



专论与综述

马铃薯致病疫霉研究进展

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摘要: 马铃薯致病疫霉(*Phytophthora infestans*)属卵菌纲(*Oomycetes*)霜霉目(*Peronosporales*)腐霉科(*Pythiaceae*)疫霉属(*Phytophthora*)，是马铃薯和番茄晚疫病病原菌。由于晚疫病对马铃薯生产的毁灭性和严重性，对致病疫霉的研究一直是关注的重点。本文首先对病害引起的症状、发生特点及流行规律进行阐述，对有性生殖发生的遗传规律和多种交配型共存的大环境下病原菌群体结构变异特点进行归纳总结。随着2009年致病疫霉基因组测序的完成，本文比对了疫霉属目前已完成测序各个种的基因组学特点，介绍了致病疫霉在效应子克隆方面的研究进展及线粒体基因组研究现状，阐述了功能基因组学的两个重要技术：高密度遗传连锁图谱(high density linkage mapping)和全基因组关联分析(genome-wide association study, GWAS)，及其在挖掘致病疫霉重要功能基因上的应用。本文有助于了解致病疫霉研究热点及后续突破方向，可为深入解析致病疫霉的功能基因及致病机制提供参考，对开发马铃薯晚疫病菌药物靶标及预测病害的大规模流行趋势也具有重要意义。

关键词: 马铃薯致病疫霉，群体结构，基因组，效应子，连锁图谱，全基因组关联分析

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Research progress in *Phytophthora infestans*, pathogen of potato late blight

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Abstract: *Phytophthora infestans*, which is responsible for potato and tomato late blight disease, belongs to *Oomycetes*, *Peronosporales*, *Pythiaceae* and genus of *Phytophthora*. Most research focus on *P. infestans* because it is destructive to potato production. Firstly, in this review, late blight symptoms caused by *P. infestans*, disease occurrence characteristics and epidemiology were illustrated, then the inheritance of sexual reproduction occurrence and variation of population structure with coexistence of various mating types, were also summarized. Since *P. infestans* genome sequenced in 2009, characteristics of genomics in various species among genus of *Phytophthora* were compared, and the research progress of effector cloning and mitochondrial genome were also introduced. Finally, the review demonstrated two significant technologies in functional genomics, high density genetic linkage mapping and genome-wide association study (GWAS), which were convenient for functional genes searching. This review can help to better understand the research highlight and further breakthroughs of *P. infestans*, which may provide a reference to further analysis on functional gene and pathogenic mechanism of *P. infestans*, and it is important to develop chemical control targets and epidemic trend forecasting.

Keywords: *Phytophthora infestans*, Population structure, Genome, Effector, Linkage map, Genome-wide association study (GWAS)

马铃薯起源于南美大陆安第斯山脉沿岸周边国家，主要集中在秘鲁、智利、厄瓜多尔和玻利维亚。公元 1788 年《房县志》(清钞本)为我国最早、确凿的关于马铃薯的文字报道(卷 物产·救荒类中提到“远山有赖可以为粮者”: 洋芋、花荞、需有谷、乱草谷若逢六七月大旱，则山中以上四物大收)^[1]，到 1843–1911 年西南地区已有大面积种植^[2]。我国是马铃薯种植大国，根据联合国粮食及农业组织(Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, FAO)统计数据，截至 2017 年种植面积已达到 5 767 480 hm²，产量达约 99 205 600 t (<https://www.potatopro.com/world/potato-statistics>)。2015 年，国家农业部提出了马铃薯主粮化，将马铃薯提升到战略水平。国际马铃薯中心宣布 2019 年将马铃薯的工作焦点集中在中国(<http://www.chinapotato.org/>)。但是，由致病疫霉[*Phytophthora infestans* (Mont) de

Bary, *P. infestans*]引起的马铃薯晚疫病(potato late blight, PLB)在一般年份的发病面积占总种植面积的 30%，严重时造成 50% 的损失，局部地区甚至绝产，对我国粮食安全及自给自足也造成了连年威胁^[3]。

PLB 不仅可以使马铃薯植株快速枯萎死亡，还可以使地下块茎腐烂，因此导致产量损失严重。19 世纪 40 年代，由 PLB 引起的爱尔兰大饥荒导致大约 100 万人死亡，另有超过 100 万人迁移到其他国家。对 PLB 的不断深入研究发现，培育抗病品种和使用化学药剂是两种现有的特别有效的防治方法。但近年来由于育种亲本资源多为马铃薯四倍体普通栽培型(*Solanum tuberosum* ssp. *tuberosum*)，其遗传背景狭窄，在田间容易发生退化，导致 PLB 暴发，这些栽培种的推广和大规模种植也会导致品种频繁更替及地方品种消失。除此

