



## Article

# Towards Zinc Biofortification in Chickpea: Performance of Chickpea Cultivars in Response to Soil Zinc Application

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**Abstract:** A field experiment was conducted at three locations in the southern region of Ethiopia during the 2012 and 2013 cropping seasons to evaluate chickpea cultivars for their response to soil zinc application, including agronomic performance, grain yield, grain zinc concentration, zinc and agronomic efficiency. Fifteen chickpea cultivars were evaluated in a randomized complete block design with three replications at each location and year. The highest number of pods (237) plant<sup>-1</sup> was obtained from Butajira local landrace. The cultivar Naatolii produced the highest grain yield (2895 kg·ha<sup>-1</sup>), while the breeding line FLIP03-53C had the lowest yield (1700 kg·ha<sup>-1</sup>). The highest zinc concentrations of 47.5, 47.4, and 46.4 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> grain were obtained from the cultivar Arerti, and the two breeding lines FLIP07-27C and FLIP08-60C, respectively. The highest zinc efficiency (88%) was obtained from the Wolayita local landrace, whereas the highest agronomic efficiency of 68.4 kg yield increase kg<sup>-1</sup> zinc application was obtained from the cultivar Naatolii. The current research identified chickpea cultivars with high grain zinc concentration, zinc efficiency, agronomic efficiency, and grain yield. The identification of cultivars with high grain zinc concentration allows the use of chickpea as a potential alternative to help to correct zinc deficiency, which is highly prevalent in the population of the region.

**Keywords:** chickpea; cultivars; zinc application; grain zinc concentration; biofortification

## 1. Introduction

Chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) is an important grain legume in the world ranking second after dry bean and constitutes 20% of the world's pulses production [1]. The crop plays an important role in human diet and agricultural systems [2]. Chickpea is high in protein, low in fat and sodium, cholesterol free, and is an excellent source of both soluble and insoluble fiber, complex carbohydrates, vitamins, folate, and minerals, especially calcium, phosphorus, iron, zinc, and magnesium [3–5].

Ethiopia is the largest producer of chickpea in Africa, accounting for 46% of the continent's chickpea production during 1994–2006 [6]. In 2011, Ethiopia produced 400,208 tons of chickpea from a total area of 231,300 hectares [7]. In 2012, the chickpea seeded area in Ethiopia increased by 8200 hectares from the previous year, totaling 239,500 hectares with the total production of about 409,733 tons [8]. The consistent increase in cultivated area and production implies the importance of the crop to the country.

Currently, there are major challenges to chickpea production in Ethiopia, such as soil nutrient deficiency of both macro and micronutrients, since the crop is often grown on marginal land, limited

availability of improved cultivars, diseases, insects, and moisture stress. Chickpea, in particular, is considered highly sensitive to zinc deficiency, which is common in the major chickpea-growing regions of the world, including Ethiopia, and limits the crop productivity [9].

Wuehler et al. reported that approximately 20.5% of the world's population is estimated to be at risk of inadequate Zn intake, with the percentage of individuals at risk highest in the South East Asia (33%) followed by Sub Saharan Africa (28%), South Asia (27%), Latin America and the Caribbean (25%) [10]. In Ethiopia, micronutrient deficiency remains a significant public health concern, especially deficiencies in iron, vitamin A, folic acid, iodine, and zinc (Zn), affecting the physical and mental functioning and growth, brain development during pregnancy, visual impairment, increased susceptibility to diseases, and increased mortality risk [11]. The problem is more acute in southern Ethiopia where the diets are heavily dependent on cereals and root crops, which inherently are low in micronutrients and high in carbohydrates.

A number of studies have reported the growth and yield responses of chickpea cultivars grown under micronutrient deficient soils [12–16]. The magnitude of yield losses in chickpea due to nutrient deficiency varies among the nutrients [17]. The use of fertilizer can be considered an important complementary approach to the breeding efforts to develop cultivars adapted to soils with low micronutrient availability. A recent report by Shivay et al. [18] indicated that the application of Zn had a positive effect on grain yield and seed Zn concentration, especially under Zn deficient soils. However, such information for Ethiopian agro-climatic and diverse soil conditions and the currently available chickpea cultivars is not available.

