in a study by Gehlot *et al.* (2012) to be nodulated near the city of Jodhpur and in Sikar district by rhizobial strains in Ensifer. This was confirmed in the present study by the isolation and characterization of strains from trap experiments using soils from the rhizosphere of *M. hamata* from several other locations in the Thar Desert. These strains were shown to form effective nodules on their host, and as no other symbiotic bacterial types were isolated from *M. hamata*, it is reasonable to state that it is preferentially nodulated by Ensifer spp. in its native range. This is reinforced by the demonstration that *M. hamata* cannot be nodulated effectively (or at all) by other Mimosa-nodulating strains; this includes alpha- and betaproteobacterial strains known to be promiscuous nodulators of several Mimosa spp. (Elliott et al., 2007a, 2009; dos Reis Junior et al., 2010; Gyaneshwar et al., 2011) and strains isolated from other *Mimosa* spp. in India (this study).

Mimosa himalavana is another native Indian species, but it prefers wetter and more fertile environments than its close relative *M. hamata*. It is also more widespread than *M. hamata*, and is native to several states in northern India, as well as neighbouring countries, such as Afghanistan and Nepal, where, as its name suggests, it is often found growing in highland regions bordering the Himalayas (Ali, 1973; Shetty and Singh, 1987; Barneby, 1991; Bora and Kumar, 2003). As with M. hamata, M. himalayana was also nodulated in the present study by Ensifer strains when it was sown into soil sampled from the rhizosphere of mature plants in its native range in eastern Rajasthan. The strains that were isolated from both the native Indian Mimosa spp. were closely related to each other on the basis of their 16S rRNA sequences, and were also somewhat related to E. saheli, a species known to nodulate Acacia spp. (de Lajudie et al., 1994) and is the most commonly isolated symbiont from several other native legumes in the Thar Desert, including all the mimosoids examined (Gehlot et al., 2012). Indeed, Ensifer spp. are often the preferred symbionts of mimosoid legumes, such as those in the genera Acacia (sensu lato), Acaciella, Calliandra, Leucaena and Prosopis, that are native and/or introduced to tropical and sub-tropical ecosystems in both the Old World (de Lajudie et al., 1994; McInroy et al., 1999; Nick et al., 1999; Räsänen et al., 2001; Bala and Giller, 2001; Bala et al., 2003; Wolde-Meskel et al., 2005; Ben Romdhane et al., 2006; Benata et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2013) and the New World (Moreira et al., 1998; Toledo et al., 2003; Lloret et al., 2007; Rincón-Rosales et al., 2009). Generally speaking, the Ensifer strains nodulating Old World mimosoids are in (or related to) the species E. arboris, E. kostiensis, E. saheli and E. terangae, whereas those from the New World belong to a group represented by E. americanum, E. chiapenecum and E. mexicanum (Rincón-Rosales et al., 2009).

Although their association with mimosoid legumes is well established by these examples, *Ensifer* spp. have not previously been reported as symbionts of *Mimosa* spp. in their native ranges (Barrett and Parker, 2005, 2006; Andam *et al.*, 2007; Bontemps *et al.*, 2010; Mishra *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, although an *Ensifer* 

strain (TJ170) was isolated from nodules on invasive *M. pudica* in Taiwan by Chen *et al.* (2003*b*), this strain was not capable of nodulation, and so the present study is the first published demonstration that *Ensifer* strains can effectively nodulate *Mimosa* spp.