之外，种植管理不当、滥用农药化肥、气候的极端变化而导致病原菌生理小种快速变异，使 PLB 在我国，特别是西南地区呈逐年加重的趋势。本文阐述了马铃薯晚疫病的发生和流行特点、预测预报及早期检测手段、致病疫霉有性生殖发生规律和群体结构研究、马铃薯-致病疫霉互作研究和基因组学方面的主要研究进展，对致病疫霉今后主要的研究方向提出了展望。

1 发生、流行及检测

1.1 PLB 的发生条件

P. infestans 主要侵染马铃薯和番茄的叶、茎和块茎，喜好在潮湿、凉爽的环境条件下侵染。在空气湿度超过 75%、温度为 20 °C 左右时，有利于无性孢子囊的大量形成，成为田间的再侵染源；温度在 24–25 °C 并有水滴存在可以保持 6 h 左右时，有利于孢子囊直接产生芽管^[4-5]；当夜间温度冷凉（10–13 °C）且湿度较大时，有利于孢子囊萌发产生游动孢子。因此，在连续下雨天及昼夜温差较大的环境条件下，PLB 最容易发生及流行，一旦观察到田间零星发生晚疫病且已经形成发病中心，如果不采取任何措施，约在 10–14 d 病害将会大范围蔓延至全田，造成严重的产量损失。

初侵染常发生在植株下部叶片，初期叶边缘出现水浸状黑色小病斑，在病斑周围具有浅绿色的晕圈。当周围环境湿度大时，病斑迅速扩大，变成褐色并产生白色霉状物，即孢子囊和孢囊梗（图 1A）。空气干燥时病斑迅速干枯，白色霉状物减少或消失，病原物随植物细胞死亡而死亡，因此病斑增长速度缓慢。PLB 为周年多循环病害，在田间可形成多次初侵染，侵染茎部时，产生褐色或黑色条斑（图 1B）。PLB 发病严重时地里呈现出一片枯焦的现象（图 1C），并且散发出难闻的气味。*P. infestans* 侵染马铃薯块茎时由 3 个途径进行：(1) 卵孢子在土壤或者残枝中越冬，并在适合的条件下萌发，被称为初侵染源；(2) 感染寄主茎部的病原菌随着维管束系统进入地下部分，随着匍匐茎的膨大而进入块茎；(3) 在块茎收获后的储藏期，病原菌在堆积

的种薯间快速传播。随着 PLB 侵染的继续进行，块茎的表皮下呈现出褐色或黑褐色的病斑，随后很快腐烂并伴随着恶臭（图 1D）。

1.2 病害流行的预测预报

从 1845 年爱尔兰大饥荒发生后，世界范围内对 PLB 的早期预测预报技术相继被报道，预测 PLB 主要通过气温、降雨、风速、相对湿度和日照时数等方面的气象条件数据，计算出各变量与严重度、病情指数和 AUDPC (area under disease progress curve) 或 rAUDPC 之间的相关性并建立预测预报模型^[6]。例如适用于美国弗吉尼亚州的 Cook 模型^[7]、缅因州和纽约州的 Wallin 模型^[8]，英国推广的 Smith 模型^[6]，由国际马铃薯中心 (International Potato Center, CIP) 2001 年开发的 CASTOR 模型^[9]，以及比利时开发的 CARAH 模型^[10]。



图 1 致病疫霉侵染马铃薯的症状

Figure 1 Symptoms of potato infected by *P. infestans*

注：A: *P. infestans* 侵染后叶片症状(25°36'9"N, 102°58'31"E; 温度 21 °C; 湿度 73%); B: *P. infestans* 侵染后马茎部症状(25°36'9"N, 102°58'31"E; 温度 21 °C; 湿度 73%); C: PLB 发病严重造成一片枯焦(25°36'9"N, 102°58'31"E; 温度 21 °C; 湿度 73%); D: *P. infestans* 侵染后块茎症状(24°52'5"N, 102°51'36"E; 温度 19 °C; 湿度 89%)。

Note: A: Leaf symptom infected by *P. infestans* (25°36'9"N, 102°58'31"E; 21 °C; humidity 73%); B: Stem symptom infected by *P. infestans* (25°36'9"N, 102°58'31"E; 21 °C; humidity 73%); C: Potato late blight destroyed potato field (25°36'9"N, 102°58'31"E; 21 °C; humidity 73%); D: Tuber symptom infected by *P. infestans* (24°52'5"N, 102°51'36"E; 19 °C; humidity 89%).

