Full Length Research Paper

# Development of a transformation method for the nematophagous fungus *Dactylellina cionopaga*

Yu Hanying<sup>1</sup>\*, Xue Wei<sup>2</sup> and Gao Xingxi<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Petroleum Engineering, Northeast Petroleum University, No. 199 Fazhan Road, Kaifa District, Daqing, Heilongjiang 163318, China.

<sup>2</sup>Key Laboratory of Systematic Mycology and Lichenology, Institute of Microbiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, No. 3 1st Beichen West Road, Chaoyang District, Beijing 100101, China.

<sup>3</sup>College of Life Science, Ludong University, No. 186 Hongqizhong Road, Zhifu District, Yantai, Shandong 264025, China.

Accepted 1 February, 2012

Dactylellina cionopaga is a trapping fungus that produces adhesive columns and a two-dimensional network. The factors that influence protoplast preparation and regeneration of D. cionopaga were analyzed, and poly ethylene glycol (PEG)-CaCl<sub>2</sub>- or Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation was conducted to develop a transformation system for the fungus and provide a tool for studying the function of nematode infection-related genes. The results indicate that between 4.175±1.025×10<sup>6</sup> and 3.08±1.4×10<sup>7</sup>, protoplasts/ml were obtained under optimized conditions and that the protoplasts could be regenerated on potato dextrose agar (PDA), RA and IM regeneration media. D. cionopaga transformation using PEG-CaCl<sub>2</sub> or A. tumefaciens displayed 4.2 to 11 resistant colonies/µg DNA using 10<sup>6</sup> protoplasts and 180-270 resistant colonies using 10<sup>6</sup> conidia. Molecular analysis and microscopy of randomly selected transformants showed that the target genes were integrated into the genome of D. cionopaga and that green fluorescence could be detected in transformants containing pK2-BarGFP, which carried a glufosinate ammonium resistance gene and the enhanced green fluorescence protein gene. The methods used in this study for protoplast preparation and convenient Agrobacterium-mediated transformation of D. cionopaga represent useful tools for genetic research on this nematophagous fungus. This is the first report on protoplast generation and transformation of D. cionopaga.

**Key words:** Nematophagous fungi, *Dactylellina cionopaga*, *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation, PEG-CaCl<sub>2</sub>-mediated transformation, protoplast preparation and regeneration.

# INTRODUCTION

Nematophagous fungi have attracted attention because of their potential roles as biocontrol agents for phytonematodes. The development of effective biocontrol agents depends on a thorough understanding of the mechanisms of nematode infection by nematophagous fungi. Serine protease genes have been frequently identified as having roles in the parasitism of nematophagous fungi. Currently, at least 16 serine proteases from trapping fungi, endoparasites or opportunisticspecieshave been purified and characterized (Yang et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2006, 2007, 2009). The introduction of multiple copies of genes encoding serine proteases led to increased nematicidal activity by *Arthrobotrys oligospora* and *Paecilomyces lilacinus* (Åhman et al., 2002; Yang, 2011). In infections by fungi showing egg parasitism, chitinase, which degrades chitin, was involved in egg parasitism; it was present on the surface of nematode eggs and inhibited their growth (Gan et al., 2007 Tikhonov et al., 2002). In addition, Ahrén et al. (2005) found a number of genes that were

<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author. E-mail: yu\_hanying@yahoo.cn. Tel: +86 459 6507753.

differrentially expressed in adhesive knobs versus mycelium and might play a role in the parasitism of *Monacrosporium haptotylum*. These genes included morphogenesis and cell polarity genes such as *rho1*, *rac1* and *ras1*, a *rho* GDP dissociation inhibitor (*rdi1*) and genes involved in stress responses, protein synthesis and degradation, transcription and carbon metabolism.

However, the genes implicated in the in vivo pathogenicity of nematophagous fungi await functional identification. The development of a transformation system for nematophagous fungi is the first step toward functional identification of infection-related genes in vivo and transformation of candidate genes into fungi to improve the efficiency of nematode biocontrol. Thus far, available transformation systems in adhesive networkproducing fungi have been limited to A. oligospora, Monacrosporium sphaeroides and opportunistic P. lilacinus (Åhman et al., 2002; Xu et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2011). Transformation methods for fungi include PEG-CaCl<sub>2</sub>-mediated transformation, restriction enzymemediated introduction (REMI), lithium acetate treatment, electroporation, Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation (ATMT) and biolistic transformation. PEG-CaCl<sub>2</sub>-mediated transformation was traditionally applied to fungi, while ATMT was recently found to be efficient for various fungi (Gao and Yang, 2004). Different fungus transformation methods often use the same recipients and have similar initial steps; thus, a fungus without a known procedure of introducing foreign genes could be assayed simultaneously (or in a reasonable time) using various transformation approaches (Sánchez-Torres et al., 1994).

Dactylellina cionopaga is an adhesive columndeveloping fungus that is a parasite of Meloidogyne javanica and Heterodera schachtii (Khan et al., 2006; Jaffee and Muldoon, 1995). It could easily be developed for commercial purposes due to its rapid growth. Caenorhabditis elegans can be trapped by D. cionopaga, and D. cionopaga-C. elegans may provide a model system for studying the interaction between trapping fungi and plant parasitic nematodes. A cDNA library of D. cionopaga was constructed, and the secretory proteinencoding genes were trapped and sequenced (Duan, 2007). In the present study, the effects of different factors on protoplast preparation and regeneration of D. cionopaga were analyzed. PEG-CaCl<sub>2</sub>or Α. tumefaciens-mediated transformation was then performed to develop an effective and convenient transformation system for this fungus. To our knowledge, this is the first reported transformation of *D. cionopaga*.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Strains and plasmids

*D. cionopaga* AS 3.6776 (SQ27-3) isolated from Panax root-zone soil in the Yunnan province of China, was stored on potato dextrose agar (PDA) slants at 4°C for the experiments (Drechsler, 1950;

Yang, 2006). *A. tumefaciens* AGL-1 and *Escherichia coli* containing pAN7-1 or pK2-BarGFP were stored in 15% glycerol at -80°C. Plasmid pK2-BarGFP was a construct containing the herbicide resistance gene *bar* and the enhanced green fluorescent protein gene *egfp*; it was generated by inserting a *bar::gfp* fusion gene into the *Eco*RI and *Hind*III sites of the binary vector pPK2, from which an *hph* cassette was deleted (Zhang et al., 2010; Jin et al., 2008; McCluskey, 2003).

