Nitrate Non-Utilizing Mutants of Colletotrichum and Their Use in Studies of Vegetative Compatibility and Genetic Relatedness

Nancy L. Brooker, John F. Leslie, and Martin B. Dickman

First and third authors, Department of Plant Pathology, University of Nebraska, Lincoln 68583-0722; and second author, Department of Plant Pathology, Throckmorton Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan 66506-5502.

We thank D.O. TeBeest for providing some of the strains used in this study.

Journal series 9308 from the Nebraska Agricultural Experiment Station. Contribution 91-113-J from the Kansas Agricultural Experiment Station, Kansas State University, Manhattan.

Accepted for publication 11 December 1990 (submitted for electronic processing).

ABSTRACT

Brooker, N. L., Leslie, J. F., and Dickman, M. B. 1991. Nitrate non-utilizing mutants of *Colletotrichum* and their use in studies of vegetative compatibility and genetic relatedness. Phytopathology 81:672-677.

Seven strains from five different Colletotrichum species were tested for their ability to produce chlorate-resistant nitrate non-utilizing mutants when cultured on potato-dextrose agar (PDA) or on a minimal medium containing 1.5% KClO₃. Six of the seven strains produced mutants that could be placed into one of four phenotypic classes representing mutations at: the nitrate reductase structural locus (nit1), the global nitrogen regulatory locus (nit2), the nitrate-assimilation pathway-specific regulatory locus or the nitrite reductase structural locus (Nit3), and the loci that affect the assembly of a molybdenum-containing cofactor necessary for nitrate reductase activity (NitM). The seventh strain (C. malvarum) was sensitive to nitrite and the test to distinguish the nit1 class from the Nit3 class could not be performed. Five of the strains

examined were heterokaryon self-compatible since paired complementary nit mutant strains could form prototrophic heterokaryons. Although both intragenic and intergenic complementation occurred, some of the nit mutant sectors were unable to complement with any of the other nit mutants derived from the same culture. Strains of C. destructivum and C. fragariae were heterokaryon self-incompatible because none of the nit mutants were able to form a heterokaryon when paired on minimal medium containing nitrate as a sole nitrogen source. The five heterokaryon self-compatible strains were all in distinct vegetative compatibility groups since complementary nit mutants from different strains could not form a prototrophic heterokaryon when cultured on minimal medium with nitrate as the sole nitrogen source.

Isolates of Colletotrichum are known to vary greatly in morphology, host preference, pathogenicity, and physiology, making taxonomic studies difficult. Historically, phylogenetic relatedness has been based on host range, developmental and anamorphic characteristics. Increased knowledge of field isolates, however, has made it apparent that there are limitations associated with classification based solely on morphology, since critical morphological traits may vary greatly and be altered by cultural conditions (36). Taxonomic difficulties in Colletotrichum spp. may be accentuated by the recovery of isolates from plants grown in monoculture. The genetic isolation thus imposed on the fungal population may eventually lead to speciation, but identifying characters of significance at the species level can be extremely difficult under such conditions. These observations raise the question as to what constitutes a species in this genus and highlights the need to clarify both the status of the specific and subspecific groups within Colletotrichum.

Studies of vegetative compatibility are of particular interest in asexual fungi, such as *Colletotrichum* spp., since VCGs subdivide the population into groups that can exchange genetic information via heterokaryosis and the parasexual cycle. VCGs most commonly have been studied by using auxotrophic mutations that prevent the utilization of nitrate as a sole nitrogen source (7,32,34), although mutants with altered pigmentation (33) and inability to catabolize sulfate as a sole sulfur source (7,20) have also been used. VCGs have been shown to correlate with pathogenicity (4,9,21), although this correlation does not always hold (14).

Population studies of VCGs have frequently involved mutants that are unable to utilize nitrate as a sole nitrogen source (nit mutants), and are thus resistant to chlorate, a toxic analogue of nitrate. In many fungal species these mutants arise spontaneously as sectors at high frequency when the organism is cultured on a medium containing KClO₃ (6,7,29,39). Most of these sectors produce mutants that contain genetic lesions in either structural

or regulatory loci in nitrate catabolism or related pathways (2,18,23,24,26). These *nit* mutants can be easily classified phenotypically by their growth on selective media (7,18,26).

Genetic instability in *Colletotrichum* is easily observed in the laboratory as a relatively high frequency of spontaneous sectoring. This phenomenon appears analogous to that observed in *Fusarium* spp. in which colonies may produce sectors differing in morphology, virulence, and other characteristics from the wild-type parent (28). It has been suggested that such instability may provide these primarily asexual fungi with a more rapid means to adapt to the environment (22). The observed genetic instability in *Colletotrichum* suggested that the *nit* mutants commonly used in VCG studies in other fungi might be readily recovered from field isolates of *Colletotrichum*.

