

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

ScienceDirect



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Genetic diversity of *Ustilago hordei* in Tibetan areas as revealed by RAPD and SSR

ZHOU Yu1^{*}, CHAO Gui-mei1^{*}, LIU Jia-jia¹, ZHU Ming-qi², WANG Yang², FENG Bai-li¹

¹ State Key Laboratory of Crop Stress Biology for Arid Areas/College of Agronomy, Northwest A&F University, Yangling 712100, P.R.China

² State Key Laboratory of Crop Stress Biology for Arid Areas/College of Plant Protection, Northwest A&F University, Yangling 712100, P.R.China

Abstract

Covered smut, which is caused by Ustilago hordei (Pers.) Lagerh., is one of the most damaging diseases of highland barley (Hordeum vulgare Linn. var. nudum Hook. f) in Tibetan areas of China. To understand the molecular diversity of U. hordei, a total of 27 isolates, which were collected from highland barley plants from Tibet, Sichuan, Qinghai, and Gansu provinces/ autonomous region, were analyzed using random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) and simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers. Among the 100 RAPD primers used, 24 primers exhibited polymorphism. A total of 111 fragments were amplified, of which 103 were polymorphic with a polymorphic rate of 92.79%. The average observed number of alleles (Na), effective number of alleles (Ne), Nei's genetic diversity (H), Shannon's information index (I) and polymorphism information content (PIC) value in the RAPD markers were 1.9279, 1.5016, 0.2974, 0.4503, and 0.6428, respectively. For the SSR markers, 40 of the 111 primer pairs exhibited polymorphism and provided a total of 119 bands, of which 109 were polymorphic and accounted for 91.60% of the total bands. The Na, Ne, H, I and PIC values of the SSR markers were 1.9160, 1.4639, 0.2757, 0.4211, and 0.4340, respectively. The similarity coefficients ranged from 0.4957 to 0.9261 with an average of 0.7028 among all the 27 isolates used. The dendrogram, which was developed based on the RAPD and SSR combined marker dataset showed that the 27 U. hordei isolates were divided into 3 clusters at similarity coefficient of 0.7314. We determined that RAPD and SSR markers can be successfully used to assess the genetic variation among U. hordei isolates. The RAPD markers revealed higher levels of genetic polymorphism than did the SSR markers in this study. There existed moderate genetic difference among isolates. The molecular variation and differentiation was somewhat associated with geographical origin but not for all of the isolates.

Keywords: highland barley, Ustilago hordei, RAPD, SSR, genetic diversity

1. Introduction

The Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (containing all of the Tibet Autonomous Region and Qinghai Province, the west of Sichuan Province, south of the Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, and part of Gansu and Yunnan provinces) is the largest plateau in China and is the highest in the world with an av-

Received 18 December, 2015 Accepted 16 May, 2016 ZHOU Yu, E-mail: yuzhou@nwsuaf.edu.cn; CHAO Gui-mei, E-mail: cgm880806@163.com; Correspondence FENG Bai-li, Tel/Fax: +86-29-87082899, E-mail: fengbaili@nwsuaf.edu.cn These authors contributed equally to this study.

^{© 2016,} CAAS. All rights reserved. Published by Elsevier Ltd. doi: 10.1016/S2095-3119(16)61413-2

erage elevation of 4000–5000 m. The specific geographic condition causes a distinctive agricultural ecosystem and species diversity in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau. Highland barley (Hordeum vulgare Linn. var. nudum Hook.f), also called hulless barley, is one of the most important crops in Tibetan areas of China. The cultivated area of highland barley accounts for 60% of the total grain acreage, and the vield accounts for more than 55% of the total grain output (Lou 2000). The covered smut of barley (H. vulgare L.), which is caused by Ustilago hordei (Pers.) Lagerh., occurs everywhere that barley grows. The occurrence of covered smut is 10% generally and can even reach 60%. Economic loss is due to not only a decreased yield but also teliospore contamination of healthy seeds (Mathre 1997). Hulless barley cultivars are more susceptible to covered smut than hulled barley (Grewal et al. 2006). The most efficient method to control covered smut is planting resistant cultivars. However, the genetic variation in the pathogen population reduces the efficiency of host resistance during disease management. Therefore, the knowledge of the variability of the pathogen population is significant for determining disease management strategies.

Variations in fungal pathogens have been traditionally characterized based on virulence, mating type, cultural characteristics, sporulation, morphology, host-parasite physiological and biochemical interaction and disease reaction on differential hosts. The U. hordei population has a variation in virulence, and it has been reported that there was differentiation in various aspects of the U. hordei races. Five races were first identified by Faris (1924a, b). Afterwards, many researchers identified U. hordei races in Canada (Aamodt and Johnston 1935; Semeniuk 1940), America (Tapke 1937, 1945), and China (Yu 1940; Yu and Fang 1945). Other differences among the isolates were also studied. Gaudet and Kiesling (1991) studied the aggressiveness and disease severity of 13 U. hordei races and isolates on Hannchen, Nepal and Odessa barleys, and they found significant variations in the head sorus type and peduncle compaction rating but none in the plant dwarfing. Hellmann and Christ (1991) examined 63 haploid U. hordei isolates from Ethiopia and North Dakota in the USA, for isozyme variation using starch gel electrophoresis. The results revealed that the isozyme variation was inconsistent with the pathogenicity, and they demonstrated that isozymes and buffer systems could not be used solely to identify U. hordei races. McCluskey and Mills (1990) used electrophoretic karyotypes to detect the variation of monosporidial strains that represented 14 U. hordei races. Their results implied that the chromosome length polymorphism and electrophoretic pattern of the total soluble proteins could not be efficiently used to differentiate the strains of U. hordei.