2008年孙茂林等利用CASTOR软件准确预测了我国昆明市、昭通市、宣威市及迪庆州的晚疫病发生^[11],在此之后,在我国的宁夏^[12-13]、甘肃^[14]、内蒙古^[15]、贵州^[16]和青海^[17]均报道了适合于当地的短期预测预报技术。

2005–2014年,Skelsey等利用监测太阳辐射条件下的无性孢子存活率数据建立的Generalized Linear Mixed模型(GLMM)准确预测了7 d内PLB的流行趋势^[18]。此外,研究人员通过收集天气数据,基于病害模拟发生数据建立了病害决策支持系统(decision support system, DSS),该系统是预测早期PLB发生的重要模型(图2)^[19]。截至目前,许多国家都开发了约20个基于DSS的模型,如SimCast^[20], NegFry^[21], Plant-Plus和ProPhy^[22], Guntz-Divoux和PhytoPre^[23], China-blight^[24],以及VNIIIFBlight^[25]。此外,也可利用光谱法建立病害预测模型,如Li等利用基于过氧化物酶活性的超光谱法构建高效的晚疫病预测模型^[26]。

由于上述大部分模型均由国外开发,我国目前尚不具备完整的知识产权及核心体系;而且由于我

国南北地域广阔,同一种模型所能适应的地区有限,因此难以开发一种适用于全国马铃薯主产区的预测模型。在今后的研究中,需要加大气象站的密度,加强实施联网检测,还要借助孢子捕捉设备定期进行病原菌的积累分析,开发适合跨大区的全国晚疫病联网预警模型。

1.3 晚疫病的早期快速诊断

PLB在田间病害中心形成后蔓延速度极快,14–21 d就可以毁掉大片种植地。此外,收获后地里的残枝上存活的病原菌,以及掉落于土壤中的卵孢子越冬后可以侵染下一个种植季的种薯,使得PLB的发生提前和加重^[27]。传统的PLB检测主要依靠症状观察,在田间存在复合侵染时,还需把病样带回实验室分离鉴定后完成柯赫氏法则。利用基于天气情况的预测预报系统^[28]和监测空气中孢子的密度^[29]可以进行发病前诊断和指导用药,但前者需要针对不同地区建立预测模型,后期无法区分出空气中孢子的种类。近年来利用PCR技术^[30-32]、qPCR技术^[33]以及LAMP技术^[32,34]已经可以在潜伏侵染条件下快速检测到植物各组织内病原菌的存在