Our objective in this study was to determine if *nit* mutants occurred in sufficient diversity and frequency with isolates of *Colletotrichum* in order to use these mutants as a useful tool in the characterization of VCGs and genetic relatedness. A preliminary report of portions of this work has been published (5).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains. Seven strains (field isolates) from different Colleto-trichum species and subspecies were used in this study: C. destructivum 385 (host Coronilla), C. gloeosporioides 669 (host Malus), C. gloeosporioides 201 (host Vicia), C. gloeosporioides f. sp. jussiaea, C. fragariae 390 (host Fragaria), C. malvarum (host Sida), and C. trifolii (host Medicago). With the exception of C. trifolii, all strains were obtained from D. O. TeBeest, University of Arkansas. The seven Colletotrichum spp. were grown on complete medium (CM) for 7-14 days. Single conidia from these cultures were isolated on water agar and transferred to CM. All cultures were incubated at 25 C with a 12-h dark/12-h light cycle (two 40 W cool-white fluorescent lights). The resulting colonies were stored on sterile filter paper at -20 C (10).

Media. A basal medium was prepared as follows, per liter of distilled water: sucrose, 30 g; KH₂PO₄, 1 g; MgSO₄·7H₂O, 0.5

g; KCl, 0.5 g; FeSO₄·7H₂O, 10 mg; agar, 20 g; and trace element solution (35), 0.2 ml. Minimal medium (MM) was made by adding 3 g of NaNO₃ to 1 L of basal medium. CM was made by adding the following to 1 L of basal medium: NaNO₃ 2 g; N-Z amine, 2.5 g; yeast extract, 1 g; and 10 ml of a vitamin solution (7).

nit mutants were generated on minimal agar medium amended with chlorate (MMC) and potato-dextrose agar medium amended with chlorate (PDC). MMC was prepared by adding to 1 L of basal medium: L-asparagine, 1.6 g; NaNO₃, 2 g; and KClO₃, 15 g. PDC was prepared by adding the following to 1 L of distilled water: dehydrated potato-dextrose broth (Difco), 24 g; agar, 20 g; and KClO₃, 15 g.

Genetic terminology. Our terminology for nit mutants of Colletotrichum basically follows the terminology used in Fusarium (7,23), except as noted below, and is consistent with the guidelines proposed by Yoder et al (40) for plant pathogenic fungi. Two phenotypic classes will be designated as single locus mutations: nit1-nitrate reductase structural locus, and nit2global nitrogen catabolism regulatory locus. Mutants in two other phenotypic classes may occur at more than one locus and will be designated as phenotypes. NitM mutants result from a mutation at one of several loci responsible for the assembly of a molybdenum-containing cofactor required for nitrate reductase and purine dehydrogenase activity. Mutants in the Nit3 class occur at the nitrate-catabolism pathway-specific regulatory locus, but cannot be distinguished from mutants at the nitrite reductase structural locus without additional tests. Mutants in the nitrite reductase structural locus are not commonly recovered when chlorate resistance is used as a screen, so all of our mutants are probably at the nit3 locus.

Generation of *nit* mutants. Two-millimeter mycelial blocks of CM of each strain were transferred to the center of 20 glass petri dishes (10 cm in diameter) containing either PDC or MMC. The

plates were incubated as described above and were examined weekly for the appearance of fast-growing sectors. The sectors grow at a visibly faster rate than the parent culture, and it has been proposed that wild-type growth is restricted due to the reduction of chlorate to toxic chlorite by nitrate reductase (1,27,35), although other mechanisms are also possible (10,12). Hence, *nit* mutants may reflect an inability to reduce chlorate to chlorite, thus making them chlorate resistant.

Twenty sectors from each fungal strain were selected on both PDC and MMC. These putative *nit* mutants were classified according to the medium of origin and the approximate time of sector appearance. All sectors were transferred to MM and those that grew as sparse colonies, having little aerial hyphal growth, were considered *nit* mutants. Only *nit* mutants that were resistant to chlorate and showed wild-type growth on CM were used.

nit mutant phenotypes. The physiological phenotypes of nit mutants of Colletotrichum were identified (Table 1) based on the analysis of similar mutants from Aspergillus nidulans (10–12), Neurospora crassa (26), and Fusarium oxysporum (7). Growth on media containing different nitrogen sources was used to identify mutant phenotypes. The five nit mutant screening media were: 1) nitrate medium = NM described above; 2) nitrite medium = basal medium plus 0.5 g/L NaNO₂; 3) hypoxanthine medium = basal medium plus 0.2 g/L hypoxanthine; 4) ammonium medium = basal medium plus 1 g/L NH₄ tartrate, and 5) uric acid medium = basal medium plus 0.2 g/L uric acid.