When considering relationships between legumes and their symbionts, core 'housekeeping' genes, such as rrs (16S rRNA) and recA, can only tell part of the story, as the ability of rhizobia to nodulate and fix N<sub>2</sub> with particular legume hosts depends on their symbiosis-related genes (nod and nif), which in many rhizobial genera, including *Ensifer*, are borne on mobile *Svm* plasmids (Martinez-Romero, 2009; Sprent, 2009; Rogel et al., 2011). In spite of their potential to be transferred between bacterial types via horizontal gene transfer (HGT), the phylogenetic trees for symbiosis-related genes, such as *nifH* and *nodA*, are often similar to each other and to the core genomes of both alphaand betaproteobacterial legume symbionts (Rincón-Rosales et al., 2009; Bontemps et al., 2010; Mishra et al., 2012). Ensifer strains that nodulate mimosoids are a case in point, as the phylogenetic trees for their *nifH* and *nodA* genes, for example, generally follow those for their housekeeping genes (such as 16S rRNA), and accordingly they also show a clear separation between the Ensifer strains isolated from the Old and New Worlds (Haukka et al., 1998; Rincón-Rosales et al., 2009). However, when the nifH and nodA genes from the native Indian Mimosa symbionts were examined in the present study, they were shown to have different phylogenetic relationships. Although the *nifH* genes of strains from both the native Indian species clustered together in two clades that were relatively close to each other and to other Old World Ensifer mimosoid symbionts, particularly E. kostiensis (Haukka et al., 1998), their nodA genes were different from any described rhizobial strains, being closely grouped together in a distinct clade that was distant from the nearest described rhizobial species, E. kostiensis and E. arboris. This was particularly true of the nodA sequences of strains from M. hamata, which were in a subclade that was distinct from those of the M. himalayana strains.

Given that the *nod* genes, including *nodA*, are those that confer host selectivity upon rhizobia (Kobayashi and Broughton, 2008; Martinez-Romero, 2009; Cummings *et al.*, 2009; Rogel *et al.*, 2011), the different phylogenetic patterns of their *nodA* genes suggested that the host ranges of the *M. hamata* and *M. himalayana* symbionts were different, and so the ability of representative strains from the *M. hamata* and *M. himalayana* symbionts to nodulate various *Mimosa* hosts was examined. These experiments showed that *M. hamata* strains nodulated *M. himalayana*, but that the reverse was not true, i.e. *M. himalayana* strains could not nodulate *M. hamata*.

Taken together, these data demonstrate that the symbiosisrelated genes of native Indian *Mimosa* spp. are more closely related to Old World *Ensifer* mimosoid symbionts than to New World ones, but that the *nodA* genes are in separate groups from each other and from other mimosoid *Ensifer* strains. In the case of *M. hamata*, this has resulted in the species being highly dependent on being nodulated by symbionts with very specific *nodA* sequences, and so it might be appropriate to consider that the *M. hamata Ensifer* symbionts described in the present study belong to a new 'symbiovar' (Rogel *et al.*, 2011). *Mimosa himalayana* is a slightly different case, as although it appears to nodulate preferentially in its native soil with *Ensifer* strains that are closely related to *M. hamata* symbionts (with which it can also nodulate), it differs from *M. hamata* in that it is more promiscuous and can nodulate with other rhizobial types, including *Burkholderia* (Elliott *et al.*, 2007*a*).