Morphological, physiological, and biochemical studies are

time-consuming and can be affected by the environment: thus, they are not very precise. However, a molecular marker, especially a DNA marker, can test the genetic variation of a material, which is more essential and accurate than other markers (Weising et al. 1995). Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD), which is based on PCR, is a molecular technique that is able to analyze the unknown sequence of the entire genome for polymorphism. Because of its richness of polymorphisms and high individual specific and environmental stability, RAPD has been widely used to analyze the genetic diversity of various species (Fernández et al. 2002: Shang and Song 2005: Du et al. 2011: Hu et al. 2012). Simple sequence repeat (SSR) has been used for fingerprinting, genetic diversity, genetic linkage mapping, and the quantitative trait locus (QTL) and population genetic structure studies because of its high number of available polymorphisms, good repeatability, co-dominance, and ubiquitous occurrence (Ellegren 2004). Recently, SSR has been used for studying plant fungal pathogens, such as Venturia inaequalis (Hu et al. 2008), Magnaporthe grisea (Shen et al. 2004), Phytophthora infestans (Zhao et al. 2008), and Rhynchosporium secalis (Bouajila et al. 2007). To our knowledge, U. hordei fingerprinting and genetic diversity studies that are based on DNA markers have not been conduct. Thus, the present study was designed to study the genetic variation of the U. hordei isolates collected from the Tibetan areas of China.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Isolates

A total of 27 *U. hordei* isolates were collected from different regions of Tibetan areas (Tibet, Sichuan, Qinghai and Gansu provinces/autonomous region) in China. The geographic origins and host lines of the isolates are listed in Table 1, and the distribution of these areas is shown on Fig. 1. Teliospores were collected from smutted ears of naturally-infected barley, suspended in sterile water, and smeared on PDA medium and incubated at 25°C for 3 d. Individual haploid isolates were obtained as described by McCluskey and Mills (1990).

2.2. DNA extraction

The method reported by Karwasra *et al.* (2002) was adapted for the DNA extraction. The concentration of DNA was determined using a spectrophotometer. The DNA was diluted to 100 ng μ L⁻¹ and stored at –20°C.

2.3. RAPD-PCR amplification

A total of 100 decamer primers were obtained from Shang-

Table T Geographic orgin and nost line of the ostilago norder isolates								
Isolate	Geographic origin	Host line	Isolate	Geographic origin	Host line			
1	Ganzi, Sichuan	Aqing 5	15	Lhunzhub, Tibet	Zangqing 690			
2	Danba, Sichuan	Aqing 4	16	Damxung, Tibet	Zangqing 690			
3	Daofu, Sichuan	Aqing 5	17	Nimu, Tibet	Zangqing 690			
4	Kangding, Sichuan	Kangqing 5	18	Mozhugongka, Tibet	Zangqing 690			
5	Jiulong, Sichuan	Kangqing 5	19	Qushui, Tibet	Zangqing 690			
6	Luhuo, Sichuan	Aqing 4	20	Gyangze, Tibet	Ximala 22			
7	Xinlong, Sichuan	Aqing 4	21	Shigatse, Tibet	Ximala 22			
8	Yajiang, Sichuan	Aqing 5	22	Langkazi, Tibet	Ximala 19			
9	Qamdo, Tibet	Zangqing 320	23	Gongbo'gyamda, Tibet	Zangqing 25			
10	Gonjo, Tibet	Zangqing 320	24	Nyingchi, Tibet	Zangqing 25			
11	Jomda, Tibet	Zangqing 320	25	Wulan, Qinghai	Chaiqing 1			
12	Luolong, Tibet	Zangqing 320	26	Dulan, Qinghai	Chaiqing 1			
13	Markam, Tibet	Zangqing 320	27	Xiahe, Gansu	Ganqing 1			
14	Baxoi, Tibet	Zangging 320						

Table 1 Geographic origin and host line of the Ustilago hordei isolates



Fig. 1 Map of sampling sites.

hai Sangon Biological Engineering Technology & Services Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China) and diluted to 2.5 ng μ L⁻¹. RAPD-PCR was performed in 10 μ L reaction volumes that contained 1 μ L of 10× buffersolution, 0.8 μ L of 25 mmol L⁻¹ MgCl₂, 0.2 μ L of 10 mmol L⁻¹ dNTP, 0.1 μ L of 100 ng μ L⁻¹ template DNA, 4 μ L of 2.5 ng μ L⁻¹ primer, 0.1 μ L of 5 U μ L⁻¹ *Taq* polymerase, and 3.8 μ L of ddH₂O. Amplification was performed using an Eppendorf Mastercycler (Eppendorf Netheler-Hinz GMBH, Germany), that was programmed, for initial denaturation at 94°C for 5 min, 50 cycles of 94°C for 40 s, 48°C for 70 s, and 72°C for 2 min. Amplification was completed with a 10-min final extension at 72°C. The amplified DNA samples were separated on 1.0% agarose gel at 120 V using 1× TAE. The gels were stained with ethidium bromide and photographed under UV light.