#### Protoplast preparation and regeneration

*D. cionopaga* was activated by culture on PDA plates at 25°C for 5 days, ground by mortar and pestle and inoculated into a synthetic broth (glucose 10 g/L, peptone 5 g/L, yeast extract 2 g/L, KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 1.52 g/L, NaCl 5 g/L, MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O 0.52 g/L, pH 5.5 to 6.5). The fresh filaments that grew for 20, 24, 36, 39, 45 or 48 h were collected by filtering through a piece of cheesecloth and cleaned with sterile water. Wet mycelia were first treated with β-mercaptoethanol at 30°C for 20 min and then cleaned sequentially with sterile water and lysis buffer before lysis. The protoplasts of *D. cionopaga* were released with enzyme system I, consisting of 10 mg/ml lysing enzyme from *Trichoderma harzianum* (Sigma-Aldrich (Shanghai) Trading Co., Ltd.), and 1 µL/ml lyticase (Tiangen Biotech (Beijing) Co., Ltd.), or enzyme system II, consisting of 10 mg/ml lysing enzyme and 5 mg/ml cellulase R-10 (Yakult, Japan).

To assay the influence of pH on protoplast formation by D. cionopaga, enzyme system I was used in 50 mmol/L potassium acid phthalate (pH 4.0), 18 mmol/L MES (pH 5.3), 10 mmol/L sodium phosphate (pH 6.4), 10 mmol/L Tris-HCI (lysing buffer I; pH 7.5) or 10 mmol/L Tris-HCI (pH 8.3), with 1.2 mol/L sorbitol as the osmotic pressure stabilizer. To test different digestion temperatures, enzyme system I in lysing buffer I was used at 28, 31, 34 and 37°C. Both pH and temperature were tested using 39 h-old hyphae. After 2 h, the digestion was filtered through 2 layers of lens paper to remove residual filaments, and the protoplasts were precipitated by centrifuging at 700 g for 10 min, washed twice with STC (1.2 mol/L sorbitol, 10 mmol/L Tris-Cl, 20 mmol/L CaCl<sub>2</sub>, pH 7.5) and resuspended in 100 µL STC. Regeneration was performed by mixing the protoplasts with PDA containing 1 mol/L sucrose, with regeneration agar (RA) medium (when used as a selective medium containing hygromycin: potato dextrose broth 10 g/L, yeast extract 2 g/L, K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> 1 g/L, MgSO<sub>4</sub> 0.5 g/L, NaNO<sub>3</sub> 3 g/L, sorbitol 218.6 g/L, agar 3.5 g/L, pH 5.5 to 6.5; when used as a selective medium containing glufosinate ammonium: glucose 10 g/L, NaNO<sub>3</sub> 6 g/L, KCI 0.52 g/L, MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O

0.52 g/L, KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 0.25 g/L, sorbitol 218.6 g/L, agar 3.5 g/L, pH 5.5 to 6.5) or with induction medium (IM) with 1.2 mol/L sorbitol (Bundock et al., 1995). To calculate the regeneration rate, the protoplasts were diluted and incubated with water for 30 min. The frequencies of regeneration were computed following the equation Rpf = (Cr - Ch) / Np, where Rpf is the regeneration rate of the protoplasts, Cr is the number of colonies on the regenerative medium, Ch is the number of colonies on the regenerative medium on which the protoplasts treated by sterilized water were spread, and Np is the number of protoplasts (Li et al., 2008).

#### PEG-CaCl<sub>2</sub>- or A. tumefaciens-mediated transformation

The resistance levels of *D. cionopaga* to hygromycin and glufosinate ammonium were assayed on PDA or on RA and IM, respectively. For PEG-CaCl2-mediated transformation, 5 to 10  $\mu$ g linearized pAN7-1 (GenBank ID: Z32698) and 2.5  $\mu$ L carrier DNA (25  $\mu$ g salmon sperm DNA) were added to 1.0 to 2.5×10<sup>6</sup> protoplasts in 100  $\mu$ L STC and incubated on ice for 30 min. Then 25  $\mu$ L 60% PEG-4000 (50 mmol/L CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 mmol/L Tris-Cl pH 7.5)

was then added, and the mixture was incubated on ice for 10 min. An additional 500  $\mu$ L of 60% PEG-4000 (50 mmol/L CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 mmol/L Tris-Cl pH 7.5) was slowly added, and the mixture was incubated at room temperature for 10 min. The solution was diluted with 2 ml of RM (RA without agar) and mixed with 50 ml of molten PDA or RA (42°C). Aliquots (10 ml) were inoculated on plates and incubated at 25°C for 16 to 24 h, and then 10 ml of PDA or RA containing 2.5  $\mu$ g/ml hygromycin B, 100  $\mu$ g/ml ampicillin, and 0.5% agar was overlaid on the medium. After 3 to 10 days, the putative resistant colonies were picked up onto new selective media.