# The invasive Mimosa species in India M. pudica is mainly nodulated by Cupriavidus and Burkholderia

Mimosa pudica is a widespread invasive plant in India, and is present in most (if not all) states, where it is found as a weed growing on roadsides, wasteground and pastures. It generally prefers wetter and more fertile environments, and so has not been recorded in (for example) arid and/or semi-arid regions, such as the Thar Desert (Shetty and Singh, 1987; Kumar and Sane, 2003). As with many sub-tropical and tropical South East Asian countries in which it has been introduced (Chen et al., 2003b; Elliott et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2011, 2012; Klonowska et al., 2012; Andrus et al., 2012), M. pudica in India is mainly nodulated by Betaproteobacteria in the genera Burkholderia and Cupriavidus (Verma et al., 2004; this study). The degree to which *M. pudica* is nodulated by each beta-rhizobial genus, Burkholderia or Cupriavidus, appears to depend upon the location; in Taiwan and New Caledonia it is almost exclusively nodulated by Cupriavidus (Chen et al., 2003b; Klonowska et al., 2012), whereas in southern China and the Philippines it is nodulated by a relatively equal proportion of both genera. In India, it was previously shown by Verma et al. (2004) that M. pudica was nodulated by *Cupriavidus* in two locations, one in the north (Uttar Pradesh) and the other in the south (Tamil Nadu). The present study has confirmed that Cupriavidus strains similar to C. taiwanensis are common symbionts of M. pudica in several other locations in India, but has gone further and shown for the first time that strains in the species *B. mimosarum* and *B. phymatum* are also common M. pudica symbionts, and even that some Rhizobium strains (e.g. MP10, which is similar to R. vallis; Wang et al., 2011) can be symbiotic with this species in India. Our study of M. pudica symbionts in India has some parallels with that of Liu et al. (2012) from southern China, in which the same three species, C. taiwanensis, B. mimosarum and B. phymatum, were always found to nodulate M. pudica in varying proportions depending upon location, but the present study differs from Liu et al. (2012) in that some sites in India were dominated by one symbiont type, e.g. Haridwar (UT), Agra (UP) and Bangalore (KA) by C. taiwanensis, Bokaro (JH) by B. phymatum, and Shillong (ME) by B. mimosarum, whereas others, such as Jorhat (AS), had *M. pudica* plants that were nodulated with all three symbiont types.

# Are soil characteristics and/or plant taxonomy and geographical isolation responsible for the selection of symbionts by native and invasive Indian Mimosa spp.?

The results from this study have shown clearly that the rhizobial symbionts of native and invasive *Mimosa* spp. in India are distinct and host-specific, and are most likely not shared between the two types. In the case of the native species, *M. hamata* and *M. himalayana* are both nodulated by *Ensifer*, but the fact that these symbionts are more closely related to those of other Mimosoideae in the same region suggests that their geographical isolation of approx. 10 Myr from the main centres of Mimosa diversity in the New World (Simon et al., 2011) has resulted in these *Mimosa* spp. evolving a relationship with variants of the 'local' mimosoid symbionts rather than with the Burkholderia symbionts (Bontemps et al., 2010) of their closest New World relatives in Brazil (Simon et al., 2011). Indeed, in the case of *M. hamata*, it has become so adapted to its particular environment in the Thar Desert that it appears no longer to be capable of nodulating effectively with other Mimosa-nodulating rhizobia of any type, and this could be related to the high pH and low fertility of the soils in this region (Sprent and Gehlot, 2010; Gehlot et al., 2012). Mimosa himalayana, by contrast, which is a more widespread species than M. hamata, has retained the ability of its South American ancestors to nodulate with Burkholderia (Elliott et al., 2007a), and thus it also appears to be adaptable to several soil types. It can nodulate in low-fertility Thar Desert soils and in more fertile soils in its native range and in Bokaro (JH). Of potentially even more significance is the fact that, unlike the closely related M. hamata, M. himalayana can nodulate so effectively in Brazilian cerrado Mimosa rhizospheric soils. However, given its ability to nodulate with Burkholderia and the preponderance of native and endemic Mimosa spp. nodulated by Burkholderia in cerrado soils (Bontemps et al., 2010; dos Reis Junior et al., 2010), it is surprising that the symbionts isolated from the M. himalayana trap plants were all closely related to E. mexicanum, a species originally isolated from nodules on Acaciella spp. in Mexico (Toledo et al., 2003; Rincón-Rosales et al., 2009). Further studies are currently being undertaken to determine the origin (i.e. the original hosts) of these symbionts in Brazil, and to characterize them in terms of their symbiosisrelated genes.