2.4. SSR-PCR amplification

The genomic sequences of U. hordei were downloaded

from Genbank (USA, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank) (Laurie et al. 2012). SSR loci were screened using the MISA program (http://pgrc.ipk-gatersleben.de/misa/) with the default parameters. Compound SSRs were defined as ≥2 SSRs interrupted by ≤100 bases (Sonah et al. 2011). Then 111 randomly selected primer pairs were synthesized (Shanghai Sangon Biological Engineering Technology & Services Co., Ltd., Shanghai, China). SSR-PCR was performed in 10 µL reaction volumes that contained 1 µL of 10× buffersolution, 0.8 µL of 25 mmol L⁻¹ MgCl₂, 0.2 µL of 10 mmol L⁻¹ dNTP, 0.1 µL of 100 ng µL⁻¹ template DNA, 1 μ L of 2.5 ng μ L⁻¹ primers mix, 0.05 μ L of 5 U μ L⁻¹ Taq polymerase, and 6.85 µL of ddH₂O. The amplification was conducted using an Eppendorf Mastercycler (Eppendorf Netheler-Hinz GMBH, Germany). PCR amplification was adopted, including initial denaturation at 94°C for 5 min, 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 58°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 30 s, and a 10-min final extension at 72°C. The PCR products were electrophoresed in a vertical 6% polyacrylamide gel with 1× TBE and stained using a 0.1% AgNO₃ solution.

2.5. Data analysis

Each fragment of the sampled *U. hordei* isolates that were obtained from the RAPD and SSR analyses was scored as a binary variable of 1 or 0 to indicate the presence or absence of the fragment, respectively. Popgene 32 software was used to calculate the observed number of alleles (*Na*), effective number of alleles (*Ne*), Nei's genetic diversity (*H*), and Shannon's information index (*I*). The polymorphism information content (*PIC*) value of the individual primer was calculated based on the formula: $PIC=2 \times F(1-F)$ (Anderson *et al.* 1993), where *F* is the frequency of marker fragments that were absent. *PIC* values greater than 0.5 indicate loci with a high polymorphism, values between 0.25

and 0.5 indicate loci with intermediate polymorphism, and values lower than 0.25 indicate loci with low polymorphism (Lamine and Mliki 2015). The genetic similarity coefficient was calculated using NTSYS 2.02 software. The correlation of similarity matrices, which was obtained from the RAPD and SSR profiles, was judged using two-way Mantel test (Mantel 1967) using MxComp Module of NTSYS 2.02. A dendrogram (phylogenetic tree) was constructed based on unweighted pair group method using arithmetic averages (UPGMA) using NTSYS 2.02 software. Bootstrap analysis with 1000 simulated samples was conducted using MEGA 6.06. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was also performed using NTSYS 2.02 software.

3. Results

3.1. RAPD analysis

100 random decamer oligonucleotide primers were used and 24 of them were polymorphic (Table 2). The number of amplified bands per primer ranged from 2 (S407) to 8 (S71 and S284) with an average of 4.6 bands per primer. A total of 111 bands amplified, of which 103 bands were polymorphic and the polymorphic rate was 92.79%. The fragments varied in size from 150 to 2000 bp. The amplification profile of one of the primers is presented in Fig. 2. The average *Na*, *Ne*, *H* and *I* values were 1.9279, 1.5016, 0.2974, and 0.4503, respectively. The highest *PIC* value (0.9409) was observed for primer S284 and the lowest *PIC*

Primer	Sequence (5'→3')	Bands	Polymorphic	
604	AATCOCCTC	4	Darius	0.0017
S24	CAAACCOCTC	4	3 E	0.2017
527	GAAACGGGTG	0	5	0.7217
S28	GIGACGIAGG	1	1	0.9164
S29	GGGTAACGCC	5	4	0.6356
S30	GTGATCGCAG	3	2	0.2817
S38	AGGTGACCGT	3	2	0.2407
S39	CAAACGTCGG	4	4	0.7621
S40	GTTGCGATCC	3	3	0.4942
S62	GTGAGGCGTC	6	6	0.8581
S65	GATGACCGCC	5	5	0.8622
S68	TGGACCGGTG	4	4	0.8493
S71	AAAGCTGCGG	8	8	0.9015
S282	CATCGCCGCA	4	3	0.4708
S284	GGCTGCAATG	8	8	0.9409
S286	AAGGCTCACC	5	5	0.7693
S287	AGAGCCGTCA	6	6	0.8378
S288	AGGCAGAGCA	5	4	0.6815
S289	AGCAGCGCAC	3	2	0.3681
S293	GGGTCTCGGT	3	3	0.4544
S294	GGTCGATCTG	4	4	0.6926
S401	GTTGGTGGCT	3	3	0.5612
S407	CCGTGACTCA	2	2	0.4175
S413	GGTGGTCAAG	6	6	0.6735
S414	AGGGTCGTTC	4	4	0.7550
Mean		4.6250	4.2917	0.6428
1)				

 Table 2
 Polymorphic profile and characteristics of the 24 random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) primers

¹⁾ PIC, polymorphism information content.

value (0.2407) was recorded for primer S38. The average *PIC* value was 0.6428.