The fresh hyphae of D. cionopaga grown on PDA for 5 days were also transferred using cellophane to water agar and cultured continually for 5 days to generate conidia. The conidia of D. cionopaga were separated by vortexing the culture with glass beads in sterile water for 20 min, centrifuged at 3811 g for 20 min and suspended in 100  $\mu$ L of IM to a concentration of about 1×10<sup>6</sup> conidia/ml. For ATMT transformation of pK2-BarGFP, the plasmid was first transformed into A. tumefaciens AGL-1 by the freezingmelting method. A transformant of A. tumefaciens AGL-1 was stored at -80°C and used to mediate the transformation of D. cionopaga. ATMT was performed using the modified method of Gao and Yang (2004). Briefly, A. tumefaciens AGL-1 carrying pK2-BarGFP was grown in yeast extract broth (YEB; sucrose 5 g/L, yeast 1 g/L, peptone 10 g/L, MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O 0.5 g/L, pH 7.0) at 28°C until the culture reached an OD<sub>660</sub> of about 0.6 and resuspended into IM with 10 mmol/L glucose and 200 µmol/L acetosyringone (AS) to an OD<sub>660</sub> of 0.15. The virulence of the AGL-1 cells was induced by 4 h of incubation at 180 rpm at 28°C. Equal volumes of the AGL-1 cells and previously prepared hyphae or conidia of D. cionopaga were mixed and spread on cellophane on IM plates with 5 mmol/L glucose and 200 µmol/L AS. After co-cultivation at 28°C for 48 h, the mixture was scraped off, suspended in sterile water and transferred to new IM plates with 50 µg/ml glufosinate ammonium and 500 µg/ml cephalosporin, but without 5 mmol/L glucose, to kill A. tumefaciens and screen the putative resistant colonies. When protoplasts of D. cionopaga were utilized as the starting material, the plates used for co-cultivation were not covered by cellophane and were instead directly overlaid with selective RA or IM containing glufosinate ammonium and cephalosporin.

#### Molecular analysis of transformants

Genomic DNA of D. cionopaga transformants was extracted with cetrimonium bromide (CTAB) following the method of Cubero et al. (1999). PCR was performed to identify transformants using primers specific to the terminator of trpC (forward: 5'-gcccggatccacttaacgttactgaaat-3'; reverse: 5'-ggccggatccaagaaggattacctctaa-3') and to the hygromycin B phosphotransferase gene (hph). Reported primers specific to hph (Zhong et al., 2007; Aimi et al., 2005; Weld et al., 2006) were used in addition to primers designed in this study (forward: 5'-gcataacagcggtcattg-3'; reverse: 5'-cggcatctactctattcctt-3'). For spot blot analysis, an approximately 1000-bp DNA fragment, obtained by digestion of pK2-BarGFP with Notl/BamHI and agarose gel purification, was used as a template for the probe labeling of the phosphinothricin N-acetyltransferase gene (bar) and the enhanced green fluorescence protein gene (egfp). The procedures for probe labeling and spot blot analyses were conducted according to the manufacturer's instructions for the digoxigenin (DIG) High Prime DNA Labeling and Detection Starter Kit II (Roche Applied Science). 7

#### Microscopy

The filaments of *D. cionopaga* transformed with pK2-BarGFP were observed with a confocal laser-scanning microscope. Fluorescence emission was examined with a krypton/argon laser. The excitation and emission wavelengths were set at 488 and 525 nm,

respectively.

# RESULTS

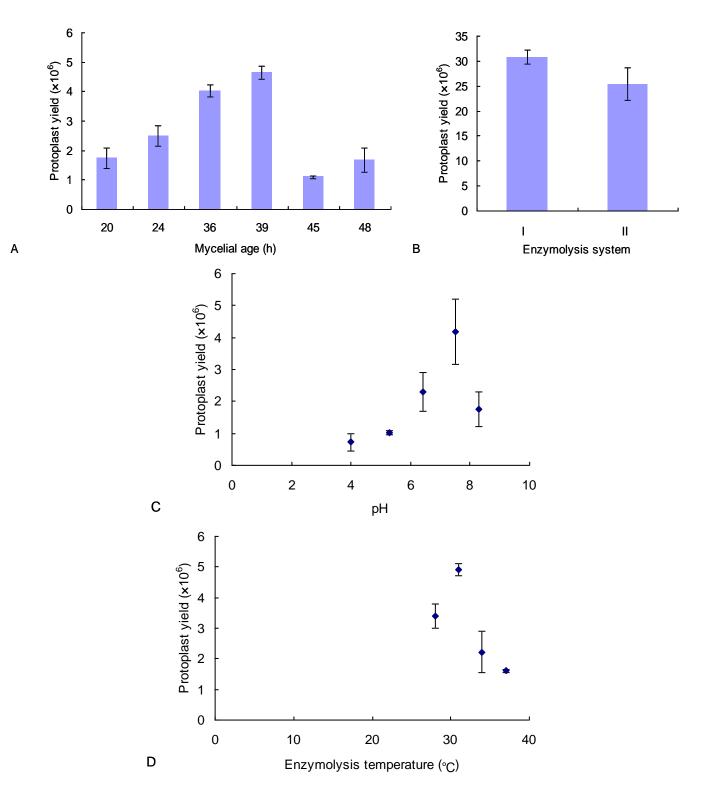
# Factors affecting protoplast preparation and regeneration

Growth time, enzyme system, digestion temperature and pH were all assayed for their influence on protoplast formation by *D. cionopaga*. The number of protoplasts initially increased with mycelial age and then decreased when the filaments were cultured for longer than 39 h. The filaments cultured for 39 h at 25°C at 170 rpm in the synthetic broth medium produced 4.65±0.22×10<sup>6</sup>/ml protoplasts with enzyme system I in lysing buffer I at 37°C; filaments cultured for 20, 24, 36, 45 and 48 h and identically produced  $1.75\pm0.35\times10^{\circ}$ . treated  $2.5\pm0.35\times10^{6}$ .  $4.02\pm0.21\times10^{6}$ .  $1.1\pm0.05\times10^{\circ}$ and 1.68±0.43×10<sup>6</sup>/ml protoplasts, respectively (Figure 1A). Two enzyme systems, both consisting mainly of lysing enzyme, were checked for protoplast release by D. cionopaga. Both enzyme systems I and II generated the same order of magnitude of protoplasts (25.4±3.3×10<sup>6</sup> and  $30.8\pm1.4\times10^{6}$ /ml, respectively), but the number of protoplasts produced by enzyme system I was slightly greater (Figure 1B).