In contrast to the native species, no *M. pudica* plants from any of the sites/soils were nodulated with Ensifer spp., even when they were nodulated after being sown into M. hamata rhizospheric soils from Jodhpur. It thus appears that M. pudica in India is nodulated by the same types of symbionts as in other Asian locations, including neighbouring China (Liu et al., 2011, 2012), and that as with other invasive legumes (e.g. Acacia saligna; Crisóstomo et al., 2013) it most likely brings its symbionts with it as it invades new territories, including those that are already occupied by native Mimosa spp. These symbionts are (mainly) a combination of beta-rhizobial types, and the type (or combination of types) depends on the location, but what is it about each location that might be involved in their selection? Soil characteristics are considered to be important for the selection of symbionts by invasive Mimosa spp., especially soil pH (Bontemps et al., 2010; dos Reis Junior et al., 2010; Mishra et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2012) and fertility (Elliott et al., 2009). Low fertility (i.e. low soil N-concentration) generally favours the selection of Burkholderia as symbionts by Mimosa spp., almost to the complete exclusion of other rhizobial types, but this dominance is broken in favour of C. taiwanensis as soil N-concentrations increase (Elliott et al., 2009). In the case of pH, it has been noted from studies on M. pudica symbionts in French Guiana (Mishra et al., 2012) and southern China (Liu et al., 2012) that soils with values below pH 7.0 harbour plants that are generally nodulated by Burkholderia spp., whereas plants growing in soils with higher pH values are likely to have C. taiwanensis as their symbionts. With the exception of the lowfertility alkaline soils in Jodhpur (RJ) (pH 8.2) that resulted in

*M. pudica* trap plants selecting *C. taiwanensis*, and the acidic soils in Shillong (ME) (pH. 4.9) that resulted in *M. pudica* selecting *B. mimosarum*, there are no clear reasons as to why the soils in many of the locations in the present study produced the particular *M. pudica* symbionts that they did based upon pH and fertility alone. However, sampling from *M. pudica* was very low for each site, as the study was designed only to get a wider picture of the variety of symbionts nodulating this invasive species in India, and more in-depth sampling will almost certainly show that the diversity of *M. pudica* symbionts at each site is much more complex than has been demonstrated here.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available online at www.oab.oxfordjournals.org and consist of the following. Figure S1: map of India showing locations where *Mimosa* nodules and/or rhizosphere soil were collected, and from which species. Figure S2: immunogold-labelled sections of nodules of *Mimosa* spp. sampled from plants collected in the field from various locations in India. Figure S3: cross-inoculation tests with Indian and Mexican rhizobial strains on various *Mimosa* species.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Prof. N. S. Shekhawat, Dr H. R. Dagla, Dr J. C. Tarafdar and Dr Neelam Poonar for their valuable suggestions, soil information and sample collections during field trips, Valter Baura and Emanuel de Souza at UFPR for sequencing (funded by INCT-FBN/CNPq), and Esperanza Martinez-Romero for *R. etli* bv. *mimosae* Mim-1 and seeds of *M. affinis*. This work was supported in part by a grant from the College of Letters and Sciences, University of Wisconsin Milwaukee, to P.G. and Department of Biotechnology, Government of India funded research project (BT/PR11461/AGR/21/270/2008) to Gehlot Hukam. N.T., A.T., I.S.S. and N.P. would like to thank the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) and the University Grant Commission (UGC), New Delhi, for financial assistance in the form of senior research fellowships.