Fig. 2 Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) profiling of *U. hordei* isolates with primer S38 (M, DL 2000 DNA marker; lanes 1–27, *U. hordei* isolates).

3.2. SSR analysis

In this analysis, 111 pairs of primers were used to amplify all of the genotypes, of which 40 provided reproducible and well-resolved bands (Table 3). The highest number of SSR bands was recorded for primers U47 and U108 (6 bands), followed by U30 and U88 (5 bands), whereas most of the other primers scored low (2 bands). There were 2.975 average bands amplified per primer. These primers produced 119 bands, of which 109 were polymorphic bands, which accounted for 91.60% of the total bands. The amplification profile of one of the primers is presented in Fig. 3. The average *Na*, *Ne*, *H*, and *I* values were 1.9160, 1.4639, 0.2757, and 0.4211, respectively. Primers U88 exhibited the highest *PIC* value (0.7502), and primers U15, U18, U27, and U93 exhibited the lowest *PIC* value (0.0688). The average *PIC* was 0.4340.

3.3. Cluster analysis

RAPD and SSR data sets were combined together to determine the genetic relationship between the different isolates. The correlation between the RAPD and SSR similarity coefficient matrices was 0.9249. The similarity coefficients, which were calculated based on the combined RAPD and SSR data, ranged from 0.4957 to 0.9261 with an average of 0.7028 among all of the 27 isolates. The nearest genetic distance occurred between isolates 22 and 21, which were collected from Langkazi and Shigatse, Tibet, and between isolates 22 and 15, which were collected from Langkazi and Lhunzhub, Tibet. The largest genetic distance occurred between isolates from Baxoi and Gyangze, Tibet. All above indicated that there was a moderate genetic difference among isolates.

The genetic relationship between the isolates is shown in the dendrogram which was obtained using UPGMA. The correlation coefficient between the dendrogram and its similarity matrix was 0.9355 indicating that the dendrogram may be a good representation of the genetic relationship. The dendrogram showed that all the isolates were divided into 3 clusters at the similarity coefficient of 0.7314 (Fig. 4). Cluster I consisted of 10 isolates, of which 2 isolates were collected from Sichuan Province and 8 isolates were collected from Tibet. Cluster II included 11 isolates, of which 5 isolates were collected from Sichuan Province, 3 isolates were from Tibet, 2 isolates were from Qinghai Province, and 1 isolate was from Gansu Province. There were 6 isolates grouped into cluster III, with 1 isolate from Sichuan Province and 5 from Tibet.

The result of the PCoA was consistent with the UPGMA

 Table 3
 Sequences of the simple sequence repeat (SSR) primers that were used in this study with the repeat motif, product size, bands, polymorphic bands and PIC

Primore	Sequence $(5' , 3')$	Popost motif	Product sizo	Bande	Polymorphic bands	PIC
	$\frac{1}{1} = \frac{1}{1} = \frac{1}$		202	Darius	roiymoipmic bands	0.0600
015		$(AT)_7$	203	2	2	0.0000
1140			100	0		0 000 -
U16	F: GAGCAGCGGGAAAACATA	$(AC)_7$	129	2	1	0.2205
	R: IGAGAAGAAAGCGAAACI					
U18	F: AACAGCAGCAGCCACCAG	(CA) ₇	111	2	1	0.0688
	R: AAGGCAAGAAGAAACAAGTCAA					
U19	F: GACAGTTAGAATGGGATGAG	(AGG) ₈	281	3	3	0.5561
	R: TGACCGTGCCACTTGAGA					
U20	F: ACAGAACGCTGCCCAAGT	(AG) ₁₈	154	2	2	0.3719
	R: TGCTGCGACAAAGTGAAA					
U21	F: GAGCACGACCATAGCCGAGGGA	(GAG) ₇	187	3	3	0.4230
	R: TGGGCAAAGCAACCACAACAGG	,				
U26	F: GACCGCACGACAAGCAGA	(TG) ₆	207	2	1	0.2205
	R: CCTTCATCCATCAACCACC	0				
U27	F: CTGGTGGAAGATGTTGCT	(CA) ₆	105	2	1	0.0688
	R: CTCTGACTTGCGTGTTGTA	0				
U29	F: TTGAAGAGGGTGATAGGTG	(CT) ₁₄	261	3	3	0.7437
	R: TGGGTGGAGAATGAGTGA					
U30	F: TGGTAGTTGGTGCTTGCC	(TTG)	181	5	5	0.5389
	R: GCTGCTGATGGGAGTGATA	-				
U32	F: GCCGTTGGTCTTGCGAATA	(GCT) ₈	104	2	1	0.3747
	R: GAGGCAGGTTGAGATGGGAT					
U33	F: CCTGTAGGCGTCTGTCTCG	(GAG),1	253	3	3	0.4986
	R: AGCGTCTTCGCATTCTCG	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,				

(Continued on next page)

Table 3 (Continued from pr	receding page)
----------------------------	----------------