The effect of pH on protoplast preparation of D. cionopaga was also analyzed by dissolving enzyme system I in lysis buffers with different pH values and with 1.2 mol/L sorbitol as the osmotic pressure stabilizer. The results of this experiment showed the generation of 0.725±0.275×10<sup>6</sup>/ml protoplasts in potassium acid phthalate buffer (pH 4.0), 1.025±0.075×10<sup>6</sup>/ml in MES buffer (pH 5.3), 2.30±0.6×10<sup>6</sup>/ml in sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.4), 4.175±1.025×10<sup>6</sup>/ml in Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.5) and 1.75±0.55×10<sup>6</sup>/ml in Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.3) (Figure 1C). The effect of enzymolysis temperature on protoplast generation is presented in Figure 1D; elevated temperature enhanced the number of protoplasts to some extent, but reduced the yield. At the optimal 31°C treatment temperature, 4.9±0.2×10<sup>6</sup>/ml protoplasts could be harvested, whereas 1.6±0.05×10<sup>6</sup>/ml protoplasts were obtained with 37°C treatment. Thus, the optimized conditions for protoplast release of D. cionopaga were a 39 h culture followed by digestion with lysing enzyme,  $\beta$ glucuronidase and lyticase at pH 7.5 and 31°C. The protoplasts harvested after digestion were regenerated on PDA, RA or IM regeneration media, and the regeneration rates were calculated. The regeneration frequency of D. cionopaga was 3.05±0.2% on PDA regeneration medium, whereas 0.11±0.02 and 0.07±0.01% were achieved on RA and IM regeneration media, respectively. No differences in morphology were found between the regenerated and wild-type colonies.

# PEG-CaCl<sub>2</sub>-mediated transformation of protoplasts

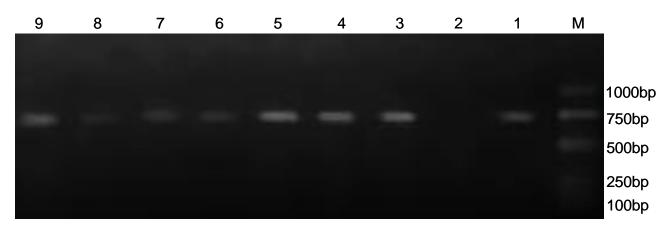
The hygromycin resistance of hyphae, conidia and



**Figure 1.** Effects of factors on protoplast yields. Error bars indicate standard error. **A**, Mycelial age, the protoplasts were generated at 37°C. **B**, Enzymolysis system, the protoplasts were formed from 39 h-old filaments at pH7.5 and at 37°C. **C**, pH, the protoplasts of 39 h-old filaments were prepared at 37°C. **D**, Enzymolysis temperature, the protoplasts of 39h-old filaments were released with lysing enzyme,  $\beta$ -glucuronidase and lyticase at pH7.5.

protoplasts of *D. cionopaga* was assayed on PDA. The growth of hyphae, conidia and protoplasts was com-

pletely inhibited by 2.0  $\mu$ g/ml hygromycin B, and 2.5  $\mu$ g/ml hygromycin B was thus used for transformant



**Figure 2.** PCR analysis of the putative transformants achieved by PEG-CaCl<sub>2</sub> mediated transformation. Lane M, The molecular markers; lane 1, pAN7-1; lane 2, untransformed wild-type strain; lanes 3 to 9, the putative transformants. The vector pAN7-1 contains the hygromycin phosphotransferase (*hph*) construct under the control of the *Aspergillus nidulans gpdA* promoter and the *A. nidulans trpC* terminator.

screening to avoid false-positive colonies. The optimal protoplast preparation conditions, in which hyphae cultured for 39 h and pretreated with  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol at 30°C for 20 min were digested with enzyme system I in lysing buffer I at 37°C for 1.5 to 2 h, were utilized for protoplast formation and subsequent transformation. The putative resistant colonies appeared on the regeneration media after 3 to 10 days and were then screened by several transfers onto selective media.

PCR using *hph*-specific primer sets designed in this study or previously reported was performed to identify the putative transformants. A weak band appeared in the negative control lane with wild-type *D. cionopaga* DNA, while obvious bands appeared in the lanes with putative transformant DNA. Primers (Trp-L and Trp-R2) specific to the terminator of *trpC* on pAN7-1 were additionally employed to identify the transformants (Figure 2). The transformation rate was calculated from the number of colonies on the selective plates, the quantity of plasmid DNA and the number of protoplasts used, and was obtained as 4.2 to 11 resistant colonies per µg DNA per  $10^6$  protoplasts.