Sadeghzadeh reported that plant cultivars vary in their tolerance to soils with low plant-available Zn with respect to Zn uptake and utilization [19]. Tolerance of plant cultivars to Zn deficiency is usually referred to as Zn efficiency and is defined as the ability of a cultivar to grow and yield well in soils that are deficient in Zn to support a given cultivar. The physiological and molecular mechanisms of tolerance to low Zn are just beginning to be understood, and these mechanisms can be exploited in crop improvement programs [20]. Cultivars with better Zn utilization may contain higher amounts of chelators that bind Zn and increase its physiological availability at the cellular level [21]. A better understanding of the response to zinc deficiency of different cultivars is needed for the development of fast, simple, and reliable screening procedures for identifying and breeding cultivars for Zn efficiency [22].

The experiment presented in this paper was conducted to examine the response to soil zinc application of chickpea cultivars available in the southern region of Ethiopia. Specifically, we evaluated the grain zinc concentration, zinc and agronomic efficiency, general agronomic performance, and yield potential of the released chickpea cultivars, newly introduced breeding lines, and local landraces in response to soil Zn application.

## 2. Results

The variations among cultivars, environments, and their interactions for most of the parameters were significant. However, grain zinc concentration was not affected by this interaction (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Analysis of variance table showing mean squares (MS) of the effect of ENV (site-year) and their interaction on plant height, biomass, pods plant<sup>−1</sup>, seed weight, and grain zinc concentration across 15 chickpea cultivars and breeding lines (GEN).

Sources of Variation	df	Plant Height	Biomass	Pods Plant <sup>−1</sup>	1000 Seed Weight	Grain Yield	Grain Zn
ENV	5	1082 **	543,137,609 **	84,752 **	6191 **	8000.8 **	2757 **
REP(ENV)	12	69	1,938,876	1708	183	24.8 *	50
GEN	14	911 **	2,826,672	3094 **	98,717 **	152.2	99 **
ENV × GEN	70	61 **	2,017,462 **	832 **	573 **	90.6 ***	30
ERROR	168	22	537,045	390	274	11.6	23
CV%		6.52	13.54	23.67	5.96	6.8%	10.89

\* = significant at 5%, \*\* = significant at 1%, df = degrees of freedom, REP = replication, CV = coefficient of variation.











and FLIP08-60C) had the highest seed zinc concentration compared to the rest of the cultivars and breeding lines. Several authors reported that there are significant variations in seed zinc concentration among chickpea cultivars [4,23–25]. The variation in seed zinc concentration of the current chickpea cultivars and breeding lines could be due to variation in seed physiology, morphology, and tissue zinc distribution, which all are under genetic control [26,27]. The variation in grain zinc concentration among the environments was also significant in the present study. The variation in grain Zn concentration across environments was due to the amount and distribution of rainfall. Moisture stress occurred at vegetative and pod setting stage may have reduced zinc absorption and accumulation in the seeds, as shown across locations in 2012; while relatively sufficient moisture was available in 2013, resulting in higher grain yield, but dilution of grain zinc by grain carbohydrate increments. Previously, significant environment variation in grain zinc concentration was reported [4,28]. When the soil remains wet and becomes reduced, the availability of Mn, Fe, Cu, and P usually increases, and this condition is reversed under dry soil conditions [29].

The variation in zinc efficiency between the highest and the lowest cultivars was about 167%. The physiological basis for Zn efficiency and its importance for plant adaptation under low soil Zn availability have been reported by several authors [30–32]. The genotypic differences in Zn efficiency may be associated with different mechanisms in rhizosphere and within a plant system. These included higher uptake of zinc by roots and efficient use and re-translocation of Zn [31]. Cakmak et al. [33] reported that Zn efficiency in cereal is mainly related to the difference in the acquisition of Zn by the roots. Graham and Rengel [34] reported that plant species vary significantly in response to micronutrient deficiency; some are able to cope with low micronutrient availability, and thus, grow well even when other species or cultivars suffer from reduced yield due to micronutrient deficiency.