Primers	Sequence (5'→3')	Repeat motif	Product size	Bands	Polymorphic bands	PIC
U34	F: TTTAGGGATGCGGATGCT	(TG),	209	2	2	0.4656
	R: CGAGGTATGCGATGTTGT	× /12				
U37	F: TCATCCCGCTGGAAACAT	(ACC) ₉	261	2	2	0.5435
	R: GAGGTGGAAGAGGACTGG	0				
U40	F: CGAGGATGGGAGATGGTG	(CT) ₈	154	2	2	0.2205
	R: GGCTCTGGCTCAGGAACA					
U42	F: GCCGTTGTTCCTGTTGCC	(TGG) ₁₀	227	2	2	0.5898
	R: GGGATGGTGAGATGGGTAGTT					
U44	F: ATCAAGCAGCACAAGGAG	(TC) ₈	162	2	1	0.1278
	R: GAGACATTGCGATTAGAAAA	()				
U46	F: CATCAATCTCGGCGTCTG	(GGA) ₆	203	4	4	0.6815
1147			400	0	0	0 5 4 7 4
047		$(AC)_7$	183	6	6	0.5474
1154			266	2	2	0 5020
051		(IGI) ₁₆	200	2	2	0.5050
1156			102	2	2	0 3301
000	R: GATGTCGGAAGCAGGGTT	(100) ₆	102	2	2	0.5501
U57	F: AAGACCCTTGCTTGAACT	(CT)	251	2	2	0 5227
007	R [.] TGGTGGGATGGTAGAATA	(01) ₁₃	201	2	2	0.0221
U58	F: GCGTCGCCATCCATTCCT	(TCC).	117	4	4	0.6124
	R: TCCGTGCGTAAGACCAAA	(1)8				
U60	F: CGACAGGAACGCAAGTAA	(TCC)	185	3	3	0.4942
	R: CGTATCTCGCAGGATGGTAT	× 76				
U65	F: TCTCGTTTGTTTGCGGTTTC	(CTC) ₆	181	4	4	0.6635
	R: AGCCCTGTTCTGGCGTTG					
U75	F: CGGCAATAAGCGAAAGAA	(GGT) ₉	106	3	3	0.5513
	R: AATAGGAGCACCAGCATCAG					
U80	F: CAAAGCCGAAGCATAAGAA	(GCA) ₈	207	4	4	0.6294
	R: GGCGGTAGGATTGTAGCA					
U81	F: CAAAGCCGAAGCATAAGAA	(GCA) ₈	215	4	4	0.7233
	R: AGAAGGAAGGCGGTAGGA					
U83	F: GATGGAAGAGGGAAGGAA	(GT) ₈	205	4	4	0.6961
1105	R: AGGCAGGIGACIGAAGAA		0.57	0	0	0.4050
085		(TCA) ₉	257	3	2	0.1352
1100			106	Б	5	0 7502
000		(10) ₈	190	5	5	0.7502
1 189	F: TGGACGACAATCAGAAGGG	(CAA)	224	з	3	0 2541
000	R: GATGCGTGGTGGGAGGTA	(0, 0, 0)	227	0	Ū	0.2041
U92	F: GTTACTGCGGCGACTGGA	(GTT) ₋	211	2	2	0.4247
	R: ATGATGGGCGGAATGGGT	(/7				
U93	F: CGTAGAGCAGCACAAAGAT	(CTT)	106	2	1	0.0688
	R: AACTAACCTAACCCTGGAAC	(-) _b				
U95	F: ACGCAGAGCACTGGTCAC	(GA) ₁₃	304	2	1	0.2562
	R: TACGAGGGTTCCTTTGTC					
U96	F: GGATTGGCGATGGAGAAA	(TCC) ₆	276	4	4	0.4008
	R: CTATGAGCGGGTGGTGGA					
U101	F: ACGCACATTCCAATCTCG	(CT) ₈	241	3	3	0.4016
	R: GTTCAATACTCACCCTCCAT					
U103	F: GACGGGAAGAGGGATGAA	(AG) ₆	285	3	3	0.5435
	R: CAGCAACTCCGAGACCAA					
U108	F: ACGAGGGTGGCACGATGT	(CAC) ₈	118	6	6	0.4137
	R: AGCGAGGAAAGTGAGCAAAG					
U110	F: AGGTGGAAACAATGTGGAG	(AGC) ₈	254	3	3	0.6535
	R: AGIGAACGAGTCGGATGAG			0.0==	0	0.40.10
Mean				2.975	2.75	0.4340



Fig. 3 Simple sequence repeat (SSR) profiling of *U. hordei* isolates with primer U8 (M, DL 2000 DNA marker; lanes 1–27, *U. hordei* isolates).



Fig. 4 Clustering of 27 *U. hordei* isolates based on pooled RAPD and SSR markers. Bootstrap values were obtained from 1 000 replications, and bootstrap values that were <50% were collapsed. Capital letters (S, T, Q, and G) in parentheses represent Sichuan, Tibet, Qinghai, and Gansu provinces/autonomous region, respectively.

clustering analysis. The grouping in the dendrogram was consistent with that shown in the 3D scatterplot (Fig. 5). The PCoA also divided all of the isolates into 3 groups. The first 3 principal coordinates accounted for 50.33% (30.85, 13.33 and 6.14% by 1st, 2nd, and 3rd principal coordinate, respectively) of the total variation. Both the cluster analysis and PCoA indicated that there was some diversity among the *U. hordei* isolates in the Tibetan areas.