# *A. tumefaciens*-mediated transformation of protoplasts, filaments and conidia

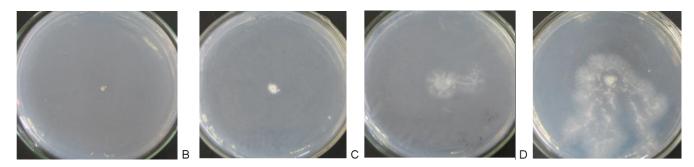
*A. tumefaciens*-mediated transformation of protoplasts, filaments and conidia was conducted to develop a convenient transformation method for *D. cionopaga*. Plasmid pK2-BarGFP, containing *bar* (encoding the glufosinate ammonium resistance protein) and *egfp* (encoding green fluorescent protein), was used for ATMT of *D. cionopaga*. Filaments and conidia of *D. cionopaga* were resistant to glufosinate ammonium at 50 μg/ml on IM and the resistance of protoplasts was the same on both RA and IM regeneration media. ATMT produced no

resistant colonies when protoplasts of *D. cionopaga* were used as the recipient. The putative transformants achieved by mycelium-based transformation could only form tiny colonies on the selective transferring medium whenever 39- or 60-h-old filaments were used, which suggested that those transformants were abortive. However, conidia of *D. cionopaga* were shown to be the most favorable starting material. Ten plates ( $\Phi = 90$  mm) of culture produced about 1×10<sup>6</sup> conidia in 100 to 200 µL IM, which was well suited for ATMT. In three independent experimental replicates, the transformation rate of ATMT, with a co-cultivation time of 48 h at 28°C, was 180-270 resistant colonies/10<sup>6</sup> conidia (Figure 3). The filament tips and conidia of the putative transformants were transferred to new selective medium and further screened.

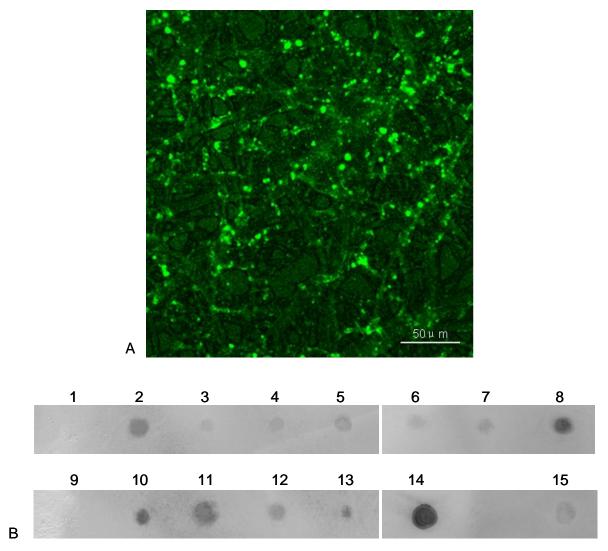
To detect the mitotic stability of the selected transformants, they were also transferred four times on IM without glufosinate ammonium. After this treatment, the transformants still grew normally on the selective medium with 50  $\mu$ g/ml glufosinate ammonium, indicating that those strains were stable through the mitotic cycle. In addition, the transformants were analyzed by spot blotting with a probe specific to *bar* and *egfp* and by microscopic observation. Spot blotting showed that *bar::egfp* was inserted into the genome of *D. cionopaga*, and exogenous *egfp* was microscopically visible in the transformants (Figure 4).

# DISCUSSION

Among nematophagous fungi, transformation systems for *A. oligospora, M. sphaeroides* and *P. lilacinus* have been developed using successful protoplast preparation as their basis (Åhman et al., 2002; Xu et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2011). Protoplasts are used not only for transformation, but also for cell fusion, mutagenesis,



**Figure 3.** Colony morphology of *D. cionopaga* and the screened transformants on selective medium containing 50 µg/ml glufosinate ammonium. **A**, *D. cionopaga*. **B**, The putative transformants using hyphae as the recipient. **C and D**, The putative transformants using conidia as the recipient. Transformation was achieved by ATMT with pK2-BarGFP, which contains the fusion gene *bar::egfp* construct under the control of the *A. nidulans gpd* promoter (*PgpdA*) and the *A. nidulans trpC* terminator. The appearance of the cultures after 7 days is shown.



**Figure 4.** Analysis of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformants. **A**, Filaments under fluorescence microscope. **B**, Spot blot. 1, untransformed *D. cionopaga*; 2 to 13, putative transformants; 14, pK2-BarGFP; 15, plasmids extracted from *A. tumefaciens* AGL-1 carrying the vector pK2-BarGFP by the method of alkaline lysis. Hybridization was performed with a probe homologous to *bar::egfp* from pK2-BarGFP and labeled by DIG with 1 µL DNA solution applied on a charged nylon membrane.

cytoplasmic organelle isolation, investigation of cell wall synthesis, synchronized cell growth, karyotype analysis and genome shuffling (Barrett et al., 1989). No universal protocol existed for protoplast preparation and regeneration of fungi. In this study, the conditions for protoplast preparation of D. cionopaga were optimized, and the regeneration frequencies on different media were computed. Under optimal conditions, between  $4.175 \pm 1.025 \times 10^{6}$  and  $3.08 \pm 1.4 \times 10^{7}$ /ml protoplasts of D. cionopaga could be consistently achieved. The yield was similar to the presented protoplast yields of most fungi, such as Rhizoctonia solani (Liu et al., 2010), Aspergillus niger (de Bekker et al., 2009) and Pleurotus ostreatus (Peng et al., 1993), but was less than the 10<sup>8</sup>/ml achieved using fungi such as Metarhizium anisopliae (Dhar and Kaur, 2009). The protoplasts obtained from D. cionopaga were differently sized, similar to those of R. solani (Liu et al., 2010), and could regenerate on all tested media, although with lower rates than most fungi, including M. sphaeroides (Xu et al., 2005), Curvularia lunata (Osiewaez and Weber, 1989) and A. niger (Kück et al., 1989). RA was employed for PEG-CaCl2-mediated transformation to produce more consistent results than with the semi-synthetic PDA regeneration medium. The regeneration rate on PDA regeneration media was similar to those of a mycorrhizal fungus (Barrett et al., 1990) and P. ostreatus (Lau et al., 1985).