#### LITERATURE CITED

- Ali SI. 1973. Mimosaceae In: Nasir E, Ali SI. eds. *Flora of western Pakistan*, vol. 36. Karachi, Pakistan: Stewart Herbarium, 1–41.
- Andam CP, Mondo SJ, Parker MA. 2007. Monophyly of nodA and nifH genes across Texan and Costa Rican populations of Cupriavidus nodule symbionts. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 73: 4686–4690.
- Andrus AD, Andam C.P, Parker MA. 2012. American origin of *Cupriavidus* bacteria associated with invasive *Mimosa* legumes in the Philippines. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology* 80: 747–750.
- Bala A, Giller KE. 2001. Symbiotic specificity of tropical tree rhizobia for host legumes. *New Phytology* 149: 495–507.
- Bala A, Murphy P, Giller KE. 2003. Distribution and diversity of rhizobia nodulating agroforestry legumes in soils from three continents in the tropics. *Molecular Ecology* 12: 917–929.
- Barneby RC. 1991. Sensitivae Censitae: a description of the genus Mimosa Linnaeus (Mimosaceae) in the New World. Memoirs of the New York Botanical Garden 65: 1–835.
- Barrett CF, Parker MA. 2005. Prevalence of *Burkholderia* sp. nodule symbionts on four mimosoid legumes from Barro Colorado Island, Panama. *Systematic and Applied Microbiolgy* 28: 57–65.
- Barrett CF, Parker MA. 2006. Coexistence of Burkholderia, Cupriavidus, and Rhizobium sp. nodule bacteria on two Mimosa spp. in Costa Rica. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 72: 1198–1206.

- Ben Romdhane S, Nasr H, Samba-Mbaye R, Neyra M, Ghorbal MH, de Lajudie P. 2006. Genetic diversity of *Acacia tortilis* ssp. *raddiana* rhizobia in Tunisia assessed by 16S and 16S-23S rDNA genes analysis. *Journal of Applied Microbiology* 100: 436–445
- Benata H, Mohammed Ö, Noureddine B, et al. 2008. Diversity of bacteria that nodulate Prosopis juliflora in the eastern area of Morocco. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 31: 378–386.
- Bontemps C, Elliott GN, Simon MF, et al. 2010. Burkholderia species are ancient symbionts of legumes. Molecular Ecology 19: 44–52.
- Bora PJ, Kumar Y. 2003. Floristic diversity of Assam: Study of Pabitora Wildlife Sanctuary. Delhi: Daya Publishing House.
- Chen W-M, Laevens S, Lee TM, Coenye T, de Vos P, Mergeay M, Vandamme P. 2001. Ralstonia taiwanensis sp. nov., isolated from root nodules of Mimosa species and sputum of a cystic fibrosis patient. International Journal Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 51: 1729–1735.
- Chen W-M, James EK, Prescott AR, Kierans M, Sprent JI. 2003a. Nodulation of *Mimosa* spp. by the β-proteobacterium *Ralstonia taiwanensis*. *Molecular Plant–Microbe Interactions* 16: 151–1061.
- Chen W-M, Moulin L, Bontemps C, Vandamme P, Béna G, Boivin-Masson C. 2003b. Legume symbiotic nitrogen fixation by β-proteobacteria is wide-spread in nature. *Journal of Bacteriology* 185: 7266–7272.
- Chen W-M, de Faria S.M, Straliotto R, et al. 2005a. Proof that Burkholderia forms effective symbioses with legumes: a study of novel Mimosanodulating strains from South America. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 71: 7461–7471.
- Chen W-M, James EK, Chou J-H, Sheu S-Y, Yang SZ, Sprent JI. 2005b. Beta-rhizobia from *Mimosa pigra*, a newly-discovered invasive plant in Taiwan. *New Phytologist* 168: 661–675.
- Chen W-M, James EK, Coenye T, et al. 2006. Burkholderia mimosarum sp. nov., isolated from root nodules of Mimosa spp. from Taiwan and South America. Intenational Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 56: 1847–1851.
- Crisóstomo JA, Rodríguez-Echeverría S, Freitas H. 2013. Co-introduction of exotic rhizobia to the rhizosphere of the invasive legume *Acacia saligna*, an intercontinental study. *Applied Soil Ecology* **64**: 118–126.
- Cummings SP, Gyaneshwar P, Vinuesa P, et al. 2009. Nodulation of Sesbania species by Rhizobium (Agrobacterium) strain IRBG74 and other rhizobia. Environmental Microbiology 11: 2510–2525.
- Dehio C, Meyer M. 1997. Maintenance of broad-host range incompatibility group P and group Q plasmids and transposition of Tn5 in *Bartonella hen*selae following conjugal transfer from *Escherichia coli*. Journal of Bacteriology 179: 538–540.
- de Lajudie P, Willems A, Pot B, et al. 1994. Polyphasic taxonomy of rhizobia. Emendation of the genus Sinorhizobium and description of Sinorhizobium meliloti comb. nov., Sinorhizobium saheli sp. nov. & Sinorhizobium teranga sp. nov. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 44: 715–733.
- dos Reis Junior FB, Simon MF, Gross E, et al. 2010. Nodulation and nitrogen fixation by *Mimosa* spp. in the Cerrado and Caatinga biomes of Brazil. *New Phytologist* 186: 934–946.
- Elliott GN, Chen W-M, Chou J-H, et al. 2007a. Burkholderia phymatum is a highly effective nitrogen-fixing symbiont of *Mimosa* spp. and fixes nitrogen ex planta. New Phytologist **173**: p168–180.
- Elliott GN, Chen W-M, Bontemps C, et al. 2007b. Nodulation of Cyclopia spp. (Leguminosae, Papilionoideae) by Burkholderia tuberum. Annals of Botany 100: 1403–1411.
- Elliott GN, Chou J-H, Chen W-M, et al. 2009. Burkholderia spp. are the most competitive symbionts of *Mimosa*, particularly under N-limited conditions. Environmental Microbiology 11: 762–778.
- Felsenstein J. 1985. Confidence limits on phylogenies: an approach using the bootstrap. *Evolution* **39**: 783–791.
- Gamble JS. 1920. The Indian species of Mimosa. Bulletin of Miscellaneous Information, Kew 1920: 1-6.
- Garau G, Yates RJ, Deiana P, Howieson JG. 2009. Novel strains of nodulating *Burkholderia* have a role in nitrogen fixation with papilionoid herbaceous legumes adapted to acid, infertile soils. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* **41**: 125–134.
- Gehlot HS, Panwar D, Tak N, *et al.* 2012. Nodulation of legumes from the Thar desert of India and molecular characterization of their rhizobia. *Plant and Soil* 357: 227–243.
- Graham PH. 2008. Ecology of the root-nodule bacteria of legumes. In Dilworth MJ, James EK, Sprent JI, Newton WE. eds. *Nitrogen-fixing legume symbioses*. Dordrecht: Springer, 23–58.