Heterokaryon formation. Heterokaryons were formed by placing mycelia from different *nit* mutants 1 cm apart on NM. The plates were incubated as previously described for 7-14 days and then scored for complementation, i.e., dense aerial growth where the two sparsely growing *nit* mutant colonies come in contact. The 20 *nit* mutants from each of the 14 strain/media

TABLE 1. Identification of nitrate non-utilizing (nit) mutants from Colletotrichum spp. by growth on different nitrogen sources

| Mutation ^a | Mutant designation | Growth on nitrogen sources ^b | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|---|---------|----------|--------------|-----------|--|--|
| | | Nitrate | Nitrite | Ammonium | Hypoxanthine | Uric acid | | |
| None | Wild-type | + | + | + | | | | |
| Nitrate reductase structural locus | nit1 | _ | 1 | 1 | T | + | | |
| Major nitrogen regulatory locus | nit2 | - | 2 | 1 | + | 175 | | |
| Pathway-specific regulatory locus | Nit3 | - | _ | 1 | 1 | - | | |
| Molybdenum cofactor loci | NitM | - | + | 1 | | Ť | | |

^aCompiled from Garrett and Amy (18), Marzluff (26), Correll et al (7), and Klittich and Leslie (23), on the basis of analysis of mutants from Aspergillus, Fusarium, and Neurospora crassa.

^bGrowth on basal medium with one of several nitrogen sources; + = typical wild-type growth; - = variable thin growth with little aerial mycelium.

TABLE 2. Frequency and phenotype of nitrate non-utilizing (nit) Colletotrichum spp. mutants recovered from two media

| Colletotrichum species | Mediuma | Sectors per colony ^b | % nit mutant - classes ^c | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------|------|------|--|
| | | | nit1 | nit2 | Nit3 | NitM | |
| C. destructivum | PDC | 1.25 | 90 | 0 | 5 | 5 | |
| | MMC | 1.18 | 30 | 15 | 15 | 40 | |
| C. gloeosporoides (Host Malus) | PDC | 1.30 | 65 | 0 | 25 | 10 | |
| | MMC | 1.18 | 65 | 0 | 35 | 10 | |
| C. gloeosporoides (Host Vicia) | PDC | 1.10 | 90 | ŏ | 10 | ő | |
| | MMC | 1.18 | 30 | 40 | 10 | 20 | |
| C. gloeosporoides f. sp. jussiaea | PDC | 1.25 | 25 | 10 | 50 | 15 | |
| | MMC | 1.25 | 20 | Õ | 60 | 20 | |
| C. fragariae | PDC | 1.25 | 70 | 5 | 25 | 0 | |
| | MMC | 1.10 | 10 | 20 | 65 | 5 | |
| C. malvarum ^d | PDC | 1.10 | (70) | 20 | (70) | 10 | |
| | MMC | 1.10 | (50) | 35 | (50) | 15 | |
| C. trifolii | PDC | 1.10 | 20 | 0 | 30 | 50 | |
| | MMC | 1.25 | 10 | 20 | 35 | 35 | |

^aPDC = Potato-dextrose agar + 1.5% KClO₃; MMC = minimal agar medium + 1.5% KClO₃.

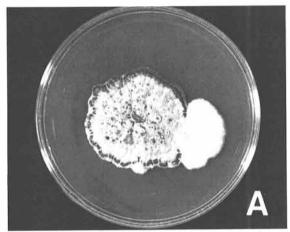
^bMean frequency of chlorate-resistant sectors per colony.

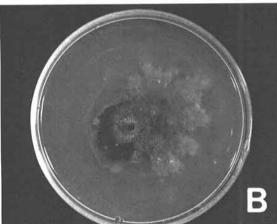
enit mutant phenotypes determined according to growth on basal medium amended with different nitrogen sources (see Table 1); 20 nit mutants were screened for each chlorate media.

^dC. malvarum was sensitive to nitrite. Thus the frequencies for the nit1 and Nit3 classes could not be determined and combined frequencies are presented in parentheses.

combinations were paired with the other mutants from the same strain/media combination (a total of 210 complementations, including selfed mutants) on NM to determine the number of complementation groups into which the different *nit* mutants could be placed. These pairings also permitted us to test for heterokaryon self-incompatibility (8).