ATMT is a method that introduces exogenous DNA into the recipient with the aid of T-DNA in the plasmid. This approach requires co-cultivation of the recipient and A. tumefaciens containing a binary vector, and the transfer process requires induction of vir by AS, the efficiency of which is influenced by co-cultivation time and temperature, the particular Agrobacterium strain and the concentration and ratio of recipient and Agrobacterium cells (Combier et al., 2003; Kano et al., 2010). Successful ATMT of Aspergillus spp., Fusarium venenatum, Colletotrichum gloeosporioides, Neurospora crassa, and others has been reported (Sugui et al., 2005; de Groot et al., 1998). ATMT is more convenient compared to the laborious protoplast production, the purified and concentrated DNA preparation and the low transformation rate of PEG-CaCl2-mediated transformation. It was found that the gene replacement frequencies obtained by Agrobacterium-mediated transformation were 3- to 6-fold higher than the frequencies obtained with PEG-CaCl2mediated protoplast transformation (Michielse et al., 2005). Different materials can be subjected to ATMT, although conidia are frequently favored. Research on T. reesei confirmed that protoplasts produced higher transformation frequency for ATMT (Yao et al., 2006). It was also shown that using filaments of Agaricus bisporus as the recipient could result in single-copy insertion in the genomic DNA (Mikosch et al., 2001).

However, no ATMT transformants of *D. cionopaga* with protoplasts or mycelia as the starting material have been screened. RA and IM regeneration media were used for

ATMT of *D. cionopaga* protoplasts, the colony growth of which on rich medium could not be controlled by glufosinate ammonium. The regeneration rates of D. cionopaga on RA and IM were similar to those of the ectomycorrhizal fungi Hebeloma cylindrosporum in PPD liquid and Laccaria laccata S444 in PRM liquid (Barrett et al., 1989). The lower regeneration rate of protoplasts of D. cionopaga might be caused by the nutrient-poor IM and RA regeneration media, which may explain the failure of ATMT with protoplasts as the recipient. D. cionopaga produced relatively few conidia, but higher transformation efficiency offset this disadvantage. The concentration of conidia used in this study was lower than those of Aspergillus fumigatus and Leptosphaeria spp. (Sugui et al., 2005; Eckert et al., 2005) and comparable to Beauveria bassiana (Fang et al., 2004), but higher than that of Helminthosporium turcicum (Degefu and Hanif, 2003). A. tumefaciens AGL-1 was used in this study, which has often been more effective than other Agrobacterium strains (Khang et al., 2005). The concentration of AS that was necessary for the induction of the virulence genes in this study resembled that used for most fungi (Wang and Li, 2008; Sugui et al., 2005). The efficiency of ATMT for *D. cionopaga* was significantly higher than that of PEG-CaCl<sub>2</sub>-mediated transformation. It was also higher than the transformation rate of Penicillium digitatum mediated by Agrobacterium (Wang and Li, 2008) and similar to that of Trichoderma reesei (Zhong et al., 2011), but lower than that of H. turcicum (Degefu and Hanif, 2003). T-DNA randomly integrates into the recipient genome.

Moreover, among the obtained ATMT transformants of D. cionopaga, it is interesting to note that some small, dry colonies with fewer aerial hyphae were found in addition to the loose diffusing colonies (Figure 4) that were almost identical to the wild-type strain. The mechanism underlying this phenomenon is not clear. In contrast, various transformant morphologies appeared because of random integration of foreign DNA into the genome of V. dahliae (Maruthachalam et al., 2011). No obvious side effects on growth appeared after ATMT of T. harzianum (Gao and Yang, 2004). Hygromycin B and glufosinate ammonium were used as selective markers for the transformation of D. cionopaga. The use of drug resistance markers does not require the genotype of the recipient to be known. However, one disadvantage of drug markers is that the resistance allele must be isolated so that the wild-type strain can be transformed to resistance, and the resistance allele may not show significant dominance over the wild-type allele, resulting in selection difficulties (Ruiz-Díez, 2002). Higher levels of resistance may depend on multicopy integration in the genome that commonly occurs in homologous recombination (Yao et al., 2006). The low hygromycin resistance of *D. cionopaga* was advantageous compared to the relative resistance to glufosinate ammonium; it offset the expense disadvantage of a drug resistance marker,

but required careful preparation of the selective medium to ensure a reasonable compound concentration for transformant selection. In addition, the *egfp* gene in the vector pK2-BarGFP provided a convenient way to screen transformants.

A series of transformation approaches have been developed for fungi. However, not all fungi can be easily transformed (Skory, 2002; Zhang et al., 2011). The use of multiple different transformation methods in parallel is a helpful way to improve the chances of successfully transforming fungi for which no established protocol exists; as the starting material might be the same across various transformation procedures, there is additional efficiency in a parallel approach. In this study, we presented the development of a transformation procedure for D. cionopaga, a species that produces relatively few PEG-CaCl<sub>2</sub>-mediated conidia based on and Agrobacterium-mediated transformation methods that do not require special instruments. The loose mycelia used for protoplast preparation were obtained by inoculating pulverized filaments of D. cionopaga into a synthetic broth. This new transformation procedure might provide useful insights for the development of transformation protocols for other nematophagous or related fungi, thereby advancing genetic research in other fungi.

The development of *D. cionopaga* protoplast generation and ATMT methods provides a basis for useful tools in studying the parasitism of this fungus through mutant libraries, identification of gene function and improved pathogenicity. Moreover, the strain produced in this work carrying exogenous *egfp* could be used to observe *D. cionopaga* during the infection of nematodes and to analyze its ecological behavior in the environment. The infection-related genes cloned from a cDNA library of *D. cionopaga* now await identification with the new transformation system presented in this work.