- Gyaneshwar P, Hirsch AM, Moulin L, et al. 2011. Legume-nodulating betaproteobacteria: diversity, host range and future prospects. *Molecular Plant–Microbe Interactions* 24: 1276–1288.
- Haukka K, Lindström K, Young JPW. 1998. Three phylogenetic groups of nodA and nifH genes in Sinorhizobium and Mesorhizobium isolates from leguminous trees growing in Africa and Latin America. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 64: 419–426.
- Howieson JG, DeMeyer SE, Vivas-Marfisi A, Ratnayake S, Ardley JK, Yates RJ. 2013. Novel Burkholderia bacteria isolated from Lebeckia ambigua – A perennial suffrutescent legume of the fynbos. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 60: 55–64.
- Kimura M. 1980. A simple method for estimating evolutionary rate of base substitutions through comparative studies of nucleotide sequences. *Journal of Molecular Evolution* 16: 111–120.
- Klonowska A, Chaintreuil C, Tisseyre P, et al. 2012. Biodiversity of Mimosa pudica rhizobial symbionts (Cupriavidus taiwanensis, Rhizobium mesoamericanum) in New Caledonia and their adaptation to heavy metal-rich soils. FEMS Microbiology Ecology 81: 618–635.
- Kobayashi H, Broughton WJ. 2008. Fine-tuning of symbiotic genes in rhizobia: flavonoid signal transduction cascade. In Dilworth MJ, James EK, Sprent JI, Newton WE. eds. *Nitrogen-fixing legume symbioses*. Dordrecht: Springer, 117–152.
- Kumar S, Sane PV. 2003. Legumes of South Asia: a check list. Kew: Royal Botanic Gardens.
- Liu XY, Wei W, Wang ET, Zhang B, Macdermott J, Chen WX. 2011. Phylogenetic relationships and diversity of beta-rhizobia associated with *Mimosa* spp. grown in Sishuangbanna, China. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* 61: 334–342.
- Liu XY, Wei S, Wang F, et al. 2012. Burkholderia and Cupriavidus spp. are the preferred symbionts of Mimosa spp. in Southern China. FEMS Microbiology Ecology 80: 417–426.
- Lloret L, Ormeño-Orrillo E, Rincón R, Martinez-Romero J, Rogel-Hernandez MA, Martinez-Romero E. 2007. Ensifer mexicanus sp. nov. a new species nodulating Acacia angustissima (Mill.) Kuntze in Mexico. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 30: 280–290.
- Martinez-Romero E. 2009. Coevolution in *Rhizobium*-legume symbiosis? DNA and Cell Biology 28: 361–370.
- McInroy SG, Campbell CD, Haukka KE, et al. 1999. Characterisation of rhizobia from African acacias and other tropical woody legumes using Biolog and partial 16S rRNA sequencing. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* **170**: 111–117.
- Mishra RPN, Tisseyre P, Melkonian R, et al. 2012. Genetic diversity of Mimosa pudica rhizobial symbionts in soils of French Guiana: investigating the origin and diversity of Burkholderia phymatum and other beta-rhizobia. FEMS Microbiology Ecology 79: 487–503.
- Moreira FMS, Haukka K, Young JPW. 1998. Biodiversity of rhizobia isolated from a wide range of forest legumes in Brazil. *Molecular Ecology* 7: 889–895.
- Moulin L, Béna G, Boivin-Masson C, Stepkowski T. 2004. Phylogenetic analyses of symbiotic nodulation genes support vertical and lateral gene co-transfer within the *Bradyrhizobium* genus. *Molecular Phylogenetic Evolution* 30: 720–732.
- Nick G, de Lajudie P, Eardly BD, et al. 1999. Sinorhizobium arboris sp. nov. and Sinorhizobium kostiense sp. nov., isolated from leguminous trees in Sudan and Kenya. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 49: 1359–1368.
- Parker MA, Wurtz AK, Paynter Q. 2007. Nodule symbiosis of invasive Mimosa pigra in Australia and in ancestral habitats: a comparative analysis. Biological Invasions 9: 127–138.
- Perret X, Broughton WJ. 1998. Rapid identification of *Rhizobium* strains by targeted PCR fingerprinting. *Plant and Soil* 204: 21–34.
- Pueppke SG, Broughton WJ. 1999. *Rhizobium* sp. strain NGR234 and USDA257 share exceptionally broad, nested host ranges. *Molecular Plant–Microbe Interactions* 12: 293–318.
- Räsänen IA, Sprent JI, Lindström K. 2001. Symbiotic properties of sinorhizobia from Acacia and Prosopis nodules in Sudan and Senegal. Plant and Soil 235: 193–210.
- Rincón-Rosales R, Lloret L, Ponce E, Martínez-Romero E. 2009. Rhizobia with different symbiotic efficiencies nodulate Acaciella angustissima in Mexico, including Sinorhizobium chiapanecum sp. nov. which has common symbiotic genes with Sinorhizobium mexicanum. FEMS Microbiology Ecology 67: 103–117.