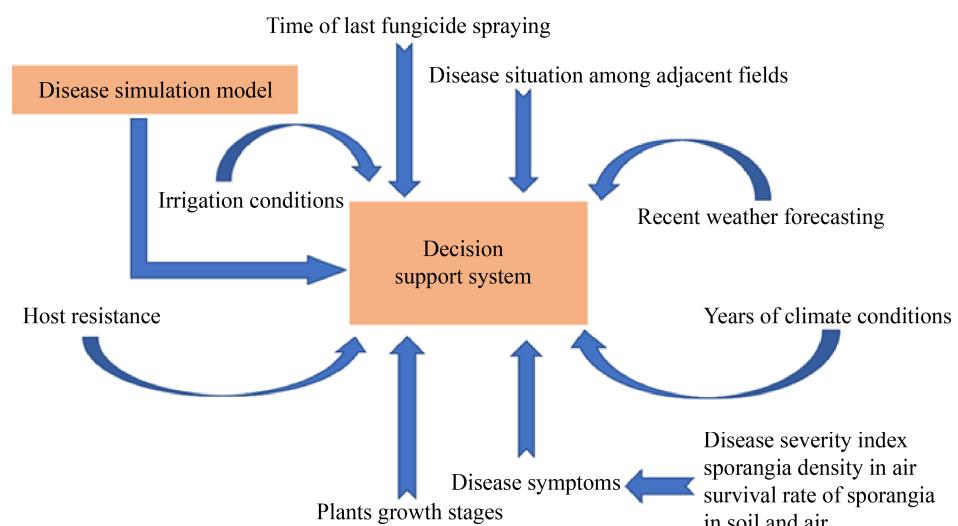


图2 构建DSS模型所含因子

Figure 2 Input factors in DSS model

及含量,或者直接检测土壤中无性和有性孢子的存在。结合简易快速的 DNA 提取方法^[35]可以在数小时内直接检出田间 PLB 病原。随着跨学科的发展,一些新兴的无损技术被用于检测早期植物病害,如利用高光谱成像系统进行熵评估而实现病原菌的早期快速检测^[36]。此外,也可利用饱和脉冲技术诱导固定波长 LED 光源生成不同类型的荧光指标,并记录动力学曲线及参数,从而实现病害早期快速检测^[37]。GC-FID 通过检测来自受损植物的挥发性代谢物(含碳有机物)来监测病害症状发展和产孢情况,从而确定植株的病害发育阶段^[38],也可利用基于智能手机的便携传感器平台,通过检测叶片挥发性气体中的有机化合物差异,即可快速简便地鉴定出是否早期感染了 *P. infestans*,准确率达 95%^[39]。

2 致病疫霉群体遗传结构

群体遗传主要关注致病疫霉群体内和群体间遗传及变异规律,可为深入了解病原、病害预防和监测提供重要的信息和措施。致病疫霉群体结构研究包括表型和基因型特点及二者之间的相关性分析。

2.1 表型研究

对 *P. infestans* 表型的研究主要包括交配型、抗药性以及对寄主的毒性等方面。前期研究表明,这 3 个表型的分离均偏离孟德尔单基因显性遗传分离规律^[40]。

2.1.1 交配型研究及有性生殖发生条件

前人研究表明, *P. infestans* 的交配型分 5 种:A0 交配型、A1 交配型、A2 交配型、A1A2 交配型以及自育型^[41]。20 世纪 80 年代以前,仅在墨西哥报道出现 A2 交配型,其他地区仅发现 A1 交配型菌株^[42]。目前 A2 交配型菌株在世界各国均有报道^[43-45],并在某些地区取代原先的 A1 型菌株成为优势群体^[5,46],如具有 A2 交配型的超级生理小种 Blue_13^[47]。超级生理小种的出现可能是由于田间有性生殖的发生,也可能由于突变产生或随带病薯

块传入^[27,48]。但是在某些地区以强侵染性的 A1 交配型菌株为优势群体^[49-50],如在乌干达、卢旺达、布隆迪和坦桑尼亚地区,2_A1 取代传统的 US-1 成为该地区的优势群体。Njoroge 等猜测非洲东部主要优势群体为 2_A1,可能是由于 2_A1 比 US-1 具有更强的侵染性^[51]。交配型的研究可为解析 *P. infestans* 群体遗传结构变化提供理论基础,也可为预测病害流行与发生提供指导作用。

测定交配型最开始使用的方法为对峙培养法,即通过与已知交配型的 A1、A2 型标准菌株对峙培养,观察是否有卵孢子产生,从而确定待测菌株交配型。该方法测定最准确但耗时费力。随着生物技术的发展,分子标记检测法被用于交配型的测定,即通过与交配型相关的特异性分子标记确定待测菌株的交配型,如 W16、S1、PHYB^[52] 和 CAPs^[53]。但是分子标记法存在一定的缺陷,如使用 W16 时,A1 交配型菌株存在 W1 等位基因,但 A2 型菌株也存在 W1 等位基因,因此会导致实验结果不准确^[53];Beketova 等发现利用 W16 测定交配型时错误率为 5%^[54];缪云琴等发现利用 CAPs 测定交配型时,该方法不能区分 A2 和 A1A2 交配型^[53];Brylińska 等发现利用 W16 和 S1 检测交配型具有 96% 的正确率,利用 PHYB 检测交配型具有 86% 的正确率^[52]。要排除上述标记检测的误差,需要构建交配型决定位点的精细遗传图谱,以期开发与交配型位点紧密连锁的分子标记^[55]。因此,为保证实验的准确性,在测定菌株交配型时仍应优先选择对峙培养法。

P. infestans 生活史同时包括无性阶段和有性阶段,其无性阶段为病原菌侵染植物及维持子代遗传稳定性的阶段,当田间致病疫霉交配型多样化且环境变得不利于病原菌无性阶段持续发生时,有性生殖阶段就有大概率发生。有性阶段产生的卵孢子是病原菌越冬的主要形式,并可能成为初侵染源,在第二年加速病害发生程度,卵孢子的萌发也增加了 *P. infestans* 的变异,使其群体结构发生快速变化^[27,56]。通过研究在实验室条件下有性生殖发生和卵孢子萌发诱导条件,发现有性后代