4. Discussion

This study revealed that RAPD and SSR markers may be successfully used to assess genetic variation among *U*.

hordei isolates. Although RAPD was inefficient in detecting the genetic variation among the isolates of the loose smut fungus *Ustilago tritici* (Karwasra *et al.* 2002), it has been widely used for detecting the genetic variation among isolates of *Sporisorium reilianum* (Xu *et al.* 2003; He *et al.* 2007; Jiang *et al.* 2007; Ma *et al.* 2008). Karaoglu *et al.* (2005) demonstrated that SSR could be useful for population genetics of fungal organisms. In this study, RAPD markers revealed higher levels of genetic polymorphism than did the SSR markers. The RAPD markers exhibited 92.79% polymorphic fragments compared with 91.60% polymorphism detected by the SSR markers. The average observed number of alleles (*Na*), effective number of alleles



Fig. 5 Three dimensional PCoA scaling of the 27 U. hordei isolates using RAPD and SSR markers.

(*Ne*), Nei's genetic diversity (*H*), and Shannon's information index (*I*) of the RAPD markers were all higher than those of the SSR markers. *PIC* as a feature of a primer is an ideal index to measure polymorphism. The *PIC* value for the RAPD markers (0.6428) was also higher compared with the SSR primer pairs (0.4340), indicating a higher polymorphism of RAPD loci than in the SSR loci. The different resolutions of the two markers may be due to different portions of the genome that these two techniques targeted. The RAPD markers distribute randomly throughout the entire genome to reveal the diversity of the entire genome, whereas SSR markers, which were designed on the basis of sequences of some *U. hordei* genes (Laurie *et al.* 2012), were only amplified at some particular region on the genome.

Measures of the genetic diversity in fungi, especially ascomycetes and basidiomycetes producing spores with potential for long-distance dispersal, often show a low level of differentiation (Hamelin et al. 1995). Zhou et al. (2008) determined a low level of genetic variation in 110 Ustilaginoidea virens isolates that were collected from North China. Amplified fragment length polymorphism (ALFP), which was used by Braithwaite et al. (2004), revealed a low level of genetic variation among 31 Ustilago scitaminea isolates. Additionally, Singh et al. (2005) demonstrated a limited diversity amongst geographically separate strains of U. scitaminea. Hellmann and Christ (1991) examined the isozyme variation of 63 U. hordei haploid isolates and observed a low allelic diversity of 0.189. In this study, the average similarity coefficient was 0.7028, indicating a moderate genetic variation among all of the 27 isolates. This may be attributed to the frequent exchange of highland barley varieties in these areas in recent years, which is important because covered smut is a type of seed-borne disease. The clustering patterns generated by RAPD and SSR markers were different from each other. To best interpret the genetic relationships of the isolates, the genotyping data obtained using the RAPD and SSR markers were combined and used to construct the dendrogram. Cluster and PCoA analyses of the combined data showed the genetic relationship among the isolates. The isolates collected from Tibet were primarily clustered into cluster I and cluster III. The isolates collected from Sichuan Province were mainly included in cluster II. This result suggested that the molecular variation and differentiation was associated somewhat with geographical origin but not for all of the isolates. U. hordei, a heterothallic basidiomycete fungus, favors a high level of inbreeding, and only rarely is there opportunity for out-crossing (Fischer and Holton 1957). Therefore, the exchange of seed in these areas only caused a restricted gene exchange. Xu et al. (2004) also observed the phenomenon of different geographical origins with small dissimilarity coefficients in some U. scitaminea isolates.

Planting seeds that possessing a genetic resistance is the most effective and economical measure to control covered smut. However, symptoms of the covered smut are not visible until heading and natural or artificial inoculation occurs that typically results in inconsistent infection, even in highly susceptible lines. Thus, breeding for resistance to covered smut is time-consuming and difficult. Additionally, the existence of physiologic races in *U. hordei* also increases the difficulty of resistance breeding. Therefore, knowledge of the physiologic specialization in *U. hordei* is particularly important for predicting which resistance genes will likely be effective and stable once incorporated into new host

varieties. However, virulence is not a "neutral" trait because it is strongly influenced by host selection, and the genes involved represent only a small portion of the pathogen's genome (Caten 1987). The information obtained may not reflect the total genetic variability of the pathogen population. Therefore, it is necessary to combine molecular variation and virulence variability in the pathogen isolates. Meyer et al. (2005) examined patterns of genetic variation for virulence and for AFLP markers in four Ustilago bullata populations of Bromus tectorum in northern Utah and southern Nevada. Popovic and Menzies (2006) measured the genetic diversity of U. tritici isolates using virulence data and AFLP, and their AFLP analysis indicated a higher degree of genetic variability than did the virulence data. In this study, the U. hordei isolates were wild samples that were collected from the smutted head of infected highland barley plants. We only observed natural infection in open fields where U. hordei isolates were collected. The virulence of each isolate was unknown and must be investigate by using differential host lines. Thus, the next step is to evaluate U. hordei isolates for race designation and combine virulence data with the molecular analysis.