Our results demonstrated that chickpea is a rich source of zinc (3.99–4.75 mg 100 g<sup>-1</sup>). Similar results were observed previously [35]. Serving 42 g grain seeds of chickpea cultivars Arerti and FLIP07-27C (47.5 and 47.4 mg zinc kg<sup>-1</sup> seed, respectively) could provide adequate zinc for infants 0–6 months; 63 g for 7 months–3 years; 105 g for 4–8 years; 168 g for 8–13 years; 232 g for 14+ years male and 19+ years pregnant; 253 g for 14–18 years pregnant and 19+ years lactating mother; and 274 g for 14–18 years lactating mother [36]. Thus, a single serving of zinc enriched chickpea could provide a marked amount of the recommended daily allowance (RDA) of zinc. Identification of cultivars with better zinc concentration like Arerti and FLIP07-27C may enable the use of chickpea as a potential whole food solution to micronutrient malnutrition in Ethiopia.

## 4. Materials and Methods

### 4.1. Description of the Study Area

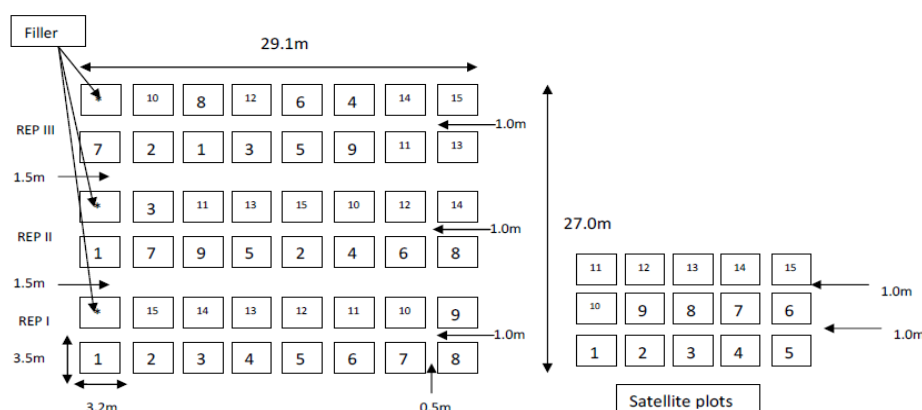
The experiment was conducted at three locations (Huleteгна Choroko, Jolle Andegna, and Taba) in the Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples Region of Ethiopia during the growing seasons from August to December of 2012 and 2013. The altitude of the test locations ranges from 1807 to 1923 meters above sea level (m a.s.l.), annual rainfall ranged from 774 mm to 989 mm (which is ideal for chickpea production). The amount of rainfall in the 2012 growing season was much lower than that in the 2013 growing season, especially in October and November when the plants were at flowering and pod filling stages, respectively (Table 9).





#### 4.4. Design of the Experiment and Trial Management

A randomized complete block design (RCBD) with three replications was used for the experiment at each location and year. Plot size was 11.2 m<sup>2</sup>, consisting of eight rows that were 3.5 m long each (Figure 1). Inter and intra-row spacing was 40 cm and 10 cm, respectively, resulting in 35 plants per row and 280 plants per plot. Di-ammonium phosphate (DAP) (18:46:0; N:P:K) at the rate of 60 kg·ha<sup>-1</sup> was uniformly applied followed by zinc fertilizer (ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O) at 25 kg·ha<sup>-1</sup> drilled in rows and incorporated into the soil before chickpea sowing. Similarly, these cultivars (Table 11) were evaluated separately with no zinc fertilization on satellite plots at each location in the 2013 cropping season for evaluation of grain yield, zinc concentration, and zinc and agronomic efficiency. The experiments were planted at different dates across the locations and years based on the rainfall pattern and soil moisture content. At Huleteгна Choroko the experiment was planted on 8 September 2012 and 23 August 2013. At Jolle Andegna, planting was done on 20 September 2012 and 4 September 2013, while at Taba planting was done on 14 September 2012 and 17 September 2013, respectively. Chickpeas are slow to emerge and initially grow slowly. They are notoriously poor competitors with weeds. Even moderate weed infestation can result in severe yield losses. Therefore, the plots were thoroughly and frequently weeded by hoeing and hand pulling when required. Herbicide was not used to control weeds. There was no serious problem of diseases or insects across the locations in both years.