Heterokaryon tests can also be used to determine if two strains are vegetatively compatible. If two strains are vegetatively compatible and carry complementary *nit* or other auxotrophic mutants, then they can form a prototrophic heterokaryon when cultured on NM. Strains that are not vegetatively compatible belong to different VCGs. To determine if the strains used in this study





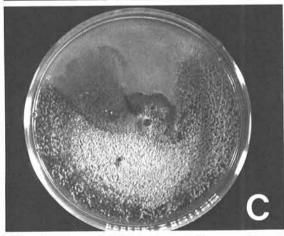


Fig. 1. Growth patterns of *Colletotrichum* species on media containing 120 mM KClO₃ in petri dishes 100×15 mm. A, C. gloeosporioides f. sp. jussiae with very low melanizing sector, no sporulation; B, C. gloeosporioides (host Malus) with feathery growth pattern, reduced melanization; and C, C. gloeosporioides (host Malus) with multiple growth patterned sectors, ranging from highly melanized to low melanized as well as variable mycelial density.

belonged to distinct VCGs, we paired four *nit* mutants (one from each phenotypic class) from each strain with one another in all possible pairwise combinations.

RESULTS

nit mutant isolation. Forty chlorate-resistant sectors were isolated from each of the seven Colletotrichum strains, 20 from MMC, and 20 from PDC (Table 2). An exception was C. gloeosporioides 388 (host Stylosanthes), which was naturally resistant to chlorate. All of the chlorate-resistant sectors were unable to utilize nitrate as a sole nitrogen source, and the resulting growth of the mutants on MM was variably sparse in comparison with the wild type (Fig. 1). These sectors were designated nit mutants. A few sectors (≤5%) were recovered from each species that were chlorate resistant but were unable to grow well on any of the screening media, including CM. These strains were not included in any further tests. Thus, the Crn class reported in both Aspergillus (11) and Fusarium (24) appears to be either missing or substantially altered in Colletotrichum.

The rate at which sectoring occurred varied by strain. The mean frequency for chlorate resistant sectors was the same for both MMC and PDC, (ranging from 1.1 to 1.25 sectors per colony); however, individual strains showed differences in sectoring rates on the two chlorate media (Tables 2 and 3). Two weeks after inoculation C. destructivum and C. gloeosporioides (host Malus) were sectoring more rapidly on PDC, while C. trifolii and C. malvarum were sectoring more rapidly on MMC. In contrast, C. gloeosporioides (host Vicia), C. fragariae, and C. g. jussiaea (host Jussiaea) were sectoring at comparable rates on both MMC and PDC.

nit mutant phenotype identification. nit mutant phenotypes were identified after growth on media that contained one of five different nitrogen sources. Four phenotypic nit mutant classes could be identified by using this screening regime. These classes represent mutations at: the nitrate reductase structural locus (nit1), the global nitrogen regulatory locus (nit2), the nitrate-assimilation pathway-specific regulatory locus or the nitrite reductase structural locus (Nit3), and the loci that affect the assembly of a molybdenum-containing cofactor necessary for nitrate reductase activity (NitM). Nitrite excretion studies were not conducted to distinguish nitrite reductase mutants from pathway specific regulatory mutants. These findings are similar to those for Fusarium (7,23), with the exception of the nit2 class. In Neurospora crassa (16,31), the nit2 locus encodes the global nitrogen regulatory

TABLE 3. Rate and phenotype of nitrate non-utilizing (nit) Colletotrichum spp. mutants formed on two media

| | | % Sectors ^b Incubation time (wk) | | | | | |
|--|---------------------|---|-----|----|----|----|--|
| | | | | | | | |
| Species | Medium ^a | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| C. destructivum | PDC | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | MMC | 35 | 0 | 50 | 15 | 0 | |
| C. gloeosporoides (Host Malus) | PDC | 90 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| and the state of t | MMC | 25 | 15 | 35 | 25 | 0 | |
| C. gloeosporoides (Host Vicia) | PDC | 15 | 70 | 5 | 10 | 0 | |
| | MMC | 40 | 45 | 15 | 0 | 0 | |
| C. gloeosporoides f. sp. jussiaea | PDC | 35 | 15 | 15 | 35 | 0 | |
| | MMC | 0 | 35 | 65 | 0 | 0 | |
| C. fragariae | PDC | 35 | 55 | 10 | 0 | 0 | |
| | MMC | 60 | 35 | 5 | 0 | 0 | |
| C. malvarum | PDC | 20 | 20 | 20 | 0 | 40 | |
| | MMC | 80 | 10 | 10 | 0 | 0 | |
| C. trifolii | PDC | 40 | 15 | 10 | 35 | 0 | |
| 5 | MMC | 95 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |

^aPDC = Potato-dextrose agar + 1.5% KClO₃; MMC = minimal medium + 1.5% KClO₃.