5. Conclusion

This study illustrated the combined effectiveness of the RAPD and SSR techniques for discriminating the *U. hordei* genotypes that were analyzed. The RAPD and SSR data separated the isolates into three major genetic similarity groups. However, the isolates that were collected from Qinghai and Gansu Provinces were so small that the information on the genetic diversity of *U. hordei* in these provinces was insufficient and unreliable. Thus, it is necessary to collect more isolates and combine the pathogenicity analysis to determine the relationship between genetic variation and pathotypes. Regardless, this investigation is the first report to assess the genetic variation of *U. hordei* from China using RAPD and SSR markers. These findings provide valuable information for barley resistance breeding and plant resistance mechanisms.

Acknowledgements

The study was sponsored by the National Millet Crops Research and Development System, China (CARS-07-12.5-A9), the National Key Technology R&D Program of China, (2014BAD07B03) and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (31371529).

References

Aamodt O S, Johnston W H. 1935. Reaction of barley varieties

to infection with covered smut (*Ustilgo hordei* Pers. K & S). *Canadian Journal of Research*, **5**, 590–613.

- Anderson J A, Churchill G A, Autrique J E, Tanksley S D, Sorrells M E. 1993. Optimizing parental selection for genetic linkage maps. *Genome*, **1**, 181–188.
- Bouajila A, Abang M M, Haouas S, Udupa S, Rezgui S, Baum M, Yahyaoui A. 2007. Genetic diversity of *Rhynchosporium* secalis in Tunisia as revealed by pathotype, AFLP, and microsatellite analyses. *Mycopathologia*, **163**, 281–294.
- Braithwaite K S, Bakkeren G, Croft B J, Brumbley S M. 2004. Genetic variation in a worldwide collection of the sugarcane smut fungus Ustilago scitaminea. Proceedings of the Australian Society of Sugar Cane Technologists, 26, 48–56.
- Caten C E. 1987. The concept of race in plant pathology. In: Wolfe M S, Caten C E, eds., *Populations of the Plant Pathogens: Their Dynamics and Genetic.* Blackwell Scientific Publications, Oxford. pp. 21–37.
- Du Y D, Xing M, Yang Z Y, Liu Y F, Chen X. 2011. Genetic diversity caused by environmental stress in natural populations of Niupidujuan as revealed by RAPD technique. *Plant Ecology*, **27**, 641–645.
- Ellegren H. 2004. Microsatellites: Simple sequences with complex evolution. *Nature Reviews Genetics*, **5**, 435–445.
- Faris J A .1924a. Physiological specialization of *Ustilago hordei*. *Phytopathology*, **14**, 537–557.
- Faris J A. 1924b. Factors influencing infection of Hordeum sativum by Ustilago hordei. American Journal of Botany, 3, 189–214.
- Fernández M E, Figueiras A M, Benito C. 2002. The use of ISSR and RAPD markers for detecting DNA polymorphism, genotype identification and genetic diversity among barley cultivars with known origin. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, **104**, 845–851.
- Fischer G W, Holton C S. 1957. Biology and control of the smut fungi. *Mycologia*, **49**, 563.
- Gaudet D A, Kiesling R L. 1991. Variation in aggressiveness among and within races of *Ustilago hordei* on barley. *Phytopathology*, **11**, 1385–1390.
- Grewal T S, Rossnagel B G, Scoles G J. 2006. Inheritance of resistance to covered smut [Ustilago hordei (Pers.) Lagerh.] in barley. Canadian Journal of Plantence, 3, 829–837.
- Hamelin R C, Beaulieu J, Plourde A. 1995. Genetic diversity in populations of *Cronartium ribicola* in plantations and natural stands of *Pinus strobus*. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, **91**, 1214–1221.
- Hellmann R, Christ B J. 1991. Isozyme variation of physiologic races of *Ustilago hordei*. *Phytopathology*, **81**, 1536–1540.
- He Z D, Chen J, Gao Z G, Zhuang J H, Gao Y F. 2007. Study on genetic diversity of *Sporisorium reilianum*. *Journal of Maize Science*, 4, 133–136. (in Chinese)
- Hu X P, Dong Y L, Gou J J, Yang J R. 2008. Genetic diversity of *Venturia inaequalis* populations based on SSR analysis. *Acta Phytopathologica Sinica*, **3**, 329–332. (in Chinese)
- Hu Z H, Zhao L H, Kong B H, Chen H R, Fan J H, Liu F, Li X P, Cai H, Yang G H, Qin X Y, Fang D H. 2012. Comparison and analysis of molecular methods ISSR and RAPD used

for assessment of genetic diversity in *Alternaria alternate*. *Southwest China Journal of Agricultural Sciences*, **3**, 917–921. (in Chinese)