交配型和抗药性分离比均产生偏离, 不符合单基因遗传模式^[40,57]。同时, 基因型也发生了分离, 例如染色体倍性及无毒基因序列的多样化导致了对寄主毒力的显著改变^[57-58]。

2.1.2 抗药性及 PLB 防治研究

目前 *P. infestans* 的防治主要采用化学药剂, 其中甲霜灵(瑞毒霉)为使用最为广泛的药剂^[59], 此外烯酰吗啉^[60]、乙蒜素^[61]、银法利^[62]等也可用于防治 *P. infestans*。然而近年来由于甲霜灵等苯基酰胺类被广泛使用, 导致 *P. infestans* 产生抗性, 使得该类杀菌剂的防治效果降低^[63]。因此自 1981 年在爱尔兰发现了抗甲霜灵菌株后^[64], 目前在世界各国均有报道抗甲霜灵菌株的出现^[65-66]。李炜等首次报道我国河北省出现了抗甲霜灵菌株^[67], 随后我国其他地区陆续均报道发现抗甲霜灵菌株且成为优势群体^[50,68-69]。此外, 除了单一持续用药导致的菌株被定向驯化而产生甲霜灵抗性菌株外, 也有研究表明抗性菌株的产生是由于突变^[70]或有性生殖的发生^[71]。此外, Rekad 等发现交配型与抗药性具有一定的关联性, 抗药性的菌株交配型多为 A2 型^[46]。

随着甲霜灵的频繁使用, 导致田间 *P. infestans* 产生抗性^[50]。烯酰吗啉作为一种新型杀菌剂被用于致病疫霉的防治, 烯酰吗啉是一种肉桂酸类化合物的衍生物, 可破坏真菌细胞壁的形成, 从而达到防治作用; 作为一种新型杀菌剂, *P. infestans* 对烯酰吗啉表现出高度敏感性^[72]。朱小琼等研究发现甲霜灵敏感、中抗、高抗菌株对烯酰吗啉均表现为敏感性^[73]。Ryu 等对云南省采集的 83 株 *P. infestans* 研究发现, 所有菌株均为烯酰吗啉敏感性^[74]。研究表明, 溴化乙锭或紫外线处理, 以及使 *P. infestans* 不断在含烯酰吗啉的培养基中生长均可诱导烯酰吗啉抗性菌株的产生^[75-76]。此外, 杜邦公司新产品增威赢绿TM(10%氟噻唑吡乙酮可分散油悬浮剂)对 *P. infestans* 均具有良好的抑制作用。

2.1.3 毒性研究进展

对 *P. infestans* 毒性测定可通过含单抗性基因

RI-RII 的标准寄主进行生理小种鉴定, 将待测菌株的无性孢子囊悬浮液接种于含单抗性基因的标准寄主离体叶片中, 3~5 d 观察是否有病斑及孢子囊出现, 若叶片无病斑或有病斑但无孢子囊则为抗病, 若叶片有病斑且有孢子囊则为感病^[77]。此外, 也可根据卵菌和寄主相互作用的保守结构域 RXLR-dEER 找到的效应子构成的效应子库对鉴别寄主进行接种反应, 根据 HR 反应产生情况判定抗病与感病^[78]。

Utami 等对印度尼西亚地区 *P. infestans* 生理小种进行了测定, 发现 *P. infestans* 生理小种较为复杂, 对含 *RI-R5* 基因的标准寄主具广谱的致病型^[79]。Fukue 等对 2013 年和 2014 年在日本北海道采集的 29 株致病疫霉进行了毒力鉴定, 发现每株 *P. infestans* 都有 5~8 个致病因子^[80]; Sedlák 等对 2012~2014 年和 2016 年从捷克采集的 338 个致病疫霉进行毒力和生理小种测定, 发现 *R1*、*R3*、*R7*、*R10*、*RII* 占优势, 所有的菌株均对 5 个或 5 个以上的 *R* 基因有毒性, 平均毒力复杂度为 7.1, 最常见的生理小种为 1.2.3.4.6.7.10.11 和 1.2.3.4.7.10.11^[81]。然而, 在许多国家却陆续报道了含 *RI-RII* 的超级生理小种^[82], 如 Blue_13 A2 超级生理小种的出现与传播给马铃薯晚疫病的防治带来了极大的挑战^[47,58]。我国西北地区也发现了含 *RI-RII* 的菌株且成为优势群体^[83]。此外, 研究表明, 有性生殖的发生及寄主的选择压力会导致菌株毒性基因发生变异, 进一步加大了马铃薯晚疫病的防治难度^[57,84]。