#### REFERENCES

- Åhman J, Johansson T, Olsson M, Punt PJ (2002). Improving the pathogenicity of a nematode-trapping fungus by genetic engineering of a subtilisin with nematotoxic activity. Appl. Environ. Microb. 68(7): 3408-3415.
- Ahrén D, Tholander M, Fekete C, Rajashekar B, Friman E, Johansson T, Tunlid A (2005). Comparison of gene expression in trap cells and vegetative hyphae of the nematophagous fungus *Monacrosporium haptotylum*. Microbiol. 151: 789-803.
- Aimi T, Taguchi H, Tanaka Y, Kitamoto Y, Morinaga T (2005). Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated genetic transformation of the white root rot ascomycete Rosellinia necatrix. Mycoscience 46: 27-31.
- Barrett V, Lemke PA, Dixon RK (1989). Protoplast formation from selected species of ectomycorrhizal fungi. Appl.. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 30: 381-387.
- Barrett V, Dixon RK, Lemke PA (1990). Genetic transformation of a mycorrhizal fungus. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 33: 313-316.
- de Bekker C, Wiebenga A, Aguilar G, Wösten HAB (2009). An enzyme cocktail for efficient protoplast formation in *Aspergillus niger*. J. Microbiol. Method, 76(3): 305-306.
- Combier JP, Melayah D, Raffier C, Gay G, Marmeisse R (2003). *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation as a tool for

insertional mutagenesis in the symbiotic ectomycorrhizal fungus *Hebeloma cylindrosporum*. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 220: 141-148.

- Cubero OF, Crespo A, Fatehi J, Bridge PD (1999). DNA extraction and PCR amplification method suitable for fresh, herbarium-stored, lichenized, and other fungi. Plant Syst. Evol. 216: 243-249.
- Degefu Y, Hanif M (2003). Agrobacterium-tumefaciens-mediated transformation of *Helminthosporium turcicum*, the maize leaf-blight fungus. Arch. Microbiol. 180: 279-284.
- Dhar P, Kaur G (2009). Optimization of different factors for efficient protoplast release from entomopathogenic fungus *Metarhizium anisopliae*. Ann. Microbiol. 59(1): 183-186.
- Drechsler C (1950). Several species of *Dactylella* and *Dactylaria* that capture free-living nematodes. Mycologia, 42: 1-79.
- Duan JX (2007). Secretome of nematophagous fungi. PhD thesis, Graduate School of Chinese Academy of Sci. Beijing, China. p. 35.
- Eckert M, Maguire K, Urban M, Foster S, Fitt B, Lucas J, Hammond-Kosack K (2005). *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation of *Leptosphaeria* spp. and *Oculimacula* spp. with the reef coral gene DsRed and the jellyfish gene *gfp*. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 253: 67-74.
- Fang WG, Zhang YJ, Yang XY, Zheng XL, Duan H, Li Y, Pei Y (2004). Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation of *Beauveria* bassiana using an herbicide resistance gene as a selection marker. J. Invertebr. Pathol. 85: 18-24.
- Gan Z, Yang J, Tao N, Liang L, Mi Q, Li J, Zhang KQ (2007). Cloning of the gene *Lecanicillium psalliotae* chitinase *Lpchi1* and identification of its potential role in the biocontrol of root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita*. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 76(6): 1309-1317.
- Gao XX, Yang Q (2004). Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation of *Cry1A(b)* gene to *Trichoderma harzianum*. Chin. Sci. Bull. 49(23): 2491-2494.
- de Groot MJA, Bundock P, Hooykaas PJJ, Beijersbergen AGM (1998). *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation of filamentous fungi. Nat. Biotechnol. 16: 839-842.
- Jaffee BA, Muldoon AE (1995). Susceptibility of root-knot and cyst nematodes to the nematode-trapping fungi *Monacrosporium ellipsosporum* and *M. cionopagum*. Soil Biol. Biochem. 27(8): 1083-1090.
- Jin K, Zhang YJ, Luo ZB, Xiao YH, Fan YH, Wu D, Pei Y (2008). An improved method for *Beauveria bassiana* transformation using phosphinothricin acetlytransferase and green fluorescent protein fusion gene as a selectable and visible marker. Biotechnol. Lett. 30: 1379-1383.
- Kano S, Kurita T, Kanematsu S, Morinaga T (2010). Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation of the violet root-rot fungus, *Helicobasidium mompa*, and the effect of activated carbon. Mycoscience, 52(1): 24-30.
- Khang CH, Park SY, Lee YH, Kang S (2005). A dual selection based, targeted gene replacement tool for *Magnaporthe grisea* and *Fusarium oxysporum*. Fungal Genet. Biol. 42: 483-492.
- Khan A, Williams KL, Nevalainen HKM (2006). Control of plant-parasitic nematodes by *Paecilomyces lilacinus* and *Monacrosporium lysipagum* in pot trials. BioControl, 51: 643-658.
- Kück U, Walz M, Mohr G, Mracek M (1989). The 5'-sequence of the isopenicillin N-synthetase gene (*pcbC*) from *Cephalosporium acremonium* directs the expression of the prokaryotic hygromycin B phosphotransferase gene (*hph*) in *Aspergillus niger*. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 31: 358-365.
- Lau WC, Dhillon EKS, Chang ST (1985). Isolation and reversion of protoplasts of *Pleurotus sajor-caju*. Mircen J. 1: 191-194.
- Li Y, Yuan QP, Du XL (2008). Protoplast from β-carotene-producing fungus *Blakeslea trispora*: Preparation, regeneration and validation. Korean J. Chem. Eng. 25(6): 1416-1421.
- Liu TH, Lin MJ, Ko WH (2010). Factors affecting protoplast formation by *Rhizoctonia solani*. New Biotechnol. 27(3): 64-69.
- Maruthachalam K, Klosterman SJ, Kang S, Hayes RJ, Subbarao KV (2011). Identification of pathogenicity-related genes in the vascular wilt fungus *Verticillium dahliae* by *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated T-DNA insertional mutagenesis. Mol. Biotechnol. 49(3): 209-210.
- McCluskey K (2003). The Fungal Genetics Stock Center: from molds to molecules. Adv. Appl. Microbiol. 52: 245-262.