- Jiang Y, Xu X D, Liu Z H, Dong H Y, Zhao S H. 2007. Genetic diversity of Sporisorium reilianum of maize. Journal of Shenyang Agricultural University, 4, 522–526. (in Chinese)
- Karaoglu H, Lee C M Y, Meyer W. 2005. Survey of simple sequence repeats in completed fungal genomes. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 3, 639–650.
- Karwasra S S, Mukherjee A K, Swain S C, Mohapatra T, Sharma R P. 2002. Evaluation of RAPD, ISSR and AFLP markers for characterization of the loose smut fungus Ustilago tritici. Journal of Plant Biochemistry & Biotechnology, 2, 99–103.
- Lamine M, Mliki A. 2015. Elucidating genetic diversity among sour orange rootstocks: a comparative study of the efficiency of RAPD and SSR markers. *Applied Biochemistry* and Biotechnology, **175**, 2996–3013.
- Laurie J D, Ali S, Linning, R, Mannbaupt G, Wong P, Güldener U, Münsteerkötter M, Moore R, Knhmann R, Bakkeren G, Schirawski J. 2012. Genome comparison of barley and maize smut fungi reveals targeted loss of RNA silencing components and species-specific presence of transposable elements. *The Plant Cell*, **24**, 1733–1745.
- Lou H X. 2000. The development and policy of naked barley in Tibet plateau. *Chaidamu Development and Research*, **2**, 8–31.
- Ma J T, Wang D X, Gong X J, Gao J. 2008. Analysis on genetic diversity of *Sporisorium reilianum* from 6 provinces and regions in China. *Journal of Maize Science*, **6**, 139–143. (in Chinese)
- Mantel N. 1967. The detection of disease clustering and a generalized regression approach. *Cancer Research*, **2**, 209–220.
- Mathre D E. 1997. *Compendium of Barley Diseases*. 2nd ed. Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana.
- McCluskey K, Mills D. 1990. Identification and characterization of chromosome length polymorphisms among strains representing fourteen races of *Ustilago hordei*. *Molecular Plant-Microbe Interacttions*, **6**, 366–373.
- Meyer S E, Nelson D L, Clement S, Waters J, Stevens M, Fairbanks D. 2005. Genetic variation in Ustilago bullata: Molecular genetic markers and virulence on Bromus tectorum host lines. International Journal of Plant Sciences, 166, 105–115.
- Popovic Z, Menzies J G. 2006. Intensive and extensive sampling techniques used to measure genetic diversity of *Ustilago tritici*, using virulence and DNA polymorphism. *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology*, **28**, 197–207.

- Semeniuk W. 1940. Physiologic races of Ustilago hordei (Pers.) K. and S. in Alberta. Canadian Journal of Research, 18, 76–78.
- Shang H M, Song W B. 2005. Separation and relationship of ten marine scuticociliates (Protozoa, Ciliophora) using RAPD fingerprinting method. Acta Oceanologica Sinica, 23, 78–85.
- Shen Y, Frouin J, He Y Q, He Y Q, Kaye C, Xiao F H, Notteghem J L, Liu E M, Tharreau D. 2004. The perfect stage and SSR analysis of *Magnaporthe grisea* in the Yanxi blast nursery, Hunan Province. *Chinese Journal of Rice Science*, 3, 262–268. (in Chinese)
- Singh N, Somai B M, Pillay D. 2005. Molecular profiling demonstrates limited diversity amongst geographically separate strains of Ustilago scitaminea. FEMS Microbiology Letters, 247, 7–15.
- Sonah H, Deshmukh R K, Sharma A, Singh V P, Gupta D K, Gacche R N, Rana J C, Singh N K, Sharma T R. 2011. Genome-wide distribution and organization of microsatellites in plants: An insight into marker development in *Brachypodium. PLoS ONE*, 6, e21298.
- Tapke V F.1937. Physiologic races of Ustilago hordei. Journal of Agricultural Research, **9**, 683–692.
- Tapke V F.1945. New physiologic races of *Ustilago hordei*. *Phytopathology*, **35**, 570–576.
- Weising K, Nybom H, Wolff K, Meyer W. 1995. DNA Fingerprinting in Plants and Fungi. CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida.
- Xu L, Que Y, Chen R. 2004. Genetic diversity of *Ustilago scitaminea* in mainland China. *Sugar Tech*, **6**, 267–271.
- Xu X D, Dong H Y, Jiang Y, Bai J K. 2003. Analysis of genetic relationships among *Sporisorium reilianum* isolates by RAPD. *Mycosystema*, **1**, 56–61. (in Chinese)
- Yu T F. 1940. Breeding hulled barley for resistance to covered smut (*Ustilago hordei* (Pers.) K. and S.) in Kiangsu Province. *Nanking Journal*, 9, 281–292. (in Chinese)
- Yu T F, Fang C T. 1945. A preliminary report on further studies of physiologic specialization in Ustilago hordei. Phytopathology, 35, 517–520.
- Zhao Z J, Cao J F, Yang M Y, Sun D W, Li X P, Yang W L. 2008. Genetic diversity of *Phytophthora infestans* of potato in Yunnan based on two microsatellite (SSR) markers. *Scientia Agricultura Sinica*, **11**, 3610–3617. (in Chinese)
- Zhou Y L, Pan Y J, Xie X W, Zhu L H, Xu J L, Wang S, Li Z K. 2008. Genetic diversity of rice false smut fungus, *Ustilaginoidea virens* and its pronounced differentiation of populations in North China. *Journal of Phytopathology*, **156**, 559–564.

(Managing editor ZHANG Juan)