^bSector collection stopped once 20 sectors were obtained. Numbers represent the percentage of the sectors (out of 20) which appeared at that incubation time (weeks).

protein. Under conditions of nitrogen limitation, this protein turns on the expression of numerous unlinked structural genes that specify nitrogen-catabolic enzymes. Thus, nit2 mutants can grow on only a very limited number of nitrogen sources. Our nit2 mutants have been named by analogy with these Neurospora mutants, since mutants in the corresponding locus of Fusarium are not commonly found as chlorate-resistant sectors (7,13,25).

Strains differed in mutant frequencies on the two chlorate media (Table 2). In three strains, C. destructivum, C. gloeosporioides (host Vicia), and C. fragariae, the majority of mutants recovered from PDC were nit1 (70-90%). In contrast, on MMC, C. destructivum produced primarily NitM mutants (40%), C. gloeosporioides (host Vicia) produced primarily nit2 mutants (40%), and C. fragariae produced a majority of Nit3 mutants (65%). Each of these strains, when cultured on MMC, produced all four mutant phenotypes. In contrast, when these strains were cultured on PDC, a majority of the sectors were nit1 mutants, and mutants representative of the four different phenotypic classes were not recovered. In three other strains, the mutant spectra were similar regardless of the type of chlorate medium on which they were cultured. C. g. jussiaea produced a majority of Nit3 mutants on both PDC and MMC (50-60%). C. trifolii had a majority of NitM mutants (35-50%); and C. gloeosporoides (host Malus) produced a majority of nit1 mutants on both chlorate media (65%). Results with the C. malvarum strain cannot be compared directly with the other six strains since this strain was sensitive to nitrite. Consequently, we could not distinguish between the nit1 and Nit3 phenotypic classes, although we know both classes are represented, and the combined frequencies are noted in both columns in Table 2 in parentheses.

Complementation tests. Complementation occurred between nit mutants derived from five of the seven strains that we used. Complementation was usually evident after 7-9 days, with the three C. gloeosporioides strains (Fig. 2). The C. trifolii and C. malvarum strains grow considerably more slowly than the other strains, and complementation reactions required 2-3 wk of incubation before they could be scored. Mutants derived from one of these five strains were able to complement mutants in other phenotypic classes that had been derived from the same strain. These strains were all termed heterokaryon self-compatible (8).

Heterokaryon self-incompatibility. No complementation was observed between any pair of *nit* mutants derived from the *C. destructivum* or the *C. fragariae* strains. A total of 420 pairings were attempted for each of these strains, and representative mutants from each phenotypic class were present. Therefore, these strains were designated heterokaryon self-incompatible (8).

Vegetative compatibility tests. *nit* mutants from each strain, representing each of the physiological classes, were paired in all possible pairwise combinations to determine if any of these strains

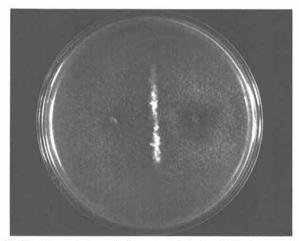


Fig. 2. Complementation of *nit* mutant isolates of *C. gloeosporioides* (host *Malus*) grown on MM. Note the line of dense prototrophic growth where the two colonies come in contact and anastomose.

were vegetatively compatible with one another. No complementation was detected in any of these pairings, suggesting that all of these strains are in different vegetative compatibility groups.

DISCUSSION

Colletotrichum spp. are known anecdotally to be genetically unstable, but careful studies of such instability, in spite of its relevance to pathogenic characters, have been minimal. In this study, the genetic stability of seven different isolates of Colletotrichum was examined when the strains were cultured on media containing chlorate. As with several other filamentous fungi we can recover specific mutants that affect nitrate assimilation. The cause of this instability is presently unknown not only in Colletotrichum, but also in the other filamentous fungi in which the phenomenon has been reported, although the frequency at which sectors occur and the genes that are altered can vary widely within strains of a single species (7,22,23).