- Michielse CB, Arentshorst M, Ram AFJ, van der Hondel CAMJJ (2005). *Agrobacterium*-mediated ransformation leads to improved gene replacement effciency in *Aspergillus awamori*. Fungal Genet. Biol. 42: 9-19.
- Mikosch TS, Lavrijssen B, Sonnenberg AS, van Griensven LJ (2001). Transformation of the cultivated mushroom *Agaricus bisporus* (Lange) using T-DNA from *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. Curr. Genet. 39: 35-39.
- Osiewaez HD, Weber A (1989). DNA mediated transformation of the filamentous fungus *Curvularia lunata* using a dominant selectable marker. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 30: 375-380.
- Peng M, Lemke PA, Shaw JJ (1993). Improved conditions for protoplast formation and transformation of *Pleurotus ostreatus*. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 40(1): 101-106.
- Ruiz-Díez B (2002). Strategies for the transformation of filamentous fungi. J. Appl. Microbiol. 92: 189-195.
- Sánchez-Torres P, González R, Pérez-González JA, González-Candelas L, Ramón D (1994). Development of a transformation system for *Trichoderma longibrachiatum* and its use for constructing multicopy transformants for the *egll* gene. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 41: 440-446.
- Skory C (2002). Homologous recombination and double-strand break repair in the transformation of *Rhizopus oryzae*. Molecul. Genet. Genomics, 268(3): 397-406.
- Sugui JA, Chang YC, Kwon-Chung KJ (2005). Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation of Aspergillus fumigatus: an efficient-mediated transformation of tool for insertional mutagenesis and targeted gene disruption. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 71(4): 1798-1802.
- Tikhonov VE, Lopez-Llorca LV, Salinas J, Jansson HB (2002). Purification and characterization of chitinases from the nematophagous fungi *Verticillium chlamydosporium* and *V. suchlasporium*. Fungal Genet. Biol. 35: 67-78.
- Wang M, Yang J, Zhang KQ (2006). Characterization of an extracellular protease and its cDNA from the nematode-trapping fungus *Monacrosporium microscaphoides*. Can. J. Microbiol. 52(2): 130-139.
- Wang B, Wu WP, Liu XZ (2007). Purification and characterization of a neutral serine protease with nematicidal activity from *Hirsutella rhossiliensis*. Mycopathologia, 163: 169-176.
- Wang JY, Li HY (2008). Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated genetic transformation of the phytopathogenic fungus *Penicillium digitatum*. J. Zhejiang Univ-Sc B. 9(10): 823-828.
- Wang B, Liu XY, Wu WP, Liu XZ, Li SD (2009). Purification, characterization, and gene cloning of an alkaline serine protease from a highly virulent strain of the nematode-endoparasitic fungus *Hirsutella rhossiliensis*. Microbiol. Res. 164: 665-673.
- Weld RJ, Eady CC, Ridgway HJ (2006). Agrobacterium-mediated transformation of Sclerotinia sclerotiorum. J. Microbiol. Method, 65: 202-207.
- Xu J, Mo MH, Zhou W, Huang XW, Zhang KQ (2005). Transformation and mutagenesis of the nematode-trapping fungus *Monacrosporium sphaeroides* by restriction enzyme-mediated integration. J. Microbiol. 43(5): 417-423.

- Yang JK, Huang XW, Tian BY, Wang M, Niu QH, Zhang KQ (2005). Isolation and characterization of a serine protease from the nematophagous fungus, *Lecanicillium psalliotae*, displaying nematicidal activity. Biotechnol. Lett. 27: 1123-1128.
- Yang Y (2006). Taxonomy of predatory fungi of *Orbiliaceae* (Ascomycotina) and molecular evolution of trapping devices. PhD thesis, Graduate School of Chinese Academy Sci. Beijing, China. p. 80.
- Yang JK, Zhao XN, Liang LM, Xia ZY, Lei LP, Niu XM, Zou CG, Zhang KQ (2011). Overexpression of a cuticle-degrading protease Ver112 increases the nematicidal activity of *Paecilomyces lilacinus*. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 89: 1895-1903.
- Yao TT, Wang YM, Gu JL, Wang ZX (2006). Overproduction of glucoamylase by recombinant *Aspergillus niger* harboring multiple copies of *glaA*. Chin. J. Biotech. 22(4): 567-571.
- Zhang YJ, Zhang JQ, Jiang XD, Wang GJ, Luo ZB, Fan YH, Wu ZQ, Pei Y (2010). Requirement of a mitogen-activated protein kinase for appressorium formation and penetration of insect cuticle by the entomopathogenic fungus *Beauveria bassiana*. Appl. Environ. Microb. 76(7): 2262-2270.
- Zhang JX, Mao ZH, Xue W, Li Y, Tang GM, Wang AQ, Zhang YJ, Wang HM (2011). *Ku80* gene is related to non-homologous end-joining and genome stability in *Aspergillus niger*. Curr. Microbiol. 62: 1342-1346.
- Zhong YH, Wang XL, Wang TH, Jiang Q (2007). Agrobacteriummediated transformation (AMT) of *Trichoderma reesei* as an efficient tool for random insertional mutagenesis. Appl. Microbiol. Biot. 73: 1348-1354.
- Zhong YH, Yu HN, Wang XL, Lu Y, Wang TH (2011). Towards a novel efficient T-DNA-based mutagenesis and screening system using green fluorescent protein as a vital reporter in the industrially important fungus *Trichoderma reesei*. Mol. Biol. Rep. 38: 4145-4151.