- Rogel MA, Ormeño-Orrillo E, Martinez Romero E. 2011. Symbiovars in rhizobia reflect bacterial adaptation to legumes. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* 34: 96–104.
- Saitou N, Nei M. 1987. The neighbor-joining method: a new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 4: 406–425.
- Shetty BV, Singh V. 1987. Flora of Rajasthan, Vol. 1. Kolkata: Botanical Survey of India.
- Simon MF, Proença C. 2000. Phytogeographic patterns of *Mimosa* (Mimosoideae, Leguminosae) in the Cerrado biome of Brazil: an indicator genus of high altitude centers of endemism? *Biological Conservation* 96: 279–296.
- Simon MF, Grether R, Queiroz LP, Sarkinen TE, Dutra VF, Hughes CE. 2011. The evolutionary history of *Mimosa* (Leguminosae): towards a phylogeny of the sensitive plants. *American Journal of Botany* 98: 1201–1221.
- Sprent JI. 2009. Legume nodulation. A global perspective. Chichester, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Sprent JI, Gehlot HS. 2010. Nodulated legumes in arid and semi-arid environments: are they important? *Plant Ecology and Diversity* 3: 211–219.
- Talbi C, Delgado MJ, Girard L, Ramirez-Trujillo A, Caballero-Mellado J, Bedmar EJ. 2010. Burkholderia phymatum strains capable of nodulating Phaseolus vulgaris are present in Moroccan soils. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 76: 4587–4591.
- Tamura K, Peterson D, Peterson N, Stecher G, Nei M, Kumar S. 2011. MEGA5: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis using maximum likelihood, evolutionary distance, and maximum parsimony methods. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 28: 2731–2739.
- Thompson JD, Gibson TJ, Plewniak F, Jeanmougin F, Higgins DG. 1997. The ClustalX–windows interface: flexible strategies for multiple sequence alignment aided by quality analysis tools. *Nucleic Acids Research* 24: 4876–4882.
- Toledo I, Lloret L, Martinez-Romero E. 2003. Sinorhizobium americanus sp. nov., a new Sinorhizobium species nodulating native Acacia spp. in Mexico. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 26: 54–64.