Nitrate non-utilizing, chlorate-resistant mutants were recovered from seven Colletotrichum strains that belong to five different species. These mutants could be divided into four phenotypic classes that are associated with the nitrate assimilation pathway. These phenotypic classes correspond to those assigned in previous studies to mutants of Fusarium (nit1, Nit 3, and NitM) and Neurospora (nit2). When the nit mutants we recovered were placed into these four different phenotypic classes, six of the seven Colletotrichum strains had representative mutants in each of the four classes; however, no single phenotypic class was predominant in every strain. The mutant frequencies varied both with the strain and with the type of chlorate media. This finding is in contrast to studies of Fusarium spp. in which nit1 mutants usually predominate, regardless of either the chlorate medium or the strain employed (7,23). In addition, as in Neurospora and Aspergillus, mutants that affect the major nitrogen regulatory locus were readily recovered as chlorate-resistant sectors in all of the Colletotrichum strains that we examined except C. gloeosporoides (host Malus). Thus, the genetic control of nitrate assimilation in particular, and nitrogen catabolism in general appears to be similar in Colletotrichum, Aspergillus, Neurospora, and Fusarium.

Unlike studies with Fusarium spp. (7,23), no consistent differences in sectoring frequencies were associated with either of the two media types (Table 2). We also examined the rate of sectoring, however, and, for some strains, media type was associated with the rate at which the culture sectored (Table 3). Additionally, a few sectors were recovered from each species that were chlorate resistant but were unable to grow well on any of the screening media, including CM. These mutants may have mutations both at a nit locus and at one or more loci that are unrelated to nitrate assimilation. Alternatively, these mutants could be at loci such as those described by Cove (10-12) in Aspergillus where chlorate resistance may result in a general cessation of nitrogen metabolism rather than a simple inactivation of the nitrate assimilation machinery. Such an explanation has the advantage of requiring only a single mutation (rather than multiple mutations). It also can explain the overall poor growth of these mutants on any of the media used (including CM), which is inconsistent with the mutation affecting only one or a few metabolic pathways. Another important difference between Colletotrichum and either Fusarium (24) or Aspergillus (11) is the lack of a chlorate-resistant nitrate-utilizing class of mutants. In this sense, Colletotrichum more closely resembles Neurospora than it does either Fusarium or Aspergillus.

The C. malvarum strain that we used in this study was sensitive to nitrite, which prevented us from distinguishing the nit1 mutant class from the Nit3 class. In such cases the existence of the two genotypic classes can still be demonstrated by complementation; however, the assignment of a name to either class can be made only following assays for nitrite reductase activity or following sexual crosses with a strains carrying identified nit1 and nit3 mutants. For screening populations for VCGs, it is sufficient to use a single mutant strain from the combined nit1/Nit3 class

in heterokaryon tests. For studies of nitrate assimilation or its regulation, however, the genetic basis of the nitrite sensitivity will need to be ascertained before the nitrate assimilation pathway can be properly analyzed.

Physiological complementation between paired nit mutants occurred in five of the seven strains of Colletotrichum used in this study. Although morphological and virulence traits are often used to study relatedness, nit mutant markers will allow isolates from the same or different species to be tested for their ability to complement each other via heterokaryosis. If two strains cannot form a viable heterokaryon in an asexual fungus, the difficulty in transfer of traits, e.g., pathogenicity, from one strain to another would provide both genetic isolation and a type of biological containment. The relative ease of generating mutants provides a useful alternative method for transformation of these fungi with the nitrate reductase gene from Neurospora (17) or Aspergillus (37,38), the nitrate-assimilation pathway-specific control gene from Neurospora (15), or the major nitrogen regulatory control gene from Neurospora (16) or Fusarium (13) as the selectable marker in the cloning vector.

Both intragenic and intergenic complementation were observed in all four phenotypic class mutants derived from the same heterokaryon self-compatible strain. Each strain also sectored mutants that were unable to complement with any of the other mutants derived from that same strain. In addition, some mutants could complement with only some of the other compatible strains. These findings will complicate analysis of populations of Colletotrichum using nit mutants since an extra set of complementation tests will be required. This problem will have two practical effects. First, it will make the development of tester strain sets, such as those proposed by Correll et al (1987) for studies with Fusarium more difficult since all members of the set must be capable of pairing with the widest range of sectors possible, and since more than one tester strain with the same phenotype may be necessary to meet this goal. Second, it will be necessary to perform complementation tests and phenotypic characterization on several mutant sectors derived from each of the strains in a population study. This additional effort may be sufficient to make large-scale screening of VCGs with this technique impractical for Colletotrichum.