2.2 基因型的研究

对 *P. infestans* 基因型的研究包括染色体倍性分析、胞质 DNA 多态性(线粒体单倍型等)及核基因组多态性。

2.2.1 染色体倍性多样性

目前研究表明, *P. infestans* 多为二倍体, 但也有三倍体和混倍体的存在^[85-88]。前人研究表明, 三倍体菌株大多数为无性生殖后代, 具有更高的遗传多样性和毒性且多为田间的优势群体, 如

Blue_13^[58]。*P. infestans* 染色体倍性的多样性增加了群体结构的遗传多样性，加大了对 *P. infestans* 的防治与监控难度。Li 等发现三倍体菌株在甲霜灵胁迫下可转变为二倍体菌株，但具体原因不明^[58]。

2.2.2 细胞质基因组多态性

由于线粒体 DNA 具有结构简单、分子量小、大多呈母系遗传等特点，被广泛用于致病疫霉的起源与进化方面的研究。*P. infestans* 线粒体 DNA 单倍型(mtDNA)分为 4 种：I a 型、II a 型、I b 型、II b 型，其中 I b 型是马铃薯晚疫病菌最古老的菌系^[89]，出现于中南美洲的墨西哥和智利。I a 型^[90]、II a 型^[91]、II b 及未报道过的新线粒体单倍型^[92]在世界各地均有报道，其中许多国家以 I a 型为优势群体^[47,92]。目前鉴定 *P. infestans* 线粒体 DNA 单倍型采用的方法是酶切法^[93]和 RFLP 法^[92,94]。田荟遥等通过对东北三省致病疫霉线粒体单倍型分析发现，不同类型的线粒体单倍型与菌株致病性及其产孢量相关，其中 II a、II b 型菌株致病性最强且产孢能力强^[95]。

2.2.3 核基因组多态性

基于核基因组多态性的研究可采用基于 PCR 分子标记的 AFLP、SSR、SNP 和非依赖于 PCR 技术的 RFLP 和同工酶几种手段进行。Henriquez 等利用 SH/cDNA-AFLP 结合的方法确定一些控制发病的基因和 *Avr* 基因^[96]。Lees 等利用 12 个 SSR 标记从 90 株致病疫霉中检测出 68 种不同的基因型^[97]。Matson 等发现某些 SNP 与菌株抗药性有关，仅存在于抗药性菌株中，如 U23 和 U24^[98]。Alkher 等利用 RG57 作为探针构建 RFLP 指纹图谱，发现加拿大多数省份的 *P. infestans* 群体结构在 2012 年这一年发生快速变化，U-23 基因型的菌株成为优势群体^[99]。Huang 等发现贵州省 *P. infestans* 的 Gpi 基因型主要为 100/100 和 100/100/111^[49]。对于核基因组多态性的研究，目前使用最广泛的是共显性 SSR 多态性标记^[58,79,95,100]。

3 基因组及效应子研究

在基因组测序未完成前，致病疫霉主要通过利用分子标记构建遗传图谱及 QTL 定位、EST、图位克隆等方法对其功能基因进行研究。2001 年 Whisson 等利用 AFLP 构建了 *P. infestans* 的遗传图谱，并利用 BAC 文库筛选到了 *Avr11*、*Avr3* 和 *Avr10* 基因簇^[101]。2004 年 van der Lee 等利用高密度分子标记构建了和交配型连锁的遗传图谱，并发现了后代中存在染色体三体结构^[102]。2005 年 Randall 等在不同阶段的 20 个 cDNA 文库中找到了 75 757 个 ESTs，其中 18 256 个 ESTs 和毒性有关，其保守区域和真菌中致病基因相似性较高^[103]。