**Figure 1.** Schematic diagram showing treatment randomization and the experiment set up of satellite plots at one location. The same set up was used for each location and year. Plot sizes are the same for both experimental plots and satellite plots. Note: 1 = Arerti; 2 = Butajira Local; 3 = Cheffe; 4 = Ejeri; 5 = Habru; 6 = Mastewal; 7 = Naatolii; 8 = Shasho; 9 = Wolayita Local; 10 = FLIP03-53C; 11 = FLIP03-102C; 12 = FLIP03-128C; 13 = FLIP07-81C; 14 = FLIP08-60C; 15 = FLIP07-27C.

#### 4.5. Agronomic Data Collection

Plant height and number of pods plant<sup>-1</sup> were recorded from 10 randomly selected plants from the middle six rows of each plot. Seed weight was determined by randomly selecting 250 seeds (10% moisture content) then weighed with a digital balance sensitive to the nearest 0.001 g. The value was then converted to 1000 seeds weight. Above ground biomass and grain yield were measured from the harvested plants of the middle six rows at maturity. The grain yield per plot was adjusted to storage moisture content (10%) determined using a digital grain moisture tester (HOH-EXPRESS HE 50).

#### 4.6. Grain Analysis for Zinc Concentration

Grain zinc analysis was done at the College of Agriculture and Bioresources, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Canada. Subsamples of seed (25 g) for measurement of zinc concentration were taken from each plot at each location and year. The samples were dried in an oven at 70 °C for 24 h, and ground using a sample rotating mill. A ground sample of 0.5 g was weighed on a balance sensitive to the nearest 0.00001 g and put into a digestion tube. The samples were prepared by a standard

HNO<sub>3</sub>–H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> digestion method using wet digestion with nitric acid [42]. The Zn concentration was measured using flame AAS (AJ ANOVA 300, Lab Synergy). Zinc concentrations measured by this method were validated using the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) reference material 1573a. Lentil (*Lens culinaris*) seeds (cv. CDC Redberry) and wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) were used as laboratory reference materials and measured periodically to ensure consistency in the procedure.

Zinc efficiency (ZnE) and agronomic efficiency (AE) were calculated following [43] as follows:

$$ZE = \left( \frac{YdZn^-}{YdZn^+} \right) \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where ZE is Zinc efficiency, YdZn<sup>−</sup> is grain yield in no Zinc supplied, and YdZn<sup>+</sup> is grain from zinc fertilized plots;

$$AE = \frac{(YdZn^+) - (YdZn^-)}{ZnS} \quad (2)$$

where AE is Agronomic efficiency, YdZn<sup>+</sup> is grain yield from Zinc fertilized plots; YdZn<sup>−</sup> is grain yield from no Zinc application, and ZnS is supplied Zinc in kg·ha<sup>−1</sup>.

#### 4.7. Statistical Analysis

Each location-year combination was considered as a separate environment in this study, producing six environments (E1–E6) which were considered random. The General Linear Model (GLM) of the SAS software [44] was used for ANOVA of data from individual locations and for the combined data. Prior to the combined ANOVA, homogeneity of error variances over the six environments was tested. Mean separation was done using Least Significant Difference (LSD) test at the 5% level.

## 5. Conclusions

Chickpea cultivars evaluated in this study differed in grain zinc concentration, agronomic efficiency, zinc efficiency, growth, and yield. The cultivar with high yield and highest agronomic efficiency (Naatolii), the cultivar and breeding lines with better grain zinc concentration (Arerti, FLIP07-27C, and FLIP08-60C), and the cultivars with higher zinc efficiency (Wolayita landrace and breeding line FLIP07-27C) were identified. Serving chickpea grain seeds from the genotypes identified for their higher zinc concentrations could provide a marked amount of the recommended daily allowance (RDA) of zinc for infants, children, and pregnant and lactating mothers. This may enable development of chickpea-based whole food solutions to correct zinc malnutrition. Zn fertilization can also be blended with other Zn-containing fertilizer elements to reduce expenditure in terms of labor and time. Thus, this study provided a possibility for zinc biofortification through screening chickpea cultivars, which could be an attractive option for resource poor farmers across Ethiopia who cannot afford fortified foods or animal sources for their zinc nutritional requirement.

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**Author Contributions:** Legesse Hidoto is the student who conducted the experiment. Bunyamin Tar'an is co supervisor and corresponding author. Walelign Worku and Hussein Mohammed are major and co supervisors for the study, in same order.

**Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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