The C. destructivum and C. fragariae strains used in this study were heterokaryon self-incompatibile. This phenomenon is not unique to Colletotrichum and has also been reported in Fusarium oxysporum (20), F. moniliforme (8), Rhizoctonia solani (19), and Verticillium albo-atrum (6), and probably in Aspergillus flavus (30), Venturia inaequalis (3), and Verticillium dahliae (33). This trait has been attributed to a mutant at a single locus that cosegregates with female sterility in Fusarium (8), and thus may affect aspects of the life cycle beyond the ability to make a vegetative heterokaryon. The occurrence of two heterokaryon self-incompatibile isolates within a sample of seven strains is somewhat surprising because the frequency of such strains in other studies has usually been no more than a few percent (8,20). It is not known whether other isolates of these two Colletotrichum species are heterokaryon self-compatible. Heterokaryon self-incompatible strains complicate VCG analyses of populations since it is usually difficult or impossible to assign such strains to a VCG. These strains are potentially very useful in recombinant DNA or biological control work where it is undesirable for the released strain to be able to form a heterokaryon with any other strain in the population. Thus, studies of heterokaryon self-incompatibility in Colletotrichum are potentially important from both a basic and an applied

Among the heterokaryon self-compatible strains there was evidence of vegetative (heterokaryon) incompatibility. The five strains examined were all in distinct VCGs, suggesting that the exchange of genetic information within and between species is subject to significant limitations. There are genetic differences between these strains that are phenotypically distinct from the morphological and pathological characters that have been used to describe specific and subspecific groups within this genus. The *nit* mutants and VCGs we have described for *Colletotrichum* will be most useful in providing a framework in which the possibili-

ties of asexual genetic exchange between different strains can be explored. The genetic differences within *Colletotrichum* provides additional evidence for the emerging complexity within this genus.

LITERATURE CITED

- Åberg, B. 1947. On the mechanism of the toxic action of chlorates and some related substances upon young wheat plants. Kungliga Lantbrukshogskolans Annaler 15:37-107.
- Arst, H. N., Jr., and Scazzocchio, C. 1985. Formal genetics and molecular biology of the control of gene expression in Aspergillus nidulans. Pages 309-343 in: Gene Manipulations in Fungi. J. W. Bennett and L. L. Lasure, eds. Academic Press, Orlando, FL.
- Boone, D. M. 1971. Genetics of Venturia inaequalis. Annu. Rev. Phytopathol. 9:297-318.
- Bosland, P. W., and Williams, H. 1987. An evaluation of Fusarium oxysporum from crucifers based on pathogenicity, isozyme polymorphism, vegetative compatibility and geographical origin. Can. J. Bot. 65:2067-2073.
- Brooker, N. L., Leslie, J. F., and Dickman, M. B. 1990. Nitrate nonutilizing mutants of *Colletotrichum*. (Abstr.) Phytopathology 80:1057.
- Correll, J. C., Gordon, T. R., and McCain, A. H. 1988. Vegetative compatibility and pathogenicity of *Verticillium albo-atrum*. Phytopathology 78:1017-1021.
- Correll, J. C., Klittich, C. J. R., and Leslie, J. F. 1987. Nitrate nonutilizing mutants of *Fusarium oxysporum* and their use in vegetative compatibility tests. Phytopathology 77:1640-1646.
- Correll, J. C., Klittich, C. J. R., and Leslie, J. F. 1989. Heterokaryon self-incompatibility in Gibberella fujikuroi (Fusarium moniliforme). Mycol. Res. 93:21-27.
- Correll, J. C., Puhalla, J. E., and Schneider, R. W. 1986. Identification
 of Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. apii on the basis of colony size, virulence,
 and vegetative compatibility. Phytopathology 76:396-400.
- Cove, D. J. 1976. Chlorate toxicity in Aspergillus nidulans: Studies of mutants altered in nitrate assimilation. Mol. Gen. Genet. 146:147-159
- Cove, D. J. 1976. Chlorate toxicity in Aspergillus nidulans: The selection and characterization of chlorate resistant mutants. Heredity 36:191-203.
- Cove, D. J. 1979. Genetic studies of nitrate assimilation in Aspergillus nidulans. Biol. Rev. 54:291-327.
- Dickman, M. B., and Leslie, J. F. 1989. Regulation of nitrogen metabolism in *Fusarium* by a homologous *Neurospora* gene. (Abstr.). Phytopathology 79:1172.
- Elmer, W. H., and Stephens, C. T. 1989. Classification of Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. asparagi into vegetatively compatible groups. Phytopathology 79:88-93.
- Fu, Y.-H., Kneesi, J. Y., and Marzluf, G. A. 1989. Isolation of nit-4, the minor nitrogen regulatory gene which mediates nitrate induction in Neurospora crassa. J. Bacteriol. 171:4067-4070.
- Fin, Y.-H., and Marzluf, G. A. 1987. Characterization of nit-2, the major nitrogen regulatory gene of Neurospora crassa. Mol. Cell. Biol. 7:1691-1696.
- Fin, Y.-H., and Marzluf, G. A. 1987. Molecular cloning and analysis
 of the regulation of nit-3, the structural gene for nitrate reductase
 in Neurospora crassa. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 84:8243-8247.
- Garrett, R. H., and Amy, N. K. 1978. Nitrate assimilation in fungi. Adv. Microb. Physiol. 18:1-65.
- Hyakumachi, M., and Ui, T. 1987. Non-self-anastomosing isolates of *Rhizoctonia solani* obtained from fields of sugar beet monoculture. Trans. Br. Mycol. Soc. 89:155-159.
- Jacobson, D. J., and Gordon, T. R. 1988. Vegetative compatibility and self-incompatibility within Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. melonis. Phytopathology 78:668-672.
- Katan, T., and Katan, J. 1988. Vegetative compatibility grouping of Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. vasinfectum from tissue and the rhizosphere of cotton plants. Phytopathology 78:852-855.
- Klittich, C. J. R., Correll, J. C., and Leslie, J. F. 1988. Inheritance of sectoring frequency in *Fusarium moniliforme (Gibberella fujikuroi)*. Exp. Mycol. 12:289-294.
- Klittich, C. J. R., and Leslie, J. F. 1988. Nitrate reduction mutants of Fusarium moniliforme (Gibberella fujikuroi). Genetics 118:417-423.
- Klittich, C. J. R., and Leslie, J. F. 1989. Chlorate-resistant, nitrateutilizing (crn) mutants of Fusarium moniliforme (Gibberella fujikuroi). J. Gen. Microbiol. 135:721-727.