- Verma SC, Chowdhury SP, Tripathi AK. 2004. Phylogeny based on 16S rDNA and *nifH* sequences of *Ralstonia taiwanensis* strains isolated from nitrogenfixing nodules of *Mimosa pudica* in India. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology* 50: 313–322.
- Vincent JM. 1970. A manual for the practical study of root nodule bacteria. Oxford: Blackwell Scientific Publications.
- Wang ET, Rogel MA, García-de los Santos A, Martínez-Romero J, Cevallos MA, Martínez-Romero E. 1999. Rhizobium etli bv. mimosae, a novel biovar isolated from Mimosa affinis. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 49: 1479–1491.
- Wang F, Wang ET, Wu LJ, Sui XH, Li YJr, Chen WX. 2011. Rhizobium vallis sp. nov., isolated from nodules of three leguminous species. International Journal of Systemtaic and Evolutionary Microbiology 61: 2582–2588.
- Weisburg WG, Barns SM, Pelletier DA, Lane DJ. 1991. 16S ribosomal DNA amplification for phylogenetic study. *Journal of Bacteriology* 173: 697–703.
- Wilson K, Sessitsch A, Corbo JC, Giller KE, Akkermans ADL, Jefferson RA. 1995. β-Glucuronidase (GUS) transposons for ecological and genetic studies of rhizobia and other Gram-negative bacteria. *Microbiology* 141: 1691–1705.
- Wolde-Meskel E, Terefework Z, Frostegård A, Lindström K. 2005. Genetic diversity and phylogeny of rhizobia isolated from agroforestry legume species in southern Ethiopia. *International Journal of Systemtatic and Evolutionary Microbiology* 55: 1439–1452.
- Xu KW, Penttinen P, Chen YX, Chen Q, Zhang X. 2013. Symbiotic efficiency and phylogeny of the rhizobia isolated from *Leucaena leucocephala* in arid–hot river valley area in Panxi, Sichuan, China. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* **97**: 783–793.
- Young JPW. 2005. The phylogeny and evolution of nitrogenases. In: Palacios R, Newton WE. eds. *Genomes and genomics of nitrogen-fixing organisms*. Dordrecht: Springer, 221–241.