3.1 核基因组及线粒体基因组

3.1.1 *P. infestans* 核基因组

致病疫霉核基因组和线粒体基因组序列利用二代测序在 2009 年已经完成，首个测序菌株 T30-4 为 A1 交配型，核基因组大小约 240 Mb，含 18 288 个 Contig，75% 以上为转座子区域和重复序列，(G+C)mol% 含量约为 52%，目前已经拼接到了 Scaffold 水平(GCA_000142945.1)；第 2 个测序菌株为 HP-10-31，交配型 A2，拼接到了 Contig 水平(GCA_001661535.1)，两个菌株平均基因组大小为 190 Mb，3/4 以上为重复序列^[104]。在目前已经报道的卵菌属中，*P. infestans* 基因组比其他大部分种要大得多，*Phytophthora sojae* 的基因组大小为 95 Mb，*Phytophthora xalni* 的基因组大小为 65 Mb，基因组最大的为 *Phytophthora cambivora*，大小 236 Mb (表 1)。值得注意的是，在基因组大小显著差异的情况下，有 3 个种注释的基因数相近，它们分别是 14 451 (*P. ramorum*)、16 988 (*P. sojae*) 和 17 797 (*P. infestans*)。在拼接过程中发现，*P. infestans* 基因组中大量的转座子元件增大了基因组，而且具有“可塑性”^[105]。因此，在和寄主互作过程中，效应子也在快速适应和变异。基因组的研究还发现，致病疫霉和疫霉属其他几个种都存在寄主跳跃现象(host jumps)，而寄主选择压力也是驱动疫霉属基因组进化的主要原因之一^[106]。

表 1 疫霉属各个种基因组组装及注释

Table 1 Genomic assembly and annotation among genus of *Phytophthora*

种 Species	平均基因组总长度 Median genomic total length (Mb)	平均(G+C)mol%含量 Median (G+C)mol% content (%)	登录号 Accession No.	平均蛋白质数目 Median protein count
<i>Phytophthora parasitica</i>	54.00	49.60	AGFV00000000.2	27 942
<i>Phytophthora kernoviae</i>	38.00	50.20	AUUF00000000.2	9 990
<i>Phytophthora lateralis</i>	49.00	53.30	AMZP00000000.2	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora infestans</i>	190.00	36.90	AATU00000000.1	17 797
<i>Phytophthora palmivora</i>	108.00	48.70	NCKW00000000.1	24 674
<i>Phytophthora capsici</i>	56.00	49.90	ADVJ00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora ramorum</i>	41.00	54.00	PUHL00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora nicotianae</i>	71.00	50.20	NIOD00000000.1	13 934
<i>Phytophthora sojae</i>	83.00	54.40	AAQY00000000.2	26 489
<i>Phytophthora litchii</i>	38.20	49.20	PCFV00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora colocasiae</i>	56.59	Unknown	NSDL00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora cactorum</i>	63.53	49.65	MJFZ00000000.1	24 172
<i>Phytophthora agathidicida</i>	37.29	52.60	LGTR00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora pluvialis</i>	53.18	54.20	LGTU00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora multivora</i>	40.20	51.90	LGSM00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora rubi</i>	76.92	53.15	JMRJ00000000.2	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora fragariae</i>	76.48	53.20	JHVZ00000000.4	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora pinifolia</i>	94.62	54.90	AWVV00000000.2	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora cryptogea</i>	63.84	51.90	AUWJ00000000.2	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora cambivora</i>	230.62	52.90	AUVH00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora cinnamomi</i>	58.38	53.60	LGSJ00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora plurivora</i>	40.44	51.70	NMPK00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora megakarya</i>	101.51	48.70	NBNE00000000.1	34 804
<i>Phytophthora x alni</i>	236.00	51.30	AUPN00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora taxon totara</i>	55.24	51.60	LGSN00000000.1	Unknown
<i>Phytophthora pisi</i>	58.86	54.60	CCEW00000000.1	Unknown

3.1.2 *P. infestans* 线粒体基因组

致病疫霉线粒体多数时候为母系遗传, 利用线粒体多态性可以追溯群体起源/迁移和演化特点, 2014 年 Martin 等利用线粒体多样性分析手段, 确定了 19 世纪在欧洲采集的致病疫霉线粒体单倍型为 HERB-1, 该群体在 19 世纪引起了著名的爱尔兰大饥荒^[107]。在线粒体基因组被测序前, *P. infestans* 线粒体的多态性主要是通过酶切完成的。Carter 等通过 RFLP 方法把线粒体分为 Ia、Ib、IIa 和 IIb 四种^[108]。Goodwin 通过 Southern blotting 把线粒体单倍型分为 A、B、C 和 D 四种^[109]。Koh 等在此基础上, 通过分析东亚的菌株又分出了 E 型和