- Leslie, J. F. 1987. A nitrate non-utilizing mutant of Gibberella zeae.
 J. Gen. Microbiol. 133:1279-1287.
- Marzluf, G. A. 1981. Regulation of nitrogen metabolism and gene expression in fungi. Microbiol. Rev. 45:437-461.
- McDonald, D. W., and Coddington, A. 1974. Properties of the assimilatory nitrate reductase from Aspergillus nidulans. Eur. J. Biochem. 46:169-178.
- Nelson, P. E., Toussoun, T. A., and Marasas, W. F. O. 1983. Fusarium Species: An Illustrated Manual for Identification. Pennsylvania State University Press, University Park. 203 pp.
- Newton, A. C., and Caten, C. E. 1988. Auxotrophic mutants of Septoria nodorum isolated by direct screening and by selection for resistance to chlorate. Trans. Br. Mycol. Soc. 90:199-207.
- Papa, K. 1986. Heterokaryon incompatibility in Aspergillus flavus. Mycologia 78:98-101.
- Perkins, D. D., Radford, A., Newmeyer, D., and Björkman, M. 1982.
 Chromosomal loci of Neurospora crassa. Microbiol. Rev. 46:426-570
- Puhalla, J. E. 1985. Classification of strains of Fusarium oxysporum on the basis of vegetative compatibility. Can. J. Bot. 63:179-183.
- Puhalla, J. E., and Hummel, M. 1983. Vegetative compatibility groups within Verticillium dahliae. Phytopathology 73:1305-1308.
- 34. Puhalla, J. E., and Spieth, P. T. 1985. A comparison of heterokaryosis

- and vegetative incompatibility among varieties of Gibberella fujikuroi (Fusarium moniliforme). Exp. Mycol. 9:39-47.
- Solomonson, L. P., and Vennesland, B. 1972. Nitrate reductase and chlorate toxicity in *Chlorella vulgaris* Beijerinck. Plant Physiol. 50:421-424.
- Sutton, B. C. 1980. The Coelomycetes. Commonwealth Mycological Institute, Kew Surrey, England. 696 pp.
- Unkles, S. E., Campbell, E. I., Carrez, D., Grieve, C., Contreras, R., Fiers, W., Van den Hondel, C. A. M. J. J., and Kinghorn, J. R. 1989. Transformation of Aspergillus niger with the homologous nitrate reductase gene. Gene 78:157-166.
- 38. Unkles, S. E., Campbell, E. I., de Ruiter-Jacobs, Y. M. J. T., Broekhuijsen, M., Macro, J. A., Carrez, D., Contreras, R., van den Hondel, C. A. M. J. J., and Kinghorn, J. R. 1989. The development of a homologous transformation system for Aspergillus oryzae based on the nitrate assimilation pathway. A convenient and general selection system for filamentous fungal transformation. Mol. Gen. Genet. 218:99-104.
- Volk, T. J., and Leonard, T. J. 1989. Experimental studies on the morel. I. Heterokaryon formation between monoascosporous strains of *Morchella*. Mycologia 81:523-531.
- Yoder, O. C., Valent, B., and Chumley, F. 1986. Genetic nomenclature and practice for plant pathogenic fungi. Phytopathology 76:383-385.