F 型^[110]。2003 年 Wattier 等发现了致病疫霉线粒体 IGS 区的多态性可用于几个种的系统发育研究^[111]。致病疫霉线粒体基因组已在 2006 年完成测序, 平均大小为 38 Mb, 其中, Ia 单倍型为 37 922 bp (AY894835), IIa 为 39 870 bp (AY898627), Ib 为 37 957 bp (NC002387), IIb 为 39 840 bp (AY898628), 4 种类型的非编码区变异程度较高; 研究还发现, Ia 和 Ib 只有 14 个多态性位点, 但 IIa 和 IIb 线粒体基因组之间有 50 个多态性位点, 在 4 个测序的线粒体单倍型基因组 DNA 序列中, 多态性位点共有 81 个^[112]。Ia 和 IIa 有一个共同的祖先, 但在进化过程中分化为 2 个独立的分支^[112]。在线粒体的

演化过程中,选择压力让多样化消失,且让单一型逐渐占统治地位^[113]。2013年,Yang等利用基因组的高变区域HVRi和HVRii,通过设计PCR引物把线粒体单倍型重新划分为IR₁、IR₂、IR₃、IIR₂和IIR₃五种^[114]。

3.2 效应子克隆及其在基因组中的定位

致病疫霉侵染马铃薯的过程中,游动孢子萌发后形成侵染丝和吸器,分泌具有特殊结构域的蛋白到寄主细胞内,此类蛋白和寄主相关蛋白互作,以达到破坏寄主免疫系统的作用^[115]。*P. infestans* 分泌的这些蛋白称为效应物蛋白,也称作胞质效应蛋白,通常致病疫霉效应物蛋白具有RXLR-dEER结构域,因此称为RXLR效应物蛋白^[116]。目前已经被克隆的晚疫病菌无毒基因(avirulence gene, *Avr*)均属于RXLR类效应子基因,如*Avr1*^[117]、*Avr2*^[118]、*Avr3a*^[119]、*Avr3b*^[120]、*Avr4*^[121]、*Avrlbl1*^[122]及*Avrvnt1.1*^[123]等。当*Avr*蛋白被注入寄主细胞后,会抑制寄主PAMP(pathogen-associated molecular patterns, PAMPs)所激发的免疫反应。根据基因对基因学说,当寄主细胞内含有和*Avr*相对应的抗性基因(NBS-LRR)时,两个蛋白会产生互作,产生强烈过敏性反应(hypersensitive response)^[124]。致病疫霉参考基因组公布后,高通量搜寻RXLR结构域变得可行,563个RXLR效应物保守区域被定位于致病疫霉核基因组中^[104,125]。79个效应物在侵染番茄早期以及31个在侵染马铃薯早期显著表达的效应子被鉴定出来^[104,126]。2017年Yin等深度测序了5株致病疫霉在侵染阶段的游动孢子,发现245个RXLR结构域的基因在侵染阶段有表达,其中48个在侵染早期有显著性的上调表达^[127]。因此,通过深入分析*P. infestans*基因组特点,以及利用GWAS技术将有助于RXLR或其它类型效应子的高通量筛选。

4 展望

致病疫霉作为马铃薯重要病害病原,在与寄主的长期互作过程中不断进化,在自然环境适应中也不断受到选择压力而产生变异,在今后的研究中应

把握几个重要研究方向:(1)常年动态监测田间卵孢子,以真实评估田间有性生殖发生特点及病原菌群体变化趋势;(2)鉴于田间自育型菌株的增多,可利用自育型菌株做为亲本(相当于自交群体)诱导产生卵孢子后代,通过后代谱系的GWAS分析定位重要功能基因;(3)利用交配型分离群体基因组数据构建交配型决定位点精细遗传图谱,利用有性生殖发生时期的转录组数据和表达谱对交配型功能基因进行筛选,结合已开发的高效原生质体制备技术^[128],进行基因功能的验证和针对有性生殖发生的药物靶标开发;(4)虽然致病疫霉全基因组已经测序,但在基因组3/4的重复区域可挖掘的位置信息还很多,随着功能基因组研究的深入,以高质量组装的全基因组、转录组、蛋白质组和代谢组水平相结合的方法寻找新结构域的效应子和解析致病疫霉致病机制变得可能;(5)近年在田间发现了染色体三体的致病疫霉菌株,这些菌株具有毒性和抗药性强的特点,其具体发生机制和遗传特点需进一步解析,同时对有性生殖后代各世代群体进行染色体倍性检测,明确田间有性生殖发生和倍性多样化之间的联系;(6)线粒体比较基因组和遗传分析追溯群体间的迁徙和演化,进一步明确积年的病害流行要素;(7)开发适合于我国各马铃薯主产区的预测预报模型和早期快速检测手段,准确把握PLB的流行趋势和及时指导用药。

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